FAMILY RESOURCES AS PREDICTORS OF POSITIVE FAMILY-TO-WORK SPILLOVER

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to predict the family resources that influence positive family-to-work spillover for women who are engaged in parent, partner, and paid employee roles. While much research examines the construct of work-family conflict, little examines the positive benefits for women participating in multiple roles. A conceptual framework for the study was obtained from Voydanoff’s (2002) work applying ecological systems theory to the work-family interface. Several factors were hypothesized to predict positive family-to-work spillover for multiple role women, including: spousal support; perceived fairness in the division of housework and childcare; relative share of childcare and housework; and paid assistance with housework.

Data for this study was collected in a survey designed for a larger assessment of work, family, gender, and health in the Saskatoon area. The current study utilized data collected from women who met the following criteria: 1) spoke fluent English; 2) fell between the ages of 25 - 54 years; 3) were employed full-time or part-time; and 4) were the parent of at least one child under the age of 20 years. The dependent variable was a measure of positive family-to-work spillover. Independent variables included: spousal support; perceived fairness of the division of childcare; perceived fairness of the division of housework; relative share of housework for respondents compared to ones partner; and paid assistance with housework. Control variables included: income, presence of preschool children, number of children, educational attainment, and hours of paid employment. A sequential multiple regression was performed to predict positive family-to-work spillover from the independent variables. The final regression model predicting positive family-to-work spillover included three independent variables: 1) spousal support; 2) the perception of division of childcare as unfair to one’s partner; and 3) relative share of housework for the respondent. Implications and limitations of these findings are discussed.
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Dedication

To the new little person who will be joining our lives soon. I only now am realizing how many of my accomplishments have been in preparation for your arrival. I can’t wait to meet you, and experience the world through your eyes.
# Table of Contents

Permission to Use.................................................................................................................... i

Abstract...................................................................................................................................... ii

Acknowledgements................................................................................................................... iv

Dedications................................................................................................................................... v

Table of Contents....................................................................................................................... vi

List of Figures............................................................................................................................ xi

List of Tables.............................................................................................................................. xii

Chapter 1 Introduction................................................................................................................ 1

1.1 Introduction.......................................................................................................................... 1

1.2 Terminology......................................................................................................................... 4

1.2.1 Work-Family Interface................................................................................................. 4

1.2.2 Positive Spillover.......................................................................................................... 4

1.2.3 Work-to-Family Facilitation......................................................................................... 5

1.3 Need for the Study.............................................................................................................. 5

1.4 Chapter Organization.......................................................................................................... 6

Chapter 2 Review of the Literature........................................................................................... 7

2.1 Ecological Systems Theory and the Work-Family Interface............................................ 7

2.2 Positive Spillover and Family Resources.......................................................................... 11

2.2.1 Positive Spillover........................................................................................................ 12

2.2.2 Family-to-Work Facilitation....................................................................................... 13

2.2.3 Family Resources....................................................................................................... 16

2.2.3.1 Relationship with Spouse or Partner.................................................................. 16
2.2.3.2 Housework, Childcare and Women’s Well-Being.. 19

2.3 Summary of the Literature.............................................................. 23

2.4 Purpose........................................................................................... 26

2.4.1 Hypothesis............................................................................. 26

Chapter 3 Methodology......................................................................................... 27

3.1 Materials and Procedures................................................................ 27

3.1.1 Sample Selection.................................................................... 27

3.2 Instruments...................................................................................... 28

3.2.1 Dependent Variable............................................................... 28

3.2.1.1 Positive Spillover..................................................... 28

3.2.2 Primary Independent Variables............................................. 29

3.2.2.1 Perceived Fairness of Housework and Childcare..... 29

3.2.2.2 Share of Housework and Childcare Relative to
One’s Partner……………………………………………….. 29

3.2.2.3 Paid Assistance with Housework................................. 30

3.2.2.4 Spousal Support…………………….......................... 30

3.2.3 Covariates............................................................................... 31

3.2.3.1 Educational Attainment.................................................. 31

3.2.3.2 Age............................................................................ 31

3.2.3.3 Work Hours................................................................... 31

3.2.3.4 Presence of Preschool Children in the Home............. 31

3.2.3.5 Income....................................................................... 31

3.3 Analysis............................................................................................. 32
5.1.3 Relative Share of Housework.................................................... 53

5.1.3.1 Paid Assistance with Housework.................................. 55

5.2 Ecological Systems Theory and Positive Family-to-Work Spillover..... 56

5.3 Implications of the Current Study.................................................. 58

5.3.1 Contributions to Research Literature .................................. 58

5.3.2 Resiliency and Positive Family-to-Work Spillover.............. 59

5.3.3 Implications for Practice.................................................... 59

5.4 Limitations......................................................................................... 60

5.5 Conclusions....................................................................................... 63

References................................................................................................. 64

Appendix A: Confirmation of Ethical Exemption.............................. 72

Appendix B: Ethics Application.............................................................. 73

Appendix C: Survey Questionnaire...................................................... 80
List of Figures

Figure 1  Conceptual model adapted from Voydanoff (2002)............................ 9
Figure 2  Conceptual model adapted from Hill (2005)........................................ 10
List of Tables

Table 4.1   Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Variables.............................. 49
Table 4.2   Frequencies and Percentages for Categorical Variables...................... 50
Table 4.3   Independent means T-Test examining respondents with at least one 51
            missing response on spousal support compared to respondents with
            no missing responses on spousal support for continuous variables.....
Table 4.4   Chi-Square analysis examining respondents with at least one 52
            missing response on spousal support compared to respondents with
            no missing responses on spousal support for categorical variables.....
Table 4.5   Standardized (Beta) Coefficients for OLS Regression of Family-to- 55
            Work Positive Spillover on Sociodemographic Factors, Spousal
            Support, and Family Characteristics.............................................
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Women’s roles in work and family have changed dramatically in recent years. In the early half of the twentieth century, women’s responsibilities were well-defined and often restricted to family and household activities (Stevens, Minnotte, Mannon, & Kiger, 2007). Today, women have a multitude of occupational options. Women often pursue paid work in their occupation of choice while simultaneously participating in the family roles of parent and partner. It has been suggested that these expanded roles have increased demands and expectations placed on women (Stevens et al., 2007). However, there is plenty of evidence to suggest that women may enjoy positive benefits from participating in paid work and family roles simultaneously (Barnett & Hyde, 2001).

The prevalence of women involved in paid employment has increased significantly in recent years, as well as the number dual-earner couples (couples where both partners have paid jobs outside the home) (Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2000; Statistics Canada, 2002). Today, a record 59% of women participate in the Canadian labour force, compared to 63% for the overall population (Statistics Canada, 2007). Not only are Canadian women participating in the labour force in record numbers, but Canadian mothers are as well. Women with children increased their participation in paid labour from 39% in 1986 to 45% in 2005 (Marshall, 2006). Furthermore, a dramatic increase in the number of women who are primary breadwinners in the family has been observed (Sussman & Bonnel, 2006). In 1967, 11% of women were estimated to earn more than their husbands. By 2003, this number had increased to 29% (Sussman & Bonnel, 2006). It is evident that women’s experiences of work and family have changed drastically in a short amount of time, leading one to ponder the impact of these changes on women’s lives.
While record numbers of women are currently participating in paid employment, it should be noted that several structural inequalities among Canadian women and men continue to exist. For example, in 2001, women represented a very small minority of positions in corporate leadership and political office, fewer women than men were entrepreneurs, and more women than men comprise low socio-economic status groups. (Canadian Labour Congress, 2008). Gender wage inequity has increased for women with post-secondary degrees. In the 1990’s, women earned 72 cents for every dollar that men earned in Canada for doing similar work. In 2008, reports have indicated that this number has slipped to 68 cents (Canadian Labour Congress, 2008). While much progress has been achieved towards the goals of ensuring equality for women in Canada, much remains to be done.

Women have increased their presence in the workforce, while simultaneously participating in parenting and partner roles (Marshall, 2006; Sussman & Bonnel, 2006). Many researchers have examined the negative impact of this potentially stressful lifestyle on women’s well-being (Burley, 1995). However, it appears that despite increased demands (Frone, 2003), women’s experiences of participating in multiple roles are not as adverse as one might expect (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). Several processes contribute to increased well-being for women participating in the multiple roles of work and family, including: increased social support; increased self-complexity; buffering (occurs when the negative effects of one role are offset by the positive effects of another role); added income; increased opportunities to experience success; and an expanded frame of reference (allows one to see the “bigger” picture) (Barnett & Hyde, 2001).

Participating in both home and family domains may allow women the opportunity to experience several positive consequences. For example, the paid worker role can offer social contacts, professional challenges, a sense of responsibility, increased self-respect, increased self-
worth, one’s own income, and less financial dependence on others (Fokkema, 2002). Childcare offers intimacy and affection, the sense that one is needed, and the opportunity to care for others (Fokkema, 2002). Physical health benefits arising from participation in multiple roles have also been explored. A meta-analysis summarized the collective evidence provided from reports of 161 measures of the effects of employment on various aspects of women’s well-being (Klumb & Lampert, 2004). The majority of studies examining women’s well-being and work conducted from 1950 to 2000 found that employment not only had a beneficial effect on women’s psychological well-being, but also on their physical well-being (Klumb & Lampert, 2003).

Dramatic social changes over the last 50 years have resulted in many women participating in paid labour, partner and parent roles simultaneously (Stevens et al., 2007). While one might expect that women would experience greater stress as a result of these increased demands, research suggests that participation in multiple roles may have several benefits (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Crouter, 1984; Gove & Tudor, 1973; Kessler & McRae, 1982; Klumb & Lampert, 2003; Marshall & Barnett, 1991, 1993; Rankin, 1993; Ross, Mirowsky, & Huber, 1983; Seiber, 1974). The positive consequences that arise from women’s participation in multiple roles may present themselves emotionally, financially, and physically; and may be demonstrated in both work and family domains (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Fokkema, 2002, Martikainen, 1995).

The body of literature that examines the interactions between work and family is large and spans several disciplines. However, specific research pertaining to the positive benefits and synergies that exist between these two important domains is sparse (Stevens et al., 2007). Furthermore, the nature of the interaction between work and family is complex, and must take into account both predictors and antecedents of positive consequences for women participating in multiple roles (Voydanoff, 2002). Hence, the discussion of such complex and infrequently researched issues is challenging, and its discourse must be clear and unambiguous.
1.2 Terminology

1.2.1. Work-Family Interface

There is a great deal of conceptual overlap in the work-family literature, and the need for a clear description of terminology utilized in this research is apparent. For example, various nomenclature describes the processes that explain how work and family influence each other. However, many of these constructs have similar underlying meanings. This study discusses the work-family interface, which may be thought of as the permeable boundaries and interactions that exist between the separate domains of work and family (Voydanoff, 2002). That is, the work-family interface can be described as the meeting ground between the characteristics of one’s work and one’s family life (Voydanoff, 2002).

1.2.2. Positive Spillover

Spillover refers to the tendency for work to spill into family activities and vice versa (Stevens et al., 2007). Positive spillover can be defined as the beneficial outcomes associated with the permeable boundaries between work and family (Voydanoff, 2002). Several conceptual labels have been utilized to describe experiences of positive spillover. For example, facilitation (Frone, 2003; Thompson & Werner, 1997), role enhancement (Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002; Teidje, Wortmne, Downey, Emmons, Biernat, & Lang, 1990), enrichment (Kirchmeyer, 1992; Rothbard, 2001), and positive spillover (Crouter, 1984; Gryzwacz & Marks, 2000b; Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shafiro, 2005; Voydanoff, 2001) are constructs that describe this positive relationship. For the purpose of this study; facilitation, enrichment, enhancement, and positive spillover will be used interchangeably to describe the positive relationships between work and family, and will be referred to as positive spillover. A further distinction in the literature is made between positive spillover and negative spillover. Negative
spillover, which is frequently researched, is often referred to as work-family conflict. For the purposes of this research, little attention will be paid to work-family conflict.

1.2.3. Work-to-Family Facilitation

Work-family scholars identify two directions for spillover: work-to-family and family-to-work. Work-to-family facilitation, or work-to-family positive spillover, may be defined as the extent to which an individual’s participation in the family domain is made easier by skills, experiences, and opportunities gained in the work domain (Grzywacz & Butler, 2005). Family-to-work facilitation, or family-to-work positive spillover, may be thought of as the extent to which an individual’s participation in the work domain is made easier by skills, experiences, and opportunities gained in the family domain (Grzywacz & Butler, 2005).

