

Preface

This master thesis makes an ending to my master degree at NTNU, Trondheim. First of all, I want to thank my advisor Christian Klöckner for all the good help and support. He has been very patient and helpful through the whole process. Although we have been located in different cities (Trondheim and Oslo), we have kept contact all the way though emails and a few meetings, and I believe we handled it well. I also want to thank my friend Silje for her supportive phone calls which always gave me an inspirational “kick in the butt” when I needed it the most. Further, my boyfriend, family and friends all deserve credit for the support they have given me along the way.

Maria

Abstract

This paper examined the relationship between work and family and how it affects satisfaction at work. The study involved a web-based questionnaire and 116 female and male workers participated in the study, all college and university employees. Differences between men and women in how they experience work and family as well as satisfaction at work, were examined. Also, significance of values regarding work and family and the experience of social support was investigated. Aspects such as age, education and free time were also seen in relation to the family-work experience. Few hypotheses were confirmed as findings indicated few gender differences. The results showed support to both expansionist theory and the scarcity hypotheses, as family and work interference was considerably more prevalent for those having children. Further, contributions and limitations to the study, as well as future suggestions are presented.

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Work satisfaction has become an important aspect within the workforce. Having an employee that is satisfied and pleased with his or her work is not only important for the individual's well-being in general, but also for the company and its growth. People who are happy with their work will feel more committed to- and responsible for what happens to the company, and are less likely to search for opportunities elsewhere (Brown & Peterson, 1993). They also tend to be more motivated, more productive, have a better self-esteem and improved morale (Champion-Hughes, 2001). Together with absenteeism, employee turnover and lack of job satisfaction are some of the difficulties reported by organizations as growing concerns, and many businesses suffer due to lack of facilitation and policies that are able to deal with such issues (Bruning, 2004).

As work tends to be a huge part of most peoples' life, it is easy to understand that people's feelings and attitudes towards their work affect them and their life to a great extent. Job satisfaction is an important aspect to study as it can be considered as a determinant for emotional well-being and psychological health (Furnham, 2005; Spector, 1997). Research demonstrates that work influences our private life to a larger extent than before, much because of people's changing lifestyles. Increased use of technology devices, such as cell-phones and email as communication tools, makes it easier to work from different locations, such as home and even on holiday. This may further promote challenges in keeping a healthy balance between work and private life (Kinnunen, Geurts, & Mauno, 2004; Roness, 2004). People today have almost unlimited amounts of opportunities regarding work and family life, that might be flexible work schedules, use of home-office and the constant availability through use of computers and internet (Champion-Hughes, 2001; Kossek & Lambert, 2005). However, increasing opportunities have also created more choices and greater uncertainty. Predictions made 25 years ago about these supposedly efficiency-enhancing communication tools contributing to less working hours have not been fulfilled. The trend has gone in the opposite direction with increasing demands and competition, and the boundary between work and family appear more blurred than ever before (Roness & Matthiesen, 2006; Rousseau, 1978). Kossek and Lambert (2005) emphasize how the integration of work and non-work demands has become one of the most critical challenges that organizations, families and individuals face in today's society. Even though most families no longer are able to rely on the support of a woman staying home with the children, work arrangements has not changed accordingly to the changes happening in the worker's private spheres (Jacobs & Gerson, 1997). A conflict may emerge when family demands and work demands compete, and the result may be a

conflict between the two. This type of conflict is called a *work-family conflict* (WFC) and research reveals how this type of conflict tends to be followed by negative attitudes with the consequence being dissatisfaction within the family domain. The opposite direction, family life's influence on work (*family-work conflict* (FWC) is a less prevalent research topic, but there are found conflicts emerging from the family domain into the work domain as well, although usually to a lesser degree (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001; Greenhaus & Powell, 2003).

The stereotypical housewife taking care of the household, children, and husband is no longer the standard. In the western world women are entering the workforce at an increasing rate. As many families now consist of two working parents (dual-earner or dual-career families), or single-parent households, it is reasonable to believe there will be bigger challenges ahead. In the home domain however, the development seems to be put on hold, as women, when number of hours accounted for, presumably seem to be the main care-takers, and this is also the case for women in high academic positions (Lappegård, 2008; Noor, 2004). Although it seems as women in general stand more equal to men today, it is still women that prioritize the household and care giving more often than men (Noor, 2004). Based on this one might ask the question how this influences women's level of satisfaction at work compared to men's? Although the number of women in the workforce has increased markedly, research on related gender issues has been limited (Keita & Hurrell, 1994), which makes the subject interesting for further research.

In the present study I questioned: How do conflict between work and family impact job satisfaction? Is this relation different for men and women, people of different education and age? How do men and women value work and family, and how do these values affect their experience of conflict between the two domains?

As living in a society of constant change and with an increasing number of women taking part in the workforce, the subject might bring up some interesting findings. Not only for the sake of human's well-being, but also for the sake of companies and their facilitation for their workers. It is interesting to see how people with or without a family view the importance of socializing with people outside family or work, and especially the differences between people with and without children. Moreover, how important is socializing with friends for the level of satisfaction at work? These are the research questions I wanted to answer in the current paper.

2. Theoretical Framework

The impending theoretical part includes theories as well as findings on work and family in relation to job satisfaction and how the family-work situation has changed over the years. In addition, the beginning section gives information about why the subject matter is such an interesting topic to study. Job satisfaction and its significance on work and family interference, as well as gender differences in the experience of satisfaction at work are further presented. Also, the relationship between family and work is dealt with, that being changes that have occurred in how people balance work and family life as well as differences between men and women in how they experience a possible conflict between the two spheres. Social role theory, gender stereotypes, spillover theory, conflict theory and expansionist theory are brought up in the subsequently sections, as they may be part of explaining the relationship between work and family interference, job satisfaction and gender. Next, values that people hold about work and family are addressed. I have tried to give an overview of the relationship between values and how one experiences work and family life as well as satisfaction in the respective domains. Further, in the following section, social support is presented, concerning gender differences and the importance of social support in the family-work situation. The last three sections contain findings on the topics of age, education and leisure time experiences, all in relation to the experience of work and family interference.

2.1 Family and Work Conflict

Studies by The European Institute for Living- and Working Conditions in 1990, 1995 and 2000 concluded that the work environments in European countries are heading in a negative direction, even with improved work environment legislation. Due to high competition within the work force and even with more flexible work schedules, the demands and intensity at work are greater. Norwegian studies show that psychological illnesses, physical ailments as well as sickness absence have increased dramatically in recent years (Filstad, Hildebrandt, & Rishøy, 2004). Even with increased knowledge about the importance of a good work environment and appropriate working conditions, there still seems to be need for improvement (Roness, 2004).

During recent years scientists have started to take deeper notice of the connection between work and family and have started to look at the relationship between the two, rather than each sphere separately (Roness & Matthiesen, 2006). The challenge of successfully combining work and non-work is a major issue for many individuals as they experience serious issues or conflicts between the domains of work and home (Bruning, 2004). Previous

research indicates that work-family conflict as well as family-work conflict result in several negative consequences for individuals (Boles et al., 2001), with family-work conflict being more prevalent than the opposite (Duxbury & Higgins, 1994). *Nevertheless*, studies by Thuen (in Filstad et al., 2004) reveal that it is more harmful when private life interferes with work than when work interferes with private life. He explains this by asserting that people more easily hold themselves responsible when private life disturbs work. When work interferes with people's private sphere however, they often find it easier to blame the working conditions. For many individuals, their self-concept is often closely tied to their work and career, hence losing the job or simply feeling inadequate may result in a psychological load which is difficult to deal with (Roness & Matthiesen, 2006).

With a continuously changing workforce, the issue of family-work conflict is a current topic. Historically, work and family domains have been gendered as men have dominated the work role and women, the family role (Nelson, 2009). Not long ago there was a general consensus that the woman's primary social role was being a wife. However, today women participate in the labor force to the same degree as men do, but the family domain is *still* dominated by women, at least when number of hours are accounted for (Kitterød, 2000; Noor, 2004). Even in two-earner couples in which both parts are in full-time jobs, women continue to maintain the primary responsibility for household tasks (Marshall, 1997). Although the gender gap appears to be narrowing, it seems as work and gender are connected through family membership and family practices. Being in a family usually involves more paid work for the husbands and more domestic work for the wives (Coltrane, 2000; Vaage, 2002). Perhaps then, it is no surprise that the conflict between work and family is assumed to affect women more than men (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Warr, 1990). However, the relationships between work and family conflict and other variables have not been consistently different between men and women (Allard, 2007; Kinnunen et al., 2004; Zamarripa, Wampold, & Gregory, 2003). Steenbergen, Ellermers and Mooijaart (2007), and Voydanoff (1988) claimed that women more often than men, experience how the mother and work-role complement each other in a positive manner. They asserted that having demands at home not necessarily hinders positive work satisfaction, as family life may give inspiration and energy through positive experiences. Some people will even claim that the family is "what gets them going".

According to the Institute for social research (2002, in Filstad et al. 2004), Norwegian studies reveal that 38% of married men and 43 % of married women report experiencing a certain degree of conflict between family and work. Similar findings have been made in Denmark, and it seems plausible that other Nordic countries experience the same trend.

Studies by Filstad et al. (2004) also reveal that employees, who experience some kind of conflict between family and work, or worry about their family when being at work, are less effective and have the greatest amount of absence from work. The women are the ones reporting to feel most bound by time. When the husband arrives home after a stressful day at work, the woman are the one who do extra housework in order to compensate. However, when the opposite happens; when the woman enters the house after a stressful day, the housework is often deferred to another day.

A Norwegian study by Kjeldstad and Lappergård (2007) showed that highly educated couples with young children have a more even distribution of housework. The older the parents, the more traditional and uneven distribution of housework is practiced, much because of gender roles and a culture that has changed over the generations. Also, women in *well-paid* professions are more often likely and more capable (financially) to buy in domestic services in order to save time and energy. There is a tendency for higher educated workers and those in well-paid professional jobs to have more flexible schedules, which also are associated with better balancing work and home responsibilities (Cheal, 2008).

Still, when looking at the overall picture, women continue to do more housework than men. As Wierda-Boer, Gerris and Vermulst (2009) suggest; the “caring man” is a relatively new phenomenon and perhaps men feel that their careers are hindered by tasks at home, simply because they have not fully adapted to their new roles. In a study by McElwain, Korabik and Rosin (2005), women reported experiencing higher levels of family-work interference (FIW) when having high family demands, while men`s family demands did not affect their levels of FIW. The researchers suggested that it seems as women still feel somewhat responsible for being the primary caretakers of the family. They questioned whether women have been socialized to not let their family responsibility interfere with their work. Others have suggested different explanations, as Tait, Podgett and Baldwin (1989) supposed that the relationship between life and work for women has changed substantially. Tait and his colleagues argued that women`s identities are no longer defined exclusively by their homes and families, but by their jobs as well. This may be part of explaining why several researchers actually find women and men to be quite similar in their experience of family-work conflict (Allard, 2007; Zamarripa et al., 2003).

2.2 Job Satisfaction

One definition of job satisfaction explains the term as “a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one`s job” (Warr, 2007). Cranny, Smith and Stone (1992)

describes job satisfaction as “an affective (that is emotional) reaction to ones job”. The explanations vary, but what is agreed upon is that job satisfaction affects the general satisfaction in life and that people’s satisfaction and dissatisfaction is closely connected to people’s mental health and well-being (Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005; Roness, 2004). According to Benin and Nienstedt (1985), job satisfaction is the most significant factor in terms of feelings of dissatisfaction in life.

Job satisfaction is simply an attitudinal variable explaining to the extent how people like or dislike their jobs. Research has suggested that job satisfaction is one of the most essential attitudinal issues that exist in a workplace as well as being the most significant determinant of unhappiness (Benin & Nienstedt, 1985; Boles et al., 2001; Spector, 1997). Satisfaction with work is also seen as a reflection of good treatment as well as an indicator of emotional well-being and psychological health. That job satisfaction may lead to behavior by employees that will affect the functioning of the organization, is called the utilitarian perspective (Spector, 1997).

As mentioned introduction wise, job satisfaction is clearly the number one factor studied within organizations, much because of how the work force has begun to acknowledge the importance of workers` well-being, both physically and psychologically (Spector, 1997). There seem to be two basic motives for studying job satisfaction. First of all because of the evidence linking the degree of job satisfaction to the life outside the actual work role, though in particular people`s physical and mental health. Secondly, in order to improve productivity and organizational functioning by enhancing work quality for employees. What these two perspectives have in common is the shared acknowledgment of the importance of work when it comes to life experiences and satisfaction in people`s life (Kalleberg, 1977). Studies on the relationship between work-family interference and job satisfaction differ in their findings. Whereas Boles et al. (2001) found satisfaction with work to be marginally lower among individuals reporting conflict between work and family, Anafarta (2011) did not find any relationship between the family-work conflict and job satisfaction. On the other hand, Adams, King and King (1996) argued that generally, results support the idea of work and family relations to be related to job and life satisfaction.

Literature on job satisfaction and gender differences are also inconsistent in their findings (Chiu, 1998). Clark (1997) announces that women typically report higher levels of happiness at work, although the standard job is not in favor of women. This is a central paradox in the study of gender and job satisfaction (Chiu, 1998). Clark (1997) argues that

women might have lower expectations about their job and that this perhaps explains their higher satisfaction at work. However, when factors such as being young, highly educated, professional and being in male-dominated work environments are controlled, the gender differences seems to fade away. In a study of Chiu (1998) focusing on young male and female lawyers, she found that the women in the sample reported having lower job satisfaction than had the male lawyers. She explained this by claiming women to have less influence over promotional opportunities, although they had a similar level of expectations. Chiu suggested that there is a “gender gap” that varies by occupational level and that lower educated women are the “leaders” with the highest reported satisfaction at work. She asserted that her study findings did not support what is announced by the discrimination hypothesis emphasizing that women’s lower job satisfaction can be explained by uneven opportunities. She further speculated in how job satisfaction differences will develop as gender equality continuously are at focus in today’s society.

