

FATHERS, WORK AND FAMILY:
PSYCHOSOCIAL INFLUENCES

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PhD Thesis

April 2010

University of East Anglia

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ABSTRACT

This thesis examined both dispositional and structural factors influencing fathers' work-family life using Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 2005) Bioecological systems theory as a framework situating fathers within a nested set of contextual environments. Microsystems of family and work are proximal systems with most immediate influences on individual behaviour (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). This thesis focused on fathers and examines the negative aspects of work and family spillover and role conflict in assessing their levels of work-family conflict across three studies. Study 1 examined fathers' working hours and working patterns from a secondary analysis of two UK government datasets (n179 and n1096). Findings from Study 1 showed that: fathers' working long hours were most likely to reduce their work hours after the birth of their child; that the majority of fathers used some form of flexible working and; that fatherhood status predicted longer work hours in comparison to non-fathers. Study 2 evaluated two concepts of emotional intelligence and considers the relationships between these emotional intelligence concepts and work-family conflict in a small sample of public sector fathers (n33). Findings for Study 2 showed moderate associations between Trait EI and work-family conflict, but no significant associations between Ability EI and work-family conflict. The final study assessed the relative contribution of dispositional factors and structural factors on work-family conflict in a sample of 186 fathers. Findings from Study 3a showed that global Trait EI influences work-family conflict in a model with other known work-family conflict antecedents and that the sub-domain of Trait EI Self-control appeared to particularly predict work-family conflict. Findings from Study 3b showed that biosystem variables have most influence on Strain based work-family conflict, whilst work microsystem variables have most influence on Work interfering with family conflict. These findings are discussed with reference to role theory, the Bioecosystem model and stress appraisal theory and implications for policy evaluated.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank all the fathers who took part in this research, and the organisations and schools who enabled access to them.

I am extremely grateful to my supervisor Prof. Margaret O'Brien who has provided unfaltering encouragement, support and insightful comments from start to finish, not only for the thesis, but for conference presentations and the BIS report. Many thanks also to Dr. Neil Cooper for advising on the design and guiding the overarching narrative. I would also like to thank Dr. Louise Swift for her statistical advice and support; Prof Philip Corr for encouraging me to write up Study 3 for publication; Jane Carr from BIS for her comments for the write up for Study 1 and the sadly departed Prof. Michael Rose, from Bath University, who instigated the Work Attitude Measurement Network, which enabled me to meet many interesting colleagues, practice my French (!), present my findings and learn much more.

Many thanks to my great PhD colleagues who have provided many a listening ear and who generously helped with the proof reading. Special thanks to Abi for being a reassuring mentor and friend for the first year and Peter for allowing me to touch base with him for numerous fathering experience queries and for being a very excellent friend.

Thanks to Andrea for providing a world away from work! Finally, thanks to Mum and Dad who, from a child's viewpoint, managed work and family to be available and engaged with me and my brother.

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 WORK AND FAMILY LIFE

Work and family are two of the most important areas of life both for individuals and society. Changes in mothers' expected role since the 1960's, from 'stay-at-home wife' to 'working mother' created research and policy interest in the impact of work on family life and the impact of family life on the workplace. The focus of that interest was primarily on mothers, with less research undertaken on fathers on the management and experience of the work-family interface. Although there is notable research which has considered the family as a whole, e.g. Pleck, (1985). Media headlines such as: "*Men want more family time*" (Ward, 2007, p. 9) suggest a shift amongst working fathers in changing traditional attitudes towards work and family. Such sentiments can also be found in large scale government funded surveys into working hours and working life where full-time fathers indicate that they would like to work fewer hours to spend more time with family (Kodz, 2003). However, there is currently scant evidence to show that fathers are actually working less or more flexibly. This could be due to fathers' adherence to the 'provider' role (Crompton 2006) where fathers' key function is seen to be that of economic support. Cross cultural comparison across 22 developed countries by Stier & Lewin-Epstein (2003) supports this view with findings indicating that, although men would like to reduce their working hours, economic necessity dictates that they cannot do so (Stier, 2003). However, analysis of full-time fathers' average weekly working hours in 2009 shows a decrease from 46.4 hrs in 2001 (O'Brien, 2005) to 44.5 hrs by 2007 (O'Brien, 2008), indicating that fathers may be making changes to their working patterns.

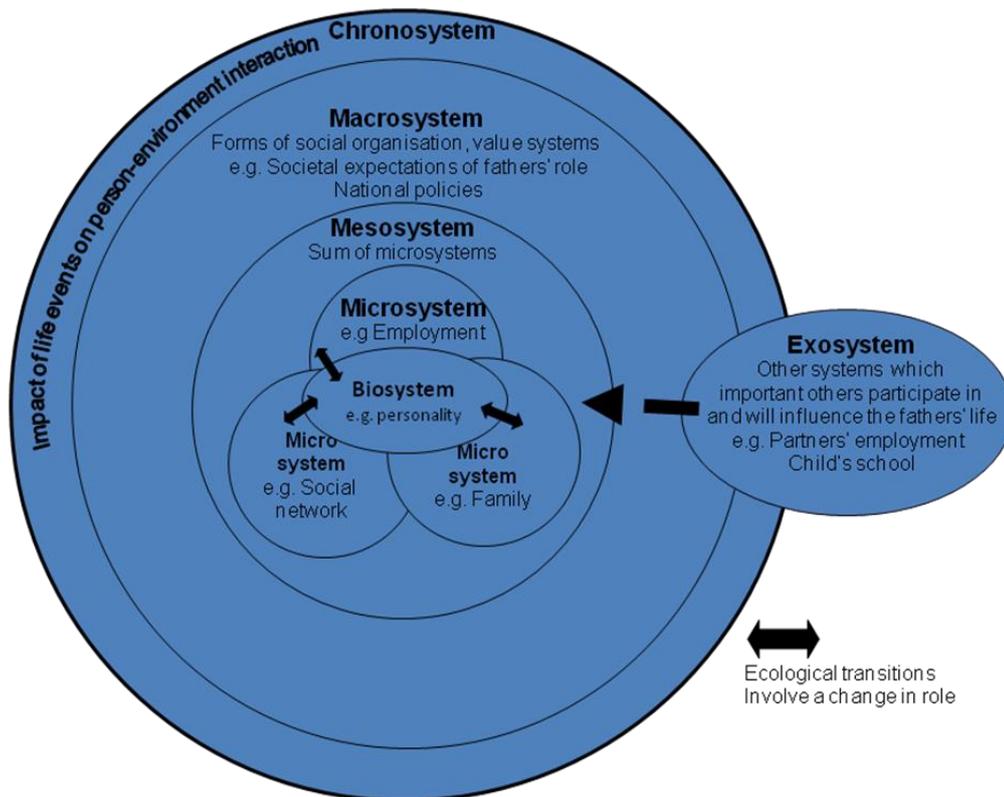
It could be expected that changes in fathers' aspirations for more family involvement would increase their risk of experiencing work-family conflict as they try to negotiate new avenues to create the flexibility they need to manage work and family life. If parents managing work-family life are aspiring to be more equitable across gender, changes will be required at the organisational level to facilitate this. Many large organisations have introduced a wide range of flexible working options

(Brannen & Lewis, 2000), primarily aimed at working mothers, and organisations will now need to consider these options again in the light of the needs of working fathers. If such changes are not forthcoming then the onus is placed upon individuals to find ways to manage the strain felt in trying to manage work family conflicts. One way of helping this self management could be to improve the coping resources of individuals, particularly in managing emotions in themselves and in others.

This thesis focuses on fathers and examines the negative aspects of work and family spillover and role conflict in assessing their levels of work-family conflict across three studies. Study 1 examines fathers' working behaviour, particularly their working hours and working patterns, from a secondary analysis of UK government datasets. Study 2 evaluates two different emotional intelligence concepts and considers the relationships between these concepts and work-family conflict. The final study, in two parts, assesses the relative contribution of dispositional factors and structural factors on work-family conflict.

This thesis examines both dispositional and structural factors influencing fathers' work-family life using Bronfenbrenner's (1979) bioecological systems theory as a framework, which situates fathers within a nested set of contextual environments with microsystems of family and work as proximal systems with most immediate influences on individual behaviour (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The combined effects of work and family are considered within the mesosystem, whilst the outside influences of a father's partner and children's microsystems of work and school exert an exosystem influence on a father's work-family behaviour. The distal effects of government policy, legislation and employment culture are considered to occur within the macrosystem which provides the overarching cultural and structural context to fathers' work-family lives. The biological element of his theory, added to the model more explicitly in later work (Bronfenbrenner, 2005) states that an individual's biological make up will also influence the environment with which they interact, acknowledging the bi-directional nature of influence on life experiences. The collective contribution of the individual's biological, cognitive, emotional and behavioural characteristics are considered within the biosystem. For the purposes of this thesis, dispositional factors are considered in addition to structural factors that can influence fathers' work-family life, see Figure 1.

FIGURE 1 BRONFENBRENNER'S (1979) BIOECOLOGICAL SYSTEMS MODEL



Source: Adapted from Bronfenbrenner (1979, 2005)

The thesis updates previous findings on UK fathers' working patterns from 2000 (O'Brien & Shemilt 2003) and compares fathers' working hours and flexible working patterns in 2005 and 2006 to those in 2000. Fathers' bioecological system profile has historically been associated with their greater involvement in the work microsystem than the family. Undertaking a secondary data analysis of two UK national employment datasets will examine whether the changing aspirations of fathers to be more involved in the family are reflected in their employment behaviour, for example less working hours and more flexible working, using the family microsystem variable of fatherhood status as a focus.

Bronfenbrenner's model acknowledges the importance of individual subjective experience of the world, so that whilst environmental conditions may appear objectively similar to an onlooker, each individual will interpret that environment differently and subsequently interact with that environment accordingly. It is this interaction between the environment and individual which characterises the

bioecological model. Bronfenbrenner (2005) points out that individuals' experience of their environment is influenced by subjective feelings:

...for example, anticipations, forebodings, hopes, doubts or personal beliefs. These...are characterised by stability and change. They can relate to the self and to others and especially to family, friends and other close associates. They can also apply to the activities that one engages in: for example those that one most or least likes to do. (Bronfenbrenner, 2005, p. 5)

It is this emotional life that everyone has to manage daily, both within themselves and between themselves and others. It is proposed that the daily emotional labour undertaken by fathers in negotiating their time and attention between work and family demands will be better managed by fathers who are high in emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is an umbrella concept which came to the fore in the 1990's which reflects emotional competencies in emotion perception and management in self and others. One of the original aspects of this research is to examine emotional intelligence¹ in relation to work-family conflict. Two concepts of emotional intelligence are considered in this thesis: Ability EI reflects maximum cognitive performance in relation to emotional feelings and contexts. Trait EI reflects emotional aspects of personality and an individual's belief in their emotional self-efficacy, which influences their typical day-to-day performance

The importance of work and family to individuals are made apparent through the emotional experiences associated with these domains: the strain at meeting a deadline, the pride in doing a good job or the guilt at missing a child's bedtime, the joy felt on meeting up again after days at work and school. With the growing perception of intensity at work and job insecurity (Burchell, Lapido, & Wilkison, 2002) the pressures of work increasingly reduce family time through physical and psychological absence. At the same time, there is pressure on parents to provide optimum parenting for their children. Thus demands from two important life domains threaten

¹ Two concepts of emotional intelligence are considered in this thesis: Ability EI reflects maximum cognitive performance in relation to emotional feelings and contexts. Trait EI reflects emotional aspects of personality and an individual's belief in their emotional self-efficacy which influences their typical day-to-day performance

a sense of 'balance' or create a sense of conflict. Work and family are two of the most important and enduring domains of life in which individuals are involved. The micro level explanations for why these domains are particularly salient are psychological in the formation of social identities or roles. They are also emotional, as an individual's primary attachments form within the family, meeting emotional needs of relatedness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). However, autonomy and competence needs are met in the wider world, (Sheldon, Ryan, & Reis, 1996), or Bronfenbrenner's 'mesosphere', of which work is one important example. Individuals negotiate the movement between the boundaries of their public and private worlds frequently and have to manage the attendant emotional needs of themselves and others, whether it is the guilt felt at missing a son's football match, the anxiety about meeting a deadline without working late or thinking how to manage a child's disappointment at missing their bedtime. Whilst pragmatic measures of time management and strategic planning have their place as tools to minimise these clashes between work and family demands, these conflicts are an inevitable part of life. What can make them more bearable for all involved is if individuals are aware of the emotional impact the conflicts have on both themselves and others.

To be effective, emotional awareness needs to include self-knowledge as well as knowledge of what emotions mean within social contexts. Whilst much has been written about emotions from a sociological viewpoint e.g. (Hochschild, 1983), the research approach taken in this thesis is situated in the psychological domain, particularly examining individual differences in emotional competencies. Under the umbrella term of emotional intelligence, the ability to identify emotions, express and understand them, coupled with skill in regulating emotions for self and others has been found to be associated with better social and occupational outcomes (Petrides, 2006; Mikolajczak, 2007; Mayer, 2004). It is argued in this thesis that these skills are likely to ameliorate work-family conflict situations. Work-family conflict has been extensively researched since the 1970's examining antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict; however there has been less research into the impact of dispositional factors or individual differences on work and family life and what research exists has focused on personality factors. This thesis seeks to address this gap by examining the influence of emotional intelligence on work-family conflict as

emotional competence could be expected to be a helpful skill in managing these areas of life. To test the impact of emotional self-efficacy and competence on coping with work-family demands, a quantitative approach was used in the form of regression models in order to evaluate the relative contribution of biosystem factors such as emotional intelligence compared to other ecosystems whilst controlling for known work-family conflict antecedents.

Fathers' roles have changed since the 1950's from figures who, often viewed as emotionally distant, were expected to provide for the family financially and undertake a disciplinary role. The extent of the change and dimensions of father involvement have been extensively researched showing increased time invested in childcare tasks and changes in attitudes of both fathers and mothers in favour of greater father involvement (Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004). In researching fathers, previous scholars have clarified terms and concepts in three ways: firstly, the term 'father' defines a biological connection between a parent and child, but also a social connection through taking responsibility for caring for a child, whilst being a father encompasses the experience; secondly, the term 'fathering', describes the behaviour of fathers or the 'doing' of fathering; thirdly, 'fatherhood' is a term which reflects societal views about fathers (Huttunen, 2006).

According to bioecological systems theory, fathers' work-family experiences are likely to impact upon family relationships (Bronfenbrenner 1974, 1978). Although this doctoral thesis focuses on the father as the unit of analysis, it is recognised that fathering cannot be considered in isolation from the family system, as each family role operates interdependently with the other, for example: mother and father; father and child, mother; father and child (Parke, 1996). Nonetheless, exploring fathers' particular experience of work-family life is important as it has inherent consequences for the family as a whole. Other demographic changes in the last thirty years also make research on fathers' salient at this time. Family structures in the UK have changed significantly, with an increase in single parent families, more step-parent families, more dual earner families (Matheson, 2001), and more families expressing gender equity attitudes (Crompton, 2003); Scott, 2006). These demographic changes have driven policy and research agendas on family support in the interests of child welfare (Clarke & O'Brien, 2004; Lamb, 2004). As part of this policy and research

interest, there has been increasing focus on paternal influences within the family (O'Brien, 2004).

Over thirty years fathers' roles have been changing from that of an emphasis on the traditional breadwinner, with economic provision as a main contribution to the family, to more focus on caring, with an expectation of greater involvement in aspects of childcare (Warin, Solomon, Lewis, & Langford, 1999). At a macro level, the term breadwinner originates, in the UK, from a welfare economic model from the 1930's designed to ensure that it was possible for families to survive economically on one earner's income – the male earner. This model has had long term influences on the individual attitudes of earners as parents, many of whom tried to emulate this model of single male economic provider with a female partner as non-earning homemaker. In this thesis, father's roles are examined and their behaviour given these historic expectations of parents's economic behaviour. It is acknowledged that roles are psychologically experienced, but influenced also by social context. This thesis focuses primarily on individual attitudes and behaviours of fathers set against a changing social context that encompasses a dual earner model for families (Warren 2007). If fathers' roles are changing, it is likely that fathers would like to spend more time at home with their children and partner, but are constrained due to employment demands and procedures. From the perspective of a nurturing role, contemporary fathers may need to take more time off to deal with child related emergencies, and be more preoccupied with family matters than fathers from previous generations. These demands might unintentionally create extra emotional concerns for fathers, who traditionally have been able to focus on work matters whilst leaving domestic matters to their partner.

The field of work-family research has been particularly active since the 1970's following the increase in mothers entering employment. In developed western societies, work-family dilemmas have been heightened by post feminist social constructions of a 'having it all' ideology (Daly, 2001) Department of Trade and Industry (DTI), (2003) which creates high normative expectations for career and parenthood, thereby increasing pressure on parents from both domains. The extreme consequences of such pressure were crystallised in the tragic death of mother and solicitor Catherine Bailey reported in 2009 (McVeigh, 2009). The importance of work-

family issues and the reciprocity of impacts for each domain were highlighted forty years ago in the influential work of Rappoport & Rappoport (1965) and Kanter (1977) in her book *'Work and Family in the United States: A critical review and agenda for research and policy'* (Kanter, 1977; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1965). Kanter's (1977) ideas received a lot of attention, as up until that point, taking employee family issues into account had not been considered as an employers' nor policymakers' concern. In the same year, a seminal paper was published by Pleck (1977) outlining a frame of reference for future research into work and family life. Pleck (1977) suggested the integration of work-family roles and domains into a systems approach to counter the hitherto separate research emphases on work and family (Pleck, 1977). The work-family research area draws from multiple disciplines (Pitt-Casouphes, Kossek, & Sweet, 2006), but primarily from sociology and psychology reflecting the intrinsically psychosocial nature of the topic. Consequently there have been a diverse range of theoretical and methodological approaches in which the individual, the dyad, the family, the organisation and the social culture have been investigated, which have recognised the theoretical utility of the Bioecological model e.g. (Grzywacz, 2000 ; Moen, 2008)

To date the majority of work-family research has been focused on the work-family interface, particularly from mothers' perspectives (Byron, 2005; Eby, 2005). The work-family emphasis has been primarily a response to public and policy concerns about family life particularly over child well-being, behaviour and attainment. There have been additional concerns about the well-being of the employee (Halpern, 2005), particularly ill-health absence and employee turnover (T. D. Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Consequently, much research has focused on the negative aspects of the impact of paid work on family life. Subsequently there has been recognition that family issues can also affect paid work². Three different dimensions of work-family conflict have been identified: time based conflict; strain based conflict and behaviour based conflict. Each of these dimensions has different implications for all those experiencing the work-family conflict. Time based conflict creates physical absence of the parent, strain based conflict leads to psychological

² This difference in the direction of work-family conflict is referred to in this thesis, as 'Work interfering with family' (WIF) and 'Family interfering with work' (FIW)

distraction and less engagement in the domain where the individual is physically present and behaviour based conflict creates a mismatch of work behaviours being inappropriately used at home or vice versa (Greenhaus & Beutell 1985). From the 1980's, research emerged on positive aspects of the mutual impacts at the work-family boundary showing how work aspects can enhance family life and vice versa (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

In the field of work-family life there appears to be a gap between theoretical development and empirical research in that conceptually theoreticians have moved away from segmented approaches towards more integrated approaches and away from an individual focus to a social focus (Grzywacz, 2007). However, these theoretical changes have been difficult to capture in traditional quantitative research methodologies, for example, concepts such as 'balance' are under debated and difficult to operationalise and measure (Grzywacz, 2007). However, to date, empirical research has been more productive in defining and measuring work-family conflict and has made headway in defining and measuring work-family enrichment or facilitation. Current debates attempt to capture both experiences, as it is hypothesised that the negative experience is not just the opposite of the other, with each approach showing different antecedents and consequences (Tetrick & Buffardi, 2006).

The focus of research on the individual level of analysis stems from historic interest in mothers' experience of work and family, however more work-family research is moving towards examining partner dyads or children (Westman, 2006; Sallinen, 2004; Blumen, 2006). The risk in an approach which focuses on the individual is an implicit assumption that the individual is solely responsible for the existence of work-family balance, which does not account for organisational or social constraints. In addition, much empirical work has focused on mothers' experience of work-family life, with fathers less frequently considered from their perspective. In work-family research, the distinction between gender differences and differences in work-family experiences on the basis of parenthood is often not made. Research on gender differences in work-family conflict levels are predicated upon women's experience of motherhood and the attendant negative consequences of motherhood for their career. However, with the increase in childless individuals due to the choice of later

parenthood or non-parenthood (Coleman, 1996), it is essential for clarity that debate about gender differences is made distinct from work-family conflict differences as a result of parenthood.

1.3 THESIS AIMS

There are gaps in the literature about fathers' experience of work-family life as well as the influence of dispositional factors on work-family conflict. This thesis therefore aims to investigate what structural and dispositional factors from bioecological systems influence fathers' work and family lives using quantitative methods. Regression analyses model fathers' employment behaviour changes and the relative contributions of each set of Bioecological systems to work-family conflict. More specific research questions and hypotheses stemming from this aim were:

1.3.1. STUDY ONE

- i. Previous research has shown that fathers work longer hours than men without children. If the traditional breadwinner role for fathers is changing, as indicated by attitude change and increases in father involvement in childcare, does fatherhood status predict working hours over and above other known predictors: occupation, income, career stage (age), partner employment status and education?
- ii. If fathers are changing their role, there should be a reduction of work hours upon the birth of their child.
- iii. If fathers' roles are changing there should be increased use of flexible working options by men who are fathers.

1.3.2 STUDY TWO

- iv. As emotional intelligence has not been studied in relation to work-family conflict before and emotional intelligence is hypothesized to be a coping resource. Both Ability EI (maximal performance) and Trait EI (typical performance) theoretically would be expected to be associated with reduced levels of work-family conflict.

1.3.3 STUDY 3A

According to Lazarus & Folkman's (1984) cognitive appraisal and coping theory, high emotional intelligence should be a personal resource which would enhance an individual's perceived self-efficacy at coping with the demands of work-family conflict situations. As it is posited that the appraisal process occurs before the onset of emotion, such as the strain felt in association with work-family conflict situations, it is proposed that emotional intelligence be considered as a first predictor in a sequential regression model which also includes other known predictors such as job demands and family demands.

- v. Emotional intelligence should predict lower levels of both directions of work-family conflict (WIF/FIW)³ alongside other known predictors of work-family conflict.
- vi. Dispositional factors (negative affect, Trait EI, work and family salience) should predict work-family conflict when controlling for structural factors (job demands, work hours, availability of parental leaves, partner work hours, number of children, age of child).

The emotional intelligence sub-domains should predict work-family conflict in different directions:

- vii. High Trait EI Self-control should predict lower FIW
- viii. High Trait EI Emotionality should predict lower WIF
- ix. High Trait EI Sociability should predict both lower WIF and FIW

1.3.4 STUDY 3B

Whilst study 3a focused on the specific effects of one biosystem variable, Trait EI, Study 3b aims to examine the relative effects of each ecosystem on work-family conflict by grouping variables into their relevant ecosystems, and also examining them in relation to the different directions of work-family conflict (WIF/FIW) as well as the different dimensions (Time, Strain and Behaviour). Bronfenbrenner's (1979)

³ WIF: Work interfering with family; FIW: Family interfering with work

Bioecological systems theory is the framework used to underpin this study. There were four hypotheses for this study.

- x. The proximal bio and mesosystems of work and family variables will have more influence on all dimensions and all directions of work-family conflict than the more distal exo or macro systems.
- xi. Of the two work and family microsystem variable sets, work variables will have more influence on work interfering with family (WIF) and family variables will have more influence on family interfering with work (FIW).
- xii. There will be more influence of work microsystem variables, and exosystem variables on time based conflict than family microsystem or biosystem variables.
- xiii. There will be more influence of dispositional biosystem variables on strain based conflict than other ecosystem variables.

1.4 THESIS OUTLINE

In the first section of the thesis, the literature review examines the key literature and empirical evidence pertaining to employment, fathers' role within the family, work-family tensions and the role of emotions. **Chapter two** outlines changes in the gender profile of the workforce in terms of trends in parental employment rates and working hours, followed by an examination of the contrasting employment patterns of mothers and fathers. The changing nature of work and increased use of information technology enabling work to take place at a faster pace with less restriction on location and its impact on employment is also explored to establish evidence of a perception of increasing work intensity and job demands, particularly amongst professional and management occupations. The UK policy framework on parents and work is also described and compared to other countries in the European Union, as policy drives the legislative climate which influences both individual and employer practice.

Chapter three establishes the definition of the term 'father'; examines changes in fathers' attitudes and behaviour in relation to father involvement in the family; provides an overview of theoretical approaches to fathers, from fatherhood to fathering; and examines the empirical support for these approaches. **Chapter four** considers the implications of role (Merton, 1957) and boundary theory (Clark, 2000; Ashforth, 2000) for work-family research. Role theory literature in work and family issues is imbued with gender presumptions and is also influenced by symbolic interactionism, in which the cultural meaning of actions and objects influence personal behaviour (Stryker, 1981). The inconsistency in work-family evidence on gender differences, as a result of conflating gender and parenthood, is also examined in chapter four. This chapter also examines evidence for both psychological and social structural influences on work and family life and provides an historic outline of the development of work-family research with summaries of key theoretical models and associated empirical evidence, particularly as it applies to fathers.

Chapter five examines the development of the concept of emotional intelligence from extant theoretical and empirical research on emotions and assesses the relevance of emotional intelligence to work-family conflict in the context of gender and parenthood.

Chapter six presents the first of three studies and analyses fathers' working hours and working patterns using two UK government datasets. This study showed that from the Third Work Life Balance Survey (2006), fatherhood status (family microsystem) predicts work hours along with occupation (work microsystem), albeit showing a small effect. However from analysis of the Maternity & Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey (2005), fathers identified as working long weekly hours (over 48 hours per week) before the birth of their child were most likely to reduce their hours after the birth of their child. Findings on fathers' flexible working patterns revealed that fathers use predominantly flexible work options which retain their full-time income, but that use of these options had increased since 2000. **Chapter seven** reports on the second study which evaluated the Ability EI model of emotional intelligence against the Trait EI model (both biomicrosystem) in relation to work-family conflict. Findings indicated that Ability EI showed low non-significant associations with work-family conflict whilst Trait EI showed moderate significant correlations with work-family

conflict. **Chapter eight** is the final study and examines the relative contribution of both dispositional and structural factors (bio, micro and macrosystem influences) to the prediction of work-family conflict. **Chapter nine** provides a summary of the thesis aims and findings; considers the implications of the findings on policy, practice and fathers' behaviour and provides suggestions for future research in the area of fathers, work-family conflict and emotional intelligence.

2 FATHERS AND EMPLOYMENT

2.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This chapter aims to describe the employment context in the UK for fathers, the microsystem of the work setting for fathers in addition to the macrosystem employment context in the UK. To this end, changes in the gender profile of the workforce in terms of trends in parental employment rates and working hours are outlined, followed by an examination of the contrasting employment patterns of mothers and fathers. The changing nature of work and increased use of information technology enabling work to take place at a faster pace with less restriction on location and its impact on employment is also explored to establish evidence of increased perception of increasing work intensity and job demands, particularly amongst professional and management occupations. The UK policy framework on parents and work is also described and compared to other countries in the European Union, as policy drives the legislative climate which influences both individual and employer practice.

2.2 HISTORICAL TRENDS

'Society failing Dads' (EOC 2007), the headline from this press release from the Equal Opportunities Commission reflects concerns with the nature of fatherhood in the 21st century. Such concern is occurring within a UK policy context preoccupied with children's welfare and future opportunities (e.g. Every Child Matters – ("Childcare Act," 2006) in which parenthood is under scrutiny. Fathers are experiencing the full impact of a number of socio-economic changes that have taken place since the 1970's, changes that cover the spectrum of work and family life. Three overarching themes incorporate these changes: one has been women's increased participation in work, which has led to the increase of dual earner families and associated impact on father involvement in family life. Secondly, changes in business practice have resulted in employers expecting greater flexibility from their workforce in their working hours in addition to greater job insecurity and the threat of outsourcing employment abroad.

Such effects have contributed to creating a 'results driven' employment culture fuelling an increase in work hours. Finally, the increased use of information technology has increased work intensity and allowed work family boundaries to become more permeable which has had both positive and negative effects for achieving work-family balance.

2.2.1 INCREASED WOMEN IN THE WORKFORCE

Men have traditionally been present in the workforce in greater proportions to women and also worked for longer hours (Mill et al., 2001; Worrall & Cooper, 2006). However, since the 1970's, there has been a steady increase in the number of women entering the workforce, in 1971 there were 56.4 per cent of women aged 16-59 in the workforce which had increased to 69.6 per cent by 2007 (Labour Force Survey 2007). In addition, other longitudinal data show that the proportion of a women's day spent on paid employment was circa 30 per cent in 1961, by 2001 this had increased to circa 45 per cent (Institute for Social and Economic Research, 2005).

This feminisation of the workforce has also affected household employment status. In recent years, male single earner households have decreased from 43 per cent in 1979 to 24 per cent in 1988-89 (Mill et al., 2001) whilst fathers in dual earner households stood at 53 per cent in 1996 (Ferri & Smith, 1996). A parental trend within the increase in women's employment has been a greater increase in mothers' employment, particularly mothers returning to work after childbirth. In 1989 62 per cent of mothers reported staying at home with a child under school age, but by 2002 this had declined to 48 per cent (Crompton 2006). In contrast, fathers' employment rates have remained fairly stable in the same family circumstances, fathers with preschool children have higher employment rates than mothers, 94 per cent compared to 63 per cent for mothers in 2000 (Anxo, Boulin, & Fagan, 2006), a gap that has persisted over time. The increased numbers of women at work reflects incremental changes in gender ideology that had heightened women's expectations of career and independence whilst also eroding the practical utility of the male 'breadwinner model' (Crompton 2006) within dual earner households. For fathers, a practical consequence of this increase in mothers at work has been the greater expectations placed upon them to be more involved in the home and with childcare (Lamb, Pleck, Charnov, & Levine, 1987).

2.2.2 BUSINESS ORGANISATION AND PRACTICE

In response to greater global competition throughout the 1990s businesses have needed to become more competitive (Burchell et al., 2002). This competitive trend has compelled businesses to make processes more efficient and often involved downsizing, reducing numbers of employees within the organisation. Such employee reduction has not seen a parallel decrease in workload and has led to an increase in work intensity in the 1990's that applies particularly to the public sector and blue collar workers, but levelled off by 2001 (Cowling, 2005; Green, 2001). Although there appears to have been a leveling off in work intensity as measured empirically through survey data, Burchell (2007) suggests that this has not matched a decrease in common discourse about work overload. He suggests that this may be due to the reduction in Trade Union influence leading to work issues becoming individualized such that individuals now feel the need to seek self help or medicalise their concerns in order to relieve anxiety about work demands (Burchell, 2007). As downsizing has often been achieved by creating so called leaner organisational structures by 'delaying' and 'flattening' reducing the number of hierarchical levels in the system, leaving managers as the main occupational group adversely affected (Dunford, 1999). An added burden for managers has also been new employer driven approaches to how work is organized and productivity monitored through initiatives such as 'empowering employees', which involves shifting decision making down the hierarchy to the level of team. Whilst this gives team members more job autonomy it also comes with more responsibility and potentially more stress. Whilst this may seem to be of benefit to the employee by giving them more autonomy and control, which are important for job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), evidence indicates that such self regulated work systems can sometimes have the opposite effect and increase employee's working intensity and hours (Sewell, 1998; White, Hill, McGovern, Mills, & Smeaton, 2003). Self regulation at work has been attributed to a shift in employer expectations from a 'time for pay' system to a 'results for pay' system with the onus on the employee to produce the results regardless of the time taken to achieve them (Suipot, 2001). The UK Quality of Working Life Survey has documented this shift in the quality of organisational life: in the 1997 survey 61 per cent of a national sample of managers reported having experienced a major restructuring in their organisation, by 2005 this

figure had risen to 89 per cent (Worrall & Cooper, 2006). Such a rise indicates that the effects of organisational change are still having a significant impact on employees. These frequent changes at work have increased pressure on managers due to increasing workloads, a faster pace of work and increased strain associated with making major decisions. Consequently, it is no surprise that working hours of managers are high. As a proportion of all managers in a 1999 survey, 57 per cent of managers have been found to work between 41-50 hours per week with working hours increasing with seniority, 27 per cent senior managers working between 51-60 hours per week, 26 per cent directors working over 60 hours per week (Kodz, 2003).

In this uncertain climate, job insecurity is also a concern for employees. Gone are the days of acquiring a 'job for life'. Contemporary business requires a workforce that is flexible and responsive to change, which has resulted in an increase in short-term contracts, up from 33 per cent in 2000 to 57 per cent in 2006 (Worrall & Cooper, 2006). The 'psychological contract' (Rousseau, 1989) has changed to incorporate the new demands of business. The old paternal role of the organisation providing a job from cradle to grave has changed to a shared responsibility for maintaining employee's employability. Skills development and challenges are offered to employees in exchange for performance and adaptability from employees (Major & Germano, 2006). As a result, loyalty and commitment to the firm for career advancement is now demonstrated through performance rather than length of service. In addition the introduction of modern management practices such as performance management to improve efficiency increases pressure to perform as managers strive to meet externally imposed targets. These changes have influenced manager's working hours, so that managers now work more hours to demonstrate commitment as well as needing to complete greater workloads with 92 per cent of managers reporting working over their contractual hours in 2006 (Worrall & Cooper, 2006).

With more global competition organisations need to be more flexible and responsive to change. The implications of this for employees, is that they need to be more adaptable across working time, working patterns and job description, (Sparrow, 2000). With the recent trend in downsizing, there is also increased job insecurity

(Burchell et al., 2002). All these factors serve to increase pressure upon employees to deliver effectively and be responsive to employers' demands.

2.2.3 TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES

Rapid technological advances since the 1980's have enabled instant communication across the globe and created expectations of: constant availability, a 24/7 service expectation and belief that work can be completed faster. Working across time zones has often extended the working day in order to communicate with colleagues. These expectations alongside downsizing practices have both contributed to the greater work intensity currently experienced by employees (Green, 2001).

To illustrate the large growth in the use of information technology, there were 120 million personal computers (PCs) in 1990 and 2.6 million Internet users worldwide. By 1998 these figures had risen to 370 million and 141 million respectively (Felstead, Jewson, Phizacklea, & Walters, 2001). In the UK, the Office for National Statistics reports that approximately 57 per cent of households could access the Internet between January and April 2006, an increase of 26 per cent since 2002 (Office for National Statistics, 2006a). The effects of technology upon the location of employment can be seen by increases in home working. In 1998, 2.5 per cent of the employed workforce worked mainly from home and 3.5 per cent worked at home sometimes, an increase from 1.5 per cent in 1981.

Technology allows work to take place 'anywhere at any time' (Spector, 2002), whilst this can have advantages for those trying to juggle work and family it may be difficult to manage the complexity and increases in negotiation required to harmonise home and work, although this is a little researched area (Duxbury, Higgins, & Thomas, 1996; Sullivan & Lewis, 2001). However, some evidence suggests that this is experienced differently across gender, with women reporting that telework improves their ability to combine work and family, whilst men maintain the rigid boundary between home and work in terms of the space they use (separate room within home) and time they work (traditional work times), suggesting that traditional gender roles are in operation in working practices despite structural changes to work itself (Sullivan & Lewis, 2001). This is further supported from findings in Felstead, et al.(2001) in their analysis of UK Labour Force survey data showing that, from their sample, women made up a greater proportion of those working mainly from home, 69.3 per cent,

whereas men made up the larger proportion of those working partly from home, 62.9 per cent. In addition, women working mainly at home are more likely to have dependent children, whereas childcare responsibilities for men are unrelated to location of work (Felstead et al., 2001). It would appear from these figures that increases in levels of working from home for men may be unrelated to the need to combine work and family responsibilities. General work trends of the last 20 years indicate an increase in work intensification. The next section explores current survey data on actual working hours and practices to see if there have been any related changes to increases work intensification, but also to examine the particular work characteristics of fathers.

2.3 FATHERS' LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

There is limited longitudinal data available for fathers, as equivalent data gathered and analysed for fathers compared to mothers had not occurred until 2000. Analyses have been primarily on gender rather than parental status. At the time of writing this thesis (2010), the most up to date data about fathers at work was the secondary data analysis of the Labour Force Survey, Office of National Statistics and work-life balance survey of 2000 within the Equal Opportunities report 2003 by O'Brien & Shemilt (O'Brien & Shemilt, 2003). This section will initially consider analyses by gender then examine what is known about parental status and labour force participation.

The structure of men's employment is significantly different to that of women both in terms of working hours and patterns. Historical employment rates by gender data from the ONS (2001) show the convergence of men's and women's employment rates with a steady increase in the rate of participation in employment by women of 47 per cent in 1959 to 69 per cent in 1999 and parallel decrease in participation by men from 94 per cent in 1959 to 79 per cent in 1999 (Mill et al., 2001). There are still more men within the workforce than women, 79 per cent men, 70 per cent of women (Social Trends 37, 2006) but the distribution of men and women within the workforce is very different, with more men working full-time compared to women and working in different occupations with men more concentrated in the managerial, professional and manual sectors and women concentrated in the administrative, secretarial,

personal (hairdressers, childcare assistants) and associate professional (nurses, financial advisors) sectors (Social Trends 37, 2006).

There are also differences between mothers and fathers' working patterns, for example, the proportion of fathers employed full-time in the workforce by 2001 stood at 86 per cent, a much higher rate than mothers at 55 per cent. A similar disparity exists for part-time working parents with 3 per cent of fathers working part-time in 2001 compared to 36 per cent of mothers (O'Brien & Shemilt, 2003). Although UK working patterns are becoming more diverse, with more flexibility on offer, the majority of men still work full-time, 11 million in 1986, 11.2 million in 2000. However, the numbers of men working part-time has increased over the same time frame, 0.2 million in 1986, 0.7 million by 2000, (ONS 2001). Fathers appear to buck this trend with only 3 per cent working part-time compared to 5 per cent of men without children (O'Brien & Shemilt, 2003), but of those that do work part-time, a significant proportion (17 per cent) do so to meet domestic commitments and to spend more time with the family (ONS 2001). These differences in gender ratios for full-time working, particularly those for fathers suggest that mothers still take on the primary responsibility for childcare. Other figures also support this interpretation, in employment activity rates for parents at different ages across the life course. The difference in employment rates for fathers' and mothers' shows a gap of 24 per cent at age 30-34 years, the prime years for birth of first child. Mothers' employment rate drops to 68 per cent at this time, but fathers' rate remains high at 92 per cent (Mill et al., 2001). Furthermore, the age of the child also has an impact upon parental employment rates continuing in the same direction with a gap of 30 per cent between fathers' and mothers' employment rates when the age of the youngest dependent child is between 0 and 3 years (O'Brien, 2005; Anxo, 2006). This dip in employment rate for mothers' with preschool children is less for those in higher status occupations such as management and the professions, in a 2002 BSA survey, 64 per cent managerial mothers with preschool children reported working full-time whilst 47 per cent of manual mothers reported doing so (Crompton, 2006).

Such differences in parental employment rates suggest the continued importance, in lower class households of the traditional breadwinner role of fathers. In these households, if fathers are continuing to identify primarily with the provider

role and the majority of mothers are still undertaking childcare for preschool children, we might expect fathers to be protected from experiencing the strains of managing work and family life. Conversely, in dual earner households with preschool children we might expect fathers to be at greater risk of experiencing work family conflict, particularly as previous research has shown negative effects on husband's well-being in association with high working hours of their spouse (Stolzenberg, 2001).

2.3.1 DUAL EARNER HOUSEHOLDS

In addition to the impact of more women at work has been the associated increase in dual earner households (Gregg & Wadsworth, 1996). In 2007, 52 per cent dual earner families, 35 per cent one earner families and 13 per cent workless families were recorded for families with dependent children (Kent, 2009). Dual earner households are particularly evident in the professional and managerial sector with 52 per cent of full-time couple households found there, but with a high proportion also found in the skilled non-manual and skilled manual sectors, 45 per cent and 41 per cent respectively, (BHPS 2001 in Crompton 2006). Whilst the breadwinner model may have provided an effective way of managing work and family, with the father at work and the mother at home, the increase of the dual earner household created issues for parents, as time hitherto spent by the mother on household tasks and childcare, was now not available. Initially, according to some research, this affected mothers most, with the societal expectation that she should still take primary responsibility for the children (Crompton 2006). However, gender ideologies have changed, with increases in members of the family who believe in gender equity. For example, only 17 per cent of respondents to the BSA survey in 2002 agreed with the statement 'A man's job is to earn money: a women's job is to look after the home and family' a reduction from 28 per cent in 1989 (BSA 1989-2002 in Crompton 2006). Such changes reflect greater expectations on the part of both men and women upon fathers to contribute to family life.

2.3.2 WORKING HOURS

Although many factors at work influence people's quality of life, working hours have often been a research focus as they are easy to measure and provide a useful longitudinal and international comparator. At face value, they provide a broad indicator for assessing levels of work and family involvement. In addition they can be

compared to well-being factors and such comparison has found negative impacts of long working hours on both physiological and psychological well-being (Sparks, Faragher, & Cooper, 2001). In UK government surveys, work-family literature and occupational stress literature, working hours are used as a barometer of life quality. In addition, they provide the converse to family time, even though 'out of work' time is not necessarily spent with family per se. Defining working hours is not without debate (see Fleck 2009), but in general working hours will refer to actual working hours spent per week including overtime but excluding absences or commuting time (Fleck, 2009). Since the enactment of the EU Working Time Directive (1998) in Europe, working hours over and above 48 hours per week has been defined as long hours for European countries.

Male and female working hours have changed over time showing a similar convergence to the employment rates of men and women, but to a greater extent for full-time employees. There has been a long term historic fall in working hours overall in developed economies over the last century until 1980 when they reached a plateau of an average of 36 hours per week (Green, 2001; Fleck, 2009). This stability in level of average hours also holds for both men and women. However the dispersion of working hours has changed significantly since the 1970's where increasing numbers of the workforce are working long hours, particularly men, where the proportion of men working more than 48 hours has increased from 25 to 30 per cent in this period (Green 2001).

In parental terms, there is a large distinction between fathers' working hours and mother's working hours: mothers work on average 29 hours per week compared to fathers who work 44 hours per week; moreover, fathers work slightly longer hours than men who do not have dependent children (41 hours) (O'Brien & Shemilt 2003), possibly reflecting the continuing influence of the breadwinner father role (Stevens, Brown, & Lee, 2004). Further evidence showing that fathers work longer hours than non-fathers found that a third of fathers work more than 50 hours compared to under a quarter of non-fathers (Mill et al., 2001). The proportion of fathers working very long hours, over 48 hours per week is also much higher than that of mothers, 41.5 per cent for fathers compared to 6.1 per cent of mothers (O'Brien & Shemilt, 2003). However, recent analysis of British Household Survey Panel data and National Child

Development study suggest that whilst fathers seem to be working the longest hours, fatherhood status is actually unrelated to long hours working, once other variables are controlled such as occupational status, age, earnings and partner employment status, (Dermott, 2006). If this is the case, we could expect, in this study, to find that fathers' levels of work family conflict, based solely on time conflicts, not to be an issue.

Long working hours are more common amongst men, managers, professionals, and operative and assembly workers. Manual workers usually get paid for overtime, while managerial and professional employees do not. Manual workers see the main benefit of long hours working in terms of increased earnings, while managerial and professional workers see it in terms of improved promotion prospects and greater job security (Kodz et al 2003, Brannen in Haas et al 2000). Work-life conflicts are also higher amongst professional and managerial employees because they work longer hours and they are more likely to work full-time (Crompton, 2006). There are greater proportions of fathers within managerial occupations indicating that fathers are more likely to be working long hours and are therefore also more likely to suffer from work-family conflict.

Although evidence indicates that fathers work the longest hours, other data from work-life balance surveys indicate attitudinal shifts amongst fathers indicating their wish to work less hours (Kodz, 2003). Recent employer surveys in the financial and legal sectors show that fathers are willing to forego career promotions and more money in order to work fewer hours for family reasons (Lehman Brothers 2007, ING 2007). Although the evidence shows that fathers work long hours and take comparatively little time off for family, surveys into preferred working hours indicate that 36 per cent of men would prefer to work fewer hours than they currently work (Boheim, 2004) and particularly from professional and managerial men, 47 per cent of professional and managerial men wanted to reduce their working hours, as they consider their working hours to be incompatible with family life and other commitments (Fagan, 2003). Figures from the Labour Force Survey indicate a reduction in mean working hours for full time couple fathers, which had fallen from 47 hours per week in 1998 to 45 hours per week by 2007 (O'Brien, 9-13 September, 2008). Although, this reduction indicates some change in employment behaviour for fathers in line with reported aspirations to be more involved in family life, the high

proportions of fathers still working very long hours, over 48 hours per week is a cause for concern. Another area in which fathers could adapt their employment routines to better manage family life is the opportunity to work more flexibly. Fathers' use of flexible working options is considered below.

2.4 FLEXIBLE WORKING

Russell and Hwang (2004) propose two main organisational constraints on fathers: firstly the fact that up until recently workplace flexibility options have been targeted at women and secondly that work-family arrangements are considered as extra benefits for employees which can be removed as economic circumstances dictate. Fathers have often expressed that they feel that they are showing less commitment if they use flexible work options and that this will impact negatively on their career. The range for flexible working options has increased over the last ten years as organisations respond to new legislation on Paternity Leave and the right to request flexible working for parents with children under 6 years and carers. However organisations are also responding for economic reasons as the financial impact of absenteeism, high turnover and low productivity have been related to inflexible working practices (MacEachen, 2008; Constable, 2009).

With changes in the economies of Western Europe from manufacturing to more service based business, there has been an increase in the demand for non-manual skilled employees who have a range of skills to offer in IT, interpersonal communication and flexible working willingness. Such skills are relatively scarce and consequently, it has become important for employers to access and retain a greater diversity of employees. In doing so they are offering flexible working options to attract and retain employees. The range of flexible working practices on offer are often split distinguishing between leave entitlements, which involve substantive periods of time off, and additional voluntary flexible working arrangements, which concern structural adjustments to daily or weekly hours worked.

Of the range of flexible working practices that currently exist there are the following options available in varying degrees to employees in the UK: Part-time work; term-time working; flexitime (where attendance during core hours is required, but flexibility is allowed either side of these core hours as long as weekly contractual hours are met); job-share; home working; compressed hours (where contractual hours

are worked in less days, e.g. 37 hrs in 4 days); annualised hours (where weekly contracted hours are summed to an annual figure, then worked at varying rates over the 12 month period). The range of flexible working practices has been found to be more available to the managerial and professional sector rather than the non-skilled and manual sector, leaving parents in lower paid jobs to use shift work arrangements to overcome their childcare requirements (La Valle, Arthur, Millward, Scott, & Clayden, 2002).

2.4.2 TAKE UP OF FLEXIBLE WORKING

Although, ostensibly, many employers have put in place a variety of flexible working practices, the take up by fathers is low compared to mothers, although rising. The pattern of fathers' take up varies by leave type, with fathers often taking leave at the time of birth and for emergencies, but less likely to use ongoing flexible working options. For example, whilst 71 per cent of fathers took some form of time off for the birth of their child, only 31 per cent made use of flexi-time opportunities thereafter (Smeaton, 2006). Other national surveys support this trend, figures from the Second Work-Life Balance Survey 2003 indicated that mothers were more likely than fathers to have taken time off in lieu (25 per cent), whereas fathers were more likely to say that they never taken it (60 per cent), (Stevens et al., 2004). The next main use of leave for fathers is for fathers with younger children (under 11 years) who do take time off to look after them, but still at lower rates than mothers, 28 per cent for fathers, 41 per cent for mothers (O'Brien, 2005). Nonetheless, figures from 2000 show that flexi-time and compressed working arrangements are more used by men, than women, possibly because these options do not involve any reduction in income, see Table 1.

TABLE 1 EMPLOYEE'S USE OF FLEXIBLE WORKING TIME ARRANGEMENTS BY GENDER
Spring 2000⁴

	Men %	Women %
Flexible working hours	8.7	11.1
Annualised hours	3.9	3.9
Four and half day week	2.0	0.8
Term time working	1.2	7.6
Zero hours contract	0.8	0.8
9 day fortnight	0.3	0.2
Job Share	0.1	1.3
None of these	82.9	74.3
Total	100	100

Smeaton (2006) found that professional fathers were more likely to use flexible working options and manual fathers least likely. Take up of paternity leave followed the same pattern, with income being the most influential factor. Overall, two thirds of fathers in her study took their two weeks statutory paternity leave. However, some authors suggest that there is reluctance on the part of both employers and fathers to change existing working patterns (Neathy, 2001; Boheim, 2004) and that employers' workplace culture has not changed to accommodate these new demands on fathers' time (Haas, Allard, & Hwang, 2002).

2.5 IMPACT OF WORK ON LIFE

Working hours are an important factor contributing to work-family conflict (White, 2003; Fagan, 2003), although Barnett et al (2009) in a longitudinal analysis found that it is more likely that work schedule fit has more impact than working hours themselves (Barnett, 2009). In addition, long work hours are not necessarily, or even on average associated with pervasive lower well-being. Work hours are negatively related to only two of the thirteen measures of well-being examined (Weston, Gray, Qu, & Stanton, 2004). However, long work hours are generally agreed to be negatively associated with health and well-being (Sparks et al., 2001; Wichert, 2002). In an analysis of the Australian Workplace Industrial Relations Survey (1995), male workers were more likely to report a decline in satisfaction with family work balance when

⁴ Adapted from figures from The Labour force Survey and ONS

working long hours and having a high score on a work intensity index (Morehead, Steele, Alexander, Stephen, & Duffin, 1997).

Findings on the effect of work on the family focus on the impact of work hours, non-standard working patterns and work overload. For example, (Strazdins, Clements, Korda, Broom, & D'Souza, 2006) found that parents working non-standard schedules reported worse family functioning, more depressive symptoms, and less effective parenting. Their children were also more likely to have social and emotional difficulties (Strazdins et al., 2006). In addition, non standard hours have been found to have an impact on: health (Smith, Folkard & Fuller 2003 in Crouter 06); smooth running of family life (Presser 2003 in Crouter 2006); marital quality (Presser 2000 in Crouter 2006 and quality of parenting (White & Keith 1990 in Crouter 2006). Yeung et al (2001) in a representative study of 1761 families found that for every extra hour fathers worked there was a decrease of one minute of time the father spent with the child on weekdays (Yeung, Sandberg, Davis-Kean, & Hofferth, 2001). Berry and Rao (1997) found that dual earner fathers who had workplace flexibility reported more frequent engagement in child care activities (Berry & Rao, 1997).

Although long work hours reduce the time available to children (Crouter, 2006), it would appear that long working hours themselves are not having a negative impact, but in association with work overload involving preoccupation, experience of negative affect and emotional withdrawal this affects the quality of parent's engagement with children. Crouter (2006) has found that both working hours and the perception of overload have an effect on adolescent perceptions of parental engagement, but working hours on their own do not. This seems to suggest that it is the psychological strain produced by work that has the negative impact rather than the hours themselves (Crouter 2006). The impact of job demands on fathers' withdrawn behaviour at home has also been found (Stewart, 1996; Repetti, 1994).

2.5 LEGISLATION

Fathers' behaviours within their employment microsystem are affected by the employment macrosystem structures which are established through legislation and custom and practice. The creation of the British welfare state during the twentieth century was based on the premise of the male breadwinner and supported by trade

union pressure for a 'family wage' to increase wages so that fathers could economically support their families. The increase in women's labour market participation and changes in family structure forced a reform in the state's approach to the labour market and welfare provision to one of the 'adult worker model' (J. Lewis, 2001). This adult worker model encourages labour market participation as a way of reducing the benefit burden whilst also offering benefits for psychological well-being and community cohesion (Levitas, 1998). Nonetheless, UK policy has not been consistent across policy areas with regard to fathers, as the Child Support Act 1991 indicated. This legislation foregrounded fathers' financial provisioning for their children after the separation of parents whilst fathers often face limited contact arrangements through UK courts. The perceived diminishment of fathering to financial provision by the state has provoked protest in the form of fathers' rights groups such as 'Fathers for Justice' who campaign for fairer access arrangements for fathers to their children (Collier, 2001).

Research on UK fathers has occurred within a national policy context concerned with increases in single parenthood, child poverty and crime (Clarke & O'Brien, 2004). UK policy from the late 1980's has focused on the role of father as provider in order to reduce state expenditure on child maintenance increasing alongside the rise in divorce (Lewis 2002). From a European perspective, Nordic countries have pushed gender equity issues to the fore using a variety of innovative paid leave schemes to encourage father involvement and these have slowly gained influence within the policy and legislative frameworks of other EU states (Haas & Hwang, 2000). The reasoning behind this approach fits Bronfenbrenner's Bioecological perspective and as highlighted by Pleck (2007) indicates the influence of macrosystem factors such as paternal leave to increase paternal availability to their children (Pleck, 2007). By 1990 the role of men as carers became a prioritised policy theme for the EU (O'Brien, 2004). However, the UK has been characterized as a short/minimalist father-care leave system with low or no income replacement within a fourfold typology developed by O'Brien (2009) in spite of legislative activity aimed at improving parental leave provision since 1997 (O'Brien, 2009). In the UK, during the term of the Labour Government, there has been an emphasis on reducing child poverty by encouraging parents into work and providing some cheaper forms of childcare in the form of Sure Start centres. In response to the

EC Parental Leave Directive in 1996, more recent UK legislation introducing paid paternity leave and the right to flexible working for both parents with children under 6 years old reflects a move from the state to encourage fathers to take on a caring role. Nonetheless, these changes in provision for father childcare are small in comparison to the leave provision for mothers; British fathers are entitled to 2 weeks paid paternity leave compared to 52 weeks maternity leave⁵, not all of it paid, for mothers.

There have also been attempts by the UK government to encourage employers to consider the work-life balance of their employees, through the encouragement of the provision of flexible work options (Department of Trade and Industry (DTI), 2003), but avoiding significant regulation of employers. In a review on fatherhood for the UK Government in 2008, Burgess (2008) calls for the state to reassess its approach to fatherhood so that fathers are not considered as an 'optional extra' to family life:

...current service provision in the UK for vulnerable families is generally based on an assumption at odds with the evidence and with the child's perspective – that fatherhood is an optional and marginally significant “add-on” for children, unlike motherhood, which is an essential.”

(Burgess, 2008, p79).

Relevant legislation affecting fathers and employment includes the 1998 Working Time Regulations which broadly restricted circumstances under which employees could be required to work more than 48 hours per week. Its basic provisions provide: a limit of an average of 48 hours a week which a worker can be required to work (though workers can choose to work more if they want to); a limit of an average of 8 hours work in 24 which night workers can be required to work; a right for night workers to receive free health assessments; a right to 11 hours rest a day; a right to a day off each week; a right to an in-work rest break if the working day is longer than 6 hours; a right to 4 weeks paid leave per year. The UK currently exercises its right to an 'opt out' from these regulations (DTI 2007).

⁵ Maternity leave - 6 weeks paid at 90 per cent of income, 33 weeks at flat rate of £117, 13 weeks unpaid at 1 March 2010.
Paternity leave – 2 weeks at flat rate £117.

The Work and Families Act 2006 followed the Employment Act of 2002 underpinning the introduction of measures to support parents at work. Its provisions broadly include: extending maternity and adoption pay from six to nine months from April 2007, towards the goal of a year's paid leave by the end of the Parliament; extending the right to request flexible working to carers of adults from April 2007; giving employed fathers a new right to up to 26 weeks Additional Paternity Leave some of which could be paid, if the mother returns to work (O'Brien & Moss, 2009). In September 2009, fathers were given the right to take an extra three months paid paternity leave if the mother returned to work and the leave were taken during the second six months of the child's life. By January 2010, this had been extended to six months to be implemented from April 2011 (Department for Business Innovation and Skills, 2010). Take up of paternity leave during 2000 was high at 93%, with 45 % using paternity leave and 50% annual leave (Dex, 2007) which was still the case in 2007 at 91%, although the type of leave taken was not recorded (La Valle, Clery, & Huerta, 2008).

2.7 SUMMARY

The changing role of fathers within the family microsystem is examined in more detail in chapter three; however existing policy interest in fathers and work focuses upon their long working hours and the impacts this is having overall on family life. Working hours data to date are showing some reductions in the hours that fathers work (O'Brien, 9-13 September, 2008), and there is evidence that some fathers are beginning to change their working practices (O'Brien, 2003; Biggart & O'Brien, 2009; Smeaton, 2006; Smeaton, 2006).

Debates in the academic literature surround a disparity between attitude and behaviour that, whilst many fathers indicate that they would prefer to work less hours, in practice they rarely do so. Empirical evidence so far has focused upon primarily structural factors, which span both micro and macrosystems. Structural factors found to prevent working fewer hours include: workload pressure; job insecurity (Nolan, 2005); lack of supervisor support and levels of job control/autonomy (Butler, 2005). This study will consider both dispositional and organisational factors affecting fathers in their work and family life.

Although not the sole contributor to strain at work, the concern about long working hours and their effect upon the individual and the family has led to a proliferation of research into the tensions experienced at the work-family interface, but before this is considered, the next chapter gives an overview of theory and evidence on fathers and the family.

3 FATHERS AND FAMILY

3.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This chapter considers the fathers' microsystem of the family and their roles and behaviours within this microsystem. In addition the notion of fatherhood and what it means culturally is explored as these cultural expectations of what fatherhood entails is an important influence of the macrosystem upon activities within microsystems. One of the presumptions of this thesis that fathers have changed their roles within the family and are more involved in terms of time and more explicitly in terms of emotional engagement. It is suggested that such changes in role are likely to create more demands of the father, albeit desired ones, as there are greater expectations placed upon him from society, partner and children. The fathering role is both a private lived experience and a public enacted role. Thus roles in cultural transition are likely to produce greater role diversity but also greater ambiguity for individuals trying to fit the role.

This chapter examines what being a father means, sets out the theoretical and empirical case for fathers' changed roles, their greater involvement and the impact of this upon their children. In the first section, establishing who fathers are and their demographic characteristics is described. This is followed by a summary of how fatherhood is and has been constructed culturally, particularly in relation to masculine norms, investigating the tensions between the breadwinning role and nurturing role and the absent – present dichotomy delineating resident from non-resident fathers. It is argued that role expectations are heavily influenced by societal constructions, forming part of Bronfenbrenner's macrosystem. The chapter concludes with empirical evidence on fathers' involvement considering time use data and father involvement studies.

3.2 WHO ARE FATHERS? THE DEMOGRAPHIC PERSPECTIVE

Modern day fathering occurs in an increasing diversity of family types. Over the last 30 years the numbers of single parent families and step-families have increased, although the proportion of lone father headed families remains low at 2-3 per cent compared to 22 per cent of lone mother households (Office for National Statistics, 2008). Over the same timeframe there has been an associated rise in the divorce rate, for example, from 187,000 divorces in 1971 to 1.6 million by 2004 (Office for National Statistics, 2006b). Nonetheless, most men still live within a co-habiting couple family household. In 1998, 85 per cent of all fathers resided with their partner and children (Matheson, 2001). There has been a rise in dual earner households in the UK, with 52 per cent dual earner families, 35 per cent one earner families and 13 per cent workless families recorded for families with dependent children the UK in 2007 (Kent, 2009). Compared to other countries in the EU, the UK has been typified as having predominantly full-time/part-time parent households, at 40 per cent (Crompton, 2006). However, data from the Family Resources survey suggest that the proportion of dual earner families with both parents in full-time employment is increasing. Their data show that from 1998 the number of full-time parent families increased from 32 per cent to 35 per cent in 2008, whilst the number of full-time/part-time families decreased from 32 per cent to 29 per cent (Department for Work and Pensions, 2008). Fathers living in dual earner households are estimated to be 53 per cent of all fathers (Ferri & Smith, 1996). Previous research shows that it is dual earner fathers who are more likely to be involved with childcare as a result of their spouse/partner working (Crompton, 2006) than those in single earner families, although there is still uncertainty over the influence of maternal employment on father involvement (O'Brien, 2004).

A trend for men in the UK in recent years has been a delayed entry into fatherhood. The average age of men at birth of first child has increased to 31 years in 1999 from 27 years in 1971 (Office for National Statistics, 2006b). Delaying parenthood is likely to influence how fathers will carry out their role, as other variables such as career, education and identity establishment will also place demands on fathers in addition to the demands of parenthood (Parke, 2002). Fathers

who delay parenthood, or are older at birth of first child are more likely to be more involved with their children than younger fathers (Cooney, Pedersen, Indelicato, & Palkowtiz, 1993). Early involvement with children by parents has been shown to yield ongoing benefits for children as they grow older (Steele, Steele, & Fonagy, 1996). Consequently, involved fathers may be experiencing greater work-family conflict due to greater involvement. However, older fathers could equally be experiencing less work-family conflict by being in a better financial position to negotiate alternative working arrangements to better suit family life compared to younger fathers who still have to establish themselves in their career.

Achieving fatherhood status is part of a development pathway during the lifecourse, but one which, for men, is particularly linked to being able to financially sustain a family. Young fathers therefore tend to be represented in the literature as problematic, as they are less likely to have established themselves either economically or in relationship terms (Neugarten, 1976). Two common precursors of teenage fatherhood have been found to be low income and low educational status (Bunting, 2004). In addition, teenage parents are more likely to separate after the birth in comparison to older parents. Approximately half of all teenage parents in an analysis of 1991 British Census Data split up within one year (Clarke, 1999). Other research shows that twenty per cent of young fathers have no contact with their children after the first year (Allen & Bourke Dowling, 1998), although Burghes et al (1997) in a review and Kiernan & Smith (2003) found that the majority of separated fathers had contact with their children, however, this was across all ages of fathers (Burghes, 1997; Kiernan, 2003).

Practical issues such as lack of employment and housing are key barriers to young fathers' involvement (Miller, 1997) along with relationship management between the young father and mother and her family (Bunting, 2004; Quinton, 2002). Demographically, young fathers are less likely to be in employment than older fathers (Office for National Statistics, 2006b). Even without children, young people already face challenges in getting their first employment and are often in low paid work during unsocial hours (Martin, 2009), consequently, given young fathers also have lower educational qualifications, they are even less likely to gain employment and

what they do find is therefore likely to be lower paid with less family friendly policy or awareness of fathers' needs.

National trends for fathering also differ by ethnicity. Asian parents are more likely to be married than white or black groups and non-partnership being most likely in Black and mixed race groups (Kiernan, 2003). Black and Asian couples tend to hold more traditional gender role views (Smeaton, 2006), although there appears to be evidence of some increase in father involvement in some Asian families emerging from recent small qualitative studies (Hauari, 2009; Salway, 2009).

Defining fathers in legal terms is fraught with challenges as fathering encompasses both biological and social considerations. Establishing the biological status of fathers is not a requirement for registering the birth of a child in the UK and until 2003, unmarried fathers had no legal parental responsibility for their child. Now, as long as a father is named on the birth certificate, he is granted parental responsibility status (the rights and duties parents have towards their children, e.g. the right to authorise medical treatment). The status of fathers within families is often one of debate depending upon the issue at stake, with biological status seen as paramount in decisions about financial provisioning and social status in decisions about child care. In the current demographic climate of increasing divorce and change in family structures, fatherhood status can include an individual being concurrently a biological non-resident father and resident non-biological step-father. Such variation in family structures place extra demands upon parents who have different children with different partners. In conclusion, it is important to remember that fathers are a heterogeneous group with occupying different family structures, age and ethnicity, each of these factors influences and differentiates fathering behaviour.