1.3 Need for the Study

The work-family literature predominantly focuses on negative work-family spillover (e.g. work-family conflict) (Stevens et al., 2007). Although work-family conflict is a useful construct to explain part of the relationship between work and family, it does not explain the complex nature of the interaction in its entirety (Stevens et al., 2007). Furthermore, the limited literature that examines positive spillover also focuses nearly exclusively on work-to-family positive spillover, and little is known about the characteristics of the family domain that may contribute to positive spillover (family-to-work positive spillover) (Stevens et al., 2007). This study examines positive spillover between family and work in order to understand positive outcomes that may result from women’s participation in multiple roles. Specifically, family resources that contribute to positive family-to-work spillover will be examined with the goal of answering the question: Which family resources predict positive spillover between work and family for women who are parents, partners, and paid employees?
1.4 Chapter Organization

The following chapters include a literature review, a description of the methodology and procedures utilized in the study, presentation of results, and finally a discussion of the findings. In chapter 2, the literature review will initially introduce a theoretical framework that is the cornerstone of the research, summarize and critique the limited research in the area of family-to-work positive spillover, identify gaps in the literature and set forth the purpose of the current research. The methodology chapter, chapter 3, will describe the sample and procedures utilized for collecting data, will outline independent and dependent variables, and will describe the statistical analysis utilized. Next, in chapter 4, the results will be presented. Finally, a discussion of the findings, interpretations, implications and limitations will be included in chapter 5.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The following chapter summarizes the limited literature published on the construct of family-to-work positive spillover. A theoretical framework is introduced as an explanation of the complex relationships between positive spillover, individual outcomes and family resources. This is followed by an examination of the construct of positive spillover and a review of family-to-work facilitation. The impact of family resources on well-being and positive spillover, specifically the impact of constructs of housework and spousal relationships, will be discussed. The body of literature discussing the work-family interface is large and spans several disciplines; however, little has been published on the specific constructs mentioned above. This sparse yet complex literature will be reviewed.

2.1 Ecological Systems Theory and the Work-Family Interface

Ecological Systems Theory, a detailed account of environmental influences on individuals, provides a useful theoretical grounding for studying the work-family interface (Bronfenbrenner, 1989; Voydanoff, 2002). For the purposes of this research, microsystems and mesosystems, as described by ecological systems theory, will be focused on. Microsystems can be described as the networks of face-to-face relationships that occur within a specific environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1989). Mesosystems provide the linkages and processes that connect two or more microsystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1989). Ecosystems and macrosystems exist outside the mesosystem. Ecosystems may be defined as the larger social system that one does not interact with, but that directly influence elements within one’s microsystem. Macrosystems are the larger framework that individuals exist within, and may be comprised of cultural values, customs, laws and global influences.

Ecological systems theory was recently applied to the study of the work-family interface in order to conceptualize the interaction between the work microsystem and the family
microsystem (Voydanoff, 2002). The work-family mesosystem was described as the interactions between the work and family Microsystems (Voydanoff, 2002). Hence, the construct of positive spillover exists within the work-family mesosystem as a specific linkage between the domains of work and family (Voydanoff, 2002).

Applying ecological systems theory to the work-family interface, one’s perception of work-family facilitation, or role enhancement, is “derived from monitoring and weighing demands and benefits associated with work and family roles” (Voydanoff, 2002, p. 147). The permeable boundaries that exist between work and family are crucial for understanding ecological systems theory when applied to the work-family interface. It is through these permeable boundaries that interactions between work and family take place, thus creating the work-family interface. A conceptual map was utilized to explain the relationship between positive spillover and positive work, family and individual outcomes (see Figure 1) (Voydanoff, 2002). The model includes several linking mechanisms that connect characteristics of the work and family domains to individual outcomes that may include, but are not limited to: increased life, parenting, job, and marital satisfaction, and increased psychological well-being (Voydanoff, 2002).

For the purposes of this study, attention will be paid specifically to the relationships that are described between characteristics of the work-family interface (family resources) and role enhancement (positive spillover) (Voydanoff, 2002). Role enhancement is proposed as the first mechanism through which the relationship between domain characteristics and outcomes may be understood, and is thought to have a direct relationship with characteristics of the work-family interface (Voydanoff, 2002). Work-family role enhancement “reflects the extent to which aspects of the work or family role provide resources that facilitate the performance in the other role” (Voydanoff, 2002, p. 149). Several studies link the construct of work-family role
enhancement with increased mental health, role satisfaction, and role performance (Kirchmeyer, 1992; Tiedje et al., 1990), giving further evidence to the importance of positive spillover in the work-family interface.

Figure 1. Linking mechanisms between the work-family interface and individual outcomes (adapted from Voydanoff, 2002).

The relationship between family characteristics, positive spillover, and individual outcomes is further illuminated by incorporating family resiliency theory and family stress theory (Hill, 2005). Utilizing Voydanoff’s (2002) model as a theoretical base (Voydanoff, 2002), an attempt was made to explain not only the relationship between family resources and facilitation, but also the direct link between these constructs and individual outcomes (see Figure 2) (Hill, 2005). Ecological Systems theory applied to the work-family interface utilizes several linking
mechanisms to explain the overall work-family interface (Voydanoff, 2002). However, the direct relationships between constructs of interest in this study, specifically between family resources, family-to-work facilitation (positive spillover), and work, family and individual outcomes, are more clearly illuminated by incorporating family resiliency and family stress theory (Hill, 2005) (see figure 2). This study will utilize ecological systems theory to explain the work-family interface in an overarching, comprehensive way (Voydanoff, 2002); and family resiliency and family stress theory (Hill, 2005) to provide insight into specific constructs of interest (family resources and positive spillover) and their direct linkages with family-to-work facilitation.

Figure 2. Relationships between the work-family interface, and individual outcomes (adapted from Hill, 2005).

Family resiliency theory, a theoretical underpinning explaining the work-family interface (Hill, 2005), employs family resources or capabilities to explain how families may thrive in the face of crisis or risk (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). Family resiliency theory provides a way to
understand the impact of resources and support in the family domain on positive spillover or facilitation, leading to the separate outcomes of facilitation and psychological well-being. Furthermore, family resiliency theory focuses on adjustment and adaptation, a perspective that is consistent with the current study’s concentration on the positive aspects and outcomes of the work-family interface. Consequently, the inclusion of family resiliency theory (Hill, 2005) as a theoretical base for this research is useful and appropriate.

The above described theoretical models delineate the linkages between characteristics of the family, work-family facilitation ad work, family, and individual outcomes. The current research examines the characteristics of family life and positive spillover (a measure of work-family facilitation). The theoretical model provides a method for understanding how these constructs are linked, and a solid base for examining the relationship between positive spillover and family resources.

2.2 Positive Spillover and Family Resources

Work and family environments are often organized as if each domain was separate and distinct from the other (Stevens et al., 2007). However, the interactions between work and family have been regarded as complex by social scientists for a number of years (Stevens et al., 2007). Boundary theory refers to the way that people segment or integrate work and family roles (Rothbard, Philips & Dumas, 2005), and refutes the claim that individuals are able to completely separate the roles of work and family from each other. Spillover between these roles is common. It would seem that management of this permeable boundary is important given current social context where the majority of women are participating in multiple roles (Greenberger & O’Neil, 1990; Rothbard et al., 2005).

Positive spillover, the positive feelings, attitudes and behaviours that develop within either the family or work domain and spill into the other, is an important construct for
understanding the work-family interface (Stevens et al., 2007). Several models explain the mechanisms underlying positive spillover. The role enhancement model holds that simultaneous participation in multiple roles will have health enhancing effects as a result of social and psychological benefits (Gove & Tudor, 1973; Kessler & McRae, 1982; Klumb & Lampert, 2003; Ross, Mirowsky & Huber, 1983; Seiber, 1974). The work-family facilitation model suggests that positive synergies exist between work and family, and that these synergies are separate and distinct from conflicts that may arise between these interfaces (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Crouter, 1984; Marshal & Barnett, 1991, 1993; Rankin, 1993). Enrichment, facilitation, and integration all explain the process of positive spillover, and will be used interchangeably to refer to the positive relationships that exist between work and family. The following section describes the construct of positive spillover.

2.2.1 Positive Spillover

Two directions of facilitation have been proposed: work-to-family facilitation and family-to-work facilitation. Work-to-family facilitation is more often researched (Stevens et al., 2007), and is defined as the extent to which an individual’s participation in the family domain is made easier by skills, experiences, and opportunities gained in the work domain (Grzywacz & Butler, 2005). Family-to-work facilitation may be thought of as the extent to which an individual’s participation in the work domain is made easier by skills, experiences, and opportunities gained in the family domain (Grzywacz & Butler, 2005). The two dimensions of facilitation (work-to-family, family-to-work) are distinct and are likely to have unique antecedents (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000b). Therefore, the constructs of family-to-work facilitation must be investigated independently from work-to-family facilitation in order to understand the complexity of the interaction between work and family (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000b).
2.2.2 Family-to-Work Facilitation.

Family-to-work facilitation may be thought of as the positive impact on work roles arising from characteristics of the family domain. Very little literature examines the direct precursors of family-to-work facilitation. In fact, the literature often refers to family-to-work facilitation as the “neglected side of the work-family interface” (Stevens et al., 2007, p. 242). However, there is some evidence that family resources, the psychological rewards and enabling resources that an individual derives from family roles, may be strong predictors of family-to-work facilitation (Stevens et al., 2007; Voydanoff, 2005a).

A large study (N=1567) examined a number of work, family, and community variables in relation to family-to-work facilitation and conflict (Voydanoff, 2005a). The sample utilized in this study was obtained from the 1995 National Survey of Midlife Development in the U.S. This sample was selected randomly from listed telephone numbers in the United States. Sample criteria required that the participants be employed, married and/or living with a partner, and were parents. The sample included adults ranging in age from 25-74, with the mean age being 46 years. 60% of the sample was male, 90% were caucasian, and the average level of education was three or more years of college with no degree.

The amount of support received from one’s spouse (spousal support), the positive feelings arising from unpaid work done in the home (household rewards), the positive feelings arising as a result of parenting activities (parenting rewards), and how much help and support one obtains from family members (kin support) were all positively related to family-to-work facilitation. Interestingly, spousal support and household rewards were more strongly related to facilitation than parenting rewards or kin support.

The results of this study built on the limited research examining family-to-work facilitation. More importantly, the relationship between family resources and family-to-work facilitation.
facilitation is supported by the study results (Voydanoff, 2005a). The inclusion of family-to-work conflict allowed for comparisons between the relationships of independent variables to both concepts. It was demonstrated that the constructs of facilitation and conflict have unique relationships with a variety of independent variables. That is, family-to-work conflict and family-to-work facilitation are not merely opposite ends of a continuum, but are independent constructs. Thus, the examination of each construct separate from the other is warranted and necessary (Voydanoff, 2005a).

Spouse and family demands were also examined in relation to family-to-work facilitation (Voydanoff, 2005a). Results show that spouse and household demands were negatively correlated with family-to-work facilitation (Voydanoff, 2005a). However, a stronger relationship was demonstrated between resources and family-to-work facilitation than demands and family-to-work facilitation. While it is important to understand any demands that may limit the experience of positive spillover, this study suggests that examining relationships between family-to-work facilitation and resources may illuminate positive family-to-work spillover more than the study of relationships between demands and positive spillover (Voydanoff, 2005a).

While it illuminated the experience of positive family-to-work spillover, this study had several limitations. First, the sample was 60% male, which does not illuminate the linkages between work and family for women in particular. Second the sample was 90% caucasian, leading one to ponder if these results represent the experience of family-to-work positive spillover for other groups. Third, the sample collected data from adults ranging in age up to 75. One may question whether predictors of positive spillover between work and family change with increasing age. In particular, it is thought that many of respondents in the 55 – 75 age range may have older children residing in the home thus impacting the predictors of family-to-work spillover. Further research is needed in order to address these gaps.
Data from a random sample of dual-earner couples indicated that family cohesion (the degree to which family members are concerned and supportive of each other) and emotional-work satisfaction (the management or enhancement of the psychological needs of family members) were related to positive family-to-work spillover for both men and women (Stevens et al., 2007). Interestingly, some correlates of positive spillover differed between men and women (Stevens et al., 2007). For example, women’s positive spillover was related to satisfaction with housework arrangements, while men’s positive spillover was related to relationship satisfaction (Stevens et al., 2007). No relationship was demonstrated between positive spillover and relationship satisfaction for women.

