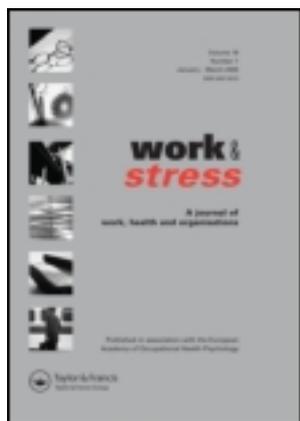


This article was downloaded by: [University of Haifa Library]

On: 30 September 2012, At: 02:08

Publisher: Routledge

Informa Ltd Registered in England and Wales Registered Number: 1072954 Registered office: Mortimer House, 37-41 Mortimer Street, London W1T 3JH, UK



Work & Stress: An International Journal of Work, Health & Organisations

Publication details, including instructions for authors and subscription information:

<http://www.tandfonline.com/loi/twst20>

Coping with work-family conflict: The reciprocal and additive contributions of personal coping and organizational family-friendly support

Anit Somech^a & Anat Drach-Zahavy^b

^a Educational Leadership & Policy Department, Faculty of Education, University of Haifa, Mount Carmel, Israel

^b Nursing Department, Faculty of Social Welfare and Health Studies, University of Haifa, Mount Carmel, Israel

Version of record first published: 16 Feb 2012.

To cite this article: Anit Somech & Anat Drach-Zahavy (2012): Coping with work-family conflict: The reciprocal and additive contributions of personal coping and organizational family-friendly support, *Work & Stress: An International Journal of Work, Health & Organisations*, 26:1, 68-90

To link to this article: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2012.660361>

PLEASE SCROLL DOWN FOR ARTICLE

Full terms and conditions of use: <http://www.tandfonline.com/page/terms-and-conditions>

This article may be used for research, teaching, and private study purposes. Any substantial or systematic reproduction, redistribution, reselling, loan, sub-licensing, systematic supply, or distribution in any form to anyone is expressly forbidden.

The publisher does not give any warranty express or implied or make any representation that the contents will be complete or accurate or up to date. The accuracy of any instructions, formulae, and drug doses should be independently verified with primary sources. The publisher shall not be liable for any loss, actions, claims, proceedings, demand, or costs or damages whatsoever or howsoever caused arising directly or indirectly in connection with or arising out of the use of this material.

Coping with work–family conflict: The reciprocal and additive contributions of personal coping and organizational family-friendly support

Anit Somech^{a*} and Anat Drach-Zahavy^{b*}

^a*Educational Leadership & Policy Department, Faculty of Education, University of Haifa, Mount Carmel, Israel;* ^b*Nursing Department, Faculty of Social Welfare and Health Studies, University of Haifa, Mount Carmel, Israel*

The aim of this study was to test three alternative models – additive, interactive, and reciprocal – of the relationship between personal coping strategies and formal organizational family-friendly supports in mitigating work–family conflict (WFC). Altogether 474 employees in Israel having a partner and children and representing diverse professions and organizations were surveyed. The additive model, that is, personal coping and organizational supports together, were associated with decreased WFC, received support. However, the reciprocal model was also supported, as WFC decreased when individuals perceived the investments between their efforts in personal coping strategies and the organization's efforts in organizational supports as equal. The interactive model, namely personal coping and organizational supports compensate each other in decreasing conflict, received marginal support. Nevertheless, in each model personal coping strategies proved a better approach to mitigating WFC than formal family-friendly supports. The findings suggest that the role of organizational support is important in decreasing WFC when employees lack the personal coping strategies required or when they perceive the organization's efforts to be unfair in relation to their own coping efforts.

Keywords: work–family conflict; coping strategy; organizational; family-friendly; support

Introduction

Work–family conflict is defined as “a form of inter-role conflict in which role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). The finite resources required to fulfil such role demands are frequently in a state of imbalance, leading to feelings of conflict between demands (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005; Moreno-Jiménez et al., 2009). According to Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) model, work–family conflict is bidirectional: work interferes with family (WIF) and family interferes with work (FIW). Work–family conflict has serious consequences: for workers and their families and for organizations that fail to benefit from talented employees and incur

*Both authors contributed equally to this paper
Corresponding authors. Email: anits@edu.haifa.ac.il and anatzd@research.haifa.ac.il

additional costs in absenteeism, turnover, recruitment, and lost productivity (e.g., Hoobler, Wayne, & Lemmon, 2009). Hence, an understanding of the individual variables (personal coping) and the organizational variables (formal family-friendly organizational supports) that can ease work–family conflict is crucial. Nevertheless, the manner in which much research on the work–family interface has been carried out has often impeded attainment of this goal.

In most previous coping research in the work–family domain, the focus has been either on personal coping or on family-friendly organizational supports, but not both. These two lines of research appear to be distinct, and only scant research has examined them simultaneously (e.g., Lapierre & Allen, 2006). The main argument of the present study is that examining the effectiveness of personal coping without referring to organizational supports, or the reverse – examining the impact of family-friendly supports without considering personal coping – might provide only limited understanding of how to diminish work–family conflict. Accordingly, our aim is to fill this gap in the literature by proposing an integrated model combining these two perspectives. This will allow us to examine simultaneously the relative contribution of each, but also to examine their mutual effect in lessening work–family conflict.

Throughout this article, we use “*organizational supports*” as the abbreviation for “*formal family-friendly organizational supports*.” We also use the term “coping” to denote personal-coping strategies.

Personal coping with work–family conflict

Coping is defined as the cognitive and behavioural efforts of individuals to manage taxing demands appraised as exceeding their personal resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984); it is the things people do to reduce harm from life’s stressors (Aryee, Luk, Leung, & Lo, 1999). According to the Conservation of Resources Theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001), when stress levels rise, individuals expend internal or external resources to manage the distress. Internal resources are resources that the person possesses; they encompass personal characteristics, such as efficacy, optimism and coping styles. External resources do not belong to the person but are available from his/her external environment. In the context of this study, using personal coping with work–family conflict in an effort to manage conflicting work and family demands might be seen as relying on internal resources; utilizing family-friendly organizational supports available in one’s work environment pertains to reliance on external resources.

Because work–family conflict has been commonly grounded in the theories of role stress and inter-role conflict (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005), most previous studies of personal coping in this domain have examined the role of personal coping as a moderator variable in the relationship between work–family conflict and stress, wellbeing and health (Rotondo, Carlson, & Kincaid, 2003). These studies typically addressed work–family conflict as a stressor, and demonstrated how various coping strategies can moderate the stress to strain relationship (e.g., Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Rotondo et al., 2003).

Nevertheless, the beneficial effect of personal coping on strain may occur also via its influence on the appraisal process (Lazarus, 1991). That is, the way the individual perceives his/her environment and its stressors become positively changed. Moreover, the various types of coping efforts that an individual makes show some similarities,

so he or she can be said to use a particular coping style (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Effective coping styles, therefore, should also be associated with lower levels of work–family conflict. If an individual copes effectively, his or her work–family conflict should be lower because it is “under control” (Carver & Scheier, 1982; Rotondo et al., 2003). Surprisingly, however, only scant research has focused on coping strategies as antecedents of work–family conflict.

