2009

Personality and work-family conflict: The mediational role of coping styles

Rebecca H. Bryant
University of South Florida

Personality and Work-Family Conflict: The Mediational Role of Coping Styles

by

Rebecca H. Bryant, M. A.

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Psychology
College of Arts and Sciences
University of South Florida

Major Professor: Tammy D. Allen, Ph.D.
Walter C. Borman, Ph.D.
Paul E. Spector, Ph.D.
Vicky Phares, Ph.D.
Judith B. Bryant, Ph.D.

Date of Approval:
March 13, 2009

Keywords: conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, locus of control, problem solving, support seeking, cognitive restructuring, escape, rumination, WIF, FIW, WFC

Dedication

To my parents, for their unconditional love and support, and for always encouraging me to reach for the stars. And to my husband, for believing in me more than I believe in myself; I would never have made it this far without his continual encouragement and patience. I am incredibly lucky to have all three of you in my life.

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge the members of my dissertation committee, for their time, feedback, and guidance. My advisor, Dr. Tammy Allen, deserves a special acknowledgement, for her constant encouragement and support, for being a true mentor, and for being the best advisor that I could ever hope for. Finally, thank you to all the people who participated in my study, as well as those who assisted with recruitment efforts; I really appreciate your time and willingness to help.

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ABSTRACT

Although an extensive body of literature exists on the consequences of work-family conflict (WFC), comparatively little research has examined the construct's antecedents. Research on two sets of antecedent variables, personality and coping style, is particularly scarce. Thus, the present study expands the literature by examining four personality variables (conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and locus of control) and five coping styles (problem solving, support seeking, positive cognitive restructuring, rumination, and escape) in relation to work-interference-with-family (WIF) and family-interference-with-work (FIW) conflict. Additionally, coping style, which was assessed separately for managing work stressors and for managing family stressors, was examined as a potential mediator between personality and both directions of WFC.

Two hundred and four participants, recruited from a snowball approach, completed surveys. Additionally, significant others provided ratings of conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism. Of the four personality variables, only neuroticism related to WIF and FIW. Furthermore, among the hypothesized relationships between coping and WFC, only rumination and escape for work stressors related to WIF, though several cross-domain relationships were observed. Overall, the present study found little support for coping as a mediator between personality and WFC, though there was some evidence

that rumination mediated the relationship between neuroticism and WIF. As a supplementary analysis, coping was examined as a moderator between personality and WFC. Theoretical and practical implications, as well as future directions, are discussed.

Chapter One

Introduction

Over the past two decades, an abundance of research on work-family conflict (WFC) has been conducted, contributing to an extensive body of knowledge in the field. Researchers have identified numerous consequences of the construct, including work-related outcomes, non work-related outcomes, and stress-related outcomes (see Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000 and Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005 for meta-analytic reviews), highlighting the potentially deleterious effects of WFC for both individuals and organizations. In terms of antecedents, researchers have found support for role-related variables as well as personality variables (see Byron, 2005 and Frone, 2003 for reviews), though comparatively less research has been conducted on the latter. Another relatively neglected set of variables is coping style, with less than one percent of work-family research examining coping as a predictor of WFC (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). Thus, the present study focuses on the role that dispositions and coping styles play in the work-family conflict process. By identifying individual difference variables that relate to WFC, the present study aims to expand the construct's nomological network and allow for the identification of individuals who may be at higher risk for experiencing conflict between the work and family domains. Furthermore, the present study aims to increase our understanding of how employees cope with the

demands associated with work and family life, with the intention of providing insight into effective strategies for managing work-family conflict.

In addition to examining personality traits and coping styles that relate to WFC, it is important to understand the mechanisms underlying these relationships. Although several researchers have suggested coping style as a mediator between dispositions and WFC (e.g., Frone, 2003; Greenhaus, Allen, & Spector, 2006; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004), very little research has examined this proposition (see Andreassi, 2007 and Smoot, 2005 for exceptions). Furthermore, the two dissertations that did investigate the mediational role of coping used taxonomies of coping that have been widely criticized in the literature (see Skinner, Edge, Altman, & Sherwood, 2003 for a review). The present study addresses this limitation, providing a more thorough investigation of the role of coping styles in the relationship between personality and work-family conflict. Specifically, using a stress framework, personality is expected to relate to coping strategy both directly and indirectly via the appraisal process. Additionally, consistent with Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources model and a spillover model of work and family, coping strategy is expected to relate to work-family conflict. By examining two sets of relatively neglected antecedents to WFC, dispositional traits and coping styles, as well as the processes underlying these relationships, the present study represents an important contribution to the work-family conflict field.

Work-Family Conflict: An Overview

Drawing from Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal's (1964) research on role conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined work-family conflict as "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are

mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role" (p. 77). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) also identified multiple dimensions of WFC, stemming from the source of the conflict. Specifically, time-based WFC involves competing time requirements across the two roles; strain-based WFC occurs when pressures in one role impair performance in the second role; and behavior-based conflict involves an incompatibility of behaviors necessary for the two roles. Since Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) seminal article, researchers have identified other ways of conceptualizing the construct as well. For example, Greenhaus et al. (2006) supplemented the three forms of conflict with a fourth type: energy-based conflict, which results from a lack of energy for dealing with role demands. Conversely, Carlson and Frone (2003) conceptualized work-family conflict as either external (representing outward behavioral interference) or internal (representing psychological preoccupation while in the other role), providing empirical support for the proposed factor structure. Despite these alternative ways of defining the WFC construct, the vast majority of research in the field has focused on only two forms: time- and strain-based conflict, often utilizing measures that combine both forms into one overall dimension (e.g., Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996).

In addition to the various forms of work-family conflict, researchers have acknowledged the bidirectionality of the construct; specifically, work can interfere with family (WIF), and family can interfere with work (FIW; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Furthermore, according to the domain specificity hypothesis, situational variables associated with a given domain relate to conflict originating from that domain (Frone, 2003; Frone et al., 1992). For example, the domain specificity hypothesis posits that work

stressors are related to WIF, while family stressors are related to FIW. Overall, empirical findings are consistent with these propositions, though the research is not uniformly supportive (see Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007 and Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005 for meta-analytic reviews).

A great deal of research in the WFC field has focused on identifying its consequences, and much insight has been gained as a result. In a meta-analytic summary of the literature, Allen et al. (2000) reviewed 67 articles published between 1977 and 1998, describing results in terms of three broad categories of outcomes: work-related (e.g. job satisfaction), non work-related (e.g., life satisfaction), and stress-related (e.g., general psychological strain). Significant relationships were reported for an array of variables across the three domains, highlighting the potentially damaging consequences of WFC to individuals, families, and organizations alike. For example, WFC was negatively related to such attitudes as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction, and positively related to turnover intentions. Additionally, relationships between WFC and stress-related outcomes were consistently positive, including assessments of strain (e.g., burnout, work-related stress, family-related stress), somatic/physical symptoms, and depression. Although Allen et al.'s (2000) meta-analysis excluded studies examining FIW, other meta-analyses have reviewed research on both WIF and FIW, reporting similar findings (e.g., Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005).

Given that work-family conflict has been linked to a wide range of potentially deleterious consequences, it is important to understand its causes. To that end, researchers have investigated, and found support for, numerous antecedents of WFC, including those arising in the work domain (e.g., work time, role overload, schedule

flexibility, work support) and those arising in the family domain (e.g., family conflict, family support; see Byron, 2005 and Ford et al., 2007 for meta-analytic reviews). Additionally, a comparatively small amount of research has examined the role of individual differences, such as personality traits (e.g., Bruck & Allen, 2003). Because personality traits have been relatively neglected in the study of work-family conflict, the present study contributes to the work-family literature by examining their role in the process. Specifically, four personality variables are investigated: conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and locus of control. In the following section, previous research examining the relationship between these dispositional traits and WFC is summarized.

Personality and WFC: A Summary of Previous Research

Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness represents one of the five major variables in the five-factor model of personality, also known as the big five (Goldberg, 1990). The five-factor model has been empirically substantiated across numerous samples, cultures, and studies, using both natural language adjectives and theoretically developed personality surveys. Thus, the big five – comprised of conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, agreeableness, and openness to experience – represents a successful attempt to conceptualize the personality domain into a small number of broad factors (McCrae & John, 1992). According to Costa and McCrae (1992), each of the big five personality traits can be sub-divided into six facets, highlighting the hierarchical nature of the five-factor model.

Conscientiousness can be defined in terms of its six facet scales, including competence, order, dutifulness, self-discipline, deliberation, and achievement striving

(Costa & McCrae, 1992). Thus, highly conscientious individuals tend to be organized, responsible, and efficient, while individuals scoring low on conscientiousness tend to be lackadaisical, unreliable, and careless in working toward their goals (McCrae & John, 1992). Researchers examining conscientiousness as an antecedent to work-family conflict have generally reported a negative relationship. For example, FIW and conscientiousness were negatively related among a sample of 164 employees at the University of South Florida (Bruck & Allen, 2003) and a sample of 296 employed fathers in the Netherlands (Kinnunen, Vermulst, Gerris, & Mäkikangas, 2003). Although neither of these studies found a significant relationship between WIF and conscientiousness, other researchers have. For example, Wayne et al. (2004) found that conscientiousness was negatively related to both WIF and FIW using a national, random sample (N=2,130). Although the correlation between FIW and conscientiousness was slightly higher than that of WIF and conscientiousness, they were both significant (*r*s=-.20 and -.17, respectively). Given that Wayne et al.'s (2004) study utilized a large, random sample, their results may reflect a more accurate estimate of these relationships. Additionally, Smoot (2005) reported a negative relationship between a general measure of WFC and conscientiousness. Thus, while studies linking WIF and conscientiousness have found inconsistent results, the literature generally supports a negative relationship between work-family conflict and conscientiousness.

Extraversion. Another one of the big five personality traits, extraversion can be defined by its six facet scales: warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity, positive emotionality, and excitement seeking (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Thus, high-extraverts tend to be outgoing and energetic, while individuals low on extraversion are more

introverted and reserved (McCrae & John, 1992). Similar to the research on conscientiousness, researchers have reported a negative relationship between extraversion and WFC, with some inconsistencies. For example, using data from 1,986 employed adults participating in the National Survey of Midlife Development, Grzywacz and Marks (2000) found that extraversion was negatively related to both negative spillover from work to family (among men and women) and negative spillover from family to work (among women only). Although the authors used the term "negative spillover," the items measuring the construct mirrored work-family conflict items. While Grzywacz and Marks (2000) found that family-to-work spillover only held for women, other researchers have reported a relationship between FIW and extraversion across the entire sample (e.g., Andreassi, 2007; Kinnunen et al., 2003). Additionally, Smoot (2005) reported a negative relationship between extraversion and a general measure of WFC. Though the majority of research in the field has supported a significant negative relationship between extraversion and WFC, Bruck and Allen (2003) reported null findings among their sample of 164 university employees. Still, overall the literature supports the notion that individuals high on extraversion tend to report lower levels of work-family conflict.

Neuroticism. Individuals high on neuroticism tend to be self-pitying, tense, and worrying, while individuals low on neuroticism are described as emotionally stable, relaxed, and even-tempered (McCrae & John, 1992). Another one of the personality variables in the five-factor model, neuroticism is comprised of the following six facets: anxiety, hostility, self-consciousness, depression, vulnerability to stress, and impulsiveness (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Compared to other dispositional antecedents examined in the work-family conflict literature, neuroticism has received the most

research attention and support. Across various samples and studies, neuroticism has been positively linked to negative spillover from work to family and family to work (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000); to WIF and FIW (Andreassi, 2007; Bruck & Allen, 2003; Wayne et al., 2004); to time- and strain-based conflict (Andreassi, 2007; Bruck & Allen, 2003), and to a bidirectional measure of WFC (Smoot, 2005). Negative affectivity (NA), a variable conceptually similar to neuroticism, has been examined in the work-family literature as well. Individuals high on NA tend to focus on the negative aspects of the world and are more likely to report distress and discomfort (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). Several studies have found support for a positive relationship between NA and various forms/directions of WFC (e.g., Bruck & Allen, 2003; Carlson, 1999). Thus, the positive relationship between neuroticism and work-family conflict is well-supported.

Locus of Control. Locus of control (LOC) is a stable individual difference trait representing the extent that an individual attributes outcomes of events to his/her own behavior and actions (internal LOC) or to external circumstances such as powerful others or chance (external LOC; Rotter, 1966). Although Rotter (1966) conceptualized LOC as a unidimensional construct, with internal and external LOC representing opposite poles on a continuum, researchers have found support for anywhere from one to nine factors comprising Rotter's (1966) locus of control scale, with the majority of studies reporting a two-factor solution (Ferguson, 1993). As a result, some researchers have defined LOC as a multi-faceted construct. For example, Levenson (1974) proposed, and found support for, three independent dimensions of locus of control, including internal influences, influence of powerful others, and effects of occurrences of chance, fate, or luck. Paulhus and Christie (1981) also proposed a three-factor solution, though they partitioned the

construct into primary behavioral spheres. Specifically, their Spheres of Control Scale is comprised of three subscales: personal, interpersonal, and socio-political control (Paulhus & Van Selst, 1990), highlighting the notion that perceived control may vary across different aspects of the individual's life space.

Research examining locus of control in the work-family domain has generally found that individuals higher on internal LOC report less WFC, while individuals higher on external LOC experience higher levels of WFC. For example, Andreassi and Thompson (2007) reported a negative relationship between internal locus of control and both WIF and FIW using data from a nationally representative sample of employed adults (N=3,504). Similarly, Noor (2002) found that internal locus of control was significantly related to WFC among a sample of 310 married women. While both Andreassi and Thompson (2007) and Noor (2002) used a unidimensional measure of LOC, representing both internal and external LOC, Andreassi (2007) used only the internal LOC scale from Levenson's (1974) measure. Among a sample of 291 employees in diverse industries, Andreassi (2007) found that internal LOC was negatively related to strain-based WFC and to FIW but unrelated to time-based WFC and to WIF. Although the null results are surprising, the divergent findings may reflect the different measures of LOC. Perhaps the relationship between LOC and WFC is partially driven by the positive relationship between external LOC and WFC, in addition to a negative relationship between internal LOC and WFC. Thus, including both internal and external LOC items may be important when assessing the relationship between LOC and WFC.

Overview. Although relatively little research has examined the role of personality variables in relation to work-family conflict, the literature does offer some insight into the

nature of these relationships. The present study focuses on four dispositional traits that have been empirically linked to WFC. Overall, the literature supports a negative relationship between WIF/FIW and conscientiousness, extraversion, and internal locus of control, and a positive relationship between WIF/FIW and neuroticism. Although identifying personality variables related to WFC is important, it is also necessary to understand the mechanisms that underlie the relationships. Thus, in order to understand why these relationships exist, mediating variables must be identified. The present study utilizes a stress and coping framework, arguing that the relationships between personality variables and work-family conflict can be explained via choice of coping strategy. To the extent that individuals are predisposed to use effective coping mechanisms in managing work and family stressors, they are less likely to experience work-family conflict. The following section provides a brief overview of the stress and coping process in order to provide a framework for these propositions.

Stress and Coping: An Overview

Stress and Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) Model. Stress has been studied in multiple domains, ranging from a medical approach, a clinical/psychological approach, an engineering psychology approach, and an organizational psychology approach (Jex, 2002). The present study views stress from an organizational psychology approach, which focuses on psychosocial sources of stress and how they are cognitively appraised (Jex, 2002). Accordingly, stress is defined as occurring when an individual appraises an event as about to tax or exceed that person's resources, thus endangering his/her well-being (Lazarus & Launier, 1978). Additionally, stress is often viewed in terms of a stimulus-response process, in which stress is a type of force acting on a person (Jex,

2002), representing the interaction between the person and the environment (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986). Stressors, or environmental factors eliciting a response from the individual, may lead to strain, defined as maladaptive responses to stress (Jex, 2002). In the present study, work-family conflict is conceptualized as a strain that occurs when job and/or family stressors are not effectively managed. This perspective is consistent with previous research (e.g., Carlson & Perrewé, 1999).

Though researchers have proposed numerous models of the stress process, the current study focuses on Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) Cognitive Theory of Stress and Coping. Specifically, they posit that an individual faced with a stressor(s) undergoes two appraisal processes: primary appraisal, to determine the implications of the stressor (e.g., whether the event is threatening or challenging), and secondary appraisal, an evaluation of his/her ability to manage the event by assessing demands, constraints, and environmental resources. How the individual appraises the stressor affects his/her choice of coping strategy (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). For example, several studies (e.g., Mikulincer & Victor, 1995) have found that when an event is appraised as threatening, individuals tend to respond with emotion-focused coping (efforts to manage the emotions arising from the stressor), while an event that is appraised as challenging tends to elicit problem-focused coping (efforts to modify the source of the distress; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Thus, two processes are critical to understanding the stress process: the appraisal process (the meaning the individual attaches to the encounter) and coping (his/her attempts to manage the encounter; Lazarus & Folkman, 1982). Research on coping is summarized in the following section.

Overview of Coping Styles. Coping is defined as "cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (Folkman & Lazarus, 1991, p. 210). Although an immense amount of research on coping has been conducted, researchers have conceptualized coping in many different ways, making it difficult to integrate research (Thompson, Poelmans, Allen, & Andreassi, 2007). For example, modern coping research has been heavily influenced by Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) distinction between problem- and emotion-focused coping, defined in the previous section. However, other popular distinctions have been utilized as well, including approach (responses that bring the individual in closer contact with the stressful encounter) versus avoidance (responses that allow the individual to withdraw; Roth & Cohen, 1986) and primary control coping (change the stressor or emotions through problem solving or emotion regulation) versus secondary control coping (facilitate adaptation to stress via acceptance or cognitive restructuring; Rothbaum, Weisz, & Snyder, 1982).

A summary of the various conceptualizations of coping is presented by Skinner et al. (2003), who reviewed over 100 category systems of coping, identifying over 400 different labels of coping styles. Their article covered 20 years worth of research on coping category systems, reviewing classification systems developed from both inductive/bottom-up and deductive/top-down approaches. The review highlights the limitations of using broad distinctions of coping styles. Specifically, they criticized the emotion- versus problem-focused taxonomy as lacking conceptual clarity and mutual exclusiveness. For example, emotion-focused coping includes such divergent behaviors as relaxation, seeking social support, and avoidance. Moreover, making a plan has been

categorized into both types of coping. In fact, Lazarus (1996) commented that "distinguishing between the two functions, but treating them as if they were distinctive types of coping actions, has led to an oversimple conception of the way coping works and is measured in much research" (p. 292). Furthermore, factor-analytic investigations of problem- and emotion-focused measures have reported anywhere from two to nine factors, with eight different factor structures being reported across eight different studies (Skinner et al., 2003).

Other broad distinctions used in the coping literature have been criticized as well. For example, Skinner et al. (2003) commented that although support seeking is commonly classified as an approach strategy, it could also be categorized under avoidance coping, given that it orients the individual away from the stressor. Additionally, researchers tend to only include constructive behaviors under approach-oriented coping and destructive behaviors under avoidance-oriented coping, but in reality, either may be beneficial depending on the situation. Thus, the approach-avoidance distinction is overly simplistic. With regard to the distinction between primary and secondary control coping, Skinner et al. (2003) pointed to lack of clarity in the definitions and the fact that the distinction is not exhaustive. Other researchers have criticized these three coping distinctions as well, offering similar viewpoints (e.g., Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen, & Wadsworth, 2001). Additionally, meta-analytic results examining the relationship between coping styles and personality support the notion that broad distinctions do not tell the whole story, as results differed when analyzed at a specific versus global level of coping (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007).

Because of the limitations of such broad classifications of coping styles, Skinner et al. (2003) advocated the identification of coping styles based on action types, defined as "higher order classes of actions," distinguished by a common "motivation underlying the actions" (p. 229). Similarly, Lazarus (1996) agreed that the development of an action typology is essential for identifying a higher order structure of coping. In order to identify such action tendencies, Skinner et al. (2003) reviewed four category systems for classifying lower order ways of coping that have been empirically tested, representing "the state-of-the-art in the study of category systems" (p. 232). Additionally, they supplemented the review by examining two rationally-based taxonomies developed from action tendencies. Based on these six studies, they identified 13 potential families of coping styles. Five of the coping styles, problem solving, support seeking, escape, distraction, and positive cognitive restructuring, were described as clearly "core," given that they appeared in 25 to 50 percent of all systems reviewed and were used with both children/adolescents and adults, as well as domain-specific and general stressors. Other "strong candidates" included rumination, helplessness, social withdrawal, and emotional regulation. These four coping styles were selected based on the following criteria: appeared in two of the four empirically-derived systems and both of the rationally-derived systems; were in at least twenty of the systems reviewed; and appeared in scales used with different ages and types of stressors. The last four potential families of coping were used less frequently, including negotiation, information seeking, opposition, and delegation.

Therefore, while the vast majority of research in the coping literature has focused on such broad distinctions as emotion- versus problem-focused coping, the present study

examines coping in terms of action tendencies. Although individuals may use a wide variety of coping strategies to deal with work and family stressors, the present paper focuses on five in particular – problem solving, support seeking, positive cognitive restructuring, escape, and rumination – to explain the relationship between personality and WFC. These five coping styles were chosen from Skinner et al.'s (2003) list of "core" action tendencies, with the exception of rumination. Although rumination was identified as a "strong candidate" rather than a "core" action tendency, it is included here on the basis of its conceptual link with the work-family domain in general and the spillover model of work and family in particular. The spillover model will be described in a subsequent section. First, it is important to clearly define the five coping strategies investigated in the present study.

Coping Styles Investigated in the Present Study. Given that the coping styles included in the present study were derived from Skinner et al.'s (2003) notion of action tendencies, it is appropriate to define each style in terms of the behaviors each one represents. The following descriptions stem from Skinner et al.'s (2003) comprehensive review of the literature. Problem solving includes such behaviors as taking direct action, planning, strategizing, and decision making. These actions are intended to directly address the underlying problem or stressor. In relating problem solving behaviors to the work-family domain, sample actions include carefully planning one's day to facilitate the accomplishment of role-related tasks in a timely manner, or deciding to work late in the evening one day in order to attend a child's sporting event the following day.