3.3 FATHERHOOD

3.3.1 CONSTRUCTIONS OF FATHERHOOD

Fatherhood scholars have described historical fatherhood constructions in terms of being a moral guide, an economic provider, as someone who is emotionally distant, someone able to dispense discipline with assumptions that fathers have little impact on child development (LaRossa, 1997; Pleck & Pleck, 1997). Theoretically, the biological reality of female childbearing has underpinned functionalist arguments that

the parenting roles of mother as nurturer and father as provider are naturally determined (Parsons & Bales, 1955). More recent formulations of these views still stipulate essential differences between mothers and fathers based on biology and can be seen in arguments for the importance of fathers for providing a male role model, the importance of heterosexual marriage to ensure responsible fathering, and the improbability that fathers will nurture children as intensively, as mothers do, as it is purported that fathers do not have the biological instincts to do so (see Silverstein 1999 for a review). Opponents of this determinist view use empirical evidence from alternative fathering contexts and family types to show that child outcomes are primarily influenced by relationships with their primary carers and that these outcomes are not gender dependent (Silverstein, 1999). Lamb (1987) has challenged the view that fathers are not 'naturally' inclined to undertake nurturing tasks showing that when fathers are involved at an early stage with their infants, they become as attuned and skilled caretakers as mothers (Lamb et al., 1987).

Social changes in the last fifty years have given rise to differing cultural expectations of fatherhood such as involved father (Pleck & Pleck 1997) that is: fathers, who are more engaged with family life, develop close emotional relationships with their children and share childcare with mothers. However, it has been well documented that cultural representations and fathering aspirations fall short of practice. LaRossa (1997) suggests that the new social role of nurturing father is not yet embedded in the day to day enactment of fatherhood (LaRossa, 1997). The involvement of fathers in caring for their children is still a small proportion of that carried out by mothers. A number of reasons have been raised for this discrepancy, among these reasons, the continued influence of hegemonic masculinity (Connell, 2000), the gender pay gap and workplace cultures, which assume that responsibility for child-rearing rests with the mother have been posited as contributing to the slow rise in father involvement. Specific characteristics of father involvement, the changes in level of involvement and comparisons with mothers' involvement are considered in more detail later in this chapter.

Considering further the influence of cultural norms on fathering, proponents of hegemonic masculinity emphasise the importance of institutions for the persistence of hegemonic views and resistance to change (Donaldson, 1993). Hegemony, or the

ways in which the ruling class establishes and maintains its domination through prescribing what should be considered 'normal' to people through media and social institutions requires collective action according to sociologists (Connell 1993). Therefore, individuals who challenge masculine hegemony in the form of alternative fathering practices will suffer penalties in the form of restricted access to resources. For example the negative career consequences that befalls men who take time out of work for caring (Burgess, 2008) Nonetheless, Connell (1993) does acknowledge the importance of psychosocial factors: 'It is not too strong to say that masculinity is an aspect of institutions, and is produced in institutional life, as much as it is an aspect of personality or produced in interpersonal transactions.' (Connell 1993, p602).

Sexton cited in Donaldson (1993, p644) suggested that: 'male norms stress values such as courage, inner direction, certain forms of aggression, autonomy, mastery, technological skill, group solidarity, adventure and considerable amounts of toughness in mind and body' (Donaldson, 1993, p644). However, extensive use of Bem's sex role inventory reveals considerable within sex differences in adherence to such norms with 30 percent of both male and female samples identifying as androgynous (Bem, 1974; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975). Russell (1978) found that androgynous fathers were more likely to engage in child care activities than those fathers who identified as masculine (Russell, 1978). Dermott (2008) warns against treating fathers as a homogenous group and highlights the diversity of fathering experience, across age, residency status, biology, class and ethnicity, a research gap which is now beginning to be addressed (Marsiglio, Amato, Day, & Lamb, 2000).

3.3.2 CONTEMPORARY FATHERING AND ADULT DEVELOPMENT

Constructions of the 'new father' involve comparisons with older generations of fathering behaviour, which included emotional distance, discipline and absence. Dermott (2008), from interviews with contemporary fathers, identifies that it is the emotional closeness that currently epitomises good fathering: 'A 'close' relationship constituting a positive model for their fathering was defined largely in terms of the recognition and expression of emotion.' (Dermott, 2008, p. 71). A key distinction between comparisons of the different style of fathering made by today's fathers is the development of a relationship with the child, which involves being interested in their

lives, and being emotionally involved with them. Fathers indicate that this is not possible without being more expressive emotionally. Clearly, emotional expression is not normally associated with masculine cultural norms, but appears to be something which is being assimilated into fathering norms. It has been argued that the transition to fatherhood involves a reassessment of self and values (Parke, 1981; G. Russell, 1982). Therefore it could be that an open and close fathering style is now the set of values which is of greater salience than the values of responsibility and discipline which was associated with earlier constructions of fatherhood.

In psychological development literature the transition to parenthood provides personal growth opportunities. Cowan (1988) suggests that fatherhood can be described as a qualitative life change and uses a modified version of Allport's (1961) concept of maturity in his functional theory of personality to assess differences between fathers' and non-fathers' personal development (Cowan, 1988). Cowan (1988) evaluated identity, locus of control, self esteem and markers of competence in problem solving, perspective taking, regulation of emotion and commitment. Fathers in his study showed marked differentiation in the addition of a new role to their identity 'portfolio' compared to non-fathers but also showed the ability to integrate this new role into their self-concept by being aware of the different personas that were appropriate at work compared to at home and being able to differentiate between the two. Fathers in his study also recognised that competencies gained in different domains could actually be used to their benefit in the opposite domain, for example, greater awareness of work colleagues emotional states. Barnett, Marshall and Pleck (1992) found that greater emotional involvement with children buffered work related stressors (R. C. Barnett, Marshall, & Pleck, 1992). The other finding relevant here is that in relation to emotional regulation, fathers were both able to subordinate their own needs and feelings in favour of the family whilst also becoming more comfortable with self-disclosure of their feelings of anxiety.

3.3.3 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

There are several theoretical tensions in the study of fatherhood. One of these is the tension between the relative significance of the economic provider role and nurturing role and, another issue is the absent-present dichotomy. Each of these theoretical perspectives is considered below.

Since the advent of industrialisation, fathers' main role within the family has been considered, by society and fathers, as that of breadwinning (Demos 1982, Palkowitz 2002). This role has long been emphasised in societal representations of fatherhood as reflected in Brannen, Moss and Mooney's (2004) life span study of changes in fathers' identity formation over three generations (Brannen, Moss, & Mooney, 2004). Beliefs about the primary function of fathering as economic provider are still pervasive (Warin et al., 1999), although they are now being countered by new constructions of fatherhood as a caring role (Brannen, 2004 ; Henwood, 2003; Dermott, 2008). This change in attitude is supported by evidence from the British Social Attitudes Survey where recent generations are expressing more egalitarian attitudes towards parenthood and work. In the 1994 survey 83 per cent of women and 78 per cent of men aged between 18-27 years *disagreed* with the statement 'the husband's job is to earn the money and the wife's job is to look after the home' (Scott, 1999). More recent evidence from the International Social Survey Programme highlights the diversity and complexity of attitudes towards work and family in which attitudes towards gender divisions in paid work, unpaid work and maternal employment varied. Overall, attitudes for Great Britain showed majority support, 65 per cent, for equal gender contributions to paid work, unpaid work and did not agree that women's employment harmed children or family life, with 35 per cent of 'traditional' views varying across the three indexes, primarily disagreeing with male contribution to unpaid work and agreeing that women's employment was detrimental to children and family life (Wall, 2007). Evidence from Kaufman and Ulenberg's study (2000) suggests that the younger cohort of fathers have more egalitarian gender attitudes and they found fathers' age and nurturing father orientation to be most associated with lower working hours indicating the possibility of generational attitudinal change (Kaufman, 2000).

Other evidence to support changes in fathers' experiences show that fathers also experience similar intensity of emotional engagement with their children to mothers' in contrast to stereotypes of the disengaged and distant father figure associated with the breadwinner model (Doucet, 2007). In the 1950's 8 per cent of fathers attended the birth of their child, by 1998 this had risen to 98 per cent (Kiernan, 2003). Pleck (1985) suggests that more men aspire to accommodate both

work and family, but are constrained by inflexible job structures, expectations and policies. This is countered by Hakim (2000) who predicts that the majority of men's role orientations are focused mostly on employment, a small proportion want to combine both, and a tiny minority wishing to be home centred (Hakim, 2000).

In post war Britain, research interest turned to the effect of father absence, particularly as it pertained to sex role development (Stolz, 1954) in (Day, Lewis, O'Brien, & Lamb, 2005). Thus, fathers were considered to be important role models for sons in order for them to develop socially appropriate masculine identities. This belief can still be found in essentialist arguments today for example see (Blankenhorn, 1995). Whilst not denying that fathers do offer different parenting styles than mothers, such as engaging in more physical play (Craig, 2006), it is suggested that differing parenting styles complement each other and it is this which benefits both boys and girls rather than each parent equating their parental style to their gender role (Silverstein, 1999). Some evidence suggests that the amount of time fathers spend with their children influences the degree of gender stereotypical behaviour in their children, with more time spent by fathers with their children, children are less gender stereotypical (Brody, 1999).

The father absence argument still has resonance today amidst increasing numbers of non-resident fathers, with social/human capital theorists suggesting that two parents have the advantage of greater economic resources and social resources to draw upon which benefits their children (Coleman, 1988). Attachment theorists support the argument for parental quality being essential for child development through the process of forming secure attachments to primary caregivers in response to caregiver sensitivity and responsiveness (Bowlby, 1969). It is the appropriateness and promptness of response to child signals creating predictability, which is linked to infants developing secure attachments (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Although the mother was originally proposed as the primary caregiver, later research indicated that father-infant attachment is also important (Lamb & Lewis, 2004). Infants have been found to protest equally at separation from both mothers and fathers from 12 – 21 months (Kotelchuck, 1976; Schaffer & Emerson, 1964). However, under conditions of distress, which are most likely to initiate attachment behaviours, 10 – 20 month infants show preferences for their mother for comfort (Lamb, 1977a,

1977b). In addition, Cohen and Campos (1974) found that on measures of the frequency and speed of approach, time in proximity and use of parents as a secure base in the presence of strangers, infants showed preferences for mothers over fathers (Cohen & Campos, 1974). Nonetheless, other studies have shown that higher levels of paternal involvement are associated with higher levels of father-infant interaction in the laboratory (Zelazo, Kotelchuck, Barber, & David, 1977, March) and Clarke-Stewart (1978) found that fathers are preferred by infants for playful interaction. Moreover, close father-child relationships from fathers' involvement early on have been found to predict better psychosocial adjustment for children in later life (Flouri, 2002; Franz, 1994). Lamb & Lewis (2004) conclude that when mothers are the primary caregivers, they will be the favoured attachment figure, but that fathers' greater involvement strengthens father-infant attachment.

The parental absence literature has a deficit perspective whereby presence is considered good and absence bad. This is in the context of rising divorce and increasing numbers of non-resident fathers, however the impacts of father absence have not been established thereby making it difficult to assess the impact of low quantity of time and location presence on child well-being. Nonetheless, it has been empirically confirmed from an attachment theory perspective, that physical and affective contact with the child is essential to establish a bond and ultimate secure attachment; therefore it can be assumed that contact time is of some importance.

Father involvement literature has proposed three measures of involvement: engagement, accessibility and responsibility categories (Lamb et al., 1987). Direct interaction with the child is classified as engagement; being available to the child, but not directly interacting, is termed accessibility and taking part in decision making and management with regard to childcare is defined as responsibility. The operationalisation of these concepts has been diverse with researchers using data from time diaries, time estimates, activity frequency and the assessment of relative activity with the other parent. Whilst more recent studies have amended measures to assess the quality of engagement time, earlier studies or time use data do not capture the nature of activities that fathers are engaged in with the child nor the quality of those activities (Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004). Nonetheless, there is consensus upon the requirement for positive engagement to be made explicit when conceptualizing

father engagement (Pleck, 2007). Other father involvement measures have expanded Lamb et al's (1987) father involvement concept to include other facets of fathering such as: economic provision, spousal support, care-giving, activities related to supporting and encouraging the academic and social achievements of the child and the extent to which the father provides a positive role model e.g. maintaining own health (Hawkins et al., 2002).

The juxtaposition of evidence of new caring father practice against evidence of absent, non-providing fathers suggests that fathers are not a homogeneous group, even though fatherhood as a concept purports to describe fatherhood in a generic way. There will clearly be some characteristics of fatherhood that cut across individual differences such as the biological nature of fatherhood and the consensus that parenting consists of caring, protecting, providing and socialising (Hawkins et al., 2002; Lamb, 2004), but this consensus does not account for the different emphases that individuals will make according to their economic, cultural and social circumstances. The 'good dad, bad dad' debate continues to reflect familiar concerns about absent fathers and fathers as economic providers. Therefore, at a societal level, fathers with low income are penalised for not providing and yet appear not to be recognised for undertaking any caring tasks within the policy framework. Doherty et al (1998) suggest that fathering is influenced more by contextual factors such as income level and employment than mothering and is thus less likely to change whilst income and employment constraints exist (Doherty, 1998).

The framing of fathering in the context of 'good dad, bad dad' (Furstenberg, 1988) also depends upon the political standpoints of their proponents. The emphasis on the financial providing role of fathers stems from a conservative perspective concerned about the rise in lone motherhood (Silverstein, 1999) whilst the 'new man' nurturing role stems from feminist or gender equity perspective concerned with gaining family support for working mothers as they try and juggle work and family (LaRossa, 1997; Pleck & Pleck, 1997). Responsible fathering is a current term adopted in US and UK policy contexts as part of attempts to intervene at the early stages in parenting to improve child outcomes. In this context, there is an explicit value position but one that includes caring as a significant facet of fathering. Responsible fathering has been defined by (Levine & Pitt, 1995) as: delaying parenthood until

emotionally and economically ready; establishing legal paternity; sharing emotional and physical care; sharing the financial support.

Financial provision has been a mainstay of fathering identity since the mid to late 1800's with the advent of industrialisation removing the workplace away from the home (Pleck & Pleck, 1997), thus forcing the issue of childcare. The welfare system of the UK reinforced the male breadwinner status, particularly between the wars with the 'marriage bar' in operation forcing women in public sector jobs to resign upon marriage (J. Lewis, 1992). From a societal perspective, fathers' major contribution to the family was seen to be achieved by financially providing for his family. From a psychological perspective, the provider role has been a dominant part of fathering identity. Demographic data shows that fathers are the main breadwinner in the majority of couple households with dependent children, with fathers earning 71 per cent of relative weekly median income compared to mothers (Department of Work and Pensions, 2005). The predominance of fathers in full-time work, working longer hours and their concentration in well remunerated occupations compared to mothers ensures that, overall; fathers' income remains the main contribution to family finances. However, the degree to which male employment data is linked to fatherhood status is under debate. There is substantial empirical evidence to show that fathers work longer hours and are more economically active than men without children (O' Brien & Shemilt, 2003), but recent research by Dermott (2006) indicates that career stage is a confounding factor as differences between fathers and men without children disappears once age has been controlled (Dermott, 2006) whilst other recent analysis continues to show a difference in working hours even when age is controlled for (Biggart & O' Brien, 2009).

Current attitudes of fathers towards their father identity represent the other side of the breadwinning role. Regardless of the realities of income provision and employment, even unemployed fathers have still shown commitment to the provider role of fatherhood (Willott & Griffin, 1997). Nonetheless, amongst employed fathers an unclear picture emerges from the data with some studies showing that breadwinning is still important to fathers' identity (Hatten, Vinter, & Williams, 2002; I. La Valle et al., 2002; Warin et al., 1999) but other studies showing little emphasis on breadwinning by fathers (Thompson, 2005; Henwood, 2003). Dermott (2008) suggests

that for fathers who are financially comfortable, their breadwinning identity becomes less salient and that because it is difficult to disentangle masculine identity from father identity, which can conflate men's orientation to employment with their conceptualisations of being a 'good father' (Dermott, 2008). What the evidence does show is that conceptualisations of fatherhood have moved beyond the dichotomy of breadwinner/nurturer, with fathers navigating fatherhood by carrying out a cost-benefit analysis between the relative merits of working more for more income, status or satisfaction against the satisfaction gained from their involvement with their children (Palkowitz, 2002). These changes in lived ideology have yet to filter into social policy which still represents fatherhood primarily in terms of economic provision.

3.4 WHAT DO FATHERS DO?

3.4.1 FATHERS' ECONOMIC PROVISIONING

Research into fathering practices examines the extent to which fathers' behaviours are matching changes in attitudes. Findings from (Reynolds, Callendar, & Edwards, 2003) and (La Valle et al., 2002) found that key features of fathering were meeting financial needs of the family, meeting their emotional and security needs and spending time with them. The provider part of the role has been shown to be important, as evidence shows that fathers' earnings are positively related to the educational attainment of the child (Marsiglio et al., 2000). McLoyd (1990) found that poverty affects child development through its effect on the quality of parenting due to the impact of poverty on parents' levels of anxiety, depression and irritability (McLoyd, 1990). Fathers' behaviour in particular has been emphasised as more susceptible to the effects of poverty on their parenting due to the added salience of their breadwinning role (Elder, Conger, Foster, & Ardelt, 1992). Social capital theorists such as Coleman 1988 acknowledge the importance of financial and material provision for good child outcomes, but balance this with the importance of social capital in the form of family socialization and community links, with parents providing the support for early development within the family microsystem, but using their social networks (their mesosystem) to foster later development (Coleman, 1988).

3.4.2 FATHER INVOLVEMENT⁶

Jain et al (1996) identify two main types of father: progressive i.e. engaged in caregiving, play & teaching and traditional fathers who are disengaged or act as disciplinarians (Jain, Belsky, & Crinic, 1996). Part of the caring father identity entails spending more time with children, particularly when they are younger (under 6 years old) and being more involved with their care and decision making about their care. Father involvement literature has proposed three measures of involvement: engagement, accessibility and responsibility categories (Lamb et al., 1987). Direct interaction with the child is classified as engagement; being available to the child, but not directly interacting, is termed accessibility and taking part in decision making and management with regard to childcare is defined as responsibility. Other father involvement measures have expanded Lamb et al's (1987) father involvement concept to include other facets of fathering such as: economic provision, spousal support, care-giving, activities related to supporting and encouraging the academic and social achievements of the child and the extent to which the father provides a positive role model e.g. maintaining own health (Hawkins et al., 2002). The benefits of father involvement for children are outlined below, followed by empirical findings which indicate what factors influence the level of father involvement.

Father involvement has benefits for their children especially in the early years (Easterbrooks & Goldberg, 1984; Gregg & Washbrook, 2003) as early involvement predicts continuity in involvement (Flouri & Buchanan, 2003). Children with highly involved fathers have higher IQ's (Yogman, Kindlon, & Earls, 1995) and Shannon et al (2002) found that sensitive parenting predicted cognitive and linguistic achievements (Shannon, Tamis-LeMonda, London, & Cabrera, 2002). Characteristics of the father/child relationship such as warm and loving are more important for outcomes than the gender or masculine nature of the parent (Lamb, 1995). In a recent review of research into the longitudinal effects of father involvement on child outcomes, Sarkadi et al (2008) found that fathers' active and regular engagement with their children predicted reduced frequency of behavioural problems in boys and less

⁶ Institutional constraints on fathering have been considered in Chapter two

psychological problems in girls, enhanced cognitive development and, for children in lower SES families, it predicted less delinquent behaviour and reduced their experience of economic disadvantage (Sarkadi, 2008). Other earlier longitudinal studies report improved feelings of satisfaction in spousal relationships and self reported parenting skills from children of highly involved fathers (Burns & Dunlop, 1998; Franz et al., 1994) and fathers' sensitive play at 2 years predicted children's feelings of security at both 10 and 16 years (Grossmann et al., 2002). Welsh et al (2003) found that fathers' involvement, fathers' mental health and fathers' education all affected child well-being (Welsh, 2004). Recent findings from UK longitudinal survey data indicate that fathers with the following characteristics, when the child was 9-10 months old: depression, low educational qualifications and young age at birth of child, were associated with higher likelihood of their child having development problems by 3 years old (Dex, 2007).

Lamb et al (1987) proposed four key factors that influence the degree of father involvement: motivation, specific skills and confidence, social support and institutional practices, each of these issues will be considered in turn below. The motivation to be an involved father has been shown from US survey data to be influenced by child gender, earlier research indicates that fathers were more involved with sons (Harris, Furstenberg, & Marmer, 1998) than daughters, but more recent research finds no gender difference (Hofferth, 2003) suggesting that child gender has less influence for contemporary fathering. However, the biological status of the children appears to influence how involved the father is, although this is affected by context, for example co-resident stepfathers are more involved with their step children than their non-resident biological children (Blair, Wenk, & Hardesty, 1994). In addition, men's relationship quality with their partner positively affects father involvement (Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004) as well as partner expectation and peer expectation of involvement (Maurer & Pleck, 2006). Evidence on other family influences suggests that fathers' involvement is influenced by their own fathers' parenting style which is either modelled or compensated for depending on the quality of the experience (Hofferth, 2003).

Findings on the influence of gender role orientation on father involvement, based on Bem's sex role inventory are mixed, with some showing support for father

involvement being linked to greater androgyny (Sanderson, 2002) or feminine traits (G. Russell, 1983), whilst others find no association (Radin, 1994). This inconsistency in findings has been attributed to differing analytic strategies and the possible influence of mediating factors such as parenting skill (Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004). Further findings from identity theory research (Marsiglio, 1995; Rane, 2000) show that the roles that fathers adopt are reflected in their fathering behaviours. Nurturing fathers were found by (McBride, 1997) to be engaged in more interaction and to take more responsibility, whereas fathers' perceived investment in the worker role was negatively related to accessibility and responsibility during the work week. Thus, the salience that fathers give to the multiple roles in their lives dictates where their energies are directed. The match between role type and parental expectation is predictive of parenting satisfaction, so that a breadwinner role father matched with a spouse/partner happy in the domestic role will have high parenting satisfaction as will a father in a more nurturing role matched with a spouse/partner with gender equity expectations (McHale, Crouter, & Bartko, 1991). In general, traditional gender role beliefs about parenting (male breadwinner, female homemaker) appear to show no link with father involvement (Hofferth, 2003; Bartkowski, 2000) whilst egalitarian beliefs do (Blair et al., 1994; Ishii-Kuntz & Coltrane, 1992), although there is some suggestion that father involvement is more influenced by the spousal gender role beliefs than fathers' (Barnett, 1987). Research into the impact of identity salience, or the importance of the father role in comparison to other roles, shows that when fatherhood identity is specifically assessed (e.g. care giving as opposed to breadwinning), there is a positive association with care-giving father identity with father involvement (Maurer, 2001).

In relation to fathers' skills and self-confidence in parenting skills, research shows that perceived self-competence is associated with father involvement (Ehrenberg, Gearing-Small, Hunter, & Small, 2001) and that interventions designed to improve parenting skills increase confidence on skills and increase levels of engagement and accessibility and support of child learning (J. Fagan & Iglesias, 1999). Evidence showing the impact of mothers on fathers' involvement indicates constraints through 'maternal gatekeeping.' For example, mothers have been found to set rigid high standards for childcare and housework and are sometimes

ambivalent about fathers' involvement (Dienhart & Daly, 1997). However, mother and father involvement have also been shown to be positively correlated (Ishii-Kuntz & Coltrane, 1992), although it appears that it is maternal attitudes to father involvement rather than mother involvement per se that are negatively associated with father involvement (Maurer, 2001).

Specific measures of stress have been shown to affect levels of father involvement such as short-term daily stress (J. Fagan, 2000), but not generalised stress, nor stress about the parenting role (McBride, Schoppe, Moon-Ho, & Rane, 2004). Research that includes measures of psychological characteristics of fathers shows neuroticism negatively predicts levels of father involvement (Woodworth, Belsky, & Collins, 1996), which matches the findings on short – term stress and reduced father involvement. An important observational measure of father involvement is time spent on childcare tasks, these findings are considered below.

3.4.3 TIME USE⁷

From time use studies, consistent trends are that, in relative terms, mothers spend more time than fathers in childcare tasks, but that absolute fathers' time has increased over the years (Lamb, Pleck, & Levine, 1985). Absolute increases in fathers' time with children have also been shown across developed nations (Gershuny, 2001), however it is the pace and degree of change which has been of recent interest (Daly, 2001b; G. Russell, 2001) as the pace of change has been slow. Gershuny (2004) suggests that this is due to a process of lagged adaptation in which fathers will respond to women's increased participation in the labour market albeit slowly over a number of generations (Gershuny, Godwin, & Jones, 1994). This thesis has been borne out to some extent in longitudinal studies showing fathers' increase in childcare time with increases in mothers' work time (Ferri & Smith, 2003), however those increases are slowing down, suggesting they are reaching a plateau (Gershuny, 2006). Research examining policy regimes indicates that, whilst there are weak links between the private world of domestic labour and work policy (Gershuny & Sullivan, 2003), there are increases in fathers' participation in childcare for young infants with increases in paternal leaves which both financially compensate fathers for taking

⁷ Actual minutes shown are not consistent across surveys as different time use surveys use different definitions of childcare. Percentages are used where possible to allow comparisons.

parental leave and which have a form of compulsion (Singley, 2005; O'Brien, 2008; Sullivan, 2009). In parental leave policy terms the UK has been typified as a regime which provides 'short/minimalist father – care leave with low/no income replacement' (O' Brien, 2009) compared to Nordic countries ('extended father-care leave with high income replacement). When fathers' engagement is compared between Norway and the UK, Norwegian fathers spend 28 minutes more per day in childcare than UK fathers, 38 per cent more (O. Sullivan et al., 2009).

In dual earner families, it has been found that fathers' combined engagement and accessibility time has increased more than for fathers in single earner families (Pleck, 2004; Sandberg, 2001). Ferri & Smith (2003) in their comparison of different generational cohorts (1958 and 1970) from the British Birth Cohort studies found that for both cohorts, fathers' participation rose from 30 per cent to 59 per cent for single earner families and from 33 per cent to 61 per cent in dual earner families (Ferri & Smith, 2003). This increase, however, appears to be more due to the decrease in mothers' child time as a result of employment, thus making the fathers' relative contribution seem higher (Lamb, 1995). Nonetheless, there appears to be a consistent trend showing that fathers in dual earner families are more involved in childcare (Crouter, Perry-Jenkins, Huston, & McHale, 1987) probably due to the reduction in time that the mother has available for childcare when she is also in employment. However, other scholars have reported that fathers in dual earner families play with their children less than fathers in single earner households (Pedersen, Anderson, & Cain, 1980).

In terms of historical trends in fathers' time, from 1961 to 1999 UK fathers increased their child care time per day for children under 5 years from 15 minutes to 2 hours, an 800 per cent increase (Fisher, McCulloch, & Gershuny, 1999). More recent analysis of the Multinational Time Use Survey and Harmonized European Time Use Study shows an increase of 39 per cent in fathers' childcare time per day from 1990 to 2000 (Sullivan et al., 2009). This analysis also shows that fathers spend most time in childcare for very young infants under the age of three years. Data on fathers' relative time spent in childcare compared to mothers' varies, but always shows more time spent on childcare than fathers. Smith (2007) in a comparative EU study using 1996 data from the European Community Household Panel estimated that UK fathers spend

about 21 percent of mothers' time in childcare tasks. Recent UK figures in 2005 show that fathers spend half the time of mothers on caring for children, 15 minutes per day for fathers compared to 32 minutes per day for mothers (Gershuny, 2006). This difference is similar when housework is included, particularly with very young children under 4 years. Fathers in these circumstances do 191 minutes per day of domestic tasks compared to 376 minutes per day for mothers⁸. Bianchi (2000) shows parallel increases for US fathers from 1965 – 1998 with fathers increasing their primary childcare time from 25 per cent to 56 per cent (Bianchi, 2000). When breaking down the types of childcare activities the fathers are involved in, latest figures show that, contrary to the image portrayed by previous research of fathers as the more playful parent, in absolute terms, fathers do more physical care taking activities 59 per cent than interactive activities with their children (O. Sullivan et al., 2009).

Although increased time with children is being used as father involvement, Lamb (1995) cautions against assuming that more time that fathers spend with children necessarily equates to or correlates with quality parenting. Studies into families who have high levels of father involvement have shown that favourable child outcomes include increased cognitive competence, empathy, less sex-stereotyped beliefs and more internal locus of control (Lamb et al., 1985). Lamb (1995) suggests that such outcomes are likely to be the result of two parent involvement rather than father involvement per se, and that the ability of two parents to achieve both career and family goals is likely to lead to them feeling more fulfilled and happier in their marriage and family life (Lamb, 1995). Other evidence suggesting support for this view has indicated that children in families where fathers are forced into spending more time with the family from unemployment do not show similar favourable outcomes (Johnson & Abramovitch, 1988). This could also be due to differences in parenting style, an issue considered next.

3.4.4 PARENTING STYLE

In terms of how time with children is spent, mothers and fathers have different styles of interaction. Fathers are more likely to engage in physical and unpredictable play rather than caretaking (Teti, Bond, & Gibbs, 1988). However, in more recent

⁸ Note that childcare often takes place alongside housework and/or leisure activity and thus can be under reported

studies, evidence suggests that this distinction between different interaction styles between mothers and fathers is reducing. Sayer, Bianchi and Robinson (2004) found that the ratio of men's time spent playing with their children in relation to mothers' time has reduced from 4.9 in 1965 to 1.9 in 1998 (Sayer, Bianchi, & Robinson, 2004). In addition, younger men, committed to equal parenting, have been found to be more likely to be sensitive in their play styles (NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 2000). Shannon et al (2002) explored fathering styles and found that sensitive fathering i.e. responding to, talking to, scaffolding, teaching and encouraging their children to learn predicts children's cognitive and linguistic achievements, in the same way as sensitive mothering does (Shannon et al., 2002).

3.5 SUMMARY

Contemporary fathers aspire to be more involved with their children and demographic circumstances of increased numbers of dual earner families have necessitated greater involvement. Fathers' aspiration has been realised to the extent that their time involvement in childcare has increased and their relationships have been described as more emotionally close. Employment and legal cultural norms seem to be lagging behind fathers' aspirations for change and although there have been some changes to adopt paternal and parental leave, these still fall short of provision in other European countries. Fathers are still relatively invisible within the child custody legislation following separation and assumptions at the workplace are that mothers take on the primary responsibility for children. Research into fatherhood has been guided by the theoretical concerns about absent fathers in terms of the impact of non-resident fathers and working fathers on children's welfare.

Other key theoretical issues have included the examination of the breadwinning/nurturing father dichotomy, even though in reality fathers can be both breadwinners and nurturing fathers, the issue has been to examine whether the centrality of breadwinning for fathers has changed to that of nurturing and how that evidences itself in fathers' behaviour. Factors influencing fathers' involvement are multi-faceted and fall under the headings of motivation, specific skills and confidence, social support and institutional practices, but fathers' involvement with family has been shown to improve children's outcomes in education, cognition and behaviour in

addition to showing psychological benefits to fathers themselves. The next chapter examines the work-family interface for fathers particularly in the context of macro and microsystem impacts on the management of role identity.

4 THE WORK-FAMILY INTERFACE

4.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This chapter considers the implications of role (Merton, 1957) and boundary theory (Clark, 2000; Ashforth, 2000) for work-family research. Role theory literature in work and family issues is imbued with gender presumptions and is also influenced by symbolic interactionism, in which the cultural meaning of actions and objects influence personal behaviour (Stryker, 1981). The inconsistency in work-family evidence in findings for gender differences in the experience of work-family conflict as a result of conflating gender and parenthood is also examined in this chapter. In addition, the evidence for both psychological (bio) and social structural (meso and macro) influences on work and family life is examined after summaries of key theoretical models. The chapter starts with an historic outline of the development of work-family research, particularly as it applies to fathers.

4.2 HISTORIC OUTLINE

Work and family domains have not always been segregated. Before industrialisation, work was organised around the family as the unit of production involving all family members. During the industrial revolution, work and family became segmented into private and public domains along gender lines, with women associated with the private domain (home and family) and men with the public domain (work and politics) (Kerber, 1988), or separated microsystems in line with Bronfenbrenner's bioecological model. Whilst this separation may have been the cultural ideal of the time, it primarily reflected the middle classes, as working class women and children were used as cheap labour for industry (McKendrick, 1974). The functional separation of work and family domains, together with the gender designation, was explained in sociological terms by Parsons & Bales (1955) who differentiated gender roles based on the differing characteristics of each biological sex, whereby women bore children, so were therefore more suited to undertaking childcare (Parsons & Bales, 1955). This functionalist view of family structure has been

an influential one and has had repercussions for contemporary workplace culture, family welfare and individual equity. The traditional male breadwinner/female carer model became an inadequate economic model for both business and family, as, during the latter half of the twentieth century, business developed a need for a more flexible workforce. In addition, increasing numbers of women needed to find work to supplement family income (Hood, 1986), or wanted to pursue a career in the same way as men.

The burgeoning feminist movement during the 1960's and 70's provided the political impetus for structural changes within the legal and state welfare systems which had previously constrained women's participation in employment (Sainsbury, 1994). In addition, feminist literature, such as Mainardi's 'The politics of housework' (1971), initiated debate about the high proportion of housework and childcare that women undertook in comparison to men (Mainardi, 1971). These claims were substantiated by time use studies which showed that not only did men do less housework and childcare than women (1.6 hours per day compared to 8.1 hours per day respectively), but even when men had wives who went to work, their input did not increase, although their wives input reduced (Walker & Woods, 1976). This time discrepancy over unpaid household work was an important reason for the examination of, and concern about, role overload for employed mothers. In the 1970's and 1980's, policy concerns arose over the impact of increasing numbers of dual earner families on child well-being (Brannen, 1998). As the increase was associated with more women at work and mothers' taking shorter maternity leave and the continued normative expectations of women to be raising children, the policy concern emphasised the impact on children of mother absence. There has been a particular focus on the impact on young children's well being of mother absence and mother stress (Crouter, 2006). More recent public apprehension about child welfare now includes fathers, considering the potential impact of their prolonged absence from home life and work related stress (Seward, 2006; Flouri, 2004). Such concerns led to pressure on employers to provide family-friendly policies and procedures that would enable women to manage work and family more easily by using flexible working practices (Riley, Metcalf, & Forth, 2007). There has been a gradual introduction of more flexible working options to facilitate parents and employers in

managing work and family issues, but also to suit employers' needs within a growing global market. However, the continued focus on women as the parent to provide family care has exacerbated the potential for sex discrimination, particularly in recruitment and for women returning from maternity leave, often to lower paid jobs (Neuberger, Joshi, & Dex, 2009).

With an aging population in the UK (Office for National Statistics, 2009), the caring responsibilities of adults for their older parents has also become an issue for managing the work-family interface. Responsibility for eldercare has also tended to fall on women's shoulders, making employees who are both caring for their own children and their parents known as the 'sandwich' generation (Pierret, 2006). Whilst this is an important issue for the work-family interface, this issue is not addressed in this thesis for pragmatic reasons. It was felt that keeping a focus on fathers, a group who have not been considered in detail as much was important and also the need to manage the research time available precluded including another topic.

The majority of work-family research to date has been, and continues to be, focused on the work-family interface, particularly from mothers' perspectives (Byron, 2005; Eby, 2005). The work-family emphasis has primarily been a response to public and policy concerns over family life, mainly about child well-being, behaviour and attainment. There have been additional concerns about the well-being of the employee (Halpern, 2005), particularly as these issues affect ill-health absence and employee turnover (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Consequently, much research has focused on the negative aspects of the impact of paid work on family life. Subsequently, there has been recognition that family issues can also affect paid work, again from a negative aspect. From the 1990's, research emerged on positive aspects of the mutual impacts at the work-family boundary showing how work aspects can enhance family life and vice versa (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

The term 'work-life balance' has entered common parlance and engendered much public and private debate. In many ways it is a term that has transcended the term work-family conflict, partly to gender neutralise the work-family divide, partly to provide a more inclusive term to value life outside of work more generally in addition to caring responsibilities but also to enable more positive interpretations of the work-

life interface. Under the banner of 'work-life balance', work-family concerns have become more business focused as the need to attract a more diverse workforce has become important in response to an aging workforce. As the UK employment market is likely to become more restricted due to an aging population, recruitment, retention and absenteeism costs will be key areas affecting business economic viability (Department for Trade and Industry, 2005 ; Office for National Statistics, 2009). It is likely that employers will need to use work-life balance within their package of workplace benefits to attract the best recruits.

Whilst the intent of the 'work-life balance' rebranding was well-intentioned, in practice employment law and practice have since still focused on family caring responsibilities. Although father involvement is being encouraged through the first time provision of paternity leave and access to parental leave, the organisational culture of flexible working remains most associated with and used by mothers, as fathers have believed that working flexibly; particularly those options that reduced income, were detrimental to their career (Hogarth, Hasluck, Pierre, Winterbotham, & Vivian, 2001). Fathers' beliefs are justified when evidence of mothers' employment life course trajectories show that mothers who do not work flexibly fare better economically and in terms of employment status (Connolly, 2008; Neuberger, 2009). Whilst flexible working practices have been tracked to assess changes in the gender division at work, household time use studies have been tracking levels of participation in housework and childcare (Gershuny, 2001) to assess the gender division of labour in the family realm (Smith, 2004). As seen in more detail in chapter two, whilst fathers' participation in both housework and childcare has increased over the last 40 years, in comparison to mothers it is still only 50 per cent of mothers' household unpaid time input⁹ (Fisher, 2007).

In the private realm, working mothers' anxieties have revolved around the challenge of managing household chores and childcare in addition to paid employment, hence the emergence of the term 'work-family conflict' where paid work concerns or time spent at work begin to affect family life. Fathers are still suffering from a legacy of being associated with undertaking the 'provider role' as a parent (Warren, 2007), despite changes in fathers' aspirations to be more involved in

⁹ US figures 1965 - 2003

parenting (Warin et al., 1999). Consequently, fathers' experience of work-family life has been under less scrutiny, and, when considered, it has been more often via access through the mother (Mitchell, 2007). However, as seen in the media and recent policy interest, the topic of fathers has more recently been highlighted in work-family issues (Smith, 2007; O'Brien, 2004).

Empirical work in the United States shows an increase in the perception of work-family conflict for parents during the twenty years from 1977 – 1997 (Winslow, 2005). In a more recent analysis, Nomaguchi (2009) found that over the same time period it is fathers in dual earner families who have experienced the most increase in the perception of work-family conflict, suggesting that fathers' with aspirations to be more involved in family life (Townsend, 2002) are now facing similar dilemmas thus far faced by mothers (Winslow, 2005). Nomaguchi (2009) provides an alternative explanation for fathers' increased levels of work-family conflict, suggesting that if total time allocation across activities is taken into account, because of the longer paid work hours of fathers in addition to their household/family work hours, this may be the reason for fathers' higher work-family conflict. However, this explanation was discounted in the findings of his study, which showed that despite an increase in paid work hours over twenty years, mothers showed decreased work-family conflict (Nomaguchi, 2009). An alternative explanation could be that women have a greater tolerance for higher status paid work whilst men, have less tolerance for lower status unpaid work, particularly housework.

4.3 ROLE THEORY

Role theory provides the theoretical context for work-family conceptual models and also makes an important contribution to understanding gender role expectations and behaviours. Role theory primarily focuses on the social norms and expectations attributed to particular roles within the social structure. Merton (1957) proposed that role theory provided an explanation for how people learn about socially ascribed roles, develop internal schemas about role characteristics and form expectations about behaviours associated with the role (Merton, 1957). For example, role attributes contribute to the development of identity and prescribe how individuals should behave in a role. Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) provided an

explanation of why individuals adopt social identities, showing that social roles provide meaning and purpose to individuals' lives. The emphasis of role theory is the consideration of the impact of the 'me' identity from Mead (1934), that is, how we interpret how others view us (Mead, 1934). Giddens's (1991) view of the reflexive self suggests that individuals no longer have clear, traditional roles to rely upon for their social identity, but have to choose from a number of ambiguous and changing roles, indicating that not only are roles changing but there is also more choice available. Although the emphasis of role theory is on the social influences on identity, it also incorporates the interactive nature of social identity construction. The social expectations of any given role place demands upon the person occupying a role, particularly from friends, family and work colleagues which has implications for managing multiple roles. The implications of the tenets of role theory are that role conflict occurs when tension occurs due to conflicting role pressures and that this is more likely to happen for individuals holding incompatible multiple roles.

Thoits (1991) proposed that role identities are important for the cognitive appraisal of stress because some roles are more important and relevant to individuals than others, thus providing a way for different individuals to react distinctively to similar stressors. As roles are social constructions, such a hierarchy of roles is likely to be influenced by normative expectations reflecting their importance for society (Thoits, 1991). Therefore, some roles will have greater social relevance to our identities than others. For example, the mother role is considered very important for women and the paid worker role very important for men (Thompson, 1989). Although social roles pre-exist individuals and are often portrayed and reified as external separate entities (Jenkins, 2008, p. 37), individuals are nonetheless constantly contributing to role definitions through their relationships with other role relevant individuals, such as family, friends and work colleagues. Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, (1964) suggest that our roles are dynamic and entail daily construction and negotiation. It is through these interpersonal processes that individuals gradually change the prescriptions of roles, as can be seen in the emergence of the new nurturing father role (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964).

Thoits' (1991) reasoning suggests that the more roles adopted by an individual, the greater the likelihood for conflict between those roles, requiring that we organise

our social identities within a hierarchy of personal meaningfulness. Therefore, experiences in highly salient roles will have more impact on our psychological well-being than experiences in less salient roles. Evidence has shown that this 'role salience' directs where our emotional time and energy is spent (Stryker & Serpe, 1982). A study by Simon (1992) into the relative role salience of parents found that both fathers and mothers who had high parental role salience suffered more psychological distress in the face of parental role strain (Simon, 1992). Thus, fathers' differential work-family role salience is likely to influence their experience of work-family stressors.

Thoits' (1991) thesis also assumes time and energy scarcity, assuming that there are finite amounts, which have to be apportioned according to individual priorities (Goode, 1960). It follows from this position that if priorities are clearly demarcated and time and energy is appropriately allocated then individuals will suffer low work-family conflict. For example, under the traditional family model of breadwinner father and homemaker mother, work was the father's priority and where he spent most time and energy whereas family was the mother's priority. Provided that these lines of demarcation were adhered to there would be minimum conflict. It could be argued that it was the emergence of dual earner families that had upset these clear demarcations and created more potential for conflict, particularly for mothers, as, by engaging in paid work in addition to their partner, they were reducing the time to care for the family and also setting up a psychological conflict between the traditional normative priority of family and a 'new' priority of work. Of course, for many families the dual earner status had been a reality for some time, particularly for lower income families who had less choice about whether to work or not (Ferree, 1987; Rosen, 1987). Nonetheless, by failing to meet normative expectations of a role, individuals have been found to experience a loss in self-esteem (Hoelter, 1983).

The themes of time scarcity and equal priority conflicts are widespread in the work-family literature. It is when there is not enough time and energy for everything individuals want to do that conflict occurs and emerges as psychological strain. According to the scarcity hypothesis, the restructuring of family caring to equalise both parents' input into family household chores and childcare, should balance the time equation, as the time lost from mothers doing family caring and household

maintenance would be made up from fathers taking on the same. However, it is known from time survey statistics (see Chapter 3), that this has not occurred (Gershuny, 2001) with mothers still undertaking proportionally more of the household chores and childcare tasks than fathers. Nonetheless, fathers have increased their contribution to household chores and to childcare since the 1960's.

The dilemma facing many dual earner families is that the underlying economic system rewards paid work over unpaid work and positions caring to be within the private realm, organised within the family unit (Perry-Jenkins, 1994). Therefore, it is understandable that fathers are reluctant to relinquish paid work status and be relegated to a societal perception of second class and invisible status (Daniels, 1987) and that many mothers are keen to take on paid work to feel valued. This is not to say that parenthood status per se is devalued. There has been much theoretical work on the meaning of parenthood in times of modernity where parenthood is used as part of an individual's 'life project' to the extent that 'having and caring for a child can ...become the very core of one's *private* existence' (added emphasis) (Beck-Gernsheim, 1996, p. 107). Nonetheless, when family, the private domain, has competing demands for time against paid work, the public domain, family more often takes second place (Crittenden, 2001).

In practical terms, family emergencies are not ignored in the workplace and parents will be allowed time off work to deal with them, but on a day to day basis, family caring tasks such as the school pick up, or attending school events, have been shown to have a long term eroding impact on career prospects (Halrynjo, 2009). Therefore, according to Thoits' (1991) thesis, fathers or mothers who prioritise family are likely to experience work-family conflict regularly, *unless* fathers and mothers have congruent gender role ideologies. Gender role ideology provides useful guidance for individuals trying to balance work and family as it provides the normative characteristics for gender roles. With gender roles in flux, individuals have at least two prevailing ideologies to choose from: the traditional version, in which men are breadwinners and women are home makers and the gender equity model, where men and women are seen as having equal opportunity at work with an equitable division of labour in the home (Wall, 2007). Evidence indicates that gender role ideology strongly influences behaviour, for example Greenstein (1996) showed that gender role

ideology influenced the amount of time that both men and women spent on unpaid work (Greenstein, 1996). In addition, Deutsch (2001) has shown that amongst parents sharing gender equity values, traditional role values are ignored in the negotiation of household labour division and childcare (Deutsch, 2001). There is also some empirical evidence for gender equity attitudes to influence levels of work-family conflict e.g. (Allard, 2007) who found that fathers with pro self-reported gender equity behaviour suffered less work-family conflict.

Challenging the time/energy scarcity hypothesis of Thoits (1991), Marks (1977) claims that individuals are able to handle multiple roles without using a meaning hierarchy (Marks, 1977). He suggests that individuals can assign equal value to a number of roles and asserts that it is the degree of engagement in each role that matters in terms of psychological strain, rather than the amount of time spent in each role. For example, although a father may work long hours, when he returns home to the family he can be tuned into and attentive to family members and activities and likewise to work when he returns there. Marks (1977) describes such a state as 'role balance' in that no one role is valued higher than the other and therefore they cannot hinder each other because, whilst engaged in each role, individuals are not preoccupied with another favoured role. Marks (1977) argues that role balanced individuals suffer low work-family conflict. Evidence does indicate that parents with high value scores for both work and family suffer less work-family conflict (Marks, 2001) and in a qualitative study of co-resident professional fathers, Dermott (2005) found that these fathers valued the quality of time they had with their family more than quantity of time (Dermott, 2005) suggesting that work intensive fathers view task engagement as more important than quantity of time. However, this study did not account for differences in work-family value orientations nor occupation and therefore may only reflect the construction of fatherhood from professional work focused fathers.

The positive emphasis of role balance theory has influenced the development of 'enrichment' models of work and family life which investigate how work has a positive effect on family and vice versa. Following Seiber's (1974) proposition that engagement in multiple roles provides a buffer against strain, enrichment models suggest that positive moods, energy and skill transfer provide benefits for each

domain (Seiber, 1974). Rothbard (2001) suggests that it is the positive emotion experienced on one role that leads to engagement in another and proposes several mechanisms that explain why this may be the case (Rothbard, 2001). She notes that positive emotions are associated with increased acts of helping and suggests that positive emotion is likely to improve the ability of individuals to consider another's perspective, making them more empathetic (Isen & Baron, 1991). Furthermore, Rothbard (2001) suggests that it is the outward focused attention that positive emotion promotes that also helps with engagement as individuals will be more psychologically available to others needs (M. S. Clark & Isen, 1982; Wood, Saltzberg, & Goldsamt, 1990). She contrasts the enrichment model with the role conflict model which proposes that the strain produced by role overload makes individuals preoccupied and psychologically unavailable (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1987). Her study incorporated both elements of conflict and enrichment in recognition that both processes are experienced during individual's lives, albeit at differing times and for different reasons. A related but slightly distinct model of positive work-family interaction is that of work-family facilitation (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). The facilitation perspective emphasises how individual characteristics, family and work resources, boundary permeability and demand characteristics (societal constraints) can benefit both work and family domains.

Although work-family enrichment/facilitation models appear on the face of things to be an inverse of work-family conflict theoretical constructs, empirically they have been found to be orthogonal, meaning that work-family facilitation is a distinct construct to work-family conflict. Therefore, if an individual has a high level of conflict it does not mean that they then have a low level of work-family facilitation (Wayne, 2004 #780; Grzywacz, 2000). It also means that each construct is likely to have different antecedents and outcomes. Although a distinct construct, the same process principle of spillover seems to apply to enrichment models particularly as applied to mood, resources and energy.

4.4 THEORY, GENDER, PARENTHOOD AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

The focus of research on the individual level of analysis stems from historic interest in mothers' experience of work and family. However, more work-family

research is moving towards assessing the family as a unit, considering crossover stress effects from partner to partner (Westman, 2006). The risk in an approach which concentrates on the individual is an implicit assumption that the individual is solely responsible for the existence of work-family balance, which does not account for organisational constraints. In addition, much empirical work has focused on mothers' experience of work-family life, with fathers less frequently considered from their perspective. In work-family research the distinction between gender differences and differences in work-family experiences on the basis of parenthood is often not made. Gender differences are predicated upon women's experience of motherhood and their attendant negative consequences for career, but with many more childless individuals from those choosing later parenthood and increasing numbers choosing not to have children (Coleman, 1996), it is essential for clarity that debate about gender differences are made discrete from differences as a result of parenthood.

Work-family conceptualisation and empirical research has been historically informed by a number of perspectives, all of which position gender in different paradigms. One of the first theoretical frameworks was the Parsonian functionalist perspective which justifies the separate domains of work and family along gender lines. Women are justified as homemakers and men as paid workers based on biological function. Women are argued to be biologically suited to caregiving through giving birth and breast feeding leaving men's role to provision for the family (Parsons & Bales, 1955). The feminist perspective positioned gender from a power perspective which argued that women were exploited in a social system which was patriarchal and designed to maintain power and status for men (Mainardi, 1971). A third view, described by Pleck (1977), recognises the historic changes that have occurred in work and family life and the overload implications that unfair distributions of paid and family work currently have for women. However, he suggests that believing that change can occur rather than take a determinist position is a more constructive approach for designing research in the work-family area (Pleck, 1977). Nonetheless, Gerson (2004) argues that it is still important to consider gender issues in the work-family field so that stereotypes can be challenged, assumptions of homogeneity amongst male or female groups are tested and social context can be accounted for so that the importance of social construction of gender roles is not lost (Gerson, 2004).

There are three issues of importance of gender roles within work and family domains. Firstly, the degree to which an individual identifies with a role (Thoits 1991) is important as there is a dialectic tension between traditional gendered roles and more recent gender equity roles. This tension has two implications for managing work and family life. Firstly from a functionalist perspective, the hegemonic employment culture is still traditional as it favours 'presenteeism' as a marker of organisational commitment (Simpson, 1998). A culture of presenteeism is challenging for individuals committed to performing gender equity roles trying to manage work and family. Subscribing to gender equity roles is not only fair, but also more time efficient for the dual earner family structure. Another implication of the role tension is from the symbolic interactionist perspective in that for individuals who value family highly and/or work and family equally, any difficulty in matching their value system in practice is likely to create more work-family conflict.

A second issue of importance of gender roles within work and family domains is that gender roles are more socially inflexible than other role types. It is therefore more difficult for an individual to change another's expectations of the role attributes for men or women. A third implication of gender roles on work and family is the disparity between the rate of gender role transition and employment culture transition. Consequently, mothers and fathers face greater demands from their work and family domains due to the ongoing changes in expectations for gendered activities and in the way work is changing away from specialisation and rigid work patterns to a more flexible and transferable skills culture. Changing role expectations across work and family domains is particularly challenging for fathers. Whilst there are still many issues for working mothers, their presence in the workplace has been accepted. However, for fathers identifying more with nurturing father's role than that of the provider father (Lamb, 2004; Pleck & Pleck, 1997), the societal view on father's roles remains predominantly that of 'father as breadwinner'. Consequently, societal expectations placed upon 'caring' fathers will be contrary to their own expectations, and thus have more potential to induce work-family conflict. For example, this scenario is most likely to occur in the work domain, as the expectations of employers and colleagues are likely to be more aligned to societal expectations of father as breadwinner than that of a father's partner and children (Hammer, Saksvik, Nytro,

Torvatn, & Bayazit, 2004). These role dilemmas have the potential to produce cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) where fathers' beliefs and attitudes about being a 'good father' and a 'good worker' may not match his behaviour, which is often reported to be constrained by the way work is organised (Warin et al., 1999). Traditional father role expectations across organisation and individual have enjoyed, to date, a synonymy between expectations for their employee role and traditional role as father the 'breadwinner', compared to modern day changing expectations between the 'involved' father role and employee role. As a consequence, fathers could now face similar conflicts between work and family as mothers have previously confronted and still face.

As outlined earlier in this chapter, the issue of work-family conflict originated in the concern over the trend of more women entering the workforce. This concern was twofold and emanated from two value perspectives: that of a traditional value perspective which asserts that there is a functional division of labour along the lines of gender (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Parsons & Bales, 1955; Scanzoni, 1970) and that of an exploitation perspective, proponents of which believe that women were being exploited by men to maintain power (Mainardi, 1971; Polatnick, 1973-1974). Concerns expressed by the traditional view were that of the effect of mother absence on children, whilst concerns expressed by the exploitation view were that of the impact of work overload on mothers. Thus, regardless of the underlying value system, the impetus for research came from a concern about *mothers'* activities in relation to work and family. Consequently, much of the early research focused on mothers' concerns. However, over the last thirty years samples have become more mixed, recognising that everybody has a stake in work and life. Unfortunately, this has had the unintended effect of confusing findings as they pertain to parents, as researchers have often conflated gender with parenthood by using mixed parent/non-parent samples without distinguishing between the two, (Byron, 2005) thus losing precision for findings, particularly as they affect fathers.

Findings on the predictors and consequences of work-family conflict for gender are therefore not consistent across the work-family literature. Where gender is discussed, it is often based on underlying assumptions about women being parents and being more likely to experience overload from having the dual responsibility for

family in addition to paid work. Gender is important for the study of work-family, but primarily in relation to parenthood because of the added demands from children. Gender distinctions for work-family conflict are also important in relation to partner status because of the unequal division of household labour. The inconsistency in gender differences findings in the experience of work-family conflict may reflect differences across studies in sample composition as gender is often conflated with parenthood (Byron, 2005), reflecting the stereotypical assumption, even amongst researchers that parenthood equates to motherhood. The impact of motherhood upon women's career and employment trajectories has been so stark in the last 30 years that any study incorporating both mothers and non-mothers does not mask this effect. However, differences in employment experiences are less obvious for fathers compared to non-fathers, but nonetheless do exist, as comparisons of working hours for fathers and non-fathers have shown (e.g. O'Brien & Shemilt 2003). Consequently, studies that do not differentiate between parents and non-parents risk missing important distinctions between fathers and non-fathers in their experience of work and family. Bearing this in mind, a review of pertinent findings for gender and work-family conflict is outlined below, with final focus on fatherhood findings.

4.5 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

The study of the work-family interface has emerged over the last 30 years, primarily across the disciplines of psychology and sociology. Given the historic emergence of studying the work and family interface from a negative perspective, earlier research in this area has focused on exploring the nature of the phenomenon of work-family *conflict*, its antecedents and its consequences. More recent research has considered how work and family domains complement one another e.g. (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000) and interact. In studies of crossover, how the negative and positive aspects of each domain mutually affect dyadic relations within the family have been examined (Westman, 2006). As reviewed above, there is a substantial contribution from role theory in this field investigating how role demands from one role domain can interfere with role demands of another. Other theoretical work that has examined the work-family interface or linking mechanisms between work and family has proposed boundary theory. The study of the interface of work and family

has encompassed boundary theory after (Ashforth, 2000) and Border theory after (Clark, 2000). Although distinct, each theory addresses strategies of segmentation and integration of individual activity within each domain. For example, under the segmentation model of work and life, Dubin (1973) proposes that the two domains of work and family are separate and do not affect each other stemming from traditional views of the gendered nature of work and family (Dubin, 1973).

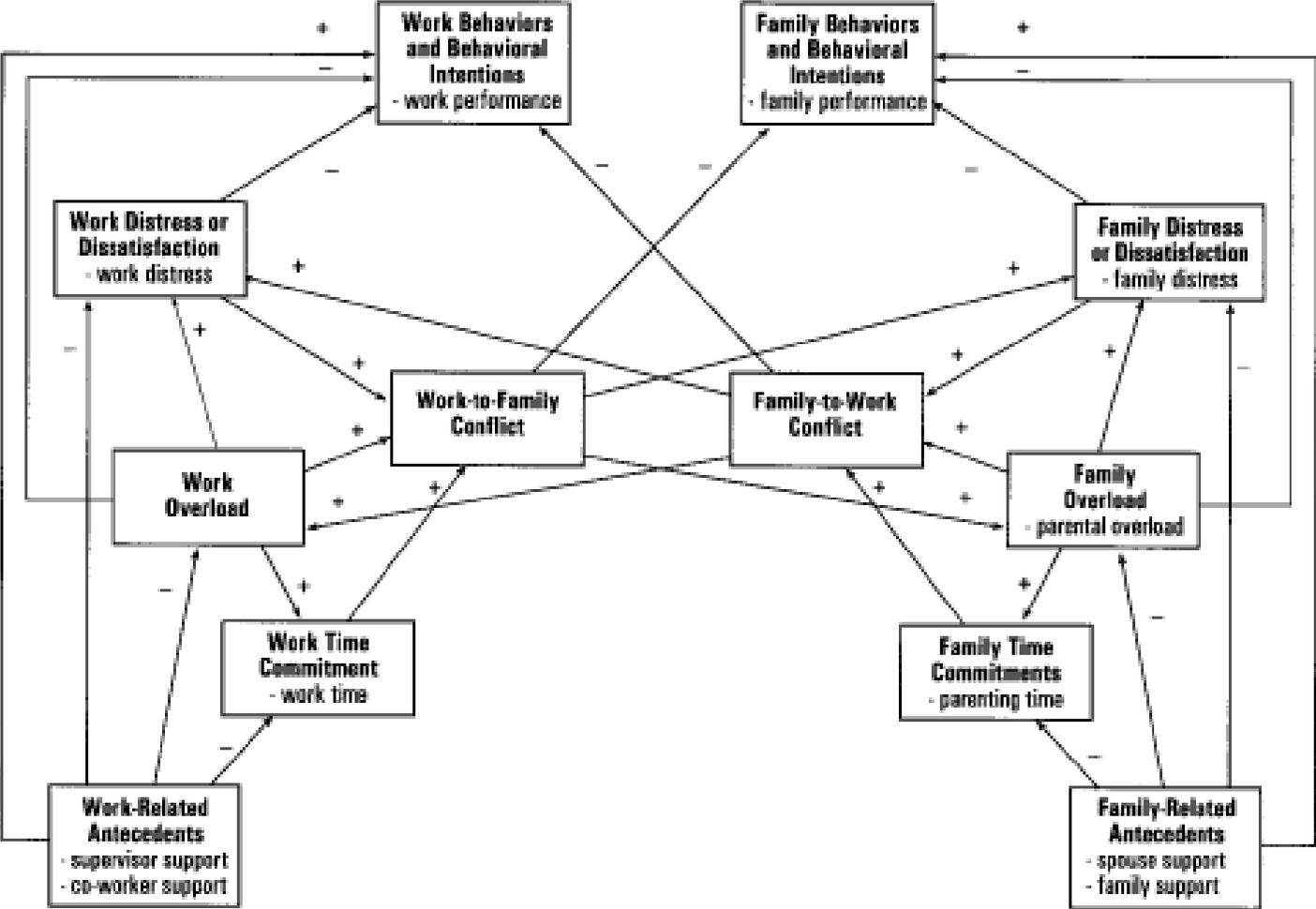
More recent formulations challenge this separation, given the social changes occurring in both work and family domains, and suggest that segmentation refers more to the active strategies that individuals pursue in order to maintain a boundary between the two domains to minimise any crossover between them (Eckenrode & Gore, 1990; Lambert, 1990). Therefore, individuals using a segmented approach to managing their work and family life will have clearly defined times when they are at work and when they are with their family and will use strategies such as delineating the two domains by wearing different clothes and/or exhibiting different behaviours and making explicit distinctions between the role of employee and father/parent. Psychologically, the segmentation model may prove problematic for those working in highly intensive occupations; because, in part, such occupations (e.g. managers, professionals) rely heavily upon employees being spatially and temporally flexible in the enactment of paid work, particularly now that the use of email and internet is ubiquitous in both work and family domains.

Conversely, strategies of integration blend work and family domains so that domains are often inseparable, for instance, in family run businesses such as farms or vocations such as clergy. Ashforth et al (2000) suggests that these strategies of integration exist along a continuum from separation to pure integration and focuses on the transitions that people make between two domains in terms of permeability, flexibility and contrast (Ashforth, 2000). Empirically, the degree to which different boundaries are permeable has been examined and it has been found that work and family boundaries are asymmetrically permeable in that family boundaries are more permeable than work boundaries (Eagle, 1997). Uneven permeability has sometimes been found to be the case across gender, with men showing more work interfering with family and women more family interfering with work (Duxbury, 1994; Frone, 1992), suggesting that the current cultural ideological position is that work is viewed

as more important than family in line with gender stereotypes where women are associated with family and men with paid work (Pleck, 1985). The concept of boundary flexibility reflects the degree to which a role can be enacted in different contexts at different times, for example, home working would provide the potential to be flexible across work and family boundaries. Role contrast reflects how different domain roles are from each other in terms of their attributes, such as being a judge, with the need to be objective and impassive, contrasting with that of parent, whose attributes are that of care and being emotionally expressive. Under boundary theory, individuals manage their boundaries across these three dimensions on a continuum from high segmentation (high contrast, inflexible and impermeable) to high integration (low contrast, flexible and permeable) (Ashforth, 2000).

Spillover models of work and family (Crouter, 1984) have been most commonly researched and highlight the permeability of the two domains. Spillover occurs when the moods induced by individuals suffering from a preoccupation with issues from paid work spill over to the family. Small (1990) proposed three forms of spillover: psychological in the form of mood, time based in the form of absence and resource based in the form of energy and skills. Spillover can be both positive and negative, although it is the negative consequences of spillover that have attracted most research attention. Quantitative empirical research has tended to base its hypotheses upon the principles of spillover theory and elements of boundary theory in the form of Frone et al's (1997) integrative work family conflict model shown in Figure 2 below. This model shows theorized links between variables which to provide a model which could be tested using structural equation modelling.

FIGURE 2 WORK-FAMILY MODEL PROPOSED BY FRONE ET AL (1997)



(Frone, 1997, p147)

Frone et al's (1997) work-family model (Figure 2) incorporated some key elements of theory found to date in the work-family field: the bi-directional nature of work-family interaction; the potential for asymmetric influence of one domain on another; and the domain relevant nature of antecedents and consequences. This model was validated through the use of structural equation modeling. Work related predictors of work-family conflict, such as time at work, tend to influence the direction of work interfering with family and also work related consequences, such as job satisfaction.

There is agreement in the theoretical literature that none of these theoretical models outlined so far independently provide a comprehensive model of work-family life, as many of them operate simultaneously and interact. However, all of the theoretical models are recognised in the field to have some validity and some empirical evidence base (Frone, 2003; Lambert, 1990). Each perspective captures distinct experiences of the diversity of work-family experience. In order to examine specific work-family issues, it is necessary to choose from one of these models to generate hypotheses. For this thesis, the spillover and role conflict models are most appropriate to study the negative aspects of the work-family interface, that of conflict between the two domains. These models have clear relevance for gender roles within work and family domains and they also form the basis for Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) paper outlining a conceptual framework for work-family conflict (Greenhaus, 1985) which underpins Study 3.

Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) definition of work-family conflict is 'a form of inter-role conflict in which the pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respects.' (Greenhaus, 1985, p77}. Although their model was proposed some time ago, it still provides a comprehensive base from which to construct empirical research to test their hypotheses. The model includes three types of work-family conflict: time, strain and behaviour. It also accounts for the different directions that work-family conflict travels in, from work to family and from family to work. Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) tripartite framework for types of work-family conflict are: time-based conflict, in which time conflicts are characterised by demands upon an individual's time being made simultaneously by both domains, such as being asked to work late and also being expected to be home to see the

children: Strain based conflict is typified by the experience where strain from one domain, in the form of anxiety or fatigue, reduces the ability of the individual to meet demands from the other domain. Strain based conflict is often discussed in terms of a drain on an individual's energy resources and finally: Behaviour based conflict is the difficulty for individuals to modify their role behaviours to fit the appropriate role domain. For example, useful family domain behaviour, such as showing emotion is often perceived as inappropriate for the work domain.

4.6 GENDER AND EXPERIENCE OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Within the work-family conflict literature, it is now accepted that the influence of one domain upon another is bi-directional (Frone, 1997; Frone, 1992). Individuals can experience Work interfering with family (henceforth referred to as WIF) where a preoccupation with work deadlines can make individuals emotionally or psychologically absent even when physically present at home and, conversely, individuals can experience Family interfering with work (henceforth referred to as FIW) where a child's illness can require parents to leave work to tend to them. It has been found that work-family conflict can also be asymmetric (one way) or reciprocal, experiencing interference from work to family and vice versa at the same time (Tenbrunsel, 1995). Findings from mixed gender samples show that individuals, regardless of gender, experience more WIF than FIW (Netemeyer, 1996; Aryee, 1999) supporting the current understanding that family boundaries are more permeable than work boundaries. These findings also support the rational view that more hours spent in one domain, e.g. paid work should positively influence the related direction of work-family conflict, in this case, WIF. As both fathers and mothers engaged in paid work will spend more time in paid work than family work, the finding that individuals experience more WIF than FIW seems plausible (Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987; Keith & Schafer, 1980).

However, there is some debate as to the direction of work family conflict experienced depending on gender role, primarily based upon evidence that women take on more of the parenting tasks (Gershuny, 2001) generating hypotheses that mothers will be more likely to experience FIW than WIF, with the opposite held for men, as they spend longer hours on paid work. Gutek *et al* (1991) explored the

relation between hours of paid work and family work and direction of work-family conflict and also examined the influence of gender roles on the same (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). They tested two hypotheses related to hours spent in a domain; the first proposed that, as men spend more hours in paid work, they should experience more WIF than women and, as women spend more time on family work, they should experience more FIW than men. This was not supported, however their second hypothesis, testing the relationship between the hours spent by any individual in either work or family domains and the direction of conflict, found that the more time either men or women spent in a domain, the more conflict they experienced in the related direction. For example, the more time that was spent in family activities was positively related to more FIW conflict (Gutek *et al* 1991). Gutek *et al* (1991) further tested the effect of gender role expectation on the relationship between domain time and direction of work-family conflict and found that when they controlled for the number of hours spent in paid work, women reported higher levels of WIF than men, but this was not the case in reverse; controlling for family hours, men did not report higher levels of FIW than women. Another interesting finding was that women had stronger associations between time spent in either domain and the related direction of conflict than men (WIF: women $r = .40$; men $r = .22$, FIW: women $r = .36$; men = $.12$). These results suggest that family boundaries are more permeable than work boundaries as gender ideology would predict and also that women's work-family boundaries are also affected more by spillover from one domain to the other in both directions. Another key study exploring the influence of gender on the direction of work-family conflict by Duxbury *et al* (1994) provided support for Gutek *et al's* (1991) findings that women experience more WIF than men when controlling for hours.

However, other studies have found no difference between men and women in either level of WIF or FIW, (Eagle, 1997) study into 1100 university employees across occupational type found no differences across gender in the experience of WIF or FIW, but did find differences in the permeability of work-family boundaries supporting Duxbury & Higgins (1991) and Gutek *et al* (1994) where work was more likely to interfere with family. In a theoretical and empirical review on women, men, work and family, Barnett and Hyde (2001) suggest that with recent changes in the

labour market and a move towards more liberal gender views then, empirically, we should be finding fewer differences across gender in the field of work and family (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). Their theoretical case rests on four tenets: First, in line with Marks (1977), they suggest that holding multiple roles enhances physical and mental health, so that individuals can be strongly committed to both roles. Second, a number of moderating factors influence the beneficial nature of holding social roles, such as increased income (Ross & Huber, 1985), social support (Greenberger & O'Neil, 1993) and gender role ideology (James, Barnett, & Brennan, 1998). Third, Barnett and Hyde (2001) recognise that there will be a threshold effect, whereby role overload can occur in certain roles depending on the number of roles and time demand circumstances, and also that role quality will influence whether holding multiple roles will be experienced as beneficial. Fourth, they suggest that gender differences are not large or fixed. They back up their theoretical predictions from research across the work and family field.

In support of the role overload hypothesis, there is evidence showing that for women, employment is negatively related with depression (Crosby, 1991; Nolen-Hoeksema, 1987; Warr & Parry, 1982), which has been found in longitudinal studies (Wethington & Kessler, 1989) and across parental status (Repetti, Matthews, & Waldron, 1989). In contrast, research looking at the beneficial impact of holding multiple roles for men, focusing on the family role, have found that men's psychological well-being benefits from holding both employment and family roles (Barnett et al., 1992). Men's physiological well-being was found to be better for men holding roles of employee, spouse and parent compared to men holding fewer roles (Gore & Mangione, 1983). A number of antecedents to the experience of work-family conflict have been identified in the work-family research field. Those antecedents, which theoretically have most relevance to fathers' experience, include: role salience, work hours, partner's income, gender role ideology, and the availability of parental leave. These predictors of work-family conflict are considered below.

4.7 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT ANTECEDENTS

In the field of work-family life there appears to be a gap between theoretical development and empirical research in that, conceptually, theoreticians have moved

away from segmented approaches towards more integrated approaches and away from an individual focus to a social focus (Grzywacz, 2007). These theoretical changes have been difficult to capture in traditional quantitative research methodologies, for example, concepts such as 'balance' are under debated and difficult to operationalise and measure (Grzywacz, 2007). However, to date, empirical research has been more productive in defining and measuring work-family conflict and has made headway in defining and measuring work-family enrichment or facilitation. Current debates surround attempts to capture both experiences, as it is hypothesised that the negative experience is not just the opposite of the other, with each approach showing different antecedents and consequences (Tetrick & Buffardi, 2006).

4.7.1 BIOSYSTEM FACTORS

4.7.1.1 ROLE SALIENCE

Thoit's (1991) hypothesises that holders of multiple roles will need to prioritise them in a hierarchy of importance as a way of managing multiple demands. If this is the case, empirically we would expect to see a negative correlation between work and family roles. In contrast, Marks (1977) and Barnett and Hyde (2001) suggest that we can engage fully in multiple roles without the need to prioritise them and benefit from holding multiple roles. Therefore we should see no relationship or a positive relationship between work and family roles.

Role salience, or the degree to which we prioritise a role within our multiple role hierarchy, has been investigated in a number of guises under concepts of centrality (Martire, Stephens, & Townsend, 2000), involvement (Brown & Bardoel, 2003) and commitment (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1995). As each of these approaches has distinct differences, there needs to be care in interpreting findings. For example, measures of centrality are attempting to access individual's values relative to others in asking them to rank their priorities (Carlson, 2000). Studies investigating involvement imply that it is the amount of time that individuals spend in each domain, which may reflect their values. Certainly, father involvement has time available to the children as one of the criteria of involvement (Lamb et al., 1987). Those examining commitment are assessing an absolute attribute. Byron (2005) indicates that the diversity of measures used to examine work-family issues contributes to the inconsistent findings in this field. Differences in measures used will

be indicated in the following outline of findings on role salience and work-family conflict.

According to Thoits' (1991) role hierarchy theory and Parson & Bales' (1955) traditional gender role stereotypes, mothers should have higher family salience and fathers, higher work salience. This proposition was not supported by further research by Thoits (1992) who found the opposite for men, who ranked family roles higher than paid work roles. However, the gender role stereotypical response was found in Ayree & Luk's (1996) study into work and family identity. They found that men identified more with work than women and women identified more with the family role than men. Role identity was measured in terms of importance of the role to themselves, e.g. 'The major satisfactions in my life come from work'. Factors associated with a strong *work* identity for men included skill utilisation, spouse support and income, whilst factors associated with a strong *family* identity for men was income only, in line with the breadwinner model of male economic provider. In Ayree & Luk's (1996) study women's work and family identity was negatively related, i.e. if work identity was strong, family identity was weak, but this was not the case for men. However, O'Neil & Greenberger (1994) found in their sample that fathers who showed a pattern of low work commitment and high family commitment had least role strain. Role commitment was measured using role identity items, ranking against other role items and self reported behaviour items, e.g. number of work hours. This latter finding supports Marks' (1977) multiple role perspective which posits that individuals make time and energy for the roles to which they are committed.

Although seemingly contradictory, these findings could be explained by the following proposals: firstly in accepting that gender role attitudes are in transition (Pleck, 1979), there would be heterogeneity of gender role attitudes and behaviours in the population. Such heterogeneity would be congruent with inconsistent findings on the mix of role salience amongst men and women. Secondly, again given a transition model, it is possible that couples who hold gender equity attitudes are more likely to have balanced role 'salience' where they hold work and family in equal priority, in line with Marks (1977) and Barnett & Hyde (2001). Thirdly, there are a range of moderating and mediating factors, which also contribute to gender

differences in the experience of role strain and work-family conflict such as role quality, working hours, occupation level and social support (Barnett & Hyde, 2001).

In a paper not focused on gender, Carlson and Kacmar (2000) explored the influence of role salience across three different concepts: centrality, priority and importance, and found that those with high family salience had a larger impact of work domain predictors on work-family conflict and vice versa (Carlson, 2000). It would appear that role salience does influence levels of work-family conflict and that, an individual's gender role ideology, rather than gender per se, will also have an impact on work-family conflict, particularly in circumstances where their gender role belief is not congruent with their work-family behaviour.

4.7.1.2 NEGATIVE AFFECT

Negative affect (NA), as defined by Watson & Clark (1984), is the dispositional tendency to perceive the world through a negative lens and people high in negative affect tend to experience aversive emotional states more frequently than those with low negative affect (Watson & Clark, 1984). The parallel to negative affect is positive affect (PA), which could be argued to be similar conceptually to the Trait EI sub-domain of well-being. However, PA has not been found to have any association with work-family conflict (Chen & Spector, 1991). Negative affect has consistently been found positively to influence work-family conflict (Michel & Clark, 2009). Carlson (1999) found that negative affect was negatively related to all three dimensions of time, strain and behaviour conflict (Carlson, 1999). Because of the propensity of individuals high in negative affect to perceive the environment as more stressful, it has been argued that it is a potential confound in studies examining stressors such as work-family conflict (Costa & McCrae, 1980). The trend in work-family research is that Negative affect is included in work-family conflict studies as a moderator or control variable.

4.7.1.3 PERSONALITY

Previous dispositional research on work-family conflict using the big-5 model revealed that is positively related to work-family conflict (Bruck & Allen, 2003). Neuroticism is also a predictor of both directions of work-family conflict (Wayne et al., 2004) and a moderator for family interfering with work (Blanch & Aluja, 2009).

High neuroticism is associated with being less likely to control impulses and less able to cope with stressful situations (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Agreeableness, encompassing co-operation and empathy, has been positively associated with family interfering with work (Kinnunen, Vermulst, Gerris, & Makikangas, 2003).

4.7.2 WORK MICROSYSTEM FACTORS

4.7.2.1 WORK HOURS

The relative allocation of time across life domains was one of the first types of work-family conflict examined, as work or family hours are more easily observed than psychological constructs. The study of work time in relation to work and family has taken place under two main theoretical perspectives: role identity and investment, where the amount of time spent in a role is seen as indicative of the role's importance to the individual; secondly, work time has been studied as a proxy for work demands. From a time economy stance, the amount of time invested in work does reduce the time left available to invest in family (Roeters, 2009). Time use studies show that fathers spend more time at work than mothers, particularly when children are very young. Whilst the gap in parental work hours is mostly due to the reduction in work hours of mothers, there is also some debate as to whether fathers also increase their work hours upon becoming a father (O' Brien, 2003; Dermott, 2006) thus emphasising the paid work hours gap between employed mothers and fathers.

It is well documented that long work hours increase levels of work-family conflict (Carlson, 1999; Greenhaus, 1987; Parasuraman, 2001), particularly levels of work interfering with family (WIF) (Carlson & Frone, 2003). Work time is one of the key variables in the time based work-family conflict dimension of Greenhaus & Beutell's (1985) work-family conflict model. As fathers do work longer hours than mothers (O' Brien & Shemilt, 2003), the implications for those fathers who have more liberal gender role attitudes, or who are high in family salience, are that working long hours would be likely to increase WIF due to the cognitive dissonance created from the value – behaviour mismatch (Festinger, 1957).

4.7.2.2 JOB DEMANDS AND CONTROL

Karaseck's job demands and control model (Karasek, 1979) has been extensively researched in the organisational field, particularly in relation to stress related outcomes in paid work. Job demands and control has been found to influence work-family conflict positively and negatively respectively (Gronlund, 2007), producing psychological preoccupation whilst physically at home. In contrast, Butler et al (2005) found that an interaction between job demands and control suggested that high job demands and high job control was associated with higher work – family conflict (Butler, 2005). Boyar et al (2008) found that work demand, albeit measured using a different scale to that of Karaseck, predicted both WIF and FIW, and that those high on family salience were particularly affected by the influence of work demands on WIF (Boyar, 2008).

4.7.2.3 WORK SUPPORT

Social support, whether from work sources or family sources, has been conceptualized by House (1981) as including several facets: emotional, instrumental, providing information and providing positive appraisal. There is strong empirical support indicating that social support has been found to be associated with less work family conflict (Carlson, 1999) and that within domain sources of support tend to influence within domain types of work-family conflict. For example, work support from supervisor and colleagues is negatively related to work interfering with family (WIF).

4.7.2.4 OCCUPATION

Those working in managerial or professional occupations have been shown to work more hours (Natti, Anttila, & Vaisanen, 2006) and suffer more work-family conflict (Bond, 2004; Allard, 2007) probably as a result of greater commitment to paid employment in the form of career or vocation that provides a fit with their values in comparison to non-managerial and professional occupations.

4.7.3 FAMILY MICROSISTEM FACTORS

4.7.3.1 NUMBER AND AGE OF CHILDREN

The number of children that a parent has has been shown to be associated with increased parental demands, particularly in relation to time demands, although, as outlined in chapter three, this has been found to be more the case for mothers than fathers. Nonetheless, Nordenmark (2002) found that employed fathers suffered more psychological strain than employed non-fathers. In addition, the more children fathers had, the more they wished to reduce their working hours. However, this association did not extend to the experience of psychological distress, as it did for mothers (Nordenmark, 2002). Parasuraman & Simmers (2001) found that both number and younger age of child predicted life stress, but only for the self-employed group.

It is presumed that the younger the child the more time demands they make upon the parent, an issue which has been particularly relevant in the working hours, childcare provision and flexible working policy debates. Child age has strong effects upon mothers' working hours with mothers of children under the age of 13 years working fewer hours per week than mothers with older children or women without children. This is also the case for fathers with pre-school children who work fewer hours than fathers with older children and non-fathers (Connolly, 2008; Crompton, 2006).

4.7.3.2 FATHER INVOLVEMENT

As outlined in Chapter three, father involvement has been primarily modelled on the three elements of father engagement, accessibility and responsibility after Lamb et al (2004). Father involvement has not been measured this distinctly in work-family studies. What has been examined has been with a mix of father involvement measures: some focusing on time available, some focusing on responsibility. In terms of operationalisation of father involvement in the work-family literature, time caring for children has been measured, although the definition of caring is often left to interpretation of the participant. Alternatively, father involvement has tended to be re-conceptualised negatively as family demand under the 'multiple role conflict model' (Thoits 1991) e.g (Voydanoff, 2005).

There have been fewer studies examining the quality of relationships between fathers and their children e.g (Crouter, 2001) and the relationship between work experience, parenting styles and child behaviour (Stewart, 1996). There are some studies which consider a more wide ranging aspects of father involvement. For example, Rosenbaum and Morrett (2009) use measures of basic care, play and cognitive development in her study of the impact of shift work on child behaviour, indicating that the inclusion of these measures in national surveys may stimulate further analyses (Rosenbaum, 2009). The role of father involvement as a positive factor under the 'multiple roles as equal engagement model' (Marks 1977) on work and family is most likely to be included in research into work-family facilitation as indicated by (Hill, 2005). To date, there appears to be no consistent and relatively little use of father involvement along the lines of Lamb et al's (2004) typography as an antecedent variable within the work-family literature.

4.7.3.3 PARTNER SUPPORT

As indicated above in work support, social support, whether from work sources or family sources, has been conceptualized by House (1981) as including several facets: emotional, instrumental, providing information and providing positive appraisal. There is strong empirical evidence indicating that social support has been found to be directly associated with less work-family conflict (Carlson, 1999). In addition, within domain sources of support tend to influence within domain types of work-family conflict, such that family support from partner is negatively related to family interfering with work (FIW).

4.7.3.4 GENDER ROLE IDEOLOGY

Gender role ideology of individuals has been found to affect their involvement in work and family roles. Bonney, Kelley and Levant (1999) found fathers with more liberal gender beliefs spent more time in caring for their child than fathers with more conservative beliefs (Bonney, Kelley, & Levant, 1999). Congruent gender ideology beliefs, whereby male breadwinner and female homemaker of a traditional household hold traditional gender ideology beliefs and the dual earner household gender equity views, seem to buffer work-family stressors (Barnett & Hyde, 2001).

4.7.4 EXOSYSTEM FACTORS

4.7.4.1 PARTNER WORK PATTERNS

The working patterns of both partners within a couple have been found to influence levels of work-family conflict. Broadly speaking, households have been categorised into 'types' by the working patterns of those within the household (Crompton, 2006; Crouter & Manke, 1997). Traditional households have a full-time, male earner and a female non-earner, whereas full-time/part-time households have one male earner and one female part-time earner and dual earner households have both partners in full-time work. Intuitively, it would be expected that the traditional earning household should experience least work-family conflict and the dual earners most. However, the opposite has been found to be the case (Higgins, 1992; Barnett, 1996). Other findings on this issue contradict this; Klumb (2006) found that spousal paid work hours was associated with higher cortisol levels and that this was a cross gender effect (Klumb, 2006). Wallace (1999) found that male lawyers with working wives experienced greater time based work-family conflict (Wallace, 1999). However, this inconsistency in findings makes more sense when certain contexts are considered, such as the influence of gender role attitudes. For example, members of households who both hold similar gender ideology beliefs experience higher levels of father family participation (Barnett, 1987).

4.7.5. MACROSYSTEM FACTORS

4.7.4.1 ORGANISATIONAL FAMILY POLICIES AND SYSTEMS

Family policies are believed to enhance family role identity for men and women as they reflect corporate recognition of the family role as important (Hall & Richter, 1988). Organisational efforts to support employees with caring responsibilities contribute to work social support, an important work-family conflict antecedent, particularly for men (Haas, 2002; Aycan, 2005). It is considered that this factor will be particularly relevant for fathers' work-family life at this time on account of changes to UK legislation between 2006 – 2009 which have increased parental leave and introduced paternity leave ("Work and Families Act," 2006). In theory, greater organisational family supportive provision should be negatively related to fathers' work-family conflict. In general this is the case; Allen 2001 found that family

supportive perceptions mediated the effect of family support benefits on work-family conflict (Allen, 2001). Anderson et al (2002) found that schedule flexibility was negatively associated with WIF, but there was no relationship of the availability of dependent care policies to work-family conflict (Anderson, 2002).

In contrast Thompson et al (1999) found that both organisational perception and family policy availability was negatively associated with lower levels of WIF, although their measure of family policy availability included both flexible working options and dependent care options (Thompson, 1999). More specifically in gender terms, Grandey et al (2007) found in a study into work-family conflict amongst male blue collar workers that whilst controlling for working hours, male employees with supportive organisational policies had less work-family conflict (Grandey, 2007). A family supportive organisation needs to show that they believe in the values of work-family balance as well as provide the concrete family supportive procedures. This means that work-family balance values are transmitted through their managerial hierarchy (Thompson, 1999). Consequently, many measures of work social support include organisational culture, supervisor support and colleague support to tap all these dimensions (Carlson, 1999).

4.7.4.2 EMPLOYMENT SECTOR

Employment sector has been shown to differ in working conditions and contractual arrangements, with jobs in the private and voluntary sector traditionally being less secure, with high work intensity and reduced access to family related benefits, compared to the public sector (Perrons, Fagan, McDowell, Ray, & Ward, 2006). Although sector divisions in the UK may be becoming more blurred since the Conservative Thatcher government and following New Labour administration, which have both encouraged the contracting out of public services, it is assumed that employment sector will still have an impact on work--family life given the different motivations for offering flexible employment between the public and private sector (Burchell, 2006).

4.8 SUMMARY

Issues of work and family have come to the forefront since the 1970's following the increase in women entering the labour force. Changes in mothers'

respective time allocations to work and family domains generated research and policy concern for mother and child welfare. Over the last thirty years, fathers' aspirations to be more involved in family life, in association with increased demands from partners, warrants investigation into fathers' experience of work-family life. Historically, work and family have been influenced by three theoretical perspectives: functionalism, which emphasised biological reasons for family microsystem structures where women cared for the children and men provided for the family; feminism, which highlighted the unequal nature of women's unpaid work in the home and; a changing roles perspective which acknowledged that gender roles were in transition in terms of their enactment, but that this transition warranted monitoring for signs of change. More specifically, elements of role theory, symbolic interactionism and boundary theory have informed the multidisciplinary development of work-family research.

Role theory underpins a sizable majority of work-family study, providing explanations for how individuals develop social roles and manage multiple roles. Roles help create meaning and provide a cognitive filter through which individuals cognitively appraise events. Role theory explains the influence of social expectations (macrosystem) on individual behaviour, expectations which are particularly onerous and entrenched, as far as gender roles are concerned. For fathers, the traditional role of economic provider still holds sway, but alternative roles of involved father and nurturing father are also influential and allow for the possibility for change, as role characteristics are posited to be dynamic and in constant negotiation through our interactions with others (Bronfenbrenner, 1994).

There is debate in the work-family field as to whether the psychological process of managing multiple roles is achieved through a hierarchical choice model or an equal engagement model. The implications for behaviour are that prioritising roles presumes conflict between different roles whilst non-prioritisation presumes no conflict. Boundary theory explores the differences between domains of work and family, the degree of permeability they display and the different management strategies of integration or segmentation that individuals use to manage the two domains. The majority of work-family research has been undertaken under the

conflict model under the Greenhaus & Beutell (1985) formulation of time, strain and behaviour based work-family inter role conflict.

Fathers' experience of work and family life has been hidden amidst emphases on mothers' experience and conflation of gender effects and parental effects. From existing evidence it would appear that fathers primarily experience work interfering with family type conflicts. Fathers are also more vulnerable to workplace pressures of 'presenteeism' as employers' expectations of fathers are primarily that of provider, therefore expecting fathers to eschew family concerns whilst at work. Consequently, it could be expected that fathers who wish to be more involved in family life may suffer high levels of work-family conflict. However, fathers appear to have less permeable boundaries between work and home compared to mothers. Findings on gender differences in this field are slight, and what differences exist are likely to be due to differences in the time individuals spend in each domain and methodological issues of sample composition and analysis with regard to gender and parenthood.

From the many antecedents that have been found to influence work-family conflict, there are five factors across different levels of the ecological system which are expected to be of particular relevance to fathers: role salience (bio), gender role ideology of fathers (bio), paid work hours (micro), partners' paid work hours (exo) and organisational family policy provision (macro). The degree to which fathers prioritise their work and family roles in addition to their gender role ideology is hypothesised to influence their levels of work-family conflict in that if their role priority and gender role ideology are congruent, they should suffer less work-family conflict. In addition, traditional role fathers should suffer less work-family conflict, as this role is congruent with employer expectations. Fathers work long hours, which is proposed will increase their work-family time based conflict. Full-time partner work hours are likely to have no effect on involved fathers but will increase traditional fathers' work-family conflict levels. Organisational family friendly policies should reduce work-family conflict for involved fathers.

Dispositional factors have been less studied in the field of work and family, with no examination of work-family conflict using the concept of emotional intelligence to date, even though work-family conflict involves emotional issues. A case for the relevance of emotional intelligence, a biological factor within

Bronfenbrenner's bioecological model to work-family conflict is made in the next chapter.

5 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, WORK-FAMILY LIFE AND FATHERS

5.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

Bronfenbrenner's Bioecological model acknowledges the influence of the individual's biological make up on their environment, albeit through interactional processes. Studies 2 and 3 of this thesis examine the influence of dispositional factors on work-family conflict compared to structural factors, particularly the influence of emotional intelligence as this disposition has not been considered before in this research area. In relation to Bronfenbrenner's model dispositional factors can be seen as having a biological component in line with existing personality theory (Stelmack & Rammsayer, 2008) and dispositional factors including emotional intelligence will be considered within the statistical models used in Studies 2 and 3 based on Bronfenbrenner's Bioecological model on this basis.

Work and family are two of the most important and enduring domains of life in which individuals are involved. The micro level explanations for why these domains are particularly salient are psychological and emotional. Individual's primary attachments form within the family, meeting emotional needs of relatedness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) and whilst autonomy and competence needs are met in the wider world (Sheldon et al., 1996), or Bronfenbrenner's 'exosphere', of which work is one important example. Individuals negotiate the movement between the boundaries of their public and private worlds frequently and have to manage the attendant emotional needs of themselves and others, whether it is the guilt felt at missing a son's football match, the anxiety about meeting a deadline without working late or thinking how to manage a child's disappointment at missing their bedtime. Whilst pragmatic measures of time management and strategic planning have their place as tools to minimise these clashes between work and family demands, these conflicts are an inevitable part of life. What can make them more bearable for all involved is if individuals are aware of the emotional impact the conflicts have on both themselves and others. To be effective, this emotional awareness needs to include self-knowledge as well as knowledge of what emotions mean within social contexts.

Whilst much has been written about emotions from a sociological viewpoint e.g. (Hochschild, 1983), the research approach taken in this thesis is situated in the

psychological domain, particularly examining individual differences in emotional competencies. The ability to identify emotions, express and understand them, coupled with skill in regulating emotions for self and others under the umbrella term of emotional intelligence has been found to be associated with better social and occupational outcomes (Mayer, 2004; Petrides, 2006; Mikolajczak, 2007) and it is argued that these skills are likely to ameliorate work-family conflict situations. This chapter examines the development of the concept of emotional intelligence from extant work on emotions and assesses the relevance of emotional intelligence to work-family conflict in the context of gender and parenthood.

5.2 EMOTIONS - THEORY

There is a long history from the Greek Stoics to Descartes demonstrating the contradictory nature of emotion against reason. Much of this debate has been stimulated by the seeming uncontrollable nature of emotional feeling and expression. Although there are positive sides to some emotions, e.g. happiness, much research concern has been about the negative emotions or negative side effects of positive emotions, such as love. Whilst negative feelings themselves can cause the individual personal anguish, actions initiated from negative feelings can also be damaging to others. Emotions are experienced as reactive and unconscious in that they can appear spontaneously and be fleeting, but they also influence moods, which can last for hours or days. Emotions act as human value barometers providing basic positive or negative information for individuals as to whether to approach or withdraw from external stimuli.

Individuals often indicate that they are 'in the grip of their emotions' and feel out of control. This disengagement of emotion from conscious control has long been of intellectual interest. Oatley (2004) describes how Greek philosophers attempted to provide a way of managing the 'uncontrollable' nature of emotions in two ways, the Epicureans diverted attention away from what they deemed unnecessary desires such as fame, wealth, power which would lead to unwanted feelings of greed, envy and anger. They proposed taking steps to ensure a pleasurable life, by minimising the experience of fear and pain. The definition of pleasure was not, in the modern sense of over-indulgence, but to consider their feelings and take actions that would allow

pleasure, but minimise pain. For example, having an alcoholic drink was fine, but binge drinking would cause both physical pain and regret, so was avoided. Moderation was the Epicureans byword and an attempt to use the power of thought to realign individual's values, to minimise the experience of unwanted emotions. The Stoics believed that destructive emotions created errors in judgment and were unreliable and idiosyncratic. They valued clear unbiased thinking and the ability to control emotion. In order to achieve this they practiced the pursuit of logic, self-reflection on everyday problems and solutions and a focus on the present. Descartes' writings also purported the view that emotions could be regulated by the mind (Oatley, 2004).

Spinoza by contrast proposed that the mind and body were one, he believed in the unity of all things and suggested that in order for individuals to feel better emotionally they were better to accept emotions as part of living and that to accept them and understand them rather than to struggle against them was to gain control over one's life (Oatley & Jenkins, 1986). The Romantic Movement in the eighteenth century reacted against the rational emphasis of the enlightenment and demonstrated the importance of intuition, imagination and feeling through writing, music and art. However, the rational approach emerged once again in the form of empiricism. Darwin (1873/1965) introduced the idea that emotions have evolved to have a use that has protected previous generations (Darwin, 1965). For example an instant fear response would have protected individuals from encounters with dangerous predators such as snakes or lions. The function of the emotion was to motivate a fast behavioural response to maximise survival. Nowadays, predatory dangers from animals may not be as relevant, but the fear response still occurs, but more often in response to social dangers. The struggle to control emotions such as fear and anger through rational thought is difficult, Darwin argued, precisely because of the nature of unconscious automatic response.

The strand connecting these different approaches is the link between emotion and cognition with thought portrayed as desirable for moderating the extremes of emotion without extinguishing emotional experience. The ideas of emotional intelligence have a historical ancestry, which are now being articulated under the umbrella term of emotional intelligence. Before outlining the tenets of emotional intelligence theory, relevant theory and research evidence from the field of emotions

will be examined to help explain the underpinnings of emotional intelligence models, both in terms of the emotion-biology/rational-cognitive dichotomy and research into emotional competence in the areas of emotional intelligence including: perceiving emotions in self and others; understanding emotions; using emotion to facilitate decision making and; managing emotion in self and others.

Research into emotions has examined the biological nature of the basic emotions: happiness, sadness, fear, disgust and anger, which has been argued as important for survival purposes of reproduction, risk avoidance, resource protection and disease prevention (Ekman, 1992; Plutchik, 1980) and also the social functions of emotions which help explain the more complex emotions such as guilt or embarrassment (Averill, 1980). It has been argued that emotions have evolved to form the foundations of social relationships (Keltner, Haidt, & Shiota, 2006; Oatley & Jenkins, 1986). The emotions of love, sexual desire and jealousy help individuals form and maintain attachments, and other emotions of gratitude, guilt, embarrassment anger and envy help create and maintain co-operative relations with non-kin (Axelrod, 1984; Buss, 2000).

Emotions have a number of distinguishing characteristics: they occur rapidly, automatically and have a relatively short duration (Ekman, 1992). In functional terms they provide a psychophysiological response to external stimuli directing action, either to approach or withdraw from an object, person or situation (R. S. Lazarus, 1991). Emotions influence individuals across different timescales, so that feelings can be fleeting in response to a specific object or event, or emotions can be felt in the form of moods which can last from several days to a number of weeks. The causes of immediate feelings are normally apparent, but the reason for moods can be more obscure. Individuals also have predispositions in the prevalence of emotional response. Aspects of their personality have emotional components, such as shyness which indicates that they are more prone to experiencing social anxiety (Crozier, 2000).

As emotions are experienced by individuals as instant and often perceived as uncontrollable, it has been suggested that emotions are therefore biologically driven phenomena in that emotions are felt first and made conscious second (Zajonc, 1980). This issue has been extensively debated (Lazarus, 1984), as the implication of

biologically driven feelings is that individuals are less able to determine their actions. This view is what underpins the distinction between the legal terms of hot and cold blooded murder. Nonetheless, there are individuals who appear to be able to regulate their emotions better than others across contexts, which suggests that there is some individual control for managing social relationships constructively. In the West, emotions are constructed as unreliable and impulsive and often contrasted with reason and rationality. The rational mind is favoured over what are perceived as uncontrollable biological emotional drives. This dichotomy in itself indicates that emotions can be experienced in both ways, they can sometimes feel overwhelming, but they can also be regulated. In biological terms, there is evidence showing that both physiological and psychological mechanisms are involved in emotion production and processing.

MacLean (1990) in his structural theory of the triune brain argued that the brain has evolved to produce three distinct parts of the brain that are responsible for different functions. Broadly speaking, the striatal region or brain stem deals with motor activity, the control of metabolic systems and the temporal rhythm of daily activities; the limbic system produces feelings and provides instant emotional responses to sensory information via the amygdala, which has been described by LeDoux (1993) as the primary appraisal mechanism for emotions in association with the hippocampus (LeDoux, 1993). The third part of MacClean's (1990) triune brain is the neocortex which handles thought and planning. Although described structurally as separate, these systems work in parallel, with the limbic system able to overpower the cortex only in emergency situations to do with fight, flight or sexual reproduction (MacLean, 1990). During more routine everyday activity, speed of response is not the priority and the limbic system provides the cortex with evaluative information and the cortex helps give emotions meaning using context. Being able to understand emotions in this way is essential in order to maintain social relationships, as social hierarchies have to be remembered and opportunities for cooperation enhanced. This requires the ability to both reason about one's own emotions and identify what others are feeling, so that socially appropriate responses can be maximised. Physiological evidence of integrated working shows that brain activity between the limbic system and cortex is most active during social encounters (Frith & Frith, 2001).

Additional integration of brain function for effective emotional processing is required across the two hemispheres of the cortex. The right hemisphere controls non-verbal emotional processing, facial recognition and interpretation and visual and spatial analyses. The left hemisphere controls language, logic, cause and effect thinking, calculation, analysis and reflection. The left hemisphere appears to have some inhibitory effect on the right hemisphere as damage to the left side is associated with less inhibited behaviour and language thus playing an important role for individual emotional self control. Furthermore, the development of good neural pathways from childhood is necessary for emotional processing to be effective in later life. From early in life, neurological pathways are strengthened in areas which are stimulated, but reduced in areas that are not stimulated in response to experience in the external environment. Positive experiences for influencing emotional neurological pathways include forming secure attachments to primary caregivers, learning how to regulate strong emotions and learning how to recognise and talk about emotions (Seigel, 1999). The biological structure and processes of emotion indicate that both emotion and reason are needed to effectively interact within social environments and to help individuals make sense of social encounters. It is the integration of emotion and reason that produces individuals who could currently be described as emotionally intelligent, in that they are able to identify and understand emotions in themselves and others and they can reason about emotion to produce a range of behavioural options which allows them to manage their emotional responses. Evidence into these specific areas of emotional competence, outside the definition of 'emotional intelligence' is examined below.

5.2.1 PERCEPTION AND EXPRESSION OF EMOTION

For emotion to function adaptively to facilitate social relationships, individuals need to be able to both communicate their emotional state visually and audibly as well as recognise emotional states in others. Ekman has been foremost in the establishment of discrete universal categories of facial expression of emotion (Keltner & Ekman, 2000). Most evidence exists for the six core emotions (Plutchik, 2001): anger, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness, surprise. The importance of recognising emotion expression for creating empathetic response has been well documented in Theory of Mind research linked to the function of mirror neurons which appear to

facilitate imitation and stimulate similar emotional responses upon perceiving emotions in others, for example quickening of the heart upon seeing fear on another's face (Keysers, 2006). Other empirical work has shown that facial expression, vocal tone and other non-verbal cues can be differentially recognised (Johnstone & Scherer, 2000; Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990).

There is extensive research from clinical samples into the construct of alexithymia, a Greek term meaning a lack of emotion (Sifneos 1973). The construct emerged from observations of clinical patients have appeared to have difficulty verbalising feelings, channelled emotional expression through bodily action, showed an inability to reflect on inner feelings and experienced little imagination and whose behaviour was guided more by rules and the expectations of others than by feelings or personal values. The agreed features of alexithymia are: a difficulty in identifying feelings and distinguishing between feelings; difficulty talking about feelings; reduced fantasy life and an externally oriented cognitive style (Taylor & Bagby, 2000). The alexithymia construct appears to map directly although inversely onto the intrapersonal aspects of emotional intelligence which encompass the ability to identify feelings in oneself and discriminate between different types of feeling. Individuals with high levels of alexithymia have also been shown to be poor at identifying emotions in facial expressions and empathising with the emotional states of others. In studies using two trait EI measures, the Schutte (1998) self report scale and Bar-On EQi (2004) and a measure of alexithymia, the Toronto Alexithymia Scale (Bagby, Parker, & Taylor, 1994) alexithymia was negatively correlated with overall EI in Schutte's study and also with total and dimension scores on the EQi (Schutte, 1998).

5.2.2 UNDERSTANDING EMOTIONS AND COGNITION

The ability to identify and attend to physiological arousal, discriminate between feeling states and reflect on emotional events helps individuals build complex emotional self schemas and knowledge about the significance of each emotion and how they work together and sequentially. Such knowledge has been found to give individuals a better chance for choosing adaptive behaviours. Lane & Pollerman (2002) argue for a similar process of emotional development in line with Piaget's (1974) theory for cognitive development whereby an individual's awareness of their own actions and reactions is constructed through cognitive processes and meta-cognition.

The creation of emotional schemas depends on the ability to represent feeling states and events symbolically which is achieved through language. Verbalising emotional experiences facilitates conscious awareness of emotions and the differentiation and co-ordination of emotional experiences into abstract emotional concepts, which are accepted as the convention within the particular cultural context. Such reflective abstraction (Piaget 1977) allows individuals to create knowledge, make deductions and inferences about emotions and process emotional experiences more objectively; as such meta-cognition usually happens after the experience. Nonetheless as knowledge develops, it is argued that the existence of more complex emotional representational schemas interacts with sensorimotor arousal during emotional encounters as well giving an individual more behavioural response options.

Emotional schemas include knowing what the feeling is like in terms of how the body reacts, how the emotion looks outwardly, what usually causes that feeling, what factors usually enhance or reduce the feeling, what behaviours are usually associated with the feeling and what socially appropriate responses are depending on context. Lane & Schwartz (1987) proposed a model to outline the developmental stages of emotional awareness indicating in ascending order that at level 1 an individual would be aware of physical sensations; at level 2 they would be aware of their action tendencies, that is what they feel like doing, for example punching a wall; at level 3 there would be an awareness of discrete emotions; at level 4 there would be an awareness of blends of emotions, for example love being a blend of joy and trust (Plutchik, 2001) finally at level 5, an individual would be aware of blends of blends of emotions or the capacity to appreciate complexity in the experience of emotions, for example a mother feeling anger and relief on the late return of a child from school.

The dual distinct experiences of instant strong emotional reactions and rationalisation of emotion can be explained by two physiological routes in the brain: one fast route processes environmental stimuli via the thalamus direct to the amygdala producing an instant emotional response, whilst the other slower route sees environmental stimuli being directed via the thalamus to the cortex before the amygdala (LeDoux, 1993). Thus, for survival purposes such as in response to threatening stimuli, individuals can respond quickly, but can still reason about emotion in less demanding circumstances. Forgas' Affect Infusion Model provides

some explanation as to how individuals' social judgements can be influenced by their mood. Forgas proposes that individuals are most susceptible to mood influence in circumstances which require substantive processing or occasions which are new necessitating interpretation and learning. He suggests that in these circumstances existing mood can prime mood related memory. Evidence supports this model showing that positive moods are associated with more superficial processing strategies, whereas negative moods generate more effortful strategies and more attention to detail (Forgas, 1994). In addition negative moods appear to reverse the bias associated with the fundamental attribution error so that sad induced mood individuals attributed external causes for writing an unpopular position essay (supporting nuclear testing) whilst happy induced mood participants attributed internal causes (Forgas, 1998).

5.2.3 EMOTION REGULATION

The mood repair hypothesis stipulates that individuals are motivated to regulate their mood so that positive moods are maintained and negative moods minimised (Taylor, 1991). However, Erber & Erber (2001) propose a mood regulation model which is more sensitive to social context (Erber & Erber, 2001). Their model accounts for individual assessment of social context in the regulation of their mood. For example, whilst the mood repair model suggests that individuals aim to maintain positive moods and minimize negative moods, Erber, Wegner & Therriault (1996) found that participants who had been induced into a positive or negative mood and given the choice of newspaper headlines to read, preferred mood congruent headlines, challenging the view that those induced into a negative mood would be more likely to choose positive headlines to help remove the negative mood. In the same study, participants were told they were to complete a task with a stranger or on their own. The stranger group chose mood incongruent headlines to their mood whilst the solo group chose mood congruent headlines. Erber *et al* (1996) suggest that this indicates that individuals are motivated to regulate their mood in the presence of others. Further studies indicated that it was in the presence of strangers rather than intimate others that this regulation was more likely to occur (Commons & Erber, 1996). Their conclusions were that mood adjustment to a neutral mood is more likely to occur for social contexts within the public domain. In the context of this thesis,

mood regulation could therefore be expected to be more important for fathers when at their workplace than when at home with the family.

5.2.4 EMOTION APPRAISAL

Although biological markers have been found to define physiological responses to particular emotions such as raised heart rate, respiration and sweating for fear (Hoehn-Saric, McLeod, & Zimmerli, 1989), Lazarus (1999) argues that an individual's interpretation of environmental stimuli guides our emotional response, this explaining inter-individual differences as to why one person gets anxious about a situation whilst another does not. Appraisal is an evaluative process which individuals use to assess environmental input in two ways: firstly to evaluate its relevance to individual goals and secondly to evaluate the individual's competence at dealing with the situation. Lazarus & Folkman (1994) propose three elements of the primary appraisal process: Goal relevance, as previously described; goal congruence where the situation is appraised as to its potential to aid personal goals or be a barrier to achieving them and; ego involvement, which fine tunes the goal relevance in terms of threats to self – esteem, moral values, ego ideals, other people and their well-being and life goals. In secondary appraisal, options for coping with the situation are considered which include: attributing responsibility, assessing coping potential and future expectations of outcomes (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The relevance of Lazarus' & Folkman (1994) appraisal theory for emotional intelligence is that the appraisal process produces emotional responses, for example, if in a primary appraisal a father values family over and above work, then if they are experiencing work spilling over into family life this situation will be relevant to him but also goal incongruent, threatening his family goals, which may include ideals such as keeping work and family separate and moral values such as believing in and being aware of his partner's expectations about the importance of 'being available' for his children for expected routines and significant events. This primary appraisal is likely to induce feelings of anxiety and guilt. However during secondary appraisal it is suggested that emotional competency will add to the range of resources that the father draws upon. If an individual feels confident of their abilities to recognise the emotional impacts of situations on themselves and others and also able to regulate their own emotional response so that they can think about problem focused or

emotion focused strategies that could make the situation better, then their range of coping options is broader, thus giving them a greater chance of resolving potential threats to their goals. Emotional intelligence enables the individual to appraise their emotional response giving them more agency over the emotional aspects of the situation. Using the example of the feeling of guilt often experienced by parents to illustrate, guilt implies that one is to blame for a particular situation and that if one had acted otherwise the situation could be different. However, the beneficial side to feeling guilty is that it holds out the possibility that reparations can be made, thus even within the uncomfortable feeling there is a sense of controllability that exists.

The principles of emotional intelligence in association with psychodynamic theory of ego defences (Michael, 1974) suggest that those with lower emotional intelligence might respond to guilt feelings with attributions of blame with associated anger against external others as an ego defence, whilst others may be too ready to attribute blame to themselves, so that self-abrogation precludes any constructive action, and places responsibility for feeling better upon the very people they feel guilty about upsetting, in this case, the children and partner. Both responses could be argued to be adaptive for the individual in the short term, but less so in the long term (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). An emotionally intelligent response could include the recognition that the emotion being experienced is one of guilt and that guilt is due to a transgression of both individual and societal moral standards. Rather than be overcome by the anxiety about the attributions of blame, it would be more constructive to acknowledge a degree of responsibility and also the effect of the actions on others before moving onto considering mitigating action and strategies to avoid the same situation in the future.

5.3 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The concept of Emotional Intelligence emerged theoretically as early as 1980's in Sternberg's (1988) theory of practical intelligence (Sternberg, 1988) and Gardner's (1983) multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983), both alluding to people's ability to navigate the practicalities of the 'real' world effectively, particularly the ability to deal successfully with other people and managing one's own emotions. The concept gained public attention following Daniel Goleman's book in 1996 on Emotional Intelligence

coinciding with increasing research activity into attempts to define the term with greater precision and establish the influence of emotional intelligence on performance (Goleman, 1996). The latter two points are still debated in the field with distinctions being made between ability emotional intelligence; personality based emotional intelligence and social intelligence (see Matthews et al 2004 for a review). Debates about definition appear to be crystallising broadly around EI as cognitive ability versus EI as personality construct. Feldman Barrett and Salovey (2002) argue that Emotional Intelligence has provided an organising framework for the research findings on emotion, particularly as emotion affects ‘normally functioning people’ in their everyday lives. They suggest that it is this framework and application to everyday living that has contributed to the popularity of the concept in the self-help literature and in commercial application (Feldman Barrett & Salovey, 2002).

Theoretically, the study of emotional intelligence is embedded within the discipline of differential psychology. Since the 1990’s the broad concept of emotional intelligence has undergone rigorous empirical investigation and debate within the research community with some distinct approaches emerging. A distinction is being drawn between Ability emotional intelligence and Trait emotional intelligence. Proponents of ability EI models contend that it is the cognitive processing of emotional information which encompasses emotional intelligence. Ability EI models measure maximum performance using ability tests such as the MSCEIT (Mayer, 2002; Mayer, 2000). Trait emotional intelligence models construct emotional intelligence from a personality perspective arguing that it is individual’s emotional dispositional characteristics which predict their typical performance in the emotional domain. Trait EI models measure typical performance using self-report (Petrides, 2001; Bar-On, 2004; Bar-On, 2006; Schutte, 1998).

5.3.1 ABILITY EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

More specifically, Mayer & Salovey (1997) propose that the construct of Ability EI is a cognitive ability reflecting our ability to process emotional information and define it as: ‘Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth’

(Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 10). As such, Ability EI has most in common, theoretically, with psychometric intelligence, but is also expected to relate to *affective* personality dimensions e.g. neuroticism (Petrides, 2007). Ability EI is positioned as part of personality, but specifically in relation to the integration of emotions and cognitive operations (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). Ability EI is considered a unified construct but is subdivided into four hierarchical branches indicating greater emotional competence rising through the hierarchy: branch one involves emotion perception and identification; branch two comprises emotional facilitation of thought or the ability to use emotion in decision making; branch three covers the understanding of emotion and branch four includes the management of emotion in self and others.

Ability EI is measured through an ability test (MSCEIT) in which right and wrong answers are determined by a panel of emotion experts or assessed against a consensus view of the correct answer (Mayer et al., 2002). The creators of the ability model of EI, Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (1997), argue that Ability EI meets the criteria for being classified as intelligence. Intelligence or 'g' is an overarching term for a number of mental abilities such as verbal, spatial or logical cognitive information processes (Carroll, 1993). These mental abilities are considered to operate in an objective manner, that is, they are undertaken with minimal influence from emotion. In contrast, in the ability model of Emotional Intelligence emotional competencies are characterised as 'hot' cognitions in that they are ways of cognitively processing emotional information (Safran & Greenberg, 1982). The crux of ongoing debates about the construct validity of emotional intelligence is whether the Ability model meets the criteria required for being defined as intelligence whilst the Trait model of EI has been tested alongside personality to see whether Trait EI is distinct enough, but remaining related to models of personality to provide incremental validity in predicting outcomes.

Mayer et al (1999) claim that the Ability model of EI meets three key criteria required for claiming intelligence status. The first of these is conceptual: general intelligence is described as mental performance on tasks which can be externally assessed as correct or incorrect (Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001). Mayer et al (2003) developed an EI test (MSCEITv1) to provide a way of assessing individual EI

ability. The test involves tasks to assess the four branches of Ability EI based on extant emotion research on each area: the first branch of perceiving and appraising emotion assesses ability through presenting facial expressions and artwork (Ekman, 1973), the second branch of assimilating emotion in thought assesses individual's ability to think and use emotions in relation to their mood, recognising and taking advantage of the way moods can influence thinking, for example a depressed mood is more helpful for deductive thinking (Palfai & Salovey, 1993-1994), the third branch tests individual understanding of emotions in relation to the development of emotional states, for example relief often follows fear once the threat has passed and the constellations of emotions that can co-occur in response to context. The fourth and final branch gauges individual's knowledge about how to regulate and manage emotion through responding to scenarios with options suggesting how to achieve optimal emotional outcomes. The mode of assessing the accuracy of response for the MSCEIT has been the subject of some controversy (Matthews, 2004). The method of assessment used can be either using a consensus view or an expert panel view of the correct answers. The consensus method compares individual answers against the answers from a representative panel of respondents (Mayer et al., 1990; Wagner, MacDonald, & Manstead, 1986). The expert method compares answers with the views from experts in the field of emotion research; both methods are forms of norm referencing where the results of the test are compared to standardized results from representative norm groups.

Correlational criteria form the second requirement for defining Ability EI as an intelligence in which there should be positive correlations between all mental abilities which claim to form intelligence with stronger correlations within sub-sets, for example word meaning and comprehension tests within verbal intelligence are strongly correlated but verbal intelligence and performance intelligence are less well correlated. The third requirement for meeting the criterion of being an intelligence is that EI ability needs to be shown to develop with experience and age.

Mayer et al (2000) demonstrated correlations of $r=.36$ for overall ability EI and verbal IQ, meeting requirements that intelligence concepts should show some correlation but not too strong. However, the inter-correlations between the 12 tasks measuring four branches showed a large range from $r=.07$ to $r=.68$ suggesting that the task

elements may not be adequately operationalising the EI facets. Factor analysis in the same study indicated the presence of three branches rather than four, the assimilating emotions branch being included with understanding emotion. Further work on the psychometric properties of the test produced a second more robust version of the MSCEITv2 which have improved reliability statistics which are evaluated in Chapter 6.

5.3.2 TRAIT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Trait EI models have been more diverse than Ability EI models and include personality characteristics, social competencies and motivational tendencies (Bar-On, 2006; Schutte et al., 1998; Petrides & Furnham, 2001). The Bar-On model of EI is defined as a number of non-cognitive competencies that predict one's ability to successfully cope with environmental demands (Bar-On, 2004). It includes five dimensions and fifteen facets. The overlap of Trait EI models with trait models of personality has been well documented and empirically tested (Schutte, 1998; Mayer, 2000; McCrae, 2000). This overlap can be seen in Table 2. Consequently Trait EI models have been criticised for duplicating effects which are actually attributable to personality traits rather than emotional intelligence. Petrides & Furnham (2001) undertook a content analysis of several different Trait EI models and related emotion cognate constructs such as personal intelligence, alexithymia, affective communication, emotional expression and empathy. From factor analysis of the core sampling domain from these models Petrides & Furnham (2001) created a comprehensive Trait EI model including 15 facets (see Table 2) to capture the self-perceptions of individuals' emotional competencies within a personality framework.

TABLE 2 TRAIT EI FACETS - PETRIDES & FURNHAM (2001)

Facet	Characteristic
Adaptability	Flexible and willing to adapt to new situations
Assertiveness	Forthright, frank and willing to stand up for their rights
Emotion expression	Capable of communicating their feelings to others
Emotion management (others)	Capable of influencing other people's feelings
Emotion perception (self and others)	Clear about their own and others people's feelings
Emotion regulation	Capable of controlling their emotions
Impulsiveness (low)	Reflective and less likely to give in to their urges
Relationships	Capable of maintaining fulfilling personal relationships
Self-esteem	Successful and self-confident
Self-motivation	Driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity
Social awareness	Accomplished networkers with superior social skills
Stress management	Capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress
Trait empathy	Capable of taking someone else's perspective
Trait happiness	Cheerful and satisfied with their lives
Trait optimism	Confident and likely to 'look on the bright side' of life

This model of emotional self-efficacy, assesses an individual's belief in their emotional abilities and is defined by Petrides & Furnham (2001) as 'a constellation of emotion related dispositions and self-perceived abilities representing a distinct composite construct at the lower levels of hierarchical personality structures' (Petrides, 2003, p17). Petrides & Furnham (2001) acknowledge the explicit overlap with personality traits, but argue and empirically demonstrate that their self-report measure of Trait EI has effects on emotional outcomes over and above that of personality traits such as life satisfaction, rumination and coping styles (Petrides, 2007). Their premise is that their Trait EI model focuses upon the emotional elements of personality traits and has been found to exist within the lower levels of hierarchical personality structures.

In contrast to trait personality models, which hold that personality traits do not covary to produce one unifying construct (McCrae, 2000), the Petrides & Furnham (2001) model of Trait EI is considered a unified construct and has four sub-domains of: Well being, Self control, Emotionality and Sociability. Trait EI *Well being* describes the

degree to which individuals are satisfied with their lives and level of optimism; Trait EI *Self control* describes how an individual perceives their ability to regulate their stress and gives a measure of their impulsivity; Trait EI *Emotionality* gives an indication of their perceived ability to express emotion and consider, understand other's emotional perspectives and Trait EI *Sociability* describes the level of influence individuals believe they can achieve over others. Petrides & Furnham's (2001) model of Trait EI is measured using self-report considered the most appropriate way to assess self-perceptions. In contrast to the ability testing of Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, Petrides & Furnham (2009) state that 'EI...cannot be measured as a mental ability. This is due to the subjective nature of emotions that cannot be artificially objectified in order to make it amenable to IQ type scoring.' (Petrides, 2009, p. 11). It is their contention that the key distinction between Trait EI models and ability models is one of measurement rather than one of theory. It when EI is operationalised that the distinction between ability and self-perception emerges (See Table 3). Evidence shows that correlations between self-estimates of ability and actual performance are low, around .30 (Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, & Salovey, 2006), thus self-perceptions should not be used as strong predictors of how an individual may perform in practice. Nonetheless self-perceptions have been found to have a strong influence on cognition, behaviour, and mental health. Bandura's (1997) theory of self-efficacy defines self-efficacy as 'a generative capability in which cognitive, social, emotional and behavioural sub-skills must be organised and effectively orchestrated to serve innumerable purposes.' (Bandura, 1997, p. 36). However, he makes it clear that 'perceived self-efficacy is not [just] a measure of the skills one has, but a belief about what one can do under different sets of conditions with whatever skills one possesses' (Bandura, 1997, p. 37). Such beliefs also underpin Lazarus & Folkman's (1984) cognitive appraisal processes outlined earlier in this chapter.

TABLE 3. THE DOMAINS AND MEASUREMENT OF TRAIT AND ABILITY MODELS OF EI

Trait EI Domains	Domain descriptions	Measurement Self- report (TEIQue) Example items	Ability EI Domains	Domain descriptions	Measurement Ability Test MSCEIT Example items ¹⁰
Well-being	The degree to which individuals are satisfied with their lives and level of optimism	'I generally don't find life enjoyable.'	Identifying emotions	The ability to identify emotion in self, others and other stimuli.	Perceiving emotions: photographs of faces and pictures of artistic designs and landscapes
Emotionality	The perceived ability to express emotion and consider, understand other's emotional perspectives	'I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me.'	Using emotions	The ability to use feelings in cognitive reasoning, problem solving, decisions	What mood(s) might be helpful to feel when meeting in-laws for the very first time? (Tension/joy/surprise)
Sociability	The level of influence individuals believe they can achieve over others	'I would describe myself as a good negotiator'	Understanding emotions	The understanding of the emotional lexicon, how emotions combine and progress and a knowledge of the outcomes of emotional experiences	Tom felt anxious, and became a bit stressed when he thought about all the work he needed to do. When his supervisor brought him an additional project, he felt _____. (Select the best choice.) Overwhelmed/ Depressed/ Ashamed/Self Conscious/ Jittery
Self-control	The ability to regulate stress and gives a measure of impulsivity	'I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to'	Managing emotions	The ability to regulate emotions in self and others through reducing, enhancing or modifying affect to suit the context.	Debbie just came back from vacation. She was feeling peaceful and content. How well would each action preserve her mood? 1: She started to make a list of things at home that she needed to do. 2: She began thinking about where and when she would go on her next vacation. 3: She decided it was best to ignore the feeling since it wouldn't last anyway.

¹⁰ See Appendix 3 for more example items

There has been vigorous academic debate as to the validity of the concept of emotional intelligence, much of which has been the assessment of it as an intelligence against intelligence criteria on the one hand and assessing its discriminability against personality on the other (Huang, 2006; Matthews, 2004 ; Mayer, 2000; McCrae, 2000). The degree to which emotional intelligence encompasses a discrete psychological concept is still under review. However, the emotional intelligence model provides a useful umbrella term under which established discrete emotional competencies can be grouped. Having established some academic consensus over the distinction between Ability EI and Trait EI, the challenge remains to create empirical evidence to determine the effect of such competencies on real world outcomes.

5.4 GENDER, PARENTING AND EMOTION

The philosophical arguments about the superiority of rational thought over emotion have been played out in gender terms over the centuries with women consistently associated with being emotional and men more rational. Rationality was associated with the public sphere of politics and employment whilst emotional work was associated with the private sphere and the family. Attitudinal evidence indicates that women are believed to be more emotionally competent and more expressive than men, whilst men are expected to be more logical (Briton & Hall, 1995). Petrides, Furnham and Martin (2004) found that self-reported beliefs about the overall emotional competencies of men and women supported stereotypical views that women are more emotionally intelligent than men as women's global Trait EI self-estimates were higher than men's. However, when they calculated self-report scores using specific facets of emotional intelligence that make up a global score, they found that gender differences disappeared reflecting that stereotypes work from global generalisations than specific facets. From this study, participants appeared to overweight the facet 'understanding emotion' as more of a female trait than male trait in their scoring (Petrides, 2004). However, when considering the normative sample for Trait EI, men score significantly higher on the global score than women, although the difference is small, .12 in a scale of 1-7. Nonetheless, the differences are

slightly greater when considering the Trait EI facets, where men score higher on emotion regulation and stress management, but lower on empathy and relationships.

There are strong arguments for the influence of cultural and socialisation on gender differences in emotional expression and competence. One function of emotions is to orient individuals towards a goal; if the goals of men and women are socially prescribed then gender differences would be expected. For example the goal of intimacy for mothers in a nurturing parent role versus the goal of independence for fathers in a traditional breadwinning role. Masculine socialisation involves developing competitiveness and the ability to differentiate the self from others to improve the male individual's chances in succeeding in adult employment, where power and status are constantly at stake and the minimal expression of emotions can help individuals maintain control (Brody & Hall, 2000). Men tend to internalise their feelings showing little emotional verbal or facial expression with increased physiological arousal compared to women who generalise their emotional expression across facial, verbal and other non-verbal types of expression (Brody, 1999). The influence of stereotypes on gender differences in emotional competencies is important for predicting behavioural change, as stereotypes provide general prototypical models of behaviour which guide individuals in their expectancies of emotional behaviour when interacting and their own response. The belief itself of gender difference can generate self-fulfilling prophecies which can reduce the possibility of change. In addition, infringing normative emotional display codes can lead to social rejection, reduced attractiveness to the opposite sex and occupational discrimination (Fiske & Stevens, 1993).

With the advent of greater gender equality, greater emphasis upon emotional competence has emerged maybe due to an increase in the number of women in the workforce, an increase in the service sector where social interactions have more economic implications and the introduction of more employee friendly management practices, which seek to engage employees to maximise their productivity and commitment (Glass, 2002; Abrahamson, 2007). Amidst these changes, the traditional norms of masculinity have shifted to a model which allows for emotional expression and nurturing characteristics. The term 'new man' which appeared in the 1980's reflects this change, however, the conventional masculinity prototype remains that of 'suppress[ing] emotion and deny[ing] vulnerability' (Connell, 2000, p. 5). Possibly the

greatest change in the espousal of acceptable masculine emotionality has been achieved through fatherhood. There have been well documented accounts of the aspirations for more involved fathering experienced by men currently compared to the last generation (Van Dongen, 1995 ; Warin, 1999; Brannen, 2006). Dermott (2008) found that fathers emphasised the importance for them to be emotionally close to their children using examples from the fathering they had experienced such as emotional distance or positive close relationships, as seen from two example quotes below:

I would say that he (father) was close to me, but not in the way of showing emotions, or talking about things, or like necessarily being open about things. And so I suppose, I always aspired to try and be more open with my children. I mean I'm not saying that he was uninvolved or didn't care but I would have, well, I wanted to be really involved in what they do. (Dermott, 2008, p. 72)

I wanted to be like the memory of my father because we had a very good relationship (Dermott, 2008, p. 73).

The important elements of good fathering appear to be those of fostering a close relationship with the child which involves being more emotionally expressive and also show more awareness and understanding of the child's emotional experiences (Furstenberg, 1988; Lamb, 1986; Van Dongen, 1995). These emotional competencies map onto emotional intelligence domains of emotionality within the Trait EI model and understanding emotions in the Ability EI model. Fathers who achieve a close relationship with their child on this basis are therefore likely to show greater emotional competencies in line with the emotional intelligence framework. Before examining how gender differences occur in emotional intelligence research it worth noting that for emotions to be adaptive for men, they need to meet male goals, which are strongly influenced by cultural factors. Consequently, being high in emotional intelligence as it has been currently defined may be maladaptive as well as adaptive see (Petrides, 2003). In the Mayer et al (2000) model of Ability EI, it is

possible, and theoretically expected given its developmental nature, to have high scores in one branch, but low scores in another, which can create problems. For example, having high scores on understanding emotion, but low scores on using emotion may help an individual cognitively empathise with others but not emotionally, which might suit a work culture where emotional expression is less explicit, but would not be as effective within the family realm.

Empirical evidence from emotional intelligence research indicates some gender differences in self reported emotional self efficacy. Petrides (2009), reporting the norms for Trait EI, found significant differences between men and women on three of the four sub-domains. Men were higher on the Trait EI Self-control and Sociability sub-domain, but lower on the Emotionality sub-domain (Petrides, 2009). More specifically, men were higher on facets of: emotion regulation, the belief that they can modulate moods; stress management, the belief that they can handle pressure having developed a range of successful coping strategies; emotion management in others and social awareness, the belief that they have excellent social skills and can influence others. However, men were lower than women on emotion perception, starting and maintaining relationships and trait empathy, or the belief that they can take the perspective of others. In contrast, in studies using the Ability model of EI, measuring performance, men consistently score lower on all four of the branches of EI of: identifying emotions, facilitating decision making, understanding emotion and managing emotion (Mayer, 2002; Palmer, 2005; Extremera, 2006; Brackett, 2006).

Self-efficacy theorists argue the importance of self-beliefs for performance, in that confidence in one's capabilities in a certain domain is more likely to ensure competent enacting of that capability than is self-doubt (Bandura 1997). On the basis of existing evidence on male Trait EI self-efficacy (high scores) and their Ability EI performance (low scores), there would appear to be a discrepancy between the two. Petrides & Furnham (2000) have suggested that response bias in reporting self-efficacy Trait EI could have implications for mental health, as negative self-evaluations are related to depression, whilst positive self-evaluations are associated with self-esteem and psychological adjustment. The gap between self-efficacy scores and performance scores could be partially explained by moderate correlations between self – estimate and ability tests for IQ that have been previously found, usually around

$r = .30$ (Furnham & Rawles, 1999; Paulhus, Lysy, & Yik, 1998). Petrides & Furnham (2000) also found moderate correlations between self-estimated EI and measured EI, $r = .45$, and small, but significant differences between women and men's self-evaluations on EI, $r = .40$ and $r = .48$ respectively.

