WORK-FAMILY INTERACTION STRAIN: COPING STRATEGIES USED BY SUCCESSFUL WOMEN IN THE PUBLIC, CORPORATE AND SELF-EMPLOYED SECTORS OF THE ECONOMY

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To my family - my mother Jo, my husband Albert, my son Jandré, and my daughter Albe

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study was to identify the coping strategies used by successful women in dealing with work-family interaction strain. The study also investigated cognitive appraisal as a key antecedent of coping with a hypothetical description of a work-family interaction strain situation. A survey was conducted with a sample comprising 110 women in the public, corporate and self-employed sectors of the economy. All the participants were married with at least one child of pre school or school going age. The women worked in positions from middle-management and higher in corporate and public sector organizations or were business owners with at least four employees.

Quantitative and qualitative data were obtained by means of a self-report questionnaire. Interaction strain was measured using the Home and Employment Role scale (HER scale), developed by Parry and Warr (1980). Cognitive appraisal and coping was measured from within the framework of the transactional approach, which defines coping in terms of the person-environment relationship and emphasises the dynamic and interactive nature of the stressful transaction. Cognitive appraisal was measured using the items devised by Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis and Gruen (1986) and coping was measured using the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ), developed by Folkman and Lazarus (1988). Qualitative data was obtained via a request to the respondents asking them to describe what it was like to have work and family responsibilities.

The main finding of the study showed that the participants in this project used both emotional and problem-focused coping strategies in dealing with the hypothetical work-family interaction strain situation. These strategies were positive reappraisal; planful problem solving; self-controlling; and seeking social support. Not one of these coping strategies, however, was significantly favoured above the others. The study did not find evidence of a relationship between the participants' cognitive appraisal of the hypothetical situation and their choice of coping strategy in dealing with this situation, except with regards to cognitive appraisal, control and the coping strategy, escape-avoidance; the higher the participant scored on cognitive appraisal, control, the less likely they were to choose escape-avoidance as a coping strategy in dealing with the situation. Overall, the results of the study showed that this sample of successful business women chose emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies in an integrated manner to deal with a hypothetical work-family situation.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

One of the most significant trends of our time is the continuous rise in the number of married women entering the labour market. This is manifesting world wide as well as in South Africa. In the United States of America, in 84% of married couples both the husband and wife worked in 1997 (Morris, 1997). In South Africa, the percentage of economically active women who were married increased from 19,7% in 1944 to 61,04 % in 1991(Smit, 1995).

1. WOMEN'S LABOUR MARKET PARTICIPATION

Women made up about 36% of the total global work force by 1995. This figure was quoted by Neft and Levine (1997) in an international report on the status of women in 140 countries. In South Africa the participation of women in the workforce increased from 17,1% in 1969 to 28,2% in 1989 (Prekel, 1994). By the mid-1990s, women represented about 36% of the total workforce in South Africa (Neft & Levine, 1997). According to the 1995 October household survey, 46% of women in South Africa were classified as economically active, compared to 63% of men (Central Statistical Services [CSS], 1998)[1].

[1] Employment figures by marital status were unavailable at the time.

1.1 Women in management

The October 1995 household survey found that of the overall number of managers in South Africa, 22% were women. The same survey found that in the public service sector, women accounted for just over 10 % of the public servants at management and senior management level (CSS, 1998). According to numbers quoted by Erwee (1994) the most significant increase in women managers in South Africa since 1985, occurred amongst black women. Women's representation at management level increased from 16,5% of black managers in 1985 to 26% of black managers by 1994 (Erwee, 1994). In comparison the percentage of managers who were women were estimated at 40% in the United States of America and between 20% and 30% in Europe (Guyon, 1998).

1.2 Women business owners

According to Neft and Levine (1997) one of the fastest-growing areas for working women is self-employment. By the mid-1990's in the United States of America, more than a third of entrepreneurs were women, and women were opening new businesses at twice the rate of men. Many of these companies were home-based enterprises; a popular option for mothers of young children and other women who wished to remain at home while earning an income (Neft & Levine, 1997). In the United Kingdom, the number of self-employed women has shown a steady increase over the past decade, and self-employed women made up about a quarter of all self-employed workers by 1997 (Neft & Levine, 1997). This is similar to South Africa; of the 40,000 South African entrepreneurs who have received loans from

the Small Business Development Corporation since its founding in 1981, about 25% have been women (Neft & Levine, 1997).

Women are moving into professions which were, in the past, regarded as being part of 'a man's world' (Prekel, 1994). Although mining and construction were still by far the most male dominated sectors of the employment arena, according to the 1995 October household survey, 4% and 6% respectively of workers in these sectors in South Africa were women (CSS, 1998). However, in trade and finance, women accounted for 45% of the workforce (CSS, 1998). It is clear that although women are not yet as well represented as men across all economic sectors, an increasing number of women in South Africa are finding a position for themselves in a variety of these economic sectors.

Women's increasing participation in the labour market has, however, not liberated them from family responsibilities. When women add the responsibilities of a professional working role to their family responsibilities, they find themselves in a position where they have to cope with dual demands. Why is coping with the demands of work and family primarily seen by others, and often by women themselves, as a woman's problem?

2. "WOMEN'S ROLES"

The term 'role' usually refers to a cluster of socially or culturally defined expectations that individuals in a given situation are expected to fulfil (Chafetz, 1979). According to Bee (1992), any 'role' is a job description, a socially-defined collection of behaviours and traits that a person occupying that role is expected to display. Chafetz (1979) described 'roles' as being defined more or less precisely by society and presumed to apply to all individuals in a given category. These 'role' behaviours are well-learned responses by individuals. Specific role definitions are, however, not static in society. Role definitions change over time and space, and roles may also be prescribed and followed to a more or lesser extent.

2.1 Gender roles

At birth, biological sex immediately places a person into a specific male or female role category, with expectations of gender specific behaviour. The concept 'gender roles' conveys the socio-cultural components that are typically associated with being male or female. Men are typically expected to be more physically virile and athletic, whereas women are supposedly more helpless and weak. Women are expected to be more emotional; less logical, intellectual, rational, objective, independent, free and individualistic than men. Whereas men are expected to be more aggressive, success oriented, and competitive in their behaviour, women are expected to be modest, gentle, tender and passive (Chafetz, 1979).

2.2 The social construction of gender

Freud, S. (1994) was of the opinion that gender is primarily a social construction and that its use as a major organizing principle of the whole social world and of a person's identity is an historical process and not based on the inevitability of biology. Through the socialization process, people to a more or lesser degree internalize these gender role expectations. In order to encourage people not to deviate too much from the cultural norm, positive and negative social sanctions such as rewards or social ostracism are exercised (Chafetz, 1979).

2.3 Gender and the division of labour

Whenever issues are faced such as the allocation and planning of tasks, who gives or takes direction and who is rewarded and how, then the social categories, such as 'female' and 'male' become relevant (West & Zimmerman, 1991). According to Berk (in West & Zimmerman, 1991) even when they are employed outside the home, wives do the vast majority of household and child-care tasks. This arrangement is often perceived by both the wives and husbands as fair. Biernat and Wortman (in Rollins, 1996) were of the opinion that this was true even in marriages where the partners were of relatively equal economic and professional status. Even high-level professional women are socialized to follow traditional divisions of labour standards regarding home and childcare.

According to Hubbard (in Rollins, 1996) women's work is often trivialized, ignored, and undervalued by society, men and themselves. It is not called work when women *only* care for their households and children. Much of women's work

is unpaid and does not appear in any standard description of the economy and therefore has no reality. Rollins (1996) wrote that if all the work that women do is counted, including housework, volunteer work, and paid employment, then women actually spend more time working than men do.

A report in the Sunday Times (1998, October 25) described a study of gender differences in the United Kingdom, which found that working women aged between 16 and 59, slept 12 minutes more per day than men. Other statistics from the same report, showed that working women spend 90 minutes more per day than men cooking and doing routine housework, and spend an average of 20 minutes more per day than men caring for children, it is clear therefore that working women sleep more than men because they are more tired than men. According to the report women's roles in the home had not changed dramatically, despite the advance of women in the workplace, and it was still the woman who had the major responsibility for household chores and childcare. Although more than 60 percent of couples agreed that household cleaning should be shared equally, only 27 percent of these couples actually did so.

If women perform the vast majority of household and child-care tasks, even when they are employed outside the home, does coping with the demands of this dual role influence their well-being? Two major hypotheses have been put forward concerning the relation of role involvement to well-being. One of these, the 'scarcity hypothesis', assumes that because human energy is limited, well-being is impaired by the overload and conflict inherent in numerous, often incompatible

roles, such as work and family (Goode, 1960). Parry and Warr (1980) described the strain experienced by employed women in coping with both domestic and paid work as work-family interaction strain. In contrast to this view is the 'enhancement' hypothesis suggested by Sieber (1974) who emphasises the benefits of multiple role involvement. These benefits include status, privileges, and increased self-esteem.

To work and to have a family have been part of the history of the day to day living experiences of women and men. To cope with the demands of work and family is not a new dilemma of the nineties, but has been part of the daily fabric of life in many historic civilizations.

3. THE MEANING OF WORK AND FAMILY

The concepts 'work' and 'family' may mean different things to different people, and it is therefore necessary to briefly explore these variations:

3.1 The meaning of work

'Work' is usually thought of as something that entails physical and mental effort. Economists define work as something useful, and most people will agree that at least some work is essential. Thoughts about work vary from those who think that it is morally good, to those who argue that we probably would not do quite so much of it if we did not have to. Therefore, there exists a large degree of ambivalence regarding work. The reason for this ambivalence is that, to a large

extent, work is both physical and social at the same time (Udy, 1970). According to Udy it is, therefore, best to describe work as any deliberate effort to change a person's physical environment.

According to Tilgher (in Schreuder & Theron, 1997), individual meanings of work are derived directly or indirectly from socio-cultural influences and these socio-cultural influences are embedded in historical contexts. The historical contexts give rise to the changing meanings of work over time.

Pre-industrial meanings of work, included work being associated with drudgery; with being instrumental, as well as with the more spiritual or religious meanings of work, such as seeing work as intrinsically meaningful for its own sake. *Industrialization* involved the mass-production of objects in factories, with accompanying structural changes in the work process. Workers were adversely affected by the division of labour and the fragmentation, mechanization and repetitiveness of tasks. People's will to work declined and many sought meaning outside work (Tilgher, in Schreuder & Theron, 1997).

In *post-industrial society* the focus is on information, rather than industry. Currently, production is associated with producing ideas in offices, in addition to manufacturing objects in factories. Computerization and sophisticated communication technology have brought a variety of possibilities and choices for the individual (Jencks, in Schreuder & Theron, 1997).

3.2 The meaning of family

The family in modern western societies usually refers to a unit consisting of a husband and wife, and their children. This unit is widely thought of as a group based on marriage and biological parenthood; and as sharing a common residence, united by ties of affection, obligations of care and support; as well as a sense of a common identity (Elliot, 1986).

However, the reality of what a family looks like today, often differs quite dramatically from this definition. In modern society, there are many adoptive families, foster families, and families living in unmarried cohabitation, to name but a few variations of the family. It has, therefore, become more acceptable to speak of 'families' rather than the family, in that this terminology recognises the diversity of modern families (Elliot, 1986).

For the purposes of this discussion, the type of family referred to here is the unit consisting of a husband and wife and their children.

3.3 Women, their work, and their families

Women have always worked and women have always had families. According to Neft and Levine (1997) even in past centuries, women in towns and cities worked as laundresses, seamstresses, hairdressers, domestics, shopkeepers, and midwives, while rural women were involved in all aspects of farming, from raising crops and livestock to spinning yarn and preserving food.

Through the centuries it was the household that remained the centre of production. This was where the basic needs were produced by families - adults, as well as children (Neft & Levine, 1997). Although wives were responsible for caring for the household and small children, they also often assisted their husbands in the field or workshops. They also earned extra money for their families by selling extra produce or fabric (Neft & Levine, 1997).

With the advent of the industrial revolution, women were taken out of their homes to help tend the machines that made the factories run (Barber, 1994; Sullerot, 1971). Educated young single women of the middle class were found in the more prestigious white-collar jobs, such as secretaries, sales clerks or teachers. These women were still, however, expected to stay home and raise their families once they got married (Neft & Levine, 1997). According to Oakley (in Elliot, 1986), the wives of skilled workers, who earned high wages did not generally participate in paid work, and by the end of the nineteenth century to have a wife who did not work was what the self-respecting industrial worker and middle-class husband aspired to.

By the end of the nineteenth century, married women were located in the home and were identified with domesticity. Apart from brief upsurges in their labour market participation during the First and Second World Wars, women took little part in productive labour outside the home until the 1950s. The concept of the male breadwinner and women as housewives became popular (Elliot, 1986).

Since the 1950s, married womens' involvement in paid work increased markedly (Elliot, 1986). This increase in the numbers of married working women, was related to an increasing awareness of gender equality issues, better education for women, as well as economic realities, such as a rise in the standard of living. Women needed and wanted wages (Cott, 1987).

Crystal Eastman wrote in 1927 that "...the great woman question of to-day," and "...the very essence of feminism" is "...how to reconcile a woman's natural desire for love and home and children with her equally natural desire for work of her own for which she is paid" (in Cott, 1987, p. 180). This is as true today as it was then. The new challenge for both women and men is toward a sharing of roles in which both the husband and wife take on equal responsibility for the demands of their dual role.

As increasing numbers of women enter organizations, their presence brings new and different perspectives to employment issues into these organizations. These women become agents for change within their organizations (Ledwith & Colgan, 1996). The current trend toward 'softer' management styles and the use of coaching and facilitating, rather than autocratic approaches, favour women managers (Durcan & Oates, 1996). So called 'female' attributes such as interpersonal skills, consensus, teamworking, negotiation, and being able to handle several projects at a time are increasingly valued in organizations (Ledwith & Colgan, 1996).

The restructuring of organizations, with downsizing and many layers of management being removed, has, however, had mixed results for women (Durcan & Oates, 1996). Handy (1995) argued that with the slimming down of organizations, these organizations have become greedy for the worker's time and are happy to create a home away from home for high achieving work addicts. Women are welcome in these worlds, as long as they share the values; in other words, as long as they behaved like men. Handy (1995) suggested that traditionally, people had been fitted to the work, but that what might be needed at present, is that the work be fitted to the people, as people have become the key assets in organizations. Project-based assignments, in which the case-worker is allowed to use his or her discretion about how the work was done, but also as to when and where it could be done, may provide a solution. Handy (1995) warned that this type of flexibility had to be found in order to prevent organizations from becoming too demanding of worker's time and forcing women to choose between career and family.

With the restructuring of organizations, many people have to find new ways of employment. Self-employment is being explored as a viable option by an increasing number of people. Many of these entrepreneurs are the owners of home-based businesses. According to Grossmann (1998) (in *Inc.*, a business magazine for growing companies), in a special issue on the state of small business, there is no longer a stigma attached to working from home, and home-based entrepreneurs are welcomed into the American business world. Many of these entrepreneurs are independent professionals who work from home and sell their product, skills or

services to different organizations (Handy, 1995). Women have, in increasing numbers, taken advantage of this new trend in the world of work. According to Neft and Levine (1997), one of the fastest-growing job categories for women in both the developed and the developing regions of the world is that of self-employment.

Whether women today use their increasing presence in organizations as an agent for changing organizational culture from within, so as to be more accommodating to the needs of women and their families; or whether they decide to pursue their careers from home, close to their families, linked to the world of business by their telephones and modems, the characteristics of post-industrial society has brought with it a variety of possibilities for working towards the compatibility of work and family. This study, therefore, investigates the strategies to manage work and family used by women managers, who work within organizational structures, as well as the strategies used by women who are self-employed.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

When married women with children have to manage both work and family, questions regarding personal well-being and coping arise. This chapter provides a brief review of the literature regarding the strain associated with the work-family lifestyle, as well as the way women cope and coping in general. A description of the main objectives of the present study concludes this chapter.

1. WORK-FAMILY INTERACTION STRAIN

The literature on the conflict between work and family roles was reviewed by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), who suggested that work-family conflict exists when *time* devoted to the requirements of one role, *strain* from participation in one role, and *specific behaviours* required by one role make it difficult to fulfil the requirements of another role. Work schedules, work orientation, marriage, children, and spouse employment patterns may all create pressures for increasing participation in the work role or the family role. When these time pressures are incompatible with the role domain, conflict is experienced. According to Pleck, Staines and Lang (in Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) the physical and psychological demands of the work role may contribute to work-family conflict. As with the

work domain, family role characteristics which demand an extensive time commitment, such as the presence of young children, may directly or indirectly create strain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The emotional restrictedness, presumably reinforced at work, and the openness expected by family members, may be a source of conflict if a person is unable to adjust behaviour to comply with the demands of different roles (Bartolome, in Greenhaus & Beutell). When faced with competing demands at work and at home, less commitment to the job is expected for women than for men (Rosen & Jerdee, in Greenhaus & Beutell). Non-compliance with the expectation that women are less committed to their jobs, may cause sanctions from others, as well as sanction from the woman herself, manifesting as guilt. The degree to which societal sanctions regarding work and family role performance by women was changing, was not clear at the time of the review.

It may be that the quality of women's experience in their work or family role, affects their level of well-being more than whether they occupy one or both of these roles. In a study in the United States by Baruch and Barnett (1986), which examined women's occupancy of the social roles of paid worker, wife, and mother and the quality of their experiences in these roles, it was found that women who occupy the same roles may experience the quality of each role differently. The study supports the view that neither the scarcity hypothesis (which postulates that well-being is impaired by the overload and conflict inherent in numerous, often incompatible roles, such as work and family) nor the enhancement hypothesis, (which emphasises the benefits of multiple role involvement, such as status,

privileges, and increased self-esteem) gives an adequate explanation of women's experiences in their social roles. According to Baruch and Barnett, being a paid worker was the only role occupancy related to a well-being index, in that it was associated with higher self-esteem.

What then are the underlying influences that shape the quality of women's experiences in their work and family roles? Gilbert and Rachlin (1987) identified key influences in the psychosocial development of women and men. Women and men's childhood and social experiences differ in such a way that women are more socialized to develop a sense of commitment, relatedness, nurturance, and dependability, whereas, men are more socialized to develop freedom of spirit, independence and self-directedness (Block, in Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987). Therefore, the characteristics generally associated with career success are more consistent with male socialization than female socialization patterns. These effects of gender-role socialization may inhibit or circumscribe women's achievement behaviour in their work roles. A widely held view is that a career and a family is a 'given' for a man, but that a woman 'is trying to have it all' (Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987).

Russo (1987), in reaction to Gilbert and Rachlin (1987) raised the issue of the extent to which discriminatory structures in society affect the judgement of dual career couples on what is 'fair'. How, for example, does the fact that society puts less monetary value on a woman's time, result in her being responsible for a disproportionate share of household duties? A man or a woman's perception of

fairness may be affected by societal attitudes that assume male dominance and privilege.

In a compilation of 24 articles on the changing context of work and family roles, Voydanoff (1984) examined two major aspects of work and family: the economic roles of men and women and the impact of occupational conditions on family life. This review provided the basis for an examination of the ways in which individuals attempt to co-ordinate the demands of work and family, institutional responses to work-family conflict, and economic difficulties among families. Voydanoff, in a summation of the 24 readings, recommended the establishment of processes to create a more symmetrical division of labour between men and women at home and at work, as well as the development of coping strategies to handle role conflicts. In the long run, however, she argued that institutionalised policies were necessary to effectively deal with the work-family interaction. This may include changes in the structure of work and policies to meet the economic needs of families. These recommendations imply that work-home conflicts should not be regarded as a women-only problem, but that both men and women should attempt to deal with the outcomes of the changing roles and in their efforts to cope, they have the right to expect assistance from social and economic structures in society.

Predominant social values, such as the independence of families, minimal government intervention, the separation of home and workplace, and the gender-typed division of labour, lead to policies that create dilemmas for coping with work and family (Walker, Rozée-Koker & Wallston, 1987). These social values create

conflicts involving personal ambitions and concepts of mothering. When such conflicts occur, a woman may attempt to cope with this by seeking some way to satisfy her achievement needs and at the same time to reduce the conflict she feels in violating societal norms, and perhaps internalized societal norms as well. If she is reluctant to challenge her spouse, fearful of ruining her marriage, or worried about harming her children psychologically, she is likely to consider options such as cutting back on her career, choosing a less demanding profession, remaining in a low-status position, or to stop working altogether (Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987).

However, women who decide not to reduce their career involvement, may in the long term reap the benefits of such a decision as, according to Rachlin (in Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987), the amount and type of strain that impinges on the family system depends in part on the particular phase in which the family finds itself. Rachlin found that older individuals (36 and up) in dual-career and dual-earner marriages reported a significantly greater degree of well-being than younger individuals. As couples progress into the later stages of their marriages , the demands of establishing two careers, parenting young children, and developing strategies for dealing with work and family obligations are largely alleviated (Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987). Reacting to Gilbert and Rachlin (1987), Pleck (1987) cites Safilios-Rothschild who found that professional women have greater resources to employ outside help. The benefit of professional women's ability to buy support, may, unfortunately, also reduce the need for the husband to change.

Much change in men and women's commitment to work and family has occurred in that men, to a greater degree, base their self-evaluation on family-related issues, whereas women's self-evaluation is increasingly based on work-related issues. These changes have brought men and women closer in their definitions of well-being. However, when there is change, there is also bound to be resistance (Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987). According to Pepitone-Rockwell (in Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987) the working out of a dual-career relationship to a large extend depends on women's ability to press for and achieve what they consider to be an equitable situation. The literature consulted generally indicates that women take on more and give up more than men in attempting to make this arrangement work.