As mentioned above, job satisfaction is found to be one of the two most central sources of happiness, together with marital satisfaction. This explains why job satisfaction is such an important subject to examine (Benin & Nienstedt, 1985). Although with only marginally differences, Boles et al. (2001) reported satisfaction with work to be a little lower among individuals experiencing conflicts between family and work responsibilities. From their study and in accordance with other research, they asserted that conflict between work and family is an important issue to study in relation to an employee’s work satisfaction as well as job tenure. Benin and Nienstedt (1985) discovered from their longitudinal study that job satisfaction only impacted happiness in households where the women were employed. They found that the housewives were less happy than the working wives. Although with both groups reporting to be satisfied with marriage, job satisfaction turned out to be a more important factor in predicting women’s happiness. Not to forget, husbands of working wives turned out to be very happy when there were no children living at home. When there were children in the house however, they tended to take part more in household duties (wanting to or not), and at the same time reporting less happiness due to the greater amount of responsibility. This was not the case for women as their level of happiness stayed relatively stable over time.

2.3 Social Role Theory

According to social role theory, behavioral differences between men and women that are observed in psychological studies of social behavior and personality, originate in the

contrasting distributions of men and women into social roles (Eagly, 1987). The sex differences that often occur in social behavior happen because of the use of typical characteristics of roles held by women and men. According to social role theory, individuals adjust to sex-typical roles by performing and by adapting their social behavior to what they believe the role requires. They try to accommodate to roles that are available to them in their society by acquiring role-related skills such as girls learning domestic skills (e.g., cooking or cleaning), while boys often learn skills that are marketable in the paid economy. Psychologists usually claim that people have a social role based solely on gender. These gender roles appear to be acquired in early childhood, further elaborated throughout childhood, and actually facilitate the activities normally carried out by adults of each sex. Gender roles may also create sex-differences in behavior by affecting the rewards and punishments received from others, but also by influencing the self-concept of both women and men. The theory claims that women and men take societal gender roles into their self-categorization in terms of biological sex and conform to these personal standards of how one ought to behave (Eagly, 1987; Eckes & Trautner, 2000). As mentioned by Nelson and Burke (2002), there appear to be plenty of gender role expectancies, and especially, seeing the man as the breadwinner of the family is a norm that has existed despite women's increased participation in the labor force. However, the increasing amount of women in paid employment should result in somewhat less acceptance of the traditional gender roles (Stewart & Healy, 1989). As Duxbury and Higgins (1991) adds to the notion; "The lack of changes in work and family roles expectations is particular surprising given the many societal changes that have occurred" (p. 71).

Research on the subject matter reports diverse findings on the development of acceptance and utilization of gender roles, but most researchers do believe that the two genders are becoming more similar than before and hold more similar, rather than complementary roles today (Eckes & Trautner, 2000; Filstad et al., 2004). Both men and women are in fact subject to the "ideal worker" norm; that is the ideal of an employee who works full time, overtime, and does not take time off for childbearing or childrearing. Thus, care giving is in direct conflict with the ideal worker norm, basically for both women and men (Williams & Cooper, 2004).

As mentioned in the introduction, respectively, Tait et al. (1989) asserted that the relationship between work and family has changed considerably for women and that their identities no longer rest solely on the home-maker role, but also on the role as a worker. Peters, Montgomery, Bakker and Schaufeli (2005) suggested that women must take on the

double burden of both work and home (more than men), but whether this is a positive or negative factor is uncertain as research findings point in different directions. Gambles, Lewis and Rapoport (2006) state how the level and degree of change among men has been noticeable slow compared to the change among women when it comes to work and family roles. According to Gambles et al., the greatest factor holding back change in roles is the prevailing assumption about the “ideal” caregiver, which is a role most often associated with women. This simply supports the idea of the woman as the caretaker for children and home, and at the same time excludes men from becoming more involved in parenting and other caring-activities. The researchers asserted that as women have become more involved in paid work in recent years, there is also a need for men to change their behavior towards both family and work. The status and power paid work may offer to men and the power of contribution in family matters offered to women, are barriers that hinder mutual change among both genders. Similar to what Duxbury and Higgins (1991) stated, assumptions about what it means to be a woman or a man are surprisingly resistance to change. Many would agree with the fact that fatherhood has changed, but as suggested in the report of LaRossa (1988); “it seems as the culture of fatherhood has changed more rapidly than has the conduct” (p. 451). He notes that while some researchers claim that there have been changes in the paternal behavior of fathers during the latest century, there are no data confirming that these changes have arisen at the same pace as the ideological shifts that seems to have taken place. LaRossa argues that the changes in motherhood (the increased number of working mothers) are responsible for the altering of paternal behaviors and that there are changes in degree rather than *kind*.

Bielby and Bielby (1989) imply that men and women become engaged in role behaviors, and thus further develop identities in relation to these roles. In their study they hypothesized that men and women in dual-career relationships would adapt to the typical gender-based roles and identities that they are “taught” to hold on to (also see stereotypes further down), and the hypothesis was confirmed. The married women gave major priority to family demands when trying to balance work and family, while married men built identification to their work and family without neither sacrificing the work role nor the family role. Bielby and Bielby also suggest that married men, who take on the responsibility of the household, develop family identities very much alike those of the housewives.

2.4 Gender Stereotypes

What does it mean to be a woman? What does it mean to be a man?

Individuals tend to categorize themselves according to their sex; develop ideas about being a man or a woman, about femininity and masculinity, develop values and attitudes about gender, and engage in gender-typical activities (Eckes & Trautner, 2000). According to Eagly (1987), the most direct empirical support for that people have certain expectations about typical female and male characteristics, is found in the literature on stereotypes.

During the past quarter century, stereotyping has been directed to gender more than any other category, and it is said that already in early childhood we start to develop stereotypes. The definitions of stereotypes are many, but in short, they are the traits that quickly come to our mind when we think about certain groups of people. They may indeed be positive, but are mostly negatively loaded (Nelson, 2009). Typically, women are associated with being assertive, kind, affectionate and warm, while men more often are conceived of as achievement oriented, ambitious, tough and unemotional. Gender stereotypes however are beliefs about the characteristics of women and men as a group and not characteristics that actually are seen applying to the self (Guimond, Martinot, Chatard, Crisp, & Redersdorff, 2006).

People are found to perceive many differences between women and men (Eagly, 1987), and according to Schneider (2004), women tend to be stereotyped more often, and are held more strongly to their stereotypes than men. In studies by Luddy et al. (200, in Nelson, 2009), findings revealed that when working women became mothers they were perceived as warmer, but less competent as workers. When men became fathers however, they were perceived as warmer, but rating of competence-level did *not* change. People's use of stereotyping based on gender has decreased according to longitudinal data, but has not completely vanished. Data indicate that people still endorse established gender roles. There might sometimes be accuracy to stereotypes being made, but usually they are rather exaggeration of real differences between groups of people (Nelson, 2009).

Already in early childhood we start developing stereotypes and incorporate gender-congruent information to our selves. Our gender stereotypes may influence how we develop our self-aspects and our self-knowledge which further guides our behavior, as gender-congruent self-aspects support gender-typed behavior. We are more often exposed to social circumstance where typical gender-congruent behavior is promoted; hence we tend to behave the way we assume we ought to behave according to our gender (Hannover, 2000). According to Barreto, Ryan and Schmitt (2009), the choices and behavior of women (influenced by stereotypical expectations) can nourish stereotypes that already exist, thus become barriers to further career development. Although these barriers women tend to face may easily be seen as

individual concerns to the women themselves, they may as well be explained by existing stereotypes about women and their abilities.

Another subject to address is whether individuals use gender-based judgments of themselves. Research on social comparison processes assert that people compare themselves (i.e., assess their opinions and abilities) with people similar to themselves, and that this modifies the way they feel, think and behave (Festinger, 1954; Guimond, Brunot, Chatard, Garcia, Martinot, Bransiombe, Bruunk, Desert, Haque, & Yzerbyt, 2009). The consequence of self-categorizing is that people further engage in self-stereotyping; ascribing to themselves the attributes that belong to their group. Children often fail to realize that individuals may actually deviate from group norms, as they simply rely on gender instead of individual attributes when making inference about others. It seems as differential socialization in childhood may lead to pressure to conform in certain ways in order to match stereotypic expectations, as parents often emphasize gender stereotypes (boys play with cars, girls care for dolls) (Eckes & Trautner, 2000). Eckes and Trautner propose that because these stereotypes are practiced already in early childhood, they work as automatic responses later in life. Research indicates that the repeated use automatizes these gender stereotypes, resulting in an individual perception dominated by gender stereotypes. Biernat and Kobrynawicz (1999) came to a rather pessimistic and simple conclusion in their study on stereotyping; gender stereotypes keep coloring perceptions of men and women, even when it does not seem that way.

2.5 Spillover Theory

Spillover theory (Staines, 1980) talks about a spillover effect when experiences or roles in a certain area spill over to the experience or role in another area, that might be behaviors, moods, stress, and emotions being transferred from family life to work life or vice versa. Today, there is a considerable agreement about the tendency of an overlap between work and family for the majority of working individuals (Barling, 1990). Spillover occurs when demands from two domains, as in this case the work and family domains, compete with each other for the attention and energy of the individual. Study findings reported by Mennimo, Rubin and Brayfield (2005) suggest how individuals lack the ability to hop back and forth between the unique and distinct social spheres of home and workplace. "Rather they are always workers, mothers, fathers, managers, daughters, administrators, sons, and laborers" (p. 124). Thus, keeping the two spheres of work and home separate becomes a difficult task. More attention has been given to negative outcomes of spillover, but there has been an

increased awareness of positive work-family interference as well, often described as “enrichment”, “facilitation”, or simply “positive spillover” (Grzywacz & Butler, 2005; Haar & Bardoel, 2008). There might be both negative and positive spillover between work and family, but the negative spillover is apparently what one should worry about (Grzywacz, 1999; Williams & Alliger, 1994). Study findings (Grzywacz, 1999) show that negative spillover between work and family may be particularly detrimental to the physical health, while positive spillover turns out to be facilitating for mental and psychological well-being.

Overall, most research today suggest that succeeding in combining work and family in general has a positive impact on health (Marshall, 1997). However, women (alone-mothers in particular) with multiple roles (e.g., mother, worker, and housewife) sometimes experience an overload and inter-role conflict, and may therefore be vulnerable for poorer health. According to Mennimo et al. (2005), family demands increase negative spillover for women more than for men, and more so for younger women with small children (Sullivan, 2006; Warr, 1990). Another study by McElwain et al. (2005) found that women having high family demands were more likely to experience family to work conflict than men having similar demands. They suggested that women still feel some kind of responsibility for taking care of housework and family matters. Other studies show how men and women experience comparable psychological levels of family conflict with work (Allard, 2007; Schwartzberg & Dytell, 1996) and in contradiction to their predictions, Liu, Spector and Shi (2008) found conflicts to actually have a stronger impact on male than female faculty staff. Men tended to report anger, whereas women reported feeling frustrated. Livingston and Judge (2008) continued talking about emotions and found guilt to be a noticeable emotion in relation to work and family conflict. Their findings suggested that FIW was positive related to guilt, moderated by gender role orientation. They found that individuals who hold on to traditionally accepted norms of gender, more often feel guilt when their family responsibilities get in the way of work responsibilities. However, when the opposite happens; when work responsibilities interfere with family duties, they are less likely to feel guilty.

Most research on health and well-being has focused on negative effects of stress on health, and the same applies to the spillover effect (Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006). However, not all work and family experiences are of the negative kind, as positive experiences from home or from work can improve outcomes both inside and outside the workplace. Nelson and Burke (2002) mentioned salary, relationships, networking, status and personality enhancement as some of the potential, positive spillovers between family and work. Positive spillover can be

part of reducing psychological distress, especially in the family domain. It is possible that although the family role is very demanding in need for time and energy, it can also be a major source of gratification and satisfaction. This is especially true for women, as they often feel that work and family roles may complement or benefit each other (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Steenbergen, et al., 2007). There are limited studies on positive spillover, but from the study by Grzywacz (2000) positive family to work-spillover was related to a smaller amount of chronic conditions as well as an increased overall well-being.

Rothbard (2001) argues that the challenge in combining the work role with other roles in life has a different psychological meaning for women than for men. Grzywacz (2000) talks about the occupation of multiple roles (e.g., employee, wife, or mother) and how this has been associated with both physical and psychological well-being among women, and in particular those who feel like working and are economically disadvantaged. Steenbergen et al. (2007) suggest that organizational policies or managerial behaviors that may enhance feelings of facilitation (as an alternative to conflict reduction), could be a better way to help women experiencing the benefits of combining work and family roles. This may, to some extent be supported by Grzywacz and Marks (2000) who found low levels of work support to be more closely associated with family-work interference for women than for men.

Barnett (1995) implies that gender in fact, does not affect the degree of spillover effects. However, work schedule rigidity does. The researcher also claims that, when full-time employment is accounted for, spillover effects are as prevalent to men as to women. Role quality emerges as more significant (see expansionist theory further down), as Barnett found that for the full-time employed women in dual-earner couples, the effect of job role quality on distress was dependent on the quality of the marriage. For the full-time employed women with children it was the parent role quality that “decided” the effect of job role quality on distress.

2.6 Conflict Theory and the Scarcity Perspective

Conflict theory (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) explains how achievements or success in either the work or the family domain requires sacrifices in the other domain. It also addresses how the conflicting pressures from these two domains create a difficult challenge to partake in both spheres, at least to the same extent. The theory asserts that work and family environments simply are incompatible due to their distinct norms and the requirements from each of them (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Multiple roles are according to conflict theory, too emotionally overwhelming and detrimental to workers (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), and combining work and family successfully is practically impossible. According to the *scarcity*

perspective (Goode, 1960), multiple roles unavoidably create strain and combining several roles is more difficult for women than for men (Steenbergen et al., 2007). The underlying meaning of the *scarcity hypothesis* is that high levels of interference from one role to another make it difficult to meet the demands from the second role (Goode, 1960; Marks, 1977). Stress from several roles may have detrimental effects on a person's mental and physical well-being, which is supported by several studies (Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Wethington, 1989; Boles et al., 2001; Grzywacz, 1999).