Conversely, support seeking actions include both comfort-seeking (approaching others for consolation; i.e., emotional support seeking) and help-seeking (approaching

others for instrumental assistance with the problem; i.e., instrumental support seeking). An individual may seek comfort from his/her spouse when work pressures are overwhelming (emotional support seeking) or ask a co-worker to switch shifts with him/her to prevent a potential work-family conflict (instrumental support seeking). Although the instrumental component of support seeking overlaps with problem solving in the sense that they both attempt to directly tackle the problem, the distinction lies in whether the individual attempts to handle the problem him/herself or he/she approaches another person for assistance.

The third coping style investigated in the present study is positive cognitive restructuring. Individuals engaging in this coping style attempt to change their view of the stressful situation, reconceptualizing it in a positive light. Positive cognitive restructuring may involve positive thinking, self-encouragement, or a minimization of the negative consequences. Thus, while problem solving and support seeking represent behavioral components of coping, positive cognitive restructuring represents a cognitive approach to managing the stressor. In the work-family domain, an individual facing work/family stressors may engage in self-talk, convincing him/herself that he/she can effectively manage work/family stressors. A more specific example of positive cognitive restructuring may occur when an employee must take off work to take care of his/her child during winter break; rather than viewing the event as a negative stressor, he/she may perceive the event as an opportunity to spend more time with his/her child.

Escape represents efforts to disengage or stay away from the stressful transaction. Sample escape-related actions include avoiding the situation or engaging in denial. For example, an individual may disengage from family stressors by visiting a friend's house,

or practice denial rather than admitting that work stressors are interfering with his/her ability to successfully accomplish family-related tasks.

Finally, rumination involves "a passive and repetitive focus on the negative and damaging features of a stressful transaction" (Skinner et al., 2003, p. 242). Similar to positive cognitive restructuring, rumination represents a cognitive approach to dealing with stressors; however, this coping style emphasizes the negative aspects of the situation, rather than focusing on the positive. Individuals engaging in rumination may have intrusive or negative thoughts, engaging in self-blame and/or worry. In the work-family domain, rumination may involve excessively worrying about family stressors while at work or vice versa.

Coping Styles Specific to the Work-Family Domain. The present study focuses on action tendencies that individuals may use to respond to a range of stressors. However, it is also important to note that researchers have developed taxonomies of coping mechanisms specific to managing work-family conflict. Specifically, Hall (1972) developed a typology based on interviews with women, emphasizing three coping strategies: structural role redefinition, personal role redefinition, and reactive role behavior. Structural role redefinition involves altering external, structurally imposed expectations about one's role, while personal role redefinition involves changing one's own attitudes and perceptions of role demands. Finally, individuals who try to meet everyone's expectations are engaging in reactive role behavior.

Another taxonomy for coping with work-family conflict was developed by Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007). After interviewing employed parents working in Israel, they identified eight coping strategies: super at home and super at work (based on

the notion that one must achieve perfection in task accomplishment); good enough at home and good enough at work (lowering one's performance to a less-than-perfect level); delegation at home and delegation at work (enlisting the help of others to accomplish role-related tasks); and priorities at home and priorities at work (prioritizing tasks and responding accordingly).

While coping taxonomies specific to the work-family domain are insightful and useful, the present study focuses on general coping strategies instead for several reasons. First, there is a great deal of research on the coping styles included in the present study, while the research on work-family-specific coping strategies is comparatively limited. Additionally, the action tendencies identified by Skinner et al. (2003) and used in the present study were chosen based on their relevance to both general and domain-specific stressors. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that they can be appropriately applied to job and family stressors. Finally, researchers have not examined personality variables in relation to Hall (1972) or to Somech and Drach-Zahavy's (2007) taxonomies. Conversely, there is both empirical and theoretical support for the relationship between the personality variables and coping styles examined in the present study. The following section reviews such research, elucidating the role that personality variables play in the stress and coping process.

The Role of Personality in the Stress Process

Personality and Coping. Throughout the history of coping research, the presumed relationship between personality and coping has changed. Early coping researchers considered personality and coping to be the same thing, reflecting Freud and a psychoanalytic perspective (Suls & David, 1996). A second school of thought focused on

the situational specificity inherent in coping, viewing choice of coping style as a function of the situation, rather than the individual (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). However, researchers have recently reconsidered the role of dispositions in the coping process, and modern researchers have generally taken the viewpoint that personality and coping are distinct but overlapping (Suls & David, 1996). Empirical research has supported this notion, reporting relationships between personality and coping in the mid-range (e.g., Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007; Vollrath, Torgersen, & Alnæs, 1995).

The relationship between personality and coping can be explained via the role of personality on the appraisal process. As previously mentioned, Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) Cognitive Theory of Stress and Coping highlights the importance of an individual's cognitive appraisal of a stressor for understanding the stress process. Specifically, an individual's appraisal of stressor severity and his/her perceived coping potential predicts the nature of the coping strategies he/she will use in managing the stressor. To the extent that stressors are perceived as positive or challenging rather than threatening (primary appraisal), and to the extent that the individual believes he/she has the resources to cope with the threat (secondary appraisal), the individual is likely to engage in effective coping strategies. Thus, personality traits that affect these appraisal processes are likely to affect choice of coping strategy.

The notion that personality affects how an individual appraises stressors has been suggested by numerous researchers (e.g., Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). For example, Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) suggested that personality may lead to "differential exposure" to stressors (the number or type of events that a person experiences and that can cause stress) and "differential reactivity" (individual

differences in the felt intensity or reaction to stress). In a 14-day daily diary study of 94 students, they found support for the notion that participants high on neuroticism reported greater exposure and reactivity to the stressor of interpersonal conflicts. Furthermore, Kulenovic and Buško (2006) empirically tested the hypothesis that cognitive appraisals mediate the relationship between stable dispositional traits and coping style, offering support for the notion that perceived event stressfulness mediated the relationship between personality and emotion-focused coping.

While personality appears to affect choice of coping style indirectly via the appraisal process, it may also affect coping behavior directly (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Personality involves "a person's characteristic patterns of behaviour, thoughts, and feelings" (Carver & Scheier, 2000, p. 5). To the extent that the behavior underlying a given coping strategy coincides with an individual's characteristic patterns of behavior, he/she is likely to engage in that coping mechanism. For example, conscientious individuals tend to be planful (McCrae & John, 1992), so it is not surprising that they tend to engage in problem solving behaviors such as planning (Vollrath, 2001). Similarly, high neuroticism is associated with worry (McCrae & John, 1992), so high-neurotics are likely to experience ruminating thoughts.

Thus, the Cognitive Theory of Stress and Coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) elucidates why personality affects choice of coping style, both directly and indirectly via the appraisal process. In the following section, the hypothesized relationships between the investigated personality variables and coping styles are described, along with the theoretical and empirical support underlying the proposed relationships.

Personality and Coping Relationships. The present study examines four personality variables – conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and locus of control – and five coping styles – problem solving, support seeking, positive cognitive restructuring, rumination, and escape. Each personality trait is expected to exhibit a unique pattern of relationships with the coping styles.

High-conscientious individuals tend to be reliable, planful, and dutiful (McCrae & John, 1992). Furthermore, because of their preventative efforts, conscientiousness has been associated with reduced stress exposure (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007). Given that high-conscientious individuals are exposed to fewer stressors and tend to be organized and planful, they are likely to appraise stressors as manageable and controllable. In support of this proposition, Bouchard, Guillemette, and Landry-Leger (2004) found that conscientious individuals tended to appraise stressors as less threatening and were more likely to report having the resources to manage them. This pattern of appraisal has been associated with an increased use of active coping (Lu & Chen, 1996).

Specifically, because of the behaviors characteristic of conscientiousness, such individuals are likely to engage in coping strategies that involve planning and self-discipline, such as problem solving (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007). Additionally, conscientiousness has been associated with the ability to focus, even when engaged in unpleasant tasks (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007). Thus, high-conscientious individuals are less likely to experience the intrusive thoughts characteristic of rumination and more likely to engage in positive cognitive restructuring (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007). Conscientiousness is also expected to be negatively related to

escape behaviors, given that such individuals have the self-discipline to face problems head on, rather than avoid the stressor. Conversely, low-conscientious individuals are expected to engage in fewer problem solving behaviors and less positive cognitive restructuring, resorting to rumination and escape coping styles instead.

The proposed relationships have received empirical support. In a meta-analysis of 124 studies conducted between 1980 and 2004 (N=33,094), Connor-Smith and Flachsbart (2007) reported a positive relationship between conscientiousness and both problem solving and cognitive restructuring, and a negative relationship between conscientiousness and both negative emotion focus (similar to rumination) and denial (subsumed by the escape coping strategy). In fact, the relationship between conscientiousness and problem solving was among the highest correlations reported in the meta-analysis, with a mean correlation of .30. Studies examining the relationship between conscientiousness and coping styles repeatedly report positive relationships with problem solving strategies that involve active, rational planning and negative relationships with passive maladaptive coping styles such as distancing-avoidance, disengagement, and venting emotions (e.g., Bouchard et al., 2004; Jelinek & Morf, 1995; Vollrath, Banholzer, Caviezel, Fischli, & Jungo, 1994). Thus, in the present study, conscientiousness is expected to be positively related to problem solving and positive cognitive restructuring, and negatively related to rumination and escape. On the other hand, no relationship is expected between conscientiousness and support seeking, consistent with past research (Vollrath et al., 1994) and the nature of conscientiousness.

The second personality variable investigated in the present study, extraversion, includes facets such as warmth, gregariousness, activity, and positive emotionality (Costa

& McCrae, 1992). Because of the positive emotionality component, researchers have suggested that extraverted individuals are less likely to perceive stressful encounters as threatening (Wayne et al., 2004). Additionally, extraversion has been associated with low stress-reactivity and positive appraisals of coping resources (Bouchard et al., 2004; Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007); thus, they are likely to engage in active coping (Lu & Chen, 1996). Specifically, given that high-extraverts experience positive moods, they may be more likely to engage in positive cognitive restructuring and less likely to engage in rumination. Furthermore, high-extraverts engage in more activity and have higher energy levels, which they may utilize to engage in problem solving behaviors (Vollrath, 2001). On the other hand, as Connor-Smith and Flachsbart (2007) point out, increased use of engagement coping does not imply decreased use of disengagement coping; thus, there is less reason to suspect a link between extraversion and escape behaviors. Finally, extraversion is expected to be positively related to support seeking behaviors, given that high-extraverts tend to engage in more social interactions (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). Low-extraverted individuals, or introverts, are likely to display the opposite pattern of coping.

Connor-Smith and Flachsbart's (2007) meta-analysis reported that extraversion was positively related to problem solving, seeking social support, and cognitive restructuring. Although the relationship between extraversion and negative emotion focus was not significant in the full sample, it was significant in the "high confidence" data subset, characterized by studies with coping styles that could be unambiguously coded. (The authors were not always able to acquire the coping scale used in the original study, leading to concerns of coding errors; they therefore created the "high confidence" data

subset for comparative purposes.) On the other hand, extraversion was not significantly related to avoidance, denial, or withdrawal, behaviors analogous to the escape coping style. Thus, similar to the findings of the meta-analysis, as well as the results reported by individual studies (e.g., Lu & Chen, 1996; Vollrath et al., 1994; Vollrath et al., 1995; Watson & Hubbard, 1996), extraversion is expected to be positively related to problem solving, support seeking, and positive cognitive restructuring; negatively related to rumination; and unrelated to escape.

High-neurotic individuals tend to be anxious, hostile, and vulnerable to stress (McCrae & John, 1992). It is therefore no surprise that they have intense emotional and physical responses to stress (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007) and are prone to anxiety and fear responses (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). Moreover, participants high on neuroticism reported greater exposure and reactivity to the stressor of interpersonal conflicts (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995). Because of their nature, high-neurotics are likely to appraise stressors as threatening, rather than challenging; Bouchard et al. (2004) found support for this proposition, along with the notion that high-neurotics are less likely to report having the resources to manage stress. Such an appraisal pattern makes high-neurotics less resistant to stress (Hobfoll, 1989) and less likely to engage in active coping (Lu & Chen, 1996). Thus, one would expect a negative relationship between neuroticism and problem solving behaviors. Conversely, because high-neurotics are less able to deal with stress, they are more likely to exhibit an escape coping style. Additionally, individuals high on neuroticism tend to experience such negative emotions as worry and anxiety, while emotionally stable individuals (low-neurotics) are described as even tempered and relaxed (Costa & McCrae, 1992; McCrae & John, 1992). As a result of the

negative emotionality component associated with neuroticism, it is hypothesized that neuroticism will be positively related to rumination and negatively related to positive cognitive restructuring.

Neuroticism is one of the most studied personality variables in the coping literature, and research supports the proposed relationships. In particular, studies consistently report that high-neurotics tend to exhibit denial, escapist behaviors, self-blame, and disengagement (e.g., Bolger, 1990; Vollrath et al., 1994; Vollrath et al., 1995; Watson & Hubbard, 1996). Additionally, in a longitudinal study conducted over six years, Vollrath et al. (1995) found that neurotic traits (such as emotional instability, self-doubt, and insecurity) were negatively related to active coping and planning as well as positive reinterpretation. Meta-analytic findings are consistent with these results; neuroticism was negatively related to problem solving and cognitive restructuring, and positively related to withdrawal, denial, and negative emotion focus (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007). While neuroticism is expected to be significantly related to problem solving, positive cognitive restructuring, rumination, and escape in the present study, no relationship is expected between neuroticism and support seeking.

The fourth and final personality variable investigated in the present study is locus of control, defined as the extent that an individual attributes outcomes of events to internal or external causes (Rotter, 1966). Several researchers have suggested that locus of control may affect whether a situation is perceived as threatening in the primary appraisal; specifically, individuals with an internal locus of control are expected to appraise stressors as less harmful or threatening (Folkman, 1984; Rotter, 1975; Schan & Abelson, 1977). Moreover, because individuals with an internal LOC are likely to

perceive stressors as controllable, they are likely to engage in active coping (Lu & Chen, 1996); conversely, external LOC individuals are likely to perceive stressors as uncontrollable and therefore threatening, thereby relying on less effective coping strategies. Thus, individuals with an internal LOC are expected to engage in more problem solving and fewer escape behaviors, given their beliefs that their actions can affect the outcome, while external LOC individuals are expected to display the opposite pattern of behavior. Furthermore, because individuals with an external LOC are likely to feel helpless when dealing with stressors, they may experience more negative and worrisome thoughts, characteristic of rumination. On the other hand, because individuals with an external LOC believe that external circumstances are more influential than internal factors, they may be less apt to engage in self-blame, which is also included in the rumination coping style. For this reason, no hypothesis is specified between LOC and rumination. However, LOC is expected to be related to positive cognitive restructuring. Internal LOC individuals are likely to engage in self-encouragement, given their beliefs that their actions are likely to influence the situation, while external LOC individuals are unlikely to have such thoughts, given that they believe that environmental conditions will dictate the outcome. There is no reason to expect a relationship between LOC and support seeking.

Compared to the big five personality variables, far fewer studies have examined the relationship between LOC and coping style. Those that have reported a positive relationship between internal LOC and direct/active coping strategies and a negative relationship between internal LOC and avoidance/passive coping strategies (Andreassi, 2007; Parkes, 1984; Petrosky & Birkimer, 1991). Because these studies used broad

categorizations of coping behavior, they provide little insight into the relationship between LOC and more specific coping styles. Still, they are generally supportive of the notion that internal LOC is likely to relate positively to problem solving and to positive cognitive restructuring and negatively to escape, as proposed in the present study.

The Relationship between Coping and Strain

The previous section focused on the relationship between personality variables and coping styles; this section addresses the relationship between coping and strain. Individuals may engage in a variety of coping behaviors; however, coping styles are likely to be differentially effective in managing stress. The first section addresses this notion, describing relevant empirical research. The following two sections focus on why certain coping styles may be more effective than others, in terms of reducing strains in general and work-family conflict in particular, relying on the conservation of resources model and the spillover model. Finally, the last section reviews research on coping and WFC.

Differential Effectiveness of Coping Styles. Although no coping style is universally effective, research tends to support the utility of problem-focused coping, engagement coping, and primary and secondary control coping in terms of improved physical and mental health outcomes (Compas et al., 2001). Conversely, disengagement coping and emotion-focused coping tend to have a detrimental effect on one's health. For example, in a study of 217 Swiss high school students, psychosomatic problems were negatively related to active coping and positively related to denial, disengagement, and venting emotions. Similarly, in a study of 233 French-Canadian university students, use of distancing-avoiding related to increased psychological distress, both concurrently and

prospectively (10 weeks later; Bouchard et al., 2004). The viewpoint among researchers and laypersons alike is that active coping, planning, seeking social support, and positive reinterpretation are the most effective, while avoidance, denial, and disengagement are the least successful coping strategies (Ben-Zur, 1999). Empirical research tends to support this notion. However, because studies have examined coping styles from a broad perspective, one must infer the relationship between more specific coping styles and strain-related outcomes.

Hobfoll's (1989) Conservation of Resources Model. Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources model, which encompasses several stress theories, offers insight into why some coping styles are more effective than others. According to the model, stress is an environmental reaction to one of three circumstances: the potential net loss of resources, the actual net loss of resources, or the lack of expected resource gain following resource expenditure. Thus, resources are the "single unit necessary for understanding stress" (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 515). Hobfoll (1989) defines resources as "those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as means for attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies" (p. 515). Additionally, a central component of Hobfoll's (1989) model is that individuals seek to maintain, protect, and acquire resources. Consequently, when an individual is under stress, he/she strives to minimize the net loss of resources by employing resources he/she already possesses or by calling upon any available environmental resources. To the extent that individuals are able to effectively utilize and/or gain resources, they are less likely to experience strain following a stressful event.

Conversely, individuals who are ill-equipped to gain resources are particularly vulnerable to stress (Hobfoll, 1989).

Thus, the conservation of resources model elucidates why some coping styles may be more or less effective in managing the stress process and reducing the resultant strain. For instance, when applied to work and/or family stressors, problem solving strategies allow the individual to efficiently fulfill his/her work/family demands, thereby providing him/her with more time and energy (Lapierre & Allen, 2006). In this example, the individual gains the resources of time and energy, which he/she can use to effectively manage role obligations, thus minimizing work-family conflict. Additionally, Hobfoll (1989) describes social relationships as a resource, provided that they help the individual preserve his/her resources and fulfill situational needs. Accordingly, to the extent that individuals engaging in support seeking behaviors receive the constructive help and/or comfort that they require, this coping strategy is likely to be negatively related to WFC. In terms of positive cognitive restructuring, Hobfoll (1989) states that "one way individuals may conserve resources is by reinterpreting threat as challenge" (p. 519). By focusing on potential gains rather than loses, the individual is expected to protect valuable resources, thereby reducing the resultant strain. Additionally, such a positive outlook may reduce the individual's *perceptions* of WFC, given that the stressors are perceived as manageable (Rotondo, Carlson, & Kincaid, 2003).

Conversely, ruminating thoughts are likely to detract from an individual's resources; such negative thoughts are counterproductive to solving the problem and are likely taxing to the individual. Hence, rumination may reduce the individual's energy, taking valuable resources away from work and family role obligations. The implications

of an escape coping strategy are less clear. On the one hand, individuals engaging in escape behaviors do nothing to address the stressor at hand. While disengagement may not require resources, it does not necessarily allow for a resource gain. Because the stressful event itself is taxing to the individual's resources (Lazarus & Launier, 1978), the result of avoidance may be a net loss of resources. Furthermore, Lapierre and Allen (2006) suggest that "failure to meet role demands may potentially threaten the individual's ability to maintain or gain valued resources, such as close relationships at home or a promotion at work" (p. 172). Thus, individuals who escape or avoid work and family stressors, rather than tackling the problem head-on, may experience higher WFC. On the other hand, disengagement could provide an opportunity for the individual to "recharge his/her batteries," so to speak, thereby generating the resources necessary to directly address the problem. Despite these conflicting hypotheses, the research generally supports the former proposition, with researchers reporting a positive relationship between avoidance coping and WFC (e.g., Rotondo et al., 2003). Such research is summarized in a subsequent section.

Spillover Model. In addition to the conservation of resources model, the spillover model provides further insight into the impact of various coping styles on strain, and specifically on work-family conflict. Work-family spillover involves the transfer of thoughts, affect, and behavior between the work and family domains; thus, experiences in one domain impact experiences in the other domain (Roehling, Moen, & Batt, 2003). In support of the spillover model, Williams and Alliger (1994) found that moods, stress, and thoughts generated in one domain influenced behavior and cognitions in the other domain. The spillover model provides insight into the role of rumination and positive

cognitive restructuring in the strain process. Specifically, the negative thoughts and affect associated with rumination are likely to spillover from one domain to the other. This is likely to exacerbate the extent to which work and family roles interfere with each other. Conversely, positive cognitive restructuring involves positive thoughts and affect; to the extent that this positive emotionality transfers from one domain to the other, the individual is likely to experience less WFC.

Coping and Work-Family Conflict Relationships. As suggested by the conservation of resources model and the spillover model, individuals are likely to experience less work-family conflict when they utilize coping strategies that increase their resources and/or allow for the positive, rather than negative, spillover of thoughts and emotions from one domain to the other. Although relatively few researchers have examined the relationship between coping and WFC, results are generally supportive of these propositions, though there are some inconsistent findings. Specifically, active, problem-focused coping tends to be related to lower levels of WFC, and passive coping tends to be related to higher levels of WFC (see Thompson et al., 2007 for a review). However, most research on coping and WFC has used Hall's (1972) typology (i.e., structural role redefinition, personal role redefinition, and reactive role definition), rather than the coping styles examined in the present study. For example, Matsui, Ohsawa, and Onglatco (1995) found that work role redefinition was positively related to FIW, while family role redefinition was positively related to WIF among a sample of 131 Japanese full-time married women. Additionally, Kirchmeyer (1993) surveyed Canadian managers, finding that active coping (the dominant coping factor, which was a combination of strategies from Hall's (1972) three coping types) negatively related to

FIW and positively related to positive spillover. (WIF was not examined in Kirchmeyer's 1993 study.) Furthermore, coping strategies that involved altering one's own attitude and increasing personal efficiency were rated as most effective for coping with multiple roles.

