AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

_____ Christene R. Buchanan _____ for the _____ Master of Science _____

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Title: How Work-Family Conflict Relates to Marital Satisfaction and Child Development

Abstract approved: _____

This study examined the relationship between the presence of work-family conflict and

child development, analyzing the intervening variable of marital satisfaction. Participants

were 38 married individuals with at least one child between the ages of six and eighteen.

Participants were given a questionnaire containing two Work-Family Conflict scales, a

Child Development Survey, and the Quality of Marriage Index in addition to a sampling

of demographics. Significant correlational results indicated as the level of work-family

conflict increased, both marital satisfaction and child development decreased. In

addition, correlations found one child development construct predicts children experience

fewer problems with their social development as parents have a more satisfactory

marriage. However, marital satisfaction was not a significant intervening variable

between work-family conflict and child development.

HOW WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT RELATES TO MARITAL SATISFACTION AND

CHILD DEVELOPMENT

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A Thesis

Presented to the Department of Psychology

EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY

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In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

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by

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Approved for the Department of Psychology

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School and Distance Education

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Work-family conflict is a growing predicament in America. Williams and

Boushey (2010) with the Center for American Progress note that in the United States,

workers log more hours and have fewer laws supporting their rights than anywhere else

in similarly developed countries. In the last 20 years, such conflict has produced a large

amount of research looking at work-family conflict and corresponding negative outcomes

for individuals and organizations. As a working mother, I also noticed the dearth of

research for work-family conflict and how it relates to interactions within the family,

specifically parenting roles. I felt given the existing literature, there would be an

interconnected relationship between work-family conflict and the family dimensions of

marital satisfaction and child development.

Unfortunately, little research exists analyzing the permeability of work-family

conflict on child development. Although a number of anecdotal references indicate

negative parenting behaviors originating from work family conflict may impact the

children (Halpern, 2005), minimal systematic research exists to support these claims.

Thus, the purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship work-family conflict has

on the dynamics of marital quality and child development.

Review of the Literature

In the original days of an agrarian society, work and family were not two separate

concepts. Instead, families worked together side-by-side, and the daily tasks of home life

were intermingled with "work" in a way that was virtually undistinguishable. Parents and

children alike spent their time constantly at-work, but also at-home. However, as the

Industrial Revolution brought large numbers of adults to work away from their families, a change began to develop in the structure and classifications of "home or family" and "work." More recently in the past few decades, a profound shift has occurred in the minds of the American workforce, completely segregating paid employment from anything considered non-work and seeing that these realms compete for time and attention. Words such as work-stress and work-family conflict have become a hot topic of conversation and experts look to provide assistance for finding balance and restoring a sense of wellbeing (Haskins, Waldfogel, & McLanahan, 2001).

Ultimately, when life domains compete for time and attention, this creates conflict. As more Americans are entering the workforce, while simultaneously caring for children or elderly parents, the issue of balance between work and family demands much attention. Specifically, how are the children and marital relationships managing in this world of work-family conflict?

To tease apart work-family conflict and how it manifests itself, a proper definition is in order. From one group of researchers, work-family conflict is defined as a struggle between the pressures of competing work and family roles and how they contend with one another (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011). Others define work-family conflict as the strain and stress that can occur when trying to balance roles between work and family (Thompson, Thomas, & Maier, 1992). Still others consider work-family conflict through the lens of time and perception, referring to the opinion that there is not enough time available to fully experience both one's work role and nonwork role (Thompson & Blau, 1993). To understand why work-family conflict is much of a concern for working Americans, one must consider the vast research. One such study is

highlighted in an article by Thompson and Blau (1993), who cite a poll that found 83% of mothers and 72% of fathers reported they were struggling between the demands of both jobs (parenting and paid employment). Such struggles unavoidably create conflict and this conflict may bring about adverse outcomes such as a decrease in satisfaction with work, life, or family. Other unwelcome results range from a decrease in productivity and efficiency at work (Thompson & Blau, 1993) to ill health within the individual (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Although work-family conflict is a heavily researched topic, the fact that many Americans continue to feel the burden of this strain, illustrates the need for more work towards the way we understand this concept in order to provide recommendations for reprieve.

Work-Family Conflict History

Whenever analyzing a subject for research, it is imperative to examine the history of the variable, in order to fully extract meaning and understanding from the concept. In that same fashion, to appreciate how work and family interact to create conflict, among other things, one must first look at the historical roots. Goodwin (2005) noted that history needs to be understood, if only to fully comprehend the present. To further illustrate this point, a prominent psychology historian once said:

> The seats on the train of progress all face backwards: you can see the past but only guess about the future. Yet a knowledge of history, although it can never be complete and fails miserably to foretell the future, had a huge capacity for adding a significance to the understanding of the present (E.G. Boring, 1993, as cited in Goodwin, 2005, p. 1).

Although increasing in importance as a societal issue for years, work-family conflict exploded into academic and management research just a few decades ago when women entered the workforce in mass for the first time in the United States. With an interest in the changing workforce and how Americans were adapting, psychologists began researching this change and the challenges that inevitably developed (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). In the first half of the twentieth century, "traditional" American families were composed of a father who was the primary income provider or "breadwinner" and a mother who did not work outside the home and instead, worked full-time taking care of the children and home. Thompson, Beauvais, and Allen (2006) described how at this point in history, work and family were separated into two distinct "spheres of activity." One sphere was the family and home domain managed by women, and the other was the work domain, which was designed for and managed by men.

Ironically, this work/family structure encapsulates only a specific point in time. Thompson, Thomas, and Maier (1992) noted that less than 30% of married women with children worked outside the home in the 1950s and only 23% with children under the age of six. As previously mentioned, the structure of daily family life changed drastically when women began to permeate the workplace in large numbers in the 1960s and 70s. That same demographic increased their numbers to 58% just 30 years later (Costigan, Cox, & Cauce, 2003). Since the publishing of that research, two thirds of all married women with children under the age of two, work outside of the home (Halpern, 2005). Halpern (2005) put it best when she described this transformation in the workplace and family structure as "one of the largest social changes in the last half of the century" (p. 398).

However, since then, work and gender structures have not evolved to accommodate this change (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Workplace policies, demands and schedules still reflect the premise that employees will not be required to take care of family responsibilities, assuming a full-time stay-at-home parent is available to care for children and/or elderly parents (Thompson et al., 2006). Halpern (2005) reminded readers of her article, that despite advancements in legislation with the Fair Labor Standards act, it is still completely legal for an organization to fire an employee who is not willing to work overtime. In the same organizational mindset, it is also completely legal to pay part-time employees a lower hourly rate for doing the same job as full-time employees (Halpern, 2005, p. 402).

To further illustrate how work and gender structures have failed to progress; one research project sought to examine the reasons many managers worked over 60 hours per week. Considering gender in their study, Brett and Stroh (2003) surveyed almost 500 male graduates from a Midwest graduate business school who were married and had children still living in the home. This research developed a hypothesis for work-leisure tradeoff, assuming that male managers who worked an excessive number of hours each week must earn more and pursue leisure activities less. What may be surprising is that in their study, Brett and Stroh (2003) found that the men who worked the most hours during the week, also had children who still lived at home. However, Brett and Stroh (2003) noted that those overworked men were also married to wives who did not work outside of the home and suggested their stay-at-home wives were in place as a coping strategy for work-family segmentation.

Work-Family Conflict Theories

Although prevalent, work-family conflict has only recently (in the last three decades) concerned researchers and psychologists alike. Historically thought to be "women's problems," difficulties balancing the demands of home and work life have always fell to gender, as if gender was the root cause and solution all in one. However, theories about gender roles have always played a part in work-family conflict research, particularly as the home or family domain has traditionally been under women's care. In fact, much of the initial work-family conflict research suggested that women experienced more conflict than men (Thompson et al., 2006).

It is well known and documented that men and women are very different, to say the least (Barnett, Marshall, Raudenbush, & Brennan, 1993). It stands to reason these differences would also manifest themselves in how work and family interact. In a study involving working married couples with young children, Schultz, Cowan, Cowan, and Brennan (2004) explored how changes in daily workload and mood at the end of the work day related to fluctuation in martial satisfaction and withdrawal behaviors. These researchers surveyed 42 married couples living in the San Francisco Bay area over multiple times throughout a six month period. Accordingly, results of the study yielded that women who experienced a more stressful day at work ($M = 1.28$), also exhibited angrier marital behaviors, whereas men ($M = 1.31$) had the opposite response with anger and instead displayed more martial withdrawal behaviors. Individuals not only reported their own behaviors but those of their spouse. Reports on a spouse's marital behavior significantly correlated with each the individual's self-reports; for anger $r = .49$, $p < .05$ and withdrawal $r = .52$, $p < .01$ (p. 259). Their findings continue to highlight gender

differences in relationship behaviors, as well as, foreshadow the potential for exploring work-family conflict research in light of marital relationships.

Again, not all the research is about women. Thompson, Thomas, and Maier (1992) described a groundbreaking study on role stress for men, where one third of the male participants were "disturbed by the extent to which their jobs interfered with their family lives" (p. 61). Over half of the men polled said they would forfeit up to 25% of their paycheck to have more time for non-work related activities – including family time (Thompson et al., 1992). These findings suggest that the differences we know exist between genders are only exacerbated by work stress and therefore become work-family conflict.