If women take up more and give up more in order to keep their employment status, what are the benefits that encourage them to do this? A study by Wethington and Kessler (1989), on married couples residing in the United States of America, analysed the relationship of employment status and parenting status with psychological distress. They found that women who significantly increased their labour force participation, reported lower levels of psychological distress over the study period, while women who significantly decreased their labour force participation reported higher psychological distress. The effects of labour force change on mental health were not modified by parenting status or changes in parenting status. The transition to parenting and increased parenting responsibilities, however, was directly related to increased psychological distress insofar as they resulted in decreased labour force participation. They concluded that evidence from smaller scale surveys (See De Meis, Hock, & McBride, 1986;

Hock, Gnezda, & McBride, 1984; Stewart & Healy, 1989), suggested that the increasing social and personal tolerance toward combining motherhood and employment may have reduced the conflict experienced by some new mothers, compared to some older cohorts of women.

It seems that as men and women share increasingly similar roles, their experiences of those roles become increasingly similar too. This view was supported by the findings of Hochshild (1990) in an investigation in the United States of 50 dual career couples with children under six years of age. In-depth interviews and observation in 12 homes revealed that men who shared the load at home seemed just as pressed for time as their wives, and as torn between the demands of career and small children. The majority of men, however, did not share the load at home. Wives felt more responsible for home and children and devoted proportionally more time to housework and less of it to childcare. In the light of Hochshild's findings, which suggest that women still carry the major load at home, it comes as no surprise that Freedman and Phillips (1988) argued that the work-home interface for working women will be of paramount concern in the 1990's. Shelton and Firestone (1988) cite evidence which suggests that the traditional division of labour at home continues to exist.

This division of labour and the fact that women felt more responsible for home and children provides a possible explanation for the greater stress from the work-home interface reported by women, compared to men, in studies of female managers in Britain (Davidson & Cooper, 1985). These findings by Davidson and Cooper led

Nelson, Quick, Hill and Moesel (1990) to the conclusion that work-home conflict was a potentially important source of stress for working women. In their research on women personnel professionals in the United States, Nelson et al. found that work-home conflicts might have significant dysfunctional effects on women's health and well being, but that they were independent of other organizational stressors and might be unrelated to job satisfaction. Research quoted by them found that as women moved up the career ladder they were also likely to experience more stress, and thus also experience effects such as somatic symptoms. However, they were also likely to have more organizational resources such as alternative work scheduling and day-care at their disposal. But, the degree of assistance provided by organizations is hampered in that many corporations are run by men with stay-at-home wives, who do not grasp the problem of balancing work and family. According to Burden and Googins (in Zedeck & Mosier, 1990) these men are making management decisions and setting human resource policy for a work force with a completely different life-style and set of job and home responsibilities than their own. It seems, therefore, that women to a large extent have to rely on their own resources to balance work and family. Nelson et al. recommended an examination of the personal coping strategies employed by women in attempting to manage work-home conflicts.

Based on empirical findings of surveys and interviews with women and men, Crosby (1991) interviewed 50 men and women in the United States of America and concluded that most jugglers (her term for women attempting to balance work and family demands) derived a great deal of pleasure from life, but that they also

felt stressed, stretched, and tired to the point of exhaustion. To function with less stress they would need to function in a society which valued women and children more than American society did and in a culture that did not impose the burden of individualism on women, children and men. She identified the source of the stress as sexism and overly individualistic ideology.

Wiersma and Van den Berg (1991) investigated the correlates of work-home role conflict for dual-earner parents, to determine if and how these correlates differ for men and women, and to assess the relative impact of emotional support and role overload on role conflict. Data for this study were collected in the north-eastern United States. Their findings support earlier suggestions by Baruch and Barnett (1986) that the quality of women's experience in their social roles may have a greater impact on their well-being than the number of roles occupied. They found that family climate was an important correlate of work-home role conflict for men and women; that domestic responsibilities mediate the relationship between gender and role conflict; and that family climate and domestic responsibilities each explained significant portions of role conflict variance (among women, the better the family climate, the less free time they spend on domestic responsibilities, and the more time they spend socializing with friends). Personal energy is greater when one is a member of a healthy family, making it easier to juggle the demands of spouse, parent and worker. They conclude that how one works hard (the conditions under which one lives) may affect perceptions of role conflict as much as how hard one works (the number of tasks one performs).

A model of the relationships between work conflict, family conflict, work-family conflict, quality of work life, quality of family life, and life satisfaction were developed and tested in a survey by Higgins, Duxbury and Irving, (1992). The survey included participants regarded as career-oriented (managers and professionals) with children and a career-oriented spouse. The participants were from large private or public sector organizations in the United States and the results shift the focus to the work domain, indicating that work-conflict was the most important predictor of family conflict. In another study Higgins and Duxbury (1992) highlighted the predicament of men in dual-career marriages, who are constrained in their ability to assist their wives due to a lack of social support and outdated personnel policies and expectations that still operate as if the world of work and family can be separated. The findings of the study by Higgins, Duxbury and Irving supported Kanter (in Higgins et al., 1992) who argued that work and family domains cannot be considered as separate, independent entities.
Women managers, apparently realise that in general they cannot rely on active support from their husbands or the organization, as suggested by a recent study of women in management positions in Israel (Izraeli, 1993). The study found that women who follow a career path are expected to do so without cost to the family and to manage without infringing (except in emergencies) on husband's work time. Those who are unable to do so are more likely to avoid high commitment jobs.

Yet, despite the obvious strain involved in combining work and family, an increasing number of women are choosing this lifestyle. In a study which

investigated the relationship between career and emotional health and well-being for a group of highly successful Canadian career women, Beatty (1996) questioned whether the stress experienced by managerial and professional women was too high a price to pay for their career success. She came to the conclusion that the process of achieving success in management and professional careers may well entail stress, but that the benefits outweigh the costs. The price is not too high; in fact the price of avoiding these careers may well be much higher.

The increasing awareness of the interface between work and family domains, as reported in the American and European literature, has prompted South African researchers to investigate the effects of combining work and family roles on South African women and their families.

South African studies

In a survey of the attitudes and experiences of a sample of women working in management positions in South Africa, Knell (1981) found that they perceived a woman's role in society to be that of achieving a compromise between their work and family lives. According to Suchet (1984), the increased participation of women in the labour force is creating social changes which affect marital relationships negatively and she suggested that the treatment of role strain had to include both husband and wife. In a study to determine whether various ethnic groups would differ in terms of the psychological consequences of employment, coloured professional women reported higher levels of spouse involvement in the rearing of

children in comparison with both white and black professional women (Heald, 1987).

Recent studies have emphasized the rewards of being a working woman for both the woman and her family. In a study that included 642 married working women in the PWV area, Du Toit (1992) obtained information on the professional orientation and family life of the working married woman. The results indicated that high career involvement and ambition indicated concomitant high marriage and family involvement. Smit (1995) wrote that the increasing interface between work and family, within the work-family spill-over model, had led to the conventional belief that, due to the stress within the work-situation, female employment and marital dissolution were causally related. Smit added that in recent studies (Piña & Bengtson, 1993; Vannoy & Philliber, 1992) however, researchers were no longer concentrating only on the detrimental effects of the dual-earner family lifestyle, but were increasingly investigating intervening variables which alleviate stress in dual-earner families and which actually contributed to a higher experience of marital integration and quality. These studies suggested that both work-related variables, such as career involvement and career ambition, and family-related variables, such as the emotional work and support that the wife received from her spouse, should be taken into consideration in this regard - knowledge of these variables might not only help the dual earner family to cope with the strenuous dilemmas, but might actually contribute to better marital and family relationships.

South African research regarding the work-family lifestyle has mainly focused on the strain associated with this lifestyle. Future research need to shift the focus to the strategies women employ to cope with balancing work and family, as well as to provide a foundation for creating institutionalised policies which will assist women and men to effectively deal with work-family interaction strain.

2. COPING

A review of the literature consulted reveals a need for further research on the coping strategies women use in dealing with work-family interaction strain. Many studies of stress and coping have failed to include women as participants. The literature available on work-family interaction strain and coping suggests a need for investigating adult women who are established in the work setting, as very little is known about the vocational process of most of the population, except if they are white, upper or middle class, college students, and North American (Fitzgerald & Betz, in Fassinger & Richie, 1994; Greenglass, 1995). Research findings indicate that the traditional division of labour, with women sharing the major load of family responsibilities, still exists. How, then, do women cope with the demands of this dual role?

Women are often portrayed as less able copers than the samples of men they are compared with. In an article which attempted to illustrate limitations in current coping theories for understanding women, Banyard and Graham-Bermann (1993) suggested a reformulating of coping theories, based on women's experiences,

which examines the role of social forces (such as sexism and racism), as well as access to power as variables in the coping process - rather than solely focusing on the individual. Do women, for example, cope differently if they are coping in the context of other women or in the presence of men or when they are alone? To what extent do the characteristics of the organizational environment in which a woman finds herself, demand that a woman who is able to use a wide variety of coping strategies, choose one strategy over another? According to Banyard and Graham-Bermann, power is a key variable in defining the context. In addition, the authors suggested that coping should not only be seen as actions taken by and for the self, but that coping includes those actions which are used to maximize the survival of others (such as children, family and friends). Coping also has to do with evaluating how the stressor and strategies used to deal with it, will impact on the welfare of others (Fine, in Banyard & Graham-Bermann).

Some studies have partially addressed women's coping behaviour; one of these is a study by Fassinger and Richie (1994) who compared coping strategies from within the Folkman and Lazarus model (1988) with achieving styles, as identified by the theory of Lipman-Blumen (in Fassinger & Richie). Based on previous research, they expected the achieving styles to be related to coping strategies. Lipman-Blumen (in Fassinger & Richie) outlined the following achieving styles: the *competitive-direct* (achievers who want to do a task better than anyone else, they view situations competitively, and compare themselves to external standards of performance); *power-direct* (achievers who take charge, use personal power to organize situations, and control other people in an effort to achieve their goals);

and *personal-instrumental* (achievers who use their personal attributes, accomplishments, and family backgrounds to persuade people and to reach their goals, and evaluate their achievements on the basis of recognition and relationships). Fassinger and Richie expected that these achieving styles might be associated with the confrontive coping, accepting responsibility, self-controlling, and planful-problem solving coping strategies which were described by Folkman and Lazarus. The results, however, indicated a strong, positive relationship between the competitive-direct achieving style and distancing, self-controlling, escape-avoidance, positive reappraisal, and accepting responsibility. Fassinger and Richie (1994) suggested that this somewhat surprising finding suggested an individual who prefers a direct and competitive achieving style but who, perhaps compelled by a relative lack of power in male-dominated environments, uses internal and indirect approaches to coping when dealing with workplace stresses. This study by Fassinger and Richie (1994) represents one of the only known attempts to study coping in the most highly accomplished women across a variety of occupational fields in the United States.

An assessment of the relationships between male and female university faculty in the United States at three occupational ranks (assistant, associate, and full professor), found that the coping behaviours employed by these faculty members were generally similar regardless of gender or occupational rank. However, for men, strain decreased as they moved up in rank, whereas for women, strain increased as they were promoted. This may be due to the relative isolation experienced by women in top positions, who often have very few women role

models with whom to discuss issues pertaining to their situation (Richard & Krieshok, 1989). With regard to coping styles, Brems and Johnson (1989) found that gender had a significant influence on two of the strategies they assessed on a United States sample of male and female college students. Women appeared to use turning against self more than men, whereas men were more likely than women to use denial. They found that this pattern of women to turn against self was also consistent with the finding that women tended to appraise their own problem-solving abilities as low. This suggests that men may not easily admit to themselves or others any potential problems or difficulties, whereas women may be more aware of and open to internal states.

The relationship between coping strategies, sex-typed traits, and environmental characteristics were compared by Long (1990) in a Canadian sample consisting of male and female managers. For total coping, the results showed that the overall repertoire of strategies used was influenced by gender, expressiveness, and episode importance. A larger coping repertoire was associated with being a woman, appraisal of stressor importance, and expressive traits. There appeared to be no difference in male and female managers' potential adaptation to demanding work situations. Women, however, were more likely to have a greater coping repertoire, particular greater avoidance and reappraisal coping. Long suggested that the greater avoidance and reappraisal coping reported by women managers needed further investigation, as it was unclear whether this tendency was helpful (i.e. by buying time to garner resources) or lead to psychological distress, particularly depression. An interesting finding was that women were more likely to perceive

interpersonal conflicts as stressful, yet they also perceived the work environment as being more interpersonally supportive. Therefore, greater avoidance and problem-reappraisal coping by women may be the result of the specific stressor experienced. Women may, for example, not perceive active problem-solving coping as appropriate in certain circumstances. Another explanation may be that both interpersonal conflicts and support may be more salient to women than to men.

Gender differences in coping were also found by Endler and Parker (1990) in a Canadian study on women and men undergraduates. Women reported significantly more emotion-oriented and avoidance-oriented coping than did men, although there were no male-female differences on task-oriented coping. Matheny and Cupp (in Monat and Lazarus, 1991) suggested that women somaticized more than men, and hence, a stronger stress-illness relationship existed for them. Greenglass (1995) suggested that women managers were better able than men to incorporate interpersonal support into the construction of other coping forms and to utilise support to lessen their reliance on less effective coping strategies. According to Labouvie-Vief (in Diehl, Coyle & Labouvie-Vief, 1996), women appeared to develop ways of coping that take into account interpersonal and emotional aspects of situations in a more complex and integrated fashion than men.

The socialization vs the role constraint hypotheses were offered to account for gender differences in coping (Ptacek, Smith & Zanas, 1992; Rosario, Shinn, Mørch & Huckabee, 1988). The socialization hypothesis contends that because of sex role stereotypes and expectations, men and women are brought up and educated to

cope differently with similar stressors. Thus, men are socialised to be instrumental in their coping behaviours and would therefore favour problem focused coping strategies. Women are socialized to express their emotions openly and to seek support from others and would therefore be expected to cope with life-stressors in an emotion-focused way. This hypothesis centres on the individual as the source of the differences in coping tendencies and behaviours, with coping being seen as a stable, learned, environmentally-shaped behaviour.

According to the role-constraint hypothesis when stressors are the same for men and women, gender is not related to differential use of coping strategies. The assumption underlying the role constraint hypothesis is that men and women differ in their social roles, which consequently expose them to different kinds of stressors. Three studies by Rosario et al. (1988), where the roles occupied by women and men were the same, were conducted to test the socialization and role constraint theories. Two of the studies by Rosario et al. also compared role constraint and socialization theories for social support. The result for coping did not support the socialization theory and partially supported the role constraint theory. Men and women did not differ in the ways they coped with similar role stressors. For social support, the results indicated that women used more social support than men in similar role situations. Evidence of several studies (Greenglass, 1990; Long, 1990; McDonald & Korabik, 1991) indicate that when women and men are in jobs that are equivalent in decision-making latitude, access to resources, and control, such as when they both occupy managerial positions, they utilise problem-solving coping strategies to the same extent. In a study by

Ben-Zur and Zeidner (1996) to compare the coping patterns of Israeli men and women under a grave collective disaster (the 1991 Persian Gulf War), and under daily routine conditions, women were more likely than men to report on active, problem-focused coping and they used a wider range of coping activities than men during the period of grave danger. In their coping with daily routine stressors, women reported more emotion-focused coping. Ben-Zur and Zeidner concluded that coping strategies should not be assessed without taking into consideration the meaning and significance of the specific situation for both men and women. Ptacek et al. (1992) found no gender differences between men and women in the appraisal of events.

The presence of androgyny plays an important role in effective coping for women. This was found in a South African study by Spangenberg and Lategan (1993), which examined the impact of androgyny and attributional style on coping ability for a sample of first year university students. Women with androgynous sex-role orientations displayed significantly better coping abilities than those with feminine or undifferentiated sex-role orientations. Subjects with high levels of both masculinity and femininity had an advantage over those with a preponderance of either traditionally feminine or traditionally masculine attributes in their personalities. However, Brems and Johnson (1989) suggested that researchers may want to consider androgyny more in terms of flexibility of behaviours rather than diversity, specifically, it may not be that androgynous individuals have a combination of masculine and feminine behaviours, but that they have the most flexible and socially acceptable behaviours of both.

Patterns of coping in black working women in the south-eastern United States, the majority whom worked as clerks and service workers in one agency, were studied by Smyth & Williams (1991). The study proposed to replicate on a sample of black women factor patterns for the Revised Ways of Coping Scale (R-WOCS) (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). As the use of coping resources is influenced by internalized cultural values and beliefs that proscribe ways of behaving, there were reasons to believe that black Americans may differ from whites in this respect. This pilot study showed some evidence that the R-WOCS 'tapped' social support and positive reappraisal as coping strategies used by this sample of black working women. The literature on black American women has consistently indicated that the social networks most often used were family, friends, church, and clergymen (Hill, in Smyth & Williams, 1991). In another study, Willie (in Smyth & Williams, 1991) found a strong concept of self-reliance among the middle-class blacks in her sample. She came to the conclusion that group (family) self-reliance was used to strengthen individual effort. These findings were confirmed by Markides and Mindel (in Smyth & Williams, 1991), who stated that the literature they had reviewed uniformly claimed that the most important function of the black American family was that of social and psychological refuge for individual members.

The previously quoted study by Fassinger and Richie (1994) is one of only a few studies that has attempted to study black American women in the highest professional ranks. According to Richie (1992), the coping literature suggested some racial differences in coping strategies. Blacks in the United States (relevant to their white counterparts) had been found to use more diverse and flexible coping

responses in stressful situations. This included greater use of prayer, greater use of informal social support networks and more frequent appraisal of stressful events as discriminatory in nature. Banyard and Graham-Bermann (1993) recommended the inclusion of different groups of women in the pool of respondents and to refrain from assuming that coping and survival look the same for all women.

The question regarding the coping behaviour of women as it pertains to the dual role of work and family still remains largely unanswered and, therefore, it is the aim of the present research to add to the current body of knowledge regarding women's coping behaviour. The assumption is being made that women who have achieved higher levels in the private and public spheres have developed coping strategies to deal with work-family interaction strain more effectively. Very little is known about the coping strategies used by successful African women, white or black, and the extent to which the different cultural backgrounds of these women may impact differently on their coping behaviour, compared to their counterparts in America and the more developed countries of the world. According to Spurlock (1995), knowledge about the coping strategies used by women who have achieved success in their chosen careers, may assist other women in the development of effective coping strategies and enable women to explore and enjoy the choices available to them. In order to understand the coping behaviour of women it is necessary to give a brief review of the current conceptualization of coping.

2.1 Coping conceptualized: a brief review

There are two dominant approaches on stress and coping. The *structural approach* considers coping in terms of individual differences and personality characteristics. Coping is defined as a function of personality, while the variations of the stressful situations are of little or no importance (McCrae & Costa, 1986). According to Hudek-Knezevic and Kardum (1996), research based on this approach deals with general categories of stressors, or a general appraisal of the intensity of the stress provoked by a certain situation. Within the framework of the structural approach, there are two assumptions on how individual differences could influence coping. McCrae and Costa describe the first assumption as stating that preferred coping strategies are directly derived from personality traits as, for example, extraversion and neuroticism. Several studies indicate that there is some empirical evidence on the cross-situational and temporal consistency and stability of coping efforts that is under the influence of personality traits (See Bolger & Schilling, 1991; Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1989; McCrae & Costa, 1986; Parkes, 1986; Scheier, Weintraub & Carver, 1986).

Hudek-Knezevic and Kardum describe the second assumption which exists within the structural approach, and relates to the influence of personality characteristics on coping: there are stable styles, dispositions or preferences for coping which people employ when in stressful situations. The proponents of this assumption, Carver, Scheier and Weintraub (1989), do not deny the potential importance of personality traits to coping, but assume that coping dispositions are not directly related to personality traits, and that people use relatively stable coping strategies

in time and across various situations. Lazarus and Folkman (1984), however, were of the opinion that the trait and style approaches to coping were incomplete, as measures of coping traits and styles are not good predicators of actual coping processes, in that these approaches underestimate both the complexity and variability of the ways people cope. Lazarus and Folkman also pointed out that coping implies *effort* and should not be equated with mastery, as many sources of stress cannot be mastered, and effective coping under these conditions is that which allows the person to tolerate, minimize, accept, or ignore that which cannot be mastered.

The *transactional approach* defines coping in terms of all cognitive and behavioural responses intended to resolve a mismatch between environmental outcomes and the individual's wants or, at least, to minimize the threat implied by the mismatch (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Mikulincer, 1994). Working from within the transactional approach, Folkman and Lazarus are two researchers on coping who have had a major impact on theoretical developments in the literature on coping methods. Their suggestion that coping has two major functions, namely the regulation of distressing emotions (emotion-focused coping) and doing something to positively change the problem causing the distress (problem-focused coping) closely match a distinction between emotion-focused coping and problem-focused coping that is prevalent in the literature on coping methods. In addition to their valuable contribution to the development of the coping literature with their process-oriented cognitive-transactional theory of stress, they have also developed 'The Ways of Coping Questionnaire' (WCQ) which is a widely used coping scale

(Endler & Parker, 1990). The WCQ was developed in line with the cognitive-transactional theory of stress and coping. According to Parker and Endler (in Schwarzer & Schwarzer, 1996), the problem with the WCQ is that the number of extracted factors change with different samples or different stressors. However, Schwarzer and Schwarzer acknowledge that this seems to be a problem with most coping measures, as it reflects the unresolved debate on the disposition versus situation approaches. The present research aims to investigate women's coping behaviour as it pertains to a particular domain, i.e., work-family interaction strain, and will therefore work from within the transactional approach.

