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CONTENTS

Dedication		**i**
Declaration		**ii**
Acknowledgements		**iii**
Summary		**iv**
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION		**1**
1.1	BACKGROUND	1
1.2	RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES	10
1.3	SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	11
1.4	THE RESEARCH SCOPE AND DELIMITATION	12
1.5	OUTLINE OF THE STUDY	13
1.6	SUMMARY	14
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW OF THE CONSTRAINTS, PROBLEMS AND STRESSORS EXPERIENCED BY WORKING WOMEN		**16**
2.1	INTRODUCTION	16
2.2	CULTURAL AND SOCIETAL CONSTRAINTS	17
2.2.1	Philosophies about and attitudes to women	17
2.2.2	The South African situation	19
2.3	LABOUR MARKET AND LABOUR POLICY CONSTRAINTS	20
2.3.1	Inadequate education	20
2.3.2	Sector participation	21
2.3.3	Gender segmentation by position	22
2.3.4	Unequal recruitment, employment and development practices	23
2.4	FINANCIAL CONSTRAINTS	24
2.4.1	Differences in earnings and benefits	24
2.4.2	Extended-family responsibilities	25
2.4.3	Unequal access to socio-economic rights	25
2.5	ORGANISATIONAL CONSTRAINTS	26
2.5.1	Organisation work along masculine traits	26

2.5.2	Extrinsic organisational barriers	27
2.5.3	Job characteristics, job stress and employee well-being	29
2.5.4	Work-to-home interference	31
2.6	INDIVIDUAL CONSTRAINTS	34
2.6.1	Intrinsic personal traits and beliefs	34
2.6.2	Female and male expectations	36
2.6.3	Family life and marital status	37
2.7	OTHER RESTRICTIONS AND STRESSORS	39
2.7.1	Absence of childcare support	39
2.7.2	Ethnic barriers	40
2.7.3	Sexual harassment	41
2.7.4	Violence against women	42
2.7.5	Women and HIV/AIDS	43
2.8	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION	46

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW OF THE ACTS, PROCEDURES, SYSTEMS AND PRACTICES THAT GOVERNMENT AND ORGANISATIONS USE TO SUPPORT WORKING WOMEN **50**

3.1	INTRODUCTION	50
3.2	LEGISLATION AND POLICIES SUPPORTING WORKING WOMEN IN SOUTH AFRICA	51
3.2.1	The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996	52
3.2.2	The Basic Conditions of Employment Act, Act 75 of 1997	53
3.2.3	The Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998	55
3.2.4	The White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service, 1998	56
3.2.5	The White Paper on Human Resources Management in the Public Service, 1997	57
3.2.6	Other Acts	57
3.2.7	Appraisal of these Acts	59
3.3	FORMAL STRUCTURES TO SUPPORT WORKING WOMEN IN SOUTH AFRICA	60

3.3.1	Structures at government level	60
3.3.1.1	National Office on the Status of Women (NOSW)	60
3.3.1.2	Provincial Office on the Status of Women (POSW)	61
3.3.1.3	Gender Focal Units (GFUs)	61
3.3.2	Parliamentary structures and committees	61
3.3.3.	Independent structures for promoting gender equality	62
3.4	ORGANISATIONAL RESOURCES TO SUPPORT WORKING WOMEN	64
3.4.1	Introduction	64
3.4.2	The Job Demands-Resources Model	66
3.4.3	Job resources that mitigate job stress and burnout	70
3.4.4	Job-related social support	73
3.4.4.1	Work-based social support	74
3.4.5	Task resources	77
3.4.5.1	Positive feedback	77
3.4.5.2	Autonomy and job complexity	78
3.4.5.3	Training, development and mentoring	79
3.4.6	Other caring practices	81
3.4.6.1	Employee assistance programmes	81
3.4.6.2.	Childcare practices	82
3.4.6.3	Work flexibility	83
3.4.7	Personal resources and non-work support	86
3.4.7.1	Personality characteristics	86
3.4.7.2	Personal coping strategies	87
3.4.7.3	Personal social support	88
3.5	SUMMARY	89
3.5.1	Government inputs	91
3.5.2	Organisational processes	91
3.5.3	The moderating influence of personality characteristics	92
3.5.4	Organisational and human resource outcomes	92
3.6	CONCLUSION	93

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1	INTRODUCTION	**95**
4.1.1	Philosophical position and orientation	95
4.1.2	Inductive and deductive reasoning in research	95
4.2	QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACHES	97
4.2.1	Quantitative research	98
4.2.2	Qualitative research	99
4.3	INQUIRY STRATEGY AND BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN	101
4.3.1	The qualitative-quantitative continuum	101
4.3.2	A description of the mixed methods design	103
4.4	THE RESEARCH DESIGN	107
4.4.1	Sequential mixed method design	107
4.4.2	Steps followed in the execution of the study	110
4.5	RESEARCH POPULATION AND SAMPLING STRATEGY	112
4.5.1	Sampling procedure	112
4.5.2	Determining the sample size	114
4.6	DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES	117
4.6.1	Procedure to collect data to develop a theoretical framework	118
4.6.2	Procedure to collect data to validate the draft questionnaire	121
4.6.3	Procedure to collect data to validate the survey questionnaires	123
4.7	DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ON THE FINAL SAMPLE	127
4.7.1	Title and marital status	129
4.7.2	Age	130
4.7.3	Years of experience in the organisation or profession	130
4.7.4	Nature of employment	130
4.7.5	Job classification	131
4.7.6	Qualification	131
4.7.7	Hours worked per week	131
4.7.8	Number of children	131
4.7.9	Negative experiences	132

4.7.10	Ongoing negative pressures	133
4.7.11	Days of sick leave	133
4.7.12	Negotiate non-standard working hours	133
4.7.13	Age of youngest child	134
4.8	MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT	135
4.8.1	Introduction	135
4.8.2	Questionnaire construction	136
4.8.2.1	Identify the measurement framework and determine what must be measured	138
4.8.2.2	Identify the indicators of the construct and generate an item pool	139
4.8.2.3	Determine the format for measurement and the scaling of questions	139
4.8.2.4	The revision of the initial item pool by experts	143
4.8.2.5	Administer items to a development sample, evaluate the items and optimize the scale length	145
4.8.3	The layout of the questionnaire	146
4.8.4	Appearance of the questionnaire and covering letter	149
4.8.5	Ethics	150
4.9	DATA ANALYSIS	151
4.9.1	Textual data analysis	151
4.9.2	Capturing and coding the quantitative data	153
4.9.3	Statistical analysis	154
4.9.3.1	Factor analysis	155
4.9.3.2	Reliability analysis	156
4.9.3.3	Item discrimination analysis	157
4.9.3.4	Analysis of item distribution	157
4.9.3.5	Analysis of the association between grouping variables	158
4.9.3.6	Spearman's rank order correlation	159
4.9.3.7	Multivariate analysis of variance	159
4.9.3.8	The Mann-Whitney test	160
4.9.3.9	Logistic regression analysis	160
4.9.3.10	Practical significance	161
4.10	CONCLUSION	161

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS		**164**
5.1	INTRODUCTION	164
5.1.1	Assessment of the content validity of preliminary items	164
5.2	FACTOR ANALYSIS	171
5.2.1	Exploratory factor analysis	171
5.2.2	Factor naming and description	178
5.3	FACTORIAL RELIABILITY	180
5.3.1	Reliability and item statistics	180
5.4	THE FACTOR STRUCTURE OF THE OVERALL STRESS INDEX	187
5.4.1	Internal structure and validity of the Overall Stress Index (OSI)	187
5.4.2	Factor naming and description of the OSI	189
5.4.3	Reliability of the two scales of the OSI	190
5.5	FACTOR STRUCTURE OF THE COPING BEHAVIOUR INDEX	191
5.5.1	Internal structure and validity of the Coping Behaviour Index (CBI)	191
5.5.2	Factor naming and description of the CBI	194
5.6	EXPLORING THE DATA	196
5.6.1	Distribution of the data	196
5.6.2	The comparison of the characteristics of the sub-samples	201
5.6.3	The use of non-parametric tests	202
5.7	RESULTS OF THE ASSOCIATIONAL STATISTICS	203
5.7.1	Correlation between the demographic, support, coping, pressure and stress variables	203
5.8	RESULTS OF THE ANALYSES OF VARIANCE	212
5.8.1	Introduction	212
5.8.2	The results of the non-parametric multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA)	213
5.8.3	Results of the test of between-subjects effects	215
5.8.4	Mann-Whitney-test	217
5.8.4.1	Marital status	218
5.8.4.2	Possibility to negotiate non-standard working hours	220

5.9	RESULTS OF THE LOGISTIC REGRESSION	222
5.10	SUMMARY	225
CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS		**227**
6.1	INTRODUCTION	227
6.2	RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	228
6.3	RESEARCH DESIGN	228
6.3.1	Methodology and procedure	228
6.3.2	Participants	230
6.3.3	Measuring instruments	231
6.4	SUMMARY OF RESULTS	233
6.4.1	Exploratory factor analysis	233
6.4.2	Pressures facing women professionals and managers at work	234
6.4.3	Perceived support and resources needed to mitigate high job and family demands	234
6.4.4	Demographic characteristics and outcome variables:	235
6.4.5	The relationship between the supportive resources and specific behavioural dimensions	236
6.4.6	The effect of marital status and the ability to negotiate non-standard working hours	238
6.4.7	Ability to predict the marital status of the respondents	239
6.5	DISCUSSION	239
6.5.1	Introduction	239
6.5.2	Relationship between resources and work-family pressure and stress	241
6.5.3	Comparing single and married mothers	242
6.5.4	Possibility to negotiate non-standard working hours	243
6.5.5	Predicting the marital status of the respondents	245
6.6	LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH	247
6.6.1	The utility of the Work-Family Pressure and Support Questionnaire	247
6.6.2	Generalising the findings of the study	248
6.6.3	Contribution of the present research	250
6.7	RECOMMENDATIONS	251
6.7.1	Improving job resources	251

6.7.2 Establishing family-friendly organisational cultures 253

6.7.3 Empowering women to negotiate non-standard working hours 253

6.7.4 Changing stereotypical attitudes towards women 254

6.7.5 Providing educational programmes for women 255

6.7.6 Mitigating or eliminating sexual harassment and violence 256

6.7.7 Monitoring legislative support 256

6.8 CONCLUSION 256

REFERENCES 259

APPENDICES 291

APPENDIX A: Interview questions 291

APPENDIX B: Theoretical model based on the qualitative analysis of the pressures and experiences that single working mothers face 293

APPENDIX C: The framework questionnaire 296

APPENDIX D: The final questionnaire 305

APPENDIX E: Letter requesting permission to use the PMI 315

APPENDIX F: Permission letter for use of the PMI 316

APPENDIX G: Results of the Chi-square (^{2}), Cramer's V and Phi-coefficient ( ) to test the strength of the relationship between sample identity and the demographic characteristics of the sample 317

APPENDIX H: Results of the non-parametric four-way factorial MANOVA: the main and interaction effects of the categorical independent variables on the dependent variables 318

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1:	Constraints, problems and stressors that affect working women's performance	47
Figure 3.1:	Model of the different government and organisational resources that affect work-family demands and pressures	90
Figure 4.1:	The theory-building process	98
Figure 4.2:	The qualitative-mixed-quantitative inquiry continuum	101
Figure 4.3:	Knowledge claims, strategies of inquiry, and methods leading to approaches and the design process	104
Figure 4.4:	The overall research design	109
Figure 4.5:	Mixed methods sequential explorative approach	163
Figure 5.1:	Scree-plot of the actual and the random data	173
Figure 5.2:	Scree-plot of the data captured with the Overall Stress Index	188
Figure 5.3:	Scree-plot of the data captured with the Coping Behaviour Index	192
Figure 5.4:	Observed groups and predicted probabilities of marital status	223

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List of research project topics and materials

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1:	Summary of important legislation introduced to empower women in South Africa since the 1994 general democratic elections	58
Table 3.2:	Variations of coping	88
Table 4.1:	A comparison of the alleged differences between the positivist and interpretivist paradigms	96
Table 4.2:	Types of design by four criteria	105
Table 4.3:	Strengths and weaknesses of mixed research	106
Table 4.4:	Feminist research: the quest for emancipation and change	108
Table 4.5:	Research method related to inquiry, data collection and data analysis	111
Table 4.6:	Minimum sample size recommended for most common quantitative and qualitative research designs	115
Table 4.7:	The demographic characteristics of the interviewees	120
Table 4.8:	Demographic characteristics of the panel of experts	123
Table 4.9:	A summary of the demographic variables contained in the sample	127
Table 4.10:	Comparison of two sets of scale development guidelines	137
Table 4.11:	Structured response format for a Likert-type item	142
Table 4.12:	Minimum CVR values for different numbers of subject matter experts	144
Table 4.13:	Layout of the questionnaire	147
Table 5.1:	The results of Lawshe's test for content validity	165
Table 5.2:	Principal factor extraction and varimax rotation of the items: factor loadings, eigenvalues, percentage variance, and squared multiple correlation of the six factors	175
Table 5.3:	Reliability and item statistics for Factor 1: Work-family pressure	181
Table 5.4:	Reliability and item statistics for Factor 2: Personal development	182
Table 5.5:	Reliability and item statistics for Factor 3: Management support	183

Table 5.6:	Reliability and item statistics for Factor 4: Organisational flexibility	184
Table 5.7:	Reliability and item statistics for Factor 5: Time for family interaction	185
Table 5.8:	Reliability and item statistics for Factor 6: Childcare support	186
Table 5.9:	Factor loadings, eigenvalues and percentage variance after rotation of the two factors related to the OSI	189
Table 5.10:	Reliability and item statistics for Factor 1: Physiological symptoms	190
Table 5.11:	Reliability and item statistics for Factor 2: Exhaustion symptoms	191
Table 5.12:	Factor loadings, eigenvalues and percentage variance after rotation of the factors related to the Coping Behaviour Index	193
Table 5.13:	Reliability and item statistics for the Coping Behaviour Index	195
Table 5.14:	Distribution of the scores of the total sample on the different variables	197
Table 5.15:	Results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for the distribution of the data of the total sample	199
Table 5.16:	Tests of Normality for each variable by marital status	200
Table 5.17:	Spearman's rho inter-correlation of the demographic variables	204
Table 5.18:	Spearman's rho correlation between the demographic variables and the support, coping behaviour, pressure and stress scales (n = 205)	205
Table 5.19:	Spearman's rho correlation between the support, coping behaviour, pressure and stress scales	210
Table 5.20:	Multiple correlation between scores on the support scales and scores on the pressure and stress scales (n = 205)	212
Table 5.21:	Number of respondents in each subgroup of the categorical variables (n = 205)	213
Table 5.22:	Results of the MANOVA: the relationship between the categorical variables and the dependent variables	214

Table 5.23:	The interaction effects of marital status and negotiating working hours with the support, coping behaviour and pressure and stress variables	216
Table 5.24:	Mann-Whitney test: Comparison of mean rank values by marital status	219
Table 5.25:	Mann-Whitney test: Comparison of mean rank values by the ability to negotiate non-standard working hours	221
Table 5.26:	Logistic regression analysis of marital status as a function of support and stress variables working mothers experience	224

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

According to the South African censuses of 1996 and 2001, females constitute the majority in the population of South Africa: 52% (1996) and 52.2% (2001) of the population was female at the time of these censuses. At these two times, the number of females also predominated in all provinces, except Gauteng, where the female proportion was 49% (1996) and 49.7% (2001) (Statistics South Africa, 2003:6-11). However, women's representation in the mainstream economy is at odds with the demography.

South African women are no exception to the international and historical phenomenon of being subjected to various kinds of discriminatory behaviour, attitudes and policies, whether intended or unintended, which have hampered women's full integration into the labour market for centuries (Chafetz, 1990; Devanna, 1987; Erwee, 1992; Van der Westhuizen, Goga & Oosthuizen, 2007).

However, the period following the first fully democratic election in South Africa in 1994 was the starting point of a feminisation of the South African labour force, when, as it were, the gates of employment were opened wide to all women (Casale, 2004; Casale & Posel, 2002). This phenomenon was driven particularly by greater numbers of African women entering the labour force. Nevertheless, despite the country's improved growth and performance, this change in women's position is not an unqualified success, as women remain overrepresented among the unemployed: more than half of the adult female population is unemployed, according to both the narrow and expanded definitions of unemployment. Moreover, even when women are employed, they continue to be disadvantaged (compared to men) in the labour market, as women are still overrepresented in low-income, less secure employment (Van der Westhuizen *et al.,* 2007).