One line of research into coping as directly easing work–family conflict adopted Folkman and Lazarus’s typology of problem solving coping as compared with emotion-focused coping. The former depicts active coping, and focuses on exerting control and resolving the stressful situation; the latter is passive coping and involves regulating emotions to make the stressful situation more tolerable (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Overall, research has typically demonstrated conflicting findings. Problem-focused coping has been found to decrease FIW but proved less effective in decreasing WIF. The authors concluded that individuals may have greater control and opportunity for positive change in the family domain than in the work environment (Rotondo & Kincaid, 2008). Moreover, several studies actually found problem-focused coping ineffective, namely associated with higher levels of WIF or FIW (Rotondo & Kincaid, 2008). As for emotion-focused coping strategies, their use has been typically found less effective, as they were not positively related or even related at all to WIF and FIW conflict levels (Rotondo et al., 2003). Yet some studies (e.g., Rotondo & Kincaid, 2008) pointed to the superiority of emotion-focused coping under certain circumstances. Hence, adapting Lazarus and Folkman’s typology of “general” coping styles to the arena of work–family conflict yielded mixed results. Moreover, the predictive power of these general coping styles was somewhat modest (Rotondo et al., 2003; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Hence, research sought a coping taxonomy pertaining particularly to work–family conflict.

Another line of research focused on coping strategy typologies developed specifically for the work–family conflict context. Hall’s (1972) typology was pioneering in this respect and consisted of 16 coping strategies classified according to three types. The first, *structural role redefinition* was described as a proactive attempt to deal with the objective reality of one’s roles by reducing the role demands and changing others’ expectations. The second type, *personal role redefinition*, represents a more defensive approach whereby conflicts are reduced through changing one’s personal attitudes and behaviours as opposed to altering role demands. Finally, *reactive role behaviour* involves no attempt to address conflict. Instead, the individual strives to improve his or her ability to satisfy all demands. Overall, research has adduced limited evidence to support any firm conclusion as to the superior effectiveness of one type of strategy in Hall’s typology over another (Kirchmeyer, 1993). For example, Kirchmeyer (1993) suggested that the use of Hall’s coping strategies of any kind may well represent a way for the individual to “take control” of his or her busy life, and was linked with less FIW. Another limitation of Hall’s typology is its emphasis on how employees accommodate their family role demands whilst neglecting the issue of how they accommodate their work demands. This is unfortunate because it fails to capture the full range of coping options, limiting our knowledge of how individual coping differences may affect work–family conflict (Rotondo et al., 2003).

Later, Behson (2002) introduced another typology of informal work accommodations to family, namely a set of behaviours by which employees temporarily and

informally adjust their usual work patterns in an attempt to balance their work and family responsibilities. Examples are: meeting family demands during work time, such as communicating with family via emails or phone conversations; rearranging work schedule to accommodate a family event or arranging to leave work to attend to family. Behson (2002), like Kirchmeyer (1993) did not suggest that some informal tactics are more effective than others in alleviating strain, but that a higher score on the informal tactics scale means that employees are more “in control” of their stressors. Nevertheless, no study heretofore has tested informal work accommodations as antecedents of work–family conflict. Moreover, just as focusing only on accommodating family demands fails to depict the full range of coping options, highlighting informal accommodation to demands alone restricts our understanding of how individual coping differences may affect work–family conflict.

To this end, Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007) developed a more refined and elaborated typology. Four strategies (each with two sub-categories) denoting behavioural aspects of coping that specify what individuals actually do at work and/or at home to cope with work–family conflict were identified: *Good enough at home/work* – lowering the performance of family/work responsibilities to a less than perfect level; *Super at home/work* – insisting on doing all family/work duties single-handedly and perfectly; *Delegation at home/work* – managing one’s own family/work duties by delegating some to others; and *Priorities at home/work* – arranging family/work duties in order of priority, and undertaking only those with high priority.

Somech and Drach-Zahavy’s typology has much in common with previous models of coping strategies. One sub-scale, that is, “Good enough at work/home,” describes changing expectations, perceptions and behaviours of one’s own behaviour in a given role, rather than directly attempting to change the role expectations themselves (Thompson, Poelmans, Allen, & Andreassi, 2007). Next, “Prioritizing at work/home” and “Delegating at work/home” involve altering external, structurally imposed expectations relative to one’s role: sharing tasks with other people (in delegating) or giving up some less important tasks (in prioritizing) in either life domain. Moreover, delegating seems to do with seeking support, a coping strategy that has been identified as the most popular theme in the coping and conflict literature (e.g., Eby et al., 2005; Rotondo & Kincaid, 2008). Finally, “Super at work/home” reflects the individual’s striving to improve his or her ability to satisfy all role demands rather than to address the conflict by restructuring role demands.

Somech and Drach-Zahavy’s typology, however, also has distinct advantages over previous typologies. First, like Hall’s (1972) typology it was developed specifically for dealing with work–family conflict. Second, it focuses on accommodation of both work and family to satisfy family and work demands. And third, it was developed in a bottom-up process, capturing employees’ authentic experience of how they cope with work–family conflict rather than relying on the researchers’ perspective.

Findings (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007) showed that among the eight strategies, “Super at work” was associated with reduced FIW and WIF; “Delegating at home” and “Prioritizing at home” were associated with decreased WIF; “Prioritizing at work decreased FIW (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). However, in another study these authors found that overall, more frequent use of the eight personal coping strategies by employed parents lessened both FIW and WIF (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2006). Therefore we suggest, based on previous research (e.g., Behson, 2002; Kirchmeyer, 1993), that increasingly active attempts to cope with

work–family conflict, namely ever increasing use of different types of coping strategy, represents a way for the employee to take control over his or her conflicting demands, and are therefore linked to reduced levels of work–family conflict.

The organizational context: formal family-friendly supports

Easing work–family conflict can be further understood from an organizational perspective, namely the organization's formal and informal role in attempting to become family-friendly. "Formal" means the ways in which organizations can manage the situation in such ways as providing child-care assistance, flexible working hours, and family leave (Veiga, Baldrige, & Eddelson, 2004), while "informal" refers to values and unspoken norms represented in the organizational culture (Lobel & Kossek, 1996). In this study, we limit our discussion to the formal aspect. Types of organizational family-friendly support have been placed in three major categories: policies, benefits, and services (Veiga et al., 2004). *Policies* cover the ways employees' work and leave schedules are handled, including part-time work, job-sharing, flextime, and parental/family leave. Family-friendly policies often involve reducing the number of hours worked, changing the place where an employee's work is done, or increasing flexibility in the employee's work schedule (Hammer, Neal, Newsom, Brockwood, & Colton, 2005). *Benefits* cover forms of compensation that protect against loss of earnings, payment of medical expenses and vacation, and providing personal time, or all of these. *Services* includes on-site or near-site childcare centres, resource counselling and referral systems, sick leave and elder care programmes, and discounts and vouchers for a variety of services.

Reviewing the literature that has examined the link between the use of organizational supports and work–family conflict revealed inconsistent results (e.g., Eby et al., 2005; Hammer et al., 2005; Kossek & Nichol, 1992). In fact, studies on the effects of actual utilization of organizational supports have typically focused on alternative work schedules or dependent care support (Kossek & Nichol, 1992). Most studies examined only one specific type of support at a time (e.g., Thomas & Ganster, 1995), as opposed to a wider variety, or "bundles" of supports (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000). Findings on the adoption of policies such as alternative work schedules have generally demonstrated a relationship between utilization of this support and decreased work–family conflict (Brough, O'Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2005; for reviews see Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999). Finally, the impact of utilizing organizational supports on employees' work–family conflict has yielded mixed findings. For example, in one study, utilization of services proved unrelated to work–family conflict (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2006). Also Wallace and Young (2008) found that organizational supports were of little value to working mothers; fathers seemed to benefit more. Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2006) found that while utilization of organizational supports did not mitigate managers' work–family conflict, it was beneficial for non-managers.