This study was a significant study for a number of reasons. First, the study was one of few that examined the antecedents of family-to-work spillover. Little research has been directed at family-to-work spillover, and even less at its antecedents (Stevens et al., 2007; Voydanoff, 2005a). This study provided much needed information about family-to-work facilitation, and demonstrated that characteristics of the family have an impact of family-work facilitation. Second, the data supported the notion that the experience of positive spillover is different for men than for women, as evidenced by the unique predictors of positive spillover for men and women (Stevens et al., 2007). This result lends support for research examining predictors for women only (Stevens et al., 2007). Last, the sample collected in this study was unique in comparison to the existing research in the area of family-to-work facilitation. Much of this body of research has been ascertained from a large national survey (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000a; Voydanoff, 2005a) collected in 1994. Thus, research utilizing a more recently collected sample has the potential to contribute to the literature in an important way. While the above described studies give information about positive family-to-work spillover, little research describes the direct relationship between family resources and positive family-to-work spillover. The following
section describes these family resources and the sparse literature that examines them in relation to the construct of interest in the current study.

2.2.3 Family Resources.

While one may receive a number of benefits from participating in family roles, some specific aspects of family life stand out as being important for positive spillover. Specifically, research suggests that resources gained from spousal relationships and household rewards are very salient (Voydanoff, 2005a). While much research examines marital quality and household rewards in general, very little illuminates specific measures of these constructs that predict positive spillover.

2.2.3.1 Relationship with Spouse or Partner. The research literature pertaining to marital quality or relationship with spouse or partner is extensive. However, there have been few links between this literature and the work-family interface. Early sex role theories (e.g. Gove 1972; Gove & Tudor, 1973) of mental health proposed that marriage is advantageous for men’s mental health, but disadvantageous for women’s mental health. Since the early 1970’s, a number of studies have further examined the relationship between marriage and mental health (Simon, 2002). In contrast to Gove’s (1972) initial findings, it appears that marriage is beneficial to both men and women’s mental health, regardless of gender (Simon, 2002). Recent research has suggested that the central organizing principle of women’s lives is relatedness and connectedness with others (Banyard & Graham-Bermann, 1993). More specifically, the giving and receiving of social support is an important mechanism women use to cope with stress (Banyard & Graham-Bermann, 1993). The support received from one’s spouse in relation to coping with stress has long been a topic of interest to researchers (Erdwin, Buffardi, Casper, & O’Brien, 2001). However, since coping with stress may be more closely connected to women’s experiences of
negative spillover, it is difficult to apply this research to women’s experiences of positive
spillover.

While little research has linked spousal support with positive spillover, there is evidence
that spousal support may be related to a number of marital outcomes. For example, low
perceived spousal support combined with high interrole conflict has been linked with decreased
marital adjustment. That is, women with low spousal support and high interrole conflict report
less marital adjustment than other women (Suchet & Barling, 1986). Conversely, high spousal
support was found to be linked to increased marital adjustment for women with high interrole
conflict, leading the authors to propose the idea of a stress buffering relationship. However, later
studies failed to conclusively demonstrate the relationship between spousal support and increased
well-being (Burley, 1995). To date, there is little evidence for this stress buffering relationship
(Suchet and Barling, 1986), but it is strongly contended that perceived spousal support has a large
role to play in the relationship between women’s work stress and well-being (Burley, 1995).

A large amount of research has examined the relationship between spousal support and
coping with stress for women, with varied results (Erdwin et al., 2001). Many studies
demonstrated a link between spousal support and less role conflict, role strain, and fewer
depressive symptoms (Aryee, 1992; Elman & Gilbert, 1984; Ross, Mirowsky & Huber, 1983).
Conversely, no such relationship between spousal support and buffering from the negative effects
of stress has been demonstrated elsewhere (Parasuraman, Greenhaus & Granrose, 1992; Reifman,
Beirnat & Lang 1991). These results suggest that the relationship between spousal support and
women’s well-being requires further investigation.

While research directed at examining the relationship between spousal support and the
negative effects of stress is useful, it provides us with little knowledge of the relationship
between positive effects of participating in multiple roles and marital quality. Based on the
premise that work-family facilitation and work-family conflict are distinct constructs, we cannot ascertain any information about the positive relationship between work and family from the conflict literature (Voydanoff, 2002).

The limited data examining the direct relationship between spousal support and positive family-to-work spillover is somewhat conflicting. Studies based on a large U.S. national sample, using identical measures of family-to-work facilitation and spousal support, suggest that there is a significant relationship between spousal support and positive family-to-work spillover (Gryzwacz & Marks, 2000b; Voydanoff, 2005a). More recent research suggests that the relationship between spousal support and positive family-to-work spillover is salient only for men (Stevens et al., 2007).

The data from these important studies may be contradictory for a number of reasons. First, the conflicting studies use different measures of spousal support and positive family-to-work spillover, which may have led to this inconsistency in results (Gryzwacz & Marks, 2000b; Stevens et al., 2007; Voydanoff, 2005a). Second, the data in the more recent study (Stevens et al., 2007) was collected from a small localized region, as compared to a large nationally represented sample in the first two studies. This may lead to questions of generalizability, and whether these studies can be reasonably compared. Third, the failure to examine gender differences in the first studies may explain the conflicting findings (Gryzwacz & Marks, 2000a; Voydanoff, 2005a). Last, one of the samples (Stevens et al., 2007) was collected a number of years after the first sample (Voydanoff, 2005a; Gryzwacz & Marks, 2000a). Considering the dramatic social changes that have seen women entering the workforce in such large numbers over a relatively short period of time, one may question if coinciding change in the experience of spillover for women occurred within a similarly short time frame. Thus, a more recently collected
While evidence indicates that spousal support plays a large role in women’s well being, limited research ties spousal support to women’s positive family-to-work spillover. The few studies that have examined this relationship have provided conflicting results, and suggest that gender differences may exist within this relationship. Clearly, more research is needed to identify the impact that spousal support has on positive family-to-work spillover, and vice-versa (Hill, 2005).

### 2.2.3.2 Housework, childcare and women’s well-being

Responsibility for completion of household chores and caring for dependent family members often falls within women’s roles. Despite women’s expanded roles within the workforce, social change in the home has failed to keep pace (Sullivan, 2000). For example, 83% of employed mothers indicated they were responsible for cooking, compared to only 11% of employed fathers (Galinsky, Bond & Friedman, 1996). Furthermore, women have been shown to be primarily responsible for housework and childcare, regardless of which spouse earned a higher income (Blain, 1994). More recent literature confirms that although men are doing more housework than ever before, a move toward more equal division of household labour has occurred more slowly and has been less dramatic than expected (Marshall, 2006).

Several theories have been proposed to explain this slower than expected social change (Noor, 1997). For example, one theory contends that a devaluation of housework has occurred in recent years, with fewer household members concerned with tasks that may be considered menial (Bianchi, Milkie, Sayer & Robinson, 2000). Consequently, a significant decrease in the amount of household labour has been observed, with families’ often outsourcing cleaning, laundry, and food preparation duties (Bianchi et al., 2000). In fact, it has recently been demonstrated that an
increase in outsourcing of household duties is observed as women’s income rises (Marshall, 2006).

The link between division of housework and women’s participation in multiple roles is complex and not fully understood (Cunningham, 2007). A study of women that spanned 31 years found that housework allocation between partners may be explained through gender role attitudes, available time each partner has for housework and each partner’s relative resources in the relationship (Cunningham, 2007). Women’s participation in paid employment and multiple roles may be related to all of these factors. For example, gender role attitudes may change as women enter into multiple roles, with women who participate in paid employment becoming more supportive of egalitarian division of labour between partners (household chores being divided more equally between partners) (Greenstein, 1996; Orbuch & Eyster, 1997; Presser, 1994). Furthermore, a wife’s participation in paid labour will result in increased income, which is a strong predictor of decreases in the amount of housework performed by women (Coltrane, 2000). Last, studies have shown that as women’s employment hours’ increase, time spent on housework decreases, and their husband’s involvement in housework increases (Coltrane & Ishii-Kuntz, 1992). This research demonstrates that a relationship exists between factors that influence the division of household labour between marriage partners and women’s participation in multiple roles.

Significant relationships between housework demands and women’s mental health have been demonstrated. Many studies have examined the division of household labour, and its impact on a number of outcomes for women. For example, research has examined the relationship between actual time spent in housework tasks and women’s psychological well-being (Noor, 1997). The findings suggest that women’s perceptions of their husband’s involvement in housework are more important than the actual division of household labour
(Noor, 1997). That is, women experience greater well-being when they perceive that household labour is divided fairly, as opposed to actual equality of time spent in household tasks. It was suggested that wives’ perceptions of support from their husbands is the actual pathway through which this mechanism operates (Noor, 1997). Hence, it would seem that women’s perception of support in division of household tasks is a crucial factor in predicting psychological distress.

A recent study examined the relationship between the perception of inequitable division of household labour and perceived spousal support in a study of 121 employed mothers (Edwards, 2006). Spousal support was measured by five components: Encouraging discussion (the degree to which participants felt their husbands were open to discussing work-family concerns), interpersonal involvement (women’s rating of their husbands concern/understanding for their goals for both career and motherhood), acceptance (women’s perceptions of their husbands acceptance and validation for their work and family concerns), dialogue (the level of negotiation and collaboration in couples discussion of work-family matters), and assistance (women’s perceptions of their husbands willingness to take on tasks or responsibilities) (Edwards, 2006). Results revealed a strong negative correlation (-0.62) between spousal support and inequitable division of household labour (Edwards, 2006). In particular, the spousal support measure of assistance had the largest negative correlation with inequity (Edwards, 2006). The author suggests that spousal support and assistance with household tasks may contribute to the development of an equitable and egalitarian relationship, allowing employed mothers to successfully manage the competing demands of work and family (Edwards, 2006). However, little research has examined the relationship between equitable division of household chores and women’s experiences managing the work-family interface (Stevens et al., 2007).

The research literature clearly demonstrates links between women’s participation in multiple roles, psychological distress and the division of household chores. Much less research
has examined the direct relationship between the division of household labour and women’s experiences of positive spillover (Stevens et al., 2007). A significant study examined the experience of positive family-to-work spillover and three categories of household labour including emotion work, status enhancement work and housework (Stevens et al., 2007). This expanded definition of household labour included the management of emotional needs of family members (emotion work), behaviours that enhance one’s partner’s career and work experiences (status enhancement), as well as cooking, cleaning and home maintenance (housework) (Stevens et al., 2007). No other studies have examined household labour using such an expanded definition (Stevens et al., 2007).

Housework, a single item estimating the approximate time spent by respondents and their partners on household chores, did not have a negative relationship with positive family-work spillover as was hypothesized (Stevens et al., 2007). However, the satisfaction with housework that respondents reported was positively related to positive spillover (Stevens et al., 2007). This finding gives further supports the position that one’s actual time spent in housework is less important than the amount of satisfaction one feels with housework arrangements between partners. However, the use of a single item asking respondents to estimate their own and their partners time spent in housework may limit the impact of this finding.

Household rewards, the satisfaction and pride one feels with the work they do at home, was found to be significantly related to positive family-to-work spillover (Voydanoff, 2005a). This study used a large sample representative of the American population that was collected in 1995 (Voydanoff, 2005a). Household rewards were measured with two items: “When I think about the work I do at home, I feel a good deal of pride”, and “I feel that others respect the work I do at home” (Voydanoff, 2005a, p. 406). While this relationship was significant, several limitations of this study exist. Once again, the use of only two items to measure this complex
aspect of family life may limit the impact of this finding. Furthermore, the time that has lapsed since this data was collected (1995) may have seen significant changes in the women’s experience of positive spillover. Last, the collection of data in the U.S. may limit the application of this finding for Canadian women.

While women have entered the workforce in staggering numbers over the last 50 years, social change at home has occurred more slowly (Marshall, 2006). Husbands today are more involved in household tasks than ever before, although their increased participation has not occurred as quickly as expected (Marshall, 2006). Women’s perceptions of fairness of division of household tasks have been shown to improve psychological well-being (Noor, 1997), and strong relationships with spousal support have been demonstrated (Edwards, 2006). Some research implicates satisfaction with housework as being positively correlated with positive family-to-work spillover (Stevens et al., 2007; Voydanoff, 2005a). However, methodological considerations have limited the impact of this finding. Direct relationships between division of household chores and perceived fairness of household labour are unclear, and more research is needed to illuminate this topic.