Van der Westhuizen *et al.* (2007:13-38) present the salient features of feminisation of the South African labour between 1995 and 2005 as follows:

Although the increases in the working age population of males and females were very similar, there was a much greater percentage increase in female labour force participation, both narrow and broad, over the period. Females made up 'almost 58% of the growth in the labour force, while males accounted for 42.3% of the change' (Van der Westhuizen *et al*., 2007:13).

'The percentage increase in broad unemployment was higher for females (87%) than for males (79%)' (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2007:22).

'Women benefited more from the net jobs created over the period. Female employment increased by 41%, almost double the increase of 22% in male employment' (Van der Westhuizen *et al*., 2007:13).

The number of African women who joined the labour force over the period accounts for almost half of the total growth of the labour force (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2007).

In terms of growth per sector, the number of women in elementary occupations grew most, as there was an average increase of approximately 10% per year (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2007).

The number of women managers grew the second fastest, with an average growth rate of 8.4% per year. The number of women as managers more than doubled to 248 000 over the period, but this increase started from a very low base. Hence, women still occupied only 28.9% of management positions in 2005 (which is nevertheless up from 22.2% in 1995) (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2007).

In every racial group, unemployment rates among women are higher than among men. The unemployment rates are highest among African women. (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2007).

The earnings figures reveal that working women in all race groups earned less than their male counterparts in 1995 and 2005. However, in nominal terms, women received larger increases over this period. White men and women earned more than people from the other race groups. Black African men and women earned the least of all race groups (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2007).

Generally, women still earn less than men at same level of education (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2007).

The above findings reveal that, although women have made significant inroads into the labour market, they are still sectorally segregated in mostly elementary occupations, low paying and insecure jobs, and still suffer gender and racial discrimination in respect of their pay. Women's participation in the economy as managers is also low (28.9%), compared to that of male managers (70.8%) (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2007).

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The increased feminisation of the labour market in South Africa can be attributed principally to legislative and government interventions, coupled with the operation of social and market forces. Interventions include the following:

entrenching gender equality in the Constitution;

establishing a Commission for Gender;

enacting legislative reforms to remove discrimination and other barriers to women's independence and security, for example, in the form of the Employment Equity Act (Republic of South Africa, 1998c), the Skills Development Act (Republic of South Africa, 1998a) and the Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment Act (Republic of South Africa, 2003); accelerating the participation of women through special programmes such as affirmative action and equal employment opportunities;

appointing women to national positions; and

encouraging the education of women and girls.

It seems that the democratic government of South Africa is taking the saying that if you liberate a woman, you liberate the nation seriously. The first president in post-apartheid South Africa, Nelson Mandela, was unequivocal about the link between women's liberation and the liberation of society as a whole. At the opening of the 1994 Parliament, he said: '...freedom cannot be achieved unless women have been emancipated from all forms of oppression, unless we see in visible and practical terms that the condition of the women of our country has radically changed for the better, and that they have been empowered to

intervene in all aspects of life as equals with any other member of society' (Mandela, 1994).

South Africa has earned a position as a world leader regarding women's rights and is ranked eighth in the world in terms of gender equality in government, as 30% of South Africa's parliamentarians are women. This percentage is much higher than the global average. Globally, women only hold 14% of parliament seats and only 8% of Cabinet Ministers are women. During Thabo Mbeki's term, South Africa was among the first African countries to have a female Deputy President, with 11 female Cabinet Ministers, and nine Deputy Ministers. The policy has continued under the Zuma presidency too. South Africa is also a world leader in respect of the number of senior government positions held by women. Ironically, while South Africa has such an impressive track record for the representivity of women at government level, the private sector continues to lag very far behind (Makhubalo, 2007).

To place the problem in perspective, the South African Women in Corporate Leadership 2006 Census indicates that, while women constitute 41% of the working population in South Africa, they only constitute 16.8% of all executive managers and 11.5% of directors. Contrary to what one would expect, although legislation has never excluded white women from senior management positions, with the exception of positions in family-owned companies, very few white women have made it to the top (Makhubalo, 2007).

South Africa is not alone, however, when it comes to poor representivity of women in management positions. It is sobering to realise that in June 2007, only 12 of the Fortune 500 companies and 25 of the Fortune 1000 companies were run by women. Expressed differently, this means that 488 of the Fortune 500 companies and 975 of the Fortune 1000 companies have male CEOs. A lot of hard work clearly still needs to be done, globally, and across all sectors, to empower women at management level (Makhubalo, 2007).

According to Van der Westhuizen *et al*. (2007:11), there are a number of economic and social forces that continue to draw women into the labour market.

These include increases in the cost of living, a 'decline in female access to male income as a result of increased unemployment among males, the consequences of [the] HIV epidemic and an increase in the number of households headed by females due to changes in household structure' (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2007:11). Other possible explanations include the abolition of apartheid laws that previously restricted movement and access to employment, which fuelled women's aspirations and hopes.

Even though the feminisation of the labour market is a welcome development, the phenomenon has exacerbated a range serious social and psychological problems as women struggle to balance work and home responsibilities. Family life and professional life are more and more difficult to reconcile. Several changes and expectations in professional life and in family life create more and more incompatibilities between these two spheres of life. It is becoming increasingly difficult for many employees to reach a balance between the two, resulting in the prevalence of work-family conflict, which has attracted the attention of researchers throughout the western world (see, for example, Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kanter, 1977; Zedeck, 1992) It has also inspired research in the South African context (Erwee, 1994; Moller, 1998; Msimang, 2001; Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008). The research has given rise to a plethora of theoretical models (see, for example, Bakker, Demerouti, Euwema, 2005; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001). The findings of empirical research points to a serious need for urgent action by government, organisations and society as a whole (Baxter & Alexander, 2008; Franks, Schurink & Fourie, 2006; Geurts, Kompier, Roxburgh & Houtman, 2003; Mclellan & Uys, 2009; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008).

The convergence of interest on women by politicians and researchers is understandable, considering women's sheer numbers in the population, their subordination in society, their underdevelopment and especially their untapped potential. Women's economic empowerment, and their cultural and social emancipation have multiplier effects beyond the households, many of which they head. They swell the nation's pool of human assets – hence the support

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given to women in development by national agencies and international donor communities (Central Statistics, 1998:1).

The ability of women in general, and of single mothers in particular, to succeed in their home and economic pursuits depends, amongst other things, on their psycho-social well-being. The motivation for this study is therefore a desire to ensure that the goals of economic emancipation and the potential contributions of women and especially single mothers in management and professional occupations are not undermined by the psycho-social dysfunctionalities they face in the workplace and at home. If such problems cannot be solved, the hope of poverty eradication and the contribution of women to national development will be a mere illusion.

As more women enter the managerial ranks in today's world, the problems that they face in maintaining the delicate balance between their personal and professional lives have become more evident. In general, research on gender has tended to focus on dual career households, which are defined as households where both parties are in management and professional or technical occupations. Such research has established the fact that dual career couples face several problems in relation to work, namely, role-related dissatisfaction, low levels of role performance and role-related withdrawal (Pillay, 1986; Pitzer, 1999). Although these findings are important for women and the organisations involved, the emphasis on dual career couples has overshadowed the case of single parent (female and male) employees, who are the sole heads of their households. These single parents (never married, separated, divorced or widowed) have received very little attention in the research on gender. This neglect becomes all the more glaring and disconcerting when it is noted that there were almost 3.5 million female-headed households in South Africa as reported in the 1996 census (Wallis & Price, 2003). Among the most economically active groups, single mothers in South Africa represent about half of the proportion of married women. Additionally, the percentage of men and women who are divorced or widowed increases with age. The current study is therefore about a dominant, but neglected, segment of the South African population.

Studies of single mothers in the United States of America (USA) (Avison, 1997; Avison, Speechley, Thorpe, Gotlib, Rae Grant & Turner, 1994; McLanahan, 1983, 1985; Robbins & McFadden, 2003), the United Kingdom (UK) (Gill &Davidson, 2001) and South Africa (Gatley, 1987; Snyman, 1986; Wallis & Price, 2003) and other countries point to a very serious situation. The authors have noted significant demographic changes in their societies, especially, an increase in the number of families headed by single mothers. This is largely the result of increased rates of marital separation and divorce, and an increase in the proportion of mothers without partners due to teenage pregnancies. Owing to the multiple burdens they shoulder, many single mothers live in poverty. In the US studies, there is widespread agreement that single motherhood constitutes an important risk factor for psychological distress, with consequences for an increased risk for affective disorders and increased rates of mental health services use (Avison *et al.,* 1994; McLanahan, 1983, 1985; Robbins & McFadden, 2003).

Gill and Davidson (2001:383-399) investigated the problems and pressures facing single mothers in management and professional occupations in the UK. Qualitative data were gained from semi-structured interviews with 20 single working mothers, and the sample also completed the Pressure Management Indicator questionnaire. The interviews revealed that the single working mothers experienced some of the problems and pressures previously reported by women in dual career couples, but to a much greater degree. This included difficulties with childcare, work overload and role conflict. Findings also indicated that 'the death of a partner, separation or divorce affects the career aspirations and career development of the women in the sample and that the single mothers were less able to take advantage of job-sharing and part-time working because of greater financial pressures. The single working mothers reported higher levels of pressure from workload and the home/work balance than comparative normative groups. However, as stress moderating strategies they employed better use of problem-focused coping than other women and made more use of social support than other managers' (Gill & Davidson, 2001:383).

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There have been very few South African studies on single women (Gatley, 1987; Snyman, 1986; Wallis & Price, 2003). In a study of 300 single-parent families in one South African city, Snyman (1986) found that finance-related difficulties were most common. This included finance-related dissatisfaction with living arrangements, employment, child maintenance and crèches. Hence financial services were ranked first among the three most important facilities required. Other facilities included counselling facilities in connection with children's problems and after-school centres. Even though South African society has experienced huge transformations, especially in the delivery of social services such as houses, electricity and water, the plight of single mothers remains critical.

Wallis and Price's (2003) study on work-family conflict among a group of twenty single working mothers with pre-school age children shows that for most of them, the family setting and their role as mother within that setting was the most important. Unlike in the past, these women developed positive attributes and characteristics such as strength and independence from their experiences as single mothers. Although they saw work as secondary to home, they still accorded work a very significant place in their lives, as it provides stimulation, keeps loneliness at bay and allows them to express their independence. However, their levels of work-family conflict, role overload and work-to-family and family-to-work interference were medium to high. The stress experienced by working women and the consequences of this on their home and work lives have been reported in several recent studies in South Africa (Brink & De la Rey, 2001; De Villiers & Kotze, 2003; Koekemoer & Mostert, 2006; Mclellan & Uys, 2009; Oldfield & Mostert, 2007; Patel, Govender, Paruk & Ramgoon, 2006; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008; Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008). However, in almost all these studies, the case of single mothers, which is feared to be worse, is usually subsumed under women in general.

From this background it is evident that this area warrants a research focus in an African setting, where single mothers are a large force to be reckoned with. In general, this study draws attention to the lopsided balance of research on women in management and professional occupations in South Africa by

highlighting the distinct plight of single mothers in management and professional ranks.

The researcher assumed that single mothers in management and professional occupations in South Africa face higher levels of stress due to work-family pressures, restricted opportunities for personal growth and development, poor organisational support, financial pressure and social isolation than their partnered counterparts. It was also assumed that organisations and employers need to put organisational systems in place to support single working mothers in managing their personal pressures, work demands, role conflict, time for family life and difficulties with childcare.

Given the current situation, the following research questions were asked as a point of departure in this study:

- What pressures and stressors do single mothers working in management and professional occupations in South Africa encounter?
- What is the nature of the pressures that single mothers in management and professional occupations face in balancing family and work life?
- Do single mothers in management and professional occupations experience more pressure and stress than married mothers in related positions?
- In comparison with married working mothers, what support strategies do single mothers working in management and professional occupations favour to mitigate the stressors?
- What kinds of resources do organisations need to provide in order to support single working mothers to cope with work and family demands and stress?

To answer these questions, it was decided to investigate the problems and pressures that single mothers in management and professional occupations experience and to identify organisational systems that are important in supporting working mothers to cope with work-family conflict and stress.

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Bearing the above research questions in mind, the primary objectives of the research were

- to develop a valid and reliable measuring instrument to survey the problems and pressures single mothers in management and professional occupations in South Africa experience;
- to survey single working mothers' perceptions about the resources they perceive to be important in supporting them to deal with high job and family demands and to cope with stress; and
- to make recommendations regarding possible support systems and practices that organisations could implement to assist single working mothers in coping with work and family pressures and stress.

To achieve the primary *objectives* of the research, it was necessary

- to obtain sufficient theoretical information and empirical data about the kinds of problems, pressures and stressors working mothers experience;
- to obtain sufficient theoretical information and empirical data on the nature of the resources that management can provide to mitigate the stressors and to support working mothers to cope with work and family demands;
- to determine the relationship between working mothers' demographic characteristics and their experience of work and family demands and stress;
- to determine the relationship between working mothers' demographic characteristics and their perceptions of the support systems available to help them cope with work and family demands and stress;
- to determine the association between working mothers' perceptions of support systems and their experience of work and family demands and stress; and
- to determine the main 'effect' of marital states on the dependent variables by comparing the perceptions of single working mothers with the perceptions of a comparable group of married working mothers.

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of the study *creates the rationa*le for the importance of the study. Creswell (1994:111) argues that to ascertain the significance of a study, one should answer three major questions: How will the study add to the scholarly research and literature in the field? How will the study help to improve practice? How will the study improve policy?

The entry of women into the labour force, which Casale and Posel (2002) and Casale (2004) describe as the 'feminisation' of the labour market, means that, whereas in 1995 only about 38% of all women of working age were active in the workforce, by 2001, nearly 51% were active in the workforce. Although much of the increase has been in the lower-paying categories, increasingly, women are penetrating the higher echelons of management and swelling the ranks of management and professional occupations. This shift is seen as one of the indices of development in all countries, as it shows effective use of person-power on the one hand, and the bringing to bear on management of the unique qualities of females to complement those of men on the other hand. However, organisations need to be sensitive to the needs of their employees in order to encourage maximum performance from them. The participation and performance of women in the labour force would be greatly hampered if the majority of them work under conditions that render them ineffective both at home and at work. The findings of this study would therefore be useful to government, organisations, and women themselves in the following ways:

They would be useful to government in its endeavour to create conditions conducive to women, through legislation or otherwise. For example, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (Act 75 of 1997, as amended in 2002) (Republic of South Africa 2002b) could be extended to compel organisations to provide working conditions and facilities such as day-care centres, the absence of which tends to put much pressure on women in general and single working mothers in particular.

Organisations would benefit from knowing the impact of working conditions on the careers of women employees, so that jobs and working conditions can be organised in such a way that they meet women's needs.

Women themselves would be able to take proactive steps to bring women's issues into the open or to the attention of trade unions. Besides, as others have done elsewhere, the women concerned could negotiate with their organisation to create conditions which will enable the women to fulfil their work and family responsibilities.

Theoretically, the study can help refine instruments for measuring the pressures facing mothers in professional occupations, while, at the same time, improving models of career development specifically applicable to single mothers in management and professional occupations, since the limited research findings available suggest that they face unique problems and pressures.

1.4 THE RESEARCH SCOPE AND DELIMITATION

This study looks at managing the problems and pressures facing single mothers in management and professional occupations in South African organisations. The study recognizes that single fatherhood may be as problematic as single motherhood. However, attention in this study is focused on single working mothers, because women tend to bear greater responsibilities for the upkeep of their children and home.

This study is also limited to single mothers in management and professional occupations, where the pressures of such positions make more demands than the routine jobs of women in the rank and file. An equivalent number of married working mothers were however included in this study to provide a 'control group' for comparative purposes, and to increase the number of respondents in the sample to ensure meaningful statistical analyses.

1.5 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

This research report consists of six chapters.

Chapter 1 addresses the background and context of the study, the formulation of the problem and the purpose and outline of the research.

Chapter 2 provides a literature review of problems and stressors experienced by working mothers. A theoretical model based on the systems principles of inputs, processes and outputs was developed to illustrate the impact of external environmental factors and internal organisational processes which cumulatively and negatively affect the performance and well-being of women employees.

Chapter 3 provides a literature overview of the acts, procedures, systems and practices which government applied towards ameliorating the conditions of women in general and in some cases, working women in particular. The chapter also reviews the resources which organisations can or should leverage to mitigate the negative impact of job demands on women employees.