To sum up, the literature review of either personal coping or organizational supports revealed mixed findings, but generally indicated the contribution of both to a lessening of work–family conflict. Moreover, as Rotondo and Kincaid pointed out, "individuals and families accommodate work demands rather than work accommodating family" (Rotondo & Kincaid, 2008, p. 487). Nevertheless, a more integrative perspective to better capture how work–family conflict might be eased is

required. Examining the effectiveness of personal coping without referring to organizational supports, or the reverse – examining the impact of family-friendly supports without considering personal coping – might provide only limited understanding of how to diminish work–family conflict. We now introduce three alternative models incorporating the relationship of personal coping and organizational supports with work–family conflict: the additive, the interactive, and the reciprocal models.

The additive model

The most intuitive model for understanding the relationship of personal coping and organizational supports with FIW and WIF posits that “more is better.” The more resources available to the individual – in both personal coping and organizational supports – the less the individual will experience FIW and WIF. This additive model assumes that the maximal level of resources is better for easing FIW and WIF. Responsibility for coping with FIW and WIF lies with both the organization and the employee. Both understand their facilitative role in employees’ coping with FIW and WIF. Organizations provide a wide range of family-friendly policies, benefits and services; employees invest in personal coping. Each side contributes independently and additively to balancing the work and family domains.

Theoretical support for the additive model might be obtained from the proactive coping model (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997). Those authors suggested that proactive coping, the process through which one prepares for potential future stressors, starts with the building of resources and skills in advance of any anticipated stressor (resource accumulation). Effective proactive coping involves the mustering of time, money, planning and organizational skills, social support, and as far as possible, management of the chronic burden so that when stressors are detected, the individual is prepared and thus can manage them. Hence, accumulation of resources, through personal coping strategies or organizational supports, may represent a way for the individual to take control of his or her life and hence decrease his or her work–family conflict. Empirically, several studies examining personal coping (e.g., Behson, 2002; Kirchmeyer, 1993) and organizational supports (e.g., Allen, 2001) as antecedent to work–family conflict found that the more the individual engages in coping of any kind, the lesser his or her work–family conflict. Hence we propose

Hypothesis 1: Personal coping and formal organizational supports will act together additively in their association with WIF and FIW.

The interactive model

The possible price for taking the additive (both/and personal and organizational coping) approach is waste of resources. So rather than assuming a maximal level of coping resources, as in the additive model, the interactive model moves to an either/or approach. It posits that lack of personal coping by the employee can be compensated for by organizational supports; and vice versa: lack of organizational support may motivate the employee to rely on personal coping to lessen WIF and FIW.

Support for the interactive model can be gained from Hobfoll's (1989) Conservation of Resources theory. According to Hobfoll, when stress level rises, the individual expands resources to manage the distress. As mentioned earlier, individuals can rely on internal (personal coping) and/or external (organizational supports) resources. By investing in personal coping, individuals spend some resources (in time and energy) planning and implementing ways of dealing with challenges in their work and family environments to more easily fulfil role obligations (Lapierre & Allen, 2006). Nevertheless, by activating personal coping with WIF and FIW effectively, resources can also be acquired: self-efficacy, self-esteem and professionalism may be enhanced through the cumulative experience of succeeding in solving problems (Dormann & Zapf, 2004). Similarly, utilizing organizational supports reduces the employee's need to waste valued resources on unnecessary personal coping (Lapierre & Allen, 2006). Yet relying on organizational supports might also be "costly": employees might perceive these organizational efforts as a burden, and regard using them as being as helpless or unprofessional, or feel obliged to compensate their organization by working even harder (Drach-Zahavy, 2008).

To conclude, utilizing coping strategies or organizational supports might gain or conserve resources, but might also drain them. Moreover, due to the primacy of resource loss (Hobfoll, 2001), namely resource loss is disproportionately more than resource gain, utilizing both coping and organizational supports might result in an overall resource loss rather than gain. Thus, it will be ineffective to use them both simultaneously. Instead, in line with the interactive model, employees aiming to conserve their resources will rely on personal coping only when organizational support is limited, and vice versa: they will rely on organizational supports under limited personal coping resources.

Hypothesis 2: Personal coping and organizational supports will interact, such that

- (a) The relationship between high personal coping and low work–family conflict is stronger under the condition of a low rather than high level of (formal) organizational supports.
- (b) The relationship between high (formal) organizational supports and low work–family conflict is stronger under the condition of a low than a high level of personal coping.

The reciprocal model

One possible drawback of the interactive model is that it fails to take into account the ongoing reciprocal relationship that typically exists between employees and their organization. For example, a worker in a non-family-friendly organization who is required to invest in personal coping to reduce work–family conflict might sense injustice and lack of reciprocity, with consequences for work–family conflict in the long term (Judge & Colquitt, 2004). Hence the third proposed model, the reciprocal model, suggests that equal amounts of personal coping resources and organizational supports are required to lessen WIF and FIW.

Support for the reciprocal model may be obtained from equity theory (Adams, 1965), exchange theory (Homans, 1958), and more recently organizational justice theory (Greenberg, 1986; Leventhal, 1980). Most exchange theorists assume that people implicitly or explicitly calculate the investments made versus the benefits

received in their interpersonal relationships, and accordingly perceive these relationships in terms of three exchange patterns. The first is reciprocal: equal amounts of resources are invested and gained. This pattern tends to evoke positive feelings of fairness, reciprocity and equity. In the context of this paper, the reciprocal exchange pattern means that the investment/gain of resources in personal coping is equal to the investment/gain of utilizing family-friendly support resources. This pattern might lead to lower WIF and FIW levels. The second pattern is over-reciprocation: the amount of resources gained exceeds the amount invested, resulting in feelings of indebtedness, guilt and shame (Bowling et al., 2004). Accordingly, over-reciprocation might suggest that people utilize family-friendly supports more than they invest in personal coping. This might lead to higher levels of work–family conflict. The third pattern is under-reciprocation: the amount of resources invested exceeds the amount gained, evoking feelings of unfairness, exploitation, resentment, and burden (Buunk, Doosje, Jans, & Hopstaken, 1993). Accordingly, under-reciprocation might suggest that individuals invest in personal coping more than they utilize family-friendly supports. This might lead to higher levels of work–family conflict for WIF.

Hypothesis 3: Personal coping and organizational supports will be negatively associated with WIF and FIW when the investment of resources in personal coping is equal to the resources that are provided by the organization, and positively associated with WIF and FIW under the conditions of over- or under- reciprocation.

Method

The context of the study

Data were collected in Israel in 2008. Any study of work–family conflict is closely constrained by its context, because countries vary in the level of organizational supports and benefits as well as in their welfare regimes. Israel is rated low in the Gender-related Development Index – an indication of the standard of living in a country, developed by the United Nations (Lero & Barodel, 2008). According to this criterion, in Israel there are low inequalities between men and women in areas such as leading long and healthy lives, knowledge, and a decent standard of living. Nevertheless, regarding support systems in Israel, Lero and Barodel (2008) showed that support is expected to be mainly provided by the extended family or paid help, whereas assistance from public support systems is relatively unexpected.