2.7 Expansionist Theory

In contrast to conflict theory and the scarcity hypothesis, *expansionist theory* (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Marks, 1977) asserts that handling multiple roles may in fact be beneficial and not harmful for men or women, this in relation to mental health, physical health as well as relationship health. For men, participation in the family role, and for women, encompassing the work role is seen merely as something valuable. As long as the number of roles or demands is not too excessive, multiple roles may actually be psychologically energizing rather than exhausting (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Lee & Phillips, 2006). The human energy is merely seen as a potentially expandable resource, and by engaging in multiple roles there is an opportunity to increase one's energy supply (Barnett & Gareis, in Pitt-Catsouphes, Kossek, & Sweet, 2006). Barnett and Hyde (2001) mention how multiple roles may offer opportunities for success as well as opportunities for frustration, much depending on the amount of time spent within the roles. According to Crosby (1991, in Lee & Phillips, 2006), depression is less prevalent for women having multiple, rather than few roles. He stressed the importance of role quality and financial security when measuring the beneficial effect of having multiple roles on mental health, which was also seen as a tendency in the study of Grzywacz (2000). Lee and Phillips (2006) explained their findings by referring to expansionist theory as they found family role quality to be more important than the number of roles held by their married-partnered participants. In the same study they also found those being married and having children to not report any higher levels of stress than married workers without children. Barnett and Baruch (1985) declared that employed married or not married women with or without children announced even higher well-being than the unemployed women. Further on, married women with children and with high prestige jobs reported the highest level of well-being of them all.

2.8 Work and Family Values

It is said that to fully understand the work-family conflict, individual values people hold about work and family must be considered (Carlson & Kackmar, 2000). Values give people sense of life and influence the way they think and experience their existence. Research indicates that life values affect both satisfaction at work and life in general (George & Jones, 1996; Kalleberg, 1977). General life values offer some kind of foundation for the terminal and instrumental values, further being related to the work and family domains (Perrevè, Wayne, & Hochwarter, 2001), and values about work are found to significantly and independently affect people's level of job satisfaction (Kalleberg, 1977). The more one appreciates a certain aspect in life, the more conflict within this aspect will affect satisfaction in it, as in this case would be at home or at work. So far, research on values has observed the strongest influence of work on family life, but this research is mostly based on traditional views seeing the man as the main provider of the family through his work. In today's society, with more working women and at the same time taking care of the family, one might question whether some of the earlier research in this field might be outdated (Perrevè et al. 2001).

Changing family values are given more and more attention all over the world and the amount of women placing family first has declined (Regan & Roland, 1985). Noor (2004) agrees with this notion through her finding of a direct effect of work salience on job satisfaction for women, indicating how women has become more involved in, and committed to their work. In the study of Johnson and Mortimer (in Parcel & Cornfield, 2000) on late adolescent Americans, the girls claimed career to be more important than did the boys. Females considered work outside home as a given, and at the same time more strongly believed they would be able to have a happy family life. They seemed to be aware of the potential interference between family and work, but expected to attain occupational prestige in addition to be intensively involved in their family life. The females and males in the study seemed to be very much aware and ready to attain to future work *and* family roles. Johnson and Mortimer argued that individuals today do not want to choose between family and work. They want to "have it all" and to be able to balance work and family without having to sacrifice opportunities in either of the two areas. Evidently, women and not only men hold such goals and attitudes quite strongly (Jacobs & Gerson, 2004; Noor, 2004). In the study by Carlson and Kackmar (2000) results showed that individuals who valued work more than family reported more interference from family to work and experienced less family satisfaction from the family antecedents. They explained this finding by suggesting how people who place work above family may experience a conflict in the family domain, further

creating more time demands and conflicts which reduce the feeling of satisfaction in family life. Because they find work most essential, problems in this area affect their satisfaction at home to a great extent.

The opposite is true for people being more family-oriented as they may be in a situation where they have to work although they would rather stay home with the family. Therefore, work becomes more of an intrusion decreasing their level of job satisfaction (Regan & Roland, 1985). Individuals who put family before work will find that work demands and job involvement influence their level of job satisfaction to a greater extent than those valuing work more than family. At last, for people who appreciated work *and* family to the same extent, there was a strong interaction between work role conflict and job satisfaction, and between job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Carlson & Kackmar, 2000). Carlson and Kackmar suggested this finding to be explained by these people believing work to play a major role in their overall life satisfaction.

Findings from the study of Greenhaus and Powell (2003) revealed that many individuals tend to select a family activity over a competing work activity except if their self-identities are deeply grounded in work *and* at the same time weekly ingrained in family life. Greenhaus and Powell also found that the majority of their respondents (57%) preferred family activities over work activities and by this allowed family responsibilities to interfere with their work life. These findings are inconsistent with a lot of research arguing how work to family interference is much more prevalent than the opposite (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Kinnunen et al., 2004). Cinamon and Rich (2002) addressed gender differences and found men to see their work role and women their family role as most important to them. As mentioned above, women tend to prioritize family to a lesser extent than they did before, but when a dual-career dilemma appears within the family, it is more often her than him who sacrifice career for the sake of the family (Regan & Roland, 1985; Roness, 2004).

2.8.1 Preference Theory

Preference theory (Hakim, 2000) focuses on women and the choices available regarding work and family. According to Hakim, women face a different choice than men, although this seems to be changing. He states that most social studies have come to an assumption that most women want to combine family and work. Hakim conceives the modern woman as being heterogeneous in her preferences and priorities when it comes to conflicts between work and family life as she has more opportunities to choose from. Preference theory also expects men to keep having their dominance in the labor market because women still

hesitate to prioritize career over family.

2.8.2 *The Changing Role Perspective*

The changing role perspective (Pleck, 1979) on the other hand, devalue the pessimism associated with men's priorities suggesting that although men still prioritize household tasks less than women, it appears that they do partake more than before, especially when their spouse is employed. The development moves forward in a rather slow pace, but should not be dismissed. The participation of women in the workforce will most probably continue to increase and so will the involvement and childcare of fathers (Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth, & Lamb, 2000). Keita and Hurrell (1994) explained how the meaning of career and family roles are changing for both men and women, but also reminded of the conflicting evidence on the subject matter. According to Carr (2002), men today are better than past generations in terms of adjusting their work schedules in response to family responsibilities. In the study of Keita and Hurrell (1994), 70% of women and 50% of men reported family to be their number one source of satisfaction in life.

Perrevè et al. (2001) put forward the notion of value similarity implying that partners and family members with similar values will be less likely to experience a conflict between work and family than those holding dissimilar values. They also mentioned, what is previously brought up, that the more one value a certain aspect or domain, the more will any conflict affect satisfaction in that specific domain. Perrevè and his co-workers concluded by implying that values and value attainment is critically important to consider when studying the work-family conflict as they regarded work-family conflict to be causing dissatisfaction in both job and life in general.

2.9 *Social Support*

Most people have a basic need for socialization with others. For those without a family, friends may work as a "substitute", supporting and promoting positive feelings, but individuals who have supportive families may also need socialization with people outside the family in order to feel content. Job satisfaction on its own does not seem to be enough in order to have a good health and well-being in life, but the combination of job satisfaction and satisfaction during leisure time however, seem to be the strongest predictor for good health (Pearson, 1998).

Interpersonal ties with other people are crucially important to most of us as they provide us with emotional, instrumental, and informational support as well as being an

important source of satisfaction and fulfillment in life. People have a basic need for belonging which encourage individuals to seek for social interactions with other individuals (Derissen, Penker, Schmitt, & Marcel, 2008). Several stress and conflict-models claim how social support is an important coping mechanism. In the study of Carlson and Perrevè (1999) social support was found to reduce perceived role stressors (conflict and ambiguity) and time demands, hence, indirectly reducing potential work-family conflict. In their full model of work-family conflict, social support in each of the domains (family or work) was positively related to domain satisfaction. They also found that both time demands and overload in both the work and family domain were reduced by experiencing social support. Adams, King and King (1996) studied the relationship between work and family and found that high levels of instrumental and emotional support was related to lower levels of family to work-interference *and* positively related to life satisfaction. They stated how research within this area has found family support to play an important part in the process of work-related stress. Being involved in the family can be the start of a positive circle effect as it may lead to more social support from the family. Those who choose to be highly involved in their family often tend to devote more time and energy to the family which respond to this by giving support back.

Although social support is found to play a key role in the stressor-strain relationships, there are in fact very few studies that have clarified how men and women differ in terms of social support (Carlson & Perrevè, 1999). However, in the study of Roxburgh (1999, in Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007) it was revealed that whereas support from co-workers was most important to men, spouse or partner-support was more significant to women. In the study of Perrevè and Carlson (2002), social support turned out to be important for both genders, but lead to higher job satisfaction for women than for men. However, when family support increased, family to work-interference decreased more for women than for men. It seemed as when family support was present, women took the most advantage of this. According to Gonzales-Morales, Piero, Rodriguez and Greenglass (2006), women are generally found to be more effective when using their interpersonal skills, whereas men may experience social support more as a challenge to their gender role. Also, as Greenhaus and Beutell (1983, in Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) announce, having a husband with profeminist attitudes may be a so-called “buffer” for a woman who experiences stressors from her involvement outside the house. However, couples with dissimilarities in fundamental beliefs (for instance about men and women’s life roles), are very likely to experience stress from the lack of mutual support (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Holahan and Moos (1985) assert that self-confidence is a stronger factor of resistance for men than for women and that family support is strongly

related with self-confidence in men. For women, family support was related the tendency to make use of healthy coping strategies and avoid “bottling up” feelings of strain. This was apparent in their study as the stress resistant group consisted of self-confident men and women with greater social support than the distressed group. They also pointed to a central notion saying that whereas women turn to other people in order to deal with stress, men react with social withdrawal. Holahan and Moos furthermore pointed out how women would benefit from improving their self-confidence, as self-esteem rates were lower for the female participants than the male participants.

Perrewè and Carlson (2002) reported that from their study on social support, men were more likely to perceive social support in their family environment, while women were found to benefit more from both work and family support. Perrewè and Carlson found it rather interesting that men perceived more social support than the women. They speculated in how women perhaps tend to give more social support to their spouses than what they receive themselves. Another explanation could be that the women in the study desired more social support from their family than did the men.

2.10 Age and Family-Work Interference

According to Warr (1992; 2007), age is a significant predictor of occupational well-being. He suggests that as workers get older, the perceived gap between the actual and ideal job gets smaller, thus generates more positive attitudes towards work. After experiencing several job situations throughout the years, older workers have probably lowered their aspirations. Their opportunities for getting a new job usually decreases and they may be pleased easier with the job they are in. Warr also emphasizes how older workers in their 50`s and 60`s, compared to the younger workers, tend to be more satisfied with their achievements which further contributes to enhanced self-perception. Folkman, Lazarus, Pimley and Novacek (1987) agreed with the above findings as they found younger workers to be experiencing more hassles in the domains of finances, work, home maintenance, personal life, and with family and friends. They suggested this to be due to that younger adults more often have younger children living at home. In relation to coping with family and work, Folkman et al. found striking and consistent age differences in coping, as younger adults used more interpersonal, problem-focused forms of coping (aggressive interpersonal efforts to alter the circumstances) compared to the older adults leaning towards a more passive form of coping, (such as distancing, self-controlling, seeking social support and accepting responsibility). Emotional coping is negatively associated with job satisfaction and positively correlated to

psychological stress, while problem-focused coping is negatively related to psychological symptoms such as job anxiety and depression (Billings & Moos, 1984; Greenglass, 1993). Folkman et al. (1987) asked themselves whether these age differences were a result of differences in what the two age-groups were coping with, development stages over the life cycle, or simply cohort or generation effects. Historically differences of the two cohorts could contribute to the above findings. Judge and Livingstone (2008) argue that younger cohorts usually have less gender traditional attitudes towards roles and responsibilities and younger men, more than older ones, take part in household tasks. In their study, Judge and Livingstone found gender roles to liberalize over time, as the average individual in the study became less traditional in his or her gender role orientation over time. Craig and Sawrikar (2009) suggested that women adjust their time around family demands over the life cycle, whereas men's participation in paid and unpaid work varies little by age of the children. They found men with older children to be marginally more conservative about gender roles compared to men with younger children. The women with older children reported more satisfaction with balancing work and family, rated household as more important, and also had more egalitarian gender attitudes than mothers of younger children. Craig and Sawrikar proposed that independent of the age of children, there were signs that men seemed to want to participate more in the home.

2.11 Education and Family-Work Interference

Most studies report a positive relationship between education and family and work interference. According to Kitterød and Lappegård (2010), highly educated people more often experience work-family interference compared to the lower educated, although the higher educated tend to have a more flexible work situation. Highly educated women with children are those who struggle the most, and Kitterød and Lappegård state that as the income increases, the well-being decreases. This, they argue, is due to the fact that the higher educated work more hours and also have higher expectations to their men regarding participating at home. In agreement of the above findings, Karatepe and Uludag (2008) also found higher educated employees to be experiencing more interference from family to work.

“Helseundersøkelsen” in Hordaland, Norway 1997-1999, revealed that occupations which do not require more than 9 years of elementary school are worst off in the study regarding satisfaction with work, as well as experiences of anxiety and depression (Sanne et al., in Roness, 2004). At the same time, studies show how education is related to having a more egalitarian, rather than a traditional view on gender and gender roles. The egalitarian

outlook sees men and women as equal and does not see the woman's role primary as a housewife, or the man as the main breadwinner. It is also suggested that those having more traditional values regarding gender roles more often feel guilty if "sacrificing" family over work (Judge & Livingstone, 2008).

Well-educated couples have shown a greater tendency to share the housework between them compared to the lower educated couples, and at the same time they are more capable and willing to buy in domestic services in order to get help with the household (Cheal, 2008). Clark (1997) also emphasized that being highly educated may increase expectations to what a job should entail, and thus diminishing the gender differences in job satisfaction.

2.12 Free time and Gender

Life outside work influence how one feels and behaves at work, and positive mood experiences at home can promote well being as well as performance at work (Williams & Alliger, 1994). Work also erodes both women and men's free time, though in different ways. Despite gains in gender equality in other domains, there are discrepancies between men and women and how they experience free time, and women are found to report having less of it than men. When only quantity of leisure time is measured, the two genders are alike. However, the women have more responsibility for the children and this may explain why mothers report more time pressure during their free time than fathers. The gender differences in the experience of free time are found to differ, to some extent, through the life-cycle. Early in the marriage as well as when having preschool children, the discrepancies between the genders are assumed to be the greatest (Mattingly & Bianchi, 2003). A Norwegian study (Vaage, 2002) revealed that both men and women in the age group 25-44 were the ones reporting to have the least amount of leisure time as well as having the longest work-days, but in the study there was only found 8 minutes of free time in favor of the men.