2.3 Summary of the Literature

Work-family facilitation, or positive spillover, may be defined as the positive benefits that one realizes from simultaneously participating in work and family roles (Voydanoff, 2002). This topic is especially pertinent to women’s experiences given the dramatic social changes observed in the last half century (Marshall, 2006). With more women participating in paid work than ever before, dynamics in the relationship between work and family are bound to shift.

A number of gaps in the work-family interface literature exist. First, a conflict perspective has historically dominated the work-family literature (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Assuming that individuals experience a fixed amount of time and energy, the conflict
perspective holds that the role demands of work and family are incompatible (Marks, 1977; Seiber, 1974). Much research has shed light on the determinants and negative consequences of work-family conflict (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Various negative implications have been strongly linked with work-family conflict. Among these were employee stress, job dissatisfaction, intentions to leave one's job, and general life dissatisfaction (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). Also, conflict between domains has been linked to lower levels of overall satisfaction and higher levels of psychological distress (Frone, Russel, & Cooper, 1992).

While much is known about the negative impact of work-family conflict, relatively little is known about the positive effects on well-being arising from the work-family interface (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). The construct of positive spillover is important to fully understand the work-family interface. A recent study found that positive spillover had a stronger impact on depression than work-family conflict (Hammer et al., 2005). It would seem that achieving a greater understanding of positive spillover may be more important than addressing work-family conflict (Hammer et al., 2005).

Other major gaps in the literature have been identified. A focus on consequences of spillover rather than determinants has been described as a major limitation of the literature (Stevens et al., 2007). Few studies have examined determinants of spillover between work and family, and even fewer have focused exclusively on positive spillover. The work-family interface literature has nearly an exclusive focus on work-to-family spillover, with much less emphasis on family-to-work spillover (Stevens et al., 2007). In short, the antecedents and determinants of family-to-work spillover are not well-understood, and cannot be ascertained from findings on work-to-family spillover.

Two significant studies examining predictors and antecedents of positive family-to-work spillover inform the current research (Stevens et al., 2007; Voydanoff, 2005a). When the
relationship between several measures of family resources and family-to-work facilitation was examined, spousal support and household rewards were stronger predictors than kin support and parenting rewards (Voydanoff, 2005a). Thus, variables measuring indicators of satisfaction with household chores and spousal support are included in this study. The second salient study informing the present research utilized an expanded definition of household labour, and examined gender differences between men and women in terms of their experience of positive family-to-work spillover (Stevens et al., 2007). Results demonstrate that men and women have different predictors of positive family-to-work spillover (Stevens et al., 2007). Hence, the need for research examining the antecedents of spillover as they specifically relate to women is demonstrated.

Spousal support and household rewards appear to be related to spillover (Voydanoff, 2005a). However, the direct relationship is unclear in the literature. A large representative American sample indicated that spousal support was related to positive spillover (Gryzwacz & Marks, 2000a; Voydanoff, 2005a). However, later results suggest that spousal support is not significantly related to positive family-to-work spillover for women, but is for men (Stevens et al., 2007; Voydanoff, 2005a). This research utilizes the same measure as the large American survey, collected from a smaller Canadian city, in a sample of employed and partnered mothers in order to contribute to this conflicting literature.

Direct relationships between positive family-to-work spillover and division of household chores appear to be salient. However, limitations inherent in this limited research indicate the need for further investigation. This study examines the relationship between housework and positive family-to-work spillover utilizing expanded indicators of the division of housework in order to contribute to the body of knowledge on this subject.
The current research literature examining the relationship between various aspects of family life and positive family-to-work spillover is limited. However, the literature that does exist indicates that these relationships are important and worth further investigation. The current study builds on these limited findings in order to further clarify the nature of the interaction between family and positive spillover.

2.4 Purpose

This study concentrates on the first relationship proposed in Voydanoff’s (2002) model that is further explicated in Hill’s (2005) explanation of the nature of the work-family interface: the relationships between characteristics of the family domain and role enhancement (See Figure 1, Figure 2). Specifically, the unique relationships between characteristics of family life and positive family-to-work spillover will be examined. While Voydanoff’s (2002) model delineates the linking mechanisms between characteristics of work/family domains and outcomes, there is little empirical support for some of the relationships proposed in the model. To further substantiate Voydanoff’s (2002) model, the association between family resources and the experience of positive spillover will be predicted. Furthermore, this study will attempt to clarify the relationship between spousal support and positive family-to-work spillover while shedding light on how various aspects of household labour may affect positive spillover for women.

2.4.1 Hypothesis. The current research will examine the effect of family resources on women’s reports of family-to-work positive spillover. It is hypothesized that spousal support, perceived fairness of division of housework and childcare, actual division of housework and childcare and paid assistance with housework will predict women’s experience of positive family-to-work spillover.
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Materials and Procedures

This section describes the materials and procedure that were utilized in the data collection for this study. The constructs of positive spillover, perceived fairness of housework and childcare, partner’s share of housework and childcare, paid assistance with housework and spousal support were assessed. Multiple regression analysis was utilized in a non-experimental research design.

3.1.1 Sample Selection

Data for the present study is based on the Gender, Work, Family and Health survey conducted by Dr. Bonnie Janzen (principle investigator] and Dr. Nazeem Muhajarine (co-investigator). The survey was conducted in a mid-size Canadian city during the winter of 2004/2005 and was funded by a CIHR operating grant (B. Janzen, personal communication, May 16, 2007). A stratified sample was collected with approximately equal proportions of participants in terms of age (25-34 years; 35-54 years), and educational attainment (high school or less; some post-secondary; university / college degree) (B. Janzen, personal communication, May 16, 2007). Telephone numbers were selected randomly from a sampling frame including all registered telephone numbers in the city. Sample criteria for the original study required that the participants: 1) speak fluent English, 2) fall between the ages of 25 - 54 years, 3) were employed full-time or part-time, and 4) were the parent of at least one child under the age of 20 years (B. Janzen, personal communication, May 16, 2007). Approximately equal proportions of participants were selected in terms of gender, age group, socio-economic status, job type and educational attainment (B. Janzen, personal communication, May 16, 2007). Interviews were conducted using a computer assisted telephone interviewing system (CATI), and took approximately 40 minutes (B. Janzen, personal communication, May 16, 2007). This study
utilized data collected from 372 partnered women in order to investigate the relationships between family resources and positive spillover.

3.2 Instruments

A number of items were selected from the Gender, Work, Family and Health survey for use in this study (B. Janzen, personal communication, May 16, 2007). Several instruments were selected as independent variables in order to investigate family resources. These include relative share of housework in comparison to one's partner, relative share of childcare in comparison to one's partner, perceived fairness of housework, perceived fairness of childcare, spousal support and paid assistance with housework. Other variables will be controlled for in the analysis, including income, presence of preschool children, educational attainment, number of children and hours of paid employment. Income and education were controlled based on the notion that one may be able to purchase services that allow for easier management of work and family roles (e.g. high quality child care, housekeeping, etc) (Stevens et al., 2007). Work hours are thought to influence family-to-work spillover by increasing time obligations (Stevens, Minnotte & Kiger, 2004), and the presence of young children appears to have an influence on the management of the work-family interface (Crouter, 1984, Dilworth, 2004).

3.2.1 Dependent Variable

3.2.1.1 Positive Spillover. Grzywacz & Marks (2000b) family-to-work positive spillover scale was used in the present study. The construct of positive spillover is derived from role enhancement theory which contends that participation in multiple roles allows the individual to access a larger number of opportunities and resources that can be useful in other life domains (Barnett, 1996, Marks, 1977 & Sieber, 1974 as cited in Grzywacz & Marks, 2000b). Respondents were asked to indicate, on a five point scale ranging from never (1) to all of the time (5) how often they experienced the following in the last year: 1) talking with someone at home
helps you deal with problems at work, 2) the love and respect you get at home makes you feel confident about yourself at work, and 3) your home life helps you relax and feel ready for the next day's work”. The three items were summed to form an overall family-to-work positive spillover scale, with higher values indicating higher levels of positive spillover. Cronbach’s alpha was used to assess reliability for a previous data set ($\alpha = 0.70$) (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000b), and was also calculated for this data set ($\alpha = 0.56$). Validity evidence for this scale could not be located.

3.2.2 Primary Independent Variables

3.2.2.1. Perceived Fairness of Housework and Childcare. Participants’ perceived fairness of the division of housework was assessed with a single question (Glass & Fujimoto, 1994): “How fair do you think the amount of housework you do is compared to the amount your partner does? The five original response categories (very unfair to me, unfair to me, fair to both, unfair to partner and very unfair partner) were collapsed to form three categories: 1) unfair to me, 2) fair to both, and 3) unfair to partner. A corresponding perceived fairness of the division of childcare question was also developed for the present study: “How fair do you think the amount of childcare you do is compared to the amount your partner does? As was the case for the housework question, the final three response categories were 1) unfair to me, 2) fair to both, and 3) unfair to partner.

3.2.2.2 Share of Housework and Childcare Relative to One’s Partner. Share of housework and childcare relative to one’s partner was measured using seven items from Voydanoff & Donnelly’s (1999) variable assessing housework tasks, and five items on childcare from the 1998 General Social Survey on time use (Statistics Canada, 1998). Housework tasks included: time spent in preparation of meals, washing dishes, cleaning house, outdoor tasks, shopping, washing and ironing, paying bills. Childcare tasks included personal and medical care
of children, playing with children, helping and teaching children, reading and talking to children, and travel for children. For each task, participants were asked to indicate their participation relative to their partners’ along a five point scale: very little/none (1), some (2), about half (3), most (4) or all (5). Responses to the 7 items measuring housework were summed to form a relative share of housework scale, and the five items measuring childcare were summed to form a relative share of childcare scale. Because this instrument combines two previously used scales, reliability and validity evidence is not available. Reliability was calculated using Cronbach’s alpha for this data set (α = 0.51 for relative share of housework, and α = 0.56 for relative share of childcare). Items measuring share of housework were summed, as were items measuring share of childcare. Higher scores indicate performing a greater share of the housework/childcare relative to one’s partner.

3.2.2.3. Paid Assistance with Housework. A single item assessing paid assistance with housework was developed for the study. The item asked respondents “Do you pay someone to assist you with housework?” with yes / no response options.

3.2.2.4. Spousal Support. Perceived spousal support is a six item scale from Voydanoff’s (2005a) assessment of family demands and resources. Respondents were asked the following survey questions: “How much does your spouse really care about you?”, “How much does he/she understand the way you feel about things?”, “How much does he/she appreciate you?”, “How much can you rely on him/her for help with a serious problem?”, “How much can you open up to him/her if you need to talk about your worries?” and “How much can you relax and be yourself around him or her?” (Schuster, Kessler & Aseltine,1990; Voydanoff, 2005a). The response categories for each item were “not at all” (1), “a little bit”(2), “some”(3) and “a lot”(4). An overall measure of perceived spousal support was obtained by summing participants’ responses to the six items, with higher scores indicating greater perceived spousal support. Cronbachs
alpha of $\alpha = .92$ has been reported in previous research (Schuster, Kessler & Aseltine, 1990; Voydanoff, 2005a) and $\alpha = 0.87$ for this data set. Validity evidence could not be located for this instrument.

3.2.3 Covariates

3.2.3.1 Educational attainment. Educational attainment was measured with a single item and five response options. Respondents were asked “How much education do you have?” The response option categories included: less than high school, graduated from high school but didn’t go to a postsecondary institution, some postsecondary training but didn’t graduate, graduated from a college, and graduated from a university.

3.2.3.2 Age. Age was measured using a single item. For the purposes of this study, age was treated a continuous variables and response categories were not utilized.

3.2.3.3 Work hours. Respondents were asked to estimate the amount of hours worked per week with a single item asking: “Approximately how many hours a week do you usually work at this job? If you usually work extra hours (paid or unpaid), please include these hours”. This item was treated as a continuous variable, thus eliminating the need for response categories.

3.2.3.4 Presence of preschool children in the home. Presence of preschool children was assessed with the following single item: “How old is each of your children? Does each child live with you all the time, some of the time, or not at all?”. This variable was treated as a categorical variable. Responses that a child under five resided with the respondent all of the time were coded “yes”, while all other responses were coded “no”.