Sample and procedure

Data were collected from respondents employed at various organizations in Israel. Using the procedures outlined by Rotondo et al. (2003), 28 students in an administration programme were each given 20 questionnaires on work–family conflict to distribute to workers in different organizations who were parents and were willing to complete them. Participating parents had to be employed for at least three quarters of the time, and married or living with a partner. The sample accordingly consisted of individuals working in very different settings: financial services, health organizations, educational organizations, manufacturing, and telecommunications. Of the 560 surveys distributed, 474 were returned to the students in sealed envelopes (85% response rate). Sixty-seven percent of respondents

were employed in the public sector and 33% in the private sector. As for the type of organizations, 31% worked in industry, 25% in health care, 24% in education, and 20% in finance. Fifty-one percent were female. Average age was 38.02 years ($SD = 7.5$), and average tenure with the organization was 9.45 years ($SD = 7$). Mean years of education were 13.8 ($SD = 2.3$). Average number of children living at home was 2.81 ($SD = 1.5$) and average age of the children was 9.1 years ($SD = 5$).

Data were collected by means of a self-report survey instrument, consistent with past research in the field of work–family conflict (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Rotondo et al., 2003). Each questionnaire carried a cover sheet guaranteeing anonymity.

Measures

WIF and FIW variables were measured on scales developed by Frone and Rice (1987). The WIF scale consisted of three subscales: time-based WIF (3 items), for example, “I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities”; strain-based WIF (3 items), for example, “I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family”; and behaviour-based WIF (3 items), for example, “Behaviour that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.” Similarly, the FIW scale consisted of three subscales: time-based FIW (3 items), for example, “The time I spend on family responsibilities often interferes with my work”; strain-based FIW (3 items), for example, “Due to the stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work”; and behaviour-based FIW (3 items), for example, “Behaviour that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.” For all items, the response options were on a 6-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). Internal reliabilities for WIF and FIW scales were .80 and .82 respectively.

Personal coping strategy was measured on a 22-item scale developed by Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007) specifically to demonstrate how individuals manage work and family roles. The scale consists of eight sub-categories of coping strategy: *Super at home* (3 items) (e.g., “I strive for a high standard of performance in all my tasks at home”), *Good enough at home* (3 items) (e.g., “I perform my family duties to a sufficient level and don’t insist on a perfect level”), *Delegation at home* (3 items) (e.g., “I manage my family duties by delegating some to others”), *Priorities at home* (2 items) (e.g., “I arrange my family duties in order of priority, and undertake only those with high priority”), *Super at work* (3 items) (e.g., “I strive for a high standard of performance in all my tasks at work”), *Good enough at work* (3 items) (e.g., “I perform my work duties to a sufficient level and don’t insist on a perfect level”), *Delegation at work* (3 items) (e.g., “I manage my work duties by delegating some to others”), and *Priorities at work* (2 items) (e.g., “I arrange my work duties in order of priority, and undertake only those with high priority”). For all items the response options were on a 6-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*very seldom*) to 6 (*very frequently*).

Confirmatory factor analysis using the LISREL 8 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996) was used to analyze the internal structure of the coping strategy scale. Specifically, we compared the eight-factor (oblique) model with a one-factor model (oblique). Results indicated that both structures had good fit indexes (the eight-factor model: $GFI = .97$, $NFI = .95$, $RMSEA = .03$, with factor loadings from .47 to .82; the

one-factor model: GFI = .92, NFI = .90, RMSEA = 0.05, with factor loadings from .37 to .82). However the eight-factor model provided a better fit to the data than did the one-factor model:

$$\left(\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 27.08, p < .001\right).$$

However, based on the above findings, and in keeping with the purpose of the present study – to examine to what extent an individual invests in personal coping with work–family conflict (regardless of which strategy he or she employs) relative to utilizing organizational supports – we used the mean response index as a coping indicator. This has been used in previous studies (Behson, 2005; Kirchmeyer, 1993), where a higher score on the coping scale, namely use of more coping strategies of any kind, reflects a tendency of the individual to gain control over his or her stressors (Kirchmeyer, 1993). Internal reliability for the personal coping strategy scale was .74.

Formal organizational supports was measured by a 10-item scale based on O’Driscoll et al. (2003). Participants were given a list of 10 family-friendly supports commonly offered by organizations: flexitime, compressed work schedules, telecommuting, part-time work, on-site child care centres, subsidized local child care, child-care information/referral services, paid maternity leave, paid paternity leave, and elder care. We followed Allen’s (2001) recommendation and differentiated *availability* from *use* of family-friendly supports, because their differentiation better captures the family-friendly supports that are relevant to the employee. First, the availability of each support was rated using two options: 0 = no, 1 = yes. Then the frequency of using each support was rated on a Likert-type scale from 1 (seldom) to 6 (often). The final score was calculated as the product of these two variables.

Control variables

Age, gender, full- or part-time position, and number of children living at home were treated as control variables because previous research has demonstrated support for the relation between these variables and work–family conflict (e.g., Burke, 2000; Eagle, Miles, & Icenogle, 1997; Rotondo et al., 2003).

Analysis approach

Since coping resources and organizational supports were measured on different scales, we standardized the two measures such that $M=0$, $SD=1$. In all the estimated models we accounted for differences in participants’ age, gender, number of children, and employment (full-time vs. part-time job). Finally, to clarify the significant interactive effects, the predicted values for work–family conflict criteria were calculated from the un-standardized regression coefficients (B s) from the regression equation (Aiken & West, 1991).

The proposed models were assessed as follows. *The additive model* (H1) was assessed by regressing WIF and FIW on coping and organizational supports. *The interactive model* (H2) was assessed by regressing WIF and FIW on the main effects of coping and organizational supports, as well as on their interaction term. Simple slopes for the conditioned effects of organizational supports and coping on work–family conflict were evaluated on the basis of Aiken and West (1991). Finally, *the*

reciprocal model (H3) was assessed by polynomial regression analysis developed by Edwards and Parry (1993). These scholars presented polynomial regression as a better alternative to applying difference scores in the study of congruence (fit). In difference score analysis, the assumption is that the relationship between the two constructs and the outcome is only a function of the difference between the constructs, regardless of the constructs' level. The polynomial regression model is not based on this assumption, and hence may capture more realistic and more complex relationships (Cohen, Nahum-Shani, & Doveh, 2010). Specifically, for our study polynomial regression analysis allows us to better understand the reciprocal effects of coping and organizational supports on work–family conflict, by testing a framework that captures not only the levels of coping and organizational supports but also the degree of fit/misfit (or difference) between them.

Results

Means, standard deviations and correlations among the variables are presented in Table 1.

Additive model

Results for the additive model (H1) suggest that coping and organizational supports have additive effects on decreasing WIF and FIW. To test the model, hierarchical regression analyses to predict WIF and FIW were conducted. The control variables (age, gender, number of children, and employment) were entered in step 1, and the main effect terms of coping and organizational supports were entered in step 2. As shown in Table 2 (regarding the additive model), regarding prediction of FIW, the control variables accounted for 10% of the variance in FIW. The joint main effects of FIW predictors accounted for an additional 11% of the variance in FIW. Specifically, organizational supports ($B = -0.09, p < .05$) and coping ($B = -0.39, p < .001$) were both negatively related with FIW. The WIF results indicated that the control variables accounted for 2% of the variance in WIF, and the joint main effects of WIF predictors accounted for additional 11%. Organizational supports ($B = -0.12, p < .01$) and coping ($B = -0.39, p < .001$) both proved negatively related to WIF (see Table 2). Note that while the control variables explain 10% of the FIW variance, they explain only 2% of the WIF variance. Accordingly, the R^2 of the additive model is greater for FIW ($R^2 = 21\%$) than for WIF ($R^2 = 13\%$). However, in both cases coping and organizational supports added 11% to the variance explained by the control model. Therefore, the results support the additive model for WIF and WIF.

