AN INVESTIGATION INTO WORK–FAMILY CONFLICT IN
FEMALES OCCUPYING LOWER–LEVEL JOBS

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AN INVESTIGATION INTO WORK – FAMILY CONFLICT IN FEMALES OCCUPYING LOWER – LEVEL JOBS

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STATEMENT

I certify that the dissertation submitted by me for the degree Magister Artium (Industrial Psychology) at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University is my independent work and has not been submitted by me for a degree at another university.

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KOOVESHENI REDDY
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ABSTRACT
The study focused on work-family conflict among females occupying lower level jobs. A quantitative research methodology was conducted on a sample of (N=144) females working on the assembly line in two private sector organisations. The research instrument was a questionnaire comprising six parts. The variables were measured under four categories: work-family conflict, job demands, perceived organisational support and job self-efficacy.

Descriptive statistics were used to analyse and interpret the data. A comparative study was done between Hesto and Alpha pharmaceutical employees and it was found that Hesto employees experience greater work-family conflict, job demands, perceived organisational support and job self-efficacy. The correlation results of the study showed that a significant negative relationship exists between perceived organisation support and work-family conflict. There was a weak positive relationship between perceived organisational support and job self-efficacy. Work demands was found to be positively and significantly related to work-family conflict. There was a significant negative relationship between perceived organisational support and work demand. A significant negative relationship was found between job self-efficacy and work-family conflict. Based on these results recommendations were made on how South African companies can help reduce work-family conflict.
CHAPTER 1: RESEARCH ORIENTATION

1.1 Introduction
It can be argued that work-family conflict is unavoidable in modern Westernised life. There could be many reasons for this, among which a few are the ongoing changes which occur in working life which play a particularly important role in one’s family life. Many challenges have arisen in addressing the balance between work and family responsibilities. The traditionally accepted roles of women and men have been brought into question. A few concerns have been raised as to the capacity of families to provide for their dependants. For many families the issues of time management, long irregular working hours, lack of working time flexibility, unequal distribution of work, lack of child care facilities or simply finding time to meet the demands of work while fulfilling family responsibilities have been raised. Both women and men are vulnerable to work-family conflict, although women experience more role overload, more interference from work to family and more interference from family to work (Mauno, Kinnunen & Ruokolainen, 2006). Thus, the researcher proposes that work demands, organisational support and job self-efficacy could be related to work-family conflict.

1.2 Background of the study
Greenhaus and Beutell (1985, as cited in Daalen, Willemsen & Sanders, 2006, p. 463) define work-family conflict as conflict “in which the role pressure from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect”. Conflict is understood to arise when an individual has to perform multiple roles, such as worker, spouse, and parent. Each of these roles imposes demands on their incumbents, requiring time, energy, and commitment. They report that, as work-family conflict originates from various conditions, different forms of conflict are distinguished. The two forms most commonly distinguished are time-based and strain-based work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1994; Rotondo, Carlson, & Kincaid, 2003, as cited in Daalen et al, 2006).

Time-based conflict occurs when time devoted to a role in one domain (i.e. work or home domain) leaves too little time to participate in the other domain (e.g., requiring employees to work late with little notice might make it difficult for employees to meet...
family obligations, such as picking up a child at day-care). While time-based conflict can occur from pressures in only one domain (e.g. too many work roles to handle), it generally caused by competing work and family time demands. Strain-based conflict occurs when strain experienced in one role domain interferes with effective performance of role behaviours in the other domain.

The increasing number of women in the workforce is a global phenomenon and South Africa is no exception in this regard. Casale (2004, as cited in Patel, Govender, Paruk & Ramgoon, 2006) refer to this growth trend as the ‘feminisation’ of the labour market. Whereas in 1995 about 38 percent of all women of working age were active in the work force, in 2001 nearly 51 percent of them were economically active. Male participation has also been increasing but at a substantially slower rate, such that a feminisation of the labour force has occurred, mirroring a more general global trend that has occurred since World War Two.

Casale et al. (2004, in Patel et al., 2006) contend that this increase has largely been in the lower paying categories, resulting in a larger percentage of women being concentrated in these categories in more recent years compared to the mid-nineties. This would suggest that the recent feminisation of the labour force has not ‘bought’ women very much in terms of access to secure employment and earning, and in fact may have reinforced a women’s disadvantaged position in the labour market (Casale & Posel, 2002).

Research indicates that low-income women are faced with an increased burden as they juggle work and family responsibilities with very limited resources. In addition occupational factors which have been shown to increase work-family conflict amongst low-income workers are more work hours, low levels of autonomy and working non-standard shifts (Cox & Presser 2000; Deitch & Huffman, 2001, as cited in Ciabattari, 2002).

In general, the most important determinant of participation is education. On the supply side, individuals who have invested in education (both through direct
expenditures and foregone earning) seek returns through labour market participation. On the demand side, employers typically use education to screen prospective employees. The more open and competitive the labour market, the more education will determine market access and opportunities. Therefore the differences in participation rates and pay, which are substantially lower for women, should be explained by differences in educational attainment. Yet, in South Africa, a women’s average attainment is essentially the same as men’s (women average 6.4 years and men 6.6 years), which suggests that other factors are involved. Discrimination against women should certainly be viewed as a causal factor (Winter, 1999).

Gender discrimination in the labour market can take many forms, and some appear to have more pernicious effects than others. The more common types include:

- Wage discrimination - This is possibly the most common form which is practised and occurs when women who have the same human capital and the same or similar jobs receive lower wages than men solely because of their gender.
- Women discrimination - Women are denied employment or receive lower wages due to their child bearing function. The employer is concerned with the economic costs incurred when women employees are pregnant or take maternity leave.
- Unequal investment in training - Employers also discriminate by minimising investments in on - the - job training for women usually because they believe women are less attached to the labour market due to their other family responsibilities. This therefore results in and affects women’s mobility in the labour market and their relative wage (Winter, 1999).

Winter (1999), states that it is often difficult to identify whether these forms of discrimination are actually practised. Thus, qualitative and quantitative studies, including a careful examination of the labour laws and their implementation, should be undertaken before conclusions are drawn about the nature and extent of gender discrimination in the labour force.
As a result of the increase of women in the workforce there is considerable conflict generated in families as work experiences spill over into family lives and vice-versa. Today, there are also more dual-career families than ever before. This fact, coupled with the large number of single-parent households, indicates that managing the work-family responsibilities may be more difficult than in households with the more traditional "husband works, wife stays home" family unit ideology (Boles, Howard & Donofrio, 2001).

1.3 **Problem statement**

To date, the field of work and family has focused its attention on the experiences and needs of the workers most valued in today’s labour market, notably, managerial, technical, and professional workers. It has paid little attention to the special challenges the lower-wage workers face when combining parenting with paid work, as well as the support which they may find useful in balancing the demands of work and home, or to the changes that may help them to avoid conflicts between multiple responsibilities (Lambert, 1999).

According to Casale and Posel (2002, as cited in Patel et al., 2006) unlike other countries where women workers are being drawn into the labour market because of a demand for female labour, in South Africa women are being forced to join the workforce, out of sheer economic need. Rising unemployment and scarcer employment opportunities mean women in low-level jobs could be in the precarious situation of having to accept low salaries to ensure family survival or otherwise face unemployment and economic hardship.

An important factor pushing women into the labour market may also be the fall in access to male income. There are several reasons why women’s access to male income has decreased over this period. The most obvious is the increase in male unemployment: in 1999 there were approximately 1.1 million more unemployed males according to the broad definition, than in 1995. The percentage of females between the ages of 15 and 65 living with at least one employed male in the household fell from 53 percent in 1995 to 44 percent by 1999.
Average annual growth employment between 1995 and 2005 was 2.6 per cent. Corresponding to the greater growth in employment for females during the period, female average annual growth rate was 3.5 per cent, while for males it was just 2 per cent. Male labour participation between the 15 to 24 years age group saw their unemployment rate increase by 11 percentage points to 58.1 per cent. Females in the 25 to 34 years age group experienced an increase of 8 percentage points to almost 52 per cent in 2005.

Other possible explanations for the declining male income support over this period include the acceleration of the HIV/AIDS epidemic, as well as the greater possibility for migrants (who historically have been mostly male) to settle in urban areas, which could be associated with a reduction in remittance transfers to women (Casale & Posel, 2002).

Research on work-family conflict has been conducted primarily in Western industrialised nations, most notably the United States, but economic and business globalisation has made work-family issues increasingly important in developing countries. Despite popular images of Americans as career orientated and of the Chinese as family oriented, Hofstede (1980, as cited in Yang, Chen, Choi & Zou, 2000) found that Western individualist societies valued family and personal time more strongly than Eastern collectivist societies. Relating back to the study, the paper makes significant contributions. The research on work-family conflict tends to focus on professional women in developed countries. Thus, this analysis will focus on work-family conflict amongst the overlooked population in South Africa. Vermeulen (2006) states that while South Africa grapples with more basic concerns such as poverty alleviation, job creation and affirmative action in the workplace, developed countries are prioritising work/life balance in an attempt to humanise the workplace.

In a study conducted by Desai (2003) work-family conflict is actually a newly recognised conflict in India. It has been only within the last two or three years that people in India have begun to talk about the strain dual-earner families experience. He further states that many women who are experiencing work-family conflict in their own lives fail to recognise this as a problem that can be resolved. A lot of women are
still fulfilling multiple roles such as caregiver, employee, spouse as well as homemaker, without realising that they are assuming a greater burden than necessary. “They work on the assumption of ‘no-choice’,” says Desai (2003, p.1).

A study conducted in Estonia, indicated that the working time management problem is particularly widely noted amongst women. According to a national study, women, family and work, the vast majority of women emphasised that fixed working schedules were the main problem in coping with family and work. However, for most of the women, working fewer hours or giving up their job was not an option because the households could not afford a drop in income (Hansson, 2001). Patel et al. (2006), when referring to the South African labour force, emphasises that, amongst lower level workers, the financial imperative is also the most important reason for work.

A study conducted in Canada indicated that women reported significantly more work-family conflict than men regardless of the job type, work sector or parental status (Duxbury & Higgins, 1994, cited in Canadian Council on Social Development, 1999). They further stated that there are several reasons for this: Firstly, many women who are employed take on work obligations with no concomitant decrease in family responsibilities and thus experience increased role overload. Second, several studies have found that a women’s work and family demands are simultaneous, while men’s are sequential. For example, a mother may be called at work regarding a sick child (simultaneous demands); on the other hand, unless the demands are urgent, the father can fulfil family obligations after work hours (sequential demands). Managing family time, or finding enough time to do all of the things required by families, was also a problem. Women have significantly more difficulty managing family time than men (Duxbury & Higgins, 1994, cited in Canadian Council on Social Development, 1999).

The work-family challenge is a key issue facing many South Africans. In addition to this challenge, most studies in this area have been conducted on professional women or women at high level positions and these studies have tended to neglect women in lower paid positions (Brink & de la Rey, 2001; Grzywacz et al., 2002; Theunissen et al., 2003; and those reported in Unger & Crawford, 1992 as cited in Lambert, 1999).
Therefore, little is known about the specific experiences of lower level workers and support they find in the workplace (Lambert, 1999).

Parcel (1999, as cited in Lambert, 1999) notes that issues regarding the work and family intersection are of prime importance not only for researchers, but also for policy-makers, organisations and citizens. According to Hammer & Thompson (2003, as cited in Karraker & Grochowski, 2005) this is an important area of study for practitioners. Research to date suggests that high levels of work-family conflict are related to dysfunctional outcomes for the individual. The first dysfunctional outcome being, for example, life dissatisfaction, anxiety, depression, poor health. With regard to relationships, the second dysfunctional outcome is for example, increased interpersonal conflict, divorce. For the organization, the examples are absenteeism, tardiness, loss of talented employees (Karraker & Grochowski, 2005).

With regard to the above mentioned background and problem statement the following research questions are raised:

- How can work-family conflict be conceptualized?
- Could work-family conflict be negatively influenced by job-demands?
- Is the effect of work-family conflict mediated by organisational social support and self-efficacy?
- How would work-family conflict be manifested in a sample of women who occupy lower-level jobs?

1.4 Research aims

1.4.1 General Aims
This study aims to explore and describe the effects of work-family conflict in a sample of women occupying lower-level jobs who are employed at a large automotive manufacturer. This study examines the relationship between work demands, organisational support, job self-efficacy and work-family conflict. The goal of this study was to obtain a more comprehensive picture of the factors related to work/family conflict.
1.4.2 Specific Aims

- To conceptualize work-family conflict.
- To determine the relationship between work-family conflict and job demands.
- To determine the mediation effect of social support and self-efficacy on work-family conflict.
- To determine the above relationship and mediating effects in a sample of women occupied in lower-level jobs.

1.5 General hypothesis

The prevalence of work-family conflict among low level female workers is regulated by work demands, job self-efficacy and perceived organisational support. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between work-family conflict and work demands with an inverse relationship between work-family conflict and job self-efficacy as well as perceived organisational support.

Various hypotheses specifying the direct relationship between the above variables are formulated in chapter 3.

1.6 Paradigmatic perspective

This research was conducted within the discipline of Industrial and Organisational Psychology with specific reference to the sub-discipline of occupational wellness (Louw, 2007). The thematic focus of this research is on work-family conflict and the theories explaining this phenomenon are utilised as a basis. Authors (Bergh, 2005; Greenhaus & Parasurman, 1989; Roberts & Levenson, 2001) confirm that stressors caused by work demands usually have a spillover effect from work to the family, and that women become more defensive as a result of increased conflict in the work-family relationship.

The philosophical paradigm in which this research was conducted, is logical positivism, according to which there are only two sources of knowledge, namely: logical reasoning and empirical experience. Positive knowledge is arrived at by means of the process of induction. Empirical methods that allow for measurement and
comparison of constructs were used. The methodology included the nomothetic method and induction. Meyer, Moore and Viljoen (1989) refer to the nomothetic method as the description of psychological processes by making inferences about general principles that apply to all people, without considering individual differences. The inductive method is one in which generalisations are made from specific deductions to general principles (Meyer et al., 1989).

Psychometrics is a sub-field within Industrial and Organisational Psychology, and psychometric principles are used in the empirical investigation. Such discipline focuses on the application of mathematical and statistical procedures in Industrial and Organisational Psychology (Gregory, 2004). The empirical investigation of this research depends mostly on measurement theory, in order to determine the relationship between variables.

The systems theory was used to integrate aspects of job-demands, organisational social support and self-efficacy within an organisational-personal system. This was done in order to determine the manifestation of work-family conflict as a function or outcome of the interaction between these variables and the phenomenon under investigation. According to Cummings (1980) the systems perspective is one way to consider all the interactions between individuals or groups and their relationships in comparison to other contexts within and outside the organisation.

The research model proposed by Mouton and Marais (1992, p. 21) is used to form a framework for the research process in order to investigate and address the above-mentioned problem statement and research objectives. The purpose of the model is to integrate the five dimensions of social research into a systematic research framework of the research process. These authors refer to the dimensions as the sociological, ontological, teleological, epistemological and methodological dimensions. The sociological dimension is addressed in this research. In accordance with this model, the assumption can be made that research is a social process. It explains a theoretical and systemic framework and underlines the three sub-systems and the research domains that interact with each other, as identified in a particular discipline. In this case one would refer to the Industrial and Organisational Psychology discipline. The
sub-systems are the intellectual climate, the market of intellectual sources, and the research process itself.

1.7 Relevant theoretical definitions

1.7.1 Work demands
Work demands refer primarily to pressures arising from excessive workloads and typical workplace time pressures such as rush jobs and deadlines (Yang, Chen, Choi & Zou, 2000). Carlson, Kacmar & Stepina (1995) state that with a finite amount of time available and as more time is spent on work obligations, smaller amounts of time are available to spend on family obligations. Literature suggests that work demands such as the number of hours worked, workload and shift work are positively associated with work-family conflict, which, in turn is related to poor mental health and negative organisational attitudes. Inflexible work arrangements are another workplace constraint that has been found to cause more work-family conflict than flexible work schedules. A lack of flexibility during one’s working times makes it difficult to align one’s working hours with childcare and school opening hours.

1.7.2 Organisational social support
According to House (1981, as cited in Daalen, Sanders & Willemsen, 2006) social support is the exchange of resources between at least two persons, with the aim of helping the person who receives the support. It can involve providing empathy, care, love and trust (emotional support), actual aid in time, money and energy (instrumental support), information relevant to self evaluation (appraisal support), and advice, information and suggestions (informational support). Many theorists have suggested that the central or organizing principle of women’s lives is their relatedness to and mutual support and empathy with others (Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper & O’Brien, 2001).

Daalen et al. (2006) stated that although men and women seem to differ with respect to the sources from which they receive social support, both nevertheless seem to experience enough social support to be effective in reducing work-family conflict. It appears that social-support reduces work-family conflict either directly or through altering the impact stressors that lead to work-family conflict, such as role conflict or
role ambiguity. Carlson and Perrewe (1999, as cited in Daalen, Sanders & Willemsen, 2006) for instance, found that social support from the work domain reduced work-family conflict through its impact on work role conflict, work time demands, and work role ambiguity.

1.7.3 Self-efficacy
Bandura (1986, as cited in Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper & O’Brien, 2001) postulated that an individual’s sense of self-efficacy operates to reduce perceptions of and reactions to stress. Therefore, it seems reasonable to conclude that the more a woman feels able to successfully handle the demands entailed in her life roles, the less likely is her experience of role conflict and over-load.

Previous research conducted by Erdwins et al. (2001) on work-family conflict found that the relationship of organisational support to work-family conflict was mediated by job self-efficacy. This finding suggests that a women’s perception of the ideal that she works for a supportive organisation may enhance her feeling of competency and effectiveness in her job which, in turn, may reduce conflict between work and family roles. He further states that it is possible that working for an employer who seems to care about her satisfaction, appreciates her contributions, and considers her opinions, may enhance a women’s sense of competency and productivity in her work.