This higher estimation by men on stereotypical feminine related attributes of EI is unexpected, as women have been found to underestimate their self-efficacy on masculine tasks (Beyer, 1998). The higher correspondence found between male self-efficacy and measured EI in the Petrides & Furnham (2000) study suggests that men have a more accurate self-knowledge of their EI competencies. However, research by Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner & Salovey (2006) indicates otherwise. In a study comparing Ability EI with self reported EI, they found the correlation between the EI test (MSCEIT) and self report to be very low ($r = .19$, $p < .01$) with no gender differences. In addition, low EI individuals were more likely to over-report their ability whilst those in the upper quartiles were more likely to under report their EI ability. In a second study, however, Brackett *et al* (2006) did find gender differences in the relationship between Ability EI and perceived social competence with friends, showing that men with low Ability EI were more likely to use negative response strategies to relationship conflict and others' reports of positive events. Furthermore in a final study comparing Ability EI, self-reported EI and their impact on social interaction, Brackett *et al* (2006) found that men with higher Ability EI were more likely than men with lower Ability EI to be rated as more engaged, socially competent, more interested and more of a team player. There were no significant associations between the self-report measure and social outcomes, nor any significant effects for women between Ability or self – reported EI and social outcomes. Reasons offered for this from Brackett *et al* (2006) include: the influence of social desirability in self-report measures, which undermine the accuracy of the measure and a possible threshold effect in relation to Ability EI whereby once a threshold level has been reached, there is no added value for influencing social outcomes. If women generally score higher than men on Ability EI then more women than men could be reaching such a threshold thus accounting for the significant influences for men's Ability EI on social outcomes, but not women's (Brackett *et al.*, 2006).

The low correspondence between self-efficacy and performance is likely to be a methodological one, as Bandura (1997) argues that the adaptive function of self-efficacy beliefs is that they are cognitively re-organised to assess each context as they arise to allow all knowledge to be considered, which is difficult to replicate experimentally. Nonetheless, Bandura does acknowledge that, over time, experience contributes to self-schemas about broad themes, for example whether an individual considers themselves good intellectually, but poor in social situations. Thus, the more specific the measurement of self-efficacy the more accurate the self perception should be.

In summary, the data show that on Ability EI or performance, men score consistently lower than women, but on Trait EI or self-efficacy they score higher on emotional traits of self-control and sociability. In addition, men tend to over-estimate their abilities when self-rating their EI and women underestimate theirs. It could be argued that this picture reflects emotional gender stereotypes. If this is the case, then we would expect the emotional competencies of Self-control or managing emotions and Sociability to be more useful in the culturally masculine workplace, but Emotionality more influential for the culturally feminine family context.

5.5 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND WORK – FAMILY CONFLICT

For this thesis, it is suggested that emotional intelligence is relevant to work-family conflict in the following ways. The experience of work-family conflict can be conceptualised as a specific contextual form of strain. Literature on stress and coping emphasize the distinction between stress and strain, with stress being defined as the external stressor, such as meeting a deadline and strain defined as being the physiological and psychological responses of raised heart rate, higher cortisol levels and feelings of tension (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995; R. S. Lazarus, 1999). Organisational psychologists suggest that an individual experiences strain once the demands placed upon them exceed the resources they have at their disposal to cope with them (Karasek, 1979). Resources can include instrumental items such as income, in addition to individual characteristics such as intelligence. For this study it is proposed that emotional intelligence be seen as an individual resource. The transactional model of coping and stress from (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) suggests

that strain occurs following a process of appraisal. This model explains why individuals react differently to similar events so that an event which is stressful for one person, who appraises it as a threat, would not be for another individual because they had appraised the same event as benign. The factors that influence appraisal include levels of salience of an event for the individual and their beliefs in their ability to cope. Individuals appraise events from a self interested standpoint whereby an event will be assessed as threatening or positive depending on what the consequences mean for that individual. For example, an announcement of budget cuts may appear positive to an individual who disliked their work but also felt able to get another job, but these same circumstances may appear daunting to another individual who has worked at their company for many years and enjoys their work but who feels unconfident about their ability to get another job.

Emotionally demanding situations are characteristic of work-family life where individuals have to let down emotionally salient people, such as their spouse and children at home, or their manager and colleagues at work. Taking an appraisal theory perspective it could be expected that having good levels of Ability emotional intelligence or Trait emotional intelligence would make emotionally charged situations less threatening, as individuals high in emotional intelligence would have more confidence in handling their own and others' emotions, in that their beliefs about their ability to cope would influence their appraisal. High EI individuals could be expected to identify and predict emotions ahead of time and they would be more likely to take pre-emptive action. For example, by talking through the week's activities with their partner or negotiating how to take emergency time off with the boss to avoid potential work-family conflict situations, thus reducing the frequency of work-family conflict events.

Friede & Ryan (2005) suggest that personality characteristics can influence work-family life in three ways: firstly individuals can self-select their work-family environment according to their personality, for example individuals with high positive affect experience more positive events in life (Magnus, Diener, Fujita, & Payot, 1993); secondly individuals' personality has been found to influence the perception of work-family events to the extent that a similar event could be seen as enriching by one individual, but as conflicting by another; thirdly personality may affect the coping

strategies adopted to manage the work-family interface (Friede & Ryan, 2005). The last two points fit with Lazarus & Folkman's (1984) theory of cognitive appraisal and coping in which the appraisal of events is influenced by individual goals and ego involvement. Empirical evidence shows that individuals with positive dispositions are associated with more positive events (Deiner, Larsen, & Emmons, 1984). In contrast, individuals with high negative affect, the tendency to focus on negative elements of life and experience ongoing distress and anxiety (Watson & Clark, 1984), are less satisfied with their job (Levin & Stokes, 1989), suffer from more somatic complaints and depression (Brief, Burke, George, Robinson, & Webster, 1988). Carlson (1999) found that those with higher negative affect predicted higher work-family conflict across all three domains of time, strain and behaviour based conflict (Carlson, 1999), although Bruck & Allen (2003) found negative affect to be particularly associated with strain based conflict (Bruck, 2003) with the 3 dispositional variables included in their study explaining 32 per cent of the variance for strain based conflict. Michel & Clark (2009) found that negative affect accounted for 29-38 per cent of the variance in work-family conflict (WIF/FIW directions respectively) (Michel & Clark 2009). Amongst the few dispositional variables studied in relation to work-family conflict, negative affect has the most of empirical evidence in support of its association with increased levels of work-family conflict. Other dispositional factors which have been considered include the big five personality dimensions which show that conscientiousness and agreeableness are negatively related to work-family conflict, neuroticism positively related, extraversion only showed an association with work-family facilitation and openness to experience showed no relationship (Wayne et al 2004).

In addition to the more general emotional valence of negative affect, specific emotions have been examined in relation to work-family conflict, such as guilt and hostility. Judge, Ilies & Scott (2006) in a time diary study confirmed hypotheses that specific emotions of guilt and hostility were experienced at both work and at home in association with the related direction of work-family conflict, so guilt and hostility were experienced at work for occasions when family interfered with work and vice versa (Judge, et al 200). They also found that individuals with dispositional traits of high trait guilt and trait hostility were more likely to experience feelings of state guilt and hostility during occasions of work-family conflict. It has been suggested that, although

negative, such feelings provide a motivating force to change things. It could be argued that emotionally intelligent individuals would recognise the constructive nature of such feelings and take actions to avoid similar circumstances in the future (Tangney, 2001).

Although dispositional factors do appear to have some effect on levels of work-family conflict, contextual factors have also been found to play a part in individual's interpretation of emotional encounters, for example Saarni (2001) in a review reports that status and power relationships are an important context as are the closeness of relationships and whether the setting in which the encounter occurs is public or private. She also offers a fourth important contextual variable, that of impression management in relation to the role that one is occupying at the time of any encounter. Kemper (2000) suggests that the individual who is the focus of emotion is positioned in the social matrix which 'determines which emotions are likely to be expressed, when and where, on what grounds and for what reasons, by what modes of expression, by whom.' (Kemper, 2000, p. 46). Lazarus (1999) argues that it is the person-environment fit or transaction between the individual and context which provides the greatest explanation for emotional behaviour (Lazarus, 1999).

Context is taken into account in Lazarus & Folkman's (1984) cognitive appraisal theory through their relational meaning approach which argues that appraisals occur in relation to a specific context which confers meaning to the individual in relation to their goals. This is particularly important in the work-family field as some individual's goals will crossover the exo-system boundaries of work and the micro-system of family in both directions and thus create strain due to thwarting of family goals in the work arena or work goals within the family arena. The acknowledgement of contextual information in relation to emotion, what emotions are expected to be felt in certain situations, is indirectly taken into account in the Ability model of EI in the 'understanding emotions' dimension, as part of the understanding emotions sub-domain includes the knowledge about what emotions are expected in certain situations. The other way that emotional intelligence research encompasses context is through the ways in which each approach deals with the assessment of what emotional responses can be deemed competent. Mayer et al (2000) deal with this issue explicitly for the Ability EI measure MSCEIT by proposing two ways of scoring: by

cultural norms or by expert norms. Other approaches rely on research evidence to guide them as to the choice of effective emotional strategies.

5.6 SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the development of the concept of emotional intelligence from extant literature on emotions, showing that the term ‘emotional intelligence’ acts as an umbrella term for specific areas of emotional competency. Four areas of competency have been proposed and achieved some consensus: emotional expression; emotion decision making; emotional understanding and emotional management. However, there is still some debate about whether Ability EI exists, and, if it does, whether it can be measured accurately. Another debate has been over the distinction between Ability EI, based in the cognitive aspects of managing emotions and Trait EI, based in personality and typical dispositional aspects of emotional behaviour. The conceptual assumptions from these debates about how EI should relate to other real life variables are currently being tested empirically, in addition to evaluating any gender differences in EI which theoretically could exist, but has not been clear in evidence to date. This thesis aims to add to the EI evidence base within the field of work-family conflict and in the context of fatherhood. There are a number of methodological issues that pertain to the operationalisation of EI which are addressed, in the methods section for each study in the following findings chapters. The previous four chapters have provided the historical, theoretical and empirical context for examining work-family conflict, dispositional factors amongst fathers within Bronfenbrenner’s ecological framework. The next three findings chapters outline the rationale for the hypotheses, methods based on the literature review and findings from 4 studies.

6 STUDY 1: FATHERS' WORKING PATTERNS¹¹

6.1. CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This study examines fathers' work hours and patterns of flexible working guided by the theoretical concepts 'father as breadwinner' and 'father as carer'. It presents a secondary analysis of two nationally representative employment datasets: The Third Work-Life Balance Employee Survey (2006) and the Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey of Parents (2005). Both surveys were conducted just after the introduction of father-friendly employment legislation in Britain in April 2003: the right to request flexible working for fathers with a child under six years of age and an entitlement to a paid two week paternity leave period. The data suggests that fatherhood roles are in transition. This study demonstrates the continuity of long working hours for fathers employed in full-time jobs, signaling the salience of father as breadwinner in the British context. However, the evidence also suggests that men are reducing long hours upon becoming fathers and are increasing their use of flexible working options in line with a father as carer model..

6.2 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The aims of this study were to examine fatherhood status in relation to working hours and flexible working, specifically: to examine whether fatherhood status is associated with longer working hours. In addition, this study considers whether fathers with children under 6 years working more hours than those with older children and more than non-fathers and finally the study assess the take up and pattern of flexible working for fathers.

¹¹ Findings from Study 1 have been published by the Department for Business Innovation and Skills (Biggart & O' Brien, 2009)

6.3 BACKGROUND

Over the last thirty years, fathers' roles have been changing, from that of primary breadwinner, with economic provision as a focus, to a more caring role, where fathers are expected to be more involved in the care of children. The consequences of the industrial legacy of gender segregation in the world of work and family have taken many years to unravel (Crompton, 2006). In terms of role attitudes and expectations, there is a legacy of traditional gendered views about work and family responsibilities, with fathers constructed as the economic 'provider' (Hood, 1986) and mothers as responsible for childcare and domestic matters. These attitudes still exist today, although they are no longer the dominant view (Crompton et al., 2003). In the same time frame, a combination of economic need, the cultural impact of feminism, and improvements in the work opportunities available to women has resulted in a large increase in the numbers of women now in the workplace, rising from 56.4 per cent of women in the workforce in 1971 to 70 per cent by 2008 (Office for National Statistics, 2008). As a consequence there is less time for working mothers to carry out childcare and domestic work. This time shortage has been partly addressed, individually, by greater use of public childcare and, organisationally, with greater provision of flexible working options. The time dilemma has also been met, in part, by fathers who have shown small increases in the care of children (Smith, 2007; Gershuny, 2001). The associated increase in UK dual earner families means that fathers are now under more time pressure from home responsibilities.

The UK governmental policy framework of the last decade has aimed to facilitate greater work-life balance, particularly for parents, through the Employment Act 2002 and the Work and Families Act 2006. Although the main policy attention has been on mothers, there has been an increasing focus on fathers, with the objective to extend work-family choice for both parents to earn and spend time with and children (Supporting Families, 1999). In particular, there has been strong policy steer to increase flexible working options for mothers and fathers. Of course informal voluntary flexible working arrangements had been in place before new legislation but not promoted or part of a formal "right to request". Examples include, flexi-time, working from home, part-time work, and school-term hours of employment. From April 2003 British fathers were given a legal right to take two weeks leave from

employment at the birth of a child, introduced at a flat-rate. In terms of supporting flexible working, the same Act required employers to commence a legal 'duty to consider' requests for flexible working time arrangements from employees who are parents with responsibility for children aged under six (or under 18 in the case of disabled children) and who had worked for an organisation for six months or more. Governmental emphasis continues to focus on extending choice of flexible working options rather than impose working hour reductions (DTI, 2003; Walsh, 2008), and although the government have accepted the EU Working Time Directive 1998, they have retained the opt out clause allowing employees to volunteer to work more than the 48 hour limit.

In the light of these policy developments this study examines British fathers' work hours and patterns of flexible working. It presents a secondary analysis of two nationally representative employment datasets - The Third Work-Life Balance Employee Survey (2006) and the Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey of Parents (2005) building on previous analysis of both national data sets (O'Brien and Shemilt, 2003; Smeaton and Marsh, 2006). Both surveys were conducted just after the introduction of father- friendly employment legislation in Britain in April 2003. The analysis is guided by assumptions embedded in the theoretical proposition of the 'father as breadwinner model' (Hood, 1986) and compares its utility to the 'caring fatherhood model' (Bjornberg, 1992; Lamb & Lewis, 2004).

6.3.1 FATHERS' AND MOTHERS' EMPLOYMENT PATTERNS.

Fathers' roles have been changing, over the last thirty years, from that of primary breadwinner, with economic provision as a focus, to a more caring role, where fathers are expected to be more involved in aspects of childcare (Thompson, 2005; Warin, 1999). The male breadwinner role, in real income terms, has rarely met the criteria of sole male economic provider for the family. These circumstances were briefly achievable for families between 1940 -1970 (Hood, 1986) and have been less economically possible for most families since then. In recent times, women's contribution to household income has been increasing at a higher rate than that of men. There has been a 31 per cent increase in contribution to household income for women compared to 13 per cent for men between 1996/97 and 2003/04 (Department for Work and Pensions, 2005). Nonetheless the psychological impact of the

breadwinner concept has been longer lasting for the construction of male identity (Dex, 2003; Burghes, 1997; Warin et al 1999).

In contrast, societal attitudes towards family roles have changed with decreasing proportions of men and women agreeing with the statement: 'A man's job is to earn money; a woman's job is to look after the home': 28 per cent agreed with this statement in 1989, decreasing to 17 per cent by 2002 (Crompton et al., 2003). In studies of men's attitudes towards men's work time, high proportions of fathers wish to reduce their work hours to spend more time with the family (Kodz et al 2003). Fatherhood scholars have outlined increases in fathers' involvement in family life (Lamb & Lewis, 2004; Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004) and surveys have revealed the dilemmas that fathers face in managing work and family (Thompson et al 2005). Although there is evidence of the caring fatherhood model, when looking at the work hours and patterns of flexible working for fathers, compared to mothers, the gap is still large. Moreover, when comparisons between fathers and non-fathers are made for work hours, fathers have been found to work more hours than non-fathers (O'Brien & Shemilt, 2003; Kodz et al 2003). However, recent evidence indicates that this effect of fatherhood status does not hold when other variables such as age and occupation are controlled (Dermott, 2006; Natti et al 2006). Further evidence on fathers' employment activity rate and work hours outlined below provide a background context from which the current issues have emerged.

In spite of a perceived transition of the father role, the structure of British fathers' employment remains significantly different to that of mothers', both in terms of working hours and patterns. Nonetheless, employment rate trends by gender from the Office of National Statistics (2001) show a convergence of men's and women's employment rates, with a steady increase in the rate of participation in employment by women of 47 per cent in 1959 to 70 per cent in 1999 and a parallel decrease in participation by men from 94 per cent in 1959 to 79 per cent in 1999, (Mill et al., 2001). Latest figures indicate that while employment rates have remained at this level proportionally for men and women, there are still more men within the workforce than women, 79 per cent men, 70 per cent of women (Office for National Statistics, 2008). In spite of the large increase of women entering the workforce over the last thirty years, the distribution of men and women within the workforce is still very

different, with more men working full-time compared to women and differing gender composition across occupation. This gender disparity is largely due to the changes in work patterns of *parents*. The differences between mothers' and fathers' working patterns are greater than gender differences. For example, the proportion of fathers employed full-time in the workforce by 2001 stood at 86 per cent, a much higher rate than mothers at 31 per cent (O'Brien, 2005). A similar disproportion exists for part-time working parents, with 3 per cent of fathers working part-time in 2001 compared to 36 per cent of mothers (Mill et al., 2001).

Socio-demographic data shows that amongst couples with children, the UK has the highest proportion (40 per cent) of full-time/part-time households in Europe (Crompton, 2006; Franco & Winqvist, 2002), which primarily consist of male full-time earners and female part-time earners. International attitudinal survey evidence indicates a strong preference for the full-time breadwinner plus part-time carer model in the UK (Crompton, 2000; Connolly & Gregory 2008) providing additional explanation for stability in fathers' long work hours in the UK. These differences in gender ratios for full-time working, particularly those for fathers, suggest that mothers still take on the primary responsibility for childcare. Other figures also support this interpretation, for example in employment activity rates for parents at different ages across the life course. Differences in employment activity rates for fathers and mothers show a gap of 24 per cent at age 30-34 years, the prime years for birth of first child. Mothers' employment activity rate drops to 68 per cent at this time, but fathers' employment activity rate remains high at 92 per cent (Mill et al., 2001). Furthermore, the age of the child also has a negative impact upon mothers' employment rates, with a gap of 30 per cent between fathers' and mothers' employment rates when the age of the youngest dependent child is between 0 and 3 years (Paull, 2008). This impact of child age upon mothers' work patterns can also be seen in mothers' employment rates and work hours' reduction (Office for National Statistics, 2008) and goes some way to explaining the high prevalence of mothers' part-time work. In summary, the high employment activity rate for British fathers supports assumptions embedded in the father as breadwinner model.

6.3.2 FATHERS' WORK TIME.

In analyses of fathers' work time from UK datasets spanning the last 24 years, fathers have been found to work longer hours than men without children (Brannen et al 1997; Kodz et al 2003; O'Brien, 2005). Fathers' work time in the UK reached prominent status when it was reported in 1996 that UK fathers worked the longest hours in the EU, 46.9 hours per week (Deven, Inglis, Moss, & Petrie, 1998). Information from the Labour Force Survey show that, although no longer the highest hours in Europe, UK fathers' mean hours per week were still 47 hours per week in 2001 (O'Brien & Shemilt 2003). In the First Work Life Balance Survey in 2000 fathers showed a high tolerance for working long hours with 60 per cent of fathers satisfied with work-life balance at 48 hours per week and 50 per cent at 60 hours per week (O'Brien & Shemilt 2003).

Whilst fathers' mean work hours are considered high, comparisons with non-fathers assess the significance of fatherhood status. In multivariate analyses, Brannen et al (1997) found that fathers worked longer hours than non-fathers when controlling for age and Kodz et al (2003) found that fathers were more likely to work more hours than non-fathers when controlling for age, occupation and qualifications. This evidence supports the proposition that the breadwinner role for fathers is still predominant. More recent work by Dermott (2006) re-tested the disparity between fathers' and non-fathers' work hours controlling for age, earnings, occupation, education and partner's work status and found no significant difference between fathers' and non-fathers' work hours once age was introduced into the regression analysis. Dermott (2006) suggested that fatherhood status had been conflated with career stage, as both life stages coincide. Natti et al (2006) also found no effect for fatherhood status in their regression analyses on men in Finland, which included the same variables. Given that age had been included in earlier analyses finding fatherhood status to be a significant predictor of work hours, it raises a question about the breadwinner model: Has the fatherhood role as breadwinner become less salient so that fathers are now adopting a working hour regime more typical of men without children? Or are significant numbers of fathers adopting the caring role and reducing their hours to the extent that they now cancel out the effect of traditional fathers? A US study by Kaufman & Uhlenberg (2000) suggests that treating fathers as

a homogeneous group will mask differences between groups of fathers undertaking changing roles. They found that fathers who saw their role as breadwinners worked longer hours compared to fathers who undertook the caring more involved role.

Kaufman & Uhlenberg's (2000) findings with regard to fathers' changing behaviour are supported by Reynolds et al (2003) study, which report that some fathers have been found to make sacrifices in their career prospects to spend more time with their children (Reynolds et al., 2003). In the same manner recent evidence from the Millennium Cohort Survey (Tanaka & Waldfogel 2007) found that fathers who worked less hours when their child was under one year spent more time in childcare activities such as changing nappies, feeding the baby and getting up in the night. Another study, (Yeung et al 2001) found that fathers' time with the child in play and care giving activities decreases as their child's age increases. Fathers in Yeung et al's (2001) study spent more time in the week with children aged 0-5 years¹². It is also clear from a number of attitudinal studies (Kodz et al 200; Fagan, 2003) that fathers state that they would prefer to work reduced hours.

Clearly these findings run counter to the breadwinner hypothesis and empirical findings which show that fathers work more hours than non-fathers. However, in times of role transition it would be likely that contradictory behaviours are observed as fathers endeavour to find ways to accommodate new roles within existing social and economic constraints. Recent changes in legislation for paternity leave and the right to request flexible working have enabled fathers to change their work patterns whilst their children are still under six years old. The caring father model and evidence cited above suggests that fathers with young children under 6 years old may be more likely to work fewer hours than fathers with older children and non-fathers, whilst the breadwinner model suggests that fathers with young children will work more hours than fathers with older children and non-fathers. The effect of child age will be included in the analyses here to test previous UK work which did not include child age in their models.

¹² Note: this effect is not solely due to fathers' availability, young children are, by the nature of their dependency on parents, also more available at a young age than when they are older and more independent.

6.3.3 FLEXIBLE WORKING.

UK government policy over the last decade has been to encourage and increase opportunities for fathers and mothers to take up flexible working options. The Employment Act 2002 provided a legislative push to require firms to take on a legal 'duty to consider' requests for flexible working time arrangements from employees who were parents with responsibility for children aged under six (or under 18 in the case of disabled children) and who had worked for an organisation for six months or more. Although many forms of flexible working had been available before this duty rolled out in April 2003, take up was low amongst fathers. Baseline analysis from the Work -Life Balance Survey 2000 showed fathers primarily using shift work (25 per cent), flexi-time (20 per cent) and term-time working (8 per cent) (O'Brien and Shemilt, 2003). Mothers' use of flexible working practices was higher than fathers across the board except in the case of shift work. The largest disparities in flexible working use between mothers and fathers seen in the 2000 survey were in part-time working (58 per cent of mothers compared with 6 per cent of fathers) and term-time only working (20 per cent of mothers compared with 8 per cent of fathers) (Hogarth et al., 2001).

Comparing flexible work use across fathers and non-fathers will also be considered in this Study rather than the customary comparison between fathers and mothers, as mothers have a distinctly different employment pattern in contrast to fathers. By comparing fathers with non-fathers the similar employment experience of male employees can be accounted for whilst distinguishing between men by parenthood status. The breadwinner model would suggest that there will not be a difference in flexible work use between fathers and non-fathers, as it is aligned to the concept of financial provision and any flexible work options that reduced income would not fulfil this requirement. Therefore, we would expect fathers to primarily use flexible working options that do not involve loss of income such as flexi-time, a compressed work week and home working¹³. In contrast, under the 'caring' father model, with more fathers expressing the desire to spend more time with their families (Bjornberg, 1992), we would expect there to be a difference between fathers' and

¹³ Flexible work options not reducing income are referred to as 'full-time' flexible work options for this paper.

non-fathers' use of flexible work options, with fathers using a greater range of flexible work options and using them in greater proportions.

Fathers continued high employment rates and long working hours suggest that their commitment to work remains high in spite of attitudinal changes in relation to adopting a greater caring role within the family sphere. One conclusion from previous research suggests that the male breadwinner model remains a compelling theoretical explanation for fathers' commitment to work whether for reasons of identity or economic provision. If the breadwinner model remains salient despite evidence of a transition for the father role, then it could be expected that fatherhood status will be a significant variable in relation to levels of work hours and types of flexible working. These broad propositions are tested in this study.

6.3.4 HYPOTHESES.

The first hypotheses consider fathers' work hours compared to non-fathers and assess whether fatherhood status is a significant predictor of the number of hours worked. Recent evidence with different employment datasets (Dermott 2006, Natti et al 2006) shows that when age is taken into account, fatherhood status as a predictor of work hours, no longer has an effect. It has been suggested that the stage of fatherhood within the lifecycle, between 25-45 years, coincides with a key development stage for career, between 30-50 years, and that it is the career stage that has an impact on working hours rather than fatherhood (Dermott 2006). This analysis proposes to add the age of child as a predictor of working hours, as the early child years make fatherhood status particularly salient (Flouri & Buchanan, 2003) and might therefore be a better predictor of fathers' behaviour. Age of child is considered a useful indicator of the level of caring responsibilities for parents as younger children require more caring time (Fisher et al., 1999). Findings indicating a negative correlation between mothers' *employment activity status* and *age of child*, but not for fathers (e.g. Paull 2008) suggest that the breadwinner father model is still dominant.

There are a number of factors that have been found to influence working hours that cut across individual, job, organisational culture and economic levels of analysis. Factors under consideration here are: parental status, partnership status, age of child, occupation, pay, education and age. These factors have been chosen from previous research (see methods for references) to test the hypothesis that fatherhood status is

one factor which increases working hours in line with the theoretical breadwinner model and empirical evidence showing that fathers work longer hours than men without children (Feldman, 2002; Kodz et al 2003; O'Brien, 2005).

The regression analyses on the Third Work-Life Balance 2006 dataset aims to test Dermott's (2006) findings using the British Household Panel Survey and the National Child Development Survey showing that, contrary to other studies (O'Brien, 2005; Smith, 2007), fatherhood status is not a sufficient predictor of working hours, and that working hours are more associated with career stage. If the breadwinner model holds true we would expect fathers to work more hours than non-fathers even when controlling for other factors known to also affect working hours, such as income, education and occupation. In addition, it is hypothesised that fathers with very young children, under 6 years old, will work more hours than father with children over 6 years and non-fathers in order to make up for an expected loss of income, as British mothers often return to work part-time after maternity leave (Connolly & Gregory, 2008; Burchell, Dale & Joshi, 1997). In contrast, under the 'caring father' model it is hypothesized that fathers with children under 6 years old to work less hours than fathers with children aged 7 years and over and non-fathers.

The analysis aimed to test two fatherhood models: The 'breadwinner' model implies that fathers will work long hours to fulfill the economic provider role and the 'caring father' model which suggests that fathers will work less hours and use flexible work options in order to be more involved in the family. The following questions were constructed using these two models to guide the analysis. According to the Breadwinner model we might expect that:

1. Hypothesis one: Fathers will work longer hours per week than non-fathers when directly compared.
2. Hypothesis two: Fathers with children under 6 years will work more hours per week than fathers with children over 6 years and non-fathers.
3. Hypothesis three: Fatherhood status is predictive of working hours per week for men with children controlling for: age, occupation, earnings, partner employment status, employment status, and educational level.

4. Hypothesis four: Fatherhood status is predictive of working hours per week for men with children under 6 years controlling for: age, occupation, earnings, partner employment status, employment status, and educational level.
5. Hypothesis five: Fathers work hours will increase after the birth of their child.

Under the caring fatherhood model we might expect that:

6. Hypothesis six: Fathers will make more use of full-time flex options compared to non-fathers. Fathers and non-fathers use of (full-time¹⁴) flexible working options are compared. i.e. 'flexi-time', 'working from home occasionally', 'working from home all the time' and 'a compressed working week'.
7. Hypothesis seven: Fathers who use (full-time) flexible working options will work fewer hours than those who do not use flexible working. We might expect fathers who use flexible work options to be more involved fathers and therefore work less hours.

6.4. METHODOLOGY

6.4.1 DATASETS.

For this study secondary data was accessed from two national cross-sectional surveys run by the former Department of trade and Industry, in 2010, the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills (BIS). This study presents findings from analysis of fathers' and non-fathers' employment behaviour from the Third Work-Life Balance Employee Survey (2006) and the Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey of Parents (2005). The *Third Work-Life Balance Employee Survey* is a cross-sectional survey conducted in February and March 2006 of adults of working age (16 to 64 for men and 16 to 59 for women) living in Great Britain, working as employees in organisations employing five or more employees at the time of the survey. The final number of interviews completed was 2,081. Further detail about the sampling methodology can be found in the main report (Hooker, Neathy, Casebourne & Munro 2007) and related technical report (Latreille & Latreille, 2008).

Access to the datasets was gained directly from BIS, but both datasets are held within the ESDS UK Data Archive at the University of Essex and can be accessed, along with the technical guides by academics online following user registration.

¹⁴ Full-time flexible work options do not entail any loss of income

The Third Work-Life Balance Employee Survey is a cross-sectional survey conducted in February and March 2006 of adults of working age (16 to 64 for men and 16 to 59 for women) living in Great Britain, working as employees in organisations employing five or more employees at the time of the survey. BIS commissioned Independent Communications and Marketing (ICM) and the Institute for Employment Studies (IES) to undertake the survey. Inter-locking quota sampling based on gender and age and an independent quota for employment sector (public/private) were used to ensure that younger employees were adequately sampled. Interviews were carried out over the phone and random digitised dialling was used to generate the phone numbers available for each post code area, based on household densities from the 2001 census. The final number of interviews completed was 2,081 which was a response rate of 32 per cent (Latreille & Latreille, 2008). Notably in terms of quit rates, the authors of the technical report commented that 'some of the questions appearing early in the survey – particularly those asking respondents to detail the number and ages of their children – may have been viewed as especially intrusive. This could be partly responsible for the high number of quits early in the survey.' (Latreille & Latreille 2008 , p23). As can be seen later in this chapter, the number of employed parents within this survey was low in comparison to national proportions of employed parents present in the Labour Force Survey, which is the most nationally representative employment survey. If the quit rates occurred in response to this question about children, it is possible that more parents refused to respond than non-parents, thus contributing to the low parental response rate. A post survey weight was applied to the dataset based on Standard Industry Classification (SIC), which coded which industry the respondent worked in. The WLB3 respondents were proportionally more concentrated in banking, finance and public, administration, health and education and less concentrated in construction, distribution, hotels and restaurants and transport and communications.

The WLB 3 questionnaire had nine sections: A screening section, (to identify the youngest member of the household who met the screening criteria); Background information (childcare responsibilities); Hours of work; Work-Life Balance Practices and Policies); Holidays and time off work; Carers (the caring responsibilities of

respondents); About your employer (employer characteristics); About your job (the respondent's job); About you (personal characteristics of the respondent).

The *Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey of Parents 2005* is an interim survey in a series of cross-sectional surveys undertaken by government departments on this topic since 1979. The Maternity and Paternity Rights Survey 2005 survey was carried out during May 2005. Mothers with babies born in December 2003 were selected for interview, which means they were interviewed 17 to 18 months after the birth. The fathers were contacted via the mothers and were also interviewed in May 2005. 2504 mothers were interviewed and 1512 fathers. Further detail about the sampling methodology can be found in the main report (Smeaton & Marsh 2006a) and related technical report (Smeaton & Marsh 2006b).

The sample was randomly selected from the administrative Child Benefit Records (n12,322), from which mothers with telephone numbers were selected (n3022), with an additional 10 percent of mothers added following a postal request to mothers on the child benefit records for their phone numbers, (n4197). Fathers were directly sampled as child benefit recipients, where available (n747), but the majority of fathers were sampled via the mothers. The eligible sample of fathers from the telephone sample of mothers was 3747; with 1512 responses this represented a 40 per cent response rate from fathers. The response rate for all eligible mothers was 20 per cent but 60 per cent from the eligible telephone number sample. Both mothers' and fathers' interviews took place on the phone and consecutively. From the final sent of mother respondents, the data was compared to mothers from the Labour Force Survey and subsequently weighted to account for an under-representation of under 26 year olds and an over-representation of mothers who had education qualifications over NVQ level 4. There is no data on fathers' sample representativeness (Smeaton & Marsh 2006b).

The section headings of the Mothers' questionnaire were: Work History; Working after the Birth; Working Before the Birth; Maternity Leave; Maternity Pay; Awareness of 2003 Changes and views on Proposed New Rights. The Fathers' questionnaire also asked about Leave and Flexible Working arrangements. Copies of both questionnaires can be found in the technical user guides supplied with the datasets at the UK data Archive.

6.4.2 SAMPLING.

Contemporary fathering occurs in a greater diversity of family types. This thesis is targeting fathers living within couple biological or step-families to focus on work-family issues in the normative population. The parenting demands of fathers, who have divorced and are living separately from their children, and single parent fathers, are very different to those demands placed upon co-resident fathers (Arendell, 1995; Greif, 1985). Over 30 years numbers of single parent families and step-families have increased, with an associated rise in the divorce rate, for example, from 296,000 divorces in 1971 to 1.6 million by 2004 for men (Office for National Statistics, 2006b). However, most men still live within a co-habiting couple family household. In 1998, 85 per cent of all fathers resided with their partner and children (Matheson & Summerfield, 2001) with an increase in dual earner families (Jacobs & Gerson 2001). As work-family conflict is experienced differently across family types (Burden, 1986), this thesis will be focusing on the majority of fathers who live with their partners and children. Tables showing the demographic characteristics of participant fathers across all three studies can be found in Appendix 2.

6.4.2.1 THE THIRD WORK- LIFE BALANCE SURVEY (2006).

To achieve a representative sample, interlocking quotas were used at the sampling stage based upon sex, age and whether employee was employed in the public or private sector. After data screening a post-stratification weight based on SIC (Standard Industry Classification) was applied to the data. For further details on response rates and sampling methodology see the technical report (Latreille & Latreille, 2008) The sample comprised 2081 employees working as employees in organisations employing five or more employees at the time of the survey, no self-employed people were included. There were 55 per cent, n1096 male employees and 45 per cent, n985 female. Fathers in the survey were defined as male with dependent child in household who was under 16 or under 19 and a full-time student.

Of the total sample, 12 per cent, n244 were fathers and 13 per cent, n263 were mothers. As a proportion of just male employees, 27 per cent were fathers and, of the female employees, 39 per cent were mothers. When compared to the Labour Force Survey (2007) sample, the Work Life Balance (2006) parents are proportionately under represented, particularly fathers. Of the total Labour Force Survey (2007) sample 22

per cent were mothers and 22 per cent were fathers and as a proportion of all males in the Labour Force Survey (2007), 43 per cent were fathers and of all females 46 per cent were mothers. The mean age of fathers was 41 years compared to the mean age of all men of 40 years, and non-fathers 39 years.

6.4.2.2 MATERNITY AND PATERNITY RIGHTS AND BENEFITS SURVEY OF PARENTS (2005).

Comparisons of the fathers' data in the Labour Force Survey 2004 with fathers with children under 2 years show a similar profile across age, education, occupation and employment status therefore no weights were applied to this dataset. See the Technical Report for more details (Smeaton & Marsh 2006a). Fathers for this survey were defined as male with dependent child in household who was under 16 or under 19 and a full-time student. 1512 fathers responded to this survey and all had children under the age of two at the time of the survey. Their mean age was 35 years. Respondent fathers had varying employment status. 82 per cent were employed at the time of the survey, 11 per cent were self-employed and 7 per cent were unemployed.

6.4.3 DESIGN AND ANALYSIS.

Quantitative analysis was used to address the research questions using OLS regression, chi-square and t-test. Findings are reported if found to be statistically significant at the 5 per cent level, however given the small sample size some findings that are approaching significance are reported if they are of conceptual interest and highlight areas for further study. For cross-tabulations, if the minimum expected frequency is less than one, or the number of cells with an expected frequency of less than five applies to more than 20 per cent of the cells, the chi-square test is not valid, in these cases Fisher's Exact test is used.

6.4.3.1 VARIABLES USED IN THE ANALYSES OF THE THIRD WORK LIFE BALANCE SURVEY (EMPLOYEES) 2006.

DEPENDENT VARIABLE – WEEKLY WORK HOURS

The dependent variable is working hours using the question (B05) asking about the usual number of hours the respondent worked in the week. Hours worked per week is the respondents' reported total usual hours worked per week in their main job, including overtime.

PREDICTOR VARIABLES

Predictor variables for the regressions were chosen on the basis of previous findings and theoretical importance. Variables were entered using hierarchical entry with hourly pay, education, occupation, age and partner's work status entered in block 1 and fatherhood status entered in block 2.

FATHERHOOD STATUS

Fathers are defined for this analysis as male with a dependent child co-resident in the household (where the child is under 16 or under 19 and a full-time student). For this report the unit of father analysis is the majority category– those employed full-time¹⁵, in couple households¹⁶ who are compared to full-time men with no dependent children. This is to acknowledge the majority pattern of employed fatherhood. Fathers are not a homogeneous group and other notable sub-groups are lone fathers and fathers in part-time employment with different circumstances for managing their work and family time. A focus on partnered fathers in full-time employment avoids data from other distinct sub-groups of fathers confounding the results. The numbers and proportions of couple full-time fathers for the analysis are shown in Table 13 below.

TABLE 4 SAMPLE PROPORTIONS FOR COUPLE, FULL-TIME FATHERS AND FULL-TIME NON- FATHERS.

	% of total sample	N (unweighted base)
Fathers – full-time/ couple	10	195
Non-fathers – full-time	37	740
All males	55	1096
All employees	100	2081

INCOME

Income has been shown to be strongly associated with working hours (Weston et al., 2004) and for those occupations (manual/semi-skilled), where hours relate directly to income this is no surprise. However the relationship with income for professional occupations is less overt and long hours worked do not immediately

¹⁵ Full-time is defined as working over 30 hours per week and the variable constructed using question B05 (usual work hours) in order to boost fathers sample size. Constructing a full-time variable using question B04 (contractual work hours) had a high proportion of missing data.

¹⁶ Couple defined as living with partner, constructed using question Z01.

translate into income, but contribute to an impression of work commitment which is then rewarded in terms of promotion at a later date (Kalleberg & Epstein, 2001). Income is nonetheless an important variable theoretically for this analysis because, if the breadwinner hypothesis holds true, then fathers should be motivated to earn more and work longer hours than non-fathers either in expectation of income or in the expectation of career progression.

OCCUPATION

Long working hours are more common amongst men, managers, professionals, and operative and assembly workers. Manual workers usually get paid for overtime, while managerial and professional employees generally do not. Manual workers see the main benefit of long hours working in terms of increased earnings, while managerial and professional workers see it in terms of improved promotion prospects and greater job security (La Valle et al., 2002). There are also greater concentrations of fathers within managerial occupations which was also the case in this sample.

EDUCATION

Education has been found to be related to working hours via its links to occupation, but also directly for those with higher levels of education who work fewer hours than those with lower levels of education (Anxo et al., 2006).

FATHERS' AGE

Dermott (2006) found that age controls removed the significance of the relationship between fatherhood and working hours. Previous findings indicate that fatherhood tends to coincide with the most productive times for career stage between the ages of 30-49 years (Kodz et al 2003) and therefore fathers' working hours are likely to be highest during this life stage. Consequently age was categorised into three bands to reflect this: 16 – 30 years, 31 – 49 years and 50+ years.

CHILD AGE

Child age has strong effects upon mothers' working hours with mothers of pre-school children working fewer hours per week than mothers with older children or women without children (Paull, 2008). The effects of child age appear different for fathers. Fathers with young school-age children have been found to work on average

more hours per week than fathers with pre-school and older children (Paull, 2008, p20).

PARTNER WORKING/ NOT WORKING.

Evidence on the impact of partner employment status on fathers' working hours is mixed (Pleck and Masciadrelli, 2004; Weston et al. 2004). Britain has a high proportion of households with one full-time and one part-time breadwinner (Weston et al., 2004) which could operate to increase fathers' working hours, but neither Weston et al. (2004) nor Deven et al. (1998) found any significant relationship with partner employment status. The WLB3 survey does not allow the part-time/ full-time partner work status to be examined as it only includes a dichotomous partner working/ not working question.

6.4.3.2 VARIABLES USED IN THE ANALYSES OF THE MATERNITY AND PATERNITY RIGHTS AND BENEFITS SURVEY OF PARENTS (2005).

WORKING HOURS

Fathers' working hours for this survey were collected as interval data for the period before the birth. However after the birth, working hours were defined categorically, with fathers categorised as working 'less hours', 'the same hours' or 'more hours' than before the birth of their child. Therefore in order to carry out a chi-square analysis, fathers' hours before the birth were recoded into three categories, 'low' (less than 35 hours per week), 'medium' (35-48 hours per week) and 'high' (over 48 hours per week).

FLEXIBLE WORKING

A range of eight flexible working types were included in the survey. These types were re-categorised into full-time flexible working and part-time flexible working using the criteria of income, i.e. does using the flexible working option reduce income? As such, flexi-time, home working, annualised hours and a compressed working week were classified as full-time flexible work options and term-time working, job-share, part-time and reduced hours options were classified as part-time flexible work options.

6.4.3.3 TREATMENT OF 'DON'T KNOWS' AND 'OTHER' RESPONSES.

The *don't know* and *other* responses are included within the unweighted bases of tables. Notes in the tables explain what is included in the bases. The exception to this is where responses are recoded to enable meaningful comparisons between sub-groups (see Appendix 6 for recodes).

6.4.4 METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES RESEARCHING FATHERS

Two key methodological issues have been identified by father researchers: how fathers are identified and how they are recruited (Mitchell et al., 2007). Mothers are primarily defined through their biological status than social role, even though there are many non-biological motherhood roles through adoption, fostering and step-families. Fathers are more difficult to identify due to: legal ambiguities, biological fatherhood is not required to be legally established and; less likelihood, in the event of relationship breakdown, to retain residency with his children. Consequently, when undertaking research with fathers it is important to be clear about the criteria for fatherhood for the study. For this thesis, fathers were defined as both biological and social fathers who were living with their children and partner and who were in paid employment at the time of the studies.

In terms of recruitment, mothers have often included or excluded fathers from participation in research studies, playing a "gatekeeping" role (S. Allen & Hawkins, 1999). In order to try and avoid this phenomenon, the initial approach to recruiting fathers was to recruit them from the workplace for studies two and three. In Study 1, for the Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey (2005) fathers were recruited via the mothers which yielded a smaller response rate (40 per cent) compared to mothers (60 per cent) suggesting using an intermediary to recruit respondents is likely to reduce response (Smeaton & Marsh 2006b). For the Third Work-Life Balance Survey (2006), fathers potentially had as much chance as being recruited through the random digit telephone dialling design as mothers, although it is not clear when telephone contacts were made in any 24 hour period, as the proportions of part-time mothers' are higher than of part-time fathers' and would make this quota of mothers more likely to be in during the working day. The fathers'

sample for the WLB3 was 11 per cent compared to mothers' 13 per cent (Latreille & Latreille 2008), which was not significantly different, $\chi^2(1, n = 512) = 3.78, p .052$.

6.4.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

All the studies undertaken for this thesis were subject to applications for approval from the School of Social and Psychology Ethical Board at the University of East Anglia in line with British Psychology Society guidelines.

6.5 FINDINGS

This section presents the major findings about fathers' working hours and their use of flexible working options from both the Third Work-Life Balance Employee Survey WLB3 (2006) the Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey of Parents M&P (2005). Descriptive statistics involving comparisons of couple fathers' working patterns with men without children, and mothers are presented. The section also presents inferential statistics examining fathers' working hours in the light of the research questions outlined above.

6.5.1 THIRD WORK LIFE BALANCE SURVEY 2006 FINDINGS.

6.5.1.1 PARENTAL PROFILE.

The sample comprised 2081 employees working as employees in organisations employing five or more employees at the time of the survey, no self-employed people were included. There were 55 per cent, n1096 male employees and 45 per cent, n985 female. Of the total sample, 12 per cent were fathers and 13 per cent were mothers. As a proportion of all male employees, 27 per cent were fathers and of all female employees 39 per cent were mothers. The following parental characteristics were considered for the profile analyses: partner status, parental status and economic activity status. The parental types considered in the regression analyses are couple full-time employed fathers compared to full-time employed men without children. Fathers' key characteristics across the variables used in the analysis are compared against non-fathers'. The following descriptive analyses compare parental status and work status (see Tables 5 and 6).

TABLE 5 FATHERS' ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES

Economic Status	Couple fathers		Non-fathers	
	%	N Unweighted base	%	N Unweighted base
Full-time employed	95	195	89	740
Part-time employed	5	9	11	89
Total	100	204	100	819

In line with previous findings (O'Brien & Shemilt 2003), parental occupational trends remain the same, with the more couple fathers working full-time (95 per cent) compared to full-time couple mothers (46 per cent). There are a greater proportion of couple fathers working full-time compared to non-fathers (89 per cent), contrasting with couple mothers' full-time rates (46 per cent) compared to non-mothers' (68 per cent), confirming the tendency for mothers to reduce employment on transition to parenthood whilst fathers do the reverse and increase employment (Tables 5 and 6). Gender occupational trends remain the same with more non-fathers (89 per cent) working full-time than non-mothers (68 per cent).

TABLE 6 MOTHERS' ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES

Economic Status	Couple mothers		Non-mothers	
	%	N	%	N
Full-time employed	46	86	68	473
Part-time employed	54	99	32	216
Total	100	185	100	689

6.5.1.2 PARENTAL WORKING HOURS.

Comparisons of couple full-time fathers with equivalent mothers' working hours show that fathers work more hours per week (45.7 hours) on average than mothers (38.9 hours). Although non-fathers' weekly work hours (43.5 hours) are still higher than non-mothers' weekly work hours (40.5 hours), the differential is much smaller (2 hours compared to 7 hours). As shown in Table 7, couple full-time fathers work three more hours per week than men without co-resident children¹⁷. Similar differences in median work hours across full-time parental groups are significant ($X^2(5, n=1569) = 125.25, p = .001$)¹⁸ and support previous findings that show differences between fathers' and non-fathers' work hours in a direct comparison (O'Brien & Shemilt 2003; Kodz et al 2003).

¹⁷ T-test significant at $p = .001$

¹⁸ Krusal Wallis test (uneven sample sizes)

TABLE 7 MEAN AND MEDIAN PARENTAL WORKING HOURS

	Mean work hours per week	Standard Deviation	Median work hours per week	N Unweighted base
Couple full-time fathers	45.7	8.67	44	195
Couple full-time mothers	38.9	7.51	37	86
Full-time non-fathers	43.5	8.10	40	740
Full-time non-mothers	40.5	7.79	40	473

6.5.1.3 FATHERS' WORKING HOURS.

Working long hours, over 48 hours per week, is of policy concern and previous research has indicated that fathers as a group work particularly long hours (Hooker et al, 2007; Hayward, Fong & Thornton 2008). In this sample it was also found that a substantial proportion of fathers worked long hours. As shown in Table 8 the proportion of fathers working over 48 hours per week (35 per cent), using banded hours, is significantly more than non-fathers (22 per cent)¹⁹. However, within the long hour category of over 48 hours there is no significant difference between the mean work hours per week for fathers (56 hours) and non-fathers (55 hours).

TABLE 8 FATHERHOOD STATUS - LONG WORKING HOURS PROPORTIONS

Usual work hours per week (Banded)	<30hrs		30-35		35-40		40-48		>48		Total	
	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
Couple FT Fathers	2	3	3	7	38	76	22	46	35	63	100	195
FT Non Fathers	2	14	7	53	43	308	27	204	22	161	101*	740

*Over 100% due to rounding, n = unweighted Base

6.5.1.4 FACTORS PREDICTING FATHERS' WORK HOURS.

In spite of evidence from fathers' and non-fathers' work hour comparisons further analysis has found that fatherhood status is not a significant predictor of work hours once other variables are controlled, particularly that of age (Dermott 2006 and Natti et al 2006). In the present study regression models are also adopted in line with

¹⁹ Chi-Sq, p=.004

Dermott's procedure. The control variables are: income (weekly earnings), education, occupation and partner's work status (working or not working).

AGE

Fathers' age distribution across the three age bands shows a high concentration of fathers in the age band 31-49 years (80 per cent) compared to non-fathers (40 per cent) who are more evenly spread across the age bands²⁰, as shown in Figure 3.

FIGURE 3 AGE BAND DISTRIBUTION - FATHERS/NON-FATHERS

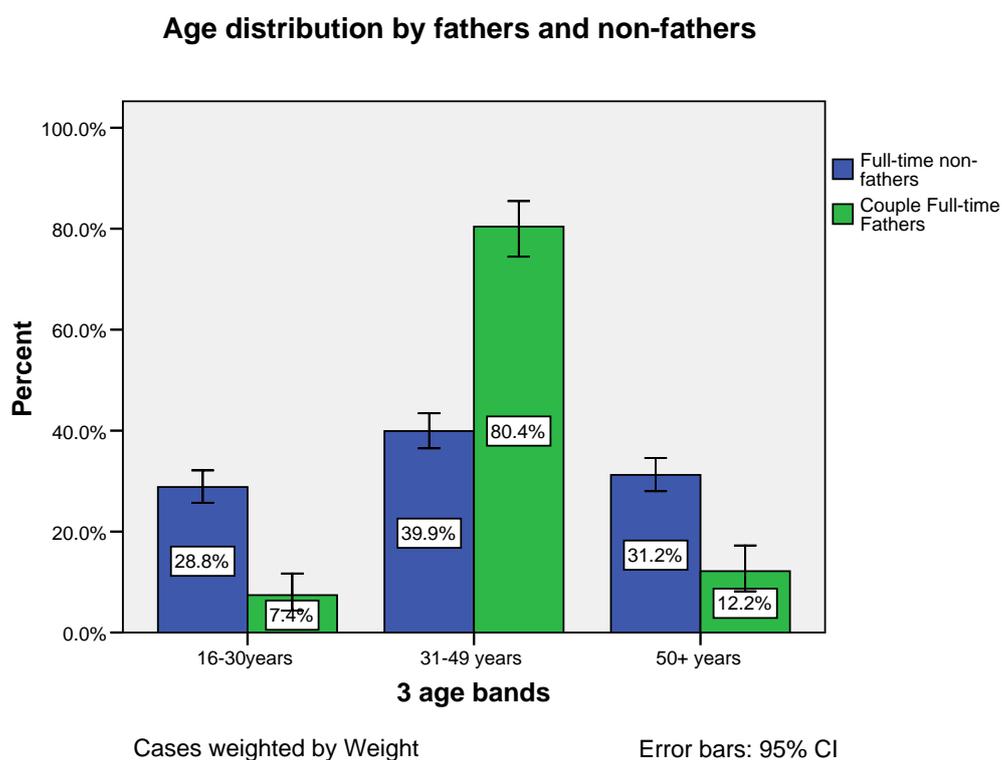


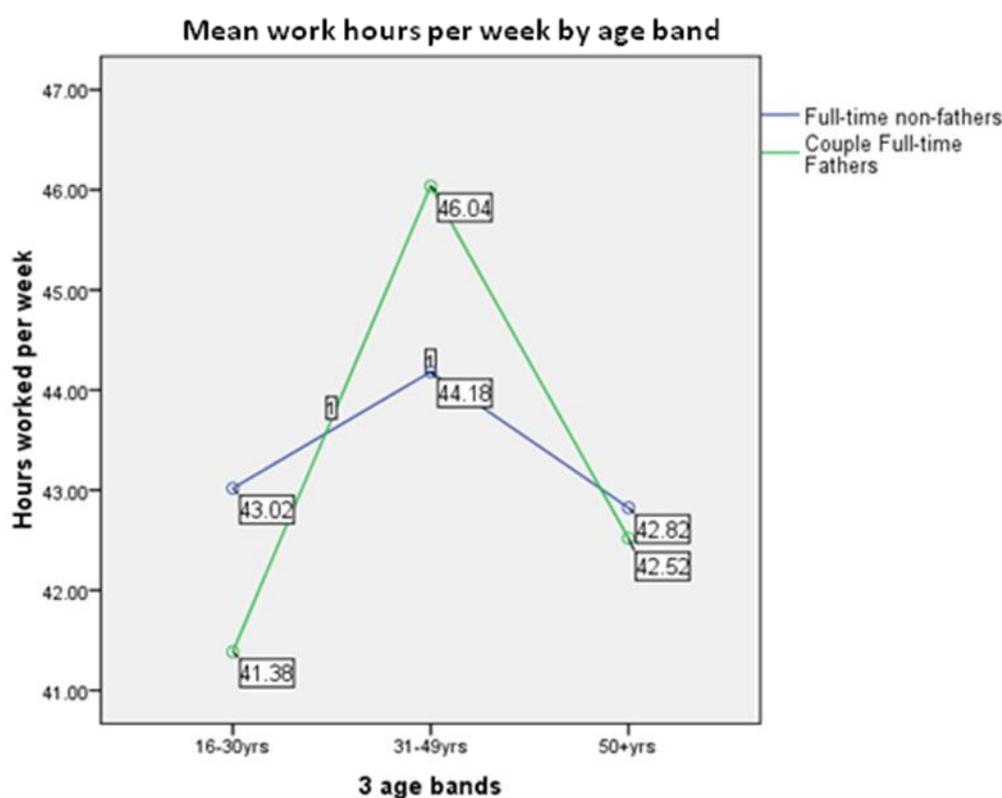
TABLE 9 AGE BAND DISTRIBUTION – FATHERS/NON-FATHERS

Age Bands	Years	Couple fathers		Non-fathers	
		%	Unweighted Base	%	Unweighted Base
	16-30	8	13	29	206
	31-49	80	154	40	306
	50+	12	26	31	222
Total		100	193	100	734

²⁰ Chi Square, significant p=.000

A two way between groups ANOVA comparing fathers and non-fathers in age band groups against work hours shows that there is a significant main effect of age²¹; that is there are different mean work hours per week for each age band for both fathers and non-fathers. There is no main effect of fatherhood status, nor an interaction effect of age and fatherhood status. Post – hoc tests²² showed a significant difference in mean work hours between the 16-30 age group and the 31-49 age group and also between the 31-49 age group and the 50+ age group as can be seen in Figure 4 below. In summary, the age band has a significant influence on both fathers' and non-fathers' mean work hours per week, but fatherhood status has no significant effect on mean work hours per week and there is not a significantly different effect for fathers' work hours depending what age band they are in compared to non-fathers' age bands²³.

FIGURE 4 MEAN DIFFERENCES IN WORK HOURS BY AGE CATEGORY AND FATHERHOOD STATUS



²¹ $F(2, 925) = 5.46, p = .004$

²² Tukey HSD, 16-30 vs 31-49, $p = .013$. 30-49 vs 50+, $p = .005$

²³ The N for fathers in the 16-30 years and 50+ age bands is small (13, 26), re-running this analysis on a larger sample of fathers and non-fathers would be useful given the age and fatherhood status conflation issue.

OCCUPATION

As can be seen in Table 10 below, there are significantly more fathers in managerial occupations than non-fathers²⁴.

TABLE 10 OCCUPATION PROPORTIONS

Occupation ²⁵	Couple fathers		Non-fathers	
	%	Unweighted base	%	Unweighted base
Professional/managerial	57	113	46	346
Non-professional	43	69	54	350
Total	100	182	100	696

PARTNER'S WORK STATUS

Although slightly higher proportions of fathers (34 per cent) have partners who do not work to non-fathers (29 per cent), this is not statistically significant (Table 11).

TABLE 11 PARTNER'S WORK STATUS PROPORTIONS

Partner's work status	Couple fathers		Non-fathers	
	%	Unweighted Base	%	Unweighted Base
Partner works	66	131	71	293
Partner does not work	34	64	29	118
Total	100	195	100	411

CHILD AGE

There are more fathers with the youngest dependent child being 6 years and over (n123) in this sample than fathers with children under 6 years (n53). A one way anova between fathers and non-fathers by child age indicated no significant difference in working hours between fathers by child age, fathers with children under six years, $m = 45.18$ hours, fathers with children over six years, $m = 45.52$ hours, although there was a significant difference between fathers with children over six years and non-fathers $m = 43.43$ hours, $F(2,913) = 4.22$, $p < .05$.

FATHERHOOD STATUS AS A PREDICTOR OF WORK HOURS

Using OLS regression to control for age, earnings, education, managerial status and partner work status, variables were entered in block 1. Only one significant

²⁴ Chi Square, $p = .018$

²⁵ Constructed variable from y04x

predictor from model 1 emerges, that of occupation; specifically being in a managerial or professional job. Adding fatherhood status in block 2 significantly improved the model by 0.4% from adjusted R^2 .096 to .100, $p=.000$. Occupation remained a predictor of increased work hours and the beta values (unstandardised and standardised) for fatherhood status of (2.6, .081), $p=.042$ indicates that fathers work hours increase by being a father. That is, being a father, rather than being in a specific life stage, appears to be the more important driver for longer working hours. Occupation remains a significant predictor of work hours as found in previous findings (Kodz et al 2003, Natti et al 2006) (Table 12).

TABLE 12 FATHERHOOD STATUS AS A PREDICTOR OF WORK HOURS - MODEL 1

Variable	Standardised Beta	Sig
Hourly pay	.070	.118
Education	.064	.142
Occupation	.291	.000
Partner works	-.029	.427
Partner does not work	.018	.629
Age – 31-49 years	-.074	.067
Age – 50+ years	.037	.361
Father	.081	.042

Constant: Education: No quals/ gcse/ other vs. Voc/ A level/ degree/ higher degree; Occupation: non-professional vs. professional; Partner: No partner; Age: 16-30years; Fatherhood: non-father vs. father

This analysis suggests that fatherhood status is a small but significant predictor of working more weekly hours alongside being in a managerial or professional occupation, after controlling for age, earnings, education and partner's work status. The finding about the salience of fatherhood status this regression model aligns with Kodz et al (2003) early analysis of the WERS 1998 data set, but does not confirm Dermott's study (Dermott 2006) nor Natti et al's study (2006).

The next regression model (Table 13) includes further fatherhood variables which distinguish between child age, under 6 years, and 6 years and over testing the breadwinner hypothesis that fathers with very young children will work more hours per week than non-fathers and fathers with older children.

TABLE 13 FATHERHOOD AND CHILD AGE AS PREDICTORS OF WORK HOURS MODEL 2

Variable	Standardised Beta	Sig
Hourly pay	.067	.141
Education	.059	.186
Occupation	.291	.000
Partner works	-.028	.434
Partner does not work	.017	.644
Age – 31-49 years	-.077	.063
Age – 50+ years	.043	.290
Father with dependent child Under 6 years	.028	.466
Father with dependent child Over 6 years	.085	.031

In model 2, fathers with older children (6 years and over) significantly predict work hours $R^2 = .10$, $p=.000$, not supporting the breadwinner hypothesis that fathers with younger children would work more hours and in line with Paull (2008) findings. Occupation also remains a significant predictor of work hours. Although both models are significant, they only explain a small proportion of the variance in men's work hours, 10 per cent, indicating that other variables need to be included in the model and further statistical analysis undertaken to explore this further.

It is possible that relationship status has a similar effect on male working hours in line with the breadwinner hypothesis. In refining the comparison of fathers with non-fathers, in which non-fathers were further categorised into couple non-fathers and single non-fathers, a one way ANOVA, (Welch) $F(2,511)=5.635$, $p=.004$, showed a significant difference in working hours between couple fathers (45.70hrs) and both couple non-fathers (43.66hrs) and single non-fathers (43.25hrs). This suggests that it is fatherhood status rather than relationship status which has an effect on working hours. This conclusion is further supported by no significant difference in working hours between either of the non-father groups, suggesting no effect on working hours of relationship status.

6.5.1.5 FATHERS' FLEXIBLE WORKING PATTERNS.

Fathers' flexible working behaviours were explored and, from those who had worked flexibly over the last 12 months²⁶, the most favoured flexible working options

²⁶ 99 per cent ,N403 of both fathers and non-fathers had worked some form of flexible working in the last 12 months

amongst fathers were: flexi-time (33 per cent), home working (28 per cent), a compressed working week (15 per cent) and term-time working (13 per cent), Figure 5. These figures show an increase in proportions of fathers working flex-time compared to levels in the first Work-Life Balance Survey 2000 of 20 per cent of fathers working flexi-time, 6 per cent working from home, 5 per cent working a compressed working week and 8 per cent working term-time (O'Brien & Shemilt 2003).

Amongst men without children, favoured flex working options were: flexi-time (28 per cent), home working (21 per cent) and annualised hours (15 per cent). A chi square test showed that higher proportions of fathers worked flexi-time and from home than non-fathers, $\chi^2 (8, N=407) = 15.70, p=.047, Cramer's V = .196$. Notably, only 1 per cent, N4 of both fathers and non-fathers did not use any flexible work option, suggesting that working flexibly is not only a practice for workers with children.

FIGURE 5 FLEXIBLE WORK OPTIONS BY FATHERHOOD STATUS

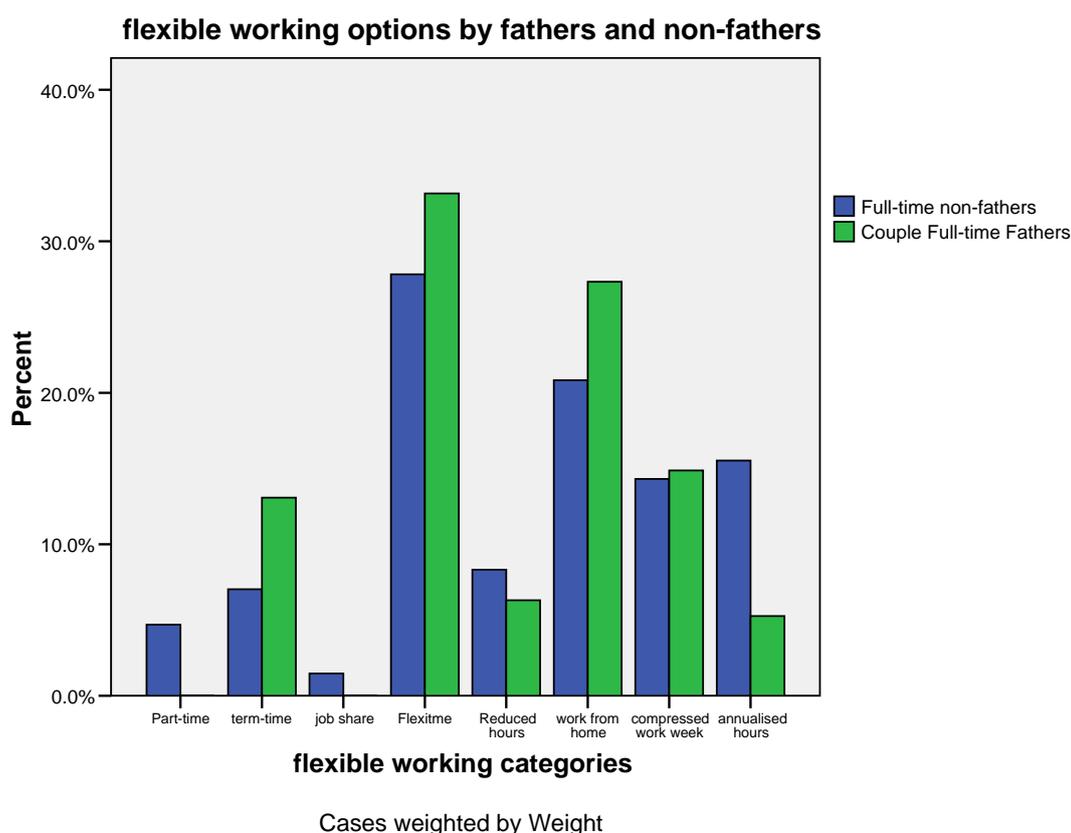


TABLE 14 FATHERS' FLEXIBLE WORK OPTIONS IN ORDER OF MOST USED OPTION

Flexible work option	Fathers		Flexible work option	Non-fathers	
	%	N *		%	N *
Flexi-time	33	32	Flexi-time	28	92
Work at home	28	25	Work at home	21	69
Compressed work week	15	13	Annualised hours	16	44
Term-time working	13	13	Compressed work week	14	45
Annualised hours	6	5	Reduced hours	8	24
Reduced hours	6	6	Term-time working	7	23
Part-time	0	0	Part-time	5	15
Job share	0	0	Job share	2	4
TOTAL	101 [^]	94	TOTAL	101 [^]	316

*N as unweighted base, [^] due to rounding

The low numbers of fathers (n1) and non-fathers (n3) not working any flexible work option precluded any analysis comparing characteristics of fathers and non-fathers across flexible working and non-flexible working. However, it was possible to compare fathers who worked full-time flexible work options, that is: options which do not reduce income such as flexi-time and home working, against those fathers who worked part-time flexible work options, that is flexible work options which reduce income. A two way cross-tabulation comparing fathers and non-fathers by those working full-time flex options against those working part-time flex options showed no significant differences between fathers' and non-fathers' use. Whilst fathers used more full-time flexible work options (81 per cent) than part-time (19 per cent), as hypothesised from the breadwinner model, this was not significantly different to non-fathers' use of full-time flex use (79 per cent) and part-time flex use (21 per cent), (Table 14).