3.2.3.5 Income. Income was measured with a single item asking respondents: “What is your best estimate of the total income, before taxes and deductions, of all household members from all sources in the past 12 months”? Income was treated as a continuous variable, thus eliminating the need for response categories.
3.3 Analysis

3.3.1 Multiple Regression

Multiple regression is a flexible, statistical method that allows researchers to study a continuous dependent variable as a function of several independent variables (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). In the present study, multiple regression was chosen for the following study based on its ability to: 1) allow the prediction of positive family-to-work spillover from a number of independent variables; 2) provide information about the size and strength of relationships between variables; and 3) allow for the examination of how each variable contributes to the experience of positive family-to-work spillover. Independent variables will measure the following family resources: partners’ contribution to housework and childcare, perceived fairness of housework and childcare, spousal support, and paid assistance with housework.

Sequential multiple regression allows the researcher to enter independent variables in an order dictated by theory, while predicting the variance that each independent variable will contribute to positive spillover (Tabachnik & Fidel, 2007). In the present analysis, the independent variables were entered in four separate blocks. The demographic variables, which included age, hours worked, number of children, presence of preschool children and educational attainment, were entered into the regression equation first. The demographic variables were not of primary interest, but rather, were considered to be potential confounders in the relationship between family resources and positive spillover. The spousal support variable was entered next, based on the implications of the importance of spousal support in various aspects of managing multiple roles (Voydanoff, 2005a, Grzywacz & Marks, 2000a), it was thought that this variable would have the strongest association with the dependent variable. The variables pertaining to housework (perceived fairness of division of household labour, relative share of housework in comparison to partner, and paid assistance with housework) were entered next, followed by the
childcare variables (perceived fairness of childcare and relative share of childcare in comparison to partner).

3.3.2 Assumptions

Multiple regression requires that a number of assumptions must be met. Particular attention must be paid to those assumptions that are not robust to violations (Tabachnik & Fidel, 2007). These include: normal distributions of variables, linear relationships between the independent and dependent variables, reliability of measurement, and homoscedasticity of errors (Osbourne & Waters, 2002). In order to ensure these assumptions are met, a number of steps were taken and are described below.

3.3.2.1 Ratio of cases to independent variables. To ensure variables are normally distributed, it is important to utilize a sufficiently large sample size (Tabachnik & Fidel, 2007). The minimum ratio of subsets to independent variables is 5:1, and a recommended number of people per independent variable is 10 – 20 (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). The current research utilizes eleven independent variables, requiring a sample size of at least 110. (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). The sample size of 372 in this study well exceeds the minimum requirement.

3.3.2.2 Normality, Linearity, Homoscedasticity and Independence of Residuals. Multiple regression requires that all variables be normally distributed, linear and homoscedastic (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). When these assumptions are met, the residuals of analysis are also normally distributed and independent (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). To examine for linearity, normality and homoscedasticity; a scatterplot of residuals was generated using SPSS. We can expect the data points to appear oval shaped if the data meets these assumptions (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). No problems were encountered with the normality, linearity or homoscedasticity in this sample.
3.3.2.3 Absence of Outliers. The inclusion of outliers in the regression equation affects the precision of the regression weights, and outliers were cleaned out of the data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Univariate outliers on continuous variables were identified as cases with standardized z-scores exceeding 3.29 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Univariate outliers on dichotomous variable were identified as those with more than 90-10 split between categories (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Multivariate outliers between the independent variables are also problematic (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). These were identified using the values given for the mahalanobis distance that is included in SPSS regression output (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Multivariate outliers were not identified until univariate outliers were dealt with, as the mahalanobis distance calculation is sensitive to violations of normality (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Multivariate outliers were identified using a chi-square variable that exceeds the critical value (obtained from chi-square table) (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007).

3.3.2.4 Absence of Multicollinearity and Singularity. Multicollinearity and singularity are problematic for multiple regression. With multicollinearity, the variables are highly correlated. Singularity occurs when the variables are redundant, or when one variable is a combination of two or more other variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Multicollinearity and singularity were detected using a correlation matrix from SPSS. Variables with bivariate correlations exceeding 0.90 were noted, although no concerns were evident in this sample (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

3.3.2.5 Absence of Outliers in the solution. When referring to absence of outliers in the solution, reference is made to those cases which are not well predicted by the regression equation (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).
3.3.3 Data Cleaning

3.3.3.1 Accuracy. Ensuring the accuracy of the data is essential. The easiest way to ensure the data is accurate is to simply proofread the file using the actual data surveys. However, with a large data set, this may be unrealistic (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Instead, descriptive statistics provided by SPSS were examined to ensure accuracy. The range, mean and standard deviation were examined to ensure they were plausible, and that all the variables were within range (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

3.3.3.2 Missing data. Missing data can cause a number of problems in statistical analysis. Is it useful to examine the pattern of missing data, how much is missing, and why the data missing. One of the most important considerations is the pattern of missing data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). When missing data points are scattered randomly through the data file, it poses few problems. However, non-random scattering of missing data is not only likely but common (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

3.3.3.3 Transformation. Various methods for working with data that does not meet assumptions exist. When working with data that not meet the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, or when outliers are present, transformation can vastly improve the results of the study. Transformation was considered for some variables in this sample when assumptions were not met (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

3.3.4 Level of Statistical Significance and Power

In the current research a statistical significance level of 0.05 was employed. This level was chosen based on the nature of the research question. Because the research is simply examining and predicting the relationship between variables, and no interventions or treatment is prescribed, a less conservative alpha level than 0.01 is suitable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). However, a more liberal significance level, such as 0.10 leaves much room for implying
relationships are significant when in fact they may not be important or noteworthy (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The significance level of 0.05 allows enough room to adequately assess the relationships without reducing the appropriateness of implications based on results (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1 Data Cleaning

The accuracy of the data was ensured by examining descriptive statistics. All variables were found to be within an appropriate range, and the means and standard deviations were plausible for all variables. The spousal support variable was found to have a large amount of missing data (11.60%). Rejection of the variable was considered. However, previous research suggests that spousal support may play an important role in the experience of positive family-work spillover (Stevens et al., 2007; Voydanoff, 2005a). Hence, the variable was retained. Caution must be used when interpreting the results of statistical analysis including this variable (see section 4.2.1). The remaining variables had no missing data.

4.2 Participant Characteristics

Data from 438 employed, partnered women with children was analyzed. The descriptive statistics for the continuous and categorical variables are in reported in Tables 4.1 and 4.2, respectively. The women ranged in age from 25 to 50 years, with a mean age of 36.69 years. The number of children the women reported to be parenting ranged from 1 to 4, with a mean of 2.02 children. Fifty-three percent of participants reported currently parenting at least one child under the age of five. The approximate number of hours worked per week ranged between 8 and 90, with a mean of 36.74 hours. Education attainment across the sample varied, with 28.80% having completed high school or less, 29.00% having completed some post-secondary, and 42.20% having completed a university or college degree.

Demographic information collected from the city of Saskatoon indicates the median age of women is 37.4 (Statistics Canada, 2007). 80% of census families were reported to be headed by either married or common-law couples (Statistics Canada, 2007). Married couples reported an average of 1.1 children, and common-law couples reported and average of 0.6 children (Statistics
Canada, 2007). Sample comparison with demographic information collected within the city of Saskatoon revealed that our sample is approximately equal to census data in age, with more children than average.

4.2.1. Missing Data Analysis

Analyses were undertaken to examine the presence of any socio-demographic differences between respondents with missing values on the spousal support variable and those with complete data. Table 4.3 displays the differences between these groups on demographic variables of age, hours of work/week, and number of children. Table 4.4 displays the differences between these groups on the demographic variables of educational attainment, and the presence of preschool children in the home. There were significant differences between the groups on the demographic variables of age (those with missing responses were younger than those without), number of children (those with missing responses had fewer children). Chi-square analysis was performed to examine the differences between the groups with missing responses and no missing responses on the categorical variables of educational attainment and presence of preschool children. Compared to those without missing data, a higher percentage of participants with missing data reported the presence of preschool children in the home and lower educational attainment.
Table 4.1.

Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>36.69</td>
<td>7.06</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours work/week</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>36.74</td>
<td>10.68</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Family-to-work spillover</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>10.60</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spousal support</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative time spent in housework</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>25.24</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative time spent in childcare</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>16.90</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.2.

Frequencies and Percentages for Categorical Variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Division of childcare</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to both of us</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>67.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfair to me</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>25.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfair to partner</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>7.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division of housework</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to both of us</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>56.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfair to me</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>30.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfair to partner</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>12.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Attainment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school or less</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>28.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some postsecondary</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>29.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College / university graduate</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>42.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preschool children present</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>53.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>47.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid assistance with housework</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>12.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>383</td>
<td>87.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.3.

Independent means T-Test examining respondents with at least one missing response on spousal support compared to respondents with no missing responses on spousal support for continuous variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Missing responses</th>
<th></th>
<th>No missing responses</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>**31.33</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>**37.40</td>
<td>6.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Children</td>
<td>*1.69</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>*2.07</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours of work/week</td>
<td>38.35</td>
<td>9.28</td>
<td>36.53</td>
<td>10.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01.
Table 4.4

Chi-Square Analysis examining respondents with at least one missing response on spousal support compared to respondents with no missing responses on spousal support for categorical variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Missing responses</th>
<th>No missing responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of preschool aged child**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>50.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>387</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational attainment**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School or less</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some post secondary</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>83.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College or University Grad</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>98.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>387</td>
<td>88.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01
4.3 Results of the Multivariable Analysis

Prior to conducting multiple linear regression, the distribution of each continuous variable was assessed using SPSS EXPLORE. One variable, spousal support, was transformed to reduce negative skewness. Spousal support was reflected and an inverse transformation was applied. The dependent variable, positive family-to-work spillover, was also negatively skewed. Although several transformations were applied (e.g. reflect and square root, reflect and logarithm, reflect and inverse), none of the transformations improved the distribution of the variable so it was left in its original form. All other variables were within acceptable ranges for skewness and kurtosis.

Upon examination of the transformed variables, four cases with extremely low z scores on relative time spent in childcare, falling more than 3.29 standard deviations below the mean, were found to be univariate outliers. All four univariate outliers were deleted. Multivariate outliers were sought using calculation of the Mahalanobis distance ($\alpha = .001$). No multivariate outliers were identified. Homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence of residuals were assessed by examination of the scatterplot of residuals, which presented no concerns. Multicollinearity and singularity were assessed using SPSS tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) values, and indicated no concerns.

4.4 Sequential Multiple Regression

Table 4.5 displays the standardized regression coefficients ($\beta$) for the four models predicting family-to-work spillover. In the first step, socio-demographic characteristics were entered but none of these factors were associated with the dependent variable. Spousal support was added in step 2. Both spousal support and number of children were significant in this model. The adjusted $R^2$ when this variable was added was .255, hence explaining a large proportion of
the variance in the dependent variable. In the third step, housework variables were entered. In addition to spousal support and the number of children, the relative share of housework was a statistically significant predictor of family-to-work positive spillover. In the final step, in which the childcare-related variables were entered, the following variables were statistically significant: number of children, social support, relative share of housework and perceived unfairness in the division of childcare. Thus, higher levels of positive family to work spillover were associated with having fewer children, higher levels of spousal social support, and performing lower levels of housework relative to ones partner. In addition, the perception of the division of childcare as being unfair to one’s partner was associated with a lower level of positive spillover. The final model accounted for approximately 28% of the variance in the dependent variable.
## Table 4.5

Standardized (Beta) Coefficients for OLS Regression of Family-to-Work Positive Spillover on Sociodemographic Factors, Spousal Support, and Family Characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th>Model 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work hours/week</strong></td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Preschool child present</strong></td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of children</strong></td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>*-.13</td>
<td>*-.13</td>
<td>*-.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educational attainment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Postsecondary</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completed High school</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spousal support</strong></td>
<td><strong>.50</strong></td>
<td><strong>.45</strong></td>
<td><strong>.44</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Division of housework</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unfair to you</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unfair to partner</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relative share of housework</strong></td>
<td><strong>-.11</strong></td>
<td>*-.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Has paid assistance with housework</strong></td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Division of childcare</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unfair to me</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unfair to partner</td>
<td><strong>-.14</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relative share of childcare</strong></td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Adjusted R²</strong></td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F for change in $R^2$</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>127.09**</td>
<td>2.76*</td>
<td>3.27*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(6, 380)</td>
<td>(1, 379)</td>
<td>(4,375)</td>
<td>(3, 372)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

- a compared to no preschool child present
- b compared to university or college graduate
- c compared to fair to both
- d compared to no paid assistance with housework
- e compared to fair to both
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of family resources in predicting positive family-to-work spillover in a sample of 25-54 year old women who are engaged in parent, partner and paid employee roles. While much research examines the construct of work-family conflict, little examines the positive benefits for women participating in multiple roles. The conceptual framework for the study was based on Voydanoff’s (2002) work applying ecological systems theory to the work-family interface. Several factors were hypothesized to predict positive family-to-work spillover for multiple role women and included: spousal support; perceived fairness in the division of housework; perceived fairness in the division of childcare; the relative share of childcare performed in comparison to one’s partner; the relative share of housework performed in comparison to one’s partner; and having paid assistance with housework.