1.8 Research design
A non-experimental exploratory quantitative tradition was followed in this research. Female lower-level workers in the automotive industry and pharmaceutical industry served as the target population in the study. A cross-sectional field survey method was implemented and a total sample of 140 participants was drawn from female lower level workers within the Kwa-Duguza boundaries of Natal and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan. Questionnaires were used to collect data and the statistical package Statistica (2009) was used to analyse the data.

Chapter 3 gives a full discussion of the research method, characteristics of the participants, measuring instruments, research procedure and the statistical analyses executed and ethical considerations.
1.9 Layout of the research report
The study consists of the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Research orientation

This chapter provides a background for the study with a general introduction, purpose of the study, scope of the study and the hypotheses to be tested.

Chapter 2: Work-family conflict among women

This chapter sets out to discuss the literature on work-family conflict as documented by various subject experts in various books and articles.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

This chapter outlines the methodology followed by the researcher during the research process.

Chapter 4: Empirical research results

This section highlights the empirical analysis results of the study as captured by the researcher using a questionnaire as the research instrument.

Chapter 5: Conclusion, recommendations and limitations

Conclusions are drawn from the respondents’ answers in the questionnaire. The recommendations look at the possible areas that need attention given to the findings. The limitations focus on the factors which restrict the study.

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY
This chapter demonstrates the main objectives of the study and the approach taken to achieve these objectives. The researcher provided an outline on the hypotheses to be tested, research methodology, data collection methods as well as the analysis which was used in the study. Finally the layout of the research report was outlined and ideas for dissemination were provided.
CHAPTER 2: WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

2.1 Introduction

In today’s world the effects of work-family conflict on females in the workplace are rather significant and have a large impact on how much effort employees put into their job and how work-family conflict results in stress. This occurs as a result of conflict between one’s job and one’s family life. One may go on to examine how work-family conflict results in one becoming stressed due to the many roles which many women have to fulfil, such as the role of a mother, wife and bread winner. If an individual does not feel that he or she is fulfilling all these roles, does the conflict which resides within the individual result in stress, and how does an individual cope with it?

The objective of this chapter is to explore the findings which previous researchers have come to with regard to work-family conflict and how these findings support this research.

The chapter commences with a brief explanation of work-family conflict. Then an in-depth discussion on theories explaining work-family conflict, followed by conflicting factors between employees and families, will then be discussed. Work-family conflict experienced by females is explored next. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the way in which organisations can help to reduce work-family conflict and improve work-family relationships in order to enhance employee’s motivation. A summary of the literature will be provided at the end of this chapter.

2.2 Forms of work-family conflict

The multiple roles performed by individuals in society today can become overwhelming and result in work-family conflict. Work-family conflict is “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressure from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985 p77), such that participation in one domain becomes more difficult due to the demands of participation in the other domain and vice versa. Work-family conflict is considered to be bi-directional, i.e., work can interfere with family (work-to-family conflict;
WFC) and family can interfere with work (family-to-work; FWC). However, here the focus was only on work-family conflict, as previous studies have shown that employees more frequently report work-to-family conflict than family-to-work conflict (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998 as cited in Daalen et al., 2006).

Research on work-family conflict recognises the interdependence between work and family domains and examines how the simultaneous performance of interdependent roles of employee, parent, spouse, with their related demands in terms of time, energy, and commitment, can cause an individual to experience role conflict (Wallis & Price, 2003). According to Voydanoff (1993) role conflict arises when the fulfilment of one role is hindered by participation in another role.

As a form of inter-role conflict, work-family conflict takes two forms. Role overload occurs when cumulative demands on the individual’s time and energy exceed the individual’s ability to perform other roles competently, and role interference exists when demands from two or more roles conflict to the extent that the requirements of neither can be accomplished (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Voydanoff, 1993).

Both the conflict which arises from work-to-family and family-to-work interference can take one of three forms. The first is time-based conflict, which occurs when the amount of time devoted to fulfilling obligations in one domain reduces the amount of time available to perform roles in other domains (Niemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, 1996; O’ Driscoll, Ilgen & Hildreth, 1992; Small & Riley, 1990 as cited in Wallis & Price, 2003). The amount and nature of work-family conflict perceived by the individual is reported to increase in direct proportion to the number of hours spent in each role, for example, requiring employees to work late with little notice might make it difficult for employees to meet family obligations, such as picking up a child at day-care.

The second form is strain-based conflict which arises when strain or fatigue is experienced in one role and therefore hinders performance or exploits resources which would be otherwise available for another role (Byron, 2005; Carlson, 1999 as cited in Mauno, Kinnunen & Ruokolainen, 2006). For instance, negative emotional
reactions to workplace stressors may lead to expressions of irritability towards family members or withdrawal from family interaction in order to recuperate (O’ Driscoll, 1999 as cited in Jones, Burke & Westman, 2006).

Finally, behaviour-based conflict refers to specific patterns of in-role behaviour that may be incompatible with expectations regarding behaviour in another role. It has been suggested, for example, that the male, managerial stereotype emphasizes self-reliance, emotional stability, aggressiveness, and objectivity (Schein, 1973). Family members, on the other hand, may expect a person to be warm, nurturing, emotional, and vulnerable in his or her interactions with them.

2.3 Theories explaining work-family conflict

The following section describes theories that are directly and indirectly related to work-family conflict. Whereas segmentation theory, compensation theory, spillover theory, identity theory, theory of role balance and effort-reward imbalance are theories of work-family conflict, Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs and expectancy theory are theories that attempt to describe work-family conflict indirectly.

2.3.1 Segmentation theory

Three different perspectives have been proposed with respect to the manner in which work and family roles interact. Firstly, segmentation theory assumes that work and family are independent domains and that individuals may separate them in terms of time, physical location, emotions, attitudes, and behaviours (Lambert, 1990). Greenhaus and Beutell’s (1985) description of work-family conflict as a form of inter-role conflict in which family and work-demands are incompatible in some way, forms part of this theory.

2.3.1.2 Compensation Theory

Secondly, compensation theory postulates that people who are not satisfied in one domain will seek satisfaction in another domain. Individuals can compensate for dissatisfaction in one role in a number of ways: they can reduce the importance ascribed to a less rewarding role or they can seek rewards and invest more time and
attention in an alternative role. Evidence for compensation has been found in a number of studies. Rothbard (2001, as cited in Jones, Burke & Westman, 2006) found that women who experienced negative effects from family were more engaged with their work, as confirmed by the compensation theory. It means that such women enjoy their work and that actually compensates for the unhappiness experienced at home. Compensation theory proposes that individuals invest more heavily in one domain to make up for what is missing in the other domain (Staines, 1980). The converse is also true. If unhappiness or job dissatisfaction at work is transferred to the family, spillover comes into effect (Gryzywacz, Almeida & McDonald, 2002).

2.3.1.3 Spillover theory

The third and most popular theory is that of spillover, which reflects two distinct sets of concepts. One set represents negative spillover between work and family and is most frequently characterized by various types of work and family conflict or interference. Co-occurring negative events, such as stressors, on the same day in multiple domains or from one person to another (Almeida, Wethington, & Chandler, 1999; Repetti, 1989) also have been viewed as a form of negative spillover.

Another, more recent set of concepts represents positive spillover between work and family, such as resource enhancement and work-family success or balance (Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Moen & Yu, 1999). Previous research also has indicated that negative forms of spillover are related, yet distinct from positive spillover (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

2.3.4 Identity theory

Identity theory is a microsociological theory, which links self-attitudes, or identities, to the role relationships and role-related behaviour of individuals. Identity theorists state that the self consists of a collection of identities, each of which is based on occupying a particular role (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Identities can be defined as one's answers to the question "Who am I?". For example, familial identities might include those of the spouse or parent as well as occupational identities. In turn, these role identities are said to influence behaviour in that each role has a set of associated meanings and expectations for the self.
The concept of identity salience is important in identity theory because the salience one attaches to one's identity influences how much effort one puts into each role and how well one performs in each role (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Identity theory has also made use of the assumption that a man’s performance of the work role also fulfils his family role as society has deemed a man’s primary role to be that of providing for the family, whereas, for women, there is no overlap between the two identities. Within society women’s primary role is considered to be that of looking after children and the household (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Therefore, according to this theory, work is seen as the salient role identity of men, and family as the salient role identity of women.

Identity theory states that stress and conflict between roles would arise when individuals attempt to maintain a salient role identity in a situation that requires performance of another identity and role. Therefore women who have a high investment in both work and family would experience a great deal of work-family conflict (Stryker & Burke, 2000).

2.3.5 Theory of role balance

Some researchers have explored the notion of the way in which feelings of balance may also involve enjoyment of and commitment to roles (Marks & McDermid, 1996; Crosby & Jaskar, 1993; Marks, 1977 as cited in Milkie & Peltola, 1999). Marks and MacDermid (1996) introduced a theory of role balance which suggests that people who have well-balanced role systems, which they conceptualize as full engagement in and enjoyment of all unspecified roles, have higher levels of well-being. Using a sample of employed mothers, they showed that those who were more "role balanced," who "enjoy every part of their life equally well," were not necessarily the ones who worked the fewest hours. They worked the same number of hours as the less balanced, and they reported less overload, had higher self-esteem, and lower depression levels (Milkie & Peltola, 1999).

Paid work and family are often discussed in terms of their competing and incessant demands. With only 24 hours in each day and the requirement that people are present at a specific location or are working on certain tasks during particular hours, there are still many expectations which may remain unmet. Because time spent on the job may
indicate commitment to it and because time spent with one's children or spouse may indicate commitment or even love. It may therefore be difficult to delegate responsibilities to others (Emmons, Bierat, Tiedje, Lang, & Wortman, 1990). The types of roles, as well as the characteristics of those roles, are important to consider in understanding the balancing of work and family life.

Although the numbers and kinds of demands from work and family are likely to relate to how successful one is in balancing these areas, feeling balanced may also have to do with a sense that there is harmony amongst the various roles within these two spheres (Shelton, 1992). Balance may involve several distinct aspects of harmony, an accord between beliefs about the proper balance and one's actual experience or the distribution of paid and unpaid work and the quality of relations amongst role partners. For example, perceived fairness in the distribution of tasks amongst family members is likely to be important to one's own feelings of work-family balance. Additionally, it is likely that feelings about how successful one is in balancing job and family may come from specific events or decisions which represent a sacrifice of one domain for the other. For example, a person may decide to forego a job promotion in order to spend more time with a partner or with children. Such decisions may alleviate some work-family strains but simultaneously may contribute to feelings of loss of opportunities (Shelton, 1992). Although women may adapt to multiple roles easily, it may cause conflict between them and their spouses if they are too committed to their work that eventually distracts attention from family commitments. It seems that women who are balanced or committed across roles, regardless of the number of roles they occupy, will most probably reflect greater life satisfaction and mental health (Perry- Jenkins, Repetti & Crouter, 2000).

2.3.6 Work-family conflict and effort-recovery model

The effort-recovery model (E-R Model) proposed by Meijman (1989) asserts that employees build up negative load effects during the week day. This does not necessarily lead to negative consequences for employee’s health and well-being as long as employees are given sufficient time to recover from these effects. If the individual does not have ample private time to recover, load effects built up at work
resulting from long hours, do cause health problems. Furthermore, due to a lack of recovery time, the demands made in the private situation, such as domestic and child-giving tasks may add to the work-non-work interference. Therefore, individuals do need sufficient unwinding time to recover from strain and tiredness carried from the work environment.

The relevance of the effort-recovery model to the work-home interface is clear. It is plausible that high levels of job-related effort and over-commitment to the job role might result in perceived conflict between work and home. It is also likely that employees who believe that their efforts and achievements at work are not counterbalanced by the rewards which they receive. It may be less likely to tolerate an intrusion into their home lives rather than those who work under more equitable conditions. Moreover, as previous studies have found that the effort-reward imbalance may lead to negative affective reactions (Van Vegchel et al., 2005 as cited in Kinman & Jones, 2007) as perceived inequality could also manifest itself as strain-based work-family conflict.

2.3.7 Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs

A need is a strong feeling of deficiency in some respect of a person’s life that creates an uncomfortable tension. That tension becomes a motivating force, causing a person to take actions to satisfy the need, reduce the tension, and diminish the intensity of the motivating force (Hellriegel et al., 2007).

Psychologist, Abraham Maslow, believed that people have five types of needs, which he arranged in a hierarchy of needs. Maslow suggested that as a person satisfies each level of needs motivation shifts to satisfying the next higher level of needs.

Maslow’s five types of needs are as follows:

Physiological needs. Physiological needs are those for food, clothing, and shelter. People try and satisfy physiological needs before all others. The primary motivation of a hungry person is to obtain food rather than, say, gain recognition for
achievements. Thus, people work for wages that will allow them to meet these needs first (Hellriegel et al., 2007).

Security needs. Security needs include the desire for safety and stability, and the absence of pain, threat and illness. People deprived of the means to satisfy security needs become preoccupied with obtaining them. Many workers express their needs as a desire for a stable job with adequate medical aid, unemployment and retirement benefits. Organisations that provide stability and such benefits are likely to have relatively low turnover and little dissatisfaction among employees who are striving to meet these needs (Hellriegel et al., 2007).

Affiliation needs. Affiliation needs are the desire for friendship, love, and belonging. Employees with high affiliation needs enjoy working closely with others. Employees with low affiliation needs may be content to work on tasks by themselves. When an organisation does not meet affiliation needs, an employee’s dissatisfaction may be expressed in terms of frequent absenteeism, low productivity, stress-related behaviours, and even emotional breakdown (Hellriegel et al., 2007).

Esteem needs. Esteem needs are the desire for self-respect, a sense of personal achievement and recognition from others. To satisfy these needs, people seek opportunities for achievement, promotion, prestige, and status, all of which symbolises their competence and worth. Managers who perceive that employees are motivated by esteem needs emphasize that hard work and finely honed skills are required for success. They may publicly reward achievements with published achievement lists, bonuses, praise, lapel pins, and articles in the organisation’s newspaper. When the need for esteem is dominant, managers can promote job satisfaction and high quality performance by providing opportunities for exciting, challenging work and recognition for accomplishment (Hellriegel et al., 2007).

People differ in the degree to which they like or dislike themselves. The research on self-esteem offers some interesting insights into organisational behaviour. For example, self-esteem is directly related to expectations for success. High self-esteem individuals believe that they possess the ability they need to succeed at work. Individuals with high self-esteem will take more risks in job selection and are more
likely to choose unconventional jobs than people with low self-esteem (Hellriegel et al., 2007).

Self-actualisation needs. Self actualisation needs are the desire for personal growth, self-fulfilment, and the realization of the individual’s full potential. Traits commonly exhibited include initiative, spontaneity, and problem-solving ability. Managers who recognise this motivation can help discover the growth potential available in their jobs, or they can create special growth opportunities such as offering employees special assignments. Training and development opportunities within the organisations are also important (Hellriegel et al., 2007).

How does this theory relate to the concept of the work-family conflict? The conflict results from the job's failure to allow the employee to meet his or her needs. If an employee is experiencing tension in the home because his or her employer expects him or her to put work before the family, the employee is being denied his or her needs for belongingness and acceptance. If a job does not meet a level of needs, the employee may experience some conflict between work and the home (Galinsky, Bond & Friedman, 1996).

A job may not meet the basic physiological needs. The job may pay poorly and the employee may not have enough money to buy food or pay the rent. Even if the job pays well it may still not meet the need for safety and security. The job could meet the first level of needs but may not be enough to live in a safe neighbourhood where the rent is higher. If an employee works in an unstable business, he or she may not be guaranteed job security, which is an important factor in the work-family relationship and conflict can emanate from it. (Galinsky et al., 1996).

Job security not only decreased work-family conflict, it also lowered stress and improved employee’s coping ability (Galinsky et al., 1996). If employees know that their jobs are secure then they do not have to worry about being unable to pay bills and buy food, thus lowering stress and conflict.

When employees have family obligations, co-workers and supervisors may not be very accepting and when a parent or partner has to fulfil a work obligation, the family may not be very accepting. The co-workers and supervisors could become irritated
with the employee and this could affect the employee negatively. If employees feel they are not being appreciated at the office or at home, or if they feel out of the loop at work, they will experience a loss of the essential needs of acceptance and belongingness. This aspect of the work-family conflict could cause the employee to be unhappy in the work place and/or the home, which could influence marital satisfaction and family dynamics as well as problems at work such as low productivity and increased absenteeism (Glass & Estes, 1997).

The need for appreciation, recognition, and attention from relationships and work can cause the same problems as the need for acceptance and belongingness. If an employee is feeling under-appreciated at the office, he or she may react the same way as above. The employee could retaliate by missing work, slowing down at work, or quitting work all together. If an employee is not getting the recognition or the attention he or she deserves, one such employee would probably not stick around much longer. (Galinsky et al., 1996).

As for the need for self-actualization, if an employee has had a hard time reaching his or her full potential, he or she may look elsewhere to reach that final level. Businesses should want to offer their employees the most freedom and job autonomy possible. The more job autonomy and freedom an employee is given, the more likely he or she will reach self-actualization because one is given more room to expand and grow as a worker. An employee who experiences more job autonomy and freedom experiences less stress and work-family conflict (Galinsky et al., 1996).

