

# Work/Family Conflict among Women and Men Managers in Dual-Career Couples in Israel

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*The present study examines gender and domain differences in work/family conflict among 237 women and 211 men managers in dual-career couples in Israel. The domain flexibility hypothesis predicts that the work domain is a greater source of conflict than the family domain for both women and men. The domain salience hypothesis predicts that the family domain is a greater source of conflict for women than the work domain and the work domain a greater source of conflict for men than the family domain. Neither hypothesis was supported. Few sex differences were found in the predictors of conflict. Stereotypical gender-role attitudes increase conflict for women but decrease conflict for men. Time spent in family work on weekends and being troubled about work performance had a greater effect on conflict for men than for women. Active spouse support did not predict level of work/family conflict. These findings suggest that men and women who are similar in their occupational status and place of employment, are also similar in the sources of work/family conflict.*

Since Rapoport and Rapoport (1969) identified the major dilemmas faced by two-career couples, work/family conflict has constituted the dominant theme in dual-career research. Work/family conflict is most commonly treated as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Few studies, however, have questioned whether the patterns of this incompatibility are the same for women and men. As Lambert (1990, p. 253) pointed out, “unfortunately, the literature old and new is highly deficient when it comes to specifying the similarities and differences of how men and women workers respond to their jobs and homes.” The present study examines

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which of the two domains generates more conflict for men and for women and examines gender differences in the predictors of conflict within each domain.

The literature suggests two hypotheses concerning gender differences in domain sources of conflict: domain flexibility and domain salience. Generalizing from an all-male sample, Evans and Bartolome (1984) argued that the lesser flexibility and malleability of the work domain compared to the family domain explains their finding that the work experiences of employed people affected their family life more than the reverse. Assuming that the environment of the work domain is similarly less flexible than that of the family domain for employed women, then we could expect that, as in the case for men, the work domain for women would also be the greater source of conflict.

Alternatively, Cooke and Rousseau (1984) argued that, when role pressures are incompatible, greater conflict will be experienced from the domain that is more salient to the person's identity. Accordingly, women will experience more conflict from the family domain and men from the work domain. The first hypothesis predicts a domain but not a gender difference, the second predicts an interaction between gender and domain.

Earlier studies of work/family conflict have had a number of shortcomings. (For reviews see Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Lambert, 1990; Voydanoff, 1988b.) They frequently examined conflict in only one domain—most often at work—or for only one gender—most often men. When both men and women were studied, they differed in many more respects than gender. This confounded the effects of gender with differences in other significant variables such as family context, occupation, organization and work status. And finally, most studies did not consider the relative importance of different role pressures for work/family conflict.

The present study examines gender differences in work/family conflict among dual-career couples in Israel. Recognizing the limitations of prior research, it deals with both family-related and work-related factors concurrently. It includes men and women who are similar on important structural dimensions of both family and work life. The choice of family and work role pressure variables was based on a review of the pertinent research literature as well as on in-depth pilot interviews with managers. Following Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), we included variables associated with time deficiencies and with role strain. Following Lambert (1990), we included both objective and subjective pressures. The following variables, classified according to the domain of their source (family or work), are seen as potentially important sources of family/work conflict:

**Family Pressures**

Age of youngest child  
 No. children at home  
 Time in family work  
 Spouse time in paid work  
 Spouse career support  
 Spouse family support  
 Gender role stereotypes  
 Perceived fairness of  
 division of labor

**Work Pressures**

Time in paid work  
 Work involvement  
 Flexible work hours  
 Troubled about performance  
 Organizational tenure  
 Intrinsic job satisfaction  
 Influence at work

The literature review that follows examines the findings regarding the effects of these variables on work/family conflict.

