CHAPTER - 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The resume of researches pertaining work-family interface and other issues under investigation in the present study has been detailed here under six sections.

1. Antecedents of Work-Family Conflict

Early attempts in the field of work-family conflict (WFC) paid attention to the factors responsible for its occurrence and also to its consequences. For example, while analyzing the effect of occupational demands (such as role ambiguity) on the non-work experiences of 85 male senior administrators of correctional institutions, Burke, Weir, and DuWors (1980) observed that occupational demands were significantly related to negative experiences in the participants’ non work lives such as decreased marital and life satisfaction, lower levels of social participation, and increased negative feeling states and psychosomatic symptoms.

A few studies have scrutinized simultaneously all dimensions of WFC, including work distress, family distress, work-to-family and family-to-work conflict and have sought to integrate them. In this vein, Voydanoff (1988) collected data from 757 married men and 270 married women in the Quality of Employment Survey and reported that amount and scheduling of work time, job demands are related to work-family conflict among men and women. It was also reported that having preschool and school-age children as well as heavy child-rearing responsibilities have consistently been found to be related to family-work conflict and time shortage. Both large numbers of children and young age children in the home have the potential to increase family-work conflict for parents through physical unavailability for work, preoccupation with child-
rearing activities and overload. Some other studies have also noted that number of children at home as well as age of children is related to higher levels of role interference. (Hochschild, 1989; Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Barling, MacEwen et al. (1994) examined the predictors of the role conflicts experienced by individuals simultaneously holding fulltime employment and providing care for elderly parents in 141 full-time employees from two universities. They found that inter-role conflict was predicted by physical and psychological involvement in elder care. Using data from a population sample of employed, middle-aged men and women respondents 1992-1993 (N=5,782). Marks (1998) found that care giving for disabled children, spouses, parents, and other kin and non-kin led to family-to-work conflict. Correspondingly, Westman and Piotrkowski (1999) in their extensive review of the literature identified that employees with significant dependent care responsibilities tend to report higher levels of family-work conflict. (Buffardi, Smith, O’Brien, & Erdwins, 1999; Hammer et al., 2002).

Frone, Yardley, and Markel (1997a) opined that work distress and family distress can also be viewed as antecedents. Work and family stressors and distress have been examined as potential causes of work-family conflict. It is generally hypothesized that role characteristics can produce role-related dissatisfaction or distress, which may lead to cognitive preoccupation with the source of the distress or to reduced levels of psychological and physical energy. The resulting increase in cognitive preoccupation or reduction in energy can undermine an individual's ability or willingness to meet the obligations of other roles. Consistent with this line of reasoning, past research has found that work demands, work-role conflict, work-role ambiguity, and job distress or dissatisfaction, job and family involvement are positively related to reports of work-to-family conflict. Similarly, family demands, family-role conflict, family-role ambiguity, and family distress or dissatisfaction are positively related to reports of family-to-work conflict.
In a longitudinal study of work-family conflict Frone et al. (1992a) found that both types of WFC were associated with unique antecedent conditions. Job stressors were positively related to the frequency of Work-Family conflict and family stressors were positively related to the frequency of Family-Work conflict. They clarified the positive relationship between work stressors and Work-Family conflict documented in previous studies, suggesting that any positive relationship between these two variables is indirect via increased Family-work conflict. These findings were extended by Frone, Yardley and Markel (1997a) by addressing the domain-specific affective predictors of work–family conflict in a sample of 372 employed adults who were married and parents. Specifically, work distress, work overload, and work time commitment were positively related to work-family conflict whereas family distress, parental overload, and parental time commitment were positively related to family-to-work conflict.

Kinnunen and Mauno (1998) obtained data from a sample of 501 employees working in four organizations. The results showed that work-family conflict was more prevalent than family-work conflict among both sexes, but that there were no gender differences in experiencing either work-family or family-work conflict. Family-work conflict was best explained by family domain variables (e.g., number of children living at home) for both sexes, and work-family conflict by work domain variables (e.g., full-time job, poor leadership relations) among the women, and by high education and high number of children living at home among the men. Family-work conflict had negative consequences on family well-being, and work-family conflict, in particular, on occupational well-being. The findings suggested that in particular improvements in working life are required to prevent problems in the work-family interface. On the same note, Burke & Greenglass (1999) working with 686 hospital-based nurses reported significantly greater work–family conflict than family–work conflict.
Personal demographic predicted family–work conflict and downsizing and restructuring variables predicted work–family conflict.

Carlson (1999) studied 225 full-time employees and showed that the amount of stress at work, and the tendency of the individual to experience negative emotions increased the amount of work-family conflict reported by a worker and children at home positively related to both work-family and home-family conflict. Further, Carlson and Perrewe (1999) in a sample of 315 (62% male) respondents, from a department of a state government in the southeast of USA who were married and had children, found that work role conflict and work-time demands were positively related to Work-Family conflict. Family role conflict, ambiguity and family-time demands were positively related to Family-Work conflict.

The integrative model of work-family interface was tested by Aryee, Fields, and Luk (1999) on a sample of 320 respondents from Hong Kong. They operationalized the terms used by Frone et al. (1992a) differently, e.g., job-family stressors as job-family conflict, job-family distress as job-family satisfaction and found that job conflict has a significant positive relationship with work-family conflict whereas family conflict has a significant positive relationship with family-work conflict. Additionally, while extending work-family model, Vinokur, Pierce, & Buck (1999) analyzed data from a survey of 525 Air Force women from the active duty reserve and guard forces. The extended model demonstrated that job and parental stresses had direct effects on work/family conflicts, as work-family conflict was affected only by job domain stressors ($\beta=.29$), and family-work conflict was influenced by family domain stressors ($\beta=.21$). In a sample of 132 full-time employees of a land-grant state university campus, Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) also found that workers who were younger, had shorter organizational tenures, and experienced more work role stress reported greater work-to-family conflict and having children at home and greater family role stress increased family interference with work.
The National Survey of Midlife Development in the United States (Grzywacz and Marks, 2000) lends strong support to work characteristics, particularly pressure on the job as correlate of negative spillover from work to family. In addition to work factors, different aspects of family relationships were also significant correlates of negative spillover from work-to-family conflict, indicating that a lower level of family criticism/burden and spouse disagreement was associated with less work-to-family conflict for both men and women. A low level of spouse disagreement (r= -0.74 for women, r = -0.54 for men) and other family criticism/burden (r= -0.80 for women, r = -1.05 for men) were clearly uniquely associated with less negative spillover from family-to-work. Although family factors are the primary source of family-to-work conflict, results of the study indicated that pressure at work was also a robust correlate of negative spillover from family-to-work, and support the proposed interrelationship between work stress and family stress.

Examining an integrative model of work-family conflict, Carlson and Kacmar (2000) tested 314 state government employees and observed a variety of differences with respect to the antecedents and consequences of experienced work-family conflict. Analyses indicated that family role conflict, family role ambiguity and family involvement were positively related to family interference with work conflict (r = -.23, r = -.23, r = -.15, respectively). Job involvement was found to be positively related to work interference with family conflict (r = -.17), but work role conflict, and work time demands were found to be negatively related to work interference with family conflict (r = -.14, r = -.04, respectively) and work role ambiguity was found non-significant.

