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Exploring the Role of Work–Family Conflict on Job and Life Satisfaction for Salaried and Self-Employed Males and Females: A Social Role Approach

Anthony Adepoju

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Exploring the Role of Work–Family Conflict on Job and Life Satisfaction for Salaried and Self-Employed Males and Females: A Social Role Approach

by

Anthony A. Adepoju

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

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ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation was prepared under the direction of the *ANTHONY A. ADEPOJU* Dissertation Committee. It has been approved and accepted by all members of that committee, and it has been accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration in the J. Mack Robinson College of Business of Georgia State University.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this degree to the Almighty God who has brought me thus far, and to the loving memory of my ever smiling and caring sister Abioye Adepoju, who I consider my second mom. She passed shortly before I commenced this program. I wish you were here to share this moment with me but I know that God knows best and I know you are keeping watch over me and wishing me the best life has to offer. I miss you and I will eternally love you.

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ABSTRACT

Exploring the Role of Work–Family Conflict on Job and Life Satisfaction for Salaried and Self-Employed Males and Females: A Social Role Approach

By

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Job satisfaction and life satisfaction have been two of the most researched social constructs for many decades. This study looks into the relationship that exists between job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and work–family conflict among salaried and self-employed male and female employees. It adds to existing literature by using Social Role Theory as a basis for explaining the variation in these relationships among males and females, and also makes the argument that gender is a propelling force in explaining the perceived conflict and its effect on life and job satisfaction. It also adds to existing literature by evaluating the above phenomenon among employed and self-employed males and females thereby bridging a significant gap in the literature on work-family conflict. The study makes use of data from the International Social Survey Program. Analyzing this data has led to a better understanding of the role of gender as a significant factor related to variations in work–family conflict. Also this paper reveals to us that the effect of work-family conflict is considerably lesser for self-employed individuals when

compared to their salaried counterparts for both men and women. Other Key findings include the changing role of women in the society and the effect of children in a working household on work-family conflict, job and life satisfaction.

INDEX WORDS: Job Satisfaction, Life Satisfaction, Work–Family Conflict, Employed and Self-Employed Males and Females

I CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

I.1 Problem Statement

Lewis (2001) said the most basic assumption of the traditional male model of work is the ability to separate domestic responsibilities and work-related activities, which has resulted in more significant value placed by employers on male workers and on women who do not have active family commitments. The traditional role of a woman in most societies is associated with the household and domestic affairs, while that of men is seen to be active in the domain of work (Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Keene & Quadagno, 2004).

One basic and problematic assumption of the traditional gender role model is that all women are ascribed with caregiving responsibilities and roles. Women who are very focused on their professional lives are less likely to marry and less likely to have any children, and when and if they do, they are very likely to have fewer children (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Another fundamentally problematic assumption of the traditional model is the conception that professional lives and domestic lives are incompatible and are necessarily in conflict (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

This traditional gender role model has led to significant disparity in how men and women are viewed by employers: past research has consistently found that men are typically seen as more energetic and competent, when women are seen as more expressive, family oriented, nurturing, caring and supportive (Diekman & Eagly, 2000). Women are typically known to fulfill their identity by doing domestic work; men fulfill theirs by actively pursuing paid labor (Minnotte, Minnotte, Pedersen, Mannon, & Kiger, 2010). The introduction of the Social Role perspective to research of how men and women are perceived by employers provides the opportunity not only to compare existing data about perceived gender differences in work–family

conflict and its effect on life and job satisfaction, but also to bring to light new directions for further research.

In life, there is a sincere drive in people to meet the demands objectively placed on them by the family, workplace and society—in other words, the demands of their social roles. In a situation where people are not able to meet these demands, it could lead to a significant reduction in a person's wellbeing, happiness, and also life satisfaction (Milkie & Peltola, 1999). There are significant negative consequences associated with not meeting the demands of one's social roles, including emotional exhaustion, poor job performance, and stress when one is not able to meet these demands (Milkie & Peltola, 1999).

Work–family conflict is defined as the stress created by different demands from work and family domains, where the stress from both work and family domains are incompatible in some regard (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). When there is a demand for an individual from both work and family domains at the same time, it ignites some sort of imbalance; this experience is called work–family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The demand from the work domain is usually measured by working hours, and this is generally the most consistent metric used in predicting work–family conflict (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006). Demand from the family domain is measured by the time devoted to family and the strain created by job interference (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996).

Job satisfaction is defined as a state of pleasure or positive status that results from one's job appraisal or job experience (Locke, 1976). It can also be expressed as the degree to which one likes one's job (Agho, Price, & Mueller, 1992). It is also considered to be an intrinsic feeling among men and women that impacts several aspects within a work environment. Empirical evidence suggests that people who are satisfied with their employment tend to stay in their jobs

and carry out their duties efficiently and effectively (Timmreck, 2001). On the other hand, low or reduced job satisfaction is associated with absenteeism, low self-esteem, high job turnover, and job burnout, as well as psychological strain (Brough, O'Driscoll, Kalliath, Cooper, & Poelmans, 2009; Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005; Goldberg & Waldman, 2000; Wright & Bonnet, 2007).

I.2 Economic and Socio-Political Relevance of the effect of Work–Family Conflict

Research shows an inversely proportional relationship between work–family conflict and the positive progress of a business both at individual and organizational levels (Warner & Hausdorf, 2009). Research has also shown that work–family conflict varies directly with individual's alcohol consumption and also issues with depression (Warner & Hausdorf, 2009; Ballout, 2008). Other studies have likewise shown that work–family conflict positively correlates with employee's non-commitment to work or duties, work dissatisfaction, increased attrition rate and performance reduction (Willis, O'Conner, & Smith, 2008; Kim, Leong, & Lee, 2005). Since most businesses are desirous of high productivity and performance and are also eager to recruit the best human resources, it is imperative to better understand the causes of work–family conflict, to learn how to identify and prevent this conflict, and also to make the interrelationship between work and family better for the sustained stability of both families and businesses. This will increase dedication to work, stability at work, and job performance, and reduce friction between family and work domains, which will lead to increased personal happiness, thus increasing life satisfaction.

I.3 Objectives of this Study

A great deal of research has been conducted on the impact of work–family conflict on both males and females. There is a current debate on which of type of employment offers less conflict with family: salaried or self-employed? Self-employed individuals are generally

assumed to have a better and higher level of job satisfaction as opposed to salaried or employed individuals (Lange, 2012; Kautonen & Palmroos, 2010; Prottas & Thompson, 2006; Thompson, Kopelman, & Schriesheim, 1992). Some researchers have examined the explanatory factors for this assertion. Economists seem to agree that the reason for a higher job satisfaction rate among self-employed individuals is based on procedural freedom and autonomy (Lange, 2012). According to Benz and Frey (2008), people derive procedural utility from self-employment due to the belief that self-employment offers a higher level of self determination and freedom compared to salaried workers, who have to take and obey instructions from managers and superiors.

According to a recent Pew research (2015) analysis of the data released by the United States Census Bureau, 30% of the total American self-employed workforce and the workers they hired accounted for 44 million jobs in 2014. The self-employed portion of this data accounts for 10% of the workforce, or 14.6 million out of 146 million workers. Statistics also show that there is an increased shift in momentum of the desire of people to own their own businesses. According to Hipple (2010), self-employment is a significant source of paid labor for a lot of individuals; one in nine workers in the United States were self-employed in 2009, which accounted for about 11% of workers in the United States, or 15.3 million people. For members of the European Union, self-employment accounted for 15.2% of the workforce, or 33 million people, in 2012 (Teichgraber, 2013). These high numbers show a genuine need for this study in no small measure.

This study will specifically focus on the effect of gender on work–family conflict, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the relationship between them when moderated by job status (self-employed males and females). The study will make use of the most recent available data

from the International Social Survey Program (ISSP), a survey that captures data on job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and various family, life, and work-related issues. The research will be looking at two different dependent variables, two different control variables, and various independent variables from the questions capturing data on family, life, and work-related issues. The goal will be to make significant contributions to the problem by answering the following research questions:

1. Is there a different relationship between work–family conflict and job satisfaction among men and women?
2. Is there a different relationship between work–family conflict and life satisfaction among men and women?
3. Do these relationships differ when controlling for whether a person is salaried or self-employed?
4. Does perception of the role of women and the division of household labor impact work–family conflict?

The style composition table that was developed by Mathiassen, Chiasson, and Germonprez (2012) will be adopted in framing this study. Table 1 below gives a summary of the proposed research design using the style composition table.

Table 1 Dissertation Structure (Mathiassen 2015)

Style Element	Description
P: Problem Setting:	Over the years employees and employers have tried to balance work and family needs due to the impact of work demands on family needs and family needs on work demand. This problem, when not properly handled, has led firms to lay off some of their best human resources or employees to resign or switch employers, thereby causing a negative impact on the organization and a burden on the family.
A: Area of Concern:	This paper specifically focuses on the effect of gender on work–family conflict, analyzing the conflict with a view to understanding the proportional variation of this conflict among salaried and self-employed males and females in the United States of America.
F: Framing:	Secondary data from the International Social Survey Program (ISSP) will be used. This is a survey that captures data on job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and various family, life, and work-related issues around the world. Social Role Theory will be used to frame the theoretical part of the research and explain the effect of gender on work–family conflict in the United States of America.
Method:	This is a quantitative research where data from the ISSP will be used to do a correlational analysis study. Almost all of the variables from the survey are categorical (either nominal or

	ordinal) and will require statistical methods appropriate for categorical data. To answer the research questions and test my hypotheses, I plan to do both bi-variate and multivariate analyses. Taking these comprehensive analyses approach increases my chances of producing significant findings.
Research Questions:	1. Is there a different relationship between work–family conflict and job satisfaction among men and women? 2. Is there a different relationship between work–family conflict and life satisfaction among men and women? 3. Do these relationships differ when controlling for whether a person is salaried or self-employed? 4. Does perception of the role of women and the division of household labor impact work–family conflict?
Contributions:	Contribution to the problem setting: Investigate the effects of work–family conflict on job and life satisfaction for both males and females. Contribution to the area of concern: Critically evaluate the effect of work–family conflict on job and life satisfaction for both genders and evaluate if these conflicts are more severe for self-employed or salaried individuals, thereby postulating if being self-employed reduces or increases work–family conflict. Contribution to framing: Use Social Role Theory to explain the perceived variation in work–family conflict by gender.

II CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND/LITERATURE REVIEW

Several studies have focused on work–family conflict as it relates to women (Bethge & Borngräber, 2015). It is becoming more evident in recent history that men also experience the same conflict, even though it might be to a different degree when compared to women (Keene & Quadagno, 2004). Previous research also shows role conflict to be inversely proportional to one's job satisfaction (Bagozzi, 1978). The idea that women are under more intense pressure than men because of the dual roles of housewife and income provider is not yet confirmed (Milkie & Peltola, 1999). Although women seem to be more prone towards work–family conflict, research indicates that female managers contribute immensely to problem solving and decision making in organizations because of their gender. As a result of this, organizations are constantly looking for female talent (Gupta, Koshal, & Koshal, 1998). On the other hand, some studies show that men in certain situations experience higher levels of work–family conflict than the female gender (Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Keene & Quadagno, 2004).

Societal stereotypes associate women specifically with caregiving roles in the home: a typical expression of this stereotype might be expressed as, "Because of childbearing and rearing responsibilities, women are not as devoted to their careers like their masculine counterparts (Mattis, 2002)". The roles considered to be relevant to caregiving are not rewarded in organizations and the labor market because they are considered not to be in consonance with work roles (Lewis, 2001). The implication of this is that women's careers may be negatively impacted because of the caregiving/nurturing stereotypes ascribed to them by society. In practice, women generally try to balance work and family roles, and while balancing these roles women usually tend to give more priority to responsibilities bordering around the family domain, thus spending more time on demands of the family and less on demands emanating from work

(Desai, 1996). Sometimes people ask for favors and actions based on stereotypes; people may typically ask a woman for help with issues that concern their troubled or emotional relationships because of the perceived softer nature of a woman, but ask a man for help in dealing with an obnoxious boss or employer. These types of stereotypical behaviors demonstrate assumptions that affect human behavior toward members of social groups (Yzerbyt & Demoulin, 2010). Although stereotypes of men and women could not be easily exchanged, these insights still do not explain the sources of these stereotypes' content.

Contrary to these assumptions, however, recent studies have shown that a lot of people are seen to have struck a balance between work and family that is satisfactory to them and ensures commitment to both work and family roles (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). As a result, it is contradictory to project the caregiving role onto all female workers and to further say that all women experience a higher degree of conflict between these two roles than men.

In fact, according to Byron's (2005) meta-analysis on work–family conflict, gender had a close to zero relationship to the conflict that plays out between work and family. Gender also had a very near to zero positive relationship to family interaction with work. Women showed a slightly higher family interference with work, even though there has been previous research that shows a strong relationship between these two constructs.

Regardless of how you view the problem, work–family conflict may have detrimental consequences for employers and employees regardless of employment status (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006). Getting involved in the dual roles of work and family has also been found to have some benefits like better mood, improved wellbeing, high morale and also enhanced skills; however, the detriments of the same involvement cannot be disregarded (Bhargava & Baral, 2009). In the review of existing literature on this body of knowledge I did not come up with any

paper that looked into the mediating effect of work status and the presence or absence of children on work family conflict for both men and women, This paper seeks to bridge that gap in the existing literature.

Over the years, researchers have measured work–family conflict in many ways. Initially, it was measured in a unidirectional way, which involved measuring the conflict that occurs when work is interfered with by family (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In recent times, researchers have begun to recognize the dual nature of work–family conflict by measuring both possible directions: the interference of work with family and also of family with work (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991).

Recent studies have begun to consider the different types of work–family conflict (Netemeyer et al., 1996) consistent with the definition of Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) above. Three forms of work–family conflict have been identified in the literature. These are:

(a) Behavior-based conflict happens when specific expected behaviors required in one's role are not compatible with the behavioral expectations of another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

(b) Time-based conflict occurs when the time allotted to one role makes it difficult to adequately participate in another role effectively (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

(c) Strain-based conflict occurs when the strain that is experienced in one role intrudes into the ability to effectively participate in another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Gutek et al. (1991) further argued that each of the three types of work–family conflict has two directions: (a) conflict that emanates from work interfering with family (WIF), and (b) conflict that occurs from family interfering with work (FIW).

When we combine these three forms of work–family conflict and the two directions (WIF

and FIW), we now have six dimensions of work–family conflict: (1) Behavior-based based WIF, (2) Behavior-based FIW, (3) Time-based WIF, (4) Time-based FIW, (5) Strain-based WIF, and (6) Strain-based FIW. These dimensions are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2 Directions of Work–Family Conflict (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000)

Behavioral-based work interference with family	Time-based family interference with work
Time-based work interference with Family	Strain-based interference with work
Strain-based work interference with family	Behavioral-based family interference with work

II.1 Work–Family Conflict Scale

In the body of knowledge, there is an agreement in terms of the directions and forms of work–family conflict. Studies show that there are a variety of scales used to measure work–family conflict. In 1996, Netemeyer et al. constructed and validated a 10-point scale to measure these constructs. This 10-point scale included items for both directions of work–family conflict (WIF and FIW). In 1996, Stephens & Sommer developed another scale that measures work–family conflict. This newer scale only takes into consideration one direction (WIF).

A final version of the work–family scale that takes into consideration all the dimensions of work–family conflict was developed. The questions contained in the scale are detailed below:

Time-based work interference with family:

1. My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.

2. The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.
3. I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.

Time-based family interference with work:

4. The time I spend on family responsibilities often interfere with my work responsibilities.
5. The time I spend with my family often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.
6. I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities.

Strain-based work interference with family

7. When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.
8. I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.
9. Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.

Strain-based family interference with work

10. Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work.
11. Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.
12. Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job.

Behavior-based work interference with family

13. The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.
14. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.
15. The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.

Behavior-based family interference with work

16. The behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.
17. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.
18. The problem-solving behavior that work for me at home does not seem to be as useful at work. (Carlson et al., 2000, p. 273–274)

II.2 Job Satisfaction

It is important to understand job satisfaction because the core asset of every business is its employees and its ability to retain the best talent. In today's business, companies are curious to know why their employees are satisfied or are not satisfied. Job satisfaction can provide a very rich picture of the desires and moods of employees. Therefore, employee job satisfaction can be used by management as a tool to motivating, rewarding and stimulating growth of the business (Malonis, 2000).

It is also important to understand the peculiar relationship between the constructs of job satisfaction and life satisfaction because both of them affect people's wellbeing, thus having an effect on work. Most people spend at least a third of the hours they are awake at work (Jernigan,

Beggs, & Kohut, 2002). Consequently, it should be no surprise that research findings suggest that a person's employment could be a key reason for determining their wellbeing and health; on the other hand, when a person is unemployed it could possible hurt their degree of life satisfaction (Lucas, Clark, Georgellis, & Diener, 2004).

Being employed or self-employed can have a positive implication on job and life satisfaction, which can be attributable to the income derived from the job as well as a sense of belonging and meaning which being employed brings in addition to social validation and psychological factors (Coad & Binder, 2014). Job and life satisfaction can be said to be dependent on a variety of factors that are interwoven and are likely to interact with one another.

Job satisfaction can be said to influence performance, productivity, recruitment, absenteeism, retention, and organizational commitment (Lu, While, & Barriball, 2007; Utriainen & Kyngäs, 2009). Alternatively, job dissatisfaction can be expressed in several different ways that depend on the situation: absenteeism from work, quitting one's job, and specific on-the-job behaviors (Lu, While, & Barriball, 2005; Zangaro & Soeken, 2007). In addition to these effects, Hayes, Bonner, and Pryor (2010) and Manojlovich and Laschinger (2002) stated that job satisfaction should be considered in terms of the interrelationship of several variables. These variables are the subjective and objective characteristics of one's job, one's individual abilities and experiences. All these factors can be said to influence one's job satisfaction, productivity and performance.

Researchers have reported that work–family conflict affects job satisfaction, family satisfaction and wellbeing negatively (Beutell, 2010). The literature also suggests that if a person's job is considered to be the origin of this interference, then the employed person could develop a less than satisfactory or a completely negative attitude towards his or her job, and this

negative attitude will result in lower job satisfaction (Beutell, 2010). On the other hand, when a person's work role is a significant part of one's identity, the perception that family could sometimes be in conflict with work may ignite a negative or less than satisfactory attitude toward family. This is a result of the family being considered the main source of the interference, which can reduce job and life satisfaction (Beutell, 2010).

Research has consistently shown that the interaction between job satisfaction and employment status varies. For self-employed people, job satisfaction can be said to be a calculation of the entrepreneurial rewards and a reason for continued investment in the ongoing business (Hytti, Kautonen, & Akola, 2013). A higher level of job satisfaction for self-employed individuals also ensures the longevity of the enterprise and the sustenance of other positive externalities like continued job creation and employment maintenance. It is equally significant to compare the factors influencing job satisfaction for salaried and self-employed individuals. Previous studies that have compared the levels of job satisfaction between self-employed people and salaried individuals have consistently shown a higher level of satisfaction with their jobs among self-employed people; this comparison provides an opportunity for institutions to better understand what contributes to a higher level of job satisfaction for self-employed people in order to equally enhance the level of job satisfaction for salaried individuals (Hundley, 2001; Benz & Frey, 2004; Andersson, 2008). Some of the reasons attributed to the higher level of job satisfaction for self-employed individuals are "the ability to do what you enjoy doing," which ensures a higher level of utility that transcends the accumulation of wealth or other material outcomes (Benz & Frey, 2008). Autonomy and the ability to make a choice on the type of work are added benefits of self-employment, which further enhances the level of satisfaction. Researchers in this field of study have also looked at the relationship that exist in the level of

satisfaction with one's job when controlling for autonomy and the choice of work by giving salaried individuals the same level of autonomy and choice of work. The findings suggest that the choice of the type of work is less important in being able to understand job satisfaction than the type or nature of job to be done (Prottas & Thompson, 2006).

In understanding the level of autonomy and choice of work, researchers have previously looked into the difference between employees and self-employed people, especially business owners. Self-employed people have a large number of organizational matters to handle and oversee; some of these responsibilities are payroll management, negotiating with customers and suppliers, hiring, firing, etc. (Prottas & Thompson, 2006). On the other hand, some senior-level salaried employees also have these responsibilities, though most salaried employees do not have them. Due to the large number responsibilities of self-employed people, they tend to work longer hours when compared to salaried employees (Prottas & Thompson, 2006). This is likely due to having a greater stake in the business and a higher need for personal maintenance of the business (Thompson, et al., 1992). Rahim's (1996) research showed that business owners showed a higher level of stressors than managers in an organization, such as role overload . An interesting finding from previous research is the determination of a higher level of pressure for self-employed individuals because they naturally feel pressured to work harder than others, especially given the high rate of failure of small business, and yet they have a higher level of satisfaction with their jobs regardless of the pressure (Prottas & Thompson, 2006).

II.3 Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction is a subjective component of one's wellbeing that is comprised of a cognitive appraisal of one's life as a whole. According to Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin (1985), life satisfaction is about taking into consideration one's own value system when making

a judgment on the other various elements of life as a whole. Evidence suggests that there are emotional, social, and physical aspects of life satisfaction, and that these aspects are interdependent (Cloninger & Zohar, 2011). Based on past research, life satisfaction is affected by other variables such as culture, marriage, health condition, socio-demographic environment, personal life, religion, and social support facilities (Diener, 2000).

Recent studies on life satisfaction have shown that life satisfaction is closely related to the quality of life. The overall quality of one's life is a multi-dimensional construct, which cannot be unambiguously defined (Diener & Suh, 1997). The reason for this is because it is interwoven with other concepts of welfare that hover around social quality of life, human development, and one's level of living (Tiran, 2016). The quality of one's life includes both objective and subjective factors that can be said the be the extent to which an individual's basic objective needs are met with respect to personal or group perceptions of one's subjective wellbeing.

A higher level of life satisfaction can be attributable to a higher level of job satisfaction, which can be explained by a bottom-up approach of an individual's wellbeing where an individual's job satisfaction is a reason for a person's overall satisfaction with life and somewhat positive effects on one's salary or income (Graham, Eggers, & Sukhtankar, 2004). This can be explained by saying people who with a high level of job satisfaction are usually more productive in their organizations and are capable of even earning higher wages through performance promotions (Graham et al., 2004). A high level of job satisfaction has a positive effect on life satisfaction.