A few studies have examined the relationship between WFC and coping using coping measures not specific to the work-family domain. Lapierre and Allen (2006) reported a negative relationship between problem-focused coping (including such behaviors as prioritizing, asking for assistance, and following a plan of action) and strain-based FIW. Problem-focused coping was unrelated to the other types of WFC investigated, including time-based FIW and time- and strain-based WIF. Similarly, Andreassi (2007) found no relationship between active coping and work-family conflict, though passive coping was positively related to strain-based WFC, time-based WFC, WIF, and FIW. Conversely, Aryee, Luk, Leung, and Lo (1999) found that problem-focused coping, but not emotion-focused coping, was significantly related to WIF and FIW. Furthermore, both problem- and emotion-focused coping were *positively* related to WFC among a sample of university faculty (Smoot, 2005). The inconsistent findings between coping and WFC are surprising, though the divergent results may be a function of the broad nature of the coping constructs. Researchers often vary in their conceptualizations of active/problem-focused and passive/emotion-focused coping, which is likely to affect whether/how coping relates to other variables, such as work-family conflict.

In one of the few studies to examine work-family conflict in relation to more specific coping styles, Rotondo et al. (2003) examined four types of coping: direct action, help-seeking, positive thinking, and avoidance/resignation, along with four types of

WFC: time- and strain based WIF and time- and strain-based FIW. Additionally, participants responded to the coping scale twice: once for managing work stressors and once for managing family stressors. Rotondo et al. (2003) reported a negative relationship between help seeking used for family stressors and all types of WFC; a negative relationship between help seeking for work stressors and time- and strain-based WIF; a negative relationship between direct action used for family stressors and all types of WFC; and a negative relationship between direct action for work stressors and time- and strain-based FIW. In terms of positive thinking, when used for family stressors, individuals reported lower time- and strain-based FIW, as well as lower strain-based WIF; conversely, positive thinking for work stressors was negatively related to strain-based WIF only. Finally, avoidance/resignation for work stressors was positively related to strain-based WIF, while avoidance/resignation for family stressors was positively related to time-based and strain-based FIW.

Overall, Rotondo et al.'s (2003) results are consistent with what one would expect, given the conservation of resources model, the spillover model, and research on coping and other forms of strain. Consistent with the domain specificity hypothesis (Frone et al., 1992), coping strategies used for work stressors tended to relate to WIF, while coping strategies used for family stressors tended to relate to FIW, with some cross-domain relationships. Additionally, direct action, positive thinking, and support seeking were negatively related to WFC, while avoidance/resignation was positively related to WFC. These findings mirror the relationships hypothesized in the present study, though Rotondo et al. (2003) did not include rumination. Another notable finding is that, while coping styles exhibited relationships with both forms of conflict (i.e., time-

and strain-based), there were more significant findings for strain-based WFC. This was true for both avoidance/resignation and positive thinking. Conceptually, it makes sense that positive thinking would be more effective in reducing strain-based conflict, compared to time-based conflict, given that positive thinking does not involve active steps to reduce time conflicts. The null finding between avoidance/resignation for work stressors and time-based WIF is more surprising, though again, the conceptual link between this coping style and strain-based conflict is stronger than that of time-based conflict. Aside from these two exceptions, the results between coping styles and work-family conflict were very similar for time- and strain-based conflict. For this reason, and to keep the number of statistical tests at a reasonable number, the present study does not distinguish between the various forms of work-family conflict. Instead, only WIF and FIW are examined.

Finally, a great deal of research has examined the relationship between WFC and social support, and a few studies have examined the role of behavioral strategies to reduce WFC. In terms of social support, research consistently supports a negative relationship between support at home and work and both WIF and FIW. In a meta-analysis of 61 studies, Byron (2005) reported weighted means ranging from -.11 (family support and WIF) to -.19 (work support and WIF). While receipt of social support and seeking support are distinct, these findings loosely support the notion that individuals who engage in support seeking coping styles are likely to experience reduced WFC. In terms of behavioral strategies, Baltes and Heydens-Gahir (2003) found that use of selection (identifying/setting goals), optimization (using means to achieve a goal), and compensation (anticipating a loss of resources and responding with alternative means) at

work and home was negatively related to FIW and WIF, respectively. Similarly, use of time management behaviors had a negative relationship with both WIF and FIW (Adams & Jex, 1999). Selection, optimization, compensation, and time management behaviors overlap with problem solving coping strategies, so the findings in these two studies support the notion that problem solving and WFC are negatively related.

Thus, even though relatively few studies have examined coping and WFC, those that have provide important insight. Rotondo et al.'s (2003) study, in particular, is relevant to the present study. Consistent with their findings, as well as the conservation of resources and spillover models, problem solving, support seeking, and positive cognitive restructuring are expected to decrease WFC, while rumination and escape are expected to increase WFC. Additionally, in accordance with the domain specificity model (Frone et al., 1992), coping strategies used to manage work stressors are expected to relate to WIF, and coping strategies used to manage family stressors are expected to relate to FIW. Asking participants how they manage work stressors separately from how they handle family stressors is consistent with the notion that a situationally specific assessment of coping skills provides a more direct and accurate portrayal of individual behavior (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Coping as a Mediator between Personality and Work-Family Conflict

The previous sections underscore the rationale underlying the expected relationships between personality and WIF/FIW; between personality and coping styles; and between coping styles and WIF/FIW. The present study goes a step further by contending that coping styles mediate the relationship between personality and work-family conflict.

Although very little research has examined the mechanisms by which personality and WFC are related, two dissertations have addressed this research question (Andreassi, 2007; Smoot, 2005). Similar to the present study, both researchers proposed coping styles as the mediating variable. Using a sample of university faculty, Smoot (2005) examined emotion- and problem-focused coping as mediators between the big five personality traits and WFC. Although personality, coping, and work-family conflict were related, no support was found for mediation. Similarly, Andreassi (2007) proposed that active and passive coping would mediate the relationship between extraversion, neuroticism, and locus of control and various forms of work-family conflict (time- and strain-based WFC, WIF, and FIW). The positive relationship between neuroticism and both strain-based WFC and FIW was mediated by passive coping, but none of the other mediating tests were significant.

Although such findings are discouraging, both studies had two noteworthy limitations. First, in both dissertations, coping was examined in terms of broad categorizations, either problem- versus emotion-focused coping (Smoot, 2005) or active versus passive coping (Andreassi, 2007). As previously discussed, such broad distinctions of coping are problematic (see Skinner et al., 2003 for a review). Thus, the present study contributes to the literature by examining specific coping styles, as advocated by Skinner et al. (2003). Additionally, in both dissertations, general coping behaviors were assessed, rather than asking participants how they cope with job-related stressors independently from how they cope with family-related stressors. This methodology ignores the possibility that coping styles vary by situation, as proposed by numerous researchers (e.g., Folkman et al., 1986; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Additionally, it precludes an examination of domain-specific relationships (i.e., coping with work stressors relates to WIF, and coping with family stressors relates to FIW). The present study addresses these limitations, thereby contributing to the work-family field.

It is also worth noting that a few studies have examined coping as a mediator between personality and other types of strain, offering some support. For example, emotion-focused coping partially mediated the relationship between extraversion and physical symptoms, and avoidance coping partially mediated the link between neuroticism and physical symptoms (Hudek-Knežević, Kardum, & Maglica, 2005). Additionally, in a daily diary study of premedical students preparing for the medical school entrance examination, self-blame and wishful thinking mediated the positive relationship between neuroticism and distress (Bolger, 1990). Similarly, using a sample of adult male prisoners, Ireland, Brown, and Ballarini (2006) offered tentative support for the mediating role of maladaptive coping in the relationship between asocial and anxious/dramatic personality and psychological distress. Finally, though coping has been studied as both a mediator and a moderator in the relationship between personality and strain, Vollrath et al. (1994) compared both models, finding stronger support for a mediation model.

Thus, the present study examines five coping styles (problem solving, support seeking, positive cognitive restructuring, rumination, and escape) as mediators between four personality variables (conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and locus of control) and two dimensions of work-family conflict (WIF and FIW). By examining the mechanisms by which personality relates to work-family conflict, including specific

measures of coping styles, and examining the process from a domain-specific perspective, the present study offers a unique contribution to the work-family literature.

Hypotheses

Hypothesized relationships are listed below. Additionally, Appendix A presents a graphical depiction of hypotheses, with green arrows representing proposed positive relationships, and red arrows denoting proposed negative relationships.

1. Conscientiousness (1a), extraversion (1b), and internal locus of control (1c) will negatively relate to WIF and to FIW, and neuroticism (1d) will positively relate to WIF and to FIW.
2. Conscientiousness will positively relate to problem solving (2a) and to positive cognitive restructuring (2b) and negatively relate to rumination (2c) and to escape (2d).
3. Extraversion will positively relate to problem solving (3a), to support seeking (3b), and to positive cognitive restructuring (3c) and negatively relate to rumination (3d).
4. Neuroticism will negatively relate to problem solving (4a) and to positive cognitive restructuring (4b) and positively relate to rumination (4c) and to escape (4d).
5. Internal locus of control will positively relate to problem solving (5a) and to positive cognitive restructuring (5b) and negatively relate to escape (5c).
6. Problem solving for work stressors (6a), support seeking for work stressors (6b), and positive cognitive restructuring for work stressors (6c) will negatively relate to WIF; and rumination for work stressors (6d) and escape for work stressors (6e) will positively relate to WIF.

7. Problem solving for family stressors (7a), support seeking for family stressors (7b), and positive cognitive restructuring for family stressors (7c) will negatively relate to FIW; and rumination for family stressors (7d) and escape for family stressors (7e) will positively relate to FIW.
8. The relationship between conscientiousness and WIF will be mediated by coping styles used for managing work stressors, including: problem solving (8a), positive cognitive restructuring (8b), rumination (8c), and escape (8d).
9. The relationship between conscientiousness and FIW will be mediated by coping styles used for managing family stressors, including: problem solving (9a), positive cognitive restructuring (9b), rumination (9c), and escape (9d).
10. The relationship between extraversion and WIF will be mediated by coping styles used for managing work stressors, including: problem solving (10a), support seeking (10b), positive cognitive restructuring (10c), and rumination (10d).
11. The relationship between extraversion and FIW will be mediated by coping styles used for managing family stressors, including: problem solving (11a), support seeking (11b), positive cognitive restructuring (11c), and rumination (11d).
12. The relationship between neuroticism and WIF will be mediated by coping styles used for managing work stressors, including: problem solving (12a), positive cognitive restructuring (12b), rumination (12c), and escape (12d).
13. The relationship between neuroticism and FIW will be mediated by coping styles used for managing family stressors, including: problem solving (13a), positive cognitive restructuring (13b), rumination (13c), and escape (13d).

14. The relationship between locus of control and WIF will be mediated by coping styles used for managing work stressors, including: problem solving (14a), positive cognitive restructuring (14b), and escape (14c).
15. The relationship between locus of control and FIW will be mediated by coping styles used for managing family stressors, including: problem solving (15a), positive cognitive restructuring (15b), and escape (15c).

Chapter Two

Method

Participants

In work-family conflict research, participants are typically only included if they are working at least 20 hours a week and are either married, living with a partner, or a parent with a child living at home. In the present study, the inclusion criteria were modified slightly. Because personality ratings were provided by spouses/significant others, participants had to be either married or living with a significant other, whom he/she had been dating for at least one year, in order to participate. Participants also had to be employed for pay for at least 20 hours a week.

Participants were recruited via a snowball approach in which potential participants were contacted via email and asked to participate in the study and/or forward the survey link to interested individuals. Specifically, recruitment emails were sent to friends, family members, and acquaintances of the principal investigator, as well as members of various organizations, including Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, PTA, and the Society for Industrial-Organizational Psychology (SIOP). In total, 1,999 emails were sent, the vast majority of which were to members of SIOP (N = 1,837). Fifty-two emails were returned as undeliverable, and 27 individuals responded that they did not meet the study's inclusion criteria. Three hundred and forty-nine participants filled out part or all of the survey, resulting in an estimated response rate of 19.0 percent. However, a

determination of the "true" response rate is difficult, given the uncertainty in the number of emails that were never received, the number of participants who were ineligible to participate, and the number of emails that were forwarded to potential participants.

Of the 349 individuals who filled out the survey, 32 had a substantial amount of missing data (more than 30 percent), and 19 did not meet the inclusion criteria. These 51 individuals were dropped from analysis, resulting in 298 participants. Significant other-ratings of personality were provided for 204 of the 298 participants (68.5%). Thus, the sample size used to test study hypotheses was 204.

Of the 204 primary participants, 62.3 percent were female, with a race/ethnicity breakdown of 90.2 percent White/Caucasian, 4.9 percent Asian or Pacific Islander, 2.5 percent Hispanic or Mexican American, and 2.0 percent Black or African American. One participant indicated a race of "other." In terms of education, 1.0 percent had a high school degree, 2.5 percent had attended some college, 13.7 percent had a college degree, 14.7 percent had a master's degree, and 67.6 percent had a doctoral degree. The majority of the sample was married (91.2%), did not have primary care giving responsibilities for an elderly relative (93.6%), and reported a household income of $100,000 or higher (73.6%). Approximately 60 percent of the sample had at least one child, with 46.6 percent having at least one child living at home at the time the survey was completed.

Of the 204 spouse/significant other participants, 37.7 percent were female, with a race/ethnicity breakdown of 89.2 percent White/Caucasian, 4.4 percent Asian or Pacific Islander, 2.0 percent Hispanic or Mexican American, 1.5 percent Black or African American, and .5 percent American Indian or Alaskan Native. Four participants indicated a race of "other." While 85.8 percent of the significant other sample was employed for

pay, 14.2 percent were unemployed or full-time homemakers. Additional demographic information for both the primary participants and the significant others is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Variables

Variable	N	*M*	*SD*	Obs. Min.	Obs. Max.
Primary Participants					
Age	203	40.93	10.51	22	68
Tenure (years)	204	6.90	7.73	.08	40
Work Time (hrs/wk)	204	46.96	10.17	20	80
# Children at Home	201	.85	1.11	0	6
RFD Index[1]	204	4.52	5.76	0	24
Relationship Length (years)	204	14.95	10.41	1.5	46.5
Significant Other Participants					
Age	200	41.09	10.32	24	68

[1]Responsibility for Dependents Index (Rothausen, 1999)

Measures

Scores were calculated by averaging item responses. Scales are provided in Appendices B, C, D, and E, and alpha coefficients for each scale are provided in Table 4.

Big Five Personality Variables: Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Neuroticism. The Big Five Inventory (BFI) was used to measure conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism. Developed by John, Donahue, and Kentle (1991), the BFI is a brief inventory that relies on short phrases, rather than single adjective items. Thus, BFI items "retain the advantages of adjectival items (brevity and simplicity) while

avoiding some of their pitfalls (ambiguous or multiple meanings and salient desirability)" (John & Srivastava, 1999, p. 115). The BFI scales demonstrate convergent and discriminant validity, high alpha reliabilities, and three-month test-retest reliabilities ranging from .80 to .90 (John & Srivastava, 1999).

Although another set of personality scales, the NEO questionnaires, "represent the best-validated Big Five measures in the questionnaire tradition" (John & Srivastava, 1999, p. 115), the BFI is optimal when participant time is limited. Thus, in order to minimize survey length, the BFI was selected for the present study. It is also worth noting another readily available personality inventory – the 50-item measure of the big five personality factors available from the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; Goldberg, Johnson, Eber, Hogan, Ashton, Cloninger, & Gough, 2006). Although this scale has been used frequently in the field (Goldberg et al., 2006), the items do not tap several facets of interest. For example, the extraversion items assess an individual's sociability, but items measuring one's positive emotionality and activity levels are lacking. Given that these aspects of extraversion are important in the present study, the BFI was chosen over the IPIP scale.

The BFI conscientiousness scale includes nine items, while the extraversion and neuroticism scales are each comprised of eight items. Sample items are as follows: "Does things efficiently" (conscientiousness), "Is full of energy" (extraversion), and "Worries a lot" (neuroticism). Responses to the personality items were on a five-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

To minimize common method variance, both self- and significant other-ratings of conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism were collected. Correlations between

self- and partner-reports of personality were moderate to high in magnitude, ranging from .46 for conscientiousness to .68 for extraversion. The correlation between self- and partner-reported neuroticism was .62. While there was no significant mean difference between self- and significant other-ratings of conscientiousness ($t(203) = .32$) or extraversion ($t(203) = -1.20$), significant other-ratings of neuroticism tended to be higher than self-ratings ($t(203) = -3.14$, $p < .01$; $Ms = 2.86$ and 2.71).

Previous researchers have reported similar correlations between self- and partner-ratings of personality. For example, McCrae, Stone, Fagan, and Costa (1998) compared self- and spouse-ratings of personality, reporting uncorrected correlations of .49 for conscientiousness, .74 for extraversion, and .46 for neuroticism. Another study reported correlations of .70, .57, and .63 between self- and spouse-ratings for conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism, respectively (Mutěn, 1991). In the present study, hypotheses were tested with partner-ratings of conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism. Additionally, self-ratings of personality, as well as the average of self- and significant other-ratings, were examined for comparative purposes. Alpha coefficients ranged from .84 to .87 for significant other-report and from .79 to .91 for self-ratings.

Locus of Control. To assess locus of control, Paulhus and Van Selst's (1990) Personal Control Scale was used. The Personal Control Scale is a subscale of the Spheres of Control Scale, which is designed to assess components of perceived control. The original scale was published by Paulhus and Christie (1981) but has since been revised. The revised scale, published in Paulhus and Van Selst (1990), addressed limitations of the original scale, such as low internal consistency of the Personal Control subscale. Paulhus and Van Selst (1990) report an alpha reliability of .80 for the revised subscale, as

compared to .59 for the original subscale. Furthermore, the Personal Control Scale is moderately correlated with other measures of LOC (e.g., Levenson, 1981; Rotter, 1966, as reported in Paulhus & Van Selst, 1990), and the test-retest reliability at four weeks is .90 (Paulhus, 1983). Moreover, the scale has been used numerous times in the literature to assess locus of control (e.g., Burns, Dittmann, Nguyen, Mitchelson, 2000; Parkes & Razavi, 2004).

Although Rotter's (1966) I-E Scale is used more frequently in the literature, the scale is significantly longer, with 29 items. Thus, for the purposes of brevity, the Paulhus and Van Selst (1990) scale was used in the present study. A sample item is "My major accomplishments are entirely due to my hard work and ability." Participants responded on a five-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (totally inaccurate) to 5 (totally accurate). The alpha coefficient was .70. Unlike the other three personality variables investigated in the present study, significant others did not provide ratings of locus of control. Locus of control represents an individual's internal beliefs, and it is unclear whether significant others can accurately gauge the extent that their husbands/wives would endorse an internal versus external LOC.

Coping Styles. The coping styles examined in the present study were selected based on Skinner et al.'s (2003) review of the literature, rather than an existing taxonomy. As such, there is no existing coping scale that includes the five specific dimensions of coping examined here, though several scales measure similar and/or overlapping constructs. For example, the coping scale used in Rotondo et al.'s (2003) study had four dimensions: direct action, positive thinking, help seeking, and avoidance/resignation (based on Havlovic & Keenan's, 1991 scale). Similarly, the Ways

of Coping scale (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Folkman et al., 1986) includes scales for planful problem solving, confrontive coping, seeking social support, positive reappraisal, and escape-avoidance. Another popular coping measure, the COPE (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989) is comprised of 15 scales, including active coping, planning, positive reinterpretation and growth, use of instrumental social support, use of emotional social support, focus on and venting of emotions, behavioral disengagement, and mental disengagement.

Thus, numerous coping scales have conceptualized coping in slightly different ways. Although existing scales include taxonomies similar to the one examined in the present study, none provide an exact match. Therefore, the present study used items from existing coping scales (Carver et al., 1989; Connor-Smith, Compas, & Wadsworth, 2000; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Folkman et al., 1986; Havlovic & Keenan, 1991; Saffrey & Ehrenberg, 2007) to develop a new measure. To guide the final selection of items, a pilot study was conducted with eighty-six undergraduate students who were employed for pay and were either married, living with a significant other, or a parent with a child living at home. The initial coping scales included between eight and 10 items per coping style, and participants were asked to respond to each item twice: once in terms of coping with work stressors and once in terms of coping with family/home stressors. Participants also responded to personality and work-family conflict items. A subset of the initial coping items were selected for the present study on the basis of a factor analysis, reliability analysis, and convergent/discriminant validity evidence.

The selected coping items are provided in Appendix D. Sample items are as follows: “I make a plan of action” for problem solving; “I talk to someone about how I

feel" for support seeking; "I tell myself that everything will be alright" for positive cognitive restructuring; "I think about every single detail of the event over and over again" for rumination; and "I try to forget the whole thing" for escape. Responses were on a five-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (very rarely) to 5 (very often). Participants were asked to respond to each coping item twice: once for coping with work stressors and once for coping with family stressors.

The coping scales used in the present study initially included five items per coping style, with the exception of escape, which included four items. However, two of the items, including the first escape item ("I hope a miracle will happen") and the fourth problem solving item ("I try to work harder and more efficiently"), exhibited poor item-total statistics. Specifically, the initial alpha coefficients increased by deleting the two items (escape: .51 versus .64 for coping with work and .64 versus .77 for coping at family; problem solving: .76 versus .80 for coping with work and .79 versus .82 for coping with family). Additionally, the corrected item-total correlations were in the low to moderate range (escape: .09 for coping with work and .17 for coping with family; problem solving: .33 for coping with work and .44 for coping with family). Thus, these two items were dropped from analysis, resulting in a four-item scale for problem solving and a three-item scale for escape. After deleting these two items, the alpha coefficients ranged from .63 to .86 for coping with work stressors and .72 to .90 for coping with family stressors.