Therefore, individuals have the “desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming” (Huizinga, 1970, p22). Despite the need to grow women may face a ‘glass ceiling’ that limits their advancement to higher level jobs. The glass ceiling refers to a subtle and almost invisible but strong barrier that prevents women from moving into higher positions within the organisation. There is an emerging belief that the glass ceiling exists worldwide (Alder & Israeli, 1988, 1994 cited by Burke, 1996), and may be at lower organisational levels as well.
Newell (2002), states despite over twenty years of equal opportunity legislations and a clear increase in the diversity of the workforce, this diversity is not reflected in the structure of power within organisations, which remains dominated by white males. Thus, women remain horizontally and vertically segregated from men, dominating the lower echelons of organisational structures, and in jobs which are based on nurturance and dependence (‘women’s work’). People from ethnic minorities are twice as likely to be out of work as whites, even when they are as well or better qualified. Those who work are more likely to be in low-paid, semi-skilled jobs and their chances of promotion are smaller than their white colleagues.

Maslow’s theory implies that work-family conflict can emerge from a situation if none of a woman’s needs in terms of the work situation are satisfied. Conversely, if it is satisfied, it may improve family life and spousal relationships.

2.3.8 Expectancy theory

Expectancy theory states that the strength of a tendency to act in a particular way, depends on the strength of the expectation that the act which they are willing to perform will be followed by a certain outcome which is attractive to them. Employees believe that the expected outcome will determine whether the individual believes that the outcome will be of value to them (Robbins & Judge, 2009).

There are three questions which employees will ask themselves when they are experiencing role conflict in order to try and put in the required amount of effort in all required roles. The first question is, “If I give a maximum effort, will I be recognised in my performance?” (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p. 232). Many employees feel that the answer to this question is ‘no’. Many employees feel that it does not matter how hard they work, they will most probably receive a bad performance appraisal due to the fact that the boss does not like them or because the performance appraisal system only judges loyalty, initiative and courage, which is not directly related to effort. Therefore, they feel that putting in extra effort into ones job is not worthwhile.

The second question which employees ask themselves when they try to balance all their roles is, “If I get a good performance appraisal, will it lead to any organisational rewards?” (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p. 232). There is no link between performance
and rewards because employees do not aim to exert extra effort in their job and attempt to put more emphasis on their other roles as they feel that extra effort will not result in a reward.

The third question is, “If I’m rewarded, are the rewards that one finds personally attractive?” (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p. 232). Many employees feel that the incentives which are offered by the firm may not meet their needs. The employee may value a reward such as the company paying a contribution to their children’s school fees and as opposed to the company rewarding them by promoting them to a higher level with more responsibility.

From these three questions one may deduce that the employee may not feel that performing well in his/her job results in rewards which are worthwhile, whereas performing well as a parent may reward the employee in a way which the employee values. The employee may not enjoy his/her job as it is not rewarding to him or her in the way in which they wish to be rewarded and they may feel upset that his or her role as a breadwinner is not satisfying. Therefore the female worker may carry her frustrations with regard to her job over to one’s family life. (Robbins & Judge, 2009).

2.3.9 Summary of theories explaining work-family conflict

Work-family conflict can emanate from two major aspects of the work/family interface: factors associated with the time requirements to perform work and family roles, and the psychological carryover of gratification or strain from one role domain to the other.

Segmentation theory is based on the assumption that since energy and time are limited, resources taken up in one role mean that the other role is neglected. Spillover theory is based on the carryover of attitudes from one role to another. The compensation theory states that if individuals are not satisfied in one role they will seek satisfaction in the other role.

Identity theory states that individuals have various roles which they are expected to fulfil due to their gender or status in society. Should these individuals have other roles
as well it may conflict with their primary role. A female employee’s primary role is to care for her family and this may conflict with her role as an employee.

The theory of role balance explains that the amount of enjoyment which one receives from all ones roles affects the perception that one is able to balance ones roles more effectively. An imbalance would be if one gave up a job promotion in order to spend more time with one’s family and the person may feel that they lost out due to this promotion.

Work-family conflict is experienced when work interests are conflicting with family roles. The effort-recovery model illustrates that if far too much effort is put into one’s job there may be a perceived level of conflict between the job and the family and vice-versa.

Maslow’s (1970) hierarchical need satisfaction theory explains why the conflict occurs and how the conflict can be resolved. Maslow’s theory is based on a hierarchy of needs that must be met in order to reach self-actualization, the highest need. At the bottom of the hierarchy are the physiological needs such as food and water. The second level of needs are the needs for safety and security (both physically and emotionally). The third level consists of the needs for belongingness and acceptance within friends, peers, and co-workers. The fourth level needs are those needs that are considered esteem needs such as recognition, attention and appreciation form relationships and work. The last and final level is the need for self-actualization; the need to reach one’s fullest potential. Maslow’s theory is a hierarchy, meaning that one has to have met the needs of the lower levels to move to the next level (Hodson & Sullivan, 1995). If these needs are not satisfied, negative effects may spill over to family life while creating conflict among family members.

Within expectancy theory employees may not feel that how much they perform affects how they will be rewarded and if they are rewarded whether they will value these rewards. The frustrations which are as a result of this lack of rewards which the employee values, carries over to the employees’ family life and creates a conflict between work and family life. The following section will discuss conflicting factors between employees and families.
2.4 **Conflicting factors between employees and families**

The following discussion presents literature that focuses on how an employee interacts with his/her job and the factors which influence an employee in the workplace. A number of factors that trigger work stress or family conflict will be discussed. The factors are: stress associated with the assembly line worker, shift work as an occupational stressor, role conflict, job-related stressors unique to women, burnout and depression, working conditions, commuting to and from work, work-demands, work-pace or intensity, the level of autonomy, the influence of dependants on work-family conflict.

2.4.1 **Stress associated with the assembly line worker**

Traditionally assembly line work, characterised by high repetitivity, monotony, little variation and low personal control, is associated with low job satisfaction, high absenteeism, and elevated psychological stress levels (Frankenhaeuser & Gardell, 1976; Frankenhaeuser, 1986; Lundberg, Granqvist, Hansson, Magnusson & Wallin, 1989 as cited in Melin, Lundberg, Soderlund and Granqvist, 1999). A plausible explanation for these phenomena is given by the Karasek Model (Karasek, 1979) which reasons that a combination of high demands and low control contributes to increased health risks. On the basis of the Karasek model, House, Landis and Umberson (1988) and others (Johnson, 1986; Orth-Gomer & Johnson (1989 as cited in Melin et al., 1999) have suggested that perceived organisational support ‘buffers’ the relationship between job strain (low control and high demands) and health.

Due to high job demands, women most likely cope better in a flexible organisation as norepinephrine plays a role in stress handling and women eventually experience more released norepinephrine levels during stressful situations. As a stress hormone, norepinephrine affects parts of the brain where attention and responding actions are controlled. Along with epinephrine, norepinephrine also underlies the fight-or-flight response, directly increasing heart rate, triggering the release of glucose from energy stores, and increasing blood flow to skeletal muscle. One possible explanation for this is, for example, that females can cope better with the social pressure in the flexible organisation than their male colleagues. Flexible forms of work organisation have
made it easier for the female workers to combine the demands of their paid job with other unpaid responsibilities relating to home, household and childcare (Lundberg, 1996). This flexible form of work organisation, which allows more freedom to be off from work when necessary, might reduce the conflict between paid and unpaid duties. Therefore, women working in flexible organisations are able to cope better when it comes to dealing with higher job demands.

Higher norepinephrine levels of female workers at the assembly line could also mean that they had to work harder to keep the same pace as the men on the assembly line. During the last hours of working on the shift, women at the assembly line reported a somewhat higher workload than men, but this was not so in a flexible work organisation (Melin et al., 1999).

In a series of studies, individuals who have very little control over their work hours have been found to increase their risk of health problems, for example, psychological distress and sick absences. This is particularly with regard to women ( Ala-Mursula, Vahtera, Kivimaki, Kevin & Pentti, 2002; Ala-Mursula, Vahtera, Pentti & Kivimaki, 2004). Control over work hours has also been associated with lower work-family conflict (Jansen, Kant, Nijhuis, Swaen, & Kristensen, 2004). According to the above it seems that females who work flexible hours on assembly lines should experience lesser work-family conflict.

2.4.2 Shift work as an occupational stressor

Research to date, both in South Africa and elsewhere, indicates shift work imposes a third layer of burden on women who are already oppressed by the double shift of work at the factory and then at home. This results in a considerable cost to the women themselves and to their families (Alder, 1988).

This third burden known as shift work, was introduced by Henry Ford in the early 1900s to the motor industry to meet the rising demand within the automobile market. Shift work has been associated with various occupational stressors. The psychological impacts, the impacts on the family social relationship and individual susceptibility related to shift work are of importance to this study (Harker, 2006). Mott, Mann, MCloughlin and Warwick, (1965) make reference to the psychological impacts shift
work has on the employee. The psychological factors caused by the impact of shift work on employees are role conflict on the job and between work and home, a perceived lack of rewards, negative impacts on the family and distorted social relationships. Therefore, individual susceptibility and the affects of shift work on health outcomes will be discussed below.

2.4.2.1 Role conflict.

Schabracq, Winnubst and Cooper (1996, p.211) defines role conflict as “the simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures. These pressures may be such that compliance with one, makes compliance with the other more difficult”. Role conflict could emanate within the workplace or between the work and an outside source. An example would be conflict between times spent at work leaving very little time to devote to other roles in the family. The female worker gives so much time to her work role that it brings disequilibrium into her home roles.

2.4.2.2 A perceived lack of rewards.

Low potential for rewards are promotion, raises and other intrinsic rewards, which leads to work stress (Vagg & Spielberger, 1994). Grandjean (1998) states that most people are in two minds regarding the benefits of shift work and its associated rewards. Furthermore, people who perceive a lack of rewards for their efforts during shiftwork may develop a low self-esteem that reflects negatively on children. These individuals in actual fact feel low valued.

2.4.2.3 Negative impacts on the family and marital relationships related to shift work.

Almost three decades ago, Mann (1965 as cited in Harker, 2006) suggested that hours of work have long been recognized as having a significant effect in the way an individual and his or her family lives. In instances where the shift worker is married, the job stress emanates from the shift work schedules, which are not regular and often results in less satisfying marital relationships and increased marital tension.
2.4.2.4 Individual susceptibility and the affects of shift work on health and relationships

Grandjean (1998) stated that not every shift worker is affected in the same way by shift work. Individual differences such as age and gender are thought to play an important role in coping and adjusting to shift work. Grandjean (1998) suggested that shift workers in the over 40 age group, are more easily prone to disturbed sleep and complain of their ill-health. On the other hand younger single shift workers find that shift work places constraints on their social relations especially between work and home (Grandjean, 1998).

In a qualitative study conducted by Harker (2006) on the occupational stressors experienced by shift workers, it was found that female participants who shared their experiences of shift work were frustrated by the problem of childcare for their minor children. This frustration is evident in the following extract:

“I am a single mother and I struggle to get somebody to look after my kids when I work shifts. It is not easy.” Such a statement projects many female workers feelings about shift work (Harker, 2006, p.202).

Alder (1988) states that shift workers have much less time with their children than day workers. Sixty three percent of shift workers compared with only thirty percent of day workers believe that their job interfered with their role as a mother. Sixty-two percent of shift workers compared with only thirty percent of day workers felt that their job prevented them from giving their children guidance. Sixty-percent of shift workers compared with twenty-seven and a half-percent of day worker's felt they could not effectively discipline their children.

The lack of parental authority and the breakdown of family structures are a cause for much concern in South Africa. Wilson and Ramphele (1987), argue that these factors have contributed to high levels of crime, juvenile delinquency and even political violence. Shift work has been specifically identified as one contributing cause to family disruption (Directorate of Social Planning, 1985 as cited in Alder, 1988). Parents who are shift workers feel strongly that this is the case. They feel that they cannot attend to the moral and social upbringing of their children. In terms of formal education, shift workers also feel that they cannot give proper attention to their
children’s development. Sixty-three percent of shift workers when compared with thirty-five percent of day worker's feel that their job prevents them from supervising their children's education (Adler, 1988).

Therefore one can conclude that shift work results in all of the above stressors and frustrations that eventually affect family relationships.

2.4.3 Job-related stressors unique to women

Factors intrinsic to the job were a first and vital focus of study for early researchers in the study of field stress. Stress can be caused by too much or too little work, time pressure and deadlines, having to make too many decisions, fatigue from physical strains of the work environment, examples being an assembly line, excessive travelling, long hours, having to cope with changes at work and expenses such as expenses of making mistakes which are monetary and career related (Kearns, 1973 as cited by Warr, 1978). Pikes (2001) argues that women who are single parents have one of the toughest roles in society. Not many businesses make allowances for the demands of single parenthood, which include having to tend to schooling, feeding, arranging childcare, transport, dealing with illness and sickness and generally supporting their children on top of the normal work burden which falls upon every other employee of equal standing.

The stress experienced at work by the employed female may be amplified when she returns home and has to engage in housework and childcare responsibilities. Research indicates that husbands were reported as spending less time on housework and childcare the result being greater work-family conflict (Burke, 1996). Dunahoo, Geller and Hobfoll (1996) note that in addition to the role of spouse and parent, it is the women who usually take on additional family-related roles and responsibilities. For example a women’s communal orientation makes them more likely than men, for example, their husbands or brothers, to become the primary helper for an elderly or sick-family member, even when the family member is more closely related to the women’s partner or spouse for example their mother-in-law.

Management typically portrays the workplace as gender neutral, but there is ample evidence that gender bias exists on both overt and more subtle levels. This bias
contributes to the special stressors facing working women. First, there are limited appreciable promotions available for women to higher organisational ranks (Cowan, 1989, Grant, 1988). Hence, regardless of the fact that the opportunities for and the acceptance of women in the workplace are improving, the glass ceiling effect remains. Women are still not well integrated in many organisational systems. Even where women work in traditionally female professions, such as nursing, teaching, housekeeping, and foods service, the management is male dominated (Powell, 1988 cited in Schabracq & Winnubst & Cooper, 1996). In some instances, a ‘men’s club’ mentality has resulted to outright discrimination and sexual harassment. The tendency is for managers to underrate and under-reward women in comparison to men with identical credentials (Bhatnagar, 1988; Lott, 1985; Rosenfield & Stephan, 1978 as cited in Schabracq et al., 1996). Even with the same job, in the same occupation, women’s earnings are typically lower than those of men. This compensation gap increases as women ascend the corporate ladder into the ranks of executives (Schabracq et al., 1996). Thus, all of the above stressors and frustrations are carried over to the family life.

2.4.4 Burnout

Stress is a generic term that refers to a temporary adaptation process which is accompanied by mental and physical symptoms. In contrast, burnout may be considered as a final stage in a breakdown. This is then an adaptation which results from the long-term imbalance of demands and resources, and therefore the prolonged job stress causes burnout. (Brill, 1984). A related conceptual distinction between burnout and stress is that the former includes the development of negative attitudes and behaviours towards recipients, the job and the organisation. Job stress is not necessarily accompanied by such attitudes and behaviours (Maslach, 1986).

Burnout has been called a “psychological process” caused by a huge amount of unrelieved work stress that results in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment (Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987). Such diminished accomplishment has a negative spillover effect on family members.
Maslach and Jackson (1986, p.1) define burnout as: Burnout is “a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment which can occur amongst individuals who do ‘people work’ of some kind”.

Cordes and Dougherty (1993, as cited in Schaufeli & Buunk, 1996) noted that burnout is a certain type of job stress, which is an outcome or strain of job demand stressors. This is also the antecedent variable to several consequences which may be physiological, psychological or which may influence an individual’s behaviour at work.

Some studies indicate that burnout is positively related to the objective indicators of workload, such as the number of working hours. Most research, however, is on subjective workload. It has been convincingly shown that perceived stress is positively related to burnout (Poulin & Alter, 1993 as cited in Schaufeli & Buunk, 1996). Role problems, more specifically role ambiguity and role conflict, are positively related to burnout, in members of many professions. Recently, the negative effects of role conflict and role ambiguity on burnout have been confirmed in a longitudinal study amongst human service professionals. Research suggests that married, employed women log more hours on household tasks and childrearing than do their working husbands. As a result, overload and distress may occur resulting in work-family conflict.

According to Posig and Kickul (2004) there were several studies that specifically examined the relationship between work-family conflict and job burnout. These researchers found that they were positively related. Burke (1988) found that work-family conflict was positively related with psychological burnout for police officers. Bacharach et al. (1991 as cited in Posig & Kickul 2004) found that work-family conflict had a significant relationship with emotional exhaustion for nurses and engineers. More recently, supporting Burke’s (1988) finding, Kinnunen and Mauno (1998) found that as work-family conflict increased, so too did burnout.

Emotional exhaustion, or a feeling of a lack of energy and depleted emotional resources, has been seen by several researchers as the first and key component of burnout to surface in a sequential ordering component. This results from a demand of
stressors that employee’s experience. Individuals suffering from burnout tend to use avoidance coping strategies that are not good for family relationships (Mostert, 2008).

There is a clear relationship between work-family conflict and exhaustion. Several studies have indicated that exhaustion is one of the psychological consequences of negative interference between work and home (Burke, 1988; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Koekemoer & Mostert, 2006; Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, 1996).

Exhaustion and work-family conflict are not only the result of stressful demands at work, examples being, a high workload, complaining clients, but also the lack of job resources, for example, autonomy and performance feedback (Bakker & Geurts, 2004; Koekemoer & Mostert, 2006; Montgomery et al, 2003; Peeters et al., 2005 as cited in Mostert, 2008). According to Bakker et al. (2003 as cited in Mostert, 2008), the demanding aspects of a job may lead to fatigue and health problems. Various studies have indicated that job demands are related to exhaustion. A number of studies have also indicated that a lack of resources is associated with exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2001; Jassen et al., 2004; Peeters et al., 2005 as cited in Mostert, 2008). The afore-mentioned scenarios cause female workers not to be very supportive to their family members or hamper their relationship with their children.

2.4.5 Depression

The common features of depression include changes in emotional states, motivation, functioning and motor behaviour and cognitive states. Changes in emotional states are characterised by persistent periods of feeling down, depressed, sad, or blue, tearfulness or crying, and increased irritability, jumpiness, or loss of temper (Nevid, Rathus & Greene 2005). Such symptoms cause family members to easily drift away from such individuals.