The productivity-improving effect of job satisfaction is not limited to wages, but also extends beyond one's workplace benefits. A higher level of job satisfaction has an inversely

proportional effect on health problems and things to worry about (Graham et al., 2004). This means having a satisfying job has a positive effect on one's physical and mental health. The causal implication of health problems in a place of work is limited to an increase in a person's worries and decreasing level of life satisfaction. Most literature suggests that bad health negatively impacts a person's subjective wellbeing (Graham et al., 2004).

Further review of recent literature show some agreement between the important components of "the good life" such as a successful relationship and good health. People are likely to allot different weight to these components (Diener et al., 1985). Most individuals have a very different standard for success in each of these areas of their lives, so it is extremely important to critically review an individual's global judgment of one's life instead of reviewing one's satisfaction with only one domain (Diener et al., 1985). The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) components are global and not specific in nature; this allows people to weigh domains of their lives instead on what their values are in making that judgment on their satisfaction with life. The satisfaction with life scale was developed to compare and access a person's global judgment of life satisfaction, which essentially is a comparison of one's circumstances in life to one's preconceived or expected standard. Therefore, life satisfaction can be said to be a judgmental process where people evaluate the quality of their lives based on their own exclusive set of rules or criteria (Shin & Johnson, 1978). There is a presumption of a comparison of one's perceived circumstances and a self-imposed standard or set of standards. The more closely one's life circumstances match these set standards, the higher the level of life satisfaction, which means life satisfaction is a conscious cognitive individual judgment of one's life where the individual sets the criteria for judgment.

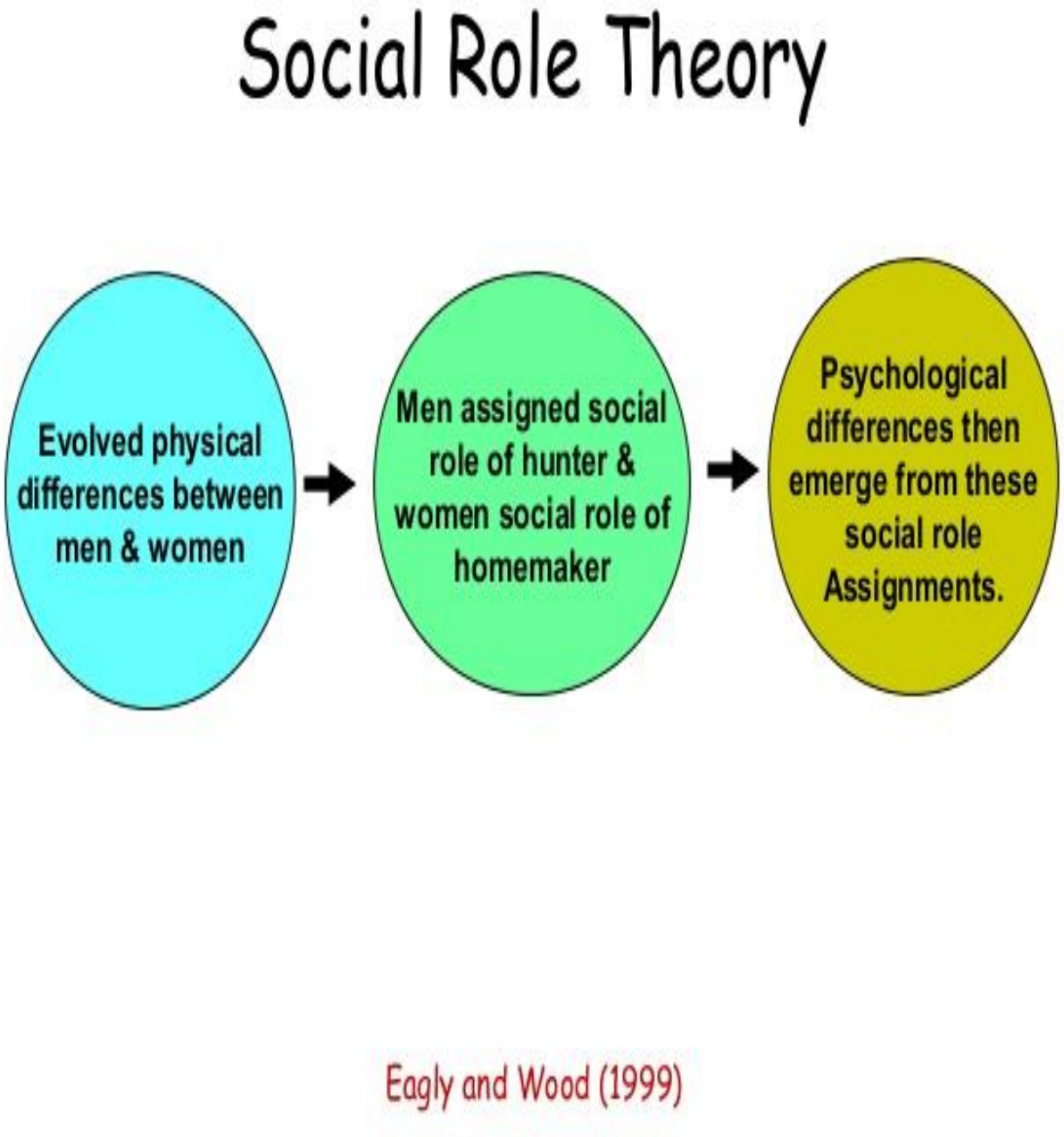
II.4 Social Role Theory

Social Role Theory is a theory in sociology and social psychology that states that everyone in a society has a given and defined role depending on whatever socially predetermined category we are categorized as (e.g., manager, father, mother, teacher). Social roles are a set of rights, duties, expectations, norms and behaviors that a person has to conform to in society. Social Role Theory is based on the principle that men and women are expected to behave distinctively differently in social interactions and assume different roles, due to the norms and expectations that society has put on them. This includes but is not limited to taking care of the home and the children or handling positions of authority at work.

This theory helps to define the interplay between work roles and family roles/demands, which may affect job and life satisfaction for men and women who are salaried or self-employed. Social Role Theory will be used as a medium to frame the explanation of this phenomenon and answer the research question.

Social Role Theory, which explains how society stereotypes the male and female genders (Eagly & Wood, 2012), provides a framework for the study by detailing how the division of labor leads to specific gender role beliefs, which translates to assumptions about gender-specific roles, duties or attributes. Because of these gender-specific roles, there are expectations of behavior by society, and the feminine gender role and work roles are sometimes perceived as incongruent. The incongruity of roles leads to a significant reduction in job and life satisfaction. Building on the Social Role Theory, the research will be looking into the interaction between some sociocultural variables, which may increase our knowledge and provide an explanation about how men and women vary when it comes job and life satisfaction based on work–family conflict and job status.

Figure 1 Social Role Theory (Eagly and wood 1999)



As explained in Figure 1 above, one of the aspects of Social Role Theory is that society has created a division of labor, which in turn creates different gender roles. Based on belonging to the social category of man or woman, people will have to deal with broad expectations about their behavior. Another important aspect is that of the division of labor by gender; both men and women tend towards occupying different specific roles with regards to occupation and family. These specific roles are created based on differing gender roles, which are impacted by cultural and economic factors that interact and affect a woman's ability to reach senior leadership positions

Some of the issues with Social Role Theory are:

1) The Incongruity of Roles: This is important because it delineates specific boundaries between men's and women's roles and capabilities. This is brought about as a result of the traditional gender role beliefs, which increase the effect of incongruity and also cause negative emotions for a woman who is considering having a job as well as taking care of the home.

2) Social Role Theory also states that beliefs about gender are produced by human observations of men and women. Same-sex role models are influential on the desirability of professional and career options (Lockwood & Kunda, 1997; Wiese & Freund, 2011). As a result of women having fewer same-sex role models than men, roles and motivation are incongruous.

3) Societal Beliefs: By examining the societal belief that traditional gender role beliefs discourage women from taking up paid employment positions, the environmental awareness of gender inequality could reduce or even eliminate this effect, because women could question the incongruity between their societal gender role and work.

Social Role Theory contains an explanation for the differential impact of work–family conflict on life and job satisfaction for men and women: society has created a gender specific

division of labor, which in turn creates different gender roles. Based on belonging to the social category of man or woman, people have to deal with broad expectations about their disposition and abilities. Another important aspect is that of the division of labor by gender; both men and women tend towards occupying different specific roles with regards to occupational and family roles. These specific roles are created based on diffuse gender roles, which are impacted by work and family life or orientation. When applied to the topics of gender, life satisfaction, and work–family conflict, Social Role Theory suggests the following research questions:

1. Is there a different relationship between work–family conflict and job satisfaction among men and women?
2. Is there a different relationship between work–family conflict and life satisfaction among men and women?
3. Do these relationships differ when controlling for whether a person is salaried or self-employed?
4. Is there a different relationship between the perception of the role of women, the division of household labor and work–family conflict?

II.5 Hypotheses

The research questions led to the following hypotheses:

H_1. There is a significant relationship between work–family conflict and job satisfaction.

H_2. Gender moderates the relationship between work–family conflict and job satisfaction.

H_3. Work status (salaried vs. self-employed) moderates the relationship between work–family conflict and job satisfaction.

H_4. There is a significant relationship between work–family conflict and life satisfaction.

H_5. Gender moderates the relationship between work–family conflict and life satisfaction.

H_6. Work status (salaried vs. self-employed) moderates the relationship between work–family conflict and life satisfaction.

H_7. The attitude towards the role of women impacts work–family conflict.

H_8. The division of household labor impacts work–family conflict.

Figure 2 shows the conceptual model for the research. It theorizes that the survey is measuring aspects of three underlying constructs: 1) Work–Family construct; 2) Attitude Towards the Role of Women construct; and 3) Division of Household Labor construct (see Table 3 for the proposed components of each proposed construct.) Attitude towards the role of Women and division of household labor constructs are considered antecedents of the work–family construct. The work–family construct is considered the independent variable that impacts the two dependent variables. The figure also presents gender and job status as moderator variables. The primary objective is to determine the relationship between the work–family construct and each dependent variable and the moderating effect of gender and job status (separately). We will also verify if the attitude towards the role of women and division of household labor constructs are antecedents of the work–family construct.

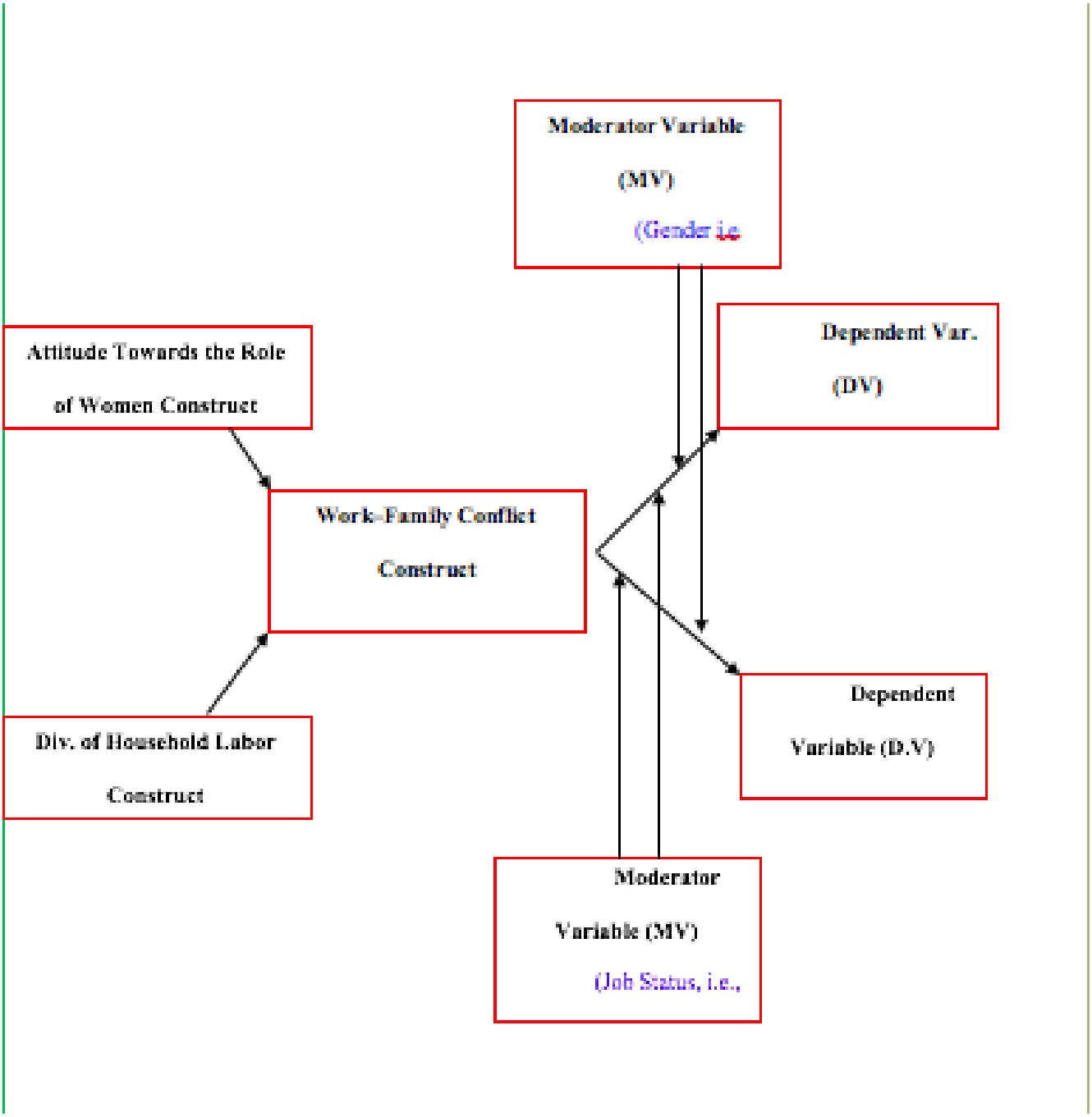


Figure 2 Conceptual Research Model

III CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODS

In this section, the data, data preparation methods and the statistical methods used are described.

III.1 Data

Secondary survey data was used to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses. The source of the data is the Family and Changing Gender Roles survey for 2012 conducted by the International Social Survey Program (ISSP). The ISSP is a continuing annual program that cuts across six continents. It is a cross-national collaboration on surveys that cover several contemporary topics considered relevant and highly significant for business practitioners and social science research.

III.2 Background on ISSP

The ISSP was founded by four collaborating countries, namely, the United States of America, Germany, Great Britain, and Australia. It now includes 53 member countries and, in addition, some countries have fielded all or parts of ISSP studies without joining, including Albania, Bosnia, East Timor, Indonesia, Kenya, Kosovo, Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia, Singapore, Sri Lanka, and Tanzania.

The yearly area of study for ISSP is usually developed over several years by a sub-committee and pre-tested in various countries. The yearly plenary union of ISSP then adopts the final questionnaire that is used. The ISSP researchers always focus on developing questions that are:

1. significantly meaningful and equally relevant to all countries; and,
   expressed in an equal manner in all relevant languages.

The questionnaires are drafted in English first, and then translated to other languages using a highly-standardized back translation procedure.

The ISSP has created significant new departures in the domain of cross-national research. First, the collaboration among organizations is not special or intermittent, but continual and routinely carried out. Secondly, the ISSP conducts research that borders several interesting topics and makes cross-national research an integral part of the national research agenda of each country that participates. Third, the combination of cross-time with cross-national perspectives is an extremely powerful research design that is being used to study societal and business processes.

Publications based on the ISSP data are listed in a bibliography that is readily available from the Publications page of the website ISSP.org. At the time of writing this paper, there are about 5,700 publications from this data in several journals and conferences around the world.

The uniqueness the ISSP brings to the world of research is its ability to bring together pre-existing social science projects and coordinate research across nations, thereby adding a cross-cultural perspective to the individual national studies. Also important is its ability to host historical data on its servers for researchers interested in doing a cross-examination of trends over a period of time and across nations and continents. ISSP researchers especially concentrate on developing questions in different languages that are significant and relevant to all countries.

III.3 Ensuring Data Reliability

Given the source and use of the primary data, I am confident the ISSP data is both reliable and valid. Reliability relates to consistency, or getting the same results on repeated trials. There are two methods used to estimate the reliability of survey data: 1) the test-retest method that requires the same measures at two points in time, and 2) the internal consistency method. I looked into the possibility of doing the test-retest method, as another survey was conducted in 2002 with similar questions asked. To try to simulate a test-retest approach, I did my primary

analysis on the 2012 data, and then repeated the same analysis on the 2002 for consistency and reliability. The concern with this approach is that if the time lag between surveys is too great, then any differences might be basic sample and non-sample variation or changes in attitudes and not related to reliability.

The internal consistency method focuses on 1) measuring several indicators of an event, and 2) evaluating the consistency or homogeneity between them. If a researcher measures various aspects of an underlying construct (which may not be measurable), then they would expect consistency in the aspects because of the influence of the underlying construct. The underlying construct is called a "latent" variable. Three potential constructs are shown in Figure 2. The greater the influence of the "latent" variable on the individual aspects, the greater the internal consistency of the individual aspects. Factor analysis was used to create a composite variable (factor) for each underlying construct identified in Figure 2 and also reflected in Table 3.

After completing factor analysis, the reliability of the survey questions was assessed by making up each factor (or scale) with an internal consistency measure called Cronbach's alpha (α). It is based on the idea that items comprising a scale should have high inter-correlations. Higher correlations translate to a higher alpha, which varies from 0 to 1. The best way to interpret alpha is that it is the correlation between the current scale and many possible alternative scales that could be made from the universe of all possible questions about the underlying construct.

$$\alpha = [(\#\text{ of items}) \times (\text{avg. corr. among items})] / [1 + (\text{avg. corr. among items}) \times ((\#\text{ of items} - 1)]$$

If the average correlation is held constant, then α increases as the number of survey items

making up the scale increases; i.e., all things being equal, a scale with more items should have higher reliability. Rules of thumb for acceptable reliability are:

For scales of 5 or less items, α should be >= 0.70.

For scales of 6 or more items, α should be >= 0.80

The following steps were completed to verify the reliability, consistency, and validity of the US data:

- Redoing the analysis for the most recent prior year to see if prior-year results confirmed the results for 2012, which increased confidence in data reliability.
- A thorough missing value analysis was done by replacing, when possible, missing values with the mean or median of non-missing values, or by allocating cases with missing values on a variable in the same manner as cases with valid values to retain cases for sample size purposes without impacting data distributions.
- Deleting variables with extensive missing values and also using transformations to make data more normal if appropriate.
- All univariate outliers were reviewed and replaced with an appropriate value, e.g., the mean ± 3 standard deviations.
- For scale independent variables, multivariate outlier analysis was completed using Mahalanobis distance, and when appropriate, logistic regression analysis was completed with and without outliers to determine impact.

III.4 Ensuring Data Validity

- In ensuring the validity of the data, all valid observations were used in order to give us enough power to support statistical conclusion validity.
- Weighted data was used to support the external validity and to support generalizing conclusions, after obtaining the appropriate ISSP-provided sampling weight variable.
- A very extensive and systematic data preparation approach was used in dealing with missing values and outliers so as to support the internal validity needed to answer the research question.

Conducting valid data preparation and having data reliability at the data source confirmed that statistical indices measured what they were intended to measure and support content validity.

III.5 Variables

Table 3 summarizes the primary variables used in my analysis. The table identifies three potential underlying constructs measured by the survey questions. Verification of their existence was done using factor analysis.

Table 3 Variables and Level of Measurement

Variable	Type
How satisfied are you with your main job?1	Dependent Variable 1
How satisfied are you with your family life?1	Dependent Variable 2
Gender	Moderator Variable 1
Job Status (Salaried or Self-Employed)	Moderator Variable 2
Work–Family Construct (Measured by the level of agreement on a 7-point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree with the following statements) • How often have you come home from work too tired to do necessary chores at home? • How often has it been too difficult for you to fulfill family responsibilities because of the time spent on your job? • How often have you arrived at work too tired to function well because of household (H/H) you had done? • How often have you found it difficult to concentrate at work because of family responsibilities?	Independent Variables
Attitude towards the role of women Construct (Measured by the level of agreement on a 7-point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree with the following statements) Do you agree: - • A working mother can establish just as warm & secure a relationship with children as a mother who does not work? • A preschool child is likely to suffer if the mother works? • Family life suffers when the woman has a full-time job? • A job is alright, but what most women want is a home and children? • Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay? • Both man & woman should contribute to H/H income? • A man's job is to earn money; a woman's job is to look after the home and family? Do you think that women should work outside the home full-time, part-time or not at all under the following? • When there is a child under school age? • After the youngest child starts school?	Antecedent Variables
Division of Household Labor Construct (Measured by the level of agreement on a 7-point scale ranging from Always me to can't choose with the following statements) • How often do you and your spouse/partner organize the income that one or both of you receive? In your household who does the following:	Antecedent Variables

[1] This question is measured on a 1 to 7 Likert scale. To the extent possible, the multi-item scale will be retained in my analysis, but some categories may need to be collapsed due to small sample sizes (similarly for the independent variables).

• Laundry? • Repairs? • Cares for sick family members? • Shops? • Household cleaning? • Cooking? Which best applies to the sharing of H/H work?	

Although the ISSP survey is a worldwide survey, I restricted my analysis to the United States. The unweighted number of cases in the analysis was 1,302 (i.e., the sample size = 1,302). Since the survey was not a simple random sample, it contained a sampling weight to use in a weighted analysis to get representative results. The analysis was done using IBM SPSS Statistics software, which provided the option to do a weighted analysis.

III.6 Method of Analysis

The data from the ISSP survey research design was used to do a correlational analysis study. Almost all the variables from the survey were either nominal or ordinal and required statistical methods appropriate for categorical data. The exception was the underlying constructs (from factor analysis), which were scale variables. To answer my research questions and test my hypotheses, I did both bi-variate and multivariate analyses. When conducting any significance test, I did a two-sided test. Since this was true research and not verification of prior research, I was not confident enough in what the data would show to propose directional (one-sided) tests. I am confident that taking these comprehensive analyses approach increased my chances of producing significant findings.