Because the coping scales were not psychometrically established and well-validated measures, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess model fit, using the PROC CALIS program within SAS 9.1. Because of the relatively small

sample size given the large number of items and parameters to be estimated, coping with work items were analyzed separately from coping with family items. A five-factor model was examined, with problem solving, support seeking, positive cognitive restructuring, rumination, and escape being specified as factors. Additionally, because support seeking is frequently divided into two factors (i.e., instrumental and emotional), a six-factor model was tested as well. The first three support seeking items were considered instrumental support seeking (e.g., I talk to someone who could do something concrete about the problem), while the last two items were considered emotional support seeking (e.g., I talk to someone about how I feel). Finally, a one-factor model was also examined for comparative purposes. Across all tested models, the convergence criterion was satisfied.

Goodness of fit indices are provided in Table 2, and chi-square difference tests are presented in Table 3. Small, non significant chi-square values indicate that the model fits the data. However, chi-square values are influenced by several factors other than model fit, including sample size and model complexity. Thus, a model may fit the data well yet have a significant chi-square value, and it is important to consider other factors as well when assessing model fit. One criteria is the chi-square/df ratio; values less than 2 are often considered acceptable. Other goodness of fit indices include the comparative fit index (CFI), the non-normed fit index (NNFI), the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). CFI, NNFI, and AGFI values of .90 or greater are considered acceptable fit, while values of .95 or greater indicate good fit. Moreover, RMSEA values around .05 or less indicate a good fit for the model, while values between .05 and .08 are generally considered acceptable (Browne &

Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999; Kline, 1998). As Tables 2 and 3 indicate, the six-factor model fit the data best for both coping with work and coping with family. The improvement in fit between the five- and six-factor model was particularly strong for coping with work, indicating the importance of differentiating between instrumental and emotional support seeking for coping with work-related stressors.

T-values and standardized estimates of each path were also examined. For both coping with work and coping with family, all *t*-values were significant ($p < .01$; range: 5.40 to 16.36 for coping with work; 7.32 to 17.21 for coping with family). The standardized loadings were moderate to high as well. For coping with work, only two values were less than .50 (cognitive restructuring #3 and #4 = .37 and .47, respectively); and only one value was less than .50 for coping with family (cognitive restructuring #2 = .47). The average standard loading was .67 for coping with work and .72 for coping with family. Overall, the confirmatory factor analysis results provide support for the validity of the coping scale used in the present study.

Table 2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Coping Items: Goodness of Fit Indices

Model	χ^2	df	$\chi 2$/df	$p <$	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI	AGFI
Coping with Work Stressors								
1 Factor	1030.31	209	4.93	0.01	0.14	0.41	0.35	0.50
5 Factor	544.83	199	2.74	0.01	0.08	0.83	0.81	0.80
6 Factor	382.76	194	1.97	0.01	0.06	0.91	0.89	0.85
Coping with Family Stressors								
1 Factor	1885.41	209	9.02	0.01	0.17	0.36	0.29	0.43
5 Factor	435.28	199	2.19	0.01	0.07	0.91	0.90	0.84
6 Factor	361.13	194	1.86	0.01	0.06	0.94	0.92	0.86

Table 3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Coping Items: Chi Square Difference Test

Model Comparison	Δ $\chi 2$	Δ df	$p <$
Coping with Work Stressors			
1 vs. 5 Factor	485.48	10	0.01
1 vs. 6 Factor	647.55	15	0.01
5 vs. 6 Factor	162.07	5	0.01
Coping with Family Stressors			
1 vs. 5 Factor	1450.14	10	0.01
1 vs. 6 Factor	1524.28	15	0.01
5 vs. 6 Factor	74.14	5	0.01

Work-Family Conflict. Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) WIF and FIW scales were used, each of which is composed of five items. A sample WIF item includes "The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life," while a sample FIW item is "Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties." The items in this scale represent a mixture of time- and strain-based conflict, consistent with the majority of research on work-family conflict. Netemeyer et al. (1996) offer support for the validity of the two scales, including the scales' dimensionality, internal consistency, measurement invariance, and convergent/discriminant validity. In the present study, responses were on a five-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (very rarely) to 5 (very often). Alpha coefficients were .90 for WIF and .89 for FIW.

Demographics/Control Variables. Potential control variables that were collected include gender, age, significant other's employment status, number of children living at home, work hours, household income, and whether the participant had primary care giving responsibilities for an elderly relative. Gender and age were included as potential

control variables for hypotheses in which coping is the dependent variable, given that some studies have found differences in choice of coping style across gender and age. For example, Endler and Parker (1990) found that women tended to use emotion-focused coping more often than men, and Carver et al. (1989) found that women reported greater use of focusing on/venting emotions and seeking social support, while men reported increased likelihood of using alcohol and drugs as a coping mechanism. Age differences in coping style have been reported as well (e.g., Blanchard-Fields, Stein, & Watson, 2004; Heiman, 2004). Specifically, Blanchard-Fields et al. (2004) found that middle-aged adults used more proactive emotion-regulation strategies and fewer passive emotion-regulation strategies than older adults, while Heiman (2004) found that older participants reported more task-oriented coping and less emotional coping as compared to younger participants. Other studies have reported age differences as well (e.g., Haren & Mitchell, 2003), though findings are inconsistent (e.g., Kato & Pedersen, 2005).

In terms of work-family conflict, control variables typically include factors likely to affect the individual's work and/or family demands. Specifically, individuals who have more children living at home, have primary caregiving responsibilities for an elder relative, and/or work more hours each week are likely to experience higher levels of WFC than those who have fewer children/caregiving responsibilities and/or work fewer hours. In addition to number of children living at home, Responsibility for Dependents (RFD), an index that statistically combines the number and age of dependents according to level of responsibility (Rothausen, 1999), was calculated as well. Specifically, the RFD index is a weighted sum of the number of children living at home, whereby younger children are weighted more heavily, and older children are given a smaller weight.

Although the majority of work-family research focuses solely on the number of children living at home and/or the age of the youngest child living at home, the Responsibility for Dependents index provides a more thorough assessment by considering the age of each child.

Household income and significant other's employment status are also likely to affect work/family demands indirectly by providing the individual with the resources to manage WFC. For example, those with a high household income may hire a cleaning service, thereby reducing demands in the family realm. Similarly, having a full-time homemaker as a significant other may reduce family demands as well. Gender is also frequently included as a control variable, given that family- and household-related responsibilities often disproportionately fall on the woman's shoulders, creating a "second shift" for employed women (Hochschild & Machung, 2003). Although research linking demographic variables to WFC has been inconsistent, with researchers frequently reporting null findings (e.g., Byron, 2005), other studies have found significant relationships (e.g., Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), and the control variables listed above are frequently included in work-family studies.

Thus, gender, age, number of children living at home, work hours, household income, and significant other's employment status were included in the present study as potential control variables. However, each variable was only included if it related to the dependent variable in question.

Additional demographic information was collected as well. Participants were asked to identify themselves as American Indian or Alaskan Native; Asian or Pacific Islander; Black or African American; White/Caucasian, Non Hispanic; Hispanic or

Mexican American; or other. Education, organizational tenure, and length of relationship with significant other were also included. Significant others were asked basic demographic questions, including age, race/ethnicity, and gender.

Procedure

Participants were contacted via email and asked to participate voluntarily in the study. Additionally, they were asked to forward the email to other interested individuals, if willing. Emails included a link to a website with survey instructions and informed consent, assuring participants that their responses would be confidential and anonymous. Those who chose to continue were directed to the webpage with survey items. Each participant was asked to provide his/her significant other's email address so that the primary investigator could send him/her a similar survey (for another source of personality ratings), as well as a unique six to eight digit code (generated by the participant) to link the self and significant other responses. Upon completion of the survey, participants were instructed to submit their responses electronically, and a debriefing page was displayed. Significant others were contacted via email as well, instructed that participation is voluntary, and provided with a link to their version of the survey. Each significant other was provided with the six to eight digit code generated by his/her significant other and instructed to enter the code in the beginning of the survey. Significant others were sent reminder emails approximately two weeks after the initial email if they had not yet completed the survey.

Participants were also provided with the option of receiving a paper version of the survey via postal mail, and two participants elected this option. These participants followed a similar procedure, though they filled out hard copies of study materials, were

asked to manually give their significant other the survey, and were provided with an envelope/prepaid postage for mailing studying materials back. In order to link the two sources of data (self and significant other), hard copies of surveys were marked with a code number. The identification numbers were unrelated to participant data but rather generated randomly to protect the anonymity of the participants.

Chapter Three

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive statistics for each study variable, including sample size, mean, standard deviation, observed minimum/maximum, and alpha coefficient, are provided in Table 4. Intercorrelations between study variables are provided in Table 5.

Consistent with past research, participants reported higher levels of WIF (M = 2.90) than FIW (M = 2.01; $t(202) = 15.61$, $p < .01$). Additionally, participants tended to use problem solving ($t(203) = 2.12$, $p < .05$; Ms = 4.04 and 3.95), instrumental support seeking ($t(203) = 2.60$, $p < .05$; Ms = 3.45 and 3.29), and positive cognitive restructuring ($t(202) = 4.77$, $p < .01$; Ms = 3.37 and 3.18) more with work than with family stressors, while they reported similar use of emotional support seeking ($t(203) = -.64$), rumination ($t(203) = -.79$), and escape ($t(203) = -1.55$) across domains.

Before conducting the primary analyses, the data were inspected to determine whether any regression assumptions had been violated. The first assumption of regression, independence, is a methodological question. The study design provides no reason to suppose that the responses of the primary participants depended upon each other; thus, this assumption was assumed to be met. Scatterplots of variable pairs were inspected to test the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity. The graphs did not indicate that non-linear relationships were present. Additionally, the variance of the

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

Variable	N	# of Items	α	*M*	*SD*	Obs. Min.	Obs. Max.
Personality: Self-Report							
Conscientiousness	204	9	.79	4.07	.50	2.56	5.00
Extraversion	204	8	.91	3.35	.82	1.38	5.00
Neuroticism	204	8	.87	2.71	.77	1.00	4.75
Internal Locus of Control	204	10	.70	4.13	.43	2.40	5.00
Personality: Significant Other-Report							
Conscientiousness	204	9	.84	4.06	.60	2.11	5.00
Extraversion	204	8	.87	3.40	.78	1.13	5.00
Neuroticism	204	8	.87	2.86	.77	1.13	5.00
Coping Style with Work Stressors							
Problem Solving	204	4	.80	4.04	.59	2.75	5.00
Support Seeking (Instrumental)	204	3	.74	3.45	.78	1.00	5.00
Support Seeking (Emotional)	204	2	.78	3.43	.99	1.00	5.00
Cognitive Restructuring	203	5	.63	3.37	.60	1.40	5.00
Rumination	204	5	.86	2.80	.80	1.00	4.80
Escape	204	3	.64	1.86	.67	1.00	4.00
Coping Style with Family Stressors							
Problem Solving	204	4	.82	3.95	.65	2.25	5.00
Support Seeking (Instrumental)	204	3	.77	3.29	.88	1.00	5.00
Support Seeking (Emotional)	204	2	.84	3.47	1.05	1.00	5.00
Cognitive Restructuring	204	5	.72	3.18	.70	1.00	5.00
Rumination	204	5	.90	2.83	.89	1.00	5.00
Escape	204	3	.77	1.93	.78	1.00	4.00
Work-Family Conflict							
WIF	204	5	.90	2.90	.86	1.00	5.00
FIW	203	5	.89	2.01	.79	1.00	4.80

Note: All variables are measured on a five-point scale

Table 5. Intercorrelations among Study Variables

	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Conscientiousness (self)	--						
2	Extraversion (self)	.30**	--					
3	Neuroticism (self)	-.24**	-.31**	--				
4	Internal LOC (self)	.55**	.29**	-.29**	--			
5	Conscientiousness (SO)[1]	.46**	.05	-.09	.28**	--		
6	Extraversion (SO)[1]	.23**	.68**	-.19**	.21**	.19**	--	
7	Neuroticism (SO)[1]	-.13	-.06	.62**	-.21**	-.28**	-.16*	--
8	Problem Solving (w)	.31**	.18*	-.29**	.36**	.22**	.15*	-.26**
9	Support Seeking - I (w)	.19**	.24**	-.01	.19**	-.01	.18*	.03
10	Support Seeking - E (w)	.06	.17*	.07	.06	.01	.10	.05
11	Cog. Restructure (w)	.09	.16*	-.23**	.24**	-.03	.12	-.17*
12	Rumination (w)	-.26**	-.12	.58**	-.30**	-.17*	-.09	.39**
13	Escape (w)	-.09	-.05	.02	-.05	.08	-.01	.02
14	Problem Solving (f)	.39**	.24**	-.20**	.31**	.06	.20**	-.05
15	Support Seeking - I (f)	.13	.23**	-.07	.09	-.19**	.13	.04
16	Support Seeking - E (f)	.14*	.22**	.01	.14*	-.04	.16*	.05
17	Cog. Restructure (f)	.14*	.23**	-.15*	.21**	-.10	.24**	-.04
18	Rumination (f)	-.21**	-.06	.49**	-.15*	-.18*	-.09	.31**
19	Escape (f)	-.16*	-.11	.02	-.12	.05	-.01	-.05
20	WIF	-.10	-.11	.22**	.00	-.01	-.09	.24**
21	FIW	-.06	-.03	.18*	.01	.00	-.05	.23**
22	Gender[2]	-.12	-.16*	-.15*	-.05	-.04	-.10	-.24**
23	Age	-.09	.00	-.21**	-.16*	-.02	.03	-.14*
24	Work Time	.07	-.11	.00	.06	.11	-.12	-.05
25	Household Income	.05	.08	.04	-.03	-.01	.04	.09
26	SO Employment[1,3]	.00	-.03	.18**	-.04	-.02	-.05	.20**
27	# Children at Home	.06	.09	-.07	.02	-.02	.11	.08
28	RFD[4]	.07	.07	-.04	.04	.00	.14*	.07
29	Elder Care[3]	-.08	-.05	-.04	-.07	.00	-.02	-.03

*p<.05; **p<.01; Ns ranged from 191 to 204
[1]SO=Significant other; [2]Male=1; Female=0; [3]Yes=1; No=0; [4]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 5 (Continued)

	Variable	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Conscientiousness (self)							
2	Extraversion (self)							
3	Neuroticism (self)							
4	Internal LOC (self)							
5	Conscientiousness (SO)[1]							
6	Extraversion (SO)[1]							
7	Neuroticism (SO)[1]							
8	Problem Solving (w)	--						
9	Support Seeking - I (w)	.34**	--					
10	Support Seeking - E (w)	-.09	.36**	--				
11	Cog. Restructure (w)	.37**	.32**	.10	--			
12	Rumination (w)	-.33**	-.05	.20**	-.15*	--		
13	Escape (w)	-.31**	-.21*	.00	.05	.15*	--	
14	Problem Solving (f)	.56**	.24**	-.03	.25**	-.22**	-.19**	--
15	Support Seeking - I (f)	.17*	.42**	.36**	.28**	-.09	-.24**	.37**
16	Support Seeking - E (f)	.10	.43**	.63**	.21**	.03	-.14	.24**
17	Cog. Restructure (f)	.26**	.28**	.11	.64**	-.08	-.01	.45**
18	Rumination (f)	-.21**	.09	.25**	-.05	.70**	.09	-.10
19	Escape (f)	-.24**	-.10	.04	.10	.13	.59**	-.33**
20	WIF	-.08	-.11	-.14	-.07	.21**	.16*	-.16*
21	FIW	-.12	-.11	-.12	-.14	.11	.14*	-.07
22	Gender[2]	.10	-.21**	-.45**	.02	-.15*	-.06	.02
23	Age	.02	-.02	-.06	-.09	-.09	.12	.03
24	Work Time	-.04	-.16*	-.13	-.06	.01	.20**	-.16*
25	Household Income	.06	.03	.02	-.18*	.01	.00	-.03
26	SO Employment[1,3]	-.05	.03	.16*	-.03	.06	-.02	-.11
27	# Children at Home	.00	.07	-.05	.00	.01	.03	.10
28	RFD[4]	.03	.09	-.04	.01	.01	-.00	.11
29	Elder Care[3]	-.03	.07	.11	.09	.12	.18*	-.04

*p<.05; **p<.01; Ns ranged from 191 to 204
[1]SO=Significant other; [2]Male=1; Female=0; [3]Yes=1; No=0; [4]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 5 (Continued)

	Variable	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1	Conscientiousness (self)							
2	Extraversion (self)							
3	Neuroticism (self)							
4	Internal LOC (self)							
5	Conscientiousness (SO)[1]							
6	Extraversion (SO)[1]							
7	Neuroticism (SO)[1]							
8	Problem Solving (w)							
9	Support Seeking - I (w)							
10	Support Seeking - E (w)							
11	Cog. Restructure (w)							
12	Rumination (w)							
13	Escape (w)							
14	Problem Solving (f)							
15	Support Seeking - I (f)	--						
16	Support Seeking - E (f)	.59**	--					
17	Cog. Restructure (f)	.47**	.29**	--				
18	Rumination (f)	.07	.20**	-.09	--			
19	Escape (f)	-.27**	-.11	-.09	.12	--		
20	WIF	-.17*	-.19**	-.11	.13	.12	--	
21	FIW	-.05	-.02	-.05	.12	.06	.52**	--
22	Gender[2]	-.27**	-.39**	-.10	-.17*	-.02	.02	-.07
23	Age	-.10	-.07	-.07	-.09	.09	-.18*	-.13
24	Work Time	-.15*	-.23**	-.14*	-.05	.09	.37**	.02
25	Household Income	.01	.04	-.14*	-.01	.03	-.03	.06
26	SO Employment[1,3]	.19**	.26**	-.01	.06	-.03	.07	.17*
27	# Children at Home	.02	-.02	.18*	.01	.00	.05	.31**
28	RFD[4]	.02	.00	.17*	.01	-.02	.08	.33**
29	Elder Care[3]	.07	.08	.08	.13	.13	.08	.05

*p<.05; **p<.01; Ns ranged from 191 to 204
[1]SO=Significant other; [2]Male=1; Female=0; [3]Yes=1; No=0; [4]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 5 (Continued)

	Variable	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
1	Conscientiousness (self)							
2	Extraversion (self)							
3	Neuroticism (self)							
4	Internal LOC (self)							
5	Conscientiousness (SO)[1]							
6	Extraversion (SO)[1]							
7	Neuroticism (SO)[1]							
8	Problem Solving (w)							
9	Support Seeking - I (w)							
10	Support Seeking - E (w)							
11	Cog. Restructure (w)							
12	Rumination (w)							
13	Escape (w)							
14	Problem Solving (f)							
15	Support Seeking - I (f)							
16	Support Seeking - E (f)							
17	Cog. Restructure (f)							
18	Rumination (f)							
19	Escape (f)							
20	WIF							
21	FIW							
22	Gender[2]	--						
23	Age	.16*	--					
24	Work Time	.14	-.11	--				
25	Household Income	-.14	.21**	.17*	--			
26	SO Employment[1,3]	-.27**	-.25**	-.02	.16*	--		
27	# Children at Home	-.01	.03	-.18*	.07	-.18**	--	
28	RFD[4]	-.01	-.03	-.16*	.07	-.15*	.98**	--
29	Elder Care[3]	-.08	.16*	.01	-.18*	.05	-.02	-.06

*p<.05; **p<.01; Ns ranged from 191 to 204
[1]SO=Significant other; [2]Male=1; Female=0; [3]Yes=1; No=0; [4]Responsibility for Dependents Index

independent variables appeared relatively constant across all levels of the dependent variable, supporting the assumption of homoscedasticity.

The data were also assessed for normality and outliers. Specifically, skewness and kurtosis values were computed, and histograms and box plots were graphed. For the most part, the skewness and kurtosis values were small (less than one). A few variables, including locus of control and number of children living at home, were kurtotic, and number of children living at home and the Responsibility for Dependents index were positively skewed. However, given that linear regression is fairly robust with respect to the normality assumption, it was deemed unnecessary to normalize the data.

Box plots were examined for extreme outliers, defined as data points falling more than three times the interquartile range away from the upper or lower quartile. Two individuals had extreme scores for work hours, reporting working an average of 80 hours per week. These values are plausible and were thus kept in the data set.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses 1 through 7 were tested with zero-order correlations as well as with regression to determine whether relationships differed with and without control variables. For each equation, independent variables were entered first, followed by the control variable(s) related to the dependent variable. Hypotheses 8 through 15 involve mediation and were tested following Baron and Kenny's (1986) three-step procedure. When sufficient support was found, the Sobel test was also used to test the mediation hypotheses. An alpha level of .05 was used for all analyses.

To preserve power, control variables were chosen based on their relationship with the dependent variable (DV) of interest. Of the potential control variables for work-

family conflict, only work time related to WIF ($r = .37$, $p < .01$). Number of children at home ($r = .31$, $p < .01$), the Responsibility for Dependents (RFD) index ($r = .33$, $p < .01$), and significant other's employment status related to FIW ($r = .17$, $p < .05$). Specifically, participants with more children living at home, a higher RFD index, and/or an employed significant other tended to experience higher levels of FIW. Given the nature of the RFD index, there was a high correlation between RFD and number of children at home ($r = .98$). The RFD index was chosen as a control variable over number of children at home, given that it takes into account the age of each child living at home, in addition to the overall number. Age was included as a potential control variable for the coping variables, but it was not significantly related to any of the coping styles. Gender, on the other hand, was related to instrumental (work: $r = -.21$, $p < .01$; family: $r = -.27$, $p < .01$) and to emotional (work: $r = -.45$, $p < .01$; family: $r = -.39$, $p < .01$) support seeking and to rumination (work: $r = -.15$, $p < .05$; family: $r = -.17$, $p < .05$); females reported using these coping styles more frequently than men, both for work and for family stressors. Thus, gender was entered as a control variable for analyses in which support seeking or rumination was the dependent variable. Neither potential control variable was significantly related to the other coping styles, so hypotheses involving problem solving, cognitive restructuring, and escape were tested with zero-order correlations only.

For hypotheses involving personality, significant other-ratings of conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism were used, unless otherwise specified. However, for comparative purposes, self-ratings, as well as the average of self- and significant other-ratings, were examined as well. These results are provided in Appendix F. Only self-ratings of internal locus of control were collected.