2.1.1 The Cognitive Appraisal Model of Folkman and Lazarus

The cognitive appraisal model of Lazarus and Folkman (1984) postulates that coping responses are constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of a person. Their approach focuses on what the person actually thinks and does in a specific stressful encounter, and how this changes as the encounter unfolds. They suggest that coping has two major functions: the regulation of distressing emotions (emotion-focused coping) and doing something to positively change the problem causing the distress (problem-focused coping). People rely on both forms of coping in managing the demands of a stressful encounter. Coping is seen as a process that involves the changing character of what the person thinks and does during the unfolding of specific person-environment encounters and across encounters. Structural approaches, in contrast, focus on recurrent cognitive, behavioural, and emotional patterns that express more or less

stable features of the person. The model stresses the contextual nature of coping and sees it as influenced by the person's appraisal of the actual demands in the encounter and resources for managing the demands (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Folkman and Lazarus (1988), outline eight ways of coping that people tend to use. *Problem-focused strategies* are used to actively change the unacceptable situation and include: **confrontive coping, accepting responsibility** and **planful problem solving**. *Emotion-focused strategies* are internal attempts to change one's perceptions of or feelings about an undesirable situation and regulate stressful emotions. They include: **distancing, self-controlling , seeking social support, escape-avoidance** and **positive reappraisal**. They found that people used significantly less planful problem-solving and distancing in encounters that involved a loved one's well-being than they did when this concern was low and that more planful problem-solving and self-control were used in encounters that involved a goal at work.

Cognitive appraisal is a process through which the person evaluates whether a particular encounter with the environment is relevant to his or her well-being , and if so, in what ways. This is the key issue in the transactional model. In primary appraisal the person evaluates the potential harm or benefit in the situation. This includes harm/loss, threat and challenge. Threat and challenge are not necessarily mutually exclusive. An encounter, such as a job promotion, can be appraised as both a challenge and a threat. The person assesses what is at stake in the encounter and various coping options are evaluated. In secondary appraisal the person makes

a judgement concerning what might and could be done. It includes an evaluation about whether a given coping option would accomplish what it is supposed to; if one can apply a particular strategy or set of strategies effectively; and an evaluation of the consequences of using a particular strategy in the context of other internal and/or external demands and constraints. Primary and secondary appraisals converge to determine whether the person-environment transaction is regarded as significant for well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis & Gruen, 1986). In Lazarus's model of stress and coping, the appraisal of controllability is considered an important secondary appraisal variable (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). The beneficial effects of perceived control were shown in research which indicated that perceived control is associated with decreased stress levels and improved worker health. Situational appraisals of control had been linked to the performance of active problem-solving coping strategies (Folkman, Aldwin, & Lazarus in Greenglass, 1995).

2.1.2 Other dimensions of coping

A person's social network or social support system can be viewed as a coping resource, to be cultivated, maintained, and used or not used in many different ways. This resource can be drawn upon for emotional support, which contributes to the feeling that one is loved or cared about. It can also be drawn upon for tangible support, which involves direct assistance in terms of services or material goods, as well as for informational support, which includes information and advice (Schefer, Coyne & Lazarus, in Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). Folkman and Lazarus (1985) in a study of emotion and coping on a sample of United States

undergraduate students during three stages of a college examination, found that the demands of the situation, in part, determine the type of support that is used. According to Holahan and Moos (1986) family support is a more important resistance resource for women than for men and Greenglass (1995) suggested that when employed women with families were able to share with others the activities associated with one or more of their roles, they were less likely to experience role conflict. In a study by Matsui, Ohsawa and Onglatco (1995), which examined the work-family conflict and stress-buffering effects of husband support and coping behaviour among Japanese married working women, husband support buffered the relationship between parental demands and work-family conflict; and family-role redefinition buffered the relationship between work-family conflict and life strain.

Although the distinction between problem-focused coping and emotional coping is the most widely accepted conceptual dimension in the literature on coping methods, Carver, Scheier & Weintraub (1989), in response to this distinction, developed a multidimensional coping inventory to assess the different ways in which people respond to stress. They regard the distinction between problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping as important but too simple. They proposed 13 dimensions of coping among which are active coping, planning, restraint coping, seeking social support for instrumental reasons, seeking social support for emotional reasons, focusing on and venting of emotions, behavioural disengagement and helplessness, to name a few. Personality dimensions which are included by Carver et al. (1989) are self-esteem, locus of control, optimism and pessimism, hardiness, Type A behaviour pattern and trait anxiety. The results of

their study indicated that the personality variables tended to correlate with coping strategies, but that the correlations were not overly strong. The authors concluded that personality variables and coping styles were not identical.

The relationship between personality, the particular situation, the coping strategy chosen, and reappraisal in the light of the application of that coping strategy were examined by Wearing & Hart (1996) to assess the theoretical importance of appraisal. The participants in the study were male and female police officers in Australia. The findings indicate that extraversion and neuroticism are related to the selection of coping strategy, and that personality, domain and coping strategy make independent contributions to the final appraisal of the events. According to the authors it is likely that observational learning, the development of cognitive processes and the person-environment experiences all contribute to the development of stable patterns of coping and that people may modify or tailor their typical patterns of coping to suit the particular situation.

A longitudinal study by Frederikson and Dewe (1996) explored the stability of coping responses on a sample of research institute employees in New Zealand. They indicated that there were some people who responded consistently regardless of the variety of stressors they experienced, while others varied their way of responding when confronted with different stressors. They concluded that given the lack of direct association between type of stressor and way of coping, appraisal emerged as the most likely link between what is experienced and what response is

made and suggested that the importance of the problem and the individual's frustration with the situation were two key aspects of the appraisal process.

The cognitive appraisal of the situation, social support, individual differences, environmental factors and gender are all factors which to some extent influence coping. The cognitive appraisal of the situation, however, emerges as the most likely link between the stress that is experienced and the coping response that is made, with the importance of the problem and the individual's frustration with the situation as the key aspects of the appraisal process. Although Folkman and Lazarus (1991) regards cognitive appraisal as the critical antecedent of coping, Schwarzer and Schwarzer (1996) is of the opinion that the relationship between cognitive appraisal and coping is not well researched. The present research has, therefore, in an attempt to fill this gap investigated cognitive appraisal as a key antecedent of the coping behaviour of women.

3. OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY

The main objective of the study was to identify the coping strategies used by successful women in the public, corporate and self-employed sectors of the economy in dealing with work-family interaction strain. The research was in the form of a descriptive survey design within a quantitative paradigm. Past studies on women who have reached higher management levels suggest that successful women will use coping styles that involve the active and direct use of one's self in dealing with events over which one clearly feels some sense of control (Long,

1990; McDonald & Korabick, 1991). Therefore, a more specific question was to investigate if the women in the sample preferred confrontive coping, accepting responsibility, self-controlling, and planful-problem solving as coping styles.

A further question to be investigated was the relationship between work-family interaction strain and coping strategies, which explored whether women who experienced less interaction strain, used similar coping strategies.

Folkman et al. (1986) found that variability in coping is at least partially a function of people's judgements about what is at stake (primary appraisal) in specific stressful encounters and what they view as the options for coping (secondary appraisal). The following question therefore investigated to what extent did the cognitive appraisal of the situation influence the interaction strain experienced by the women in the sample and their choice of coping strategy.

Richie (1992) found that blacks (relative to their white counterparts) have been found to use more diverse and flexible coping responses in stressful situations. These coping responses included greater use of informal social support networks and more frequent appraisal of stressful events as discriminatory. Therefore the following question regarding the coping strategies used by black women explored whether black women to a higher degree than white women made use of social support and positive reappraisal as coping styles.

As success in the public sector possibly depends on creating ties with others and entails seeking social support, it was thought that it would be of interest to explore whether women in the public sector to a greater degree used coping strategies in the domains of seeking social support.

In sum the purpose of this chapter was to provide a brief review of the literature regarding the strain associated with the work-family lifestyle, as well as the way women cope and coping in general. The chapter also introduced the main objectives of the present study. The following chapter describes the research methods used to address these objectives.

CHAPTER 3
METHOD

This chapter describes the type of research design used in this study, who the participants were and how they were selected, data collection procedures and the questionnaire, as well as details of the data analysis.

The format of the present research combined elements from both the correlational survey design and the descriptive survey design within a quantitative paradigm. According to Punch (1998), the word 'survey' has different meanings. It is sometimes used to describe any research which collects data (quantitative or qualitative) from a sample of people. Another meaning is a simple descriptive study, usually concerned with different pieces of information, which are studied one piece at a time, and its purpose is mainly to describe a sample in terms of simple proportions and percentages of people who respond in certain ways to different questions. Punch uses the term 'correlational survey' to describe the study of relationships between variables. Those relationships are often studied using conceptual frameworks similar to those used in experimental design.

Behr (1988) described the purpose of the survey as being to obtain information about prevailing conditions on a planned basis. Surveys are, on the whole, broad in scope and have the ability to gather data from a relatively large number of cases on

a national basis at a particular time. The survey provides overall statistics from which abstractions and conclusions can be drawn. The present study aimed to reach a large number of women from a variety of organizations, distributed throughout all the major regions of South Africa, investigating their coping responses to a prescribed hypothetical work-family interaction strain situation. Given the needs of the present study and the characteristics of the survey as described, the survey was considered to be an appropriate choice for the present study.

1. PARTICIPANT SELECTION

As the study hoped to investigate those women who have already achieved success in their chosen careers, the women who participated had to comply with certain selection criteria. These are outlined below.

1.2 Selection criteria

In order to participate in the study, the women had to be married with at least one child of pre school or school going age. In corporations, the women were employed on a full-time basis in positions of middle-management and higher. Middle-management was defined as Peromnes jobgrade eight, or the equivalent thereof, depending on the job grading system used by the organisation. The Small Business Development Corporation defines micro businesses as employer plus five employees, therefore for women who owned their own businesses the original aim was to select those who employed at least five people. However, as many of these

business owners who were approached, employed less than five people, the minimum number of employees required for selection was lowered to four.

In the public sector, selection was similar to the corporate sector and the women selected were in positions of middle-management or higher. In the public sector, members of parliament, as well as women in leadership positions were also included. A professional qualification was not a prerequisite.

1.3 Procedure

A purposive sampling procedure was used to select the participants. This sampling procedure was deemed to be appropriate for the present study as, according to Babbie (1992), it is on occasion appropriate to select a sample on the basis of the researcher's judgement and the purposes of the study. Therefore, only those women who were judged to best meet the purposes of the study were approached to participate. In the Corporate and Public Sector a wide variety of organizations were approached and the selection criteria were explained to a contact person at the organization. Prospective participants were then selected from the organization's data base by the contact person. The researcher then approached the prospective participants telephonically and invited them to participate in the project. However, many organizations were unwilling to divulge information about their employees. The contact persons then distributed a number of questionnaires to women they either selected from the data base or were known to them to fit the sample criteria.

By using the snowballing technique, which was described by Oppenheim (1992) as an approach where a few individuals, judged to be appropriate to the purpose of the study, are located and then asked for the names and addresses of others who might also comply with the sampling requirements, each prospective participant approached by the researcher, was asked to supply the contact details of other women who complied with the sample criteria. A leaflet stipulating the criteria for selection and a request that the participant forward the contact details of other prospective participants known to her, was included with the questionnaire. These referrals were then followed up telephonically.

Business owners who complied with the selection criteria were selected from the membership of the National Association of Women Business Owners (NAWBO), and women who complied with the sample criteria were asked to make contact with the researcher. A variation of the leaflet included with the questionnaires, was distributed with the association's quarterly newsletter, inviting the women, who complied with the sample criteria, to contact the researcher.

Prospective participants were also selected from the membership of The Executive Women's Club of South Africa. The Women's Directory, which lists leading women in a variety of fields in South Africa, supplied a number of prospective participants. To a lesser extent women were identified through their prominence in the media; through a magazine aimed at working women and other business organizations. The women who were approached were geographically distributed throughout all the major regions of South Africa. The employment sectors sampled

included banking and financial services, mining, telecommunications, print media, retail, production, transport, parastatals, local and national government departments, members of parliament, as well as business owners.

1.4 The participants

From a total of 230 questionnaires distributed, one hundred and ten questionnaires were returned from women who complied with the selection criteria. Eighty one (73.6 %) from women who identified themselves as European, White, or White African; six (5.5 %) from women who identified themselves as Coloured or Asian; and 19 (17.3 %) from women who identified themselves as Black, Black African or African. Four (3.6 %) women did not give their racial identification. Two (1.8 %) of the returned questionnaires could not be used as the women did not comply with the sampling criteria. One (0.4 %) questionnaire was returned as undeliverable. The return rate of 47.8 % (based on 230 questionnaires) compared favourably with the return rate of 42 % (based on 298 delivered questionniares) found by Fassinger and Richie in their 1994 National study of prominent Black and White women in the United States. Of the 298 'deliverable' questionnaires (a total of 49 of the 347 questionnaires sent out by Fassinger and Richie were returned as 'undeliverable'), 125 questionnaires were returned to Fassinger and Richie.

2. DATA COLLECTION

The questionnaires were mailed, or delivered by hand, to married women with children who were successful in the private sector and the public sector. As previously defined, the women were considered to be successful if they were working in a corporate or public sector organization in positions from middle-management and higher. Business owners were regarded as successful if they employed at least four people.

The questionnaire (see Appendix C) was distributed in an envelope; which also contained a brief covering letter, providing the background to the research, details for the return of the questionnaire and the contact details of the researcher; as well as a pre-paid return addressed envelope. Prospective participants were followed-up either telephonically or via e-mail about three to four weeks after the questionnaires had been sent to them.

2.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire contained measurements for the variables work-family interaction strain, cognitive appraisal, and coping. *Work-family interaction strain* was described by Parry and Warr (1980) as the strain experienced by employed women in coping with both domestic and paid work. *Cognitive appraisal*, according to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), is a process through which a person evaluates whether a particular encounter with the environment is relevant to his or her well-being, and if so, in what ways. In primary appraisal the person evaluates

what is at stake in the encounter and various coping options are evaluated. In secondary appraisal the person judges what might and can be done, with the appraisal of controllability considered to be an important secondary appraisal variable. *Coping*, according to the transactional approach, which was previously discussed, is defined as all cognitive and behavioural responses intended to resolve a mismatch between environmental outcomes and the individual's wants or, at least, to minimize the threat implied by the mismatch (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Mikulincer, 1994).

2.1.1 Interaction strain

Interaction strain was measured using the Home and Employment Role scale (HER scales, Parry & Warr, 1980). This scale was selected for use in the present study, because Parry and Warr devised it as part of the HER scales in order to provide an index of the strain experienced by an employed mother in coping with both domestic and paid work. They referred to this scale as Interaction Strain. This interaction strain scale consisted of 12 items. The response alternatives were Yes, true; No, untrue; and Don't know. Responses were subsequently scored 3, 1 and 2 respectively. Items 2; 3; 8; 9 and 10 are reversed scored. According to Parry and Warr, a high score was indicative of high interaction strain. Internal reliability of the instrument is demonstrated by coefficient alpha 0.75. However, using a covariance matrix for the analysis, the present study computed the internal reliability of the interaction strain scale from the data of this South African sample and found Cronbach's coefficient alpha to be 0.68. The possible scores range from

12 to 36, with a mid-point of 24. (For correspondence with Prof Warr (1997) regarding indications of reliability and external validity, see Appendix A.)

The general assessment of work-family interaction strain was followed by a description of a hypothetical work-family interaction strain situation (see Appendix C). In this hypothetical situation, a work demand and a family demand came into conflict. The participants were asked how often they had to deal with a situation such as the one described, on a Likert-type scale ranging from never (1) to very often (5). They were then asked to rate the extent to which they experienced the situation as stressful on a scale ranging from not at all stressful (1) to extremely stressful (5).

2.1.2 Cognitive appraisal

Cognitive appraisal was assessed by asking the participant to estimate the degree of threat and controllability provoked by a description of a hypothetical work-family conflict situation. The items used to measure cognitive appraisal were those devised by Folkman and her co-workers (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis & Gruen, 1986) in a study to examine the functional relations among cognitive appraisal and coping processes, and their short term outcomes within stressful encounters. As the aim of the present study is to investigate the cognitive appraisal of the participants and their choice of coping strategies in terms of a hypothetical situation, these measures were considered to be appropriate. The degree of perceived threat was examined by 13 items measuring primary appraisal of the situation used by Folkman et al. (1986). The fourteenth item was an open

question, which allowed the respondent to add any threat, which they thought might apply to the hypothetical situation. The respondents rated the degree to which each statement applied to the hypothetical situation with five response options: from 1 (does not apply) to 5 (applies a great deal). These measures were aggregated and were treated as an index of the degree of perceived threat. The possible scores for the primary appraisal of threat, ranged from 13 to 65, with a mid-point of 39. The degree of perceived control was measured by two items: "To what extent is the situation described above one: (a) that you can change or do something about; (b) that you have to accept" (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis & Gruen, 1986). The respondents rated the degree to which these two statements applied to the hypothetical situation by choosing from five response options, ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely). These measures were aggregated and were treated as an index of the degree of perceived control. The possible scores for the secondary appraisal of control, ranged from 2 to 10, with a mid-point of 6. The possible scores for cognitive appraisal total ranged from 21 to 68, with a mid-point of 44.5. Using a covariance matrix for the analysis, the present study computed the internal reliability of the cognitive appraisal measure from the data of this South African sample and found coefficient alpha to be 0.91. (See correspondence with Prof Folkman (1997), Appendix B.)

2.1.3 Coping

Coping strategies were measured from within the framework of the coping theory of Lazarus and Folkman (1984), who work from within a transactional approach, as previously described in the discussion of the current conceptualization of

coping. This model of coping was deemed to be suitable for the present study, because of its definition of coping in terms of the person-environment relationship and its emphasis on the dynamic and interactive nature of the stressful transaction. It conceptualizes a non-hierarchical amalgam of different coping strategies to meet different situational demands and is widely used (Fassinger & Richie, 1994).

Coping was measured by using the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1988), which was developed in order to measure coping in terms of the person-environment relationship. Participants in the present study related the coping questions to the hypothetical work-family conflict situation, described previously, and therefore the WCQ was regarded as the scale best able to fulfil the requirements of this study.

The WCQ contains eight 4- to 8- item coping scales, which were scored individually and described various ways in which people coped with stressful events. According to the Ways of Coping Manual (1988) the eight coping scales can be described as follows:

Confrontive Coping	describes aggressive efforts to alter the situation and suggests some degree of hostility and risk-taking.
Distancing	describes cognitive efforts to detach oneself and to minimize the significance of the situation.
Self-controlling	describes efforts to regulate one's feelings and actions.
Seeking Social Support	describes efforts to seek informational support, tangible support, and emotional support.

Accepting Responsibility	acknowledges one's own role in the problem with a concomitant theme of trying to put things right.
Escape-Avoidance	describes wishful thinking and behavioural efforts to escape or avoid the problem. Items on this scale contrast with those in the Distancing scale, which suggest detachment.
Planful Problem Solving	describes deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation, coupled with an analytical approach to solving the problem.
Positive Reappraisal	describes efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth. It also has a religious dimension.

The WCQ has 66 items. Sixteen of the items are not scored (Ways of Coping Manual, 1988). The respondents responded on a Likert-type scale for each item, ranging from 'does not apply and/or was not used' (0), to 'used a great deal' (3). A mean score, which could range from 0 to 3, described how often a subject used each of the eight types of coping. Higher scores indicated greater use of a given style (Ways of Coping Manual, 1988).

Folkman and Lazarus (Ways of Coping Manual, 1988) reported on the scales' internal consistency, with alpha coefficients ranging from .61 to .79. They asserted that the WCQ has construct validity as was demonstrated by the convergence between the theoretical predictions of their model and the results of their empirical studies. According to the manual , because the Ways of Coping Questionnaire measured coping processes, which by definition, were variable, traditional test-retest estimates of reliability were inappropriate. The manual suggested that reliability could, however, be evaluated by examining the internal consistency of

the coping measure, estimated with Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Using a covariance matrix for the analysis, the present study computed the internal reliability of each of the coping scales from the data of this South African sample and found Cronbach's coefficient alpha to range from 0.44 (self-controlling) to 0.78 (seeking social support).

2.1.4 Demographic information

Demographic information included questions on age, social support, domestic and childcare contribution by husband, physical health, relaxation and exercise habits, job level and income: individual and per family.

2.1.5 Open Section

Mouton (1996) is of the opinion that a first general principle of data collection is the inclusion of multiple sources of data collection in a research project, as this is likely to increase the reliability of the observations. He explains that by employing different methods of data collection in a single project one is, to some extent, able to compensate for the limitations of each. Therefore, in order to give the participants in this study the opportunity 'to speak for themselves', beyond the limitations of closed questions, the questionnaire concluded with an open section. In this open section the respondents described, in their own words, *what it was like to have work and family responsibilities*. This section also included a sub-section in which the respondents were given the opportunity to write down any further comment they wished to add.