The reasons for the gender-discrepancies that are often found may be many, but some women may find it harder to switch off the parent-role when at work and easily get concerned about family matters at all times. These concerns may further spill over to their leisure time and women may also be more prone to feelings of guilt if not using enough time on their children during their free time (Mattingly & Bianchi, 2003). This may further relate to social role theory (and stereotypes), suggesting how women and men habitually, and often unconsciously adapt to their perceived gender roles (Biernat & Kobrynavicz, 1999; Eckes & Trautner, 2000). In the study of Mattingly and Bianchi (2003), it was found that women feel more time-pressure, and their free time is seldom as beneficial to them as men's in terms of

reducing feelings of strain. Women's free time activities may more often be closely related to the aim of improving the well-being of the family, and the activities may not always be perceived as relaxing as they ought to. Women's free time differs from men's as it contains more presence of children, and although gender roles may be evolving toward greater similarity, there is still a leisure gap favoring men. Important to add is also the finding of women to be carrying out almost twice as much housework than their male counterparts, which also may explain the gender differences in experience of leisure time (Delaat, 2007). Thrane (2000) studied Scandinavian employees finding that full-time employment reduces leisure time more for men, whereas having children, reduces leisure time more for women than for men. Sullivan (2006) implies that compared to the high-earning and full-time employed women, women with part-time work, and those who have young children, have the largest responsibilities and the least amount of leisure time.

Work amount also seems to affect men less than women in terms of satisfaction with the family and work circumstances. The Institute for Society Science (in Filstad et al. 2000) suggests that women feel more time pressure than men. While women feel dissatisfied with long hours at work and little leisure time, men are satisfied regardless of how much time he or his wife spends at work.

2.13 The Present Study

As mentioned above, the present study looked into several aspects, such as gender, socialization outside work, life values and family-work interference, all in relation to satisfaction at work. In addition, factors such as age, education and leisure time were taken into account. Based on the research presented above, the hypotheses were further developed and the following section presents the hypotheses together with a rationale for each one.

2.14 Hypotheses

H 1 People with higher education will feel stronger interference between work and family

Research claims that people who are higher educated experience more interference between work and family, much because they work more hours than people with lower education. Although people with higher education have more flexibility, it appears that they do not use their flexibility in favor of the family, but moreover spend more hours at work and this further influence their balance between work and family (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008;

Kitterød, 2000). As the sample in the present study consisted of university and college-employees, there were expectations of the participants to be, at least to a certain extent, highly educated. Thus, there were expectations of the highly educated participants to be reporting more interference than the lower educated respondents in the study.

H 2 Age has a significant influence on experience of family-work interference.

In terms of age and interference, Warr (1992; 2000) found age to be a significant predictor to occupational well-being. In addition, findings indicate that older workers seems to be more satisfied with their work while younger workers, especially if having small children, seems to experience more problems with balancing work and family (Folkman et al., 1987; Warr, 1992). Based on these findings, there were assumed that the age of the participants in the present study would have some kind of influence on the experience of work and family.

H 3 There is no difference between men and women when it comes to their experience of positive socialization with friends and family during free time.

H 4 There is no difference between men and women when it comes to the experience of free time as negative.

There are claims of a so called “leisure gap” between men and women, favoring men. Mattingly and Bianchi (2003)) are some of the researchers arguing how women report having less leisure time than men, and that women more often feel obligated to spend their free time with their children. However, Vaage (2002) reported only small gender differences in leisure time (8 minutes favoring men). In addition, higher educated women are found to more often make use of domestic services and thereby have more spare time (Cheal, 2008), and as the sample in the present study consisted of highly educated women (and men), there were expectations of not finding any difference between the genders.

H 5 Women tend to feel stronger family-work interference than men.

Despite diverse findings on the subject matter, it is more often found that woman experience interference between work and family, much due to the fact that they often have,

or feel that they have the main responsibility for the household (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Warr, 1990). Based on this, women in the study were expected to experience stronger interference than men.

H 6 Women feel more often than men that negative family demands influence their job satisfaction.

H 7 Women feel more often than men that positive family experiences enhance their feelings of job satisfaction.

Similar to what mentioned above, women tend to have the main responsibility for the household and experience more interference between family and work (Noor, 2004; Kitterød, 2000; Warr, 1990). Therefore, it was reasonable to assume that there would be gender differences in the experience of home demands, and that these would further affect how women and men feel about work. As research also indicates how family responsibilities may positively affect the family-work experience, especially for women (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Marshall, 1997), there were assumed that both positive and negative family experiences would affect women more than men.

H 8 There is a difference in the experience of family-work interference between people living with children and people living without any children.

Findings reveal that having children, and especially small children living at home, is associated with increased negative spillover between family and work (Sullivan, 2006; Warr, 1990). Based on these findings there were expected that there would be a difference in the present study between participants with and without children in how they experienced interference between family and work.

H 9 Women have a tendency to value family more than work.

H 10 Men have a tendency to value work more than family

Although times are changing in the way that more women with children choose to have a career in addition to a family life, there is a current tendency that women more often sacrifice career over work and to some extent, still feel more responsible for the family. Findings indicate that men have started to take more part in family life, especially in the lives

of their children, but there are still found to be differences between men and women in how they value work and family (Cinamon & Rich, 2002; Regan & Roland, 1985; Roness, 2004). Based on these findings, there were expected that women in the present study would put more value into family life than men, and men to still be valuing work more than family.

H 11 People who value family more than work will feel less family-work interference.

H 12 People who value career higher than family will feel more family-work interference.

According to Perrevè and Hochwarter (2001), level of satisfaction in a domain (work or family) depends on how much significance the person puts into that specific domain. The more one value a certain domain, the more will any conflict affect satisfaction in it. Based on this notion, there was expected that people in the present study would experience more conflict in the domain they valued the most.

2. Method

2.1 Participants

The final sample consisted of 116 participants. The sample included a larger number of women (N=80) than men (N=36), with 54.3% being in the age group 21-40, and 39.7 % in the group 41-60 years old. Only 6.9 % of the sample constituted those within the age group 61-80, which was rather expected as I was aiming for employed workers.

Concerning education, 55.2% reported to have completed university studies for more than 4 years, and as much as 23.3 % holding a PhD. Only 8.6 % reported only secondary school as their completed education. The remaining 12.9 % reported having a university/college education lasting up to 4 years. As was hoped for, the majority of the sample reported having a family. 88 % stated having a cohabitant/spouse. 6% reported having a girl/boyfriend, but living alone, 4.3% answered being single and 1.7% being separated, divorced or widowed. 51.3% reported living with partner and children. 36.5% reported living with partner, but without children. 3.5% said they live with their children, but not with any partner, 5.2% that they live alone without any family and 2.6 % reported living alone, but having their family living somewhere else in the same city. 0.9% lived alone, and having their family living elsewhere in Norway. Regarding the number of children whom the participants were living with, 39.6 % reported having 1 or 2 children in the house, 15.7 % having 3 children, and only 1.7 % living with 4 children or more. 44 % of the respondents had children,

but were not living together with any of them. As much as 87.9 % of the respondents were born and raised in Norway and only 12.0 % in another country.

2.2 Procedure

Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD) was contacted for approval of the study. The questionnaire and information about the study were reported to NSD and any necessary changes were made to get the research project approved for completion. In order to give both Norwegians and foreign workers the opportunity to participate, the questionnaire was presented in two versions; one in Norwegian and one in English (see Appendix). From web-site lists of employees and their email-addresses, invitations to employees at BI and NTNU were sent. None of the employees was able to see who received the email and no one, including myself, was able to find out who did or did not complete the questionnaire. This was done in order to keep the receivers anonymous to the researcher. The emails that were sent contained a description of the study and a link to a web-based questionnaire. The link to the questionnaire was also put on the universities internal message board, giving people who did not receive the invitation on email the opportunity to participate. Participation was completely voluntarily and anonymous as the IP-addresses of the respondents were filtered out before getting access to the data. The receivers were informed that clicking the link was regarded as their consent to participate in the study. After three weeks of availability, the questionnaire was closed and the data attained.

2.3 Measures

A 36- item, web-based questionnaire was devised in order to measure the relationship between family life and job satisfaction. The items had to be answered on a seven point Likert agreement scale. Five subscales¹ were developed measuring family and work conflict, job satisfaction, leisure time/socialization, and value about work and family.

For all subscales, the rating scale ranged from 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (strongly disagree) where the participants were to click the numbers best describing their agreement to each statement. Thus, the higher the scores were, the lesser agreement to the statement was indicated and vice versa. The questionnaire was web-based; hence, any chance of answering

¹ A sixth subscale, "perception of partner's family-work interference" was originally included in the questionnaire. However, due to technical problems, some of the respondents were not able to see this section and it was therefore excluded from the study.

to more than one alternative was controlled automatically. Demographic variables were recorded in the first part of the questionnaire to get the necessary information about the participants: Sex, age, education, civil status, number of children, living situation and nationality. A detailed description of the measurement scales and statistical tests on their quality are presented in the following paragraphs. As the limited number of participants did not allow a joint factor analysis of all items the items are analyzed in groups of related items.

2.3.1 Family-Work Interference Scale

For this measurement the respondents were asked to rate how often they experienced a conflict between work and family commitments and responsibilities. There were 6 alternatives presented in order to get an overview of experienced conflict, and frequencies were computed; daily (8.5%), several times a week (13.2%), weekly (17.0%), about every other week (14.2%), every 3-4 week (11.3%), seldom or never (35.8%).

Furthermore, a 13-item battery was developed, also to measure the relationship between work and family (see Table 1 for the items). Some of the items were adapted from Burley (1989, in Adams et al., 1996), and Kopelman et al. (1983, in Adams et al. 1996). Also, items used in the study of Mitchelson (2009) measuring family interference with work were adapted into this work and family-battery, as well as items from the study of Innstrand, Langballe and Falkum (2010) measuring WFI and FWI.

A factor analysis (principal component) was conducted to analyze the underlying factor structure. The initial solution was Varimax rotated to improve interpretability. With the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy of .63, just above the recommended value of .60 and with Bartlett's test of sphericity being significant ($\chi^2(78)=410.62, p<0.001$), the assumption of the variables as factorable could be made. In addition, the communalities were all above .30 (see table 1) further confirming that each item shared some common variance with other items. There appeared 4 factors with Eigenvalue >1 (see appendix). A Monte Carlo Parallel Analysis (Ledesma & Valero-Moda, 2007; Watkins, 2006) was also completed suggesting four factors as the initial Eigenvalues were larger than the first four random Eigenvalues. As can be seen in table 1, five variables were loading on factor 1 higher than .40. In order to check the reliability of the variables, Cronbachs Alpha (.74) was computed and turned out satisfactory. The variable "My work keeps me from being with my family as much as I want" was loading high on factor 1 *and* 2, but was kept under factor 2 when achieving a higher Cronbach` Alpha (than the initial .60) when deleting the variable from factor 1. Thus, the four remaining variables made up a new factor which was named "Positive Family

Influence”, explaining 22.2 % of the variance (see appendix). Factor 2 explained 19.2 % of the variables. Five variables were loading on the second factor (“Negative Family Demands” with a Cronbach’s alpha for the five items being .70. Factor 3 explained 13.2 % of the variance and had initially 3 variables loading. The variable “Work is a place where I relax from my family life” was loading both on factor 2 and 3. When using discretion, the variable was found more appropriate under factor 2 as the statement were more of the opposite meaning when compared to the two additional statements under factor 3, indicating positive influence of family on work. In theory, only two variables constituting a factor is not recommended, but Cronbachs Alpha turned out rather high (.72), thus factor 3 was kept and called “Positive job Energy”. The fourth and last factor explained 10.3 % of the variance and with Cronbach`s Alpha as low as .20, the variables were instead used as independent measures and were given new names: “Family to Work” and Drag Work Home”. The three final factors and the fourth, dismissed factor as well as Cronbach`s Alpha for each factor can be seen in Table 1. Communalities for each variable are also included.

Table 1

Factor loadings and communalities based on a principal component analysis with varimax rotation for 13 items from the scale on relationship between work and family (N=100).

	Pos Fam Influence	Neg fam demands	Pos Job Energy	Factor 4	Commun ality
I am occupied with my family life while at work		.69		.45	.68
My co-workers often mention how occupied I am with my family life at work				.78	.68
Commitments to my family get in the way of my work		.84			.72
My work is a place where I relax from my family life		.43	.62		.60

Note: Table continues on the next page.

Note: Continuing table from the last page.

My work keeps me from being with my family as much as I want	.46	.49			.60
Having a family that supports me helps me handle stress at work	.72				.55
Home is a place where I get energy to spend at work	.81				.70
My family inspires me to do my best at work	.88				.80
I am occupied with work while at home				.69	.53
Thinking of my family while I am working gives me motivation to work	.66				.50
Work gives me energy I can spend on my family				.74	.66
Cronbach`s Alpha	.74	.70	.72	.20	

Note: The final variables accounting for the specific factor (column) are in bold typeface.

2.3.2 Job Satisfaction Scale

A 5-item battery was developed to measure satisfaction at work (see Table 2 for the items). Inspiration and examples of job satisfaction items used in this battery were obtained from the Hackman and Oldham`s Job Diagnostic Survey (1975, in Adams, King, & King, 1996). The factorability was examined finding a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of adequacy of .88, highly above the recommended value, and Bartlett`s test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2(10)=415.29, p<0.001$), thus factorability of the data was assumed. Only one factor appeared with an Eigenvalue >1 (see appendix), explaining 77.8 % of the variance. The Monte Carlo Parallel Analysis also suggested using one factor as the initial Eigenvalue was larger than the first, random factor. All the five variables loading on factor 1 had high inter correlations. Cronbach`s Alpha at .92 indicates strong internal consistency. The factor is called “Job Satisfaction” and Table 2 presents factor loadings, communalities and Cronbach`s Alpha.

Table 2

Factor loadings and communalities based on a principal component analysis with varimax rotation for five items from the scale on job satisfaction (N=102).

	Job satisfaction	Communality
I usually look forward to go to work	.85	.73
If I was to decide all over again whether or not to take my job, I would decide to take it without hesitation	.81	.64
I am generally satisfied with the type of work I do in this job	.91	.83
I find myself having a pleasant time at work	.91	.82
Overall, I am satisfied with my job	.94	.88
Cronbach`s Alpha	.92	

2.3.3 Leisure Time/Socialization scale

Respondents were asked how often they spend time with friends outside work. Frequencies were measured and the following percentage were found: Several times a week (17.0%), weekly (35.0%), less frequently (38.0%), almost never or never (10.0%). No respondents reported spending time with friends on a daily basis.