III.6.1 *Bivariate analysis methods.*

Chi-square tests of independence were completed, with cross tabulations and measures of associations (Cramer's V and gamma) between the dependent variables and each of the source independent variables identified in Table 3. In addition, a column proportions test with a Bonferroni adjustment was used to see where group differences exist when an overall significant chi-square result was found. I used the chi-square analysis to indicate which independent variables (IVs) had a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variables (DVs), how strong that relationship was, and where differences existed. When doing the chi-square

analysis, I controlled for gender and job status (as described above). With the chi-square bivariate analysis, without control variables, when the DV was job satisfaction, I was able to answer Research Question (RQ) #1 and test hypotheses H_1 for each IV. When the DV was life satisfaction, I was able to answer RQ #2 and test hypotheses H_4 for each IV. The results of this bi-variate analysis provided a good indication of what would be good independent variables to pursue with multivariate analysis. As mentioned previously, the multi-item rating scale for both the dependent and independent variables was retained to increase the likelihood of finding the different dimensions of work–family conflict. However, small sample sizes in some of the rating categories required collapsing categories to get valid results.

More specifically, when controlling for gender (as a layer variable in the chi-square analysis), I was able to answer RQ #3 and test hypotheses H_2 and H_5 for each IV, for DV job satisfaction and DV life satisfaction, respectively. When controlling for salaried versus self-employed job status, I was able to answer RQ #3 and test hypotheses H_3 and H_6 for each IV, for DV job satisfaction and DV life satisfaction, respectively.

In general, when a chi-square (χ^2) test of independence was completed, The attained results are the following:

H_0: No relationship between the row variable (DV) and the column variable (IV); i.e., the variables are independent.

H_1: There is a relationship between the row variable (DV) and the column variable (IV); i.e., the variables are not independent.

The formula for chi-square is:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \sum (Oij – Eij)2 / Eij$$

Where Oij = the observed frequency for the i-th row and the j-th column and Eij = the expected frequency for the i-th row and the j-th column ("i" iterates from 1 to the "R" or number of rows and ("j" iterates from 1 to the "C" or number of columns).

I reject H_0 if χ^2 is greater (or less) than the critical χ^2 value for the alpha level ($\alpha = .05$) and degrees of freedom (d.f.) = (R-1)(C-1), for a two-sided test.

In addition, a column proportions test was done to determine where differences exist when the overall chi-square test is significant. For a given row (or DV category), the column proportions test does a pairwise comparison for each pair of IV categories to see where differences exist within the row category.

In general, for the column proportions test:

H_0: There is no significant difference between columns J and K within row I.

H_1: There is a significant difference between columns J and K within row I.

The formula for the column proportions test is:

$$Z = (\hat{p}_{ij} - \hat{p}_{ik}) / \sqrt{[\hat{p}_{ijk} (1 - \hat{p}_{ijk}) (1/c_j + 1/c_k)]}$$

Where: $\hat{p}_{ij}$ and $\hat{p}_{ik}$ = estimated column proportion for cell (i,j) and cell (i,k), respectively, within the i-th row; $\hat{p}_{ijk}$ = estimate of pooled column proportion of j and kth column in i-th row; c_j and c_k = observed counts in columns j and k, respectively, within the i-th row.

I reject H_0 if Z is greater (or less) than the critical Z-value for the alpha level ($\alpha = .05$), for a 2-sided test.

Another type of bivariate analysis that was done was looking at the relationship between the Attitude Towards the Role of Women antecedent construct and the work–family construct and also between the Division of Household Labor antecedent construct and the work–family construct. This was done after the factor analysis (as explained in the next section) produced

these constructs. Since all 3 constructs were scale-measured, the appropriate measure used was the Pearson correlation coefficient, or R. This measured the direction and strength of the relationship between the constructs and helped answer H_7 and H_8, with the null hypothesis being R = 0. The formula for chi-square is:

$$r = 1/(n-1) \sum [((X_i -)/S_x) ((Y_i -)/S_y)]$$

Where: X_i = the observed antecedent construct value for the i-th case, $\bar{x}$ is the average antecedent value, and S_x is the standard deviation of the antecedent values; and, Y_i = the observed dependent variable construct value for the i-th case, $\bar{y}$ is the average dependent variable value, and S_y is the standard deviation of the dependent variable values ("i" iterates from 1 to the "n" or number of cases). For each antecedent construct, "r" will be produced.

III.6.2 *Multivariate analysis methods.*

After doing the bivariate analysis, I did other, more complex multivariate analysis. This included using factor analysis to produce the proposed underlying constructs and various hierarchical multinomial logistic regressions (MLR) to quantify the relationship between the work–family construct and each of the two dependent variables (DV), with and without moderation by gender and job status.

Principal components analysis (a common factor analysis method) was used to produce a factor (or component) for each of the three constructs identified in Table 3, using the source variables for each construct. The factor analysis was followed by a reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha to ensure each factor was reliable (as described previously).

Before getting to the main focus of determining the relationship between the work–family construct and my dependent variables, I verified and quantified the relationship between the antecedent constructs (Attitude towards the Role of Women and Division of Household Labor)

and the work–family construct. Since all three constructs were scale-measured, I did a multiple linear regression analysis to examine the multivariate effect of the antecedent constructs on the work–family Conflict (the DV) construct. The regression coefficient if significant for Attitudes Towards the Role of Women, answered H_7. The regression coefficient if significant for Division of Household Labor, answered H_8. In both cases, the null hypothesis was that the regression coefficient = 0. Establishing this relationship helped in providing insights into what issues influence the work–family construct which ultimately influences job and life satisfaction.

The formula for multiple regression analysis is:

$$\hat{Y}_i = b_0 + b_1X_{i1} + b_2X_{i2}$$

Where: $\hat{Y}_i$ = the predicted work–family construct value for the i-th case; X_{i1} = the observed value for antecedent construct 1 for the i-th case and b_1 is regression estimate for antecedent construct 1 (reflecting the change in $\hat{Y}_i$ given a 1-unit change in antecedent construct 1); X_{i2} = the observed value for antecedent construct 2 for the i-th case and b_2 is regression estimate for antecedent construct 2 (reflecting the change in $\hat{Y}_i$ given a 1-unit change in antecedent construct 2); and b_0 is the y-intercept or constant reflecting the value of $\hat{Y}_i$ when both antecedent constructs are 0.

The next tasks were to quantify the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction (DV1) and between the work–family construct and family life satisfaction (DV2), with and without moderation by gender and job status. The multinomial logistic regression (MLR) method was appropriate because the dependent variable was categorical, with three or more categories; here, with either dependent variable, the final number of categories will be determined by having a reasonable number of cases in each category; the MLR categories may be “completely satisfied,” “very satisfied,” “fairly satisfied,” and “all other.” The

hierarchical method allowed me to enter the independent variables in blocks (one or more variables) to determine the relationship of the variables in each block when controlling for variables in the preceding blocks. First, I did an MLR with just the work–family construct as the IV. Then, I reran the MLR and controlled for gender in Block 1, controlled for whether the person was salaried or self-employed in Block 2, and then put in work–family construct in Block 3 (or different independent variables in different subsequent blocks). Then, I reversed Blocks 1 and 2 to see if the entry order of the control variables had any impact. Ultimately, after controlling for gender and job status, I was able to determine if the work–family construct has a significant impact on the dependent variables and whether the impact is negative or positive. I also did a factorial model to look at the significance of interactions between the moderating variables (gender and job status) and the work–family construct. From the various logistic regression models, I was able to determine which of the alternative hypotheses are true.

In general, multinomial logistic regression determines which independent variables (IVs) significantly impact the odds of being in the target DV category as opposed to being in the DV reference category. When doing the regression:

H_0: All IV regression coefficients are 0.

H_1: At least one IV regression coefficient is significantly different from 0.

In logistic regression with two DV groups, or categories, the model is expressed in terms of the natural log of the odds (logit) of an event (i.e., the target group) occurring:

$$\text{Ln (Odds)} = A + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + \ldots + B_kX_k.$$

The regression coefficients (B_i) are estimated using a maximum-likelihood estimation technique. Our interest is in predicting the probability of an event, so the key equation becomes:

$$\text{Prob (Event)} = P\,(\text{Event}) = 1 / [1 + e^{-(A + B1X1 + B2X2 + \ldots + BkXk)}]$$

For significant coefficients, the odds ratio indicates the impact the IV category has on the odds of the target event (discussed more below).

With multinomial logistic regression, there are more than two groups, so we have to estimate regression coefficients for additional equations: one equation for each DV category, with the exception of the reference category. For a DV with "k" categories and "i" variables., we have to estimate regression parameters for "k-1" equations. Then, we are interested in classifying a case into one of "k" groups, so we have to calculate "k-1" odds ratios (or Odds). With "k" groups and Group "k" as the reference or baseline category, then the odds ratios (call them "G"), or the odds of the category of interest, are:

$$G(1) = P[G(1)] / \text{Prob. } [G(k)] = e^{\text{Ln}(\pi(1)/\pi(k))} = e^{(A1 + B11X1 + B12X2 + \ldots + B1iXi)}$$

$$G(2) = P[G(2)] / P[G(k)] = e^{\text{Ln}(\pi(2)/\pi(k))} = e^{(A2 + B21X1 + B22X2 + \ldots + B2iXi)}$$

$$G(k-1) = P[G(k-1)] / P[G(k)] = e^{\text{Ln}(\pi(k-1)/\pi(k))} = e^{(Ak-1 + Bk-11X1 + \ldots + Bk-1iXi)}$$

$$G(k) = P[G(k)] / P[G(k)] = e^{\text{Ln}(\pi(k)/\pi(k))} = 1$$

Then, the probability (call it π) of being in each DV category is:

$$\pi(1) = G(1) / [G(1) + G(2) + \ldots + G(k-1) + 1]$$

$$\pi(2) = G(2) / [G(1) + G(2) + \ldots + G(k-1) + 1]$$

$$\pi(k-1) = G(k-1) / [G(1) + G(2) + \ldots + G(k-1) + 1]$$

$$\pi(k) = 1 / [G(1) + G(2) + \ldots + G(k-1) + 1]$$

Ultimately, we end up with the statistic of interest, which is the exponentiation of the regression parameter, or e^{Bi}, also called Exp (B_{ik})---one for each IV ("i") in the model for DV category "k". For a given DV category of interest "k", Exp (B_{ik}) reflects the increase (Exp ($B_{ik} > 1$)) or decrease (Exp ($B_{ik} < 1$)) in the odds of being in category "k" as opposed to the reference DV category, given a 1-unit increase in IV "i".

When doing multivariate analysis, multicollinearity is generally a concern. In this analysis, we only had one scale variable, so I did not have multicollinearity concerns. However, if the factor analysis had indicated the underlying constructs did not exist, then I planned to redo the logistic regression using the source variables for the proposed constructs as independent variables at that. I would have been concerned about multicollinearity and would have tested for it with collinearity diagnostics like standardized beta values, tolerance values, and variance inflation factors. If multicollinearity appeared, then I would have dropped one or more of the highly-correlated variables but that was not necessary.

Again, I believe taking this comprehensive bivariate and multivariate analyses approach increased my chances of discovering any significant research findings. Also, as indicated previously, running the same analysis for a decade prior (2002) allowed me to assess if data relationships changed during the 10-year period. Lastly, depending on findings from main data analysis plan, I decided I may also look at: 1) the impact of presence/absence of children as a moderator alone and as an interaction with gender; and, 2) all three constructs as IVs.

IV CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS REPORT

IV.1 Introduction

The focus of this research was to determine if job satisfaction and life satisfaction are impacted by the work–family construct, which is made up of issues related to work and its impact on home, household, and family responsibilities. Furthermore, is this relationship moderated by gender and job status? Lastly, is there a relationship between the work–family construct and the role of women and division of labor constructs?

IV.2 Research Questions

In studying these relationships, I hoped to answer these research questions:

1. Is there a different relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction among men and women?
2. Is there a different relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction among men and women?
3. Do these relationships differ when controlling for whether a person is salaried or self-employed?
4. Does the attitude towards the role of women and the division of household labor impact the work–family construct?

IV.3 Hypotheses

Looking at these research questions led me to eight alternative hypotheses:

H_1. There is a significant relationship between work–family conflict and job satisfaction.

H_2. Gender moderates the relationship between work–family conflict and job satisfaction.

H_3. Work status (salaried vs. self-employed) moderates the relationship between work–family conflict and job satisfaction.

H_4. There is a significant relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.

H_5. Gender moderates the relationship between work–family conflict and life satisfaction.

H_6. Work status (salaried vs. self-employed) moderates the relationship between work–

family conflict and life satisfaction.

H_7. The attitude towards the role of women impacts work–family conflict.

H_8. The division of household labor impacts work–family conflict.

The null hypothesis is: "There is no relationship for each of the preceding alternative hypotheses."

IV.4 Research Methods

The research plan was to analyze data using different statistical methods to comprehensively answer the research questions and test the hypotheses. The methods used were:

1. Factor analysis to produce the underlying work–family, role of women, and division of labor constructs;
2. Reliability analysis with Cronbach's alpha to verify the reliability of the constructs;
3. Chi-square tests of independence to determine which of the individual items of the work–family construct impacted job satisfaction and family life satisfaction;
4. Pearson correlation to look at the strength of the linear relationship between the work–family, role of women, and division of labor constructs;
5. Linear regression to see if the attitude towards the role of women and division of household labor constructs were significant antecedents for the work–family construct; and,
6. Multinomial logistic regression to determine if the work–family construct had a significant impact on job and life satisfaction, alone, and moderated by gender and job status.

IV.5 Data Collection

I used secondary survey data to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses. The source of the data was the Family and Changing Gender Roles survey for 2012, which was conducted by the International Social Survey Program (ISSP). The ISSP is a continuing annual program that cuts across six continents. It is a cross-national collaboration on surveys that cover several contemporary topics considered relevant and highly significant for business practitioners and social science research.

My research was limited to the data collected from respondents in the United States (US). All statistical analysis was done with IBM SPSS Statistics on a weighted basis using the survey

weight provided for each US respondent. See Appendix for the wording of the survey questions used in this data analysis.

IV.6 Data Preparation

Before doing the data analysis, several preliminary data preparation tasks were required. These tasks included recoding variables, creating others, and conducting missing values analysis, and are described below.

IV.6.1 *Recoding variables.*

All of the source variables for the analysis were either ordinal or nominal (i.e., categorical). To ensure each variable category had adequate sample sizes for analysis, I produced a frequency analysis for each variable. This led to the following actions:

- Recoded both dependent variables into five categories instead of the original seven categories. Due to small sample sizes, "completely dissatisfied," "very dissatisfied," and "fairly dissatisfied" were recoded into a combined "dissatisfied" category.
- Recoded "sex" and "salary_se" into "gender" and "job status" to create (0,1) coding for each variable. For gender, "0" was male and "1" was female. For job status, "0" was salaried and "1" was self-employed.
- Created children, toddler, work status, marital status, and partner status indicators for use in later analyses.

IV.6.2 *Rating scales for the role of women construct items.*

Survey Questions 1a to 1e, 2a and 2b, and 3a and 3b were the items making up the proposed role of women construct. All of these items used similar rating scales. However, some of the questions were worded negatively, in essence causing the ratings scales to be reversed. Although this was not a problem for factor analysis, it was a problem for reliability analysis if not handled correctly. Therefore, Questions 1b, 1c, 1d, 1e, and 2b were recoded to reverse their scale so that all role of women construct questions reflected positive worded questions for reliability analysis.

IV.6.3 *Missing value analysis.*

The data base had 1,302 respondents in total. Frequency and descriptive statistical output revealed potential problems with missing values for some of the variables. For some of the variables I did not do anything to the missing values, and for other variables I took valid steps to minimize their impact. I accounted for and handled missing values as follows:

- Q1a to Q1e, Q2a, and Q2b, had missing values in the range of 0.8% to 6%. The median and the mode for these variables was generally not the "neutral" category. Since I did not know how these respondents would have rated these variables if they had answered, I did not alter the missing values. For these questions, I choose to not alter the missing values because: 1) the percent of missing values (MVs) was small, so the valid "n" for each variable was still large at 1,224 or more; 2) I could not assume what the category would have been if answered; and, 3) I did not want to artificially increase the weight of the neutral category ("neither agree nor disagree") by assigning them to this category.
- Q3a had 315 missing values (24.2%). This was a question about respondents with a child below school age (toddler). Among the 315 missing values for Q3a, 278 of the respondents had legitimate MVs because they indicated they did not have a toddler, which accounted for their reluctance to answer the question. Therefore, I could not alter these missing values. The other 37 "Non-legitimate" MVs (315 – 278) were allocated randomly in a manner to maintain the proportions by category of the original non-missing values—this allowed me to keep the cases for sample size purposes without changing any data relationships.
- Handling missing value with this approach was easily accomplished by first assigning a random number between 1 and 100 to each case and then using the random numbers to randomly allocate cases to the variable categories in a way to maintain proportions. For example, assume the non-missing values had 25% in Category 1, 45% in Category 2, and 30% in Category 3. Then, I allocated cases with missing values and random numbers 1 to 25 to Category 1; those with random numbers 26 to 70 to Category 2; and, those with random numbers 71 to 100 to Category 3. (This approach was also used with other variables.)
- Q3b had 269 missing values (20.7%). This was a question about respondents with a child of school age. Among the 269 Q3b MVs, 214 of the respondents had legitimate MVs because they indicated they did not have a child, which accounted for their reluctance to answer. Therefore, I could not alter these missing values. The other 55 "Non-legitimate" MVs (269 – 214) were allocated randomly in a manner to maintain the proportions by category of the original non-missing values, as explained previously. This allowed me to keep the cases for sample size purposes without changing any data relationships
- Q18, Q19a to Q19f, and Q20 asked questions about division of labor with spouse or partner. Missing values ranged from 46.5% to 52.8%. There were 499 respondents with legitimate MVs because they indicated they did not have a spouse/partner, which

accounts for about 80% of the MVs. Therefore, I could not alter these missing values. "Non-legitimate" MVs were allocated randomly in a manner to maintain the proportions by category of the original non-missing values, as explained previously—this kept the cases for sample size purposes but did not change any data relationships.

- Q23a to Q23d asked questions about how respondents feel at work or after coming home from work. Missing values ranged from 32.6% to 37.3%. There were 547 respondents with legitimate MVs because they indicated they were not working, which accounts for about 90% or more of the MVs in these variables. Therefore, I could not alter these missing values. "Non-legitimate" MVs were allocated randomly in a manner to maintain the proportions by category of the original non-missing values, this kept the cases for sample size purposes but did not change any data relationships.
- Q25 (DV 1) had 540 missing values (41.5%). In the data set, 547 respondents indicated they were not working. Of the 540 cases with missing values, there were 525 respondents with legitimate MVs for Q25 because they indicated they were not working, which accounted for almost all of the MVs. Therefore, I could not alter these missing values. The 15 "non-legitimate" MVs were allocated randomly in a manner to maintain the proportions by category of the original non-missing values, this kept the cases for sample size purposes but did not change any data relationships;
- Q26 (DV 2) had 39 missing values (only 3%). The median and the mode for this variable is "very satisfied." Since I did not know how these respondents would have rated this question if they had answered, I did not alter the missing values. For this question, I choose to not alter the missing values because: 1) the percent of missing values was small and the number with valid values was large at 1,263; 2) I could not assume they were "very satisfied"; and, 3) I did not want to artificially increase the weight of the neutral category ("neither satisfied nor dissatisfied") by assigning them to this category.

Since all of the source variables were categorical, I was not worried about outliers, but still reviewed the data for any possibilities. After reviewing the frequency distributions, there were no unexpected values for the nominal or ordinal variables. In addition, the ordinal variables were bounded by a small range of possible values. Thus, I was not concerned about the impact of outliers on subsequent bivariate and multivariate analyses.

IV.7 Creating underlying constructs

My conceptual model for the dissertation research theorizes that the ISSP survey is measuring aspects of three underlying constructs: 1) attitude towards the role of women construct; 2) division of household labor construct; and 3), work–family construct. I have also theorized that the attitude towards the role of women and division of household labor constructs

could be considered antecedents of the work–family construct. The work–family construct, and its components, are considered the independent variables that impact my two dependent variables. Much of my research will examine if the theory is true.

Using factor analysis, I created these three underlying constructs as detailed below.

IV.7.1 *Role of women construct.*

Nine survey items measured on an ordinal scale made up this construct. The first nine were measured on a 5-pt scale, from "strongly agree" (or "1") to "strongly disagree" (or "5"), and were:

- A working mother can establish just as warm & secure a relationship with children as a mother who does not work (Q1a);
- A preschool child is likely to suffer if the mother works (Q1b);
- Family life suffers when the woman has a full-time job (Q1c);
- A job is alright, but what most women want is a home and children (Q1d);
- Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay (Q1e);
- Both man & woman should contribute to H/H income (Q2a); and,
- A man's job is to earn money; a woman's job is to look after the home and family (Q2b).

The last two were measured on a 3-pt scale (work full-time ("1"), work part-time ("2"), and stay at home ("3")), and were:

- Women should work outside the home when there is a child under school age (Q3a); and,
- Women should work outside the home after the youngest child starts school (Q3b).

The KMO measure for the factor analysis was 0.84 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($p < .001$)---both measures indicated the data was suitable for doing factor analysis. The underlying construct captured about 40% of the variance of the individual items.

To verify the reliability of the role of women construct, I did a reliability analysis. The result was a Cronbach's alpha = 0.78, which is considered okay for a construct of 6 or more items. The analysis also showed alpha would stay about the same or drop a little if any of the

items were deleted from the construct---even those with low factor loadings. Therefore, the role of women construct was a reliable construct for further analysis.

The table below shows the communalities and factor loadings for each item in the construct.

Table 4 Role of Women Construct Items

Survey Item	Communality[1]	Factor Loading[2]
A working mother can establish just as warm & secure a relationship with children as a mother who does not work (Q1a)	.439	-.663
A preschool child is likely to suffer if the mother works (Q1b)	.523	.723
Family life suffers when the woman has a full-time job (Q1c)	.613	.783
A job is alright, but what most women want is a home and children (Q1d)	.283	.532
Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay (Q1e)	.042	.206
Both man & woman should contribute to household income (Q2a)	.151	-.388
A man's job is to earn money; a woman's job is to look after the home and family (Q2b)	.447	.668
Women should work outside the home when there is a child under school age (Q3a)	.540	-.735
Women should work outside the home after the youngest child starts school (Q3b)	.471	-.686

[1]Communality represents the proportion of an item's variance that is explained by the construct.