Similarly, to examine the role of stress as a major contributor to work-family conflict, Bernas and Major (2000) tested employed 206 participants who were recruited in day care centers, a business community, and a university setting. However, the majority of the women were married (68%) with children
(82%). Path analytic tests supported both relationships that job stress was positively linked to work interference with family and family stress was positively related to family interference with work. The hours devoted to family activities (i.e. time in housework, child care and elder care activities) are also expected to be related to family-work conflict. Some studies (e.g., Yang, Chen, Choi, & Zou, 2000) have found for full-time employees of both genders, an increased number of weekly hours devoted to family activities and chores to be positively associated with family-to-work interference.

Cinamon and Rich (2002) explored between and within-gender differences in the importance of life roles and their implications for work–family conflict. There were three profiles of workers who differ in attributions of importance to work and family roles: persons who assigned high importance to both the work role and the family role (“dual” profile); participants who ascribed high importance to the work role and low importance to the family role (“work” profile); and participants who attributed high importance to the family role and low importance to the work role (“family” profile) Participants were 126 married men and 87 married women who were employed in computer or law firms. Significant between- and within-gender differences were found in the distribution of participants to profiles. Men were equally distributed throughout the profiles, whereas women were underrepresented in the Work category. More women than men fit the Family profile, and more men than women fit the Work profile. No gender differences were found for the Dual profile. Women reported higher parenting and work values than men did. Between-gender differences in work–family conflict were apparent, as were within-gender differences across profiles. Results demonstrate the value of examining both between- and within-gender variation in studies of gender and work–family conflict.

A study on 766 police officers by Mikkelsen and Burke (2004) found that job demands and burnout components (exhaustion, cynicism) are the strong
predictors of work-to-family conflict. Following an integrative model, Brotheridge and Lee (2005) also conducted a study on 474 Canadian government employees and revealed that work overload and job distress were strongly related to WIF (β=.37, β=.36, respectively). WIF, in turn, was related to home overload (β=.29). Home overload was moderately related to FIW (β=.13). However, FIW was only weakly related to job distress (β=.10), suggesting that the cross-domain impact of WIF was stronger than that of FIW.

In a meta-analytical review of WFC, Byron (2005) found that work variables (job involvement, job distress, and time at work) had a greater impact on work-to-family conflict than on family-to-work conflict. On the other hand, non-work related antecedents (hours spent on family/housework/childcare, family related stress, more children), were related to more family-to-work conflict. Of all the antecedents, job stress, family stress, and family conflict had the strongest associations with work-family conflict. Employees who had more stress and more conflict at work/home had more interference between work and family domains. Byron also suggested that some work and family factors have simultaneously disruptive effects on work and family life.

Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2005) carried out a meta-analysis of the measures of work-to-family (WFC) and family-to-work conflict (FWC) across 25 independent samples (total N = 9079) to verify the assumption that WFC and FWC are distinct. Work-to-family conflict correlated .41 (k = 15, N = 4714) with job stressors and .17 (k = 13, N = 3312) with non-work stressors whereas family-to-work conflict correlated .27 with job stressors and .23 with non-work stressors. Thus, stressors associated with the work role are more likely to increase feeling of WFC than FWC and that stressors associated with the family role are more likely to impact feelings of FWC than WFC. Along the same lines, meta-analysis by Ford, Heinen, and Langkamer (2007) suggested that job and family stress had the strongest effects on work–family conflict.
Hill (2005) observed that work-family research frequently focuses on the conflict experienced by working mothers. Using data from the National Study of the Changing Workforce ($N = 1,314$) it examined work-family facilitation and working fathers. Ecological systems, family stress, family resilience, and sex role theories were used to organize the data and create hypotheses. Work-to-family facilitation was positively related to job satisfaction and life satisfaction, and negatively related to individual stress. Family-to-work facilitation was positively related to marital satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction, and negatively related to organizational commitment. Working fathers reported long work hours (49 hours/week), major involvement in household responsibilities (46 hours/week), and a work culture less supportive of their family life than working mothers reported. However, working fathers reported less work-family conflict, less individual stress, and greater family satisfaction, marital satisfaction, and life satisfaction than working mother. The preceding review of literature lend support to the contention that the work and family domains cannot be considered as separate, independent entities and validated that role strain and time demands have been found to be direct causes of work-family conflict in both the work and family domains. Thus, as individuals have sources of strain and time demands in one domain they often cause interference in a competing domain and result in work-family conflict.

Ilies (2007) also observed that employees' perceptions of workload predicted work-to-family conflict over time, even when controlling for the number of hours spent at work. Workload also influenced affect at work, which in turn influenced affect at home. The same way, Yildirim and Aycan’s (2008) study comprised of 243 participants 106 academic nurses and 137 clinical nurses in Turkey, found that work overload and irregular work schedules were the significant predictors of work-to-family conflict.

Relations between work-family demands and work-family conflict in the cultural context of Chinese society, using a national probability sample was
explored by Lu, Kao, Chang, Wu, and Cooper (2008) explored For Taiwanese employees, work demands were positively related to work-family conflict, whereas both work and family demands were positively related to family-work conflict. Similarly, a comprehensive computer survey conducted on a sample of 698 university employees (Boyar, Maertz, Mosley & Carr, 2008) indicated that both forms of demand (work and family demand) have significant direct effects on their respective domains i.e., work interfering with family (β=.42, p<.01) and family interfering with work (β=.46, p<.01).

Wierda-Boer, Gerris, and Vermulst (2009) carried out a study on 276 Dutch dual-earner couples with young children and demonstrated that higher job stress was associated with work-to-family conflict and parenting stress with family-to-work conflict. With regard to the relation between job stress and WFC, no gender differences appeared. The relation between parenting stress and FWC, however, tended to be stronger for men than for women, almost reaching significance. Using path analysis on meta-analytically derived validity coefficients (528 effect sizes from 156 samples), Michel, Mitchelson, Pichler, and Cullen (2010) found that work role conflict and time demands were most related to work-to-family conflict, while family role conflict and role ambiguity were most related to family-to-work conflict.

There has been public concern about employees facing work-family conflict towards longer working hours and few scholars have explicitly examined the effects of working hours on work-family enrichment (e.g., Sabil & Marican, 2011). Therefore, this study examines the relationship between working hours with work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. The data came from a survey to 286 married professional women that are working with the government sector in Sarawak, Malaysia. Results indicate that the average working hours is 45 hours per week. The findings reveal that working hours had a positive relationship towards work-family conflict, however no relationship with work-
family enrichment. The results suggest that practicing work-home segmentation and support from family members help them to manage work and family commitment effectively and efficiently.

Blanch and Aluja (2012) examined how work-family conflict mediated the relationship between social support (supervisor and family) and burnout, and how sex moderated this relationship ($N = 343$ Spanish workers). The results sustained hypotheses in accordance with a biosocial model of sex differences. There were full mediation effects of work interference with family (WIF) in the association of work support with burnout for men, and of family support with burnout for women. This suggests that sex moderated these mediation processes.

2. Work-family Conflict and Stress Outcomes

In the work-family interface models, work–family conflict (WFC) is considered as a stressor with a negative impact on health. This suggests that WFC may be a mediating variable between work stressors and general health outcomes, and that reducing WFC would diminish the detrimental effects of work stress on general health. Some studies have examined overall WFC as a mediating variable. For example, Kopelman et al. (1983) conducted two studies (181 married and employed male in study 1 and 91 students who were married and employed full-time in study 2) to determine the construct validity of the interrole conflict (work-to-family conflict) measure and found a significant negative correlation between interrole conflict and life satisfaction. Specifically, conflict in both work and family domains led to higher levels of WFC, and this WFC was related to lower life satisfaction.