6.6. MATERNITY AND PATERNITY RIGHTS AND BENEFITS DATASET 2005 FINDINGS

The Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits surveys, initiated by Government in 2002, especially targets the very early years of parenthood. This analysis uses the most recently available dataset from 2005 which has been fully reported by Smeaton and Marsh (2006a). Special attention is given to paternal working hours which were not covered in depth by Smeaton and Marsh (2006a).

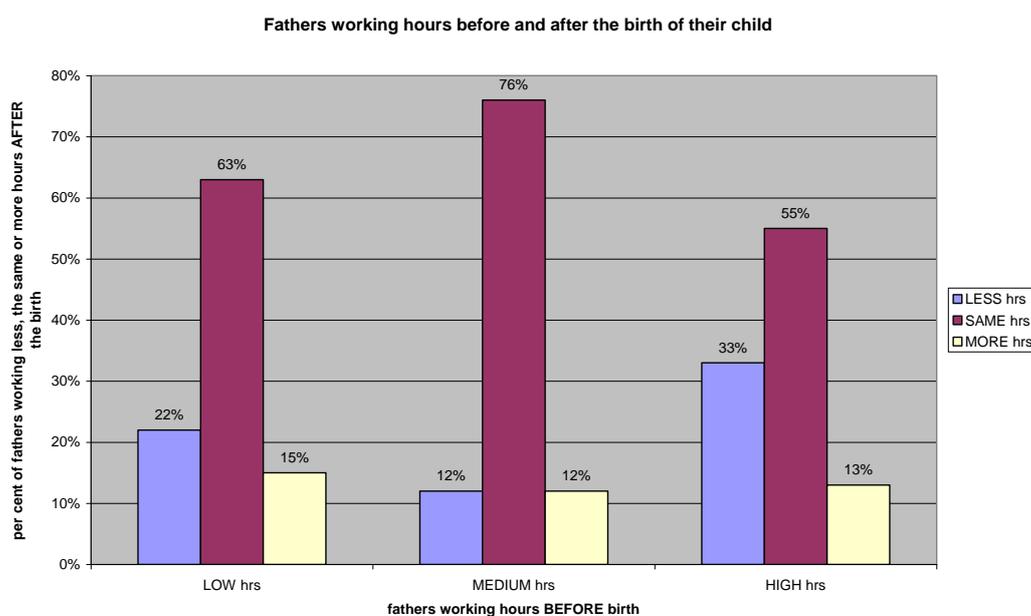
6.6.1. FATHERS' WORKING HOURS.

Mean usual work hours before the birth for expectant fathers were 45.6 hours per week, (SD=11). The survey did not measure work hours after the birth directly.

Fathers were asked instead whether they had increased, made no change to or decreased their work hours after child-birth. 12 per cent, n170 reported increasing their work hours, 69 per cent, n950 had made no change and 19 per cent, n247 reported decreasing their work hours. In order to test the hypothesis that men who were working long hours before the birth would be more likely to decrease their hours after the birth than those working average hours and those working low hours, working hours before the birth was categorised into three bands: high (over 48 hours per week), medium (between 35-48 hours) and low (below 35 hours). These working hours' bands before the birth were then compared to the same group of fathers but grouped into those who stated that they worked more hours, the same hours and more hours after the birth.

A significant chi-square test²⁷ showed that 33 per cent, n118 of fathers in the long hours' group reduced their work hours *after* the birth compared to 12 per cent, n98 of fathers in the medium hours group (see Figure 6 below). It would appear that the number of hours that fathers work before the birth of their child is associated with the degree to which they report reducing their hours after the birth. In particular, fathers working very long hours, over 48 hours per week, are more likely to report working reduced hours post birth.

FIGURE 6 FATHERS' WORKING HOURS BEFORE AND AFTER THE BIRTH



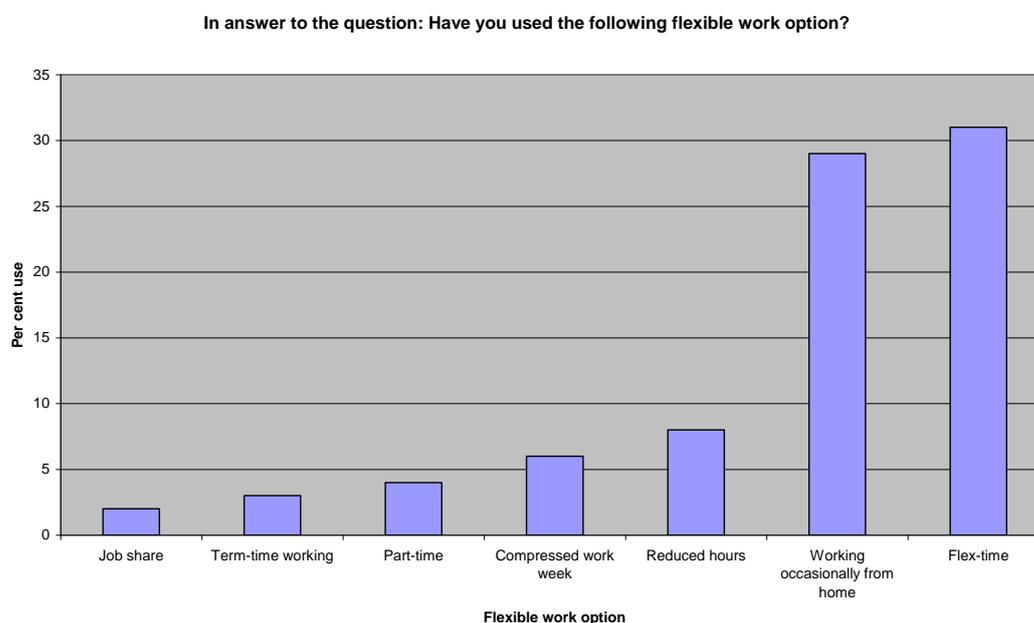
²⁷ Chi Sq test $\chi^2(4, 1192) = 71.03, p=.001$

6.6.2 FATHERS' FLEXIBLE WORKING AND WORK HOURS AFTER CHILD-BIRTH.

Fathers' use of flexible working options in early parenthood mirror the general patterns found in the Work Life Balance Survey 2006. Thirty-one per cent of new fathers used flexi-time and 29 per cent occasionally worked from home. However, very few other forms of flexible working were adopted by fathers; 6 per cent used a compressed working week, 4 per cent worked part-time, 8 per cent reduced hours for a limited period (see Figure 7). Smeaton and Marsh (2006b) report a greater uptake by new fathers when compared to the first maternity and paternity rights survey in 2002. It should be noted that 80 per cent of sampled mothers had returned to work by the survey point, most returning in the fourth to sixth month after childbirth. A majority of mothers had reduced their weekly working hours to 22 hours per week and use of flexible working arrangements was much more widespread amongst employed mothers, for instance, 47 per cent of mothers worked flexi-time compared with just 17 per cent in 2002 (Smeaton and Marsh, 2006b).

FIGURE 7 FATHERS' FLEXIBLE WORK USE - MATERNITY AND PATERNITY RIGHTS SURVEY 2005

(Base: 1241)



One of the hypotheses proposed in this analysis is that fathers who use full-time flexible work options would be more likely to work fewer hours than fathers who do not use any flexible work options. A chi-square was used to compare fathers across these two groups. As no continuous data was available in the dataset for post birth

work hours, these were created by using hours prior to birth, categorised as low, medium and high, and using a sub-sample of fathers who had remained on the same hours post birth to give reasonable approximations of hours that these fathers were working after the birth. A chi-square showed no significant differences in working hours between the fathers who used full-time flexible working options and those fathers who did not use any flexible working options.

6.7 DISCUSSION

Cultural references to fathers as the economic providers for families are still ever present despite the growth of maternal employment and powerful countervailing discourses stressing 'new men' and 'involved fathers'. By 2001 seventy per cent of all British mothers were economically active with thirty-one per cent in full-time employment (O'Brien and Shemilt, 2003) and women's employment rates are predicted to rise in the future as their education levels increase, notwithstanding the recent economic down turn (Wilson, Homenidou, & Dickerson, 2004). In this complex societal context, the current report puts a spotlight on work-family reconciliation issues from the perspectives of fathers. It presents a secondary analysis of fathers' work hours and patterns of flexible working using two nationally representative employment datasets - The Third Work-Life Balance Employee Survey (2006) and the Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey of Parents (2005). It also addresses the thorny question about whether the longer working hours typically noted for fathers is explained best by career stage or parental status.

Analysis has been guided by the theoretical concepts 'father as breadwinner' and 'father as carer'. There has been much interdisciplinary work on the characteristics of these roles and the degree to which they differ and overlap. In real terms, it is clearly possible for fathers to identify with both a breadwinner role and a caring role. The data from both the surveys considered in this report is richer on fathers' time spent in employment than fathers' time devoted to care of children. Overall findings show that, although the breadwinner behaviour model for fathers remains strong, there are some indications of a shift to a caring model, particularly on the transition to parenthood for men. There appears to be a move by fathers towards greater work-family flexibility although this could be a factor of increase in flex use

generally, and warrants further study. There is also evidence of a reported decrease of long working hours by men after childbirth in the early phase of parenthood.

Findings from the Third Work-Life Balance Survey 2006 indicate that the employment trajectory for fathers remains one of full-time work with long weekly hours. These data show that 95 per cent of fathers work full-time, with an average working week of 46 hours and that 35 per cent of fathers regularly work over 48 hours per week. On the face of it this employment pattern corroborates the breadwinner model; however more detailed analysis reveals some changes in employment behaviours. Fathers' working long hours, over 48 hours per week, show the greatest change in behaviour in the transition to fatherhood period, according to findings from the Maternity and Paternity Survey 2005 parental analysis. This analysis shows that fathers who work very long weekly hours are more likely to report reducing these hours following the birth of their child suggesting that there may be a ceiling effect on fathers' hours whilst their children are infants. Moreover, those fathers working standard hours before the birth of their child are more likely to remain working those hours following the birth, running counter to a breadwinner hypothesis that fathers will work longer hours upon becoming a parent. It is possible that recent changes in legislation on paternity leave and the right to request flexible working for parents with children under six years may have a bearing on these patterns.

From the Work – Life Balance (2006) dataset, a direct comparison of mean weekly work hours shows that fathers work more hours than non-fathers (fathers, $m=45.7$. non-fathers, $m=43.5$). In a regression which controls for other known predictors of weekly work hours (men's age, occupation, income, education and whether a partner is in paid work or not), fatherhood status significantly predicts weekly work hours. This is contrary to Dermott's (2006) findings and suggests that fatherhood status is associated with longer working hours.

From the Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey (2005), fathers who had reported high weekly work hours (over 48 hrs) before the birth of their child were more likely to report having reduced their work hours after the birth. These results suggest that men who previously worked particularly long hours are reducing them upon the birth of their child. These results seem to contradict the WLB3 findings above. There are a number of possible explanations for these seemingly opposing

findings. Firstly, an important issue, particularly for the WLB3 dataset is that of sampling error, the proportions of fathers in this dataset were lower than can be found in the population. The nearest population comparison is that of the Labour Force Survey which in the 2007 sample had 22 per cent of fathers as a proportion of the whole sample and 43 per cent of fathers as a proportion of the male sample. The WLB3 dataset had 12 percent of fathers as a proportion of the whole sample and 27 percent of fathers as a proportion of the male sample. The implications for having a smaller sample of fathers within the WLB3 dataset for these findings are that the fathers sub-group are more likely to be less representative of the UK population of fathers. As such, it is possible that fathers selected for the WLB3 dataset work unusually long hours, over and above the population mean for fathers' working hours. Such a sample could produce the effects found in the regression model.

Sampling is also an issue for the M&P dataset in that of the fathers recruited who were approached (n4197); a low proportion of these fathers responded (n1512), less than mothers' response rate (n2502). In particular the refusal to respond via proxy (i.e. the mother refusing on behalf of the father) was much higher for fathers than for mothers (fathers, n179, mothers, n18). It is possible that non-response rates for fathers in this survey reflect a final self selecting sample of fathers who were interested in work-family issues and were therefore a sub-sample of the male population who would be more likely to reduce their work hours upon the birth of their child. Sampling fathers is known to be particularly difficult in the fathering research field as outlined in Mitchell et al (2009), who suggests that in order to avoid mother 'gatekeeping' effects in recruitment, that fathers be identified via the child rather than via the mother. Mitchell et al's observation that: 'Fathers who work more than 40-hour weeks may have very little free time to participate in research.' (Mitchell et al 2009:241) lends support to the possibility that men who did not respond to the M&P survey were busy long work hours men, who may not have reduced working hours upon the birth of their child.

Another sampling issue concerns the definition of fathers' employment: those who are self employed have been found to work longer hours than those who are employees. In the WLB3 dataset, only employee fathers were analysed, whereas in Dermott (2006), self – employed fathers were included, and showed significant

prediction of working hours. It is possible that non-inclusion of this variable shows that there may be an effect of fatherhood status in employee fathers, but not self-employed fathers. Another difference to this analysis and Dermott's (2006) analysis is in the definition of working hours. Dermott (2006) included commuting time within working hours, whereas this study did not. It would be helpful to distinguish between work hours and commuting time, as the reasons for each type of time use are likely to be different. UK data from the ONS indicates that those in full-time jobs commute further than those in part-time work, suggesting that work hours may be related to commuting time. However as the relationship between income and commuting time is influenced by residential location and job, (i.e. to obtain a higher income it may be necessary to commute further, but obtaining a higher income can lead to moving further away from work to obtain better housing etc.), Dargay & Van Ommeren (2005) state that it is not possible to assess this relationship in cross-sectional data, because of this reverse causality issue. Consequently, it would seem that an assessment of fathers' work time should not include commuting if examining cross-sectional data, as it is likely to produce confounding effects, therefore Dermott's (2006) findings could be affected by the inclusion of commuting time into the weekly work hours variable.

A second explanation for these contradictory findings could be due to the statistical tendency for mean scores on any measure to regress to the mean over time. This effect is particularly noticeable at the extreme ends of the distribution, therefore the finding that M&P findings that fathers from the high end of the working hours' distribution before the birth were more likely to reduce their working hours after the birth could be a regression artefact. What makes this possibility difficult to assess is that the working hour's variable is not continuous after the birth. Were this to be the case, it would be possible to calculate the correlation between working hours at the two time points and calculate the percent of regression to the mean and thereby evaluate the degree to which regression to the mean was influencing the effect observed.

In summary, it is likely that Dermott's (2006) sample, drawn from two large UK datasets, the BHPS and NCDS, contained a more representative sample of fathers than the two datasets used here. Nonetheless, this analysis has drawn attention to sampling issues for recruiting fathers for survey datasets. In order, however, to better assess

change in working hours over time for fathers, longitudinal analysis of e.g. the BHPS or millennium cohort surveys has more potential to yield a clearer picture of fathers' work hour changes over time.

Analysis of fathers' use of flexible working showed that fathers are making more use of flexi-time and home working than non-fathers. In addition, their use of flexi-time and home working has increased since 2000 when assessed in the baseline Work-Life Balance Survey (O'Brien & Shemilt 2003). Twenty per cent of fathers in the Work-Life Balance survey 2000 reported using flexi-time options in contrast to thirty-three per cent in 2006. The analysis also shows a significant increase (although not large in real terms) in term-time only working, from 7 per cent in 2000 to 13 per cent in 2006, a flexible option more often associated with mothers. Similarly results from the Maternity and Paternity Rights Survey 2005 give some evidence for an increase in uptake of flexitime and occasional working from home for new fathers since the baseline. Thirty-one per cent of new fathers used flexi-time and 29 per cent occasionally worked from home, both substantial increases from levels among new fathers in the first Maternity and Paternity Survey. However, very few other forms of flexible working were adopted by fathers; 6 per cent used a compressed working week, 4 per cent worked part-time, 8 per cent reduced hours for a limited period.

However, in general, the evidence from both surveys shows that fathers' utilisation of flexible working arrangements, despite increases, remains relatively low in comparison with mothers, but comparable to use by men with no children. It appears that fathers' flexible work pattern of use has not strayed too far from full-time flexible working options which maintain income levels. Notably, only 1 per cent of both fathers and men without children did not use any flexible work option, suggesting that working flexibly is not only a practice for workers with children. Fathers' flexible working is, of course, dependent upon the provision of flexible work options at their workplace, of which there is still uneven distribution amongst workplaces particularly across gender lines (Hayward et al., 2008). Although, results from the 2007 Work-Life Balance Employer Survey showed an increase in the availability of flexible working arrangements, 95 per cent of workplaces had at least one provision, usually the option to work part-time, in contrast for example to 83 per cent in 2003 (White et al., 2003).

A further element to the report has been an exploration of the extent to which the longer working hours typically noted for fathers, as compared to comparable men without children, is explained best by life stage or parental status. The extent to which having a parental status added to an adult age status promotes greater economic activity has been hotly debated in academic circles (e.g. Dermott, 2006). Assumptions underlying traditional role theory would suggest that the presence of children enhances the salience of a breadwinner role for men activating the elevation of working hours. The results of the WLB3 analysis reported here does indeed confirm that fatherhood status (being a father rather than not being a father) is a small but significant predictor of working more weekly hours alongside being in a managerial or professional occupation, after controlling for age, earnings, education and partner's work status. Although this finding may be interpreted as a forced or chosen work ethic connected to fatherhood in the British context, it may also reflect cohort and selectivity effects. The interplay of working hours, parental status and life stage is complex and cannot be fully understood through cross-sectional investigation. It clearly requires further analysis especially through longitudinal cohorts and more detailed psychological studies (Kaufman and Uhlenberg, 2000). The emerging picture is limited by the inherently narrow scope of quantitative employment activity data but nevertheless suggestive of issues worth pursuing in further studies.

The other significant factor predicting work hours for men was occupation. Those in managerial and professional occupations were more likely to work longer hours than those not in these occupations. This pattern has been found to be the case in other studies and has been suggested to occur as a result of managers and professional jobs being subject to increases in work intensity (Green, 2001; Kodz, et al 2003) and having greater autonomy and control over the job (Hayward et al., 2008). These propositions come with caveats: firstly that work hours and flexible working use are rudimentary measures of fathers' behaviours and cannot capture the complexity of motivations and aspirations that fathers have for both work and family life; and, secondly that it is recognised that fathers are not a homogeneous group and that the categorisation of fathers into traditional and involved fathers is not a holistic approach to defining the father role. Nonetheless, work-family reconciliation policies, sensitive to the dilemmas of contemporary fathers, are at an early stage of development in the

UK. Future policy development is reliant on building evidence to support a case for responding to fathers' earning and caring aspirations, secondary data analysis such as this which provides evidence for fathers can contribute to creating such an evidence base.

6.8 SUMMARY

In summary, this study carried out secondary data analysis on fathers using two national datasets; the Third Work-Life Balance Survey 2006 and the Maternity and Paternity rights and Benefits Survey 2005. Findings indicate some shift in fathers' behaviour within the work microsystem particularly for fathers' work hours with young children, suggesting that fathers may be beginning to exercise more choice over their working patterns than previously seen. However, the finding that fatherhood status remains a positive predictor of fathers' work hours indicates otherwise, although the finding that fathers with older children work more hours matches the finding in the Maternity and Paternity (2005) dataset sample where fathers, who had previously worked long hours were reducing their hours after the birth of their child. Changes in the macrosystem provisions for employment in terms of increases in flexible working options, greater legislative provision for parents and changes in expectations for gender roles are likely contributors to such changes, which warrant further examination.

7 STUDY 2: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

7.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This study examines the relationship between two emotional intelligence concepts and measures: The Ability EI model and the Trait EI model with work-family conflict. It was undertaken as a precursor to Study 3 to evaluate which EI model showed the potential for predicting work-family conflict and also what relationships EI had with known work-family conflict antecedents. Fathers were purposively sampled from a public sector organisation and via snowballing (n33). Although the sample size was small there was enough statistical power to detect large effects. Analyses using correlation found significant moderate positive associations between Trait EI and work-family conflict, but small, non-significant associations between Ability EI and work-family conflict. Examination of EI associations with work-family conflict antecedents informed the design of study 3.

7.2 INTRODUCTION

During the industrial revolution a segmentation of work and family into private and public domains occurred, with the association of women with the private domain (home and family) and men with the public domain (work and politics). This separation of work and family domains, together with the gender designation, has had long term and serious implications for both the workplace and family domains. An initial concern highlighted family welfare as an issue following an increase in women returning to work (La Valle et al., 2002). Subsequent concerns addressed gender equity issues and saw the introduction of more flexible working options to facilitate mothers juggling work and family. Over the last five years, under the banner of 'work-life balance', work-family concerns became more business focused as the need to attract a more diverse workforce became more important with the reduction of recruitment, retention and absenteeism costs becoming prohibitive (Department for Trade and Industry, 2005). Key concerns in the public realm, expressed in the media and in policy circles, were over the impact on young children of mother absence (Crouter, 2006). This concern now includes fathers and the impact of their prolonged

absence from home life (Seward, Yeatts, , Amin, & DeWitt 2006; Flouri & Buchanan 2004) In the private realm, working mothers concerns involved the challenge of managing household chores and childcare in addition to work, hence the emergence of the term work-family conflict. Fathers are still suffering from a legacy of being associated with undertaking the 'provider role' as a parent (Warren, 2007) despite recent changes in fathers' aspirations to be more involved in parenting (Kodz et al., 2003). Consequently their experience of work-family life has been under less scrutiny, and when considered it has been more often via access through the mother (Mitchell, See, Tarkow, Cabrera, McFadden, & Shannon 2007). However, as seen from the headlines above, and recent policy interest, fathers are now at the forefront of work-family issues (Smith, 2007; O'Brien, 2004).

Whilst an examination of fathers' work-family conflict appears a logical follow-on from mothers' experience in these domains, as is examining organisational issues which may influence work-family conflict, considering work-family conflict from a dispositional framework may not seem as logical an approach. However, it is likely that for experiences which involve highly salient *roles* for fathers, such as in work and family domains in which there are also people for whom fathers have strong emotional attachments, partners and children, any clash between trying to meet the needs of the two roles of father and worker has most potential to create stress. Consequently, it is proposed that those with the ability and confidence to manage one's own emotions and others' emotions in these situations will experience less stress, in this case, less work-family conflict. Literature on stress, appraisal and coping is considered relevant in this context and is used to interpret results from this study. Emotional skills have been measured in a variety of ways over the years and most recently been consolidated conceptually into something called 'emotional intelligence'. This concept poses both advantages and disadvantages in that on the positive side it is a term that is easily understood and intuitive, but on the negative side it can be challenging to test the construct for psychometric validity.

The concept of Emotional Intelligence emerged theoretically as early as 1980's in Sternberg's (1988) theory of practical intelligence (Sternberg, 1988) and Gardner's (1983) multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983), both alluding to people's ability to navigate the practicalities of the 'real' world effectively, particularly the ability to deal

successfully with other people and managing one's own emotions. The concept gained public attention following Goleman's book in 1996 on Emotional Intelligence coinciding with increasing research activity into attempts to define the term with greater precision along with seeking evidence that emotional intelligence did account for improvements in people's lives (Goleman, 1996). The latter two points are still debated in the field with distinctions being made between ability emotional intelligence and personality based emotional intelligence. The key issues surround the concept's discriminant validity from personality constructs and conventional definitions of intelligence. For this study, two measures were chosen to represent each of these standpoints, one a personality based construct, Trait EI, and the other an intelligence or ability based construct, Ability EI.

Petrides and Furnham's (2003) Trait EI construct is best described as emotional self-efficacy, or the belief in one's ability to identify, express and manage emotion, both in self and others. They propose that as Trait EI is primarily concerned with typical behaviour tendencies, then EI should be studied theoretically within a personality framework. They have found Trait EI to be situated within both the big five (Costa, Jr. & McCrae, 1992) and giant three Eysenckian, (Eysenck, 1990) personality factor spaces, but nonetheless also found that Trait EI still has discriminant and incremental validity (Petrides & Furnham 2003) as well as the ability to predict depression and social support over and above the big 5 and giant 3 for *affect related* constructs. In summary, the construct of Trait EI should reflect *typical* performance or behavioural tendency and is measured through self-report using the TEIQue.

Mayer et al (2000a) propose that the construct of ability EI is a cognitive ability reflecting our ability to process emotional information (Mayer et al., 2000). As such, ability EI has most in common, theoretically, with psychometric intelligence, but is also expected to relate to *affective* personality dimensions e.g. neuroticism (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki 2007). Ability EI is measured through an ability test (MSCEIT) in which right and wrong answers are determined by a panel of emotion experts (Mayer et al., 2002). For this study it is suggested that Emotional Intelligence is relevant to work-family conflict in the following ways. Literature on coping and stress within the organisational psychology field proposes that an individual experiences stress once the demands placed upon them exceeds the resources they have at their disposal to

cope with them (Karasek, 1979). Resources can include instrumental items such as income, in addition to individual characteristics such as intelligence. For this study it is proposed that Emotional Intelligence be seen as an individual resource. Other key literature on coping and stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) suggest that stress occurs following a process of appraising events. This allows for individual differences in reaction to similar events whereby an event that might be stressful for one person who may appraise it as a threat would not be for another because they had appraised the same event as benign.

The factors that influence appraisal include levels of salience and beliefs in ability to cope. Individuals appraise events from a self interested standpoint whereby an event will be assessed as threatening or positive depending on what the consequences mean for that individual. For example, an announcement of budget cuts may appear positive to an individual who disliked their work but also felt able to get another job, but these same circumstances may appear daunting to another individual who has worked at their company for many years and enjoys their work but feels unconfident about their ability to get another job. Emotionally demanding situations are characteristic of work-family conflict where individuals face situations where they have to let down emotionally salient people, such as their spouse and children at home, or their manager and colleagues at work. From an appraisal theory perspective it is proposed that having good levels of ability emotional intelligence or trait emotional intelligence will make these emotionally charged situations less threatening as individuals high in Emotional Intelligence will have more confidence in handling their own and others' emotion, that is their beliefs about their ability to cope will be of importance. With their ability to identify and predict emotions ahead of time they would be more likely to take pre-emptive action for example, talking through week's activities with their partner or negotiating how to take emergency time off with boss to avoid common work- family conflict situations, thus reducing the frequency of work-family conflict events.

In terms of application, if there are ways of behaving which are more effective than others when experiencing work- family conflict, then identifying these could be helpful for self-help or to inform Employee Assistance Schemes which are "a worksite-

focused programme to assist in the identification and resolution of employee concerns, which affect, or may affect, performance.” (UKEAP, 2008).

7.3 STUDY 2 AIMS

The gaps in the literature previously outlined informed the aims of the thesis which were to investigate the relative contribution of structural and dispositional factors on fathers’ work and family lives using Bronfenbrenner’s Bioecological theory as an organizing framework. Study 2 examines emotional intelligence alongside known antecedents of work-family conflict in a small sample of fathers. The literature on balancing work and family life has focused more on mothers, thus warranting a focus on a fathers’ sample. The work-family literature has also examined the influence of structural factors more than dispositional factors and has not considered emotional intelligence. Therefore Study 2 evaluates the two different models of emotional intelligence: the Ability model of Mayer et al (2000) and the Trait EI model of Petrides and Furnham (2001) to assess the degree of association of each EI model with work-family conflict. Study 2 examines biological factors that are hypothesized to influence the interface between work and family microsystems within the context of known macrosystem factors, for example the availability of flexible working or parental leave, and exosystem factors such as partners’ working hours.

The aims of Study 2 were to test two Emotional Intelligence measures, as there is debate in the literature as to the definition of the construct of Emotional Intelligence vis-à-vis the Ability EI model vs. the Trait EI model as outlined above. In addition, Study two aimed to get an indication as to whether any of the Emotional Intelligence sub-domains had any relationship with work-family conflict. A further aim included assessing some of other known antecedents of work-family conflict variables to inform the selection of variables for Study 3.

7.3.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

1. RQ1 – Is there a relationship between working hours and work-family conflict?
2. RQ2 - Does emotional intelligence influence levels of work family conflict?
What are the differences between the relationship of Ability EI to WFC compared to the relationship of Trait EI to WFC?

3. RQ3 – Which sub domains of both emotional intelligence models have the strongest association with levels of work family conflict?
4. RQ4 – What are the relationships between the 6 different sub-domains of work family conflict and 4 sub-domains of Emotional Intelligence?
5. RQ5 – Will levels of anxiety be related to levels of work family conflict?
6. RQ6 – Will levels of anxiety be related to levels of emotional intelligence?

Hypotheses

1. H1 – Fathers with high levels of emotional intelligence will have low levels of work-family conflict
2. H2 – Fathers with high levels of emotional intelligence will work fewer hours
3. H3 – Fathers who report gender equity in childcare will have lower levels of work-family conflict
4. H4 – Fathers with high levels of work-family conflict will have high levels of anxiety
5. H5 – Fathers with high levels of emotional intelligence will have lower levels of anxiety
6. H6 – Emotional intelligence will buffer the effect of working hours on work-family conflict (interaction between working hours*emotional intelligence)
7. H7 - Emotional intelligence will buffer the effect of work-family conflict on anxiety (interaction between EI*WFC)

7.4 METHODS

7.4.1 DESIGN

A questionnaire design was used to measure Emotional Intelligence and Work-Family Conflict, organisational factors, family factors and demographic data. Correlation was the main analysis used to identify relationships between Emotional Intelligence and work-family conflict. Any relationships between key organisational or family structural factors influencing work-family conflict were also analysed using t-test, ANOVA or Chi Square. Although multiple regression is intended for Study 3, the pilot sample was too small to undertake regression analyses with more than one predictor variable here. The ability of the correlational analyses to detect large effect

sizes was confirmed using G-power calculating for large effect size of 0.5 for the sample size (n33) with power of .95.

7.4.2 PARTICIPANTS

Participants were recruited through a local district council and via snowballing. All fathers completed the questionnaire online, although a paper and pen version was also offered. It was not expected that this approach would produce a representative sample, but it offered a quick way to test the online practical issues and undertake some exploratory analysis to help inform Study 3.

Contemporary fathering occurs in a greater diversity of family types. This thesis is targeting fathers living within couple biological or step-families to focus on work-family issues in the normative population. The parenting demands of fathers, who have divorced and are living separately from their children, and single parent fathers are very different to those demands placed upon co-resident fathers (Arendell, 1995; Greif, 1985). Over 30 years numbers of single parent families and step-families have increased, with an associated rise in the divorce rate, for example, from 296,000 divorces in 1971 to 1.6 million by 2004 for men (Office for National Statistics, 2006b). However, most men still live within a co-habiting couple family household. In 1998, 85 per cent of all fathers resided with their partner and children (Matheson & Summerfield 2001) with an increase in dual earner families (Jacobs & Gerson 2001). As work-family conflict is experienced differently across family types (Burden, 1986), this thesis will be focusing on the majority of fathers who live with their partners and children. Tables showing the demographic characteristics of participant fathers across all three studies can be found in Appendix 2.

For this study, co-resident fathers were recruited from a local district council (n23). A further 10 fathers were recruited from snowballing via the research website. All fathers had a mean age of 39 years, SD 5.5 years and a range from 26 years to 49 years. Study 2 stands out in terms of differing characteristics of participating fathers, largely due to the small sample (33) and purposive sampling from a district council. In comparison to studies 1 and 3, these fathers had a younger age range (23 – 49) and younger children. They were primarily working in the public sector and worked on average less hours per week (39).

For other key demographic characteristics, all studies had similar profiles. The majority of fathers were: on permanent contracts (> 80 per cent); worked full-time (> 80 per cent) and had a partner in paid employment (> 60 per cent). Apart from Study 2, all fathers worked over the national LFS (2007) average work hours per week (> 42 hours). Apart from the Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey (2005), more fathers were professionals or managers (> 55 per cent).

Nonetheless, it is acknowledged that the participant fathers for Studies 2 and 3 are likely to have self-selected into the study on grounds of self-interest in family involvement and therefore cannot be considered as representative of the larger father population. It is noted however, that many of the descriptive characteristics of these fathers working and family contexts do not differ greatly from the more representative national samples from Study 1.

7.4.3 VARIABLES

The variables for this study are: work-family conflict, emotional intelligence; working hours and negative affect (anxiety). These are described conceptually below, with a more detailed outline of how they are measured to be found in the methodology section.

7.4.3.1 WORK –FAMILY CONFLICT

Work-family conflict has been defined by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) as ‘a form of inter-role conflict in which the pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respects.’ (Greenhaus & Beutell 1985). They suggest that there are three key areas in which this role incompatibility occurs: time, strain and behaviour expectation. Work-family conflict is measured in this study using Carlson et al’s (2000) measure which has 18 items using a 5 point Likert scale from 1- completely disagree to 5 completely agree. There are three sub domains measuring Time Based WFC, Strain Based WFC and Behaviour based WFC. In addition, this measure accounts for bi-directionality in the work family conflict process thus giving 6 possible sub domains to consider (Work Interfering with Family (WIF) across time, strain and behaviour and Family Interfering with Work (FIW) across time, strain and behaviour) (Table 15).

TABLE 15 DIRECTIONS AND DIMENSIONS OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

DIRECTIONS OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT			
FORMS OF WFC		Work interference with Family	Family Interference with Work
	Time	Time based WIF	Time based FIW
	Strain	Strain based WIF	Strain based FIW
	Behaviour	Behaviour based WIF	Behaviour based FIW

There is a sizeable body of quantitative research on work-family conflict, much of which has concentrated on developing a measure that captures the different facets of work-family conflict. Measures developed by (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Frone et al., 1992; Netemeyer et al., 1996) encompassed time and strain based conflict and have been widely used in the field, however these did not include the behaviour facet which Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) identified in their model of work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell 1985). Carlson, Kacmar & Williams (2000) compiled items gathered from pre-existing work-family conflict measures that sought to create a new scale which addressed the three part and bidirectional nature of their work-family conflict concept. Their multi-dimensional scale included all six sub-domains of the Greenhaus & Beutell (1985) model within a factor analysed 18 item scale, which they tested for content adequacy, dimensionality, reliability, factor structure invariance, and construct validity across five studies.

Previous well-used scales included Netemeyer's (1996) 10 item scale which included both directions of work-family conflict, but only the time and strain dimensions (Netemeyer et al., 1996), whilst Stephen & Sommers' (1996) scale included the three dimensions of time, strain and behaviour type work-family conflict, but only have items to measure work-family conflict in one direction (WIF) (Stephens & Sommer, 1996). Kossek & Ozeki's (1998) review of work-family conflict indicated that inconsistent findings could be in part due to the number of different scales used to measure work-family conflict (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Carlson et al (2000) sought to provide a scale which would encompass all dimensions and the bi-directional nature of work-family conflict to provide a scale which, if used extensively enough by researchers could provide more easily comparable findings. In their construction of the scale they sampled items from existing work-family conflict literature and used 31 non-redundant items to test for content adequacy using independent raters. The

remaining 20 items from this screening were used on a working population of 60 per cent male and 40 per cent female employees. Factor analyses showed poor discrimination performance of these items on the behaviour and strain dimensions and direction, so a further 34 items were generated from the literature and personal experience. The total 54 items were then subjected to further rating and categorization tests by 132 MBA students, which produced a final 30 items representing each of the 6 sub-dimensions of work-family conflict. A six factor model confirmatory model was subject to factor analysis using a sample of 228 MBA students, 66 per cent male, and 44 per cent female. Sixty per cent of the total sample had children. The thesis author could not find any normed data for the Carlson et al (2000) measure which would provide a more reliable and representative evidence base upon which to make comparisons between studies using the same measure. However, this is generally the case for other work-family conflict measures and therefore a description of the study which created the measure is useful to undertake an evaluation of the reliability and validity of the measure, but this does not mean that the measure will necessarily produce these factors for all sample populations. Replication studies and production of a normed sample for this measure would contribute towards the measure's reliability and validity, but a normed sample for the measure would allow reliable comparison across populations using the normed sample as benchmark scores (Aiken, 1997).

From the confirmatory factor analysis, an 18 item scale emerged across the 6 sub-dimensions. A final study examined the scale for dimensionality, reliability, and discriminant validity of the scale across gender using known antecedents of work-family conflict of: role conflict, role ambiguity, and social support from both the work and family domain and work involvement. Two hundred and twenty five (n225) full-time employed participants took part, 37 per cent males, 63 per cent females and 63 per cent of the total sample had children. Reliability of the 6 sub-dimensions was within acceptable limits as recommended by Nunnally & Bernstein 1994, with Cronbach's alpha's ranging from .70 to .85 (Nunnally & Ira H. Bernstein, 1994). The confirmatory factor analysis for assessing the dimensionality of the six dimension work-family conflict model compared to previous three dimension models (time, strain, behaviour WIF), two dimension model (WIF and FIW) and a one dimension

model showed a comparative fit index of .95 and root mean square error of approximation of .06 for the 6 dimension model, which indicates a good fit²⁸ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thirteen of the fifteen correlations between the 6 dimensions show discriminant validity with coefficients below .60, but correlations between Behaviour WIF and FIW correlated highly at .83 as did Strain FIW and Time FIW at .76 suggesting that more work could be done to improve the discrimination between these dimensions.

In terms of known antecedents of work-family conflict, antecedent variables' relationships with the 6 sub-dimensions were tested to assess whether the new scale would show discrimination across dimensions and by direction. The standardised path loadings shown in Tables 16 and 17 indicate that there is discrimination, but these figures do not provide evidence of discrimination between Behaviour WIF and FIW or Time FIW and Strain FIW as described above.

TABLE 16 DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS BY WIF ANTECEDENTS

Antecedent	Dimensions in WIF direction Completely standardised path loadings		
	TWIF	SWIF	BWIF
Role ambiguity	.17	.24*	.22*
Work social support	.00	-.03	-.09
Work Involvement	.37*	.37*	.21*

*p<.05

TABLE 17 DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS BY FIW ANTECEDENTS

Antecedent	Dimensions in FIW direction Completely standardised path loadings		
	TFIW	SFIW	BFIW
Role ambiguity	-.09	.02	.20*
Family social support	-.38*	-.35*	-.23*
Work Involvement	.00	-.02	.12*

*p<.05

Gender differences in the six dimensions of Carlson et al's (2000) work-family conflict measure were also tested showing that women had significantly higher scores on all the FIW dimensions than men and also for the Strain WIF dimension, see Table 18. The authors suggest that the different experiences found for men and women here both by direction and dimension may explain the lack of clarity for gender differences in work-family conflict found in the literature. In spite of the slight limitations of the discrimination ability of the Carlson et al (2000) measure, it was

²⁸ CFI values of .95 and over indicate good fit, RMSEA values of .06 or lower indicate good model fit.

chosen for this study as it is the only measure which addresses the full work-family conflict model as theorised by Greenhaus & Beutell (1985).

TABLE 18 T TEST FOR GENDER DIFFERENCES IN WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

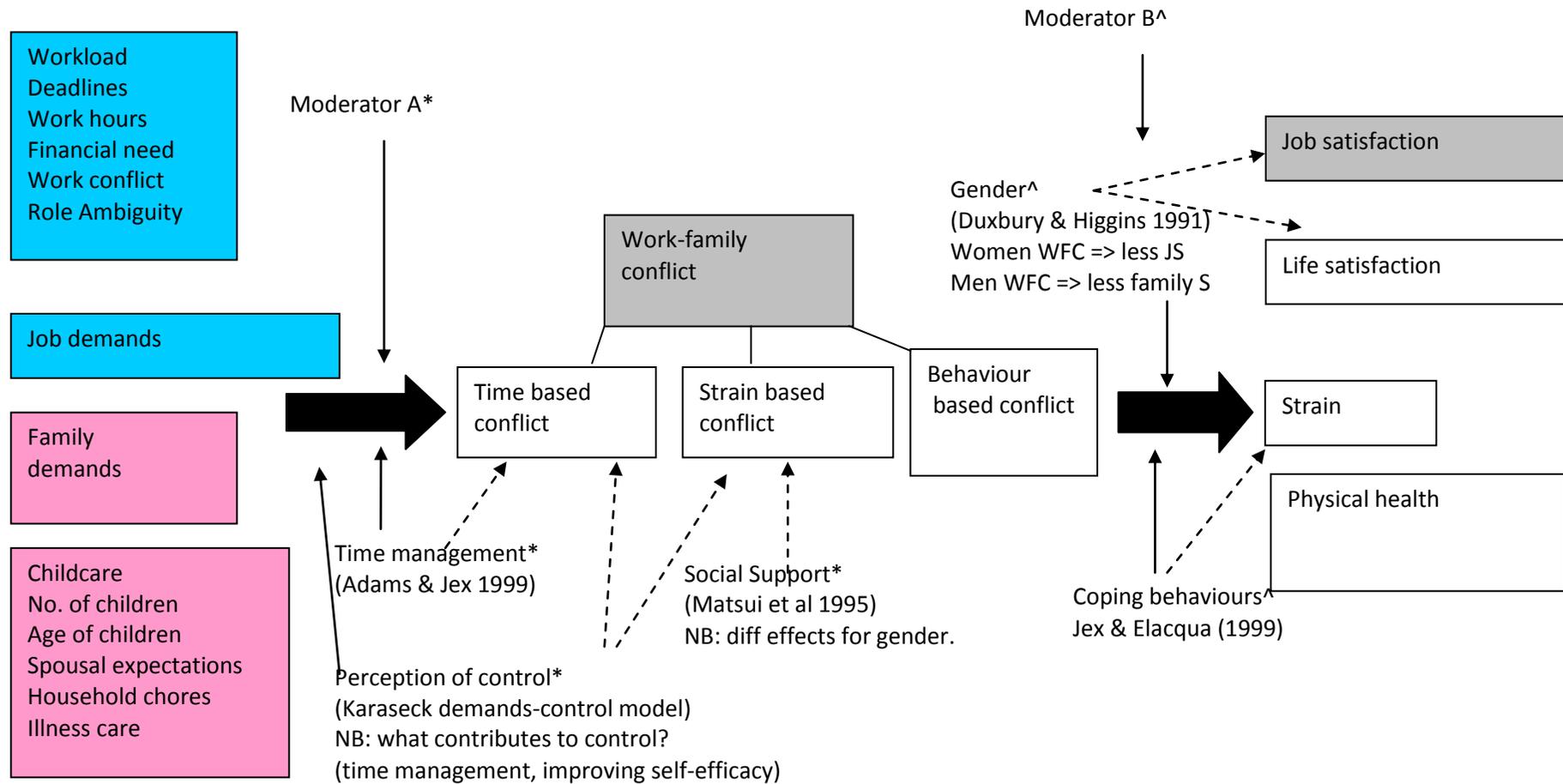
Dimension	Mean for males	Mean for females	t	p
Time WIF	2.91	2.82	.52	.601
Time FIW	1.77	2.01	-2.05	.042
Strain WIF	2.45	2.81	-2.52	.013
Strain FIW	1.71	1.93	-1.02	.045
Behaviour WIF	2.43	2.63	-1.58	.116
Behaviour FIW	2.36	2.65	-2.09	.038

Following cognitive testing of the whole questionnaire with two fathers, changes were made to two items to make them clearer. For item 6 the word 'activities' was changed to 'tasks' to differentiate between work social activities (implied in item 5) and actual work tasks. Item 8 was changed from 'I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family' to 'I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to family life.' to make clear that the element of 'contribution' was not interpreted as solely a financial one.

A model of hypothesised relationships between variables in line with Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) shown in Figure 8, adapted from (O'Driscoll et al., 2006), shows known antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict, with points at which moderating variables influence main effects. This model has been adapted to give a proposed outline for this study.

FIGURE 8 - KNOWN DIRECT & MODERATING EFFECTS ON WORK FAMILY-CONFLICT

(O'Driscoll, Brough, & Kalliath, 2006)



7.4.3.2 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Two emotional intelligence measures were chosen for use in Study 2 in relation to work-family conflict. One measure tested Ability EI, the MSCEITv2 (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test) (Mayer et al., 2002; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003) and the other measured Trait EI using the TEIQue (Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire), (Petrides, 2009). The reliability and validity of each of these measures will be examined in turn starting with the Ability EI measure; the MSCEITv2. The MSCEIT measure was developed in line with existing academic knowledge on emotion. The theoretical and empirical evidence on these areas are outlined in chapter 5.

ABILITY EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE – MSCEIT

The MSCEITv2 was designed to assess individual ability to perform tasks and solve emotional problems. The items generated to achieve this assessment form two areas of emotional competence: Experiential and Strategic, under which sit four branches: 1. Perceiving emotions; 2. Using emotions to facilitate thinking; 3. Understanding emotions and 4. Managing emotions. Each of the branches is made up of two sub-tasks, making a total of 8 sub-tasks (Table 19). The test is provided on a commercial basis with a research discount.

TABLE 19 STRUCTURE OF THE MSCEITV2 FROM (Mayer et al., 2002)

Overall Scale	2 Areas of the MSCEIT	Four Branches of the MSCEIT	Task level
Total EI	Experiential EI	Perceiving emotions	Faces
			Pictures
		Facilitating thought	Facilitation
			Sensations
	Strategic EI	Understanding emotions	Changes
			Blends
		Managing emotions	Emotional Management
			Emotional relations

The MSCEIT test has undergone standardization through creating normative data from three samples (n5000) collected mainly from the U.S. The sample is underrepresented in males and the 30 – 49 year age group and overrepresented in those with college education and white ethnicity. For scoring purposes, the sample

has been weighted to represent U.S. census demographic distributions (Mayer et al., 2002).

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY (SEE APPENDIX 3 FOR TEST ITEMS)

The Faces task involves identifying how a person feels based on viewing a photograph of their facial expression, using a five point Likert scale, from None to Extreme, on different options of basic emotions of: Happy, Fear, Disgust, Sadness and Anger and different options of variants of e.g. Happy: Excitement and Fear: Surprise. The Pictures task displays pictures of different landscapes asking how much feeling is expressed by each picture, again with a five point response Likert scale using a combination of basic emotions and variants of them. Both these tasks aim to evaluate an individual's ability to perceive emotion and also, by proxy to identify one's own emotions. The authors argue that as the ability to perceive emotions has been found to be related to recognising one's own emotions then these tasks can be used as a proxy for recognising own emotions ref . The authors report findings from an unpublished master's thesis on face validity. Pusey (2000) tested the face validity of the MSCEITv1 using a sample of employees, recording thoughts and feelings of participants, which were then rated by two independent raters ($r = .83$). Pusey (2000) concluded that the test had good face validity although the sensations task, based on synaesthesia research was problematic (Pusey, 2000).

In terms of content validity the items for the MSCEITv2 have been generated from Mayer and Salovey's theoretical four branch model of EI in progressive psychometric development from the first version of the test MEIS and second version MSCEITv1. Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts (2004) state that it has not been possible to compare the differing results of the tests using correlation to assess convergent validity as a number of sub-tests, originally used, which had good reliabilities e.g. music, have been dropped from subsequent versions of the test to shorten the time taken, but potentially threaten the content validity of the test (G. Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2004).

Another way of evaluating a test's content validity is to see how it relates to similar concepts (convergent validity). If Ability EI is an intelligence there should be moderate relationships with intelligence measures. Figures from the user manual (Mayer et al., 2002) show low to moderate associations ($r = .30$) of MSCEITv2 with IQ

tests of verbal ability (n500) and minimal correlations ($r = .05$) with tests of abstract reasoning (n129), which is supported by recent research assessing the MSCEIT against fluid and crystallised intelligence (R.D. Roberts, Schulze, & MacCann, 2008) suggesting that the MSCEIT is primarily measuring acquired knowledge of emotion. As an intelligence, Ability EI would be expected to show moderate correlations with personality as intelligence is conceptualised as part of personality. The MSCEIT shows low to moderate correlations with Big 5 personality dimensions and only correlates significantly with two of the five dimensions: Openness (-.23), which means being open to new experiences, low openness indicates individuals who are practical and down to earth. The MSCEIT also correlates significantly with Agreeableness (.33), which indicates a tendency to behave in an empathetic and friendly way to maintain cooperation and social harmony. The MSCEIT has not shown strong relations to other measures of emotional intelligence, which has been noted in the literature as problematic as theoretically there should be some conceptual overlap (Mayer, Roberts & Barsade 2008).

The underlying factor structure of the MSCEIT using confirmatory factor analysis has revealed 1, 2, 3, and four factor solutions over a number of studies. The authors settled on a four factor solution based on the fit statistics, although there has been some argument for a three factor solution in other studies (Palmer, Gignac, Manocha & Stough, 2005) which do not find Branch two – facilitating emotions emerging as a factor. Criterion or predictive validity for the MSCEIT shows mainly correlational findings, across small samples, and often from unpublished research (Mayer et al., 2002), although there are some regression findings for positive prediction of positive working relationships (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005) and relationship quality (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000) and negative prediction of anxiety (Gerald Matthews et al., 2006). Reliabilities for the MSCEIT's internal and temporal consistency are good, although the test-retest data was from a small sample (n60).

TRAIT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE - TEIQUÉ (SF) – ($\alpha = 0.92$)

The TEIQue short form questionnaire (Petrides & Furnham 2006) was used in this study. There is also a long form version (153 items) recommended for use if researchers are interested in exploring the sub-domains. The short form TEIQue

comprises a 30 item questionnaire measuring Trait Emotional intelligence using a Likert scale 1 (low) to 7 (high), but with some items reverse scored (Appendix 6).

There are four sub-domains, identified via factor analysis by the authors for the long version (153 items). These sub-domains are detailed below, with the item statements for each domain also shown (Tables 20 – 23). There are also 15 facets making up the four sub-domains which are highlighted in brackets within each sub-domain. These 15 facets were identified by (Petrides & Furnham, 2001) from content analysis of the extant EI literature prior to 2001.

TABLE 20 TRAIT EI WELL-BEING SUB-DOMAIN (A = .80)

Well-Being items
Item 5 – I generally don't find life enjoyable (trait happiness)
Item 9 – I feel that I have a number of good qualities (self-esteem)
Item 12 – On the whole I have a gloomy perspective on most things (trait optimism)
Item 20 – On the whole I am pleased with my life (trait happiness)
Item 24 – I believe I am full of personal strengths (self-esteem)
Item 27 – I generally believe that things will work out in my life (trait optimism)

The items above measure optimism; self esteem beliefs; and trait happiness. Previous studies have shown that work-family conflict is negatively associated with levels of well – being i.e. those with high levels of work-family conflict have low levels of well being, particularly levels of depression (Allen et al., 2000).

TABLE 21 TRAIT EI SELF-CONTROL SUB – DOMAIN (ALPHA = .68)

Self-Control items
Item 4 – I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions (Emotion Regulation)
Item 7 – I tend to change my mind frequently (Impulsiveness)
Item 15 - On the whole I'm able to deal with stress (Stress Management)
Item 19 – I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to (Emotion Regulation)
Item 22 – I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of (Impulsiveness)
Item 30 – Others admire me for being relaxed (Stress Management)

These items above measure emotion regulation, impulsiveness and stress management.

TABLE 22 TRAIT EI EMOTIONALITY SUB- DOMAIN (ALPHA = .84)

Emotionality items
Item 1 – Expressing my emotions is not a problem for me (Emotional Expression)
Item 2 – I often find it difficult to see things from another person’s viewpoint (Trait Empathy)
Item 8 – Many times I can’t figure out what emotion I am feeling (Emotion perception)
Item 13 – Those close to me often complain that I don’t treat them right (Relationships)
Item 16 – I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me (Emotional Expression)
Item 17 – I’m normally able to ‘get into someone’s shoes’ and experience their emotions (Trait Empathy)
Item 23 – I often pause and think about my feelings (Emotion perception)
Item 28 – I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me (Relationships)

These items above measure emotional expression, trait empathy, emotion perception and relationships. We could expect emotionality to influence WFC negatively if associated with low self-control on the grounds that those high in emotionality may feel the effects of work-family conflict more than those with high self-control as they are good at perceiving their own and others’ emotions and are more likely to put themselves in others’ situations, potentially making them more vulnerable to distress when dealing with work-family conflict situations. This vulnerability may be attenuated by high levels of self-control which includes self-protective traits such as less impulsiveness and good stress management beliefs.

TABLE 23 TRAIT EI SOCIABILITY SUB-DOMAIN (A = .76)

Social Skills
Item 6 – I can deal effectively with people (Social Awareness)
Item 10 – I often find it difficult to stand up for my rights (Assertiveness)
Item 11 – I’m usually able to influence the way other people feel (Emotional Management)
Item 21 – I would describe myself as a good negotiator (Social awareness)
Item 25 – I tend to ‘back down’ even if I know I’m right (Assertiveness)
Item 26 – I don’t seem to have any power at all over other people’s feelings (Emotional Management)

These items above measure emotion management (influencing others), assertiveness and social awareness (competence). It would be expected that this sub-domain will negatively correlate with WFC, as fathers experiencing work-family conflict are likely to need the ability to successfully influence and negotiate with their supervisor, partner and children.

The TEIQue, Trait EI measure also shows good internal and temporal reliabilities (Tables 24 and 25), a good normative sample size, although males are slightly under-represented, with no indication as to whether there are any weightings

applied to compensate. The content validity of the TEIQue is established by identifying Trait EI within personality factor space using oblique rotation, thus confirming the conceptualisation of Trait EI as a part of affective personality (Petrides, 2009). The TEIQue shows no correlation with IQ (Derksen, Kramer, & Katzko, 2002), although Trait EI has been shown to moderate the effect of anxiety on low IQ students (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004). In terms of predictive validity the TEIQue has been shown to predict, over and above personality dimensions, the following outcomes: coping styles, neurosis, psychosis, depression and hostility (Petrides, 2009).

TABLE 24 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE MSCEIT AND TRAIT EI MEASURES

Validity/Reliability (All figures reported are from the technical manuals unless otherwise indicated)	MSCEITv2 (Mayer et al., 2002)	Trait EI (Petrides, 2009)
Normative sample size	5000 (Male: 37%; Female: 52%)	1721 (Male: 44%; Female: 53%)
Internal consistency - Alpha	(Split half) Total EI: .93/.91 Four branches all above .70	(Cronbach's) Total EI: .92 Four sub-domains all above .70
Stability over time - Test/re-test correlations	Over two weeks (n60) .86 (Brackett et al., 2006)	Over 12 months (n58) Total EI: .78, $p < .01$ Note all facets significantly related between .49 - .70 except Empathy .19
Construct validity – factor structure	Confirmatory factor analysis, 8 – 4 – 1 solution. GFI .96, RMS .03, NFI .93 ²⁹ . %age of variance not reported	Principal axis analysis: 15-4-1 solution. 69% of variance of 15 facets explained
Content validity Intercorrelations between four branches/sub-domains	Average $r = .45$	Average $r = .42$

²⁹ GFI and NFI values of .95 and over indicate good fit, RMSEA values of .06 or lower indicate good model fit.

TABLE 25 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE MSCEIT AND TRAIT EI MEASURES

Validity/Reliability (All figures reported are from the technical manuals unless otherwise indicated)	MSCEITv2 (Mayer et al., 2002)	Trait EI (Petrides, 2009)
Discriminant validity	Personality (Big 5) O - -.23* C - .25 E - .04 A - .33* N - -.13 * sig at $p < .05$ IQ - $r = .30$ (Mayer et al., 2002) Total EI (R.D. Roberts et al., 2008) Fluid intelligence ³⁰ - .18 Crystallised intelligence ³¹ - .35	Personality – Big 5 O - .34 C - .34 E - .33 A - .05 N - .25 EI emerges as a factor in big 5 factor space. Variance overlap 65% (Petrides et al., 2007) EI shows prediction of outcomes over and above big 5 IQ – zero order correlations (Derksen et al., 2002)
Convergent validity	Correlation with other EI measures: generally low, between .10 - .20. See (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008)	
Criterion validity – ability to predict outcomes	Correlations: Violence – $r = .45$ Psychological aggression -ve with perceiving emotion +ve with managing emotion Perceptions of social competence +ve (Brackett et al., 2006; Lopes et al., 2004) Parental warmth +ve Regression: Relationship quality +ve (Ciarrochi et al., 2000) Creating positive affect +ve (Mueller & Curhan, 2006) Productive working relationships +ve (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005) Anxiety –ve (Gerald Matthews et al., 2006)	Regression: Coping styles (all controlling for big 5) Rational +ve Emotional –ve Avoidance –ve Anger Hostility –ve Depression –ve Neurosis –ve Psychosis –ve Asperger's vs control – higher emotionality, sociability and well-being in control group IQ Maths no relationship Science no relationship English – EI moderates effect of anxiety on low IQ students

7.4.3.3 WORKING HOURS

The UK has a tradition of long working hours, mostly fuelled by the length of male working hours. In addition, UK fathers in 2001 were reputed to be working the longest hours in Europe (Kodz et al., 2003). Long working hours have been consistently associated with high levels of work-family conflict (Major, Klein, & Ehrhart, 2002). The

³⁰ Fluid intelligence – ability to think creatively and solve problems, find meaning/patterns in confusion

³¹ Crystallised intelligence – ability to use acquired knowledge and skills

juxtaposition of long working hours and desire to spend more time with family is likely to produce greater stress amongst working fathers as they try and meet the increasing demands of work and family.

7.4.3.4 NEGATIVE AFFECT

Negative affect is one of the more relevant emotions that is expected to be experienced in relation to work-family conflict. It could be considered an outcome of work-family conflict, as a mood state which is a more temporary emotional state in response to threat. It could also be considered as an antecedent to work-family conflict, as trait anxiety in the form of negative affect could make respondents more likely to negatively appraise events than others (Lazarus, 1991). Trait anxiety has also been found to be negatively related to self-efficacy (Schwarzer, 1996) meaning that it reduces one's belief in their abilities. This suggests that trait anxiety is also likely to be negatively related to emotional self-efficacy in this context. State anxiety is evaluated as both an antecedent variable and an outcome variable in this study, but the hypotheses will be considered further within the proposed model outlined for Study 3.

Six items, taken from the WERS 2004 employee survey (DTI), measuring levels of anxiety and calm experienced in relation to 'work in the last few weeks' were used as a proxy of current negative and positive state affectivity. These consisted of three items each for anxiety (Tense, Worried, Uneasy) and calm (Calm, Relaxed, Content) on a five point Likert scale answering the question: "Thinking of the past few weeks, how much time has your job made you feel each of the following?" Answers: From 'all of the time' to 'most of the time. A total anxiety score was calculated by reverse scoring calm scores and summing the total (Anxiety $\alpha = .92$, Calm $\alpha = .89$).

7.4.3.5 ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS

A number of organisational constraints have been shown to influence work-family conflict such as working hours (Carlson & Frone, 2003) and availability of flexible working options (Anderson, Coffey & Byerly 2002). Fathers were asked about the availability and their use of leave and flexible working options. Occupation data was collected along with managerial status, as managers have been particularly found to experience high levels of work-family conflict (Bond, 2004). For the main study, which will sample from both private and public sector, it will be possible to aggregate

awareness and availability data on flexible working facilities to categorise 'family-friendly' organisations and less family friendly organisations to test the hypothesis that fathers working for family-friendly organisations would be expected to have lower work-family conflict levels.

7.4.3.6 FAMILY FACTORS

Four main family factors were measured in line with previous research findings showing these factors influence on work-family conflict and working hours of fathers. These factors were the number and age of children (Major et al., 2002), gender equity self-reported behaviour (see below) and working status and hours of partner (Milkie & Peltola, 1999).

7.4.3.7 GENDER EQUITY SELF-REPORTED BEHAVIOUR

Measured with one item, taken from (Allard et al., 2007), *'In your family who has the main responsibility for the children's care and upbringing'*, with five options, 1 = *Mostly my partner* to 5 = *Mostly me*.

7.4.3.8 WORKING STATUS AND HOURS OF PARTNER

This thesis focuses on fathers living in dual earner households, estimated to be 53 per cent of all fathers (Ferri & Smith, 1996). Previous research shows that it is dual earner fathers who are more likely to be involved in childcare as a result of their spouse/partner working (Crompton, 2006) than those in single earner families, although there is still uncertainty over the influence of the level of maternal employment on father involvement (O'Brien, 2004). With dual pressures from work and family it is expected that dual earner fathers are more likely to suffer work-family conflict, particularly in light of evidence that dual earner parents report more stress (Ferri & Smith, 1996). Partner employment has been found to influence the degree of work-family conflict for fathers, whereby fathers in dual career families suffer more work to family interference (Higgins & Duxbry 1992). In addition, there is physiological evidence showing that male cortisol levels are associated with higher hours when their partner works in paid employment (Klumb, Hoppmann & Staats, 2006). Details on working status of partner spouse were asked for with an associated question about number of hours, so that total household working hours could be calculated.

7.4.4 PROCEDURE

All the studies undertaken for this thesis were subject to applications for approval from the School of Social and Psychology Ethical Board at the University of East Anglia in line with BPS guidelines.

The first page of the questionnaire introduced the research aims and described what participants were being asked to do and the purpose to which the data would be put. It was stated that their data would be treated confidentially, data seen only by the researcher and supervisors and stored securely and that data would be anonymised. It also stated that the decision to participate or not participate in the research was completely voluntary and that they could exit the questionnaire at any time.

Upon completion of the questionnaire, participants were directed to the project website outlining the research purpose and conceptual basis, in addition to links to other resources which may help them: improve their emotional intelligence; manage work and family demands and other self help resources. In addition participants were able to access their emotional intelligence scores and download an interpretative guide to their score.

Fathers with children under 12 years and living with both their children and partner were targeted for sampling. These criteria were chosen to limit the effects of single parenthood and teenage children (Sallinen, Kinnunen & Ronka 2004) on the analysis as both these variables are known to have increased or differing family demands upon fathers. Fathers were recruited via a local district authority and snowballing. The questionnaires were open for access four weeks in total in July/August 2007. A second reminder email was sent out in the third week.

7.4.4.5 RESPONSE RATES

The importance of knowing response rates pertains to the ability to generalise statistical findings to the population. The use of online questionnaires in organisation settings is less problematic for calculating response rates, as the male employee totals are known, although not the proportion of fathers. A disadvantage of using online surveys is that survey response rates have been found to be lower than for pen and paper surveys (Witmer, Colman, & Katzman, 1999) and the demographic of online users tends to be one of higher income, education, white ethnicity, male, under 35

years and living in urban areas (Mann & Stewart, 2000). Another limitation of sampling working fathers using employer intranet sites also reduces the chances of recruiting manual working fathers. Nonetheless, it was felt that attempting to access fathers directly through their employment was worth attempting in order to avoid the issues with 'gatekeeping' by mothers that the hard copy survey distributed through schools might face.