A 6- item battery was developed to measure feelings towards leisure time and socialization with friends and family (see Table 3 for the items). With a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin adequacy measure of .64 and Bartlett`s test of sphericity being significant ($\chi^2(15)=156.82$, $p<0.001$), variables were found suitable for factor analyses. Two factors were found with Eigenvalue >1 (see appendix), and explaining 40.3% and 25.4% of the variance, respectively.

The Monte Carlo Parallel Analysis was also computed and supported the suggestion of two factors as the initial Eigenvalues were greater than the two first random Eigenvalues. As presented in Table 3. Four variables were loading on factor 1, and only 2 variables on factor 2. A Cronbach`s alpha of .79 for the variables loading on factor 1 and .76 for the variables loading on factor 2 indicate good internal consistencies. Factor 1 was given the name “Positive socialization” and factor 2 “Negative free time”.

Table 3

Factor loadings and communalities based on a principal component analysis with varimax rotation for six' items from the scale on leisure time and socialization (N=100).

	Positive socialization in free time	Negative free time	Communality
Being with my friends in my free time gives me energy I need for work	.88		.63
Talking to friends helps me deal with problems at work	.77		.77
Being with my family in my free time gives me energy I need for work	.73		.40
Talking to friends helps me deal with family problems	.52		.61
During my free time I feel I am wasting my time		.90	.81
For me, leisure time just drags on		.85	.73
Cronbach`s Alpha	.79	.76	

2.3.4 Values (priorities) of Work and Family scale

A 7- item battery was developed in order to measure respondent`s values regarding work and family. With Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin adequacy measure of .61 and Bartlett`s test of sphericity being significant ($\chi^2(21)=178.22, p<0.001$), the variables were found factorable. Three factors were found with Eigenvalue >1 (see appendix), factor 1 explaining 34.7%, of the variance and having four variables loading, factor 2 explaining 24% of the variance and with two variables loading, and factor 3 explaining 15.4% of the variance and with only one loading variable. Cronbach`s Alpha for the two first factors were .80, and .71, respectively. Both factors were maintained due to high measures on internal consistency, but the third factor was dismissed as it had only one variable. Keeping two yielding factors was also suggested by using the Monte Carlo Parallel Analysis and obtaining Eigenvalues lower than the initial Eigenvalues completed by using factor analysis. Factor 2 had only two loading variables, but as they both loaded notably high (.90 and .86), factor 2 was included as a new yielding factor. The variable “I work to live” was kept as an independent measure as it loaded very high (.92) on factor 3, and the variable was given the name “Work to Live”. Factor 1 was given the name “Job first” and factor 2 “Family first”. All three factors as well as communalities for each variable are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Factor loadings and communalities based on a principal component analysis with varimax rotation for 6 items from the scale on work and family values (N=99).

	Job first	Family first	Factor 3	Communality
Career has a high priority in my life	.85			.76
I live for my work	.79			.67
I strive for promotion	.74			.71
Work should be considered central to life	.69			.62

Note: Table continues on the next page.

Note: Continuing table from last page.

Family should be considered central to life		.90		.82
Family is a high priority in my life		.85		.76
I work to live			.92	.86
Cronbach`s Alpha	.80	.71		

Composite scores were computed for the eight factors, based on the mean of the items which had their significant loadings on the respective factor. Higher scores indicated greater disagreement to the statements. Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics for the eight factors and includes the three single item variables/measures.

Table 5

Descriptive statistics for the eight factors and three independent measures/variables (N=107).

	No. of Items	<i>M (SD)</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis	Alpha
PosFamInfluence	4	3.07 (1.26)	-.47	-.11	.74
NegFamDemands	5	6.41(1.09)	-2.15	4.53	.70
PosJobEnergy	2	4.03(1.46)	.22	-.39	.72
JobSatisfaction	5	2.37(1.23)	1.03	.48	.92
PosSocialization	4	2.91 (1.16)	.66	1.12	.79
NegFreeTime	2	6.42 (1.46)	-2.15	4.53	.76
JobFirst	4	3.76 (1.29)	.25	-.03	.80
FamFirst	2	1.64 (.83)	1.54	2.57	.71
FamToWork	1	6.48 (1.08)	-2.77	.87	
DragWorkHome	1	3.67 (1.75)	.32	-.95	
WorkToLive	1	3.76 (1.29)	.25	-.03	

3. Results

H 1 People with higher education will feel stronger interference between work and family.

A one-way ANOVA was computed, comparing the scores of the participants within the three educational groups; Elementary/High school, Lower education and Higher education. Table 9 displays the mean scores for each group and it can be seen that the trend in the data points into the wrong direction.

Table 9

Interference between job and family for the three educational groups included in the one-way ANOVA.

Variable	M	SD	N
Elementary/High School	1.667	.577	3
Lower Education	1.529	.799	17
Higher Education	1.361	.839	86

Furthermore, a non-significant F-ratio was found between the groups $F(2,315)=.459$, $p=.633$. The Levene test demonstrated homogeneity of variance among the groups ($p=.633$). These results indicate that there cannot be assumed to be any differences between the three educational groups in relation to experience of family-work interference. However, as equal group sizes are prerequisite for an ANOVA, these results should be analyzed with caution as the sizes of the three group samples varied greatly and that may have affected the results to some extent.

H 2 Age has a significant influence on experience of family-work interference.

Because age was measured in categories Kendall's Tau-b and Spearman correlations were computed between age and the experience of family-work interference. The Kendall's Tau-b revealed a non-significant result ($r=.119$, $p=.190$). In addition, no significant result was found from the Spearman's rho ($r=.127$, $p=.193$). There is a small positive correlation between the variables, but as none of the correlations turned out significantly different from zero, it cannot be concluded to represent a relationship between age and family-work interference.

H 3 There is no difference between men and women when it comes to their experience of positive socialization with friends and family during free time.

In order to examine any potential differences between men and women with respect to positive socializing in free time, an independent samples t-test was computed. The Levene test appeared to be non-significant ($p=.360$), thus equal variances were assumed. The t-test results revealed a significant difference between men ($M=3.508$, $SD=1.309$) and women ($M=2.629$, $SD=.959$); $t(99)=3.821$, $p<.001$. Supposedly, there seem to be a difference between men and women in how they experienced positive socialization in their free time. Men seem to experience more positive socialization than women.

H 4 There is no difference between men and women when it comes to the experience of free time as negative.

When measuring the relationship between gender and experience of free time as negative, an independent samples t-test was computed. A Levene test was conducted, revealing a non-significant result ($p=.260$). Equal variances were therefore assumed. The t-test turned out to be non significant ($t(99)=-.922$, $p=.359$) for the differences between men ($M=6.273$, $SD=1.119$) and women ($M=6.485$, $SD=1.072$). Thus, in accordance to what predicted, there seem to be no differences between men and women in how they experience negative free time.

H 5 Women feel more often than men that negative family demands influence their job satisfaction.

With job satisfaction as criterion variable and gender and negative family demands (NegFamDemands) as predictor variables, a multiple, hierarchical regression was computed. (Descriptive statistics for all variables included in the two regression analyses can be seen in table 8 further down).

The Durbin-Watson test of 2.202 met the prerequisites by indicating low levels of autocorrelation in the residuals. A first block was entered in to the regression analysis, using the variables NegFamDemands and gender, and ending up with a non-significant model ($F_{2,101}=1.437$, $p=.243$). The adjusted R Square=.009 indicates that the model only explains 0.9% of the variance in the dependent variable, job satisfaction. With every unit increase in NegFamilyDemands, job satisfaction increases with .009, if gender is held constant. Women have a .435 higher job satisfaction if NegFamDemands is held constant.

Secondly, an interaction term was computed by centering NegativeFamilyDemands around its mean ($M=4.7467$) and recoding the variable of gender (0=Men; 1=Women) and multiplying the two variables. The new variable was named "Gender_NegFamDemands" and entered in the second block of the regression analysis, also turning out non-significant ($F_{3,101}=1.895, p=.213$) with Adjusted R Square=.026. Thus, the second model including the interaction of gender and NegFamDemands, explained 2.6% of the variance in job satisfaction which is a small increase compared to Model 1. By looking at the unstandardized regression weights and ignoring the missed significance (in block 2), the following observations can be stated: For men, job satisfaction increases .246 with each unit increase in NegFamDemands, this with gender held constant. Women have a .40 higher job satisfaction than men, if NegFamDemands is held constant. From looking at the interaction term (see Table 6) it can be concluded that women's job satisfaction decreases with -.10 with each unit increase of NegFamDemands (from .246- .346). The significant levels of the variables entered in block 2 are all between .10 and .16, which may be due to a small sample size, and they might have become significant in a larger sample. The tendencies in the data point into the expected direction.

Collinearity statistics and tolerance (VIF and tolerance) was also checked and turned out with acceptable values (see Table 6 on the next page). As results ended up being non-significant, there cannot be made any conclusions or assumptions. However, gender appears to explain a fair bit of the variance in job satisfaction as women tend to report a bit higher job satisfaction than men. However, this does not depend on NegFamDemands in this model. No assumptions can be made on whether women or men feel that negative family demands influence their satisfaction at work. One can only speculate about the fact that women in the current study seem to report more satisfaction at work than do men.

Table 6.

Predictor variables for the dependent variable job satisfaction (N=101).

Model	Predictor Variable	B	SE	Beta	T	P	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.603	.615		2.605	.011		
	Gender	.435	.259	.167	1.676	.097	.990	1.010
	NegFamDemands	.009	.098	.009	.092	.927	.990	1.010
2	(Constant)	.554	.878		.631	.529		
	Gender	.400	.258	.153	1.549	.125	.984	1.017
	NegFamDemands	.246	.173	.251	1.428	.157	.311	3.211
	Gender_NegFamDemands	-.346	.209	-.291	-1.662	.100	.314	3.184

H 6 Women feel more often than men that positive family experiences enhance their feelings of job satisfaction.

With job satisfaction as criterion variable and gender and positive family influence (PosFamInfluence) as predictor variables, multiple, hierarchal regression analysis was performed. The Durbin-Watson test of 2.189 met the prerequisites by indicating low levels of autocorrelation in the residuals. A first “block” was entered into the regression analysis using the variables PosFamInfluence and Gender, ending up with a non-significant model ($F_{2,101}=1.437, p=.074$). Adjusted R Square=.032. Predictor variables are shown in Table 7. Thus, Model 1 explains 3.2% of the variance in the dependent variable, job satisfaction. Job satisfaction increases with .151 for every unit increase in PosFamInfluence, when gender is held constant. Women seem to have a .413 higher job satisfaction, this when PosFamInfluence is held constant (see Table 7).

Secondly, a new variable was computed by multiplying the mean centered PosFamInfluence ($M=3.070$) and gender (0=Men; 1=Women). This interaction variable was named “Gender_PosFamInfluence” and entered into the second block of the regression analysis, also turning out non-significant ($F_{3,101}=2.120, p=.103$). Adjusted R Square=.032. Thus, the second model with the interaction between gender and PosFamInfluence explains 3.2% of the variance in job satisfaction which is similar to the variance explained by Model 1. By looking at the unstandardized regression weights and ignoring the missed significance (in block 2), the following observations can be stated: For men, job satisfaction increases .037 for

every unit increase in PosFamInfluence, and women have an increase in job satisfaction of .234 (.037+.197) (see Table 7) which is also in line with expectations although not significant. Collinearity statistics and tolerance (VIF and tolerance) was also checked and turned out with acceptable values (see Table 7).

Both regression analyses showed results with a tendency in the direction of the hypotheses, but without reaching significance. The second predictor variable positive family influence affects neither women nor men`s level of job satisfaction in the current study, although there may exist some gender differences. Again, due to non-significant results one cannot conclude or make any assumptions based on these results and say whether women feel that positive family experiences increase their feelings of job satisfaction.

Table 7.

Predictor variables for the dependent variable job satisfaction (N=101).

Model	Predictor Variables	B	SE	Beta	t	P	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.201	.524		2.310	.023		
	Gender	.413	.256	.158	1.614	.110	.996	1.004
	PosFamInfluence	.151	.097	.153	1.556	.123	.996	1.004
2	(Constant)	1.558	.629		2.479	.015		
	Gender	.410	.256	.157	1.604	.112	.996	1.004
	PosFamInfluence	.037	.150	.037	.244	.808	.417	2.396
	Gender_PosFamInfluence	.197	.197	.152	1.001	.319	.418	2.394

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for all variables included in the two regression analyses.

Variable	M	SD	N
Job Satisfaction	2.375	1.225	102
Gender	.690	.465	116
NegFamDemands	4.747	1.237	107
PosFamInfluence	3.070	1.264	107
Gender_NegFamDem	.048	1.201	108
Gender_PosFamInflu	.048	.959	108

H 7 Women tend to feel stronger family-work interference than men.

In order to examine the relationship between gender and family-work interference, a t-test was used and findings revealed no significant difference between men ($M=1.371$, $SD=.770$) and women ($M=1.409$, $SD=.855$); $t(104)=-.216$, $p=.829$. This means that there seems to be no significant differences between men and women when it comes to feelings of family-work interference, at least for this study. The tendency points in the expected direction, however. A Levene test was conducted preceding the t-test with a non-significant result ($p=.258$). Equal variances were therefore assumed

H 8 There is a difference in the experience of family-work interference between people living with children and people living without any children.

By looking at descriptive statistics and performing crosstab calculations, family-work interference in relation to living situation was explored. As most of the participants in the sample reported either living with a partner or with partner and children, these two groups were further examined. From looking at the crosstabulation, differences between the groups were evident. As much as 72.2% of those living with partner reported that they seldom experienced family-work interference and 50% of participants with partner/spouse and children reported the same. The latter group of participants also reported frequent occurrence of interference (32.1%), while amongst those not living with children, only 5.6% reported the same. 22.2% of participants living without children and 17.9% of those living with children and partner/spouse, reported that they sometimes experienced family-work interference. From the independent samples t-test, a significant difference between the groups emerged. People with partner/spouse and children ($M=1.179$, $SD=.897$) reported more experience of family-work interference than people living with only partner/spouse and without children ($M=1.667$, $SD=.586$); $t(90)=2.891$, $p<.01$. The Levene test was conducted and turned out significant, $p<.001$. Thus, equal variances were not assumed and the reported results are from the corrected t-test. It may seem that living with children may explain, to some extent, the degree of family-work interference experienced.

H 9 Women have a tendency to value family more than work.