**Family Domain Pressures**

The effect of the presence of young children on work/family conflict among dual-earner couples has been substantiated in numerous studies (Holahan & Gilbert, 1979; Lewis & Cooper, 1988; Keith & Schaefer, 1980; Pleck, Staines, & Lang, 1980). Greenhaus and Kopelman (1981) found that, for both women and men, work/family conflict was greater with younger than with older children. In addition, we might expect that both time spent in family work and spouse's time spent in paid work are associated with work/family conflict. The more time a person is required to spend in family work, the less is available for paid work and the more time a person's spouse spends in paid work, the less s/he is available to share in the family work (Coverman & Sheley, 1986). Voydanoff (1988a), however, found that neither time spent in family work nor spouse time in paid work was a significant predictor of work/family conflict for either men or women. These counter-intuitive findings are worthy of replication.

Our literature review did not reveal studies that distinguished between the effects on conflict of time spent in family work during weekdays and during weekends. There is reason to believe the difference is significant. For example, when a spouse expects weekend time to be leisure time, time spent in family work on weekends may be experienced as an even greater source of conflict than during weekdays. This distinction seems more relevant for men who are able to avoid family tasks more easily during weekdays than during the weekend when alternative child care and domestic services are less likely to be available. There is likely to be a greater demand for husbands' sharing during the weekend.

Spouse support was found to mitigate conflict, especially for women (Holahan & Gilbert, 1979; Holtzman & Gilbert, 1987; Sekaran, 1986). Little attention has been paid to the impact of gender-role stereotypes on the

experience of conflict. A notable exception, Holahan and Gilbert (1979), found pro-feminist attitudes reduced role conflict among both men and women. Perceived fairness of the division of labor or equity appears as an important theme among dual-career couples and closely related to their attempts to juggle family and work (Hertz, 1986; Smith & Reid, 1986).

In summary, higher levels of work/family conflict are associated with the presence of small children, more time spent in family work, more time spouse spent in paid work, lack of spouse support, perceived lack of fairness of the division of labor at home, and stereotypical gender role attitudes.

### **Work Domain Pressures**

Studies have found that, for both men and women, work/family conflict is positively associated with number of hours worked per week (Burke, Weir, & Duwors, 1980; Keith & Schaefer, 1980; Voydanoff, 1988a). Work involvement leads to a person's making greater investments of time and energy in the work role, often at the expense of the family role (Burke & Greenglass, 1987), resulting in greater conflict. Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, Rabinowitz, and Beutell (1989), however, found that job involvement increased work/family conflict only for women. Similarly, Holahan and Gilbert (1979) found that career aspirations (correlated with work involvement) were positively correlated with role conflict for women in dual-career couples but negatively correlated with role conflict for men. In light of the above, we expect time in paid work to increase conflict for both men and women but for work involvement to increase conflict only for women.

In some studies, flexible work schedules have been found to reduce work/family conflict (Lee, 1983; Staines & Pleck, 1983). Greenhaus et al. (1989), however, found that inflexible work schedules had a negative impact only on men. It is not clear why this should be the case.

Experiences at work are thought to "spill over" from work to the family (Evans & Bartolome, 1984; Pleck, Staines, & Lang, 1980; Staines, 1980; Small & Riley, 1990) and can be experienced as work/family conflict. One might expect that job characteristics and work environments that leave individuals dissatisfied with their jobs or with their work performance and with little ability to influence their surroundings increase work/family conflict. For example, Nieva (1985) found that job satisfaction was negatively related to work/family conflict among female and male military personnel. Greenhaus et al. (1989) found that, of 13 job variables examined, job tenure was the strongest single (negative) predictor of work/family conflict for men, but that it was not significant for women. Considering that, with time and experience, people acquire resources

which enhance their ability to integrate the two domains, it is not clear why such a gender difference should exist.

In summary, higher levels of work/family conflict are associated with time spent in paid work, work involvement (for men), being troubled about work performance, inflexible work hours, lack of intrinsic job satisfaction, and of influence at work as well as low organizational tenure. The following analysis examines the effects of gender on both domain sources of and predictors of work/family conflict.