5.1 Discussion of Findings

The results of a sequential multiple regression indicate that after adjusting for various sociodemographic characteristics, three independent variables predicted positive family-to-work spillover: spousal support, perceiving the division of childcare as unfair to one’s partner, and the relative share of housework performed in comparison to one’s partner. Spousal support was positively associated with positive family-to-work spillover, indicating that as spousal support increased, positive family-to-work spillover also increased. In addition, as women’s share of the housework increased relative to their partner’s, positive spillover decreased. Finally, the perception of the division of childcare as being unfair to one’s partner was associated with lower reports of positive spillover.
5.1.1 Spousal Support

The results of the multiple regression show that spousal support was a highly significant predictor of positive family-to-work spillover, accounting for 22% of the variance in the final regression model. Thus, it was observed in this study that as spousal support increased, positive family-to-work spillover also increased. This finding is consistent with previous research indicating spousal support is related to positive family-to-work spillover (Voydanoff, 2005a; Gryzwacz & Marks, 2000a). However, it is not consistent with research that indicates spousal support is related to positive family-to-work spillover for men only (Stevens et al., 2007).

The present study differs from the above mentioned research in an important way. While participants in this study were required to be female, partnered, parenting at least one child, and employed; participants in Stevens et al.’s (2007) study were required to be in a cohabiting heterosexual relationship (Stevens et al., 2007). While the current study examined multiple role women exclusively, the Stevens et al.’s (2007) study examined heterosexual partnered women only. While many of the respondents in Stevens et al.’s (2007) study may have been occupying multiple roles, we might assume that several participants included in their analysis may not have been parenting and/ or employed outside the home. Thus, the current study makes an important contribution to the literature by lending insight into the experience of positive spillover for multiple role women specifically, not just partnered women.

The study indicating that positive family-to-work spillover is related to spousal support for men only utilized a small localized sample (Stevens et al., 2007). The other studies indicating that spousal support is related to positive family-to-work spillover for both genders utilized a large sample representative of the American population (Voydanoff, 2005a; Gryzwacz & Marks, 2000a). In terms of generalizability, the latter studies provide a more useful estimate of the relationship between these two variables. Indeed, the current study lends support to the
studies utilizing the large representative sample. However, the current data was collected from a small localized area. The consistency of results with the larger studies may indicate that the current study data is a good representation of the general population. Furthermore, the data utilized in the current study was collected more recently than the data collected in the large American samples (Voydanoff, 2005a; Gryzwacz & Marks, 2000a). Therefore, we might assume that since the results of the studies are consistent, the experience of positive family-to-work spillover may not have changed for women in recent years.

The effect of being in a supportive relationship appears to benefit women managing multiple roles. The mechanisms underlying this association cannot be determined from the results of this study. However, research suggest that the underlying mechanism may arise as a result of buffering, increased self-complexity, increased opportunities for success, and an expanded frame of reference (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). Buffering may operate in supportive marital relationship by decreasing the negative effect of normal frustrations and challenges experienced in work and family roles. For example, women who have a supportive spouse may be comforted by such support and feel less burdened and isolated in facing the normal ups and downs of a busy lifestyle. Increased self-complexity may allow women to feel as though they are more than just a paid employee or a mother, but that they matter to their spouse when engaged in a supportive relationship. Increased opportunities for success may present themselves within the context of a supportive relationship by allowing women to feel that they are succeeding within their relationship rather than feeling like a failure when their relationships are not as rewarding. Last, an expanded frame of reference may be achieved by a woman who has a supportive spouse. A supportive spouse may serve as a daily reminder that regardless of the minor setbacks encountered in work and parenting roles, that overall they are realizing success from parenting, career, and spousal responsibilities.
Overall, women who are engaged in supportive spousal relationships may experience less burden and increased rewards from participating in multiple roles. For example, when a relationship is going well, normal frustrations encountered while managing a busy lifestyle may be lessened. That is, when one receives support and love from a spouse, it may feel less burdensome to fulfill responsibilities both at home and at work. In fact, the feeling that one is giving their time and energy for their spouse and family may result in positive feelings of competence and worthiness as opposed to women feeling burdened and resentful when feeling that they are “required” to manage a busy lifestyle.

5.1.2 Unfairness in the Division of Childcare

In the present study, women who felt that the division of childcare was unfair to their partners experienced less positive family-to-work spillover than women who perceived the division as fair. In contrast, the perception of childcare as unfair to oneself was not statistically associated with positive spillover. That is, these results indicate that women do not experience less positive family-to-work spillover if they feel division of childcare is unfair to them, but they do experience less positive family-to-work spillover if they feel their spouse is doing an unfair amount of childcare.

This finding is significant in light of research indicating a dramatic shift in gender role attitudes occurring over the last three to four decades (Mickelson, Claffey & Williams, 2006, Cunningham, 2007). Researchers have proposed that women’s attitudes towards domestic labour have become more egalitarian as a result of their entry into paid employment (Mickelson, Claffey & Williams, 2006). In fact, a 31-year longitudinal study examining the impact of women’s employment on the gendered division of household labour demonstrated a relationship between women participating in paid employment and an increase in egalitarian attitudes towards domestic labour (Cunningham, 2007). The current finding suggests that although gender role
attitudes have shifted regarding housework, attitudes towards motherhood have not kept pace. That is, although women are becoming more egalitarian in their views towards housework, they are still retaining traditional attitudes and ideas about a women’s role in the area of mothering. Women seem to be relinquishing traditional gender role attitudes regarding childcare much more slowly than those regarding housework.

When interpreting this finding, it is important to keep in mind the distinction between attitudes and behaviours. While fewer couples today adhere to traditional gender role attitudes (where women are responsible for the majority of housework and childcare), gender role behaviours have not kept pace. While women have entered the labour force at increasing rates, men’s participation in housework and childcare has not increased correspondingly (Galinsky, Bond & Friedman, 1996; Blain, 1994; Marshall, 2006; Bianchi, Milkie, Sayer & Robinson, 2000).

Cultural ideals and expectations for women are deeply ingrained and are difficult to relinquish (Rubin, Nemeroff, & Russo, 2004). In particular, mothering can be an important area of feminine identity for many women. Some women often gain pleasure or power as a result of performing expected “mothering” behaviours (Woolett & Marshall, 2001). Therefore, we might assume that mothers, even feminist and/or non-traditional women, have difficulty freeing themselves from deeply engrained cultural values that are related to motherhood.

The findings of the current study may be a result of women who participate in multiple roles feeling ambivalent about relinquishing part of their childcare to their partner. The negative relationship observed between the division of childcare as unfair to one’s partner and positive family-to-work spillover may be interpreted as an extension of the incongruence of expectations that women place on themselves in terms of motherhood, marriage, and employment. Although many mothers are adopting more egalitarian attitudes towards the division of domestic chores, it
may be that childcare is a domain that is so closely related to a women’s sense of identity as a mother that it makes it much more difficult to share responsibility for childcare with one’s partner, even when those mothers are engaged in paid employment.

Maternal gatekeeping has been implicated as one of the contextual factors that may inhibit satisfactory arrangements for sharing family work (Allen & Hawkins, 1999). “Maternal gatekeeping is a collection of beliefs and behaviours that ultimately inhibit a collaborative effort between men and women in family work by limiting men’s opportunities for learning and growing through caring for home and children” (Allen & Hawkins, 1999, p. 200). Some research suggests that women have been culturally identified as the center of nurturing and care within the family, qualities inherently related to childcare (De Luccie, 1995). Paternal involvement in childcare may represent a threat to a women’s identity as a mother, and may result in guilt, regret, or ambivalence about her role in the family (De Luccie, 1995).

The significant negative relationship between positive family-to-work spillover and childcare being perceived as unfair to one’s partner may be explained by the complex interplay of gender role identity in a society where expectations for women are rapidly changing. The results of the current study may indicate that while women have become more liberal and egalitarian in their views of the division of housework, their views of childcare have not kept pace. It may be that childcare represents too much of a mother’s identity for her to relinquish a large part of these responsibilities to her partner without feeling some sense of role confusion or guilt. This guilt or role confusion may be a contributing factor to the corresponding decrease in positive spillover for women when childcare responsibilities begin to be perceived as unfair to one’s partner.

While this study sheds light on the correlational relationships between positive family-to-work spillover and perceiving the division of childcare to be unfair to one’s partner, further research is needed to identify a causal link. Firm conclusions regarding the complex interactions
between gender role identity, positive family-to-work spillover, and division of childcare is beyond the scope of this study. However, several implications may be drawn from this finding. First, the experience of perceived fairness of division of childcare is more important for family-to-work spillover than perceived fairness of housework. The two constructs are not merely two differing dimensions of domestic labour, but are unique responsibilities that carry with them differing cultural and personal values.

Second, the perceived fairness of division of childcare is more important for positive family-to-work spillover than the actual proportion of time spent in childcare tasks compared to one’s partner. This study supports the consensus in the literature that ideas and attitudes do not necessarily translate into behavioural changes in regards to childcare and domestic labour. That is, although women are experiencing less positive family-to-work spillover when they perceive that the division of childcare is unfair to their partner’s, they do not appear to experience more or less positive family-to-work spillover when their partners are actually performing more or less childcare duties relative to their own childcare duties.

5.1.3 Relative Share of Housework

In the present study, decreases in positive family-to-work spillover occurred as the respondents’ relative share of housework in comparison to their partner’s share increased. Furthermore, no significant correlation was observed between respondents’ perception of fairness in the division of household tasks for either themselves or their partners, and positive family-to-work spillover.

This result is interesting given a study finding that indicates wives’ estimates of their husband’s time spent in housework has more of an influence on their well-being than their own time spent in housework (Noor, 1997). The current study appears to contradict these results. However, several differences exist between the current study and the previous study measuring
the relationship between division of housework and well-being. First, the dependent variable in this study is positive family-to-work spillover while the dependent variable in the previous study was psychological well-being. Psychological well-being was measured using items assessing somatic and affective symptoms of distress (Noor, 1997). While these studies may appear to contradict one another, they do not in fact compare the same outcome variables. While positive family-to-work spillover is thought to influence psychological well-being (Voydanoff, 2002), it is not in itself a measure of psychological well-being.

It has been suggested that the perception of spousal support is the mechanism that explains the relationship between women’s perception of their husbands’ performance of household labour and increased psychological well-being (Noor, 1997). If spousal support provides this important pathway, it is possible that women may interpret their increased participation in housework as an indication of low spousal support. That is, when women perform more housework, they may feel more isolated and disconnected from their spouse while simultaneously feeling more responsible for day-to-day activities required in a busy household. It is possible that these experiences may lead to less perceived spousal support, an important predictor of positive family-to-work spillover. This position is further supported by the finding that an equitable division of household tasks is associated with increased spousal support (Edwards, 2006). It is possible that the amount of housework performed by women is simply another dimension of spousal support. Further research is needed to discriminate the subtle effects of household labour on positive family-to-work spillover.

Few other studies have examined the connection between household labour and positive family-to-work spillover. One study utilized an expanded definition of household labour that included not only housework, but also emotion work and status enhancement (Stevens et al., 2007). Results showed that there was no connection between the amount of housework
performed by respondents and their partners and positive family-to-work spillover. However, an important distinction must be made concerning the independent variable of housework utilized in both studies. The present study measures the respondent’s share of housework relative to one’s partner. The Stevens et al. (2007) study utilized a measure of the housework being performed by both spouses, or a measure of how much housework is occurring in the home. This distinction is important, as the effects on positive family-to-work spillover observed in this study are not determined by the amount of work done overall, but by the relative amount of housework performed by women. This indicates that increases in positive family-to-work spillover do not simply correspond with more or less household work being done, but rather with how much the respondent herself is performing relative to her partner.