Gender differences also arise where childcare becomes an issue. As more women enter the workforce, suddenly generations of children are growing up with the assistance of daycare and without constant exposure to their mother or father. Similarly, relatives are not always caring for the elderly. Rather, nursing homes and assisted living establishments provide services of care to aged dependents. Balancing the care of dependents while working full-time outside of the home can create ample conflict within a person's roles as a parent/child and as an employee. This type of conflict has the title of role overload. According to Thompson, Beauvais, and Allen (2006), role overload comes from the scarcity theory of role accumulation. This theory proposes that the "sum of human energy is fixed and that adding more roles creates a greater likelihood of overload, conflict, strain, and other negative consequences for well-being" (Thompson et al., 2006, p. 284).

Ultimately, scarcity theory points to the potential for the demands of one role to impair one's ability to perform well in another (van Steenberg, Kluwer, & Karney, 2011). Similar to role overload is the idea of resource drain. Resource drain supposes that people have "finite psychological and physiological resources" to allocate among job and family (Heller & Watson, 2005, p. 1273).

A manifestation of role overload or resource drain follows historical perspectives and gender issues quite well. In fact, the "second shift" is a term coined by Hochschild (1989) in her radical, and somewhat controversial, research in the 1980s. It is used to described the second job most women go to, once they come home from work. Hochschild describes how even in our modern times, the distribution of household labor is still uneven and women often work a second shift at home, after their first shift in the workplace is finished. Once women arrive at home after work, they go immediately to work on caring for the children, home, and engaging in family planning and coordination during this second shift. Hochschild's deduction of this phenomenon is that it is caused by the understanding between marriage partners that the wife's job is not as significant as the husband's. As previously noted, such role overload in a women's role between work and home life (such as that stemming from the second shift), could cause changes in marital behavior to occur (Schultz et al., 2004).

Although men are increasingly taking a more engaged role at home, distinct sex-role divisions still exist when it comes to division of labor in the domestic domain (Thompson et al., 1992). With two full-time jobs, it is easy to see how working mothers (and all single parents for that matter) can feel the drain of role overload. To further highlight role overload as it relates to mothers, an unpublished study by Mobil Oil

Corporation found that simply in anticipation of the potential for overload, many employed women reported that they were more likely to postpone or avoid having children completely (Thompson et al., 1992).

This sentiment is also reflected in the theory of social contagion. Social contagion is a "psychological phenomenon" that "occurs when people change their behaviors…as a consequence of social interaction with others" (Brett & Stroh, 2003, p. 68). This is where informal practices become institutionalized norms within the workplace. For example, if it is well known that a manager logs into his computer every Sunday night to check emails and delegate tasks, soon his team is spending their Sunday nights doing the same thing, as it becomes an unwritten, but nonetheless important rule the team has adopted. From this example, it is easy to see how such informal, yet powerful social contagion can create additional work-family conflict. Social contagion is also seen in gender and stereotypical roles. Brett and Stroh (2003) quoted a 2001 report in which a female manager said her clients "pay us lots and lots of money to be at their disposal 24 hours a day, 7 days a week…I am filled with admiration for my women partners who are successful and have children. I am mystified to how they do it" (p. 76). Similar sentiments are expressed by others in the same report, who confirmed they could not envision becoming a parent and continuing in their current occupations.

Another theory surrounding work-family conflict is the spillover model. Spillover refers to situations in which a person's attitude or mood is carried over from one domain to the next (Costigan et al., 2003). For example, an increase in dissatisfaction with one's work life is often carried over and an increase in negative attitudes is shown toward that person's home or family life. In other words, parents are "bringing work home" and their

mood is spilling into the home life, whether negative or positive. In their research analyzing daily spillover of workday experience, Schultz, Cowan, Cowan, and Brennan (2004) found negatively stimulating work experiences and work overload can lead to martial behaviors of anger and withdrawal.

Spillover is also associated with stress and strain. Not surprisingly, negative work attitudes and job dissatisfaction could promote or stimulate work-family conflict (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007). Yet work-family conflict is not always the cause of negative spillover that evokes job dissatisfaction. In fact, in research by Heller and Watson (2005), spillover between marital satisfaction into the work domain can actually improve job satisfaction. Similarly, in their study, Thompson and Prottas (2005) found that job autonomy and organizational support increased positive spillover effects from work into the family domain.

Although role overload, social contagion, and spillover theory provide insight as to how work-family conflict can develop, other theories consider how to reconcile this conflict. For example, in response to role overload, is the compensation model. The compensation model refers to a coping strategy where instead of adhering to defined and limited roles, working parents take a more flexible approach to role differentiation (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). The relationship between the work and family domains in which one could compensate for what is missing in the other domain. Compensation works as a counterbalance; such as when work productivity trades for more time with one's family or when an unsatisfying home life is compensated by a great career. One such illustration of this is in an article by Frone (2003) who describes how some women have been able to compensate for role overload and social contagion by breaking out of

the stereotypical role in which society places them. In effect, they expect shared family responsibilities and a balanced workload by utilizing outsourcing strategies (such as administrative assistants, housekeepers and nannies) in the professional and domestic domain (Cheung & Halpern, 2010).

Another theory that seeks to integrate work and family is the segmentation or compartmentalization model. The segmentation model is the direct opposite of spillover theory in that it reflects effective coping strategies to work-family conflict (Brett & Stroh, 2003). By compartmentalizing one's work and home life, any negative emotion or attitude produced by one domain does not cross-over or spillover into the other. In an earlier discussion of one study measuring extreme numbers of working hours, it is interesting that those fathers who worked the most, also had stay-at-home wives (Thompson et al., 1992). This is an example of male employees who have the resources and family circumstances to effectively segment or compartmentalize two spheres of activity into work and home without blurring the lines between them.

Work-Family Conflict Outcomes

After establishing how work-family conflict research began, unpacking its historical roots, and reviewing theories for understanding; one must circle back to the most significant inquiry. What impact does work-family conflict actually have? Maybe this question finds the best answer in the actions of the contemporary authority on issues of psychological importance – the American Psychological Association (APA). APA found such issues such as work-family conflict so important, that it has developed a journal devoted entirely to work and health psychology. Specifically, the Journal of Occupational Health Psychology publishes research surrounding work and life with a

"threefold focus on the work environment, the individual, and the work-family interface" (Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 2012).

One of the largest areas of study within the body of work-family conflict research revolves around the outcomes of work-family conflict. Unfortunately, the negative effects of work-family conflict are plentiful to discuss. In a comprehensive review of consequences related to work-family conflict, Allan, Herst, Bruck, and Sutton (2000) listed life, job, and marital satisfaction, as well as job burnout, turnover, and depression as potential outcomes. They also pointed out that the overwhelming body of research on work-family conflict outcomes is dominated by studies in the fields of social work and industrial/organizational psychology and as a result, almost exclusively deals with the impact on the family and on the employer (Allan et al., 2000). Perhaps this is because the biggest platform for change is with policymakers who would be concerned about the family and employers concerned about their employees, as well as the bottom line. Regardless, the consequences of work-family conflict have widespread implications and can be ultimately structured into three categories; individual/stress related, work-related, and nonwork-related (family, marital, life, and leisure satisfaction) (Allan et al., 2000).

Individual Health Implications

In their research on the relationship between time management, work-family conflict, control and strain; Adams and Jex (1995) explained how higher levels of work-family conflict related to health problems in individuals. Specifically psychological health receives a lot of attention. Symptoms of psychological strain can manifest themselves in anxiety, fatigue, and irritability (Thompson et al., 2006). In the same way, work-family conflict can impact the individual's psychological well-being to the point of

creating somatic complaints, depression, and even leading individuals to substance use/abuse in order to cope with the level of conflict they are experiencing (Amstad et al., 2011).

In 1995, Thomas and Ganster conducted a study on the effects that family-friendly policies and practices have on various indicators of stress for health care professionals in Nebraska. In particular, the researchers were measuring psychological, physical, and behavioral indicators of strain. Questionnaires were distributed in 45 different institutions assessing work-family conflict by Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981), family-supportive policies and supervisors, and strain. Another assessment of family-supportive policies was made directly from each institution's policy handbook or employee guide. Correlational results indicated significant relationships for work-family conflict and depression ($r = .42$), which in turn significantly correlated with somatic complaints ($r = .58$). Unfortunately for employers, the study failed to significantly link the use of family-friendly policies to indicators of less strain. However, the researchers noted this may be due to the fact that many healthcare workers do not fully utilize family-supportive practices. For example, many nurses avoid using sick leave in favor of trading shifts with coworkers. Overall the study highlights the need to reduce work-family conflict as it indirectly impacts the health of the employees.

In cohesion with these results, stress and strain from work-family conflict is elsewhere found linked to behaviors that are otherwise destructive to an individual's health. Using data from the 2002 National Study of Changing Workforce, Prottas and Thompson (2006) examined the results of self-employed business owners and independent contractors. Their analysis revealed that owners and self-employed

individuals are under even more pressure than the average working adult, in that the entire responsibility of the entrepreneurial endeavor lies squarely on their shoulders (Prottas & Thompson, 2006). In fact, job pressures and the sheer volume of work required to sustain the organization (hiring, payroll, disciplinary issues, terminations, marketing, accounting, supplier and customer relations, etc.) can often overwhelm business owners. To further intensify the pressures they face, business owners are typically subject-matter-experts in only a few areas; in business development and marketing for example, and struggle with other aspects of their business such as accounting and payroll.