Chapter 4 deals with the research methodology. It explains the research approach and the research design. It includes issues such as the design and administration of the questionnaires, the population and sampling procedure, and the collection of data and the statistical methods applied to analyse the data.

Chapter 5 focuses on the interpretation and discussion of the research results. First, the results of Lawshe's content validity analysis of the initial items, the results of the exploratory factor analysis and the item and reliability analysis of the questionnaires are reported comprehensively. Then, the results of the correlation between variables and the results of the analysis of variance are discussed. Lastly, the results of the logistic regression analysis with a classification of the sample into single or married subsets are discussed.

Chapter 6 contains a summary and the recommendations of the study. The focus in the discussion of the results is on answering the research questions. Only the statistically significant findings with practical implications are discussed. Recommendations with regard to possible support systems that government and organisations can implement to mitigate the pressures single working mothers experience are provided. The limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are also outlined in this chapter.

1.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the problem of the study has been presented, against the background of the importance of women in the South African population and the feminisation of the labour market from 1995 to 2005 and beyond. The use of legislation and the example of the attitudes and convictions of the ruling party to the need to integrate and give visibility to women in political life have helped to accelerate the entry of women into the labour market. Other social and market forces were also at play. Nevertheless, the feminisation of the labour market has not been an unqualified success, as women are still restricted largely to feminine occupations, characterised by low paying jobs and insecurity on the one hand, and subjected to racial and gender discrimination in pay on the other. The phenomenal increase of women entering the labour market has had stressful consequences for women's quality of home and work lives in general. Some researchers (Erwee, 1994; Moller, 1998) have even suggested that the impact of the Employment Equity Act, which encourages the promotion of more women to managerial positions, may lead to increased levels of stress among women, because of their lack of training and the negative impact of gender discrimination on the adjustment of women. Some authors claim that what seems to play an important role in the difficulties experienced by many career women is the lack of investment in resources such as training, decision-making authority and social support (Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008).

Although women in general are faced with issues of balancing home and work responsibilities, the weight of these burdens fall more heavily on single working mothers than on partnered working mothers. Single mothers – more than 3.5

million in South Africa – deserve to be the focus of research. Their sheer numbers and the neglect of their plight in research is one of the motivations for this study.

The objectives of the study and the specific research questions have been outlined. The scope and the significance of the study are also highlighted. In the next chapter, an overview of the problems and stressors experienced by working mothers is presented.

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CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW OF THE CONSTRAINTS, PROBLEMS AND STRESSORS EXPERIENCED BY WORKING WOMEN

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature review is a crucial part of any research project. According to Mouton (2001:86), a literature review is aimed at finding out what has already been done in a specific field of study. Moreover, a literature review is regarded as a 'process of indicating where a particular report or research fits into the context of the general body of scientific knowledge. To ensure that the research questions are unique and will add value to a body of knowledge, the researcher has to find out what has been written in the specific field and discover what has been found empirically' (Babbie, 2005:457).

In this chapter, the constraints to the advancement of women, and in particular the problems and stressors that working women in professional and management careers in South Africa experience, are examined. A multi-facetted approach was followed to describe the constraints, problems and stressors that working women may experience. Frone, Russell and Cooper (1995) emphasize the importance of a multi-disciplinary approach in identifying the possible constraints, problems and stressors facing a population. Drawing on an extensive review of research on women's occupational stress, Davidson and Fielden (1999) point out the need to investigate all potential problems – the psychological, sociological and physiological forces that can have an impact on people. Davidson and Fielden (1999) also highlight the need to consider sources of stress both inside and outside of the organisation which can affect the behaviour, the performance and the mental and physical health of women at work.

As noted in Chapter 1, women outnumber men in the population. In spite of this, women continue to trail men in almost all indices of development. After reviewing the global scene, Mathur-Helm (2005:57) has commented scathingly that 'women worldwide are still holding secondary positions, are under-utilised in the labour market and are still a wasted resource'. South Africa is no exception. There are many reasons, as many authors have noted, a decade after the Beijing Conference of 1995, where South Africa signed a declaration on gender and development, committing itself to increasing women's participation in decision-making to 30% by 2005 (April, Dreyer & Blass, 2007; Bowen, Cattell & Distiller, 2008; Mathur-Helm, 2005, 2006; Mello & Phago, 2007; Moorosi, 2007; Morrison, 2005; Stone & Coetzee, 2005; Whitehead & Kotze, 2003). In this chapter, these reasons are discussed in six broad categories, namely, cultural and societal constraints, the labour market and labour policies, and financial, organisational and individual reasons. It should be noted that these categories are inter-related and interact to present formidable barriers to women's progress in society and to hamper women's well-being in the workplace.

2.2 CULTURAL AND SOCIETAL CONSTRAINTS

2.2.1 Philosophies about and attitudes to women

Social role theorists (for example, Eagly, 1987) argue that the society and the culture into which women and men are born and socialised leave indelible traits which define gender roles. Jones and Montenegro (1982:8) contend that gender roles are transferred from generation to generation via accumulated acculturation and socialisation and are the foundation of gender stereotypes. A stereotype, as defined by Morrison (1992:24), is 'a relatively rigid and oversimplified conception of a group of people in which all individuals in the group are labelled with the so-called group characteristics'. Gender stereotyping applies to both men and women. For example, women are generally thought to be emotional, dependent and less assertive than their male counterparts, who are portrayed as independent, assertive and rational (Zulu, 2003). Stereotypes extend to the jobs people do: according to Brown and Jordanova (1982),

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women today are stereotypically identified with the so-called caring professions of teaching, nursing and social work.

Gender denotes those characteristics, attributes, behaviours and activities considered by society to be appropriate for men and women (Zulu, 2003). According to Zulu (2003), young girls and boys are taught at an early age to value what society perceives as female and male characteristics, maintaining that this kind of socialisation pattern leads girls and boys to believe, for instance, that being modest, submissive, affectionate, nurturing, people-oriented and emotionally expressive are female characteristics, whereas being aggressive, assertive, independent, rational and task-oriented are male characteristics. Young girls grow up with the belief that displaying male characteristics is improper and the same applies to young boys who are discouraged from displaying what society classes as female characteristics. This attribution of roles and characteristics perceived as appropriate for a particular gender may be responsible for women's failure to aspire to be leaders or the barriers they encounter when they attempt to enter management positions (Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001; Schein, 2007; Zulu, 2003).

Berthoin and Izrael (1993:63, cited in Schein, 2007) provide an overview of women in management world-wide. They argue that 'probably the single most important hurdle for women in management in all industrialised countries is the persistent stereotype that associates management with being male'. According to Schein (2007), gender stereotyping of the managerial position fosters bias against women in managerial selection, placement, and promotion and training decisions. She found that gender stereotyping of the managerial position has persisted over the last thirty years, in spite of the progress made by women in management: 'Despite all the societal, legal, and organizational changes that occurred in the USA over the last 30 years, male managers continue to perceive that successful managerial characteristics are more likely to be held by men in general than by women in general' (Schein, 2007:8). The results of cross-cultural studies in Germany, the UK, China and Japan have also shown similar trends, from which Schein (2007) concludes that the similarity in strength

of the male perceptions may reflect 'intractable attitudinal barriers'. The South African situation is similar.

2.2.2 The South African situation

The mythical stereotypes attached to gender roles in society ensure that women in South Africa also remain secondary to men in leadership and management positions. According to Greyvenstein (1989:21), 'there are particular problems in South Africa with regard to the traditional conflict of roles in women, whereby women are more traditionally set with regard to stereotype sex-roles. A deeply-rooted patriarchal outlook of the South African society backs up this'. Contemporary South African society has not yet reached the point of accepting that it is appropriate for women to be both homemakers and effective career women (Greyvenstein, 1989:19).

Although working women have increasingly moved away from the home into the wider spectrum of economic employment, including teaching, many have internalised the traditional stereotypes to such an extent that they suffer guilt and shame when they opt for self-determination or self-development beyond the realm of homemaker (Jones & Montenegro, 1982:8). This role conflict can lead to personal sanctions and a lack of ambition, poor self-image and inadequate confidence (Greyvenstein, 1989; Jones & Montenegro, 1982). Researchers in South Africa (Brink & De la Rey, 2001; Mclellan & Uys, 2009; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008) have found that the conflicts women experience between their traditional roles as housewives, mothers and homemakers and their professional roles as managers and leaders are largely responsible for the strains and stresses which they experience.

The effect of the deeply entrenched stereotyped view of women remains at the core of modern society's attitudes and philosophies about women (Brown & Jordanova, 1982:389) and are also instrumental in the creation of intrinsic and extrinsic barriers to the promotion of females and working mothers to management positions. The intrinsic barriers are discussed with the individual

constraints (Section 2.6.1) and the extrinsic barriers addressed as part of the organisational constraints (Section 2.5.2).

2.3 LABOUR MARKET AND LABOUR POLICY CONSTRAINTS

Over the years, South African women have faced discriminatory practices which are both politically and economically motivated. While it is true that women's participation in labour has increased over the years (Van der Westhuizen *et al*., 2007), a range of practices in the labour market and in the workplace still persist that contain elements of discrimination and inequality and that subject women to inferior treatment. Among the problems facing women in the labour market are inadequate education and development, sector participation, gender segmentation, and unequal recruitment and employment practices.

2.3.1 Inadequate education

Barker (1995:63-65) notes that various inequalities that have manifested in the South African labour market amount to discrimination. These inequalities range from educational inequalities to occupational ones. According to Reskin and Padavic (2001:255), it is assumed that women are not advanced because of their lower levels of education, and that they lack the experience and training desired in people in top positions. As a result, women are often locked into jobs which offer less diversity of experience and have fewer opportunities for upward mobility. Contradicting these assumptions, Barker (1995:163) claims that the discrimination directed at women results from factors that are related to neither their education nor the labour market, for example, being female or black African. However, the South African Human Development Report (2003:19) reflects that, while important strides have been made towards overcoming past inequalities in the labour market, the distribution of jobs, occupations and income still correlates strongly with race, gender, age, disability and spatial factors.

In 2002, the labour absorption rate remained at 33.1% for women compared to 46.4% for men. According to Statistics South Africa (2003), the census of 2001 indicates that more women (48.1%) than men (35.8%) remain unemployed. A person's level of education and training plays a vital role in shaping opportunities for powerful advancement in the workplace. In economic terms, education thus forms the first step towards successful self-employment and job creation for both men and women. *The Graduate* (1999:10) notes that 'even though the labour market in SA has the ability to absorb new entrants the imbalances between skilled and unskilled labour blocks the opportunities for certain groups'. Gender segregation in education is still evident between men and women. Budlender (2002) shows that nearly 18% of black African women at the age of 25 years have no formal education, with only 6% of them having achieved a Grade 12, a diploma or tertiary education. This phenomenon can be attributed in part to the fact that historically, education for women has not been seen as a relevant benefit in society.

Educational opportunities for black African people were limited in the apartheid era, and the situation for women was particularly problematic. Some parents believed that education was not important for girls. Today, although more and more young women are now enrolling to study, they encounter a number of problems which range from sexual abuse and assault to career stereotyping. Some find it hard, if not impossible, to visit libraries and classrooms at night to study, because they fear being raped or subjected to other forms of violence. There is also a tendency to dismiss pregnant girls from school (Budlender, 1998b:16). Nonetheless, Education Statistics (2008:30) notes that women students are in the majority at universities in South Africa. In 2008, women made up 56.4% of the total student body at South African universities. This indicates that there is a gradual expansion of the number of women who are acquiring professional qualifications that will perhaps take them to managerial levels.

2.3.2 Sector participation

Budlender (1998a:18) notes that biases in the labour market which affect women include gender segmentation by industry and occupation. Such biases allow women fewer choices than men and restrict women predominantly to agricultural work, casual work and informal activities.

In South Africa, the formal sector of the economy is the biggest employer of both men and women. On average, there are more males from all racial groups who are in formal employment than females. When it comes to employment by sector, there are relatively more women in the service, trade and financial sectors in South Africa. Over half (51%) of black African employed women and 38% of all employed women work in elementary (unskilled) jobs compared to 36% of black African men and 27% of all men (Budlender, 1998a:19).

Samson (1997:13) notes that, in South Africa, 16% of people performing paid work in 1994 were in the informal sector, of which 70% were female and 79% were black Africans. The vast majority of these women work in survival enterprises. The October household survey (1995, cited by Budlender, 1998a:21) indicates that a larger proportion of women are found in clerical and semi-professional occupations, while a larger proportion of men are in operator and artisan or craft occupations.

2.3.3 Gender segmentation by position

In South Africa, even though there seems to be a growing trend of women making an impact in positions of power, with some of them becoming effective and successful entrepreneurs, the bigger picture is still that women are under-represented at the management level and are over-represented at the unskilled levels. According to Fagenson (1993:5), gender segmentation by position is greatly influenced by such factors as women's level of education, practical work experience, their marital status, affirmative action policies, as well as societal attitudes and women's perceptions of themselves and their role in society and in organisations.

Budlender (1998b:21) shows that, in 1995, 38% of all women in South Africa worked in elementary positions. A fairly large percentage (20%) of women were working as clerks and 12% as service or shop workers. Under a quarter (22%) of the managers were female, with black African women making up only 9%. Bennett (2002:1) notes that at the time of Bennett's study, women in government and parastatal organisations made up 25% of upper management (up from 12.6% in 1998). Despite an increase in the number of black Africans and women in the private sector, men (and particularly white men) still dominate the boardrooms. It is only in the retail sector that women take up 35% of executive positions (compared to fewer than 45% of white men).

2.3.4 Unequal recruitment, employment and development practices

One of the many problems facing women in the labour market is discrimination that is entrenched in organisations' recruitment and employment policies. It is evident that sometimes employers do not always implement positive changes in legislation. Recruitment policies in organisations still often tend to favour men; and women are not considered for some appointments, because of the possibility of their getting married in future and having children. This is confirmed by the questions which are commonly asked during interviews (as experienced by the researcher of this study), such as: 'When do you plan to get married?' or 'When do you plan to have a baby?' Some job advertisements even specify that only male applicants need to apply.

Jacklin and Maccoboy (1974, cited in Hearn & Parkin, 1988:23) claim that women are not psychologically handicapped for management, but are often blocked by institutions' recruitment, hiring and promotion policies, adding: '[W]e have to acknowledge the fact that most women have their first real experience of leadership in the workplace (as supervisors, particularly in the retail sector), meanwhile the majority of men's first experience in this regard tends to be at school and at home.' Erwee (1988:219) argues that companies do not usually plan for their employees' long-term career development, especially in the case of women; and where women are recognized, only a select few benefit. Milwid (1990:20) posits that 'those who went to graduate school – the focus of their

academic programs had been on gathering information and developing skills, but not on applying those skills in real life situations'. This means that leaving school, a technikon or university to enter the place of work (the corporate world) presents an added psychological challenge to women.

2.4 FINANCIAL CONSTRAINTS

2.4.1 Differences in earnings and benefits

In comparison with international standards, South Africa's socio-economic environment illustrates various inequalities. These inequalities are largely based on race and gender. As a product of the apartheid regime, women and black Africans have clustered more in informal activities, which usually generate low earnings and benefits. Despite the new democracy and improved levels of education and job skills in South Africa since 1994, the standardisation of wages has been determined by influences associated with labour market discrimination, low mobility (especially for women), as well as institutional forces (Fallon & Lucas, 1998:1).In general, women earn less than men, as they usually occupy poorly paid positions. Budlender (1998a:19) notes that women earn only between 72% and 85% of what men with a similar level of education earn. This is largely due to the fact that women and men occupy different jobs and work in different sectors of the economy.

Barling and Sorensen (1997) suggest that single working mothers may face more financial strain, less social support and greater work overload than mothers with partners. In terms of financial strain, mothers incur additional 'opportunity costs' as a result of having children, but, as Baylies (1996) points out, in material terms, married women are 'compensated' for these in a way that single mothers are not. The uncertainty and irregularity often associated with maintenance payments means that single working mothers have to meet their housing and household costs on one salary, in contrast with the double salary of dual career households. Formal paid childcare also represents a proportionally larger drain on the total household income for mothers who have to rely on such childcare; and single mothers may indeed have to place greater

reliance on paid childcare. Therefore, 'despite their participation in the workforce, a substantial proportion of single mothers suffer from significant socioeconomic disadvantage, largely as a result of being the sole wage earner in the household' (Avison,1997:661).