Personality and Work-Family Conflict. The first hypothesis predicted that work-family conflict would relate to the four personality variables under investigation. Specifically, it was expected that conscientiousness (1a), extraversion (1b), and internal locus of control (1c) would negatively relate to WIF and FIW, while neuroticism (1d) would positively relate to WIF and FIW. Contrary to Hypothesis 1, conscientiousness, extraversion, and internal locus of control were not significantly correlated with WIF (*r*s = -.01, -.09, and .00, respectively) or with FIW (*r*s = .00, -.05, and .01, respectively). Additionally, as presented in Tables 6, 7, and 9, the beta weights for conscientiousness, extraversion, and internal locus of control were not significant after accounting for control variables (βs = -.05, -.05, and -.02, respectively for WIF; βs = .01, -.09, and .00, respectively for FIW). On the other hand, neuroticism was significantly related to WIF ($r = .24$, $p < .01$; $\beta = .26$, $p < .01$) and to FIW ($r = .23$, $p < .01$; $\beta = .17$, $p < .01$). Regression results for neuroticism are presented in Table 8.

For comparative purposes, self-ratings and the average of self- and significant other-ratings were examined for conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism. As demonstrated by both correlations and regression analysis (presented in Tables 32 through 37), the results for self-ratings and average-ratings mirrored those found for significant other-ratings. Thus, across both sources of ratings, Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c were not supported while Hypothesis 1d was.

Personality and Coping Style. Hypotheses 2 through 5 predicted that conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and internal locus of control would each relate to a subset of the five coping styles. For example, Hypothesis 2 predicted that conscientiousness would positively relate to problem solving (2a) and to positive

Table 6. Regression of WIF and FIW on Conscientiousness (Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Conscientiousness	-.05	.01
Control Variables		
Work Time	.38**	
SO[1] Employment		.23**
RFD[2]		.37**
Δ in R^2	.14	.16
Overall R^2	.14	.16
Adjusted R^2	.13	.15
Overall F	16.52**	12.51**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 7. Regression of WIF and FIW on Extraversion (Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Extraversion	-.05	-.09
Control Variables		
Work Time	.37**	
SO[1] Employment		.22**
RFD[2]		.38**
Δ in R^2	.13	.16
Overall R^2	.14	.17
Adjusted R^2	.13	.15
Overall F	16.47**	13.22**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 8. Regression of WIF and FIW on Neuroticism (Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Neuroticism	.26**	.17**
Control Variables		
Work Time	.39**	
SO[1] Employment		.19**
RFD[2]		.35**
Δ in R^2	.15	.14
Overall R^2	.21	.19
Adjusted R^2	.20	.18
Overall F	25.89**	15.30**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 9. Regression of WIF and FIW on Internal Locus of Control (Self-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Internal Locus of Control	-.02	.00
Control Variables		
Work Time	.37**	
SO[1] Employment		.23**
RFD[2]		.37**
Δ in R^2	.14	.16
Overall R^2	.14	.16
Adjusted R^2	.13	.15
Overall F	16.27**	12.51**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

cognitive restructuring (2b) and negatively relate to rumination (2c) and to escape (2d). In terms of coping with work stressors, conscientiousness significantly related to problem solving ($r = .22$, $p < .01$) and to rumination ($r = -.17$, $p < .05$) but not to positive cognitive restructuring ($r = -.03$) or to escape ($r = .08$). On the other hand, for coping with family stressors, only rumination was significantly related to conscientiousness ($r = -.18$, $p < .05$). The multiple regression results for rumination, presented in Table 10, provide support for a relationship between conscientiousness and rumination for work ($\beta = -.18$, $p < .05$) and for family ($\beta = -.18$, $p < .01$) stressors after controlling for gender.

Hypothesis 2 was also examined using self- and average-ratings of conscientiousness. The results were similar, with a couple of noteworthy differences. Consistent with the significant other-ratings, rumination for work and for family stressors were negatively related to self- and to average-ratings of conscientiousness, both with and without control variables (see Tables 38 and 39 for regression results). Additionally, self- and average-ratings of conscientiousness were significantly related to problem solving for work stressors. However, unlike the significant other-ratings, problem solving for family stressors significantly related to self- and to average-ratings of conscientiousness ($r = .39$, $p < .01$ and $r = .30$, $p < .01$, respectively). Additionally, self-ratings (though not average-ratings) of conscientiousness significantly related to positive cognitive restructuring ($r = .14$, $p < .05$) and to escape ($r = -.16$, $p < .05$) for family stressors. Thus, limited support was found for Hypothesis 2, though results differed by coping style, rating source, and coping style context. Specifically Hypothesis 2a was supported for coping with work stressors (both rating sources of conscientiousness) and for coping with family stressors (self- and average-ratings of personality only);

Hypothesis 2c was fully supported; and Hypotheses 2b and 2d were largely unsupported, though self-ratings of conscientiousness related to coping with family stressors for both coping styles. Additionally, though not hypothesized, significant other-ratings of conscientiousness *negatively* related to instrumental support seeking for family stressors (r = -.19, p < .01), while self-ratings of conscientiousness *positively* related to instrumental support seeking for work stressors (r = .19, p < .01) and to emotional support seeking for family stressors (r = .14, p < .05).

Hypothesis 3 predicted that extraversion would positively relate to problem solving (3a), to support seeking (3b), and to positive cognitive restructuring (3c) and negatively relate to rumination (3d). Regression results for Hypothesis 3 are presented in Table 11. Hypotheses 3a was supported; extraversion was significantly related to problem solving for work (r = .15, p < .05) and for family stressors (r = .20, p < .01). Additionally, extraversion was significantly related to instrumental support seeking for work stressors (r = .18, p < .05) and to emotional support seeking for family stressors (r = .16, p < .05) but not to emotional support seeking for work stressors (r = .10) or to instrumental support seeking for family stressors (r = .13). While the relationship between instrumental support seeking for work and extraversion remained significant after controlling for gender (β = .16, p < .05), the relationship between emotional support seeking for family and extraversion did not (β = .12). Extraversion was also significantly related to positive cognitive restructuring for family stressors (r = .24, p < .01), but there was no support for the relationship between extraversion and positive cognitive restructuring for work (r = .12), rumination for work (r = -.09, β = -.11), or rumination

for family *(r* = -.09, β = -.11). As expected, there was no significant relationship between extraversion and escape for work (*r* = -.01) or for family (*r* = -.01) stressors.

The results using self- and average-ratings of extraversion were very similar. However, unlike the significant other-ratings, both self- and average-ratings of extraversion significantly related to all forms of social support seeking (instrumental for work: *r* = .24, *p* < .01 for self, *r* = .23, *p* < .01 for average; emotional for work: *r* = .17, *p* < .05 for self, *r* = .15, *p* < .05 for average; instrumental for family: *r* = .23, *p* < .01 for self, *r* = .19, *p* < .01 for average; emotional for family: *r* = .22, *p* < .01 for self, *r* = .21, *p* < .01 for average), as well as to cognitive restructuring for work stressors (*r* = .16, *p* < .05 for self, *r* = .15, *p* < .05 for average). As shown in Tables 40 and 41 (see Appendix F for regression results using self- and average-ratings of personality), after controlling for gender, the relationships between self- and average-ratings of extraversion and instrumental support seeking for work stressors (β = .21, *p* < .01 and β = .20, *p* < .01, respectively), instrumental support seeking for family stressors (β = .19, *p* < .01 and β = .16, *p* < .05, respectively), and emotional support seeking for family stressors (β = .16, *p* < .05 and β = .15, *p* < .05, respectively) remained significant. Additionally, self- and average-ratings of extraversion were significantly related to rumination for work stressors, after controlling for gender (β = -.15, *p* < .05 and β = -.14, *p* < .05, respectively). Overall, full support was found for Hypothesis 3a; partial support was found for Hypothesis 3b (depending on type of support seeking and source of personality ratings); and Hypothesis 3c was supported for coping with family stressors (both rating sources of extraversion) and for coping with work stressors (self- and average-ratings only). Hypothesis 3d was largely unsupported.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that neuroticism would negatively relate to problem solving (4a) and to positive cognitive restructuring (4b) and positively relate to rumination (4c) and to escape (4d). For coping with work stressors, Hypotheses 4a, 4b, and 4c were fully supported; neuroticism significantly related to problem solving (r = -.26, p < .01), to positive cognitive restructuring (r = -.17, p < .05), and to rumination (r = .39, p < .01), though not to escape (r = .02). However, for coping with family stressors, only rumination was significantly related to neuroticism (r = .31, p < .01), while neuroticism was not significantly related to problem solving (r = -.05), to positive cognitive restructuring (r = -.04), or to escape (r = -.05). As presented in Table 12, the relationship between neuroticism and rumination remained significant after controlling for gender (β = .38, p < .01 for work; β = .29, p < .01 for family). As expected, the relationships between neuroticism and support seeking for work (instrumental: r = .03; emotional: r = .05) and for family (instrumental: r = .04; emotional: r = .05) stressors were not significant.

In terms of self- and average-ratings of neuroticism, the only differences were that self- and average-ratings of neuroticism significantly related to problem solving for family stressors (r = -.20, p < .01 and r = -.14, p < .05, respectively), and self-ratings (though not average-ratings) of neuroticism significantly related to positive cognitive restructuring for family stressors (r = -.15, p < .05). (Regression results for self- and average-ratings of neuroticism and coping are presented in Tables 42 and 43.) Overall, full support was found for Hypothesis 4c, while Hypotheses 4a and 4b were supported for coping with work stressors (both rating sources of neuroticism) and for coping with family stressors (self-ratings only). Hypothesis 4d received no support.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that internal locus of control would positively relate to problem solving (5a) and to positive cognitive restructuring (5b) and negatively relate to escape (5c). For both work and family stressors, internal locus of control was significantly related to problem solving ($r = .36$, $p < .01$ for work; $r = .31$, $p < .01$ for family) and to positive cognitive restructuring ($r = .24$, $p < .01$ for work; $r = .21$, $p < .01$ for family) but unrelated to escape ($r = -.05$ for work; $r = -.12$ for family). Thus, Hypotheses 5a and 5b were fully supported, while no support was found for Hypothesis 5c.

Although not hypothesized, internal locus of control was also related to instrumental support seeking for work ($r = .19$, $p < .01$) and emotional support seeking for family ($r = .14$, $p < .05$). Moreover, the relationship between internal locus of control and rumination was significant for both work ($r = -.30$, $p < .01$) and family ($r = -.15$, $p < .05$) stressors.

Table 10. Regression of Coping Style on Conscientiousness (Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	Rumination (work)	Rumination (family)
Independent Variable		
Conscientiousness	-.18*	-.18**
Control Variable		
Gender	-.16*	-.18*
Δ in R^2	.02	.03
Overall R^2	.05	.06
Adjusted R^2	.04	.05
Overall F	5.70**	6.60**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation

Table 11. Regression of Coping Style on Extraversion (Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable					
	Support Seeking – I[1] (w)	Support Seeking – E[2] (w)	Support Seeking – I[1] (f)	Support Seeking – E[2] (f)	Rumination (w)	Rumination (f)
Independent Variable						
Extraversion	.16*	.06	.10	.12	-.11	-.11
Control Variable						
Gender	-.20**	-.45**	-.26**	-.38**	-.16*	-.18*
Δ in R^2	.04	.20	.07	.14	.03	.03
Overall R^2	.07	.21	.08	.17	.03	.04
Adjusted R^2	.06	.20	.07	.16	.02	.03
Overall *F*	7.39**	26.45**	8.80**	20.21**	3.51*	4.18*

*p<.05; **p<.01; *βs* are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Instrumental Support Seeking; [2]Emotional Support Seeking

Table 12. Regression of Coping Style on Neuroticism (Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	Rumination (work)	Rumination (family)
Independent Variable		
Neuroticism	.38**	.29**
Control Variable		
Gender	-.06	-.10
Δ in R^2	.00	.01
Overall R^2	.16	.11
Adjusted R^2	.15	.10
Overall *F*	18.46**	11.87**

*p<.05; **p<.01; *βs* are standardized regression weights from the final equation

Coping Style and Work-Family Conflict. The next two hypotheses predicted that coping for work stressors would relate to WIF (Hypothesis 6), while coping for family stressors would relate to FIW (Hypothesis 7). Specifically, problem solving (6a and 7a), support seeking (6b and 7b), and positive cognitive restructuring (6c and 7c) were expected to negatively relate to work-family conflict, while rumination (6d and 7d) and escape (6e and 7e) were expected to positively relate to work-family conflict. Regression results for Hypotheses 6 and 7 are provided in Tables 13 through 24. Although domain-specific relationships (i.e., coping with work and WIF; coping with family and FIW) were hypothesized, cross-domain relationships (i.e., coping with work and FIW; coping with family and WIF) are also presented in these tables for exploratory purposes.

In terms of coping with work stressors, WIF was significantly related to rumination ($r = .21$, $p < .01$) and to escape ($r = .16$, $p < .05$) but not to problem solving ($r = -.08$), to support seeking (instrumental: $r = -.11$; emotional: $r = -.14$), or to positive cognitive restructuring ($r = -.07$). Additionally, only rumination for work stressors remained significant after controlling for work time ($\beta = .21$, $p < .01$); the beta weights for problem solving ($\beta = -.06$), support seeking (instrumental: $\beta = -.05$; emotional: $\beta = -.09$), cognitive restructuring ($\beta = -.05$), and escape ($\beta = .09$) were not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 6d was fully supported; Hypothesis 6e was partially supported; and Hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c were unsupported.

While Hypothesis 6 received some support, Hypothesis 7 did not. None of the coping styles for family stressors were significantly related to FIW, with or without accounting for the control variables: $r = -.07$, $\beta = -.09$ for problem solving; $r = -.05$, $\beta = -.09$ for instrumental support seeking; $r = -.02$, $\beta = -.08$ for emotional support seeking; $r =$

Table 13. Regression of WIF and FIW on Problem Solving for Work Stressors

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Problem Solving (work)	-.06	-.11
Control Variables		
Work Time	.37**	
SO[1] Employment		.22**
RFD[2]		.37**
Δ in R^2	.14	.16
Overall R^2	.14	.17
Adjusted R^2	.13	.16
Overall F	16.74**	13.75**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 14. Regression of WIF and FIW on Problem Solving for Family Stressors

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Problem Solving (family)	-.11	-.09
Control Variables		
Work Time	.36**	
SO[1] Employment		.22**
RFD[2]		.38**
Δ in R^2	.12	.16
Overall R^2	.15	.17
Adjusted R^2	.14	.15
Overall F	17.68**	13.27**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 15. Regression of WIF and FIW on Instrumental Support Seeking for Work Stressors

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Instrumental Support Seeking (work)	-.05	-.15*
Control Variables		
Work Time	.37**	
SO[1] Employment		.23**
RFD[2]		.38**
Δ in R^2	.13	.17
Overall R^2	.14	.18
Adjusted R^2	.13	.17
Overall F	16.51**	14.51**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 16. Regression of WIF and FIW on Emotional Support Seeking for Work Stressors

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Emotional Support Seeking (work)	-.09	-.14*
Control Variables		
Work Time	.36**	
SO[1] Employment		.25**
RFD[2]		.36**
Δ in R^2	.13	.16
Overall R^2	.15	.18
Adjusted R^2	.14	.17
Overall F	17.29**	14.34**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 17. Regression of WIF and FIW on Instrumental Support Seeking for Family Stressors

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Instrumental Support Seeking (family)	-.12	-.09
Control Variables		
Work Time	.36**	
SO[1] Employment		.24**
RFD[2]		.37**
Δ in R^2	.12	.16
Overall R^2	.15	.17
Adjusted R^2	.14	.15
Overall F	18.05**	13.22**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 18. Regression of WIF and FIW on Emotional Support Seeking for Family Stressors

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Emotional Support Seeking (family)	-.10	-.08
Control Variables		
Work Time	.35**	
SO[1] Employment		.25**
RFD[2]		.37**
Δ in R^2	.11	.16
Overall R^2	.15	.17
Adjusted R^2	.14	.15
Overall F	17.72**	13.09**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 19. Regression of WIF and FIW on Positive Cognitive Restructuring for Work Stressors

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Cognitive Restructuring (work)	-.05	-.13*
Control Variables		
Work Time	.37**	
SO[1] Employment		.22**
RFD[2]		.37**
Δ in R^2	.14	.16
Overall R^2	.14	.18
Adjusted R^2	.13	.16
Overall F	16.48**	14.17**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 20. Regression of WIF and FIW on Positive Cognitive Restructuring for Family Stressors

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Cognitive Restructuring (family)	-.06	-.12
Control Variables		
Work Time	.36**	
SO[1] Employment		.23**
RFD[2]		.39**
Δ in R^2	.13	.17
Overall R^2	.14	.17
Adjusted R^2	.13	.16
Overall F	16.69**	13.76**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 21. Regression of WIF and FIW on Rumination for Work Stressors

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Rumination (work)	.21**	.09
Control Variables		
Work Time	.37**	
SO[1] Employment		.22**
RFD[2]		.36**
Δ in R^2	.14	.16
Overall R^2	.18	.17
Adjusted R^2	.18	.16
Overall F	22.50**	13.34**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 22. Regression of WIF and FIW on Rumination for Family Stressors

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Rumination (family)	.15*	.11
Control Variables		
Work Time	.38**	
SO[1] Employment		.22**
RFD[2]		.36**
Δ in R^2	.15	.16
Overall R^2	.16	.17
Adjusted R^2	.15	.16
Overall F	19.39**	13.56**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 23. Regression of WIF and FIW on Escape for Work Stressors

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Escape (work)	.09	.14*
Control Variables		
Work Time	.35**	
SO[1] Employment		.22**
RFD[2]		.36**
Δ in R^2	.12	.16
Overall R^2	.15	.18
Adjusted R^2	.14	.16
Overall F	17.37**	14.24**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 24. Regression of WIF and FIW on Escape for Family Stressors

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Escape (family)	.09	.06
Control Variables		
Work Time	.37**	
SO[1] Employment		.23**
RFD[2]		.37**
Δ in R^2	.13	.16
Overall R^2	.15	.16
Adjusted R^2	.14	.15
Overall F	17.34**	12.88**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

-.05, β = -.12 for positive cognitive restructuring; r = .12, β = .11 for rumination; and r = .06, β = .06 for escape.

Although not hypothesized, cross-domain relationships were also examined for exploratory purposes. The relationship between FIW and escape for work stressors was significant (r = .14, p < .05). Additionally, after controlling for significant other's employment status and for the RFD index, instrumental support seeking (β = -.15, p < .05), emotional support seeking (β = -.14, p < .05), positive cognitive restructuring (β = -.13, p < .05), and escape (β = .14, p < .05) for work stressors significantly related to FIW. Furthermore, problem solving (r = -.16, p < .05) and support seeking (instrumental: r = -.17, p < .05; emotional: r = -.19, p < .01) for family stressors significantly related to WIF, and the relationship between WIF and rumination for family stressors was significant after controlling for work time (β = .15, p < .05).

Coping Style as a Mediator between Personality and Work-Family Conflict. Hypotheses 8 through 15 predicted that coping style would mediate the relationship between personality and work-family conflict. Following the strategy outlined in Baron and Kenny (1986), three regression equations are required to demonstrate support for mediation: (1) the mediator (coping style) is regressed onto the independent variable (personality); (2) the dependent variable (WIF/FIW) is regressed onto the IV; and (3) the dependent variable is regressed onto both the IV and the mediator. Support for mediation requires four conditions: (1) a significant relationship between the IV and the DV; (2) a significant relationship between the IV and the mediator, (3) a significant relationship between the mediator and the DV, and (4) after controlling for the mediator (step 3), the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable becomes non-significant

(full mediation) or decreases in strength (partial mediation; Baron & Kenny, 1986). Additionally, in step three, the relationship between the mediator and the DV should be established after controlling for the effect of the IV. Showing a correlation between the mediator and the DV is not sufficient in and of itself, as the correlation could be a result of the IV causing both the mediator and the outcome (thus indicating a spurious relationship).

As previously mentioned, conscientiousness, extraversion, and internal locus of control were not related to WIF or to FIW. Thus, the first condition was not satisfied for Hypotheses 8 through 11 and 14 through 15, and no subsequent analyses were performed. On the other hand, neuroticism was significantly related to WIF and to FIW, thereby satisfying condition one for Hypotheses 12 and 13, which predicted that coping style would mediate the relationship between neuroticism and work-family conflict. Specifically, problem solving for work (12a) and for family (13a), positive cognitive restructuring for work (12b) and for family (13b), rumination for work (12c) and for family (13c), and escape for work (12d) and for family (13d) were hypothesized to function as mediators between neuroticism and WIF (Hypothesis 12) or between neuroticism and FIW (Hypothesis 13).

For both work and family stressors and across all sources of personality ratings, escape was not related to neuroticism. Therefore, the second condition was not satisfied for Hypotheses 12d and 13d, and no subsequent analyses were performed. Although problem solving, positive cognitive restructuring, and rumination for work stressors significantly related to neuroticism, only rumination was significantly related to WIF. Thus, the third condition was not satisfied for Hypotheses 12a or 12b. Similarly, none of

the coping styles for family stressors related to FIW, so no additional analyses were conducted for Hypothesis 13.

Thus, the only mediation hypothesis that met Baron and Kenny's (1986) first two conditions and was significantly related to the DV (indicating initial support for condition three) was Hypothesis 12c, that rumination for work stressors would mediate the relationship between neuroticism and WIF. Hierarchical regression was performed to test conditions three and four, with control variables entered in step one, neuroticism (significant other-ratings) entered in step two, and rumination for work stressors entered in step three. The hypothesis was also tested without control variables, but the results were the same, so they are not presented here.

As shown in Table 25, neuroticism remained significant in step three, after rumination was added, but the beta weight decreased from .26 to .21 (ps < .01). However, rumination for work stressors was not significantly related to WIF, after controlling for neuroticism (β = .13). Thus, Baron and Kenny's (1986) third condition was not met. As an additional test of mediation, the Sobel test was performed (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Sobel, 1982). This method provides a single test of the significance of the indirect effect and is recommended as an alternative and/or supplement to Baron and Kenny's (1986) method (Kenny, 2008). The Sobel test provided support that rumination for work stressors mediated the relationship between neuroticism and WIF (z = 2.74, p < .01), thus providing partial support for Hypothesis 12c.