[2]Factor loading represents the correlation between the item and the construct.

The results indicate two of the items were much less important in determining the role of women construct than the other seven items were. These two items were: 1) Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay (Q1e); and, 2) Both man & woman should contribute to household income (Q2a). The rest of the items had higher loadings ranging from .53 to .78. Negative loadings mean that as the rating for a particular survey item goes up, the overall construct score goes down. Thus, it is critical to know the context of the survey question and its

rating scale to interpret each factor loading correctly. However, the purpose of this factor analysis was to generate the construct scores needed in the primary research of this dissertation.

For this construct, four of the component items (Q1a, Q2a, Q3a, & Q3b) were worded positively and five were worded negatively. This caused the construct to be what is called a "bi-polar" factor, meaning it had both positive and negative loadings. After reversing the rating scale for those negatively worded items so the ratings for each item had comparable meanings, a high value for the role of women construct corresponded to mainly smaller value ratings on the individual construct components and a low value for the construct corresponded to mainly larger value ratings on the individual construct components.

IV.7.2 *Division of labor construct.*

Eight survey items measured on an ordinal scale made up this construct. The first item was measured on a 5-point scale, from "I manage all the money…" (or "1") to "We each keep our own money separate" (or "5"), and was:

- How often do you and your spouse/partner organize the income that one or both of you receive (Q18)?

The next six were measured on a 6-point scale, from "Always me" (or "1") to "Is done by a 3rd person" (or "6"), and were:

- In your household (h/h), who does the laundry? (Q19a);
- In your h/h, who does the repairs? (Q19b);
- In your h/h, who cares for sick family members? (Q19c);
- In your h/h, who shops? (Q19d);
- In your h/h, who does the household cleaning? (Q19e); and,
- In your h/h, who does the cooking? (Q19f).

The last item was measured on a 5-point scale, from ("I do much more…" (or "1") to "I do much less…" (or "5"), and was:

- Which best applies to the sharing of h/h work between you & your spouse/partner (Q20)?

The initial KMO measure for the factor analysis was 0.90 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($p < .001$)—both measures indicated the data was suitable for doing factor analysis. The underlying construct captured about 48% of the variance of the individual items.

To verify the reliability of the division of labor construct, I did a reliability analysis. The Cronbach's alpha (.72) and the reliability analysis for the initial solution indicated the construct was not reliable. Furthermore, the reliability analysis indicated that two items (Q18 and Q19b) should be dropped from the construct because their removal made the Cronbach's alpha go up.

Therefore, I dropped these two questions and redid the factor analysis to produce the new construct and redid the reliability analysis. The final KMO measure was still 0.90 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was still significant ($p < .001$). The adjusted underlying construct captured about 62% of the variance in the six individual items. Cronbach's alpha for the adjusted construct was 0.88, which is a very high value for a construct of six items. The analysis also showed alpha would drop if any other items were deleted from the construct. Thus, the adjusted division of labor construct was reliable and was used for further analysis.

Table 5 below shows the communalities and factor loadings for each item in the final adjusted division of labor construct.

Table 5 Division of Labor Construct Items

Survey Item	Communality[1]	Factor Loading[2]
In your household (h/h), who does the laundry? (Q19a)	.673	.820
In your h/h, who cares for sick family members? (Q19c)	.434	.659
In your h/h, who shops? (Q19d)	.549	.741
In your h/h, who does the household cleaning? (Q19e)	.717	.847
In your h/h, who does the cooking? (Q19f)	.665	.815
Which best applies to the sharing of h/h work between you & your spouse/partner? (Q20)	.678	.823

[1]Communality represents the proportion of an item's variance that is explained by the construct.

[2]Factor loading represents the correlation between the item and the construct.

The results indicated that all of the items were important in determining the division of labor construct and ranged from .66 to .85. All loadings were positive, meaning that as the rating for a particular survey item goes up, the overall construct score also goes up. A high value for the division of labor construct corresponded to mainly larger value ratings on the construct components, and a low value for the construct corresponded to mainly smaller value ratings on the construct components.

IV.7.3 *Work–family of labor construct.*

Four survey items measured on an ordinal scale made up this construct. The items were measured on a 4-point scale, from "Several times a week" (or "1") to "Never" (or "4"), and were:

- How often have you come home from work too tired to do necessary chores at home? (Q23a);
- How often has it been too difficult for you to fulfill family responsibilities because of the time spent on your job? (Q23b);
- How often have you arrived at work too tired to function well because of household work you had done? (Q23c); and,
- How often have you found it difficult to concentrate at work because of family responsibilities? (Q23d).

For these questions, a "never" rating was good. The KMO measure for the factor analysis was 0.69 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($p < .001$)—both measures indicated the data was suitable for doing factor analysis. The underlying construct captured about 53% of the variance of the individual items.

To verify the reliability of the work–family construct, I did a reliability analysis. The result was a Cronbach's alpha = 0.70, which is considered acceptable for a construct of five or more items. The analysis also showed alpha would drop if any of the items were deleted from the construct. Therefore, the work–family construct was a reliable construct for further analysis.

Table 6 below shows the communalities and factor loadings for each item in the final division of labor construct.

Table 6 Work–Family Construct Items

Survey Item	Communality[1]	Factor Loading[2]
How often have you come home from work too tired to do necessary chores at home? (Q23a)	.488	.699
How often has it been too difficult for you to fulfill family responsibilities because of the time spent on your job? (Q23b)	.582	.763
How often have you arrived at work too tired to function well because of household you had done? (Q23c)	.540	.735
How often have you found it difficult to concentrate at work because of family responsibilities? (Q23d)	.527	.726

[1]Communality represents the proportion of an item's variance that is explained by the construct.

[2]Factor loading represents the correlation between the item and the construct.

The results indicated that all of the items were important in determining the work–family construct and ranged from .70 to .76. All loadings were positive meaning that as the rating for a particular survey item goes up, the overall construct score also goes up. A high value for the work–family construct corresponded to mainly larger value ratings on the construct components and a low value for the construct corresponded to mainly smaller value ratings on the construct components.

After creating the constructs, I reviewed each for potential outliers and found no values of concern.[2]

IV.8 Data Analysis & Testing of Hypotheses

IV.8.1 *Chi-square tests of independence.*

To get an early determination of which individual items in the work–family construct had a statistically significant relationship with each of the dependent variables (DV), I did a bivariate chi-square test of independence for each item. This analysis would also give me an early indication if I could expect a relationship between my DVs and the work–family construct as a whole. Three sets of tests were done for each of the dependent variables for each item in the work–family construct: 1) a set with no control variable; 2) a set with gender as the control, or moderating, variable; and, 3) a set with job status as the control variable.

The tables summarizing the results show both the significance levels (p) and the effect size (or the strength of the relationship). An effect size (based on absolute value of Cramer's V or phi) of 0.1 to 0.3 is considered small; .3 to .5 is considered medium; and over .5 is considered large (less than .1 is considered non-existent). A negative effect means that as the ratings of the items in the work–family construct go up, the ratings for the dependent variables go down. In other words, as the respondent experiences an item in the work–family construct less often, they are more likely to be satisfied with their job or with life. The following tables present only statistically significant chi-square test results.

[2] For my purposes, an "outlier" was defined as a value more than 3 standard deviations above or below the mean.

Table 7 Work–Family Construct Items: Main Job Satisfaction

Work–Family Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q23b Has been difficult to fulfill family responsibility	32.08	12, 826	.001	-.14
Q23c Have been too tired from household work to function in job	38.06	12, 827	< .001	-.25
Q23d Has been difficult to concentrate at work	34.16	12, 827	.001	-.18

[1] No control variable.

Work–Family Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q23b Has been difficult to fulfill family responsibility (M)	43.60	12, 436	< .001	-.21
Q23b Has been difficult to fulfill family responsibility (F)	23.56	12, 392	.023	-.08
Q23c Have been too tired from household work to function in job (M)	41.04	12, 440	< .001	-.38
Q23c Have been too tired from household work to function in job (F)	25.91	12, 391	.029	-.09
Q23d Has been difficult to concentrate at work (M)	43.82	12, 439	< .001	-.27

[2] Gender as the control variable (Male = M; Female = F).

Work–Family Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q23b Has been difficult to fulfill family responsibility (S)	21.17	12, 731	.048	-.12
Q23b Has been difficult to fulfill family responsibility (SE)	21.32	12, 95	.046	-.29
Q23c Have been too tired from household work to function in job (S)	30.49	12, 732	.002	-.21
Q23c Have been too tired from household work to function in job (SE)	52.19	12, 94	< .001	-.47
Q23d Has been difficult to concentrate at work (SE)	38.07	12, 97	< .001	-.42

[3] Job Status as the control variable (Salaried = S; Self-employed = SE).

Table 8 Work–Family Construct Items: Family Life Satisfaction

Work–Family Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q23a Have been too tired from work to do duties at home	28.99	12, 933	.004	-.09
Q23b Has been difficult to fulfill family responsibility	32.11	12, 917	.001	-.16
Q23d Has been difficult to concentrate at work	72.77	12, 907	< .001	-.30

[1] No control variable.

Work–Family Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q23a Have been too tired from work to do duties at home (F)	25.68	12, 447	.012	-.17
Q23b Has been difficult to fulfill family responsibility (F)	41.54	12, 440	< .001	-.32
Q23c Have been too tired from household work to function in job (F)	21.06	12, 432	.049	-.19
Q23d Has been difficult to concentrate at work (M)	54.44	12, 474	< .001	-.32
Q23d Has been difficult to concentrate at work (F)	36.56	12, 434	< .001	-.28

[2] Gender as the control variable (Male = M; Female = F).

Work–Family Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q23a Have been too tired from work to do duties at home (S)	25.31	12, 819	.013	-.06
Q23b Has been difficult to fulfill family responsibility (S)	27.03	12, 806	.008	-.14
Q23d Has been difficult to concentrate at work (S)	67.27	12, 799	< .001	-.28

[3] Job Status as the control variable (Salaried = S; Self-employed = SE).

These test results showed two things: 1) most of the individual items in the work–family construct had a significant relationship with both the job satisfaction and life satisfaction dependent variables; and, 2) both gender and job status moderated these relationships with both DVs. In general, the impact of the work–family construct items was more prevalent for females and salaried employees, particularly for life satisfaction. Most of the effect sizes were in the small range, meaning the relationships found, although statistically significant, were not strong. In any case, the chi-square results provided an early indication that the answers to research Questions 1 to 3 was "yes" and that we could reject the null hypothesis of no relationship and accept the alternative Hypotheses 1 to 6.

Although not the primary focus of my research, I also did the same bivariate chi-square tests of independence to see if the role of women and division of labor constructs had significant relationships with the dependent variables. The following tables present only the significant chi-square results for the role of women construct items.

Table 9 Role of Women Construct Items: Job Satisfaction

Role of Women Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q1a Working mom: warm relationship w/children as not working mom	23.88	12, 828	.021	.08
Q1b Working mom: Preschool child is likely to suffer	31.66	12, 821	.002	.01
Q1c Working woman: Family life suffers when woman has FT job	44.03	16, 816	< .001	.02
Q1d Working woman: What women really want is home and kids	31.49	16, 790	.012	.10
Q1e Working woman: Being housewife is as fulfilling as working for pay	43.94	16, 778	< .001	.12
Q2b Men's job earn money; women's job look after home	42.28	16, 821	< .001	.06
Q3a Should women work with: Child under school age	29.62	8,632	< .001	.15

[1] No control variable.

Role of Women Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q1a Working mom: warm relationship w/children as not working mom (F)	22.46	12, 393	.033	.11
Q1b Working mom: Preschool child is likely to suffer (F)	26.64	12, 392	.017	-.09
Q1c Working woman: Family life suffers when woman has FT job (M)	38.36	16, 430	.001	.11
Q1d Working woman: What women really want is home and kids (M)	31.12	16, 413	.013	.11
Q1e Working woman: Being h/w is as fulfilling as working for pay (M)	38.94	16, 406	.001	.12
Q2a Both should contribute to household income (F)	27.93	16, 386	.032	-.03
Q2b Men's job earn money; women's job look after home (M)	41.68	16, 434	< .001	.11
Q3a Should women work with: Child under school age (M)	2.16	8, 341	.005	.18
Q3a Should women work with: Child under school age (F)	18.44	8, 293	.018	.18
Q3b Should women work with: Youngest kid at school (F)	16.83	8, 312	.032	.03

[2] Gender as the control variable (Male = M; Female = F).

Role of Women Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q1a Working mom: warm relationship w/children as not working mom (S)	22.76	12, 731	.030	.07
Q1a Working mom: warm relationship w/child. as not working mom (SE)	26.01	12, 97	.011	.13
Q1b Working mom: Preschool child is likely to suffer (S)	35.47	12, 762	< .001	-.03
Q1c Working woman: Family life suffers when woman has FT job (S)	45.87	16, 723	< .001	.01

Q1d Working woman: What women really want is home and kids (S)	28.57	16, 701	.027	.11
Q1e Working woman: Being h/w is as fulfilling as working for pay (S)	48.84	16, 696	< .001	.10
Q2b Men's job earn money; women's job look after home (S)	42.57	16, 725	< .001	.04
Q3a Should women work with: Child under school age (S)	29.18	8, 559	< .001	.16

[3] Job Status as the control variable (Salaried = S; Self-employed = SE).

Table 10 Role of Women Construct Items: Family Life Satisfaction

Role of Women Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q1c Working woman: Family life suffers when woman has FT job	51.36	16, 1264	< .001	-.01
Q1e Working woman: Being housewife is as fulfilling as working for pay	52.23	16, 1217	< .001	.16
Q2b Men's job earn money; women's job look after home	36.28	16, 1272	.003	.06
Q3a Should women work with: Child under school age	21.82	8, 996	.005	.11

[1] No control variable.

Role of Women Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q1b Working mom: Preschool child is likely to suffer (M)	22.79	12, 593	.030	.09
Q1c Working woman: Family life suffers when woman has FT job (M)	65.23	16, 593	< .001	.05
Q1d Working woman: What women really want is home and kids (M)	35.71	16, 570	.003	.12
Q1e Working woman: Being h/w is as fulfilling as working for pay (M)	33.86	16, 559	.006	.18
Q1e Working woman: Being h/w is as fulfilling as working for pay (F)	36.93	16, 659	.002	.16
Q2b Men's job earn money; women's job look after home (M)	35.59	16, 594	.003	.10
Q3a Should women work with: Child under school age (M)	25.44	8, 482	.001	.16

[2] Gender as the control variable (Male = M; Female = F).

Role of Women Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q1c Working woman: Family life suffers when woman has FT job (S)	53.69	16, 1092	< .001	-.04
Q1e Working woman: Being h/w is as fulfilling as working for pay (S)	33.70	16, 1057	.006	.15
Q2b Men's job earn money; women's job look after home (S)	37.13	16, 1098	.002	.05
Q3a Should women work with: Child under school age (S)	16.97	8, 856	.030	.10

[3] Job Status as the control variable (Salaried = S; Self-employed = SE).

Here, the test results indicated most of the individual items in the role of women construct had a significant relationship with job satisfaction, but a smaller number of items had a significant relationship with life satisfaction. Both gender and job status moderated the relationships, showing the impact of the role of women construct items was felt by both men and women, but was much more prevalent for salaried employees. Again, all effect sizes were small, and in some cases, non-existent.

The following tables present only the significant chi-square results for the division of labor construct items.

Table 11 Division of Labor Construct Items: Job Satisfaction

Division of Labor Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q19b Division of household work: Small repairs	32.59	20, 579	.037	.12
Q19f Division of household work: Preparing meals	34.51	20, 578	.023	.12

[1] No control variable.

Division of Labor Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q18 Sharing of income between partners (F)	18.86	16, 299	.037	.16
Q19b Division of household work: Small repairs (F)	37.65	20, 281	.010	.18
Q19c Division of household work: Care for sick family members (M)	44.74	20, 302	.001	.19
Q19d Division of household work: Shops for groceries (M)	35.18	20, 300	.019	.17
Q19f Division of household work: Preparing meals (M)	32.98	20, 297	.034	.17

[2] Gender as the control variable (Male = M; Female = F).

Division of Labor Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q19b Division of household work: Small repairs (S)	36.95	20, 507	.012	.14
Q19c Division of household work: Care for sick family members (SE)	34.81	20, 73	.021	.35
Q19f Division of household work: Preparing meals (S)	39.19	20, 507	.006	.14
Q20 Sharing of household work between partners (SE)	28.86	16, 72	.025	.32

[3] Job Status as the control variable (Salaried = S; Self-employed = SE).

Table 12 Division of Labor Construct Items: Family Life Satisfaction

Division of Labor Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q18 Sharing of income between partners	36.85	16, 869	.002	.10
Q19a Division of household work: Doing the laundry	34.63	20, 873	.022	.10
Q19c Division of household work: Care for sick family	35.94	20, 872	.106	.02
Q19d Division of household work: Shops for groceries	41.95	20, 871	.003	.11
Q19e Division of household work: Household cleaning	33.82	20, 870	.027	.10
Q19f Division of household work: Preparing meals	35.21	20, 872	.019	.10
Q20 Sharing of household work between partners	35.56	16, 870	.003	.10

[1] No control variable.

Division of Labor Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q18 Sharing of income between partners (M)	48.51	16, 397	< .001	.18
Q19a Division of household work: Doing the laundry (M)	39.17	20, 393	.006	.16
Q19a Division of household work: Doing the laundry (F)	46.26	20, 476	.001	.16
Q19b Division of household work: Small repairs (M)	50.04	20, 394	< .001	.18
Q19b Division of household work: Small repairs (F)	42.76	20, 475	.002	.15
Q19c Division of household work: Care for sick family	44.60	20, 397	< .001	.18
Q19d Division of household work: Shops for groceries (M)	49.38	20, 399	< .001	.18
Q19d Division of household work: Shops for groceries (F)	35.97	20, 475	.020	.14
Q19e Division of household work: Household cleaning (M)	32.01	20, 397	.043	.14
Q19f Division of household work: Preparing meals (M)	47.16	20, 399	.001	.17
Q20 Sharing of household work between partners (M)	28.70	16, 396	.026	.14
Q20 Sharing of household work between partners (F)	41.61	16, 476	< .001	.15

[2] Gender as the control variable (Male = M; Female = F).

Division of Labor Construct Items	X^2	d.f	p	Effect Size
Q18 Sharing of income between partners (S)	33.73	16, 762	.006	.11
Q18 Sharing of income between partners (SE)	34.53	16, 85	.005	.32
Q19c Division of household work: Care for sick family	36.66	20, 764	.013	.11
Q19d Division of household work: Shops for groceries (S)	32.60	20, 762	.037	.10
Q19d Division of household work: Shops for groceries (SE)	40.29	20, 84	.005	.35
Q19e Division of household work: Household cleaning (S)	38.16	20, 763	.008	.11
Q19f Division of household work: Preparing meals (S)	37.87	20, 762	.009	.11
Q20 Sharing of household work between partners (S)	34.85	16, 761	.004	.11

[3] Job Status as the control variable (Salaried = S; Self-employed = SE).

Here, the test results indicated all but one of the individual items in the division of household labor construct had a significant relationship with life satisfaction, but a much smaller number of items had a significant relationship job satisfaction. Both gender and job status moderated the relationships, showing the impact of the attitude towards the role of women construct items was felt by both men and women, but was a little more prevalent for salaried employees for the life satisfaction DV.

Since each of the three constructs contained survey items that had significant relationships with the dependent variables, this provided evidence that the attitude towards the role of women and the division of household labor constructs may also impact the work–family construct, or act as antecedents to the work–family construct. This was tested in the following correlation and linear regression analysis.

IV.8.2 *Pearson correlations of proposed constructs.*

One of the components of the theorized conceptual model was that the attitude towards the role of women and division of household labor constructs were antecedents of the work–family construct. In other words, we would expect to see a high correlation between each of the constructs and the work–family construct. If that were the case, then we would be able to predict the work–family construct from the role of women and division of labor constructs, and ultimately, impact work and life satisfaction simply by impacting the ratings on the aspects of each antecedent construct.

Therefore, I produced Pearson correlations between the proposed antecedents and the work–family construct. The table below shows the results.

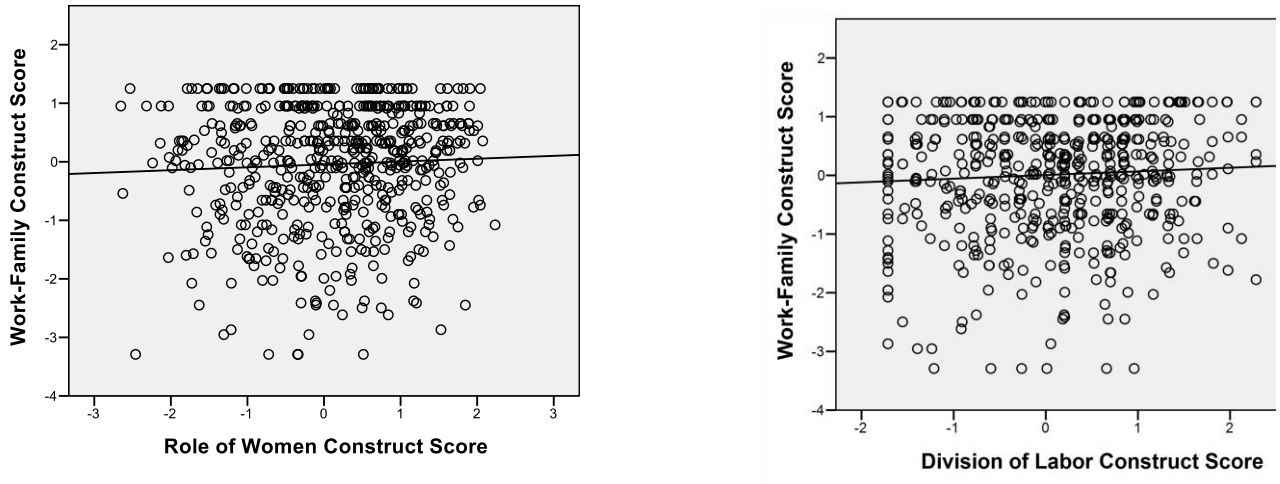
Table 13 Pearson Correlation

Antecedent	Correlation (r) with Work–Family Construct	p-value
Role of Women Construct	.049	.217
Division of Labor Construct	.061	.130

Although the correlations indicated a positive linear relationship between each antecedent and the work–family construct, the relationships were very weak ($r < .10$) and were not significant ($p > .05$). The correlations indicated there would not be much success in trying to predict the work–family construct from the role of women and division of labor constructs.