### THE ISRAELI CONTEXT

Israel is simultaneously an industrialized, urbanized society and a relatively traditional one in terms of the structure and culture of family life (Peres & Katz, 1981). Women constitute some 40 percent of the labor force. They are well represented in most non-traditional professions such as law, medicine and accounting. They are under-represented in engineering-related professions and management where women constitute less than 16 percent in the occupation (Central Bureau of Statistics, 1992).

As a family-centered society (Bar-Yosef, Bloom, & Levy, 1977; Peres & Katz, 1981), the choice between "having children or having a career" is foreign to the Israeli cultural repertoire. The assumption is that a woman will combine family and work and in that order of importance. The expectation that employers will make allowances for women's family obligations is institutionalized in labor relations and the work culture (Izraeli, 1992). Women are entitled to 12 weeks maternity leave with pay and up to one year leave without pay. The latter benefit was recently extended to men. Collective agreements in the public sector grant women (but not men) with small children the privilege of working a shorter day. While employers are frequently "understanding" of women who give priority to their families, they are, for the same reason, reluctant to promote women to management.

Comparing professional women at mid-life in the United States and Israel, Lieblich (1987) notes the greater centrality that Israeli women attach to their family identities and that U.S. women attach to their professional identities. Studies of women professionals in Israel have found that the great majority have a traditional division of labor in the home. There is no relation between the amount of moral support women report receiving from their husbands and the amount of family work that husbands do (Mannheim & Schrifrin, 1984). Women's employment does not affect the amount of time husbands spend in housework and child care (Peres & Katz, 1984). Employed women, however, spend less time in these activities than full time homemakers.

The employed woman has a number of alternative child care options, and the culture condones women using them even for very young children.

## METHOD

### Sample

Because of the relatively small number of women managers in Israel, and to avoid a "token effect," the sample was drawn from a number of different organizations known to have a sizable number of women managers. It is thus a convenience, non-random sample. A manager was defined as a person responsible for the work of others, who has discretion in the job and is considered a manager by the organization. To achieve a gender similar sample, we first identified the women managers (who were the minority in any organization) and then, with the help of the personnel manager, matched them with a sample of men, who, as a group, were as similar as possible to the women in their managerial level and type of work. Anonymous questionnaires were distributed via internal mail and returned by each respondent directly to the researcher in a self-addressed envelope. The preliminary research sample consisted of 416 women and 453 men employed as managers in three banks, an insurance firm, six hotels, an airline, a pharmaceutical company, a retail chain and a number of government departments. The response rate was 68 percent. The final sample used in the present study, 237 women and 211 men, included only married managers whose spouses were employed in relatively high status occupations and who had at least one child living at home.

Regarding the sample used in this study, the average age of the women was 41 years and of the men 43 years. The women had acquired their first managerial position at age 33, the men at age 31. For 96 percent of the women and 95 percent of the men this was their first marriage. Additional comparisons are presented in Appendix A.

### Measures

For more detailed descriptions of measures see Appendix B.

#### *I. Dependent Variable:*

*Work/family conflict* was measured as a four-item index adapted from Kopelman, Greenhaus, and Connolly (1983). Responses constitute a single factor which explains 60 percent of the variance. Cronbach alpha = .76.

#### *II. Independent Variables:*

**Family Domain:** Sources of role pressures for the family domain include *age of youngest child*, *number of children living at home*, and *time spent in family work* (the sum of hours spent in child care and domestic work including errands for the household).

Spouse-support was measured along two dimensions: family related support and career related support. *Spouse family support* was measured as the number of hours the spouse spends in childcare, housework and errands on a typical work day and on a typical weekend. While it may not be reasonable to expect a person to know how many hours a spouse spends in family work, a number of studies (Mortimer, 1980; Orthner & Pittman, 1986; Pittman & Orthner, 1988) suggest that it is the perceived support that a spouse receives that affects his/her behavior. *Spouse career support* was measured by an index consisting of five items. Responses constitute a single factor that explained 40 percent of the variance. Alpha = .74.