Features of changes in motivation are reduced levels in social participation or interest in social activities, having difficulty in getting going in the morning or even getting out of bed, loss of enjoyment or interest in pleasurable activities, reduced interest in sex, and failure to respond to praise or rewards (Nevid et al., 2005).
Changes in functioning and motor behaviour include moving about or talking more slowly than usual, changes in sleep habits (sleeping too much or too little, awakening earlier than usual and having trouble getting back to sleep in the early morning hours, changes in appetite (eating too much or too little), changes in weight (gaining or losing weight), functioning less effectively than usual at work (Nevid et al., 2005). These disturbances result in bad moods causing malfunctioning in social roles and familial disruption.

Cognitive changes are characterised by difficulty concentrating or thinking clearly, thinking negatively about oneself and one’s future, feeling guilty and remorseful about the past misdeeds, lack of self-esteem or feeling of inadequacy, thinking of death or suicide (Nevid et al., 2005).

Female workers may become depressed which is the result of having no control over working conditions and environment. An example is shift work which may cause marital dysfunction and problematic children due to the absence of their mothers. Such feeling of depression may cause women to become emotionally inaccessible to their families resulting in work-family conflict.

2.4.6 Unpleasant working conditions

A great deal of research has been linked to the working conditions of a particular job to the physical and mental health of workers in these jobs. For example, Kornhauser (1965 as cited in Warr, 1978) found that poor mental health such as anxiety, depression and marital discord was directly related to unpleasant working conditions. This results in the necessity to work fast and expend a lot of physical effort, and to work excessive and inconvenient hours. Pressures to spend long hours at work may conflict with demands or expectations from family members to spend time at home.

Inflexible work arrangements are another workplace constraint which has been found to cause more work family conflict than flexible work schedules. A lack of flexibility in working times, makes it difficult to align working hours with childcare and school opening hours. In a study conducted by Voydanoff (1988), the work role characteristics most strongly related to work-family conflict are the number of hours and job demands, that is, having too much work to do and being required to work hard
and fast. These variables indicate high levels of overall time and energy demands associated with work.

According to Bianchi et al., (2000; Statistiska Centralbyran SCB 2003, as cited in Gronlund, 2007), the fact that women still carry the main responsibility for childcare and housework means that women report more stress, show higher levels of stress hormones and experience more work-family conflict than men who have the same number of working hours (Fenwick & Tausig, 2001; Fredriksen-Goldsen & Scharlach, 2001; Greenhaus et al., 1987 Gronlund, 2004; Gutek et al., 1991; Harenstam & Bejerot, 2001; Luundber & Frankenhaeuser, 1999; Lungberg et al., 1994; Nordenmark, 2002; Shinn et al., 1989 as cited in Gronlund, 2007). However, such gender differences may also be influenced by the fact that women generally have lower positions and less control over their own work (Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

2.4.7 Commuting to and from work

Commute to work forms part of the daily routine of most employees (Schaeffer, Street, Singer & Baum, 1988). In a study conducted by Kluger (1998), on Commute Variability and Strain, time/distance was found to be positively correlated with a number of indexes of strain: systolic and diastolic blood pressure, self-reports of nervousness and tension (Stokols, Novaco, & Campbell 1978), reduced task performance (Schaeffer et al., 1988; Tainsh, 1973, as cited in Kluger, 1998), negative moods in the evening hours at home (Novaco & Sandeen, 1992), and self-reports of the following symptoms: stiff neck, tiredness, lower back pain, difficulty in focusing attention, tension and anger (Greller & Parsons, 1989).

Thus, negative moods which are experienced by the worker are caused by the stresses of commuting to work and may affect his or her family life. A worker who is physically exhausted from commuting to and from work, may lack the physical and emotional energy required to fulfil family roles, or may arrive late at home resulting in depressed, anxious, or hostile family members (Piotrkowski, 1979).

Furthermore, Jackson, Zedeck, and Summers (1985, cited in Matthews, Conger & Wickrama, 1996) state that the commuting distance may prevent the worker from adequately fulfilling their duties related to the family role. These could be marital
companionship, household chores, and childcare. The result for both the worker and the spouse may be negative feelings, such as anger, guilt, and loneliness. For example, Keith and Schater (1980) found in their study that working women were afraid that they would not have time to complete household tasks, and that other family members would not be able to perform as adequately as they would be able should they have had the time.

2.4.8 Work demand

Carlson and Frone (2003, as cited in Boyar, Maertz, Mosley & Carr, 2008) suggest that work-family conflict is caused by two types of inference between the home and work domains, namely, internal and external interference. Internal interference is created by self-inflicted demands, such as the preoccupation with work performance that may hinder participation or performance in the home life, and vice versa. External interference stems from a source external to the individual. For example a work-deadline may prevent or delay the individual’s participation in his/her family life.

The literature on job stress suggests that there is a reliable link between high work load or task demands and physical and mental health problems (Ganster & Schaubroek, 1991). High task demands exist when individuals perceive that there is a great amount of work to be done and that they must work harder and faster under the time pressure (Fox, Dwyer, & Ganster, 1993). The psychological outcomes of demanding work include anxiety over ability to maintain the pace of work, mental strain, and fatigue (Fox 1993; Payne & Fletcher, 1983). Similarly, Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, and Schilling (1989) found that family demands were positively related to daily distress ratings for men and women.

Both managers and subordinates experience no difference in terms of job pressure. Buck (1972) states that there are three common elements which were present or implied in the previous research materials depicting the workers’ and managers’ experience of job pressure and which constitutes the conceptual definition of job pressure. They are:
• Conflicting forces or incompatible demands. This is similar to the Coch and French (1948 as cited in Buck, 1972) formulation which defined a new equilibrium level as the resultant of the conflicting forces of task difficulty and strain avoidance on the one hand, and wanting to attain the goal of standard production and management’s push for higher productivity on the other. One form of incompatible demand includes being caught between a force and an impenetrable barrier (Lewin, 1938 as cited in Buck, 1972). An example of this would be facing a strong management demand for more production and being totally unable to accomplish this. This is similar to Baldamus (1951, as cited in Bucks, 1972) treatment of traction towards a goal resistance or blockages which hinder goal achievement. The strain accumulated from the demand at work may spill over to the home domain resulting in work-family conflict.

• At least one induced force. An ‘induced’ force or demand is one that is generated by someone, such as a supervisor or something like an assembly line which is external to the individual (e.g. extended working hours). ‘Own’ forces are those stemming from the individual’s needs (Lewin, 1951 as cited in Buck, 1972). A circumstance in which two or more forces are incompatible, but in which no induced forces are at work, is called intrapsychic conflict (Rosenzweig, 1944 as cited in Buck, 1972). An example would be the inability to avoid all the errors and accompanying penalties on the job or the inability to earn respect of supervisors.

• Both own and induced forces, recurrent or stable over time. A lack of individual control is common to these three elements (Buck, 1972). If an individual had total control over demands, he or she could permanently screen out those induced forces which conflict with his or her own. When an individual cannot control the frequency or the nature of the induced demands, that individual experiences within job pressure. Personal frustration and threat are thus conceptually related to job pressure since goals are less attainable, and an individual without control is more vulnerable to harmful influences. An example would be the penalties for rate busting, for instance, operating against the worker’s own desire and usually his family’s desire for him to earn as much as possible under the existing job design. By the same token, members of the group can serve as inducers by forcing the
individual to work harder than he wishes. Therefore the individual is pushed by others or by the mechanically paced line to work at a rate contrary to his own desires.

Assembly line workers are often referred to as the prime example of workers under pressure. If a worker does not keep up with the line there will be a reprimand. Workers on the assembly line have little opportunity for autonomy, competence, knowledge, status, or creativity. This results in a negative spillover between work and family (Farber, 1983). Brief et al., (1981 as cited in Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) confirms this by stating that some employees who work on unchallenging, routine, unimportant tasks experience high levels of strain, and perhaps a low self-esteem that in turn may produce work-family conflict.

Considerable evidence has been presented which shows that job pressures can be unpleasant for many employees. Gross and his colleagues (1958 as cited in Buck, 1972) found that individuals who perceived conflicting roles and duties as having been demanding were less satisfied with their positions. Workers who were under pressure reported that they were uninterested in their jobs and that they dreaded coming to work. Workers who felt under pressure denied that they had one of the best jobs that a person could ask for when everything was considered.

Research conducted by Yang, Chen, Choi and Zou (2000), found that family demands had a greater impact on work-family conflict in the United States than in China, whereas work demands had a greater impact on work-family conflict in China than in United States. They concluded that above differences were based mainly on the basis of the relative values placed on family in the two countries. The researchers contended that in China sacrificing family time for work is viewed as self-sacrifice for the benefit of the family or as a short-term cost incurred to gain long-term benefits, but that in the United States sacrificing family time for work was often perceived as a failure to care for significant others in one’s life.

2.4.9 Work pace or intensity

In a survey conducted amongst 2000 people on their working conditions, conducted by the European Foundation, revealed that high work intensity and the need to work
fast and meet tight deadlines is strongly linked to report health problems and absence from work due to accidents. Almost two-thirds of workers reported that they worked at a very high speed for at least a quarter of their time, and one quarter reported that they worked at high speeds all the time or most of the time. In addition, the health of almost three-quarters of these respondents is affected by their work all of the time or most of the time. A significant number experience stress and overall fatigue which caused work-family conflict (Todd, 2004).

2.4.10 The level of autonomy

Autonomy means freedom of movement, freedom to establish and execute plans for tasks accomplishment and freedom from immediate supervision. Autonomy in work was found to contribute to self-esteem. According to Gecas and Schwalbe (as cited in Schwalbe, 1985), at first glance it permits experiencing one’s self as a causal agent-albeit within a bounded sphere and so lays the basis for efficacy-based self-esteem. In other words, a sphere of autonomy allows people to feel responsible for what they do therein; hence, their competent performances can be experienced as valid sources of positive self-evaluation information. Furthermore, having autonomy and the ability to manage one’s job activities should reduce demand levels by giving the employee the freedom to handle the demands of work without as many restrictive schedules or demands (Greenhaus et al., 1987; Karasek, 1979; Parasuraman et al., 1996 as cited in Boyar, Maertz, Mosley & Carr, 2008). Autonomy can also contribute to self-esteem via the reflection appraisals of co-workers, as it is a badge of status in the workplace culture. There is a considerable amount of research showing that the amount of control employees perceive to have in their work environment can reduce the experience of work-related stress. For instance, a manager’s willingness to allow employees control over their job enables them to engage in behaviours which will reduce work-family conflict such as taking a break from work when a personal phone call needs to be made.

The autonomy results in the concept of human growth and development is captured very well by Argyris. Argyris (1957 as cited in Newell, 2002) argued that workers had become alienated because the job they were doing was not permitting them to use their capacities and skills in a mature and productive way. He argued that as one
grows up, one develops from a state of dependence to independence as well as from passivity to activity; from a narrow to broad range of behaviours; from casual interests to in-depth interests; from short to long term perspectives and from externally imposed sanctions controlling our behaviour to internal self-regulation. Argyris (1957 as cited in Newell, 2002) noted that this development was not due to a universal need structure, but rather it was a product of our socialization experiences. In this way his work differs from Abraham Maslow. Nevertheless, the outcome is that as an adult one associate’s maturity with responsibility and independence. The problem that Argyris depicted was that in many work situations people are unable to act as responsible adults. Rather, they are dependent on others and can do very little without asking permission. This constraint on independence, thwarts the learned expectation of responsibility and produces frustration and tension. This is expressed through absenteeism, apathy, defensiveness, the creation of informal groups, the demand for higher wages and withdrawal. Thus, a work stressor can produce a strain and symptoms which are negative to emotions which are carried over from the job to the family. Therefore, Argyris highlights the need to take employee satisfaction into consideration in the work environment.

2.4.11 The influences of dependents on work-family conflict

The presence of dependents has been associated with increased levels of both work-family conflict and psychological strain (Tausig & Fenwick, 2001). According to Beatty (1996) employed mothers have increased levels of work-family conflict and also have negative health outcomes, when compared with employed women without children. According to Voydanoff (1988) work-family conflict is expected to be related to heavy childrearing responsibilities. The increase in the number and decreases in ages of the children and particularly the age of the youngest child, are also generally considered to increase parental demands. A child of infant or preschool age produces the greatest parental demands but having adolescent children has also been linked with higher parental levels of work-family conflict.

Childcare has been reported to be the primary concern of working mothers with young children (Kamerman & Hayes, 1982). Low-income mothers experience the stress of feeling forced to choose between their meeting work demands and their
children’s childcare needs. If mothers engage in meeting employability expectations as per policy requirements, their caregiving of their young, may be compromised. For mothers who require assistance and who engage in paid work to try and become independent from such assistance the low wages earned do not translate into many options for care.

Most often, mothers who work for low wages have to adjust their caregiving expectations in undesirable ways, such as placing their children within inadequate daycare facilities, in the questionable care of family members or choosing to stay in unhealthy relationships because of economic benefits (Riger & Krieglstein, 2000; Weigt, 2006). The quality of the time mothers spend with their children is also compromised by their participation in low wage work (Edin & Lein, 1997; Licheter & Jayakody, 2002; Weigt, 2006). Masons (2003, as cited in Gazso, 2007) found that Canadian low-income mothers were more likely to remain attached to the labour market if they had mothers, sisters, or other individuals enabling them to meet emergency childcare needs, and if they worked in family friendly environments.

For single working mothers, the level of role strain is moderated by the degree of satisfaction with the quality of childcare as well as ones beliefs about the effects of maternal employment and non-maternal childcare on children’s development – single working mothers who are concerned that children suffer as a result of their mothers working are more likely to experience role strain than those who do not hold this belief (Greenberger & O’ Neil, 1990, cited in Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 2004).

2.4.12 Summary

The factors which are associated with stress for the assembly line worker are shift work as an occupational stressor, role conflict, job-related stressors unique to women, burnout and depression. Stress in the workplace is caused by many factors and may therefore increase the impact of work-life conflict for the individual. The factors which result in stress may be connected to job factors, working conditions, commuting to and from work, lack of resources, work demands, inability of the development of self-efficacy, the role of dependants on work-family conflict, the level
of autonomy and work-pace or intensity. The following section will explain the types of work family conflict which are experienced by females.

2.5 Work-family conflict experienced by females

In the traditional two-parent family, the father is seen as the breadwinner while the mother is seen as the nurturer and homemaker. These roles have evolved over the years with more women accepting the role of paid employment in their lives and men beginning to take on household and parenting duties (Pleck, 1993; Theunissen; Van Vuuren & Visser, 2003).

The family life course theory emphasizes the importance of an individual’s location, within the context of the family, in a socially structured status hierarchy and the corresponding social inequalities (Grzywacz, Almeida & MacDonald, 2002). For example, women are frequently found to shoulder a disproportionate amount of family and household responsibilities in contrast to men. Women are also more likely to be employed in “bad jobs” (Kalleberg, Reskin, & Hudson, 2000) which may not provide work-family benefits. Similarly, racial minorities, the poorly educated, and those with modest economic resources typically face a disproportionate amount of life stress, and they generally have fewer social resources for coping with those stresses.

Based on the assumptions around the social structural context of the family life course and previous research (Grzywacz et al., 2002) it has been hypothesized that women, blacks, those with less education, and those with the lowest level of income would report the highest levels of negative spill-over between work and family, the greatest prevalence of co-occurring work and family stress, and the lowest level of positive spill-over between work and family.

Researchers (Roy, Tubbs, & Burton, 2004) confirm the above stating that it is emerging in literature, that there is an awareness that low-income mothers find it difficult not to make use of assistance through paid work experience as well as trying to fulfil their job as well as their family responsibilities. Balancing work and family, then, is difficult under most circumstances but probably more challenging for low-income mothers who must achieve a balance under severe resources and time constraints.
Many studies conclude that work-family overload does, in fact, lead to psychological distress. It is argued that one’s time and energy is exhausted by multiple role involvement. This, along with increases in the probability of conflicting role obligations, is said to lead to role strain and diminished psychological well-being (Coverman, 1989). Perarlin (1975) reports that “housework overload” increases the likelihood of depression in employed wives. Coverman (1989) found that role conflict exerts a negative effect on life satisfaction. Cleary and Mechanic (1983) conclude that the positive relationship between children and depression amongst employed women is partially due to the time and work demands of conflicting roles.

Research has identified numerous negative attitudes that have been associated with work-family conflict. To begin with, job dissatisfaction has been found to be related to work family conflict (Burke, 1996; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Moreover, other studies have found relationships between work-family conflict and anxiety, burnout, lower organizational commitment and work stress. Furthermore, many researchers have examined spillover effects of work-family demands. They have found that negative attitudes in either domain have been transferred to the other domain. For example, several studies have found negative relationships between work-family conflict and life satisfaction (Aryee, 1992; Bedeian et al., 1988; Parasuraman et al., 1992; Rice et al., 1992 as cited in Burke, 1996). Such spillover has a negative effect on mothers that is also carried over to their children.