2.1.6 Pilot study

The interaction strain, cognitive appraisal and coping scales were not S.A. standardised and were therefore piloted on a sample of women who came close to fitting the selection criteria before embarking on the full research. (See correspondence with Prof. Warr (1997) and Prof. Folkman (1997), Appendix A and B, regarding the use of the respective scales on other samples in other countries. The internal reliability for the scales was subsequently computed from the data of the full study.) The aim of the pilot study was to test whether the target group found the proposed questions relevant, and to ensure that any problems regarding layout or clarity of questions could be addressed before embarking on the full research. The participants in the pilot study consisted of 14 women between the ages of 30 and 45. Six of the women worked in the corporate sector in positions from middle-management and up, four women worked in the public sector as senior librarians at a large university library and had people reporting to them, and four were business owners, who had up to two people working for them. All of the women were married at the time of the pilot study and had at least one child of pre school or school going age. The pilot study did not identify any consistent problems with regard to the questionnaire, and the only changes made were changes regarding the layout.

3. DATA ANALYSIS

The data analysis was performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), for Windows, Version 8.0. According to Nachmias and

Nachmias (1976), SPSS is an integrated system of computer programs designed especially for the analysis of social science data.

3.1 Analysis of quantitative data

To identify whether the women in the sample preferred confrontive coping, accepting responsibility, self-controlling and planful-problem solving as coping strategies, a frequency distribution of the number of cases in each measurement category (way of coping as measured by Ways of Coping Questionnaire, Folkman & Lazarus, 1988) was drawn up. A one-way analysis of variance was performed to establish whether the participants chose any of the coping strategies significantly more than others. The significance level was set at 0.05. The measurement data was organised so as to determine whether the preferred strategies were emotion-focused or problem-focused.

The next question investigated whether participants who experienced less interaction strain, used similar coping strategies. To answer this question the sample was divided into two subgroups consisting of those participants who measured lower on interaction strain (one standard deviation below the mean) and those who measured higher on interaction strain (one standard deviation above the mean). With the significance level set at 0.05, a Pearson correlation was performed between interaction strain and each coping scale.

A multiple linear regression analysis was performed to determine if there was a relationship between the cognitive appraisal of the situation and the interaction

strain experienced by the participants. For this regression analysis, a stepwise technique was used to enter the data, which, according to Nachmias and Nachmias (1976), allows the variables to enter the regression equation sequentially, depending on their explanatory power. Simple linear regression analyses were performed to determine if there was a relationship between the cognitive appraisal of the situation and the participants' choice of coping strategy. For both these analyses, the significance level was set at 0.05.

To explore whether black women made use of the coping strategies of social support and positive reappraisal to a higher degree, a t-test to establish the equality of means regarding choice of coping strategies of the black women versus the rest of the women in the sample, was performed. A one-way analysis of variance explored whether participants who worked in the public sector used coping strategies to a greater degree in the domains of seeking social support.

3.2 Analysis of qualitative data

The qualitative data, provided by the descriptions in the open section, was analysed according to the guidelines provided in Dey (1993). As advised by Dey, the data was organized by first identifying broad *themes*, such as those issues that were work-related, personal or family issues, financial issues, coping issues, and health and other issues. From these broad themes, various *categories* were identified, for example categories such as the 'positive' and 'negative' aspects of work-related issues and the 'positive' and 'negative' aspects of personal or family issues. Other

categories which were identified, were 'coping from day to day' and the social context.

From the broader categories which were identified, a more detailed category list was drawn up. For example, under the category, *'positive aspects' - work-related*, were listed references to issues such as balance or fulfilment, financial benefits, references to challenge. The category. *'negative aspects' - personal or family related*, listed issues such as guilt, anxiety, exhaustion. Reasons for the experience of 'negativity' such as time issues, children's age, and lack of husband support provided an even more detailed sub-listing. The category *'coping from day to day'*, for example, was sub-listed in a more detailed list of daily practicalities, support systems, psychological attributes, religion - and these were then again sub-listed into even more detail such as being organized, checklists, structured daily routine. Data was then transferred from its original context and filed under the assigned category or categories. The final step was to integrate the results of the qualitative data analysis with the results of the quantitative analysis to provide either support for conclusions reached, or where appropriate, to clarify quantitative results. Having described the methods used to operationalize the present study, the chapter that follows will report on the results of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The following chapter describes how a group of successful South African business women coped with a hypothetical work family interaction strain situation. The results reported here give insight into what it is like for the participants to have work and family responsibilities and how they coped with these responsibilities on a daily basis.

1. PARTICIPANT PROFILE

The total number of participants was 110 women, who were employed in the public, corporate and self-employed sectors of the economy.[1] The women were geographically distributed throughout all the major regions of South Africa. From the total number of participants, 73.6 % (n = 81) of the women described themselves as White, European, or Caucasian; 17.3 % (n = 19) described themselves as Black, African or Black African; and 5.5 % (n = 6) described themselves as Coloured or Asian. Four participants (3.6 %) did not give their racial identification.

[1] As a result of non responses, the total number of participants may vary on some measures.

The majority of the women who participated (n = 57) were employed in the corporate sector, 38 women were employed in the public sector, and 15 women were self-employed. In the corporate and public sectors, the women were in positions ranging from middle management and higher. The women were at jobgrade level Peromnes 8 (or the equivalent hereof) and higher, depending on the jobgrading system used by their respective organizations, or they were in positions where they functioned as project leaders. The participants, irrespective of whether their organizations used a recognized jobgrading system or not, had at least four people reporting to them. The participants who were self-employed, employed at least four people.

In order to judge the extent to which the sample reflected the profile of women achievers in business in South Africa, it is necessary to consider the following: As previously discussed, the October 1995 household survey (CSS, 1998) indicated that 22 % of managers in South Africa were women; and that just over one in ten of public servants at management and senior management level were women. Erwee (1994) added to this picture of women in management positions in South Africa when she put black women's representation at management levels at 26,5 % of all black managers by 1994. Numbers quoted by Neft and Levine (1997) stated that of the 40,000 South African entrepreneurs who have received a loan from the Small Business Development Corporation since its founding in 1981, about 25 % had been women. When these numbers are taken into account, it is fair to conclude that the sample, although not representative, reflected the diversity of women managers in South Africa.

The employment sectors sampled included a variety of sectors in which women are starting to make their mark, such as banking and financial services, mining, telecommunications, print media, retail, production, transport, parastatals, local government departments, members of parliament, as well as business owners. As the respondents were not required to identify themselves or the organizations for which they worked, it was not possible to establish to what extent the returned questionnaires were representative of the respective employment sectors.

As success measured in terms of job level takes time in the business world, one would expect the participants to be older, and this was confirmed in that the majority of the women who participated, (72.7 %, n = 80), were between the ages of 30 and 45, with 20 % (n = 22) aged 46 and above. The number of respondents in the age category 20 to 29 consisted of 6.4 % (n = 7) of the total sample. All the respondents were married at the time of the study and they had at least one child of pre school or school going age. Of the total number of women who responded, 41.8 % (n = 46) had children that were younger than six years; 35.5 % (n = 39) had children that were between the ages of six to twelve years; and 22.7 % (n = 25) had children who were between 13 and 18 years old.

As suggested by the participants' age and the fact that the majority of the women had children of school going age, many of them may have progressed into the later stages of their marriages and have most probably established strategies to cope with the demands of work and family. Gilbert and Rachlin (1987) reported that older individuals (36 and up) in dual-career and dual-earner marriages experienced

a greater degree of well-being. However, a notable section of the participants in the present study, 41.8 % (n = 46) had children who were not yet at school. It was likely that the women with younger children would find it more strenuous to cope with the demands placed on them. This was supported by one of the respondents, who gave her age as older than 46, who wrote that when on looking back to when her children were younger, working women with smaller children definitely had a greater deal of anxiety and stress to cope with than those with teenagers. Another woman in the same age category wrote: "...having worked continuously for 27 years, it becomes a habit and you don't really think about it. When the children were younger, however, there were times that your loyalties were really taxed". A woman, who gave her age as between 30 and 45, confirmed this when she described how she was settling in at work "OK" after maternity leave of three and a half months, but that both she and the baby got flu or a cold about once a month, she worried about her baby a lot although the child was at a very good crèche, and would ideally like a half day job. However, she also wrote: "...like my job a lot, though - fantastic environment & manager", indicating that, despite the strain, to cut back on working would not be an easy decision to make.

1.1 The decision to work and have a family

For women at lower job levels than the participants, it may be easier to make a decision regarding cutting back in time spent at work, but the participants have not only invested time in building their careers, but also increased the odds for career success by investing many years in improving their qualifications. In response to a question asking the women to indicate *their highest level of education*, 37. 3 %

(n = 41) indicated that they had obtained a post graduate degree; 36.4% (n = 40) had obtained a diploma or bachelor's degree; and 26.4% (n = 29) indicated that matric (grade 12) was their highest level of education. For these efforts in terms of time invested, they are financially well compensated. Of the total number of participants, 19.1 % (n = 21) earned between R 7, 000.00 and R 9, 999.00 per month and 65.5 % (n = 72) earned more than R 10, 000.00 per month. When the total income of both the participants and their husbands were combined, 80 % (n = 88) indicated that they earned more than R 14, 000.00 per month.

The vast majority of the respondents, therefore, did not consider cutting back on time and effort spent working as an option for coping. Only 6.4 % (n = 7) considered working half days or becoming full time mothers as coping options, but also added that they would miss work too much or couldn't afford it. A woman who held the position of Director in the corporate sector described the ever-present guilt she experienced, adding, "...but, as someone once said to me, your children are young for only so long [,] but no woman today can afford to become unmarketable in the long term". A number of the participants specifically mentioned the financial benefits derived from their working. Interestingly, for many of these women the financial benefits primarily seemed to revolve around being able to provide for their children's material and educational needs. One of the women wrote: "... me working, brings extra money home that lifts our standard of living and affords many 'extras' for the children and allows us to save for their future studies, etc." In the same vein, another wrote: "... love commanding my

sizeable income which makes buying superior childcare and luxuries for my child possible".

Time invested and financial rewards were, however, not the only motivators that kept these women juggling demands, they also described the stimulation and challenge their jobs brought. A woman from the corporate sector responded to the open question on what it was like to work and have a family with the following: "A challenge - fulfilling!!" Many of the women, while acknowledging the difficulties involved, wrote that having a family and working created the opportunity to live a balanced life. The owner of a hair salon in an upmarket area wrote that work was rewarding and brings self-fulfilment, albeit being stressful emotionally and physically at times. A self-employed Financial Advisor described how tiring it was to run her own business, to earn an income, as well as the responsibilities of running a family, but added that she also got a lot of rewards from being able to spend time with her children after school.

Having made the decision that the benefits of working and having a family outweighed the strains, the participants dealt with the often conflicting demands, in various ways. How, then, did they cope from day to day?

1.2 Coping with work and family on a daily basis

It was clear from the participants' descriptions of their coping efforts that they had to be very organized. For some of them being organized seemed to be integrated into their image of themselves, as one respondent wrote: "Being a generally

organized person, I do not find it difficult under normal circumstances to cope with being a career person as well as a housewife, wife, mother and all the rest". Being organized entailed, as one respondent put it, "...an increasing pre-occupation with prioritizing, checklists and structured daily routine to try to achieve the perfect balance". One woman wrote that her children entered into her diary those events where they would like to have her present, and that she then treated it like an important appointment. A number of women emphasized the importance of pre-empting and always having a back-up plan. Prioritising and checklists formed an essential part of coping on a daily basis. Planning also included making use of domestic help and various childcare services.

1.2.1 Domestic help and sources of childcare

All participants used some domestic help. Thirty percent (n = 33) of the participants made use of domestic help for up to two days per week; 48.2 % (n = 53) used domestic help for three to five days per week; and 21.8 % (n = 24) had domestic help available for six to seven days per week.

In response to a question asking the respondents which sources of help they used for childcare, 61.8 % (n = 68) indicated that they used family; 51.9 % (n = 56) used their husband. The list of options included aftercare, domestic help, friend, family, husband, and older siblings. The respondents suggested additional sources of care such as au pair and crèche. Responding to a question asking them to indicate which type of childcare they thought they used most, 25.5 % (n = 28)

chose aftercare; 21.8 % (n = 24) chose domestic help; and 20 % (n = 22) chose family.

Seventeen (15.5 %) of the women specifically mentioned the support they received from their husbands. Many of them acknowledged the contribution their husbands had made to their wives' career success, saying that they could not have done it without the support of their husbands. One woman wrote: "Without my husband I would not be where I am today or have been able to cope with work and family responsibilities. I am one of the lucky women [,] actually spoilt. My husband does more than his fair share - At times I feel guilty about this". The results indicated that the reality for the majority of the participants, however, looked quite different.

The following results gave an indication of the time spent by the participants and their husbands on domestic duties and childcare when these duties were not being out-sourced.

1.2.2 Childcare and domestic duties of women and their husbands

Figure 1 shows the average hours per day that the women and their husbands spent on childcare and domestic duties from Monday to Friday, as well as the average hours per day they spent on childcare and domestic duties from Saturday to Sunday. It is important to note that the hours per day spent on these duties were recorded as *perceived* by the women and that this might not be a true reflection of the actual time spent on these duties.

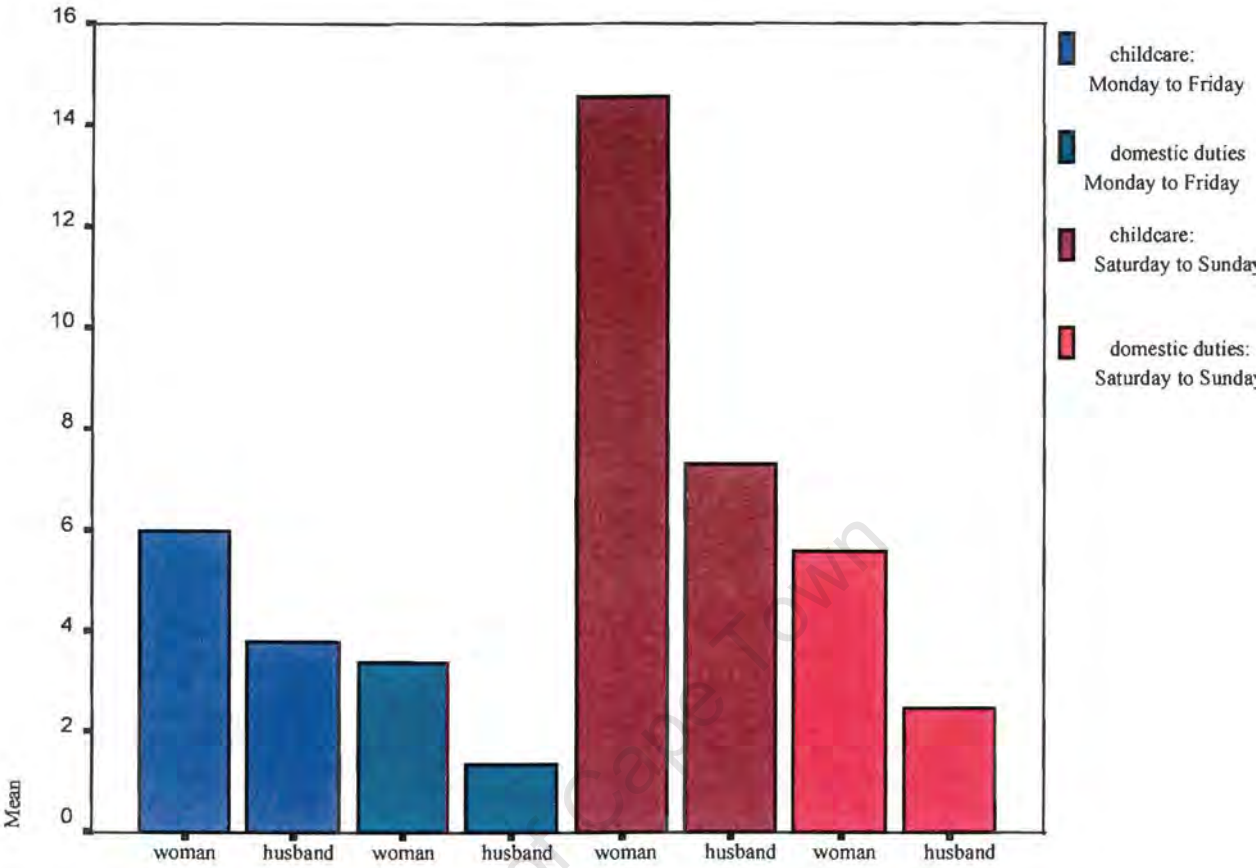

Figure 1. Childcare and domestic duties of the women and their husbands from Monday to Friday and Saturday to Sunday

Regarding *childcare duties* from Monday to Friday, the women on average spent 6.28 (SD = 6.99) hours per day on childcare; and from Saturday to Sunday, they spent an average of 14.53 (SD = 10.80) hours per day on childcare. In comparison their husbands spent an average of 3.84 (SD = 5.32) hours per day on childcare from Monday to Friday and an average of 7.26 (SD = 8.67) hours per day on childcare from Saturday to Sunday.

On *domestic chores* the women spent an average of 3.83 (SD = 5.55) hours per day from Monday to Friday. From Saturday to Sunday, they spent an average of

5.55 (SD = 4.61) hours per day on domestic chores. Their husbands, however, spent an average of 1.34 (SD =1.87) hours per day on domestic chores from Monday to Friday; and an average of 2.44 (SD = 3.04) hours per day on domestic chores from Saturday to Sunday.

As shown by the numbers above, the women used their financial resources to buy domestic and childcare help during the week. Over weekends they apparently made up for this by dramatically increasing the time they spent with their children, far more than their husbands did. Although both husband and wife spent more time on domestic duties over the weekend than during the week, their husbands still contributed far less. One woman described how she had organized her life so that everything could run smoothly without her: "I have set my life up to: -live ½ a block away from school - have a full time reliable maid who is literate, can cook, can assist with homework etc. (I interviewed 42 people before making an appointment) - have a full time gardener, pay my mother-in-law to do all daily travelling i.e. doctors, sport activities etc. - when I am home I spend all my time with my children. I do not need to do anything else".

As thirty percent (n = 33) of the participants had domestic help available for only up to two days per week, they, however had found other ways in which to organize their domestic lives. "We plan our lives as a family. I also have a very supportive husband. He manages the household during the week and myself during weekends. We share other responsibilities", was the response of one woman. In the same vein another wrote: "Try to involve the whole family in what you are doing.

Allocate chores to every member of the family and try to give incentives to encourage good performance." She added that she did not have the time to sit with her kids during studying periods, therefore she set attainable goals for them regarding their performance at school, they then supervised their own schoolwork and only came to her when they really needed help. A business owner and a participant from the public sector both warned that for a sharing of roles within the family to succeed, one needed good communication among family members.

Having managed to plan for most of their work and family responsibilities, to what extent did the participants find time to relax and how did they relax when they did manage to find a moment to spend on themselves?

1.2.3 Relaxation methods

Only 13.6 % (n = 15) of the participants indicated that they did some form of exercise three or more times per week; 22.7 % (n = 25) reported that they exercised once or twice a week; and 62.7 % (n = 69) exercised less than once a week.

In response to a question asking the respondents to select those methods which they used to relax, 68.2% (n = 75) selected reading, 54.5 % (n = 60) sleeping, 50.9 % (n = 56) listening to music, 42.7 % (n = 47) exercise, and 35.5 % (n = 39) indicated that they watched videos. The list of methods included having a massage, watch videos, exercise, meditate, reading, listen to music, sleep, and socialize. One respondent added gardening as her relaxation method of choice to

the list. When asked to select the relaxation method used most, 36.4 % (n = 40) of the respondents selected reading as the relaxation method they used most, with the rest of the responses divided between the options.

While the participants reported a fair amount of success in planning and prioritizing to meet work and family responsibilities, finding time to spend on themselves seldom seemed to feature as a priority. Thirty percent (n = 33) of the respondents complained about the lack of time in general, as well as a lack of time to spend on leisure activities. "Leisure time is something of the past" concluded one participant. In the same vein another woman wrote: "I find that I don't have a lot of leisure time and my life is always rushed".

Being always "rushed" had an impact on the health of a notable component of the sample. The participants were given a list of nine stress symptoms, which included colds or flu, headaches, neck pain, back pain, stomach ailments, allergies, irregular eating habits, muscle tension, and feeling hurried. Forty percent (n = 44) reported that they often 'felt hurried' and 41.8 % (n = 46) reported that they almost always experienced *feeling hurried*, 43.6 % (n = 48) often experienced muscle tension and 19.1 % (n = 21) almost always experienced *muscle tension,* and 42.7 % (n = 47) often suffered from headaches and 13.6 % (n = 15) almost always suffered from *headaches.* To a lesser degree the women also reported suffering from *neck pain, back pain and irregular eating habits.*

1.2.4 The importance of compromise

In order to create a balance between work and family, many women emphasised the importance of compromise. For them, compromise entailed compromising on work if, for instance, the welfare of a child demanded such a strategy. They suggested that it should always be possible to negotiate with one's employer. In the words of one of the participants from the public sector: "I think that compromises, on both sides, are necessary and helpful to establish a balanced perspective on both work and family. It is possible to get too hung up on perfection and success, on both sides. This is not healthy. I would never put the health of my child second to a work problem. I believe that it is possible and should always be possible to negotiate with ones employer in the circumstances where one has a child who is sick. This applies to others as well as mothers." If they needed to take time off work they were willing to put in extra hours to make up for lost time spent with their child and as one of the public sector respondents wrote: "... and if there is a deadline, I will meet the deadline even if I have to work in the night once or twice." Another suggested re-scheduling of that which could not be handled and warned that one should not try to be a superwoman.