If response rates are low, then it is more likely that those who have participated will have characteristics that bias the sample. Volunteer fathers who have participated in family research tend to have distinct characteristics in that they have better family cohesion, fewer behaviour problems in children, higher marital satisfaction and tend to be better adjusted than non-participants (Costigan & Cox, 2001). Where it is possible to compare the characteristics of participants and non-participants, it is recommended that this is done to cover family demographics, marital quality, parenting experiences, child-care arrangements, child characteristics and parental employment. Where fathers are recruited via mothers, this is possible, however in these studies it is not, so the approach advised by Braver & Bay (1992) has been taken whereby, participating fathers are compared to local statistics for men (where possible) on: employment activity rate, working hours, income, education, provided by the Labour Force Survey of the year of data collection (2008) and most recent Index of Multiple Deprivation (2007). This comparison can be found in the participants section below and Appendix 2 for Studies 2 and 3.

7.5 RESULTS

The results for this study are outlined below firstly describing the demographic characteristics of participant fathers. Secondly the working patterns and behaviours are outlined together with some self-reported data on career and gender equity. In the third section, results of the key variables of: working hours, work-family conflict, emotional intelligence, anxiety and job satisfaction are considered in turn, and their relationship with the dependent variable of work-family conflict interpreted. For ease of reference there is a deviation from standard reporting of results in this section in order to provide some instant analysis on the interaction of variables, followed up by

an interpretative overview of the whole picture and way forward in the conclusion section.

7.5.1 PARTICIPANT FATHERS

There were 33 participant fathers in this sample, 23 from a local district authority whose total employee base totalled 935, from which participant fathers came from a male employee population of 390. Participant fathers from the District Council could also be compared with the Council's male employee population to assess representativeness at the organisational level. This comparison shows that proportionally there were less part-time fathers participating than the potential proportions available from the male employee population (DC male employees: 84 per cent full-time/16 per cent part-time. Sample: 94 per cent/ 6 per cent). Also, the age range of participating fathers was slightly younger than the District Council male employee age profile (DC male employees: 20-65yrs, Sample: 26-49yrs). However, the significance of these differences is difficult to gauge from these figures, as the Council were unable to distinguish the proportion of fathers from the male workforce figures. A further 10 fathers were recruited from snowballing via the research website.

For the total sample, fathers' age ranged from 26 years to 49 years with a mean age of 39 years. All were co-resident fathers with children under 12 years of age. The majority of fathers in the sample had only one child, 88 per cent (29), who were also primarily pre-school age, (under 5 years old) 79 per cent (26). Child age ranged from 2 months to 11 years. With this over representation of young children in the sample it could be expected to see higher levels of work-family conflict, as other studies have shown that having children under 6 years is associated with higher levels of work-family conflict (Voydanoff, 2004). However, to counter that influence on work-family conflict, the majority of fathers had only one child and studies show that having fewer children is associated with lower levels of work-family conflict (Major et al., 2002).

The majority of fathers worked in the public sector, 76 per cent (25) and 24 per cent (8) in the private sector. Previous work shows that mothers tend to self-select into working in the public sector as the public sector has more family-friendly policies (Preston, 1990), there is little comparative work on sector levels of work-family conflict but the behaviour of mothers found above suggests that they suffer less work-family conflict working within the public sector. Most fathers were working full-time

94 per cent (31) with just 6 per cent (2) working part-time. Partner working pattern ratios were 21 per cent full-time, 55 per cent part-time and 24 per cent not in paid work. When combining both fathers' and partner's work patterns, this sample had 21 per cent (7) of both parents working full-time, 49 per cent (16) where the father was full-time and their partner was part-time, 24 per cent (8) where the father was full-time and their partner was not in paid work and 6 per cent (2) where both parents worked part-time. This differs from the national picture where there are *more* dual earner households where parents both work full-time (45 per cent). In comparison to national figures, this sample is over-represented in the full-time/part-time (49 per cent in this sample vs 33 per cent nationally) and full-time/no paid work (24 per cent in this sample vs 14 per cent nationally) categories from BHPS 2001 data in (Crompton, 2006). In relation to work family issues, previous work has shown that dual earner households where both parents work full-time in high status jobs suffer higher levels of job exhaustion (Kinnunen & Mauno, 2002) suggesting that occupational status coupled with dual earner family type is likely to lead to higher levels of work-family conflict.

Ninety-four per cent (31) of fathers were employed on a permanent contract with 3 per cent (1) employed on a temporary contract and 3 per cent (1) on a fixed-term contract. Research has shown that job insecurity can exacerbate work-family conflict (Batt & Valcour, 2003), but the majority of this sample were on permanent contracts, so theoretically this should not be as much of an issue in this sample. Either way, it was not possible to test this for significance in this study, as the numbers of fathers on fixed term and temporary contracts was too low (n2).

Sample fathers came from the NS SEC groups 1-4, with no representation of fathers from manual trades. Most work-family conflict research has focused on professional occupations, so this sample will be comparable on that basis, but nonetheless unrepresentative of all occupational groups. Supervisory responsibility has been shown to be associated with higher work-family conflict (Bond, 2004). Forty two per cent (14) of this sample supervised staff and 58% (19) had no supervisory responsibilities. Mean working hours for these fathers was 39 hours per week. These hours are less than the national average in 2007 for fathers of 48 hours per week (O'Brien, 9-13 September, 2008). As a key variable for this study, working hours are

considered in greater detail below. Table 26 below shows the demographic profile of fathers for Study 2.

Overall this sample of fathers is unrepresentative in the following ways: They work primarily for the public sector, work fewer hours per week than the national average, have permanent contracts, have younger children and less children than the national average. Three quarters of fathers had partners who were working part-time or not at all compared to 45 per cent of fathers nationally whose partners work full-time. With these characteristics we could expect low levels of work-family conflict in this sample, based on previous findings showing that these characteristics are all associated with lower levels of work-family conflict.

TABLE 26 - DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF FATHERS (N-33)

Fathers' age	Mean age	Age Range		
	39yrs	26yrs – 49yrs		
No. of children	Mode	Range		
	1 (88%, 29)	1 - 3		
Age of children	Mean age	Range		
	4yrs	2 months – 11 yrs		
Fathers with children U6	79% (26)			
Sector	Public	Private	Voluntary	
	76% (25)	24% (8)	0% (0)	
Occupation type (NS SEC)	1-Managers & Senior Professionals	2-Professional Occupations	3-Associated Professionals and Technical Occupations	4-Admin and Secretarial Occupations
	15% (5)	42% (14)	9% (3)	33% (11)
Contract type	Permanent	Fixed Term	Temporary	
	94% (31)	3% (1)	3% (1)	
Father's working pattern	Full-time	Part-time		
	94% (31)	6% (2)		
Joint parental work pattern	Both parents full-time	Father full-time/ Spouse part-time	Father full-time/ Spouse not in paid work	Father part-time/ Spouse part-time
	21% (7)	49% (16)	24% (8)	6% (2)
Manager status	Manager	Non-manager		
	42% (14)	58% (19)		
Fathers' ave work hours (pr wk) mean	Fathers' ave	National average (LFS 2007)		
	39hrs	42hrs		
Joint parental ave work hours (pr wk) mean	57hrs			

7.5.2 FATHERS' WORKING PATTERNS

Figures from Table 27 show that flex-time is the main form of flexible working pattern used by fathers, with 79 per cent (26) of them using flex-time. This is in line with other work also finding that flex-time is the most used form of flexible working amongst fathers (O'Brien, 2005).

TABLE 27 FATHERS' USE OF FLEXIBLE WORKING OPTIONS

Working pattern (n=33)	Use flexible working option
Flex-time	79% (26)
Compressed hrs	6% (2)
Annualised hrs	6% (2)
Shift work	3% (1)
Term-time working	0% (0)
Job share	6% (2)
Total	100% (33)

Childcare is stated as the main reason for using flex-time (Table 28).

TABLE 28 REASONS FOR USING FLEXIBLE WORKING OPTION

Have no usual place of work	The family home is some distance away from work	Childcare needs	Caring needs of relatives, friends or neighbours	Demands of the job	Get more work done/is more efficient	Other	Total
0 (0%)	2 (6%)	11 (32%)	1 (3%)	4 (12%)	3 (9%)	3 (9%)	24

Responses to this question above show that childcare needs form the main reason for working flexibly. This was also found in (O'Brien, 2005) analysis of fathers use of flexible work time from analysis of the national Work-Life Balance Survey 2000. Work related reasons also feature highly (demands of job and getting more work done – 21 per cent).

7.5.3 USE OF LEAVE

The average amount of annual leave that fathers in this sample were allocated was 28 days, ranging from 22 to 37 days. 79 per cent (26) of fathers had been able to take all their leave in the last 12 months. Those that had been unable to use their leave had between 4 – 6 days carried over. Annual leave carried over has been found to be a sign that work demands are high (Stevens et al., 2004) especially in higher

status occupations, however few of these fathers had leave to carry over (21 per cent, $n=7$). Nonetheless for those who did have annual leave to carry over, a Mann-Whitney U test indicated that there was a significant difference between levels of work-family conflict. Fathers who had not taken their annual leave had significantly higher levels of work-family conflict ($mdn=61$) than fathers who had taken their leave ($mdn=49.5$) in the last 12 months $U=43.5$, $p<0.05$, $r=-0.36$. This finding suggests that annual leave consumption could be a useful quick warning sign for organisations trying to identify and reduce work-family conflict.

Fathers were also asked if they had taken any time off in the last 12 months to look after children. Forty-eight per cent had done so, with 9 per cent (3) using annual leave, 15 per cent (5) using flex-time, 21 per cent (7) using special leave (an extra 12 days per year to care for sick dependents) and 3 per cent using Paternity leave.

7.5.4 SUPERVISOR ROLE

There is no significant difference between mean levels of work-family conflict across supervisors and non-supervisors, $t=.955$ (31), $p>0.05$. This does not support previous findings, which indicate that managers have higher levels of work-family conflict (Bond, 2004). However, the number of people supervised by father managers in this sample is small ranging from 1 person to a maximum of 6 people.

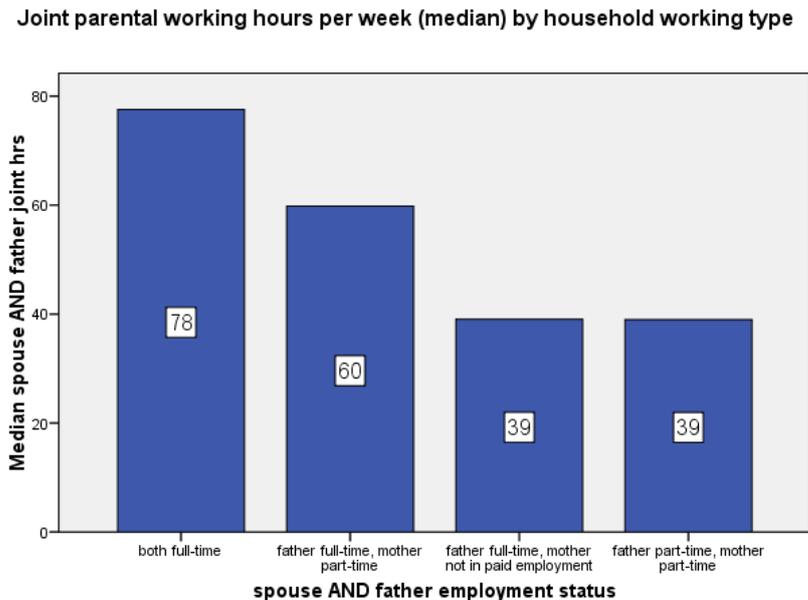
7.5.6 WORKING HRS

The mean average working hours per week of fathers in this sample were 39.30 hours, $sd = 7$ hours. This is lower than the national average of 48 hours per week, LFS 2007 (O'Brien, 9-13 September, 2008). The range of hours worked by fathers spanned 22 hours per week at the lower end to 55 hours per week at the top end. The percentage of those working over 48 hours per week, i.e. long working hours, was 15 per cent ($n=5$). Again, this is lower than national average of 38 per cent of fathers regularly working over 48 hours (O'Brien, 2005). The percentage of those working less than 37 hours per week was 15 per cent ($n=5$). The majority of fathers (69 per cent) were working between 37-45 hours per week. This distribution was not normal with data clustering closer to the mean showing significant kurtosis (1.29, $k-s .22$ (33), $p<.001$). Not only was the number of fathers whose average working hours were over 48 hours per week low, but the frequency with which all fathers worked over 48 hours per week in last 12 months was also low with 51 per cent having never worked over

48 hours per week in the last 12 months, 18 per cent having worked 48 hours per week less than once a month, meaning that only 31 per cent of the sample worked long hours on a regular basis.

7.5.6.2 JOINT HOUSEHOLD HOURS

FIGURE 9 JOINT PARENTAL WORKING HOURS PER WEEK BY HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYMENT STATUS



When looking at joint household working hours (Figure 9) there are significant differences in hours worked across household type of working pattern, revealing ‘work rich/time poor’ households at the top end down to ‘time rich/work poor’ households at the bottom end. Fathers’ working type is listed first (full-time/full-time, full-time/part-time, full-time/ not working, part-time/part-time). These differences between median working hours per week are significant between all groups ($H(3)=25.4$, $p=.000$), apart from between father full-time/mother not in paid employment and father part-time/mother part-time. This is not surprising as average household hours medians are the same in these two types. However, these hours are distributed across parents differently, where fathers in the first three groups are working full-time they are likely to be under different expectations from their partners as to contributions at home dependent on partner’s work status. Therefore we might expect a 50/50 contribution expectation for the *full-time/full-time* and *part-time/part-time* households, but a lesser partner expectation on fathers for the *full-time/no work* and *full-time/part-time* household types. Additional support for this can be found in a

comparison of household type with gender equity responses which indicates that in a cross tabulation of household type by gender equity response fathers, within households where parents *both work full-time or both work part-time*, are five times (odds ratio=5) more likely to *share* responsibility for childcare, whilst those fathers in households where fathers work *full-time with either part-time or non working* partners are more likely to state that their *partner* had main responsibility for childcare. This difference across household types was significant $\chi^2(1) = 5.016, p < .05$.

7.5.7 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Total work-family conflict scores range from 24 (low) – 71 (high) within a potential range of 18 (low) to 90 (high) with a mean of 49, SD – 12.9, CI – 45-55. The scores were normally distributed. Family to work interference (FIW) scores range from 11-36 within a potential range of 9-45 with a mean of 23, SD – 6.4, CI – 21-25. Work to family interference (WIF) scores range from 12-40 within a potential range of 9-45 and a mean of 26, SD – 7.5, CI – 23-28.

Fathers in this sample experience more Work interfering with family (WIF) than Family interfering with work (FIW) ($t(32) = -2.694, p < 0.05$) in line with previous findings on gender and the directionality of work – family conflict (M. R. Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996). Previous studies have suggested that this reflects traditional gender roles where fathers are less likely to be interrupted at work with family issues (FIW) as mothers are likely to be the first to be called concerning family issues. This premise about the influence of traditional gender roles influencing work-family conflict is further supported in these results, as fathers who share responsibility of childcare have lower Work interfering with family (WIF) scores indicating that less traditional fathers are able to limit conflict from work to family. Theoretical explanations suggest the importance of family salience to counteract work preoccupation; a possible reduction or change in working patterns to accommodate family needs, NB: In this study fathers who shared responsibility worked less hours. In contrast to existing findings in the literature, work-family conflict did not vary with supervisory role, $t(32) = .955, p > 0.05$.

7.5.8 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND WORKING HOURS

There is a strong positive correlation between fathers' working hours and levels of work-family conflict $r_s = .47, p < .001$. However the associated scattergram does not

reflect the strength of this correlation and seems to show a wide range of work-family conflict scores for these fathers working average working hours per week of 37-40 hours, after which the positive correlation starts to occur and the data points are closer to the regression line. This may reflect a threshold effect, whereby levels of work-family conflict only start to rise beyond 42 hours per week. This relationship may also become clearer in the main study with a larger range of working hours and threshold effects could be examined.

Overall the relationship between average working hours per week and the sub-domains of work-family conflict indicates that number of working hours only affects the Work interfering with Family direction, with significant positive correlations for Time WIF ($r = .53$, $p < .001$), Behaviour WIF ($r = .44$, $p < .01$) and total WIF ($r = .47$, $p < .001$). This indicates that work hours interfere more with family life than work life especially for time based conflicts such as working overtime or late in the evening and also where fathers find it difficult to make the transition in changes of behaviour from work to home. This is not surprising as the longer a father is at work the inevitable clash of time normally set aside for family (evenings and weekends) with that of work will occur. However, there is also a significant positive correlation for Behaviour FIW ($r = .48$, $p < .001$) possibly reflecting that the more time spent at work interferes with the ability to change one's behaviour easily between family and work. In addition, if working hours are long this may increase the likelihood that family matters will interfere with work as family members will increasingly need to communicate with fathers still at work beyond standard hours and therefore putting fathers in the position of having to relate to family whilst still at work making the difference between work and family behaviours acute.

There is no significant relationship between Strain based WFC and working hours in either direction, suggesting that Strain based WFC is influenced by other factors such as job demands or family demands, which are known to cause worry and anxiety e.g. (Butler, Grzywacz, Bass & Linney, 2005).

7.5.9 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND HOUSEHOLD TYPE AND HOURS

To attempt to distinguish between effects of household type and household hours on work-family conflict, differences across household types in levels of work-family conflict were tested. Non-parametric analysis of work-family conflict levels by

household type does not reveal significant differences in medians between groups ($H(3)=2.7, p>.05$). In contrast, there is a significant positive correlation between fathers' levels of work-family conflict and joint household hours, $r_s=.364, p=.037$ showing that as joint household hours go up, work-family conflict levels for fathers also rises. Multiple regression models will help unravel the levels of variance that joint working hours account for in levels of fathers' work-family conflict.

7.5.10 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND GENDER EQUITY

There are differences in levels of work-family conflict between those who share parental responsibility with partner compared to those whose partner has main responsibility, $t=-1.82 (25), p<.05$. Those fathers who share responsibility for childcare with their partner have lower levels of work-family conflict than fathers whose partner has main responsibility for childcare. In terms of the direction of conflict, this effect only occurs for Work interfering with family (WIF) $t=-1.85 (25), p < .05$, but not for Family interfering with work (FIW) $t=-1.41 (25), p > .05$. It would appear those who share parental responsibility suffer less from the negative impact of work on family, but that this shared responsibility does not make any difference on the negative impact of Family interfering with work. One possible explanation may be that sharing responsibility entails greater communication about childcare and related needs, so that sharing fathers are more aware of, and involved with, family needs and their associated timetable, thus planning work around this thus reducing the frequency of work-family conflict events. An explanation for the differences in direction of work-family conflict is not clear, but can be explored further in Study 3. This finding supports recent findings from Allard et al (2007), who found that gender equity behaviour predicted levels of work-family conflict (Allard et al., 2007).

7.5.11 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

7.5.11.1 ABILITY EI - MSCEIT

The mean scores were 103.5, SD – 9.66, CI – 99-107 with a range from 84 – 129 from a potential range of 50-150. The scores were normally distributed.

7.5.11.2 ABILITY EI - MSCEIT & WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Correlations between total Ability EI scores and total WFC were weak and not statistically significant, $r = .17, p>.05$, indicating that if there are any relationships

between these two variables then the effect size is likely to be moderate or small. Also of interest were the correlations between each sub-domain and WFC; for the first three sub-domains of perceiving emotions $r=.15, p > .05$, using emotions $r=.02, p > .05$ and understanding emotions $r=.17, p > .05$, all correlations were weak, $r=-.14, p > .05$, and none of these correlations were statistically significant.

7.5.11.3 TRAIT EI - TEIQUE

The mean scores were 147.5, SD – 27, CI – 137-158 with a range of 101-193 from a potential range of 30 – 210.

7.5.11.4 TRAIT EI - TEIQUE AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

There was a significant negative correlation between total work-family conflict scores and Trait EI of $r = -.42, p < .05$, but was only present for one direction, FIW $r = -.46, p = .008$, although the correlation between Trait EI and WIF was approaching significance at $r = -.32, p = .072$. In addition there were correlations between Trait EI sub-domains and WIF and FIW as shown in Table 29.

TABLE 29 CORRELATIONS TRAIT EI SUB-DOMAINS & WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT SUB-DOMAINS

	Well-Being	Self-Control	Emotionality	Social Skills	Total Trait EI
WIF	-.413* .017	-.368* .035	-.321 .068	-.331 .060	-.323 .072
FIW	-.384* .027	-.368* .035	-.357* .041	-.427* .013	-.458** .008

*significant at $p < .05$, **significant at $p < .01$

Looking at work-family conflict sub-domains and Trait EI in Table 30, total Trait EI scores showed significant negative correlations with Strain based WFC, but not time based WFC or behaviour based WFC.

TABLE 30 TRAIT EI AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT SUB-DOMAINS

Trait EI	Work Interfering with Family			Family Interfering with Work		
	TimeWIF	Strain WIF	Behaviour WIF	TimeFIW	Strain FIW	Behaviour FIW
r	-.084	-.447*	-.177	-.320	-.472**	-.223
sig	.646	.010	.333	.074	.006	.221

*significant at $p < .05$, **significant at $p < .01$

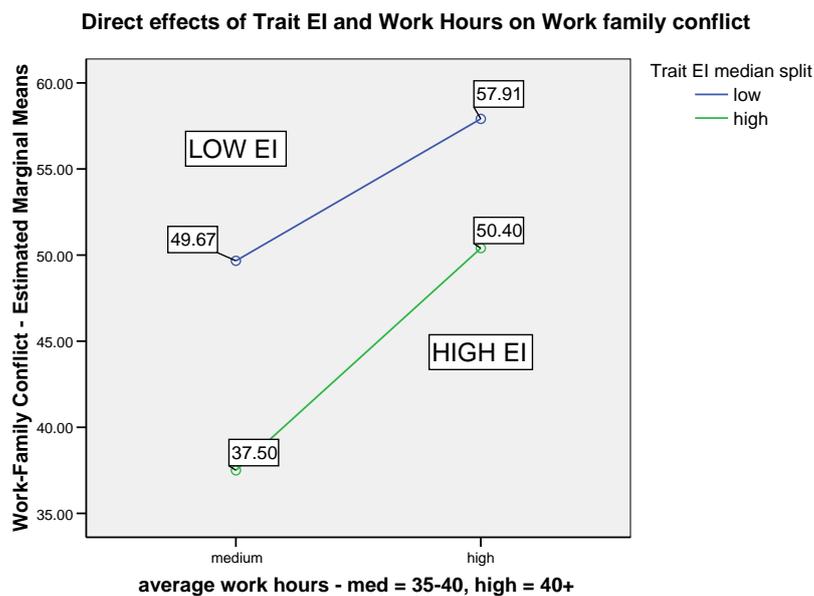
At the sub-domain level, there were significant negative correlations between all of the four Trait EI sub-domains and total WFC, but only between the Trait EI sub-domains four of the six WFC domains. There were no significant correlations between

any of the Trait EI sub-domains and Behaviour related Work family conflict in either direction. This contrasts with the significant positive associations between average working hours and Time and Behaviour related work- family conflict. It would appear that the variables of working hours and Trait EI influence different sub-domains within the construct of work-family conflict with working hours associated with Time and Behaviour WFC sub-domains and Trait EI associated with the Strain WFC sub-domain. This is not surprising as it would be expected that time related constructs of hours and time based WFC would relate, as would psychological constructs of strain and Trait EI, however the relationship between working hours and behaviour expectations conflict requires further exploration and thought. In addition, working hours seem to be having more of an effect on the work interfering with family direction (WIF), whilst Trait EI is having more of an effect on the family interfering with work direction (FIW).

7.5.12 INTERACTION: WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT/TRAIT EI AND WORKING HOURS

In order to see if Emotional Intelligence could buffer the effect of working hours on work-family conflict, both Trait EI and work hours were split into two categories with working hours split into standard hours and high hours with standard hours defined as 35-40 hours per week and high defined as over 40 hours per week. Trait EI was split into low//high using a median split rather than using 1 standard deviation as a way of creating high and low Trait EI, due to low sample numbers.

FIGURE 10 DIRECT EFFECTS OF TRAIT EI AND WORK HOURS ON WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT



There was a main effect of both hours and Trait EI on work-family conflict score. For hours, $F=6.5(1)$, $p<0.05$ and Trait EI $F=5.6(1)$, $p<0.05$. However there was no significant interaction between Trait EI and working hours, $F=.32(1)$, $p>0.05$ (Figure 10). When working hours increase, both low and high Trait EI fathers levels of work family conflict increase. Trait EI does not change this trend that increased work hours will lead to an increase in an individual's work family conflict. However, fathers with high Trait EI have lower work family conflict levels than low Trait EI fathers at both low and high levels of work hours. It would appear therefore that two options for fathers wanting to reduce their work-family conflict could be to work standard hours and improve their EI self-efficacy.

7.5.13 NEGATIVE AFFECT

A total anxiety score was calculated by reversing the calm scores and summing the calm and anxiety scores. Negative correlations between Trait EI and 'frequency of anxiety experienced *at work*' in the past few weeks were moderate to strong and statistically significant, as shown below.

TABLE 31 STATE ANXIETY AND TRAIT EI

	Trait EI Total	Well-Being	Self-control	Emotionality	Social Skills
SA Total	-.576** .001	-.535** .001	-.517** .002	-.461** .007	-.451** .009

*significant at $p<.05$, **significant at $p<.01$

The Trait EI global score is significantly negatively associated with anxiety as are all the sub dimensions (Table 34). Correlations between WFC & 'frequency of anxiety experienced *at work*' in the past few weeks showed a significant strong positive correlation with total WFC, and strong positive significant correlations with Work interfering with family (WIF) and Family interfering with work (FIW) (Table 32).

TABLE 32 STATE ANXIETY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT.

	WFCTOT	WIF	FIW
SA Total	.813*** .000	.737*** .000	.760*** .000

*significant at $p<.05$, **significant at $p<.01$, ***significant at $p<.001$

There were also significant positive correlations between state anxiety and the sub-dimensions of WFC of time, strain or behaviour, which was particularly strong for the Strain WIF sub-domain (Table 33).

TABLE 33 STATE ANXIETY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT SUB-DOMAINS.

	TWIF	SWIF	BWIF	TFIW	SFIW	BFIW
NA Total	.510**	.780***	.483**	.582***	.595***	.503***
	.002	.000	.004	.000	.000	.003

*significant at $p < .05$, **significant at $p < .01$, ***significant at $p < .001$

The strong associations between levels of state anxiety and both work-family conflict and Trait EI have two plausible explanations according to the literature. State anxiety could be both an antecedent and an outcome for work-family conflict. Literature on negative affect suggests that negative affectivity can influence the appraisal process so that individuals with high negative affectivity are more likely to perceive threats during primary appraisal and also assess their ability to cope with the threat during secondary appraisal as poor and consequently experience more stress events (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Trait and state negative affectivity could both be seen as an antecedent to work-family conflict, whilst State Anxiety could also be seen as an outcome of work-family conflict. Anxiety as it was measured for Study 2 is more akin to State anxiety as a construct than Trait Anxiety and is treated as such for this study. It was hypothesised that Trait EI would be considered a resource by the individual at the secondary appraisal stage and increase an individual's belief in their ability to cope with affect laden situations. It was proposed to measure State anxiety in Study 3, so that negative affectivity could be controlled for within multiple regressions to try and isolate its influence on the appraisal stage of work-family situations, so that the influence of Trait EI could be better assessed.

This theoretical approach is supported by the Trait EI and work-family conflict results, where only Strain based WFC is negatively related to Trait EI, i.e. EI self-efficacy appears to help fathers cope with work-family related worry and anxiety. This is supported, in turn, by positive correlations between work-family conflict and State anxiety scores and negative correlations between State anxiety scores and Trait EI, i.e. high work-family conflict scores are associated with feeling more anxious over the last few weeks by these fathers, whilst high Trait EI scores are associated with feeling less anxious. If State anxiety were measured in Study 3, a moderating effect of Trait EI on State anxiety could be tested through moderated regression. However, State anxiety could also be predicting work-family conflict in that anxiety levels can influence self-reporting, consequently state anxiety could also be controlled for in Study 3.

7.6 DISCUSSION

7.6.1 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

In spite of overall characteristics suggesting that this sample of fathers may have been less likely to suffer work-family conflict they nonetheless exhibited a normal distribution of levels of work-family conflict. In line with previous findings (Duxbury, Higgins & Lee, 1994), this sample of fathers' experienced work-family conflict in both directions. Although WIF scores were higher, it is not possible to compare WIF and FIW scores without a reference group, so it was not possible to assess whether these fathers supported the breadwinning model where the fathers' role is traditionally that of economic provider in that fathers are more likely to prioritise work over family on account of the primacy of this role.

7.6.1.1 RQ1 - DOES EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE INFLUENCE LEVELS OF WORK FAMILY CONFLICT?

In support of the main hypothesis, Trait EI is strongly and significantly negatively associated with levels of work-family conflict indicating that fathers who believe in their ability to manage emotion in themselves and others are more likely to have lower work-family conflict levels. However, this association remains to be tested within a regression model to ascertain levels of variance explained by Trait EI once other variables such as working hours, number of children, age of children and positive and negative affect are controlled for.

7.6.1.2 RQ2 – WHICH SUB DOMAINS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE HAVE THE STRONGEST ASSOCIATION WITH LEVELS OF WORK FAMILY CONFLICT?

7.6.1.3 RQ3 – WHAT ARE THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE 6 DIFFERENT SUB-DOMAINS OF WORK FAMILY CONFLICT AND 4 SUB-DOMAINS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE?

WIF AND TRAIT EI

Where work interferes with family we would expect fathers to be concerned about the effect of work on their partner and children. Only the sub-domains of Trait EI Self-control and Well-being are statistically significant here. This could indicate a need for more emotion regulation skills in the family realm where emotions are likely to be more frequent or more intense. For fathers who are more involved in family, family issues are to more likely to be emotionally worrying, so fathers may try and

control their own emotions more in these situations. This could be explored further with the inclusion of a father involvement measure for the main study, as a father involvement measure would give an indication of role salience which has been found to influence levels of work-family conflict (Noor, 2004). It would be hypothesised that fathers with high father involvement scores would have higher role salience for the father role than the worker role and therefore would need higher self control skills in situations of Work interfering with Family (WIF). As this supposition relies on knowing fathers' role salience as well it was proposed that role salience also be measured in Study 3.

FIW & TRAIT EI

With family interfering with work, we would expect fathers to be concerned about work colleagues/boss and outputs, so negotiating more with the boss would be an important skill (all four sub-domains were statistically significant here, especially social skills, i.e. ability to influence others).

STRAIN BASED WIF/FIW & TRAIT EI

Within the sub-domains of work-family conflict the dimension of strain based Work interfering with family and Family interfering with work is strongly negatively associated with global Trait EI. This would suggest that Trait EI primarily influences strain based work-family conflict rather than time based or behaviour based work-family conflict.

7.6.1.4 RQ4 WHAT ARE THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE RELATIONSHIP OF ABILITY EI TO WFC COMPARED TO THE RELATIONSHIP OF TRAIT EI TO WFC?

Correlations between Ability EI and work-family conflict scores showed low, non-significant correlations. Possible reasons for this are that the small sample in this study would not pick up small effect sizes. If effect sizes for the Ability EI tend to be small, in order for small effects to show up in the main study, there would need to be a larger sample size to give enough power to detect a small effect. Power is the ability of a statistical test to show a significant effect, i.e. that the effect did not happen by chance. Without enough power (minimum of 0.8), the chances of making a type II error increase, that is the chances of retaining the null hypothesis when the alternative hypothesis is true. *a priori* power analyses using an established rule of

thumb calculation from Green (1991) (shown below) indicate that the sample for the main study would need to be as large as 413 to pick up small effect sizes with 14 predictors, assuming an alpha of .05 and a beta of .20. $N \geq (8/f^2) + (m-1)$ where f^2 is .02, .15 or .35 for small, medium and large effects respectively and m is the number of predictors in the model, therefore $N = (8/.02) + (14-1)$, $N = 413$. Achieving this sample size was considered not practical for this thesis in terms of time and financial resources required to recruit at this scale.

7.6.2 NEGATIVE AFFECT

The significant high correlations between feeling states and both directions of work-family conflict, contributes to work family conflict convergent validity. The high significant correlations between Trait EI and anxiety indicates that Trait EI, or belief in one's ability to control emotions of self and others, express emotions and influence others, are associated with reduced feelings of anxiety. However, this association is not clear in causal terms; for example, anxiety may reduce emotional self-efficacy. Are more anxious fathers reporting less emotional self-efficacy and also more work-family conflict? Regression analyses will help to tease out the direction of association in the main study, although it would take experimental or longitudinal research to properly explore causality directions between negative affect, Trait EI and work-family conflict. However, existing research suggests that Trait EI scores can predict future state affectivity, recent findings testing the psychometric properties of the TEIQue, found the Trait EI sub-domains of Well-being and Self Control to be the strongest predictors of negative state affectivity (Mikolajczak, Luminet, Leroy & Roy, 2007) suggesting a causal direction of Trait EI reducing negative state affectivity. The addition of a state affectivity scale would allow this variable to be controlled for within regressions given its likely strong influence on work-family conflict.

7.6.2.1 NEGATIVE AFFECT AND TRAIT EI

Negative affect as defined as 'a general dimension of subjective distress and unpleasurable engagement that subsumes a variety of aversive mood states, including anger, contempt, disgust, guilt, fear and nervousness, with low NA being a state of calmness and serenity.' (Watson, Clark & Tellegen 1988, p1063). Trait EI Well-being is defined as a constellation of well-being traits pertaining to dispositional mood incorporating three facets: Happiness, optimism and self-esteem (Petrides 2009).

In terms of face validity it looks as if Negative Affect and Trait EI Well-being are the opposite ends of a mood continuum. There is some conceptual overlap; however, there are a number of distinctions that can be made to warrant using them as separate constructs. Firstly, Watson et al 1988 indicate that Positive and Negative Affect are 'highly distinctive dimensions that can be meaningfully represented as orthogonal dimensions in factor analytic studies of affect.' Watson et al 1988, p1063), i.e. they are not opposing ends of the same construct. Negative Affect emerged as a continuum from high NA incorporating distress and unpleasurable engagement to low NA incorporating calmness and serenity. Positive Affect showed a continuum from high PA involving high energy, full concentration and pleasurable engagement to low PA showing lethargy and sadness. An individual high in Trait EI Well-being is likely to experience positive affect frequently, but the EI Trait construct is not the same as Positive Affect either. The items measuring Trait EI Well-being below show that it is a self-report, not of specific feelings experienced within a short time frame, but of general dispositional states.

Well-Being items
Item 5 – I generally don't find life enjoyable (trait happiness)
Item 9 – I feel that I have a number of good qualities (self-esteem)
Item 12 – On the whole I have a gloomy perspective on most things (trait optimism)
Item 20 – On the whole I am pleased with my life (trait happiness)
Item 24 – I believe I am full of personal strengths (self-esteem)
Item 27 – I generally believe that things will work out in my life (trait optimism)

Whilst someone scoring high in Positive Affect is more likely to be high on Trait EI Well-Being, it is not always going to be the case, as Positive Affect is a temporary condition and could therefore be due to events rather than internally generated, therefore we would expect some correlation, but not a particularly strong one. The State/Trait distinction also needs consideration. The State Affect construct reflects the mood state which is considered relatively short lived, e.g. 2 hours to a few days and fairly unstable, in that events can have a strong influence in changing the mood. In contrast, the Trait construct is considered to epitomise the stable, enduring emotional disposition of an individual. For example, someone with high Trait EI Well-being would show levels of high optimism, self-esteem and happiness most of the time and these traits would be resilient in the face of adverse events, i.e. this individual would

experience bad moods when faced with adverse events such as a father missing their son's first football match, but the mood would be of shorter duration and less intense (Mikolajczak, 2009).

The relevance of the last two issues for this study pertains to the use of State Negative Affect and Trait EI Well-being as predictors of work-family conflict or outcomes of work-family conflict. Generally, according to Trait personality theory, a personality trait would be considered to be an antecedent rather than an outcome variable, as personality traits are considered relatively stable and enduring features of an individual that are resistant to immediate change, although amenable to long-term minor changes. Conversely, mood states, such as Negative Affect could be considered as either an antecedent or an outcome variable, as a mood state could influence the perception of work-family events, as previously explained in chapter 5, from Lazarus and Folkman's cognitive appraisal theory which would position Negative Affect as a predictor. Equally a work-family event could set off a negative mood state, and the mood state in that case would be an outcome. From research evidence on the role of Negative Affect for work-family conflict, there is ample evidence showing that NA is an antecedent for work-family conflict (Byron 2005), but little in the way of NA as an outcome of work-family conflict. This may be because affect related outcomes have often been measured more specifically in evaluative terms, e.g. job satisfaction (Grandey et al 2005), or described as stress (Grzywacz et al 2002), burnout (Greengrass and Burke 1988) or well-being (Baruch & Barnett 1986), which would be expected to correlate with NA, but are all slightly different constructs. In addition there are studies showing specific emotional responses to work-family conflict such as expressed anger or guilt (e.g. Judge et al 2006), but not a summative construct of Negative Affect. The lack of construct precision for Negative Affect, in the work-family literature, makes comparison and evidence consolidation difficult. However, Eby et al (2010) in a review of the role of NA in work-family conflict literature clarifies the use of NA into three categories: Dispositional NA reflecting the tendency for individuals to respond in a similar affective way to varied stimuli; State specific NA reactions reflecting the current affective status of the individual in relation to their environment and State global affective reactions which describes the individual's affective evaluation of life experiences, e.g. life satisfaction. This clarification and review

confirms that Negative Affect as a summative concept has not been considered as an outcome in for work-family conflict. For the purposes of this thesis, it is proposed that Negative Affect (from PANAS) in its State form (current mood state), is used as a control variable to account for work/home related mood that could influence the reporting of work-family conflict. (Note: in Study 3a and 3b, NA correlates $-.396$, $p < .001$ with Trait EI Well-being. This is at the upper limit of reported ($-.05$ to $-.35$) PANAS correlations between NA and PA constructs which are seen as quasi-independent by PANAS authors Watson & Clark 1994).

7.6.2.2 CONCEPTUAL OVERLAP – WELL-BEING AS PREDICTOR AND OUTCOME OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Trait EI Well-being is proposed as a predictor of work-family conflict as a sub-domain of Global EI for study 3a and 3b. As well-being is often thought of as an outcome of work-family conflict, it would seem contradictory and confusing to the conceptualisation of the causal pathway for work-family conflict to use it as a predictor. However the definition of well-being in the work-family field has been varied. For example, Parasuman et al (2001) defines well-being as job satisfaction, family satisfaction, life stress and career satisfaction. Ahrens et al (2006) defines psychological well-being as: autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance. The premise behind using well-being in these terms as an outcome is to assume that the tensions and frustrations of the experience of work-family conflict will lead to a reduction in characteristics of well-being, as described above. The difference between these conceptualisations of well-being and Trait EI Well-being (optimism, happiness and self-esteem) is that Trait EI reflects the emotional factors of personality which are typical characteristics of individual's personality and reflect their typical affective stable and enduring state. In using the dispositional conceptualisation of well-being, and under the Lazarus and Folkman cognitive appraisal model, it is proposed that Trait EI Well-being is positioned as as a predictor variable for work-family conflict for Study 3a and 3b.

7.7 SUMMARY

The aim of Study 2 was to evaluate two Emotional intelligence measures for use in predictive models in Study 3. A number of strengths and weaknesses of Study 2 are outlined below. Although the Ability model of EI is conceptually clear, the MSCEITv2 showed very low correlations with all other relevant variables in this study. These findings are in line with much previous research which has shown low associations with real life variables. It is possible that it could show small to moderate effects, which may emerge in a larger sample size. However, there are also practical issues with its use: It takes thirty minutes to complete and requires access to another website with use of password, which has the potential to reduce response rates.

In contrast, the TEIQue showed moderate significant negative correlations with work-family conflict, is relatively quick to complete and can be integrated within the whole study for online participants. One drawback is that it is a self report method similar to the methods for measuring the other variables and could produce common method variance effects, however such effects can be tested for (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Total Trait EI negatively correlates with Strain based WFC. The four Trait EI sub-domains all negatively correlate with both directions of work-family conflict (WIF, FIW). The four Trait EI sub-domains also negatively correlate with the Strain WFC sub-domains. The influence of Trait EI upon the Strain Work- Family sub-domain over and above the Time and Behaviour WFC sub-domains suggests that Bronfenbrenner's biosystem has most impact on the psychological strain experienced by fathers when juggling work and family.

Direction of effect. It could be that self belief in emotional abilities is reduced through the negative experience work-family conflict. As this study is not experimental or longitudinal and cannot establish causality, other ways of informing the analyses as to directionality of influence can be undertaken. For example, Keith (2006) suggests that highlighting relevant theory and research can suggest the most logical direction, which, in association with examining time precedence i.e. which variable tends to happen first, can provide a robust argument for a proposed direction. Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) theory of stress appraisal provides a logical argument for placing Trait EI before work-family conflict as outlined in the next chapter.

Representativeness and ecological validity. Key areas for improving the diversity of the sample include: occupational type, contractual type, work sector, part-time fathers and fathers with more children and over a greater age range. Proposed measures to address this include: Recruiting from equal numbers of public and private sector organisations and targeting a greater diversity of occupational groups. Monitoring sample recruitment and undertaking purposive sampling to target missing factors.

The research questions emerging from this study for examination in Study 3 are:

1. What are the relationships between biosystem factors and work-family conflict?
2. What are the relationships between work and family microsystem factors and the directions of work-family conflict?
3. What is the relative contribution of biosystem, work and family micro-systems, exosystems and macrosystems in predicting work-family conflict?

8 STUDY 3: THE RELATIVE CONTRIBUTION OF PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS TO WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT³²

8.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This chapter outlines the rationale, methods and findings from two studies which examine the influence of dispositional and structural factors on work-family conflict. Each study analyses data from one sample of fathers (n179) with two different aims for the analyses: Study 3a focuses on the influence of Trait EI on work-family conflict whilst Study 3b examines the relative influence of dispositional and structural factors on each dimension (time, strain and behaviour) and direction (WIF, FIW)³³ of work-family conflict using Bronfenbrenner's Bioecological model to structure the hierarchical regression model.

For Study 3a, it was hypothesised that Trait EI would negatively predict both WIF and FIW in a model containing known WIF/FIW antecedents. In addition, of the four Trait EI factors (Self-control, Emotionality, Sociability and Well-being), Trait EI Self-control would predict FIW, Trait EI Emotionality would predict WIF, and Trait EI Sociability would predict both WIF and FIW, all negatively. Results confirmed the first and second hypotheses: regression analyses revealed that Trait EI was negatively associated with levels of WIF and FIW, as was Trait EI Self-control, indicating that fathers who are able to regulate their emotions experience less work-family conflict. Neither Trait EI factors of Emotionality nor Sociability significantly predicted WIF or FIW.

For Study 3b it was hypothesized that for the direction dimensions of WIF and FIW that work microsystem factors would predict WIF more than family factors and that family microsystem factors would predict FIW more than work factors, and that dispositional biosystem factors would remain a significant predictor throughout the stepped model. For the dimensions of work-family conflict of time, strain and

³² Study 3a has been published: Biggart, L., Corr, P., O'Brien, M. & Cooper, N. (2010), Trait emotional intelligence and work-family conflict in fathers, *Personality and Individual Differences*, 48, 991-916

³³ WIF (Work interfering with family), FIW (Family interfering with work)

behaviour type conflict it was hypothesized that work microsystem factors would be the primary predictor of time based conflict; dispositional biosystem factors would be the primary predictor of strain based conflict and that behaviour based conflict would be best predicted by factors across the bio-microsystems, for example occupation, partner support and Trait EI. Both studies are justified in terms of theory and empirical findings in the introduction, there is a methods section which outlines the methods and analyses for each study. Each study then has a separate results section and the implications of the findings are considered within one discussion.

8.2 INTRODUCTION

Work-family conflict has become an important area of research over the last thirty years in an economic climate where work has intensified, with the growth of global markets, emphasis on 24/7 service provision and perception that the pace of life can be 'fast forwarded' to become aligned to the speed of technological innovation. At the same time, the juxtaposition of work with family has been accentuated by the increase in numbers of women in the workforce and simultaneous increase in dual earner families (Crompton, 2006). An initial public concern highlighted family welfare as an issue, following an increase in women returning to work (La Valle et al., 2002), particularly over the impact on young children of mother absence (Crouter, 2006). This concern now includes fathers and the impact of their prolonged absence from home life (Seward et al., 2006; Flouri, & Buchanan 2004).

Fathers are still suffering from a legacy of being associated with undertaking the 'provider role' as a parent (Warren, 2007) despite recent changes in fathers' aspirations to be more involved in parenting (Warin et al., 1999). Consequently fathers' experience of work-family life has been under less scrutiny, and when considered it has been more often via access through the mother (Mitchell et al., 2007). However, as seen in the media, and in recent policy interest, the topic of fathers is currently being highlighted in work-family issues (Smith, 2007; O'Brien, 2004).

Factors influencing the conflict experienced by parents in trying to manage work and family life have included organisational characteristics and family characteristics, but less research has considered dispositional features. Studies that

have examined this interface have tended to focus upon negative affect (Carlson, 1999), coping strategies (Aryee, Luk, Leung, & Lo, 1999) and personality (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Wayne et al 2004). This study sets out to extend this emerging new work on personality and focus on the emotional aspects of personality defined by Petrides and Furnham (2000) as Trait EI or emotional self efficacy (Petrides & Furnham 2000). It is proposed here that, for experiences which involve highly salient *roles* for fathers, such as in work and family domains, where fathers have strong emotional attachments. The tension created when trying to meet the needs of the two roles of father and worker has the potential to create strong emotional responses. Consequently, it is proposed that those with the confidence to manage their own and others' emotions in these situations will experience less strain, in this case, less work-family conflict.

The concept of work-family conflict has been defined as 'a form of inter-role conflict in which the pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respects.' (Greenhaus & Beutell 1985, p77). Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) work family conflict model provides a tripartite framework: time-based conflict, strain based conflict and behaviour based conflict. Within this model, time conflicts are characterised by demands upon an individual's time being made simultaneously by both domains, such as being asked to work late and also being expected to be home to see the children. Strain based conflict is typified by the experience where strain from one domain, in the form of anxiety, fatigue or preoccupation, reduces the ability of the individual to meet demands from the other domain. It is often discussed in terms of a drain on an individual's psychological resources. The third and final type of conflict is the difficulty for individuals to modify their role behaviours to fit the appropriate role domain. For example, effective work domain behaviour, such as using a tough negotiating style to acquire a contract, may be inappropriate for the family domain when trying to discuss whose family to spend Christmas holidays with. Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) model also allows for directionality to be accounted for where work can interfere with family and/or family can interfere with work, the different flow of each can have negative consequences for different sets of people.

Fathers have been found to experience more work interfering with family (WIF) type conflict than family interfering with work type conflict (FIW) (Frone et al., 1996). These findings could reflect traditional institutional and attitudes of fathers' role as breadwinner. Traditional father role attitudes of many employers reflect a synonymy between their expectations of the employee role with their expectations of the traditional role of father as 'breadwinner'. Such expectations seem out of step with modern aspirations amongst many men to become an 'involved' father whilst maintaining paid employment (Lamb, 2004; Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004). If there is an increasing disparity between institutional expectations and fathers' aspirations, then fathers are likely to be experiencing increasing levels of conflict between work and family. To date, employed fathers with caring responsibilities have shown higher levels of WIF than FIW (Byron, 2005) in line with expectations of the man as breadwinner model. Although there has been some increase in father's time for childcare, the increase in time undertaking housework chores has not been as high, and both increases are lower in comparison with mothers' time (Smith, 2004). Whilst the change in fathers' aspirations to be more involved in family life has empirical support, the limited evidence showing behavioural change suggests that this sample of fathers will also show greater levels of WIF than FIW. Meta-analytic reviews on work family empirical work have shown that different variables act as antecedents for the two flows of work family conflict. Work microsystem variables such as job demands and work support, tend to influence work interfering with family (WIF) whilst family microsystem variables such as partner support, number of and age of children tend to influence family interfering with work (FIW) (Carlso & Kacmar, 2000). These factors are therefore included in these studies, as they have been found consistently to influence levels of WIF and FIW.

8.2.1 STUDY 3A- TRAIT EI AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Whilst an examination of fathers' work-family conflict appears a logical next step from mothers' experience in these domains, as is examining organisational issues which may influence work-family conflict; considering work family conflict from a dispositional framework may not seem as logical an approach. However, it is likely that, for experiences which involve highly salient roles for fathers, such as in work and family domains where there are people with strong emotional attachments for

fathers, any clash between trying to meet the needs of the two roles of father and worker has most potential to create stress. Emotional intelligence is a concept which has been popularised by Goleman (1996) and is broadly defined as a set of emotional abilities which operate within both intrapersonal and interpersonal realms. The intrapersonal realm covers concepts of emotion identification in one's self and regulating one's own emotions, whilst the interpersonal domain incorporates elements of empathy and management of emotion in others (Goleman, 1996; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera 2006).

Since the 1990's the broad concept of emotional intelligence has undergone rigorous empirical investigation and debate within the research community with some distinct approaches emerging. A distinction is being drawn between Ability emotional intelligence which measures maximal performance using ability tests such as the MSCEIT (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002; Mayer & Salovey 2000) and Trait emotional intelligence which measures typical performance assessing dispositional emotional intelligence using self-report (Petrides & Furnham 2001; Bar-On, 2004; Bar-On, 2006; Schutte et al., 1998). More specifically, Trait EI or emotional self-efficacy, as delineated by Petrides and Furnham (2001), assesses an individual's belief in their emotional abilities and is defined by them as 'a constellation of emotion related dispositions and self-perceived abilities representing a distinct composite construct at the lower levels of hierarchical personality structures' (Petrides & Furnham, 2003, p17). As such, Trait EI is associated with higher order personality domains e.g. neuroticism, but focuses on the emotional aspects and thus is proposed to provide criterion and incremental validity over and above the big 5 personality factors for emotional related outcomes (Petrides, Pérez-González, & Furnham, 2007) such as life satisfaction, rumination and coping styles.

As work-family conflict is a form of strain which is related to two important areas of life and a particularly emotional one in relation to the family, Study 3a aimed to assess the predictive ability of Trait EI on both directions of work family conflict. Trait EI has four sub-domains of: Well being, Self control, Emotionality and Sociability. *Well being* describes the degree to which individuals are satisfied with their lives and level of optimism; *Self control* describes how an individual perceives their ability to regulate their stress and gives a measure of their impulsivity; *Emotionality* gives an

indication of their perceived ability to express emotion and consider, understand other's emotional perspectives and *Sociability* describes the level of influence individuals believe they can achieve with others.

Previous work on the influence of biosystem variables on work-family conflict, such as personality using the big 5 model, has found that neuroticism is related to work family conflict (Bruck & Allen, 2003) and a predictor of both directions of WFC (Wayne et al., 2004) and more recently a moderator for FIW (Blanch & Aluja, 2009). Individuals high on neuroticism are described as being less likely to control their impulses and less able to cope with stress (Costa, Jr. & McCrae, 1992). In addition, conscientiousness has been negatively associated with work family conflict (Wayne et al., 2004). As the Trait EI sub domain of Self control incorporates distinct elements of these two higher order personality factors, impulse control and emotion regulation, it is proposed that high levels of the Self control sub domain of Trait EI will predict lower levels of Family interfering with work (FIW), as men will face expectations from their employer to minimise the interference from family. In addition, the workplace is in the public domain where culturally the expectation is that emotions and emotive topics are kept at bay (Thompson, Thomas, & Maier, 1992).

The Trait EI sub domains of Emotionality and Sociability both have elements of the big 5 factor, agreeableness, encompassing co-operation and empathy, which have been found to be positively associated with family interfering with work (FIW) (Kinnunen, Vermulst, Gerris & Makikangas 2003). It is therefore proposed that the more targeted emotional sub-domain of Emotionality, which includes emotional expression and emotional identification, will be negatively associated with Work interfering with family (WIF), as it is hypothesised that fathers who can empathise with their partner and children and express their emotions in the context of work and family will have better communication channels with their family and therefore have lower levels of Work interfering with family (WIF). It is suggested that this will not be as crucial for the work domain where Family interfering with work (FIW) may occur, as relationships with colleagues and managers will not activate the same intensity of emotional response. For the Sociability sub domain, which specifically covers ability to negotiate and influence others, it is expected to be negatively associated with both directions of work-family conflict, as the ability to influence others is likely to be

important for both directions of work-family conflict. Whilst negative affect has consistently been found to influence work family conflict (Carlson, 1999), it is proposed that the Well being sub domain of Trait EI will not have any effect on work-family conflict, as positive elements of personality, such as agreeableness have been found to influence levels of work family facilitation more than conflict (Wayne et al., 2004).

The underpinning theory for the hypotheses for Study 3a is Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) cognitive appraisal theory which suggests that perceptions of emotional factors, such as Trait EI and Negative affect, are likely to influence self reporting on potentially threatening situations such as work-family conflict. This theory complements the overarching theoretical model for this thesis, Bronfenbrenner's bioecological model acknowledges the importance of individual subjective experience of their world, so that whilst environmental conditions may appear objectively similar to an onlooker, each individual will interpret that environment differently and subsequently interact with that environment accordingly. Therefore, according to these theories, high Trait EI individuals should perceive less threat due to their perception of having good emotional coping resources.

There are four hypotheses for Study 3a: firstly, that Total EI will be negatively associated with work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering with work (FIW) in a model which includes known structural antecedents for example: job demands, work hours, availability of parental leaves, partner work hours, number of children, age of child. Secondly, it is hypothesized that Trait EI Emotionality will be negatively associated with WIF; fathers, better at emotional expression and emotional identification, should be better at communicating with their family. Thirdly, that Trait EI Self-control will predict lower levels of FIW, as the belief in their ability to moderate mood, handle stress and resist impulse should be a coping resource in the face of work-family strain (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). It is also expected that fathers will be influenced by workplace norms to display little emotion at work and not let family interfere with work. Finally, it is hypothesized that Trait EI Sociability will be negatively associated with both directions of work-family conflict, as the ability to negotiate and influence others should help individuals achieve constructive work-family solutions.

Study 3a Hypotheses

1. Total Trait EI (Emotional self-efficacy) will predict lower levels of WIF and FIW in a model which includes known structural antecedents for example: job demands, work hours, availability of parental leaves, partner work hours, number of children, age of child.
2. Trait EI Emotionality will predict lower levels of WIF
3. Trait EI Self-control will predict lower levels of FIW
4. Trait EI Sociability will predict lower levels of WIF and FIW

8.2.2 STUDY 3B – THE RELATIVE CONTRIBUTIONS OF PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS TO WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Whilst Study 3a focused on the specific effects of one biosystem variable, Trait EI, Study 3b aims to examine the relative effects of each ecosystem on work-family conflict by grouping variables into their relevant ecosystems, and also examining them in relation to the different directions of work-family conflict (WIF/FIW) as well as the different dimensions (Time, Strain and Behaviour). Bronfenbrenner's (1979) bioecological systems theory is the framework used to underpin this study. As outlined in the introduction, Bronfenbrenner's theory situates individuals, in this case fathers, within a nested set of contextual environments with microsystems of family and work seen as proximal systems with most immediate influences on individual behaviour (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The combined effects of work and family are considered within the mesosystem, whilst the outside influences of fathers' partner and children's microsystems of work and school exert an exosystem influence on fathers' work-family behaviour. The distal effects of government policy, legislation and employment culture are considered to occur within the macrosystem which provides the overarching cultural and structural context to fathers' work-family lives. The biological element of his theory, (Bronfenbrenner, 2005) states that fathers' biological make up will also influence the environment with which they interact, acknowledging the bi-directional nature of influence on life experiences.

For the purposes of Study 3b, the operationalisation of the systems variables are briefly outlined here to help make the hypotheses clearer, the details of each variable and how they were measured can be found in both Chapter 7 and the methods section below. Biosystem variables included: Trait EI, negative affect work and family salience. The work microsystem variables included: work hours per week, job demands, job control, occupation and work support. Family microsystem variables included partner support, number of children, child age, gender equity behaviour and father involvement. Note that father involvement was included in this study, as it has not previously been explicitly included in previous work family conflict studies (See Chapter 4). The exosystem had one variable, partner work hours and the macrosystem included: organisation sector and organisational leave. Previous research using Bronfenbrenner's model has found that the mesosystem of work and family variables most influences work-family conflict, although a model with biosystem, exosystem and macrosystem variables has not been tested (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Hill et al., 2003). The relative contribution of each ecosystem is proposed for this study with 4 hypotheses:

1. The proximal bio and mesosystems of work and family variables will have more influence on all dimensions and all directions of work-family conflict than the more distal exo or macro systems.
2. Of the two of work and family microsystem variable sets, work variables will have more influence on work interfering with family (WIF) and family variables will have more influence on family interfering with work (FIW).
3. There will be more influence of work microsystem variables, macrosystem variables and exosystem variables on time based conflict than family microsystem or biosystem variables.
4. There will be more influence of dispositional biosystem variables on strain based conflict than other ecosystem variables.

8.3 METHOD

8.3.1 PARTICIPANTS AND PROCEDURE

Fathers were recruited primarily through schoolchildren via infant and junior schools, n161, with a smaller number recruited through organisations n18. Fathers who responded from the schools were asked to complete and return a self-report questionnaire whilst fathers from organisations were asked to fill in an online questionnaire. As children were taking home the questionnaire to their parents, the family circumstances were unknown. Therefore to ease possible upset for families with no resident father, a letter accompanied the questionnaire (Appendix 7) which briefly explained the purpose of the research and apologising if it was not relevant to their household. The first page of the questionnaire introduced the research aims and described what participants were being asked to do and the purpose to which the data would be put. It was stated that their data would be treated confidentially, seen only by the researcher and supervisors and stored securely and that the data was anonymous. It also stated that the decision to participate or not participate in the research was completely voluntary and that they could exit the questionnaire at any time.

Upon completion of the hard copy questionnaire, participants could keep the back page with information on other resources which may help them: improve their emotional intelligence; manage work and family demands and other self help resources. Online participants were directed to the project website outlining the research purpose and conceptual basis, in addition to links to other resources which may help them: improve their emotional intelligence; manage work and family demands and other self help resources.

Fathers were recruited through schools and from workplaces. Thirty-two Junior and Infant schools (n32) in a UK city were approached to request that the children take home a questionnaire to their father. Eleven schools agreed to participate, a response rate of 32 per cent. Eight of the schools were infant schools, with children attending from age four to seven years and three of the schools were junior schools with children attending from age seven to eleven years. The schools who agreed to take part were spread across a range of wards. The deprivation index ranks for each ward area in which schools were situated are shown in Table 10 and the ranks show a

potential catchment of parents from a wide range of economic backgrounds, although the lower range is clustered at the lower end of the 1064 – 2029 range. The upper range is more evenly spread between 4812 to 6277. In percentage terms, the schools reside within wards which range from the 13th to the 79th percentile of deprived wards in England (Goodyear, 2008); Communities and Local Government, 2007).

Children were given an envelope containing the questionnaire, a letter to the parent explaining the study and a freepost envelope to return the questionnaire to the researcher. It was made clear that the questionnaire was anonymous and that data would be treated as confidential and the purposes that the data would be used for. 3107 questionnaires were distributed to the school children with a very low response rate (n176), 6 percent. A further eleven responses were received from two organisations who had agreed to take part, one by posting the link to the online questionnaire on their intranet pages, the other by circulating information on the study to their management team. Both organisations were sizeable local employers, one within the public sector and one within the private sector. Of the 1228 male employees from the public sector organisation who were invited to take part through a link on their intranet home page, sixteen started the online questionnaire and seven completed. Of the eleven private sector managers who expressed interest in the study, four completed the questionnaire.

Eight more responses were received via a post placed by the administrator of the fathers' discussion board within a parenting website, of these, six completed the online questionnaire. Finally, four more responses were received online via the research website: www.fathersworkfamilyresearch.co.uk, which had been made available to all contacts made during the recruitment process and also went out on all the researchers' email messages. All strands of access were followed up once with a further email or assembly request in the case of schools.

In total, 196 responses were received. Of these, nine did not meet the research criteria of being a co-resident with partner and children, employed father, with at least one child under 11 years. Four were not in paid employment; three were single parents and two were not residing full-time with their children, four per cent ineligible. It is possible to assume the same percentage to be ineligible in the target population and recalculate the response rate with the ineligible fathers removed,

which can give a more liberal response rate (Braver & Bay, 1992). However, in this case the response rate remains rounded up to 6 per cent. Such low response rates could be attributed to the acknowledged in the literature hard-to-reach nature of father participants (O'Brien, 2007), especially accessing participants who may be suffering high work-family conflict or high work demand. The length of the questionnaire may also have put off potential participants, as length of questionnaires has been shown to have an effect on response rate (Burchell, 1992). Whilst the length of the questionnaire was considered a concern in the design phase, and attempts were made to shorten it (e.g. using the short version of the TEIQue), a balance was felt to be struck between length and need to attain data on key variables.

A further complication to calculating response rates is the use of the online questionnaire. Its use in organisation settings is less problematic, as the male employee totals are known, although not the proportion of fathers. The use of the online questionnaire on the parenting website, however is more ambiguous with regards the target population, as any number of fathers or non-fathers could access the site and therefore the questionnaire. A further disadvantage of using online surveys is that survey response rates have been found to be lower than for pen and paper surveys (Witmer, Coleman & Katzman, 1999) and the demographic of online users tends to be one of higher income, education, white ethnicity, male, under 35 years and living in urban areas (Mann & Stewart, 2000). Another limitation of sampling working fathers using employer intranet sites also reduces the chances of recruiting manual working fathers. Nonetheless, it was felt that attempting to access fathers directly through their employment was worth attempting in order to avoid the issues with 'gatekeeping' by mothers that the hard copy survey distributed through schools might face.

The importance of knowing response rates pertains to the ability to generalise statistical findings to the population. If response rates are low, then it is more likely that those who have participated will have characteristics that bias the sample. Volunteer fathers who have participated in family research tend to have distinct characteristics in that they have better family cohesion, fewer behaviour problems in children, higher marital satisfaction and tend to be better adjusted than non-participants (Costigan & Cox, 2001). Where it is possible to compare the

characteristics of participants and non-participants, it is recommended that this is done to cover family demographics, marital quality, parenting experiences, child-care arrangements, child characteristics and parental employment. Where fathers are recruited via mothers, this is possible, however in these studies it is not, so the approach advised by Braver & Bay (1992) has been taken whereby, participating fathers are compared to local statistics for men (where possible) on: employment activity rate, working hours, income, education, provided by the Labour Force Survey of the year of data collection (2008) and most recent Index of Multiple Deprivation (2007). This comparison can be found in the participants section below and Appendix 2 for Studies 2 and 3.

In spite of the difficulties in recruitment of fathers for Study 3, in line with previous experience of fathers' researchers, the demographic differences across samples are small (Appendix 2). In terms of income, Study 3 fathers earned slightly more than the national median of 27k (30k) and more than the regional median of 22k. However, with two high earning outliers deleted the median decreases to 28k, nearer the national average. Also for Study 3, fathers the educational profile differed from the national average in that there were more with GCSE qualifications, and higher degrees, but less fathers with A level and degree qualifications. Overall, the demographic profile suggests that the potentially self-selecting fathers in Study 3 are, on average slightly more affluent, but on all other characteristics are similar to national profiles.