Coupled with the long workdays and weekends needed to keep the business running, owners feel the strain of overwork and the diminished time with their families perhaps more acutely than those who are organizationally employed. Prottas and Thompson (2006) pointed out that under the weight of such responsibility; owners are prime candidates for self-destructive behaviors (foregoing sleep in order to work more hours, skimping on nutritious meals and exercise in order to gain more time) that have negative ramifications for the individual's health.

Exhaustion is often the first indication of work-family conflict, but Thompson, Beauvais, and Allen (2006) also illustrated that researchers have identified anger/hostility and hypertension to be a direct product of compensatory behaviors individuals engage in after becoming submerged by work-family conflict. In their study of self-employed Israelis, Lewin-Epstein and Yuchtman-Yar (1991) found that such individuals were more likely to engage in behaviors that lead to cardiovascular disease. Likewise, Thomas and

Ganster (1995) listed coronary heart disease along with depression as consequences for increased work-family conflict.

Similarly, another study found that work-family conflict may lead to behaviors that progress into problem drinking and alcoholism (Prottas & Thompson, 2006). Greater alcohol consumption is often a behavior linked to work-family conflict. Alcoholism is a well-researched illness that is known to bring a whole host of problems to the individuals who suffer from it. Work-family conflict has a unique relationship with alcoholism, as it can be cyclical in nature. Excessive work and/or work strain can create work-family conflict, which leads individuals to over consume alcohol and the reverse is also plausible. Greater alcohol consumption could worsen existing work-family conflict and performance at work (Prottas & Thompson, 2006).

On the other hand, unlike alcoholism, workaholism does not receive the same judgment or attention from the general public as such hot topics as gambling or substance abuse (Porter, 1996). Workaholism is by name, a derivative of alcoholism that also shares similar addictive behaviors and consequences. Although an actual definition for workaholism is still needed, the most frequent characteristic is employee-led excessive work hours. Data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics shows that almost half of all U.S. managers work close to 50 hours per week (Brett & Stroh, 2003) and in the early 1990s, a poll of managers revealed that 57% work anywhere from 51-60 hours per week (Fisher, 1992).

Perhaps the most damaging to the workaholic individual, is the way in which society applauds it. In an achievement-driven society, excessive work is often held in highest regard as the indicator of success. However, Porter (1996) reminded readers of

her article that "whether one prefers to call this a psychological problem, a mental health issue, or a "clean" addiction, the problem of addiction-like work behavior is a serious matter" (p. 70).

Employers and Business Implications

The cost of stress and strain is well documented, especially for working Americans. In fact, stress-related illness has a substantial impact on the economy itself, as estimations are as high as $150 billion a year (Hatfield, 1990). Employers need to be concerned by this, as the workplace cannot only be an antecedent to work-related strain, but also can be directly negatively impacted by work-family conflict. Thomas and Ganster (1995) noted in their research on family-supportive organizational policies and practices that "companies are being sued more often for stress originating in the workplace, and they are losing" (p. 6). Clearly neglecting to give proper attention to work-family conflict can have extensive financial costs to an organization.

Research on the impact for employers and businesses is extensively documented. Work-family conflict for employees can reveal itself in many ways, the most notable are; job satisfaction (Thompson, Kopelman, & Schriesheim, 1992), organizational commitment, burnout (Song, Foo, Uy, & Sun, 2010), absenteeism (Thompson et al., 2006), turnover and intention to quit (Halpern, 2005), withdrawal (Thompson & Blau, 1993), stress and strain (Thomas & Ganster, 1995), decreased organizational citizenship behaviors and a presence of counterproductive work behaviors (Amstad et al., 2011).

Human Resources professionals and people-oriented managers will understand the "soft" savings that addressing work-family conflict will save for their companies. However, as it is often the profits-driven manager that make decisions, the research is

still just as compelling. Research has documented the many types of "hard" savings that

companies who have family-supportive policies find. Thomas and Ganster (1995) pointed

out that the stress of work-family conflict can cost organizations money in decreased

productivity, higher proportions of work-place accidents and corresponding lost time.

Thompson and Blau (1993) focused on withdrawal behaviors and absenteeism as costly

outcomes of work-family conflict. Halpern (2005) highlighted the cost, not only of

turnover, but also the decrease in productivity (and work hours) by existing employees

who have turnover intentions. Despite the plethora of research on the negative

consequences of work-family conflict on the individual and on the employer, there is a

small reprieve in bi-directional spillover. It is worth mentioning that marriage and paid

employment are arrangements that are also sources of life satisfaction (van Steenbergen

et al., 2011). Rothbard (2001) in an attempt toward reconciling this research discussed the

enriching and depleting nature of spillover. However, it is more common to see work-

family conflict adversely influencing not only the employer-employee relationship, but

also the family.

Marriage and Family Implications

  Marriage. Causes of family-related strain manifest themselves in marital

satisfaction, somatic complaints, substance use/abuse, and family health (Amstad et al.,

2011). Martial satisfaction is an important factor for work-family conflict, as the quality

of the marriage has extreme influence over the family and home life relations. Relational

support and in particular, spousal support, has acted as a defense and barrier to the

potential debilitating effects of job-related stress (Heller & Watson, 2005). This could be,

as more resent research suggests, that participation in one role can act to improve the

experience of another role. On the other hand, unsatisfied marriages can allow for more of their relationship to be affected by work-induced hardships (Song et al., 2010). Often, as spouses experience more stress, they display less supportive behaviors toward their spouse, including words and hostile gestures (supportive gestures would include listening and being helpful or cooperative).

As marital conflict increases, other members of the family are directly impacted. Marital conflict in particular, is associated with a wide scope of "negative emotional and behavioral outcomes in children" (Goodman, Barfoot, Frye, & Belli, 1999, p. 33). In fact, Gottman and Katz (1989) found higher levels of chronic stress in four and five year old children whose parents had high levels of martial stress, which in turn related to decreased levels of social interaction and play with other children.

Child development. There is perhaps no greater concern for the family than that of the healthy development of children. Likewise, it is society's burden to ensure children are reared in a way that produces a successful generation. Macnab (2003) noted in her research that "one theme common to all theories of health and development is that childhood is a critical period in development and that development in the preschool years lays the foundation for later healthy development" (p. 6). In combination with other sociological and biological structures, children are typically most influenced in their development by their parents. This statement is supported by Macnab's (2003) longitudinal research measuring mental aptitude and externalizing behavior problems. Results found support for the practice of positive parenting, citing it as a "direct predictor of cognitive competence" (Macnab, 2003, p. iii).

Greenberger, O'Neil, and Nagel (1994) surveyed 68 preschools in a study looking at the relationship between the type of work a parent does and parenting behaviors. Interaction effects suggest that once again, spillover is extremely causal. Mood spillover in particular from work to home life impacted parenting in tone, discipline, warmth, and responsiveness (Greenberger et al., 1994). Regardless of high-stress or high-complexity occupations, if a parent brought a negative attitude home, this directly impacted his/her parenting behaviors toward the children, even using the moderating variable of gender.

Costigan, Cox, and Cauce conducted a study in 2003 on the influence that work experiences had on parenting quality among dual-earner couples who recently transitioned into parenthood. These couples were recruited from prenatal classes in four counties in rural western North Carolina and each couple was expecting their first child. The researchers used a 14 item scale measuring relationship dimensions and work environment and made observations of parent-child interactions, evaluating parenting behaviors at nine months and again at 12 months. The data analysis points to a significant spillover affect where mother's ratings of negative work experiences significantly predicted negative father-child interactions, especially if the fathers had a low occupational status ($\beta = .53$, $p < .02$). Similarly, mothers who reported higher role overload were associated with more negative intrusive father-child interactions ($\beta = .28$, $p < .02$). Although this study found spillover originating from the mother's negative work experiences had the most influence on the father's parenting, overall the study pointed to how strongly work experiences can impact the both the mother and father's interaction with their children.

To further illustrate the interrelatedness of child development and the stress parents may be experiencing, Goodman, Barfoot, Frye, and Belli (1999) conducted a study on the dimensions of marital conflict and how it impacted children's social skills. Questionnaire data uncovered an overall significant relationship particularly for mothers who experience high levels of marital conflict, indicating that the more marital problems a mother experiences, the more a child would struggle with his/her social problem-solving development (p. 108).

Although gender still plays a large role in the work-family conflict literature, the research has finally moved beyond traditional "women's issues" to look at areas of life satisfaction, health and wellbeing, marriage and family, and also men's issues. In fact, Ford, Heimer, and Langkamer (2007) found that men are more likely to allow work stress to impact their family (and marital) satisfaction. Moving past gender issues, in her review of interpretive interviews with 120 participants, Harris (2011) identified the need for society to stop focusing on how paid working arrangements (stay-at-home parents, dual-income parents, single parents) impact children, but rather how much family, community, and organizational support is available to care for the children appropriately. She described that although those who were interviewed for her research advocated family values and direction, they also felt their values and direction were at odds with the reality of their work life situations (Harris, 2011). In their article Ericksen, Jurgens, Garrett, and Swedburg (2008) tackled the issues of reentry into the workforce for former stay-at-home mothers and noted that such a life change makes group counseling sessions and therapy a necessity for such a transitional time as these mothers, in conjunction with their family,

adapt to a new home life structure. However, these researchers do not detail the impact the reentry and the ensuing work-family conflict have on marriages or children.