Interactive model

Results for the interactive model suggest that coping and organizational supports interact, such that under a low level of organizational supports, WIF and FIW are lower under high than under low coping; however, under a high level of organizational supports, WIF and FIW are lower under low than under high coping (H2). To test this model, we added the interactive terms in step 3 into the hierarchical regression analyses – steps 1–2 described in the previous section, regarding testing

Table 1. Means, *SDs* and correlations among the variables.

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Gender (1 = female)	0.51	0.50							
2. Employment (1 = full time)	0.85	0.36	-.24***						
3. Age	38.02	7.46	-.19***	.21***					
4. Number of children	2.81	1.46	-.03	.18***	.57***				
5. Organizational support	3.88	0.79	.10	-.24***	.01	-.02			
6. Personal coping strategies	3.78	0.62	.05	.04***	.03	-.06	-.02		
7. FIW	2.87	0.91	.05	.08	-.06	.21***	-.11*	-.40***	
8. WIF	3.53	1.03	-.04	.12*	.06	.11*	-.13**	-.33***	.44***

Notes: $N = 474$. FIW = family interference with work; WIF = work interference with family.

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

the additive model – for predicting WIF and FIW. As shown in Table 2 (the interactive model), the interaction between organizational supports and coping was significantly positive for FIW ($B = 0.08, p < .05$) but insignificant for WIF ($B = 0.09, ns$).

Figure 1 illustrates the interaction between organizational supports and coping with respect to FIW. The results indicate that when coping were low, there was a negative and significant relationship between organizational supports and FIW ($B = -0.17, p < .001$), while no significant relationship was found between organizational supports and FIW when coping was high (estimated difference between the slopes of organizational supports under conditions of low vs. high coping was $0.16, p < .05$). However, it is important to note that coping was associated with reduced FIW regardless of the level of organizational supports (see Figure 1a). Further, when organizational supports were low, the negative relationship between personal coping and FIW was significantly stronger ($B = -0.47, p < .001$) than when organizational supports were high ($B = -0.31, p < .001$) (estimated difference between these two slopes is $0.16, p < .05$) (see Figure 1b). These findings provide limited support for the interactive model regarding FIW, and no support for it regarding WIF.

Reciprocal model

Results for the reciprocal model suggest that coping and organizational supports are negatively associated with WIF and FIW, when investment of resources in personal coping is equal to investment of resources in utilizing organizational supports (fit), and positively associated with WIF and FIW under conditions of over- or under-reciprocation (misfit) (H3). To test this model, polynomial regression analyses for predicting WIF and FIW were conducted (Edwards & Parry, 1993). Following this method, we entered to the regression equation, the control variables (age, gender, number of children, and employment), the main effect terms of coping and organizational supports (first order), the interactive effect, and the squares of coping and organizational supports. Next the fit effects of coping (X1) and organizational supports (X2) on WIF and FIW ($X1 = X2$), as well as the misfit effects of coping and organizational supports ($X1 = -X2$), were examined. Note that the analysis also includes the first-order model because often researchers are

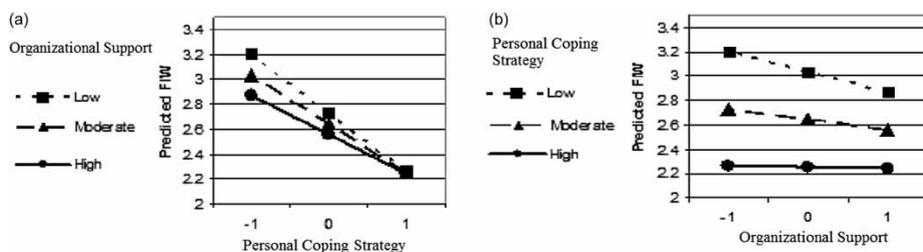


Figure 1. The interactive effects of organizational supports (OS) and personal coping (PC) on FIW.

- Simple slopes of personal coping strategies contingent on organizational supports.
- Simple slopes of organizational supports contingent on personal coping strategies.

interested in assessing the extent to which the second-order components add to the variance explained by the first-order components.

The results of the polynomial regression analysis are presented in Table 3. Table 3 indicates that while the main effect of organizational supports (B_{OS}) is significantly negative ($B = -0.10$, $B = -0.11$, $p < .05$, for FIW and WIF), the second-order effect of organizational supports (B_{OSOS}) is insignificant ($B = -0.02$; $B = 0.01$, ns, for FIW and WIF). Additionally, the main effect of coping (B_{PC}) is significantly negative ($B = -0.36$; $B = -0.34$, $p < .001$, for FIW and WIF), and the second-order effect of coping (b_{PCPC}) is significantly positive ($B = 0.07$; $B = 0.10$, $p < .05$, for FIW and WIF). Finally, the interaction between organizational supports and coping (B_{OSPC}) is positive and significant ($B = 0.10$; $B = 0.12$, $p < .05$, for FIW and WIF). These findings justify the need to fit a second-order polynomial model to examine the effect of organizational supports and coping on FIW and WIF.

For FIW, regarding the fit line (the line where $X1 = X2$) the slope at the point of fit ($B_{OS} + B_{PC}$) is significantly negative ($B = -0.46$; $p < .001$), and the curvature ($B_{OCOC} + B_{OSPC} + B_{PCPC}$) is significantly positive ($B = 0.16$; $p < .05$). This indicates that the expected relative change in FIW diminishes from the point of fit (where coping and organizational supports are at their mean) to where coping and organizational supports increase simultaneously. However, the significantly positive curvature indicates that this slope gets less and less negative along the line of fit. Regarding the line of misfit (the line where $X1 = -X2$) the slope at the point of fit ($B_{OS} - B_{PC}$) is significantly positive ($B = 0.26$; $p < .01$), and the curvature along this line ($B_{OCOC} - B_{OSPC} + B_{PCPC}$) is not significant ($B = -0.04$; ns). This indicates that the expected relative change in FIW increases from the point (0,0) to where

Table 3. Results for the reciprocity model.

	<i>Reciprocity model</i>			
	FIW		WIF	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
Intercept	3.09***	0.24	3.00***	0.29
Gender (1 = female)	0.13	0.08	0.04	0.10
Employment (1 = full time)	0.18	0.12	0.24	0.14
Age	-0.03***	0.01	0.003	0.01
Number of children	0.19***	0.03	0.04	0.04
Organizational supports (OS)	-0.10*	0.05	-0.11*	0.06
Personal coping strategies (PC)	-0.36***	0.05	-0.34***	0.06
^a OS* ^b PC	0.10*	0.04	0.12*	0.05
OS ²	-0.02	0.03	0.01	0.04
PC ²	0.07*	0.03	0.10*	0.04
R ²	0.27		0.17	
$B_{OSOS} - B_{OSPC} + B_{PCPC} = 0$	-0.04	0.05	-0.02	0.07
$B_{OS} - B_{PC} = 0$	0.26***	0.07	0.23***	0.08
$B_{OSOS} + B_{OSPC} + B_{PCPC} = 0$	0.16*	0.07	0.22***	0.08
$B_{OS} + B_{PC} = 0$	-0.46***	0.07	-0.45***	0.08

$N = 474$; ^aOS = organizational support; ^bPC = personal coping strategies; osos and pcpc represent the squares of organizational support and personal coping respectively, and ospc their product.