Many women supported this warning against trying to be a superwoman and suggested that compromise also extended to domestic duties. As one respondent put it: "You have to, at times, close your eyes to dust build-up, because you can only do so much."

1.2.5 Working from home

Only two of the respondents reported that they wished to work from home and saw it as a way to better manage the time-bind they constantly found themselves in. Although 23.6 % (n = 26) of the participants had the option to work from home, only 10.9 % (n = 12) did. The rest either did not have the option to work from home or chose not to do so.

As a subgroup the self-employed business owners reported that they had more flexibility in managing their time. Of the fifteen business owners who took part in the study, eight (53.3 %) worked from home and four (26.6 %) had the option to work from home if necessary. A business owner who was the Managing Director of a business which she ran with her husband, reported that she had the "enviable" situation of working from home (they had a totally separate office complex at home), that they had done that for eleven years and had raised both their children in that environment. Another business owner described how she started work at 5 a.m. in order to spend more time with her children in the afternoons.

Although being self-employed and working from home had definite benefits in terms of time management and seemed to be a viable coping option for many self-employed women, it was not necessarily the utopia one might imagine it to be. As a self-employed Advertising Broker wrote: "I also work from home and therefore have my children within calling distance - should they need me. It is however hard to be all things to all people."

When there seemed to be too few hours in the day and their lists failed them, the respondents relied on inner strength and their religious faith. References to coping that relied on psychological attributes and religion cropped up a number of times.

1.2.6 Psychological attributes and Religion

A respondent from the public sector mentioned possessing specific psychological attributes which she regarded as necessary to handle work and family responsibilities. A woman's attitude, having a certain strength of personality and a good self-image were regarded as attributes that helped women to cope with work and family.

Religion was used on a daily basis to guide a number of the participants in coping with their work and family responsibilities. The owner of a home bakery, with seven shops as outlets, ended a rather impressive list, describing how she coped (very efficiently) with having work and family responsibilities, with the single word "Pray".

Although the participants relied on planning well, support services, compromise, inner strength and religion to carry them on a daily basis, the difficulties they experienced in finding leisure time, as well as their own descriptions of the strain involved in dealing with all their responsibilities, suggested the need to establish how much work-family interaction strain the participants experienced.

2. WORK-FAMILY INTERACTION STRAIN

Work-family interaction strain was assessed by asking the participants to respond to statements assessing work-family interaction strain as it pertained to their daily lives. This was measured using the Home and Employment Role scale (HER scales, Parry & Warr, 1980). As described in the previous chapter, this scale consisted of 12 items. The response alternatives were Yes, true; No, untrue; and Don't know. Responses were scored 3, 1 and 2 respectively. The possible scores a participant could receive ranged from 12 to 36, with a mid-point of 24. If a participant scored high on this scale, this would indicate high interaction strain. Items 2; 3; 8; 9; and 10 were reverse scored.

The participants' mean scores on the general measure of work-family interaction strain are shown in Figure 2.

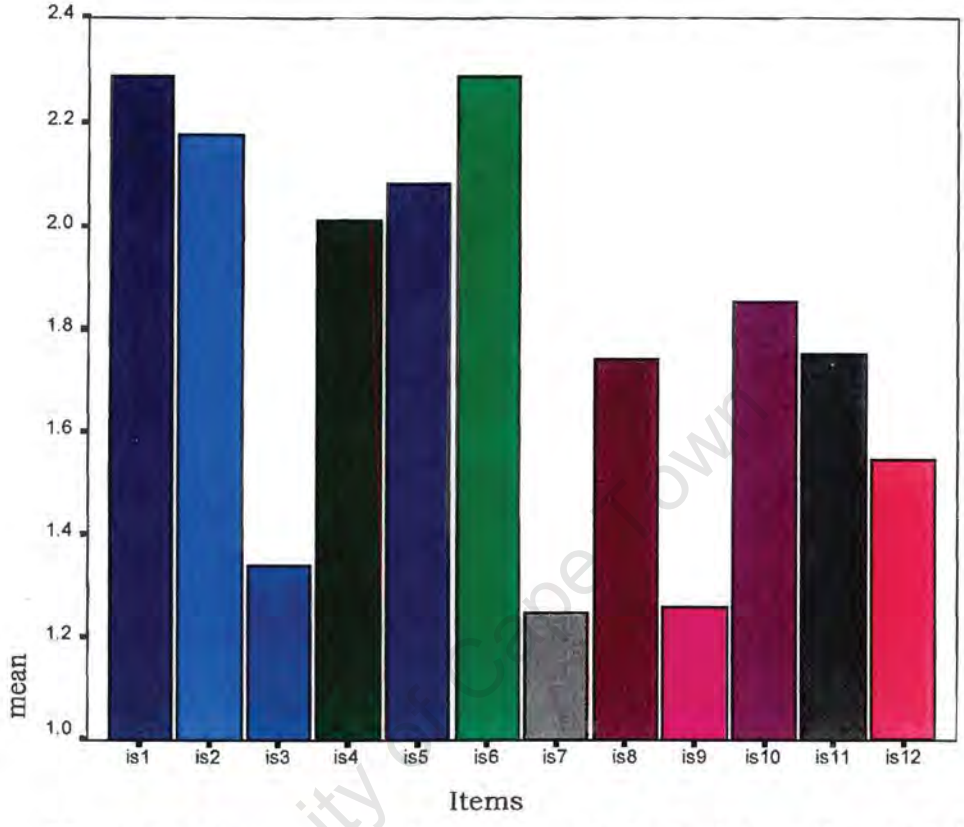

Figure 2. Mean scores on items for work-family interaction strain[1]

From the possible score range of 12 to 36, with a mid-point of 24, the respondents had a mean score of 21.6 (N = 97, SD = 5.02). Although the participants, in response to the open question on what it was like to have work and family responsibilities, described the strain and frustrations involved in attempting to cope with both these roles, it was clear that on this general measurement of work-family interaction strain, they did not score high on interaction strain, in fact they scored below the mid-point figure of 24.

[1] For detail of work-family interaction strain items 1 to 12, see Appendix C

A closer look at the responses to some of the items measured, showed that 85.5 % (n = 94) did not find it hard to get their children looked after when they were at work (item 7). Therefore, although 61.1 % (n = 68) of the participants thought that the hours they worked made it very difficult to look after the children (item 1) and although 50 % (n = 55) agreed that when they were at work, they often worried about things to do with their home or children (item 5); and 61.8 % (n = 68) got so involved with their jobs that they felt a conflict of loyalty between their home and work (item 6), they, apparently, were able to prevent these concerns from causing excessive strain, knowing that in fact their children were well cared for in their absence. As a Director in the corporate sector wrote: "The demands placed on the modern working mother are enormous - both emotionally and physically. In reality, with one's children well cared for by care givers it is less them that suffers and more the mother. The guilt is something ever-present and one tends to over-compensate in the hours that one does spend at home." The guilt, however, seemed to be tempered by knowing that in reality the children were well cared for and that they might actually be spending more time with the children when they were home than was necessary.

Eighty percent (n = 88) of the women indicated that their husbands listened to them when they wanted to talk about what had been happening at work (item 3) and 81.8 % (n = 90) reported that their husbands thought that it was a good idea for them to go out to work (item 9). Therefore, the majority of the women found comfort in the fact that they had someone at home to talk to about work issues and that the idea of them going out to work did not meet with opposition. However,

despite husband support for the idea of working, the results regarding the childcare and domestic division of labour as previously discussed, showed that this support did not necessarily translate into an equal division of domestic and childcare chores. The following response from one of the participants supported this. She wrote: "...but I just feel that the majority of men have come to accept and enjoy the extra income, but will not pay any extra into the home in the way of helping with the family and domestics."

Another interesting result was that the amount of travel needed to go to work did not interfere with family life (item 12) for 70.9 % (n = 78) of the participants. Whether the women deliberately set up their lives so as to reduce the amount of daily travelling and also business travelling in general, was not clear. In a separate question, asking the women about the amount of business travelling they did, the respondents indicated that 38.2 % (n = 42) were *never* away for purposes of business travelling; 40.9 % (n = 45) were away *one to three days per month*; 16.4 % (n = 18) were away *four to seven days per month*; and 0.9 % (n = 1) were away from home *more than 7 days per month*. It was not clear whether the women deliberately chose positions which did not require a lot of business travelling or whether they deliberately avoided travelling from home too much, as a way of compromise.

The general assessment of work-family interaction strain was followed by the hypothetical description of a work-family interaction strain situation, as discussed previously in the chapter on methodology. The participants had to respond to a

situation in which a work demand and a family demand came into conflict. The situation read as follows:

You have a very important and urgent assignment at work, which has to be finished within a couple of days. You know that the successful completion of this assignment will have a positive impact on your career. However, one of your children has suddenly taken seriously ill. There is no one emotionally close to the child to take care of the child. Although you can pay someone to take care of the child, you are not sure if this will be the right thing to do.

The respondents were asked to rate to what extent they had found this hypothetical work-family interaction strain situation stressful. The response options on a Likert type scale ranged from not at all stressful (1) to extremely stressful (5).

Sixty-six percent (n = 73) of the participants described the situation as very much stressful or extremely stressful; 17.3 % (n = 19) found the situation quite a bit stressful; and 16.3 % (n = 18) found the situation not at all stressful or a little stressful. The majority of the respondents would, therefore, experience a large degree of stress if they had to deal with a situation where the welfare of a child and an important career demand came head to head. However, only 10.9 % ($\underline{n}$ = 12) of the participants indicated that they often or very often had to deal with such a situation. A roughly equal number of respondents, 10 % ($\underline{n}$ = 9.1), indicated that they never had to deal with such a situation. For the majority of the respondents this was a situation that, fortunately, they seldom or only sometimes had to deal

with. When, however, they were faced with such a dilemma, the results indicated that the situation would cause them a great deal of stress.

According to Folkman et al. (in Greenglass, 1995), there was an association between a person's cognitive appraisal of a situational encounter and that person's stress levels. The cognitive appraisal of a situation is a process through which the individual evaluates whether a particular encounter with the environment is relevant to his or her well being, and if so in what way. This, then, was the key issue in the transactional model as described by Folkman et al. (1986). As the participants' initial response to the hypothetical situation had indicated that they did find relevance in the situation, the next step was to establish in what way was this situation relevant to them.

According to Folkman et al. (1986), the primary appraisal of the situation entailed assessing the degree of potential harm or benefit in the situation. A primary appraisal assessment would include issues such as harm, loss and challenge. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) pointed out that threat and challenge were not necessarily mutually exclusive. In Lazarus's model of stress and coping, the appraisal of controllability was considered to be an important secondary appraisal variable (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Folkman et al. (in Greenglass, 1995) indicated that a situational appraisal of control had been linked to the performance of active problem-solving coping strategies. Therefore the respondents also estimated the amount of control available to them in dealing with the situation as described. The following section discusses the results of the participants' cognitive

appraisal of the degree of threat they perceived in the situation as described, as well as the amount of control they perceived they had in dealing with the situation.

3. COGNITIVE APPRAISAL OF A HYPOTHETICAL WORK-FAMILY INTERACTION STRAIN SITUATION

As described in the chapter on methodology, the degree of ***primary appraisal, threat*** provoked by the hypothetical situation was assessed by asking the respondents to choose from five response options which ranged from does not apply to applies a great deal. This was scored from one to five. The measures were aggregated and treated as an index of the degree of perceived threat(See Appendix C for detail of primary appraisal items a to n.)

The participants received a primary appraisal threat mean score of 37.7, which, given a possible maximum score of 65 and a possible minimum score of 13, would put this result at slightly below the mid-point of 39.

A closer look at this result revealed that 63.6 % (n = 70) of the respondents agreed that harm to a loved one's emotional well-being (item b) applied a lot or a great deal to the hypothetical situation. Not achieving an important goal at your job or in your work (item e) were regarded as applying a lot or a great deal by 52.7 % (n = 58) of the respondents. Harm to a loved one's health, safety or physical well-being applied a lot to a great deal according to 50. 9 % (n = 56) of the participants (item a). Appearing to be an uncaring person (item i) were regarded

as applying somewhat by 30.9 % (n = 34) of the women who participated, whereas 16.4 % (n = 18) regarded this as applying a lot; and 20.9 % (n = 23) regarded this item as applying a great deal to the situation as described.

Other threats which were added by the participants and were thought to apply to this situation were: missing promotion at work, feeling guilty, the increase of a lack of focus between home and work, the long term effects on children, as in, not spending enough time with them (item n).

When asked to indicate which one of these threat items applied most to the situation, 35.5 % (n = 39) of the participants chose harm to a loved one's emotional well-being (item b); 20 % (n = 22) chose harm to a loved one's health, safety or physical well-being (item a), with the rest of the responses divided among the options.

Therefore, although the majority of the respondents acknowledged that the situation could imply threat to a loved one's well-being, their overall score on primary appraisal, threat, indicated that they did not regard the situation as described as particularly threatening. The reason for this could be found in the result of the secondary appraisal, control, score that follows.

Secondary appraisal, control, was assessed by asking the women to respond to the following two items: "To what extent is the situation described above one: (a) that you can change or do something about; (b) that you have to accept". As

described previously the respondents then rated the degree to which these two statements applied to the hypothetical situation by choosing from five response options ranging from (1) not at all to (5) extremely. The participants received a secondary appraisal, control mean score of 6.5, which, given a possible maximum score of 10 and a possible minimum score of 2, would put this result at about the mid-point of 6. The participants' mean score for cognitive appraisal, total was 46 , which, given a possible minimum score of 21 and a possible maximum score of 68, would put this result at just above the mid-point of 45. The results of the participants' scores for *secondary appraisal, control* indicated that 98,2 % (n = 108) of the participants thought that they could change or do something about the situation as described, but 96,4 % (n = 106) also thought that they had to accept the situation.

Given the particular nature of the hypothetical situation, this result seems to reflect an approach where the participants felt that there were aspects of the situation which were controllable, but that certain aspects, were equally uncontrollable and best be accepted. In reality one can change and negotiate around the work issue in the description, but there is not much you can do about a child who is ill, no matter how inconvenient the timing. The fact that certain aspects regarding work-family dilemmas are best accepted, may well be a healthy approach in certain circumstances. In this vein, responding to the open question on what it was like to have work and family responsibilities, one of the women working in the corporate sector wrote: "... I enjoy working and enjoy my family and would not want to give either up...Depending on the situation, I prioritize accordingly. My family's health

and safety, mentally and physically, come first. I believe that life is what you make of it. You are, where you are, because you want to be! You are the maker of your own destiny."

The participants as a group, therefore, did not experience high work-family interaction strain. They did not regard the hypothetical work-family conflict situation as overtly threatening, nor did they see the situation as one over which they had no control, even though it may be necessary to do an equal amount of accepting in order to cope with the situation.

Taking a closer look at the individual responses to the open section, in which the participants described in their own words what it was like to have work and family responsibilities, their appraisals of the work-family lifestyle, although essentially telling a similar story, varied in degree on a personal level. A number of women described how the rigidity of the constant planning, structure and lists made them feel cut off or resulted in a lack of spontaneity. Some of them wrote that they had found it difficult to switch from their 'distant, colder business personas' to the more nurturing role required from them at home. Other descriptions of this lifestyle ranged from "Interesting, stimulating & challenging (never a dull moment)" to emphatic, one-word responses, such as "exhausting" and "unfair". For individual participants their appraisals of what it was like to have work and family responsibilities, therefore, varied substantially. As discussed previously Folkman and her co-workers (in Greenglass, 1995) reported that there was an association between a person's cognitive appraisal of a situation and that person's stress levels.

Therefore this study also investigated the extent to which the cognitive appraisal of the situation influenced the interaction strain experienced by the women in the sample and their choice of coping strategy.

3.1 Cognitive appraisal and work-family interaction strain

A multiple linear regression analysis was performed to investigate the relationship between *cognitive appraisal and interaction strain* and to evaluate the contribution of the three dimensions of cognitive appraisal (threat, control and total) in predicting interaction strain. The independent variables were the three dimensions of cognitive appraisal (threat, control and total) and the dependent variable was interaction strain. The data was entered using a stepwise technique, which allows the variables to enter the regression equation sequentially, depending on the explanatory power of the variables.

The result showed that the overall regression was significant ($F(2,70) = 3.589$, $p < 0.05$). However, only secondary appraisal control significantly predicted interaction strain ($t = 2.63$, $p < 0.05$). The Pearson correlation analysis between secondary appraisal control and interaction strain ($r\ (73) = -0.297$, $p < 0.05$), indicated that those women in the sample who scored high on secondary appraisal control, scored low on interaction strain. This result confirmed the importance of secondary appraisal, control, in relation to stress, as previously described in the discussion of the literature on stress and coping. Those participants who appraised the hypothetical situation as highly controllable, also had low work-family interaction strain scores.

As previously stated, according to Lazarus's model of stress and coping, the appraisal of controllability had been linked to the performance of active problem solving coping strategies (Folkman et al., in Greenglass, 1995). The main objective of this study was to identify the coping strategies used by successful women in the public; corporate and self-employed sectors of the economy in dealing with work-family interaction strain. Given the association between cognitive appraisal, control, and active problem solving coping strategies, a more specific question, therefore, was to establish whether the women in the sample would prefer confrontive coping, accepting responsibility, self-controlling, and planful-problem solving as coping styles when they had to deal with a work-family interaction strain situation.

4. COPING WITH A HYPOTHETICAL WORK-FAMILY INTERACTION STRAIN SITUATION

The framework of the coping theory of Lazarus and Folkman (1984), who worked from within the transactional approach, was used to measure the coping strategies used by the participants in dealing with the hypothetical situation described earlier. As previously discussed in the chapter on method, the transactional model of coping was deemed to be suitable because of its definition in terms of the person-environment relationship and its emphasis on the dynamic and interactive nature of the stressful transaction. According to Fassinger and Richie (1994) this model conceptualized a nonhierarchial amalgam of different coping strategies to meet different situational demands and was widely used.

In keeping with the transactional model of coping, coping was, therefore, measured by using the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ, Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). The WCQ contained eight 4- to 8- item coping scales, which described various ways in which people coped with stressful events. The coping scales were described in the previous chapter on method.

The eight coping scales were scored individually. The WCQ has 66 items. Sixteen of the items are not scored. The respondents responded on a Likert-type scale for each item that ranged from does not apply and/or was not used (0) to used a great deal (3). A mean score, which could range from 0 to 3, described how often a subject used each of the eight types of coping. Higher scores indicated the greater use of a given style. The participants were instructed to think about the situation described earlier, and to then respond to the statements in the questionnaire, while thinking about the details of the situation; who was involved; and how they would react to such a situation; as well as why it was important to them. The participants responded by choosing the following coping strategies as shown in Figure 3.

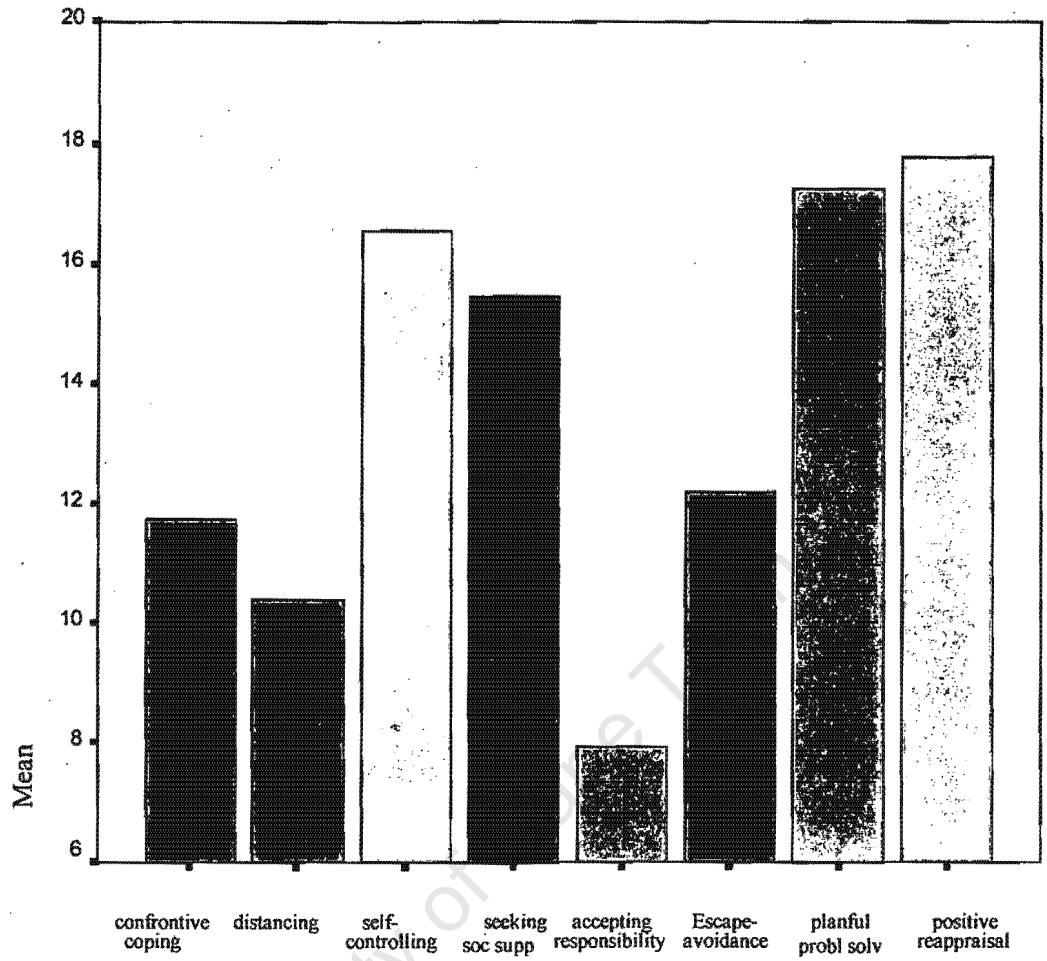

Figure 3. Mean scores of participants regarding their choice of coping strategy

As shown in Figure 3, the participants received higher mean scores for ***positive reappraisal***; ***planful problem solving***; ***self-controlling***; and ***seeking social support*** and therefore chose these strategies more often than escape-avoidance; confrontive coping; distancing; and accepting responsibility. As previously explained ***positive reappraisal*** describes efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth. It also has a religious dimension. ***Planful problem-***

solving describes deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation, coupled with an analytical approach to solving the problem. S***elf-controlling*** describes efforts to regulate one's feelings and actions; and ***seeking social support*** describes efforts to seek informational support, tangible support, and emotional support.