2.5.1 Mother employment and marital quality

According to Greenstein (1995) there are several different kinds of effects of wives’ paid employment on marital stability. One school of thought holds that there is something inherent in the employment of married women that serves to destabilize the marriage, for example, by upsetting traditional marriage norms or by decreasing the husband's marital satisfaction. Another line of reasoning argues that the employment of married women and the expectation of continuing employment outside of marriage serves to make divorce more attractive. This viewpoint posits the employment of wives as a facilitating factor in divorce, not actually producing marital conflict but making divorce more likely for those couples for whom conflict already exists.
The so called "absence effect" argues that employment outside the home takes the wife away from traditional homemaking responsibilities, with possible effects of increasing stress and conflict within the marriage (Greenstein, 1995). These arguments suggest that a negative association exists between mothers' work and marital quality, particularly when the time demands associated with both work and family roles are high. An example of this would be when mothers work full-time and there are more children in the household. Previous research provides evidence that the time shortages created by the employment of married mothers have negative effects on the marital relationship. When wives work more hours per week, it affects marital quality by decreasing a couples' time together, increasing feelings of role conflict and overload amongst wives (Voydanoff, 1988, 1989). It further raises wives’ awareness of inequity in the household division of labour (Booth et al., 1984; Hochschild, 1989; Spitze & South, 1985 as cited in Rogers, 1996). Duxbury and Higgins (2005) reported that four out of ten workers claim that the demands of work often negatively influence the hours which are spent with a spouse or partner and with their children. One may therefore conclude that many females find it difficult to keep a job, spend time with their spouse and have time for their children and home.

2.5.2 Financial Problems

It is a well known fact the assembly line workers receive poor salaries and inadequate fringe benefits (Greenstein, 1995). Single mothers or mothers that are the breadwinners find it difficult to provide in all the financial needs of their families. These women are forced to work more shifts and longer hours to provide an additional income to their families. They are also away from their families, for longer with the subsequent negative impact on their marriage partners and families. Many of these women may experience depression and anxiety about their own future and they may feel afraid that they may not be able to support themselves or their families.

2.5.3 Summary

One can conclude that low-income earning mothers find it difficult to balance all their roles and this could lead to much mental distress and therefore dissatisfaction with ones job. Many low-income female workers have few options when it comes to
finding a job and therefore prefer jobs which are not wanted by males and which are regarded as female work. These groupings of women are not educated as to what their rights are and what their options are with regard to alleviating work-family conflict.

Some forms of techniques to reduce work-family conflict are discussed in the next section.

2.6 Reducing work-family conflict

Organisations can play a role to reduce work-family conflict. There are techniques which can be followed in order to reduce work-family conflict and these will be discussed in the following sections.

2.6.1 Reduced work hours

Reduced work hours have been linked to increased mental health. Hyde, Klien, Essex and Clark (1995) showed that a combination of short maternity leave and marital concerns increased depression in women, while the combination of short maternity leave and low levels of job rewards resulted in increased anger in women. Longer time off work postpartum, in combination with other factors, served to decrease depression and anger. Similarly, full-time employment has been linked to increased anxiety levels in mothers. Homemakers and mothers working part-time displayed lower levels of anxiety than mothers who were employed full-time and consequently experiencing less work-family conflict (Glass & Estes, 1997). In conclusion it seems that reduced working hours for women can reduce work-family conflict due to more time that is available to attend to family matters.

2.6.2 Schedule flexibility

The negative influences of inflexible work arrangements on work-family life have been discussed in section 2.3.7. This section highlights the advantages of flexible work schedules. Some research has failed to find a link between formal flexitime policies and reduced work/family conflict (Shinn, Wong, Simko & Torres, 1989), whilst other research shows an association between flexitime and individuals and their family outcomes. In a study of flexitime (of whom 99% were mothers), it was linked
to decreased work-family conflict, decreased depression, fewer somatic complaints, and lower blood cholesterol (Thomas & Ganster 1995). Other studies reveal that flexitime policies can increase time spent with family (Winnet, Neale & Williams, 1982) and time spent on family needs. Flexitime has also been linked to decreases in employee perception of work/family conflict, although it appears to have the least beneficial effects for the employed women with a husband and children. A decrease in work-family conflict due to flexitime policies are more enhanced for those employees without primary childcare responsibilities (Glass & Estes, 1997).

2.6.3 Enhanced job satisfaction

According to Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2006), an employee’s satisfaction might be defined as the difference between the amount of some valued outcome a person receives and the amount of that outcome the person thinks he or she should receive. Thus, an employee becomes dissatisfied when things are not the way they should be. Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction depends on pay and benefits, supervision, co-workers, work and the organisation in general. In a study of internal auditors, feedback was found to be both high in importance and the first most dissatisfying part of the job.

Human resources management practices can influence the perceptions of work-family conflict. Economic incentives and social benefits, an example being child-care centres, can be used to recruit, and motivate and retain the most valued employees, increasing job satisfaction and reducing the pressure to balance work and family life (Lambert, 1999).

Job satisfaction has been well established as having a negative relationship with work-family conflict (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). In their meta-analysis, Kossek and Ozeki (1998) reported significant negative relationships between job satisfaction and general bi-directional measures of work-family conflict. They concluded that the relationship between work and family conflict and job-satisfaction was “strong and negative” across all samples. “People with high levels of conflict tend to be less satisfied with their jobs”. Consequently, employees registering higher levels of conflict originating from the home or office will be more likely to have lower levels of job satisfaction. In
essence it seems that an improvement of job satisfaction can also improve work-family relations via a reduced spillover effect.

2.6.4 Increasing employees’ organisational based self-esteem

It seems that a higher self-esteem reduces work-family conflict. Organisational based self-esteem (OBSE) refers to the degree to which members of an organisation believe that they can satisfy their needs by participating in roles within the organisation (Pierce & Gardener, 2004; Pierce, Gardener, Cummings, & Dunham, 1986 as cited in Mauno, Kinnunen & Ruokolainen, 2006). High OBSE employees perceive themselves as valuable, meaningful, effectual, and worthy in their organisations. Accordingly, OBSE confounds a context-specific definition of self-esteem, according to which an employee has a positive perception of his or her value and worth as a member of the organisation. Current research has shown that high OBSE can be an important personal resource to work. This one may be likely to foster positive job attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In addition, it has been found that high OBSE correlates positively with low levels of depression, frustration, and physical strain (Jex & Elacqua, 1999; Tang & Ibrahim, 1998 as cited in Mauno, Kinnunen & Ruokolainen, 2006), thereby promoting the employee’s well-being. Women with high self-esteem are more likely to handle obligations required by various roles; examples being, ones’ spouse, parent and worker, thus reducing work-family conflict. Workers who have substantively complex jobs are more likely to have low levels of depression and high levels of self-confidence and self-esteem, and to be involved in and committed to their job (Kohn, 1969, 1980, 1981; Kohn & Schooler, 1982 as cited in Mauno, Kinnunen & Ruokolainen, 2006). Menaghan and Parcel (1991) found that adverse maternal work conditions were related to less acceptance and warmth by mothers toward their children. In addition, negative work conditions were associated with lower levels of self-esteem as well as a weaker internal locus of control in mothers, which were also related to higher levels of rejecting behaviours by them. MacEwen and Barling (1991) found that a mother’s negative employment experiences resulted in cognitive difficulties, negative mood, and lower self-esteem and this led to higher chances of mothers of rejecting their children and punitive parenting behaviours.
2.6.5 Development of Self-Efficacy.

Self-efficacy can be defined as a person’s belief about his or her ability and capacity to accomplish a task or to deal with the challenges of life (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy is, according to Bandura (1982), one of the most popular self-regulatory processes. When one’s self-efficacy is high it means that one is confident to control difficult situations. Someone with a high self-efficacy is expected to control work-family conflict more effectively. Some researchers suggest that self-efficacy can be developed among individuals who experience a low level thereof. Such development techniques are discussed in this section.

Bandura (1982) identified four information cues that influence self-efficacy. From most to least influential, they are enactive mastery, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional (physiological) arousal. These cues provide important data, but according to Bandura it is the cognitive appraisal and integration of these data that ultimately determine self-efficacy. First, enactive mastery, defined as repeated performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1982), has been shown to enhance self-efficacy more than the other kinds of cues. Mastery is facilitated when gradual accomplishments build the skills, coping abilities, and exposure needed for task performance. Although enactive mastery is a powerful enhancer of self-efficacy, in some circumstances, possibly because of fear or incapacity, individuals may not expose themselves to opportunities for enactive mastery. Further, while positive mastery experiences increase self-efficacy, negative ones (failures) tend to decrease self-efficacy.

Second, when enactive mastery is not possible, vicarious experience (modelling) may be beneficial, although slightly less influential (Bandura, 1977). Modelling is more effective when the models succeed after overcoming difficulty than when they exhibit initially facile performances (Bandura, Adams, Hardy, & Howells, 1980; Kazdin, 1974 as cited in Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Its effects are also enhanced when the modelled behaviour produces clear results or consequences and when there is a similarity between the subject and the model in terms of age, capability, and other personal characteristics (Bandura, 1977). Self-modelling is a special type of vicarious
experience often involving videotaped feedback in which the subject's mistakes are edited out or corrected so that the individual sees himself or herself performing the task correctly. In one study, Gonzales and Dowrick (1982) confirmed that self-modelling led to improved performance by enhancing self-beliefs.

The significance of self-efficacy in predicting performance on work-related tasks has been demonstrated clearly by the studies cited previously. An important implication for researchers and practitioners is that an increase in positive beliefs or a reduction of debilitating beliefs may lead to increased self-esteem and higher task performance (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Self-esteem has also been related to job satisfaction as mentioned earlier. A number of studies confirm that high self-esteem individuals are more satisfied with their jobs than low self-esteem individuals (Robbins, 2006). Job satisfaction has been well established as having a negative relationship with work-family conflict.

According to Gist (1987) those with moderate to high self-efficacy tend to engage more frequently in task-related activities and persist longer in coping efforts; this leads to more mastery experiences, which in turn enhance self-efficacy. Those with low self-efficacy tend to engage in fewer coping efforts; they give up more easily under adversity and evidence less mastery, which in turn reinforces their low self-efficacy. Those who persist tend to gain the corrective experiences which enhance self-efficacy; those who cease prematurely tend to retain persistent low self-efficacy.

Job self-efficacy which stems from the definition self-efficacy can be defined as an employee’s view of his or her capacity to conduct the overall job well (Tierney & Farmer, 2002). Bandura (1986) postulated that an individual’s sense of self-efficacy operates to reduce perceptions of and reactions to stress. Therefore, it seems reasonable that the more a woman feels able to successfully handle the demands entailed in her life roles, the less is her experience of role conflict and overload. Khan and Long (1988) found that female clerical workers with greater self-efficacy reported more effective job performance. Matsui and Onglatco (1992) also obtained results with female participants indicating a significant negative relationship between self-efficacy and a vocational strain.
Previous research conducted by Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper and O’Brien (2001) on work-family conflict found that the relationship of organisational support to work-family conflict was mediated by job self-efficacy. This finding suggests that a women’s perception as to whether she works for a supportive organisation or not, may enhance her feelings of competency and effectiveness in her job. These feelings may in turn, reduce the conflict between work and family roles. He further states that a female who works for an employer who seems to care about her satisfaction, appreciates her contributions, and considers her opinions and therefore may enhance the women’s sense of competency and productivity in her job. This increased self-efficacy is associated with reduced role conflict.

2.6.6 Enhancing social support in work-family conflict

Working women who have children and families tend to have higher levels of stress. Career and family roles may conflict and the working mother who may have difficulty dividing up her time within each role. Many women work “the second shift”, which refers to the additional time they spent working in the home doing household chores and caring for their children. This work-family conflict can be problematic and stressful for a working woman if she does not have adequate support (House, 1981). If social support can be enhanced work-family conflict would decrease.

According to Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1994) social support can enhance well-being in at least three ways. The first way to this is by ensuring that a health sustaining function of social support reflects the direct effect of social support on ones’ well-being. The second is a stress prevention function which reflects a direct effect of social support on the stressor and thus reducing them. The third is a buffering function which reflects a moderating effort of social support on the stress and well-being of relationships. Social support buffers or protects individuals from severe consequences of stress, presumably through enhanced cognitive or behavioural coping abilities. The role of social support on work-family conflict contributes to how one can cope with stress and vice versa.
2.6.7 Creating workplace support for women

It appears that work-family conflict could be reduced by creating some forms of workplace support for women. The existence of discrimination, sexual harassment, and the glass ceiling effect are factors which indicate an underlying lack of institutional support for women. An absence of support for women is further evidenced by the scarcity of family-friendly initiatives, ranging from childcare assistance and leave for the caretaking of sick family members, to job relocation for both members of dual career families (Cowan, 1989). Some provisions have been developed, such as flexitime and flexplace programs which are not widespread and appear to ease the burden of work-family conflict for women with major family responsibilities (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1986).

In terms of access to workplace support on an interpersonal level, women have an apparent disadvantage when compared to men. Several studies have demonstrated that workplace support has been more effective in limiting work-related stress for men than for women (Baruch, Biener & Barnett, 1987; Etzion, 1984). Geller and Hobfoll (1994) examined gender differences in the amount and effectiveness of interpersonal work support. Despite the fact that the men and women in this study reported receiving similar amounts of support from their co-workers and supervisors, men benefited more from these support sources. It is possible that men benefit more from their work relationships because they interact with their colleagues on a more informal level, which House (1981) suggests may be the most effective means to prevent work stress and its negative consequences. Due to the fact that individualistic characteristics are so highly valued in the workplace, and as they are inclined towards this individualistic orientation, support may be provided more genuinely amongst men and may be more effective since it can involve mutual exchange and spontaneous acts, rather than role-required behaviour. Some of the negative factors of women’s limited access to effective, interpersonal work support which includes social isolation, difficulty finding mentors, and decreased status in the workplace (Bhatnagar, 1988).
2.6.8 Improving Perceived Organisational support

If women’s perception about their organisation’s support is positive it would reduce work-family conflict. Perceived Organizational Support (POS) refers to an employees’ perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution and cares about their well being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986). POS has been found to have important consequences for employee performance and well-being. Research on perceived organizational support (POS) began with the observation that if managers are concerned with their employees’ commitment to the organization, employees are focused on the organization’s commitment to them (Eisenberger et al., 1986). For employees, the organization serves as an important source of socio-emotional resources, such as respect and caring, and tangible benefits, such as wages and medical benefits. If the employees are regarded highly by the organization, it helps to meet employees’ needs for approval, self-esteem and affiliation. Positive evaluation by the organization also provides an indication that increased effort will be noted and rewarded. Employees therefore take an active interest with regard to how they are seen by their employer.

Organisational support theory which is based on social exchange theory, argues that employees form attitudes about the organisation based on its support in rewarding quality work and meeting their socioeconomic needs (Eisenberger et al., 1986 as cited in Dixon & Sagas, 2006). Actions by organisational agents, such as supervisors or key decision-making personnel, are viewed as the actions of the organisation. “Employees view their favourable or unfavourable treatments as an indication as to whether the organisation favours or disfavours them” (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002.p. 698 as cited in Dixon & Sagas, 2006).

Organisational support consists of two facets, both critical to the global perception, yet empirically indistinguishable (Fields, 2002). They are the extent to which the organisation values one’s contributions and the extent to which the organisation cares about ones’ well-being (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001). The employee, in developing a perception of organisational support, takes into account a variety of situations. An example of such a situation is the organisation’s
response to illnesses, family needs, mistakes, and superior performance. The
employee also considers the organisation’s willingness to pay a fair wage, offer
competitive benefits, provide information about access to those benefits, and reward
efforts towards organisational goals (Eisenberger, Stinhamber, Vandenberghe,
Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). The more the organisation is seen as supportive, the
more willing employees are to develop an attachment to it and increase their efforts
towards it (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001).

In addition to above recent evidence has suggested that supportive organisational
cultures are necessary for decreasing work-family conflict. A supportive
organisational culture opens the door for employees to use available benefits and
reduces perceptions of negative repercussions for taking advantage of these options
(Allen, 2001). A national study of about 3000 employees found that individuals
reported less conflict and stress and developed better coping strategies when their
supervisors and workplaces cultures were supportive (Dixon & Sagas 2006).

At the organisational level, on-site childcare referrals, and family leave are examples
of organisational policies and structures that assist employees in balancing work and
family needs (Bailyn, 1997; Caudron, 1997; Clark, 2001; Dixon & Bruening, 2005).
In addition to these aforementioned policies, several scholars have argued that a
supportive organisational culture is critical to reducing any work-family conflict and
thereby this increases both job and family satisfaction (Allen, 2001; Byron, 2005;
Clark, 2001; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998; Thompson et al., 1999 as cited in Dixon &
Sagas, 2006).

2.6.9 Organisation’s speedy attention to employee’s complaints

Many organisations that are slow, or fail to respond to sexual harassment complaints
is particularly puzzling in light of the well-publicized damage that occurs once
harassment cases become public (Peirce, Smolinski & Rosen, 1993). Organisations
should be more sympathetic by dealing with complaints speedily. Continuous
sluggishness to address employee complaints has negative effects on both the
organisation and employee’s family.
Monetary awards to victims represent only a fraction of the total organisational costs for failing to deal rapidly and effectively with sexual harassment. In a 1988 survey of 160 Fortune 500 companies who were reported as having failed to report these cases found that a company with 23,750 employees would lose on average $6.7 million per year in decreased productivity, increased rates of absenteeism, and higher staff turnover attributable to sexual harassment due to the fact that they do not listen to their employees complaints. More subtle and troubling costs of sexual harassment include the psychological and physiological harm to victims and their co-workers. Researchers have shown that victims often experience depression, frustration, nervousness and decreased self-esteem, as well as fatigue, nausea and hypertension. These symptoms in turn lead to decreased productivity, increased absenteeism and work resentment which could manifest itself as strain-based work-family conflict (Peirce, Smolinski & Rosen, 1993). Thus, the female worker that is harassed at work may take out her frustrations on the family.

While inadequate policies and procedures frustrate efforts to redress sexual harassment complaints, even organisations with relatively well-developed policies are not likely to respond effectively if their managers react defensively or rationalize away chargers of sexual harassment. The case examples cited by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) attorneys illustrate a number of reactions which contributes to organisational inaction in addressing reports of sexual harassment. Many managers denying the claims and instead blame the victim; try to minimise the seriousness of the offense; protect a valued employee; ignore a chronic harasser or with retaliate against the victim (Peirce, Smolinski & Rosen, 1993).