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

organizational supports increase while coping decreases. The non-significant curvature indicates that this slope is constant along the line of misfit.

Similar results were found for the WIF model. Regarding the fit line, the slope at the point of fit is significantly negative ($B = -0.45$; $p < .001$), and the curvature is significantly positive ($B = 0.22$; $p < .001$). This indicates that the expected relative change in WIF diminishes from the point of fit (where personal resources and individual resources are at their mean) to where personal resources and organizational resources increase simultaneously. However, the significantly positive curvature indicates that this slope gets less and less negative along the line of fit. Regarding the line of misfit, the slope at the point of fit is significantly positive ($B = 0.23$; $p < .01$), and the curvature along this line is not significant ($B = -0.02$; ns). This indicates that the expected relative change in WIF increases from the point (0,0) to where organizational supports increase while personal coping decreases. The non-significant curvature indicates that this slope is constant along the line of misfit.

Response surfaces for WIF and FIW respectively are presented in Figure 2a and Figure 2b. Since organizational supports and personal coping strategies were standardized, the point of fit (0, 0) represents the point where personal coping and organizational supports are both at their means. As can be seen for both cases (FIW and WIF), Work-family conflict decreased as organizational supports and coping increased. Moreover, when there is a fit between organizational supports and coping, the higher these resources the less WIF and FIW are experienced by employees. In other words, under the condition of fit between coping and organizational supports, WIF and FIW increase to the extent that the level of coping and organizational supports increase. However, it is interesting that the lowest level of conflict emerged when coping was highest. Overall, these results provide support for the reciprocity model.

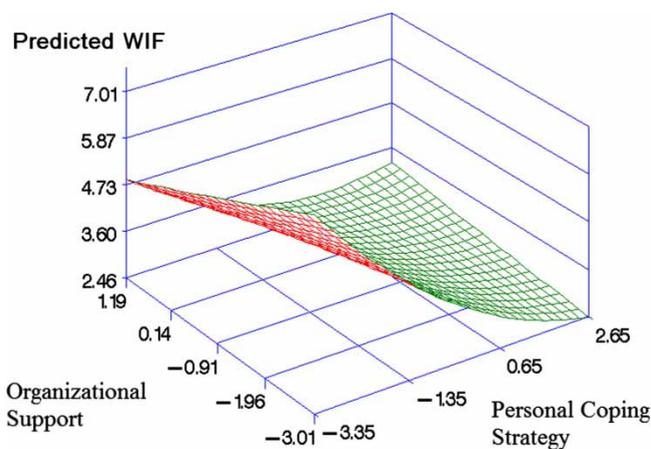


Figure 2a. Response surface for work interference with family (WIF) on organizational supports and personal coping strategies.

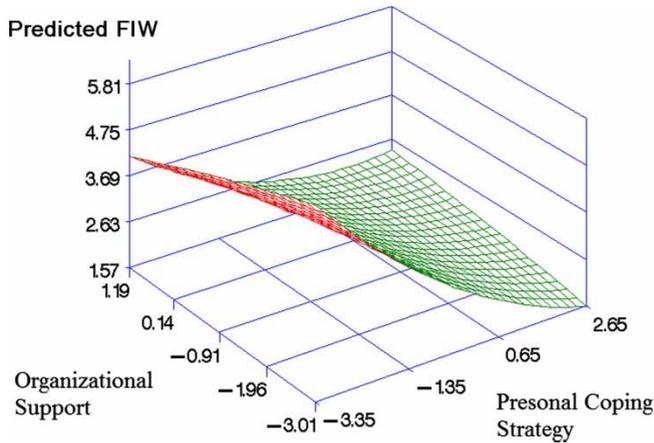


Figure 2b. Response surface for family interference with work (FIW) on organizational supports and personal coping strategies.

Discussion

Our findings provided interesting insights into the mutual contributions of utilizing personal coping strategies and organizational supports as means to decrease work–family conflict. First, in line with the additive model, our findings demonstrated that the more the individual utilizes both personal coping and organizational supports the less the work–family conflict he or she experiences. Second, and most important, it was not enough that personal coping and organizational supports had to increased for work–family conflict to ease; our findings supported the reciprocal model, demonstrating that the conflict decreased as personal coping and organizational supports were aligned, namely when individuals perceived reciprocity between the effort they invested in personal coping strategies and the effort the organization invested in organizational supports. By contrast, work–family conflict was higher under over- or under-reciprocation. That is, it was aggravated when the individual perceived that he or she relied more heavily on organizational supports and did not invest enough in personal coping (over-reciprocating) or when the individual perceived that he or she invested more in personal coping but did not receive enough organizational supports in return (under-reciprocating). Finally, our findings clearly indicate that overall, utilizing personal coping strategies was a better approach to mitigating work–family conflict than relying on organizational supports provided by the organization.

These findings imply that by juxtaposing the two relatively distinct lines of research – one focusing on personal coping strategies, the other on organizational supports – it is possible to provide a finer-grained examination of potential means of lessening work–family conflict. This integrative perspective allowed us to examine simultaneously the relative contribution of each, but also to examine their mutual relationship with work–family conflict, thereby contributing to the literature on coping with work–family conflict in several respects.

First, the finding that the more resources are available for the individual – whether personal coping or organizational supports, the less he or she will experience WIF and FIW, is in accord with the proactive coping model (Aspinwall & Taylor,

1997), which highlights the importance of resource accumulation for coping. Hence, an employee who relies on both personal coping and organizational supports exhibits proactive efforts to take control of his or her life and therefore might lessen his or her work–family conflict. Nevertheless, calculating the sum of resources available for the individual to cope with the conflict might depict only a partial picture for understanding coping with it because it leaves out how much the individual invests in personal coping relative to his or her utilization of organizational supports. For example, the same sum of resources may represent a situation where the individual relies on different things: on similar mediocre amounts of personal coping resources and organizational family-friendly supports; on high personal coping resources alone; or on high organizational supports alone. Hence, the sum of resources fails to depict the mutual contribution of personal coping and organizational supports, a factor that might play an important part in reducing work–family conflict.

Our findings do provide support for the reciprocal model, which takes this complexity into account: work–family conflict decreased as a function of the degree that personal coping and organizational supports were aligned and increased simultaneously. Overall, our findings indicate that under equal investment of resources (in personal coping and organizational supports), the higher the resources the less work–family conflict is experienced by employees. However, the conflict diminishes as the level of personal coping strategies and organizational supports rises. Evidently, an equal investment of organizational supports and personal coping strategies is not enough. Both constituencies (the employee and the organization) must invest resources in order to decrease work–family conflict.