However, Galinsky (as cited in Halpern & Murphy, 2005, p. 220), cuts right to the center of the topic by discussing results from an Ask the Children study that analyzed responses from children and their parents. This study is one of the few that analyze work-family conflict and how it impacts children. In a similar vein, after analyzing data from the Fullerton Longitudinal Study, Gottfried (as cited in Halpern & Murphy, 2005, p. 205), found that while maternal employment did not directly relate to children's development, the children's home environment tremendously impacted their development. With the country's next generation growing up in daycare during the day and in stressed and strained families in at night, the question now becomes; how is this impacting our marriages and our children?

Current Research Limitations

There is plenty of research, theories, and data to support the need to address work-family conflict for working Americans. It is also common knowledge that the divorce rate in America is around half of all marriages. What is sparse however, is how this conflict affects the children or the quality of the parent's relationship. In fact, there are just a few studies that address this particular issue. Crouter, Bumpus, Maguire, and McHale (1999) conducted a study, analyzing the psychological well-being of children in middle and early adolescence within the same family and the level of work stress their parents experienced. However, rather than consider the parent's relational quality with each other, the researchers looked at occupational prestige as a moderating variable. They found that the two are indirectly related. As a parent's occupation stature held at a high

constant, work pressures were increased, thereby increasing the amount of work-family conflict. Accordingly, parents with high levels of work family conflict were more apt to engage their adolescent children in conflict and arguments. This increase in conflict and fighting led to a decrease in psychological wellbeing for their children (Crouter et al., 1999).

With such a broad topic as work-family conflict, it becomes imperative to narrow the focus. Although previous literature does suggest that work-family conflict can have a moderating impact on martial satisfaction and indirectly, parental satisfaction, the research has been limited in significant ways. First, the main body of research assesses work-family conflict as it relates to impact on the employed individual. There are an abundance of studies that examine the negative ramifications to an individual's physical and psychological wellbeing, as well as general life satisfaction when work-family conflict is present. Similarly, there is a significant body of research that examines how individuals and their employers are influenced by work-family conflict. In their research about how work and family domains influence each other, Brotheridge and Lee (2005) noted that "while lip service is often given for the need to seek balance, for many, family obligations are more likely to be sacrificed when faced with conflicting work obligations than the other way around" (p. 217).

Secondly, prior research does not do much to examine the interaction of work-family conflict and its impact on child development. Children, who are perhaps the most vulnerable population to be impacted by work-family conflict, present an interesting and under researched opportunity for study. Extensive research has documented the vital and influential role in which parents play in their child's development. In her article

Wolfendale (1983), reviewed research supporting the view that parents are central in a child's development, of particular importance is their role as a child's first and primary educator. Likewise, O'Leary and Vidair (2005) pointed out that understanding poor marital adjustments provides opportunities to decipher children's behavior problems. In a study analyzing parent's depression, martial quality, and parenting style, researchers found that there is an interconnectedness among family variables that help shape and determine children's outcomes (Miller, Cowan, Cowan, Hetherington, & Clingempeel, 1993).

Marriage and paid employment can be sources of life satisfaction for adults (van Steenbergen et al., 2011). Additionally, work experiences influence parenting behaviors (Greenberger et al., 1994) and parenting behaviors impact child development and behavior (Miller et al., 1993). It stands to reason that decreases in work-family conflict would result in improved martial quality as well as better parent/child experiences for children. To address these limitations and add to the small body of existing research, this study will explore how varying degrees of work-family conflict influence child development while considering the intervening variable of martial satisfaction.

Hypotheses

I hypothesize that high levels of work family conflict will correspond with low levels of child development, unless high levels of marital satisfaction are also present.

Hypothesis 1. There will be a negative relationship between work-family conflict and marital satisfaction.

Repetti (1989) found that in high pressure jobs, such as air traffic control, increased levels of work stress, which create social withdrawal at home and in marital

relationships as a coping mechanism. Similarly, Marshall and Barnett (1993) found that all attempts to reduce the strain of work-family conflict help to benefit the family by supporting improved marriage quality.

Hypothesis 2. There will be a negative relationship between work-family conflict and child development outcomes.

In their study of occupation and parenting behaviors, Greenberger, O'Neil, and Nagel (1994) reported significant correlations between the complexity (and stress) of a mother's work environment and her parenting behaviors measured in warmth, cognitive stimulation, and quality of home atmosphere. Similarly documented was the impact of the home environment on child development. Gottfried (as cited in Halpern & Murphy, 2005) noted that work-related variables, such as work-family conflict, have a significant impact on child development in the domains of cognitive, affective, social, academic, motivational, and behavioral development. The work-family conflict impact can be direct, but also works in an interplay of family factors (including stress, conflict, and relational satisfaction).

Hypothesis 3. There will be a positive relationship between marital satisfaction and child development outcomes.

Prior studies provide examples of how harmonious marriages buffer against children's cognitive delay, withdrawal behaviors, as well as problems in school (Miller et al., 1993). To further the point, dysfunctional marriages often lead to disruptive and frictional homes. Typically the result of harsh parenting, over-reactive discipline often flows out of the discord caused by marital conflict and, in fact, multiple studies have

correlated marital adjustment with "children's externalizing behavior problems"

(O'Leary & Vidair, 2005, p. 209).

   Hypothesis 4. The relationships between work-family conflict and child

development outcomes will be mediated by marital satisfaction.

   Meta-analyses and longitudinal research have yielded consistent findings that

work demands/stress create conflict and this conflict generally associates with decreased

levels of marital quality and/or satisfaction (Ford et al., 2007; Repetti, 1989; Song et al.,

2010). Likewise, the work-family conflict literature has shown that parenting styles and

behaviors are influenced by work stress in this cycle or interconnected web of family

variables, including how the children are adjusting. Rogers, Parcel, and Menaghan (1991)

found that increased reports of marital problems were significantly related to children's

social withdrawal, lowered physical activity, and elevated levels of other behavioral and

perceived problems.

CHAPTER 2

Method

Work-family conflict is a phenomenon that occurs when an individual's work responsibilities/time are at odds with one's personal (or family) responsibilities/time. However, of particular importance to this study is how this conflict could influence child development and if marital satisfaction acts as a controlling variable. The study involved sampling employed, married parents about their feelings towards work-family conflict, as well as self-reports on marital satisfaction and an assessment of their child's development.

Participants

Participants were a convenience sample ("snowball" effect) with the goal to have at least 100 participants. A significant portion of participants sampled were white-collar individuals employed at a mid-sized company (approximately 500 employees) in the financial services industry. Criteria for participation were that the respondents must be currently married, have children between the ages of 6 and 18, and must be actively employed. Participants were asked to only evaluate their oldest child between the ages of six to 18 years in order to maintain the reliability of the original measure for child development. Actively employed would be defined as consistent work over 1 hour per week that is paid by an employer external to the immediate family.

While 42 surveys were started, only 38 were completed and able to be used for data analysis, $n = 38$. Sixty-eight percent of the sample was female and all worked 40 hours per week or more. All participants were currently married (two were remarried). The median age was 39.5 with 55% of respondents between the ages of 35 and 44.

Participants were predominantly well educated with 53% holding a Bachelor's degree and 24% with a Master's degree. The majority of respondents had one or two children under the age of 18 (82%) and the average age of participant's children under the age of 18 were mostly between the ages of six and eight (32%) and 13 to 15 (34%).

Eighty-four percent of participants indicated their race/ethnicity was white, not Hispanic while annual household income saw a more diverse spread. Participants were mostly middle-class with household income ranges of $50-80,000 (29%) and $80-110,000 (32%) covering the majority of the respondents. The participant sample is considered "traditional" as 76% reported the father is the breadwinner and 84% said that the mother was the primary caregiver.

Measures

Demographics. The first items the participants completed were demographic questions (see Appendix A). Such items included age range, gender, race, household income, occupation, primary breadwinner and caregiver identifiers, number and age of children, as well as work hours. Most of the questions asked participants to indicate the appropriate range, while others were fill-in-the blank items.

Work-family conflict. Two scales measure work-family conflict (see Appendix B). The first was a 16-item index created by Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981) where participants designated how often they experienced concerns about the dual roles of work and parenting. For this instrument I used a five-point Likert-type scale from 1 (never) to 5 (always) for items such as "My job keeps me away from my family too much." The coefficient alpha for this survey in a previous study was .88 (Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

In this study, the coefficient alpha was .92. The original coding was reversed to be cohesive with other measures in this study.

The second scale assessed interrole conflict and was used by Kopelman, Greenhause, and Connelly (1983). This scale was an eight-item survey where respondents rated the extent to which they agreed with the statement using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). One example of this measure was "My work schedule often conflicts with my family time." Reliability for this measure produced a coefficient alpha of .87 (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). In this study the coefficient alpha was also .87. Thomas and Ganster (1995) combined both measures in their study and found that as they were highly correlated, their internal consistency averaged to a combined coefficient alpha of .92. Some items were reversed scored so that higher values indicated greater conflict.

Child development. The child development survey's categories address the constructs of social development, somatic /attention problems, academic performance, delinquency, aggression or destructive behaviors and anxiety/depression (see Appendix C). On a six-item Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (very strong disagreement) to 6 (very strong agreement), parent or caretaker respondents indicated their degree of agreement with questions such as "My child acts too young for his/her age" and "My child argues a lot." For this particular child development survey, the questions were influenced and inspired by a widely known child development instrument, the Child Behavior Checklist. After reading sample questions from this survey, similar questions were created to measure child development.

The Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) is a parent-report questionnaire for behavioral and emotional issues. Developed in 1983, the CBCL became a widely used standardized instrument for clinical scales in child psychology. Specifically, designed to evaluate maladaptive behaviors for school age children (6 – 18 years old) test-retest reliability measures ranged from .84 to .97 (Achenback & Edelbrock, 1983). In this study, the coefficient apha for each construct ranged from .67 to .81 (social development .77, somatic/attention problems .75, academic performance .67, delinquency .69, aggression or destructive behaviors .69, and anxiety/depression .81) with an overall development coefficient alpha of .93. In order to maintain the reliability of the measure for the CBCL, instructions asked participants to only evaluate their children between the ages of 6 and 18 years old. Each survey instructed participants who had more than one child between the ages of 6 – 18, to complete the Child Development Survey on their oldest child, 18 years or younger.

Marital satisfaction. To measure marital satisfaction I used the Quality Marriage Index (see Appendix D) (QMI; Norton, 1983). The QMI is a six-item, Likert scale, self-report instrument that asks respondents to rate their own perceptions of their marriage, as well as how they perceive their spouse would respond on a variety of six-point Likert-type scales (e.g., 1 (very strong disagreement) to 6 (very strong agreement), 1 (never) to 6 (ten or more times), 1 (0%) to 6 (100%), etc. The original index provided 7 to 10-point Likert-type scales, but for the purpose of this study, the scales were reduced and consolidated to six for ease in completion for the participants. Two sample statements about marriage are "We have a good marriage" and "My relationship with my partner makes me happy." Another item asked respondents to rate overall happiness with their

marriage on a six-point scale ranging from 1 (very unhappy) to 6 (happy). High scores reflect higher marital satisfaction. Internal consistency of this measure was high across all eight waves of data (.92 for husbands and .93 for wives) (Steenbergen, et al., 2011) and a Cronbach's alpha of .97 for self-reports and .94 for spouse report (Norton, 1983). The coefficient alpha for this study was .94. Some items were reversed scored so that higher values indicated greater marital satisfaction.

Procedure

Prior to conducting research, I submitted an IRB application and received approval (see Appendix E). I then contacted managers at four businesses (financial services provider, two manufacturing plants, and a payment processing center) to introduce my research and request their permission to distribute my surveys to their employees. The manufacturing plants and payment processing center locations presented potential for a wide array of occupations, salaries, and work arrangements. In particular, these businesses held varying work shifts and weekend hours. On the other hand, the financial services provider offered a well-respected medium-sized organization that held a reputation for family-friendly policies, including a high-quality onsite daycare. Upon agreeing to assist in this research, I asked each manager if they preferred I come onsite and distribute paper copies of the surveys to participants or if they would rather I come onsite to introduce the survey and provide employees with a sheet of paper containing a web address that would direct participants to an online version of the questionnaires. Each manager preferred to use the online version of the surveys and three requested to simplify the process by receiving the survey's web address themselves via email. Therefore I used the same process with all organizations. Upon emailing this information

to each manager, the managers sent an email to their employees introducing the survey. The manager's email asked for the employee's participation in a voluntary survey not connected with the company, which contained a hyperlink to direct participants to the online version. The online version of the surveys utilized services from a private American company that enables researchers to create confidential web-surveys. In addition to these organizations, I also emailed multiple personal contacts the same hyperlink with a request for assistance in collecting research data as well as a request to forward my email to their personal and work contact with a similar request for participation.

After clicking the hyperlink, Informed Consent instructions (see Appendix F) displayed for each participant to read. Participants indicated their willingness to take part in the study by clicking the "next" display prompt to begin the survey. Participants then received instructions to complete the survey questionnaire as honestly and as completely as possible. Further instructions detailed what to do if they had more than one child between the ages of 6 and 18. In this case, participants were to complete the Child Development Survey on their oldest child less than 18 years of age. Participants next completed online all demographics identifiers, two Work-Family Conflict scales, a Child Development Survey, and the Quality of Marriage Index.

Once participants completed the demographics questions and the three questionnaires, they clicked "submit" online. A screen would display letting them know their participation in the study was complete and thanking them for their time. After the completion of each survey, results immediately saved and became available for the researcher to download from the survey website and begin statistical coding and analysis.

No personal identifiers were associated with a participant's data; instead the online survey service provider assigned each participant a random 10 digit respondent identification number. Participants did have an opportunity to receive a written summary of the results by including their email address in an answer field after the Informed Consent instructions displayed.

CHAPTER 3

Results

To review, participants were surveyed with self-report questionnaires about their work-family conflict and marital satisfaction in addition to completing an assessment of their child's overall development. All respondents were employed full-time, married, and had children between the ages of six and 18. Correlations and partial correlations were performed to test all hypotheses and supplementary exploratory analyses were conducted, including additional correlations and independent samples t-tests between demographic indicators using SPSS.

Main Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 proposed that there would be a negative relationship between work-family conflict and marital satisfaction and correlations provided partial support. The 16-item index created by Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981) found that there was a significant relationship between the level of marital satisfaction and a respondent's work-family conflict, $r = -0.35$, $p < .05$. While the other eight-item scale created by Kopelman et al. (1983) found a negative relationship, results were only marginally significant, $r = -0.25$, $p = .08$.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that there would be a negative relationship between work-family conflict and child development outcomes. Two work-family conflict scales were correlated with the six categories of the child development survey. The significant correlations for work-family conflict and the constructs of social development, somatic complaints/attention problems, academic performance, delinquency, aggression or

destructive behaviors and anxiety/depression provide support for Hypothesis 2 (see Table 1).

Hypothesis 3 anticipated that a positive relationship would exist between marital satisfaction and child development outcomes. Correlations found partial support for child development with a significant relationship between martial satisfaction and the construct of social development, $r = -0.31$, $p < .05$. Although a negative correlation, this significant finding indicates a positive relationship as the level of marital satisfaction increases, child development scores decrease which means children experience fewer problems with their social development. All remaining constructs also found negative correlations except for the construct of anxiety/depression. I used a binomial test to see if getting five of six negative correlations is less than chance. If the null hypothesis were true, then I would expect 50% of the correlations to be negative, three out of six. The odds of getting five or more negative correlations is .09, thus, this is not significant. This indicates that although the remaining five child development constructs have negative correlations with marital satisfaction this is mostly due to chance.

Hypothesis 4 expected that the relationships between work-family conflict and child development outcomes would be mediated by marital satisfaction. I compared partial correlations with those from Hypothesis 2. If the relationship had been mediated by marital satisfaction, the correlations in Hypothesis 4 would have been much lower. This hypothesis was not supported, as all correlations controlling for marital satisfaction were not significantly different from Hypothesis 2 (see Table 1). Such results indicate that marriage is not a significant intervening variable between work-family conflict and child development outcomes.

Table 1

Correlations of Work-Family Conflict Measures with Child Development Constructs

Child Development Constructs	Hypothesis 2		Hypothesis 4	
	Scale 1	Scale 2	Scale 1	Scale 2
Social Development	.48**	.39*	.42*	.34*
Somatic/Attention Problems	.34*	.20	.35*	.19
Academic Performance	.47**	.42**	.47**	.41*
Delinquency	.36*	.38*	.33	.36*
Aggression or Destructive Behaviors	.59***	.58***	.57***	.56**
Anxiety/Depression	.37*	.29*	.40	.31
Overall Child Development	.55***	.48**	.53**	.46**

Note. Work-Family Conflict Scale 1 is the 16-item scale created by Bohen and Viveros-Long

(1981). Work-Family Conflict Scale 2 is the eight-item scale created by Kopelman, Greenhause,

and Connelly (1983).

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

Exploratory Analyses

      Participants who were female reported slightly higher levels of work-family conflict for Scale 1 (Bohen and Viveros-Long, 1981) ($M = 43.23$) than males ($M = 38.50$). However, this difference is not statistically significant according to a *t*-test adjusted for equality of variances, $t(36) = -1.39$, $p = .16$. Similarly for Scale 2 (Kopelman et. al, 1983), females indicated slightly higher levels of work-family conflict ($M = 23.81$) than males ($M = 20.33$) but was not significantly different, $t(36) = -1.63$, $p = .63$. Differences in gender for child development and martial satisfaction were also not significant. In addition, differences for age, family type (traditional vs. nontraditional), families where the father or mother was the breadwinner, and number of hours worked by the father did not have significant relationships with work-family conflict, child development, or marital satisfaction.

      Education level correlations were non-significant; however there was one interesting marginally significant finding. A negative relationship was found between martial satisfaction and education level, indicating that as the level of education increased the participant's marital satisfaction decreased, $r = -0.31$, $p = .07$.

      The total number of children (under the age of 18) each participant had found mostly non-significant correlations with all variables, with one exception. The work-family conflict Scale 2 (Kopelman et al., 1983) found a significant positive relationship with the number of children under age 18. This implies that the more children a participant has, the more work-family conflict that parent will experience, $r = -0.34$, $p < .05$.

In addition to the total number of children, participants also reported the average age of their children (under the age of 18). All correlations proved to be non-significant, however the child development construct of anxiety/depression points in a positive direction nearing marginal significance, $r = .24$, $p = .14$. Not surprisingly, such results indicate that as children get older, they experience more anxiety/depression. Similarly, a participant's minority status was marginally significant with their child's anxiety/depression scores. Participants who reported a minority status also reported higher levels of anxiety/depression in their children ($M = 3.00$) than those who reported a non-minority status ($M = 2.31$), $t(34) = 1.92$, $p = .06$.