*Perceived fairness of the division of labor* was measured by a single item: How fair do you consider the division of labor between you and your spouse to be? Scale: 1 = very unfair, 5 = very fair. *Gender-role stereotypes* was measured by a six-item index adapted from Singleton and Christiansen (1977). Alpha = .72.

*Work Domain: Time spent in paid work* is the number of hours spent on the typical week day inclusive of travel time. *Work involvement* was measured by a three-item index adapted from Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979). Alpha = .68; Scale: 1 = low involvement, 5 = high involvement. *Flexibility* was measured by a direct question: How flexible are your working hours?

*Being troubled about work performance* was measured by a two-item index adapted from the Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) job-related tension scale. Alpha = .65; Scale: 1 = not at all troubled, 5 = very troubled. *Intrinsic work satisfaction* was measured by a two-item index: satisfaction with interesting job; overall satisfaction. Alpha = .79. *Influence at work* was measured by a six-item index developed by the author. Alpha = .80. *Organizational tenure* was measured as the number of years the person was employed in the present organization.

### Analysis Strategy

Regression analysis was used to determine the unique variance in work/family conflict explained by the family domain pressures and by the work domain pressures for men and for women separately, controlling for age and education. Age was controlled to avoid multicollinearity between respondent's age and both age of youngest child and respondent's organizational tenure. Education was controlled as a conservative measure, since education is frequently associated with gender-role stereotypes. For each gender the following procedure was used. In the first step, we entered the control variables age and education. In the second step, we entered all the variables in one of the two domains (family or work) as a

block. In the third step, we entered all the variables in the alternate domain. The third step provided the unique variance explained by the domain (work or family) after controlling for age, education and the variables of the other domain. This procedure was performed twice for each gender, each time varying the sequence in which the domain role pressures were entered.

To test for the relative importance of the family and work domains for men and women, we used Fischer's  $r$  to  $z$  transformation for the difference between correlations. The correlations were derived from the square root of the unique variance ( $R^2$ ) explained by each domain. To test for gender differences in the predictors of work/family conflict within each domain, we used the  $t$ -test for the significance of difference between betas.

## FINDINGS

*Domain Comparisons:* The family domain pressures explained 13 percent of the variance in work/family conflict for women, and 9 percent for men (see Table 1). The work domain pressures explained 9 percent for women and 19 percent for men. Although the percent of variance in conflict explained by the work domain for men was more than twice that explained by any of the other three domain/gender measures, neither the within-gender domain difference nor the within-domain gender difference is significant. Thus, neither the domain flexibility nor the domain salience hypothesis was supported. The work domain was not a significantly greater source of conflict for either women or men than the family domain. Furthermore, the family domain was not a greater source of conflict for women than the work domain, nor was the work domain a greater source of conflict for men than the family domain.

*Within-Domain Comparisons:* For women, the younger the age of the youngest child, the *more stereotypical* their gender-role attitudes and the less they perceived the household division of labor to be fair—the more work/family conflict they experienced. For men, the more time they spent in family work on weekends, the *less* time their spouses spent in paid work and the *less stereotypical* their gender-role attitudes, the more work/family conflict they experienced. The latter finding was opposite to that reported by Holahan and Gilbert (1979) who found that men with pro-feminist attitudes experienced less conflict. The difference between women and men was significant for gender-role stereotypes ( $t = 3.16, p < .01$ ) and for time spent in family work on weekends ( $t = 1.96, p = .05$ ).

For both women and men, the more troubled they were about work performance and the more involved in their work, the greater the work/family conflict. In addition, intrinsic work satisfaction reduced conflict



TABLE 1 Regression of Work/Family Conflict on Family Domain and Work Domain Role Pressures by Gender