Our findings also indicate that misfit is harmful (associated with higher levels of work–family conflict). These findings are in line with Equity Theory (Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978), suggesting an advantage to reciprocal exchanges over under-reciprocating or over-reciprocating exchanges in promoting personal resources such as employee's sense of self and professional esteem resulting from compliance with reciprocity norms (Gouldner, 1960). As a result, in conditions of reciprocity work family conflict decreases. Any violation of reciprocity norms (i.e., under- and over-reciprocating exchanges) is expected to increase work–family conflict due to the generation of negative feelings and emotions, and may be harmful to the individual's self-image (Rook, 1987).

Finally, our findings from testing the interactive as well as the reciprocity model emphasize that the contribution of personal coping is greater than that of organizational supports in the relationships with FIW and WIF. The interactive model showed that when personal coping was high, FIW decreased regardless of the level of organizational supports, and only when personal coping was low did high organizational supports have an interactive role in decreasing FIW. The finding that the interactive model received marginal support only for FIW and not for WIF might stem from the fact that organizations tend to provide supports that help employees to cope with family issues that might interfere with effective work, and are less worried about work issues that might affect the family. The reciprocity model also revealed the superiority of personal coping in decreasing both WIF and FIW. Similarly, Lapierre and Allen (2006) found that problem-focused coping (personal coping) seemed to be most promising in avoiding work–family conflict; organizational supports associated with flexitime were relatively less evident. Together, these

findings may indicate that valued resources, such as self-coping, self-reliance, and autonomy, are embedded in employees' social context (Hobfoll, 2001). That is, the superiority of personal coping over organizational supports might reflect individuals' adjustment to the social context in which they work. However, the important role of personal coping in lessening work–family conflict does not reduce the organization's responsibility for providing support. As our findings demonstrated, organizational support is critical precisely when the employee lacks personal resources.

An alternative explanation for the superiority of personal coping in the association with decreased work–family conflict is that employees might perceive utilizing organizational supports as illegitimate, even though the organization makes such support available, so they use them only when they have no alternative ways to cope (e.g., when they have low individual coping resources). Cumulative findings have shown that the offer of organizational family-friendly support, without its being embedded in a culture that encourages its utilization, creates an atmosphere of delegitimization (Hoobler, Wayne, & Lemmon, 2009). The accompanying social costs make employees reluctant to use such support provisions (Drach-Zahavy, 2008). Studies have found that employees who perceived their organizational culture as more family-supportive reported higher utilization of work–family benefits and lower work–family conflict (Hoobler et al., 2009).

Limitations and future research

This study has some limitations that should be noted. First, the data were largely self-reported from one source, hence subject to bias, although research suggests that self-reported data are not as limited as was previously believed, and that people often accurately perceive their social environment (Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 1998). Moreover, regarding workers' wellbeing and strain, Wright and Cropanzano (2000) argue that self-report measures are and will continue to be an important information source in organizational research. Second, although the "snowball" procedure for collecting data guarantees high response rates and sampling participants from various organizations, it has the potential for self-selection bias. Future studies might employ more representative procedures to avoid this.

Third, as a first step towards juxtaposing personal coping and organizational supports for limiting work–family conflict, we focused on formal organizational supports, while ignoring other sources of support. For example, informal support, such as that provided by supervisors and coworkers, may also be salient in the avoidance of work–family conflict (Aycan & Eskin, 2005). Moreover, further research on the impact of organizational supports on easing this conflict should also consider the context in which it occurs. For example, employees may decide whether to utilize organizational support depending on the legitimacy of doing so, signalled by a family-friendly organizational culture (Allen, 2001). Moreover, because organizational support varies greatly by country and welfare regime, the three models should be examined in other countries to establish whether these findings can be generalized across countries.

The present study's findings, emphasizing the primacy of personal coping over organizational supports in mitigating work–family conflict, raise several questions for future research: is this primacy a result of inadequate organizational supports? Or

is it because personal coping really is more effective in lessening work–family conflict? Moreover, support available to the individual from sources outside the organization, for example, from spouse and extended family, might also play a crucial role in lessening this conflict (Ayman & Antani, 2008), and may profitably be studied in future research.

The final limitation involves the study's ability to predict causal relationships. Because the data were cross-sectional, there might have been associations between the variables in the study, but we cannot conclude that they were causal. Many of the relationships were probably reciprocally causal over time, for example, work family conflict might be also treated as a stressor that triggers certain type of coping. Hence, process research can more readily uncover the causal mechanisms shaping work–family conflict. This may allow the field to move away from simple contingencies to a deeper understanding of the complex and evolutionary nature of this conflict (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2006).

Practical implications

What advice can we offer practitioners on the basis of the present findings? They have emphasized the role of personal coping in lessening work–family conflict. So organizations, particularly those oriented to a cost-benefit calculation, might be tempted to rely on employees' personal coping resources. They may construe the issues emerging, especially women's issues, strictly as personal problems to be solved by the individual rather than the organization. However, organizational or training interventions could be developed and initiated to help individuals identify, and thereafter intensify, the use of adaptive coping strategies in light of situational and individual differences (Havlovic & Keenan, 1991). Employees should also be informed and empowered to negotiate the type of work-family provisions best suited to addressing their work interference with family (Major & Lauzun, 2010).

Moreover, organizations should clearly recognize that to “manage the situation” is part of their obligation for at least two reasons: first, the importance of organizational support is striking especially when employees lack the personal coping resources required; and second, when employees invest in personal coping but perceive that organizational support is aligned with it, and increases simultaneously, their WFC decreases. Also, to increase employees' fairness perceptions, the organization should invite employees to participate in the design of the specific supports, thus conveying a sense of its own efforts and goodwill.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank members of Project 3535 for their constructive feedback during the preparation of the manuscript, and Inbal Nahum-Shani for her assistance in the statistical analysis.

References

- Adams, J.S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 62, 335–343.