Household income was correlated with all variables. Five of the six child development constructs were negative, indicating that as the participant's income increased, the level of child development problems would decrease. Oddly however, one relationship was positive. Although not significant, results indicate that as the level of household income increased, the children's anxiety/depression scores also increased, $r = .05$, $p = .78$. Not surprisingly though, results for marital satisfaction neared marginal significance indicating as household income increased, marital satisfaction likewise increased, $r = .27$, $p = .12$.

An independent samples t-test was conducted against all variables and whether the father or mother was reported as the primary caregiver for the children. Although non-significant, results indicated that for work-family conflict Scale 1 (Bohen and Viveros-Long, 1981), fathers who were the primary caregiver reported higher levels ($M = 47.17$) of work-family conflict than mothers who were the primary caregiver ($M = 40.72$), $t(36) = 1.49$, $p = .15$. In the same fashion, work-family conflict Scale 2 (Kopelman et. al,

1983) found fathers who were the primary caregiver had higher levels of work-family conflict ($M = 26.67$) than mothers ($M = 21.97$), $t(36) = 1.74$, $p = .09$.

Analyses conducted on the number of working hour's fathers and mothers reported, provided interesting results. Correlations between father's working hours produced a negative relationship, indicating that as the number of hours a father worked increased, the better the scores would be for child development, $r = -0.06$, $p = .74$, however the results were not significant. Also not significant, further results found a positive relationship between the number of hours father's work and their marital satisfaction, $r = .05$, $p = .78$ interestingly implying that as fathers work more, they have better marriage quality.

Several significant relationships and thought-provoking correlations were found when analyzing the number of hours the mother's worked. Significant positive correlations were found with work-family conflict Scale 1 (Bohen and Viveros-Long, 1981), $r = .43$, $p < .01$ and marginally significant results with work-family conflict Scale 2 (Kopelman et. al, 1983), $r = .30$, $p = .07$, indicating as mothers worked more hours, their levels of work-family conflict increased. Significant positive correlations were also found with the child development constructs of somatic/attention problems, $r = .34$, $p < .05$ and delinquency, $r = .34$, $p < .05$ and marginally significant overall child development results, $r = .30$, $p = .07$. Such findings suggest that as the number of a mother's working hours increase, so also will problems in their children's overall development, particularly in the areas of somatic/attention problems and delinquency. On another note, marital satisfaction was negatively impacted by the number of hours a

mother worked, $r = -0.05$, $p = .80$. Although not significant, this relationship suggests

that as mothers work more hours, their marital satisfaction decreases.

CHAPTER 4

Discussion

On the basis of previous research, it was predicted that the presence of work-family conflict would negatively impact marital satisfaction (Allan et al., 2000), as well as child development (Mcnab, 2003). Likewise marital satisfaction was anticipated to be related to work-family conflict and have an impact on child development (Goodman et al., 1999). Considering the body of research on the effects work-family conflict, it is not surprising that both assumptions were supported especially in light of the theory of spillover where marital, parenting roles, and work demands intersect.

Spillover Model

In recapping the spillover model, Ford, Heimer, and Langkamer (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of 120 articles involving stressors and work-related outcomes. Their research suggests that work-family conflict may have a stronger spillover effect onto the family than family has on work (p. 59). In addition, Repetti (1989) noted that typically the phenomenon of spillover is thought to only represent a short-term response to stress, however the contrary is found in her article examining the effects of workload on marital interaction. Although marital satisfaction did not prove to be an intervening variable between work-family conflict and child development in this study, it was still found to be significantly related to work-family conflict and to child development individually.

Results for this study found a significant relationship between the quality of marriage and a child's social development. This is consistent with Erel and Burman's (1995) findings involving a meta-analysis of parent-child relations. Specifically, their study looked at the theories of spillover and compensation in 68 parent-child relationship

quality studies, citing that the spillover theory is most commonly found present in marital relations and the quality of relationship parents have with their children (Erel & Burman, 1995). It is also consistent with research on children with social problem-solving skills, who may have developed these behavior problems by watching and internalizing their parent's marital conflict (Goodman et al., 1999).

As predicted, child development proved to be impacted not only by marital satisfaction, as is often found in parent-child research, but also by work-family conflict, which is sparsely studied. The exploratory analysis in particular yielded interesting results. For example, it was found that as children get older, they experience more anxiety/depression. This finding is in line with what we know about adolescence. In research involving the psychological wellbeing of adolescents and their parent's work-related stressors, Crouter, Bumpus, Maguire, and McHale (1999) noted the impact spillover has in predicting problems teenagers will experience. Similarly, in Erik Eriksen's well-known eight stages of psychosocial development, adolescence is the stage at which children look to develop their own identity and as life increases in complexity, they learn to cope with moral issues and wrestle with social interactions (Munley, 1975). It is no wonder that teenagers in this study experienced more anxiety and depression than younger children.

Children who experience anxiety/depression were also more likely to be of minority status. As minority status can often correlate with lower income households, it is understandable that in this study as the annual household income increased, so did the marital satisfaction and child development. As Cheung and Halpern (2010) note, those with higher incomes are more likely to engage in actions and enlist outside support to

counterbalance work-demands such as nannies and housekeepers. Those with higher

incomes are also more likely to be able to afford high-quality childcare.

Gender Differences

   Men. Following the same line of thought while considering gender differences,

this study offers more data to the large body of research that suggests studying the

different ways men and women interconnect with work and non-work life has significant

value for understanding work-family conflict. Interestingly and opposite to what one

would expect to see, fathers in this study who worked increasingly more hours reported

having better marital satisfaction and development for their children. They also reported

less work-family conflict. Costigan, Cox, and Cauce (2003) likewise found that despite

the presence of work-family conflict, fathers in their study exhibited no evidence of

spillover from work to a father's parenting behaviors. In their research on overwork in

America, Brett and Stroh (2003) found that in regression analyses male managers who

worked the most hours significantly reported the least family-to-work stress ($\beta = .13$, $p <$

.01), citing that men are often rewarded both intrinsically and extrinsically by logging

more work hours.

   Perhaps this unusual buffer between a father's work and home is due to income.

The more hours the father works, the greater the household income is likely to be and less

financial stress is better for the family. The greater household income might also lend to

more stay-at-home mothers to care for the children and home, thereby relieving some

work-to-family pressures.

   Perhaps fathers who worked increasingly more hours reported better marital

satisfaction and child development because they are not as present in their non-work life

and have an unrealistic perspective of the domestic realm. It is conceivable that because they work so many hours they are unaware of how their marriage and children are truly faring and their self-report scores are skewed by this lack of knowledge. Brett and Stroh (2003) also consider the father's absence from general home-life may be part of a willing work-leisure trade-off for higher income as did the subset of their participants who reported that they preferred their work over home life and enjoyed the long hours. In their study, those fathers who worked more hours also reported less work-family conflict while also reporting a higher number of stay-at-home wives to manage their home lives for them.   Then again, it may be that these fathers have more efficient stress-management skills. Worth considering is gender differences in the way men and women use segmentation or compartmentalization to cope with work/home life stressors.

On the other hand, fathers who were also the primary caregiver for the children did report more work-family conflict, albeit not statistically significant. This may be due to society's part in defining gender roles as well as less family-supported workplace practices and/or acceptance available to men. Such a finding however warrants future research, as Halpern and Murphy (2005) noted; society has been slow to recognize the increased parenting role men are taking and because of this, less support is available for such an "invisible dilemma."

Women. In extreme contrasting fashion, mothers in this study who worked more hours reported statistically significant higher levels of work-family conflict. This finding parallels with what has been repeatedly found in work-family conflict research (Thompson et al., 2006; Brett & Stroh, 2003; Costigan et al., 2003; Cheung & Halpern, 2010). What is more concerning however, is the impact a mother's work hours and

corresponding work-family conflict have on the children. In this study, as a mother worked more hours, their children experienced more overall development problems. Particularly, children suffered in the areas of somatic complaints/attention problems and delinquency.

In their article reviewing the effects parental roles had on children's externalizing behaviors, Miller, Cowan, Cowan, Hetherington, and Clingempeel (1993) discussed research has found depressed mothers often report children with behavior problems and insecure attachments. Those researchers also found that mothers who reported more conflict also showed less warmth and positive affect in their parent-child interactions (Miller et al., 1993). Another study considering work-parenting linkages among dual-earner couples found that when women experience negative features of their work-life, it greatly detracts from their quality of parenting, much more so than their male counterparts (Costigan et al., 2003). The same gender differences can be implied from studies that consistently found a mother's work experience has the greatest impact over the family's "overall functioning" (Costigan et al., p. 405). Piotrkowski and Katz (1982) argued that mothers are the primary socializers of the children and because of this; they wield more influence over the family.

However, long work hours are not necessarily antecedents to child development problems. Rather, given the large body of research (e.g., Amstad et al., 2011) long work hours for women are likely to create more work-family conflict, which many would infer as this study does for women, is predictive of child development issues. Contradicting the third wave of feminism, a recent trend in pop journalism has been to document a relatively new movement of highly educated women who are leaving the workforce, in

order to care of their children and home. Many women cite work-family conflict and corresponding child development as major factors in their decision to "opt-out" (Rubin & Wooten, 2007).

Hewlett and West (2005) in a book discussing the pressure work-family conflict places on parents, argued that "a weight of evidence now demonstrates ominous links between absentee parents and an entire range of behavioral and emotional problems in children" (p. 57). However uncomfortable or even taboo the topic may be in our modern times, the results from this study and other research suggests the same as other researchers who said "when career meets family, having it all remains complex" (Rubin & Wooten, 2007, p. 336).