Certain studies explored the mediating effects of the more specific facets of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict with outcomes. O'Driscoll, Ilgen, and Hildreth (1992), using a community sample of 120 adults, found that both types of conflict were positively related to a global measure of psychological distress. They also found that family-to-work conflict mediated the relationship...
between off job demands and psychological strain such that greater off-job demands related to increased family-to-work conflict, which in turn, predicted to higher psychological strain.

Frone et al. (1992a) found higher levels of depression to be associated with family interference with work (.45, p<.05) directly, but not work interference with family (-.03) and suggested that family-to-work conflict mediated the relationship between family stress and depression. Specifically, family stress led to higher family- to- work conflict, and in turn, workers have more depression. They also found that job distress (β=.13, p<.05) and family distress (β=.32, p<.05) were directly related to depression. It was also found that the magnitude of the influence of both types of work-family conflict on depression did not differ across men and women.

Further, Matsui, Ohsawa and Onglatco (1995) assessed 131 Japanese married working women and indicated that parental demands were related to work-family conflict, which in turn was related to life strain, thereby indicating a causal chain linking parental demands, work-family conflicts, and life strain. Extending these findings, Parasuraman et al. (1996) found that workers that spent more time at work, reported more work overload, reported greater parental demands, reported less family involvement, and spent less time in family activities reported higher work-to-family conflict. Work-to-family conflict, in turn, was related to increased life stress. In addition, these authors found that workers with higher job involvement, less job autonomy, and less emotional support reported more family-to-work conflict.

Based on data of 166 medical residents of an academic hospital in the Netherlands, Geurts, Rutte, and Peeters (1999) concluded that work-home interference (WHI) was positively associated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (i.e., work-related health indicators), as well as with psychosomatic health complaints and sleep deprivation (i.e. general health
indicators) particularly for women. More importantly, the results strongly supported that WHI mediates the impact of some work and home characteristics on psychological health indicators. This seems to be particularly true for the general health indicators: none of the home and work characteristics just mentioned, had a direct impact on these general indicators, independent of WHI. With respect to the work-related health indicators, particularly depersonalization, the mediating role of WHI was also strong, though less consistent.

Drawing on the Effort–Recovery (E–R) model, Grzywacz (2000) has indicated that, among American employed midlife adults (N=1547), positive spillover from work to family was associated with better physical and mental health, and positive spillover from family to work was associated with less chronic conditions and less negative well-being, as well as better mental health and more positive well-being.

Geurts, Kompier, Roxburgh, and Houtman (2003) investigated to what extent WHI mediated the relationship between workload and (a) affective well-being and (b) subjective health. In Part 1 of this study, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to test several competing models of mediation—full, partial, or no mediation—in three homogeneous samples (166 medical residents, 194 child care workers, and 224 bus drivers). In Part 2 of this study, they cross-validated the best fitting model in an independent heterogeneous sample (1421 Dutch workers). The results provided support for the E–R model in that WHI played a significant role in mediating the impact of workload on workers’ wellbeing. WHI fully mediated the relationship of workload with depressive mood and health complaints, and partially mediated the relationship with work-related negative affect. In general, workload exerts its negative effects on well-being (at least partly) through a process of spillover of negative load-effects that impede recovery during the non-working hours.

A spillover model was tested among 191 dual-earner parents by Demerouti, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2005). The results of structural equation
modeling analyses indicated that although there were gender differences, work-to-family interference (WFI) partially mediates the job demands–job exhaustion relationship, and fully mediates the job demands–life satisfaction relationship. Further, using work-family border theory, Voydanoff (2005) examined relationships between boundary-spanning demands and resources and work-to-family conflict and perceived stress. The demands that were positively related to work-to-family conflict and perceived stress were commuting time, bringing work home, job contacts at home, and work-family multitasking. Work-family multitasking partially explained the effects of bringing work and job contacts at home on conflict and stress. For resources, time off for family duties and a supportive work-family culture showed negative associations with conflict and stress. Work-to-family conflict partially mediated relationships between several demands and resources and perceived stress. It has also been found that employed mothers seem less distressed than mothers who mainly take care of their children. (Fokkema 2002).

In a longitudinal cross-sectional study of relationships between work-family conflict, positive spillover, and depression in a national sample of 234 dual-earner couples, the research by Hammer et al. (2005) demonstrated that work-family positive spillover was shown to be more strongly (negatively) related to depression than work-family conflict. In addition, it has been shown that there are significant crossover effects of spouses’ spillover on decreasing depression. The effects of spouses' positive spillover were more strongly related to decreased depression than were the effects of one's own positive spillover.

Brotheridge and Lee (2005) evaluated a model of how social support, stress, and strain affected work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (FIW), as well as how WIF and FIW affected general health outcomes. Factors originating in the work domain were the strongest predictors of both affective and physiological symptoms. Job distress had both a
direct and an indirect effect on general health outcomes through its relationship with work interfering with family. Whereas job distress explained 16.0% and 14.4% of affective and physiological symptoms (respectively), WIF (the next highest predictor) explained only 1.7% and 1.0% of these variables. They state that this is due to an overload effect, whereby individuals fail to recover from work while not there and thus a build up over time leads to poor health. On similar pattern, Williams et al. (2006) examined the relationship between work-family spillover, job characteristics, and sleep quality in a sample of health care workers \((N = 168)\) recruited from 3 Canadian hospitals. A multiple regression analysis revealed that positive family-to-work spillover is associated with better sleep quality, after controlling for age, physical health, depressive symptomatology, work situation, and number of children.

3. Work-Family Facilitation

Although work-family conflict is a useful construct to explain part of the relationship between work and family, it does not explain the complex nature of the interaction in its entirety. Specific research pertaining to the positive benefits and synergies that exist between these two important domains is sparse. Prior empirical works have suggested that job resources and processes are the primary predictors of work-to-family facilitation and family resources are the primary determinants of family-to-work facilitation.

Stein, Newcomb and Bentler (1990) reported that even though employed women experienced some difficulty in balancing role demands, the net result appeared to be greater feelings of self-worth and self-efficacy. Women who work full-time have been shown to experience higher levels of self-esteem then women who do not work. A study by Kirchmeyer (1992) on 122 participants showed that time spent in the parenting role was positively related to organizational commitment, and time spent in community service was positively related to job satisfaction. In the same study, workers reported many benefits of
non work activities for their work performance, including becoming energized to
tackle the challenges of the job, obtaining contacts that are helpful to their work,
and developing skills that make them more effective and productive on the job.

The positive consequences that arise from women’s participation in multiple roles may present themselves emotionally, financially, and physically; and may be demonstrated in both work and family domains (Martikainen, 1995). Women’s participation in the labor force, for instance, can contribute to improving their integration in society, and also offer them greater economic freedom and access to skill and competence training, while the men can benefit from participating in their children’s development and upbringing (Björnberg, 1998). The paid worker role can offer social contacts, professional challenges, a sense of responsibility, increased self-respect, increased self-worth, one’s own income, and less financial dependence on others (Fokkema, 2002) and childcare offers intimacy and affection, the sense that one is needed, and the opportunity to care for others.