Variables	Women		Men	
	b	Beta RSQCH	b	Beta RSQCH
<b>Regression 1</b>				
Controls (age & education)		.08		.08
Controls (work domain pressures)		.09		.24
Family domain pressures		.13 <sup>a</sup>		.09 <sup>a</sup>
Age of youngest child	-.05**	-.32	-.02	-.11
Time in family work	.06	.13	-.01	-.02
Time in family work(wknds)	.04	.06	.14**	.24
Gender-role stereotypes	.20*	.14	-.19*	-.15
Spouse family support	.02	.04	-.04	-.12
Spouse career support	.00	.00	-.03	-.03
Spouse time in prof. work	-.04	-.10	-.06*	-.15
Fairness division of labor	-.19**	-.18	-.13	-.12
No. children at home	-.09	-.08	-.05	-.05
Constant	2.78		2.69	
<sup>c</sup> Total R <sup>2</sup>		.30		.41
<b>Regression 2</b>				
Controls (age & education)		.08		.08
Controls (family domain pressures)		.14		.14
Work domain pressures		.09 <sup>b</sup>		.19 <sup>b</sup>
Troubled about performance	.14*	.15	.29**	.31
Time in professional work	.09	.16	.11**	.22
Work involvement	.21*	.14	.30**	.23
Intrinsic job satisfaction	-.18*	-.15	.04	.04
Work flexibility	.07	.09	.02	.03
Influence at work	.04	.02	.14	.09
Organizational tenure	.01	.10	.01	.07
Constant	2.60		2.73	
<sup>c</sup> Total R <sup>2</sup>		.31		.41

<sup>a</sup> RSQCH family domain pressures: Refers to the additional variance in family-work conflict explained by the family domain variables after controlling for age and education and the work domain variables.

<sup>b</sup> RSQCH work domain pressures: Refers to the additional variance in family-work conflict explained by the work domain variables after controlling for age and education and the family domain variables.

<sup>c</sup> R<sup>2</sup>: Refers to variance explained by total model. Key: See Appendix A.

\* $p \leq .01$ ; \*\* $p \leq .05$

for women while working longer hours increased it for men. None of the individual item-gender differences was significant except for troubled about performance ( $z = 1.76$ ,  $p(\text{one-tailed}) < .05$ ). Being troubled about their work performance increased conflict more for men than for women.

## DISCUSSION

### Gender Difference in Domain Conflict

The domain flexibility hypothesis predicted that both women and men would experience more conflict from the work domain than from the family domain. The domain salience hypothesis predicted that men would experience more conflict from work and women from family. Neither was statistically supported. A possible explanation for these unexpected findings is that the initial assumptions on which they were based are invalid. First, we assumed that the work environment is more inflexible than the demands of family life. Kalleberg and Rosenfeld (1990) argued that variation in countries' family and work policies makes a difference in people's ability to balance family and work responsibilities, and in the extent and sources of work/family conflict. As already explained, in Israel both the collective labor agreements and the culture make provisions for working mothers to attend to their families, even at the expense of work, to a greater extent than is the case for fathers, although men, too, have leeway to meet family obligations. The second assumption, namely that, for women, as different than for men, the family domain is more salient than the work domain, may not be applicable to women managers who may be presumed to be highly committed to their work, nor to men in Israel where family life is central for both genders. In this sample there was no gender difference in level of work involvement (see Appendix A), although men worked longer hours than women. Our findings suggest that controlling for occupation and organization may have contributed to eliminating gender domain differences in sources of work/family conflict.

### Sources of Conflict

For both women and men, work/family conflict is generated by pressures from both domains, although the specific sources within each differ. For example, time spent in family work on weekends is a greater source of conflict for men than for women. For men, it is also greater than time spent in family work during the week. Husbands may have more difficulty fending off demands on their time on weekends than during the week when they can more easily and legitimately grant priority to the demands of their jobs. The argument that men have greater social license than women to express their work involvement by working longer hours

is supported in the present study by the fact that the relationship between work involvement and paid work hours was more than four times as strong for men than it was for women ( $r^2 = .22$  for men but only  $r^2 = .05$  for women: see Appendix C). In other words, given the same level of commitment, men work longer hours than women. This may explain why, contrary to expectation, time spent in paid work was not a predictor of conflict for women although it was for men. Despite a strong work involvement, the ceiling on time spent at work is lower for women than for men.