Implications

The findings of this study are important for at least two reasons. First, the findings suggest that balance must become a key mechanism by which organizations, communities, and families operate. Organizational changes to implement family-supportive practices are a great place to start. Research data is encouraging in that policies and practices such as flexible work schedules and job sharing, tuition assistance, support groups, supervisory and stress management training, family leave programs, onsite daycare facilities, and organizational culture changes do help to mitigate work-family conflict (Thompson et al., 2006). Community institutions also have a part to play with more flexible hours for care clinics, sponsorship of after-school programs, and youth development opportunities. Finally, families must seek all opportunities where available. Thompson, Beauvais, and Allen (2006) document in their research how often family-supportive organizational policies and practices are not taken advantage of whether

through the pressures of organizational culture or simply by employees who are not fully aware of their benefits.

Secondly, this study's findings demonstrate a link between work-family conflict and family-related outcomes. Although prior research has done much to examine work-family conflict and work-related outcomes, there is a significant gap in our understanding of how this phenomenon impacts the family. With so much documented on the cost of stress and strain to organizations (burnout, absenteeism, turnover, withdrawal behaviors, etc.) this study adds to the small body of research that examines the cost to families as well. Unfortunately the United States has one of the least family-friendly public policies of the developed world and considering the last major piece of family-related legislation was the Family Medical Leave Act of 1993, future changes in regulations will likely be slow in evolving (Haskins et al., 2011). However, with supporting research for the extensive negative impact of work-family conflict, perhaps new legislation could be on the horizon with added pressure from society to forever change the way in which we accept how work and family interact.

Limitations

Probably the most significant limitation to this study was the small sample size. Although 42 surveys were started, only 38 were completed and able to be used for data analysis, which is an extremely small data set. Requests for participants were sent to the Director and Managing Supervisor of a payment processing center with 50-75 employees. Other requests were made to HR Managers in two different small manufacturing facilities, each employing 50-100 employees. Also petitioned was a manager employed in an office of approximately 500 employees in the financial services industry. In

addition, I reached out to every personal contact that fit participant criteria. Feedback from HR Managers indicated that distributing a survey in a workplace that was not open to all employees (not all employees are married or have children between the ages of 6-18) is more difficult to conduct at work and consequently, many employees did not have incentive to complete the survey on their own time at home. Perhaps they were already experiencing work-family conflict and did not want to take more time way from their families!

In addition to the limited number of participants, the participant pool was also very homogenous in demographics. While a good sample will have diversity in age, education, ethnicity, occupation, and household income – the participants for this study were not representative of the American population. The sample was highly educated, as most participants held a Bachelor's degree or higher, and almost all were white, not Hispanic. Whereas in 2012, the U.S. Census Bureau (2013) reported only 28.2% of the population held a Bachelor's degree or higher and almost 22 % reported a minority status.

Another obvious limitation of this study is that the measures were all derived from self-reports. Although this is not uncommon in work-family conflict and marital satisfaction research, reports of child development can often be skewed by parents who have reporting bias. However, in this study .93 was the coefficient alpha for overall child development. Nevertheless, research has shown that fully relying on parent-reports of child development impacts the validity and credibility of the child development scores (Zill & Ziv, 2007). A more methodologically sound collection method would be a combination of parent-report, teacher-report, and trained observer scores.

Finally, no causal effects can be derived from this study as all analysis was correlational. A more robust investigation of each hypothesis would benefit greatly from a controlled experimental design. While the majority of work-family conflict research is correlational, a few studies exist with causal implications. For example, Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992) using a mixed within-subjects analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), tested the differences gender played with work-family boundaries. Their results suggested that when interference was found, work significantly impacts the family more than the family impacts work (Frone et al., 1992).

Conclusions and Future Research

Despite these limitations, the results of this study make it clear variables such as marital satisfaction and child development are significant family-related outcomes from work-family conflict that demand attention. Considering gender differences found in this study, more research is needed to understand the ramifications for families where mothers work a lot of hours. Likewise an exploration of the dynamics that face men who are primary child caregivers is merited. In 2011, for dual-earning parents, 32 percent of fathers reported they were the primary source of care for their children (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2011). As Rochlen, McKelly, and Whittaker (2010) noted in their exploratory study about stay-at-home fathers and their experiences; understanding the underlying trends facing primary caregiving fathers is a much understudied topic that demands further empirical attention.

In addition to studying child development, future work-family conflict research needs to include single parents, divorced parents, and adults caring for their aging parents. One study articulates how non-traditional families, perhaps more than any other,

face family-related outcomes to work-family conflict in greater magnitude (Ford et al., 2007). This is especially true of single-parent families, where one parent must expend more energy caring for the work and home domains than a traditional couple, as there is no one else with whom to divide the labor and responsibility.

Hopeful research has provided evidence that organizational family-supportive practices provide significant reprieve for work-family conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). While support exists, it is also difficult for organizations to see an immediate return-on-investment for implementing culture and HR policy changes. This is where longitudinal research on the cost-effectiveness of family-supportive practices is badly needed. Fiduciary proof will improve the likelihood for more organizations to consider or provide more family-friendly benefits to their employees.

However, the problem facing those who experience work-family conflict is not simply the burden for organizations to bear. After reviewing the impact work-family conflict has on parenting, relationships, and child development, it becomes imperative that families, communities, politicians, and policy makers become involved in this growing crisis. In agreement is Halpern and Murphy (2005) who stated "the goal of work family interaction is lofty – to achieve this vision it will take the work of all" (p. 263). Perhaps the culmination of costs associated with work-family conflict will excite change, if not for adults but for the most vulnerable population – children. Freelance writer Robert Brault (2010) might have put it best when he said "if you haven't time to respond to a tug at your pants leg, your schedule is too crowded."

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Appendix A

Demographic Questions for Work-Family Conflict, Child Development, and Marital
Satisfaction Questionnaire

Work-Family Conflict, Child Development, and Marital Satisfaction Questionnaire

Requirements: Participants must be married, have children between the ages of 6-18, and be working in some manner of paid employment.

Instructions: Please complete this survey as honestly as possible. On page one, check the box or fill in the blank that best answers the question. On the remaining pages, please circle the appropriate item that best answers the question.

Gender
- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

Current Marital Status
- ☐ Married
- ☐ Married but separated
- ☐ Divorced and remarried
- ☐ Widowed/er and remarried

Occupational Status (check two)
- ☐ Non-Exempt (eligible for overtime pay)
- ☐ Exempt or Salaried (not eligible for overtime pay)
- ☐ Full-Time (40 hours/week or more)
- ☐ Part-Time (24 hours/week or less)

Age
- ☐ 17-24
- ☐ 25-29
- ☐ 30-34
- ☐ 35-39
- ☐ 40-44
- ☐ 45-59
- ☐ 50+

Highest Level of Education
- ☐ Less than High School
- ☐ High School/GED
- ☐ Some College
- ☐ Associate's Degree (2 year)
- ☐ Bachelor's Degree (4 year)
- ☐ Master's Degree
- ☐ Doctoral or Professional Degree

Number of Children under 18 years old
- ☐ 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ 7 or more

Race
- ☐ White, non-Hispanic
- ☐ Hispanic
- ☐ African American
- ☐ Native American
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ Pacific Islander
- ☐ Other

Annual Household Income
- ☐ $19,000 or less
- ☐ $20,000 - 35,000
- ☐ $35,000 – 50,000
- ☐ $50,000 – 65,000
- ☐ $65,000 – 80,000
- ☐ $80,000 – 95,000
- ☐ $95,000 – 110,000
- ☐ $110,000 – 125,000
- ☐ $125,000 – 150,000
- ☐ $150,000 – 175,000
- ☐ $175,000 or more

Average Age of Children under 18 years old
- ☐ 0 – 3
- ☐ 3 – 5
- ☐ 6 – 8
- ☐ 9 – 12
- ☐ 13 – 15
- ☐ 16 – 18

Primary "Breadwinner" for household (main income provider)
- ☐ Father
- ☐ Mother

Father's Type of Work (fill in the blank, please be specific)

_____
(example: Construction, Accountant, Maintenance, Teacher)

Mother's Type of Work (fill in the blank, please be specific)

_____
(example: Construction, Accountant, Maintenance, Teacher)

Primary Caregiver for children
- ☐ Father
- ☐ Mother

Average number of hours the **Father** spends working per week?
- ☐ 24 or less
- ☐ 25-40
- ☐ 40-45
- ☐ 45-50
- ☐ 50-55
- ☐ 55-60
- ☐ 60 or more

Average number of hours the **Mother** spends working per week?
- ☐ 24 or less
- ☐ 25-40
- ☐ 40-45
- ☐ 45-50
- ☐ 50-55
- ☐ 55-60
- ☐ 60 or more

Please proceed to the next page

Appendix B

Work-Family Conflict Scale

Work-Family Conflict Scale

Circle the number that best indicates the frequency with which you experience concerns with each of the following

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1 My job keeps me away from my family too much.	1	2	3	4	5
2 I feel I have more to do than I can handle comfortably.	1	2	3	4	5
3 I have a good balance between my job and my family time.	1	2	3	4	5
4 I wish I had more time to do things for my family.	1	2	3	4	5
5 I feel physically drained when I get home from work.	1	2	3	4	5
6 I feel emotionally drained when I get home from work.	1	2	3	4	5
7 I feel I have to rush to get everything done each day.	1	2	3	4	5
8 My time off from work does not match other family member's schedules well.	1	2	3	4	5
9 I feel I don't have enough time for myself.	1	2	3	4	5
10 I worry that other people at work think my family interferes with my job.	1	2	3	4	5
11 I worry whether I should work less and spend more time with my children.	1	2	3	4	5
12 I find enough time for the children.	1	2	3	4	5
13 I worry about how my kids are when I'm working.	1	2	3	4	5
14 I am confortable with the arrangements for my children while I am working.	1	2	3	4	5
15 Making arrangements for my children while I work involves a lot of effort.	1	2	3	4	5
16 I worry that other people feel I should spend more time with my children	1	2	3	4	5