Gryzwacz and Marks (2000) found that in terms of work factors and positive work-to-family spillover, workplace resources were most strongly associated with positive spillover for both genders. When considering family factors and work-to family spillover, more positive spillover was noted among men having an eldest child under the age of five years, than among men with no children. Another finding was that being in the lowest tertile of other family criticism/burden was associated with less positive spillover from work-to-family among women, contrary to prediction. Considering family factors and positive spillover from family to work, the researchers noted that less affectual support from spouse and other family members was associated with less positive spillover from family to work among both genders. As predicted, “A low level of family criticism/burden was associated with more positive spillover from family to work among women but not men”.

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Another study on 790 employees at a U.S. university by Rothbard (2001) found that although women experienced emotional depletion at work, which interfered with their ability to care for their families, they experienced emotional enrichment in the family that helped them to cope with their responsibilities at work. In the same study, men experienced emotional enrichment at work, which helped them to better care for their families. Further, in a rare qualitative study (Ruderman et al., 2002), analysis of telephone interviews with 61 women managers and executives identified six categories of personal and professional benefits associated with multiple role participation, such as self efficacy and confidence, enhanced their ability to be an effective manager and found that commitment to the marital and parenting roles was positively associated with interpersonal skills and task-related skills.

Building on the perception that family and work can complement one’s performance in both realms, Galinsky and colleagues (2004) identified three orientations of combining work and home in the study of 1,192 executive men and women from 10 multi-national companies. Work-centric views were held by 61%, home centric views were held by 7%, and 32% of the respondents, both men and women, put the same priority on work and family identified as “dual-centric”. This study found that, compared to those who are work-centric, people who are dual centric have the highest ratings for feeling successful at work, feel much less stressed, are clear about their priorities, have an easier time managing both home and work responsibilities, and feel overall contentment. Although these respondents felt more successful, they also excelled in more objective indicators of success as measured by their career advancement patterns, reporting levels, compensation, and number of staff they supervised. Employees with high quality jobs and more supportive workplace environments are, in fact, more likely to go home in better moods and with more energy to give to the important people in their lives. Grzywacz and Bass (2003) in a sample 1038 men and 948
women found that family-work facilitation was associated with lower risk of depression, and problem drinking.

Consistent with findings of Galinsky et al. (2004), a few earlier studies (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Marshall & Barnett, 1993) have found that work-family strain was not an inevitable outcome of multiple role participation but combining work and family roles had definite gains. Work (i.e., job role quality) can potentially enhance family well-being and positive aspects of family life (i.e. family role quality) can spill over into the workplace and her colleagues have shown that several processes contribute to the link between multiple roles and beneficial outcomes. These include moderators and mediators such as buffering, which is when the negative effects of stress or failure in one role are cushioned by successes and satisfactions in another role. Other beneficial outcomes include such things as added income, social support, positive feedback (in terms of identity, self-esteem, and rewards) on different levels and increased self complexity. In conclusion, work, under certain limits, may contribute positively to family life via better personal well-being. This approach has produced studies (e.g., Barnett & Gareis, 2006) which show that women benefit from working roles and men benefit from family roles.

Voydanoff (2004) utilized information of 2,507 employed respondents from the MIDUS survey. The findings indicated that work resources are relatively more important in relation to work-to-family facilitation and sense of community and support from friends has positive effects on facilitation. Community resources also show weak amplifying effects on some of the positive relationships between work resources and work-to-family facilitation. In a later study, Voydanoff (2005) examined a number of work, family, and community variables in relation to family-to-work facilitation. Spousal support, household rewards, parenting rewards, and kin support were all positively related to family-to-work facilitation. Interestingly, spousal support and household rewards were
more strongly related to facilitation than parenting rewards or kin support. More importantly, the relationship between family resources and family-to-work facilitation is supported by the study results.

Similarly, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) also suggested that social capital resources, generated in one role could improve the quality of life in another role and family-to-work facilitation is substantially stronger than work-to-family facilitation. Stevens et al., 2007 studied a random sample of dual earner couples from the MIDUS survey and examined the experience of positive family-to-work spillover and three categories of household labour including emotion work (management of emotional needs of family members), status enhancement work (behaviours that enhance one’s partner’s career and work experiences) and housework. The satisfaction with emotion work that respondents reported was positively related to positive spillover for both men and women. Interestingly, some correlates of positive spillover differed between men and women. For example, women’s positive spillover was related to satisfaction with housework arrangements, while men’s positive spillover was related to relationship satisfaction. No relationship was demonstrated between positive spillover and relationship satisfaction for women. The satisfaction with housework was positively related to positive spillover.

A recent study (Van Steenbergen, Ellemers, & Mooijaart, 2007) was designed to gain more insight in the different ways in which work and family roles can benefit each other. Both qualitative ($N = 25$) and quantitative ($N = 352$) results obtained in a financial service organization supported the distinction between energy based, time-based, behavioral, and psychological work-family facilitation, in addition to different types of work-family conflict that were identified in previous research. As expected, facilitation contributed substantially and differentially to the prediction of work and non-work outcomes, over and above the effects of conflict. As predicted, women experienced higher levels of facilitation than men did.
In Indian context, Srivastava, Srivastava and Srivastava (2009) conducted a study on 50 IT-sector and Banking sector employees. Data demonstrated that behavior and skills, work-place benefits, work-place support, autonomy were identified as important components of work-to-family facilitation. Similarly, behavior and skills, positive mood and family support were identified as important components of family-to-work facilitation. Thus, the preceding studies have demonstrated that characteristics of the job and family have an impact of work-family facilitation.

Findings revealed that work-to-home interference (WHI) mainly occurred because of high work demands and not because of a lack of work resources (Barbara Beham et al., 2011). Boundary-spanning resources yielded comparable potential to reduce work home interference and enhance work-to-home enrichment. Work-to-home enrichment was expected to more likely occur due to the activation of work resources rather than the absence of work demands. However, control over one's work did not have a significant impact on WHE. In addition and contrary to the theoretical model, boundary-spanning demands were found to be differentially rather than comparably salient to the work–family interface.

4. **Work-Family Conflict and Mental health**

A number of studies have explored linkage between work-family interface and health. Thoits (1983) in a longitudinal study of 720 adult men and women from a community mental health centre found that individuals participating in a larger number of social roles reported lower levels of psychological distress. Herold and Waldron (1985) reported a tendency for fulltime workers to have the best physical health, part-time workers to have an intermediate level of health, and women who were not in the labor force to have the poorest health.

Googins and Burden (1987) investigated 711 full-time employees at three work sites of a large corporation in the northeastern United States employees of a
large corporation. A one-way ANOVA indicated that female parent employees experienced reduced levels of well-being compared with men. However, correlation analysis indicated that the job-family role strain, not gender, was the main factor associated with reduced well being. Male employees with family responsibilities similar to female employees were likely to report the same levels of job-family role strain and decreased levels of well-being as female employees.

Examining somatization (how much stressful events have influenced one’s physical health) and anxiety, along with depression, as outcomes of interrole conflict, Greenglass (1988) found that both men and women appeared to experience greater depression, anxiety, and somatization when WFC was high. On similar lines Coverman (1989) has also confirmed that WFC related to psycho-physiological symptoms for women but not for men.