Hypothesis 11 predicted that women tend to value family higher than their career. This prediction was examined by comparing differences in means of men and women in the dependent variable "Family First" with an independent samples t-test computed. Although the

tendency supports the hypotheses, no significant differences were found between men ($M=1.562$, $SD=.693$) and women ($M=1.677$, $SD=.884$); $t(98)=-.642$, $p=.523$. The Levene test turned out non-significant ($p=.172$), thus equal variances were assumed.

H 10 Men have a tendency to value work more than family

Hypothesis 10 predicted that men value work higher than family life. Differences in the means of men and women in the dependent variable “Job First” were compared using an independent samples t-test. It turned out non-significant which means that no significant differences were found between men ($M=3.898$, $SD=1.255$) and women ($M=3.690$, $SD=1.303$); $t(98)=-.755$, $p=.452$. Levene’s test was also conducted and turned out to be non-significant ($p=.966$). Thus, equal variances can be assumed. From the results at hand it cannot be concluded that there are any differences between the genders in how they value work compared to family life. When it comes to valuing family or work higher than the other, it appears from the current results that men and women in the underlying analysis are quite similar in how they value the two central spheres in life; family and work. However, the sample consisted of a greater amount of women ($N=68$) compared to men ($N=32$) and a more even number of each sex would perhaps result in a different outcome. The tendency go in the direction as the hypotheses predict, thus perhaps a larger sample in total could have helped getting significant results.

H 11 People who value family more than work will feel less family-work interference.

Pearson’s correlation was computed between the variables “Family First” and “Family-Work Interference”. Pearson’s correlation was found non-significant ($r=.131$, $n=99$, $p=.196$) and therefore, it cannot be concluded to be any clear significant relationship between highly valuing family life and the experience of family-work interference. Furthermore, the direction of the correlation was against expectations.

H 12 People who value career higher than family will feel stronger family-work interference.

In addition, Pearson correlation was also conducted in order to examine the relationship between the variables “Job First” and “Family-Work Interference”. The correlation was found non-significant ($r=.185$, $n=99$, $p<.066$), thus it cannot be assumed to be any significant relationship between valuing work highly and experiencing family-work interference. The direction of the correlation was as expected. Since the significance level was

only missed by a small margin. With a larger sample a significant result could have appeared for “job first” in relation to family-work experience.

4. Discussion

4.1. General Discussion

Overall, the study did not turn out with lot of significant results in relation to the hypotheses. There was no evidence of any difference between men and women in relation to feelings towards job satisfaction and family to work interference. However, there were a few interesting findings which will be discussed below. Ideas about improvements as well as strengths and weaknesses of the study are also mentioned in the pending section.

The first hypothesis was not supported as no significant difference between levels of education and experience of interference between family and work was found. However, the majority of the respondents were highly educated (81%), thus there may be lack of statistical power to detect any difference between the educational groups. With more variation in the level of education, a significant difference might have appeared.

There are diverse findings on education in relation to interference between work and family. Although increased flexibility may on its own increase work satisfaction (Filstad et al., 2004). Kitterød (2000) report that highly educated people more often experience difficulties with balancing work and family life, although they generally have more flexibility at work. Highly educated mothers are those who struggle the most, and as their income increases, their well-being decreases. Kitterød believes these women have higher expectations towards their men regarding a fair share of housework, and as they also have less time for domestic duties, they more often express their dissatisfaction. Csonka (in Filstad et al., 2004) argues that the highly educated with more flexible schedules often work more hours per week than those with more traditional work schedules, thus, the much wanted flexibility may perhaps ricochet. Thus, in my study there were expectations that the highly educated would experience stronger interference between work and family. Studies also show that education is positively related to having an egalitarian orientation towards gender and gender roles (Judge & Livingstone, 2008), and perhaps participants in my study did not differ due to their rather untraditional views on gender roles and moreover shared the housework among them to an extent to which they found appreciating. One may speculate in that the sharing of duties

contributed to less interference between the work and family domains for the participants in my study.

Opposite to what was expected in the second hypothesis, age was not found to have any significant influence on the experience of interference between work and family. Findings reveal that younger cohorts usually have less gender traditional views on roles and responsibilities, and some would perhaps assume younger men, more than older ones, to take part in household tasks (Judge & Livingstone, 2008). Having a more varied sample regarding age could perhaps be beneficial in this case. Including a larger number of young, male and female adults in their twenties as well as older employees could perhaps reveal a significant difference between age and interference between work and family. This could be an interesting topic to delve into as there are diverse findings on the father role and how men today perceive their family roles in comparison to in former times (Kitterød, 2000; Noor, 2004). In the study of Judge and Livingstone (2008) they found that gender role orientations often liberalized with time, as the average individual in their study became less traditional in his or her gender role orientation. Judge and Livingstone also announced that men's gender role orientations have changed more rapidly over time than have women's. These findings may support the idea of men and women becoming more similar in their attitudes towards home and work responsibilities. They may also encourage further research, perhaps longitudinal research, in order to see how younger men's attitudes will develop in the years to come.

In relation to the third hypothesis, a significant difference between the genders was found as men experienced more positive socialization with friends and family in their free time than women, disconfirming my expectations. As women usually are found to rely more on social support to reduce role overload (Voydanoff, 1987), they are also still found to do the majority of the housework (Kitterød & Lappegård, 2010; LaRossa, 1988), hence there might not be as much time for friends and socializing as initially wished for. Perhaps this might explain why men report more positive socialization than women in my study. Roxburgh (1999) asserted how men tend to appreciate support from co-workers while women evaluate spouse or partner-support as most important. Another possible explanation for the gender-difference could be what men and women regard as positive socialization. Could it be that women need more time with friends in order to be satisfied? If they do not feel that they have enough time, perhaps they are becoming less positive towards their free time as they do not feel that their needs are being met? As the need for spouse-support is found to be more

important for women (Roxburgh, 1999) any lack of it might also diminish their evaluation of their free time. Perhaps men either feel they get enough support at home as their need for support tend to be lower, or perhaps they receive more support from their wives than what the wives receive from their husbands. As men are found to appreciate co-worker support to a high degree (Roxburgh, 1999) they probably experience adequate socialization at work and do not need as much support at home.

The fourth hypotheses stating that there are no differences between men and women in experiencing free time as negative, was supported as results revealed no significant difference between the genders. Women are usually found to have less leisure time than their partner or husband, much due to their tendency to carry the main responsibility for the care of children as well as other domestic tasks (Delaat, 2007; Thrane, 2000). Zimmerman and Vogler (2003) mention how housework usually have been of little interest as it has been regarded as time not spent on paid work and has simply been defined as leisure time. By this notion one would expect women to see their free-time as more negative than men, but this may also depend on whether women like to have the main responsibility or whether they simply feel a domestic pressure. As the level of education of the sample in my study is relatively high, a more even distribution of housework between the couples can be assumed, thus no significant difference would be expected between the genders. However, whether this is due to the even share of domestic tasks, giving both men and women similar opportunities for how to spend their free time, or whether there are other factors that contribute to this insignificant difference, is unknown. Allocation of domestic work would have to be addressed in order to determine the relationship between household activities and the experience of free time.

The test of the fifth hypothesis did not show any significant impact of gender, family demands, or their interaction on job satisfaction, although there seemed to be a tendency of women reporting higher job satisfaction than men. This tendency may not have become a significant result due to a lack of statistical power. The hypothesis predicted that there would be an interaction between gender, negative family demands and satisfaction at work, but the results did not support this proposition.

There may be some truth to what was announced by Tait et al. (1989) emphasizing that women's identity no longer rests solely on their home-maker role, but more on the role as a worker. Several findings on the work and family-relationship stress how women have a greater burden of combining the mother and work role, and that family demands increase

spillover more for women than for men (McElwain et al. 2005; Mennimo et al. 2005). My findings may seem to show support to Allard (2007) implying that women and men show comparable levels of family-work conflict. Tait et al. (1989) agreed on this notion in their meta-analysis as they found that prior to 1974, gender differences in regards to job satisfaction were more prevalent. When more recent studies were examined, gender differences disappeared. Tait et al. (1989) explained this by referring to the changing relationship between work and family in recent time, especially for women. Liu et al. (2008) found family and work conflicts to actually have a stronger impact on men than on women. Liu and his colleagues focused on faculty staff, the same type of occupational group examined in my study, and perhaps one can speculate in whether the level of education has an influence on the level of job satisfaction for the participants in my study. Barnett (1995) went even further than Allard (2007) by saying that gender did not affect spillover from family to work or vice versa, but work schedule rigidity, did.

The sixth hypothesis predicting that women more often than men feel that positive family experiences enhance their feelings of job satisfaction was also not supported by the data. There could be vague indications of gender differences as the results showed a tendency in direction of an interaction towards significance, but there were no significant difference found between the genders in relation to the impact of positive family demands on job satisfaction. Again, the tendency may have missed significance due to lack of statistical power.

The level of education of the participants may play a role in explaining the similarity between men and women in the study. According to Clark (1997), the gender difference in job satisfaction disappears for the young, those in managerial or professional positions, those in male dominated workplaces, those whose mothers had a professional job, and those higher-educated. These groups all tend to have higher expectations to what their jobs should entail. One can question whether any of these factors could be part of explaining the gender similarity in the study at hand. However, with the exception of education, neither of these factors was measured in my study. It is reasonable to assume that people in my study, being highly educated, would not settle for any type of job, but find a job that they are pleased with. This might explain why the participants seem to be relatively happy with their work. Then again, in the present study there was a tendency, although not significant, for women to report more satisfaction at work compared to the male respondents. Clark (1996) states that overall, women tend to report higher satisfaction at work than men, primarily due to their job

situations having been worse than men's in the past and therefore women's expectations are lower. A possible explanation could be that, although having high education, women in my study have lower expectations to their jobs than men and therefore experience more job satisfaction. This tendency might also show support to what is known as the social role theory. The theory claims that women and men take societal gender roles into their self-categorization in terms of biological sex and conform to these personal standards of how one ought to behave (Eagly, 1987; Eckes & Trautner, 2000). According to Nelson and Burke (2002), seeing the man as the breadwinner of the family is a norm that has existed despite women's increased participation in the labor force, and one might wonder whether the norm is still present, unconsciously decreasing women's expectations to themselves and their work opportunities.

Another aspect that may be part of explaining the tendency of women to have higher job satisfaction is the use of stereotypes. Gender stereotypes may influence how we develop our self-aspects and self-knowledge (Hannover, 2000) and according to Barreto et al. (2009), the choices and behavior of women, influenced by stereotypical expectations, can nourish stereotypes that already exist and become barriers to career development. Perhaps the women in my study are, to some extent, unconsciously affected by these stereotypes of themselves as less able to succeed at work due to family responsibilities, and therefore their expectations are more limited than men's? One may wonder whether these lower expectations further enhance satisfaction at work.

Livingston and Judge (2008) proposed that guilt is the main factor in relation to the conflict between work and family and believed that people with more traditional values on roles, more often felt guilty if "sacrificing" family over work. In a future study it would be interesting to include higher educated and lower educated couples and measure their values regarding work and family. Then it would be possible to find out whether there are any differences between these groups of people in terms of positive family experiences and job satisfaction. Furthermore, looking at differences between younger and older couples and families in order to see the existence and impact of traditional values on family conflict and satisfaction at work could be of interest. In addition, perhaps measuring value orientations as a control variable would reveal some interesting results.

As Duxbury and Higgins (1991) assert: although family roles are very demanding in time and energy, they can also be a valuable source for satisfaction and gratification. Here, the

effect of positive spillover may play its part. According to Grzywacz (2000), positive family-to work spillover was related to a decrease in the amount of chronic illnesses and an increased overall well-being. Grzywacz (2000) and Barnett and Hyde (2001) contend the positive combination of multiple roles for women and assert that women who want to work will benefit psychologically and physically from handling multiple roles. Thus, one could argue that wanting to work denotes feelings of satisfaction at work and how one feels about combining work and family life. The results of my study tend to support the theory of positive spillover rather than conflict theory implying how multiple roles only are detrimental and overwhelming for workers (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In addition to positive spillover, my study's findings may also give support to the Expansionist theory (Barnett & Hyde, 2001), which sees multiple roles as something positive. Perhaps women in the present study manage to combine the roles of being a wife or partner, mother and worker quite effortlessly, or have adapted well to the multitasking required. Otherwise or perhaps in addition to this, they had partners or husbands contributing to the home domain to the same degree as themselves, making the balance of work and family more or less conflict-free. Perhaps also the aspect of positive spillover may account for the similarities between the genders. May be the women in the study see the role as a mother and worker as more beneficial than difficult? The positive spillover between work and family life may be experienced by both genders and the two aspects; sharing of housework and positive spillover may as well be intertwined and have a bidirectional affect.

The seventh hypothesis predicting women to report more family to work interference was not supported as there were no differences between men and women and the level of interference experienced between family and work. This similarity between the genders may be explained by the changing role perspective implying that even though women do most of the housework, men contribute more when their partner is employed (Pleck, 1979). As already mentioned, findings reveal that higher educated couples are more even in their distribution of housework (Vaage, 2002), and perhaps this is a yielding factor with regard to my findings. However, as nothing was asked about the respondents' partners and their level of education, it is difficult to find any support for these speculations. Barnett (1995) stated that gender does not decide the degree of spillover from family to work or vice versa. He asserted that when full-time employment is accounted for, spillover is as prevalent to men as it is to women. As no gender differences on family-work interference appeared in my study, perhaps my study findings support this notion to a certain extent. Wierda-Boer et al. (2009) revealed

that when women start working increased hours, men are confronted with more tasks at home. However, “the caring man” is a rather new phenomenon and it may be that men have not fully adapted to their new roles, hence they may feel that duties at home sometimes hinder their careers. Perhaps therefore, in some cases, men may experience interference to the same degree as their female counterparts.

The eighth hypothesis was supported as it was found that people with children did in fact experience more family-work interference than those living without children. A significant difference between those living with or without children appeared which is opposite to the findings of Lee and Phillips (2006) and the expansionist theory (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Marks, 1977). While the results of people without children may show support to the expansionist theory, the findings of people with children evidently supports the scarcity hypothesis (Goode, 1960) asserting the difficulty of handling multiple roles and combining work and family (Steenbergen et al. 2007). There are several studies emphasizing how stress from several roles may have detrimental effects on a person’s mental and physical well-being (Bolger et al., 1989; Boles et al., 2001; Grzywacz, 1999). The role as a parent is a demanding role which requires a lot of effort and may certainly increase the probability for stress, thus it seems reasonable to believe there will be great differences between those who encompass the parent role and those who do not. My research findings may also give some support to the findings of Pearson (2008) who states that an increasing number of children is related to higher levels of role overload and less leisure satisfaction. The findings in the current study however, do not reveal anything regarding stress-levels, but rather the experience of interference. Thus, nothing can be stated about the participant’s experience of stress in handling multiple roles, only that having children is positively related to interference between family and work for the respondents in my study.