(Bohen & Viveros-Long, 1981)

Circle the number that best indicates your level of agreement with each of the following

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
17 My work schedule often conflicts with my family life.	1	2	3	4	5
18 After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.	1	2	3	4	5
19 On the job, I have so much work that it takes away from my other interests.	1	2	3	4	5
20 My family dislikes how often I am preoccupied with my work while I'm at home.	1	2	3	4	5
21 Because my work is demanding, at times I am irritable at home.	1	2	3	4	5
22 The demands of my job make it difficult to be relaxed all the time at home.	1	2	3	4	5
23 My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with my family.	1	2	3	4	5
24 My job makes it difficult to be the kind of spouse or parent that I'd like to be.	1	2	3	4	5

(Kopelman, Greenhaus, and Connelly, 1983)

Appendix C

Child Development Survey

Child Development Survey

Please complete the survey as honestly and completely as possible.
Circle the point that best describes your agreement with the statement "My Child…"

		Very Strong Disagreement	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly	Very Strong Agreement
1	Acts too young for his/her age	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Frequently argues	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Does not finish things he/she starts	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Enjoys very few things	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Has bowel movements outside of the bathroom	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Brags about themselves	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Is unable to concentrate or pay attention for very long	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Has difficulty sitting still, is restless, or hyperactive	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Is dependent or insecure	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Feels lonely	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Often cries	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Displays cruelty, bullying, or meanness to others	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Daydreams or gets lost in his/her thoughts	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Deliberately harms self or attempts suicide	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Demands a lot of attention	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Destroys his/her own things	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Destroys things belonging to his/her family or others	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Does not participate in school activities	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Is disobedient at home	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Is disobedient at school	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Doesn't eat well	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Fears certain situations, places, or animals	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Fears he/she might think or do something wrong	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Feels he/she has to be perfect	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	Feels worthless or inferior	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Gets hurt a lot, accident – prone	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	Gets teased a lot	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	Hangs around with others who get into trouble	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Is nervous, high-strung, or tense	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	Has nightmares	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Overeats	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	Is overtired without good reason	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	Has physical problems without known medical cause (aches/pains, rashes, nausea, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	Is secretive and keeps things to themselves	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	Is self-conscious or easily embarrassed	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Shows-off or clowns around	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	Steals things at home	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	Steals outside the home	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	Stubborn, sullen, or irritable	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	Has temper tantrums or a hot temper	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	Threatens people	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	Is truant (skips school)	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	Is underactive, slow moving or lacks energy	1	2	3	4	5	6
44	Is unhappy, sad or depressed	1	2	3	4	5	6
45	Wets the bed	1	2	3	4	5	6
46	Worries	1	2	3	4	5	6
47	Struggles with schoolwork	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix D

Quality Marriage Index

Quality Marriage Index

Circle the number that best describes your agreement with the statement

	Very Strong Disagreement	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly	Very Strong Agreement
1 We have a good marriage.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2 My relationship with my partner is very stable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3 Our marriage is strong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4 My relationship with my partner makes me happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5 I really feel like *part of a team* with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6 I have often seriously considered ending my relationship with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7 I often wish I had not married my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8 My partner and I are very similar in our attitudes toward most things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9 My partner and I engage in many outside interest together.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10 I am very committed to making my relationship last.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Circle the point that best describes your agreement with the statement

11 How often have you and your partner *seriously* discussed ending your relationship?	Never	Once	Twice	Three Times	Five Times	Ten or more

Circle the closest percentage which accurately describes your degree of satisfaction

12 Of the *major* things in my relationship, I am satisfied about __% of the time.	0%	20%	40%	60%	80%	100%
13 Of the *minor* things in my relationship, I am satisfied about __% of the time.	0%	20%	40%	60%	80%	100%

Circle the point that best describes your estimation of time

	3 months from now	6 months from now	1 year from now	2 years from now	5 years from now	More than 5 years from now
14 We will probably still be together _____.						

Circle the closest percentage of time with which you agree.

15 My partner and I agree on minor things in our relationship about __% of the time.	0%	20%	40%	60%	80%	100%
16 My partner and I agree on major things in our relationship about __% of the time.	0%	20%	40%	60%	80%	100%

Circle the point that best describes the engergy distribution in your home.

	Energy is all given to work and other activities	Energy is split equally	Energy is all given to the relationship
17 Indicate how much energy you give to your relationship as compared to work and other outside activities.			
18 Indicate how much energy your partner gives to your relationship as compared to work and other outside activities.			

19   Circle the statement that best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship.

I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any lenghty to see that it does.
I want very much for my relationship to succeed and will do all that I can to see that it does.
I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does.
It would be nice if my relathionship succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.
My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep it going.

Circle the point which best describes the degree of happiness.

	Very Unhappy	Unhappy	Somewhat Unhappy	Somewhat Happy	Happy	Perfectly Happy
20 The degree of happiness, everything, considered, in your marriage is						

(Norton, 1983)

Appendix E

Approval to Use Human Subjects

EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY™

1200 Commercial	620-341-5351	GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
Emporia, Kansas	620-341-5909 fax	RESEARCH AND GRANTS CENTER
66801-5087	www.emporia.edu	Campus Box 4003

June 4, 2012

Christene Buchanan
3549 SW Atwood Ave.
Topeka, KS 66614

Dear Ms. Buchanan:

Your application for approval to use human subjects has been reviewed. I am pleased to inform you that your application was approved and you may begin your research as outlined in your application materials. Please reference the protocol number below when corresponding about this research study.

Title:	How Work-Family Conflict Influences Marital Satisfaction and Child Development
Protocol ID Number:	12075
Type of Review:	Expedited
Time Period:	05/10/12-05/10/13

If it is necessary to conduct research with subjects past this expiration date, it will be necessary to submit a request for a time extension. If the time period is longer than one year, you must submit an annual update. If there are any modifications to the original approved protocol, such as changes in survey instruments, changes in procedures, or changes to possible risks to subjects, you must submit a request for approval for modifications. The above requests should be submitted on the form Request for Time Extension, Annual Update, or Modification to Research Protocol. This form is available at www.emporia.edu/research/irb.html.

Requests for extensions should be submitted at least 30 days before the expiration date. Annual updates should be submitted within 30 days after each 12-month period. Modifications should be submitted as soon as it becomes evident that changes have occurred or will need to be made.

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board, I wish you success with your research project. If I can help you in any way, do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

Michael Butler pf

Michael Butler
Chair, Institutional Review Board

pf

cc: George Yancey

An Equal Opportunity Employer

Appendix F

Informed Consent

The Department of Psychology at Emporia State University supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research and related activities. The following information is provided so that you can decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time, and that if you do withdraw from the study, you will not be subjected to reprimand or any other form of reproach. Likewise, if you choose not to participate, you will not be subjected to reprimand or any other form of reproach.

You will complete a questionnaire with various questions on it about your work and personal life. Please check one box per question and complete the survey questionnaire as honestly and as completely as possible. The intent of the study is to benefit the world of work-family conflict research with information about various related constructs. As soon as you finish, if completing online, click Submit and close your internet browser. If completing a paper form, place your completed questionnaire into the self-addressed stamped envelope provided to ensure confidentiality and mail back to the researcher. If completing your questionnaire in a group, there will be no talking until the study has been completed. This study will take approximately 20 minutes.

You will gain no benefits by participating in this study other than aiding to the body of work-family conflict research. The researchers are obligated to tell you as much as you care to know about the study after your part in the study is complete. If you would like a written summary of the results, please include your name and address in the space provided, and the researchers will send you a copy when it is available. You may contact Christene Buchanan at csmalley@emporia.edu for questions or to obtain a written summary of the results.

All persons who take part in this study must sign this consent form. In addition, person's under the age of 18 also must include the signature of a parent or legal guardian. Your signature in the space provided indicates that you have been informed of your rights as a participant, and you have agreed to volunteer on that basis.

"I have read the above statement and have been fully advised of the procedures to be used in this project. I have been given sufficient opportunity to ask any questions I had concerning the procedures and possible risks involved. I understand the potential risks involved and I assume them voluntarily. I likewise understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time without being subjected to reproach."

_____   _____

Participant   Date

For a written summary of the results, please write your email address:

_____

I, Christene Buchanan, hereby submit this thesis to Emporia State University as partial fulfillment of the requirements for an advanced degree. I agree that the Library of the University may make it available for use in accordance with its regulations governing materials of this type. I further agree that quoting, photocopying, digitizing or other reproduction of this document is allowed for private study, scholarship (including teaching) and research purposes of a nonprofit nature. No copying which involves potential financial gain will be allowed without written permission of the author. I also agree to permit the Graduate School at Emporia State University to digitize and place this thesis in the ESU institutional repository.

_____
Signature of Author

_____
Date

How Work-Family Conflict Relates to Marital Satisfaction and Child Development
Title of Thesis

_____
Signature of Graduate Office Staff Member

_____
Date Received