Results of a longitudinal study (Barnett and Marshall, 1991) conducted on 403 Massachusetts women suggest that women who are concerned about having too much to do, concerned that the job's taking too much out of them, and concerned about having to deal with emotionally difficult situations are at risk for diminished sense of well-being. In addition, the relationship between the quality of men's family roles, as spouse and as parent, and the quality of men's job role, on the one hand, and their reports of physical symptoms were examined in a random sample of 300 dual earner couples. After controlling for job-role quality, it was found that parent-role occupancy had neither direct nor interactive effects. However, among the men who occupied all 3 roles \( n = 180 \), only parent-role concerns were a significant predictor of physical health reports. Thus, concerns in the parent role are a major unmeasured source of variance in studies of the stress–illness relationship in men. Further, in a series of analyses, both cross sectional and longitudinal.

Klitzman, House, Israel, and Mero (1990) tested a sample of 630 employees from a manufacturing plant and examined the relationship of both
types of conflict to depression and physical symptoms. Their study revealed that only F-W conflict was positively related to depression, and neither type of conflict was related to physical symptoms. In a mixed sample of men and women, Higgins, Duxbury, and Irving (1992) also found that work-family conflict was shown to have a significant negative influence on an individual's quality of work life and quality of family life, which, in turn, were highly related to life satisfaction.

In a longitudinal study by Wethington and Kessler (1989) found that white married women in the United States who decreased their labor force participation from fulltime to low part-time or homemaker reported a significant increase in distress symptoms over a 3-year period. Conversely, those women who increased their labor force participation from homemaker or low part-time worker to full-time worker reported a significant decrease in emotional distress. Thoits (1992) interviewed 700 adult men and women who were married or divorced and living in a large mid-western city in order to study identity and psychological well-being. Her results indicated that wives who are mothers and workers are significantly less distressed than wives who are non-working mothers and working women who are not mothers. Burke and McKeen (1994) echoed these findings in their study on 792 alumnae of a Canadian University. Their results indicated that women with work and family foci reported greater life satisfaction and fewer psychosomatic symptoms.

The data from fifth largest executive search firm in the United States involving ninety-three percent of the married male executives and 51% having one or more children were analyzed by Judge, Boudreau, and Bretz (1994). Results indicated that executives who experienced higher levels of work-to-family conflict reported lower levels of life satisfaction ($\beta = -.10$, $p<.01$). However, the hypothesis that family-to work conflict influences job satisfaction was not supported. Interestingly, the effect of job satisfaction on life satisfaction
was significantly stronger ($\beta=.66$, $p<.01$) than the effect of life satisfaction on job satisfaction ($\beta=.32$, $p<.01$). Similarly, Haw’s (1995) survey of 116 employed and non-employed women found that employed women of all ages reported a greater sense of personal competence in comparison with the women who were not engaged in the work role. Similarly, in a small cross-sectional study of Dutch women, those having a larger role set also reported better overall physical health compared with women occupying fewer social roles (Collijn, Appels, & Nijhuis, 1996).

Burke and McKeen (1995) found work-family conflict to be related to measures of psychological well-being, but not to physical well-being. Among upper level executive women it found that work-family conflict did not produce negative health outcomes, either in terms of anxiety, depression, and hostility, or in terms of physical complaints (Beatty, 1996). In fact, he suggested that this group of highly successful career women may experience increased health and well-being through their higher occupational status and the opportunity they have to control their environments. The importance of work and family roles in people’s lives has been acknowledged.

Adams et al. (1996), in the study of 163 full-time workers, work-family conflict and family-work conflict both of these were found to be have been linked to decreased satisfaction in the particular domain in which the interference is experienced (It was found that work-family conflict decreases marital satisfaction while family-work conflict decreases work satisfaction. Individuals who report higher levels of work-life conflict also report lower levels of job satisfaction compared to individuals who report lower levels of work–life conflict.

Adams et al. (1996) found that there was a negative relationship between work interfering with family and life satisfaction ($r = -.25$, $p < .01$) and between family interfering with work and life satisfaction ($r = -.16$, $p < .05$). A meta-
analysis reviewing the relationship between work-family conflict and life satisfaction found a consistent negative relationship to exist between these variables and reported weighted mean correlations between work-family conflict and life satisfaction of \(-.31\) (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). The results of 50 studies including more than 16,000 workers linked work-family conflict to reduced job and life satisfaction for both women and men. This relationship was slightly less strong for family-to-work conflict. Although confidence intervals overlap, the relationship between job-life satisfaction and W-F conflict may be stronger for women than men.

Schwartzberg and Dytell (1996) looked at the consequences of work-family interference. Participants in their study included 94 mothers and 48 fathers in dualearner families, living with a spouse, and had a child in either second, third, or fourthgrade. Results supported the hypothesis that higher levels of job-home interference were associated with lower self-esteem and higher rates of depression. Working mothers and working fathers reported equivalent levels of family stress, work stress, job–family interference, and psychological well-being, although mothers did report a higher level of lack of task sharing.

Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1997b) extended past research by examining the longitudinal relations of work to family and family to work conflict to self-report (depressive symptoms, physical health, and heavy alcohol use) and objective cardiovascular (incidence of hypertension) health outcomes. Survey data were obtained from a random community sample of 267 employed parents during 1989 (baseline) and 1993 (follow up). Ordinary least squares and logistic regression analyses revealed that family-to-work was longitudinally related to elevated levels of depression and poor physical health and to the incidence of hypertension. In contrast, work-to-family was only longitudinally related to elevated levels of alcohol consumption Frone et al.’s significant findings are particularly important, as longitudinal studies are better able than cross-sectional research to provide evidence of causal links.
Working on 5,426 Saskatchewan employees, Duxbury and Higgins (1998) found that the combination of multiple roles of parent, home maker and employee can have negative effects on women’s physical health and psychological health in areas such as absenteeism, job stress, burnout, lowered life satisfaction, depressed mood. Both work–family conflict and family–work conflict were associated with less work satisfaction and greater psychological distress. Vinokur et al. (1999) also found that job and marital distress and family–work conflict had an independent adverse effect on mental health and well-being (indicators used- depression, role and emotional functioning). The main contributors to both depression and functioning were job distress and family distress.

On similar pattern, Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) stated that work and family role stress, WFC, and FWC relate to life distress and physical health. An indirect path through the work and family distress variables was posited and results indicated that family distress did not have a significant weight, so the mediational role was played only by job distress. Work-to-family conflict results in job distress five month later and resulting job distress increased workers’ life distress and physical health complaints for both men and women life distress and physical health. A major meta-analysis of 67 studies (Allen et al., 2000) reported a weighted mean correlation of 0.29 in both instances, viz., between general psychological strain measures and work–family conflict and between somatic or physical measures.

In a study of culturally diverse sample of 118 employees working in Europe, Grant-Vallone and Ensher (2001) demonstrated that work–personal life conflict was related to employees’ depression and anxiety and personal–work life conflict was related to employees’ concern for their health. Again Grant-Vallone and Donaldson (2001) found that work-family conflict is related to the health and well-being of employees. These observations came from a longitudinal
relationship between work-family conflict and employee well-being in a diverse sample of 342 non-professional employees from the greater Los Angeles area. Work family conflict was significant in the final regression equation predicting self-reported well-being in cross-sectional analyses and in longitudinal analyses. These findings strongly suggested that employees who reported high levels of work-family conflict also reported lower levels of positive well-being.