2.4.2 Extended-family responsibilities

In the African context, traditional extended-family responsibilities require that family members with financial means must also support those relatives who are in need. This may include the financial care of elderly or sick relatives and the support of needy children of brothers and sisters. In many instances, this practice places an additional financial burden on working dual couples and even more so on employed single mothers.
Additional and ongoing financial burdens are a powerful source of stress for single mothers. Brown and Moran (1997), as well as Hope, Power and Rodgers (1998) have shown that these burdens contribute to single mothers' elevated rates of distress and various disorders, compared to those of married mothers.

2.4.3 Unequal access to socio-economic rights

Amien and Paleker (1997) mention a number of critical factors which contribute to women's unequal access to socio-economic rights. These factors were identified during several poverty hearings convened in all nine provinces of South Africa and reported in *The People's Voices* (1998). These factors included:

the disproportionate share of reproductive work performed by women, particularly in relation to childcare, elderly and sick relatives;
the deep social patterns of gender discrimination;
violence against women;
entrenched gender roles, for example, the rearing of children;
the migrant labour system which relegated women to rural areas, where they have to make a living for themselves and their dependants;

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customary law practices such as polygamy and patriarchal inheritance principles; and

traditional leaders, who prevent women from acquiring land in their own name.

2.5 ORGANISATIONAL CONSTRAINTS

Schein (2007:17) remarks that 'most executive positions, having been occupied predominantly by males since the beginning of industrial society, have been designed under the assumption of a gender-based division of labour' which has the effect of impeding women's progress. Historically, women's place has been limited to the home, where they are wives, child bearers, mothers and homemakers. By contrast, men are the breadwinners and providers.

Burke and Nelson (2002:7) emphasize that the new challenge in the management arena of today's organisations is to foster the advancement of capable women to the ranks of executive leadership. However, according to them, evidence to date suggests that this challenge will be formidable, because competitiveness in the 21st century depends on the quality of management in addressing the stereotypes related to leadership roles in organisations (Burke & Nelson, 2002).

2.5.1 Organisations work along masculine traits

One of the barriers in the promotion of women is the stereotyping attitude that women in leadership positions diverge from the accepted norm of a woman's personality profile (Greyvenstein, 1989:14). It is assumed that women in leadership should emulate masculine behaviour, and suppress their feminine approach to life. These phenomena can best be explained in terms of social role theory and expectation states theory.

Social role theory research has indicated that 'gender-roles spill over to organisational roles' (Eagly & Johnson, 1990:233). The literature on social role

theory and expectation states theory distinguishes between achievement-oriented or 'agentic' and social-service-oriented or communal attributes. Agentic characteristics and behaviours have been documented as assertiveness, ambition, competing for attention and making problem-focused suggestions. Communal behaviours have been described as speaking tentatively, supporting and soothing others, and being helpful and sympathetic (Weyer, 2007:483). Generally, agentic traits are ascribed to men and communal behaviours are ascribed to women. These stereotyped gender roles are biased. From this bias, discrimination toward either of the sexes may arise.

In any case, women and men tend to behave in accordance with the roles and expectations held by their society. One of these contested roles in organisations is leadership, which for centuries has been portrayed as distinctively male in nature (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1998, cited in Weyer, 2007). This explains why most leadership positions are held by men, who structure the organisation and work along masculine traits and needs (Mathur-Helm, 2006). Women are coerced by androcentric perceptions to behave in both a 'masculine' and a 'feminine' way in order to attain leadership (Greyvenstein, 1989:14). Schein (2007) has therefore called for a critical questioning and changing of the assumptions underlying such designs and work environments, to facilitate a work and family interface. She quotes the famous statement by Dr Frene Ginwala, the former speaker of the South African National Assembly, that 'institutions that discriminate are man-shaped and must be made people shaped. Only then will women be able to function as equals within these institutions' (cited in Schein, 2007:18).

2.5.2 Extrinsic organisational barriers

Greyvenstein (1989:21) maintains that 'extrinsic barriers indicate environmental mutables that influence the entry and progress of women. These barriers have been embedded in society's anachronistic attitudes regarding career women, the institutional system of society, the nature of occupational structure' and the bureaucratic and professional characteristics of organisations. Greyvenstein (1989:22) maintains that 'nepotism, chauvinism, women being pushed to leadership positions as just representatives of women's sex, lack of mentors or

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List of research project topics and materials

role models, single-sex networks, family commitments, and work interruptions are among the external factors that are identifiable as barriers to promotion for women'. Burke, 2005, argue that women today want to be economically active, but still encounter a 'glass ceiling'. This glass ceiling means that women can see the opportunities for leadership, but are obstructed by mythical beliefs and philosophies from advancing themselves.

Lastly, Catalyst, 1998, cited in Burke, 2005:16-17 mention the following extrinsic organisational barriers that have a negative effect on working women's expectations and career advancement:

- negative assumptions about women, their abilities and their commitment;
- perceptions that women do not fit into the corporate culture;
- a lack of core opportunities for female employees who have leadership potential;
- the assumption that women would easily relocate for career advancement;
- a failure to make managers accountable for advancing women;
- management's reluctance to give women revenue-generating experience;
- work interruptions, for example, pregnancy, resulting in prolonged absenteeism;
- negative mentoring and self-selection, where women move into staff areas instead of line positions;
- exclusion from informal career networks where men have learned the unwritten rules of success;
- appraisal and compensation systems that are not uniform for men and women;
- corporate or education systems designed prior to women's large-scale entry into the workplace;
- systems measures that do not take into account new policies, such as flexible work arrangements;
- discrimination and sexual harassment; and
- other forms of cultural discouragement, such as a work environment that values long hours over actual performance, or offers limited support for work-family initiatives.

The constraints described above have the potential to leave working women with a sense of failure and frustration. This, in turn may reduce their motivation or commitment and lead to their withdrawal from work (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001). Continuous denial or frustration of working women's aspiration and career expectations also has the potential to create conflict and job stress. Job stress is generally defined in the literature as an employee's feelings of job-related hardness, tension, anxiety, frustration, worry, emotional exhaustion and distress (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997). According to Avison (1997) and Parasuraman and Greenhaus (2002), extensive and enduring job stress may impair an employee's psychological and physical well-being. A lack of psychological well-being is related to feelings of burnout, tension and strain, and poor self-esteem and depression (Mclellan & Uys, 2009:1). Empirical research has demonstrated that burnout has a negative impact on employees' job satisfaction, organisational commitment, extra-role behaviours and in-role behaviours (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004; Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006).

Understanding the relationship between the work environment and employee well-being is therefore important in order to learn how working mothers can be supported to cope with work demands and family demands.

2.5.3 Job characteristics, job stress and employee well-being

It is important to comprehend how job characteristics relate to employee well-being. A large body of research has been done in recent years, exploring the causes and effects of stress on individuals at work. Davidson, Cooper and Baldini (1995), Devanna (1987) and Cooper and Payne (1998) mention the following sources of work-related stress, namely, factors intrinsic to the job, role in the organisation, relationships at work, career development, organisational structure and climate, and the work-to-home interface. Most of these sources of stress are predominantly related to job characteristics. According to Oldham and Hackman (1981), job characteristics pertain to the attributes associated with a particular job and include areas such as job variety, skill variety, job stress, task significance, task identity, and supervision. Using factor analysis,

Cornelissen (2006) identified seven factors that describe different aspects of a job, which are qualified as status, physical strain, autonomy, advancement opportunities, social relations at the workplace, work time and job security. Generally speaking, these factors represent two sets of variables that can be distinguished in any kind of job, namely job demands and job resources. Jones and Fletcher (1996:34) define demands as 'the degree to which the environment contains stimuli that peremptorily require attention and response'.

The relationship between job demands, job resources, job stress and employee well-being can best be explained in terms of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model developed by Demerouti *et al*. (2001) and refined by Bakker *et al.* (2005). An essential proposition of the Job Demands-Resources model is that job characteristics can be organised in two broad categories or two sets of working conditions, namely, job demands and job resources (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli, 2003). A more detailed discussion of the Job Demands-Resources model can be found in Section 3.4.2.

By means of a series of structural equation modelling analyses, Demerouti *et al*. (2001) and Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer and Schaufeli (2003) demonstrated that job demands are unique predictors of burnout (in other words, exhaustion and cynicism) and are indirectly related to the duration of absence from work, whereas job resources are unique predictors of organisational commitment, and indirectly of absenteeism. 'According to the JD-R model, job demands are primarily responsible for health impairment, whereas job resources lead primarily to increased motivation and attachment to work and the organization' (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli, 2003:1).

In a more recent study, Bakker *et al*. (2005:170-180) analysed the interaction between job demands, job resources and burnout. Their results indicate that the combination of high demands and low job resources adds significantly to predicting the core dimensions of burnout (exhaustion and cynicism). Respondents reported high levels of fatigue and demoralization when high job demands coincided with poor job resources. However, the process of interaction can work the other way around too; for example, the negative

influence of job demands on burnout can be mitigated as a result of relevant job resources. Sufficient job resources may enable workers to deal with high job demands and at the same time increase their enthusiasm to put energy into their work (Bakker *et al*., 2005; Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti & Xanthopoulou, 2007).

These findings suggest that the provision of relevant physical, psychological, social and organisational resources seems to be an important variable that 'buffers' the effects of stress on working mothers. These resources are identified and discussed in Section 3.4.

2.5.4 Work-to-home interference

Understanding the relationship between work-to-home interference is important in order to learn how working mothers, and in particular single working mothers, can and should be supported. Much of the debate concerning the stress induced by the work and family demands has focused on the multiple roles a working woman must adopt in order to carry out her responsibilities relating to her work and family (Baxter & Alexander, 2008; Franks *et al.,* 2006; Geurts *et al.,* 2003; Mclellan & Uys, 2009; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008). Research by Galinsky, Bond and Friedman (1993) shows that a substantial proportion of employed parents (40%) experienced problems or conflicts in balancing work and family demands, often referred to as work-to-family conflict, negative work-to-family spillover, work-to-family strain or work-to-home interference (WHI). Constant interference between work and family can hinder a woman's career progression, decrease her satisfaction with her work, interfere with her concentration on the job, increase absenteeism, and even lead to high turnover (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997).

Work-to-family conflict has been defined by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985:77) as 'a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible so that participation in one role [home] is made more difficult by participation in another role [work]'. According

them, work-to-family conflict can take three forms: first, conflict due to an inability to satisfy family and professional role expectations in the time available (time-based conflict); second, conflict due to the sum of efforts which the person must make in the job and family fields (strain-based conflict); and third, conflict due to the incompatibility of behaviours which the person must adopt in both spheres (behaviour-based conflict) (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008). According to Duxbury and Higgins (1991), work-to-family conflict as a source of stress has been correlated with the following dysfunctional negative consequences: increased health risks, poorer performance of the parenting role, decreased productivity, tardiness, absenteeism, turnover, poor morale, reduced life satisfaction, and lower mental health.

Geurts *et al*. (2003) base their definition of work-to-home interference on the Effort-Recovery model of Meijman and Mulder (1998) and define work-to-home interference as an interactive process in which a worker's functioning in one domain (such as the home) is influenced (negatively or positively) by load reactions that have built up in the other domain (for example, at work). Geurts *et al*. (2003) distinguish between negative work-to-home interference and positive work-to-home interference. Negative work-to-home interference is defined as a situation in which negative load effects build up at work and hamper functioning at home. Positive work-to-home interference is defined as positive load reactions built up at work that facilitate functioning at home (Geurts *et al*., 2003). Empirical research has consistently shown that work demands are far more likely to interfere with domestic obligations than the other way around (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992).

Negative work-to-home interference is frequently considered a significant source of stress. An inability to balance work and family roles, in addition to other potential stressors, can influence a person's health. Research indicates that work-to-home conflict can have adverse effects on well-being, leading to anxiety, exhaustion, poor physical health, and insomnia (Frone *et al*., 1992; Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1997; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998). In a recent meta-analysis, Allen, Herst, Bruck and Sutton (2000) have shown that work-to-home

interference was particularly associated with stress-related outcomes, including burnout, work-related stress and depressive complaints. Extensive conflict between work and family roles may thus impair a person's psychological well-being (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 2002). According to this approach, work-to-home interference is perceived as an independent variable that is related to ill health.

In other studies, work-to-home interference has been treated as a dependent variable. From this perspective, negative work-to-home interference is also often considered an outcome of stress or as a stress reaction (strain) caused by work-related stressors, particularly quantitative workload (work pressure, overload and time demands) (Baxter & Alexander, 2008; Geurts *et al.,* 2003). There is reliable evidence that quantitative workload is the most and often the only relevant antecedent of work-to-family conflict (Frone *et al*., 1992; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008). A measurement of negative work-to-home interference can therefore be used as an independent variable (source of stress) and/or as a dependent variable (stress reaction) in understanding the presumed consequences of work-to-home interference on married and single working mothers.

Furthermore, a considerable amount of knowledge has been gathered on the antecedents of positive and negative work-to-home interference. The results of several empirical studies (Bakker & Geurts, 2004; Frone, 2003; Frone *et al*., 1997; Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Geurts *et al*., 2003; Oldfield & Mostert, 2007; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002) support the assumption that job characteristics are associated with negative work-to-home interference and that job demands and a lack of workplace social support and resources could endanger the work-home balance and foster negative work-to-home interference.

Research undertaken in South Africa by Van Aarde and Mostert (2008:8) indicates that negative work-to-home interference is best predicted by job demands (including pressure, overload and time demands) and a lack of job resources (including autonomy, supervisor support, instrumental support and

role clarity). The best predictors for positive work-to-home interference are autonomy, supervisor support and colleague support. These findings are consistent with the results of previous research, such as that of Bakker and Geurts (2004), Frone *et al*. (1997) and Oldfield and Mostert (2007). It was also found that job resources, especially autonomy and social support, have a negative relationship with negative work-to-home interference (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Parasuraman, Purohit & Godshalk, 1996). The practical implications of these findings are that working women may experience positive interaction between their work and family life if they receive sufficient job resources.

2.6 INDIVIDUAL CONSTRAINTS

2.6.1 Intrinsic personal traits and beliefs

In most instances, intrinsic, internal or personal barriers are psychologically inherent and have to do with a person's value system, attitudes, self-belief and personal image. There are so-called female limitations that are deeply ingrained in the traditional and stereotyped attitudes of societies about typically feminine characteristics (Van der Westhuizen 1997:544). Mathipa and Tsoka (2001) list females' poor self-image, lack of assertiveness, less career-orientedness, less confidence and poor performance as barriers to the advancement of women to leadership positions in the education profession, for example.

In society, there are general beliefs about the overall competence and capacity of individuals with a specific characteristic. According to expectation status theory, each status characteristic has its own independent status value and carries a distinctive set of stereotypical traits shared in society through status beliefs (Berger, Rosenholtz & Zelditch, 1980; Weyer, 2007:485). A society that subordinates the status of women to that of men is likely to breed low self-esteem, a lack of assertiveness, less confidence and low aspirations in women. Women may eventually internalise these traits and act out these beliefs in ways that constitute a self-fulfilling prophecy (Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001).

Stereotypical traits and beliefs are internalized through the process of gender socialisation and become part of males' or females' mental functioning and role behaviour. Henslin (1999:76) contends that 'an important part of socialization is the learning of culturally defined gender roles'. Gender roles are reinforced through 'countless subtle and not so subtle ways' and are perpetuated by parents, the extended family, peers and other members of the community, and religion and other complex social institutions. Behaviour is strongly influenced by gender roles when cultures endorse gender stereotypes and form firm expectations based on those stereotypes (Eagly, 1987).

Both the social role theory (see Section 2.2) and expectation status theory argue that gender influences the way people are perceived by others, perceive others, and perceive themselves (Korabik, 1997). How women perceive their gender role and what they believe others expect of them can create role conflict and stereotype threat in specific situations; for example, conforming to internalized role behaviour may clash with the expected behaviour prevalent or required for a particular position. Support for this argument can be found in the following quote from Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001:786): 'Conforming to their gender-role (females) can therefore produce a failure to meet requirements of their leader role, and conforming to their leader role can produce a failure to meet the requirements of their gender-role'. If this situation is not worked through properly, it can create role conflict and become a potential source of stress. Having to cope with dual role expectations not only exposes women to higher strains and stresses than men (Brink & De la Rey, 2001; Morrison, 2005) but also has a negative effect on their performance, due to stereotype threat (Spencer, Steele & Quinn, 1999).

Research indicates that stereotype threat can have a negative effect on performance by increasing anxiety. For example, Spencer *et al.* (1999:4-28) have found that women performed significantly worse than men on a mathematics test when the participants were led to believe that the test would probably produce gender differences. These findings suggest that negative stereotypes can and do negatively affect performance, even when the

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stereotype has not been internalized or incorporated into the person's view of the self.