- Aiken, L.S., & West, S.G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Allen, T.D. (2001). Family-supportive work environments: The role of organizational perceptions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58, 414–435.
- Alper, S., Tjosvold, D., & Law, K.S. (1998). Interdependence and controversy in group decision making: Antecedents to effective self-managing teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 74(1), 33–52.
- Aryee, S., Luk, V., Leung, A., & Lo, S. (1999). Role stressors, inter-role conflict, and wellbeing: The moderating influence of spousal support and coping behaviors among employed parents in Hong Kong. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54, 259–278.
- Aspinwall, L.G., & Taylor, S.E. (1997). A stitch in time: Self-regulation and proactive coping. *Psychological Bulletin*, 121, 417–436.
- Aycan, Z., & Eskin, M. (2005). Relative contributions of childcare, spousal support, and organizational support in reducing work-family conflict for men and women: The case of Turkey. *Sex Roles*, 53(7–8), 458–547.
- Baltes, B.B., Briggs, T.E., Huff, J.W., Wright, J.A., & Neuman, G.A. (1999). Flexible and compressed workweek schedules: A meta-analysis of their effects on work-related criteria. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(4), 496–513.
- Behson, S.J. (2002). Coping with family-to-work conflict: The role of informal work accommodations to family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 7, 324–341.
- Behson, S.J. (2005). The relative contribution of formal and informal organizational work-family support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66, 487–500.
- Bowling, N.A., Beehr, T.A., Johnson, A.L., Semmer, N.K., Hendricks, E.A., & Webster, H.A. (2004). Explaining potential antecedents of workplace social support: Reciprocity or attractiveness? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 9(4), 339–350.
- Brough, P., O'Driscoll, M., & Kalliath, T.J. (2005). The ability of 'family friendly' organizational resources to predict work family conflict and job and family satisfaction. *Stress and Health: Journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress*, 21(4), 223–234.
- Burke, R.J. (2000). Effects of sex, parental status, and spouse work involvement in dual-career couples. *Psychological Reports*, 87, 919–927.
- Buunk, B.P., Doosje, B.J., Jans, L.M., & Hopstaken, L.E.M. (1993). Perceived reciprocity, social support, and stress at work: The role of exchange and communal orientation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65, 801–811.
- Carver, C.S., & Scheier, M.F. (1982). Control theory: A useful conceptual framework for personality-social, clinical, and health psychology. *Psychological Bulletin*, 92(1), 111–135.
- Cohen, A., Nahum-Shani, I., & Doveh, E. (2010). Further insight and additional inference methods for polynomial regression applied to the analysis of congruence. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 45(5), 828–852.
- Dormann, C., & Zapf, D. (2004). Customer-related social stressors and burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 9(1), 61–82.
- Drach-Zahavy, A. (2008). Workplace health friendliness: A test of a cross-level model. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 13(3), 197–213.
- Eagle, B.W., Miles, E.W., & Icenogle, M.I. (1997). Inter-role conflict and the permeability of work and family domains: Are there gender differences? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 50, 168–184.
- Eby, L.T., Casper, W.J., Lockwood, A., Bordeaux, C., & Brinley, A. (2005). Work and family research in IO/OB: Content analysis and review of the literature (1980–2002). *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66, 124–197.
- Edwards, J.R., & Parry, M.E. (1993). On the use of polynomial regression equations as an alternative to difference scores in organizational research. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(6), 1577–1613.
- Frone, M.R., & Rice, R.W. (1987). Work-family conflict: The effect of job and family involvement. *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, 8, 45–53.

- Gouldner, A.W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review*, 25, 161–178.
- Greenberg, J. (1986). Determinants of perceived fairness of performance evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 340–342.
- Greenhaus, J.H., & Beutell, N.J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 76–88.
- Hall, D.T. (1972). A model of coping with role conflict: The role behavior of college educated women. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 17, 471–489.
- Hammer, L.B., Neal, M.B., Newsom, J.T., Brockwood, K.J., & Colton, C.L. (2005). A longitudinal study of the effects of dual-earner couples' utilization of family-friendly workplace supports on work and family outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 799–810.
- Havlovic, S.J., & Keenan, J.P. (1991). Coping with work stress: The influence of individual differences. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 6, 199–212.
- Hobfoll, S.E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44, 513–524.
- Hobfoll, S.E. (2001). The influence of culture, community and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 50, 337–421.
- Homans, G.C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *American Journal of Sociology*, 63, 597–606.
- Joreskog, K.G., & Sorbom, D. (1996). *LISREL VI: Analysis of linear structural relationships by maximum likelihood and least square methods*. Mooresville, IN: Scientific Software International.
- Judge, T.A., & Colquitt, J.A. (2004). Organizational justice and stress: The mediating role of work-family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(3), 395–440.
- Kirchmeyer, C. (1993). Non-work to work spillover: A more balanced view of the experiences and coping of professional women and men. *Sex Roles*, 28, 531–552.
- Kossek, E.E., & Nichol, V. (1992). The effects of on-site child care on employee attitudes and performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 45, 485–509.
- Lapierre, L.M., & Allen, T.D. (2006). Work-supportive family, family-supportive supervision, use of organizational benefits, and problem-focused coping: Implications for work-family conflict and employee well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 11(2), 169–181.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1991). Psychological stress in the workplace. In P.L. Perrewé (Ed.), *Handbook on job stress* (pp. 1–13). Corte Madera, CA: Select Press.
- Lazarus, R.S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal and coping*. New York: Springer.
- Lero, D., & Barodel, A. (2008). Including the social-cultural and policy contexts in our multi-level, multi-national study of work-family conflict. Paper presented at the Work-Family Research Workshop, Guleph, Canada.
- Leventhal, G.S. (1980). What should be done with equity theory? New approaches to the study of fairness in social relationship. In K.J. Gergen, M.S. Greenberg, & R.H. Willis (Eds.), *Social exchange: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 27–55). New York: Plenum.
- Lobel, S.A., & Kossek, E.E. (1996). Human resource strategies to support diversity in work and personal lifestyles: Beyond the “family friendly” organization. In E.E. Kossek & S.A. Lobel (Eds.), *Managing diversity: Human resource strategies for transforming the workplace* (pp. 221–243). Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.
- Major, D.A., & Lauzun, H.M. (2010). Equipping managers to assist employees in addressing work-family conflict: Applying the research literature toward innovative practice. *Psychologist-Manager Journal*, 13(2), 69–85.
- Mesmer-Magnus, J.R., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). Convergence between measures of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict: A meta-analytic examination. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67, 215–232.

- Moreno-Jiménez, B., Mayo, M., Sanz-Vergel, A.I., Geurts, S., Rodríguez-Muñoz, A., & Garrosa, E. (2009). Effects of work–family conflict on employees' well-being: The moderating role of recovery strategies. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 14*(4), 427–440.
- O'Driscoll, M.P., Poelmans, S., Spector, P.E., Kalliath, T., Allen, T.D., Cooper, C.L. et al. (2003). Family-responsive interventions, perceived organizational and supervisor support, work-family conflict, and psychological strain. *International Journal of Stress Management, 10*(4), 326–344.
- Perry-Smith, J.E., & Blum, T.C. (2000). Work-family human resource bundles and perceived organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*, 1107–1117.
- Rook, K.S. (1987). Reciprocity of social exchange and social satisfaction among older women. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*, 145–154.
- Rotondo, D.M., & Kincaid, J.F. (2008). Conflict, facilitation, and individual coping styles across the work and family domains. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 23*, 484–506.
- Rotondo, D.M., Carlson, D.S., & Kincaid, J.F. (2003). Coping with multiple dimensions of work-family conflict. *Personnel Review, 32*, 275–296.
- Somech, A., & Drach-Zahavy, A. (2006). Coping with work-family conflict: Individual and organization perspectives. Paper presented at the 26th International Congress of Applied Psychology, Athens, Greece.
- Somech, A., & Drach-Zahavy, A. (2007). Strategies for coping with work-family conflict: The distinctive relationships of gender-role ideology. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12*, 1–19.
- Thomas, L.T., & Ganster, D.C. (1995). Impact of family-supportive work variables on work and family conflict and strain: A control perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*(1), 6–15.
- Thompson, C.A., Poelmans, S.A.Y., Allen, T.D., & Andreassi, J.K. (2007). On the importance of coping: A model and new directions for research on work and family. In P.L. Perrewé & D.C. Ganster (Eds.), *Research in occupational stress and well being* (Vol. 6, pp. 73–113). Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Veiga, J.F., Baldrige, D.C., & Eddelson, K.A. (2004). Toward understanding employee reluctance to participate in family-friendly programs. *Human Resource Management Review, 14*(3), 337–351.
- Wallace, J.E., & Young, M.C. (2008). Parenthood and productivity: A study of demands, resources and family-friendly firms. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 72*(1), 110–122.
- Walster, E., Walster, G.W., & Berscheid, E. (1978). *Equity: Theory and research*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Wright, T.A., & Cropanzano, R. (2000). Psychological well-being and job satisfaction as predictors of job performance. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*, 84–94.