While interpreting these findings, one must keep in mind that relative share of housework is not a measure of household rewards. That is, one may not presume that because women are performing more housework relative to their partners that they are reaping more rewards from housework. A study measuring household rewards found a significant positive correlation with positive family-to-work spillover (Voydanoff, 2005a). Keeping in mind that the present study demonstrates that one’s relative share of housework is negatively correlated with positive family-to-work spillover, it stands to reason that increased housework does not automatically result in increased household rewards. Further research is needed to determine the influence of the amount of housework performed on the amount of household rewards that are realized for women who are engaged in multiple roles.

5.1.3.1. Paid assistance with housework. The current study also investigated the relationship between having paid assistance with housework and positive family-to-work spillover. No significant relationship was observed between these variables, and paid assistance with housework was not found to be a predictor of positive family-to-work spillover. This result
is interesting given the finding that women who are performing more housework are experiencing lower levels of positive family-to-work spillover. These results may further support the notion that the actual amount of housework being done is less important than who is performing the housework. Furthermore, the current study did not explore any decrease in negative spillover (work-family conflict) as a result of having paid assistance with housework. It may be that paid assistance with housework reduces the burdens of domestic life without impacting the positive well-being of women. Furthermore, the completion of housework may not necessarily translate into household rewards, which have been previously shown to be related to positive family-to-work spillover (Voydanoff, 2005a).

Another important characteristic of the present study is that the research design distinguishes relative share of housework from relative share of childcare. No significant relationship was observed between relative share of childcare for the respondents and positive family-to-work spillover. It would seem that although women realize decreases in positive family-to-work spillover with increasing relative share of housework, no such decrease is observed from increasing relative share of childcare. No other study was located which studied positive family-to-work spillover and discriminated between these two important aspects of domestic life. The results of this study may indicate that childcare and housework are two distinct elements of domestic labour. However, further research is needed to identify the unique relationship between positive family-to-work spillover and the separate elements of childcare and housework.

5.2 Ecological Systems Theory and Positive Family-to-Work Spillover.

Ecological systems theory contends that woman’s experiences with work and family occur within two separate microsystems, or networks of face-to-face relationships that occur within each specific environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1989, Voydanoff, 2002). The family
microsystem has several characteristics which may influence both role enhancement and work-family and individual outcomes. The current study suggests that three variables in particular influence the role enhancement construct of positive family-to-work spillover: spousal support, the division of childcare being perceived as unfair to one’s partner, and the relative share of housework performed.

The ecological systems theory as applied to the work-family interface contends that characteristics of the work-family interface influence both aspects of role enhancement, and work-family and individual outcomes (Voydanoff, 2002). By conceptualizing positive family-to-work spillover as a construct of role enhancement, it stands to reason that spousal support, the perception of fairness in the division of childcare, and the relative share of housework performed are all characteristics of the work-family interface that influence work-family and individual outcomes.

The application of ecological systems theory to the current study allows the incorporation of elements at the level of the macrosystem and exosystem into the discussion of results. Overall cultural influences on women’s experiences of work and family are significant and are reflected in the results of the study. Gender role attitudes, expectations of women’s involvement in work and family and social trends in women’s involvement in paid and unpaid work are all elements that may be considered part of the macrosystem. These factors may influence the experience of positive family-to-work spillover for women in parent, partner, and paid employee roles. Further research is needed to fully explain the influence each of the variables has on family-to-work positive spillover, and must be considered in light of the structural inequalities that continue to present challenges to women both in the home and the workplace.
5.3 Implications of the current study

5.3.1 Contributions to research literature

The current study may have implications for research, practice, and policy/program development. First, the study makes several unique contributions to the work-family interface literature. Very few studies have examined positive spillover, and even fewer have specifically examined family-to-work positive spillover. The findings of the study suggest that there are three important family characteristics that impact positive family-to-work spillover. Spousal support had the largest and most profound impact on positive family-to-work spillover. Perceiving the division of childcare as unfair to one’s partner and a greater relative share of housework had a negative impact on positive family-to-work spillover. The finding that these three family characteristics impact positive family-to-work spillover further illuminates the work-family interface.

The second unique contribution this study makes to the knowledge base in the area of the work-family interface is that childcare duties and housework are two distinct entities of domestic labour that have a unique relationship with positive family-to-work spillover for multiple role women. Few studies have separated out childcare from housework, and none have examined their unique contribution to family-to-work positive spillover. This distinction may result from a deeply ingrained gender role ideology that has traditionally connected motherhood to a woman’s sense of feminine identity. However, this discussion is beyond the scope of the current study, and further research is needed to examine the causal mechanisms behind this finding.

The last contribution this study makes to the literature is that the research data was collected from a small localized area. While this may have negative effects on the study's generalizability, localized data will facilitate comparisons with national norms and data, and will possibly allow for regional comparisons. Indeed, other studies of positive family-to-work
spillover have found differences between large generalized samples and small localized samples (Voydanoff, 2005a; Gryzwacz & Marks, 2000b; Stevens et al., 2007).

5.3.2 Resiliency and Positive Family-to-Work Spillover

As the field of psychology becomes more oriented towards a strength-based resiliency approach, research identifying predictors of positive outcome is increasing in demand. Insight into processes that predict positive outcomes for multiple role women may lend support to theoretical models explaining positive outcomes. The current study examines positive family-to-work spillover in a theoretical framework, and connects this construct with positive work-family and individual outcomes (Voydanoff, 2002). Therefore, the finding that three independent variables predict positive family-to-work spillover may actually be considered variables that contribute to positive psychological outcomes. The research literature contains several studies examining negative outcomes arising from the work-family interface (i.e., work-family conflict or negative spillover), and few studies examining positive spillover exist. Therefore, the current study provides much needed information about predictors of positive outcomes and areas where interventions can be developed to improve individual outcomes.

5.3.3 Implications for practice.

The research findings may have implications for practitioners in mental health and human resources. The current findings may have the potential to inform both preventative and therapeutic interventions for women clients who are parents, partners and paid employees. More specifically, these findings might allow practitioners to understand and intervene in family dynamics that may or may not be contributing to positive outcomes. For example, based on the strong association between spousal support and positive family-to-work spillover, practitioners might intervene to improve the marital relationship in order to help their clients’ manage multiple demands rather than to focus on other less impacting dimensions of the work-family interface.
The finding that women experience less positive spillover as division of childcare is perceived to be unfair to their partners’ has important implications for the practice of counselling and psychotherapy. First, this finding suggests that perceptions of division of childcare are more important than the actual division of childcare when attempting to increase positive family-to-work spillover. This may have optimistic implications for counsellors working with women managing multiple demands, as it suggests it is more important to focus on perceptions of fairness rather than to work with women to actually increase the time spent with their children. In fact, women managing these multiple demands may already be spending the maximum amount of time with their children allowable given their schedules, making it difficult to intervene in order to increase this time. This finding suggests that interventions may be focused on women’s perceptions, which may be easier to change, rather than time management (which busy women may already be doing successfully).

The last significant finding of this study suggests that the association between positive family-to-work spillover and relative share of housework may also provide a unique area to intervene for practitioners working with women managing multiple demands. By encouraging women to decrease their share of housework, it may be possible to increase the amount of positive family-to-work spillover women experience. Furthermore, no evidence provided by this study suggests that it is important to delegate housework duties to either a partner or paid assistance. Therefore, a prudent approach might be to work with women to decrease their standards for household maintenance rather than working to find solutions to have the housework performed by someone else.

5.4 Limitations

The current study has a number of limitations that must be considered when interpreting the findings. First, the study was not an experimental design, and has not investigated the
fundamental links between any of the relationships discussed. Any implications discussed here need to be further substantiated by research examining these underlying links before firm conclusions can be made about the directionality and causality of any of the relationships.

Second, the sample utilized in the current study leads to limitations in the reliability and generalizability of the findings. First, the sample was comprised of several highly educated respondents, possibly skewing the results. In fact, 42% of respondents indicated that they were college or university graduates. This may indicate that the results of the study are especially pertinent to educated women, and may have fewer implications for those women with lower education levels. The current study data was collected from a small localized area and can only be generalized to the women who are participating in parenting, partner, and paid employee roles in the study area. Furthermore, the representativeness of the sample was not examined in relation to the larger Canadian population, precluding the ability to assess generalizability to the population via direct sample comparisons. Last, the sample was collected using telephone interviews. It should be noted that many possible respondents occupying low socio-economic status groups may not have home telephones. Thus, the sample may not be representative of all of these respondents.

Third, the independent variable of spousal support had a large amount of missing data. Several explanations may be proposed to explain this pattern. First, the fifth response option of “don’t know / unsure” was not present on any of the other survey items. The presence of this response option may have shifted this variable away from a forced choice variable, as respondents were able to avoid answering these items. Second, the first three items had fewer missing responses than did the last three items. It is thought that perhaps the last three items required more thought and consideration than the first three items. Also, response fatigue may be a consideration when interpreting this variable. Respondents may have had an easier time
answering the first three items, but became less motivated to provide an answer as successive items were presented. A third explanation for this pattern may be interviewer error. However, the survey data was collected by a third party research service, and it is unknown if the last three items were presented differently that the first.

Analysis was undertaken to compare those respondents who did and did not respond, and to compare the descriptive statistics for this variable to available descriptive statistics for other studies data using the same variables. The findings of this analysis indicated that the missing data did not impact the studies results. Furthermore, comparisons drawn between the spousal support variable in this study and the same variable in another study showed no substantial differences. The mean response for the six items comprising the spousal support variable was 3.56 in a previous study (Voydanoff, 2005a), and the mean response for all six items in this study was 3.537. There is no substantial difference between these mean responses, indicating that the impact of the missing data is not so large as to indicate a concern.

Analysis of the missing data suggest that women with missing responses on the spousal support variable tended to be younger, have fewer children, be less educated, and had a higher likelihood of having a preschool aged child at home. This may indicate that the results are less salient for these groups of women. The limitations of not accessing respondents who do not have home telephones and the high education level of the sample, one may conclude that the results of the study may be especially pertinent to middle class women who have high education levels and are older. One may question whether women who occupy lower social-economic status groups experience the same predictors of family-to-work positive spillover as is indicted in the current study.

Statistical analysis of the missing data for the spousal support variable, and comparing the descriptive statistics of this variable with the same variable used in other research (Voydanoff,
2005 a), indicates that the missing data for this variable presents little concern. However, the missing data for this variable could not be conclusively explained, and therefore no firm conclusions about its impact can be assumed.

5.5 Conclusions

Within the current study, positive family-to-work spillover was demonstrated to be predicted by spousal support, the perceived division of childcare as unfair to one’s partner, and the relative share of housework. However, no significant relationship was observed for the independent variables of perceived fairness in the division of housework, the relative share of childcare, or paid assistance with housework. The findings of the study suggest that childcare and housework may be distinct dimensions of domestic labour that have unique predictors. Furthermore, it appears that the relative amount of housework performed by women compared to their partners has more impact on positive family-to-work spillover than the actual amount of housework being done. That is, who is doing the housework may be more important than how much housework is being done. Perceptions of fairness in the division of childcare is also an important construct for positive family-to-work spillover, with women experiencing less positive spillover when they perceive that the division is unfair to their partners. Interestingly, this effect was not observed for the relative share of childcare being performed by women in comparison to their partners. Hence, it would seem that decreases in the amount of positive family-to-work spillover arise as a result of women’s perceptions of childcare, not necessarily what is actually occurring in the home. The findings of the study suggest that women’s experiences of positive family-to-work spillover are predicted by family resources. Specifically, spousal support, perceptions of unfairness in the division of childcare and increased share of housework relative to one’s partner are predictive of positive family-to-work spillover for women in parent, partner and paid employee roles.
References


Appendix A: Confirmation of Ethical Exemption

To: Bonnie Janzen (Gina Kempton-Doane)

Date: April 23, 2007

Re: Women as Parents, Partners and Paid Employees: An Investigation of the Impact of Family Resources on Work-Family Role Enhancement (Beh 07-71)

Thank you for submitting the research protocol entitled “Women as Parents, Partners and Paid Employees: An Investigation of the Impact of Family Resources on Work-Family Role Enhancement”. This memorandum certifies that your project is exempt from the ethics review process. This exemption is based on the fact that the work you are doing only includes secondary use of data. This decision is based on the information provided to the ethics office on April 5, 2007.