2.6.2 Female and male expectations

Milwid (1990:9) found that a number of women, when entering the labour market, have preconceived ideas about employment. Milwid (1990) notes that several women think that getting a job would lead to a long-term career commitment. However, at the same time, several secretly hope to stop working and contemplate retiring when they get married. The prospect of getting married could make them reluctant to work towards being promoted to better positions. Milwid (1990:22) also points out that because women are hard-working when it comes to household duties, they usually expected that the workplace also needs people who work hard and do well on the job. Hence, they work very hard in order to gain recognition and keep their jobs, which can then create work-to-home interference and stress.

Adding to women's expectations of their gender role, men also tend to have preconceived stereotyped ideas about women in employment. Milwid (1990:44) notes that these stereotypes fit into two categories. The first is the generalisation about female temperament which assumes that women are by nature too emotional, too nice or too unstable for business. The second pertains to occupational ability, and it is believed that subjects such as finances, electronics and plumbing are inherently beyond the scope of a woman's abilities.

At times, the expectations that men hold about women stem from family roles. Rather than view women as colleagues and equal partners, men tend to see women at work as mothers, sisters and even daughters. While this is true for men, at the same time, women themselves might view their male colleagues as brothers and cousins, as well as seeing them as authority figures, like fathers (Milwid, 1990:45). It should be noted with caution, that as soon as this happens a female professional loses her credibility. Consequently, a female colleague will fail to act independently and challenge her boss and other male colleagues. As soon as the workplace is run like a home, the female professional adjusts herself to a

daughter's role and thus cannot make any major decisions. This shift blocks her way to advancing upwardly into management positions (Milwid, 1990).

2.6.3 Family life and marital status

Drobnic, Blossfeld and Rohwer (1999:133) argue that 'the difficulty of combining employment and family responsibilities remains an obstacle for the achievement of equality in the labour market'. The fact that many people believe women's primary responsibility involves caring for children and other household tasks affects women's occupational choices. In western communities, most women find themselves having to work part-time in order to fulfil their dual responsibilities as both mothers and house-keepers (or wives). Ferguson (1989, cited in Rogers, 1998:38) notes that in societies where male dominance is a dominant culture, the function of serving and caring for men and children is placed in the hands of women. Hence, Du Toit (1992:132) states that 'since the practicing of a professional career requires rigorous work hours, dedication, as well as commitment, the implications of practicing such a career for the married women with children, especially small children, are substantial'. In most instances, the demands posed by being a manager require a woman to disregard her home and family obligations to fulfil the expectations associated with her male-normative management jobs (Martin, 1993:277-278).

Ginn and Sandell's (1997) research into stress experienced by a large sample (1 276) of social services staff found that levels of stress were higher for women with children at home, especially where these children were younger, and that the levels were considerably higher for single mothers compared to those with partners. Levels of stress were also related to employment characteristics. Stress levels were greater where longer hours were worked and for staff whose jobs entailed heavier responsibilities, in other words, those in more senior management and professional positions. Ginn and Sandell (1997) concluded that it was the combination of high levels of responsibility in jobs, together with responsibility for young children and working full-time which generated high stress levels. When all three factors were present, although women with

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partners experienced high levels of stress, the levels experienced by single working mothers were even higher.

In a study of 100 working mothers employed on a full-time basis at a large retail organisation in Durban, South Africa, Patel *et al.* (2006:39-45) did not find evidence that work-family conflict affected the performance of the subjects adversely, although married women reported significantly higher family-work conflict than unmarried women, while women in the highest paid category gained the highest job performance rating. Moreover, Patel *et al.* (2006) found that more than half the sample indicated that paid work was more important than their housework and that working had a positive impact on their families. These authors interpreted this as indicating an acknowledgement of the growing financial contributions that women are making to their homes. Patel *et al*. (2006:44) also regarded the fact that more than half of the sample did not think that they would be better mothers if they stayed at home as proof of the growing number of women who resist the traditional roles foisted upon them by society and who no longer define their identities in terms of these roles.
In a qualitative and quantitative study of 20 single working mothers, Gill and Davidson (2001:393) found that

> the majority of women in the sample reported problems in combining work and family responsibilities. The two main difficulties reported were lack of time, and tiredness and lack of energy. The single mothers surveyed experienced high levels of role conflict, in balancing the competing demands of work and family, and high levels of work overload in terms of the sheer volume of what they had to do. The two main sources of stress reported by the women in the sample were the volume of work they had to do in terms of the number of demands placed upon them, and the weight of responsibility they felt for their families.

Gill and Davidson (2001) also found that the single women in their sample suffered a degree of social isolation and exclusion. Nearly half of the women sampled felt excluded from a prevailing 'couples culture' and were seldom invited to mixed gatherings. Some reported that they were perceived as a 'threat' by other women. The pressures resulting from being a member of a

minority group have been well documented (Davidson & Cooper, 1992), but mainly in relation to other contexts. The pressures inhibit single mothers' opportunities for recreation and social activities, and may be an additional source of stress for them.

2.7 OTHER RESTRICTIONS AND STRESSORS

2.7.1 Absence of childcare support

Amongst the multiple life roles that women perform today, the most common one is clearly that of mother. Therefore it should come as no surprise that many working women like to, even where they do not have to, rely on social support to assist them with their childcare responsibilities (Franks *et al*., 2006:17). However, as Reskin and Padavic (1994) correctly state, women's increasing participation in the paid workforce has reduced the number of relatives available for childcare substantially. This, in turn, has resulted in a situation where women attempt to deal with childcare demands either by relying on organised childcare facilities, or by undertaking changes in their personal employment style, such as working from home or working part-time. In addition to bearing the responsibility for providing adequate childcare to their children, women may also experience feelings of guilt if they do not at least devote some of their free time to this task. Some women may therefore reduce their amount of sleep or free time, resulting in the accumulation of strain and stress.

Halford, Savage and Witz (1997), who studied women in banking, nursing and local government careers, have found that a substantial percentage (17-45%) of the women in these professions either rely on partners or family members for childcare. For single working mothers, relying on partners is not an option. While some single mothers may leave their children in villages with their grandmothers, many single mothers, perhaps especially the more educated and sophisticated ones, would prefer to have their children living with them for better parental guidance, thus forcing them to rely more on paid helpers or daycare, both of which mean higher financial strain. Gill and Davidson (2001) posit that these conclusions add a useful dimension to the simplistic model explaining

single mothers' low rates of full-time working as being due to lack of available and affordable childcare. Perhaps another contributing factor is the greater workload a single mother experiences in terms of home responsibility, making part-time working, in a lower level job (although less economically advantageous) more achievable in terms of levels of stress and consequent costs to health.

2.7.2 Ethnic barriers

Much of what is said by Gill and Davidson (2001) about single working mothers in the British context is also applicable to the single working mothers in South Africa. However, in addition, single mothers in South Africa suffer other dysfunctionalities which are a long-term result of the discrimination and racial oppression experienced predominantly by black Africans during the apartheid era. Although black African women are encouraged by the Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998d) to enter into the formal labour market and into managerial ranks, black African women in particular are more likely to experience high levels of work-related stress because of their lack of training and the negative impact of gender discrimination on the adjustment of women. Using the conservation-of-resources model of stress (Hobfoll, 1989, 1998), Van den Berg and Van Zyl (2008) examined the differences in the experience of work-related stress and exposure to work-related stressors among South African career women of different ethnic groups. Stressors in the South African environment for women, and especially for black African women, are legion. These stressors range from gender-related roles and responsibilities, current financial pressures as they affect living conditions, to the work environment, which is filled with hardships, frustrations and discrimination which women have to face.

Pretty, McCarthy and Catano (1992, cited in Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008:18) note that women tend to be more sensitive to the quality of work relationships and that problems with co-workers have a more negative impact on female workers. Exclusion from male-dominated networks, a lack of social support and difficulty in finding same-sex mentors all contribute to additional strain in female

workers. Black African women may experience a greater sense of isolation because of differences between their culture and the dominantly white, westernised culture in many organisations. Van den Berg and Van Zyl (2008) found that in a group of 732 South African women working in administrative, semi-professional, professional and managerial positions there were significant differences in the level of stress reported, with black African women reporting the highest level of stress. Stressors pertaining to a lack of infrastructure and resources in the environment contributed significantly to the stress experienced by black African women. All four groups reported discontent with their remuneration and fringe benefits.

2.7.3 Sexual harassment

The Unit for Gender Research in Law (UGRL) at the University of South Africa (UNISA) (1998:169) states that 'studies in the US and UK have shown that more than 50% of working women have at one time or another in their working lives been subjected to unwelcome sexual advances in the workplace'. This scenario is equally likely in South Africa, where the chances are that the incidence of such harassment may be even higher, and has been estimated to be affect as many as 70% of women (Unit for Gender Research in Law – UNISA, 1998:169).

According to World of Work (1997:9), sexual harassment is defined as 'any unwanted conduct of a sexual nature which interferes with the recipient's work; is made a condition of employment or creates an intimidating, hostile or offensive working environment'. Research shows that victims of sexual harassment experience a wide range of emotional reactions, namely, humiliation, self-doubt, self-blame, loss of confidence, anger and severe depression (Fitzgerald, 1993; Landrine & Klonoff, 1997), resulting in negative work outcomes, notably, reduced productivity and team work, all of which have an impact on organisational effectiveness. It also leads to lower morale and reduced employee loyalty, court settlements and a tarnished organisational image.

As a result of the widespread prevalence of sexual harassment and its negative consequences, various authors have recommended both preventative and intervention strategies. These strategies include the early identification and effective management of sexual harassment, as well as strategies for minimising the negative impact of different forms of sexual harassment (see, example, Ramsaroop & Brijball Parumasur, 2007:32-33).

2.7.4 Violence against women

According to the World Health Organisation (WHO, 2002), violence against women is a burning issue worldwide. It is an important public health problem, as it is one of the contributing factors to a high mortality rate among women. In a review of the global scope and magnitude of violence against women, Watts and Zimmerman (2002, cited in Oosthuizen & Wissing, 2005) indicate that a minimum of 10%, and up to 50%, of women who have ever had partners have been hit or otherwise physically assaulted by a partner at some point in their lives.

The array of violence perpetrated against women includes physical violence, physical and sexual violence, psychological violence, emotional and financial abuse, intimidation, isolation and rape. Women who are exposed to these forms of abuse and violence are known to suffer many physical outcomes and symptoms of psychological distress, such as depression, post-traumatic stress disorder and a lack of self-esteem (Ramos, Carlson, & McNutt, 2004; Waldrop & Resick, 2004).

In a study aimed at establishing the prevalence of violence and its impact in a sample of women in the North West Province of South Africa, Oosthuizen and Wissing (2005) present some startling statistics. Their results indicated that in a random sample of 387 women, 62.53% indicated that they had experienced some form of violence, while 42.37% reported that they experienced violence regularly to very often. From the various forms of violence experienced, emotional abuse was experienced most often (15.7%), followed by intimidation and isolation (10.75%), physical abuse (9.40%), economic abuse (7.60%),

victimisation (6.12%) and other forms of abuse (4.15%). It was also found that women who have at some point experienced violence showed significantly more distress symptoms than women who had never experienced violence. Women who had experienced violence displayed lower levels of a sense of coherence and satisfaction with life, and scored significantly lower in terms of quality of life in the domains of work, home, neighbourhood, work, play, love, relatives, home and community (Oosthuizen & Wissing, 2005:644-648).

In addition to indicating the seriousness and urgency of this problem to womanhood in the South African context, another important finding of Oosthuizen and Wissing's (2005) study which is consistent with the thrust of this dissertation is that while violence against women seems to be equally prevalent in all socio-economic classes, women who are separated but not divorced experienced the highest frequency of violence. Many single mothers fall into this class. Given the prevalence and the impact of violence against women, as with the problem of sexual harassment, both preventative and intervention strategies are urgently needed.

2.7.5 Women and HIV/AIDS

A study by Outwater, Abrahams and Campbell (2005) concludes that South Africa faces many challenges, of which high rates of violence and HIV are among the most critical. According to them, these two challenges are promoted by gender. While the prevalence of violence against women has already been discussed above, the bases of such conclusions with regard to HIV/AIDS are examined here. No country in the world is immune to the HIV/AIDS pandemic. However, South Africa stands out as having one of the highest caseloads and rates of HIV/AIDS infection in the world. More than 20% of the adult population is living with HIV/AIDS (fully 10% of the world's HIV cases), more than half of which are women. It is believed that there are already 420 000 orphans due to HIV/AIDS in South Africa (UNAIDS, 2002). The alarming rate of infection can be gleaned from the rapid rise in HIV seroprevalence among first-time antenatal clinic attendees in South Africa, which rose from 0.76% in 1990 to 10% in 1995 to 24% in 2000 (Abdool-Karim, 2001). There are approximately 4.7 million to 5.3

million HIV-infected South Africans. Outwater *et al*. (2005) attribute this high infection rate to a culture of violence in which intimate partner sexual violence is the norm (Abrahams, 2002), thus linking violence to the spread of HIV/AIDS. The intersection between intentional violence and HIV/AIDS is attributed to historical, socio-economic, cultural and social causes. Each of these is briefly highlighted below.

The creation of the homelands as reserves of labour by the apartheid regime and the necessary migration of labour to cities and the mines for employment meant that migrant labourers left their wives behind, thus encouraging the migrant labourers to engage in extra-marital affairs, leading to a high rate of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) and HIV/AIDS. This is additionally fuelled by socio-economic factors such as poverty, migrant labour, commercial sex workers, the low status of women, illiteracy and a lack of formal education (Republic of South Africa, 2001).

One of the consequences of decades of apartheid state-sponsored violence and reactive community insurrection is that, for many people, physical violence has become a first-line strategy for resolving conflict and gaining ascendancy. According to researchers, violence is used in a variety of settings: in disputes between neighbours, in work settings (Abrahams, 2002), in healthcare settings (Jewkes, Abrahams & Mvo, 1998) and against the elderly (Keikelame & Ferreira, 2000). Intimate partner sexual violence is a common means of asserting masculinity (Leclerc-Madlala, 1997). South Africa had the highest ratio of reported rape cases per 100 000 people in the 1990s, a figure which continued to escalate in the 2000s, as people even turned to raping babies and goats as a cure for HIV/AIDS. The proportion of women raped or subjected to physical violence in 1998 who described themselves as abused ranged from 46% to 68% (Jewkes, Penn-Kekana, Levin, Ratsaka & Schrieber, 1999). It was found that male violence and coercive practices dominate sexual relationships, with the conditions and timing of sex defined by males through the use of violence and other means to which especially teenage girls were expected to submit.

Cultural and social relations, intertwined with violence, play a part in the spread of HIV/AIDS. Studies on the sexual behaviour of South African teenagers have shown that many young people are already sexually active in their early teens (14 to 16 years for girls and 13 to 14 years for boys). Also, young women are encouraged to become pregnant by their partners to demonstrate love, fertility and womanhood. Other social relations include the acceptance of cohabitation, where relationships are mostly casual. Some women submit to the double standard that implies that having multiple partners is a man's right. Violence or the perceived threat of violence seems to be a strong deterrent to women's adopting contraceptive measures, compounding the risk of vaginal and/or anal trauma and that of HIV/AIDS transmission (Abdool-Karim, 2001; Maman, Campbell, Sweat & Gielen, 2000).

An evaluation of the Domestic Violence Act, Act 116 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998b) shows that despite the legislation designed to protect them, women continue to receive very little support from the criminal justice system (Mathews & Abrahams, 2001). The legal aid system needs to be become more accessible and needs to be revised to speed up help for battered women. The police are being urged to be trained in the new legislation and in gender sensitivity. Mathews and Abrahams (2001) also suggest that an understanding of violence against women and strategies for inquiry into the situation of and assistance for abused women must be incorporated into the curriculum for training and clinical practice of midwives, doctors and mental health workers (Jewkes, Levin & Penn-Kekana, 2001). Employing more social workers, building shelters and providing social benefits are additional ways of coping with sexually-related violence. Those affected and infected with HIV/AIDS need access to the full scope of counselling, medication and support.

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2.8 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the constraints to the advancement of women, and in particular the problems and stressors that working women in professional and management careers in South Africa experience, were identified and discussed. Furthermore, the possible effects of these constraints and stressors on working women's emotional well-being and performance were examined.