The ninth and tenth hypothesis predicting that women value family more than work and that men value work more than family were not supported. The hypotheses were partly based on finding of Cinamon and Rich (2002) reporting how men still see their work role and women their family role as most important to them. Even though time has changed with an increasing amount of women taking part in the labor force, women still prioritize household tasks and taking care of children more than men, and more often sacrifice their career for the sake of the family (Noor, 2004; Regan & Roland, 1985). As household tasks and care of children were not examined in my study, it is unknown how this distribution is practiced among the respondents, but as both the male and female participants in the study were highly

educated people with careers, both genders might very well be prioritizing their work to a high extent. Surely, they have spent a large amount of time and effort to achieve a career and thus highly appreciate their accomplishment. By examining other occupational groups with no education attained, the results could differ. However, education is not a certain contributor to work satisfaction, and again, role quality may be of significance. The more you enjoy and appreciate work, the more value you tend to put into that specific work role. Disliking work however, would most likely lead to valuing that job to a lower extent and would perhaps result in putting more value into the family domain (Vaage, 2002). My study findings may seem to support the changing role theory claiming that men today do take more part in the housework, especially when their partner is employed (Pleck, 1979).

From the results on males and value of work, there could be a tendency pointing in the direction of the original hypotheses, but a larger sample would be needed in order to aim for significant results. A more even number of the two genders would also be preferable. Whether the lack of significance is due to a small sample size or part of a central and current tendency of increased gender equality within the labor force cannot be decided based on the available dataset. The issue is perhaps more about what women actually choose between family and work. One explanation for this discrepancy may be the fact that many women *want* to be more at home and do not mind earning less if they are able to prioritize family life to a greater extent. Perhaps the question is whether men are changing by starting to think more like women? Maybe, people today have started to challenge the traditional gender roles by adapting less to gender roles compared to before? As Kitterød (2000) states in her article, men have started to take on responsibility for the care of their children more than they have increased their partaking in domestic tasks. The article was based on Norwegian workers, and can therefore be compared to my study, but cannot be generalized to all other countries. Although the currents tend to point to the same direction at least for the western world, the rate at which this development occurs may differ.

Further, no significant results were found regarding values of work or family in relation to experience of interference between the respective domains. Previous findings (Judge, Ilis & Scott, 2006; Regan & Roland, 1985) point to the tendency of family-oriented people to experience more interference from family to work as they value their family life more than work and may see work as more of an intrusion to their family life. Emotional reactions are usually based in the domain in which they are experienced and targeted, thus individuals placing high value at work more easily perceive that family responsibilities interfere with work responsibilities.

Due to the observations above one would assume that the more one appreciates or prioritizes the family, the more interference with work would be experienced. However, in the current study, such an observation was not made. Whether this is due to the respondents being able to successfully combine work and family without experiencing much interference or due to other factors can be questioned.

4.2 Limitations and Further Suggestions

There are indeed limitations to the study at hand, some I have already mentioned. The sample of university and college-employees may give an idea of that specific occupational group's feelings on job satisfaction and the experience of interference from family to work life. However, the lack of significant results may indicate that the sample is too small to be generalized to similar work environments. Although most of the findings turned out non-significant, they were pointing into the right direction, which further implies that by enlarging the sample size, the hypotheses might have been confirmed.

As there was a majority of women in the study, more men should have been included in order to be able to state anything more definite about gender differences in relation to the topic at hand. In addition, it could be interesting to investigate the amount of housework completed by men and women. Are the women still carrying out most of the work, as most research (LaRossa, 1988; Marshall, 1997) claims?

In my study, only one occupational group was examined, thus generalizability to other occupations is unlikely. Future studies could look into the current occupational group in comparison to other occupational groups, for instance workers in the service industry or people with high school education only. Perhaps such a study would reveal interesting differences and unveil information regarding the significance of education and type of occupation in relation to job satisfaction and family-work interference.

Establishing differences between Norwegians and immigrants was initially aimed for. However, with difficulties finding an adequate quantity of immigrant workers, and due to time restrictions, this proved more difficult than expected, and was therefore not completed throughout the study. In a future study, looking into these two groups of workers in relation to experience of family and work interference could be a very interesting topic. Perhaps, lack of a social network, not having the family in the same country, and coming from another culture, would make the experience very different from that of the Norwegian workers. The Scandinavian countries are respected for their gender equality in terms of work situations and opportunities for parental leave (Filstad et al. 2004) and it would be interesting to see whether

Norwegian and immigrant workers would have different opinions about what is expected from men and women in relation to work and family participation. Again, how this would affect their satisfaction at work would be another interesting question to ask.

My research findings have neither given significant results regarding gender and job satisfaction, nor of gender and family-work interference. However, it has been demonstrated that living with children correlates with more interference between family and work, and also that men report more positive socialization in free time than women. Age and education have not been found to predict family to work interference. As mentioned earlier in the discussion, including men and women of younger cohorts would be of interest in order to find out more about the significance of age. Few gender differences were found, but as previously mentioned, a future study would most definitely benefit from including more respondents as well as ensuring a more equal number of male and female respondents.

As the study of work and family is a field that represents a wide variety of theories and methods (Neal, Hammer & Morgan, in Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2006), a future study could benefit from combining qualitative and quantitative research methods. Perhaps including interview techniques in addition to self-report measures would have given a more thorough picture of the subject. As suggested by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Nelson and Burke (2002), examining the whole family as a unit of analysis could reveal a large amount of information about the power dynamics between partners, communication and conflict resolution styles, as well as changes in partner's work and family involvement over time. Perhaps by using a larger scale longitudinal research design, one would attain a more thorough picture of the dynamic developments of the family-work situation. Longitudinal research reveals more of the dynamic nature and the complexity of the work and family life which is difficult to convey by a single one-time assessment of the work and family situation (Crouter & Pirretti, in Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2006). In the study of Kinnunen et al. (2004) it became apparent that experience of work to family conflict was more stable among women than among men during the year, and as Benin and Niensted (1985) report; women's well-being seem to remain more stable over the years compared to the well-being of men.

For quality assurance, completing a pilot-study previous to the actual study would have been beneficial in the sense of giving indications on what should have been improved before conducting the actual study. As the regulations for sending emails to college and university- employees were stricter than expected, more time should also have been devoted to the recruiting process in order to ensure that the results would not be too much affected by the sample size. Other methods, such as handing out questionnaires in person could have

perhaps been carried out in addition to the web-based questionnaires that were used. The universities and colleges could have been contacted earlier in the process as the need for more respondents became important later on.

Furthermore, when using the survey-method, there are possibilities of a social desirability bias and one cannot be certain whether respondents answered in accordance to their inner beliefs or to their perception of an appropriate answer. When discussing and evaluating the research findings, this is certainly important to have in mind.

In the study, I focused merely on men and women, and not gender roles or gender orientation. As every individual differs in regards to feelings towards being a mother and father or differences in masculinity or femininity, gender roles and gender orientation could perhaps better explain the differences or indifferences between men and women in the study at hand. In a future study, this could very well be of interest. As mentioned by Kinnunen and Mauno (1998), culture plays a role in family-work conflicts, and comparing approaches towards gender and work between countries could probably produce some interesting findings. For instance, comparing the Scandinavian countries, which on a worldwide basis are far ahead regarding gender equality, with more conservative countries where women are still expected to take on the main responsibility of the household, could perhaps reveal interesting results. Batalova and Cohen (2002) explored housework distribution in 22 countries, finding the U.S. and Norway on the bottom of the continuum, while Japanese women were the ones carrying out the most housework compared to their husbands. Studies on such cultural differences may result in interesting findings.

There are indeed other variables than the ones taken into account in the present study that could influence family-work interference and job satisfaction. For instance, the study of Martin and Kirkcaldy (1998) revealed several gender/personality relationships that may determine attitudes to work. In another study of Judge, Heller and Mount (2002), particularly Extraversion, Neuroticism and Conscientiousness turned out to be moderately related to job satisfaction, and Wayne, Musisca and Fleeson (2004) found neuroticism significantly affecting the work-family conflict.

Other than personality characteristics, level of flexibility over work schedule, as well as marital satisfaction are all factors associated with interference between family and work (Heller & Watson, 2005; Higgins, Duxbury, Lee, & Mills, 1992; Karatepe & Uludag, 2008). As mentioned by Benin and Nienstedt (1985), marital satisfaction, in addition to job satisfaction, is a major source of happiness as these two factors may interact to create a combined effect. Hecht and Boies (2009) state that self-esteem is an significant factor seen in

relation to well-being at work and the researchers question whether non-work influences work through spillover or simply by improving (or decreasing) an individual's self-esteem.

4.3 Conclusion

In conclusion, the present study revealed some interesting findings, although with few significant results. Positive spillover and the changing role theory may perhaps account for the "missing" gender differences. The female and male workers in the study did not differ in their experience of family to work experience, but having children was associated with more conflict between work and family and thereby the findings showed some support to spillover and conflict- theory. Expansionist theory was lent some support regarding experience of interference for both genders, but as children came to matter, the results seemed to show more support to the scarcity perspective, signifying that children bring along more demands than what housework does alone.

5. References

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6. Appendixes

Appendix A

Supplementary information about factor analysis.

Complete tables of factor loadings for all measurement items. Eigenvalues and explained variance are included.

Table 1.1

Factor loadings, communalities, eigenvalues and explained variance based on a principal component analysis with varimax rotation for 13 items from the scale on relationship between work and family (N=100).

	Pos Fam Influence	Neg fam demands	Pos Job Energy	Factor 4	Communality
I am occupied with my family life while at work		.69		.45	.68
My co-workers often mention how occupied I am with my family life at work				.78	.68
Commitments to my family get in the way of my work		.84			.72
Commitments to my family reduce the effort I can devote to my job		.83			.71
My work gives me energy to be a good partner/parent			.89		.80
My work is a place where I relax from my family life		.43		.62	.60
My work keeps me from being with my family as much as I want	.46	.49			.60
Having a family that supports me helps me handle stress at work	.72				.55
Home is a place where I get energy to spend at	.81				.70

Note: Continuing table from last page

My family inspires me to do my best at work	.88				.80
I am occupied with work while at home			.69		.53
Thinking of my family while I am working gives me motivation to work	.66				.50
Work gives me energy I can spend on my family			.74		.66
Cronbach`s Alpha	.74	.70	.72	.20	
Explained variance	22.2 %	19.2 %	13.2 %	10.3 %	
Eigenvalues	2.89	2.53	1.71	1.34	

Table 1.2

Factor loadings, communalities, explained variance and eigenvalues based on a principal component analysis with varimax rotation for five items from the scale on job satisfaction (N=102).

	Job satisfaction	Communality
I usually look forward to go to work	.85	.73
If I was to decide all over again whether or not to take my job, I would decide to take it without hesitation	.81	.64
I am generally satisfied with the type of work I do in this job	.91	.83
I find myself having a pleasant time at work	.91	.82
Overall, I am satisfied with my job	.94	.88
Cronbachs Alpha	.92	
Explained variance	77.8 %	
Eigenvalues	3.89	

Table 1.3

Factor loadings, communalities, explained variance and eigenvalues based on a principal component analysis with varimax rotation for six items from the scale on leisure time and socialization (N=100).

	Positive socialization in free time	Negative free time	Communality
Being with my friends in my free time gives me energy I need for work	.88		.63
Talking to friends helps me deal with problems at work	.77		.77
Being with my family in my free time gives me energy I need for work	.73		.40
Talking to friends helps me deal with family problems	.52		.61
During my free time I feel I am wasting my time		.90	.81
For me, leisure time just drags on		.85	.73
Cronbach`s Alpha	.79	.76	
Explained variance	40.3 %	25.4 %	
Eigenvalues	2.42	1.53	

Table 1.4

Factor loadings, communalities, explained variance and eigenvalues based on a principal component analysis with varimax rotation for work and family values (99).

	Job first	Family first	Factor 3	Communality
Career has a high priority in my life	.85			.76
I live for my work	.79			.67
I strive for promotion	.74			.71
Work should be considered central to life	.69			.62
Family should be considered central to life		.90		.82
Family is a high priority in my life		.85		.76
I work to live			.92	.86
Cronbach`s Alpha	.80	.71		
Explained variance	34.7 %	24 %	15.4 %	
Eigenvalues	2.43	1.68	1.08	

Appendix B

Email/Invitation to participation in the study
(In Norwegian and English)

Invitasjon til å delta i spørreundersøkelse om arbeid og familieliv

Formålet med denne spørreundersøkelsen er å studere familielivets innvirkning på trivselen på arbeid. Både arbeid og familieliv tar mye plass i hverdagen, så det er lett å føle at man ikke strekker til hjemme eller på jobb, og at det ene går utover det andre. Forpliktelser til begge hold kan skape stress og uro, som igjen kan gå utover trivsel ellers i livet. Resultatene fra undersøkelsen vil bli brukt i en mastergradsoppgave i risikopsykologi, miljø og sikkerhet ved Psykologisk institutt, NTNU, og det er også mulig at resultatene fra undersøkelsen vil bli utgitt i form av en rapport.

Vi håper du er villig til å svare på spørsmålene, noe som tar ca. 10 minutter.

Klikk på lenken på neste linje for å gå til spørreskjemaet.

<https://survey.svt.ntnu.no/TakeSurvey.aspx?SurveyID=7IMKnpm>

Takk for at du er villig til å delta!

Vennlig hilsen

Maria Eidsaa Larsen

mastergradsstudent

E-post: eidsaala@stud.ntnu.no

,

Christian Klöckner

førsteamanuensis, veileder

E-post: christian.klockner@svt.ntnu.no

Invitation to participate in a survey on work and family life

The aim of the survey is to study the influence of family life on work satisfaction. Family and work are two central aspects in our everyday lives, and one may sometimes feel insufficient at work or with respect to family life, as these aspects of life may affect us in opposite directions. Commitments and responsibilities to both may create stress and discomfort which again may have an influence on general well-being. Survey results will be used in a Master's thesis in Risk psychology, Environment and Safety at the Dept. of Psychology, NTNU. Results may also be published in a subsequent research report.