It seems, therefore, that the coping strategies which were chosen more often represented both problem-focused and emotion-focused coping, in that positive reappraisal can be seen as a more emotion-focused way of coping, planful problem solving is a problem-focused way of coping, self-controlling is more emotion-focused, whereas seeking social support contains elements of both problem-focused coping as well as emotion focused coping.

This result also confirmed the assertion made by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) that people relied on both emotion-focused coping and problem-focused coping in order to deal with a given situation. As previously discussed, people used significantly less planful problem-solving and distancing in encounters that involved a loved one's well being than they did when this concern was low and that more planful problem-solving and self-control were used in encounters that involved a goal at work. In the hypothetical situation which the participants had to cope with, the two situational areas of work and family were merged, therefore, it did not come as a surprise that in the coping strategies more often chosen by the participants, a clear distinction between emotion-focused strategies or problem-focused strategies could not be made. The more problem-focused coping strategies, confrontive coping (described as aggressive efforts to alter the situation

and suggesting some degree of hostility and risk-taking) and accepting responsibility (described as acknowledging one's own role in the problem with a concomitant theme of trying to put things right) were absent from the line up of coping strategies more often chosen. It appears, therefore, that the participants did not regard these two strategies as appropriate forms of coping within the work-family context described in the hypothetical situation.

The study also explored whether women in the public sector to a greater degree used coping strategies in the domains of seeking social support. The mean scores for coping strategies, for participants who were self-employed, and those who worked in the corporate- and public sector, is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Mean Scores for Coping Strategies for Self-employed, Corporate, and Public Sector Women

COPING STRATEGY	EMPLOYMENT SECTOR	N	M	SD	SE
Confrontive coping	self-employed	15	10.93	1.43	.37
	corporate sector	57	11.66	2.72	.36
	public sector	38	11.92	2.76	.44
	Total	110	11.65	2.60	.24
Distancing	self-employed	15	10.00	2.17	.56
	corporate sector	57	10.40	2.80	.37
	public sector	37	10.54	2.60	.42
	Total	109	10.39	2.64	.25
Self-controlling	self-employed	15	15.20	2.9	.76
	corporate sector	57	16.49	2.71	.35
	public sector	37	17.18	3.33	.54
	Total	109	16.55	3.00	.28
Seeking social support	self-employed	15	15.53	3.24	.83
	corporate sector	57	15.15	3.78	.50
	public sector	38	15.50	4.30	.69
	Total	110	15.32	3.87	.36
Accepting responsibility	self-employed	15	8.20	2.88	.74
	corporate sector	57	7.50	2.36	.31
	public sector	38	8.23	3.00	.48
	Total	110	7.85	2.67	.25
Escape-avoidance	self-employed	15	11.73	3.82	.98
	corporate sector	57	12.49	3.41	.45
	public sector	38	11.68	3.79	.61
	Total	110	12.10	3.59	.34
Planful problem solving	self-employed	15	17.40	3.13	.80
	corporate sector	57	16.89	3.24	.42
	public sector	38	17.26	3.93	.63
	Total	110	17.09	3.46	.32
Positive reappraisal	self-employed	15	17.60	3.86	.99
	corporate sector	57	17.43	4.17	.55
	public sector	37	18.27	3.96	.65
	Total	109	17.74	4.04	.38

Table 1 shows that the participants, regardless of the economic sectors which they represented, chose similar coping strategies in dealing with the hypothetical work-family interaction strain situation. In order to establish whether the participants chose any of the coping strategies significantly more than any of the others, a one-way analysis of variance for the participants' choice of coping strategy was performed. The independent variable was employment sector and the dependent variable was coping strategies. The Analysis of Variance for the participants' choice of coping strategy is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Analysis of Variance for Choice of Coping Strategies

		df	F	Sig.
Confrontive Coping	Between Groups Within Groups Total	2 107 109	.772	.465
Distancing	Between Groups Within Groups Total	2 106 108	.220	.803
Self-Controlling	Between Groups Within Groups Total	2 106 108	2.149	.094
Seeking Social Support	Between Groups Within Groups Total	2 107 109	.111	.895
Accepting Responsibility	Between Groups Within Groups Total	2 107 109	.992	.374
Escape Avoidance	Between Groups Within Groups Total	2 107 109	.665	.516
Planful Problem Solving	Between Groups Within Groups Total	2 107 109	.196	.823
Positive Reappraisal	Between Groups Within Groups Total	2 106 108	.481	.619

The one-way analysis of variance for the participants' choice of coping strategy, as shown in Table 2, indicated that women in the public sector did not choose seeking social support as a coping strategy to a greater degree than the other women in the sample ($F(2,107) = 0.111$, $p > 0.05$). There were no significant differences between women in the public sector, corporate sector and the business owners regarding their choice of coping strategies. Tables 1 and 2 show that the women in the sample, therefore, instead of choosing certain strategies significantly more than others, seemed to have incorporated all the different coping strategies to a more or lesser extent in attempting to deal with the hypothetical situation.

Given the previously discussed transactional relation between cognitive appraisal, levels of stress and choice of coping strategy, the study also investigated whether there was a relation between interaction strain and coping strategies. This question explored whether those participants who experienced less interaction strain, chose similar coping strategies.

4.1 The relationship between work-family interaction strain and choice of coping strategy

With a mean score of 21.6 ($\underline{N} = 97$, $\underline{SD} = 5.02$) for work-family interaction strain, those participants who scored high on interaction strain (one standard deviation above the mean) were selected, ($\underline{M} = 26.6$, $\underline{n} = 24$); and those who

scored low on interaction strain (one standard deviation below the mean) were selected, ($\underline{M} = 16.6$, $\underline{n} = 20$).

A Pearson correlation was performed between interaction strain and each coping scale (see Appendix D, p. 169). The independent variable was coping strategy and the dependent variable was interaction-strain. Figure 4 shows the results between interaction strain and the coping scale, accepting responsibility.

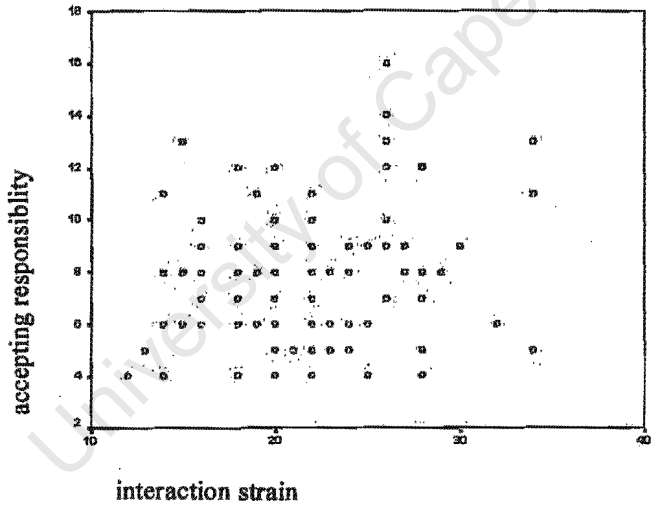

Figure 4. Pearson correlation analysis between interaction strain and the coping s

accepting responsibility

The only statistically significant relationship found between interaction strain and each of the coping strategies was that the higher the *accepting responsibility* score, the higher the interaction strain experienced ($r\ (97) = 0.244$, $p < 0.05$). As previously discussed, accepting responsibility entailed acknowledging one's own role in a problem with a concomitant theme of trying to put things right. Although choosing accepting responsibility as a coping strategy in a situation describing a work problem would normally be a wise and problem-focused way of coping, given the specific context of the hypothetical situation, to choose accepting responsibility in this context would imply that the participant either felt responsible for the child becoming ill, or more likely, for working and therefore putting her and her family in this predicament.

4.2 The relationship between cognitive appraisal and the choice of coping strategy

Continuing the investigation of the relationship between interaction strain, choice of coping strategy, and cognitive appraisal as the most likely link between these two variables, simple linear regression analyses were performed to establish whether there was a relationship between the participants' *cognitive appraisal of the hypothetical situation and their choice of coping strategy*. In each analysis the independent variable was cognitive appraisal and the dependent variable was the respective coping strategies. Regarding cognitive appraisal, threat, the correlation (R) between total threat and the coping strategy confrontive coping was not significant ($F\ (1,108) = 2.151$, $p > 0.05$). The regression equation did not deviate significantly from 0 ($t\ (108) = 1.467$, $p = 0.145$). According to Howell

(1999), *when there is only one predictor*, as in this case, it is only necessary to test the significance of R, because in a simple linear regression analysis R represents the correlation between one independent variable and the dependent variable. Therefore, the t-values are not reported in the following results. Regarding cognitive appraisal, control, the correlation (R) between total control and the coping strategy: confrontive coping was not significant ($F (1,106) = 0.006$, $p > 0.05$). The linear regression analyses performed between cognitive appraisal (threat, control) and coping strategies, were not significant. (See Appendix D for the detail results of the linear regression analyses between cognitive appraisal (threat, control) and each of the coping strategies).

The results of a Pearson correlation analysis between cognitive appraisal control and the coping strategy, escape avoidance is shown in Figure 5.

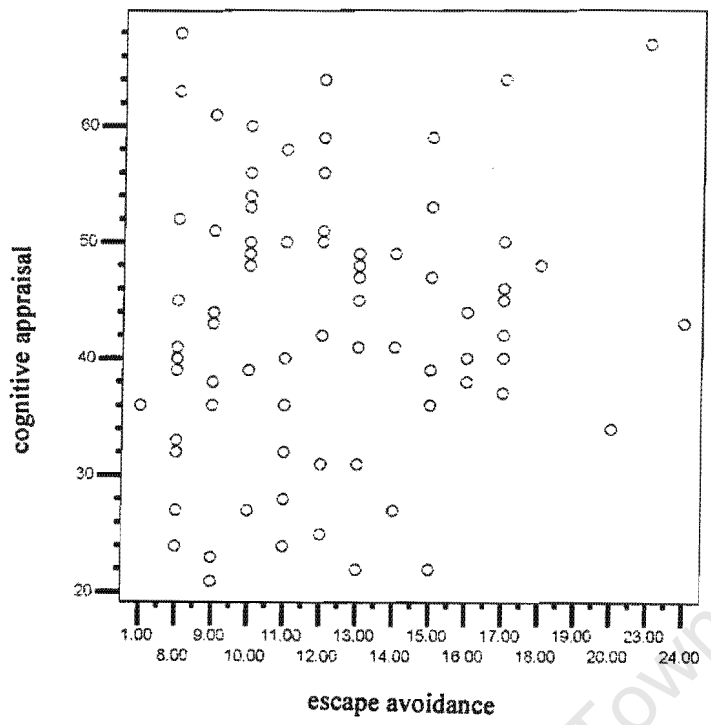

Figure 5. Pearson correlation analysis between cognitive appraisal control and the coping strategy: escape avoidance

Although cognitive appraisal (threat, control and total) did not contribute significantly in predicting the participant's choice of coping strategy in a regression model, a Pearson correlation analysis showed a significant negative correlation between secondary appraisal control and the coping strategy, *escape avoidance* (r (82) = -O,319 , p < 0. 01). Therefore, the higher the women in the sample scored on secondary appraisal: control, the less they chose escape avoidance, which would entail wishful thinking and behavioural efforts to escape or avoid the problem, as a coping strategy.

Unequivocal confirmation for the link, as described in the literature, between situational appraisals of control and active problem-solving coping strategies, could therefore not be found. The only link that could be found was between cognitive appraisal: control and the coping strategy: escape avoidance, in that the higher the participants scored on cognitive appraisal: control, the less they would choose escape avoidance as a coping strategy.

4.3 Race as a factor

In the previously discussed literature on coping, a study by Smyth and Williams (1991) was described, which suggested the possibility that black women made greater use of seeking social support and positive reappraisal as coping strategies. In the same vein, according to Richie (1992) the coping literature suggested some racial differences in coping strategies. Therefore, this study also explored whether black women to a higher degree than the rest of the participants made use of social support and positive reappraisal as coping styles. The mean scores of the women, who identified themselves as 'black', 'african' or 'black african' versus the rest of the participants, on the coping scales: seeking social support, positive reappraisal, and self-controlling, is shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Mean Scores of Black, African or Black African Women for Coping Strategies: Seeking Social Support, Positive Reappraisal and Self-Controlling

		N	M	SD	SE
Seeking social support	black	19	15.94	4.98	1.14
	other	87	15.13	3.65	0.39
Positive reappraisal	black	18	18.72	4.46	1.05
	other	87	17.56	3.89	.41
Self-controlling	black	18	18.16	3.53	0.83
	other	87	16.31	2.82	0.30

The results did not support the predictions suggested in the literature and indicated that in this study those participants who identified themselves as 'black', 'african' or 'black african' did not choose social support or positive reappraisal as coping strategies more than the other women in the sample. A t-test to establish the equality of means regarding the choice of coping strategies of the black women in the sample versus the rest of the women in the sample, indicated that, instead, women who identified themselves as 'black', 'african' or 'black african' chose *self-controlling* as a coping strategy to a greater degree than the rest of the women in the sample ($t (103) = 2{,}429$, $p < 0{,}05$).

This somewhat surprising finding may be explained in that the women in the Smyth and Williams sample worked as clerks and service workers, whereas the black women in this sample were successful business women in management positions. Maybe women from different culture groups become less dissimilar as they move

up the career ladder. On the other hand, the fact that the black women in the sample chose self-controlling significantly more often than the rest of the participants suggested that this sample of black managers were able to control their emotions and actions to a greater degree than the rest of the participants when dealing with this hypothetical work family interaction-strain situation.

It is possible that to some extent the participants' choice of coping strategies were shaped by the nature of the social context and its values and beliefs. In response to the open question on what it was like to have work and family responsibilities, fourteen (12.7 %) participants referred to either the characteristics of the work environment, which they did not see as geared to the needs of working women with children; the patriarchal nature of society, which still equalled women with the nurturing and caring of children; men's resistance to equitable gender relationships; or women's own acceptance of these values and beliefs as a given, which they would not be able to change in their lifetime. Responses ranged from those who questioned the status quo, "I love my family and I love my work and keep finding myself having to decide what is more important too often" to those who seemed to accept the situation as a given, "Like my mother said, It's a man's world, my dear ".

4.4 Summary

The main finding of this study showed that the participants preferred using both emotional and problem-focused coping strategies in dealing with a work-family interaction strain situation. These strategies were positive reappraisal, planful problem solving, self-controlling, and seeking social support. Not one of these coping strategies, however, was significantly chosen more often than any of the other, which implied that the participants incorporated all the different coping strategies to a more or lesser extent in attempting to deal with the hypothetical situation.

The study also found that women who scored high on work-family interaction strain, more often chose accepting responsibility as a coping option for dealing with the hypothetical situation, than women who scored low on work-family interaction strain. No evidence was found that women who experienced less work-family interaction strain, used similar coping strategies. Women who scored high on cognitive appraisal, control in dealing with the hypothetical situation, also had lower work-family interaction strain scores.

The study could not find evidence of a relationship between the participants' cognitive appraisal of the hypothetical situation and their choice of coping strategy in dealing with this situation, except regarding cognitive appraisal, control and the coping strategy, escape-avoidance. The higher the participants scored on cognitive appraisal, control, the less they would choose escape-avoidance as a coping strategy in dealing with this situation.

The participants, regardless of race or employment sector, chose similar coping strategies in their attempt to deal with the hypothetical work-family interaction strain situation, except in the case of the black women in the sample, who chose self-controlling significantly more often than the rest of the participants.

How, then, did successful women in the public, corporate and self-employed sectors of the economy cope with work-family interaction strain? The results of this study showed that those aspects of the situation which the participants appraised as controllable, they dealt with in a self-controlled and planful-problem focused way, this included seeking informational, tangible, and emotional support; but they also compromised by accepting those aspects which they appraised as uncontrollable, and attempted to create positive meaning from the situation, focusing on personal growth and religious guidance. The following chapter will discuss these findings.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The main aim of this study was to identify the coping strategies used by successful women in the public, corporate, and self-employed sectors of the economy in dealing with the responsibilities of work and family. The women who took part in the study were all in positions from middle-management and up; or in the case of the women who were self-employed, were running businesses which employed at least four people; in addition to this they were all married and had at least one child who were of pre school going age or had not yet left school. The participants, therefore, had already proven that it was possible to have a family and attain career success. The question was how do they do it?

1. WOMEN WORK AND WOMEN HAVE FAMILIES

Having made the decision to work and have a family plays an important role in the participants' motivation to cope with both their work and family responsibilities. Their exposure to higher education and therefore the possibility of an increasing awareness of gender equality issues, may have influenced the decision to work. In this vein, Cott (1987) wrote that the increase in the numbers of married working women, were related to an increasing awareness of feminist ideology; better

education for women; as well as economic realities such as the rise in the standard of living. Wethington and Kessler (1989) cited evidence from smaller scale surveys (De Meis et al., 1986; Hock et al., 1984; Stewart & Healy, 1989) which suggested that societal values regarding women, work and family were changing, and that there were signs of increasing tolerance toward combing motherhood and employment. In the words of one of the participants: "It is very difficult but if you have reasons why you are working, you tend to accept the situation. Through the years I have learnt that, I have to do what I have to do. I must satisfy myself before I can try to satisfy the other person. I normally try to compromise where possible but to a certain extent".

Economic realities were often cited by the participants as having influenced their decision to continue living the work-family lifestyle. The women were financially well compensated and although a number of the respondents had to work in order to help their families to survive financially, the women mostly explained that their salaries enabled them to buy superior childcare, education, or luxuries for their children. The fact that their working made it possible to buy benefits for their children, may, to some extent, make the act of combining motherhood and a career more socially and personally acceptable. One of the participants wrote: "... love commanding my sizeable income which makes buying superior childcare and luxuries for my child possible". The words " love commanding my sizeable income", hint at an excitement about having financial power. It seems, however, that the participants do not yet live in a society in which they can acknowledge,

even to themselves, that 'mothers' may enjoy having financial power for its own sake.

Previously it was described how women, compared to men, are expected to be less logical, intellectual, rational, independent, free and individualistic, less success oriented, and less competitive (Chafetz, 1979). The women who took part in this study, however, described how much they loved their jobs; and loving their jobs had everything to do with being free and independent, intellectual, rational, success oriented and competitive. Some of their written responses were: "I want to have my own career and continue working and not depend on my husband."; "I crave mental stimulus and achievement."; I love the challenge to work and the thrill of promotion". Thus, the participants were very clear in their own minds about how important their jobs were to them and that in order to continue working, they were motivated to cope with the combination of work and family.

2. COPING WITH WORK AND FAMILY ON A DAILY BASIS

The participants described a lifestyle which, to a large degree, existed on a foundation of good organizational skills that entailed planning, structured daily routine, prioritizing, checklists, pre-empting and back-up plans. Domestic help for household chores and various childcare services, such as friend, family, husband, older siblings, domestic helper, aftercare, crèche and au pair formed an integral part of being organized.

According to Hochshild (1990) the majority of men in dual career marriages did not share the load at home. Wives felt more responsible for home and children and devoted proportionally more time to housework and less of their own time to childcare. The women who participated in this study confirmed Hocshild's findings in that they were responsible for the majority of domestic chores. However, unlike Hochshild's findings, they were also responsible for the majority of time spent on childcare, which on weekends increased to nearly double the time their husbands spent on childcare. According to Burden and Googins (in Zedeck & Mosier, 1990) women had to rely on their own resources to balance work and family. Pleck (1987) cited Safilios-Rothchild who found that professional women had greater resources to employ outside help, but that the ability of professional women to buy outside help, also reduced the need of the husband to change. As was reported by the participants the gender-typed division of labour continues to exist in their homes despite their career success; and they coped with the less than equitable domestic and childcare support received from their husbands by buying additional outside help.

Fewer responses praised the tangible support they received from their husbands regarding domestic chores and childcare. These participants also acknowledged that they would not have achieved career success if it was not for this support from their husbands. In this vein, a small number of women reported that for the majority of household chores they relied on a sharing of tasks among family members. This showed that in some families an attempt at a sharing of roles was being made.