Hypothesis 12c was also examined using both self- and average-ratings of neuroticism, as presented in Tables 44 and 45. Unlike the results for significant other-ratings of neuroticism, the relationship between self-reported neuroticism and WIF was

non-significant in step three of the regression equation, after rumination was added, thereby meeting Baron and Kenny's (1986) fourth condition for mediation. However, the beta weights for rumination were not significant for either the self- (β =.12) or for the average-ratings (β = .09) of neuroticism. Thus, consistent with the results for significant other-ratings of neuroticism, condition three was not met. On the other hand, the Sobel test was significant for both self- (z = 2.98, p < .01) and for average-ratings (z = 2.90, p < .01) of neuroticism, also consistent with the results using significant other-reported neuroticism.

Table 25. Mediated Regression of WIF on Rumination for Work Stressors and Neuroticism (Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable: WIF		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variable			
Work Time	.37**	.39**	.38**
Independent Variable			
Neuroticism		.26**	.21**
Mediator			
Rumination (work)			.13
Δ in R^2	--	.07	.01
Overall R^2	.14	.21	.22
Adjusted R^2	.14	.20	.21
Overall F	32.60**	25.89**	18.70**

*p<.05; **p<.01

Supplementary Analysis

Although the present study hypothesized that coping style would mediate the relationship between personality and work-family conflict, coping style can also be conceptualized as a moderator. Thus, as a supplementary analysis, the five coping styles,

for both work and for family stressors, were examined as potential moderators between the four personality variables and both WIF and FIW. Moderated regression was used, with the independent variables entered in step one and the interaction term entered in step two. With the exception of internal locus of control, significant other-ratings of personality were used.

Of the 96 possible regression equations, only six had a significant interaction term. The moderated regression results for these six equations are presented in Tables 26 through 31, and the interactions are depicted graphically in Figures 1 through 6. (Note that the figures do not include control variables.) As presented in Table 26, problem solving for work stressors moderated the relationship between conscientiousness and FIW (β = -1.44, $p < .05$). Specifically, as shown in Figure 1, at low levels of conscientiousness, use of problem solving for work stressors was not related to the degree of FIW reported; however, at high levels of conscientiousness, individuals who did not use problem solving to manage work stressors tended to report higher levels of FIW, while individuals who used problem solving tended to report lower levels of FIW. A similar pattern emerged for positive cognitive restructuring used to cope with family stressors, which interacted with conscientiousness to explain variance in FIW (β = -1.09, $p < .05$; see Table 27 and Figure 2). Additionally, escape for family stressors moderated the relationship between conscientiousness and FIW (β = -1.41, $p < .01$; see Table 28). As shown in Figure 3, at low levels of conscientiousness, individuals who used escape to cope with family stressors tended to experience higher levels of FIW than individuals who did not. On the other hand, at high levels of conscientiousness, there was little difference in levels of FIW, regardless of the use of escape to cope with family stressors.

Extraversion, neuroticism, and internal locus of control were each involved in one significant interaction. Extraversion interacted with escape for family stressors to explain variance in WIF (β = -.74, p < .05; see Table 29). The nature of this interaction is depicted in Figure 4 and is consistent with that of conscientiousness and escape for family stressors. Additionally, as shown in Table 30, for individuals low on neuroticism, low rumination for family stressors was associated with lower levels of FIW, while high rumination was associated with higher levels of FIW. Conversely, at high levels of neuroticism, there was little relationship between rumination for family stressors and FIW. This interaction is shown graphically in Figure 5. Finally, internal locus of control interacted with instrumental support seeking for family stressors to explain variance in WIF (β = 1.53, p < .05; see Table 31). As depicted in Figure 6, individuals with an internal locus of control experienced similar levels of WIF, irrespective of the amount of instrumental support seeking used to cope with family stressors. On the other hand, for individuals with an external locus of control, high use of instrumental support seeking for family stressors was associated with lower levels of WIF, while low use of instrumental support seeking for family stressors was associated with higher levels of WIF.

Table 26. Moderated Regression of FIW on Conscientiousness (Significant Other-Report) and Problem Solving for Work Stressors

	Dependent Variable: FIW	
	Step 1	Step 2
Independent Variables		
Conscientiousness	.03	.95*
Problem Solving (work)	-.12	.78
Interaction Term		
Conscientiousness X Problem Solving (work)		-1.44*
Δ in R^2	--	.02
Overall R^2	.02	.03
Adjusted R^2	.01	.02
Overall F	1.48	2.32

*p<.05

Table 27. Moderated Regression of FIW on Conscientiousness (Significant Other-Report) and Positive Cognitive Restructuring for Family Stressors

	Dependent Variable: FIW	
	Step 1	Step 2
Independent Variables		
Conscientiousness	-.00	.64*
Cognitive Restructuring (family)	-.05	.89*
Interaction Term		
Conscientiousness X Cognitive Restructuring (family)		-1.09*
Δ in R^2	--	.02
Overall R^2	.00	.03
Adjusted R^2	-.01	.01
Overall F	.255	1.71

*p<.05

Table 28. Moderated Regression of FIW on Conscientiousness (Significant Other-Report) and Escape for Family Stressors

	Dependent Variable: FIW	
	Step 1	Step 2
Independent Variables		
Conscientiousness	-.00	.46*
Escape (family)	.06	1.35**
Interaction Term		
Conscientiousness X Escape (family)		-1.41**
Δ in R^2	--	.04
Overall R^2	.00	.04
Adjusted R^2	-.01	.02
Overall F	.36	2.66*

*p<.05; **p<.01

Table 29. Moderated Regression of WIF on Extraversion (Significant Other-Report) and Escape for Family Stressors

	Dependent Variable: WIF	
	Step 1	Step 2
Independent Variables		
Extraversion	-.09	.27
Escape (family)	.12	.75*
Interaction Term		
Extraversion X Escape (family)		-.74*
Δ in R^2	--	.02
Overall R^2	.02	.04
Adjusted R^2	.01	.03
Overall F	2.34	2.98*

*p<.05

Table 30. Moderated Regression of FIW on Neuroticism (Significant Other-Report) and Rumination for Family Stressors

	Dependent Variable: FIW	
	Step 1	Step 2
Independent Variables		
Neuroticism	.21**	.65**
Rumination (family)	.05	.59*
Interaction Term		
Neuroticism X Rumination (family)		-.80*
Δ in R^2	--	.02
Overall R^2	.06	.07
Adjusted R^2	.05	.06
Overall F	5.86**	5.32**

*p<.05; **p<.01

Table 31. Moderated Regression of WIF on Internal Locus of Control (Self-Report) and Instrumental Support Seeking for Family Stressors

	Dependent Variable: WIF	
	Step 1	Step 2
Independent Variables		
Internal Locus of Control	.02	-.48*
Instrumental Support Seeking (family)	-.17*	-1.56*
Interaction Term		
Internal Locus of Control X Instrumental Support Seeking (family)		1.53*
Δ in R^2	--	.03
Overall R^2	.03	.05
Adjusted R^2	.02	.04
Overall F	3.04*	3.82*

*p<.05; **p<.01

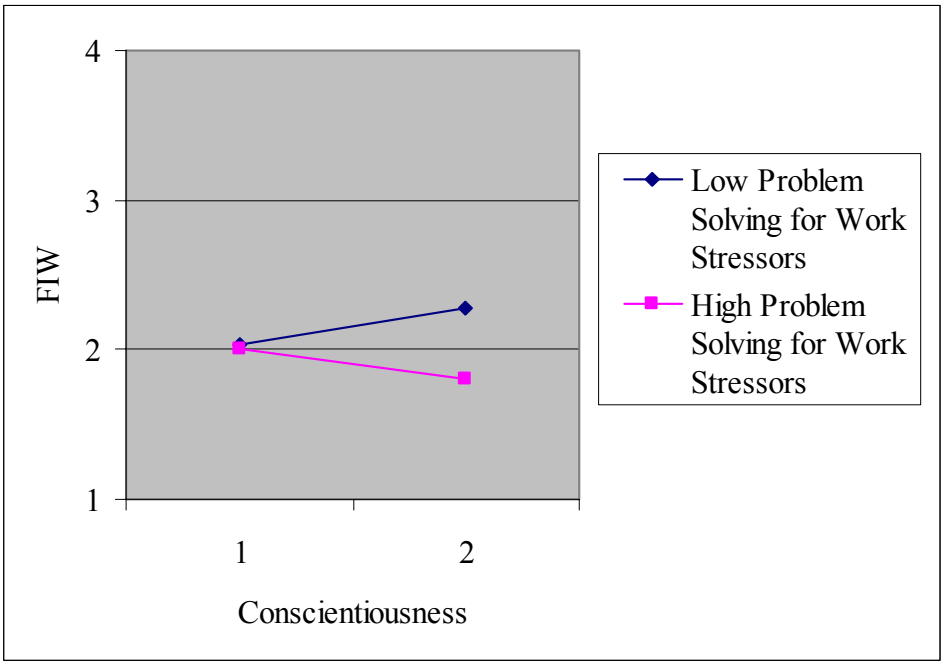

Figure 1. Problem solving for work stressors as a moderator between conscientiousness (significant other-report) and FIW.

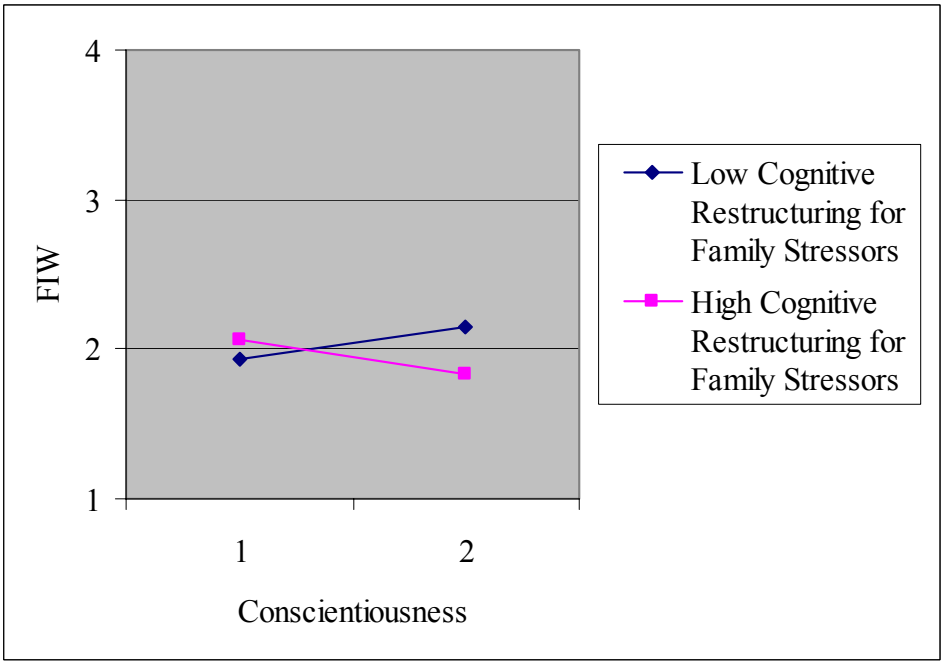

Figure 2. Positive cognitive restructuring for family stressors as a moderator between conscientiousness (significant other-report) and FIW.

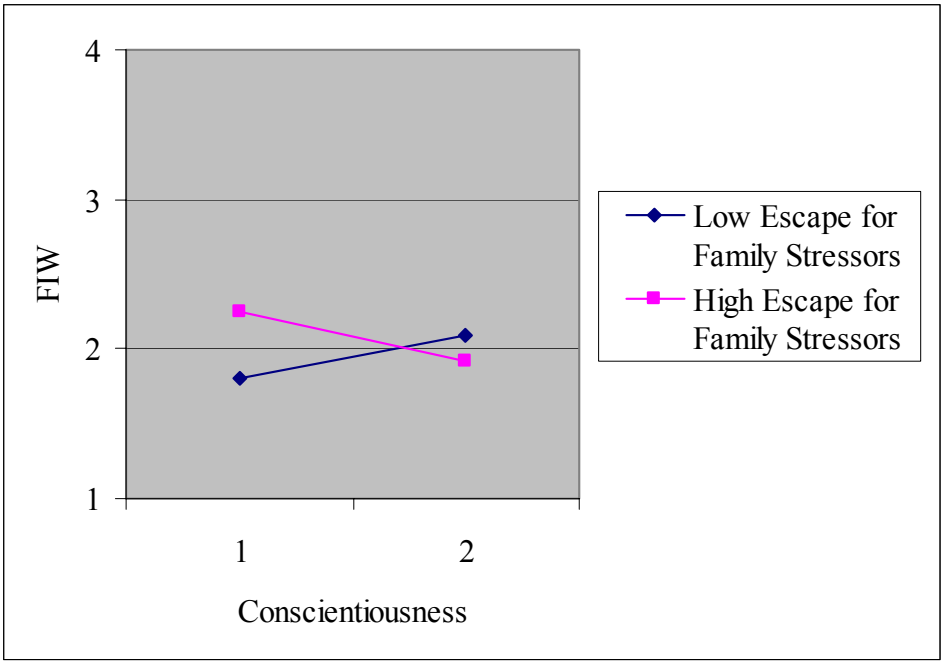

Figure 3. Escape for family stressors as a moderator between conscientiousness (significant other-report) and FIW.

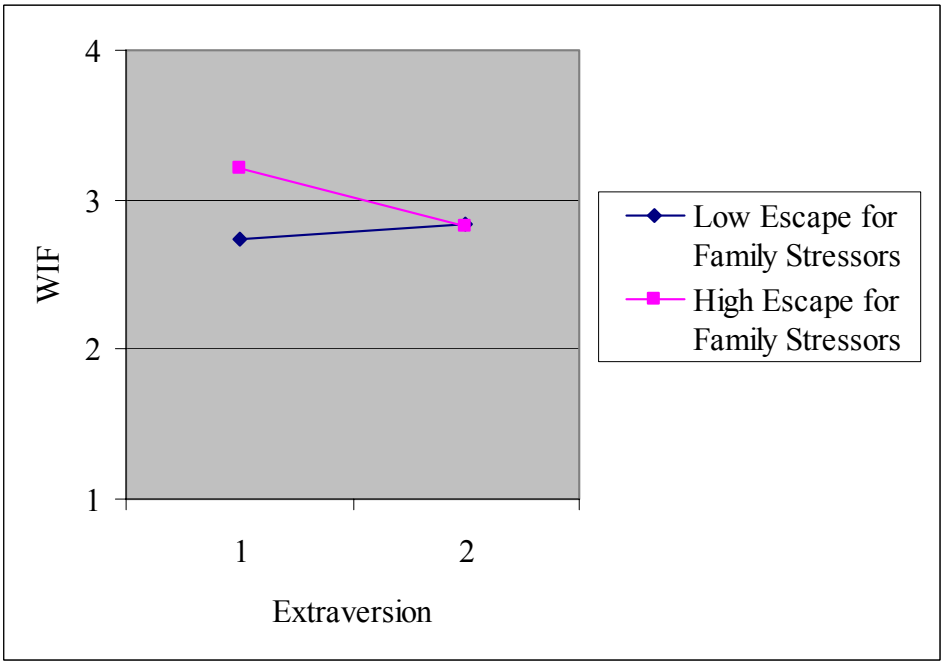

Figure 4. Escape for family stressors as a moderator between extraversion (significant other-report) and WIF.

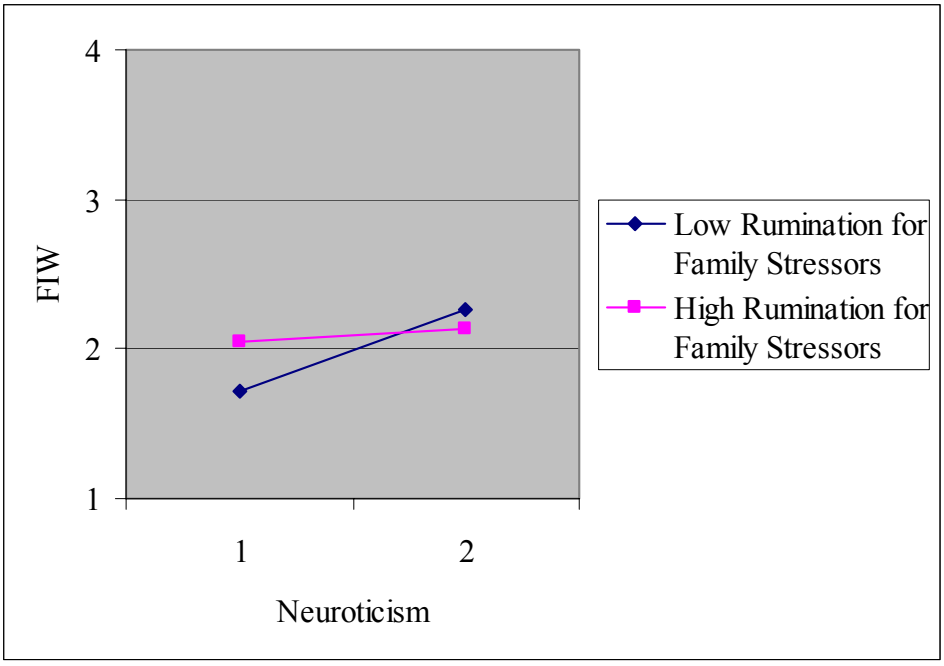

Figure 5. Rumination for family stressors as a moderator between neuroticism (significant other-report) and FIW.

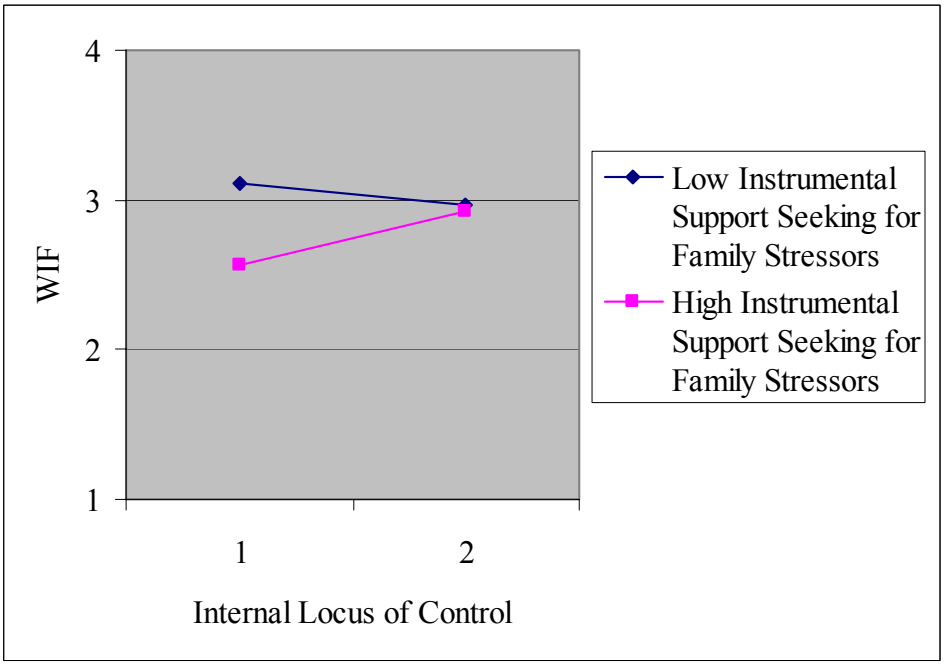

Figure 6. Instrumental support seeking for family stressors as a moderator between internal locus of control (self-report) and WIF.

Chapter Four

Discussion

The present study aimed to contribute to the literature by examining two relatively neglected sets of variables in the work-family literature, personality and coping styles, as well as the mechanisms by which these variables are related. Using a stress and coping framework, as well as Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources model and a spillover perspective of WFC, coping was proposed as a mediator between personality and work-family conflict. Although two dissertations recently examined this proposition (Andreassi, 2007; Smoot, 2005), the present study aimed to expand this line of research by examining coping styles as action tendencies, differentiating between coping with work and coping with family stressors, and collecting dual-source data.

The present study offers several key findings. Consistent with past research, neuroticism related to both directions of work-family conflict, offering support for the notion that certain dispositional variables do play a role in the WFC experience. There was also some support for the role of coping in the process, as problem solving, support seeking, rumination, and escape each related to at least one direction of work-family conflict. Furthermore, the present study provides some insight into the process underlying the relationship between neuroticism and WIF, in that some support was found for the mediating role of rumination. Finally, limited support was found for the moderating role

of coping in the relationship between personality and WFC, an analysis performed for exploratory purposes only.

Four sets of study hypotheses were proposed, involving the relationship between personality and WFC, the relationship between personality and coping, the relationship between coping and WFC, and the mediating role of coping in the relationship between personality and WFC. In the following sections, the results for each set of study hypotheses are examined in more detail, along with the results from the supplementary analysis. Theoretical and practical implications are then discussed, followed by study limitations and future directions.

Personality and Work-Family Conflict

While work-family conflict was expected to relate to conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism and locus of control, only neuroticism was significantly related to WIF and FIW. Although research examining personality as an antecedent to WFC is limited, the relationship between neuroticism and WFC has received the most support (e.g., Andreassi, 2007; Bruck & Allen, 2003; Smoot, 2005; Wayne et al., 2004), consistent with the present study's findings. Research findings linking conscientiousness, extraversion, and locus of control with work-family conflict are less consistent, with results varying across study, gender, and type of work-family conflict (e.g., Andreassi, 2007; Andreassi & Thompson, 2007; Bruck & Allen, 2003; Kinnunen et al., 2003; Wayne et al., 2004). The inconsistent findings may suggest the presence of moderators. Potential moderators of the personality-WFC relationship are discussed subsequently in the Future Directions section.