Until the late 1970s, women remained virtually invisible as leaders and managers and their absence was generally considered a non-issue. A comparative review of the literature over the last two-and-half decades shows no new evidence to suggest that the perceptions and expectations by outsiders of the role of mother and executive has progressed significantly (Mclellan & Uys, 2009). Most of the constraints, problems and stressors that female workers experience are deeply entrenched in rigid stereotyped views of the roles of women versus those of men. Stereotyped gender roles remain at the core of modern society's attitudes and philosophies about women and men.

On the strength of the literature review, a model was conceptualised to illustrate the constraints, problems and stressors that have an effect on working women's work performance, family interaction and their physical and emotional well-being (see Figure 2.1, overleaf).

The model demonstrates various barriers and stressors in the micro-, meso- and macro-environment that have an impact on working mothers' work, family and personal behaviour. The stressor variables are interrelated and have the potential to have a negative impact on the individual, team and organisational outcomes. The inter-relationship of the factors is illustrated by means of the systems approach in Figure 2.1.

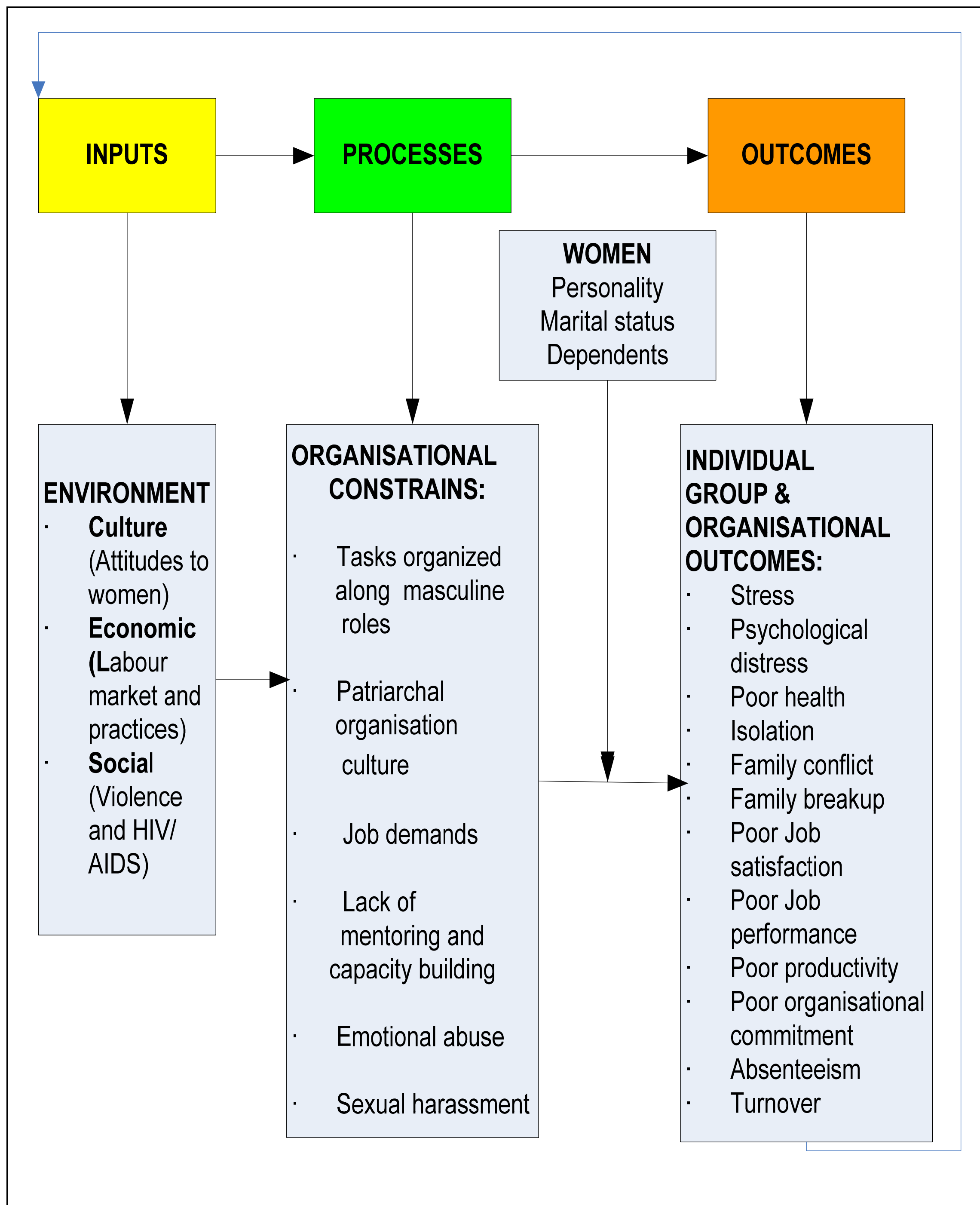

Figure 2.1: Constraints, problems and stressors that affect working women's performance

The micro-factors include individual variables, for example, intrinsic personal traits and beliefs, female and male expectations, family life and marital states and ethnicity.

The meso-factors include organisational variables such as extrinsic organisational barriers, job characteristics and negative work-to-home interference. These include a patriarchal organisational culture, a lack of

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capacity building and conceptual understanding of gender mainstreaming, a lack of equity targets and the absence of support from management, an insufficient number of female role models, job demands, negative assumptions about women's abilities and their commitment, a lack of social support, childcare problems, sexual harassment and violence against women.

The macro-factors include cultural and societal variables, labour market and labour policy variables, violence and HIV/AIDS.

The macro- and meso-variables can generate high levels of stress-related outcomes. These outcomes can have a significant negative impact on working women's work-related attitudes and behaviour, and may affect their health, personal life, and the overall well-being of working women, their families and society.

The effects of these factors are mediated by the personality of women and their marital status.

In general the findings of the studies reviewed in Chapter 2 can be summarised as follows:

The feminisation of the South African labour market poses serious challenges for both the workplace and the home. Studies have shown that both situations interactively affect each other, for good or for ill, especially for more than 40% of working mothers, and, in particular, for single working mothers.

The work-home interface creates conflict for working women with children because of the different role expectations and demands on their time. Single working mothers experience more stress and suffer more from exhaustion (tension and strain) due to family-work expectations than other working women do. A substantial body of literature shows that single working mothers suffer disproportionately higher rates of major depressive disorders and substantially elevated levels of psychological distress, compared to married mothers.

Some studies have shown that in situations where job resources are available, such as autonomy, supervisory support, instrumental support and role clarity, the positive effect created at work may spill over to the home domain. Hence, working mothers in some of the studies indicated that paid work was more important to them than their housework and that working had a positive impact on their families.

Studies have also confirmed that professional women with children at home often experience severe time-based family-work conflicts and stress, and that this applies more to single working mothers than to their partnered counterparts.

Other employment factors such as working for longer hours and being in full-time jobs with heavy responsibilities merely exacerbate the levels of stress experienced by mothers in the workplace. On the home front, the dominance of the husband and the level of trust and respect, and the availability of social support and childcare facilities are factors which can either jeopardise or enhance the careers of women.

There are significant differences in the levels of stress reported by women in the different racial groups in South Africa, with black African women reporting the highest level of stress.

In conclusion, if the hopes placed on women's contributions to development are to be realized, support strategies or interventions should be put in place to mitigate the negative effects of strenuous job demands, hostile organisational climates and a society still steeped in male chauvinism and sexism. Applicable resources must be available and ensured in order to decrease high levels of pressure and stress that may have a negative impact on the performance of working mothers. The next chapter examines the responses by government and organisations in supporting and empowering women in South Africa.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW OF THE ACTS, PROCEDURES, SYSTEMS AND PRACTICES THAT GOVERNMENT AND ORGANISATIONS USE TO SUPPORT WORKING WOMEN

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 has clearly shown that the feminisation of the labour market in South Africa, especially from 1994 onwards, has brought with it significant opportunities, as well as some problems. The opportunities include the opportunities for and participation of women in the political and economic life of the nation as never before. This is in itself an index of development, as women represent more than half of the population of the nation. However, the process of feminisation has also exacerbated the problems of balancing work and home responsibilities, a phenomenon which is not unique to South Africa, but common to all modern economies. Using a multi-disciplinary approach, Chapter 2 has highlighted the variety of problems which women face, ranging from problems embedded in the society, to those inherent in the nature of organisations as well as in the individual women themselves. From the discussion in Chapter 2, it is clear that something drastic has to be done, if the potential contributions of women are to be fully realised. This chapter is a critical review of the range of various acts, procedures, systems and practices used by government and organisations to support working women.

As has been shown in Chapters 1 and 2, the percentage of women in the population, coupled with the discrimination and oppression which they suffer at work and at home, are factors which have induced the ruling party to place the liberation and emancipation of women high on the political agenda since 1994. Changes in the demography of the workforce, such as the rapid feminisation of the labour market, the rise of dual income-career families and the more than 3 million single parents, all add to the pressures for organisations, both private and public, to recognise the role of women in general and the salience of work and family issues in particular. In the section which follows, the interventions

used by government and organisations to address women's issues and provide support to working mothers are documented.

For a better understanding of these interventions, the chapter synthesises them into a conceptual framework, using the systems perspective, which incorporates inputs, processes, outputs and feedback mechanisms. Consequently, this chapter is divided into two main parts. The first part provides a review of the legislative interventions and structural mechanisms designed to deal with women's issues and emancipation from the perspective of government. The second part examines the nature of support which organisations can or should provide for women in the light of the problems facing women in these workplaces. The efforts of both government and the private sector are then assessed critically.

3.2 LEGISLATION AND POLICIES SUPPORTING WORKING WOMEN IN SOUTH AFRICA

Apart from being an employer of labour itself, the role of government in society is to protect and promote the welfare and well-being of its citizens. In fulfilling these roles, government is divided into its legislative, executive and judiciary functions. The legislative arm of government enacts laws, while the executive administers the affairs of the State and the judiciary looks after the administration of justice, safety and security of the nation and its citizens.

Women constitute an oppressed group which is discriminated against in all societies – the situation in South Africa is no exception. In Chapter 1, it was noted that women's emancipation became a priority for the new democratic government. The ruling party's unequivocal link between women's liberation and the liberation of society as a whole was expressed by President Nelson Mandela himself. Government's avowed stance was translated and incorporated into several laws over the years. Since 1994, South Africa has passed more than twenty laws designed to empower women directly or indirectly (see Table 3.1).

However, in the employment relationship, four documents stand out in their concern for the emancipation of all and, especially of women, from oppression and discrimination. These are the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996a), the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, Act 75 of 1997 (Republic of South Africa, 1997a) and the Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998d) and the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act, Act 4 of 2000 (Republic of South Africa, 2000a). Other documents relevant to women's emancipation are Government White Papers, some of which are also reviewed in this chapter. The significance of these documents is discussed.

3.2.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996

At the dawn of independence, feminists formed the Women's National Coalition in 1992, consisting of 54 South African women's groups which strove to ensure that women, by law, received equal rights and opportunities in the new South Africa (Mufweba, 2003:15). The Women's Charter for Effective Equality was drawn up in 1993, followed by the ratification of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women in 1995. The role of women also featured prominently in the African National Congress's (ANC's) fundamental document, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) in 1994, and in recognition of the heroic struggle of women in the fight against apartheid, August 9 was declared National Women's Day (Mufweba, 2003).

The results of women's lobby groups and international pressures manifested themselves, among other forms, in the firm entrenchment of gender equality in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996a), where Section 9(1) states that 'Everybody is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law'. Chapter 2 of the Constitution, Section 9 (3) states, *inter alia*: 'The State may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture,

language or birth'. In sub-section 9(5), the Constitution maintains that 'discrimination is unfair unless it is established that the discrimination is fair'. These provisions of the 1996 Constitution clearly indicate that neither the State nor any other person can disadvantage qualified women by excluding them from influential and managerial positions in the South African public service: 'Fair discrimination that promotes equal opportunity is regarded as legitimate when applied to the advancement of women and other previously disadvantaged groups' (Republic of South Africa, 1996a).

Several other Acts and policies were enacted to further the objective of section 9(2) of the 1996 Constitution, principal among which are the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, Act 75 of 1997 (Republic of South Africa, 1997a) and the Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998d), both of which are briefly discussed below.

3.2.2 Basic Conditions of Employment Act, Act 75 of 1997

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act was intended to transform the South African labour dispensation. Its aim was to improve basic conditions of employment, thereby giving effect to the rights to fair labour practices enshrined in the Constitution. It covers domestic workers, public and private sector employees, temporary and part-time employees and contract workers.

The core dimensions of the Act relating specifically to women are working time and overtime, maternity leave, alternative employment before and after birth, special precautions before and after birth and family responsibility leave.

Working time and overtime

The Act stipulates that an employee may not work more than 45 hours per week and may not work overtime for more than three hours a day, or ten hours a week. The regulation of working time and overtime is a significant improvement for women, especially in the service sector, which is characterised by long working hours.

Maternity leave

While the Basic Conditions of Employment Act generally regulates leave periods, it specifically acknowledges and entrenches a women's right to a minimum of four months maternity leave, thereby securing her employment for that period. This means that during maternity leave, women are entitled to receive all their employment benefits, including promotions and bonuses. In the event of a stillbirth or miscarriage during the third trimester, women are also entitled to maternity leave for a period of six weeks. According to Amien and Paleker (1997:375), this reflects an enlightened attitude towards women, because it takes cognizance of the physical and emotional changes which accompany pregnancy, as well as the trauma resulting from the loss of a foetus. The Basic Conditions of Employment Act also provides that during maternity leave, women employees must be remunerated in terms of the Unemployment Insurance Act, Act 63 of 2001 (Republic of South Africa, 2001b).

Alternative employment before and after birth

During pregnancy and for six months after birth, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act enjoins an employer, where practicable, to offer a woman employee alternative employment if she performs night work, or if the work poses a health risk to herself or her unborn child. Amien and Paleker (1997:376) are of the opinion that the prerequisites for securing alternative employment are rather narrow and the qualification 'where practicable' is broad and leans more towards benefiting the employer.

Special precautions before and after birth

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act mandates employers to take special precautions to protect the health and safety of pregnant and lactating mothers. This is supplemented by a Code of Good Practice for employers, which outlines measures to be implemented by employers to minimise the risk of harm to pregnant and breast-feeding employees. The Code also identifies and assesses the various types of potential hazard in the workplace and the manner and degree to which pregnancy may affect the employee's ability to work.

Family responsibility leave

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act entitles an employee, subject to certain qualifications, to three days paid leave, on the birth, sickness or death of that employee's child. The employee is also entitled to the same period on the death of either her or his spouse or life partner, parents, grandparents, grandchildren and siblings.

3.2.3 The Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998

The cardinal objective of Employment Equity Act was to further the aims of the 1996 Constitution in promoting equity. However, as Amien and Paleker (1997) argue, equity is not possible if men and women competing for the same position are not equal due to previous policies that were not gender-sensitive. These authors suggest that equity could be promoted by providing equal opportunities in promotions and training for women and also conditions of employment favourable to women's employment and career advancement. To address the existing imbalance and to ensure that women are afforded managerial positions in the public service, the Employment Equity Act prescribes the implementation of affirmative action. In terms of section 15(2) of this Act, policies implementing affirmative action are also expected to eliminate employment barriers to and unfair discrimination against women, as well as other designated groups (Amien & Paleker, 1997).

The Employment Equity Act is specifically aimed at

- creating workplace equity among all individuals, as well as ensuring the equal representation of designated employees in the workplace;
- promoting equal opportunities and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination; and
- stipulating that designated employers should introduce affirmative action measures designed to ensure that suitably qualified people from designated groups are afforded equal employment opportunities and are equitably represented in all occupational categories and levels (Hassan, 1999:15).

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Women-friendly aspects which could be used to ensure their rightful position in the labour market, as provided by the Employment Equity Act are

- the prohibition of unfair discrimination (Chapter 2 of the Act);
- the promotion of equal opportunity in the workplace by eliminating unfair discrimination in any employment policy or practices (section 5 of the Act);
- the abolition of any form of discrimination on any ground (section 6(1) of the Act).

Chapter 3 makes provision for affirmative action to be enforced in the workplace, which includes broadening the criteria for recruitment and selection to include formal qualifications, prior learning, relevant experience and capacity to acquire the ability to do the job, which are aspects that cater particularly for women.

Although the Employment Equity Act requires close monitoring and evaluation on an annual basis, a major criticism of the Act is that it only caters for larger organisations (those that employ 50 and/or more employees), and excludes the small organisations where women employees are in the majority.