It should be noted that though your project is exempt of ethics review, your project should be conducted in an ethical manner (i.e. in accordance with the information that you submitted). It should also be noted that any deviation from the original methodology and/or research question should be brought to the attention of the Behavioral Research Ethics Board for further review.

Sincerely,

Dr. John Rigby, Chair
Behavioral Research Ethics Board
University of Saskatchewan

Ethics Office, University of Saskatchewan
Room 302 Kirk Hall, 119 Science Place, Saskatoon SK S7N 5C8 Canada
Telephone: (306) 966-2975  FAX: (306) 966-2069

72
Appendix B: Ethics Application

BEHAVIOURAL RESEARCH ETHICS BOARD APPLICATION
February 20, 2007

1. (a) Name of researcher and department:

Dr. Bonnie Janzen Dr. Stephanie Martin
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Department of Community Department of Educational Psychology
Health and Epidemiology and Special Education
University of Saskatchewan University of Saskatchewan
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Gina Kempton-Doane
Master’s Student
Department of Educational Psychology and Special Education
University of Saskatchewan
Email: gkempton@sasktel.net
Phone: (306) 955-4769

(b) Anticipated start and completion date:
January 2007 – August 2007

2. Title of study:

Women as parents, partners and paid employees: An investigation of the impact of family resources on work-family role enhancement.

3. Abstract

Women participating in the demanding roles of partner, parent and paid employee face unique challenges. Much research has examined the detrimental effects on psychological well-being arising from women’s participation in multiple roles (work-family conflict). Less research has examined the interface between work and family in a positive light. The construct of work-family role enhancement, or positive spillover, describes the extent to which aspects of the work or family role provide resources that facilitate performance in the other role. The proposed project will examine family resources as predicting positive spillover in women simultaneously occupying the roles of partner, parent and paid employee. The study will utilize measures assessing the impact of the following family resources on positive spillover: partners’ contribution to housework / childcare, perceived fairness of housework / childcare / paid work, spousal support / disagreements, paid assistance with housework and a general measure of family resources compiled from a variety of sources (see appendix A). This application seeks approval for utilization of data collected from the Gender, Work, Family and Health survey (application # Beh 04-64) to answer the research question: “Do family resources impact the experience of
positive spillover for women participating in multiple roles? Which family resources are most salient in terms of predicting positive spillover?”

4. **Funding**
The graduate student researcher was funded by a University of Saskatchewan graduate stipend.

5. **Expertise**
N/A

6. **Conflict of Interest**
N/A

7. **Participants**
Participant recruitment occurred in the winter of 2004 (see Gender, Work, Family and Health survey, application # Beh 04-64). The present study will examine data obtained from female participants in the original study that are employed, partnered and the parent of at least one child under the age of 20.

Recruitment for the original study involved the collection of primary data from a random sample of approximately 1200 Saskatoon residents. Sample criteria included that participants be employed parents with at least one child under the age of 20 living at home. The sample was stratified according to socio-economic status/job type and gender in order to improve the heterogeneity of the sample. Participants were contacted by Fast Consulting, a Saskatoon-based market research company. Telephone numbers were randomly selected, and trained interviewers conducted the interviews using CATI (Computer-Assisted Telephone Interviewing). Participants had the option of completing a telephone survey or an on-line survey.

8. **Consent**
Consent was obtained from participants upon initial contact with telephone interviewers. Participants were informed of their right to withdraw at any time, their right to refuse to answer any individual questions, and that their refusal would in no way affect their relationship with their employer.

The original study obtained consent from participants to utilize their data for the purpose of investigating characteristics of family and work environments occupied by employed Canadians. The proposed study will utilize data from participants to specifically explore family environments that contribute to increased well-being, or positive spillover. Participants provided consent for their data to be used in publications and presentations at conferences. Data utilized in the proposed study will be presented in aggregate form only, in order to ensure confidentiality of the participants.

9. **Methods/Procedures**
As indicated, participants were contacted by telephone interviewers and completed the Gender, Work, Family and Health survey. A sample of participants will be selected from the data obtained from these interviews. Sample criteria for the proposed study include that participants be: 1) English-speaking, 2) between the ages of 25 and 54 years, 3) employed full-time or part-time, 4) the parent of at least one child under the age of 20 years, and 5) Female. The proposed study will examine measures utilized in the original questionnaire pertaining to positive spillover, family resources and demographic data (see Appendix A).

10. **Data Storage**

Data from the original study will be stored electronically for a minimum of 5 years on the principal investigator’s (Dr. Bonnie Janzen) computer. See application # Beh 04-64.

11. **Dissemination of Results**

The results of this study will be used to partially complete the requirements for the degree of Master in Education in the area of Educational Psychology and Special Education and shared with the Faculty of Educational Psychology and Special Education and the Education Library at the University of Saskatchewan. Furthermore, the results may be published, and/or presented at seminars and/or conferences. The data will be presented in aggregated form to preserve the anonymity of individuals participating in the study.

12. **Risk, Benefits, and Deception**

None. The purpose of the original study was clearly communicated to participants upon receipt of informed consent. The proposed study will be using data from the original study for the same purpose it was collected – to study the nature of the interaction between work and family environment and effects on personal well-being. Participation in the study was voluntary and anonymity of the participants was and is assured, through aggregating data presented in publications or presentations. Participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any point without penalty, and that their participation or withdrawal would not be communicated to their employer, or affect their relationship with their employer. See application # Beh 04-64.

13. **Confidentiality**

A number of steps were taken to protect confidentiality of the participants. Care was taken to ensure that answers to survey questions could not be linked with an individual respondent. That is, no potentially identifying information was recorded as part of the data file. All data utilized in the present study will be presented in aggregate form, making identification of individual participants impossible.

14. **Data and Transcript Release**

N/A

15. **Debriefing and Feedback**
Public access to the findings of the proposed study will be made available at the University of Saskatchewan Education Library and the Department of Educational Psychology and Special Education.

16. Signatures

Applicant: _________________________ Date: _____________
Advisor: ___________________________ Date: _____________
Advisor: ___________________________ Date: _____________
Department Head:____________________ Date: _____________
Department Head:____________________ Date: _____________

17. Contact Information

Dr. Bonnie Janzen                                           Dr. Stephanie Martin
Faculty                                               Faculty
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Gina Kempton-Doane
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Original Study Measures Utilized

1) Work family positive spill-over  (Negative spill-over questions removed)


2) Relationship with spouse or partner


3) Perceived fairness of housework, childcare and paid work

Fairness of paid work

Fairness of housework

Fairness of childcare

Part a and b from:


Part c added for the Work, Gender, Family and Health survey.

4) Family resources

The items for family resources are a combination of new items adapted from Karasek’s Job Content Questionnaire and items used previously in other articles. The following is a list of references for the items utilized in the survey.


5) **Partner’s share of housework and childcare**

6) **Paid assistance with housework.**

   Single item designed for study.

7) **Education**

8) **Marital relationship**

   Years married to partner

9) **Age of children**

10) **Income**

   Total household income
Appendix C: Survey Questionnaire

1. **Age**

How old are you? _________

2. **Sex**

(Interviewer: Do not ask sex, just record)

☐ Male
☐ Female

3. **Education**

How much education do you have? (Interviewer: please read response options.)

☐ Less than high school
☐ Graduated from high school, but didn’t go to a postsecondary institution
☐ Some postsecondary training, but didn’t graduate
☐ Graduated from a college
☐ Graduated from a university

4. **Children**

Now I would like to ask you some questions about your children.

   a) How old is each of your children? (Interviewer: after asking the age of each child, ask whether or not each child lives with the participant all the time, some of the time, or not at all.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of Child</th>
<th>Does this child live with you?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☐ All the time?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☐ Some of the time?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☐ Not at all?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☐ All the time?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☐ Some of the time?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☐ Not at all?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. **Income**

*I would now like to ask you three questions about your household and personal income.*

a) What is your best estimate of the total income, before taxes and deductions, of all household members from all sources in the past 12 months?

$______________

6) Approximately how many hours a week do you usually work at this job? If you usually work extra hours (paid or unpaid), please include these hours.

_____ Hours

7. **Work / Family Positive Spill-over**

*The next set of questions asks about how your home life is affected by your job and also how your job is affected by your life at home.*

a) I would like you to tell me how often you have experienced each of the following statements during the last year. (Interviewer: Please use the following key to indicate the participant’s response. The numbers are not intended to be read out to the participant.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Most of the time</td>
<td>All of the time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Talking with someone at home helps you deal with problems at work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The love and respect you get at home makes you feel confident about yourself at work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Your home life helps you relax and feel ready for the next day’s work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

8. **Marital Relationship**

*Now I would like to ask you some questions about your spouse or partner.*

a) Please stop me when I get to the statement that best describes your marital status. Would you say that you are… (Interviewer: please read response options.)

- [ ] Married
- [ ] Living with a partner
- [ ] Widowed (Interviewer: Please ask how long the participant has been widowed and then please skip to question 15.) How long have you been a widow? ________
- [ ] Separated (Interviewer: Please ask how long the participant has been separated and then please skip to question 15.) How long have you been separated? ______
- [ ] Divorced (Interviewer: Please ask how long the participant has been divorced and then please skip to question 15.) How long have you been divorced? ______
- [ ] Single (Interviewer: Please skip to question 15)

b) In this next section I would like to ask you about your relationship with your spouse or partner.

How much does your spouse or partner really care about you? Would you say that he/she cares about you… (Interviewer, please read response options for the first 2 or 3 questions and for subsequent questions if the respondent seems to forget the options.)

- [ ] Not at all
- [ ] A little bit
- [ ] Some
- [ ] A lot
- [ ] Don’t know / Unsure

How much does he or she understand the way you feel about things?
Not at all
A little bit
Some
A lot
Don’t know / Unsure

How much does he or she appreciate you?
Not at all
A little bit
Some
A lot
Don’t know / Unsure

How much can you rely on him or her for help if you have a serious problem?
Not at all
A little bit
Some
A lot
Don’t know / Unsure

How much can you open up to him or her if you need to talk about your worries?
Not at all
A little bit
Some
A lot
Don’t know / Unsure

How much can you relax and be yourself around him or her?
Not at all
A little bit
Some
A lot
Don’t know / Unsure

9. Perceived fairness of paid work, household work, and child care

(Interviewer: If the participant does not have a partner please skip to the next section.) The next set of questions is about fairness of paid work, household work and childcare.

a) How fair do you think the amount of paid work you do is compared to the amount your partner does? Would you say that it is… (Interviewer: please read response options.)
b) How fair do you think the amount of housework you do is compared to the amount your partner does? Would you say that it is… (Interviewer: please read response options.)
- Very unfair to you
- Unfair to you
- Fair to both you and your partner
- Unfair to your partner
- Very unfair to your partner

10. Relative contribution to housework and childcare

Now I would like to ask you about how much of the housework and childcare you do.
(Interviewer: Please skip to question 20 if the respondent is not married or living with a partner.)

a) For each of the following household and childcare tasks please indicate how much you do in comparison to your partner?

Preparing Meals. In comparison to your partner do you do… (Interviewer, please read response options for the first 2 or 3 tasks and for subsequent tasks if the respondent seems to forget the options.)
- Very little / none
- Some
- About half
- Most
- All
Washing dishes
- Very little / none
- Some
- About half
- Most
- All

Cleaning house
- Very little / none
- Some
- About half
- Most
- All

Doing outdoor tasks
- Very little / none
- Some
- About half
- Most
- All

Shopping
- Very little / none
- Some
- About half
- Most
- All

Washing and ironing
- Very little / none
- Some
- About half
- Most
- All

Paying bills
- Very little / none
- Some
- About half
- Most
- All

Personal and medical care for your child(ren)
Playing with your child(ren)
- Very little / none
- Some
- About half
- Most
- All

Helping and teaching your child(ren)
- Very little / none
- Some
- About half
- Most
- All

Reading and talking to your child(ren)
- Very little / none
- Some
- About half
- Most
- All

Travel for your child(ren)
- Very little / none
- Some
- About half
- Most
- All

11. Do you pay someone to assist you with housework?
- Yes
- No