The scatterplots below (Figure 3) show the relationship between the work–family construct and each proposed antecedent. The line in each plot clearly shows the weak linear relationship. At the same time, neither plot shows any evidence of a non-linear relationship.

Figure 3 Relationships Between Work–Family Construct and Proposed Antecedents



IV.8.3 *Linear regression of proposed constructs.*

The prior correlation results and scatterplots indicated the work–family construct could not be predicted using the attitude towards the role of women and division of household labor constructs. However, I did the linear regression analysis to quantify the results.

In the regression, the work–family construct was the dependent variable and the attitude towards the role of women and division of household labor constructs were the independent variables. The ANOVA indicated the regression was not significant ($F(2, 433) = 1.947$, $p = .144$). The coefficient of determination(R^2) = .009, meaning the regression model only explained about 1% of the variance in the work–family construct. A summary of the coefficients table is shown below.

Table 14 Linear Regression Results

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
Construct	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	-0.044	0.049		-0.898	0.370		
Role of Women	0.031	0.048	0.032	0.655	0.513	0.977	1.023
Division of Labor	0.098	0.051	0.094	1.939	0.053	0.977	1.023

As the table shows, at the p = .05 level, neither the role of women nor the division of labor constructs were significant predictors of the work–family construct. The division of labor construct was borderline at p = .053.

There were no indications of multicollinearity problems based on the Beta, tolerance, and VIF values (looking for values > .9, < .1, and > 5, respectively). Also, the histogram and normal Q-Q plot of the residuals indicated the assumption of normally distributed residuals was met, while the plot of the standardized residuals and standardized predictions indicated the assumption homoscedasticity was met. Note: I also added squared and cubed terms to the model and obtained no significant improvement.

The linear regression results showed neither the attitude towards the role of women nor the division of household labor constructs had a significant impact on the work–family construct; i.e., there was no evidence they were antecedents for the work–family construct. There was no

evidence to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship; therefore, I could not accept alternative Hypotheses 7 and 8.

IV.8.4 *Multinomial logistic regression of DVs with work–family construct.*

Since both dependent variables (DVs) had more than two categories, it was appropriate for me to use multinomial logistic regression (MLR) to determine the impact of the work–family construct. First, I looked at the impact of the work–family construct alone, followed by looking at the effect of gender and job status on that relationship, and lastly, looking at the impact of interactions. The results are shown below.

Satisfaction with main job. My first hypothesis for job satisfaction was:

H_1. There is a significant relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.

More specifically, I expected that as a person felt better about his/her work–family construct (i.e., had a higher a work–family construct score), job satisfaction would go up (i.e., job satisfaction ratings would tend to be towards the lower value ratings, indicating greater satisfaction). Therefore, I expected the relationship to be positive. To test this, I looked at job satisfaction as the DV and the work–family construct as the independent variable. The neutral DV category "neither satisfied nor dissatisfied" was the reference category for interpreting regression coefficients.

The logistic regression model was significant ($\chi^2(4) = 21.54$, $p < .001$). This provided the evidence needed to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship and accept H_1. The relationship was weak, given Nagelkerke $R^2 = .03$, meaning the work family construct only accounted for about 3% of the variance in job satisfaction. The coefficients table is shown below.

Table 15 MLR Results for DV: How Satisfied Are You With Your Main Job?

DV Categories[a]	Parameter	B	Sig.	Odds Ratio	95% CI for Odds Ratio	
					Lower	Upper
Completely satisfied	Intercept	0.74	.000			
	Work Family	0.57	.000	1.76	1.30	2.38
Very satisfied	Intercept	1.61	.000			
	Work Family	0.42	.001	1.52	1.18	1.97
Fairly satisfied	Intercept	1.50	.000			
	Work Family	0.25	.058	1.28	0.99	1.65
Dissatisfied	Intercept	0.11	.540			
	Work Family	0.10	.553	1.10	0.80	1.51

a. The reference category is: Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

The preceding table shows the work–family construct had a significant relationship with two of the DV categories: completely satisfied (B = .57, $p < .001$); and, very satisfied (B = .42, p = .001). The relationship was positive, as expected. The effect of the work–family construct on these two DV categories was:

- For the completely satisfied DV category, an increase of one in the work family construct score increased the odds of being completely satisfied with the job, as opposed to being neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, by a factor of 1.76, or 76%.
- For the very satisfied DV category, an increase of one in the work family construct score increased the odds of being very satisfied with the job, as opposed to being neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, by a factor of 1.52, or 52%.

The work–family construct did not have a significant impact on the other two DV categories when compared to neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

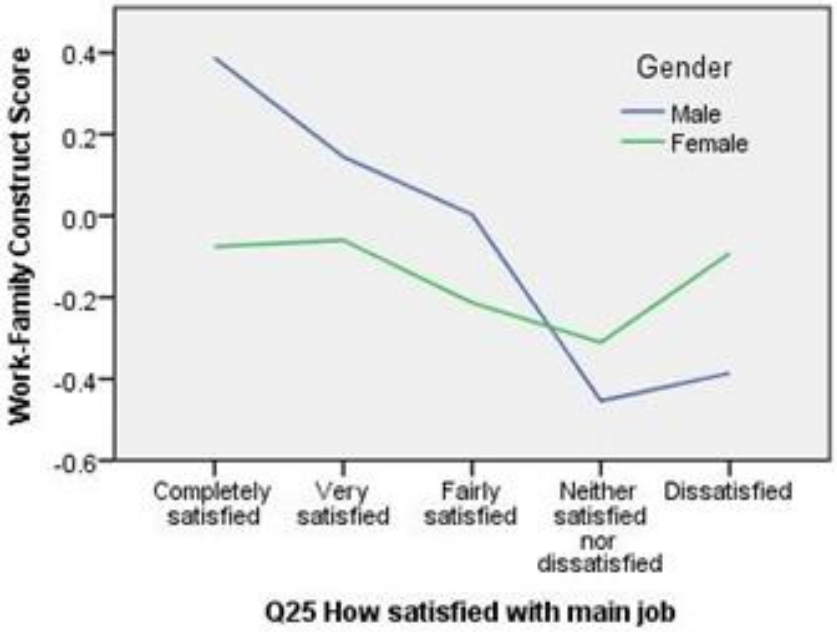
H_2. Gender moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.

Proceeding in a hierarchical fashion, I first looked at a logistic model with gender by itself. Although gender was significant by itself ($\chi^2(4) = 10.04$, p = .040), it did not have a significant impact on any of the individual DV categories compared to the reference category. After adding the work–family construct to the model, the overall logistic regression model containing both gender and work construct was significant ($\chi^2(8) = 30.34$, $p < .001$). However,

when testing each independent variable overall, gender was no longer significant ($\chi^2(4) = 8.80$, $p = .066$) for the work–family construct in the model. Therefore, there was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the gender regression coefficient was 0, and thus, no evidence to accept H_2. (Note: The work family construct was still significant ($\chi^2(4) = 21.54$, $p < .001$).

Before moving on to Hypothesis 3, I looked at the interaction between gender and the work–family construct for job satisfaction. As the line graph below shows, there is evidence of an interaction between gender and the work–family construct; i.e., the impact of the work–family construct on job satisfaction looked different for males and females. If there were no interaction, the lines would be parallel.

Figure 4 Relationship of Work–Family Construct and Job Satisfaction by Gender



To determine if the interaction had a statistically significant impact on job satisfaction, I reran the logistic regression with the work–family construct, gender, and gender by work–family construct interaction. The overall logistic regression model containing both gender and the work–family construct and their interaction was significant ($\chi^2(12) = 39.12$, $p < .001$). However, when testing each independent variable overall, the gender by work–family construct was not

significant ($\chi^2(4) = 8.78$, $p = .067$), and gender was also not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 6.60$, $p = .158$). Thus, although the interaction was apparent in the graph, it was not quite strong enough to be statistically significant.

H_3. Work status (Salaried vs. Self-employed) moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.

With work status (i.e., job status), self-employed was the reference category. Proceeding in a hierarchical fashion, I first looked at a logistic model with job status by itself. Job status was significant by itself ($\chi^2(4) = 26.10$, $p < .001$). Being in the salaried category as opposed to self-employed reduced the chances of being in the completely satisfied category as opposed to the neither satisfied nor dissatisfied category by a factor of 0.17, or reduced the chances by 83%. Job status did not have a significant impact on any other DV category by itself.

After adding the work–family construct to the model, the overall logistic regression model containing both job status and the work–family construct was significant ($\chi^2(8) = 44.35$, $p < .001$). When testing each independent variable overall, both job status ($\chi^2(4) = 22.89$, $p < .001$) and the work–family construct were significant ($\chi^2(4) = 18.00$, $p = .001$). This provided the evidence needed to reject the null hypothesis of no impact by job status (i.e., job status regression coefficient = 0) and accept H_3. However, the relationship was weak, given Nagelkerke $R^2 = .06$, meaning job status and the work family construct only accounted for about 6% of the variance in job satisfaction.

Table 16 MLR Results for DV: How Satisfied Are You with Your Main Job? (Job Status as Moderator)

DV Categories[a]	Parameter	B	Sig.	Odds Ratio	95% CI for Odds Ratio	
					Lower	Upper
Completely satisfied	Intercept	2.18	.000			
	Work_Family	0.51	.001	1.67	1.23	2.27
	Job Status[b]	-1.64	.007	0.20	0.06	0.63
Very satisfied	Intercept	2.31	.000			
	Work_Family	0.41	.002	1.50	1.16	1.95
	Job Status[b]	-.75	.209	0.48	0.15	1.52
Fairly satisfied	Intercept	1.77	.003			
	Work_Family	0.25	.062	1.28	0.99	1.65
	Job Status[b]	-0.28	.650	0.76	0.23	2.51
Dissatisfied	Intercept	0.50	.474			
	Work_Family	0.09	.574	1.10	0.80	1.51
	Job Status[b]	-0.40	.578	0.67	0.16	2.74

1. The DV reference category is: Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

2. The reference category for job status is self-employed. Information shown is for the salaried category.

As the preceding table shows, job status had a significant relationship with the DV completely satisfied category (B = -1.64, p = .007). Being in the salaried category as opposed to self-employed reduced the chances of being in the completely satisfied category as opposed to the neither satisfied nor dissatisfied category by a factor of 0.20, or reduced the chances by 80%. Job status did not have a significant impact on any other DV category when the work–family construct was in the model.

The work–family construct had a significant relationship with two of the DV categories: completely satisfied (B = .51, p = .001); and, very satisfied (B = .41, p = .002). Again, the work–family relationship was positive as expected. When job status was in the model, the effect of the work–family construct on these two DV categories was:

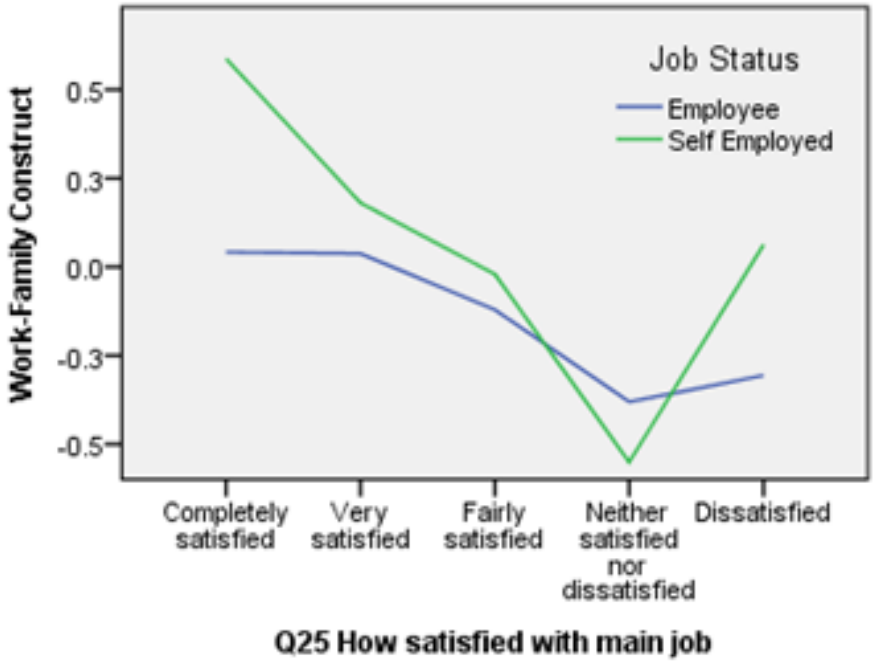
- For the completely satisfied DV category, an increase of one in the work family construct score increased the odds of being completely satisfied with the job as opposed to being neither satisfied nor dissatisfied by a factor of 1.67, or 67%.

- For the very satisfied DV category, an increase of one in the work family construct score increased the odds of being very satisfied with the job as opposed to being neither satisfied nor dissatisfied by a factor of 1.50, or 50%.

The work–family construct did not have a significant impact on the other two DV categories when compared to neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

I also looked at the interaction between job status and the work–family construct. As the line graph below shows, there was evidence of an interaction between job status and the work–family construct; i.e., the impact of the work–family construct on job satisfaction looked different for salaried employees and people who were self-employed. Again, if there was no interaction, the lines would have been parallel.

Figure 5 Relationship of Work–Family Conflict and Job Satisfaction by Job Status

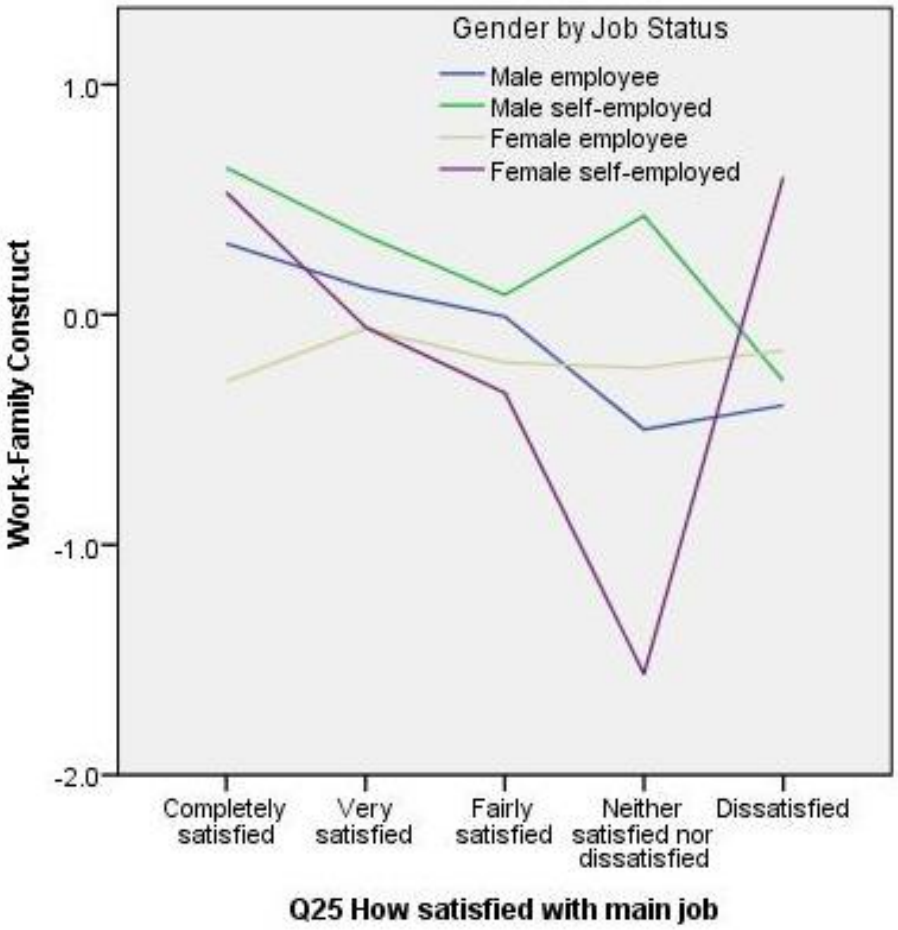


To determine if the interaction was statistically significant, I reran the logistic regression with the work–family construct, job status, and job status by work–family construct interaction. The overall logistic regression model containing both job status and the work–family construct and their interaction was significant ($\chi^2(12) = 49.38$, $p < .001$). However, when testing each independent variable overall, the job status by work–family construct interaction was not

significant ($\chi^2(4) = 5.04$, $p = .284$). Thus, although the interaction was apparent in the graph, it was not strong enough to be statistically significant.

I also looked at the three-way interaction between gender, job status, and the work–family construct. As the line graph below shows, there was evidence of a three-way interaction; i.e., the impact of the work–family construct on job satisfaction looked different for the gender by job status combinations.

Figure 6 Relationship of Work–Family Construct and Job Satisfaction by Gender and Job Status



To determine if the three-way interaction was significant, I reran the logistic regression with the work–family construct, gender, job status, gender by work–family construct interaction, job status by work–family construct interaction, and gender by job status by work–family construct interaction. The overall logistic regression model containing all terms was significant

($\chi^2(24) = 71.501$, $p < .001$). However, when testing each independent variable overall, the gender by job status by work–family construct three-way interaction was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 4.50$, $p = .343$). Again, although the interaction was apparent in the graph, it was not strong enough to be statistically significant.

Satisfaction with family life. My first hypothesis for family life satisfaction was:

H_4. There is a significant relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.

More specifically, I expected that as a person felt better about his/her work–family construct (i.e., had a higher work–family construct score), family life satisfaction would go up (i.e., life satisfaction ratings would tend to be towards the lower value ratings, indicating greater satisfaction). That is, I expected the relationship to be positive. To test this, I looked at life satisfaction as the DV and the work–family construct as the independent variable. Again, the neutral DV category "neither satisfied nor dissatisfied" was the reference category for interpreting regression coefficients.

The logistic regression model was significant ($\chi^2(4) = 35.87$, $p < .001$). This provided the evidence needed to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship and accept H_4. However, the relationship was weak, given Nagelkerke $R^2 = .04$, meaning the work family construct only accounted for about 4% of the variance in family life satisfaction.

Table 17 MRL Results for DV: How Satisfied Are You with Your Family Life?

DV Categories[a]	Parameter	B	Sig.	Odds Ratio	95% CI for Odds Ratio	
					Lower	Upper
Completely satisfied	Intercept	1.63	.000			
	Work Family	0.13	.481	1.14	.80	1.62
Very satisfied	Intercept	2.33	.000			
	Work Family	0.05	.786	1.05	.75	1.47
Fairly satisfied	Intercept	1.60	.000			
	Work Family	-0.35	.046	.70	.50	.99
Dissatisfied	Intercept	-0.14	.546			
	Work Family	-0.43	.055	.65	.42	1.01

a. The reference category is: Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

In the preceding table, the signs on the parameters indicated the relationship was positive as expected (i.e., higher work–family construct scores meant higher satisfaction ratings). However, the work–family construct had a significant relationship with only one of the DV categories: fairly satisfied (B = -0.35, p = .046).

The effect of the work–family construct on the fairly satisfied DV category was that an increase of one in the work family construct score decreased the odds of being fairly satisfied with life as opposed to being neither satisfied nor dissatisfied by a factor of 0.70, or 30%.

The work–family construct did not have a significant impact on the other DV categories when compared to neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

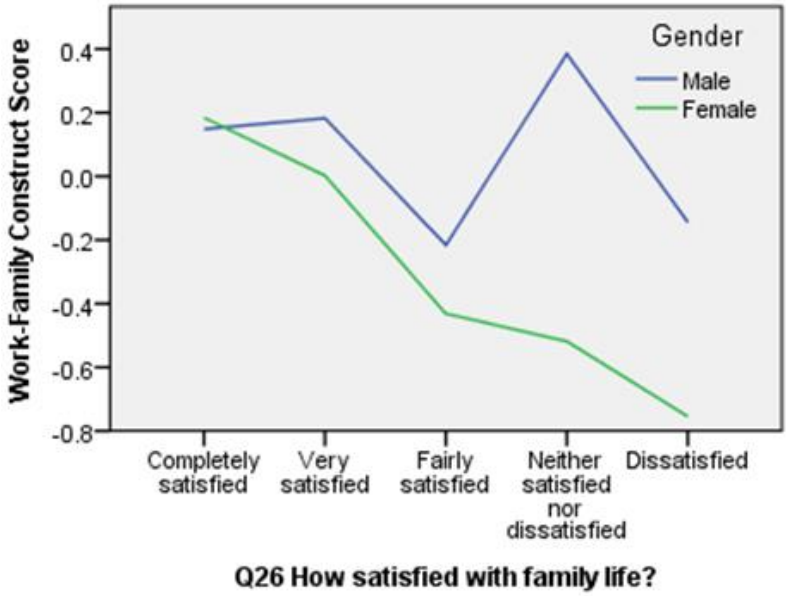
H_5. Gender moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.

As before, I first looked at a logistic model with gender by itself. Gender, by itself, did not have a significant impact on family life satisfaction ($\chi^2(4) = 5.11$, $p = .277$). After adding the work–family construct to the model, the overall logistic regression model containing both gender and work construct was significant ($\chi^2(8) = 36.62$, $p < .001$). However, when testing each independent variable overall, gender was no longer significant ($\chi^2(4) = 2.75$, $p = .601$). Therefore, there was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the gender regression

coefficient was 0, and thus, no evidence to accept H_5. (Note: The work family construct was still significant ($\chi^2(4) = 35.85$, $p < .001$).

Before moving on to Hypothesis 6, I looked at the interaction between gender and the work–family construct for family life satisfaction. As the line graph below shows, there was evidence of an interaction between gender and the work–family construct; i.e., the impact of the work–family construct on family life satisfaction looked different for males and females. If there were no interaction, the lines would have been parallel.