Sexual harassment procedures are both formal and informal (Fisher, 1993 as cited in Burke, 1996). Informal procedures try to solve a problem whereas formal procedures typically attempt to decide on the guilt or innocence of the alleged harasser. Because women typically lack power, using a formal procedure may be seen as risky and they may prefer to use informal procedures. Within the informal procedures offenders suffer few negative consequences for their actions and victims may have little to gain from complaining. Other obstacles to reporting sexual harassment complaints include the belief by many men and some women that sexual harassment is routine,
commonplace, and not to be challenged. There is very little satisfaction for the victim who files complaints whilst the emotional consequences of harassment are serious.

Therefore it could be expected that if the employer and managers take a proactive approach to dealing with sexual harassment in the workplace, anti-harassment policies should be included in employee training and orientation programmes. These policy statements should include the purpose, the legal definition and guidelines, employee and management responsibilities, implementation procedure, grievance procedure, a non-retaliation statement and disciplinary measures for employees and non-employees. It is crucial that all employees are familiar with these policies and aware of what constitutes unacceptable behaviour, in addition to the disciplinary action that any such behaviour may warrant (Kane-Urrabazo, 2007).

Managers must take all claims of sexual harassment and hostile workplace environments seriously. They must not be dismissed as frivolous; all must be investigated in a timely manner. The investigator(s) need to be unbiased and impartial throughout the process. Respect must be given to all parties involved, such as the alleged victim, the alleged harasser and witnesses if any exist. According to Kane-Urrabazo (2007) it is also recommended that efforts be made by the employer to provide access to counselling for the victim. It has been found that sexual harassment has the potential to affect the victim both physically and mentally.

2.6.10 Supervisor support

Supportive supervisors play a key role in the implementation of family supportive policies. Supervisors embody and reflect the organisational culture (Powell & Mainiero 1999; Scandura & Lankau, 1997 as cited in Yildirim & Aycan, 2007). Research has shown that employees who receive social support from supervisors report less work-family conflict (Frone, Yardley & Markle, 1997; Thomas and Ganster, 1995).

Supportive supervisors work with employees who are struggling to integrate their work and their family responsibilities. According to Regan (1994) supervisor support acts as a catalyst in helping employees who have to balance multiple roles both at
work and at home, thereby promoting work-family equilibrium. Examples of managers supportive behaviours may include allowing employees to bring their child to the workplace, allowing the employee to take one’s phone calls from home, a willingness to adjust employee’s schedules to meet changes in the school demands, and permitting employees to take time off early to send their elders to care (Thomas & Ganster 1995, Carlson & Perrewé 1999, Erdwin, et al. 2001 as cited in Nasurdin & Hsia, 2008).

2.6.11 Motivation through positive appraisal

Employees including females expect that their performances will correlate with their rewards received from the organisation. Employees set expectations about rewards and compensation to be received if certain levels of performance are achieved. These expectations determine goals or levels of performance for the future. Employees achieving the desired levels of performance expect a certain level of compensation. At some point, management evaluates and rewards the employee’s performance and examples of such rewards include merit increases, promotions and intrinsic rewards such as goal accomplishment and increased self-esteem. Employees consider the relationship between their performance and rewards as related to that performance and then the fairness of that relationship. The final step in the process involves employees setting new goals and expectations based on prior experience within the organisation (Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2006).

In addition, performance appraisal can be linked to rewards that are regarded as extrinsic motivation. If employees see that hard work and superior performance is recognised and rewarded by the organisation, they will set higher levels of performance, expecting higher levels of compensation. If employees see little relationship between performance and rewards, then they may set minimum goals in order to retain their jobs but will not see the need to excel (Grobler et al., 2006)

To safeguard this relationship of performance and motivation which benefits the organisation and the employee, the organisation must provide the following (Grobler et al., 2006):
• An accurate evaluation. Management must develop an accurate performance appraisal system in order to identify those employees who are outstanding, average and poor performers.

• Performance rewards. Management should identify which rewards relate to which performance levels and tell employees that pay, increased benefits, change in hours or working conditions or recognition will be directly related to high performance.

• Supervisor feedback. The supervisor must give complete and accurate feedback to the employee when appraising their performance. Employees must be told which areas they are performing well in as well as in which performance areas there is a need for improvement.

In a study conducted by Karatepe and Tekinkus (2006), it was found that intrinsic motivation exerted a significant negative impact on emotional exhaustion. Intrinsic motivation is a process of arousal and satisfaction in which the rewards come from carrying out an activity rather than from a result of the activity. Intrinsic rewards may include goal accomplishment and increased self-esteem. Extrinsic motivation refers to motivation that comes from outside an individual. The motivating factors are external or outside rewards such as money. Results demonstrated that high levels of intrinsic motivation resulted in high levels of performance, and affective commitment to the organisation. Swartzberg and Dytell (1996 as cited in Karatepe & Tekinkus, 2006), noted that organisational commitment relates to social exchange theory, where the organisation expects the employees’ commitment in return for a range of benefits and support. This provides an avenue where conflict might negatively relate to commitment. For example, when the employees’ conflict levels increase from the home or office, they might perceive the organisation as failing to provide adequate benefits and support, whether to the workplace or home, and thus react to reduce commitment. As such an employee experiencing greater work-family conflict might feel organisational resources are inadequate to deal with work issues intruding into the home. An organisation should therefore try to communicate with its employees to
ensure that this does not happen and if employees are motivated the spillover effect to families would be limited.

2.6.12 Summary

Employees’ families suffer due to the irregular hours being worked. This then results in much dissatisfaction and a great deal of stress for the shift worker who would like to perform well in all his or her roles but cannot as it is not achievable. The employee is more likely to become frustrated with his or her job due to the added effects of shift work on the work-family conflict phenomenon.

Female workers who work for organisations which have family friendly policies in place are mentally happier as they are better able to balance their various roles and are less likely to suffer from burnout. These employees are also more likely to be satisfied with their jobs and may therefore have a high level of job self-efficacy. Organisations should provide support for their female workers such as supervisor support, listening to their employees when they issue a grievance and putting structures in place which will support the worker with regard to work-family conflict. This will ensure that female employees are more satisfied and that they are better able to balance their various roles.

2.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

One may therefore conclude that stress is a result of work-family conflict which leads to employees feeling irritable with their family and the result is conflict within the home. Many females who are assembly line workers feel that they are neglecting the upbringing of their children by working shifts. Their families suffer as a result of the irregular hours being worked and this results in much dissatisfaction and therefore a great deal of stress for the shift worker who would like to perform well in all his or her roles but cannot as it is impossible. He or she is more likely to become dissatisfied with his or her job due to the added effects of shift work to the work-family conflict phenomenon.

The factors which result in inducing or reducing stress may be connected to factors such as job factors, working conditions, commuting to and from work, resources,
work demands, the role of dependants on work-family conflict, the level of autonomy and work-pace or intensity. The positive role of social support on work-family conflict contributes to how the employee copes with stress and may improve work-family relationships.

Employees with far too many roles may feel that they are unable to manage all of their roles simultaneously. Reducing the overlap between roles could be more conducive to positive work-family conflict.

Theories of work-family conflict are segmentation theory, compensation theory, spillover effect theory, identity theory, the theory of role balance and the effort recovery model. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and expectancy theory are theories that indirectly explain how work-family conflict occurs as well as its outcomes. Compensation theory postulates that there is an inverse relationship between work and family such that work and non-work experiences tend to be antithetical. Individuals make differential investments of themselves in the two settings and make up in one for what is missing in the other (Staines, 1980). Segmentation theory postulates that work space and hyphen-family environments are distinct and that an individual can function successfully in one without any influence on the other. The spillover effect postulates that people who are enthusiastic and committed in one role will carry over the same enthusiasm to the other role. Identity theory states that a female employee’s primary role is to care for her family and this may conflict with her role as an employee. The theory of role balance explains that an imbalance would be if one gave up a job promotion in order to spend more time with ones family and the person may feel that they lost out due to this promotion. The effort-recovery model illustrates that if far too much effort is put into ones job there may be a perceived level of conflict between the job and the family and vice-versa. Within expectancy theory employees may not feel that how much they perform affects how they will be rewarded and if they are rewarded whether they will value these rewards. The way females value their rewards may be a frustration if it is negatively regarded. Such frustrations eventually flow over to the family life.
Female workers who work for organisations which have family friendly policies in place are able to better balance their various roles, are mentally happier, are less likely to suffer from burnout, have self-efficacy and are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs and may therefore have a high level of job self-efficacy.

The researcher is therefore of the opinion that organisations which provide support to ensure that female employees are able to balance their various roles between home and job and therefore perform their job more efficiently and effectively. Organisations should provide low-income earning females with an education on how they may access benefits. This will prevent work-family conflict and inform them of their rights within the workplace, within the home, and how they may be able to handle various work-family conflicts.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will provide an overview and description of the research design and methodology employed in the study. An explanation of the participants and sampling methods which have been used will be followed by a brief discussion on the measuring instruments which have been utilised in this study. Ultimately, the research procedure and ethics will be discussed and thereafter the methods of data analysis will be explained. This chapter will be concluded with a summary. The following section proposes the design for the empirical research.

3.2 Research design

This section discusses the design implementation in the study. This research is of non-experimental, exploratory and quantitative nature. A survey was conducted to collect the empirical data. Exploratory research is done to explore relatively unknown areas in order to gain new insight and understanding into a phenomenon. The researcher wants to gain knowledge or insight into the phenomenon and feels that not enough knowledge is available on the subject (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997).

3.3 Participants and sampling

3.3.1 Participants

The population sample for this research study involves two organisations. A sample of 84 female assembly line workers who are employed by a motor manufacturing plant in Kwa-Duguza, Natal and 60 participants from a pharmaceutical company in the Nelson Mandela Metropole where the study was conducted. The researcher is aware that the sample size can impact on the statistical test by making it either insensitive (due to small sized samples) or overly sensitive (due to larger sized samples). A sample size of 144 was derived by using a table offered by Stoker, (1985) as cited in De Vos et al. (2005). He provides an indication of what the size of the sample should be. The inclusion criteria for the present study are as follows:
a) 144 female participants,

b) Participants between the ages 18 – 45. Most women with dependent children from the age of 18 go out to work for financial reasons, that is, to augment family income. Also the basic factor inhibiting a women’s entry into the formal labour force is their low educational background,

c) Participants from any racial background,

d) Participants working on the assembly line in the motor industry and pharmaceutical industry. An assembly line can be defined as an arrangement of workers, machines, and equipment in which the product being assembled passes consecutively from operation to operation until completed (Business Dictionary, 2000),

e) Females employed on a full time basis,

f) Marital status single and married. Many studies indicate that married employees may have a stronger situation of conflict than unmarried employees would have (Herman and Gyllstrom, 1977 as cited in Carnicer and Sanchez and Perze, 2004),

g) Females with children. Research has shown that employees with children living at home reported greater work-family conflict than those without children (Bohen and Viveros; Long, 1981; Bedean et al., 1988 as cited in Carnicer and Sanchez and Perze, 2004).

3.3.2 Sampling

The sampling approach which has been used in this study is the non-probability purposive sampling method. Individuals form the unit of analysis.

According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2005), the odds of selecting a particular individual, in non-probability sampling are not known because the researcher does not know the population size or the members of the population. Non-probability sampling is economical and it involves participants who are the most accessible. Purposive sampling is based entirely on the judgment of the researcher. The most characteristic, representative or typical attributes of the population are utilized to create a sample (De Vos et al., 2005).
According to Sanrantakos (2005), sampling has various advantages. Firstly samples are a necessity as in many cases a complete coverage of the population is not possible. Secondly, samples permit effectiveness and it is argued that sampling provides a better option since it addresses the survey population in a short period of time and produces comparable and equally valid results. Thirdly, samples ensure economy of time and labour as samples take less time and are less demanding in terms of labour requirements, since it covers only a small proportion of the target population. Lastly, samples are more detailed in information and are thought to offer a high degree of accuracy because they deal with relatively small number of units. The appropriate instruments are discussed in the next section.

3.4 Measuring instruments

This section discusses the measuring instruments which are applied in this study. The self-administered questionnaires are in paper-and-pencil format. In the case of self-administered questionnaires, the questionnaire is handed to the respondent, who completes it on his own, but the researcher is available in case any problems may be experienced. The researcher limits his own contribution to the completion of the questionnaires to an absolute minimum. The researcher thus largely remains in the background and can at most encourage the respondents with a few words to continue with his contributions, or lead him back to the subject.

The answers are limited to those questions set in the questionnaire, and no other ideas, propositions or alternative answers are allowed. According to De Vos et al. (2005), the researcher should always use a standardised questionnaire as their first choice. The research instrument was comprised of six parts measuring study variables.

The instrument has six sections which will be divided as follows:

3.4.1 Part 1: General information
This section includes all general instructions which accompany the questionnaire with regard to the completion. The participants were requested to read the instructions carefully and to answer all the questions as accurately as possible.
3.4.2 Part II: Biographical information
The second section deals with the participant’s biographical details, which has been developed in order to gain information on significant variables, such as the age of participants, marital status and number of children of the participant’s. The questionnaire has been phrased in a manner which is easily understood by all participants. See annexure A.

3.4.3 Part III: Work-to-family conflict scale
The seventeen-item scale which was developed by Higgins and Duxbury (1992) has been used in this study. The response scale was a 5-point Likert scale where “5” represents “always” and “1” represents “never”. The scale demonstrates more than the adequate reliability when evaluated using Nunnally’s (1978) criterion (as discussed in section 3.4.7).

3.4.3.1 Administration and interpretation
The paper-and-pencil questionnaire is in a statement and self-administered format (Higgins & Duxbury, 1992).

The respondent is expected to circle the degree to which work-family conflict is experienced. The questionnaire can be administered in groups or individually. High responses mean that individuals frequently experience work-family conflict. Reliability and validity of the sub-scale are discussed in section 3.4.7.

3.4.3.2 Rationale and motivation for using scale
The above questionnaire measures work-family conflict and it is a cheap instrument for collection of data. The work-family conflict questionnaire gives a quantified summary of the individual female’s direct experience of work-family conflict.

3.4.4 Part IV: Work Demands scale
This construct was assessed with eight questions originally developed from a Dutch scale developed and validated by Van Veldhoven and Meijam (1994). Responses of each item were rated on a “5-point” Likert scale ranging from “1” which indicates “never” to “5” which indicates “always”.
3.4.4.1 Administration and interpretation
The work-demands questionnaire is a paper-and-pencil instrument (Van Veldhoven & Meijam, 1994). High responses mean that the individuals frequently experience great amount of work pressure.

3.4.4.2 Rationale and motivation for using scale
Job demands are a multifaceted construct consisting of quantitative and qualitative role obligations. The above scale exclusively concentrates on the quantitative job demands. The above scale measures the degree to which employees are required to work fast and hard and have much work to do in a short time, or permanently have a great deal of work to do (Ganster & Fusilier; Karasek, 1979; Katz & Kahn, 1966; Rabinowitz & Stumpf, 1987). Reliability and validity of this sub-scale are discussed in section 3.4.7.

3.4.5 Part V: Perceived Organisational Support scale
This construct was assessed by means of eight items developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986). Responses to each item were on a “5-point” scale, ranging from “1” which indicates “strongly disagree” to “5” which indicates “strongly agree”. The scale is uni-dimensional and has a high internal consistency.

3.4.5.1 Administration and interpretation
The perceived organisational support questionnaire is a paper-and-pencil instrument (Eisenberger et al. 1986). High responses mean that individuals perceive that the organisation is supportive.

3.4.5.2 Rationale and motivation for using scale
The Perceived Organisational Support scale measures the organisations appreciation of employee’s contributions and would they be treated favourably or unfavourably in differing circumstances. Reliability and validity of this sub-scale are discussed in section 3.4.7.
3.4.6 Part VI: Job self-efficacy scale

Eight items developed by Jones (1986) were used to measure this construct. The self-efficacy scale was scored on a “5-point” Likert-scale ranging from “1” which indicates “strongly disagree” to “5” which indicates “strongly agree”.

3.4.6.1 Administration and interpretation

The job-self-efficacy questionnaire is a paper-and-pencil instrument (Jones, 1986). High responses mean that individuals believe in their capacity to conduct the overall job successfully.

3.4.6.2 Rationale and motivation for using scale

Following Bandura (1997, 1978), self-efficacy was measured in terms of the people’s expectations that “they can successfully execute the behaviour required to produce the outcome” which is, in this case, mastery role and organisational requirements. Reliability and validity of this sub-scale are discussed in section 3.4.7.

3.4.7 Validity and reliability

According to Babbie (2004), validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure. The above measures have been shown to be psychometrically sound. The developers of the scales report high correlations between scales and the constructs they measure. A high construct validity is therefore demonstrated.

Reliability refers in general to the extent to which independent administration of the same instrument (or highly similar instruments) consistently yields the same (or similar) results under comparable conditions. Reliability is primarily concerned not with what is being measured, but with how well it is being measured (De Vos et al, 2005). De Vos et al. (2005) states that Cronbach’s coefficient alpha, is a measure of internal reliability. For the work-family conflict sub-scale, the Cronbach’s coefficient alpha values range from 0.88 to 0.89 (Higgins & Duxbury, 1992). The work-demands scale the Cronbach’s alpha of the summation scale was 0.79 (Van Veldhoven & Meijam, 1994). The perceived organisational support the coefficient alpha values range from 0.74 to 0.95 (Eisenberger et al., 1986), and for job self-efficacy the
Coefficient alpha is 0.71 (Jones, 1986). These values indicate good internal consistency of the 4 scales.