Despite some inconsistencies in the literature, several researchers have reported significant associations between conscientiousness, extraversion, and locus of control and work-family conflict (e.g., Andreassi & Thompson, 2007; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kinnunen et al., 2003; Wayne et al., 2004). Thus, the null relationships in the present study are surprising. One possible explanation for the null findings is range restriction of some of the personality variables. For example, the mean conscientiousness rating (significant other-report) was 4.06 (*SD* = .60) on a five-point scale. Similarly, the mean rating for locus of control was 4.13 (*SD* = .43). Given the highly educated nature of the sample (67.6% had a doctoral degree), it is perhaps not surprising that the conscientiousness ratings were so high. Additionally, highly driven, motivated individuals may be particularly likely to have an internal locus of control and perceive that they are in control of their own destiny. The high means and small standard deviations for these variables may help explain the null findings in the present study.

Another potential explanation for the null findings is the personality measure used in the present study to assess conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism: the Big Five Inventory (John et al., 1991). This measure was selected because of its brevity and simplicity (John & Srivastava, 1999), along with the fact that the items tap several facets of interest, including the positive emotionality and activity components of extraversion. However, to the researcher's knowledge, no other studies have examined the relationship between personality and WFC using the BFI. Thus, the relationship between both conscientiousness and extraversion and work-family conflict may only hold for certain personality measures. It is unclear why the BFI would be less apt to yield significant relationships in these cases, as compared to other measures of the Big Five. The BFI

items are similar to other personality scales, but there are slight differences in item content; thus, the BFI may be tapping aspects of conscientiousness and extraversion that are less related to WFC, as compared to other scales.

Personality and Coping Style

The hypothesized relationships between personality and coping style received mixed support, with results differing by source of personality ratings, by context of coping (i.e., work or family), and, to a lesser degree, depending on whether background/demographic variables were included as controls. For example, conscientiousness was positively related to problem solving for work stressors (across all ratings sources of conscientiousness) and for family stressors (self- and average-ratings of personality only); unrelated to positive cognitive restructuring for work stressors and positively related to positive cognitive restructuring for family stressors (self-ratings of personality only); negatively related to rumination for both work and family stressors (across all ratings sources of personality); and unrelated to escape for work stressors (across all ratings sources of personality) and negatively related to escape for family stressors (self-ratings of personality only). The other three personality variables exhibited similar results, in that source of personality ratings and the context of coping style affected the pattern of findings.

While mixed support was found for hypotheses linking personality and coping style, a few general trends emerged. For example, self-reported personality yielded the highest number of significant relationships, followed by the average of self- and significant other-reported personality, followed by partner-reported personality. This trend may reflect common method variance. For example, impression management may

play a role in self-ratings of both personality and coping style, given the socially desirable (and undesirable) nature of some of the variables. Alternatively, individuals may be in a position to provide more accurate ratings of their own personalities, as compared to significant other-ratings, and the higher correlations may reflect this.

Another general trend was that some relationships held for one domain but not the other (e.g., significant other-ratings of conscientiousness related to problem solving for work but not for family stressors; significant other-ratings of extraversion related to positive cognitive restructuring for family but not for work stressors). Thus, personality and situation may interact to determine which coping style an individual will choose. For example, individuals high on extraversion may be predisposed to use positive cognitive restructuring in stressful situations, but they may perceive that such thoughts/behaviors will be more effective for managing family stressors than for managing work stressors, thereby explaining the divergent results.

The notion that coping style is, at least in part, situationally driven has been suggested by numerous researchers (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; McCrae, 1984). In the present study, participants tended to use problem solving, instrumental support seeking, and positive cognitive restructuring more for work than for family stressors, while use of emotional support seeking, rumination, and escape were similar across domains. Thus, some coping styles may lend themselves for use in certain situations, as they may be considered particularly appropriate and/or effective. For example, given the task-oriented nature of work demands, problem solving behaviors, such as coming up with multiple solutions to the problem and taking action to fix the problem, may be

particularly effective. The same behaviors may be less effective when managing family demands.

While the effectiveness of each coping style may vary across different situations, thereby affecting choice of coping style, it is also possible that individuals simply rely on different behavioral responses *within* each coping style as a function of the situation. Accordingly, personality may play a role in choice of coping style, but the relationship may manifest itself differently across various types of situations. For example, extraversion was significantly related to support seeking for both work and family stressors, but the *type* of support seeking differed across domains. Specifically, extraversion related to instrumental support seeking for managing work stressors and to emotional support seeking for managing family stressors. Thus, personality may dictate how an individual responds to stressors at a broad level, but the specific behaviors he/she chooses may depend on what he/she considers most effective for the given situation. This speaks to the importance of tapping a wide range of behaviors within each coping style, in order to adequately measure the full construct, as well as the importance of ensuring that our dimensionality of coping is accurate and at the appropriate level, in order to reveal such behavioral differences.

A third general trend among the observed personality-coping relationships was that some coping styles were consistently related to personality, while others were not. For example, problem solving for work stressors significantly related to all four personality traits across both sources of ratings. On the other hand, escape for work stressors was not significantly related to any of the personality variables, and escape for family stressors was only related to self-reported conscientiousness. Certain coping

styles, such as problem solving, may be particularly influenced by dispositional differences, while other coping styles, such as escape, may be more situationally driven. Alternatively, escape may be influenced by personality in some domains but not those assessed in the present study (i.e., work and family demands). Another noteworthy finding was that the mean ratings for escape were substantially lower than the mean ratings for the other coping styles. The low ratings may reflect reluctance by participants to admit to using escape as a coping style; the fact that escape is, in fact, rarely used to manage these types of stressors; and/or inadequacies in the measurement of escape, such that the three items did not sufficiently tap the full construct. Additional research is needed to determine which reason(s) is applicable.

Coping Style and Work-Family Conflict

The third set of hypotheses predicted that coping styles for managing work stressors would relate to WIF and that coping styles for managing family stressors would relate to FIW. Contrary to expectations, none of the coping styles for family stressors related to FIW, and only rumination and escape for work stressors related to WIF. Moreover, rumination for work stressors was the only coping style that significantly related to WIF after controlling for work time. Although very little research has examined the relationship between work-family conflict and coping style, particularly as it was conceptualized in the present study, these results differ from that of Rotondo et al. (2003), which found relationships between four types of coping (direct action, help-seeking, positive thinking, and avoidance/resignation), differentiated by work and family stressors, and WIF/FIW.

The divergent findings between the present study and that of Rotondo et al. (2003) may reflect the different coping scales used. Rotondo et al. (2003) used Havlovic and Keenan's (1991) measure of coping, which was more psychometrically established than the measure used in the present study. Because the coping styles examined in the present study were selected based on Skinner et al.'s (2003) review of the literature, rather than an existing taxonomy, there was no existing scale that included the five specific dimensions of coping examined here. Thus, a new measure was developed. Although the measure was pilot tested before use, there is relatively little support for its validity. Additionally, because a few items were dropped and because support seeking was divided into two sub-scales, a few of the coping styles (i.e., instrumental support seeking, emotional support seeking, and escape) were only measured with two or three items. Given the small number of items, these scales may have been deficient in assessing the intended constructs, which may have affected the study results.

Another notable finding was the mixed support for a relationship between support seeking and WFC. Although both types of support seeking for family stressors related to WIF, they did not relate to FIW; additionally, support seeking for work stressors was not significantly correlated with either direction of work-family conflict, though both types of support seeking for family stressors related to FIW after controlling for significant other's employment status and the Responsibility for Dependents index. The inconsistent results between support seeking and WFC are surprising, given that several studies have found a link between WFC and support in both the work (e.g., Allen, 2001; Behson, 2005; Lapierre & Allen, 2006) and family (Lapierre & Allen, 2006) domains. The divergent results most likely reflect the difference between support seeking (assessed in the present

study) and receipt of support (assessed in other studies) and highlight the notion that individuals who seek support may not always receive it.

Coping Style as a Mediator between Personality and Work-Family Conflict

The final set of hypotheses predicted that coping would mediate the relationship between personality and work-family conflict. However, only one hypothesized relationship received support. Specifically, based on the Sobel test, there was some evidence that rumination for work stressors mediated the relationship between neuroticism and WIF. On the other hand, Baron and Kenny's (1986) third condition of mediation was not met for self-, significant other-, or average-ratings of personality, in that the relationship between rumination for work stressors and WIF was not significant after controlling for neuroticism. The divergent results between the two methods of testing for mediation may reflect the fact that the Sobel test tends to have higher power than Baron and Kenny's (1986) method. Based on a Monte Carlo study comparing 14 methods used to test mediation, MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, and Sheets (2002) found that, for a sample size of 200, empirical estimates of statistical power were .0100 for small effect sizes and .5200 for medium effect sizes using Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach. Conversely, empirical estimates of statistical power for the Sobel test were .1220 and 1.000 for small and medium effect sizes, respectively. Given that each test of mediation has unique advantages and disadvantages, it is beneficial to use multiple methods to test for mediation.

Supplementary Analysis

For exploratory purposes, coping style was examined as a moderator between personality and work-family conflict. Six of the 96 possible interactions were significant,

three of which involved conscientiousness. Specifically, at low levels of conscientiousness, neither problem solving for work stressors nor positive cognitive restructuring were related to FIW. On the other hand, highly conscientious individuals who tended to use either of these coping styles experienced lower WIF than those who did not. One possible explanation for this finding is that highly conscientious individuals have the skills to effectively apply these coping styles. Individuals low on conscientiousness may *try* to use problem solving and/or positive cognitive restructuring, but they may not be as successful in implementation, given their less planful nature and the fact that they may be less apt to view stressors as a challenge (versus a threat).

On the other hand, individuals low on conscientiousness may be particularly effective at escaping from their stressors, which may explain the interaction between conscientiousness and escape for family stressors in explaining variance in FIW. For this interaction, individuals high on conscientiousness experienced similar levels of FIW, while at low levels of conscientiousness, high use of escape was associated with higher FIW than low use of escape. While highly conscientious individuals may report using escape to cope with stressors, they may have difficulty implementing this strategy, given their desire to persevere and follow through. Low-conscientious individuals may not have this problem, making them particularly adept at escaping from stressors. Because escape may be a less effective strategy for minimizing subsequent work-family conflict, successful implementation of escape may actually result in higher levels of FIW.

A similar argument can be made for the fourth interaction, between extraversion and escape for family stressors, which followed a similar pattern. Just as individuals high on conscientiousness may be unsuccessful at escaping from stressors due to their driven

nature, individuals high on extraversion may be unsuccessful at escaping from stressors due to their desire to be surrounded by other people. Conversely, low-extraverts (or introverts) may be particularly effective at escaping, which results in higher levels of WIF.

The fifth interaction involved neuroticism and rumination for family stressors. At high levels of neuroticism, rumination explained little variance in FIW, while at low levels of neuroticism, high use of rumination was associated with higher FIW than low use of rumination. Individuals high on neuroticism may be predisposed to experience WFC regardless of their choice of coping strategy, as evidenced by the positive, significant relationship between neuroticism and both WIF and FIW in the present study. This predisposition may reflect the fact that neuroticism is partially defined by an individual's ability (or inability) to handle stress, given that neuroticism items include "Is relaxed, handles stress well" and "Remains calm in tense situations" (both reverse coded). On the other hand, at low levels of neuroticism, rumination may play more of a role in the experience of WFC, with high use of rumination resulting in more conflict.

Finally, the last interaction involved locus of control and instrumental support seeking for family stressors. For individuals high on internal locus of control, use of instrumental support seeking did not relate to WIF. On the other hand, for individuals with an external locus of control, use of instrumental support seeking was associated with lower levels of WIF. Individuals with an internal LOC may be less reliant on the support of others for handling stressors, given their belief that they have control over outcomes of events. Thus, even though they may choose to use support seeking for managing stress, this coping strategy may be less influential to the WFC experience as it is for someone

with an external LOC, who believes that outcomes are caused by external circumstances. Given external LOC individuals' perceived lack of control for handling situations in general, and stressors in particular, use of instrumental support seeking may play a larger role in their ability to manage stress than it does for individuals with an internal LOC.

The observed interactions are theoretically and practically interesting and highlight that certain personality and coping styles may interact to explain variance in work-family conflict. However, given the exploratory nature of these analyses, as well as the potential for type one error given the large number of analyses, these results should be interpreted with caution.

Theoretical Implications

Theoretically, the present study aimed to contribute to the literature by expanding the nomological network of work-family conflict and by shedding light on the processes by which individual differences relate to the WFC experience. However, with the exception of neuroticism, no support was found for a relationship between the personality variables examined in the present study and either direction work-family conflict. Additionally, rumination and escape for work stressors related to WIF, but none of the other hypothesized relationships between coping and work-family conflict were significant. As previously discussed, the conservation of resources and spillover models would suggest that individuals are likely to experience less work-family conflict when they utilize coping strategies that increase their resources and/or allow for the positive, rather than negative, spillover of thoughts and emotions from one domain to the other. Because resources, thoughts, and emotions were not directly measured in the present study, it is unclear whether the lack of findings has any implications for these models.

For example, while problem solving, positive cognitive restructuring, and support seeking were conceptualized as coping styles that provide the individual with resources to manage his/her work-family conflict, and rumination and escape were conceptualized as coping styles that serve to deplete the individual's resources, the present study cannot speak to the veracity of these assertions. Similarly, because the present study did not assess thoughts and emotions, it is unclear whether positive cognitive restructuring and rumination affect the spillover process by leading to the transfer of positive or negative affect.

On the other hand, the present study does have implications for the domain specificity hypothesis, which states that situational variables associated with a given domain relate to conflict originating from that domain (Frone, 2003; Frone et al., 1992). Based on this hypothesis, coping with work stressors was expected to relate to WIF, while coping with family stressors was expected to relate to FIW. However, cross-domain relationships were observed in several cases. For example, while escape for family stressors did not relate to FIW, escape for work stressors was negatively related to FIW. Similarly, after controlling for partner employment status and the RFD index, instrumental support seeking, emotional support seeking, positive cognitive restructuring, and escape for work stressors related to FIW; none of these coping styles related to WIF. In terms of coping with family stressors, problem solving, instrumental support seeking, and emotional support seeking related to WIF, and rumination related for WIF after controlling for work time.

The reason for the observed cross-domain relationships is unclear. One possibility is reverse causality, such that an individual experiencing work-family conflict may

respond by modifying his/her coping style accordingly. For example, if an individual's work is interfering with his/her home life, he/she may use problem solving to proactively manage his/her home stressors in order to prevent, or minimize the extent of, future conflict. Conversely, after experiencing FIW, an individual may mentally escape from his/her work stressors, in order to deal with the experienced conflict. Given the cross-sectional, non-experimental nature of the present study's design, there is no way to determine the direction of the relationships.

Although support was only found for one of the proposed mediated relationships, that of rumination for work stressors between neuroticism and WIF, the results are still theoretically meaningful. Very little research has examined the underlying mechanisms linking personality and work-family conflict, despite the fact that several researchers have suggested potential mediating variables and discussed the importance of this line of research (e.g., Frone, 2003; Greenhaus et al., 2006; Wayne et al., 2004). The present study provides support for the idea that, in certain cases, coping style may play a role in the process by which personality and WFC are related, though this may be limited to certain personality-coping pairings. Future research is necessary to examine other potential mediators of these relationships as well.

The present study also has implications for the stress and coping literature. For example, the results provide general support for a relationship between personality and coping style, which is consistent with Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) Cognitive Theory of Stress and Coping. Because the present study did not assess how individuals appraise stressors, we cannot ascertain whether the relationship between personality and coping can be explained directly and/or indirectly via the appraisal process. However, the results

are consistent with this notion, particularly when considered in conjunction with studies that did directly measure individual appraisals of stress (e.g., Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995; Kulenovic & Buško, 2006).

In terms of the coping construct in particular, the present study provides important insight. First of all, the results emphasize the importance of differentiating between instrumental and emotional support seeking, as each style exhibited a unique pattern of relationships with other variables. Additionally, the CFA results demonstrated superior fit for a six-factor, versus five-factor, solution. Still, an interesting finding was that the improved fit between the five- and six-factor solutions was more evident for coping with work stressors as compared to coping with family stressors. Furthermore, the relationship between instrumental and emotional support seeking was much stronger for coping with family stressors than for coping with work stressors (r = .59 versus .34). This observation highlights the situational nature of coping. The distinction between emotional and instrumental support seeking may be more important in the work domain, given the task-oriented nature of work and the fact that there are likely norms regarding whom the individual may approach for instrumental help and to whom he/she should turn for sympathy and understanding. On the other hand, in the family domain, this distinction may be less clear cut. Moreover, while certain coping styles, such as support seeking, may operate differently across domains, others may be less context-dependent. For example, rumination for work stressors highly correlated with rumination for family stressors (r = .70). Overall, the study's findings point to the importance of considering both dispositional and contextual factors when studying coping; for some coping styles, the dimensionality of the construct, as well as the relationship between coping and other

variables, seems to vary across situations, while for other coping styles, contextual factors may play a smaller role.

From a methodological standpoint, the present study highlights the importance of collecting personality ratings from multiple sources. While there was a substantial degree of overlap between self- and significant other-ratings of personality, correlations were far from unity, and mean ratings of self-reported neuroticism were significantly lower than mean ratings of significant other-reported neuroticism. Additionally, in several cases, the results differed, depending on whether self- or significant other-ratings were analyzed. The discrepancies may reflect numerous factors, including the differential interpretation of items, the consideration of different specific behaviors, and modesty in self-report (McCrae et al., 1998). Other potential explanations include differences between one's self-concept and his/her observable behavior, impression management motives, and the fact that some personality traits are more readily observable than others. Regardless of the reason, the present study underscores the value of having multiple raters provide personality ratings.

Practical Implications

The present study has practical implications as well. Dispositional variables explained little variance in work-family conflict in the present study. On the other hand, consistent with past research, the relationships between work-family conflict and role-related variables were in the moderate range, with work time relating to WIF and significant other's employment status, number of children living at home, and the Responsibility for Dependents index relating to FIW. From a practical standpoint, these findings highlight the role-related nature of work-family conflict. That is not to say that

individual difference variables are unimportant, but it does reinforce the notion that individuals (and organizations) should be mindful of the demands that they place on themselves (and on their employees) and the implications of these demands for employees' levels of WFC.

Although dispositional variables were largely unrelated to WFC, the relationship between neuroticism and work-family conflict was significant. Highly neurotic individuals may be predisposed to experience WFC, and they may benefit from this knowledge. By understanding their predisposition to experience WFC, high-neurotics can take active steps to mitigate future conflict. For example, the present study found some support for the hypothesis that rumination mediates the relationship between neuroticism and WIF. Individuals high on neuroticism can be trained to avoid, or minimize, such cognitions by engaging in self-talk and other emotion/cognition regulation techniques.

Though highly neurotic individuals may particularly benefit from such training, interventions that target certain coping styles may be helpful to other individuals as well. The present study found that WIF was positively related to rumination, to escape for work stressors, and to rumination for family stressors (after controlling for work time) and negatively related to problem solving, to instrumental support seeking, and to emotional support seeking for family stressors. Similarly, FIW was positively related to escape for work stressors and negatively related to instrumental support seeking, to emotional support seeking, and to positive cognitive restructuring for work stressors (after controlling for significant other's employment status and the RFD index). Thus, individuals may benefit from training programs that elucidate which coping styles are particularly effective for managing work and family demands and that provide tips on

how to effectively implement certain styles while minimizing the use of other styles. Organizations could develop and implement such interventions to help employees effectively manage work and family stressors. Given the deleterious individual (e.g., burnout, stress, depression) and organizational (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions) consequences of WFC (Allen et al., 2000; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005), such training programs have the potential for wide-reaching effects.

Limitations

The present study has several limitations, each of which has implications for the generalizability and interpretation of the study's findings. First, participants were recruited via a snowball approach, rather than through random sampling, so the sample is not necessarily representative of the larger population. Additionally, the vast majority of participants were identified based on their affiliation with SIOP, a professional organization for I/O psychologists. As a result, the sample was highly educated, with 67.6 percent having a doctoral degree, and of high socio-economic status, with 73.6 percent reporting a household income of $100,000 or higher. Moreover, 90.2 percent of the sample was White/Caucasian, and, given that participants were largely recruited from a professional organization, the majority likely held professional, white collar positions. The type of work stressors associated with such jobs are clearly very different than those experienced by a blue collar worker, which may have implications for the type of coping strategy that will be selected and effective for managing work demands. Similarly, given that participants with a high household income may have the means to utilize quality childcare, housecleaning services, lawn care services, etc., the type of family/home

stressors that they experience may differ as well. Given the non-representativeness of the sample, it is unclear the extent that these findings generalize to the broader population.

Another limitation is the cross-sectional, correlational nature of the study design. While the present study hypothesized that personality leads to coping style, which leads to work-family conflict, the study design precludes any statements of causality. Additionally, retrospective, self-reports of coping style are subject to memory and reporting biases (Smith, Leffingwell, & Ptacek, 1999; Stone, Schwartz, Neale, Shiffman, Marco, Hickcox, et al., 1998). Another concern is common method variance. Even though significant other-ratings of personality were collected, several of the study hypotheses relied solely on self-reported variables (i.e., relationships between coping style and work-family conflict). Common method bias is of particular concern for variables that are considered socially desirable or undesirable. To the extent that participants were motivated to use impression management techniques for reporting both coping style and work-family conflict, the observed relationship between these variables may be inflated. On the other hand, as elucidated by Spector (2006), the influence of common method bias may be smaller than is often suggested.

While the majority of constructs were measured with existing, psychometrically established scales, no such measure was available for coping style, based on the taxonomy used in the present study. Thus, a new measure was developed to assess coping style. Although most of the coping items came from existing scales, and a pilot study was used to guide item selection, the coping measure used in the present study was not without problems. Specifically, a few items were removed, based on poor item-level statistics, resulting in a three-item measure for escape. While the alpha coefficients for

the escape scale were acceptable (.64 for work stressors and .77 for family stressors), a longer measure would have been preferable, in order to adequately assess the construct. Similarly, though the initial intention was to use a singular scale to assess support seeking, confirmatory factor analysis results indicated improved fit for differentiating between instrumental and emotional support seeking. The result of the breakdown was a two-item measure for emotional support seeking and a three-item measure for instrumental support seeking. Finally, though the CFA results revealed acceptable fit for a six-factor solution, the AGFI indices were not optimal. Thus, additional research is necessary to refine the scale and provide more psychometric support and construct validity evidence.