For other key demographic characteristics, all studies had similar profiles. The majority of fathers were: on permanent contracts (> 80 per cent); worked full-time (> 80 per cent) and had a partner in paid employment (> 60 per cent). Apart from Study 2, all fathers worked over the national LFS (2007) average work hours per week (> 42 hours). Apart from the Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey (2005), more fathers were professionals or managers (> 55 per cent).

Nonetheless, it is acknowledged that the participant fathers for Studies 2 and 3 are likely to have self-selected into the study on grounds of self-interest in family involvement and therefore cannot be considered as representative of the larger father population. It is noted however, that many of the descriptive characteristics of these

fathers' working and family contexts do not differ greatly from the more representative national samples from Study 1.

The total sample for this study was 186 fathers who were living with their partner and children. Mean age of fathers was 40 years (sd 6 years) with a range from 23 years to 57 years. The mean age of the youngest child was 6 years (sd 3yrs) ranging from a minimum of 1 month to 13 years. The range of age of all children living in the household ranged from 1 month to 20 years. Fathers came from both private (n100) and public sector (n67) occupations. The mean work hours per week for all fathers were 44 hours per week (sd 10). The majority of fathers, 85 per cent (n154) were employed on contract with 15 per cent (n28) of fathers self-employed. Seventy three per cent (n135) of fathers' partners were in paid employment and of those 28 per cent (n38) worked full-time and 72 per cent (n100) worked part-time. Partners' mean average work hours per week were 24 hours (sd 12).

8.3.2 MEASURES

8.3.2.1 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Fathers' age was included in the model with age measured in years.

8.3.2.2 BIOSYSTEM - DISPOSITIONAL VARIABLES

Six dispositional variables were included in Study 3. **NEGATIVE AFFECT** was measured using the PANAS scale (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), (10 items, negative affect $\alpha=.85$). Respondents are asked to record how they have felt in the last week on a 5 point Likert scale e.g. *interested* – 'not at all' to 'extremely', *upset* – 'not at all' to 'extremely'.

GENDER EQUITY BEHAVIOUR is recorded using one item with a 5 point Likert scale from 1 – Mostly me to 5 – Mostly my partner, from (Allard et al., 2007), e.g. *in your family who has the main responsibility for the children's care and upbringing?*

WORK AND FAMILY SALIENCE. From Social Identity theory, social roles, such as father or worker, are important part of an individual's identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). The salience of a social role indicates the amount of time and emotion invested by an individual in that domain. Cognitive dissonance theory suggests that inconsistency in attending to competing demands from different role domains, such as work and family, is likely to create psychological tension (Festinger, 1957). High work salience

has been found to positively relate to family interfering with work with the opposite for high family salience (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000). Work and family salience was measured using a 5 point Likert scale, strongly disagree – strongly agree with 3 items for each domain (work salience $\alpha=.67$, family salience $\alpha=.65$), e.g. *the most important things that happen to me involve my family* (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003).

TRAIT EI is measured using the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form (TEIQue SF) (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). This has 30 items ($\alpha=.89$) using a 7 point Likert scale, completely disagree – completely agree. There are four sub domains: well-being (6 items, $\alpha=.81$) measures optimism; self esteem beliefs; and trait happiness, e.g. *I feel that I have a number of good qualities*. Self control (6 items, $\alpha=.72$) measures emotion regulation, impulsiveness and stress management, e.g. *I tend to get involved with things I later wish I could get out of*. Emotionality (8 items, $\alpha=.69$) measures emotional expression, trait empathy, emotion perception and quality of relationships e.g. *I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint*. Sociability (6 items, $\alpha=.73$) measures emotion management (influencing others), assertiveness and social awareness (competence) e.g. *I'm usually able to influence the way other people feel*.

8.3.2.3 WORK MICROSISTEM VARIABLES

WORK HOURS provide a measure of work antecedents of time based work – family conflict and are measured as actual average hours worked per week in their main job, including overtime but excluding commuting time after (Brannen et al., 1997).

JOB DEMANDS AND JOB CONTROL have been found to influence work-family conflict positively and negatively respectively (Gronlund, 2007; Boyar, Maertz, Mosley Jr, & Carr, 2008). Job demands and job control were measured using items from the job content questionnaire (Karasek, 1979). Job demands (9 items, $\alpha=.78$) measure the psychological work-load e.g. 'I am free from conflicting demands that others make.' The job control subscale is a combined measure of the degree of autonomy (3 items) and skills level (6 items) that individuals have, (e.g. 'my job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own' and 'my job requires me to be creative'). The items have a 5 point likert scale, 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

OCCUPATION was coded 0 for non-professionals/non-managers and 1 for professionals/ managers using the Standard Occupational Class 2000 codes (Office for National Statistics, 2000).

WORK SUPPORT (3 items, $\alpha=.76$) uses the items developed by (Van Daalen, Willemsen, & Sanders, 2006) and measures support gained from the boss, colleagues and the organisation using a Likert scale, 1=strongly disagree – 5=strongly agree e.g. ‘My supervisor accommodates me when I have family business to take care of.’ The degree of support available from the organisation, work colleagues and boss has been shown to be negatively related to work-family conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

8.3.2.4. FAMILY MICROSISTEM VARIABLES

Partner support and child age were considered as family influencing variables.

PERCEIVED PARTNER SUPPORT (Van Daalen et al., 2006) (3 items, $\alpha=.80$) measures support gained from the fathers’ partner about work problems e.g. *my partner is willing to listen to my work problems*. The perception of partner support can help reduce work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Parasuraman 1994). Partner support could also be triggered by the experience of work-family conflict, but it would be expected that fathers would have experienced a number of instances of work-family conflict which were either associated with perceived partner support or not and therefore fathers would have an expectation in their minds about the likely supportiveness of their partner during any instances of work-family conflict, thus suggesting that partner support be used as an antecedent rather than outcome of work-family conflict.

CHILD AGE was coded as 0 = under 6 years, 1 = 6 years and over.

8.3.2.5 EXOSYSTEM VARIABLES

PARTNER WORK HOURS were measured as actual average hours worked per week including overtime, but excluding commuting time.

8.3.2.6 MACROSISTEM VARIABLES

ORGANISATIONAL SECTOR was coded as private sector = 0 and public sector = 1. Employment sectors vary in working conditions and contractual arrangements, with jobs in the private and voluntary sector traditionally being more insecure, having higher work intensity and less access to family related benefits compared to the public sector (Perrons, Fagan, McDowell, Ray, & Ward 2006). Although sector divisions in the

UK may be becoming more blurred since the Conservative Thatcher government and following New Labour administration, which have both encouraged the contracting out of public services, it is assumed that employment sector will still have an impact on work-family life given the different motivations for offering flexible employment between the public and private sector (Burchell, 2006).

ORGANISATIONAL LEAVE .Taking leave in the form of paternity and parental leave has been associated with an increase in fathers' participation in physical childcare tasks and emotional investment in child care (Haas & Hwang, 2008; O'Brien, 2007). Also the organisational culture has been shown to influence the amount of leave that fathers take (Haas, Allard & Hwang, 2002). Both family supportive organisational cultures and work support are associated with better work-family balance (Hill et al., 2001). It is proposed that availability of paid leave for fathers will act as a proxy for a family supportive organisational culture in combination with work support from managers, supervisors and colleagues.

Fathers were asked whether their employer provided any of the following forms of leave: paternity, career break, childcare and other caring needs and whether it was fully paid, partly paid or unpaid. To represent poor and good provision of leave, this was coded as 0 = no provision or leave available, but unpaid or partly paid and 1 = leave provided and fully paid.³⁴

8.3.2.7 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Work-family conflict was measured using Carlson et al's (2000) scale which covers Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) three sub domains of Time based, Strain based, and Behaviour based work-family conflict as well as incorporating the directional elements of work interfering with family (WIF) and Family interfering with work (FIW). For example, 'I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities' relates to Time based WIF. The scale has 18 items, ($\alpha=.85$) using a 5 point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. There are nine items for each of the directions: Work interfering with family (WIF) ($\alpha=.79$) and Family interfering with work (FIW) ($\alpha=.78$).

³⁴ The variable measuring organizational leave had too much missing data due to don't know responses and number of self employed, (96 cases out of 186), and was omitted from the analysis

8.3.3 DATA ANALYSES

All variables were screened for normality and outliers in line with assumptions for multivariate analysis. To reduce the impact of extreme skewness and kurtosis, transformations were carried out on: work hours and family salience (square root); work support, partner support, Trait EI self-control and emotionality (reflect and square root and reflected back); negative affect (inverse). Remaining outliers were replaced with the next highest score for: work hours (3 cases), partner hours (1 case) and emotionality (2 cases). The variable measuring organisational leave had too much non-response, only 96 cases out of 186, and was omitted from the analysis.

WIF and FIW were dependent variables in OLS regression analysis. For each dependent variable, five steps of explanatory variables were progressively entered into a regression model: (1) FIW or WIF as control for each direction of conflict; (2) Negative affect; (3) EI variables; (4) work variables; and (5) family variables. This order is proposed as perceptions of emotional facets are likely to influence self reporting on potentially threatening situations such as work-family conflict in line with Lazarus & Folkman's (1984) cognitive appraisal and coping theory. Work and family variables were entered to assess main effects. To test for common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff 2003), Harman's one factor test using unrotated principal component factor analysis revealed the presence of seven distinct factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, rather than a single factor. Three factors together accounted for 48 per cent of the total variance and the first (largest) factor did not account for a majority of the variance (15 per cent).

8.4 STUDY 3A RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, correlation coefficients and reliabilities are shown in Table 34. In comparison with the validation male sample of Carlson et al (2000), this sample of fathers had higher standardised mean scores for both WIF and FIW³⁵.

There were no significant correlations between age, occupation, sector, child age or work salience with either WIF or FIW. There were no significant correlations of work hours, partner work hours or gender equity on FIW. These variables were not

³⁵ Comparative WIF/FIW means across Study 2 and 3 with Carlson et al (2000) norms are shown in Appendix 5.

included in the regression analyses. Total EI negatively correlated with both WIF and FIW (WIF, $r = -.36, p < .001$; FIW, $r = -.39, p < .001$) Trait EI Self control (WIF, $r = -.37, p < .001$. FIW, $r = -.37, p < .001$) and Trait EI Emotionality (WIF, $r = -.31, p < .001$. FIW $r = -.31$) correlated moderately with WIF and FIW. Trait EI Sociability correlated weakly with WIF and FIW (WIF, $r = -.15, p < .05$. FIW, $r = -.20, p < .01$). WIF correlated highly with FIW ($r = .60, p < .001$), therefore each direction of work-family conflict was controlled for in each regression to evaluate the discrimination of the criterion variables: WIF and FIW. Alpha reliabilities were generally acceptable ranging between .65 to .85, although family salience and Trait EI Emotionality were both low at .65 and .69 respectively.

TABLE 34 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS OF STUDY VARIABLES – DIRECTIONAL WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

(alpha reliabilities are shown in the main diagonal)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1 Age	40.05	6.09																
2 Negative Affect	18.57	6.56	.85															
3 Occupation ^a	--	--	-.04	--														
4 Work hours	44.43	9.67	.04	-.03	--													
5 Job demands	33.98	6.27	.05	-.19*	.32**	.78												
6 Job latitude	45.89	4.50	.12	-.17*	.12	.13	.85											
7 Work support	10.72	2.89	-.15	-.15	-.15*	-.01	-.05	.76										
8 Partner support	10.94	2.83	.01	-.07	-.01	-.04	-.03	.33***	.80									
9 Partner work hours	22.22	13.40	-.06	.11	-.22*	-.22*	-.09	.09	.14	--								
10 Gender equity	2.35	0.85	-.01	.06	-.15	-.19*	-.11	-.03	-.04	.30***	--							
11 Family salience	13.14	1.91	-.08	.03	-.11	.02	.02	.06	.02	-.15	.04	.65						
12 EI Total	149.00	23.00	-.37***	-.17*	.03	.06	-.03	.18*	.17*	.02	.05	.23**	.89					
13 EI Well being	32.83	5.84	-.40***	-.01	.02	-.01	-.03	.20**	.17*	-.01	-.06	.30***	.79***	.81				
14 EI Self Control	28.94	6.06	-.38***	-.16*	-.07	.00	-.06	.21**	.05	-.03	.06	.10	.77***	.59***	.71			
15 EI Emotionality	37.99	7.58	-.17*	-.09	.04	.06	-.05	.08	.22**	.04	.17*	.30***	.79***	.51***	.48***	.69		
16 EI Sociability	29.00	5.86	-.22**	-.23**	.06	.14	.04	.16*	.07	.03	-.03	.04	.75***	.46***	.45***	.46***	.73	
17 WIF	26.69	6.45	.35***	-.02	.30**	.40***	.27***	-.33***	-.20**	-.26**	-.16*	-.22**	-.36***	-.33***	-.37***	-.31***	-.15*	.79
18 FIW	22.06	5.30	.37***	-.10	.12	.28***	.20**	-.25**	-.26***	-.08	-.04	-.20**	-.39***	-.34***	-.37***	-.31***	-.20**	.60***

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < 0.001$. Note: alphas along main diagonal, N = 179

a – 1 = professional/managerial occupations, 0 = non-professional/non-managerial occupations

8.4.1 OLS REGRESSIONS

Table 35 shows standardized regression coefficients and coefficients of determination, adjusted (R^2) increments at each variable input. After controlling for work-family conflict direction (FIW) and negative affect $R^2_a = .37$, $F(2,122) = 37.43$, $p < .001$, significant main effects in the prediction of WIF were found for FIW (.33, $p < .001$), Trait EI total (-.15, $p < .05$), job demands (.22, $p < .01$), work support (-.16, $p < .05$), with a coefficient of determination $R^2_a = .52$, $F(11, 124) = 13.32$, $p < .001$. The F change in model fit for WIF was $R^2_a = .15$, $F(9, 113) = 5.10$, $p < .001$.

For predicting FIW, after controlling for work-family conflict direction (WIF) and negative affect for predicting FIW, $R^2_a = .38$, $F(2, 155) = 49$, $p < .001$, significant main effects were found for WIF (.38, $p < .001$), Negative affect (.15, $p < .05$), Trait EI total (-.17, $p < .05$) and partner support (-.14, $p < .05$), with a coefficient of determination $R^2_a = .40$, $F(11, 157) = 10.58$, $p < .001$. The F change in model fit for FIW was $R^2_a = .02$, $F(8, 149) = 2.5$, $p < .001$.

TABLE 35 REGRESSION ANALYSIS 1 – WITH TRAIT EI TOTAL

Predictor	WIF (control FIW)		Predictors	FIW (control WIF)	
Step 1	β	R2a .37		β	R2a .38
K	15.32***		K	13.35***	
FIW	.55***		WIF	.54***	
Negative Affect	-.15*		Negative Affect	-.12**	
Step 2	R2a .52			R2a .40	
K	32.85*		K	35.78**	
FIW	.33***		WIF	.38***	
Negative Affect	.10		Negative Affect	.15*	
Trait EI Total	-.15*		Trait EI Total	-.17*	
Work hours	.11		Job demands	.12	
Partners' work hrs	-.13		Job latitude	.06	
Job demands	.22**		Work support	-.02	
Job latitude	.13		Partner support	-.14*	
Work support	-.16*		Family salience	-.06	
Partner support	-.01				
Family salience	-.12				
Gender equity	-.03				

Table 36 shows a second OLS regression using four EI sub-domains as controls, to evaluate their unique contribution to both WIF and FIW. This showed that only the sub-domain of Trait EI Self-control has a main effect on WIF ($-25, p < .05$) $R^2_a = .15, F(1, 124) = 6.4, p < .001$ and FIW ($-.22, p < .05$), $R^2_a = .15, F(1, 157) = 7.98, p < .001$. However, this effect disappears once the other variables enter the equation.

TABLE 36 REGRESSION ANALYSIS 2 – WITH TRAIT EI SUB-DOMAINS

Predictor	WIF β	Predictors	FIW β
Step 1	R2a .15		R2a .15
K	203.48***	K	158.56***
Trait EI Self control	-.25*	Trait EI Self control	-.22*
Trait EI Emotionality	-.16	Trait EI Emotionality	-.15
Trait EI Sociability	.10	Trait EI Sociability	.04
Trait EI Well-being	-.14	Trait EI Well-being	-.16
Step 2	R2a .51		R2a .45
K	103.81**	K	.86**
FIW	.32***	WIF	.40***
Negative Affect	.11	Negative Affect	.15*
Trait EI Self control	-.13	Trait EI Self control	-.14
Trait EI Emotionality	-.10	Trait EI Emotionality	-.12
Trait EI Sociability	.03	Trait EI Sociability	.02
Trait EI Well-being	.01	Trait EI Well-being	-.04
Work hours	.10	Job demands	.08
Partners' work hrs	-.15*	Job latitude	.05
Job demands	.23**	Work support	-.05
Job latitude	.12	Partner support	-.11
Work support	-.16*	Family salience	-.08
Partner support	-.01	Father involvement	.24*
Family salience	-.12	Number of children	.09
Gender equity	-.01		

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Standardised coefficients shown for final model

WIF = Work interfering with family; FIW = Family interfering with work.

These results support hypothesis one; that Total Trait EI will predict both WIF and FIW, but they do not support hypothesis two; that Trait EI Emotionality will predict lower levels of WIF, nor hypothesis four; that Trait EI Sociability will predict lower levels of WIF and FIW. However, in the second regression analysis, Trait EI Self control does predict lower levels of FIW, supporting hypothesis three, but it also predicts WIF, which was not hypothesised.

8.4.1.1 FURTHER EXAMINATION OF TRAIT EI SUB-DOMAINS WITHIN THE REGRESSION MODEL

In order to examine whether any of the other predictor variables may have been masking an effect of the Trait EI sub-domains in the full model, a backwards elimination procedure was employed using a criteria for exclusion of .10. Table 37 below shows that Trait EI Self control becomes significant in model 6 for WIF, once the variables of: Gender equity, Trait EI WB, Partner support, Trait EI Sociability and Trait EI Emotionality are removed from the model. It is only when Trait EI Emotionality is removed from the model that Trait EI becomes a significant predictor. Zero order correlations of Trait EI Self Control and Trait EI Emotionality with WIF are similar at $r = -.37$ for Self Control and $r = -.31$ for Emotionality. This suggests that they may share some of the variance explained for WIF. However, partial correlations for both Trait EI Self Control and Trait EI Emotionality show that with all other predictors in the regression model controlled, each continues to show an effect on WIF with Self Control at $-.13$ and Emotionality at $-.12$. In addition the semi-partial correlations show that both Trait EI Self Control and Trait EI Emotionality do contribute a small amount of unique variance in explaining WIF with Trait EI Self Control showing $-sr_i^2 = -.09$ and Emo showing $sr_i^2 = -.08$.

As R^2 decreases for the first time in the backwards elimination process, upon removal of Trait EI Emotionality, this suggests that the degree of extra variance explained by Trait EI Emotionality is worth keeping in the model, although the R^2 change was not significant. Petrides (2010) warns users of the short form of TEIQue that Trait EI sub-domains are less reliable distinct factors than for the long form. This indistinctness may be showing up in a degree of multicollinearity between the Trait EI sub-domains, although the tolerance levels for the model here were within acceptable levels. Multicollinearity can be an issue with personality sub-domains within regression models and it is generally advised to include the global score rather than sub-domains to account for this; however for exploratory purposes for this study, including sub-domains in the model is useful for identifying which sub-domains of Trait EI seem to be having the predictive effect on WIF and FIW.

Trait EI Self Control is not significantly correlated with perceived partner support, nor gender equity, the other two eliminated variables in the backwards elimination model, so Trait EI does not share significant variance with these variables

for WIF. In the FIW models shown in Table 38, Trait EI Self Control does have a small significant correlation with work support, suggesting that work support could be masking the effect of Trait EI Self Control, however Trait EI Self Control remains a significant predictor in a regression model run without Trait EI Emotionality (the identified masking variable), with work support as a significant predictor as well, indicating that there is not enough shared variance on WIF for either of them to mask each others' effects on WIF. Thus they both remain significant predictors of WIF.

TABLE 37 BACKWARDS ELIMINATION REGRESSION MODELS FOR WIF

Predictor	WIF Model 1	WIF Model 2	WIF Model 3	WIF Model 4	WIF Model 5	WIF Model 6	WIF Model 7	WIF Model 8
	R2a .513	R2a .517	R2a .521	R2a .526	R2a .529	R2a .527	R2a .524	R2a .520
K	103.81***	104.05**	104.60**	104.32**	98.98**	74.63**	82.93***	88.47***
FIW	.32***	.32***	.32***	.32***	.32***	.33***	.33***	.35***
Negative Affect	.11	.10	.11	.11	.10	.10	.09	--
Trait EI Self control	-.13	-.13	-.12	-.12	-.12	-.16*	-.16*	-.19**
Trait EI Emotionality	-.10	-.11	-.10	-.11	-.10	--	--	--
Trait EI Sociability	.03	.03	.03	.03	--	--	--	--
Trait EI Well-being	.01	.01	--	--	--	--	--	--
Work hours	.10	.10	.10	.10	.10	.09	--	--
Partners' work hrs	-.15*	-.15*	-.15*	-.15*	-.15*	-.16*	-.17**	-.18**
Job demands	.23**	.23**	.23**	.23**	.23**	.22**	.25**	.24**
Job latitude	.12	.12	.12	.12	.12	.12	.13	.14*
Work support	-.16*	-.16*	-.16*	-.16*	-.16*	-.15*	-.16*	-.17*
Partner support	-.01	-.01	-.01	--	--	--	--	--
Family salience	-.12	-.12	-.12	-.11	-.12	-.14*	-.16*	-.16*
Gender equity	-.01	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Criteria for exclusion: .10, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

TABLE 38 BACKWARDS ELIMINATION REGRESSION MODELS FOR FIW

Predictor	FIW Model 1	FIW Model 2	FIW Model 3	FIW Model 4	FIW Model 5	FIW Model 6	FIW Model 7	FIW Model 8
	R2a .45	R2a .453	R2a .456	R2a .458	R2a .459	R2a .458	R2a .458	R2a .455
K	86**	82.72**	83.76**	78.71**	80.61**	75.89**	61.62**	58.98**
WIF	.40***	.40***	.40***	.42***	.43***	.47***	.47***	.49***
Negative Affect	.15*	.15*	.14*	.14*	.14*	.14*	.14*	.14*
Trait EI Self control	-.14	-.14	-.12	-.13	-.12	-.12	-.15*	-.15*
Trait EI Emotionality	-.12	-.11	-.10	-.09	-.09	-.08	--	--
Trait EI Sociability	.02	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Trait EI Well-being	-.04	.05	--	--	--	--	--	--
Job demands	.08	.08	.08	.07	.08	--	--	--
Job latitude	.05	.05	.05	.05	--	--	--	--
Work support	-.05	-.05	-.05	--	--	--	--	--
Partner support	-.11	-.11	-.11	-.12	-.12	-.12	-.13*	-.13*
Family salience	-.08	-.08	-.08	-.08	-.07	-.07	-.09	--
Father involvement	.24*	.24*	.23*	.22*	.23*	.23*	.22*	.21*
Number of children	.09	.11	.11	.12	.11	.13*	.14*	.14*

Criteria for exclusion: .10, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

The effect of Trait EI Self Control on FIW is similarly masked by Trait EI Emotionality for a backwards elimination model for FIW with Trait EI Self Control only becoming significant in model 7 when Trait EI Emotionality is removed from the model. It would appear that it is the multicollinearity effects of the Trait EI sub-domains which is masking the effect of Trait EI Self Control on both WIF and FIW rather than any shared variance effects from other variables in the model, such as work or partner support which one could hypothesise might mask an effect of Trait EI variables, as in theory it is likely that Trait EI would predict the level of social support that one has in the work and family domains. However, this does not appear to be happening in this model.

If such a masking effect was solely due to the other Trait EI sub-domains, then Trait EI Self Control should not be significant in a model with just the sub-domains as in the first step of Table 39 in Study 3a. Running a forwards entry regression after the first step with all the Trait EI sub-domains show that it is FIW as the control predictor which masks the effect of Trait EI Self Control, as Trait EI Self Control becomes non-significant once FIW is entered into the model. As Trait EI Self Control predicts both directions of WIF and FIW, it was decided to combine these DV's into one criterion variable of Work Family Conflict (WFC) in order to ascertain which other variables may be masking the effect of Trait EI Self Control. The following variables correlated with the criterion variable of WFC: Negative affect, family salience, work hours, job demands, latitude, work support, partner support, number of children and partner work hours.

TABLE 39 FORWARD ENTRY MODEL WITH ALL TRAIT EI VARIABLES ENTERED AS BLOCK IN STEP 1, FOLLOWED BY FORWARDS ENTRY FOR STEP 2

Predictor	WFC Model 1	WFC Model 2	WFC Model 3	WFC Model 4	WFC Model 5
Step 1 (enter)	R²a .20				
K	355***				
Trait EI Well-being	-.18				
Trait EI Self control	-.26*				
Trait EI Emotionality	-.17				
Trait EI Sociability	.07				
Step 2 (forwards entry)		R²a .34	R²a .40	R²a .44	R²a .46
K		324***	361***	326***	303***
Trait EI Well-being		-.15	-.12	-.05	-.06
Trait EI Self control		-.24*	-.21*	-.15	-.14
Trait EI Emotionality		-.19*	-.21*	-.23**	-.22**
Trait EI Sociability		.00	.02	.03	.02
Job demands		.39***	.38***	.37***	.35***
Work support		--	-.25**	-.24**	-.24**
Negative Affect		--	--	-.24**	-.22**
Job latitude		--	--	--	.15*

Criteria for inclusion: .05, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

From this model, it appears that the introduction of negative affect in Model 4 removes the effect of Trait EI Self Control on WFC. However, in a forwards entry model where all the variables are allowed into the model at once (see Table 40), Trait EI Self Control remains a significant predictor. In this model Trait EI Well Being and Trait EI Sociability are no longer present. It appears that Trait EI Well Being (Trait EI Sociability does not seem to have much influence on WFC, either as a correlation or as a predictor) in combination with Negative Affect masks the effect of TraitEI Self Control on WFC.

TABLE 40 FORWARD ENTRY - ALL VARIABLES ENTERED AT ONCE

Predictor	WFC Model 1	WFC Model 2	WFC Model 3	WFC Model 4	WFC Model 5	WFC Model 6	WFC Model 7	WFC Model 8
Step 1	R ² a .17	R ² a .31	R ² a .36	R ² a .41	R ² a .45	R ² a.47	R ² a.48	R ² a.50
K	251***	231***	261***	223***	315***	296***	280***	285***
Trait EI Self control	-.42***	-.42***	-.37***	-.28***	-.16*	-.16*	-.17*	-.19*
Job demands	--	.38***	.37***	.36***	.37***	.36***	.36***	.35***
Work support	--	--	-.26**	-.24**	-.24**	-.23**	-.23**	-.18*
Negative Affect	--	--	--	-.25**	-.25**	-.23**	-.22**	-.23**
Trait EI Emotionality	--	--	--	--	-.24**	-.23**	-.19*	-.15
Job latitude	--	--	--	--	--	.15*	.15*	.15*
Family Salience	--	--	--	--	--	--	-.13*	-.14*
Partner support	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	-.14*

Criteria for inclusion: .10, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

The other result of interest is that Trait EI Emotionality remains significant in the model until Partner Support is introduced. This indicates that both Trait EI Self Control and Emotionality are important for predicting Work Family Conflict, but that Trait EI Emotionality mediates the effect of partner support on WFC.

8.5. STUDY 3B RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, correlation coefficients and reliabilities are shown in Table 34 for WIF and FIW and Table 41 for dimensional work family conflict: Time (TWFC), strain (SWFC) and behaviour (BWFC). There were no significant correlations between occupation, organisational sector or child age with either WIF or FIW. There were no significant correlations of number of children, on WIF and there were no significant correlations of work hours, partner work hours or gender equity on FIW. There were no significant correlations of child age, gender equity, father involvement or organisational sector on any of the three dimensions of time, strain or behaviour work-family conflict. There were no significant correlations of family salience on TWFC and none for work hours, number of children, partner work hours or occupation on SWFC or BWFC. The non-correlated variables were not included in the respective regression analyses. Total Trait EI negatively correlated with both WIF and FIW (WIF, $r = -.36, p < .001$; FIW, $r = -.39, p < .001$). WIF correlated highly with FIW ($r = .60, p < .001$), SWFC correlated highly with TWFC ($r = .41, p < .001$) and BWFC ($r = .53, p < .01$) and BWFC correlated with TWFC ($r = .22, p < .01$), therefore each direction and each dimension of work-family conflict was controlled for in each regression to evaluate the discrimination of the criterion variables: WIF, FIW, TWFC, SWFC, and BWFC.

TABLE 41 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS OF STUDY VARIABLES – DIMENSIONAL WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

	Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
	Age	40.05	6.09																	
1	Negative Affect	18.57	6.57																	
2	EI Total	148.52	23.10	-.37***																
3	Family salience	13.17	1.86	-.08	.23**															
4	Work hours	44.53	9.72	.04	.03	-.11														
5	Job demands	34.07	6.26	.05	.06	.02	.32***													
6	Job latitude	45.87	4.52	.12	-.03	.02	.12	.13												
7	Work support	10.71	2.91	-.15	.18*	.06	-.15*	-.01	-.05											
8	Number of children	2.07	.75	-.05	-.06	.02	.17*	.28**	-.05	-.09										
9	Child age	7.5	3.3	.16	-.11	.13	.08	.10	.08	.03	.08									
10	Partner support	10.93	2.85	.01	.17*	.02	-.01	-.04	-.03	.33***	-.10	.05								
11	Gender equity	2.35	.85	-.01	.05	.04	-.15	-.19*	-.11	-.03	-.09	-.17*	-.04							
12	Father involvement	17.87	3.36	.03	.08	.09	-.27***	-.03	.01	.16*	-.17*	-.10	-.04	.49***						
13	Partner work hours	21.88	13.25	-.06	.02	-.15	-.22*	-.22**	-.09	.09	-.14	-.24**	.14	.30***	.34***					
14	Organisational sector	-	-	.05	.18*	.08	-.06	.24**	.11	.16*	.00	.17*	.12	-.05	.04	.10				
15	Occupation	-	-	-.04	-.17*	.03	-.03	-.19*	-.17*	-.15	-.02	-.09	-.07	.06	-.06	.11	.21*			
16	TWFC	16.38	4.29	.18*	-.17*	-.12	.22**	.31***	.23**	-.26***	.23**	.08	-.16*	-.11	-.01	-.25**	.05	-.22**		
17	SWFC	14.27	4.36	.38***	-.***	-.23**	.15	.22**	.18*	-.32***	.13	.05	-.23**	-.04	-.07	-.11	.04	.09	.41***	
18	BWFC	17.19	4.61	.34***	-.38***	-.17*	.11	.36***	.17*	-.21**	.05	-.02	-.20**	-.09	-.08	-.10	-.02	.03	.22**	.53**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < 0.001$. N = 179

8.5.1 OLS REGRESSIONS

8.5.1.1 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT DIRECTION

Table 42 shows standardized regression coefficients and coefficients of determination, adjusted (R^2) increments at each variable input for the two work-family conflict directions: WIF and FIW. In the final model, significant main effects in the prediction of WIF were found for: FIW (.35, $p < .001$), job demands (.23, $p < .01$) and latitude (.13, $p < .05$) with a coefficient of determination $R^2_a = .52$, $F(12,108) = 11.79$, $p < .001$. Table 43 shows the incremental increase in R^2 for each step in the model representing each ecosystem. This shows that it is only the addition of the work microsystem set of variables that shows a significant addition (13 per cent) to the variance explained in WIF $F(4,112) = 8.69$, $p < .001$.

For the FIW direction, the final model, shown in Table 42 indicates significant main effects for: WIF (.37, $p < .001$), negative affect (.16, $p < .05$) and partner support (.14, $p < .05$) with a coefficient of determination $R^2_a = .42$, $F(9,148) = 13.41$, $p < .001$. Table 43 shows the incremental increase in R^2 for each step in the model representing each ecosystem. This shows that it is only the addition of the bio microsystem set of variables that shows a significant addition (4 per cent) to the variance explained in FIW $F(3,153) = 4.45$, $p < .01$.

TABLE 42 REGRESSION ANALYSIS 3 – WIF/FIW DIRECTION AND ECOSYSTEM TYPE

Predictor	WIF (control FIW)		Predictor	FIW (control WIF)	
Step 1 Control	β	$R2a = .35$	Step 1 Control	β	$R2a = .36$
K	10.60***		K	8.88***	
FIW	.60***		WIF	.60***	
Step 2 Biosystem		$R2a = .38$	Step 2 Biosystem		$R2a = .40$
K	27.45***		K	20.40***	
FIW	.50***		WIF	.49***	
NA	.12		NA	.13	
TEIQue Total	-.10		TEIQue Total	-.16*	
Family Salience	-.09		Family Salience	-.04	
Step 3 Work microsystem		$R2a = .51$	Step 3 Work microsystem		$R2a = .40$
K	27.63*		K	24.47**	
FIW	.33***		WIF	.39***	
NA	.11		NA	.13	
TEIQue Total	-.16*		TEIQue Total	-.18*	
Family Salience	-.09		Family Salience	-.06	
Work hrs	.13				
Job demands	.25**		Job demands	.12	
Latitude	.13*		Latitude	.06	
Work support	-.17*		Work support	-.06	
Step 4 Family microsystem		$R2a = .51$	Step 4 Family microsystem		$R2a = .42$
K	33.04*		K	33.96**	
FIW	.35***		WIF	.37***	
NA	.12		NA	.16*	
TEIQue Total	-.13		TEIQue Total	-.16*	
Family Salience	-.09		Family Salience	-.07	
Work hrs	.10				
Job demands	.25**		Job demands	.10	
Latitude	.13*		Latitude	.06	
Work support	-.13		Work support	-.02	
Partner support	-.04		Partner support	-.14*	
Gender equity	.01		Number of children	.07	
Father involvement	-.15				
Step 5 – Exosystem		$R2a = .52$			
K	33.13*				
FIW	.35***				
NA	.11				
TEIQue Total	-.14				
Family Salience	-.11				
Work hrs	.09				
Job demands	.23**				
Latitude	.13*				
Work support	-.14				
Partner support	-.02				
Gender equity	.02				
Father involvement	.12				
Partner work hours	-.11				

TABLE 43 INCREMENTAL R^2 CHANGES FOR EACH ECOSYSTEM – WFC DIRECTION

Ecosystem	WIF	FIW
Control	*	*
Biosystem	3%	4%*
Work micro	13%*	~
Family micro	~	2%
Exo	1%	-
Macro	-	-

*significant change in model, - not included in model, ~ no change in model

8.5.1.2 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT DIMENSION

Table 44 shows standardized regression coefficients and coefficients of determination, adjusted (R^2) increments at each variable input for the three work-family conflict dimensions: TWFC, SWFC and BWFC. In the final model, significant main effects in the prediction of TWFC were found for: SWFC (.30, $p < .01$) and occupation (-.22, $p < .01$) with a coefficient of determination $R^2_{\alpha} = .27$, $F(12,112) = 4.87$, $p < .001$. Table 45 shows the incremental increase in R^2 for each step in the model representing each ecosystem. This shows that it is the addition of the work microsystem set of variables that shows a significant addition (15 per cent) to the variance explained in TWFC, the work microsystem model change was $F(5,115)=4.9$, $p < .001$.

For the SWFC dimension, the final model, shown in Table 44 indicates significant main effects for: TWFC (.27, $p < .001$), BWFC (.21, $p < .01$) and Total EI (.25, $p < .01$) with a coefficient of determination $R^2_{\alpha} = .45$, $F(9,148) = 15.36$, $p < .001$. Table 48 shows the incremental increase in R^2 for each step in the model representing each ecosystem. This shows that it is only the addition of the bio microsystem set of variables that shows a significant addition (5%) to the variance explained in SWFC, $F(3,152) = 8.18$, $p < .001$.

For the BWFC dimension, the final model, shown in Table 44 indicates significant main effects for: SWFC (.30, $p < .001$), Total EI (.22, $p < .01$) and Job Demands (.31, $p < .001$) with a coefficient of determination $R^2_{\alpha} = .45$, $F(9,148) = 15.36$, $p < .001$. Table 45 shows the incremental increase in R^2 for each step in the model representing each ecosystem. This shows that it is the addition of the bio and work microsystem set of variables that shows a significant addition (3% and 8% respectively) to the variance explained in BWFC, $F(3,147) = 2.81$, $p < .05$, $F(3,144) = 7.54$, $p < .001$.

TABLE 44 REGRESSION ANALYSIS 4 – TWFC/SWFC/BWFC DIMENSION AND ECOSYSTEM

Predictor	Time WFC β	Strain WFC β	Behaviour WFC β
Step 1 Control	<i>R</i> ² <i>a</i> = .16	<i>R</i> ² <i>a</i> = .37	<i>R</i> ² <i>a</i> = .28
K	10.61***	1.59	9.8***
Strain WFC/Time WFC/Strain WFC	.41***	.46***	.56***
Behaviour WFC/Behaviour WFC/Time WFC	.00	.31***	-.06
Step 2 Biosystem	<i>R</i> ² <i>a</i> = .14	<i>R</i> ² <i>a</i> = .44	<i>R</i> ² <i>a</i> = .31
K	10.00*	14.89***	19.75***
Strain WFC/Time WFC/Strain WFC	.41***	.33***	.43***
Behaviour WFC/Behaviour WFC/Time WFC	.00	.27***	-.05
NA	.04	.12	.12
TEIQue Total	.04	-.24***	-.15
Family Salience	-	-.07	-.07
Step 3 Work microsystem	<i>R</i> ² <i>a</i> = .26	<i>R</i> ² <i>a</i> = .45	<i>R</i> ² <i>a</i> = .39
K	23.20	25.74***	20.52*
Strain WFC/Time WFC/Strain WFC	.32**	.28***	.31***
Behaviour WFC/Behaviour WFC/Time WFC	-.11	.21**	-.13
NA	.01	.11	.11
TEIQue Total	-.08	-.25***	-.23**
Family Salience	-	-.08	-.07
Work hrs	.08	-	-
Job demands	.19*	.06	.31***
Latitude	.10	.05	.08
Work support	-.18*	-.13*	-.07
Occupation	-.23**	-	-
Step 4 Family microsystem	<i>R</i> ² <i>a</i> = .26	<i>R</i> ² <i>a</i> = .45	<i>R</i> ² <i>a</i> = .39
K	23.99	29.46**	26.06*
Strain WFC/Time WFC/Strain WFC	.30**	.27***	.30***
Behaviour WFC/Behaviour WFC/Time WFC	-.10	.21**	-.14
NA	.03	.12	.12
TEIQue Total	-.06	-.25**	-.22**
Family Salience	-	-.08	-.07
Work hrs	.07	-	-
Job demands	.16	.06	.31***
Latitude	.11	.05	.08
Work support	-.16	-.12	-.05
Occupation	-.22**	-	-
Partner support	-.04	-.05	-.08
Number of children	.12	-	-

Step 5 on following page

Step 5 – exosystem	$R^2 \Delta = .27$
K	24.34
Strain WFC/Time WFC/Strain WFC	.30**
Behaviour WFC/Behaviour WFC/Time WFC	-.09
NA	.02
TEIQue Total	-.06
Family Salience	-
Work hrs	.06
Job demands	.14
Latitude	.11
Work support	-.16
Occupation	-.22*
Partner support	-.03
Number of children	.11
Partner work hours	-.11

TABLE 45 INCREMENTAL R^2 CHANGES FOR EACH ECOSYSTEM – WFC DIMENSION

Ecosystem	TWFC	SWFC	BWFC
Control	*	*	*
Biosystem	0.2%	5%*	3%*
Work microsystem	15%*	1%	8%*
Family microsystem	1%	~	~
Exosystem	1%	-	-

*significant change in model, - not included in model, ~ no change in model

8.6 DISCUSSION

8.6.1 STUDY 3A – TRAIT EI AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

These two studies examined work-family conflict and the influence of the biosystem and other ecosystems. Study 3a examined one major personality factor that may influence fathers' work-family relations, Trait EI. As hypothesised, total Trait EI predicted lower levels of both Family interfering with work (FIW) and Work interfering with family (WIF). In addition, the Trait EI sub domain of Self-control negatively predicted FIW and also WIF. Results suggest that fathers who have high emotional self-efficacy across emotional self-control, emotionality, sociability and well-being find this disposition helpful in reducing levels of work-family conflict in both directions. Results suggest that it is specifically, the belief of emotional self control that appears helpful in reducing both FIW and WIF. However, this is a tentative finding requiring further examination, as the effect of Trait EI Self-control

disappeared in association with other antecedents known to influence work-family conflict. These findings confirm previous work examining personality variables and work family conflict, which have all found a negative relationship between neuroticism, impulse control and emotional stability and WIF and FIW.

The second hypothesis proposing that emotionality would predict lower WIF has not been found in this study. This could be due to the all male sample and may not be the case in a female sample, given other findings that women tend to self report higher levels of emotionality. Trait EI Sociability showed no significant influence on either direction of work family conflict. This is surprising as the ability to influence others would be expected to improve work family conflict (Edwards, 2006) and men have also shown to be higher in levels of sociability. Intrapersonal facets of emotional self efficacy may have more influence upon work family conflict than interpersonal facets. It is therefore possible that emotional self-perceptions play a part in the appraisal-coping cognitive process as proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), but this needs further investigation to clarify if there are differing influences of emotional intelligence sub-domains. The use of the TEIQue long form questionnaire may help examine this.

That fathers' belief in their ability to control their emotions should reduce FIW lends support to emotional gender stereotypes asserting that rationality is a male trait and emotionality a female trait (Petrides et al., 2004). It also suggests that the workplace creates an emotional environment in which self control is favoured and rewarded. If individuals perceive stressors differently, then assessment of situational variables will be influenced. One consequence of this may be controlling for dispositional differences may be warranted for future examination of work family conflict.

This study supports previous work on dispositional influences on work family conflict in which both neuroticism (Bruck, & Allen, 2003; Wayne et al., 2004) and impulsiveness (Blanch & Aluja, 2009), akin to the Trait EI sub domain of self control, have both been found to influence levels of FIW. As neuroticism has been found to negatively predict problem-focused coping, such as planning (Watson & Hubbard, 1996), it is likely that the Trait EI sub domain of self control would also predict a problem focused coping style. Further examination of Trait EI across the 6 sub

domains of WFC: Time based WIF and FIW, Strain based WIF and FIW, Behaviour based WIF and FIW, could identify more specific effects of Trait EI on distinct forms of work family conflict.

A gendered interpretation for Trait EI would suggest that there might be differences in the relative influence of the two Trait EI sub-domains of emotionality and self control on WIF and FIW for mothers in the opposite direction to those found for fathers here. Fathers in this study experienced more WIF than FIW, as has been previously found, although those for whom family was valued highly experienced less WIF, suggesting that they may be limiting the degree to which they let family intrude, whether by choice of job or prioritisation of family. That fathers' belief in their ability to control their emotions should reduce FIW lends support to emotional gender stereotypes asserting that rationality is a male trait and emotionality a female trait (Petrides, Frederickson et al., 2004). The impact of these normative beliefs on WIF and FIW, in relation to Trait EI, deserves further investigation in a comparison of mothers and fathers. It also suggests that the workplace creates an environment in which self control is favoured and rewarded. Findings from Burke (2006) on organisational culture indicate that men working within family supportive organisational cultures work fewer hours, experience less job stress and have higher levels of emotional well being (Burke, 2006). A comparative study into organisational culture and Trait EI could examine the impact of organisational culture on emotional self-efficacy and WIF and FIW to see if the variable relationships change, i.e. would a family supportive culture change the impact of emotional self- control on FIW that was found here?

For example, it could be hypothesised that on the one hand, it might be more acceptable for mothers to express emotion at work, facilitating their receipt of support when experiencing FIW and thus reducing FIW. On the other hand mothers could experience an increase in FIW through expressing emotion at work, as organisations do not expect either family concerns or emotion to be explicitly expressed at work. It may be that the Trait EI sub domain of self control may be helpful to mothers in reducing WIF, given the increased burden of family childcare and housework that mothers are under (Gershuny, 2001), where emotional self control may help reduce WIF because it could enable mothers to focus on their co-ordination role in planning family activities around work.

Possible implications for fathers trying to manage work and family life are that regulating their emotions at work may reduce the experience of Family interfering with work. If organisational cultures favour minimal emotional display it is likely to favour male associated styles of expression, which may reduce levels of support to parents at work. In order to explore this, future studies could examine work family conflict amongst both mothers and fathers alongside Trait EI and organisational culture. Finally, if individuals are perceiving stressors differently, then assessment of situational variables will be influenced, consequently controlling for individual dispositional differences may be warranted for future examination of work family conflict.

8.6.2 STUDY 3B – ECOSYSTEM INFLUENCES ON WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Study 3b examined the relative contribution of each ecosystem on both the directions and dimensions of work-family conflict. The first hypothesis proposed that proximal bio and mesosystems of work and family variables will have more influence on all dimensions and all directions of work-family conflict than the more distal exo or macro systems. Findings indicate support; it would appear that there are distinct effects of bio and work and family ecosystems depending on direction and dimension. Biosystem variables of Trait EI, negative affect and family salience showed significant increases in variance for only the FIW direction and the SWFC and BWFC dimensions. A possible explanation for the direction effect could be that biosystem variables are important whilst in the work realm because of the greater requirement to be attuned to the emotions of others at work for fathers. Conversely, it could also be that fathers with high Trait EI and low negative affect feel more confident in their abilities to deal with family members who create incidents of Family interfering with work.

In contrast to Carlson's (1999) study into personality and work-family conflict, Study 3b findings suggest that biosystem variables do not contribute to the time dimension of conflict. In line with Lazarus and Folkman (1984) as outlined in Study 3a, the influence of biosystem variables with strain based conflict is to be expected; as strain based work-family conflict is the psychological aspect of Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) model. The prediction of behaviour based conflict by biosystem variables fits with personality trait theory whereby traits predict typical behaviours. In

this context, the degree to which fathers believe in their emotional self-efficacy seems to predict their ability to adapt their work behaviours to home and vice versa.

The second hypothesis for Study 3b suggested that work variables would have more influence on work interfering with family (WIF) and family variables would have more influence on family interfering with work (FIW). This was partially supported with the findings here in that work microsystem variables predicted WIF, but family microsystem variables did not significantly improve the model when added in the prediction of FIW. This may be due to the fathers' only sample, as previous research has found a fairly consistent trend showing the asymmetry of the permeability of work-family boundaries between men and women, such that men show higher levels of WIF than FIW, and WIF is associated with work related antecedents.

The third hypothesis proposed that there would be more influence of work microsystem variables, macrosystem variables and exosystem variables on time based conflict than family microsystem or biosystem variables. This proposal was based on previous research showing that work based demands influence time based conflict more than family demands and that fathers in dual earner families show greater father involvement, therefore fathers with partners who work more hours are likely to be more involved with family and thus experience more demands. This hypothesis was partially supported in that work microsystem (work hours, job demands, job control, occupation and work support) showed significant 14 per cent addition to the model predicting TWFC, but exosystem variables, in the form of partner work hours did not show any significant incremental additional explanation to the model. Interestingly, partner work hours showed a negative relationship with time based work-family conflict rather than the hypothesised positive one expecting that the more a fathers' partner worked, the greater the demand placed upon him, thus increasing the potential for time clashes between work and family. However, it would appear from the significant, but low negative correlation that the more hours a partner works, the less time based conflict is experienced. It could be that those fathers with partners who work more have had to organize their time to account for family demands than fathers whose partners work less hours. Nonetheless the influence of this exosystem factor on time based work-family conflict is not significantly strong enough to add explanation to the model. In line with previous

findings, work microsystem variables add the most additional variance to the model suggesting that work demands increase time based conflicts, whilst work support decreases them.

The influence of occupation was significant but in the opposite direction to that expected, such that being a manager or in a professional occupation predicted a decrease in time based work-family conflict. This finding, although counter to findings on occupation and work hours', is congruent with a study by Allard et al (2007) who found that gender egalitarian managerial fathers with access to flex leave had lower work-family conflict. What is not clear, however, is whether this was time based work-family conflict or not.

The final hypothesis proposed that there would be more influence of dispositional biosystem variables on strain based conflict than other ecosystem variables. This was supported showing that biosystem variables of Trait EI, negative affect and family salience added 5 per cent to the variance explained of strain based work-family conflict. This finding suggests that disposition, particularly Trait EI, predicts a reduction of strain based work-family conflict. This supports Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) stress appraisal theory in which stressors are appraised according to the salience to the individual and in relation to the confidence the individual has in their ability to cope with the stressors. It would appear that fathers with high Trait EI feel more confident in their abilities to cope with the emotional demands of work-family conflict and therefore feel less strain as a result.

In terms of practical application, these results would indicate that the onus is on changes within the work microsystem more than in the family microsystem to improve time based work-family conflict. Whilst it may be difficult for employers to reduce job demands, particularly in a time of recession, they could focus on ensuring that there is adequate work support to accommodate family needs from colleagues, line manager and senior management. In terms of the influence of Trait EI, it appears that this emotional self-efficacy is helpful in reducing the perception of strain and behaviour based work-family conflict, therefore investigation into whether interventions based on improving emotional competencies would be beneficial to see if individual based solutions are also worth pursuing in the face of a challenging employment context.

8.7 SUMMARY

The findings from Study 3a into the influence of a previously unstudied biosystem variable (Trait EI) suggest that whilst global Trait EI shows significant influence over both directions of work-family conflict alongside other known predictors of work-family conflict, individual Trait EI factors do not, even though Trait EI Self-control shows some predictive value, when considered in isolation. These findings lend support to Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) stress appraisal theory and indicate that dispositional factors should be included in any future study of work-family conflict. That there is an influence of Trait EI Self-control on work-family conflict for this sample of fathers begs the question, along the lines of gender ideology and roles whether mothers' Trait EI would predict their work-family conflict through Trait EI Self-control or through one of the other EI sub-domains.

Findings from Study 3b indicate that Bronfenbrenner's ecosystems do have differential influence on the experience of both direction and dimension of work-family conflict in that biosystem variables are important for predicting less family interfering with work, less strain based conflict and less behaviour based conflict, whilst work microsystem variables are important for predicting less Work interfering with family and time based conflict. The relative non-influence of family microsystem variables could be due to a continued work-family boundary asymmetry based on gender. This issue and others raised from the other studies are discussed further in Chapter 9.

9 GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The aims of this thesis were to investigate the psychosocial factors which influence fathers' work-family life using Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 2005) Bioecological systems theory as a research framework. According to this theory multiple contexts, across different levels of analysis, have important influences on individual behaviour, and thus the model provides a holistic approach to explain the work-family experience. Fathers were targeted in this thesis, as there has been less research on what factors influence fathers' work-family life. Fathers have been traditionally associated with the provider role (Hood 1986), but attitude surveys have been indicating that fathers have aspirations to be more emotionally involved in family life and adopt a more nurturing role (Kodz et al 2003; Coltrane 1996). As women have found, managing employment with family life is challenging, as employment is still primarily organised on the assumption that one parent is the homemaker and one the breadwinner, in spite of increases in dual earner families (Crompton 2006). Fathers' employment behaviour was examined to see whether the 'fathers as breadwinner' role still prevailed by comparing the work hours and use of flexible working by fathers and men without children.

A number of other factors, found to influence work-family life, were also examined to assess their relative influence in predicting fathers' working hours and work-family conflict. These factors spanned Bronfenbrenner's bioecological systems from macrosystem influences of occupation to biosystem influences of disposition. The impact of biosystem dispositional factors, such as personality and negative affect, on work-family conflict have been examined in earlier research e.g. (Bruck & Allen, 2003), however this thesis included emotional intelligence as a new and relevant disposition factor to be considered in relation to fathers' work-family conflict and both forms of Ability EI and Trait EI³⁶ were assessed. Fathers were chosen as the focus in order to isolate fathers' experiences of work-family conflict from that of mothers' and men and

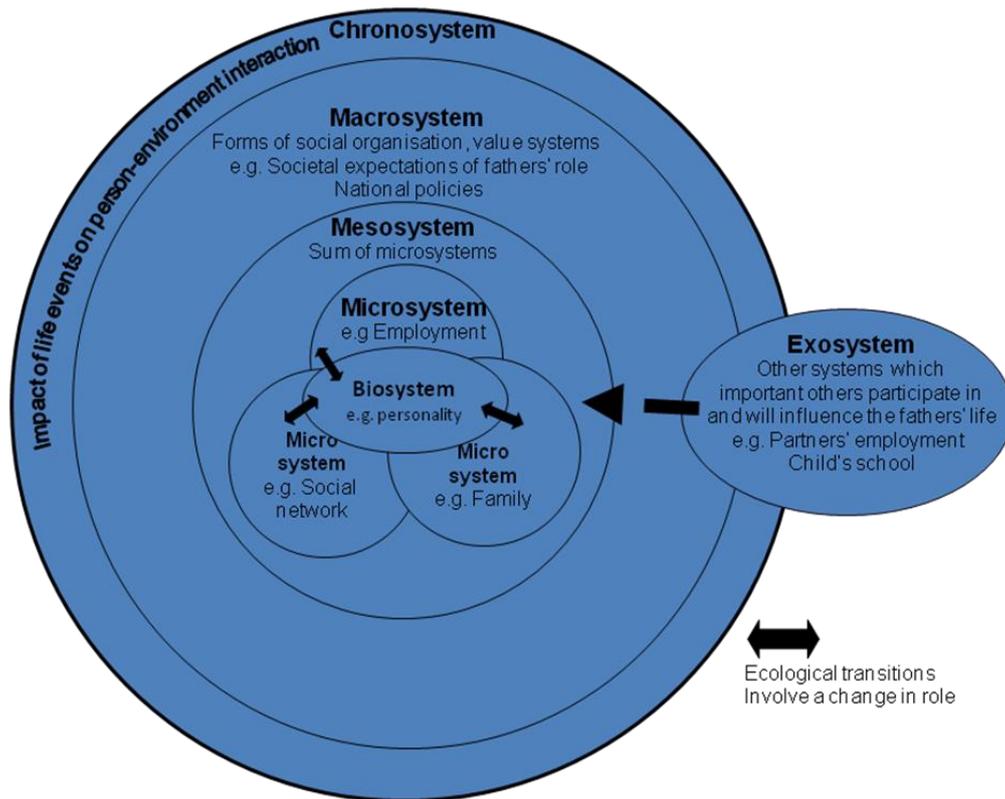
³⁶ Ability emotional intelligence purports to assess maximum performance (similar to IQ tests) using objective tests. Trait emotional intelligence purports to assess self reported typical (day-to day) performance in line with personality theory.

women without children, as previous research has conflated gender with parenthood and emphasised mothers' work-family conflict (Byron 2005).

This thesis approached the topic of managing work and family using Bronfenbrenner's bioecological systems theory (See Figure 11) and focused particularly on the individual emotional behavioural characteristics of the biosystem in relation to the context in which the person is situated. Individual characteristics are contained within the biosystem, with the immediate work and family context conceptualized as microsystems. The cultural, policy and legislative context incorporate the macrosystem, and the influence of significant other's microsystem contexts is termed the exosystem. The theory proposes that individual's characteristics and context influence the proximal processes of individual development. Proximal processes are the ongoing and lasting interactions between the individual and the environment such as; learning new skills, problem solving, making plans. The importance of biosystem dispositional characteristics, according to Bronfenbrenner, is that they set proximal processes into action and sustain them. In addition, he suggests that individuals also possess bioecological resources which facilitate or hinder proximal processes, for example: differing levels of ability, knowledge or experience. Previous work-family literature (e.g. Eby et al 2005) had considered work and family microsystem variables but rarely dispositional ones, and this thesis sought to examine that gap. Moreover, the thesis focuses on fathers, who have hitherto been examined less in work -family research. The thesis took the stance that given the changes in women's working lives and fathers' changing attitudes towards more family involvement (Scott, 2006; Park, Curtice, Thomson, Phillips, & Johnson, 2007), then fathers' working behaviours may have changed³⁷ to reflect this proposition. In essence, if fathers' roles have changed from that of a traditional breadwinner role to a more involved one, this changed role would set in motion a different set of proximal processes for fathers in these studies.

³⁷ The relationship between attitude and behaviour is well documented not to be a direct one (e.g. LaRossa 1997), nonetheless attitudes are an important variable in models such as the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen 1991).

FIGURE 11 BRONFENBRENNER'S BIOECOLOGICAL SYSTEMS MODEL



Source: Adapted from Bronfenbrenner (1979, 2005)

Previous research using Bronfenbrenner's model found that the microsystems of work and family variables most influence work-family conflict, but a model with biosystem, exosystem and macrosystem variables has not been tested (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Hill, Hawkins, Martinson, & Ferris, 2003). This thesis found significant effects for biosystem variables in the form of Trait EI and Negative Affect. Although the original intention had been to include macrosystem variables in the regression analyses of study 3b, it was not possible to include organisational leave as a macrosystem variable due to missing data. Future research is still required therefore to undertake a study with macrosystem variables to fully test Bronfenbrenner's model. Such a study would need to ensure maximum response to questions about leave provided by the organisation, but also consider limiting the sample to employees, as the proportion of self-employed fathers in this sample contributed to much of the missing data on the issue of leave. Because of the long-term effects of macrosystem variables, such as legal and policy environment for influences on employment behaviour, the Bronfenbrenner framework might be better used to structure a longitudinal study which was able to compare two employment periods,

for example one pre-recession and one during recession. Nonetheless, even for cross-sectional studies the Bronfenbrenner model provides a useful reminder to researchers in the work-family field to acknowledge the full range of variables that are likely to influence individual's work-family experience.

9.1.3 STUDY 1

Study 1 examined whether the proximal processes of fathers' contemporary working patterns were any different to that of men without children. It was assumed that if a contemporary sample of fathers were less influenced by the breadwinning role than previous generations, then their historically higher working hours compared to non-fathers would no longer be the case. Fathers' working hours, have traditionally been high and their use of flexible working has traditionally been low, suggesting adherence to the breadwinner role. A national sample of fathers from the Third Work-Life Balance Survey (2006) was used to examine a series of hypotheses within a 'father as breadwinner' model or 'father as nurturer' model. Findings for each hypothesis are considered below.

In direct comparisons with non-fathers over the last 24 years, fathers have consistently been found to work longer hours and have higher employment activity rates than men who are not fathers. For example, two fifths of fathers were working over 48 hours per week in 2001 in contrast to men in general (O'Brien, 2005). Reasons for working long hours are multiple and complex, however the consistent difference between fathers and non-fathers suggests that fatherhood status has a part to play, aligned with the cultural association of fathers as primarily having a breadwinner role. However, fatherhood occurs during a particular life stage which coincides with career development, consequently these findings could be due to age effects rather than parenthood status. Dermott (2006) controlled for age in an analysis of working hours using two national datasets, the BHPS and NCDS and found no effect of fatherhood status on working hours. This was contrary to direct comparisons of fathers' work hours to non-fathers', which to date have consistently shown fathers' work hours to be higher than non-fathers' e.g. (O'Brien, & Shemilt, 2003) and attributed this work hour difference to fatherhood status, which is posited to activate the salience of financial provision for a fathers' family. Dermott's finding supports the career stage hypothesis which suggests that it is fathers' career stage which contributes to long working hours

rather than fatherhood. As the mean age of becoming a father coincides with the most active time in one's career, it could be that it is the commitment to career that is the cause of longer work hours. However, Dermott's findings could also be due fathers' reducing their work hours, as they become more involved with family, thereby reducing the difference in working hours between fathers and non-fathers. Figures from the Labour Force Survey suggest a declining trend for fathers working very long hours (over 48 hours per week) and mean working hours for full time couple fathers, which have fallen from 47 hours per week in 1998 to 45 hours per week by 2007 (O'Brien, 9-13 September, 2008).

Dermott's model was tested in Study 1 to see if her findings could be replicated. Fathers' working hours in Study 1 in the 2006 Work Life Balance Survey were 45.7 hours per week compared to non-fathers who worked 43.5 hours per week. In addition, more fathers (35 per cent) worked over 48 hours per week compared to non-fathers (22 per cent). In testing Dermott's (2006) model fatherhood status, as a factor predicting working hours whilst controlling for age, showed a weak effect of fatherhood associated with longer working hours. Being a father predicted longer work hours per week than non-fathers by an extra 2.6 hours per week. However, a stronger effect was found for occupation, such that being in a management or professional occupation was associated with higher working hours (an extra 7.7 hours per week).

These results showing an effect of fatherhood status on working hours whilst controlling for age contradicts Dermott's (2006) findings. This inconsistency could reflect fathers' working hour behaviour being in transition, with some fathers continuing to work long hours, whilst others reduce their working hours. Further detailed examination of fathers' working hours longitudinally would help elicit information, which could track fathers' work hours in association with career stages, onset of fatherhood with numbers and age of children. These inconsistent findings highlight the importance of Bronfenbrenner's chronosystem, the impact of time on an individual's development, which was not possible to examine in a cross sectional dataset.

Further hypotheses tested the proposition that fathers with younger children, under 6 years, would work more hours than fathers with older children, as fathers with young school-age children have been found to work on average more hours per week

than fathers with pre-school and older children (Paull 2008 p20). In Study 1, no difference was found between fathers' working hours by child age in absolute terms, although when examining the prediction effect of child age on working hours, it was being a fathers of older children, 6 years and over, which predicted longer work hours (3 hours more per week) compared to non-fathers, however the effect was small. Fathers with children 6 years and over worked on average 45.52 hours per week in contrast to 45.18 hours per week for fathers of younger children and 43.43 hours per week for men without children. This finding provides some weak support suggesting that fathers increase their weekly work hours once their children are of school age, a pattern more often associated with mothers.

Further investigation of the effect of child age on fathers' work hours would help establish whether this finding can be substantiated with a larger sample, particularly one of fathers with pre-school children, as this group was very small in the 2006 Work-Life Balance Survey. Interestingly, the findings from the 2005 Maternity and Paternity Leave Rights and Benefits Survey, which included a large sample of fathers with very young children up to 2 years old, showed that fathers who had worked long hours (over 48 hours per week) before the birth of their child were more likely to report reducing their hours after the birth than fathers working standard hours. Such findings also suggest a change in men's work hours associated with onset of fatherhood, however, further longitudinal research and subsequent changes in fathers' working hours as their children get older needs further investigation.

Another employment behaviour examined in Study 1 was fathers' use of flexible working. It was hypothesized that fathers would use more full-time flexible working options, as these would maintain full-time income. This was found to be the case with 82 per cent of fathers using full-time and 19 per cent part-time flexible work options (compared to 79 per cent and 22 per cent respectively for men without children), but was not found to be statistically significant. In general, fathers did make more use of flex-time and working from home options than non-fathers showing support for fathers being more involved in family life. In addition, fathers' increased use of term-time working from 7 per cent in 2000 to 13 per cent in 2006, although small in real terms, suggests increased sharing of parenting roles. There also appears

to be a move by fathers towards greater work-family flexibility, although this could be a factor of increase in flex use generally, and warrants further investigation.

From the findings of Study 1, there are some indications of a shift to a caring model, particularly on the transition to parenthood for men. However, absolute levels of working hours per week remain high and therefore are likely continue to create tension for fathers who wish to spend more time with their family. In a 2009 survey on fathers by the Equality and Human Rights Commission, twenty three percent of fathers experienced tension and stress in their family as a result of their working arrangements (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2009). Findings from Study 1 suggest that fathers are not changing their employment behaviour in response to such tension and stress. However, this thesis focused on fathers' behaviour, but there was relatively little consideration of organisation (macro) level constraints such as: supervisor support; leaves available and; perception of support. Other research, e.g. (Haas et al., 2002) suggests that a combination of organisational change and individual action are both likely to contribute to behavioural changes for fathers. It is these combined psychosocial factors which Study 3a and Study 3b examined.