3.5 Research procedure

Upon receiving approval from the Ethics committee at NMMU for the commencement of the study, the researcher approached various large organisations in Kwa-Duguza, Natal and Nelson Mandela Metropole, Eastern Cape South Africa, where the researcher obtained participants for the study. Permission for the study was also obtained from the Human Resources division of the institution where the study was conducted. Data are collected from female assembly line workers and female workers in a pharmaceutical company who are gathered in a seminar room. Data collection takes place under classroom conditions. The questionnaire (see Appendix B) was then distributed to those who had consented to participate in the study. Questionnaires were completed during their lunch break in the presence of a trained research assistant who assisted with any queries. Participants were given a clear statement which indicated the aims of the process verbally. The contribution each participant could make to improve the value of the study was also communicated to participants. For ethical reasons, the participants were asked to fill in a consent form (see Appendix C). Every effort was made to avoid adding stress to the participants during the research process. The workers who were not willing to participate in the study were thanked for their time and interest in the study. The researcher reassured all participants who are involved in the research that confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained in the reporting of the research. The questionnaire was set in English, but a translator was present for those female employees whose home language was not English.

Questionnaires were collected immediately after they were completed. The next step was to check the questionnaires in order to determine their completeness. Questionnaires with far too much missing data were excluded from the research. The responses on questionnaires were coded and captured using a data base program on a computer. Data were analysed via the computer programmes already mentioned in Chapter 1. The final step was to report the results of the questionnaires and this was
done in terms of descriptive and inferential statistics. The statistical techniques which were used in the research are discussed in the next section.

### 3.6 Statistical processing of data

The statistical processing of data is presented in terms of quantitative procedures and statistical techniques. Data analysis was done at the statistical department of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth. The statistical package Statistica (2001) was used to analyse the data. Because the sample was small, appropriate statistical techniques were limited. Descriptive statistics include frequencies, means, standard deviations, and chi-square analyses as categorical data were used to summarise and convert the raw data to an understandable format. Inferential statistics are statistical techniques that make it possible to draw inferences about population parameters using sample statistics, e.g. to test claims about the population mean \( \mu \) based on the sample mean (0). The generic name for these techniques is hypothesis tests (De Vos et al, 2005). The two-way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-test was used to test the hypotheses.

- **T-tests** were used to compare means between the constructed groups on variables of interest (Terre & Durrheim, 1999).

- The **means** which are used to describe the results. The means are the sum of all squares in the distribution divided by the number of scores in the distribution. The calculated mean is used to compute the average scores which are obtained for the different components of the questionnaire (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The advantage of using the mean is that it can be algebraically manipulated and it is also a far superior estimate of the population mean than are other measures of central tendency. Examples of this would be mode or median. A disadvantage of using the mean is that it is influenced by extreme scores.

- The **standard deviations (SD)** as well as the minimum and maximum values have been used to describe the results. The standard deviation is the positive squared root of the variance. The value of the standard deviation indicates how much the scores vary. The larger the value of the standard deviation the more the scores will vary (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).
• One-Way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is considered to analyse the variances between and within groups of a particular sample. ANOVA relies on an assumption of equal variance (De Vos et al, 2005).

• The Chi Square test is used to test for the association between two nominal variables (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

• Correlations are concerned with the degree of relationships between two or more variables (Nortjie, 2003). The purpose of correlation is to show how much two variables go together or convey (Neuman, 2003).

Correlations were found to be an important part to the research as the method calculating correlations plays a major role in describing the results of the research. In this research the correlation coefficients will be used to indicate the relationship between perceived organisational support and work-family conflict, perceived organisational support and job self-efficacy, work demands and work-family conflict, perceived organisational support and work demands and job self-efficacy and work-family conflict.

3.7 Hypothesis formulation

The following hypotheses are formulated for this research:

• $H1$: Employees perceived organisational support will be inversely related to work-family conflict.

• $H2$: Employees perceived organisational support will be positively related to job self-efficacy. The greater the organisational support the greater the job self-efficacy.

• $H3$: Work demands will be positively related to work-family conflict. The greater the work demands the greater the work family conflict.

• $H4$: Organisational support will be inversely related to work demands. Organisational support will reduce the effect of work demands.
• $H_5$: Job self-efficacy will be inversely related to work-family conflict.

3.8 Ethical considerations

The following principles were taken into consideration whilst conducting the research study (De Vos et al., 2005):

3.9.1 Participants should not be harmed during a research study.
Subjects cannot be harmed in a physical and/or emotional manner. One may accept that harm to respondents in social sciences will be mainly emotional in nature, although physical injury cannot be ruled out completely. The ethical obligation rests with the researcher to protect subjects, within reasonable limits, from physical discomfort which may emerge from the research project. Emotional harm to the subject is often more difficult to predict and to determine than physical discomfort, but often has further reaching consequences for the respondents.

Even though the research study had no known physical or emotional threat to the participants, the participants were thoroughly informed beforehand of the potential impact of the investigation. Such information offered the respondents the opportunity to withdraw from the investigation if they so wished.

3.9.2 Informed Consent

Sieber (1998) as cited in Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) explain that obtaining informed consent from participants is not merely the signing of a consent form. Consent should be voluntary and informed. This requires that participants receive a full, non-technical and clear explanation of the tasks which are expected of them so that they may make informed choices with regard to voluntarily participating in the study. Coercion, threats and inducements will limit voluntary or autonomous choices of the individual

Consent was gained from the individual participants as well as the organisation involved. Each participant signed a consent form and permission for the study was obtained from the Human Resource division of the organisation where the study was
conducted. Nobody was coerced into participating in the research study and participation was voluntary.

3.9.3 Privacy, anonymity and confidentiality

Singleton et al. (1988, p454, as cited in De Vos et al., 2005) states that the “right to privacy is the individual right to decide when, where, to whom, and to what extent his/her attitudes, beliefs, and behaviour will be revealed.” Privacy implies the element of personal privacy, while confidentiality indicates the handling of information in a confidential manner. He further mentions that participants have the right to expect that any information provided by them will be treated confidentially and that their identities will not be revealed unless they have given their prior informed consent. The researcher assured the participants that their rights of privacy will be protected by means of confidentiality. The participants were also assured of their anonymity.

3.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has described aspects of the empirical research by initially focusing on the research design and methodologies. Other sections have focused on the participants, sampling methods used, measuring instruments, procedure, statistical analysis as well as the consideration of ethics. The next chapter will present and discuss the results of the data analysis.
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction
The previous chapter gave an outline of the methodology and techniques applied to conduct the empirical research. This chapter covers the empirical phase comparing and interpreting the results in terms of the data collected and the hypotheses formulated. Descriptive statistics are used to analyse and interpret the data. The chapter concludes with a summary.

The biographical data of the participants is presented first, followed by the descriptive results of the study.

4.2 Sample distribution
This section explains the sample distribution. The discussion commences with a comparison of the data distribution between the organisations followed by the biographical information of the participants.

The biographical detail consists of the participants’ age, marital status, dependants and number of dependants.

4.2.1 Distribution between organisations

Figure 4 provides a graphic presentation of the two organisations.
Figure 4.1: Sample distribution between the participating organisations

Out of 150 questionnaires distributed 144 were returned. Of the 144 respondents, 58 percent of the employees served in a motor manufacturing company Hesto and 42 percent of the sample were from the organisation Alpha Pharmaceuticals. The sample is unevenly distributed due to recession that is having a negative impact on the organisations (e.g. retrenchments).

While this section is explaining the sample distribution in terms of the sample distribution between the participating companies, the following provides an explanation of the global sample’s distribution in terms of biographical information collected.
4.2.2 Age

Table 1 provides a distribution of the participants’ ages

Table 4.1
Age frequency distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Cumulative freq.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-24 yrs</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>23.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29 yrs</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>26.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39 yrs</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>33.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49 yrs</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>15.49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of age, 24 percent of them were between ages 18-24 years, 27 percent were between the ages 25-29 years, 34 percent were between ages 30-39 years and 15 percent were between the ages 40-49 years. The majority of the women employed are between the ages 30-39 years and it can be assumed that this age group could be more affected by work-family conflict than the others.

4.2.3 Marital Status

Figure 4.2 provides a graphic presentation of the employees’ marital status.
Figure 4.2: Sample’s marital status distribution

In terms of marital status 47 percent are married and 53 percent are single. It can therefore be assumed that 47 percent of the female sample in these two organisations could be prone to work-family conflict due to their affiliation with spouses and additional obligations to family members.

4.2.4 Children

Figure 4.3 provides a graphic presentation of females with children as well as those without children.
Figure 4.3: A distinction between females with and without children

Of the 144 female respondents 68 percent have children and 32 percent have no children. This finding could suggest there are a proportion of single mothers. Global statistics state that a quarter of all families with dependent children are headed by single mothers (Burns & Scott, 1994) not in references and South African statistics reveal the existence of nearly 3.5 million female heads of households (Census 96, 1996).
4.2.5 Number of Dependents

Table 4.2 indicates the sample distribution in terms of the number of dependants that participants have.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Dependents</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Cumulative frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>48.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>27.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>15.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>7.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the number of employees that had children, 48 percent had 1 dependant, 27 percent had 2 dependants, 16 percent had 3 dependants, 8 percent had 4 dependants and 1 percent had 5 dependants. The number of children is related to family role strain among employed mothers and to work-family strain among women in two-earner families (Keith & Schafer, 1980). On the other hand due to the economic meltdown which is causing the high number of men to lose their jobs, women are becoming the primary providers. Thus the number of independents may increase work-family conflict under the above circumstances.

4.3 Descriptive statistics of the instruments

Whereas the previous section discussed the descriptive statistics of data obtained by means of the biographical questionnaire, the following section reflects data collected in terms of each scale commencing with the work-family conflict scale.
4.3.1 Work-family conflict

Table 4.3 reflects descriptive statistics relevant to the work-family conflict scale.

Table 4.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Hesto Mean</th>
<th>Alpha Mean</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Hesto Valid N</th>
<th>Alpha Valid N</th>
<th>Hesto Std.Dev.</th>
<th>Alpha Std.Dev.</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WC01</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC02</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC03</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC04</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC05</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC06</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC07</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC08</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC09</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC10</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC11</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC12</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC13</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC14</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC15</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC16</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC17</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the work-family conflict section, higher means reflect higher levels of work-family conflict and lower means reflect lower levels of work-family conflict. The total mean value for Hesto is 3.05 (SD=1.06) and Alpha pharmaceutical is 2.78 (SD=1.15) which suggests that employees from Hesto experienced higher work-family conflict than Alpha pharmaceutical employees. Hesto employees scored high mean values of 4.06 (SD= 0.98) for item 13 “I worry about my children when I’m working” and 3.96 (SD=0.99) for item 4 “I wish I had more time to do things with my family”
Alpha pharmaceutical employees scored high mean values of 3.89 (SD= 1.20) for item 3 “I have a good balance between my job and family time” and 3.34 (SD=1.32) for item 13“I worry about my children when I’m working” and 3.34 (SD= 1.28) for item 12 “I have as much patience with my children as I would like”.

The finding suggests that both groups of employees are concerned about their children while working which is consistent with Alders’ (1988) similar finding. On the other hand, employees from Hesto are maybe experiencing greater work-family conflict due to the unfavourable working conditions (e.g. working shifts and overtime).

4.3.2 Job demands

Table 4.4 reflects descriptive statistics relevant to the job demands scale.

Table 4.4: Descriptive statistics of the job demands scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Hesto Mean</th>
<th>Alpha Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Hesto</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
<th>Hesto Std.Dev</th>
<th>Alpha Std.Dev</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JD01</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JD02</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JD03</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JD04</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JD05</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JD06</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JD07</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the job demands scale, higher means indicate higher levels of job demands and lower means indicate lower levels of job demands. While employees in both organisations are pressurised for product delivery, it seems that Hesto employees are expected to work with greater urgency, if the results of table 4.4 are considered. An examination of the total mean scores per group, 3.10 (SD=1.00) and 2.83 (SD=1.23) indicate that Hesto employees experienced greater job demands than Alpha pharmaceutical employees. Hesto employees scored high means of 3.63 (SD= 0.98) for item 1 “Do you have to do work fast?” and 3.47 (SD=0.99) for item 3 “Do you
have to work under time pressures?” In contrast Alpha Pharmaceutical employees produced high mean values of 3.51 (SD=1.16) for item 4 “Can you do your work in comfort (R)?” and 3.31 (SD=1.22) for item 1 “Do you have to work fast?”

In summary, both organisations were required to work fast with Hesto employees under greater work pressure. This significant difference may be due to the fact that employees from the automotive industry may need to work faster in orders to meet tight deadlines. Due to the high job demands female employees from Hesto are more likely to experience greater work-family conflict. In chapter 2 the finding of Todd (2004) was discussed which positively correlates positively with these findings.

4.3.3 Perceived organisational support

Table 4.5 displays the descriptive statistics for Perceived Organisational Support scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Hesto Mean</th>
<th>Alpha Mean</th>
<th>Hesto Valid N</th>
<th>Alpha Valid N</th>
<th>Hesto Std.Dev.</th>
<th>Alpha Std.Dev.</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POS01</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS02</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS03</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1.06</td>
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<tr>
<td>POS04</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS05</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS06</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS07</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS08</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Turning next to perceived organisational support, higher means indicate higher levels of perceived organisational support and lower means indicate lower levels of perceived organisational support. The results indicate a small difference in the total mean values of Hesto employees 2.94 (SD=1.12) and Alpha Pharmaceutical employees 2.87 (SD=1.13). Hesto employees scored high mean values of 3.40 (SD=1.01) for item 3 “The organisation would ignore any complaints from me” and
3.10 (SD=1.21) for item 2 “The organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me”

Alpha pharmaceutical employees scored high mean values of 3.10 (SD=1.04) for item 7 “The organisation show very little concern for me” and 2.92 (SD=1.31) for item 5 “Do you have to deal with a backlog of work?”

If the results of tables 4.4 and 4.5 are considered, it seems that Hesto is experiencing more job pressure than Alpha. However, in the same vein it seems that the same company’s participants experience more organisational support than Alpha participants. If organisational support is a buffer against work demands (see House, 1981 and Lundberg, 1996) then it could be assumed that Hesto’s employees are not receiving sufficient organisational support to reduce either work-demands or work-family conflict. In contrast, it seems that the organisational support provided by Alpha is sufficient to deal with organisational work demands and work-family conflict.

4.3.4 Job self-efficacy

Table 4.6 Displays the Descriptive statistics for the job self-efficacy scale

Table 4.6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hesto Mean</th>
<th>Alpha Mean</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Hesto Valid N</th>
<th>Alpha Valid N</th>
<th>Hesto Std.Dev.</th>
<th>Alpha Std.Dev.</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SE01</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE02</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE03</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE04</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE05</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE06</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE07</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td></td>
<td>114</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lastly, for job self-efficacy scale, higher mean values indicate greater job-self-efficacy and lower mean values indicate lower levels of job-self-efficacy. It is interesting to note that Hesto employees scored a total mean value of 2.40 (SD=1.14)
and Alpha pharmaceutical employees scored a total mean value of 2.07 (SD=1.06). These results indicate that Hestó employees have greater job self-efficacy than Alpha pharmaceutical employees.

As mentioned above it is noteworthy that Hestó’s participants experience higher levels of work-family conflict (see Table 4.3) and higher job demands (see Table 4.4), but they also reflect higher job self-efficacy. It may be a case that if the former two factors are high for Hestó, it is also possible that such employees are able to manage these negative aspects that are demonstrated by the similar high means on the job self-efficacy scale. This assumption is supported by previous research conducted by Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper and O’Brien (2001). These authors’ research suggests a link between self-efficacy and multiple-role management. They hypothesize that a woman’s self-efficacy beliefs regarding her work and family responsibilities can help to reduce the role conflict and role overload she may experience. Furthermore, it can also be expected that an individual’s self-efficacy in a specific domain can provide information about how that individual will perceive and cope with challenges in that domain (in this case the Hestó work pressures). In addition, they are of the opinion that the case of managing conflict that inevitably arises between personal and occupational responsibilities while assessing work-family conflict, can provide a unique perspective on what might ultimately help to reduce the negative outcomes (e.g. decrease in life and job satisfaction) that are associated with work-family conflict, provided that such individuals have a strong sense for job self-efficacy.

Hestó employees scored high mean values of 3.29 (SD=1.27) for item 5 “I feel that I am overqualified for the job I am doing” and 2.29 (SD=1.13) for item 4 “I have all technical and practical knowledge I need to deal with my job”

Alpha pharmaceutical employees scored high mean values of 2.61 (SD=1.16) for item 5 “I feel that I am overqualified for the job I am doing” and 2.18 (SD=1.01) for item 6 “I could have handled a more challenging job than the one I am doing”

If job self-efficacy is a belief that one has the capabilities to execute the courses of actions required to manage prospective situations, a correlation table between job self-efficacy, work family conflict as well as work demands would provide some valuable
information about how the people at Hesto deal with these demands. For example, if the correlation is positive between job demands and self-efficacy, then one can assume they know how to deal with the difficult situations and their perception of “over-qualification” for their jobs may strengthen their job self-efficacy. If this is true, then a new research area emanates to investigate the relationship between high training levels and job self-efficacy.

4.3.5 Reliability and validity of instruments
In this research, the following Cronbach alphas were found: 0.86 for the work-family conflict scale, 0.80 for the job demands scale, 0.86 for the perceived organisational scale and 0.81 for the job self-efficacy scale. The alphas for the scales show similar patterns as those reported by the authors. Reliability estimates for all the item measures described above were high for the study sample (Cronbach [alpha] □ .80) indicating a sufficient internal consistency (Cronbach 1990; Sekaran, 2000). All the scales were accepted for further data analysis and are summarized in table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Scales reliability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>WFC</th>
<th>JD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>POS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach Alpha</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WFC = work-family conflict, JD = job demands, POS = perceived organisational support, SE = self-efficacy

All the measures used in the study were found to be reliable and met the criteria of sufficient internal consistency (> 0.70) prescribed by (Cronbach 1990; Sekaran, 2000).