During weekends, men are more likely to be exposed to pressures to participate in family work. They may be more vulnerable to encroachments on time that they believe is to be used at their own discretion (J. Lorber, personal communication, May, 1992, for this interpretation) and they do this work involuntarily. Voydanoff (1988a) used similar reasoning to explain the negative correlation she found for men between time spent in family work during the week and family/work conflict, namely that they did this work voluntarily. Burke and Greenglass (1987), referring to women's "weekend stress syndrome," note that, in contrast, "men cheer up as the weekend approaches," presumably because of the free time it entails for them. When they are compelled to do much family work on weekends, conflict is heightened.

It is possible, however, that we need to reverse the causal relationship. Men who, to begin with, experience more conflict, perhaps because they are absent from home more hours during workdays, consequently attempt to compensate their families by spending more time in family work during weekends. The data, however, do not support this "compensation hypothesis." The fewer hours men spent in family work during the weekday, the fewer, not the more, they spent during the weekend ( $r = .28$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Furthermore, we found no correlation between extent of work involvement and number of hours spent in family work during the weekend (see Appendix C). Consequently, the encroachment hypothesis, namely that time men spend in family work during weekends is invested more grudgingly because it encroaches on what they perceive to be "their" time, received more support than the compensation hypothesis that work/family conflict induces men to make-up to their families by spending more time with them during weekends.

We continue to use this line of argument to explain the unpredicted finding that men who hold more egalitarian gender-role stereotypes experience greater work/family conflict. Egalitarian attitudes create psychological pressure for men to share family work, but social pressures, especially from the workplace constrain men from investing more time in family work. As Pleck (1977) points out, the "male model of the work-

role—which requires that men give priority to work over family—constrains men who wish to behave in accordance with their liberal values.” Male managers who take time off for family work may be stigmatized in the workplace (Izraeli, 1988, Rosin, 1990). Holding to stereotypical attitudes may serve as a buffer for men. It keeps their values more congruent with normative expectations for their behavior. For women managers, on the other hand, more egalitarian gender-role stereotypes are congruent with their own behavior that attempts to combine a career and a family.

Our findings suggest that the women managers in our study did not rely on their husbands’ active support to manage family and work, or to substitute for them at home. Neither spouse family support, nor spouse work-related support was a significant predictor of women’s work/family conflict. Nor was the number of hours a husband worked outside the home. The latter result was also found by Voydanoff (1988a). The apparent lack of importance of husbands’ physical assistance in family work for women’s level of work/family conflict may reflect the fact that, in Israel, women who follow a career path are expected to do so without cost to the family and to manage without infringing (except in emergencies) on husbands’ work time. Those unable to do so are more likely to avoid high commitment jobs. Support for the argument that they do manage is the negative effect of time spent by spouse in paid work on level of men’s conflict. Wives who work longer hours are more likely to hire domestic help to substitute for their services, thus relieving men of a potential source of conflict.

In sum, neither the domain flexibility nor the domain salience hypothesis was supported. Women and men managers in Israel do not differ either in the domain source of work/family conflict nor in the predictors of conflict within the work domain, except that being troubled about work performance affects the level of conflict slightly more for men. The family domain also produced few gender differences in sources of conflict, except for the contrasting effect of stereotypical gender-role attitudes and the greater affect of time spent in family work on weekends for men than for women. These findings suggest that men and women who are similar in their occupational status and place of employment are also similar in the sources of work/family conflict.