Future Directions

There are several theoretically important and practically relevant avenues available for future research. Given the inconsistent results in the literature between several personality variables and work-family conflict, research investigating the presence of moderators is warranted. As the present study demonstrates, there is some support for the notion that certain coping styles interact with personality to explain variance in WFC. However, these analyses were done post hoc, for exploratory purposes. Future researchers should use a theoretically-driven approach to explore the notion that coping style moderates the relationship between personality and work-family conflict. Another possible moderator is situational factors, such as the availability of resources to manage work and family demands and/or the level of role demands experienced by the individual. Individual differences such as personality may play less of a role in explaining variance in work-family conflict when the individual is able to rely on other types of

resources, such as quality childcare and housecleaning services, to help manage his/her work and family demands. Similarly, when work and/or family demands are at extreme levels, personality may be less influential to one's level of work-family conflict; in other words, individual differences in characteristic patterns of behavior may do little to alleviate (or intensify) the felt experience of WFC when one's objective workload is extremely high or low. On the other hand, when such resources are unavailable and/or demands are at a moderate level, the individual's personal dispositions may play a larger role in the work-family conflict experience. Future research should examine this supposition, in an attempt to understand the inconsistent findings in the literature between work-family conflict and personality, and particularly conscientiousness, extraversion, and locus of control.

In terms of future research directions involving the link between personality and coping style, it is important to further examine why personality and coping style are related in some situations but not others. To fully understand the nature of these relationships, researchers must simultaneously consider individual differences and situational variables, taking an interactionist approach. Specifically, the coping literature would benefit from an enhanced understanding of the circumstances in which coping styles do and do not generalize across situations. One important variable to consider in this line of research is situational strength. Personality differences are likely to play a smaller role in responding to "strong" problem situations, whereby responses may be relatively similar across individuals, while the role of personality may become increasingly important in "weaker" situations (Suls & David, 1996). Future research is necessary to explore this supposition.

It may also be fruitful to assess personality using a context-specific approach in order to more accurately estimate the relationship between personality and coping with work and family stressors. Wright and Mischel (1987) suggested that although people may demonstrate stable patterns of behaviors, such behaviors may be contingent on situational conditions, or conditional dispositions. In support of this notion, researchers have found significant increases in the validity of personality measures, simply by adding "at work" to several of the items (Hunthausen, Truxillo, Bauer, & Hammer, 2003; Schmit, Ryan, Stierwalt, & Powell, 1995). Thus, when assessing the relationship between personality and coping style for managing work and family demands, future research should examine the relationship between personality in the work context and coping with work demands, as well as the relationship between personality in the family/home context and coping with family demands. Such research may yield more significant findings than using a general measure of personality.

Additional research examining the relationship between coping and WFC is also warranted. As demonstrated by Rotondo et al. (2003), the relationship between coping and work-family conflict may vary by type of conflict. For example, coping styles that rely on affective responses to stress (e.g., positive cognitive restructuring, rumination) may relate to strain-based conflict, while behaviors aimed at directly tackling the problem (e.g., problem solving, instrumental support seeking) may have a stronger association with time-based conflict. Rotondo et al. (2003) found some support for this notion, in that positive thinking for work stressors was negatively related to strain-based, but not time-based, WIF. However, more research is necessary to fully explore these relationships, and it may be fruitful to use a measure of WFC that assesses behavior-based conflict as well,

such as Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams's (2000) six-dimension measure. Alternatively, future research could examine the link between coping and the WFC experience using Carlson and Frone's (2003) conceptualization of work-family conflict, which differentiates between external (representing outward behavioral interference) and internal (representing psychological preoccupation while in the other role) conflict. The internal-external distinction aligns well with Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) problem-focused and emotion-focused coping. Specifically, problem-focused coping is likely to relate to external WFC, while emotion-focused coping is likely to relate to internal WFC. Despite the limitations of the problem- versus emotion-focused coping taxonomy, the majority of coping research still uses these broad conceptualizations, and researchers have found some support for a link between coping and WFC using this distinction (Aryee et al., 1999; Lapierre & Allen, 2006, Smoot, 2005).

Another viable and important future direction is to examine coping *effectiveness* in relation to work-family conflict. In the present study, participants were asked how *often* they engage in each coping behavior and/or experience each affective/cognitive response. However, it is possible that there are also individual differences in how effectively each coping style is carried out. For example, while several individuals may try to work harder and more efficiently or attempt to see the problem in a positive light, some individuals may be more successful than others in implementing these behaviors/cognitions. Similarly, some individuals may be more effective than others in making a plan of action, seeking out individuals who are particularly supportive and/or knowledgeable in the problem at hand, and/or pretending that the event has not occurred. To some extent, this issue gets at the measurement of coping style, in that some items

represent an attempt to act (e.g., I try to forget the whole thing), while others are more descriptive of what the individual actually experiences (e.g., I spend too much time focusing on the stressful situation). Future research should tease apart these differences and examine how both frequency and effectiveness of coping style relate to work-family conflict and other types of strain.

Coping represents one strategy for managing work and family demands; in reality, individuals, families, and organizations often utilize multiple strategies to reduce work-family conflict. Frone (2003) distinguished between two types of strategies: personal initiatives (e.g., coping, reducing the psychological importance of one role) and organizational initiatives (e.g., family-friendly organizational policies and benefits, such as flexible work arrangements and dependent care assistance). Similarly, Lapierre and Allen (2006) described three types of conflict avoidance tactics, including those in the work domain (family supportive supervision; use of telework and flextime); those in the family domain (emotional sustenance and instrumental assistance); and individual tactics (use of problem-focused coping). The present study focused on coping in particular, but it is important to examine a variety of strategies simultaneously in order to understand the full picture. With few exceptions (e.g., Lapierre & Allen, 2006), researchers have not examined coping strategies in conjunction with other types of initiatives to determine their simultaneous effect on work-family conflict. Additional research in this area is clearly warranted. Researchers may benefit from applying a systems approach in order to fully consider how the actions of the individual, family, supervisor, and coworkers, as well as organizational norms and policies, interact to affect the work-family conflict experience.

The field would also benefit from an exploration of the study's relationships, and the coping domain in particular, using alternative methodologies, such as qualitative, longitudinal, and experience sampling approaches. Qualitative research would shed additional light on the particular coping styles individuals use to manage work and family demands and the extent to which they overlap and diverge from coping strategies used in other domains. Such research would help bridge the gap between coping research in general and the few studies that have developed coping taxonomies specific to the work-family domain. Longitudinal and experience sampling methodologies would provide insight into how individuals cope with work and family stressors on a daily basis and over an extended period of time, allowing for a more dynamic assessment of the coping process and how coping relates to work-family conflict over time.

Finally, future research should replicate the present study with a more representative sample and a psychometrically established, well-validated coping measure.

Conclusion

By examining two relatively neglected types of antecedents to WFC, personality and coping style, as well as the processes underlying these relationships, the present study makes an important contribution to the work-family literature. Results support the notion that certain personality traits and coping styles relate to work-family conflict, and coping may help explain the relationship between personality and WFC for certain variables. While the present study has important theoretical and practical implications, additional research is clearly needed to gain a better understanding of how individual differences relate to work-family conflict and, in particular, how individuals, families, organizations, and society work together to mitigate, or exacerbate, the WFC experience.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Hypothesized Relationships

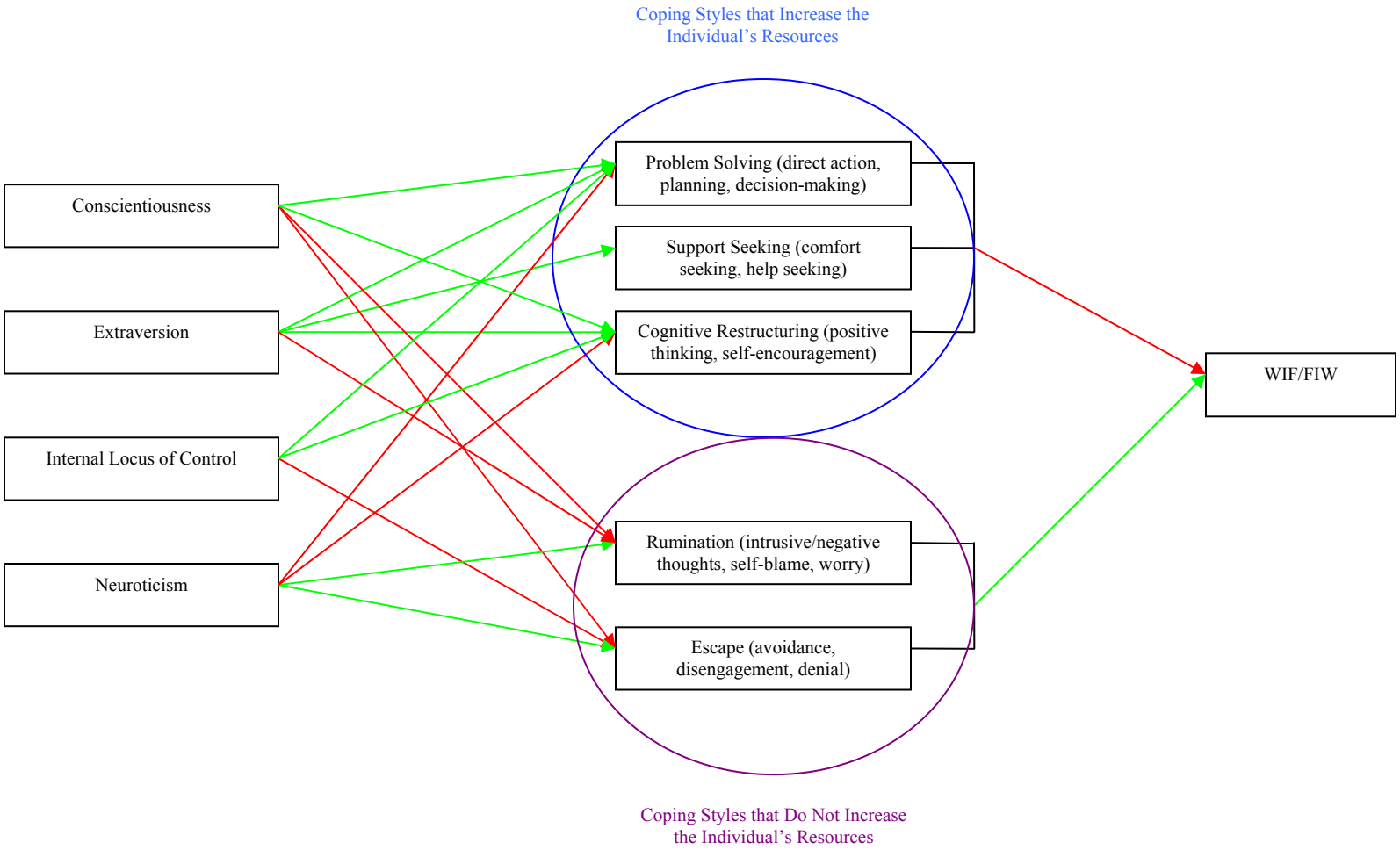

Figure 7. Hypothesized relationships between personality variables, coping styles, and work-family conflict.

Appendix B: Big Five Personality Scale Items

(Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Neuroticism; John et al., 1991)

Directions: Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you [your spouse/significant other]. For example, do you agree that you are someone [your spouse/significant other is someone] who likes to spend time with others? For each item below, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

Conscientiousness Items

1. Does a thorough job
2. Can be somewhat careless (R)
3. Is a reliable worker
4. Tends to be disorganized (R)
5. Tends to be lazy (R)
6. Perseveres until the task is finished
7. Does things efficiently
8. Makes plans and follows through
9. Is easily distracted (R)

Extraversion Items

1. Is talkative
2. Is reserved (R)
3. Is full of energy

4. Generates a lot of enthusiasm
5. Tends to be quiet (R)
6. Has an assertive personality
7. Is sometimes shy, inhibited (R)
8. Is outgoing, sociable

Neuroticism Items

1. Is depressed, blue
2. Is relaxed, handles stress well (R)
3. Can be tense
4. Worries a lot
5. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset (R)
6. Can be moody
7. Remains calm in tense situations (R)
8. Gets nervous easily

Appendix C: Locus of Control Scale Items

(Paulhus & Van Selst, 1990)

Directions: For each statement below, indicate how accurately or inaccurately each statement describes you.

1. I can usually achieve what I want when I work hard for it.
2. Once I make plans I am almost certain to make them work.
3. I prefer games involving some luck over games of pure skill. (R)
4. I can learn almost anything if I set my mind to it.
5. My major accomplishments are entirely due to my hard work and ability.
6. I usually do not set goals because I have a hard time following through on them. (R)
7. Bad luck has sometimes prevented me from achieving things. (R)
8. Almost anything is possible for me if I really want it.
9. Most of what will happen in my career is beyond my control. (R)
10. I find it pointless to keep working on something that is too difficult for me. (R)

Appendix D: Coping Scale Items

(Adapted from Carver et al., 1989; Connor-Smith et al., 2000; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Folkman et al, 1986; Havlovic & Keenan, 1991; and Saffrey & Ehrenberg, 2007)

Directions: In this section, think of stressful situations you have faced at work [home]. Using the scale below, indicate how often you react in each of the following ways in response to such situations.

Problem Solving

1. I come up with a couple of different solutions to the problem.
2. I make a plan of action.
3. I concentrate my efforts on doing something about it.
4. I try to work harder and more efficiently.[1]
5. I do something to try to fix the problem or take action to change things.

Support Seeking

1. I talk to someone to find out more about the situation.
2. I talk to someone who could do something concrete about the problem.
3. I ask people who have had similar experiences what they did.
4. I talk to someone about how I feel.
5. I get sympathy, understanding, or support from someone.

Positive Cognitive Restructuring

1. I try to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.
2. I think of ways to use this situation to show what I can do.
3. I remind myself that other people have been in this situation and that I can probably do as well as they did.
4. I think about the challenges I can find in this situation.
5. I tell myself that everything will be alright.

Rumination

1. I get so caught up with thinking about the stressful event that it's hard to focus on anything else.
2. I dwell on my feelings following the stressful event.
3. I spend too much time focusing on the stressful situation.
4. I think about every single detail of the event over and over again.
5. Thoughts about the stressful situation just pop into my head.

Escape

1. I hope a miracle will happen.[1]
2. I go on as if nothing happened.
3. I try to forget the whole thing.
4. I pretend that it hasn't really happened.

[1]Item not used in analysis.

Appendix E: Work-Family Conflict Scale Items

(Netemeyer et al., 1996)

Directions: This section asks questions about balancing work and family demands. Please read the following items and indicate how often you experience each statement.

WIF Items

1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.
3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of demands my job puts on me.
4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.
5. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.

FIW Items

1. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.
2. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.
3. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.
4. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.
5. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.

Appendix F: Hypothesis Testing with Self-Reported Personality and with the Average of Self- and Significant Other-Reported Personality

Table 32. Regression of WIF and FIW on Conscientiousness (Self-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Conscientiousness	-.13	-.09
Control Variables		
Work Time	.38**	
SO[1] Employment		.23**
RFD[2]		.37**
Δ in R^2	.15	.16
Overall R^2	.16	.17
Adjusted R^2	.15	.15
Overall F	18.41**	13.19**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 33. Regression of WIF and FIW on Conscientiousness (Average of Self- and Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Conscientiousness	-.10	-.04
Control Variables		
Work Time	.38**	
SO[1] Employment		.23**
RFD[2]		.37**
Δ in R^2	.15	.16
Overall R^2	.15	.16
Adjusted R^2	.14	.15
Overall F	17.51**	12.66**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 34. Regression of WIF and FIW on Extraversion (Self-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Extraversion	-.07	-.04
Control Variables		
Work Time	.37**	
SO[1] Employment		.23**
RFD[2]		.37**
Δ in R^2	.13	.16
Overall R^2	.14	.16
Adjusted R^2	.14	.15
Overall F	16.86**	12.66**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 35. Regression of WIF and FIW on Extraversion (Average of Self- and Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Extraversion	-.06	-.07
Control Variables		
Work Time	.37**	
SO[1] Employment		.22**
RFD[2]		.37**
Δ in R^2	.13	.16
Overall R^2	.14	.16
Adjusted R^2	.13	.15
Overall F	16.73**	12.95**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 36. Regression of WIF and FIW on Neuroticism (Self-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Neuroticism	.22**	.16*
Control Variables		
Work Time	.37**	
SO[1] Employment		.20**
RFD[2]		.37**
Δ in R^2	.14	.15
Overall R^2	.19	.18
Adjusted R^2	.18	.17
Overall F	23.36**	14.86**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 37. Regression of WIF and FIW on Neuroticism (Average of Self- and Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	WIF	FIW
Independent Variable		
Neuroticism	.27**	.19**
Control Variables		
Work Time	.38**	
SO[1] Employment		.19**
RFD[2]		.36**
Δ in R^2	.14	.14
Overall R^2	.21	.19
Adjusted R^2	.20	.18
Overall F	26.70**	15.72**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Significant Other; [2]Responsibility for Dependents Index

Table 38. Regression of Coping Style on Conscientiousness (Self-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	Rumination (work)	Rumination (family)
Independent Variable		
Conscientiousness	-.29**	-.23**
Control Variable		
Gender	-.18**	-.20**
Δ in R^2	.03	.04
Overall R^2	.10	.08
Adjusted R^2	.09	.07
Overall F	11.36**	8.91**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation

Table 39. Regression of Coping Style on Conscientiousness (Average of Self- and Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	Rumination (work)	Rumination (family)
Independent Variable		
Conscientiousness	-.27**	-.24**
Control Variable		
Gender	-.17*	-.19**
Δ in R^2	.03	.04
Overall R^2	.09	.09
Adjusted R^2	.08	.08
Overall F	10.10**	9.34**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation

Table 40. Regression of Coping Style on Extraversion (Self-Report)

	Dependent Variable					
	Support Seeking – I[1] (w)	Support Seeking – E[2] (w)	Support Seeking – I[1] (f)	Support Seeking – E[2] (f)	Rumination (w)	Rumination (f)
Independent Variable						
Extraversion	.21**	.10	.19**	.16*	-.15*	-.09
Control Variable						
Gender	-.18*	-.44**	-.24**	-.37**	-.17*	-.18*
Δ in R^2	.03	.19	.06	.13	.03	.03
Overall R^2	.09	.22	.11	.18	.05	.04
Adjusted R^2	.08	.21	.10	.17	.04	.03
Overall *F*	9.59**	27.41**	11.92**	21.55**	4.66*	3.79*

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Instrumental Support Seeking; [2]Emotional Support Seeking

Table 41. Regression of Coping Style on Extraversion (Average of Self- and Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable					
	Support Seeking – I[1] (w)	Support Seeking – E[2] (w)	Support Seeking – I[1] (f)	Support Seeking – E[2] (f)	Rumination (w)	Rumination (f)
Independent Variable						
Extraversion	.20**	.09	.16*	.15*	-.14*	-.11
Control Variable						
Gender	-.18**	-.44**	-.25**	-.37**	-.17*	-.19**
Δ in R^2	.03	.19	.06	.13	.03	.03
Overall R^2	.08	.21	.10	.18	.04	.04
Adjusted R^2	.08	.21	.09	.17	.03	.03
Overall *F*	9.18**	27.07**	10.61**	21.39**	4.41*	4.17*

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation
[1]Instrumental Support Seeking; [2]Emotional Support Seeking

Table 42. Regression of Coping Style on Neuroticism (Self-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	Rumination (work)	Rumination (family)
Independent Variable		
Neuroticism	.57**	.48**
Control Variable		
Gender	-.06	-.10
Δ in R^2	.00	.01
Overall R^2	.34	.25
Adjusted R^2	.34	.24
Overall F	51.90**	33.54**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation

Table 43. Regression of Coping Style on Neuroticism (Average of Self- and Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable	
	Rumination (work)	Rumination (family)
Independent Variable		
Neuroticism	.53**	.43**
Control Variable		
Gender	-.03	-.08
Δ in R^2	.00	.01
Overall R^2	.29	.20
Adjusted R^2	.29	.20
Overall F	41.35**	25.65**

*p<.05; **p<.01; βs are standardized regression weights from the final equation

Table 44. Mediated Regression of WIF on Rumination for Work Stressors and Neuroticism (Self-Report)

	Dependent Variable: WIF		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variable			
Work Time	.37**	.37**	.37**
Independent Variable			
Neuroticism		.22**	.15
Mediator			
Rumination (work)			.12
Δ in R^2	--	.05	.01
Overall R^2	.14	.19	.20
Adjusted R^2	.14	.18	.19
Overall F	32.60**	23.36**	16.49**

*p<.05; **p<.01

Table 45. Mediated Regression of WIF on Rumination for Work Stressors and Neuroticism (Average of Self- and Significant Other-Report)

	Dependent Variable: WIF		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variable			
Work Time	.37**	.38**	.38**
Independent Variable			
Neuroticism		.27**	.22**
Mediator			
Rumination (work)			.09
Δ in R^2	--	.07	.01
Overall R^2	.14	.21	.22
Adjusted R^2	.14	.20	.20
Overall F	32.60**	26.70**	18.37**

*p<.05; **p<.01

About the Author

Rebecca H. Bryant received a Bachelor's Degree in Psychology from Emory University in 2002, with a minor in Sociology. She entered the Ph.D. program at the University of South Florida in 2004 and received her Master's Degree in Industrial and Organizational Psychology in 2006. While enrolled at the University of South Florida, Ms. Bryant conducted research in various topics, including managing work and family roles, organizational citizenship behavior, and work team effectiveness. She also held positions at both Personnel Decisions Research Institutes, Inc. and Bank of America, where she gained experience in such areas as project management, developing and validating selection tools, and implementing and evaluating interventions to reduce attrition. Ms. Bryant has co-authored two book chapters and numerous technical reports. She has also presented at several professional conferences, including the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology and American Psychological Society.