3.2.4 The White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service, 1998

The White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service (Republic of South Africa 1998e:4) defines affirmative action as 'the additional corrective steps which must be taken in order that those who have been historically disadvantaged by unfair discrimination are able to derive full benefit from an equitable employment environment'. Unlike the Employment Equity Act of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998d), which focuses on all employment sectors, the 1998 White Paper on Affirmative in the Public Service focuses specifically on the public service, an environment that is unique in comparison to other sectors. It sets out mandatory requirements and guides the public service on how to implement affirmative action for the benefit of women and other designated groups. It also identifies role players and responsibilities such as accountability,

monitoring, reporting and coordination, thus ensuring compliance with the proper procedures in advancing women to managerial positions in the public service.

3.2.5 The White Paper on Human Resources Management in the Public Service

This White Paper (Republic of South Africa, 1997b) focuses on two important aspects relating to the advancement of women to managerial positions, namely, recruitment and diversity management, both of which aim at achieving equity and diversity in an environment where men have predominated in the past. Diversity management is important in order for male employees to value gender differences and appreciate the important contribution that women can make in the workplace. On the other hand, the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (Republic of South Africa, 1995a:41-43) provides guidelines for departmental affirmative action programmes, and denounces tokenism and reverse discrimination against men.

3.2.6 Other Acts

Since 1994, South Africa has passed more than twenty pieces of legislation designed to empower women. They cover important issues such as the family, legal rights, employment, health, property, education and training (see Table 3.1, overleaf). Note that a discussion of all these Acts falls beyond the scope of this study, but that they are listed here for the sake of completeness. The discussion focuses mainly on those Acts and documents that are marked as Code 3 (Employment). Only the Acts in Code 3 are fully referenced.

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Table 3.1: Summary of important legislation introduced to empower women in South Africa since the 1994 general democratic elections

YEAR	LEGISLATION	CODE
CODE	1 Family; 2 Legal; 3 Employment; 4 Health; 5 Property; 6 Education and Training	
1995	Labour Relations Act, Act 66 of 1995	3
1996	National Education Act, Act 27 of 1996	6
1997	Marriage Act, Act 50 of 1997	1
	Divorce Courts Amendment Act, Act 65 of 1997	1
	Criminal Procedure Amendment Act, Act 75 and 85 of 1997	2
	Criminal Law Amendment Act, Act 105 of 1997	2
	Unemployment Insurance Act, Act 63 of 2001	3
	Basic Condition of Employment Act, Act 75 of 1997	3
	Choice of Termination of Pregnancy Act, Act 92 of 1997	4
	Housing Act, Act 107 of 1997	5
	Land Restitution and Reform Laws Amendment Act, Act 63 of 1997	5
	Higher Education Act, Act 101 of 1997	6
1998	Maintenance Act, Act 99 of 1998	1
	Domestic Violence Act, Act 116 of 1998	1
	Recognition of Customary Marriages Act, Act 99 of 1998	1
	Adoption Matter Amendment Act, Act 56 of 1998	1
	Witness Protection Act, Act 112 of 1998	2
	Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998	3
	Labour Relations Amendment Act, Act 127 of 1998	3
	National Water Act, Act 36 of 1998	5
	Prevention of Illegal Eviction from and Unlawful Occupation of Land Act, Act 19 of 1998	5
	Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998	6
	Further Education and Training Act, Act 98 of 1998	6
1999	Prevention of Organised Crime Amendment Act, Act 24 of 1999	2
	Reform Laws Amendment Act, Act 18 of 1999	5
	National Student Financial Aid Scheme Act, Act 56 of 1999	6
2000	The Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act, Act 4 of 2000	3

3.2.7 Appraisal of these Acts

Studies by Van Zyl and Roodt (2003) and Cilliers and Stone (2005) assessing the effectiveness of employment equity policies have reported contrasting results. One of the objectives of Van Zyl and Roodt's (2003) study was to determine if there were gender differences with regard to perceptions of employment equity practices in a sample of 4 729 participants from different companies and industries, using items from the Employment Equity Questionnaire. Reviewing studies from across the globe, they came to the conclusion that it 'seemed internationally that the Equal Employment Opportunity [policy] had not worked that well', adding that, while legislation has brought the discrimination to the fore, it cannot curb 'systemic discrimination' (Van Zyl & Roodt, 2003:15).

By contrast, the study by Cilliers and Stone (2005) focused on five white HR managers in three South African Information Technology (IT) companies. It used in-depth interviews, a method which was able 'to penetrate the illusion in order to get to the reality underlying the illusion' (Higgs & Smith, 2003:76, cited in Cilliers & Stone, 2005). In particular, their study was able to reveal that all was not well with the implementation of affirmative action in the companies studied. It showed that the employees were polarised into those who fear losing power and those who see affirmative action as an opportunity to further their growth and development. In particular, the system generated much anxiety among whites who are skilled, and feared losing their competitive edge to black Africans. Conversely, the black Africans put in positions of responsibility without corresponding training support felt abandoned and betrayed. Those in the Human Resources department who were promoting the scheme became scapegoats and were caught between the two camps. In short, the system was so filled with paranoia, blaming and name-calling that the laudable objectives of affirmative action were lost in the process.

Cilliers and Stone (2005) concluded that the employment equity policies (EEPs) in the three IT organisations were not working effectively. Even though they were approved by management, planned and implemented by the Human

Resources departments with good intentions, the irrational attitudes held by the various groups towards each other 'derailed and deconstructed the good intent and plans to a situation where the EEP became a forum where the different subgroups played out their power struggle' (Cilliers & Stone, 2005:55).

3.3 FORMAL STRUCTURES TO SUPPORT WORKING WOMEN IN SOUTH AFRICA

In order to deal effectively with gender issues, the government of South Africa decided to establish structures whose function it was to mainstream a gender perspective into every relevant aspect of government at all spheres. The Group of Specialists on Mainstreaming defined it as '(re)organisation, improvement, development and evaluation of policy processes so that gender equality perspective is incorporated in all policies at all levels and at all stages, by actors normally involved in policy making' (cited in Adams, 2003:26). Adams (2003) refers to various structures responsible for this task, including governmental and non-governmental structures. The most important of these are discussed below.

3.3.1 Structures at government level

There are four main government structures, namely the National Office on the Status of Women, the Provincial Office on the Status of Women, Gender Focal Units and Ministry for Women, Children and People with Disabilities.

3.3.1.1 National Office on the Status of Women (NOSW)

Established in 1997 and located in the Office of the President, the functions of the NOSW include formulating a gender policy, coordinating and facilitating the implementation of government policy and programmes on gender in government.

3.3.1.2 Provincial Office on the Status of Women (POSW)

It was expected that a similar structure to the NOSW would be duplicated on a provincial level and housed in the Office of the Premier.

3.3.1.3 Gender Focal Units (GFU)

These are units established in all government departments. Their main role is mainstreaming gender into their various departments. The work of the GFUs is coordinated by the Office on the Status of Women at both the national and the provincial levels.

3.3.1.4 Ministry for Women, Children and People with Disabilities

This ministry was created in May 2009 to draft a gender equity bill with the aim of speeding up gender transformation in all spheres of society. According to the ministry the gender equity bill will have "enforcing mechanisms" to persuade the private sector to comply with equity targets. ‘This could include fining companies in South Africa who do not meet the desired gender equity target’ (Davis, 2010:1).

3.3.2 Parliamentary structures and committees

These committees are the primary vehicles for vigorous debate in Parliament, and have immense power to change or reject legislation. Some of the most important ones are :

the *Joint Monitoring Committee* on the improvement of quality of life and status of women*;*

The *Parliamentary Women’s Group* whose activities include capacity building for women in Parliament; lobbying and caucusing around key legislation for women; mobilising women in Parliament across party lines, in respect of gender issues; assisting the provinces in establishing similar

structures; and providing a link between women in government and civil society; and

the *Women's Empowerment Unit*, which is located in the office of the Speaker of the Gauteng Legislature, but has national scope. Its function is to identify and address the specific factors which hinder women from participating fully in the law-making process and to identify appropriate intervention strategies, including training and capacity building for women Parliamentarians at all levels, a function which serves to enhance the performance of Parliamentarians (Amien & Paleker, 1997:390).

3.3.3 Independent structures for promoting gender equality

A Commission for Gender Equality (CGE) was established in 1997, with the constitutional mandate to promote respect for, and strive to attain, gender equality. It has many functions, some of which are 'making recommendations to government for promoting gender equality, public education and information, and investigating inequality as well as monitoring and evaluating the policies and practices of government and private institutions. Its mandate includes resolving gender-related disputes, investigating inequality' and the commissioning of research (Adams, 2003:31).

In commenting on the status of women in Parliament at the national and provincial levels, Amien and Paleker (1997) argue that women are still 'severely under-represented', considering that about 52% of the population consists of women. The problem of under-representation is even worse at the local levels. Some of the reasons for the low representation include a male-dominated environment, which prevents women from delivering their full potential in the law-making and policy-making processes. Another reason is that the structures and resources necessary to transform Parliament into a more gender-sensitive institution are compromised by a lack of budgetary allocations, a lack of staffing and a lack of recognition and support for women's initiatives.

In his incisive study of the Western Cape Province, Adams (2003) notes several weaknesses in the Western Cape Office on the Status for Women and Gender Focal units, such as

- political problems (political marginalisation of gender structures, a bureaucratic culture of opposition or indifference to women issues);
- management and structural problems (a lack of financial and human resources, inefficiency, a fragmentation of administrative organisation within and between government departments and various structures of the gender machinery); and
- economic problems (budgetary constraints).

Other problems identified include a lack of capacity building and conceptual understanding of gender mainstreaming and heavy workloads, with gender work as merely an add-on and, lastly, the absence of support from management (Adams, 2003).

Amien and Paleker (1997) conclude that for women to be given equal opportunities to share in South Africa's socio-economic life, gender obstacles must be removed by, *inter alia*,

- improving the level of social assistance for child support;
- intensifying efforts to make the private maintenance system more effective;
- mobilising private sector resources for childcare and early childhood development facilities;
- measures to eliminate discriminatory practices, such as violence against women, which undermine women's rights;
- giving priority to adopting special policies and measures that facilitate women's access to resources, such as land, capital and credit;
- improving the working conditions, social security benefits and job security of domestic workers, informal sector employees, and those engaged in casual forms of employment;
- giving priority to the adoption of policies and measures which will facilitate indirect access by women to various resources.

In summary, it can be said that government initiatives to empower women through legislation and other governmental structures and mechanisms have achieved only limited success, principally because of the resistance such legislation has provoked among those groups which see affirmative action as reverse discrimination. Other reasons include poor implementation and a lack of monitoring and evaluation of women's progress. In particular, a lack of resources and budgetary constraints has prevented women from translating ideas into practical action. In the section that follows, the initiatives taken by organisations to support women's issues and empowerment in the workplace are reviewed, followed by a critical assessment of their impact.

3.4 ORGANISATIONAL RESOURCES TO SUPPORT WORKING WOMEN

3.4.1 Introduction

The sharply increased feminisation of the labour force in South Africa means that work-family conflicts can be expected to increase, with potentially deleterious effects on the individuals, the organisation and the society, if the conflict is not carefully managed. Examples from studies in the USA by Galinsky *et al.* (1993) indicated that a considerable proportion of employed parents (40%) experienced problems in combining work and family demands, often referred to as work-to-family conflict or negative work-to-home interference. Also, contrary to the general belief held by many Human Resources practitioners, empirical research has consistently shown that work demands are far more likely to interfere negatively with domestic obligations than vice versa (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Leiter & Durup, 1996). Frone, Russell and Cooper (1992) found that work interfering with home (work-to-home interference, WHI) was reported three times more often than home interfering with work (home-to-work interference, HWI) by male and female employees. A meta-analysis completed by Allen *et al*. (2000:278) shows that negative work-to-home interference is associated with serious consequences, including depression, psychosomatic complaints, and reduced marital satisfaction, while home-to-work interference can lead to unsatisfactory behaviours at work such as delays, absenteeism, a lack of motivation, reduced output and problems in the family (Parasuraman, Greenhaus, & Granrose 1992; Frone *et al*., 1992).

Therefore, the role of organisations in providing resources to mitigate these negative effects becomes critically important. Resources are defined as 'those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, conditions or energies' (Hobfoll, 1989:516); and as 'structural or psychological assets that may be used to facilitate performance, reduce demands, or generate additional resources' (Voydanoff, 2005a:823).

A number of work-family scholars have paid attention to the role of various work-based resources in helping people to meet multiple role demands successfully (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker & Geurts 2004:348; Bakker *et al.*, 2005; Koekemoer & Mostert, 2006; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Luk & Shaffer, 2005; Mclellan & Uys, 2009; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008; Voydanoff, 2005a, 2005b). In general, the research results indicate that having greater resources to draw on for managing work and family roles increases employees' ability to meet multiple role demands and thereby increases their perceptions of a work-family balance.

While the discussion in the previous part of the chapter has highlighted the role of government in enacting laws, creating special bodies and mechanisms to deal with various aspects of women issues, including work-family conflicts, this section is devoted to analysing the role of organisations in providing resources for their employees in general and women employees in particular, in mitigating the effects of work-family conflicts to which women in particular are subjected. Organisations here refer to both public sector and private sector institutions. The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model developed by Demerouti *et al.* (2001) was used as a framework in this discussion. The usefulness of the Job Demands-Resources model is first articulated, followed by a discussion of the role of job resources in buffering and or moderating the impact of work-family conflicts, based on a review of empirical studies. The managerial implications of the model for mitigating work-family conflicts are then summarised.

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3.4.2 The Job Demands-Resources Model

As noted by Allen, Lambert, Pasupuleti, Cluse-Tolar and Ventura (2004), work environments are more than just tangible physical structures. They are also social and psychological structures, divided into organisational structures and job characteristics. Hackman and Oldham (1976) developed a job characteristics model in which any job can be described in terms of five core dimensions: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. These dimensions lead to critical psychological states of experienced meaningfulness, responsibility and knowledge of results. The more strongly these three psychological states are present, the greater employees' motivation, performance and satisfaction and the lower the absenteeism and likelihood of employees' leaving the organisation (Lee & Ashforth, 1996).

Job characteristics have been studied intensively because of their immediate and pervasive effects on employees, as either job demands or job resources. Research has revealed the importance of job resources in coping with job stress and preventing emotional exhaustion (Bakker *et al*., 2005; Koekemoer & Mostert, 2006; Oldfield & Mostert, 2007). The relationship and interaction between job demands, job resources and job stress can be best comprehended in terms of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model developed by Demerouti *et al*. (2001).

A basic assumption of the Job Demands-Resources model is that, although every occupation may have its own risk factors associated with job stress or burnout, these factors can be classified into two general categories (job demands and job resources), thus constituting an overarching model that may be applied to various occupational settings, irrespective of the particular demands and resources involved. Thus, it enables us to examine the role of organisations, whether public or private, regardless of the occupations involved.

Job demands are those physical, social and organisational aspects of a job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort on the part of the

employee and are associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs. Examples of job demands in an organisational environment include high work pressure: time pressures, high workload, role overload, role conflict, and lengthy work hours. Although job demands are not necessarily negative, they may turn into job stressors when meeting those demands requires a high degree of effort (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker *et al.*, 2005:170).

By contrast, job resources are considered to be 'the physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that either: (a) reduce job demands and the associated costs; (b) are functional in achieving work goals; or (c) stimulate personal growth, learning and development' (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker & Geurts 2004:348; Bakker *et al.*, 2005:170). Resources to support employees may be provided at a variety of different levels within an organisation, for example,

- at the organisational level, job resources include pay, career opportunities, and job security;
- at the social or interpersonal level, resources include supervisor and/or co-worker support, and a positive team climate;
- at a work level, job resources may arise through the organisation of the work, in the form of role clarity, participation in decision-making, career opportunities, flexible work options; and
- at the task level, resources consist of skill variety, task identify, task significance, autonomy and performance feedback (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001; Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli & Schreurs, 2003; Bakker & Geurts, 2004:348).

In addition, the Job Demands-Resources model proposes that the well-being of a person is the result of two relatively independent processes (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli, 2003). During the first process, the presence of unfavourable job characteristics or chronic job demands (such as work overload or conflict) can lead to exhaustion. This, in turn, has the potential to deplete employees' physical and psychological coping resources and can lead

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to burnout or fatigue after a while. This phenomenon encloses the second assumption of the model, which is that job stress or burnout develops – irrespective of the type of job or occupation – when certain job demands are high and when certain job resources are limited.

In the second process, the availability of job resources may help employees to cope with the demanding aspects of their work. At the same time, it may stimulate them to learn from and develop in their jobs. Adequate job resources have motivational potential and can lead to high work engagement, low cynicism, and excellent performance (Bakker & Geurts, 2004:348). In general, job demands and resources are negatively related, because job demands may prevent the mobilisation of job resources (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli, 2003).