Figure 7 Relationship of Work–Family Construct and Family Life Satisfaction by Gender



To determine if the interaction had a statistically significant impact on life satisfaction, I reran the logistic regression with the work–family construct, gender, and gender by work–family construct interaction. The overall logistic regression model containing both gender and work construct and their interaction was significant ($\chi^2(12) = 47.45$, $p < .001$). However, when testing each independent variable overall, gender was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 3.35$, $p = .501$) and the gender by work–family construct interaction was not significant ($\chi2(4) = 8.84$, $p = .065$) for the life satisfaction DV. Thus, although the interaction was apparent in the graph, it was not strong enough to be statistically significant.

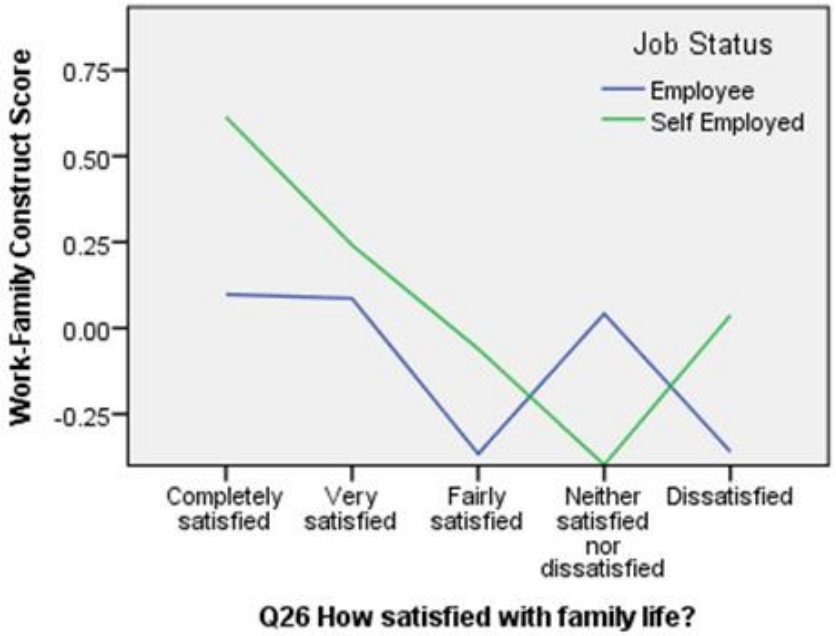
H_6. Work status (salaried vs. self-employed) moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.

With work status (i.e., job status), self-employed was the reference category. Again, proceeding a hierarchical fashion, I first looked at a logistic model with job status by itself. Job status was not significant by itself ($\chi^2(4) = 1.63$, $p = .804$).

After adding the work–family construct to the model, the overall logistic regression model containing both job status and the work–family construct was significant ($\chi^2(8) = 36.20$, $p < .001$). When testing each independent variable overall, job status was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 1.20$, $p = .878$), but the work–family construct was still significant ($\chi^2(4) = 35.00$, $p < .001$). Based on this result, there was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis of no impact by job status (i.e., the job status regression coefficient = 0) and no evidence to accept H_6.

I also looked at the interaction between job status and the work–family construct. As the line graph below shows, there was evidence of an interaction between job status and the work–family construct; i.e., the impact of the work–family construct on life satisfaction looked different for salaried employees and people who were self-employed. Again, if there were no interaction, the lines would have been parallel.

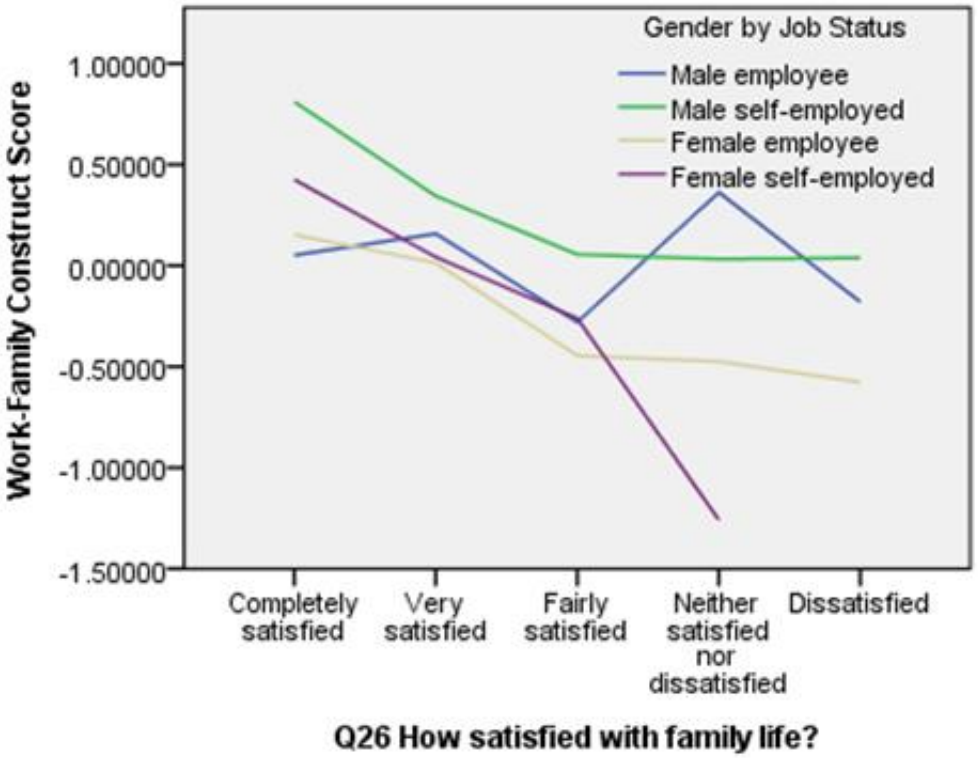
Figure 8 Relationship of Work–Family Construct to Family Life Satisfaction by Job Status



To determine if the interaction was statistically significant, for the life satisfaction DV, I reran the logistic regression with the work–family construct, job status and job status by work–family construct interaction. The overall logistic regression model containing both job status and work construct and their interaction was significant ($\chi^2(12) = 40.31$, $p < .001$). However, when testing each independent variable overall, the job status by work–family construct interaction was not significant ($\chi2(4) = 4.11$, $p = .391$) for the life satisfaction DV. Thus, although the interaction was apparent in the graph, it was not strong enough to be statistically significant.

I also looked at the three-way interaction between gender, job status, and the work–family construct for the life satisfaction DV. As the line graph below shows, there was evidence of a three-way interaction; i.e., the impact of the work–family construct on life satisfaction looked different for the gender by job status combinations.

Figure 9 Relationship of Work–Family Construct to Family Life Satisfaction by Gender and Job Status



To determine if the three-way interaction was statistically significant, I reran the logistic regression with work–family construct, gender, job status, gender by work–family construct interaction, job status by work–family construct interaction, and gender by job status by work–family construct interaction. The overall logistic regression model containing all terms was significant ($\chi^2(24) = 51.54$, $p = .001$). However, when testing each independent variable overall, the gender by job status by work–family construct 3-way interaction was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 1.05$, $p = .903$) for the life satisfaction DV. Once again, although the interaction was apparent in the graph, it was not strong enough to be statistically significant.

IV.9 Overall Research Conclusion

This research was conducted to answer various research questions. Each question and its answer is shown below:

1. Is there a different relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction among men and women?

There was strong evidence showing there was a statistically significant relationship (at the $p < .05$ level) between the work–family construct and job satisfaction. However, there was no statistically significant evidence indicating this relationship was different for men and women. Neither gender nor the gender by work–family construct interaction were statistically significant parameters in the job satisfaction logistic regression model.

2. Is there a different relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction among men and women?

There was strong evidence showing there was a statistically significant relationship (at the $p < .05$ level) between the work–family construct and life satisfaction. However, there was no statistically significant evidence indicating this relationship was different for men and women. Neither gender nor the gender by work–family construct interaction were significant parameters in the life satisfaction logistic regression model.

3. Do these relationships differ when controlling for whether a person is salaried or self-employed?

There was statistically significant evidence (at the $p < .05$ level) that the relationship between the the work–family construct and job satisfaction was different based on job status. However, there was no statistically significant evidence that the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction was different based on job status.

4. Does the attitude towards the role of women and the division of household labor impact the work–family construct?

There was no statistically significant evidence (at the $p < .05$ level) that there was a relationship between the role of women and the division of household labor constructs (separately or together) and the work–family construct. Thus, there was no evidence they were antecedents for the work–family construct.

The above research questions led to various hypotheses. The following table shows a general summary of the test results as related to the hypotheses from the research questions.

Table 18 Summary of Hypotheses Testing at the $p \leq .05$ Level

Hypotheses	Decision	Evidence
H_0: There is no relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction. H_1: There is a significant relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.	Reject H_0, Accept H_1	The work–family construct was significant in overall logistic regression Supported by chi-square analysis of individual items
H_0: There is no difference between women and men in terms of the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction. H_2: Gender moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.	No evidence to reject H_0	Gender was <u>not</u> significant in the logistic regression Gender by work–family construct interaction was <u>not</u> significant
H_0: There is no difference between employed and self-employed people in terms of the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction. H_3: Job status moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.	Reject H_0, Accept H_3	Job status was significant in the logistic regression Chi-square tests controlled by job status were sig. for some individual items
H_0: There is no relationship between the work–family construct and family life satisfaction. H_4: There is a significant relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.	Reject H_0, Accept H_4	The work–family construct was significant in overall logistic regression Supported by chi-square analysis of individual items
H_0: There is no difference between women and men in terms of the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction. H_5: Gender moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.	No evidence to reject H_5	Gender was <u>not</u> significant in the logistic regression Gender by work–family construct interaction was <u>not</u> significant

H_0: There is no difference between employed and self-employed people in terms of the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction. H_6: Job status moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.	No evidence to reject H_6	Job status was not significant in the logistic regression Job status by work–family construct interaction was not significant
H_0: There is no relationship between the role of women and the work–family construct. H_7: The attitude towards the role of women impacts the work–family construct.	No evidence to reject H_0	Role of women construct was not significant in the linear regression
H_0: There is no relationship between the division of household labor and the work–family construct. H_8: The division of household labor impacts the work–family construct.	No evidence to reject H_0	Division of labor construct was not significant in the linear regression

A further comparison of the most previous available data (2002) was done. Below is a crosswalk of survey questions done to ensure similarity for both years.

Table 19 Crosswalk of 2012 Variables with 2002 Variables

2012 Variable	2012 Question #	2002 Question #	2002 Variable #
V56 - How satisfied are you with your main job?[3]	Q25	Q14.50	V53
V57 - How satisfied are you with your family life?[1]	Q26	Q14.51	V54
Gender	Sex of Respondent	Sex of Respondent	V200
Job Status (Salaried or Self-Employed)	Salaried vs Self-Employed	Private/Public vs SE	V242
Work–Family Construct (Measured by Variables 51 to 54)			
• V51 – How often have you come home from work too tired to do necessary chores at home?	Q23a	Q14.45	V48
• V52 – How often has it been too difficult for you to fulfill family responsibilities because of the time spent on your job?	Q23b	Q14.46	V49
• V53 – How often have you arrived at work too tired to function well because of household (H/H) you had done?	Q23c	Q14.47	V50
• V54 - How often have you found it difficult to concentrate at work because of family responsibilities?	Q23d	Q14.48	V51
• V5 – A working mother can establish just as warm & secure a relationship with children as a mother who does not work.	Q1a	Q14.1	V4
• V6 – A preschool child is likely to suffer if the mother works.	Q1b	Q14.2	V5
• V7 – Family life suffers when the woman has a full-time job.	Q1c	Q14.3	V6
• V8 – A job is alright, but what most women want is a home and children.	Q1d	Q14.4	V7
• V9 – Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay.	Q1e	Q14.5	V8

[3] This question is measured on a 1 to 7 Likert scale. To the extent possible, the multi-item scale will be retained in my analysis, but some categories may need to be collapsed due to small sample sizes (similarly for the independent variables).

• V10 – Both man & woman should contribute to H/H income.	Q2a	Q14.7	V10
• V11 – A man's job is to earn money; a woman's job is to look after the home and family	Q2b	Q14.8	V11
For V12 & V13, do think that women should work outside the home full-time, part-time or not at all under the following… • V12 – When there is a child under school age? • V13 – After the youngest child starts school?	Q3a Q3b	Q14.12 Q14.13	V15 V16
Division of Labor <u>Construct</u> (Measured by Variables 41 to 48)			
• V41 – How do you and your spouse/partner organize the income that one or both of you receive?	Q18	Q14.26	V29
For V42 to V47 - In your household who does the following…			
• V42 – Laundry?	Q19a	Q14.27	V30
• V43 – Repairs?	Q19b	Q14.28	V31
• V44 – Cares for sick family members?	Q19c	Q14.29	V32
• V45 – Shops?	Q19d	Q14.30	V33
• V46 – Household cleaning?	Q19e	Q14.31	V34
• V47 – Cooking?	Q19f	Q14.32	V35
• V48 – Which best applies to the sharing of H/H work?	Q20	Q14.35	V38

IV.9.1 *2002 Data Preparation and Analysis[4] Recoding*

- V53 (DV 1) and V54 (DV 2) – Both recoded from seven categories to five categories, to be comparable to the 2012 DVs. Created V53_5G and V54_5G.

Missing Values

- Vars. 4 to 11 – No changes made because percentage of MVs was small, ranging from low of 1.0% to high of 4.2%.
- Var. 15 & Var 16 – MVs allocated randomly to maintain categorical proportions and not affect relationships. Created V15_No_MV and V16_No_MV.
- Vars. 29 to 35 & Var. 38 – No changes made because around 95% of MVs were legitimate (i.e., respondent did not have a partner). The number of "non-legitimate" MVs was small enough to have little or no impact.
- V48 to 51 – "Non-legitimate" MVs (i.e., those with a job) allocated randomly to maintain categorical proportions and not affect relationships. Created V48_No_MV V49_No_MV, V50_No_MV, and V51_No_MV.
- V53_5G – "Non-legitimate" MVs (i.e., those working) allocated randomly to maintain categorical proportions and not affect relationships. Created V53_5G_No_MV.

Factor Analysis

Repeated exact 2012 factor analysis on the 2002 variables to produce the three proposed underlying constructs—results were similar to those found in 2012.

- For the WFC:
  - KMO = 0.71 and Bartlet's test was not significant.
  - Reliability analysis showed a Cronbach's alpha = 0.71, considered good for a construct of >= 5 items. No items could be dropped without a drop in alpha.
- For the RWC:
  - KMO = 0.80 and Bartlet's test was not sig.
  - Reliability analysis showed a Cronbach's alpha = 0.75, considered okay for a construct of >= 6 items. No items could be dropped without a drop in alpha.
- For the DLC:
  - Initial factor analysis had a KMO = 0.88 and Bartlet's test was not sig.
  - Initial reliability analysis showed a Cronbach's alpha = 0.63, considered low for a construct of >= 6 items. Analysis also showed two items could be dropped and the alpha would go up.
  - Dropped the two items and repeated the analysis.
    - Final KMO remained at 0.88 and Bartlet's test was not sig.
    - Final reliability analysis showed a Cronbach's alpha = 0.86, considered good for a construct of >= 6 items. Analysis also no more items could be dropped without a little decrease in the alpha.
    - This is the DLC score used in subsequent analysis.

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Correlation & Linear Regression

- Ran correlation for 2002 constructs.
- Both DLC & RWC were correlated with WFC—results not correlated in 2012.

Table 20 Correlations

Correlations

		Work-Family Construct	Role of Women Construct	Division of Labor Construct
Work-Family Construct	Pearson Correlation	1	.116**	.110*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.013
Role of Women Construct	Pearson Correlation	.116**	1	-.077
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.063
Division of Labor Construct	Pearson Correlation	.110*	-.077	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	.063	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

- Did linear regression w/WFC as DV and DLC & RWC as IVs—<u>results were significant</u>. (Results were not significant in 2012.)

Table 21 Model Summary and ANOVA

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.175[a]	.031	.026	1.00955768

a. Predictors: (Constant), Division of Labor Construct, Role of Women Construct

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	14.982	2	7.491	7.350	.001[b]
	Residual	474.950	466	1.019		
	Total	489.933	468			

a. Dependent Variable: Work-Family Construct

b. Predictors: (Constant), Division of Labor Construct, Role of Women Construct

Table 22 Coefficients

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-.030	.047		-.647	.518		
	Role of Women Construct	.130	.048	.126	2.738	.006	.981	1.020
	Division of Labor Construct	.146	.048	.140	3.037	.003	.981	1.020

a. Dependent Variable: Work-Family Construct

Chi-Square Tests of Independence

- Ran tests for each construct component for each DV.
- 2012 and 2002 results were generally similar---found a few more significant items in 2002 than in 2012.

2002 MLR Results

IV.9.2 *Job Satisfaction*

Work–Family Construct as IV (H_1)

- MLR model was significant ($\chi^2(4) = 67.32$, $p < .001$). Relationship was weak, given Nagelkerke $R^2 = .08$, meaning the work family construct only accounted for about 8% of the variance in job satisfaction. Confirmed 2012 findings.
- The coefficients table is shown below, with results similar to 2012:

Table 23 Parameter Estimates

Parameter Estimates

Q14.50 How satisfied are you withyour main job?[a]		B	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% CIfor Exp(B)	
							LB	UB
Completely satisfied	Intercept	.817	21.846	1	.000			
	Work_Family	.702	14.772	1	.000	2.018	1.411	2.886
Very satisfied	Intercept	1.767	131.005	1	.000			
	Work_Family	.325	4.425	1	.035	1.384	1.022	1.875
Fairly satisfied	Intercept	1.671	115.458	1	.000			
	Work_Family	-.050	.109	1	.742	.951	.706	1.281
Dissatisfied	Intercept	.477	6.713	1	.010			
	Work_Family	-.323	3.626	1	.057	.724	.519	1.010

a. The reference category is: Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

Gender as IV

- MLR model with only gender was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 6.18$, $p = .19$). Thus, gender did not have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Confirmed 2012 findings.

Work–Family Construct and Gender as IVs (H_2)

- MLR model containing both gender and work construct was significant ($\chi^2(8) = 73.79$, $p < .001$). However, when testing each independent variable overall, gender was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 6.45$, $p = .167$), with the work–family construct in the model. Therefore, there was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the gender regression coefficient was 0, and thus, no evidence to accept H_2. (Note: The work family construct was significant ($\chi^2(4) = 68.76$, $p < .001$). Confirmed 2012 findings.
- Reran the MLR with the work–family construct, gender, and gender by work–family construct interaction. Overall MLR model containing both gender and the work–family construct and their interaction was significant ($\chi^2(12) = 78.18$, $p < .001$). However, when testing each independent variable overall, the gender by work–family construct was not

significant ($\chi^2(4) = 4.40$, $p = .355$) and gender was also not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 7.39$, $p = .117$). Confirmed 2012 findings.

Work Status as IV

- MLR model with only work status (salaried employee vs. self-employed) was significant ($\chi^2(4) = 18.86$, $p = .001$). Thus, work status did have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Being in the salaried category as opposed to self-employed reduced the chances of being in the completely satisfied category and the very satisfied category as opposed to the neither satisfied nor dissatisfied category by a factor of 0.19 and 0.37, respectively, or reduced the chances by 81% and 63%, respectively. Work status did not have a significant impact on any other DV category by itself. Confirmed 2012 findings.

Work–Family Construct and Work Status as IVs (H_3)

- MLR model for 2002 containing both work status and work construct was significant ($\chi^2(8) = 81.25$, $p < .001$). Confirmed 2012 findings.
  - When testing each independent variable overall: 1) work status was significant ($\chi^2(4) = 13.79$, $p = .008$); and, 2) work family construct was significant ($\chi2(4) = 63.67$, $p < .001$). Therefore, there was evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the work status regression coefficient was 0, and thus, evidence to accept H_2, and conclude that work status did moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and the work–family construct for 2002. Confirmed 2012 findings.
  - The relationship was weak, given Nagelkerke $R^2 = .10$, meaning work status and the work family construct only accounted for about 10% of the variance in job satisfaction. Confirmed 2012 findings.
- The coefficients table is shown below, with results similar to 2012.

Table 24 Parameter Estimates

Parameter Estimates

Q14.50 How satisfied are you withyour main job?[a]		B	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% CI for Exp(B)	
							LB	UB
Completely satisfied	Intercept	1.605	10.797	1	.001			
	Work_Family	.691	14.033	1	.000	1.995	1.390	2.863
	[Job_Status=0]	-.968	3.474	1	.062	.380	.137	1.051
	[Job_Status=1]	0[b]	.	0	.	.	.	.
Very satisfied	Intercept	2.031	18.257	1	.000			
	Work_Family	.328	4.479	1	.034	1.388	1.025	1.880
	[Job_Status=0]	-.320	.406	1	.524	.726	.271	1.945
	[Job_Status=1]	0[b]	.	0	.	.	.	.
Fairly satisfied	Intercept	1.792	13.754	1	.000			
	Work_Family	-.052	.116	1	.734	.950	.705	1.279
	[Job_Status=0]	-.143	.079	1	.779	.866	.319	2.356
	[Job_Status=1]	0[b]	.	0	.	.	.	.
Dissatisfied	Intercept	-.038	.004	1	.952			
	Work_Family	-.314	3.438	1	.064	.730	.524	1.018
	[Job_Status=0]	.561	.720	1	.396	1.752	.480	6.396
	[Job_Status=1]	0[b]	.	0	.	.	.	.

a. The reference category is: Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

- As the preceding table shows, even though work status was significant overall, it did not have a significant impact on any of the individual job satisfaction categories when compared to neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.
- With work status in the model, the work–family construct had a significant relationship with two of the DV categories: completely satisfied (B = .69, p = .001); and, very satisfied (B = .33, p = .034). Again, the work–family relationship was positive as expected. When work status was in the model, the effect of the work–family construct on these two DV categories was:
  - For the completely satisfied DV category, an increase of one in the work family construct score increased the odds of being completely satisfied with the job as opposed to being neither satisfied nor dissatisfied by a factor of 2.00, or 100%.
  - For the very satisfied DV category, an increase of one in the work family construct score increased the odds of being very satisfied with the job as opposed to being neither satisfied nor dissatisfied by a factor of 1.39, or 39%.
  - The work–family construct did not have a significant impact on the other two DV categories when compared to neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.
- Reran the MLR with the work–family construct, work status, and work status by work–family construct interaction. Overall MLR model containing both work status and the work–family construct and their interaction was significant ($\chi^2(12) = 94.31$, $p < .001$). When testing each independent variable overall, the work status by work–family construct interaction was significant ($\chi^2(4) = 13.06$, $p = .011$). An increase of 1 in the work–family construct for a male as opposed to a female reduced the chances of being in any job satisfaction category compared to neither satisfied nor dissatisfied in the range of 80 to 90%. Different from the 2012 findings.
- Reran the MLR with the work–family construct, gender, work status, gender by work–family construct interaction, work status by work–family construct interaction, and

gender by work status by work–family construct interaction. The overall logistic regression model containing all terms was significant ($\chi2(24) = 115.67$, $p < .001$). The gender by work status by work–family construct three-way interaction was significant ($\chi2(4) = 9.98$, $p = .041$). However, it only had a significant impact ($B = -4.00$, $p = .049$, $Exp(B) = .02$) on the completely satisfied category: if a person was male and in the salaried employee work status as opposed to female and self-employed, an increase of 1 in the work family construct score reduced the chances of being in the completely satisfied category compared to neither satisfied nor dissatisfied by a factor of .02, or 98%. Different from the 2012 findings.