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## APPENDIX A

## Means and Standard Deviations for Predictors and Dependent Variables by Gender

Variables	Women		Men		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
<b>Controls</b>					
Age	41.00	6.47	43.00	7.14	3.09**
Years of schooling	15.61	2.99	15.09	2.69	1.02
<b>Family domain pressures</b>					
Age of youngest child	9.18	5.73	8.27	5.35	1.74
No. of children	2.44	0.84	2.67	0.84	3.22**
Time in family work <sup>a</sup>	5.82	2.16	3.45	1.80	12.57**
Time in family work (weekends) <sup>b</sup>	3.19	1.30	2.51	1.51	4.99**
Spouse time in paid work	9.67	1.86	6.14	2.10	18.53**
Spouse support					
time in family work	3.36	2.01	7.11	2.79	15.96**
career related <sup>d</sup>	3.32	0.81	3.15	0.86	2.17*
Perceived fairness div. of lab. <sup>e</sup>	2.98	0.87	2.90	0.74	1.03
Gender-role stereotypes <sup>d</sup>	2.16	0.63	2.55	0.64	6.55**
<b>Work domain pressures</b>					
Time in paid work <sup>c</sup>	8.75	1.43	10.23	1.78	9.48**
Work involvement <sup>d</sup>	3.73	0.61	3.71	0.64	0.37
Flexible work hours <sup>d</sup>	2.65	1.10	2.83	1.11	1.76
Troubled about work performance <sup>d</sup>	2.06	0.94	1.92	0.89	1.68
Intrinsic work satisfaction <sup>d</sup>	4.11	0.71	4.04	0.74	1.07
Influence at work <sup>d</sup>	4.00	0.53	3.94	0.55	1.14
Organizational tenure (years)	11.82	7.09	13.00	8.11	1.64
Family-work conflict <sup>d</sup>	2.53	0.89	2.35	0.84	2.19*

\* $p \leq .05$ ; \*\* $p \leq .01$  (two-tailed)

<sup>a</sup>Measured in "hours-per-day." Family work includes total hours spent daily on childcare, house work and errands for the family.

<sup>b</sup>Refers to Saturday only.

<sup>c</sup>Includes travel time.

<sup>d</sup>5 = high

<sup>e</sup>4 = high



## APPENDIX B

### The Measures:

*Work/family conflict:* To what extent do the following statements apply to you? 1) My family life disturbs me in meeting my work goals. 2) My responsibility to the home and family make it difficult for me to devote all the time I would like to my work. 3) My work hours conflict with my family life. 4) I feel guilty that maybe my child(ren) lose(s) something because of my career.

*Career-related support:* How often does your spouse assist your career... 1) with professional advice, 2) with social contacts, 3) with moral support? 4) How would you rate your spouse's contribution to your career (from helped a great deal to hindered a great deal)? 5) How often do you and your spouse discuss work?

*Gender-role stereotypes:* 1) It is alright for women to work outside the home but men will always be the main providers. 2) The father, as head of the family, is the main authority with regard to the children. 3) A woman who refuses to give up her place of work in order to move with her husband to another location is responsible if the marriage breaks up. 4) A woman who is more successful than her husband undermines the marital relationship. 5) It is as much the woman's responsibility to contribute to the support of the family as it is the responsibility of the man. 6) It is as much the father's responsibility to care for his children as it is the responsibility of the mother.

*Work involvement:* To what extent do you agree with the following? 1) The most important things I do are related to my job. 2) My greatest pleasure in life comes from my job. 3) Things related to my work continue to occupy me even after work hours.

*Troubled about work performance:* To what extent are you troubled by the following? 1) Not having sufficient skills to cope with my job in the way I would like to. 2) Not having access to the information I need to do my job properly.

*Influence at work:* Support from superiors; participate in decisions; independence in decision making; influence over superiors, over colleagues, over subordinates.