We hope you are willing to answer the questions which will only take about 10 Minutes to complete.

Click the link below to open the questionnaire.

<https://survey.svt.ntnu.no/TakeSurvey.aspx?SurveyID=71ML3pm>

Thank you for your contribution.

Yours sincerely,

Maria Eidsaa Larsen

Master's Degree Student

E-mail: heidsaala@stud.ntnu.no

Christian Klöckner

Associate Professor, Supervisor

E-mail: christian.klockner@svt.ntnu.no

Appendix C

Questionnaire, English version



Information about the study

The aim of this project is to study the influence of family life on satisfaction at work. The results from the survey will be used in a master thesis in Risk Psychology, Environment and Safety at the Department of Psychology, NTNU, and may be published in a subsequent research report.

Participation is voluntary and all information will be treated confidentially. Data will be anonymised upon completion of the project, latest 31.12.2011. You indicate your willingness to participate by answering the questions in this questionnaire and clicking the «Done» button on the last page. Once the questionnaire is submitted, it will not be possible to withdraw from the study.

If you have any questions regarding the study, please contact Maria E. Larsen, phone, 90 996 479

Thank you for participating!

Maria Eidsaa Larsen
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E-mail: eidsaala@stud.ntnu.no

Christian Klöckner
Associate Professor, Supervisor
E-mail: christian.klockner@svt.ntnu.no

Concept Definition

Please read before you start:

In this questionnaire, the word «family» signifies spouse, partner (cohabiting or otherwise), and children.



Background Information

1. Sex
 - Male
 - Female

2. Age
 - 20 or younger
 - 21-40
 - 41-60
 - 61-80
 - Above 80

3. Civil Status
 - Single

Priorities

Girl-/boyfriend/engaged, but live alone

Married/cohabiting

Separated/divorced/widowed

4. With whom do you live?

NOTE: If you live alone, but have partner and children living elsewhere, please answer for those living closest to you.

Live alone, do not have a family

Live alone, have family in the same city

Live alone, have family elsewhere in Norway

Live alone, have family outside Norway

Live with spouse/partner

Live with spouse/partner and children

Live with children, but not with spouse/partner

5. How many children do you have?

NOTE: Leave the 0 in the box if you do not have children.

6. If you have children: With how many of your children do you live?

NOTE: Leave the 0 in the box if you do not have children, or if you do not live with any of them.

7. What is your highest level of completed education?

If you do not have a Norwegian education, choose the option that corresponds to your level of education.

Primary and secondary school

High school, vocational studies

High school, general studies

University/college, up to 4 years

University/college, more than 4 years

PhD

8. Were you born/raised in Norway, or have you moved to Norway from another country?

Born/raised in Norway

Moved to Norway from another country



NTNU – Trondheim
Norwegian University of
Science and Technology

Family Life and Job Satisfaction

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If you were not born/raised in Norway

9. For how long have you been in Norway?

1 Month or less

2-5 months

Priorities

6-12 months
More than 1 year

10. What is your status regarding residence/work permission?

Unlimited residence/work permission
Registration under the EØS-agreement
Under consideration

11. Why did you come to Norway?

NOTE: Select all options that apply.

Job opportunities
Following spouse/partner
Education
Other

12. Where were you educated?

NOTE: Select all options that apply.

Norwegian education
Foreign education, approved in Norway (NOKUT)
Foreign education, not approved in Norway (NOKUT)
Other



Work/Family Conflict

13. How often do you experience a conflict between work and the commitments and responsibilities you have to your family?

- Daily
- Several times a week
- Weekly
- About every other week
- Every 3-4 week
- Seldom or never

14. On a scale from 1 to 7, how much do you agree/disagree with the following statements about conflict between work and family?

	Strongly agree			Neu- tral			Strongly disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am occupied with my family life while at work							
My co-workers often mention how occupied I am with my family life at work							

Priorities

Commitments to my family get in the way of my work							
Commitments to my family reduce the effort I can devote to my job							
My work gives me energy to be a good partner/parent							
My work is a place where I relax from my family life							
My work keeps me from being with my family as much as I want							
Having a family that supports me helps me handle stress at work							
Home is a place where I get energy to spend at work							
My family inspires me to do my best at work							
I am occupied with work while at home							
Thinking of my family while I am working gives me motivation to work							
Work gives me energy I can spend on my family							

Conflict between work and family for your partner

15. On a scale from 1 to 7, how much do you agree/disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly agree			Neu- tral			Strongly disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Compared to myself, I believe my partner is less affected by the family when being at work							
Compared to myself, I believe my partner is less affected by work when being at home with the family							
I feel that my partner manages to balance work and family life better than myself							
My partner seems to be more stressed at work than I am, due to all the responsibility he/she has at home							
My partner seems to be more stressed at home than me, due to all the responsibility he/she has at work							

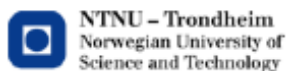
Priorities

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Job Satisfaction

16. On a scale from 1 to 7, how much do you agree/disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly agree			Neu- tral			Strongly disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I usually look forward to go to work							
If I was to decide all over again whether or not to take my job, I would decide to take it without hesitation							
I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job							
I find myself having a pleasant time at work							
Overall, I am satisfied with my job							



Family Life and Job Satisfaction

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Leisure Time

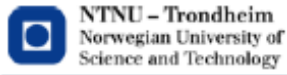
17. How often do you spend time with friends (colleagues or others) *outside work*?

- Daily
- Several times a week
- Weekly
- Less frequently
- Almost never or never

18. On a scale from 1 to 7, how much do you agree/disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly agree			Neu- tral			Strongly disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Being with my family in my free time gives me energy I need for work							
Talking to friends helps me deal with problems at work							
For me, leisure time just drags on							
Being with my friends in my free time gives me energy I need for work							
During my free time I feel I am wasting my time							
Talking to friends helps me deal with family problems							

Priorities



Family Life and Job Satisfaction

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Priorities

19. On a scale from 1 to 7, how much do you agree/disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly agree			Neu- tral			Strongly disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Career has a high priority in my life							
Work should be considered central to life							
Family should be considered central to life							
I strive for promotion							
Family has a high priority in my life							
I live for my work							
I work to live							

Appendix D

Questionnaire, Norwegian version

Informasjon om undersøkelsen

Formålet med denne spørreundersøkelsen er å studere familielivets innvirkning på trivselen på arbeid. Resultatene fra undersøkelsen vil bli brukt i en mastergradsoppgave i risikopsykologi, miljø og sikkerhet ved Psykologisk institutt, NTNU, og det er også mulig at resultatene fra undersøkelsen vil bli utgitt i form av en rapport.

Det er frivillig å delta i undersøkelsen, og alle opplysninger vil bli behandlet konfidensielt. Datamaterialet vil bli anonymisert ved prosjektslutt, senest 31.12.2011.

Du samtykker i å delta i undersøkelsen ved å svare på spørsmålene i dette spørreskjemaet og så klikke på «Ferdig»-knappen på siste side. Når spørreskjemaet er innsendt, vil det ikke være mulig å trekke seg fra undersøkelsen.

Har du spørsmål om undersøkelsen, kontakter du Maria E. Larsen på telefon 909 96 479.

Takk for at du er villig til å delta!

Maria Eidsaa Larsen
 mastergradsstudent
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Christian Klöckner
 førsteamanuensis, veileder
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Begrepsdefinisjon

LES DETTE FØR DU STARTER!

Når vi i dette spørreskjemaet bruker ordet «familie», mener vi ektefelle/samboer/partner og barn.

Bakgrunnsopplysninger

1. Kjønn
 - Mann
 - Kvinne

2. Alder
 - 20 eller yngre
 - 21-40
 - 41-60
 - 61-80

Dine prioriteringer

Over 80

3. Sivilstatus

Singel

Har kjæreste/er forlovet, men bor alene

Gift/samboer

Separert/skilt/enke/enkemann

4. Hvem bor du sammen med?

NB: Bor du alene, men har partner og barn ulike steder, svarer du for de som bor nærmest deg.

Bor alene, har ikke familie

Bor alene, har familie i samme by

Bor alene, har familie et annet sted i Norge

Bor alene, har familie i utlandet

Bor med ektefelle/partner

Bor med ektefelle/partner og barn

Bor med barn, men ikke med ektefelle/partner

5. Hvor mange barn har du?

NB: La 0 stå i feltet hvis du ikke har barn.

6. Hvis du har barn, hvor mange av barna bor du sammen med?

NB: La 0 stå i feltet hvis du ikke har noen barn, eller hvis du ikke bor sammen med noen av dem.

7. Hva er din høyeste fullførte utdanning?

Om du ikke har norsk utdanning, krysser du av for det utdanningsnivået som best tilsvarende din utdanning.

Grunnskole

Videregående skole, yrkesfaglig

Videregående skole, allmennfaglig

Universitet/høgskole, inntil 4 år

Universitet/høgskole, over 4 år

Doktorgrad

8. Er du født/oppvokst i Norge, eller har du flyttet til Norge fra et annet land?

Født/oppvokst i Norge

Flyttet til Norge fra et annet land

Dine prioriteringer

	Helt enig			Nøytral			Helt uenig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jeg er opptatt med mitt familieliv når jeg er på jobb							
Mine kollegaer nevner ofte hvor opptatt jeg er av mitt familieliv på jobben							
Forpliktelser til familien min hindrer meg i min jobb							
Forpliktelser til familien reduserer den innsatsen jeg kan legge i jobben min							
Jobben min gir meg energi til å være en god partner/forelder							
Jobben min er et sted jeg får avkobling fra familielivet							
Jobben min hindrer meg i å være sammen med familien så mye som jeg ønsker							
Å ha en familie som støtter meg hjelper meg med å takle stress på jobb							
Hjemme får jeg energi jeg kan bruke på jobben min							
Familien min gir meg inspirasjon til å gjøre en god innsats på jobb							
Jeg er opptatt med jobb når jeg er hjemme							
Det å tenke på familien min der hjemme, gir meg motivasjon til å jobbe							
Jobben min gir meg energi som jeg kan bruke på familien min							

**Konflikt mellom jobb og familie for din partner**

15. På en skala fra 1 til 7, hvor enig eller uenig er du i disse påstandene?

	Helt enig			Nøytral			Helt uenig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sammenlignet med meg selv, tror jeg partneren min er mindre påvirket av familielivet når han/hun er på jobb							
Sammenlignet med meg selv, tror jeg partneren min er mindre påvirket av jobben når han/hun er hjemme med familien							
Jeg føler at partneren min klarer å balansere forholdet mellom jobb og familie bedre enn det jeg gjør							
Min partner virker mer stresset på jobb enn meg selv, på grunn av alle pliktene hun/han har hjemme							
Min partner virker mer stresset hjemme enn meg selv, pga ansvaret hun/han har på jobben							

Dine prioriteringer

	Helt enig			Nøytral			Helt uenig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jeg er opptatt med mitt familieliv når jeg er på jobb							
Mine kollegaer nevner ofte hvor opptatt jeg er av mitt familieliv på jobben							
Forpliktelser til familien min hindrer meg i min jobb							
Forpliktelser til familien reduserer den innsatsen jeg kan legge i jobben min							
Jobben min gir meg energi til å være en god partner/forelder							
Jobben min er et sted jeg får avkobling fra familielivet							
Jobben min hindrer meg i å være sammen med familien så mye som jeg ønsker							
Å ha en familie som støtter meg hjelper meg med å takle stress på jobb							
Hjemme får jeg energi jeg kan bruke på jobben min							
Familien min gir meg inspirasjon til å gjøre en god innsats på jobb							
Jeg er opptatt med jobb når jeg er hjemme							
Det å tenke på familien min der hjemme, gir meg motivasjon til å jobbe							
Jobben min gir meg energi som jeg kan bruke på familien min							

**Konflikt mellom jobb og familie for din partner**

15. På en skala fra 1 til 7, hvor enig eller uenig er du i disse påstandene?

	Helt enig			Nøytral			Helt uenig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sammenlignet med meg selv, tror jeg partneren min er mindre påvirket av familielivet når han/hun er på jobb							
Sammenlignet med meg selv, tror jeg partneren min er mindre påvirket av jobben når han/hun er hjemme med familien							
Jeg føler at partneren min klarer å balansere forholdet mellom jobb og familie bedre enn det jeg gjør							
Min partner virker mer stresset på jobb enn meg selv, på grunn av alle pliktene hun/han har hjemme							
Min partner virker mer stresset hjemme enn meg selv, pga ansvaret hun/han har på jobben							

Dine prioriteringer



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Jobbtrivsel

16. På en skala fra 1 til 7, hvor enig eller uenig er du i disse påstandene?

	Helt enig			Nøytral			Helt uenig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jeg ser stort sett fram til å gå på jobb							
Hvis jeg fikk valget om igjen om å takke ja eller nei til jobben min, ville jeg sagt ja uten å nøle							
Generelt sett er jeg fornøyd med det jobben min innebærer							
Jeg har det fint når jeg er på jobb							
Alt i alt er jeg fornøyd med jobben min							



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I fritiden

17. Hvor ofte er du sammen med venner (kollegaer eller andre) utenom arbeidet?

- Daglig
- Flere ganger i uka
- Ukentlig
- Sjeldnere
- Nesten aldri eller aldri

18. På en skala fra 1 til 7, hvor enig eller uenig er du i disse påstandene?

	Helt enig			Nøytral			Helt uenig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Å være sammen med familien på fritiden gir meg energi jeg trenger i jobben min							
Å snakke med venner hjelper meg til å takle problemer på jobben							
For meg er fritid bare mas							
Å være sammen med venner på fritiden gir meg energi jeg trenger i jobben min							
På fritiden føler jeg at jeg kaster bort tiden min							
Å snakke med venner hjelper meg i å takle problemer med familien							

Dine prioriteringer



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Dine prioriteringer

19. På en skala fra 1 til 7, hvor enig eller uenig er du i disse påstandene?

	Helt enig			Nøytral			Helt uenig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Karriere er høyt prioritert i mitt liv							
Jobb bør være sentralt i livet							
Familie bør være sentralt i livet							
Jeg jobber mot å bli forfremmet							
Familie er høyt prioritert i mitt liv							
Jeg lever for jobben							
Jeg jobber for å leve							