IV.9.3 *Life Satisfaction*

Work–Family Construct as IV (H_4)

- MLR model was significant ($\chi^2(4) = 54.48$, $p < .001$). Relationship was weak, given Nagelkerke $R^2 = .06$, meaning the work family construct only accounted for about 6% of the variance in life satisfaction. Confirmed 2012 findings.
- The coefficients table is shown below:

Table 25 Parameter Estimates

Parameter Estimates

V54_5G Q14.51 How satisfied with family life[a]		B	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% CI for Exp(B) LB	UB
1 Completely satisfied	Intercept	1.179	58.732	1	.000			
	Work_Family	.681	20.568	1	.000	1.975	1.472	2.650
2 Very satisfied	Intercept	1.845	164.861	1	.000			
	Work_Family	.278	4.386	1	.036	1.320	1.018	1.712
3 Fairly satisfied	Intercept	1.353	81.690	1	.000			
	Work_Family	.190	1.889	1	.169	1.209	.922	1.584
5 Dissatisfied	Intercept	-.483	4.696	1	.030			
	Work_Family	-.374	4.518	1	.034	.688	.487	.971

a. The reference category is: 4 Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

- The 2002 coefficients table shows a more positive impact of the work–family construct on life satisfaction then in 2012.
    - A change of 1 in the work–family construct score increased the odds of being completely or very satisfied as opposed to neither satisfied nor dissatisfied by a factor of 1.98 (98%) and 1.32 (32%), respectively.
    - A change of 1 in the work–family construct score decreased the odds of being dissatisfied as opposed to neither satisfied nor dissatisfied by a factor of .69 (31%).

Gender as IV

- MLR model with only gender was significant ($\chi^2(4) = 21.44$, $p < .001$). Thus, gender did have a significant impact on life satisfaction. Different from 2012 findings.

Work–Family Construct and Gender as IVs (H_5)

- After adding the work–family construct to the model, the overall logistic regression model containing both gender and work construct was significant ($\chi2(8) = 70.87$, $p < .001$). When testing each independent variable overall, both gender and the work–family construct were significant ($\chi2(4) = 16.39$, $p = .003$ and $\chi2(4) = 56.21$, $p < .001$, respectively). Therefore, there was evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the gender regression coefficient was 0, and thus, evidence to accept H_5. Different from 2012 findings.
- Reran the MLR with the work–family construct, gender, and gender by work–family construct interaction. Overall MLR model containing both gender and the work–family construct and their interaction was significant ($\chi^2(12) = 74.27$, $p < .001$). However, the gender by the work–family construct was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 4.34$, $p = .493$). Confirmed 2012 findings.

Work Status as IV

- MLR model with only work status (salaried employee vs. self-employed) was significant ($\chi^2(4) = 11.14$, $p = .025$). Thus, work status did have a significant impact on life satisfaction. However, there was no significant impact on any individual life satisfaction category when the neither satisfied nor dissatisfied category was the reference category. Different from the 2012.

Work–Family Construct and Work Status as IVs (H_6)

- MLR model for 2002 containing both work status and work construct was significant ($\chi^2(8) = 62.41$, $p < .001$). Confirmed 2012 findings.
- When testing each independent variable overall: 1) work status was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 8.68$, $p = .069$); and, 2) work family construct was significant ($\chi 2(4) = 52.13$, $p < .001$). Therefore, in 2002, there was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the work status regression coefficient was 0, and thus, no evidence to accept H_6. Confirmed 2012 findings.
- Reran the MLR with the work–family construct, work status, and work status by work–family construct interaction. Overall MLR model containing both work status and the work–family construct and their interaction was significant ($\chi^2(12) = 63.96$, $p < .001$). When testing each independent variable overall, the work status by work–family construct interaction was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 1.71$, $p = .788$). Confirmed the 2012 findings.
- Reran the MLR with the work–family construct, gender, work status, gender by work–family construct interaction, work status by work–family construct interaction, and gender by work status by work–family construct interaction. The overall logistic regression model containing all terms was significant ($\chi 2(24) = 87.85$, $p < .001$). The gender by work status by work–family construct three-way interaction was not significant ($\chi 2(4) = 4.23$, $p = .376$). Confirmed the 2012 findings.

IV.9.4 *Impact of "Presence/Absence of Children" as a Moderator on Job and Life Satisfaction*

In prior analysis, we looked at gender and work status as potential moderators in the relationship between the work–family construct and the job and life satisfaction dependent variables (DVs). Gender was not a significant moderator for either dependent variable. Work status had a significant relationship with job satisfaction but the interaction between work status and the work–family construct was not significant. Work status was not a significant moderator for life satisfaction.

In light of these findings, we decided to analyze one more potential moderator. The following presents the results of looking at the presence or absence of children as a moderator in the relationship between the work–family construct and the job and life satisfaction DVs.

Satisfaction with Main Job

In this analysis, job satisfaction was the DV, the work–family construct was the independent variable (IV), and presence/absence of children was looked at as the potential moderator. As

before, the neutral DV category "neither satisfied nor dissatisfied" was the reference category for interpreting regression coefficients. For presence/absence of children, "no" was the reference category. Using the 2012 data, we looked at the potential impact of the presence/absence of children in 3 steps:

1. We looked at presence/absence of children as the only IV in the model. The logistic regression model was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 6.58$, $p = .160$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .01$).
2. Next, we looked at presence/absence of children as another IV in the model along with the work–family construct. The overall logistic regression model was significant ($\chi^2(8) = 30.64$, $p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .04$). However, presence/absence of children was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 5.73$, $p = .220$).
3. Finally, we looked at the interaction between presence/absence of children and the work–family construct. The overall logistic regression model was significant ($\chi^2(12) = 39.56$, $p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .05$). However, the interaction between presence/absence of children and the work–family construct was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 8.92$, $p = .063$).

NOTE: We repeated this analysis on the 2002 data and obtained similar findings, verifying the results from the 2012 data.

Therefore, the conclusion is that the presence or absence of children did not have a significant impact on the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction in 2012. This was true whether looking at the presence or absence of children as another IV or as a moderating variable. The analysis on the 2002 data supported this conclusion.

Satisfaction with Family Life

We repeated the same analysis described above with life satisfaction was the DV. Again, using the 2012 data, we looked at the potential impact of the presence/absence of children in 3 steps:

1. We looked at presence/absence of children as the only IV in the model. The logistic regression model was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 3.05$, $p = .550$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .00$). (NOTE: In 2002, the result was different. The logistic regression model was significant ($\chi^2(4) = 16.03$, $p = .003$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .015$).)
2. Next, we looked at presence/absence of children as another IV in the model along with the work–family construct. The overall logistic regression model was significant ($\chi^2(8) = 47.15$, $p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .06$). However, presence/absence of children was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 9.09$, $p = .059$). (NOTE: In 2002, the result was different. The overall logistic regression model was significant ($\chi^2(8) = 78.31$, $p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .09$). The presence/absence of children was also significant ($\chi^2(4) = 23.76$, $p < .001$).)

3. Finally, we looked at the interaction between presence/absence of children and the work–family construct. The overall logistic regression model was significant ($\chi^2(12) = 53.60$, $p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .06$). However, the interaction between presence/absence of children and the work–family construct was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 6.45$, $p = .168$). (NOTE: In this case, the results for 2002 were consistent with and verified the 2012 results. The interaction between presence/absence of children and the work–family construct was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 5.80$, $p = .215$).)
   Therefore, based on 2012 data, the conclusion is that the presence or absence of children did not have a significant impact on the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction. This was true whether looking at the presence or absence of children as another IV or as a moderating variable.

Based on the 2002 data, when viewed as another IV, the presence or absence of children did have a significant impact on the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction. However, when viewed as a potential moderator, the presence or absence of children did not have a significant impact on the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction. In this case, the 2002 results were consistent with 2012.

IV.9.5 *Impact of Gender by Presence/Absence of Children*

Further analysis was done to determine the impact on job and life satisfaction of males and females with and without children. I took two approaches using multinomial logistic regression (MLR) to analyze if there was any relationship. In achieving this, I created dummy variables for each gender/children combination and analyzed their impact on the relationship between work family construct and job and life satisfaction---the gender/children categories were:

a. Male with no children;
b. Female with no children;
c. Male with children;
d. Female with children.

I also analyzed the impact of gender by presence/absence of children interaction on the relationship between work family construct and job and life satisfaction.

I focused on the 2012 ISSP data and then repeated the analysis on the 2002 data to verify, or contradict, the 2012 findings. The results for each of the two analysis approaches are shown below.

1. Dummy Variable Analysis

Job Satisfaction

H_{A0}: There is a relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction, but it is not impacted by gender and presence/absence of children (i.e., all gender and presence/absence of children regression coefficients = 0).

H_{A1}: Gender and presence/absence of children moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction (i.e., at least one gender and presence/absence of children regression coefficients ≠ 0).

In this MLR, job satisfaction was the dependent variable (DV) and the work–family construct was the independent variable (IV), with 3 potential moderating dummy variables (effects): female with no children, male with children, and female with children. Male with no children was the "left out", or reference, category (i.e., gender = "0" and children = "0").

Using the 2012 data, the overall MLR was significant ($\chi^2(16) = 49.03$, $p < .001$). Then, when looking at the individual gender and presence/absence of children effects, only the female with no children effect was significant ($\chi^2(4) = 11.80$, $p = .019$), given the reference category of male with no children. Therefore, based on 2012 data, there was some evidence to reject the null hypothesis (H_{A0}) and conclude that at least one of the gender and presence/absence of children categories moderated the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction (H_{A1}). (The 2002 data did not provide any evidence to reject the null hypothesis.)

Life Satisfaction

H_{B0}: There is a relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction, but it is not impacted by gender and presence/absence of children (i.e., all gender and presence/absence of children regression coefficients = 0).

H_{B1}: Gender and presence/absence of children moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction (i.e., at least one gender and presence/absence of children regression coefficients ≠ 0).

Using the 2012 data, the overall MLR was significant ($\chi^2(16) = 56.03$, $p < .001$). However, there were no significant gender and presence/absence of children at the $p = .05$ level, given the reference category of male with no children. Therefore, based on 2012 data, there was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis (H_{B0}). (The 2002 data did not support the 2012 findings. In 2002, all gender and presence/absence of children effects were significant at the $p \leq .006$, given the male with children reference category. Thus, in 2002, there was evidence to reject the null hypothesis (H_{B0}) and conclude that gender and presence/absence of children moderated the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction (H_{B1}).)

2. Gender by Children Interaction Analysis

Job Satisfaction

H_{C0}: There is a relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction, but it is not impacted by an interaction between gender and presence/absence of children (i.e., the interaction regression coefficient = 0).

H_{C1}: The interaction between gender and presence/absence of children moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction (i.e., the interaction regression coefficient ≠ 0).

In this MLR, job satisfaction was the dependent variable (DV), construct was the independent variable (IV), and gender by presence/absence of children was the potential

moderating interaction variable. When developing a regression model with an interaction term, all lower order variables (here gender and presence/absence of children) also have to be in the model.

Using the 2012 data, the overall MLR was significant ($\chi^2(16) = 49.03$, $p < .001$). However, when looking at the individual effects in the model, the gender by presence/absence of children interaction was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 6.15$, $p = .188$). Therefore, based on 2012 data, there was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis (H_{C0}).

I also went one step further and looked at both the 2-way gender by presence/absence of children interaction and the three-way work–family construct by gender by presence/absence of children interaction. Again, the overall MLR was significant ($\chi^2(28) = 67.85$, $p < .001$). However, when looking at the individual effects in the model, both the gender by presence/absence of children interaction and the work–family construct by gender by presence/absence of children interaction were not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 5.48$, $p = .242$ and $\chi^2(12) = 18.83$, $p = .093$, respectively). Therefore, based on 2012 data, there again was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis (H_{C0}).

The 2002 data supported both conclusions from the 2012 data.

Life Satisfaction

H_{D0}: There is a relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction, but it is not impacted by an interaction between gender and presence/absence of children (i.e., the interaction regression coefficient = 0).

H_{D1}: The interaction between gender and presence/absence of children moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction (i.e., the interaction regression coefficient ≠ 0).

Using the 2012 data, the overall MLR was significant ($\chi^2(16) = 56.03$, $p < .001$). However, when looking at the individual effects in the model, the gender by presence/absence of children interaction was not significant ($\chi^2(4) = 6.93$, $p = .139$). Therefore, based on 2012 data, there was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis (H_{D0}).

Again, I went one step further and looked at both the 2-way gender by presence/absence of children interaction and the three-way work–family construct by gender by presence/absence of children interaction. Again, the overall MLR was significant ($\chi^2(28) = 74.12$, $p < .001$). However, when looking at the individual effects in the model, both the gender by presence/absence of children interaction and the work–family construct by gender by presence/absence of children interaction were not significant

($\chi^2(4) = 6.41$, $p = .170$ and $\chi^2(12) = 18.09$, $p = .113$, respectively). Therefore, based on 2012 data, there again was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis (H_{D0}).

The 2002 data supported both conclusions from the 2012 data.

IV.9.6 *Summary*

Based on the analysis of 2012 ISSP data, we can conclude the following:

1. There was no evidence that the gender by presence/absence of children interaction had a significant moderating impact on either the relationship between work–family conflict construct and job satisfaction or the relationship between work–family conflict construct and life satisfaction.
2. There was no evidence that any of the gender and presence/absence of children combinations (entered as dummy variables) had a significant moderating impact on the relationship between work–family conflict construct and life satisfaction, given the male with no children reference category.
3. There was evidence that the female with no children effect (category) had a significant moderating impact on the relationship between work–family conflict construct and job satisfaction, given the male with no children reference category.

Generally, the 2002 data supported the 2012 findings, with the exception of the gender and presence/absence of children dummy variable effects on the relationship between work–family conflict construct and life satisfaction. In 2002, all gender and presence/absence of

children effects had a significant impact on the relationship between work–family conflict construct and life satisfaction.

Overall Research Conclusions

We conducted this research using 2012 data to answer various research questions and used 2002 data to confirm 2012 conclusions. Each question and its answer is shown below:

1. Is there a different relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction among men and women?

Based on the 2012 data, there was strong evidence showing there was a statistically significant relationship (at the $p < .05$ level) between the work–family construct and job satisfaction. However, there was no statistically significant evidence indicating this relationship was different for men and women. Neither gender nor the gender by work–family construct interaction were statistically significant parameters in the job satisfaction logistic regression model. The 2002 data confirmed the 2012 conclusions.

2. Is there a different relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction among men and women?

Based on the 2012 data, there was strong evidence showing there was a statistically significant relationship (at the $p < .05$ level) between the work–family construct and life satisfaction. However, there was no statistically significant evidence indicating this relationship was different for men and women. Neither gender nor the gender by work–family construct interaction were significant parameters in the life satisfaction logistic regression model.

The 2002 results confirmed the 2012 conclusion that there was a statistically significant relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction. In addition, the 2002 findings differed from the 2012 findings and indicated that when both gender and the work–family construct were in the MLR model:

a. Each had a significant impact on life satisfaction; but,
b. The gender by work–family construct interaction was not significant.

3. Do these relationships differ when controlling for whether a person is salaried or self-employed?

Based on the 2012 data, there was statistically significant evidence (at the $p < .05$ level) that the relationship between the the work–family construct and job satisfaction was different based on work status. However, there was no statistically significant evidence that the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction was different based on job status. The 2002 data confirmed the 2012 conclusions.

4. Does the attitude towards the role of women and the division of household labor impact the work–family construct?

Based on the 2012 data, there was no statistically significant evidence (at the $p < .05$ level) that there was a relationship between the attitude towards the role of women and the division of household labor constructs (separately or together) and the work–family construct. Thus, there was no evidence they were antecedents for the work–family construct.

The 2002 results were different from the 2012 conclusions. Based on 2002 data, both the Pearson correlations and the regression results indicated that the attitude towards the role of women and the division of household labor constructs could be considered significant antecedents of the work–family construct.

The above research questions led to various hypotheses. The following table shows a general summary of the test results as related to the hypotheses from the research questions.

Table 26 Summary of Hypotheses Testing at the $p \leq .05$ Level

Hypotheses	2012 Decision	2012 Evidence
H_0: There is no relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction. H_1: There is a significant relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.	Reject H_0, Accept H_1 (Supported by 2002)	The work–family construct was significant in overall logistic regression Supported by chi-square analysis of individual items
H_0: There is no difference between women and men in terms of the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction. H_2: Gender moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.	No evidence to reject H_0 (Supported by 2002)	Gender was <u>not</u> significant in the logistic regression Gender by work–family construct interaction was <u>not</u> significant
H_0: There is no difference between employed and self-employed people in terms of the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction. H_3: Job status moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.	Reject H_0, Accept H_3 (Supported by 2002)	Job status was significant in the logistic regression Chi-square tests controlled by job status were sig. for some individual items
H_0: There is no relationship between the work–family construct and family life satisfaction. H_4: There is a significant relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.	Reject H_0, Accept H_4 (Supported by 2002)	The work–family construct was significant in overall logistic regression Supported by chi-square analysis of individual items
H_0: There is no difference between women and men in terms of the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction. H_5: Gender moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.	No evidence to reject H_5 (Not supported by 2002)	Gender was <u>not</u> significant in the logistic regression Gender by work–family construct interaction was <u>not</u> significant

H_0: There is no difference between employed and self-employed people in terms of the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction. H_6: Job status moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.	No evidence to reject H_6 (Supported by 2002)	Job status was not significant in the logistic regression Job status by work–family construct interaction was not significant
H_0: There is no relationship between the attitude towards the role of women and the work–family construct. H_7: The attitude towards the role of women impacts the work–family construct.	No evidence to reject H_0 (Not supported by 2002)	Role of women construct was not significant in the linear regression
H_0: There is no relationship between the division of household labor and the work–family construct. H_8: The division of household labor impacts the work–family construct.	No evidence to reject H_0 (Not supported by 2002)	Division of labor construct was not significant in the linear regression

V CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The results of this study derived from the ISSP post analysis data indicated several interesting findings and conclusions. This study is framed using Social Role Theory as a framework of reference. The research focuses on the moderating role of gender and other work/family related issues on job and life satisfaction. In achieving the core objectives of the study, these research findings are divided into four major parts, the first section being the relationship between work–family conflict and job satisfaction among men and women.

RQ1: Is there a different relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction among men and women?

Two sets of hypotheses were associated with this research question.

H_0: There is no relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.

H_1: There is a significant relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.

The logistic regression showed the work–family construct had a significant impact on job satisfaction at the $p < .001$ level. Therefore, there was evidence to reject H_0 and conclude there was a significant relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction. (This finding was supported by 2002 data.)

As expected, the higher the level of work–family conflict, the lower the satisfaction with one's job. This is in consonance with conventional wisdom and some previous related research. A meta-analysis study indicated that work–family conflict negatively relates to job satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

The second set of RQ1 hypotheses was:

H_0: There is no difference between women and men in terms of the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.

H_2: Gender moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.

The logistic regression showed that both gender (when included with the work–family construct) and the gender by the work–family construct did not have a significant impact on job satisfaction ($p = .066$ and $p = .067$, respectively). Therefore, there was no evidence to reject H_0 and, thus, no evidence that gender moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction. (This finding was supported by 2002 data.)

The findings of this study indicate the non-existence of the moderating effect of gender on work–family conflict. These results are not consistent with some previous studies that found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and work–family conflict, and also found a much stronger relationship between these constructs in women than in their male counterparts (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Wiersma & van den Berg, 1991). Even more inconsistent are the results of some studies that found only significant results in women and not in their male counterparts (Kinnunen, Geurts, & Mauno, 2004; Wiersma & van den Berg, 1991).

The second major part of this study considered the relationship between the work–family construct and satisfaction with life among men and women.

RQ2: Is there a different relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction among men and women?

Two sets of hypotheses were associated with this research question:

H_0: There is no relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.

H_4: There is a significant relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.

The logistic regression showed the work–family construct had a significant impact on life satisfaction at the $p < .001$ level. Therefore, there was evidence to reject H_0 and conclude there was a significant relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction. (This finding was supported by 2002 data.)

The second set of RQ2 hypotheses was:

H_0: There is no difference between women and men in terms of the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.

H_5: Gender moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.

The logistic regression showed that both gender (when included with the work–family construct) and the gender by work–family construct did not have a significant impact on life satisfaction ($p = .601$ and $p = .065$, respectively). Therefore, there was no evidence to reject H_0 and, thus, no evidence that gender moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction. (This finding was only somewhat supported by 2002 data, which showed that gender was a significant factor when included with the work–family construct, but confirmed the gender by work–family construct interaction was not significant.)