APPENDIX C

Bivariate Correlations among Variables for Women (Upper Triangle) and for Men (Lower Triangle)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
W/FCON	1	—	-.32*	.06	.23*	.21*	-.04	.14	.02	-.18*	.16*	.07	.03	-.02	.26*	-.09	-.08	-.22*	-.29*	.04
AGECH	2	-.36*	—	-.37*	-.39*	-.36*	-.07	-.21*	-.09	-.02	.14	.13	.20*	-.13	-.01	.05	.08	.31*	.81*	-.05
CHILD	3	.10	-.46*	—	.32*	.03	.02	.05	.09	-.06	-.01	-.16*	.00	.06	.05	.00	.05	.00	-.17*	-.06
TIMEFW	4	-.01	-.19*	.06	—	.28*	-.03	.24*	-.04	-.19*	.15	-.33*	-.09	-.02	-.05	.03	.01	-.09	-.29*	.06
TIMEFWW	5	.27*	-.23*	.01	.28*	—	.14	.17*	.11	.09	-.10	.08	.09	.02	.21*	.12	.07	-.19*	-.34*	.16*
STIMEPW	6	-.03	-.05	-.07	.09	.07	—	-.42*	.07	.09	-.02	.25*	.01	-.05	.06	.00	.05	-.08	-.04	.20*
SFAMSUP	7	.11	-.14	.06	.26*	-.32*	.06	—	.14	.38*	-.10	.12	.04	.01	.02	.16*	-.02	.01	-.15	-.01
SCARSUP	8	.04	.04	.02	.08	.07	.07	.16	—	.19*	-.14	.13	.16*	.03	.01	.05	.18*	-.06	-.07	.06
FAIRN	9	-.16	.12	-.18*	.18*	.07	-.01	-.06	.09	—	-.17*	.01	.01	-.06	.04	-.02	-.10	-.06	.00	.03
STEREO	10	-.23*	.19*	-.04	-.06	-.14	-.11	.10	-.13	.03	—	-.10	-.11	.10	.09	-.16*	-.05	.09	.13	-.11
TIMEPW	11	.31*	-.08	.08	-.27*	.12	.09	.19*	.07	-.16	-.02	—	.23*	-.01	.17*	.27*	.14	.09	.07	.11
WINVOLV	12	.23	.07	-.06	-.22*	.01	.13	.06	.23*	-.10	.07	.47*	—	-.14	.02	.40*	.25*	.04	.14	.08
FLEXWH	13	-.16	.04	.00	.16	-.06	.03	-.09	-.10	.11	-.01	-.26*	-.28*	—	.03	-.11	-.15	.25*	-.14	-.14
TROUBL	14	.30*	-.19	.07	.17	.03	-.05	.01	.04	-.04	-.07	.01	-.01	-.02	—	-.07	-.12	-.08	.02	-.01
SATISF	15	.03	.08	.05	-.17*	.06	.15	-.10	.15	-.12	-.03	.24*	.55*	-.14	-.22*	—	.34*	.00	.02	.02
INFLUE	16	-.04	.08	-.16	-.17*	.06	.22*	-.06	.04	-.10	-.01	.15	.31*	-.12	-.20*	.45*	—	.05	.00	.04
TENURE	17	-.22*	.39*	-.22*	-.06	-.10	-.11	-.10	-.11	.05	.13	-.20*	-.14	.29*	.06	-.01	.02	—	.40*	-.16*
AGE	18	-.30*	.77*	-.24*	-.13	-.21*	-.05	-.17	-.04	.14	.17	-.11	.07	.12	-.01	.04	.02	.47*	—	.06
EDUC	19	.05	-.15	.20*	.05	.06	.03	.00	.02	.02	-.04	.04	-.07	-.08	.10	-.07	-.18	-.25*	-.08	—

\* $p < .01$   
 Key: 1) W/FCON—work/family conflict; 2) AGECH—age of youngest child; 3) CHILD—number of children (under 21) living at home; 4) TIMEFW—time in family work; 5) TIMEFWW—time in family work weekend; 6) STIMEPW—spouse time in paid work; 7) SFAMSUP—spouse family support; 8) SCARSUP—spouse career support; 9) FAIRN—perceived fairness of the division of labor between spouses; 10) STEREO—gender-role stereotypes; 11) TIMEPW—time in paid work; 12) WINVOLV—work involvement; 13) FLEXWH—flexible work hours; 14) TROUBL—troubled about performance; 15) SATISF—intrinsic job satisfaction; 16) INFLUE—influence at work; 17) TENURE—organizational tenure; 18) AGE—respondents' age; 19) EDUC—respondents' years of education.