Major et al. (2002) in a study of 513 employees of a Fortune 500 companies, found that WIF (.32, p<.01) was significantly and negatively related to psychological strain (.51, p<.01). Additionally, Grzywacz and Bass (2003) found that both WIF and FIW are positively associated with depression, anxiety, and problem drinking. More specifically, in other two meta-analyses conducted by Kossek and Ozeki (1999) and by Allen et al. (2000), higher levels of work-to-family conflict were related to lower levels of job satisfaction and work-family conflict is also related to dissatisfaction with family life and reported weighted mean correlations of -.28 between work-family conflict and life satisfaction. Validating these findings, Madsen, John, and Miller (2005) found a significant relationship between higher employee perceptions of both work-to-family and family-to- work conflict and their own perceptions of personal mental and physical health.

Claro and Bedreqal (2003) conducted a study on mental health status of 139 teachers from 12 schools of Chile. The results indicated that emotional problem was detected in 28.6 per cent and mental health problem in 32 per cent of the respondents. Age and number of working hours were identified as risk factors for mental health problems. A study on mental health of middle and primary school teachers conducted by Li Baizhen et al. (2004) revealed that the mental health level of the rural area teachers is much lower than that of the urban area teachers.
Noor (2004) investigated a sample of 147 employed women with children and indicated that WIF conflict had a more significant impact on well-being than FIW issues. Similarly, Mikkelsen and Burke (2004) studied male, married, 766 medium rank police officers of Norway. Work–family conflict was found to have significant negative relationships with measures of psychological health but not physical health. They proposed that this is because family-work balance concerns the individual and hence causes psychological distress, but fails to impact upon general health.

Working on a sample of 50 middle-aged female school teachers of Varanasi city, Singh and Singh (2006) administered interview schedule, the General Health Questionnaire and Psycho Social Stress Scale. Psycho Social Stress Scale score showed moderate to high level of stress in 54% subjects whereas, 18% cases had low scores while, 28% cases were in between low to moderate level of stress. Anxiety level was observed low in 64% cases and moderate in 32% cases. Depression level was low in 92% cases. Somatic symptom score was moderate in 44% cases while, social dysfunction score had been observed moderate in 80% cases.

Rantanen (2008) observed that high work-family conflict takes its toll on individual’s health and well-being in a variety of ways. Work-family conflict is related to elevated levels of psychological strain, psychosomatic symptoms, depression, and low life satisfaction. Mankani and Yenagi (2012) conducted a study to assess the status of mental health of the working and non-working women. The random sample consisted of 90 working and 90 non-working women of rural and urban area was selected from Dharwad district in Karnataka state. The study emphasized on the influence of socio economic status on mental health of the working and non-working women.

While studying the psychological construct of mental health, Basu (2012) found that it is deeply embedded within an individual’s social and socioeconomic
relationships. Since women face gender-based discrimination at every stage of their lives, worldwide and more so in India, their psychological well-being is a matter of great concern. This note attempts to explore the various risk and protective factors affecting the mental health of women. Considering the gravity of the matter, urgent remedial measures such as understanding the underlying causes of psychological distress among women, adopting a gender-sensitive approach, working towards women’s empowerment and formulating women-friendly health policies could work wonders for the mental health of Indian women. The mental health of 120 working and 120 non-working women was studied by Jain and Gunthey (2001). Results indicated that both groups differed significantly on their mental health scores, indicating that working women are getting difficulty in coping strategies to deal with dual roles effectively and thus get mentally strained. This mental strain is reflected in symptoms like anxiety, tension, restlessness or hopelessness.

5. Social Support and Work-Family Interface

Several studies examined how perceptions of organizational support relate to work-family conflict. Researchers have found that social support from the partner is of great importance in reducing work family conflict. For example, Beutell and Greenhaus (1983) suggested that a supportive husband with non-traditional sex-role attitudes might buffer his wife from the competing and multiple demands of work and family. This may take the form of a husband’s acceptance of his wife’s participation in the workforce and/or his willingness to offer time and energy to assist with child and homecare responsibilities. Greenhaus et al. (1987) probed the effectiveness of spousal, emotional, and instrumental social support in bidirectional work-family conflict. They demonstrated that perceptions of a non supportive and inequitable work environment, role conflict, and extensive time commitment to work were each related to work family conflict. Goff, Mount & Jamison (1990) found that the
satisfaction with child care arrangements and supportive supervision on the other hand, was found to be related with reduced work-family conflict and lower levels of absenteeism.

Byrne (1993) studied the role of coworker and supervisor support in teacher’s burnout. Results from survey indicated that coworker support is positively related to self-esteem, which is then positively related to personal accomplishment, lowering teacher burnout (and thus also lowering WFC). Earlier studies have indicated that managers as supervisors who are supportive contribute to lower levels of both WFC and FWC when work problems arise (Leiter & Durup, 1996; Thomas and Ganster, 1995). Contrary to the research that has articulated the beneficial effects of social support; some researchers (e.g., Fenlason & Beehr, 1994) have reported a “reverse” buffering effect, whereby increased social support has resulted in an increase, rather than a decrease, in the negative effects of stressors.

Ray and Miller (1994) examined the effect of social support sources (in work and family domains) on the experience of burnout in a sample of female nursing staff. The respondents reported that high levels of family support contributed to greater levels of emotional exhaustion. They suggested that it is possible that the development and maintenance of a support network may be inherently stressful, or that the experience of stress may lead people to mobilize their support resources but if their support sources are ineffective in helping to change the situation it may do little to help reduce the impact of the stressors. Furthermore, work/family conflict interacted with co-worker social support so that women experiencing high levels of both interrole conflict and co-worker social support experienced greater levels of emotional exhaustion. These findings are consistent with the suggestion that families may find it difficult to provide support to workers when the demands of the worker’s job interfere with the demands of the worker's family.
Matsui et al. (1995) found that spousal social support moderated the relationship between parental demands and level of family-to-work conflict, but did not impact work-to-family conflict. Adams, King, & King (1996) suggested that relationships between work and family can have an important effect on job and life satisfaction and that the level of involvement the worker assigns to work and family roles is associated with this relationship. The results also suggested that the relationship between work and family can be simultaneously characterized by conflict and support. Higher levels of work interfering with family predicted lower levels of family emotional and instrumental support. Higher levels of family emotional and instrumental support were associated with lower levels of family interfering with work. Frone et al. (1997a) found that supervisor support and co-worker support were significantly and negatively related to work distress and also found a small but statistically significant reduction in work-to-family conflict, but not family-to-work conflict.

Using survey data from 276 managers and professionals, Thompson, Beauvais, and Lyness (1999) found that perceptions of a supportive work–family culture were related to employees' use of work–family benefits. The positive coefficient for culture indicated that more supportive cultures were associated with greater benefit utilization (B=.19, p<.01), especially associated with managerial support (B=.20, p<.05). The results also indicated that higher scores on benefit availability were associated with less work-to-family conflict (B=-.192, p<.01). Both work–family benefit availability and supportive work–family culture were negatively related to work–family conflict.

Family support has been negatively associated with the amount of work–family conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999). They also found that social support in the work domain was significantly and negatively related to conflict, ambiguity, and time, in such a way that the greater the perceived level of support, the lower the perceived role strain and time demands. More specifically, social
support had a greater impact on role stressors than time in both the work and family domains. This finding is confirmed by Burke and Greenglass (1999) that spousal support had no effect on work–family conflict but reduced family–work conflict. Aryee, Luk, Leung and Lo (1999) found that spousal support moderated the effect of parental overload on family-work conflict, such that the relationship between parental overload and family-work conflict was weaker for participants who reported higher levels of social support than those who reported lower levels of social support.