These findings are supportive of the outcome of some previous research. Diener (2000) found a positive correlation between people who are satisfied with life and participation in community and work life, and he also went further to state that people who show less conflict with work tend to be happier with life and are less likely to get divorced. Life satisfaction also positively correlates with lifespan and work performance, while performance at work can be

affected by the level of work–family conflict (Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994). Decades ago, Brayfield, Wells, and Strate (1957) found a significant relationship for men and a non-significant relationship for women when evaluating the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among men and women, and they concluded that work is not an important factor for women when compared to men. However, more recent studies support this research's findings that gender does not moderate the relationship between work–family conflict and life satisfaction or job satisfaction (Kavanagh & Halpern, 1977).

The third major part of this study looked into effects of being self employed or salaried on work–family conflict as it relates to life and job satisfaction among men and women.

RQ3: Do these relationships differ when controlling for whether a person is salaried (employed) or self-employed?

Again, two sets of hypotheses were associated with this research question. The first set was:

H_0: There is no difference between employed and self-employed people in terms of the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.

H_3: Job status moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction.

The logistic regression showed that job status had a significant impact on job satisfaction when in the model along with the work–family construct ($p < .001$). Therefore, there was some evidence to reject H_0 and conclude that job status moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and job satisfaction. However, the job status by work–family construct interaction was not significant ($p = .284$). (These findings were supported by 2002 data.)

The second set of RQ3 hypotheses was:

H_0: There is no difference between employed and self-employed people in terms of the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.

H_6: Job status moderates the relationship between the work–family construct and life satisfaction.

The logistic regression showed that both job status (when included with the work–family construct) and the job status by work–family construct did not have a significant impact on life satisfaction ($p = .878$ and $p = .391$, respectively). Therefore, there was no evidence to reject H_0 and, thus, no evidence that job status moderates the relationship between work–family construct and life satisfaction. (These findings were supported by 2002 data.)

The findings of the research are in consonance with some previous studies and contrary to others. Some previous studies found that there is a higher degree of job satisfaction with being salaried as opposed to being self-employed (Jamal, 1997). The findings is also contrary to the role accumulation model of Sieber (1974); when related to one's employment status, the role accumulation model asserts that in an employment situation the positive experiences derived for being in that role always supersedes the cost or negative experiences.

The fourth major part of this study considered the effect of the attitude towards the role of women and the division of household on work–family conflict.

RQ4: Does the attitude towards the role of women and the division of household labor impact the work–family construct?

Two sets of hypotheses were associated with this research question. The first one was:

H_0: There is no relationship between the role of women and the work–family construct.

H_7: The attitude towards the role of women impacts the work–family construct.

The linear regression showed the role of women construct did not have a significant impact on the work–family construct ($p = .513$). Therefore, there was no evidence to reject H_0. (This finding was not supported by 2002 data.)

The second set of RQ4 hypotheses was:

H_0: There is no relationship between the division of household labor and the work–family construct.

H_8: The division of household labor impacts the work–family construct.

The linear regression showed the division of labor construct did not have a significant impact on the work–family construct ($p = .053$). Therefore, there was no evidence to reject H_0. (This finding was not supported by 2002 data.)

V.1 Implications for Practice

The results of this research strongly indicate that work–family conflict impacts the level of satisfaction with one's job and one's life, but this interaction is moderated by job status and the presence or absence of children among men and women. Our world is fast-changing, and corporations need to understand the dynamic nature of the workforce to inspire better productivity from employees. Business leaders need to look at the issue of the work–family conflict as an important concern bothering both men and women equally.

Additionally, work–family conflict has a negative effect on both sexes, but is tolerated better by entrepreneurs than salaried employees. This means that proper attention has to be paid to both men and women in resolving this conflict so as not to lose hardworking and diligent employees to the entrepreneurial world.

The notion that women experience a much higher degree of work–family conflict does not hold true anymore in the modern United States workforce. Interestingly, when looking at the

same data for 2002, gender was significant at the time; however, ten years later the gender effect had vanished. One plausible explanation for this change could be the steady increase of women's participation in the workforce thus changing the traditional role of women as described by Social Role Theory; this increase has also led to the sharing of domestic responsibilities with men, thereby causing the same impact for men. The increase in participation of women may be related to the economic/financial market setback or recession of 2007.

Another practical implication for business is the notion that people who face irreconcilable conflict between the work and family domain have a viable alternative or vocational choice that provides a more conducive atmosphere, one which allows flexibility and reduces or eliminates those sources of work–family conflict. My study also provides some implications for organizations that desire to improve work–family relationship: specifically, my suggestion would be the formulation of certain policies that are family-friendly and allow flexible schedules that enable employees to attend to the needs emanating from the family domain.

My findings certainly should be of interest to business leaders and practicing managers because they clearly indicate that the nature or conditions in which work is done when self-employed or salaried are fundamentally different. There is enough evidence to justify additional research to better understand how to reduce work–family conflict based on the conditions of work for salaried employees or self-employed workers. The commitment of employees, which obviously enhances productivity, has become a very important concern for organizations. The more organizations understand the salient factors that influence an employee's satisfaction with his job, the more successful the organization becomes. All organizations need to consider models that develop an employee's career and balance the relationship between work and family in order

to retain talent and enhance employee commitment. A holistic combination of ways to improve employee's career path and a balance in work–family relationship would provide more latitude as well as credibility for organizations and subsequently lead to better workplace productivity. In the regard, certain models have helped to ease the conflict between work and family demands; In particular, increasing employees' appraisal of control over the work they do is relevant mechanism for alleviating or eliminating work-family conflicts. Other models that have worked at alleviating this conflict are:

Time Shifting: This involves the use of formal flexible work arrangements. By doing this, employees are allowed to informally move some of their expected work time to accommodate family needs which means employees are allowed to either work ahead of schedule or make u their work later while creating time for the family. This process does not have any negative effect on performance of the employee because the work still gets done with little of no disruptions. This sort of approval can be received by discussing your family needs with your boss or supervisor. Building an environment of trust and credibility usually precedes such approval or autonomy. Examples of such autonomy or approvals are

The flexibility to leave work during business hours and complete the work task later that same day at home or in the office.

The flexibility to Leave work early in order to handle family demands or coming to work early to account for the time spent outside work.

The possibility of working on a typical non-working day so as to be able to take a working day off to attend to the demands from the family domain.

Taking time off during a typical workday, but making it up by working over the weekend The ability to switch work days and hours with a co-worker to give you the flexibility to attend to family needs while still getting the job done.

Time Holes: The use of time holes could also be used to alleviate the conflict between work and family demands. It is a process where an employee uses downtimes meant for breaks, meals lunch etc. to accomplish work or family related issues. This frees up time later in the day to accomplish more work or family related issues. The negative side of this is the inability to get some time to relax or refresh oneself. Some people prefer to work through their lunch so as to be able to leave work early or avoid taking work home that could interfere with family time. There is reasonable evidence to believe that the usage of these informal work accommodations reduced the stress emanating from family demands. None of these above-mentioned tactics can work in isolation or is a magic bullet for dealing with work-family conflict but considering all options these informal work accommodations does help alleviate these conflicts.

V.2 Implication for Theory

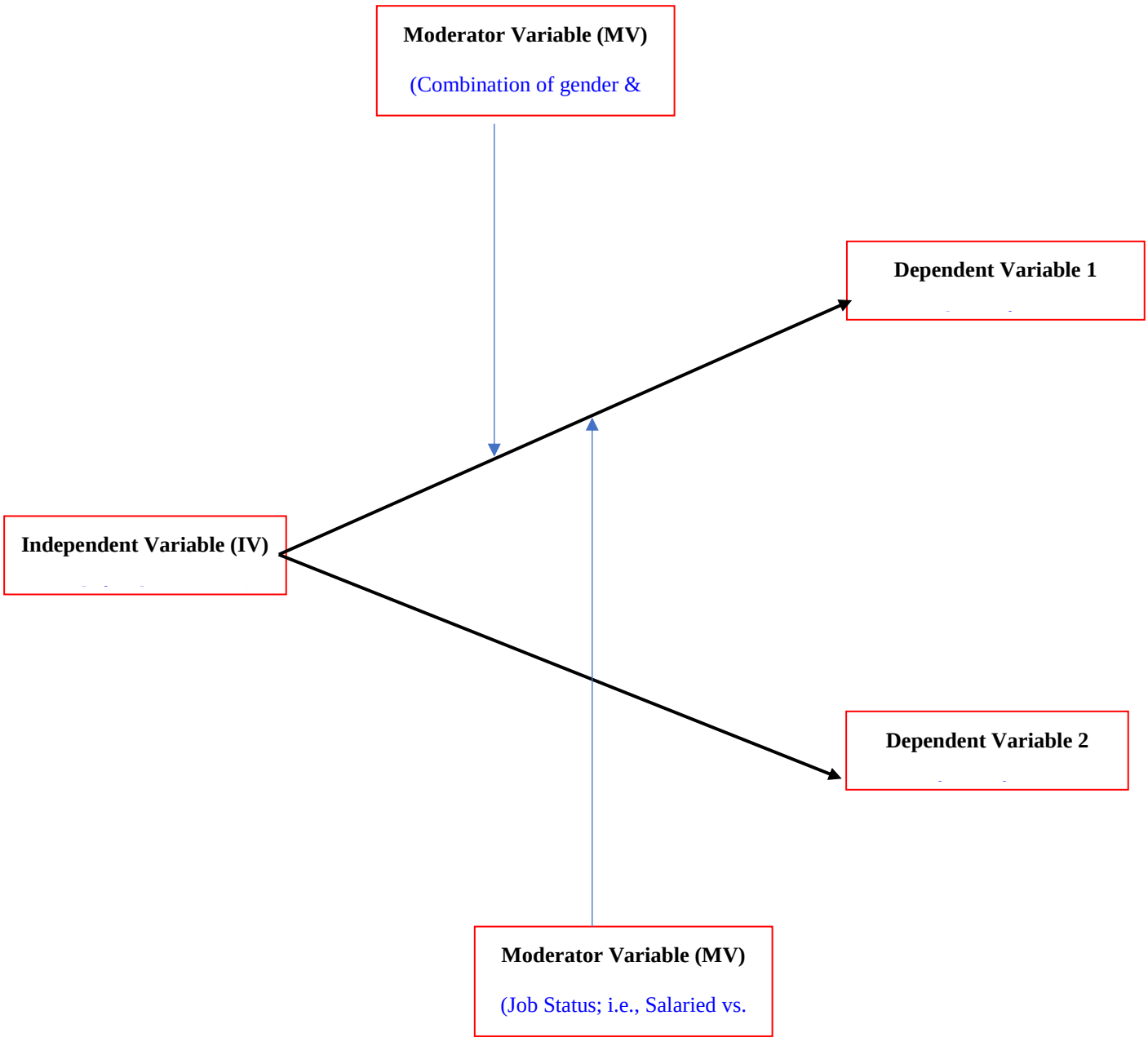
A significant shift in the demography of the workforce has subsequently caused a change in the traditional role of women and implied by the Social Role Theory. The perception of the role of women is changing and no longer has the same effect as it did decades ago. Social Role Theory postulates that society stereotypes the male and female gender with gender-specific roles. Based on these gender-specific roles, the feminine gender is stereotyped with taking care of the home, children, and domestic related matters. The findings of this research contribute to existing theory by illustrating that those stereotypical gender-specific roles have changed due to rapid changes in the demographics of the workforce. The traditional role of women and men, the traditional division of labor among men and women, and also the attitudes towards the role of

women are changing, which negates the validity of Social Role Theory as applied to gender and work–family conflict.

Interestingly, based on the 2002 data, Social Role Theory still held true for the attitudes towards the role of women and the division of household labor construct, but by 2012 it had faded away, which indicates that this is a new shift in the direction of the theory as applied to gender and work–family conflict. This could be as a result of the ability to share both domestic responsibilities with their husbands, which once again indicates that the gender-specific roles defined by Social Role Theory may be fast disintegrating and thus changing roles of women in the society is a very important contribution to theory.

In addition to the above, the findings of this study add to the existing literature on work–family conflict among self-employed individuals and salaried individuals. Organizations can benefit from conceptualizing the interaction of the work–family conflict construct and job satisfaction and life satisfaction through the probable antecedent and moderating variables. The moderating effects could also be affected by the type of business or job as well as the level of success of the business. Further research could look into the impact of this conflict by type of work done or by industry. As a result of this important finding, I revisited my conceptual model and proposed a new model, shown below.

Figure 10 New Conceptual Model



V.3 Limitations

This study has two critical limitations worth mentioning. First, the data used for this research was collected in the United States. As a result of this, the findings of this study may not hold generally true in other countries. Certain factors including level of development of the country, illiteracy, government policies, culture, or religion may influence the results in other

countries, which may be contrary to the findings in the United States. Secondly, this study is limited by the presence of some missing values. Even though there were a handful of missing values, they were not extensive, and a thorough handling of these missing values was carried out properly and fairly in a way that should not skew the outcome of the study.

APPENDIX

United States ISSP2012:

Family and Changing
Gender Roles IV Questionnaire

Showing Only Those Questions
Used in Dissertation Research

Q1a. To begin, we have some questions about women.

To what extent do you agree or disagree…?

A working mother can establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work.

Strongly agree……1
Agree.....2
Neither agree or disagree 3
Disagree 4
Strongly disagree, or 5
Can't choose?.....8
DON'T KNOW..... DK
REFUSED..... REF

Q1b. (To what extent do you agree or disagree…?)

A pre-school child is likely to suffer if his or her mother works.

Strongly agree……1
Agree 2
Neither agree or disagree.....3
Disagree.....4
Strongly disagree, or.....5
Can't choose? 8
DON'T KNOW..... DK
REFUSED..... REF

Q1c. (To what extent do you agree or disagree…?)

All in all, family life suffers when the woman has a full-time job.

Strongly agree……1
Agree 2
Neither agree or disagree.....3
Disagree.....4
Strongly disagree, or.....5
Can't choose? 8
DON'T KNOW..... DK
REFUSED..... REF

Q1d. (To what extent do you agree or disagree…?)

A job is all right, but what most women really want is a home and children.

Strongly agree……1
Agree 2
Neither agree or disagree.....3
Disagree 4
Strongly disagree, or.....5
Can't choose?.....8
DON'T KNOW..... DK
REFUSED..... REF

Q1e. (To what extent do you agree or disagree…?)

Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay.

Strongly agree……1
Agree 2
Neither agree or disagree.....3
Disagree 4

Strongly disagree, or.....5
Can't choose?.....8
DON'T KNOW..... DK
REFUSED..... REF

Q2a. And to what extent do you agree or disagree...?

Both the man and woman should contribute to the household income.

Strongly agree……1
Agree 2
Neither agree or disagree.....3
Disagree 4
Strongly disagree, or.....5
Can't choose?.....8
DON'T KNOW..... DK
REFUSED..... REF

Q2b. (And to what extent do you agree or disagree...?)

A man's job is to earn money; a woman's job is to look after the home and family.

Strongly agree……1
Agree..... 2
Neither agree or disagree 3
Disagree 4
Strongly disagree, or 5
Can't choose?..... 8
DON'T KNOW..... DK
REFUSED..... REF

Q3a. Do you think that women should work outside the home full-time, part-time or not at all under the following circumstances?

When there is a child under school age.

Work full-time 1

Work part-time..... 2

Stay at home..... 3

Can't choose..... 8

DON'T KNOW..... DK

REFUSED..... REF

Q3b. (Do you think that women should work outside the home full-time, part-time or not at all under the following circumstances?)

After the youngest child starts school.

Work full-time 1

Work part-time..... 2

Stay at home..... 3

Can't choose..... 8

DON'T KNOW..... DK

REFUSED..... REF

Q18. How do you and your [spouse/partner] organize the income that one or both of you receive? Please choose the option that comes closest.

I manage all the money and give my spouse/partner his/her share 1

My spouse/partner manages all the money and gives me my share 2

We pool all the money and each take out what we need..... 3

We pool some of the money and keep the rest separate, or .. 4

We each keep our own money separate?..... 5

DON'T KNOW..... DK

REFUSED..... REF

Q19a. In your household who does the following things...? Is it always you, usually you, about equal or both together, usually your [spouse/partner], always your [spouse/partner], or by a third person?

Does the laundry?

Always me 1
Usually me 2
About equal or both together 3
Usually my spouse/partner 4
Always my spouse/partner 5
Is done by a third person 6
Can't choose 8
DON'T KNOW ..... DK
REFUSED ..... REF

Q19b. (In your household who does the following things...? Is it always you, usually you, about equal or both together, usually your [spouse/partner], always your [spouse/partner], or by a third person?)

Makes small repairs around the house?

Always me 1
Usually me 2
About equal or both together 3
Usually my spouse/partner 4
Always my spouse/partner 5
Is done by a third person 6
Can't choose 8
DON'T KNOW ..... DK
REFUSED ..... REF

Q19c. (In your household who does the following things...? Is it always you, usually you, about equal or both together, usually your [spouse/partner], always your [spouse/partner], or by a third person?)

Cares for sick family members?

Always me 1
Usually me 2

About equal or both together 3
Usually my spouse/partner..... 4
Always my spouse/partner..... 5
Is done by a third person..... 6
Can't choose..... 8
DON'T KNOW..... DK
REFUSED..... REF

Q19d. (In your household who does the following things...? Is it always you, usually you, about equal or both together, usually your [spouse/partner], always your [spouse/partner], or by a third person?)

Shops for groceries?

Always me 1
Usually me 2
About equal or both together 3
Usually my spouse/partner..... 4
Always my spouse/partner..... 5
Is done by a third person..... 6
Can't choose..... 8
DON'T KNOW..... DK
REFUSED..... REF

Q19e. (In your household who does the following things...? Is it always you, usually you, about equal or both together, usually your [spouse/partner], always your [spouse/partner], or by a third person?)

Does the household cleaning?

Always me 1
Usually me 2
About equal or both together 3
Usually my spouse/partner..... 4
Always my spouse/partner..... 5

Is done by a third person 6

Can't choose..... 8

DON'T KNOW..... DK

REFUSED..... REF

Q19f. (In your household who does the following things...? Is it always you, usually you, about equal or both together, usually your [spouse/partner], always your [spouse/partner], or by a third person?)

Prepares the meals?

Always me 1

Usually me 2

About equal or both together 3

Usually my spouse/partner..... 4

Always my spouse/partner..... 5

Is done by a third person 6

Can't choose..... 8

DON'T KNOW..... DK

REFUSED..... REF

Q20. Which of the following best applies to the sharing of household work between you and your [spouse/partner]?

I do much more than my fair share of the household work .. 1

I do a bit more than my fair share of the household work 2

I do roughly my fair share of the household work..... 3

I do a bit less than my fair share of the household work, or . 4

I do much less than my fair share of the household work?... 5

DON'T KNOW..... DK

REFUSED..... REF

Q23a. How often has each of the following happened to you during the past three months?

You have come home from work too tired to do the chores which need to be done.

Several times a week..... 1

Several times a month..... 2

Once or twice, or..... 3

Never?..... 4

Doesn't apply/no job..... 0

DON'T KNOW..... DK

REFUSED..... REF

Q23b. (How often has each of the following happened to you during the past three months?)

It has been difficult for you to fulfil your family responsibilities because of the amount of time you spent on your job.

Several times a week..... 1

Several times a month..... 2

Once or twice, or..... 3

Never?..... 4

Doesn't apply/no job..... 0

DON'T KNOW..... DK

REFUSED..... REF

Q23c. (How often has each of the following happened to you during the past three months?)

You have arrived at work too tired to function well because of the household work you had done.

Several times a week..... 1

Several times a month..... 2

Once or twice, or..... 3

Never?..... 4

Doesn't apply/no job..... 0

DON'T KNOW..... DK

REFUSED..... REF

Q23d. (How often has each of the following happened to you during the past three months?)

You have found it difficult to concentrate at work because of your family responsibilities.

Several times a week..... 1
Several times a month..... 2
Once or twice, or..... 3
Never?..... 4
Doesn't apply/no job..... 0
DON'T KNOW..... DK
REFUSED..... REF

Q25. [ASK ONLY IF WORKSTAT =1,2,3:]

All things considered, how satisfied are you with your (main) job?

Completely satisfied..... 1
Very satisfied..... 2
Fairly satisfied..... 3
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied..... 4
Fairly dissatisfied..... 5
Very dissatisfied..... 6
Completely dissatisfied, or..... 7
Can't choose?..... 8
Doesn't apply/no job..... 0
DON'T KNOW..... DK
REFUSED..... REF

Q26. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your family life?

Completely satisfied..... 1
Very satisfied 2
Fairly satisfied..... 3
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied..... 4
Fairly dissatisfied 5
Very dissatisfied..... 6
Completely dissatisfied, or..... 7
Can't choose?..... 8
DON'T KNOW..... DK
REFUSED..... REF

MARITAL: Categorical (Single)

Are you currently--married, widowed, divorced, separated, or have you never been married?

Categories:

{married}	Married
{widowed}	Widowed
{divorced}	Divorced
{separated}	Separated
{never_married}	Never married
{dontknow}	DON'T KNOW
{refused}	REFUSED

WRKSTAT: Categorical (Single)

Last week were you working full time, part time, going to school, keeping house, or what?

CODE ONE ONLY. IF MORE THAN ONE RESPONSE, GIVE PREFERENCE TO FIRST HANDCARD CODE.

Categories:

{working_full_time} 1) Working full time

{working_part_time} 2) Working part time

{not_at_work} 3) W/a job, but not at work because of temporary illness, vacation, strike

{unemployed_laid_off_ l ooking_for_work} 4) Unemployed, laid off, looking for work

{retired} 5) Retired

{in_school} 6) In school

{keeping_house} 7) Keeping house

{other_specify} OTHER (SPECIFY)

{dontknow} DON'T KNOW

{refused} REFUSED

SEX_: Categorical (Single)

CODE SEX, ASK IF NOT OBVIOUS: What is {person}'s sex, male or female?

Categories:

{MALE} MALE

{FEMALE} FEMALE

{dontknow} DON'T KNOW

{refused} REFUSED

AGE_: Long [0 .. 112, 999]

How old was {person} on {response to \.hisher} last birthday? AGE:

HHRACE: Categorical (Single)

CODE RACE OF HOUSEHOLD BY OBSERVATION WITHOUT ASKING:

Categories:

{WHITE} WHITE

{BLACK} BLACK/AFRICAN-AMERICAN

{AMERIND} AMERICAN INDIAN

{ASIAN} ASIATIC, ORIENTAL

{OTHER} OTHER, MIXED, UNABLE TO OBSERVE

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