According to Pepitone-Rockwell (in Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987), women took on more and gave up more than men in making the dual-career arrangement work. The participants, while managing to fulfil their work and family obligations, seemed to be less successful in their obligation to themselves, in that a number of them compromised on personal time. A notable number of the women reported having very little time to relax, seldom exercising, always feeling hurried, experiencing muscle tension, suffering from headaches, and to a lesser degree experiencing neck pain, back pain and irregular eating habits.

Many participants stressed the importance of compromise in order to balance work and family. For them, compromise included negotiating with one's employer or to compromise on domestic standards of cleanliness. Several respondents warned against the dangers of perfectionism and attempting to be a 'superwoman'.

As previously discussed, self-employment is considered to be one of the fastest growing job categories for women. It was therefore considered to be of interest to explore how self-employed women coped with the constant time bind created by the work-family lifestyle. The self-employed women who took part in the study reported that they had greater flexibility in time and more than fifty percent of the self-employed respondents worked from home. Working from home, although definitely taken up as a viable option by a large section of the business owners in the study, was not without its complications as being always available to the family, may for some women, actually increase the strain. The business owners who worked from home all emphasized the benefit of being close to their children,

but as one of the women explained this 'availability' also carried with it the danger of becoming all things to all people. Twenty six (23.6 %) of the participants (public, corporate, and business owners) had the option to work from home, but only twelve (10.9 %) actually did so. Therefore, although a notable number of women, especially business owners, are taking advantage of the increasing acceptability of working from home, this sample preferred working outside the home.

Personality dimensions which contributed to a person's ability to cope were, according to Carver et al. (1989), self-esteem, locus of control, optimism, hardiness, Type A behaviour pattern and trait anxiety. A number of the participants agreed that psychological attributes, such as attitude, having a certain strength of personality and a good self-image were necessary to cope with the responsibilities of work and family.

Other researchers have reported on the tendency of black women to use the church and clergymen as coping resources (Hill, in Smyth & Williams, 1991), but according to the self-reports of the participants in this study, religion was often used as a coping resource regardless of race.

3. WORK-FAMILY INTERACTION STRAIN

Regarding work-family interaction strain, Gilbert and Rachlin (1987) were of the opinion that women who decided not to reduce their career involvement may in the long term reap the benefits of such a decision as the amount of strain that impinges on the family system in part depended on the particular phase in which the family finds itself. Older individuals (36 and up) in dual-career and dual-earner marriages reported a greater degree of well-being than younger individuals. The same authors also explained that as couples progressed into the later stages of their marriages, the demands of establishing two careers, parenting young children, and developing strategies for dealing with work and family obligations were largely alleviated. The participants in the current study, judged by their job level, age and the ages of their children could be regarded as being fairly established in both their work and family roles and would therefore already have established themselves in the work-family lifestyle. The participants' low work-family interaction strain score confirmed that the women as a group had work-family interaction strain under control.

Folkman and Lazarus (1985) found that family support was a more important resistance resource for women than for men and research suggested that when employed women with families were able to share with others the activities associated with one or more of their roles, they were less likely to experience role conflict. A previously discussed study of husband support and coping behaviour among Japanese married working women, found that husband support buffered

the relationship between parental demands and work-family conflict (Holahan & Moos, 1986; Greenglass, 1995; Matsui, Ohsawa, & Onglatco, 1995). Taking a closer look at the participants' responses to the work-family interaction strain measure, the vast majority of respondents' indicated that their husbands listened to them when they wanted to talk about what had been happening at work and that their husbands thought that it was a good idea for them to go out to work. This husband support for the 'idea' of their working could, therefore, be regarded as an important buffer against work-family interaction strain. However, as is clear from the earlier discussion, husband support did not necessarily translate into an equal sharing of domestic and childcare chores.

According to Izreali (1993), women managers in Israel, apparently realise that in general they cannot rely on active support from their husbands and that women who followed a career path were expected to do so without cost to the family and to manage without infringing (except in emergencies) on husband's work time. Although a number of the respondents described an attempt at sharing domestic and childcare responsibilities between family members, the majority of the participants apparently have accepted that they either had to deal with the everyday practicalities themselves or, buy additional help from outside the family.

The framework of the coping theory of Lazarus and Folkman (1984), who worked from within the transactional approach, was used to assess the coping strategies used by the participants in dealing with the hypothetical situation. According to

this coping theory, cognitive appraisal has important links with the amount of stress experienced, as well as choice of coping strategy.

4. COGNITIVE APPRAISAL OF A HYPOTHETICAL WORK-FAMILY INTERACTION STRAIN SITUATION

Although the majority of the respondents acknowledged that the hypothetical work-family interaction strain situation could imply threat to a loved one's well-being, their overall score on primary appraisal, threat, indicated that they did not regard the situation as described as particularly threatening. Regarding secondary appraisal: control, the participants, given the particular nature of the hypothetical situation as described, apparently felt that there were aspects of the situation which were controllable, but that certain aspects, were equally uncontrollable and were best accepted. In Lazarus's model of stress and coping, the appraisal of controllability was considered an important secondary appraisal variable (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). The beneficial effects of perceived control were shown in research which indicated that perceived control was associated with decreased stress levels and improved worker health. The results of the present study confirm the importance of secondary appraisal: control, in relation to stress, as those participants who appraised the hypothetical situation as highly controllable, also had low work-family interaction strain scores.

5. COPING WITH A HYPOTHETICAL WORK-FAMILY INTERACTION STRAIN SITUATION

In a discussion of the literature on coping, Labouvie-Vief (in Diehl, Coyle & Labouvie-Vief, 1996) was of the opinion that women appeared to develop ways of coping that took into account interpersonal and emotional aspects of situations in a more complex and integrated fashion than men. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) asserted that people relied on both emotion-focused coping and problem-focused coping in order to deal with a given situation. As previously discussed, people used significantly less planful problem-solving and distancing in encounters that involved a loved one's well being than they did when this concern was low and that more planful problem-solving and self-control were used in encounters that involved a goal at work. The hypothetical work-family situation presented to the participants in the present study described a context in which a work demand and a family demand were merged.

The participants in the present study received higher mean scores for ***positive reappraisal, planful problem solving***, ***self-controlling***, and ***seeking social support*** and therefore chose these strategies more often than escape-avoidance, confrontive coping, distancing, and accepting responsibility. As previously explained ***positive reappraisal*** describes efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth. It also has a religious dimension. ***Planful problem-solving*** describes deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation, coupled with an analytical approach to solving the problem. S***elf-controlling*** describes

efforts to regulate one's feelings and actions; and ***seeking social support*** describes efforts to seek informational support, tangible support, and emotional support. Neither of these strategies were chosen significantly more than any of the other. Therefore the results regarding the participants' choice of coping strategies did not indicate that the women preferred using coping styles that involved the active and direct use of one' self in events over which one clearly felt some sense of control.

According to Long (1990), women may not perceive active problem-solving coping as appropriate in certain circumstances. In the hypothetical situation which the participants had to cope with, the two situational areas of work and family were merged, therefore, it was not surprising that in the coping strategies most often chosen by the participants, a clear distinction between emotion-focused strategies or problem-focused strategies could not be made. The absence of the more problem-focused coping strategies: confrontive coping (described as aggressive efforts to alter the situation and suggesting some degree of hostility and risk-taking) and accepting responsibility (described as acknowledging one's own role in the problem with a concomitant theme of trying to put things right) from the line up of coping strategies more often chosen, implied that the participants did not regard these two strategies as appropriate forms of coping within the work-family context described in the hypothetical situation.

In the same vein, Banyard and Graham-Bermann (1993) suggested that coping should not only be seen as actions taken by and for the self, but that coping included those actions which were used to maximize the survival of others (such as

children, family and friends) and that coping also had to do with evaluating how the stressor and strategies used to deal with it would impact on the welfare of others (Fine, in Banyard & Graham-Bermann, 1993). The participants' cognitive appraisal of the hypothetical work-family interaction strain situation suggested controlling that which they regarded as changeable in the situation and accepting those aspects of the situation which they felt were not controllable; and in this way managing a compromise to maximise the security of both their jobs and the ill child in the situation.

Given the transactional relationship between cognitive appraisal, levels of stress and choice of coping strategy, the study also investigated whether, for this sample of women, there was a relationship between interaction strain and coping strategies. This question explored whether those participants who experienced less interaction strain, chose similar coping strategies.

The only relationship found between interaction strain and each of the coping strategies was that the higher the *accepting responsibility* score, the higher the interaction strain experienced. As previously discussed, accepting responsibility entailed acknowledging one's own role in a problem with a concomitant theme of trying to put things right. Although choosing accepting responsibility as a coping strategy in a situation describing a work problem would normally be a wise and problem-focused way of coping, given the specific context of the hypothetical situation, to choose accepting responsibility in this context would imply that the participant either felt responsible for the child becoming ill or more likely for

working and therefore putting herself and her family in this predicament. It therefore, follows that choosing accepting responsibility as a coping strategy in the context of this hypothetical work-family interaction strain situation would cause psychological strain.

Previously it was discussed in the literature regarding the transactional model of coping, that cognitive appraisal was regarded as the most likely link between levels of stress and coping behaviour. The results of this study, however, could not find a significant relationship between the participant's cognitive appraisal of the hypothetical situation and their choice of coping strategy. The only significant link between cognitive appraisal and choice of coping strategy was that the higher the women in the sample scored on secondary appraisal control, the less they chose escape avoidance, which entails wishful thinking and behavioural efforts to escape or avoid the problem.

Banyard and Graham-Bermann (1993) recommended the inclusion of different groups of women in the pool of respondents. They also warned against assuming that coping and surviving looked the same for all women. The only difference that could be found between the black women in the sample and the rest of the participants was that the black women chose self-controlling as a coping strategy significantly more often than the other women. A possible explanation for this result may be that the previous study by Smyth and Williams included black women who were in clerical and service positions, whereas the black women who took part in this study were successful business managers. Apparently there were

more similarities than differences between women managers from different groups. This similarity in the coping behaviour of women was confirmed in that the present study could also find no significant differences regarding the coping behaviour of women working in different employment sectors of the economy. In the words of one of the respondents, "women's problems are women's problems".

6. LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

People who do not participate in surveys are likely to live in big cities and work long hours (Annual Reviews, 1999). This would also be a fairly accurate description of the demographic group which was targeted for the present study. Although the present study attempted to include equal numbers of respondents from the corporate, public and self-employed economic sectors in the sample pool, the actual responses from the different employment sectors resulted in unequal numbers of respondents from the different sectors, which restricts the generalizability of comparison findings regarding the different groups. The overall limited sample size also restricts the generalizability of the findings. As participation in the study was voluntary, it may be that only those women with low work-family interaction strain and who are coping rather well, may have had the time and inclination to take part in the project. Another possible limitation is that the study only focused on the successful women. Women who are unable to cope with work and family may have left the work force early in their careers or do not reach higher job levels and are therefore not included in this sample.

There may also be some concern regarding the use of the measurement scales on a South African sample. The reliability and validity of the measures for work-family interaction strain, cognitive appraisal and coping, with regard to cultural groups other than Western European groups, is not clear. The present study did, however, assess the internal reliability of the respective scales from the data of this sample of South Africans and found the internal reliability of the interaction strain scale to be acceptable, the internal reliability of the cognitive appraisal measurement to be excellent, and internal reliability of the eight coping scales ranged from poor to good.

As the respondents completed a self-report questionnaire, another possible limitation of the study may be social desirability bias, in that the respondents, especially regarding issues about 'mothers', work and family, may have responded in ways which agree with socially desirable views regarding the subject.

7. IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The presence of married women with children in the labour market is here to stay. However, the results of the present study imply that women have largely accepted that they are primarily responsible for organizing their lives in ways which enable them to combine work and family responsibilities. The danger of this acceptance of prime responsibility for coping with work and family, is that it reduces the need of husbands, business, government and society-at-large to claim their share of this responsibility. Coping with the work-family lifestyle needs to be seen, not as a

women-only problem, but as one of the realities of parenthood. Government and businesses employ parents and have a responsibility to create contexts which enable parents to cope with the work-family lifestyle.

It is recommended that future research explore business and governmental policy issues regarding parents and the work-family lifestyle. Although women are in increasing numbers present in organizations, it would be of interest to explore the extent to which women use their presence in organizations to press for policy changes regarding work-family lifestyle issues and to what extent they are supported in this by male colleagues in dual career relationships. Another question that needs investigation is to what extent do men in dual-career relationships desire to play more active roles in their families, but are prevented from taking on these roles by constraints in the business context. In order for government and business to develop appropriate policies to assist the dual-career family, it may be important to explore the obstacles encountered by those dual-career couples who are attempting to work toward equitable gender relationships. Research regarding the work-family lifestyle has an important role to play in providing the foundation on which future policy issues are decided, as well as in assisting parents, business, government, and society-at-large with the challenge of working toward the compatibility of work and family.

8. CONCLUSION

The results of this study could not give unequivocal confirmation for the association between situational appraisals of control and active problem-solving coping strategies. The only relationship regarding cognitive appraisal and coping strategy that could be found was between cognitive appraisal: control and the coping strategy: escape avoidance, in that the higher the participants scored on cognitive appraisal: control, the less they would choose escape avoidance as a coping strategy. This sample of successful business women chose emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies in an integrated manner to deal with a hypothetical work-family situation.

The possibility that the women's choice of coping strategies were limited by the realities of the social context at work and at home was hinted at by a number of the respondents. Although the majority apparently accepted the status quo, there were encouraging reports of families who were working towards more equitable family relationships. A number of respondents took advantage of the current trend toward 'softer' management styles by negotiating work-family issues with their employers, while many business owners considered working from home, a viable alternative. However, if as far back as in *1927* Crystal Eastman (in Cott, p. 180) wrote that "*...the great woman question of today,* [and]*...the very essence of feminism* [is]*...how to reconcile a woman's natural desire for love and home and children with her equally natural desire for work of her own for which she gets paid*", and several decades later in *1998* one of the respondents in the present study wrote "*I*

love my family and I love my work and keep finding myself having to decide what is more important too often", then we still have a long way to go toward the compatibility of work and family.

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APPENDIX A
CORRESPONDENCE WITH PROF P. WARR (1997)

From: Brink <abbrink@cis.co.za>
To: P.Warr@sheffield.ac.uk
Subject: Research question
Date: Thursday, 12 March, 1998 13:36 PM

Dear Prof. Warr

I am doing research towards my M.A. in Research Psychology at the University of Cape Town in South Africa. My research will investigate the coping strategies used by successful business women in dealing with work-family interaction strain.

I plan to use the Work-family Interaction Strain Scale as described in the article: The measurement of mothers' work attitudes, Journal of Occupational Psychology, 1980, 53, 245-252, written by Glenys Parry and yourself. Indications of reliability and external validity are, however, not clear to me from the article. I also need to know if I will have to do a new reliability and validity assessment for use on a South African sample and whether the interaction strain scale has been successfully used on samples in other countries.

I would, therefore, very much appreciate it if you could send me the necessary information as it is of vital importance in the examination of my thesis.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Yours sincerely
Beatrix Brink

e-mail: abbrink@cis.co.za
fax: 2721 949 4985

From: P.B.Warr <P.Warr@sheffield.ac.uk>
To: Brink <abbrink@cis.co.za>
Subject: Re: Research question
Date: Thursday, 12 March, 1998 13:57 PM

It's a long time since I used that scale, so am afraid that I cannot help you much.

The scale was quite widely used some years ago, and I think it is OK in other settings. Why not compute the internal reliability value from your own data?

Sorry not to be more helpful.

Peter Warr

Professor Peter Warr
Institute of Work Psychology
University of Sheffield
Sheffield S10 2TN
United Kingdom

Tel: (0)114 222 3231
Fax: (0)114 272 7206

APPENDIX B
CORRESPONDENCE WITH PROF S. FOLKMAN (1997)

From: Brink <abbrink@cis.co.za>
To: Susan_Folkman@quickmail.ucsf.edu
Subject: Primary - and Secondary Appraisal scales: Reliability and Validity
Date: Thursday, 12 March, 1998 11:24 AM

Dear Prof Folkman

I contacted you in August 1997, regarding my research towards an M.A. in Research Psychology, at the University of Cape Town in South Africa. The research will investigate the coping strategies used by successful business women in dealing with work-family interaction strain. I would again like to thank you for the scales you sent me at the time.

The examination of my thesis, however, requires very clear indications of the reliability and validity of the Primary- and Secondary Appraisal scales. (I have the necessary information regarding the Ways of Coping Questionnaire.) I also need to know if I will have to do a new reliability and validity assessment for use on a South African sample and whether the Primary- and Secondary scales have been successfully used on samples in other countries.

I would appreciate it if you could send me the necessary information as it is of vital importance in the examination of my thesis.

Yours sincerely
Beatrix Brink

e-mail: abbrink@cis.co.za
fax: 2721 949 4985

From: Folkman, Susan <SFolkman@psg.ucsf.edu>
To: 'abbrink@cis.co.za'
Subject:
Date: Monday, 16 March, 1998 3:35 AM

Dear Beatrix: The measure of primary appraisal has not been through a validity study. It is what it is – a measure of some of the stakes that people can have in a stressful encounter. I do not know if they have been used in the exact form in other countries. I would expect that the items do not all have the same meaninings to people in different cultures. The secondary appraisal measure has been used by many investigators, with variations on wording. It, too, does not have validity data, but its meaning should be more universally shared than the primary appraisal item.s The measures respond the way they are expected to theoretically. I'm afraid that's all I can offer you.

Please note that I have a new e-mail address. My old one has been closed down and letter are not routinely forwarded.

Good luck!

Susan Folkman
74 New Montgomery, Suite 600
San Francisco, CA 94105
Tel: 415 597 9156
FAX: 415 597 9213
e-mail: SFolkman@psg.ucsf.edu

APPENDIX C
COVERING LETTER AND QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Ms

I would like to invite you to participate in a research project about women who are married with children and who have a paid job. This is an opportunity to contribute to the understanding of the unique issues facing the woman who plays an important role in industry and at the same time has responsibilities at home. I, too, am married with children, and work part-time while I am busy with post graduate studies at the University of Cape Town. As the success of this project is dependent on your response, I would be most grateful if you will complete the questionnaire and return it to me before _____. For your convenience a return addressed envelope is included. **The information is for academic purposes and anonymity and confidentiality is ensured.**

If you have any questions about this project and/or need assistance with the questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours sincerely

Beatrix Brink

Tel.(h): (021) 8554110
Cell: 083 658 4827
e-mail: abbrink@cis.co.za

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Please complete Sections A, B, C and D

SECTION A

Here are some statements to do with having a job outside the home. Please read each one carefully and tick √ one box for each statement.

		Yes, true	No, untrue	Don't know
1.	The hours I work make it very difficult to look after the children.	❑	❑	❑
2.	My job leaves me enough time to spend with my family and friends.	❑	❑	❑
3.	My husband listens to me if I want to talk about what's been happening at work.	❑	❑	❑
4.	I feel guilty about leaving my children when I go out to work.	❑	❑	❑
5.	When I am at work, I often worry about things to do with my home or children.	❑	❑	❑
6.	I get so involved with my job that I feel a conflict of loyalty between my home and work responsibilities.	❑	❑	❑
7.	I find it hard to get my children looked after when I am at work.	❑	❑	❑
8.	My job gives me a welcome break from housework and children.	❑	❑	❑
9.	My husband thinks it's a good idea for me to go out to work.	❑	❑	❑
10.	My working hours fit in well with those of my husband, and this makes it easier to arrange for the children to be looked after.	❑	❑	❑
11.	Going to work makes me too tired to enjoy family life properly.	❑	❑	❑
12.	The amount of travel needed to go to work interferes with family life.	❑	❑	❑

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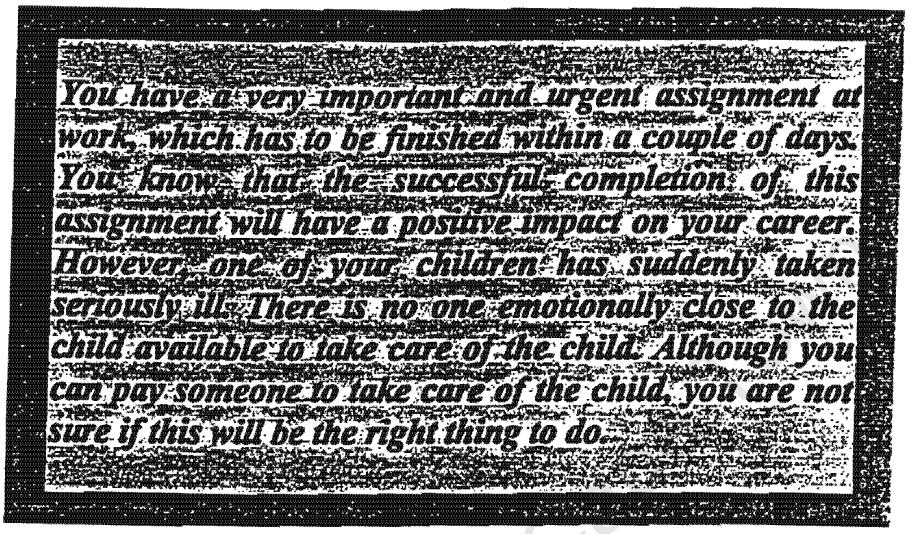
SECTION B

Please read the following description of a hypothetical situation carefully and imagine that this has happened to you.