Carlson and Perrewe (1999) found that the relationship of social support in the family domain was significantly and negatively related to conflict, ambiguity, and time, suggesting that a sound social network enables individuals to deal more effectively with stressful situations and hence they report less family to work conflict. Grzywacz and Marks (2000a) indicated that fewer support at work is associated with more negative spillover from work to family, but more strongly for women in contrast to men. The works of Allen (2001) and Clark (2001) summarize that perceptions of organizational support are related to lower WFC (Allen, 2001), higher work functioning and greater family functioning (Clark, 2001).

In addition, Allen (2001) observed that both supportive supervision and organizational support relate to having more benefits available in the organization and greater benefit usage. Supportive supervision also related positively to perceived organizational support and support perceptions mediated the relationship between both benefit availability and employee outcomes (i.e., WFC, job satisfaction, and commitment) as well as supervisory support and employee outcomes (i.e., full mediation for WFC; partial mediation for job satisfaction, commitment, turnover intentions). Several interactions were also noted by Clark (2001). Counter to expectation, employees with no or one dependent reported a more positive relationship between supervisory support and
both home satisfaction and family functioning than those with more than one dependent.

Kossek, Colquitt, and Noe (2001) suggested that a work climate for sharing family concerns was positively related to work performance and well-being. The results for sacrifice climates suggested that a work climate for family sacrifices was positively related to work to family conflict and family to work conflict, negatively related to family performance, and negatively related to well-being. Anderson et al. (2002) analyzed data from the 1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce (NSCW) conducted for the Families and Work Institute by Louis Harris and Associates. Results showed that lack of managerial support were significantly related to increased work-to-family conflict.

Bernas and Major (2000) examined resources likely to reduce the stress and work-family conflict women experience. Family emotional support was explored as potential resource and suggested that family emotional support was negatively linked to family stress (β=-.43). However, family emotional support was not significantly related to family interference with work. However, they opined that mixed findings may be due to fact that the individual receiving the support may not need the support that is given. However, most of the studies on social support consider it as a positive variable that promotes well-being.

Most work–family research on social support is based on matching domain relationships, that is, social support in the work domain is related to work interfering with family conflict (WIF) and social support in the family domain is related to family interfering with work conflict (FIW). Bliese et al. (2001) based their study on the conservation of resources (COR) model and examined the cross domain indirect relationship between social support in the work domain and FIW and the cross domain indirect relationship between social support in the family domain and WIF. This model was tested across three samples in two studies. Study 1, examined the cross domain influence of supervisory and spouse
support on work–family conflict. Study 2, tested an expanded model of social support to include both generic and work–family specific support, and examined the cross domain indirect relationships between these two types of support on work–family conflict. Results for Study 1 provided support for the cross domain indirect effects model and results for Study 2 provided support for the cross domain indirect effects for work–family specific social support systems.

According to a Quebec study by St-Onge et al. (2002) support provided by male spouses is a determining variable and associated with the reduction of work-family conflict. Thus, husband support buffered the relationship between parental demands and work-family conflict. Another study (Tremblay, 2003) confirmed that tangible support from male spouses, that is, participation in family tasks, contributes significantly to reducing work-family conflict. Gordon and Whelan (2004) added that the support provided by husbands and partners provides a critical complement to family-friendly programs offered by many organizations to facilitate the balancing of work and family demands and results in greater well-being of women.

Further, O'Driscoll et al. (2003) examined perceptions of the organization as family supportive, and supervisor support as issues that may be salient to the experience of conflict between work and family roles. A study on 355 managerial personnel in New Zealand, demonstrated that perceptions of the organization as family supportive and supervisor support for work–family balance displayed significant relationships to work-to-family interference and family-to-work interference. Employees who have supportive supervisors are more likely to perceive their organization as family supportive and social support from direct supervisors has been found to facilitate the reduction of work–life conflict.

Judge and Colquitt (2004) studied 174 faculty members at 23 U.S. Universities and found a strong negative relationship between organizational
justice perceptions and work-to-family conflict. Similarly, Hammer and colleagues (2004) explored the relationship between work/family conflict and support in a sample of 1,346 employees drawn from 56 firms in the food and beverage industry in Norway. Results suggested a negative relationship between work-family conflict and coworker support, work-family conflict and leader support, family-work conflict and coworker support and family-work conflict and leader support, suggesting that as support from one’s coworker and leader at work increases, an individual’s level of work-family conflict and family-work conflict decreases.

Although, a number of studies has shown that employees who have supportive organization perceive they have more control over work and family which in turn are related to lower levels of work-family conflict as well as the reduction of the negative effects of the conflict, but recent reviews suggest work and family policies have not been highly effective in reducing work family conflict and improving worker health and well-being (e.g., Kossek, 2005). Even when available, family-supportive policies such as dependent care assistance are underutilized, have low-baseline utilization rates, and use can be associated with higher, rather than lower, work and family conflict, specifically family-to-work conflict (Hammer et al., 2005b). As might be expected when the influence of work support reduces WIF, a similar mirror effect is reflected via the impact of family and friend relationships on FIW. Researchers have found that social support provided by family and friends is important in alleviating work-family conflict due to work stress and involvement.

Several studies included in Bryon’s meta-analysis (2005) also explored the relationship between work-family conflict and family support. Aggregate results, including 14 studies, for a total sample size of 2,886, reveal a significant relationship between work-family conflict and family support ($r = -.11$), as well as between family-work conflict and family support ($r = -.17$). These results
suggest that an individual’s level of work/family conflict decreases as support from the family domains increase. In similar vein, Aryee et al. (2005) found that family support is negatively related to work-to-family conflict \( (r=-.24, p<.01) \) and family-to-work conflict \( (r=-.22, p<.01) \). The benefit of support from a network of family and friends not only reduces FIW but also manifests better health via an increase in personal resources (Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Ford et al., 2007).

Aryee, Srinivas, and Tan (2005) found that work support has negative relationship with work-to-family conflict \( (r=-.31, p<.01) \) and family-to-work conflict \( (r=-.19, p<.01) \) and suggested that social support can take various forms such as emotional backup (empathy, understanding, listening) or active involvement (advice, assistance) and therefore better equips the individual in dealing with life between family and work. After reviewing 61 studies, Byron (2005) observed specific relationships between work-family conflict and support variables. Of the 61 studies included in the meta-analysis, 17 explored the relationship between work-family conflict and work support, in a total of 4165 subjects. Meta-analytic results suggest a significant relationship between work-family conflict and work support \( (r = -.19) \) as well as between family-work conflict and work support \( (r = -.12) \). Byron (2005) found that employees who have less supportive co-workers or supervisors or less flexible schedules have more WIF than FIW, but schedule flexibility \( (p=-.30) \) was most strongly correlated with WIF.

A meta-analysis conducted by Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2006) demonstrated that having a family supportive work culture is actually more important for work-life balance than having a number of policies in existence. Negative relationships between WFC and supervisor support, co-worker support and work family culture were identified. As expected, the strength of the relationship between WFC and supportive work environment was much stronger.
(.16) than it was between FWC and supportive work environment (.02). However in their 38 included papers, flexibility was not related to WFC.