9.1.4 STUDY 2

Study 2 examined how the different conceptualisations of emotional intelligence related to fathers' work-family conflict. Ability emotional intelligence purports to assess maximum EI performance (similar to IQ tests) using objective tests. Trait emotional intelligence purports to assess self reported typical (day-to day) EI performance in line with personality theory and claims to reflect an individual's feelings of self efficacy with regard to the emotional realm. It was hypothesised that good emotional intelligence skills (Ability EI) would be associated with less experience of work-family conflict, due to fathers' ability to identify emotional states in themselves and others and use strategies, which either self-regulated their own emotions and/or acknowledged and offered possible solutions to minimise the negative emotional effects of work-family conflict. It was also hypothesised that Trait EI would be associated with reduced work-family conflict according to Lazarus & Folkman's (1984) stress appraisal theory whereby fathers' self perception of their EI skills would act as a coping resource for them in the face of work-family stress.

It was found that Trait EI positively relates to WFC whilst Ability EI showed no significant effects. However, due to the small sample size ($n=33$) for this study, there was only enough statistical power to detect large effects, therefore further comparison of the Ability EI model warrants repeating with a larger sample. The findings of Study 2 support the Lazarus & Folkman (1984) transactional stress appraisal model which acknowledges individuals differences in appraising sources of stress so that one individual may perceive the same situation as a challenge, whilst another may perceive it as a threat. Perception of situations relies on two stages of appraisal: in the first stage the individual evaluates the relevance of the source of potential stress to them; in the second stage, if the individual considers what resources, physical and psychological they can draw upon to cope with the source of potential stress. Using this model it is proposed that Trait EI, or the confident belief in one's emotional skills, acts as a perceptual filter in the face of work-family stress, as high Trait EI fathers would be able to draw on this confidence and use it as a coping resource.

An alternative explanation for association between Trait EI and work-family conflict could be due to the common method of self-report for both. However, using Harman's one factor test for common method bias, one factor was not found to explain the majority of the variance in Study 3, although this test does not completely rule out this possibility (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Therefore examination of Trait EI and work-family conflict would benefit from examination using other methods such as a longitudinal study, experimental research or using 360 degree assessments of both Trait EI and work-family conflict. The future assessment of work-family conflict, as reported by all members affected, would also be useful as although high Trait EI fathers may report reduced work-family conflict, their partners or children may report experiencing effects of work-family conflict. Trait EI only influences the situation perception of each individual, which may ameliorate their own experience of stress, but may not alleviate others' distress.

Implications for finding Trait EI positively associated with work-family conflict are that fathers could undergo a form of EI training to increase their confidence in their EI skills which could then be expected to help counter the negative effects of work-family conflict for them. However, more specific information is required about the processes at work between Trait EI and work-family conflict before any

training/self development programme is developed. From extensive experience within the stress field, it has been shown that problem focused coping is more effective than emotion focused coping, but within the employment arena only (Cartwright & Cooper, 1996). Nonetheless, Newman & Beehr (1979) found that actions such as planning ahead were useful when coping with work stress, an executive cognitive function which can be disrupted by emotional distress, thus implying that individuals who can regulate their emotions so that they can still problem solve will cope better with work-family conflict (Newman & Beehr, 1979).

The lack of effect of Ability EI on work-family conflict are in line with previous findings, which find small effects on outcomes based mainly on correlational analyses. It is possible that the MSCEIT Ability EI measure need further refinement to improve its validity, as it has faced extensive criticism in the EI literature as outlined in Chapters 5 and 6, but further examination with a larger sample would help establish the degree of effect Ability EI may have on work-family conflict.

9.1.5 STUDY 3 A & B

Study 3a examined a previously unexplored dispositional variable of Trait EI in relation to fathers' work-family conflict, in a model with previously known work-family conflict antecedents to assess its influence and also sub-domain influence. Emotionally demanding situations are characteristic of work-family life where individuals have to let down emotionally salient people, such as their spouse and children at home, or their manager and colleagues at work. Taking an appraisal theory perspective it could be expected that having good levels of ability emotional intelligence or trait emotional intelligence would make emotionally charged situations less threatening, as individuals high in emotional intelligence would have more confidence in handling their own and others' emotions, in that their beliefs about their ability to cope would influence their appraisal. Study 3b examined both dispositional and structural factors influencing fathers' work-family life using Bronfenbrenner's (1979) bioecological systems theory as a framework which situates fathers within a nested set of contextual environments with microsystems of family and work as proximal systems with most immediate influences on individual behaviour (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Trait EI produces a global score across four sub-dimensions or factors of: *Self-control*, indicating emotion regulation, impulsiveness and stress management;

Emotionality, indicating emotional expression, trait empathy, emotion perception and quality of relationships; *Sociability*, indicating emotion management (influencing others), assertiveness and social awareness; and *Well-being*, indicating optimism; self-esteem beliefs and trait happiness. Findings for Study 3a showed that global Trait EI does predict work-family conflict for both directions in a model with other known antecedents. However, only one Trait EI sub-domain, Self-control, showed a unique contribution to work-family conflict, although this effect disappeared in a model with known work-family conflict antecedents. Nonetheless, using stepwise methods, it would appear that Trait EI sub-domain effects are being masked by shared variance between the sub-domains rather than other work-family antecedents. This finding strengthens the case for including Trait EI in future work-family research, particularly to examine and try and isolate sub-domain effects, particularly those of Self-control and Emotionality, which consistently show an effect on work-family conflict. Petrides (2010) warns users of the short form of TEIQue that Trait EI sub-domains are less reliable distinct factors than for the long form and future research is warranted using the long form of Trait EI to evaluate the distinct Trait EI sub-domain effects in a more reliable way. It appears from these findings that Trait EI *sub-domains* are better examined for the global concept of work-family conflict rather than for each direction, as there are no differing effects by direction of Trait EI shown in Study 3a. The implications of the Global Trait EI findings are considered first, followed by an evaluation of the Trait EI Self control findings.

The impact of Global Trait EI reducing work-family conflict can be illustrated by calculating the reduction predicted in WIF based on the mean Trait EI level using the non-standardised beta coefficients. A mean Trait EI score (4.95) for fathers in this study will predict a lower level of Work interfering with family (WIF) by 10%³⁸. This effect still takes place having controlled for the possible impacts of negative mood at time of the self – report and in addition to other known WIF antecedents. These findings indicate that it is informative to include dispositional biosystem variables when modelling work-family conflict along with work and family microsystem variables. In addition, this finding supports previous research which has examined

³⁸ 0.5 points against a standardised range of WIF scores between 1-5, (10%), thus predicting a reduction of the constant WIF score from 3.8 (the WIF level predicted when Trait EI is 0) down to 3.3.

personality variables with work-family conflict (Blanch & Aluja, 2009 ; Wayn et al, 2004; Bruck & Allen, 2003), which found that related personality traits to Trait EI self control, such as neuroticism and impulsiveness, predict work-family conflict. Further focused experimental or qualitative examination of the Trait EI Self control could illuminate why it is Trait EI Self control that is having an impact.

Further qualitative work to explore the interactions between the systems would also be useful, particularly the bio and microsystems to examine the processes by which Trait EI Self control is beneficial in reducing work-family conflict. This is particularly relevant for the coping processes which fathers bring into play and if these processes relate to Lazarus' emotion focused coping concept. The factor of Trait EI Self control as it is conceptualised by Petrides and Furnham (2007) indicates that their focus is on how well an individual feels they are able to *decrease* unwanted emotions, rather than *increase* wanted ones, for example using items such as 'on the whole I am able to deal with stress'. This emphasis on one side of emotion regulation may risk not detecting the influence of managing positive emotions as well as negative ones, something which is likely to be required in the study of work-family facilitation.

Another limitation of the Trait EI Self control factor in terms of explanatory power is that it is not possible to identify what processes are used by the individual to regulate their emotions. Such processes could include for example: situation avoidance, modification or cognitive reappraisal e.g.(Diefendorff, Richard & Yang, 2008). However, The Trait EI questionnaire is useful for identifying the broad range of EI competency beliefs, which may be relevant to work-family situations. This identification of EI beliefs could then be followed up to further distinguish the Trait EI regulation processes used by individuals to reduce work-family conflict through more detailed quantitative examination using existing emotion regulation measurement tools, e.g. (Eisenberg, Fabes, Murphy, Maszk, Smith, & Karbon 1995). Coding qualitative interviews to identify emotion regulation strategies or using qualitative analysis to assess how individuals define emotion regulation strategies would also be possible alternatives.

Diary studies would be helpful in establishing more clearly the causal pathways between Trait EI and work-family conflict, as the stress created by work-family conflict could potentially reduce fathers' feelings of EI self-efficacy. The personality literature

argues that dispositional traits reflect enduring typical behaviours and are therefore unlikely to disappear in the face of demanding circumstances. Personality theory would predict that whilst demanding circumstances can negatively affect all individuals, high Trait EI individuals (in this case), would be more resilient than low Trait EI individuals and that the negative effect of demanding circumstances would therefore be less enduring. This is why the distinction is made between state and trait dispositions to account for temporary mood states which may be influenced by recent negative circumstances and why Negative Affect was used in Study 3a and 3b to control for such temporary states of mood which may have influenced fathers' self reports.

It was originally considered that the emotional competencies of self-control or managing emotions and sociability to be more useful in the culturally masculine workplace, and emotionality more influential for the culturally feminine family setting. Whilst the former was found to be the case, the latter was not in the first regression. However, using backwards elimination and forwards entry showed that Trait EI Emotionality also showed influence over both directions of work-family conflict, but that this was being masked by the presence of the other Trait EI sub-domains, particularly Trait EI Well-Being, and especially in combination with Negative Affect. It is possible that the related concepts of Negative Affect and Trait EI Well-Being are responsible for this. Further work to increase the discriminant validity, particularly of the Trait EI Well-Being sub-domain may be needed, although the use of the long form of the TEIQue may achieve this discrimination. Examining work-family conflict and Trait EI in a further study using the long form is therefore warranted. It is possible that previously found gender differences between men and women on Trait EI Self control, where men score higher than women explains these findings; however, this needs further examination in a comparative design.

Study 3b findings showed differential influences of the different ecosystems within Bronfenbrenner's bioecosystem model on both the direction and dimensions of work-family conflict³⁹. Time based conflict, was the only element on which biosystem

³⁹ Work-family conflict can occur in two directions: Work interfering with family (WIF) and Family interfering with work (FIW).

There are also three dimensions:

variables did not have any predictive impact. This implies that work-family conflicts which involve direct time clashes, resulting in the physical absence of the father from work or family are influenced more by work related factors rather than psychological factors thus placing the onus for improvement of time based work-family conflict on employers.

Work microsystem variables also showed influence across all dimensions (time, strain and behaviour), but only for the WIF direction, whilst family microsystem variables only showed predictive influence over the FIW direction. This latter finding seems to confirm the previously found work-family boundary asymmetry by gender from studies that included only parents where work variables tend to influence WIF for men and family variables tend to influence FIW for women (Duxbury et al., 1994; Gutek et al., 1991). In contrast to Gutek's findings that more time spent in family activities was positively related to more FIW conflict, in Study 3b, the more involved fathers were in childcare, the less WIF they experienced. However, the negative correlation of $-.24, p < .001$ father involvement with work hours indicates that fathers who are more involved also work less hours, which could also lead to less WIF. Although, we would expect a similar relationship between father involvement, job demands and WIF this is not the case. This finding suggests investigating the pathway between work hours, job demands and WIF and the influence of father involvement on them. An examination of the causal pathways of work hours, job demands and WIF could be usefully tested through the use of structural equation modelling. If the reduction of work hours does reduce the psychological impact of job demands then there is an argument that one way to improve the mental health of employees would be to reduce work hours, bearing in mind individual financial requirements.

A positive interpretation of the finding that the more involved fathers were in childcare the less WIF they experience is that more father involvement does not

Time based conflict where time constraints mean that fathers' physical presence is not possible in two places at one time;

Strain based conflict which characterises the psychological preoccupation of work or family whilst physically present in the opposing realm and

Behaviour based conflict in which the behaviours that are acceptable at work are not appropriate when with the family and vice versa.

appear to be creating negative consequences in the work-family context. This suggests support of Marks' (1977) equal engagement hypothesis, which proposes that individuals benefit from full engagement with each of their multiple roles, rather than suffering conflict between the roles. As there was no association of father involvement with family or work salience, this would suggest that fathers are not prioritizing multiple roles in order to manage any conflicting demands between them as Thoits (1991) proposed. Dermott's (2005) qualitative study examining fathers' social constructions of time also suggest support for Marks' (1977) hypothesis. Dermott (2005) states below that the perceptions of time differ depending on role:

Commonly, when time is considered in relation to work it is thought of in an additive way, with hours and minutes being equitable whatever the activity, allowing comparisons to be made across various forms of labour. This, however, ignores the fact that the same amounts of time may not be interpreted similarly by participants within different spatial and social contexts. It is argued here that, for fathers, the time required to be a 'good parent' may be qualitatively different from the formulation of time that is required to be a 'good worker' and it is this that leads to a more complementary relationship between work and family than has been previously acknowledged.

Dermott (2005:91)

As perceptions of time differ by gender, it is possible that mothers may be more prone to Thoits' (1991) formulation of managing multiple roles and fathers more to Marks' (1977) formulation equal engagement in multiple roles. This seems particularly the case, given Dermott's assertion that mothers' time spent in the paid worker and parent roles is perceived as commitment, i.e. the time spent in each role represents commitment to that role, whereas fathers' accounts of their role, focused on the quality of their relationship developed with their children. This gender difference in perception of what is important for each parental role may go some way to explaining fathers' lack of change in their employment behaviour, but this would need further investigation.

9.3 POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Since the start of this thesis, the UK has entered an economic recession which is likely to have a two-fold contrasting effect on fathers: For some, there is likely to be enforced reduction in time spent in employment, reductions in working hours per week, seasonal employment, or redundancy, giving fathers more time to spend with their family, albeit under conditions of financial pressure. For another group, those fathers remaining in full-time employment, it is likely that work intensity will remain a pressing issue thus creating a cash rich/time poor group of employees compared to a cash poor/time rich group. Groups of employees or employers who can negotiate or propose employment arrangements which facilitate employment with some reduction of hours, such as in the automotive industry, (Hurley & Finn, 2009) are likely to mitigate the polarization of these two groups and be more conducive to creating more family friendly workplaces. Research into employment behaviour and its effects on the family during this recession will help illuminate whether such arrangements do achieve this or not.

The underlying supposition for the research questions in this thesis were that fathers' greater involvement in family life would have an impact on their work behaviours. There has been debate about the degree to which fathers have increased their involvement in family life, with time use studies indicating that there has been an absolute increase in childcare involvement, but little increase in housework chores, with any increases still relatively less compared with mothers. Gershuny (2004) proposes a 'time lag' hypothesis in which these increases forecast eventual parity of time involvement between mothers and fathers.

In addition to changes in family behaviours, in the UK, legislative changes since 1997 to help mothers to return to work after the birth of a child and remain in employment have meant an increase in the availability of flexible working options and maternity leave. The access to flexible working options, although associated with mothers, has increasingly been made available to all employees regardless of gender or parenthood status. The access to leave allocated for the time of birth and after, however, has been more restricted to mothers in the form of maternity leave, but more recently, provision of paternity leave has arrived, albeit for a short period (2 weeks) with low financial compensation.

In this context, it seemed appropriate to test for effects of fathers' increases in family time on their behaviours at work to see if traditional employment behaviours of long working hours, little use of flexible working and work interfering with family type conflicts prevailed. In terms of fathers' working hours, the picture is not clear cut. Whilst the fathers in Study 1 from the 2006 Work-Life Balance Survey appeared to be working longer hours than non-fathers, the fathers from the 2005 Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey were reporting a decrease in their working hours following the birth of their child. Methodologically, the large sample size and sampling design of the 2005 Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits Survey give Study 1's findings a more reliable basis for future focused evaluation of fathers' working hours which allowed for measurement of actual working hours both before and after the birth of a fathers' child, rather than a dichotomous assessment of whether their hours had increased or decreased. Taken overall, the findings from this thesis on fathers' working hours suggest that fathers are in transition in terms of adjusting work behaviours to more involvement in family life, in that some fathers show reductions in working hours whilst others do not.

With regard to work-family conflict, the previously found asymmetry of fathers' work family boundaries has been supported in Study 3a and 3b suggesting that fathers' family lives are primarily influenced by their employment, as the main direction of work-family conflict was shown to be Work interfering with family (WIF) than Family interfering with work (FIW), as fathers' average levels of WIF were higher than FIW. In addition, the variables which influence 'work to family' (WIF) conflict are work related including job demands, job control (latitude), work support and occupation.

This pattern of findings indicate that fathers are more affected by work related matters whilst at home compared to being affected by family issues whilst at work and suggest that mothers are taking the primary responsibility for managing family issues. The differing levels of take up of flexible working options found in Study 1 mirroring the full-time/part-time distinction between mothers' and fathers' employment rates supports this proposition. From the work-family conflict perspective, there appears to be little change in the gendered experience of this phenomenon, which could be considered unexpected, given the legislative push in the

UK towards improving work-family balance for parents. However, the family-work reconciliation measures introduced do not include full economic compensation, nor any compulsory element compared to parental leave policy regimes in countries like Norway (O'Brien, 2009). The economic element is important to enable families to share care without financial hardship and the compulsory element is important as it contributes to a change in workplace culture in acknowledging fathers as parents from a governmental level without relying solely on employers to enact changes within the workplace.

From the experiences in the Nordic countries and from the findings from Study 1, it would appear that action at the macro level is required to see clear changes occurring in fathers' employment behaviours and employer provision at the micro level. However, on a day to day basis, it would appear from the findings from Studies 2 and 3 that dispositional biosystem factors such as Trait EI can help minimise the negative aspects of managing work and family life. Whilst interventions could be created to improve individuals' confidence in their emotional competencies, such approaches only provide a way of dealing with the symptoms of the effects of managing work and family in a culture which prioritises employment considerations over family ones. Employers reward long work hours and full-time employment through their financial career structures, which create conflicts for parents trying to earn enough and also pursue a career. Macro level changes which involve changes across the microsystems are required to encourage employment culture which prevents or reduces the emergence of work-family conflicts such as increasing the minimum wage or encouraging ways in which senior posts could be offered as part-time options.

Macro level action is necessary to encourage changes in fathers' working patterns and changes on the factors affecting fathers' work-family life and requires collective action by employees to change working practices. It also relies on changes being made through the political and legislative processes, both of which are long term and may only rarely occur within a fathers' lifetime. Therefore, at the biosystem level, creating ways to enable fathers to be more confident in their emotional competencies offers one way of helping to mitigate a specific form of work related stress, work-family conflict. Improving emotional competency would keep fathers

performing at optimal levels in the workplace whilst keeping them physically and psychologically engaged in the family and gives them some agency and opportunity to feel as if they can influence their work-family life.

9.4 METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS

The quantitative design for the studies in this thesis enabled the examination of a number of unknown factors influencing fathers' working patterns and work-family conflict whilst controlling for known factors. In addition, regression models allowed the evaluation of sets of variables theoretically organized using Bronfenbrenner's Bioecosystem theory. The limitations of this approach are that the cross-sectional design only captures a snapshot in time and therefore is unable to establish any causal pathways between variables. In addition, the cross-sectional survey relies on data from self report, which can be prone to bias, often social desirability, and inaccuracy, if being asked to recall retrospective events. However, Bandura (1997) argues that self-perceptions influence thinking and behaviour regardless of accuracy, as the existence of cognitive behavioural therapy confirms. In terms of social desirability bias, Petrides (2009) argues that this effect is most likely to occur when responding to a questionnaire in a high stakes context such as a job interview and less likely to occur in a research setting. Nonetheless, future application of the long version of the Trait EI which includes a question item highlighting possible dishonest reporting, would allow assessment of the impact of dishonest self - reporting. In design terms, including a rating by another person known to the respondent can also mitigate any suspected impression management. These limitations can also be levelled at the work-family conflict measure, however previous diary based designs e.g. (Butler, Grzywacz, Bass, & Linney, 2005) have confirmed the relationships between job related factors such as job demands and work-family conflict. Designs which can capture family appraisals of work to family conflict and work appraisals of family to work conflict could be helpful in establishing the impact of work-family conflict on the whole family.

The fathers' sample from the Third Work-Life Balance Survey (2006) in Study 1 constituted a smaller proportion of fathers compared to national proportions of fathers, as assessed using the Labour Force Survey, therefore these findings would benefit from replication using a larger representative dataset of fathers. Whilst the

national sample from the Maternity and Paternity Rights and Benefits survey (2005) was larger, the survey items would benefit from ensuring that questions about fathers' working hours obtained numbers of hours worked per week as continuous data rather than discrete data to help make more precise assessments of fathers' working hours before and after the birth of their child. In comparisons of fathers with non-fathers, matching each group or controlling for partnership status, age and employment status are important to help reduce confounds, and isolate fatherhood status effects on working hours.

Studies 2 and 3 used online survey methods to gather data alongside more traditional hard copy questionnaires. Although it was thought that providing electronic access to the workplace would be beneficial for targeting employed fathers directly and enable them to easily access and complete the questionnaire, the response rates were very low. It is perhaps not surprising that this was the case, particularly given the research topic. It is likely that fathers did not have time to fill in the questionnaire in work time, and a proportion may not have had access to the internet at home, although it is more likely that households with children have internet access (Office for National Statistics, 2006a). In certain occupations, which are not desk based, such as the police or manual workers, fathers are unlikely to be using a PC for long periods, thus making the questionnaire less easy to access as professional white collar occupations spend more time using PC's. It is also possible that by promoting via employer's intranet pages would make fathers reluctant to respond, possibly concerned about issues of confidentiality, as electronic forms of communication have a reputation for being less secure.

Face-to-face contact in organisations with the target sample, although time consuming, may have helped increase response rates to better communicate the purpose and integrity of the research and researcher. Case study approaches could improve response rate, e.g. (S. Lewis & Taylor, 1996). Of those fathers who responded online, more of them missed out questions than those responding to the hard copy questionnaire. This potential for response bias was tested, for both online and hard copy responses using missing data analysis before running the main analyses and no systematic response bias was found. In retrospect, using the 'must respond' function in Survey Monkey's design mode may have helped reduce this non-response, but may

also have increased drop-out rates. A further issue with online responses is that it is particularly difficult to know who the respondent is, consequently if a target population is required, for example fathers, it is impossible to know whether all respondents were fathers or not.

Whether online or hard copy, the length of the questionnaire (approx. 30 minutes) is likely to have contributed to the low response rates, as the comments box provided in the online version elicited comments from respondents which indicated that the questionnaire was easy to understand and complete. Another possible contributor to low response rates for the hard copy version could be that mothers would have been the first to see the questionnaire and may not have passed it onto the father, given that mothers undertake more childcare than fathers. It is most likely that fathers were too busy to complete it and therefore the respondents to studies 2 and 3 cannot be taken to be representative of fathers, although demographic distribution of these samples was assessed (see Appendix 2) and the only differences from the national averages for Study 3 fathers were for income and education; fathers in Study 3 earned slightly more (£2700 p.a.) than the national median and had more post-graduate qualifications, but less degrees or A levels than the national average. For Study 2, the majority of fathers worked in the public sector and, possibly as a consequence, had lower mean work hours per week (39) than the national average in 2007 of 45 hours per week and yet still displayed higher levels of work-family conflict (WIF-2.88, FIW-2.37) compared to Carlson et al's validation sample (n83) (WIF-2.60, FIW-1.95) giving an indication that work hours are not necessarily the most important indicator of work-family conflict.

On the key variables for Studies 2 and 3: Work-family conflict, it is possible that fathers with an interest in work-family balance self selected into the study, however, the reasons for this could be argued to be due to experience of work-family conflict from both the high or low ends of the spectrum. This could particularly be the case for the sample in Study 2, as they were mostly public sector employees. The normal distribution suggests that fathers responding did predominantly fall at either the high or the low end of the distribution and comparison of their mean WIF and FIW scores with Carlson's (2000) validation sample of 83 males, not all of whom were parents, show that the samples in this thesis experienced slightly higher levels of work family

conflict across all six sub – dimensions (Appendix 5). This pattern could indicate that fathers self selected into Studies 2 and 3 due to their perceived higher levels of work-family conflict. However, there are no validated norm scores for work-family conflict, which makes evaluating representativeness for work-family conflict scores problematic. A meta-analysis to calculate z-scores across work-family studies could help overcome this or undertaking a study to establish norms. Such information could be useful for Human Resource departments for assessing work-family balance in their workforce, and for research purposes particularly useful in distinguishing between mothers and fathers as distinct from men and women. A comparison of Studies 2 and 3 against Trait EI norms indicates a very similar distribution across Trait EI total scores and factor scores, indicating that response bias is unlikely from high Trait EI fathers, see Appendix 5.

9.5 CONCLUSIONS

This thesis examined the psychosocial factors affecting work and family in fathers using Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 2005) Bioecosystem theory as a framework for statistical models. The influence of the work microsystem on the family is a strong one, particularly for fathers, and biosystem variables also show a significant moderate influence. Fathers' working patterns were examined and found to be showing some change, but with evidence that working patterns which maintain full-time income are favoured by fathers. The relative influences of biosystem and microsystem factors showed that biosystem variables, particularly Trait EI, need to be included in future statistical models examining work-family conflict. For fathers, work microsystem variables such as job demands, control and support continue to have most influence over the work interfering with family dimension of conflict, whilst the Trait EI biosystem variable shows most influence on the strain work-family conflict dimension rather than the time or behaviour dimensions. Policy implications of these findings include the importance of including fathers in employment, family and equal opportunity related policy, particularly in the area of parental leave, work-life balance, working hours and flexible working. Practical implications for employers include assessing their workforce for work-family issues and ensuring that fathers are included, explicitly and implicitly, in any provision for working parents. Practical implications for fathers are

that if they take steps to improve their emotional competencies they are likely to reap benefits in the easier management of their work-family lives.

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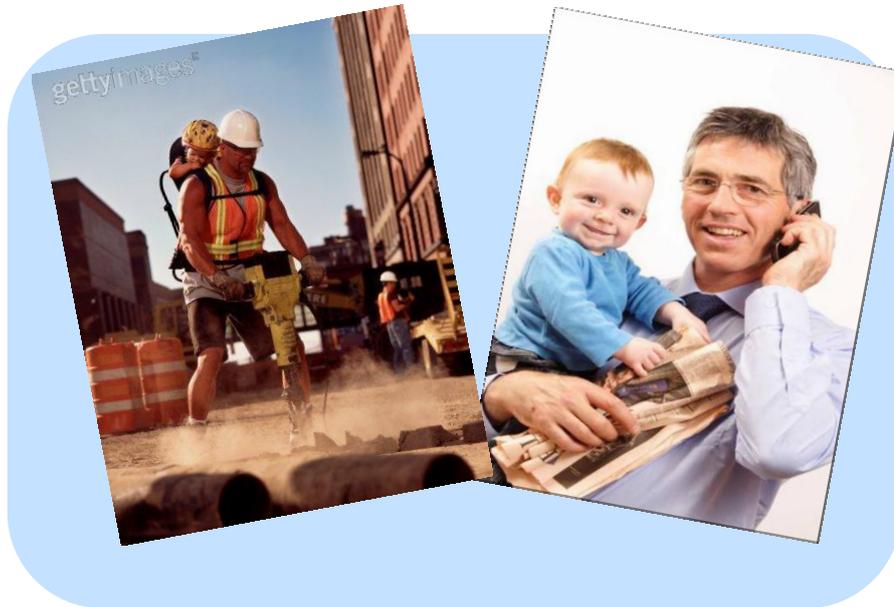
APPENDIX 1 – STUDY 3 - FATHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE⁴⁰

⁴⁰ This questionnaire was produced in a A5 booklet for fathers accessed via schools. The same questions were included in the online questionnaire using Survey Monkey

Dads wanted:

Your views on work and family life

Fathers' Questionnaire



Researchers at UEA are carrying out a study of fathers' experience of work and family life

Please complete this questionnaire and return to Laura Biggart in the Freepost envelope provided

If you do not wish to take part, please return the blank questionnaire to the school for re-use – thank you

Centre for Research on the Child and Family,
Elizabeth Fry Building,
Faculty of Social Sciences
University of East Anglia, NR4 7TJ

Fathers, Work and Family Life Survey

What the project is about

This project wants to find out more about fathers, work and family so that men and employers will understand fathers' needs better. You will be asked a number of questions about your family, your work, fathering and about handling emotions.

It's confidential

The data from this survey will be used for publications and only the researcher has access to the data. Your child's school WILL NOT see your questionnaire. The information provided by you is anonymous and the data will be kept confidential and secure.

Filling in the questionnaire

Taking part is voluntary and you can withdraw from the study at any time. It will take about 25 minutes. At the end of the survey, you will have information and support about maintaining work-family balance.

If you want to take part, please enter a nickname below (for your reference if you want to withdraw from the study later). It allows the researcher to identify your data but still keeps your data anonymous.

Please tick the box below to before filling it in, thank you.

Nickname (up to 8 letters/numbers)

(Please make a note of your nickname as it is for your use if you want to withdraw your data at any time.)

If you have questions about this project, please e-mail:

LAURA BIGGART l.biggart@uea.ac.uk or phone 01603-593632

Section 1 - About you & your family

1. What age are you?

2. Which of the following BEST describes your current living situation?

(Please circle one option)

I live with my spouse/partner and my/their/our children

I live with my children only

I live on my own

I live with my partner only

Other (please specify below)

3. Please select the HIGHEST level of academic qualification that you have obtained.

(Please circle one option)

'O' Levels/CSE/GCSE

'A' Level/'AS' Level

First degree (BSc, BA, HND, HNC)

Higher degree (Msc, MA, MBA, PGCE, PhD)

Any vocational qualifications (e.g. NVQ, BTEC, HND)

other academic qualifications

No academic qualifications

5. What is your average annual income before tax?

6. What is your average annual HOUSEHOLD income before tax?

7. To which of these groups do you consider you belong?

(Please circle one option)

White British

White Irish

Other white background

White and Black African

White and Black Caribbean

White and Asian

Any other mixed background

Chinese

Pakistani

Indian

Bangladeshi

Any other Asian background

Caribbean

African

Any other black background

Any other ethnic group

8. For each child who lives with you, please indicate your parental status. (please tick in relevant box)

	Age of child. Please state months or years	YOUR child only	Your partner's child only	Yours AND you partner's child	Other child (e.g. fostered/ adopted)
1 st child					
2 nd child					
3 rd child					
4 th child					
5 th child					

9. How many children do you have that do not live with you?

10. How many children that you have live with you some of the time?

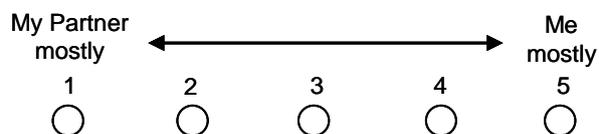
11. In your family, who has the main responsibility for the children's care and upbringing?

(Please circle one option)

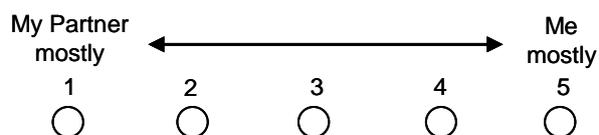
- My partner has the main responsibility
- My partner has somewhat more responsibility than me
- We share responsibility
- I have somewhat more responsibility
- I have the main responsibility

12. In your family, how is children's care shared between you and your partner? (Please circle one option for each item)

12.a. Who prepares food for your child/ren?



12.b. Who takes the child/ren to appointments? (doctor/dentist etc)



12.c. Who plays with the child/ren?

My Partner mostly ←————→ Me mostly

1 2 3 4 5

12.d. Who takes the child/ren to activities?

My Partner mostly ←————→ Me mostly

1 2 3 4 5

12.e. Who puts the child/ren to bed at night?

My Partner mostly ←————→ Me mostly

1 2 3 4 5

12.f. Who comforts the child/ren when they are upset?

My Partner mostly ←————→ Me mostly

1 2 3 4 5

12.g. Who talks to the child/ren? (not counting instructions/telling them what to do)

My Partner mostly ←————→ Me mostly

1 2 3 4 5

13. On average how many hours per day do you undertake childcare/spend time with your child/ren?
Please put estimate for a workday and a non-work day in box.

Average hours spent on a workday	
Average hours spent on a non-workday	

14. Is your partner in paid employment?

(Please circle one option)

Yes

No

If yes, please state type of job_____

15. Does your partner work...

(Please circle one option)

Full-time (more than 30hrs per week)?

Part-time?

16. On average, how many hours does your partner USUALLY work per week in their job, INCLUDING overtime, but EXCLUDING commuting time?

(Please state average number of hours per week)

Section 2 - Importance of work and family

Please answer the following questions about the importance to you of your work and your family below. (Tick one option for each item)

I am very much personally involved in my family

Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unsure	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
-------------------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	--------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	----------------	--------------------------

The major satisfaction in my life comes from work

Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unsure	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
-------------------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	--------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	----------------	--------------------------

The most important things that happen to me involve my work

Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unsure	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
-------------------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	--------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	----------------	--------------------------

The major satisfaction in my life comes from my family

Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unsure	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
-------------------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	--------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	----------------	--------------------------

I am very much personally involved with my work

Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unsure	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
-------------------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	--------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	----------------	--------------------------

The most important things that happen to me involve my family

Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unsure	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
-------------------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	--------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	----------------	--------------------------

Section 3 - About work

How are you currently employed?

(Please circle one option)

Permanent contract

Temporary contract

Fixed-term contract

Self-employed

Don't know

Other (please state) _____

How many people work in your organisation? (Approximately)

(Please circle one option)

Small (under 250 people)

Medium (251 - 999 people)

Large (1000 plus people)

Don't know

What is the ratio of male employees to female employees where you work? (roughly, e.g. 50:50, 70:30)

Do you work for the ...

(Please circle one option)

Public sector?

Private sector?

Voluntary sector?

Other (please specify)

Please state your type of job below

What level do you work at in your organisation?

(Please circle one option)

Senior management

Middle management

Supervisory

Other (please specify) _____

If you manage or supervise any staff please state how many staff below.

In your main job do you work any of these working patterns? (Please tick relevant box)

	Yes	No	Some- times	Don't know
Full-time (more than 30hrs per week)				
Part-time (less than 30hrs per week)				
Flexitime				
A compressed working week ⁴¹				
Annualised hrs ⁴²				
Shift work				
School term time only				
Job share				
Work from home				

9. If you work shifts please outline your usual shiftwork pattern below, including monthly, weekly and hourly patterns.

10. For each of the working patterns listed that you work, please state reasons for working this way. (Please tick relevant box)

	Have no usual place of work	The family home is some distance away from work	Childcare needs	Caring needs of relatives, friends or neighbours	Demands of the job	Get more work done/is more efficient	Other (please Specify)	Not Applicable
Full-time								
Part-time								
Flexitime								
Compressed working week								
Annualised hrs								
Shift work								
School term time only								
Job share								
Work from home								

⁴¹ e.g. working a 40hr week over 4 days

⁴² i.e. You have annual working hours, e.g. 37hrs per week x 52 weeks to give total annual hrs. These hrs can then vary weekly, as long as the total is reached by year end.

Section 4 - Working Hours

1. In your main job do you have fixed hours of work each week (excluding overtime) outlined in your terms and conditions of employment?

(Please circle one option)

Yes

No

Don't know

1.a. If YES, how many hours per week are you meant to work in your contract?

1.b. If NO, how many hours are you expected to work per week by your employer/yourself, if self-employed?

2. On average, how many hours do you USUALLY work per week in your job, including overtime, but excluding commuting time?

(Please state average number of hours per week)

4. In the past 12 months, how often have you worked more than 48 hrs per week? (please circle one option)

Every week

2 or 3 times a month

Once a month

Less than once a month

Never

4. When you work over and above your fixed hours of work are you....

Paid extra

Given time off in lieu

Neither

5. If you get time off in lieu, do you usually take it? (Please circle one option)

Yes

No

N/A

Section 5 - Flexible Working & Leave

1. How much annual leave do you get? Not including Bank Holidays. (Please state in days per year)

2. In the last 12 months have you taken ALL of your annual leave? (Please circle one option)

Yes

No

2.a. If No, how many days did you have left?

2.b. If you didn't manage to take your annual leave, please state your reason for not doing so below.

3. If it proved necessary would your employer allow you to take the following? (If self-employed go to Q5).

(Please tick relevant box)

	Yes	No	Don't know
Paternity leave			
Time off to look after the children at short notice			
Career break			
Time off for other caring needs			

4. If you were to take such leave, would this be fully paid, partly paid or unpaid?

(Please tick relevant box)

	Paid	Unpaid	Partly paid	Don't know
Paternity leave				
Time off to look after the children at short notice				
Career break				
Time off for other caring needs				

5. Over the last 12 months and whilst you were in your current job have you made use of... (Please tick relevant box)

	Yes	No	Don't know
Paternity leave			
Time off to look after the children at short notice			
Career break			
Time off for other caring needs			

6. If you took time off to look after children, what form of leave/time off did you use?

8. Please indicate your level of satisfaction with the following aspects of your current job. (Please tick relevant box)

	Very satisfied	Fairly satisfied	Neither	Fairly dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Don't know
Your job overall						
The hours you work						
The flexibility over when you can work your hours						
The provision of leave for childcare						
The extent to which you can balance your work and non-work interests						

9. Do you think that in your current situation any of the following could adversely affect your career progression?

(Please tick relevant box)

	Yes	No	Don't know
Needing to leave work on time			
Needing more flexibility in when you work your normal hours			
Taking extended leave to care for children			

Section 6 - Work Family Balance

Please answer each statement below about work and family giving your level of agreement with each item. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers.

(Please tick relevant box)

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

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

2. The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

3. I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

5. The time I spend on family responsibilities often interferes with my work responsibilities.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

5. The time I spend with my family often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

6. I have to miss work tasks due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

7. When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

8. I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to family life.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

9. Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home, I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

10. Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

10. Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

12. Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

13. The problem-solving behaviours I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

14. Behaviour that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

15. The behaviours I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and partner.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

16. The behaviours that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

17. Behaviour that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

18. The problem-solving behaviour that works for me at home does not seem to be as useful at work.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

19. What is the most important change, if any, YOU would like to make AT WORK or AT HOME to help you better balance work and family life?

Section 7 - About your job

Please answer the questions below about what you think about your job. Please tick the relevant box.

1. My job requires working very fast

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

2. My job requires working very hard

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

3. I am not asked to do an excessive amount of work

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

4. I have enough time to get the job done

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

5. I am free from conflicting demands that others make

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

6. My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

7. In my job, I have very little freedom to decide how I do my work

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

8. I have a lot of say about what happens on my job

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

9. My job requires that I learn new things

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

10. My job involves a lot of repetitive work

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

11. My job requires me to be creative

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

12. My job requires a high level of skill (e.g. dexterity, knowledge, interpersonal)

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

13. I get to do a variety of different things on my job

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

14. I have an opportunity to develop my own special abilities

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

Section 8 - Support at work and from partner

Please answer the questions below about what you think about the support you receive. Please tick the relevant box.

1. In general, managers in this organization are quite accommodating of family related needs.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree		N/A	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--	-----	--

2. My supervisor accommodates me when I have family business to take care of.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree		N/A	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--	-----	--

3. How supportive would your close work colleagues be to you adjusting your work pattern for your children?

Not at all supportive		Not supportive		Unsure		Supportive		Very Supportive		N/A	
-----------------------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	------------	--	-----------------	--	-----	--

4. My partner is willing to listen to my work problems.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree		N/A	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--	-----	--

5. My partner provides me with information/advice that helps me with work issues.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree		N/A	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--	-----	--

6. My partner praises me for my accomplishments at work.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree		N/A	
-------------------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--	----------------	--	-----	--

Section 10 - Example of managing work and family life

Please could you give a description below of an example of managing your work and family life that proved difficult to handle. Please state what happened and what YOU did in this situation. Thank you. Please continue on a separate sheet if necessary.

1. What happened?

2. What were the circumstances leading up to that event?

3. Exactly what did you do?

4. How did people at work respond?

5. How did your family respond?

6. Looking back on the event, what are your lasting feelings of the way you handled it? Would you change anything you did?

Section 11 - Feelings in last week

This section lists a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Please indicate to what extent you have felt this way during the past week by ticking in the relevant box.

	Not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
Interested	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Distressed	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Excited	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Upset	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Strong	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Guilty	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Scared	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Hostile	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Enthusiastic	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Proud	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Irritable	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Alert	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Ashamed	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Inspired	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Nervous	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Determined	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Attentive	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Jittery	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Active	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Afraid	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Is there anything else you would like to say about the topic of fathers, work and family life? (please continue on a separate sheet if necessary)

In the future we may wish to interview parents on work and family life. If you or your partner would like to take part in an interview please leave your email or contact number below.

Finished!

Thank you very much for taking part in this survey, we appreciate the time you have spent.

Please send the completed questionnaire back to me using the FREEPOST envelope provided.

A summary of findings from the study will be available on the website sometime in late spring 2010.

www.fathersworkfamilyresearch.co.uk

You will find further information on the topics of fathers, work and family life via the websites and organisations listed overleaf for you to tear off and keep.

THANK YOU FOR TAKING PART.

Laura Biggart
Researcher,
Centre for Research on the Child and Family,
Elizabeth Fry Building,
Faculty of Social Sciences,
UEA
Tel: 01603-593632
Email: **l.biggart@uea.ac.uk**

Further information (to remove and keep)

Listed below are some useful links for you as a father, worker or employer.

Work and family

Fatherhood Institute

The national information centre on fatherhood with news, training information, policy updates, research summaries and guides for supporting fathers and their families.

<http://www.fatherhoodinstitute.org> Tel: 0845 634 1328

Working Families

The UK's leading work-life balance organisation. To help and give a voice to working parents and carers, whilst also helping employers create workplaces which encourage work-life balance for everyone.

<http://www.workingfamilies.org.uk> Tel: 020 7253 7243

The Parent's Centre

Information and support for parents on how to help with your child's learning, including advice on choosing a school and finding childcare.

<http://www.parentscentre.gov.uk> Tel: 0870 000 2288

The Trade Union Congress (TUC)

Gives employers and unions practical guidance to achieve a better work-life balance in the workplace.

http://www.tuc.org.uk/work_life Tel: 020 7636 4030

Creating more balance

Promotes flexible working and childcare options. Although the project is geographically focused on North Yorkshire and has ended, the site still has useful factsheets.

<http://www.cmb.org.uk/> Tel: 01302 862125

The Daycare Trust

The national childcare charity promoting high quality affordable childcare for all.

<http://www.daycaretrust.org.uk/> Tel: 020 7840 3350

Support

Baby centre

Advice for Mums and Dads pre-birth during pregnancy, the transition to becoming a Dad, through the toddler years. Also has a Dads forum.

<http://www.babycentre.co.uk> Tel: 01603 450977

Millstones and Milestones

Offer help in Stress Management or Work Life Balance, some free online work life balance tools.

<http://www.millstonesandmilestones.com> Tel: 01502 471766

National Work Stress Network

Aims to raise awareness of the negative affects of work related stress and also campaigns to reduce work stress.

<http://www.workstress.net> Tel: 07966 196033

BBC advice on dealing with stress

http://www.bbc.co.uk/health/conditions/mental_health/coping_stress.shtml

BBC advice on work family balance

http://www.bbc.co.uk/parenting/work/betterbalance_index.shtml

MIND

The leading mental health charity in England and Wales.

<http://www.mind.org.uk> Tel: 0845 766 0163

APPENDIX 2 - DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF FATHERS ACROSS ALL STUDIES

TABLE 46 FATHERS' AGE

Fathers' age	Study 1		Study 2	Study 3
	WLB3	M&P		
Mean age (yrs)	41	35	39	40
Age Range (yrs)	20 – 62	17 - 67	26 – 49	23 – 57
SD (yrs)	7	6	5.5	6
n	193	1512	33	179

TABLE 47 NUMBER OF CO-RESIDENT CHILDREN

No. of children	Study 1		Study 2	Study 3
	WLB3	M&P		
Mode	2 (49%)	2 (48%)	1 (88%)	2 (56%)
Range	1 - 6	2 - 10	1 - 3	1 - 4

TABLE 48 MEAN CHILD AGE

Age of first child	Study 1		Study 2	Study 3
	WLB3	M&P ⁴³		
Mean age (yrs)	10	6	4	7.5
Range (yrs)	0 ⁴⁴ – 18	1 - 18	2 mths – 11 yrs	1 - 16
SD (yrs)	5	3	3	3

TABLE 49 PROPORTION OF CO-RESIDENT CHILDREN UNDER 6 YEARS

Fathers with children U6	Study 1		Study 2	Study 3
	WLB3	M&P		
%	30	52	79	39
n	53	662	26	69

⁴³ Child age calculated using mothers' data for M&P

⁴⁴ 0 = less than 12 months

TABLE 50 ORGANISATION SECTOR

Sector	Study 1				Study 2		Study 3	
	WLB3		M&P		%	n	%	n
	%	n	%	n				
Public	27	52	34	417	77	25	38	65
Private	73	142	64	798	23	8	55	94
Voluntary			1	5	0	0	2	3
Other			1	12	0	0	6	9
Total	100	194	100	1232	100	33	101*	172

* Due to rounding

TABLE 51 OCCUPATION

Occupation type (NS SEC)	Study 1				Study 2		Study 3	
	WLB3		M&P ⁴⁵		%	n	%	n
	%	n	%	n				
Managers, Senior Professionals & Professional Occupations %	57	113	41	516	58	19	58	95
Non managers/non- professional Occupations %	43	69	59	753	42	14	42	69
Total	100	182	100	1269	100	33	100	164

TABLE 52 CONTRACT TYPE

Contract type	Study 1				Study 2		Study 3	
	WLB3		M&P ⁴⁶		%	n	%	n
	%	n	%	n				
Permanent	95	185	84	1179	94	31	82	149
Fixed Term	4	7	3	43	3	1	1	2
Temporary	1	2	1	16	3	1	1	2
Self employed	0	0	12	172	0	0	16	28
Total	100	194	100	1410	100	33	100	181

⁴⁵ Calculated using Q49c – managerial responsibility⁴⁶ Based on employment before birth of child

TABLE 53 WORKING PATTERN

Father's working pattern	Study 1				Study 2		Study 3	
	WLB3		M&P ⁴⁷		%	n	%	n
	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
Full-time %	95	5	80	303	94	31	97	171
Part-time %	195	9	20	1209	6	2	3	6
Total	100	204	100	1512	100	33	100	177

TABLE 54 HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYMENT STATUS

Household parental employment status	Study 1		Study 2		Study 3	
	%	n	%	n	%	n
Both parents F-T %			21	7	18	30
Father F-T/ Partner P-T %			49	16	51	87
Father F-T/ Partner not in paid work %			24	8	28	47
Father P-T/ Partner P-T%			6	2	2	3
Father P-T / Partner F-T			0	0	1	2
Father P-T/ Partner not in paid work			0	0	1	1
Total			100	33	100	170

TABLE 55 HOUSEHOLD PARENTAL WORK PATTERN

Household parental work pattern	Study 1 WLB3		Study 2		Study 3	
	%	n	%	n	%	n
Partner in paid employment %	67	131	76	25	72	129
Partner not in paid employment %	33	64	24	8	28	50
Total	100	195	100	33	100	179

⁴⁷ Employment status before birth of child

TABLE 56 FATHERS' AND HOUSEHOLD MEAN WORK HOURS PER WEEK

Fathers' mean work hours (per wk) mean	Study 1		Study 2		Study 3			
	WLB3	M&P48	m	SD	m	SD		
Fathers' mean work hours	46	9	46	11	39	7	44	10
Joint parental ave work hours (pr wk) mean					57	15	66	14
Work hours National average - fathers (LFS 2007)	42				42		42	

TABLE 57 COMPARISON OF PARTICIPANTS TO REGIONAL AND NATIONAL POPULATIONS

Males	Study 2 n33	Study 3 n196	LFS – local district level male	National male
Income £ (Median) 2008 ⁴⁹	not collected	30000	21590	27300
Employment activity rate % 2008			79	83
Working hours (per week) full-time ⁵⁰	39	44	38.9 (2008)	39 (2008)

⁴⁸ Work hours per week before the birth of the child⁴⁹ (Office for National Statistics, 2008)⁵⁰ (Office for National Statistics, 2008)

TABLE 58. COMPARISON OF PARTICIPANTS TO REGIONAL AND NATIONAL POPULATIONS

Qualification levels (ONS 2008) ⁵¹	Equivalent quals from Study 3	Frequency	Study 3 %	Males 2008 National %
none	No qualifications	7	4	11
1	Any vocational qualifications (NVQ, BTEC, HND)	31	16	17
2	O levels/CSE/GCSE	47	25	19
3	A Level/AS Level	32	17	22
4 to 6	First Degree (BSc, BA, HND, HNC)	34	18	23
7 to 8	Higher Degree (MSc, MA, MBA, PGCE, PhD)	39	20	7
Total		190	100	99*

*Due to rounding

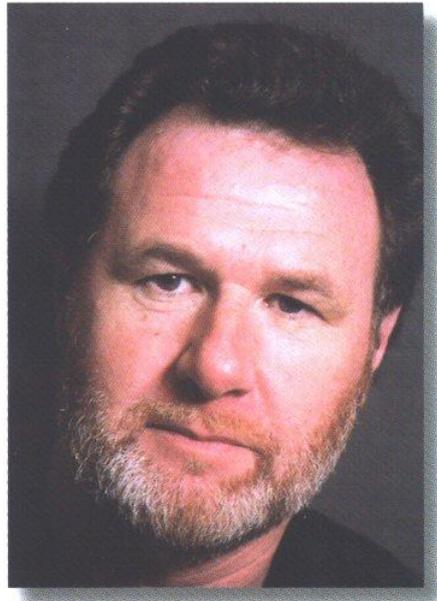
⁵¹ (Department for Innovation Universities and Skills, 2008)

APPENDIX 3 - THE MSCEITV2 TEST ITEMS – EXAMPLES FROM EACH BRANCH⁵²

Branch 1 – Identifying emotions

SECTION A

1.



Instructions: How much is each feeling below expressed by this face?

(Please select a response for each item.)

1. No happiness	1	2	3	4	5	Extreme happiness
2. No fear	1	2	3	4	5	Extreme fear
3. No surprise	1	2	3	4	5	Extreme surprise
4. No disgust	1	2	3	4	5	Extreme disgust
5. No excitement	1	2	3	4	5	Extreme excitement

⁵² The MSCEIT test is copyright. Only a selection of the test items have been reproduced here. The test can be purchased for commercial and discounted research use from MHS Systems.

Branch 1 – identifying emotions

SECTION E

1.



Instructions: How much is each feeling below expressed by this picture?
 (Please select a response for each item.)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Happiness					
2. Sadness					
3. Fear					
4. Anger					
5. Disgust					

Branch 2 – Using emotions to facilitate thought

SECTION B

Instructions: Please select a response for each item.

1. What mood(s) might be helpful to feel when creating new, exciting decorations for a birthday party?

	Not Useful			Useful	
a. annoyance	1	2	3	4	5
b. boredom	1	2	3	4	5
c. joy	1	2	3	4	5

2. What mood(s) might be helpful to feel when composing an inspiring military march?

	Not Useful			Useful	
a. anger	1	2	3	4	5
b. excitement	1	2	3	4	5
c. frustration	1	2	3	4	5

3. What mood(s) might be helpful to feel when following a very complicated, demanding, cooking recipe?

	Not Useful			Useful	
a. tension	1	2	3	4	5
b. sorrow	1	2	3	4	5
c. neutral mood	1	2	3	4	5

4. What mood(s) might be helpful to feel when figuring out what caused a fight among three young children? Each of the three young children is telling a different story about how the fight started. Figuring out what happened requires attending to the details of the stories and weighing many facts.

	Not Useful			Useful	
a. happiness	1	2	3	4	5
b. surprise	1	2	3	4	5
c. sadness	1	2	3	4	5

Branch 2 – Using emotions to facilitate thought

SECTION G

Instructions: Select the best alternative for each of these questions.

1. **A feeling of concern most closely combines the emotions of _____.**
 - a. love, anxiety, surprise, anger
 - b. surprise, pride, anger, fear
 - c. acceptance, anxiety, fear, anticipation
 - d. fear, joy, surprise, embarrassment
 - e. anxiety, caring, anticipation

2. **Another word for “consistently anticipating pleasure” is _____.**
 - a. optimism
 - b. happiness
 - c. contentment
 - d. joy
 - e. surprise

3. **Acceptance, joy, and warmth often combine to form _____.**
 - a. love
 - b. amazement
 - c. anticipation
 - d. contentment
 - e. acceptance

4. **Combining the feelings of disgust and anger results in _____.**
 - a. guilt
 - b. rage
 - c. shame
 - d. hatred
 - e. contempt

5. **A sad surprise leads to _____.**
 - a. disappointment
 - b. amazement
 - c. anger
 - d. fear
 - e. regret

Branch 3 – Understanding emotion

5. What mood(s) might be helpful for a doctor to feel when selecting a treatment plan for a patient with a cancerous tumor? The doctor must apply several known, but conflicting, principles in the treatment of the tumor.

	Not Useful			Useful	
a. happiness	1	2	3	4	5
b. neutral mood	1	2	3	4	5
c. anger and defiance	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C

Instructions: Select the best alternative for each of these questions.

- Marjorie felt more and more ashamed, and began to feel worthless. She then felt _____.**

 - overwhelmed
 - depressed
 - ashamed
 - self-conscious
 - jittery
- Kenji felt content as he thought of his life, and the more he thought about the good things he had done and the joy his acts had brought to others, the more he felt _____.**

 - surprised
 - depressed
 - acceptance
 - happiness
 - amazement
- Natalie had never been more surprised in her life. But as she recovered a bit from the shock of the loss and realized she could gain some advantage from the situation if she planned carefully, she became _____.**

 - amazed
 - confused
 - denying of the situation
 - expectant
 - pensive

Branch 3 – Understanding emotion

SECTION H

Instructions: Please select an answer for every response.

1. John developed a close friend at work over the last year. Today, that friend completely surprised him by saying he had taken a job at another company and would be moving out of the area. He had not mentioned he was looking for other jobs. How effective would John be in maintaining a good relationship, if he chose to respond in each of the following ways?

Response 1: John felt good for him and told his friend that he was glad he got the new job. Over the next few weeks, John made arrangements to ensure they stayed in touch.

a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

Response 2: John felt sad that his friend was leaving, but he considered what happened as an indication that the friend did not much care for him. After all, the friend said nothing about his job search. Given that his friend was leaving anyway, John did not mention it, but instead went looking for other friends at work.

a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

Response 3: John was very angry that his friend hadn't said anything. John showed his disapproval by deciding to ignore his friend until the friend said something about what he had done. John thought that if his friend didn't say anything, it would confirm John's opinion that the friend was not worth talking to.

a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

2. Roy's teacher has just called Roy's parents to say that Roy is doing poorly in school. The teacher tells Roy's parents that their son isn't paying attention, is being disruptive, and can't sit still. This particular teacher doesn't do well with active boys, and Roy's parents wonder what's really going on. Then, the teacher says that their son will be left back unless he improves. The parents feel very angry. How helpful to their son is each of these reactions?

Response 1: The parents told the teacher that this was a big shock to them since this was the first time they had ever heard there was a problem. They asked to meet with the teacher and also requested if the principal could attend the meeting.

a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

Response 2: The parents told the teacher that if she continued to threaten to have their son repeat the grade, they would take it up with the principal. They said "if our son is left back, we will hold you personally responsible. You are the teacher and your job is to teach, not to blame the student."

a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

Response 3: Roy's parents hung up on the teacher and called the principal. They complained about the teacher's threats and asked that their son be moved to a different classroom.

a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

Branch 4 – Managing emotions

SECTION D

Instructions: Please select an answer for every action.

1. **Mara woke up feeling pretty well. She had slept well, felt well rested, and had no particular cares or concerns. How well would each action help her preserve her mood?**

Action 1: She got up and enjoyed the rest of the day.

- a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

Action 2: Mara enjoyed the feeling, and decided to think about and appreciate all the things that were going well for her.

- a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

Action 3: She decided it was best to ignore the feeling since it wouldn't last anyway.

- a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

Action 4: She used the positive feeling to call her mother, who had been depressed, and tried to cheer her up.

- a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

2. **Andrew works as hard, if not harder, than one of his colleagues. In fact, his ideas are usually better at getting positive results for the company. His colleague does a mediocre job but engages in office politics so as to get ahead. So, when Andrew's boss announces that the annual merit award is being given to this colleague, Andrew is very angry. How effective would each action be in helping Andrew feel better?**

Action 1: Andrew sat down and thought about all of the good things in his life and his work.

- a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

Action 2: Andrew made a list of the positive and negative traits of his colleague.

- a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

Action 3: Andrew felt terrible that he felt that way, and he told himself that it wasn't right to be so upset over an event not under his control.

- a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

Action 4: Andrew decided to tell people just what a poor job his colleague had done, and that he did not deserve the merit award. Andrew gathered memos and notes to prove his point, so it wasn't just his word.

- a. Very ineffective b. Somewhat ineffective c. Neutral d. Somewhat effective e. Very effective

APPENDIX 4 – GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Ability emotional intelligence	Purported to be a cognitive ability in relation to emotion. A set of hierarchical emotional competencies grouped into four areas of Perceiving emotion; using emotion for decision making; understanding emotion and managing emotion in self and others.
Annualised hours	Contractual hours per week are multiplied over 52 weeks to give annual figure. These hours can be completed flexibly over the 52 weeks (suits seasonal work)
Bioecological model	Life course development model proposed by Bronfenbrenner (1979), which emphasises the reciprocal connections between systems (see below)
Biosystem	The dispositional characteristics of the individual which generate differential responses from the environment
Breadwinner role	Role, usually father within family, which emphasises the importance of financial provision
Compressed working week	Contractual hours are fitted into less than five day week. e.g. 37 hrs over four days
Exosystem	The influence of significant others' Microsystems on an individual's microsystem e.g. partners' work, children's school
FIW	Family interfering with work direction of conflict
Flexible working	Usually refers to working options which differ from Monday-Friday, 9-5 working week, see examples listed.
Flextime	Core work hours usually 10am – 4pm, around these hours can be flexible as long as contractual hours are fulfilled
Full-time employment	Employment which is over 30 hours per week
Gender equity	Usually refers to attitudes which favour the equal distribution of household labour, childcare and employment across both mother and father
Job share	Employment which shares a full-time post, usually half the post's hours for each job share partner with a cross over period of working together.

Long working hours	Over 48 hours per week (EU definition)
Macrosystem	The infrastructure which sets the legal, cultural and historical context in which the other systems operate
Mesosystem	The individual's group of Microsystems and their interaction
Microsystem	The individual's immediate and close network relations, e.g. family, work
Parental leave	13 weeks' unpaid parental leave for each of an individual parent's children up until their fifth birthday to look after their child or make arrangements for their welfare
Part-time employment	Employment which is under 30 hours per week
Paternity leave	Up to two weeks statutory paid leave for fathers to be taken upon the birth of their child. Pay at 90% of earnings or £123 per week, whichever is less.
Shift work	Contractual hours are completed over varied shifts over 24 hour periods, which may vary week to week, but usually within a rotating rota system
Term-time working	Contractual hours fitted in during school terms (usually a part-time option)
Trait emotional intelligence	Purported to be a personality trait which reflects the affective sides of personality and as such trait EI is the dispositional (typical) tendency for behaviour in relation to emotional experiences across four areas: well-being; emotionality; self-control and sociability
WFC	Work-family conflict – characterised as role conflict of time, strain and behaviour between demands of two domains
Weekly work hours	Usually includes overtime and excludes commuting time
WIF	Work interfering with family direction of conflict

APPENDIX 5 – WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND TRAIT EI NORMS

TABLE 59 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT LEVELS – COMPARISON OF STUDY 2 & 3 SAMPLES WITH CARLSON ET AL 2000 (N83 MALES)

Type of work-family conflict	Mean score – Carlson et al 2000 n83	Mean score – Study 2 n33	Mean score Study 3 n179
Time WIF	2.91	2.96	3.20
Time FIW	1.77	2.49	2.28
Strain WIF	2.45	2.72	2.85
Strain FIW	1.71	2.38	1.94
Behaviour WIF	2.43	2.96	2.90
Behaviour FIW	2.36	2.89	2.90

TABLE 60 WIF AND FIW MEAN SCORES – COMPARISON OF STUDY 2 & 3 SAMPLES WITH CARLSON ET AL 2000 (N83 MALES)

Direction of work-family conflict	Mean score – Carlson et al 2000 n83	Mean score – Study 2 n33	Mean score Study 3 n179
WIF	2.60	2.88	2.98
FIW	1.95	2.59	2.37

TABLE 61 TRAIT EI SCORES FOR STUDIES 2 & 3 COMPARED TO MALE NORM SCORES (Petrides, 2009)

Trait EI factor	Norm scores n1721		Study 2 n32		Study 3 n179	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Total EI	4.95	.61	4.9	.86	4.95	.77
Self control	4.69	.74	4.6	1.0	4.8	1.0
Emotionality	4.92	.73	4.9	1.1	4.7	.95
Sociability	5.04	.76	5.0	.95	4.8	.98
Well being	5.28	.83	5.1	1.1	5.47	.97

APPENDIX 6 – RECODED VARIABLES FROM THE THIRD WORK-LIFE BALANCE SURVEY 2006

See Latreille & Latreille (2008). The Third Work Life Balance Survey: Technical Report for original questions and recodes. Don't know and other responses were coded as missing.

Variable	Description	WLB 2006 employee's survey – Q no.	Derived variable	Notes
Usual working hours per week	Working hours in main job including overtime but not commute time	Q.B05	Q.B05	
Earnings (Gross) (using hourly pay)	Earnings	Q.Z7a(i) (ii), Q.Z7b (i) (ii), Q.Z7c (i) (iii)	HOURPAY3	(Derived from weekly pay (z07c1) divided by B05 – usual hrs)
Level of educational qualification	GCSE/CSE grades 2-5/O Levels A Levels Below degree qual/vocational Degree Higher degree	Q.Z2	EDUDUM	No quals/gcse/other vs. Voc/A level/degree/higher degree
Fatherhood status	Father = with dependent children 0-16 years, co-resident and 16-18 years in FTE Non-fathers = no dependent children	FAHTFT Derived from WORKGENDER and GENPARENT	CUPFTFA2 Couple, full-time fathers & full-time non father.	
Work status	Full-time = over 30hrs per week Part-time = under 30hrs per week	Revised original full-time definition which used B04 contracted hours to derive full-time variable by using B05 (more data, increases fathers' N)		
Partner status	Living with partner	Q.Z01		

Variable	Description	WLB 2006 employee's survey – Q no.	Derived variable	Notes
Age of child	Fathers with infant children (under 6 years) Fathers with children 7-18yrs (Constant non-father)	Q.A04	under6, over6.	Derived from CUPFTA2 and YOUNGCHILD
Occupational category	Professional/ managerial vs. Operatives and unskilled, services and sales, clerical and skilled manual (NB: only 2 –way category in Dermott 2006)	Q.Y04	RECODE y04x into PROFDUM	
Partner status	Partner is in paid employment/ partner is not in paid employment (Constant no partner)	Z.05	Partner 1 (works) / Partner 2 (does not work)	

APPENDIX 7 – PARENT’S LETTER ACCOMPANYING QUESTIONNAIRE

7 July 2008

Dear Parent,

Fathers, Work and Family Research

This questionnaire is part of research funded by the University of East Anglia looking at fathers and their experience of managing work and family life.

I am seeking working fathers as participants and would greatly appreciate your taking part in this research. I understand that not all families have fathers at home for a number of reasons and I apologise if this survey raises this issue.

There is no obligation to take part; blank booklets can be returned via the school.

If you have any queries about this study, please don’t hesitate to contact me.

Yours sincerely,

Laura Biggart

Researcher

Email: l.biggart@uea.ac.uk

Telephone: 01603 593632