4.3.5.1 Validity of instruments
Given that this research is of an exploratory and descriptive nature the researcher relies on the developers’ prior information on the various scales used in this research. It is therefore accepted that the scales meet construct validity requirements and that factor analyses were not conducted.
4.4 Correlations

This section discusses the intercorrelations among all study variables. The discussion commences with the relationship between work-family conflict and perceived organisational support. This is followed by discussing the relationship between perceived organisational support and job self-efficacy. The relationship between job demands and work-family conflict are discussed next. Then the relationship between perceived organisational support and job demands are discussed. Lastly, the relationship between job self-efficacy and work-family conflict are discussed.

Table 4.8 Intercorrelations among study variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>WFC</th>
<th>JD</th>
<th>POS</th>
<th>SE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WFC</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JD</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WFC = work-family conflict, JD = job demands, POS = perceived organisational support, SE = self-efficacy.

According to Table 4.8 the correlation between work-family conflict and perceived organisational support is positive ($r = 0.39$). The test statistics indicate that the effect size is moderate therefore statistically and practically significant. However, when considering the reversed item intensity values of the perceived organisational support a low score confirms a high level of perceived organisational support. The scores recorded are actually high, therefore one can assume that perceived organisational support has an inverse relationship with work-family conflict. Therefore, hypothesis 1 could be accepted. Employees perceived that organisational support will be inversely related to work – family conflict. This hypothesis is consistent with Allen’s (2001) finding discussed in the literature.

Table 4.8 shows a weak positive correlation between the variables perceived organisational support and job self – efficacy ($r = 0.03$). Therefore hypothesis 2 could
not be accepted. Employees perceived that organisational support will be positively related to job self-efficacy. However, Walters and Raybould (2007) found a significant positive relationship between the personal efficacy and perceived organisational support, indicating that high levels of perceived organisational support in front-line hospitality employees are associated with high levels of personal efficacy. Consequently, those employees who feel they are supported by their organisation also feel confident and effective in their roles.

Bandura and Locke (2003) are of the opinion that self-efficacy is an attitude that can either be positive or negative toward something in bad or good times. After considering the results shown in table 4.8, there is the possibility that the overall perceived organisational support in these particular organisations is minimal while triggering a negative attitude by its female employees. Maybe the latter is the reason why respondents reflect a weak relationship between perceived organisational support and self-efficacy, although it cannot be determined which one is the cause of the other one.

Referring to Table 4.8 the correlation between job demands and work-family conflict is positive (r = 0.60). The test statistics indicate that the effect size is moderate therefore statistically and practically significant. Thus, hypothesis 3 could be accepted. Job demands will be positively related to work-family conflict. This result is consistent with previous findings that job demands are positively associated with work-family conflict. Yildirim and Aycan (2008) in their study of “Nurses’ work demands and work-family conflict”, found that work overload and irregular work schedules were the significant predictors of work-family conflict and that work-family conflict was associated with lower job and life satisfaction.

Table 4.8 illustrates that the correlation between perceived organisational support and job demands is positive (r = 0.33). The test statistics indicate that the effect size is weak to moderate therefore statistically and practically significant. However, when considering the reversed item intensity values of the perceived organisational support a low score confirms a high level of perceived organisational support. The scores recorded are actually high, therefore one can assume that perceived organisational support has an inverse relationship with job demands. Therefore, hypothesis 4 could
be accepted. Employees perceived organisational support will be inversely related to job demands.

This result is supported by Zohar (1994) who found that the third source of job-related stress is work overload. Work overload may occur as staff try to meet the demands of the customer and management for speed and quality of service. Since customer satisfaction depends on the delivery of service in 'real time' (with each delay often negatively affecting satisfaction) the employee is required to perform a highly demanding integrative function under tight time constraints (Ross & Boles, 1994). This particular stressor can often result in service employees experiencing high levels of exhaustion. Therefore, perceived organisational support may be beneficial to the employee by reducing job demands. Employees experience positive outcomes such as a decrease in job-related stress, an increase in positive job-related affect, high levels of job involvement, reduced withdrawal behaviour, increased organisational commitment and a desire to remain with the organisation (Eisenberger, et al., 1986).

According to Table 4.8 the correlation between job self-efficacy and work-family conflict is positive (r = 0.16). The test statistics indicate that the effect size is weak therefore statistically but not practically significant. However, when considering the reversed item intensity values of the job self-efficacy a low score confirms a high level of job self-efficacy. The scores recorded are actually high, therefore one can assume that job self-efficacy has an inverse relationship with work-family conflict. Therefore, hypothesis 5 could be accepted. Employees perceived organisational support will be inversely related to work-family conflict. This result is consistent with Bandura’s (1986) finding discussed in chapter 2. One may suggest that more research needs to be conducted in the area of job self-efficacy and work-family conflict for it to be of practical significance.

**Results summary**

The specific aim of the study was to investigate work-family conflict among females occupying lower-level jobs. The findings of the data collected from Hesto and Alpha pharmaceutical employees were presented in this chapter. The sample consisted of
144 subjects; 42 percent comprised of Alpha pharmaceutical employees and 58 percent comprised of Hesto employees. The overall findings indicated that Hesto employees experienced greater work-family conflict, job demand, organisational support and job self-efficacy than Alpha pharmaceutical employees. However, the organisational support was not enough to reduce work-family conflict and work-demands.

The correlation results showed that a significant negative relationship exists between perceived organisation support and work-family conflict. Thus hypothesis H1 is supported. There was a weak positive relationship between perceived organisational support and job self-efficacy, therefore the hypothesis H2 is not supported. Work demands whereas found to be positively and significantly related to work-family conflict. Thus hypothesis H3 is supported. There was a significant negative relationship between perceived organisational support and work demand. Thus hypothesis H4 was supported. A significant negative relationship was found between job self-efficacy and work-family conflict. Thus hypothesis H5 was supported. Reliability and validity of the instruments were briefly discussed.

4.5 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the results of the study were discussed. The data sets were displayed in the form of pie charts and tables. The results were evaluated and discussed in terms of the formulated hypotheses. Findings of this study were also compared with other literature reviews. While this chapter provides a discussion of the research results, the next chapter includes the conclusions, recommendations and limitations of the study.
5.1 Introduction
This final chapter documents conclusions based on the literature and empirical study. The chapter also takes strengths and limitations of the study into consideration. Certain limitations to the conducting of the present study must be acknowledged, as they provide suggestions for future research. The chapter concludes with recommendations for future research.

5.2 Conclusions based on literature and empirical study, the findings and literature review
This section deals with conclusions based on the literature and the empirical study commencing with the literature review.

5.2.1 Conclusions based on literature study
An analysis of work-family conflict forms the theme of this research. Such an analysis scrutinises the existence of work-family conflict as a phenomenon. Therefore, a conceptualisation of work-family conflict institutes the advent of the research. Such a literature review reveals the existence of work-family conflict as a globally recognised phenomenon and justifies the empirical component of the research. Literature also supports experiences of work-family conflict in the South African context.

Job demands seem to be the trigger of work-family conflict and the working class females with multiple roles are probably most affected. Workplace and social changes might also have a negative influence on working females. However, previous research reveals that perceived organisational support and job self-efficacy act as buffers against variables that constitute work-family conflict. Whilst this section deals with the conclusions of the literature study, the next reflects the conclusions of on the empirical study.

The growing literature on work-family conflict undoubtedly reflects the belief that work-family lives are interdependent. The myth of separate worlds of work and
family is surely eroding (Kanter, 1977). Despite this progress, considerably more research, testing more complete models of work-family conflict is required.

5.2.2 Conclusion based on empirical study
The overarching purpose of the present study was to investigate work-family conflict among females occupying lower level jobs. Based on the data collected, as had been hypothesized the correlation between work-family conflict and perceived organisational support is negative. Support that a woman receives from her organisation may help to reduce work-family conflict. Given these results, it is important for employers at Hesto to introduce more effective and clear work-family policies and programs to address negative spill over between work and family. Organisations can make a difference in promoting work-family conflict cultures that address daunting challenges associated with assisting employees balance their work-family obligations in a highly dynamic and ever-changing economic environment (Posig & Kickul, 2004). This finding is similar with that of Thomas and Ganster (1995) who found that supervisor support reduced work-family conflict among health care workers, which in turn led to greater job satisfaction.

Alternatively, the weak insignificant positive correlation between perceived organisational support and job self-efficacy was not expected. The findings were contrary to those of Edwins, Buffardi, Casper and O’ Brien (2001) mentioned in Chapter 2.

With regard to the correlation between job demands and work-family conflict, as expected, the researcher found a negative correlation between the variables. This finding supports previous research which found that when employees perceived that they had fewer organisational demands that interfere with family life, their work-family conflict was lower. Work-family conflict was also reported to be lower with employees who worked fewer hours (Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999). However, it is important for future research to further investigate how high job control reduces work-family conflict for women, especially in a situation of high job demands. If schedules, deadlines and workloads of female employees could be temporarily adjusted to meet family needs, such as caring for a sick child then this
could reduce work-family conflict. Therefore, it is important for employers to assess the benefits of making changes to their organisations.

As predicted, higher perceived organisational support was associated with lower job demands. This specific finding suggests that high levels of perceived organisational support might protect employees from negative effects of job demands, therefore reducing work-family conflict. Also it is worthwhile for future research to further investigate how different types of social support from the work-domain relate to job demands. An example of social support from work-domain would be colleagues who may stand in for each other when demands are high and time is lacking by taking over some tasks, knowing that the other will return a favour when needed.

Consistent with the hypothesis, job self-efficacy had a negative correlation with work-family conflict. This result suggests that high levels of job self-efficacy may reduce work-family conflict. However, a closer look at the correlation coefficients of the variables reveals that they were significant, but they were too weak to reach practical significance.

Although there has been a great deal of research exploring the construct of self-efficacy as it relates to a number of clinical, social and health behaviours, few studies have considered its relevance to the role strain literature (Khan & Long, 1988). The present finding suggests that the connection between self-efficacy in the work and family roles and women’s stress should be expanded. Thus, because the relationship between job self-efficacy and work-family conflict has not benefited from much investigation, there is a need for more research on the topic before reliable conclusions on this issue can be drawn.

### 5.3 Strengths and limitations of the study

Several strengths and limitations emanate from this research. The next section deals with the strengths of this research followed by the limitations.

#### 5.3.1 Strengths of this research

There are two major strengths of this study. First, these findings contribute to one’s understanding of the factors related to women’s experience of work-family conflict.
This study provides a comprehensive picture of the relationships between work-family conflict, perceived organisational support, job self-efficacy and job demands. Second, to the researcher’s knowledge, few studies examine work-family conflict among females occupying lower level jobs, thus contributing to the existing body of knowledge.

5.3.2 Limitations
Although this study offers an important and unique perspective of the work-family conflict experiences of the female labour force, there are some notable limitations. These limitations must be recognised in order to highlight the problems experienced during the study.

This current study cannot be fully understood through a purely quantitative paradigm. The inclusion of qualitative methodologies may provide a more in-depth understanding of the experiences of work-family conflict among females. The representation samples of Hesto employees were greater than Alpha pharmaceutical employees due to the response rate. Further the data set is quite small (n = 144) due to the economic crisis, resulting in organisations retrenching employees. Having a low response rate limits the generalisability of the findings. The researcher was unable to provide interpretations for work-family conflict experienced by females of different cultural backgrounds due to the small Indian population in Port Elizabeth. This study specifically examined the impact of perceived organisational support, job demands and job self-efficacy on work-family conflict in a sample of low income female workers in the private sector employment. Thus, further research would be needed to establish whether the findings are applicable to samples including males and/or other occupational groups. As the approach was exploratory in nature, there is limited external validity and the findings are thus not generalisable to other populations. Future research would benefit from longitudinal design in order to establish causal relationships among work demands, work-family conflict, perceived organisational support and job self-efficacy. For instance, Demerouti, Bakker and Bulters (2004), collected data at three points and found reciprocal relations between work pressure, work interference with family, and exhaustion. Future studies should also include antecedents and consequences of family-work conflict.
The limitations of the study have been explained, the implications for future use will now be addressed.

5.4 Recommendations

The empirical results have important implications for the family and organisations. Primarily, to alleviate the problem of conflict arising from the work-family interface, firms in South Africa and elsewhere are encouraged to seek a workplace climate that helps their employees succeed in balancing their career aspirations and family obligations. Both high job control and supportive organisation can be seen as valuable protective job resources at times when a high level of work-family conflict is experienced. Therefore, organisations should provide their staff with more decision-making freedom and task authority in their jobs. Redesigning the work conditions may help employees to reduce work load, which seem to reduce work-family conflict.

Organisations should make provisions for family life educators that can assist employed parents in identifying factors that contribute to work-family difficulties and strategies for dealing with such difficulties. This assistance could be provided through educational programs (e.g., workshops, seminars) on work-family issues offered in business and community settings. In addition, family life educators could develop self-directed learning material for employed parents, such as video tapes that address work-family issues and, in particular, work-related demands and coping resources. The provision of such material could be especially helpful to employed parents who are unable to attend workshops and seminars due to time restrictions and child-care demands (Paris, 1989).

Organisations can also provide training for employees to develop their self-efficacy, which in turn may help them to deal with job demands and work-family conflict issues. More research on work-family conflict should be conducted in South Africa, to compare these results at an international level.

5.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provides a conclusion on the literature and empirical findings. Strong empirical evidence exists to show that correlations exist between work-family
conflict, job demands, perceived organisational support and job self-efficacy. The study also provides a brief discussion on the strengths and limitations. The section ends by making recommendations for future research.
References


APPENDIX A: BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Please make a cross (X) in the block that contains the information which is applicable to you:

1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>18-24</th>
<th>25-29</th>
<th>30-39</th>
<th>40-49</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MARITAL STATUS</th>
<th>SINGLE</th>
<th>MARRIED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHILDREN</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

Please consider the questions and then indicate by circling the most appropriate number on the scale: N = never, R = rarely, S = sometimes, O = often, A = always

WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT - The following are ways one's work life interfere with one's family life.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. My job keeps me away from family too much?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel I have more to do than I can comfortably handle?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I have a good balance between my job and family time?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I wish I had more time to do things for my family?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I feel physically drained when I get home from work?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I feel emotionally drained when I get home from work?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I feel I have to rush to get everything done each day?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. My time off work does not match other family members' schedule well?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I feel I don't have enough time for myself?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I worry about whether I should work less and spend more time with my children?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I find enough time for my children?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I have as much patience with my children as I would like?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I worry about my children when I'm working?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Work makes me too tired or irritable to participate in or enjoy family life?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. The uncertainty of my work schedules interferes with my family life?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. My preoccupation with my job effects my family?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. The amount of travel required by my job interferes with my family life?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**JOB DEMANDS** – are pressures arising from excessive workloads and typical workplace time pressures such as rush jobs and deadlines.

| 1. Do you have to work fast? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Do you have to work extra hard to finish a task? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Do you have to work under time pressure? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Can you do your work in comfort? (R) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Do you have to deal with backlog of work? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Do you have problems with the pace of work? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Do you have problems with work load? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Do you have to work irregular work hours? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Please consider the questions and then indicate by circling the most appropriate number on the scale: SA= strongly agree, A= agree, U=undecided, D= disagree, SD= strongly disagree

**PRECEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT**-Employees global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The organisation values my contribution to its well-being?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me? (R)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The organisation would ignore any complaint from me? (R)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The organisation really cares about my well-being?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice? (R)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The organisation care about my general satisfaction at work?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The organisation shows very little concern for me? (R)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>JOB SELF-EFFICACY</strong> Job self-efficacy can be defined as an employee's view of his or her capacity to conduct the overall job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. My job is well within the scope of my abilities?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel that I am able to perform my job well?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I have no problem meeting the expectations my employer has for me?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I have all technical and practical knowledge I need to deal with my job?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I feel that I am overqualified for the job I am doing?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I could have handled a more challenging job than the one I am doing?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. My past experiences and accomplishments increase my confidence that I will be able to perform successfully in this organisation?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C: CONSENT FORM

I acknowledge my voluntary participation in the abovementioned research project, conducted by the Department of Industrial Psychology at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University.

I further allow the Department of Industrial Psychology to utilise the results of my assessment for research purposes, on condition that the confidentiality thereof is maintained.

Signed on this day ____________ of ____________ 2009.

__________________________
(Signature)
APPENDIX D: HUMAN RESOURSE DEPARTMENT

RE: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I hereby apply for permission to conduct postgraduate research in your organisation/institution. I am currently involved in a MA studies in Industrial and Organisational Psychology through the Business and Economics Department- Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. The proposed research topic is: Investigation into work and family conflict amongst females occupying lower-level jobs. The researcher will involve 150 female participants working on the assembly line.

Research indicates that low-income women are faced with increased burden as they juggle work and family responsibilities with very limited resources. In addition occupational factors that have shown to increase work-family conflict amongst low-income workers are more work hours, low levels of autonomy and working non-standard shifts.

Research to date suggests that high levels of work-family conflict are related to dysfunctional outcomes for the individual (e.g., life dissatisfaction, anxiety, depression, poor health), for relationships (e.g., increased interpersonal conflict, divorce), and for the organization (e.g., absenteeism, tardiness, loss of talented employees).

It is hoped that this research study will shed additional light on the diverse issues relevant to work and family conflict experience by female assembly line workers. The finding of this research will be made available to participants as well as the management team. From the finding, recommendations will be made to aid in the development of strategies to lessen and/or prevent work and family conflict.

I would like to assure you that the entire research process and its procedures will be handled in accordance with scientific principles, particularly regarding the ethical management of research participants and strict confidentiality and anonymity of data and biographical details surrounding the research.

Thank you

Sincerely

Koovesheni Reddy

Cell: 0828827218