1. *Please tick √ the appropriate box.*

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very often
How often do you have to deal with a situation such as the one described above?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. *Please tick √ the appropriate box.*

	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much so	Extremely
To what extent do you experience this situation as stressful?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Go on to next page

3

3.1 ***Please indicate how much each of the following statements applies to the situation described on page 2 by ticking √ the appropriate box.***
In this situation there is the possibility of:

		Does not apply	Applies a little	Applies somewhat	Applies a lot	Applies a great deal
a.	Harm to a loved one's health, safety or physical well-being.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
b.	Harm to a loved one's emotional well-being.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
c.	Harm to your own health, safety, or physical well-being.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
d.	A loved one having difficulty getting along in the world.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
e.	Not achieving an important goal at your job or in your work.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
f.	A strain on your financial resources.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
g.	Losing the affection of someone important to you.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
h.	Losing your self-respect.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
i.	Appearing to be an uncaring person.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
j.	Appearing unethical.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
k.	Losing the approval or respect of someone important to you	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
l.	Losing respect for someone else.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
m.	Appearing incompetent.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
n.	Other (please fill in)	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

You have a very important and urgent assignment at work, which has to be finished within a couple of days. You know that the successful completion of this assignment will have a positive impact on your career. However, one of your children has suddenly taken seriously ill. There is no one emotionally close to the child available to take care of the child. Although you can pay someone to take care of the child, you are not sure if this will be the right thing to do.

3.2 *If more than one item in question 3.1 applies in this situation, which* ***one*** *do you think applies the* ***most?*** ***Please indicate by*** ***circling*** *the appropriate letter.*

Next to each item, please tick √ the box that best describes the situation.

4. Please complete **4 a** **and** **b.** *To what extent is the situation described above one*

	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	Quite a bit	Very much so
a. that you can change or do something about	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. that you have to accept	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Go on to next page

5. *Take a few moments and **think about the situation** described on page 4. Before responding to the statements, think about the details of this situation, such as who is involved ; how you react in such a situation; and why it is important to you.*

Please read each item below carefully and tick √ one box for each item to indicate to what extent you use it in a situation such as the one described above. Please respond to each item.

		Does not apply	Use somewhat	Use quite a bit	Use a great deal
1.	I just concentrate on what I have to do next - the next step.	❑	❑	❑	❑
2.	I try to analyze the problem in order to understand it better.	❑	❑	❑	❑
3.	I turn to work or another activity to take my mind off things	❑	❑	❑	❑
4.	I feel that time will make a difference - the only thing is to wait	❑	❑	❑	❑
5.	I bargain or compromise to get something positive from the situation	❑	❑	❑	❑
6.	I do something that I don't think will work, but at least I am doing something	❑	❑	❑	❑
7.	I try to get the person responsible to change his or her mind	❑	❑	❑	❑
8.	I talk to someone to find out more about the situation	❑	❑	❑	❑
9.	I criticize or lecture myself	❑	❑	❑	❑
10.	I try not to burn my bridges, but leave things open somewhat	❑	❑	❑	❑
11.	I hope for a miracle	❑	❑	❑	❑

Go on to next page

You have a very important and urgent assignment at work, which has to be finished within a couple of days. You know that the successful completion of this assignment will have a positive impact on your career. However, one of your children has suddenly taken seriously ill. There is no one emotionally close to the child available to take care of the child. Although you can pay someone to take care of the child, you are not sure if this will be the right thing to do.

	Does not apply	Use somewhat	Use quite a bit	Use a great deal
12. I go along with fate; sometimes I just have bad luck	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. I go on as if nothing is happening	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. I try to keep my feelings to myself	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. I look for the silver lining, so to speak; I try to look on the bright side of things	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. I sleep more than usual	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. I express anger to the person(s) who causes the the problem	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. I accept sympathy and understanding from someone	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. I tell myself things that help me feel better	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. I am inspired to do something creative about the problem	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. I try to forget the whole thing	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. I get professional help	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. I change or grow as a person	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. I wait to see what will happen before doing anything	☐	☐	☐	☐

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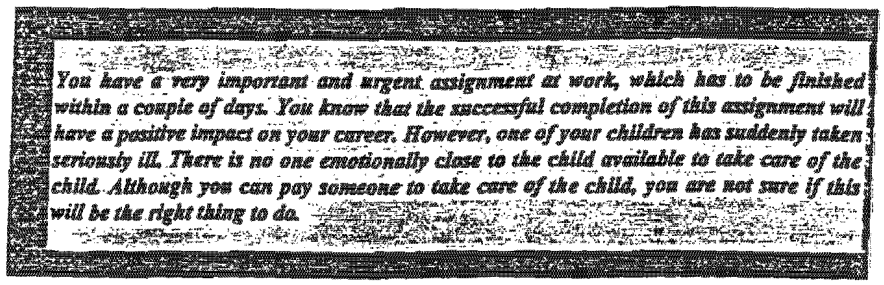

	Does not apply	Use somewhat	Use quite a bit	Use a great deal
42. I ask advice from a relative or friend I respect	☐	☐	☐	☐
43. I keep others from knowing how bad things are	☐	☐	☐	☐
44. I make light of the situation; I refuse to get too serious about it	☐	☐	☐	☐
45. I talk to someone about how I am feeling	☐	☐	☐	☐
46. I stand my ground and fight for what I want	☐	☐	☐	☐
47. I take it out on other people	☐	☐	☐	☐
48. I draw on my past experiences; I was in a similar situation before	☐	☐	☐	☐
49. I know what has to be done, so I double my efforts to make things work	☐	☐	☐	☐
50. I refuse to believe that it is happening	☐	☐	☐	☐
51. I promise myself that things will be different next time	☐	☐	☐	☐
52. I come up with a couple of different solutions to the problem	☐	☐	☐	☐

Go on to next page

		Does not apply	Use somewhat	Use quite a bit	Use a great deal
25.	I apologize or do something to make up	❑	❑	❑	❑
26.	I make a plan of action and follow it	❑	❑	❑	❑
27.	I accept the next best thing to what I want	❑	❑	❑	❑
28.	I let my feelings out somehow	❑	❑	❑	❑
29.	I realize that I have brought the problem on myself	❑	❑	❑	❑
30.	I come out of the experience better than when I go in	❑	❑	❑	❑
31.	I talk to someone who can do something concrete about the problem	❑	❑	❑	❑
32.	I try to get away from it for a while by resting or taking a vacation	❑	❑	❑	❑
33.	I try to make myself feel better by eating, drinking, smoking, using drugs, or medications, etc.	❑	❑	❑	❑
34.	I take a big chance or do something very risky to solve the problem	❑	❑	❑	❑
35.	I try not to act too hastily or follow my first hunch	❑	❑	❑	❑
36.	I find new faith	❑	❑	❑	❑
37.	I maintain my pride and keep a stiff upper lip	❑	❑	❑	❑
38.	I rediscover what is important in life	❑	❑	❑	❑
39.	I change something so things will turn out all right	❑	❑	❑	❑
40.	I generally avoid being with people	❑	❑	❑	❑
41.	I don't let it get to me; I refuse to think too much about it	❑	❑	❑	❑

Go on to next page

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		Does not apply	Use somewhat	Use quite a bit	Use a great deal
53.	I accept the situation, since nothing can be done	❑	❑	❑	❑
54.	I try to keep my feelings about the problem from interfering with other things	❑	❑	❑	❑
55.	I wish that I can change what is happening or how I feel	❑	❑	❑	❑
56.	I change something about myself	❑	❑	❑	❑
57.	I daydream or imagine a better time or place than the one I am in	❑	❑	❑	❑
58.	I wish that the situation will go away or somehow be over with	❑	❑	❑	❑
59.	I have fantasies or wishes about how things may turn out	❑	❑	❑	❑
60.	I pray	❑	❑	❑	❑
61.	I prepare myself for the worst	❑	❑	❑	❑
62.	I go over in my mind what I will say or do	❑	❑	❑	❑
63.	I think about how a person I admire will handle this situation and use that as a model	❑	❑	❑	❑
64.	I try to see things from the other person's point of view	❑	❑	❑	❑
65.	I remind myself how much worse things can be	❑	❑	❑	❑
66.	I jog or exercise	❑	❑	❑	❑

Go on to next page

SECTION C

General information

Complete by ticking √ the appropriate box ☐.

1. To which age group do you belong?

20-29 ☐
30-45 ☐
46 and above ☐

2. Write down *how many* children do you have in age groups:

0-5 .....
6-12 .....
13-18 .....

3. How many days per week do you have Domestic help?

0-2 days per week ☐
3-5 days per week ☐
6-7 days per week ☐

4. Does your domestic helper sleep on your premises?

Yes ☐
No ☐

5. On average, how often are you away from home for purposes of business travelling?

never ☐
1-3 days per month ☐
4-7 days per month ☐
more than 7 days per month ☐

6.

a. Indicate which of the following sources of help do you use for child care. *Tick as many categories as you use.*

aftercare ☐
domestic help ☐
friends ☐
family (grandmother/grandfather/other family) ☐
husband ☐
older siblings ☐
other (please specify) .....
.....

b. Which type of childcare do you use most?
.....

7.

a. Give an indication of the *hours per day* from Monday to Friday <u>you</u> spend on child care?
.....

b. Give an indication of the *hours per day* from Monday to Friday <u>you</u> spend on domestic chores?
.....

c. Give an indication of the *hours per day* from Monday to Friday <u>your husband</u> spends on child care?
.....

d. Give an indication of the *hours per day* from Monday to Friday <u>your husband</u> spends on domestic chores?
.....

Go on to next page

8.

a. **Give an indication of the *hours per day* from Saturday to Sunday <u>you</u> spend on child care?**

.....

b. **Give an indication of the *hours per day* from Saturday to Sunday <u>you</u> spend on domestic chores?**

.....

c. **Give an indication of the *hours per day* from Saturday to Sunday <u>your husband</u> spends on child care?**

.....

d. **Give an indication of the *hours per day* from Saturday to Sunday <u>your husband</u> spends on domestic chores?**

.....

9.

a. **How often do you do physical exercise?** *Tick the appropriate box.*

- Less than once a week ☐
- 1-2 times per week ☐
- 3 or more times per week ☐

b. **When you are stressed, what methods do you use to relax?** *Tick as many categories as you use.*

- have a massage ☐
- watch videos ☐
- exercise (gym/run/walk/other) ☐
- meditate ☐
- reading (book/magazine/newspaper/other) ☐
- listen to music ☐
- sleep ☐
- socialize (chat/party/dinner etc.) ☐
- other (please specify).....

.....

c. **Which relaxation method do you use most?**

.....

10. **How often do you suffer from the following?** *Tick the appropriate box next to each of the Items listed below.*

	seldom	*often*	*almost always*
colds/flu	☐	☐	☐
headaches	☐	☐	☐
neck pain	☐	☐	☐
back pain	☐	☐	☐
stomach ailments	☐	☐	☐
allergies	☐	☐	☐
irregular eating habits	☐	☐	☐
muscle tension	☐	☐	☐
feeling hurried	☐	☐	☐

11. **What is your highest level of education?** *Please tick the box next to the appropriate category.*

- matric ☐
- diploma or bachelor's degree ☐
- post graduate degree ☐

12.

a. **Indicate your occupational sector.** *Please tick the box next to the appropriate category.*

- self-employed ☐
- corporate sector ☐
- public sector ☐

b. **What is you current job title?**

.....

c. **What is your current job grade?**

If you are self-employed, ignore this question.

.....

d. **If you are self-employed, how many people do you employ?**

.....

Go on to next page

13.

a. Do you work from home?

Yes ☐
No ☐

b. Do you have the option to work from home if that would be easier under certain circumstances?

Yes ☐
No ☐

14.

a. What is <u>your</u> income per month? *Please tick the box next to the appropriate category.*

up to R3999.00 per month ☐
R4000.00 – R6999.00 ☐
R7000.00 – R9999.00 ☐
R10 000.00 plus ☐

b. What is <u>you and your husband's</u> combined income per month? *Please tick the box next to the appropriate category*

up to R6999.00 ☐
R7000.00 – R9999.00 ☐
R10 000.00 – R13 999.00 ☐
R14 000.00 plus ☐

15. Which race group do you belong to?

.....

Go on to next page

SECTION D

1

1.1 In you own words please *describe* what it is like to have work- and family responsibilities:

1.2 *Write down* any comment you would like to add:

THANK YOU

APPENDIX D

REGRESSION ANALYSES: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COGNITIVE APPRAISAL AND COPING STRATEGIES

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	total threat[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: confrontive coping

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.140[a]	.020	.010	2.5899

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	14.428	1	14.428	2.151	.145[a]
	Residual	724.445	108	6.708		
	Total	738.873	109			

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

b. Dependent Variable: confrontive coping

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	10.477	.840		12.472	.000
	total threat	3.126E-02	.021	.140	1.467	.145

a. Dependent Variable: confrontive coping

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	total threat[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: distancing

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.060[a]	.004	-.006	2.6534

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.707	1	2.707	.384	.537[a]
	Residual	753.330	107	7.040		
	Total	756.037	108			

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

b. Dependent Variable: distancing

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	10.908	.866		12.594	.000
	total threat	-1.359E-02	.022	-.060	-.620	.537

a. Dependent Variable: distancing

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	total threat[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: self-controlling

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.038[a]	.001	-.008	3.0195

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.381	1	1.381	.151	.698[a]
	Residual	975.592	107	9.118		
	Total	976.972	108			

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

b. Dependent Variable: self-controlling

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	16.917	.986		17.164	.000
	total threat	-9.708E-03	.025	-.038	-.389	.698

a. Dependent Variable: self-controlling

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	total threat[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: seeking social support

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.094[a]	.009	.000	3.8773

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	14.629	1	14.629	.973	.326[a]
	Residual	1623.589	108	15.033		
	Total	1638.218	109			

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

b. Dependent Variable: seeking social support

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	14.141	1.258		11.245	.000
	total threat	3.148E-02	.032	.094	.986	.326

a. Dependent Variable: seeking social support

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	total threat[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: accepting responsibility

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.082[a]	.007	-.002	2.6744

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.225	1	5.225	.731	.395[a]
	Residual	772.448	108	7.152		
	Total	777.673	109			

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

b. Dependent Variable: accepting responsibility

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	7.146	.867		8.238	.000
	total threat	1.881E-02	.022	.082	.855	.395

a. Dependent Variable: accepting responsibility

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	total threat[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: escape-avoidance

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.168[a]	.028	.019	3.5601

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	39.833	1	39.833	3.143	.079[a]
	Residual	1368.858	108	12.675		
	Total	1408.691	109			

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

b. Dependent Variable: escape-avoidance

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	10.152	1.155		8.792	.000
	total threat	5.194E-02	.029	.168	1.773	.079

a. Dependent Variable: escape-avoidance

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	total threat[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: planful problem solving

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.013[a]	.000	-.009	3.4759

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.218	1	.218	.018	.893[a]
	Residual	1304.873	108	12.082		
	Total	1305.091	109			

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

b. Dependent Variable: planful problem solving

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	17.236	1.127		15.288	.000
	total threat	-3.842E-03	.029	-.013	-.134	.893

a. Dependent Variable: planful problem solving

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	total threat[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: positive reappraisal

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.086[a]	.007	-.002	4.0462

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	13.000	1	13.000	.794	.375[a]
	Residual	1751.807	107	16.372		
	Total	1764.807	108			

a. Predictors: (Constant), total threat

b. Dependent Variable: positive reappraisal

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	18.868	1.321		14.286	.000
	total threat	-2.979E-02	.033	-.086	-.891	.375

a. Dependent Variable: positive reappraisal

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	control/change/do[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: confrontive coping

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.008[a]	.000	-.009	2.6272

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.355E-02	1	4.355E-02	.006	.937[a]
	Residual	731.614	106	6.902		
	Total	731.657	107			

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

b. Dependent Variable: confrontive coping

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	11.725	.666		17.612	.000
	control/change/do	-1.611E-02	.203	-.008	-.079	.937

a. Dependent Variable: confrontive coping

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	control/change/do[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: distancing

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.096[a]	.009	.000	2.6660

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.987	1	6.987	.983	.324[a]
	Residual	746.303	105	7.108		
	Total	753.290	106			

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

b. Dependent Variable: distancing

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	11.003	.676		16.278	.000
	control/change/do	-.205	.206	-.096	-.991	.324

a. Dependent Variable: distancing

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	control/change/do[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: self-controlling

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.069[a]	.005	-.005	3.0082

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.508	1	4.508	.498	.482[a]
	Residual	950.184	105	9.049		
	Total	954.692	106			

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

b. Dependent Variable: self-controlling

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	16.026	.763		21.013	.000
	control/change/do	.164	.233	.069	.706	.482

a. Dependent Variable: self-controlling

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	control/change/do[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: seeking social support

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.037[a]	.001	-.008	3.8985

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.168	1	2.168	.143	.706[a]
	Residual	1611.045	106	15.199		
	Total	1613.213	107			

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

b. Dependent Variable: seeking social support

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	15.614	.988		15.805	.000
	control/change/do	-.114	.301	-.037	-.378	.706

a. Dependent Variable: seeking social support

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	control/change/do[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: accepting responsibility

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.021[a]	.000	-.009	2.6936

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.337	1	.337	.046	.830[a]
	Residual	769.098	106	7.256		
	Total	769.435	107			

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

b. Dependent Variable: accepting responsibility

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	8.016	.683		11.744	.000
	control/change/do	-4.479E-02	.208	-.021	-.215	.830

a. Dependent Variable: accepting responsibility

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	control/change/do[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: escape-avoidance

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.285[a]	.081	.072	3.4715

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	112.849	1	112.849	9.364	.003[a]
	Residual	1277.475	106	12.052		
	Total	1390.324	107			

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

b. Dependent Variable: escape-avoidance

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	14.648	.880		16.651	.000
	control/change/do	-.820	.268	-.285	-3.060	.003

a. Dependent Variable: escape-avoidance

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	control/change/do[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: planful problem solving

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.228[a]	.052	.043	3.3913

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	66.753	1	66.753	5.804	.018[a]
	Residual	1219.099	106	11.501		
	Total	1285.852	107			

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

b. Dependent Variable: planful problem solving

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	15.122	.859		17.597	.000
	control/change/do	.631	.262	.228	2.409	.018

a. Dependent Variable: planful problem solving

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	control/change/do[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: positive reappraisal

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.082[a]	.007	-.003	4.0335

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.604	1	11.604	.713	.400[a]
	Residual	1708.284	105	16.269		
	Total	1719.888	106			

a. Predictors: (Constant), control/change/do

b. Dependent Variable: positive reappraisal

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	16.865	1.023		16.492	.000
	control/change/do	.264	.312	.082	.845	.400

a. Dependent Variable: positive reappraisal

REGRESSION ANALYSES: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK-FAMILY INTERACTION STRAIN AND COPING STRATEGIES

Correlations

Correlations

		interaction strain	confrontive coping	distancing	self-controlling
interaction strain	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.064	.134	.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.533	.191	.592
	N	97	97	97	97
confrontive coping	Pearson Correlation	.064	1.000	.229	.168
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.533	.	.016	.081
	N	97	110	109	109
distancing	Pearson Correlation	.134	.229	1.000	.490
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.191	.016	.	.000
	N	97	109	109	109
self-controlling	Pearson Correlation	.055	.168	.490	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.592	.081	.000	.
	N	97	109	109	109
seeking social support	Pearson Correlation	-.035	.484	.002	.269
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.734	.000	.987	.005
	N	97	110	109	109
accepting responsibility	Pearson Correlation	.244	.494	.375	.432
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.016	.000	.000	.000
	N	97	110	109	109
escape-avoidance	Pearson Correlation	.220	.411	.304	.243
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.031	.000	.001	.011
	N	97	110	109	109
planful problem solving	Pearson Correlation	-.138	.404	.233	.304
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.177	.000	.015	.001
	N	97	110	109	109
positive reappraisal	Pearson Correlation	-.088	.333	.345	.437
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.390	.000	.000	.000
	N	97	109	109	109

Correlations

		seeking social support	accepting responsibility	escape-avoidance
interaction strain	Pearson Correlation	-.035	.244	.220
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.734	.016	.031
	N	97	97	97
confrontive coping	Pearson Correlation	.484	.494	.411
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	110	110	110
distancing	Pearson Correlation	.002	.375	.304
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.987	.000	.001
	N	109	109	109
self-controlling	Pearson Correlation	.269	.432	.243
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.000	.011
	N	109	109	109
seeking social support	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.388	.335
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000
	N	110	110	110
accepting responsibility	Pearson Correlation	.388	1.000	.510
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
	N	110	110	110
escape-avoidance	Pearson Correlation	.335	.510	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.
	N	110	110	110
planful problem solving	Pearson Correlation	.378	.270	.018
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.004	.849
	N	110	110	110
positive reappraisal	Pearson Correlation	.572	.379	.152
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.114
	N	109	109	109

Correlations

		planful problem solving	positive reappraisal
interaction strain	Pearson Correlation	-.138	-.088
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.177	.390
	N	97	97
confrontive coping	Pearson Correlation	.404	.333
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	110	109
distancing	Pearson Correlation	.233	.345
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.015	.000
	N	109	109
self-controlling	Pearson Correlation	.304	.437
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000
	N	109	109
seeking social support	Pearson Correlation	.378	.572
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	110	109
accepting responsibility	Pearson Correlation	.270	.379
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.000
	N	110	109
escape-avoidance	Pearson Correlation	.018	.152
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.849	.114
	N	110	109
planful problem solving	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.503
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	110	109
positive reappraisal	Pearson Correlation	.503	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	109	109