Van Daalen, Willemsen and Sanders (2006) found in 444 dual-earners that social support from colleagues were related to family-to-work conflict, but not related to work-to-family conflict. Social support from supervisor and from colleagues was related differently to work-to-family conflict (time-based) and family-to-work conflict (strain-based) for men than for women. Lapierre and Allen (2006) found that managers ($n = 230$), across multiple organizations and industries, who experienced support from both their supervisor and co-worker, indicated less work to family conflict and improved health. Supervisor support alleviates frontline employees’ conflicts in the work–family interface and increases their job satisfaction (Karatepe & Kilic, 2007).

Likewise Zhang (2006) also observed that the support received from partners and spouses relieved the pressures of family life against employment. Hence, it is clear from the above literature that in today's society, family members specially spouse can provide key support required by working individuals, who are also juggling home, family, and community responsibilities. Overall, it seems that the influence of organizational and family support on WFC is clear; research examining these variables asserts that support is related to lower levels of WFC. Such findings shed light on the need to continue to explore support from work and family domains as a central aspect of the overall experience of simultaneously negotiating work and family roles.

Seiger and Wiese (2009) investigated how social support from supervisor and co-workers is associated with work–family conflicts in 107 working mothers and found social support as an antecedent of work–family conflicts. Again in 2009, Lu and his colleagues found that work resources (supervisory support and organizational family supportive values) were found to be negatively related to WFC in 264 Taiwanese employees and 137 British employees (Lu et al., 2009).
Grotto and Lyness (2010) examined organizational support as antecedent of negative work-to-non work spillover for 1178 U.S. employees. Based on hierarchical regression analyses of 2002 National Study of the Changing Workforce data, organizational supports (flexible work arrangements and two work-life culture facets) had negative relationship to negative spillover.

While investigating role of social support from life partner and family members Seiger and Wiese (2009) found it associated with work–family conflicts as an antecedent to work-family conflict. In another study by Edwards (2006) it was examined that relationship between the perception of inequitable division of household labour and perceived spousal support in a sample of 121 employed mothers. Results revealed a strong negative correlation (-.62) between spousal support and inequitable division of household labour.

In a study integrating work-family conflict and social support, Adams, King, and King (1996), with a sample of 163 participants who were employed full-time (64% women) and were living with at least 1 family member, found that higher levels of work-to-family conflict predicted lower levels of emotional and instrumental support from family. Buelens and Poelmans (1996) also found that social support from the spouse is more associated with family satisfaction and support from the supervisor with job satisfaction. This means that the negative impact of work family conflict is double, and self-reinforcing. Not only does it have a direct impact on satisfaction, it also increases the levels of stress by undermining social support from the family. Work-family conflict also decreases the most important buffer against stress, i.e. social support.

More evidence of the reverse buffering effect was reported in Rosenbaum and Cohen’s (1999) study with 94 Israeli mothers of young children. The women in high equalitarian marriages reported that instead of being less distressed when receiving emotional social support from their spouse they were less distressed when receiving low levels of spousal emotional support - a reverse buffering
effect. Similar results were reported in Fu and Shaffer's (2001) study with 267 academic and non-academic university staff in Hong Kong. In this study, high levels of supervisor support reduced work-to-family role conflict, whereas high domestic support was associated with higher levels of family-to-work conflict. Although social support is thought to boost feelings of closeness in dyadic relationships, findings have also suggested that support receipt can increase distress in recipients.

Gleason, Iida, Shrout and Bolger (2008) investigated these apparently contrary findings in a large daily diary study of couples over 31 days leading up to a major stressor. Results confirm that daily support receipt was associated with greater feelings of closeness and greater negative mood (when away). In summary, the available literature on the contribution of emotional and instrumental social support derived from providers in either the work or family domains does not appear to universally result in a reduction of the tension of employed parents when trying to combine their work and family roles.

6. Social Support and Mental Health

Although social support is most effective in stress or difficult situations, it has been found to have direct effect on mental health and subjective well-being. A series of studies have been conducted in this respect. For example, Kirk and Dorfman (1983) surveyed 141 reentry women enrolled as undergraduates in degree programs at a Midwestern university. They found that support from children and support from friends were positively related to satisfaction in the student role. Family provides an important resource and many early studies demonstrated a link between spousal support and less role conflict, role strain, and fewer depressive symptoms.

In a study of 64 employed South African mothers with a mean age of 36, Suchet and Barling (1986) found that spouse support predicted higher levels of marital satisfaction and verbal and nonverbal communication. In addition, spouse
support moderated the negative effects of interrole conflict on marital satisfaction and verbal communication. Ganster, Fusilier, and Mayes (1986) in a study of workers in the construction industry documented social support from family and friends to be more strongly correlated with health complaints than other indices of wellbeing. Emotional and instrumental support were studied by Kaufmann and Beehr (1989). They reported emotional support from family and friends was significantly related to a composite of variables (job satisfaction, boredom, and depression) that they labeled strain reactions, but that instrumental support from family and friends did not.

Amatea and Fong (1991) conducted a study to examine the contribution of personal resources, including social support, in predicting strain symptoms experienced by 117 professional women employed full-time in academia. They found that women who experienced higher levels of social support as well as a greater number of roles occupied, reported lower levels of strain symptoms as compared to women with lower levels of social support. In another study, Richardsen, Mikkelsen, & Burke (1997) tested a sample of 191 professional and managerial women in Norway. The organizational supports were positively correlated with all the work outcomes, indicating that women were more satisfied when organizational supports were present.

There is growing evidence that having a supportive close relationship is positively associated with life expectancy and negatively correlated with experience of psychological distress (Cramer 1998). In a study of 94 married Israeli mothers, ages 23-40 who had full-time outside employment, it was found by Rosenbaum and Cohen (1999) that women who had at least one resource (resourcefulness or spousal support) were less distressed than women who did not have either of these resources.

There is some evidence that social support eases the stress stemming from competing work and family roles (e.g., Perrone & Worthington, 2001). Perrone and Worthington (2001) investigated the relationships among organizational
supports, work pressures, and work outcomes such as career and job satisfaction. The predictive ability of organizational support in general health (sense of accomplishment and contribution and botheration-free existence) was also observed by Jain and Sinha (2005) with a sample consisted of 250 middle-level executives from two-wheeler manufacturing organizations. Results suggested that organizational support predicted only sense of accomplishment and contribution.

In addition, Thompson and Pröttas (2006) analyzed data from the 2002 National Study. A series of hierarchical multiple regressions (Perrewe & Carlson, 2002) indicated that social support at home resulted in greater increases in family satisfaction for women than for men. Family social support showed a substantial, positive association with concurrent happiness. The findings also suggest that happiness can change and underscore the importance of exploring more deeply the role that family relationships play in facilitating such change. Studying changing workforce \( N = 3,504 \) and using hierarchical regression, the authors found that the availability of family benefits was associated with stress, life satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Job autonomy and informal organizational support were associated with almost all the outcomes, including positive spillover.

A meta-analysis carried out by Riggle, Edmondson, and Hansen (2009) examined the effects of perceived organizational support on job satisfaction. Findings indicated that perceived organizational support had a strong positive effect on job satisfaction. In a more recent study, Berkman, Buxton, Ertel and Okechukwu (2010) found that employees whose managers were less supportive slept less (29 min/day) and were over twice as likely to have 2 or more CVD risk factors than employees whose managers were most open and creative. Managers' attitudes and practices may affect employee health, including sleep duration and CVD risk. Social support from family and friends has been more strongly associated with general health and well-being and weakly associated with work-related strains.