Finally, the Job Demands-Resources model states that many different types of job demands and job resources may interact in predicting job stress. In other words, there are many potential resources that can facilitate the achievement of a specific goal or demand, implying that different goals or demands are likely to be influenced by several resources. However, the dynamics of the interaction between demands and resources can be intricate, for example, combining job demands and family demands does not necessarily create unhappiness or stress. Several scholars cited by Hochschild (1997) and Kirchmeyer (1993) have pointed out the beneficial effects of combining work and family demands, which in some cases have tended to outweigh the costs.

Williams and Alliger (1994:837- 868) examined the extent to which multiple 'role juggling', task demands, personal control and goal progress affect the mood states of employees in work and family settings. They found, among other things, that unpleasant moods tended to spill over from work to family and vice versa, but pleasant moods had little spill-over. Women employees displayed stronger spill-over from family to work than men did but, contrary to expectations, they also displayed stronger spill-over from work to family, because employed mothers are likely to have greater combined work and family workloads than employed fathers. Negative mood states also persist and linger

across time and roles. According to Williams and Alliger (1994:864), these findings 'imply that working parents may need to make deliberate attempts to unwind through, for instance, exercising or personal time to prevent psychological strain from accumulating. If the negative spill-over effects are primarily a result of chronically high family demands placed on individuals, attempts should be made within a family unit to share or redistribute family responsibilities'. These results imply that organisations are not solely responsible for providing support and resources to ease job and family demands, but that employees should also take responsibility in managing their stressors.

Bakker *et al*. (2005) furthermore advised that an increase in some resources may not always coincide with a decrease in symptoms of burnout. The authors mentioned Warr (1987), who had argued earlier that job resources such as autonomy, social support, and feedback may act like vitamins and have a non-linear effect on well-being: 'Just like an overdose of vitamins may lead to a toxic concentration in the body and ill health, an overdose of job resources may undermine employee well-being and foster burnout. Job autonomy, for example, is assumed to follow an inverted U-shaped pattern: very high levels of job autonomy are potentially harmful for employee wellbeing because it implies uncertainty, difficulty in decision making, and high responsibility on the job' (Bakker *et al*., 2005:178-179).

What can practitioners and organisations learn from studies of interventions to reduce burnout using the Job Demands-Resources model? According to Bakker *et al*. (2005:178-179), the message to organisations is clear: they need to ensure all employees have the necessary resources, because the aim of every organisation is to ensure that people can fulfil their job demands without endangering their health, thus the task of the organisation is to create proper job resources that can effectively buffer the effects of specific job demands. Thus, tailor-made interventions should be the norm.

In summary, the Job Demands-Resources model is a comprehensive, culture-free, yet a flexible tool for analysing the impact of work and family demands in

any organisation or occupational level. Also, it addresses intervention strategies to mitigate the adverse effects of the interaction between job demands and job resources. Work-family demands are not always debilitating, but may produce beneficial effects for both situations too. This is the much sought-after ideal. Finally, interventions to mitigate work-family imbalances need to be tailor-made, depending on the nature of job demands and job resources. The Job Demands-Resources model postulates that several different job resources can play the role of a buffer in several demanding working conditions.

Which job demands and resources play a role in a certain organisations or occupations depends on the specific job characteristics that prevail. For example, in their study of teachers working in elementary, secondary and vocational schools, Bakker *et al*. (2007) found that supervisor support, innovativeness, appreciation and organisational climate were the important job resources that helped teachers to cope with demanding interaction with students. Schaufeli and Buunk (1996:335-338) indicated that lower levels of burnout would be expected in work situations that allow employees to experience success and thus feel efficacious, namely under job and organisational conditions that provide opportunities to experience challenge, control, feedback of results, and support from supervisors and co-workers.

In the next section, the impact of some specific job resources is described, with examples drawn from empirical studies.

3.4.3 Job resources that mitigate job stress and burnout

Bakker *et al*. (2005:170-180) and Van Aarde and Mostert (2008:1-10) did rigorous research and assessments of job demands and resources. Van Aarde and Mostert (2008:8) identified the following as important situational or organisational resources which can potentially buffer the effects of job stress:

- social support from colleagues, for example, 'counting on colleagues when employees come across difficulties at work, asking colleagues for help';

supervisor support, for example, 'getting on well with your supervisor, feeling appreciated by your supervisor, counting on your supervisor when you come across difficulties at work';

feedback, for example, 'providing specific and accurate information constructively to employees to maintain, improve or change performance'; and

autonomy, for example, 'freedom in carrying out your own work activities, deciding for yourself how much time you would like to spend on a task, solving problems that arise in your work yourself'.

In their research, Bakker *et al*. (2005:170-180) examined the two-way interaction effects between four job resources and four job demands with burnout (exhaustion and cynicism). A total of 1 012 employees of a large institution for higher education participated in this study. The job resources included social support, the quality of the employee's relationship with the supervisor, autonomy and performance feedback. The job demands were work overload, emotional demands by students, physical demands and work-home interference. The researchers found that in 56% of the cases, overload, emotional demands, physical demands, and work-home interference did not result in high levels of burnout if employees experienced autonomy, received feedback, had social support, or had a high-quality relationship with their supervisor or manager. All 'the job resources buffered the impact of work overload on exhaustion, and three of the four resources buffered the relationship between work-home interference and exhaustion. For cynicism, the results were slightly different. Emotional demands and work-home interference both interacted with three of the four job resources in predicting cynicism' (Bakker *et al*., 2005:176). In terms of main effects, job demands were the most important predictors of exhaustion, whereas (a lack of) job resources were the most important predictors of cynicism. Autonomy was the resource that acted most often as a buffer for job demands (seven significant interactions). Next came performance feedback (four significant interactions), tying with quality of the relationship with the supervisor (four significant interactions), followed by social support from colleagues (three significant interactions) (Bakker *et al*., 2005:177):

social support may buffer the impact of job demands on levels of burnout because peers provide information, confirmation and emotional support;

supervisor support and a high-quality relationship with the supervisor may buffer the impact of job demands on levels of burnout because employees receive instrumental help and emotional support;

feedback may help, because it provides employees with the information necessary to maintain their performance and to stay healthy; and

autonomy may help in coping with the job demands because employees can decide for themselves when and how to respond to their job demands.

In South Africa, Van Aarde and Mostert (2008:1-10) examined job characteristics and home characteristics associated with negative and positive work-home interaction reported by employed females. The research group consisted of a total of 500 females from six provinces in South Africa. The researchers used multiple regression analyses to analyse the data. Their results indicated that negative work-home interference (WHI) was best predicted by job demands (including pressure, overload and time demands) and a lack of job resources (including autonomy, supervisor support, instrumental support and role clarity). 'Three job resources predicted positive WHI, including autonomy, supervisor support and colleague support. Negative home-work interference (HWI) was best predicted by pressure and a lack of autonomy at home, while positive HWI was best predicted by the presence of home pressure, but with support at home' (Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008:1). The three job resources (autonomy, supervisor support and colleague support) explained 11% of the variance in positive work-to-home interference. These results are similar to the findings of Bakker *et al*. (2005) and support previous findings that also found job resources to be related to positive work-to-home interference (Bakker & Geurts, 2004; Grzywacs & Marks, 2000).

Authors such as Bakker, Schaufeli, Demerouti and Euwema (2006:231-232) and Schaufeli, and Bakker (2004:298) attest to the fact that 'job resources may either play an intrinsic motivational role because they foster employees' growth, learning, and development, or they may play an extrinsic motivational role because they are instrumental in achieving work goals'. Bakker, Schaufeli,

Demerouti and Euwema (2006:231-232) argue that job resources fulfil basic human needs, such as the need for autonomy, competence and relatedness. In support of this, they cite proper feedback as fostering learning, thereby increasing job competence, whereas decision latitude and social support satisfy the need for autonomy and the need to belong respectively. Conversely, they also contend that 'job resources may also play an extrinsic motivational role, because, according to the effort-recovery model (Meijman & Mulder, 1998), work environments that offer many resources foster the willingness to dedicate one's efforts and abilities to the work task'.

Additional resources in the South African context are training and development interventions, mentorship and employee assistance programmes (EAPs), especially as these affect women's advancement, their psycho-social dynamics and their health.

In the final analysis, it should be noted that the perceptions about and use of these resources depend on individual personalities, needs and goals (Diener & Fujita, 1995) As a result, the personality of women in moderating the use of these resources is also examined. In the next section, the nature and impact of these resources in mitigating stress for working women are highlighted.

3.4.4 Job-related social support

In this section, social support is examined and its role in improving work-family conflict and work outcomes is discussed. In general, social support is perceived as an important resource for working women to enable their continued success in both the work and family domains.

The concept of social support has been defined in various ways, which indicates that support may come from diverse sources. Social support could be formal or informal and may take different forms. Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1994, cited in Marcinkus, Whelan-Berry & Gordon, 2007:88) define social support as the structure of relationships, as well as the flow of resources provided by relationships. People may have an on-the-job social support

network and a personal or non-work-based network of supportive relationships. Both types of social support are important resources in assisting working women to manage work-family conflict and to cope with multiple stressors in the work and family domains. Viswesvaran, Sanchez and Fisher (1999) show that social support has a threefold effect on the process of work stress, namely, by positively reducing work-family strains, mitigating perceived stressors, and moderating stressor-strain relationships.

Several researchers, such as Allen and Ortlepp (2000) and Oluwole, Hammed and Awaebe (2008), claim that social support may have a significant buffering and main effect on occupational stress and emotional exhaustion. According to Oluwole *et al*. (2008:s.p.) there are two pathways to describe the influence of social support on health. The first pathway has a direct effect and the second has a buffering effect. The direct pathway implies that levels of social support and social contact act to improve levels of well-being and enhance self-appraisal and self-esteem, thereby positively influencing mental health. The buffering effects imply that social support only influences health in the context of exposure to acute or chronic stressors when people who are exposed to stressors are helped in reappraising the threat implicated in the stressor, in coping with the consequence of the stressor, or through emotional, informational or material support. (Personal or non-work-based social support is discussed in Section 3.4.7.)

3.4.4.1 Work-based social support

Work-based social support, also referred to as on-the-job social support, may come from the organisation at large, co-workers and immediate supervisors. Work-based relationships have positive consequences for improving workers' health, reducing stress, and mitigating work-family conflict (Deelstra, Peeters, Schaufeli, Stroebe, Zijlstra & Van Doornen, 2003; House, 1981; Viswesvaran *et al.*, 1999). Marcinkus *et al*. (2007) also found that work-based social support is positively associated with the job satisfaction, organisational commitment and career accomplishment of working women.

Marcinkus *et al*. (2007:89) indicate that employees differentiate between support from the organisation and support from their immediate work groups and supervisors. Buunk and Verhoeven (1991) note that immediate managers and co-workers or peers are important on-the-job social resources that can contribute to relieving occupational stress by providing emotional and informational support. Kram and Isabella (1985) identified two kinds of peer relationship at work: those which focus on an exchange of information about work and the organisation, as opposed to those which focus on providing confirmation and emotional support. Ducharme and Martin (2000) found evidence that the social support of peers enhances the job satisfaction of all workers.

Allen (2001), Buunk and Verhoeven (1991) and Goff, Mount and Jamison (1990) believe that supervisors are one of the most significant sources of social support and that they play a crucial role in helping working mothers to cope with work and family pressures. Supervisors are expected to give direction and the feedback that employees need to complete their tasks within organisational specifications (Bruce & Blackburn, 1992). In general terms, supervisory support can be defined as the degree to which supervisors value subordinates' contributions and care about subordinates' well-being (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988).

Bakker, Killmer, Siegrist and Schaufeli (2000) have observed that supervisors could have a buffering effect on job stress if they are perceived as interpersonally-oriented leaders who aim to provide guidance and advice to employees. Allen *et al.* (2004:176) assert that if 'supervisors are perceived as failing, particularly in terms of support and consideration, employees are less likely to be satisfied with their work and committed to the organization. On the other hand, employees who perceive supervisors as doing a good job in terms of consideration, support, direction, and guidance, should be more likely to report positive feelings toward their job and the organization'.

Similarly, Väänänen, Toppinen-Tanner, Kalimo, Mutanen, Vahtera & Peiró (2003), also cited by Bakker *et al*. (2005:172) argue that leaders' appreciation

and support may aid workers in coping with job demands, facilitate performance, and act as a protector against ill-health. This view is in line with that of Bakker *et al*. (2005:171-172), who indicate that a 'high quality relationship with one's supervisor may alleviate the influence of job demands (work overload, emotional demands, physical demands and work-home interference) on burnout, because leaders' appreciation and support puts demands in another perspective'. Allen (2001) has also established that supervisory support has both direct and indirect effects on employee job attitudes and family life. Supervisors' willingness to allow employees to take advantage of organisational family-supportive benefits, for example, enhance positive job attitudes and positive work behaviour that can spill over to the family setting (Marcinkus *et al*., 2007:89).

The findings in the research cited above suggest that a supportive organisational environment and a high quality relationship with supervisors may have a significant effect on employees' work-family outcomes. However, to optimize the benefits of social support, the organisation should also implement work-family policies that enable employees to align both life spheres better. Organisations must create a 'family-friendly' culture in which employees feel entitled to use the benefits and facilities that are conducive to a work-family balance (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2006:95).

Family-friendly organisations are institutions that have formal policies regarding flexible working hours, control over work time, compressed work schedules, options to work at home, childcare facilities and parental leave (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2006). These benefits may support women's ability to meet work and family demands. In a survey of a variety of organisations, Allen (2001:414) concluded that employees who perceive their organisations as less family-supportive tend to experience more work-family conflicts, less job satisfaction, less organisational commitment, and display a greater intention to leave than those who perceive their organisations as more family-supportive. Goff *et al*. (1990) and Marcinkus *et al*. (2007:89) also found that supervisory support in an organisation that provides daycare was associated with a lower degree of work-family conflict and absenteeism for parents with children under the age of five.

3.4.5 Task resources

3.4.5.1 Positive feedback

Bakker and Geurts (2004) found that task resources such as performance feedback and opportunities for `development correlated strongly with work-to-home interference (WHI). According to them, constructive feedback has the potential to evoke positive work experiences and work engagement. Employees transfer these positive feelings from work to home. In general, Bakker and Geurts's (2004) findings are consistent with previous studies by Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer and Schaufeli (2003), Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli and Schreurs (2000) and Demerouti *et al*. (2001) regarding health impairment and motivational processes models. All their models suggest that adequate feedback by supervisors may mitigate the relationship between work-to-home interference and exhaustion, because adequate feedback reduces the tendency to worry at home about work-related issues (Bakker *et al*., 2005). A reason for this buffering effect of constructive feedback in the stress-strain relationship is that feedback promotes a positive evaluation of a person's efforts and thus bolsters the person's sense of self-efficacy (Hobfoll & Shirom, 1993).

Crede and Price (2003:69), drawing on the work of James (1890) and Mead (1934), maintain that having a positive self-conception is an important human need and that as 'social beings, the feedback that we receive from those important to us (i.e. significant others) engenders either negative or positive perceptions of self'. Crede and Price (2003) argue that positive feedback from supervisors reassures employees of the value of their contribution to the organisation, and therefore has a moderating effect similar to that of self-efficacy on the relationship of stress and burnout. They explain that this phenomenon could be the result of increased self-efficacy, which could lead to employees' increasing their estimated self-value, not only at work, but also at home. It thus seems that self-efficacy may precede, as well as follow, employees' feelings of accomplishment and well-being (Llorens, Salanova, Schaufeli & Bakker, 2007). Conversely, a lack of feedback on personal success or negative comments across time and situations give rise to generalised

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List of research project topics and materials

negative self-efficacy and the development of a poor self-image (Gardner & Pierce, 1998).

3.4.5.2 Autonomy and job complexity

Job autonomy, which refers to the degree of freedom which employees have in making job-related decisions, as well as the latitude concerning their work pace and phases, is crucial for employees' health, mainly because greater autonomy is associated with more opportunities to cope with stressful situations (Jenkins, 1991; Karasek, 1998). Bakker *et al*. (2005:172) cite several studies to support the view that autonomy may act as a buffer against the influence of job demands (work overload and time pressure), as it enables workers to cope with a high workload.

Job complexity (the level of stimulating and challenging demands in a particular job) and control over work time are both positively associated with satisfaction with work-family balance (Valcour, 2007:1513-1519). Each of these two variables explains more than 8% of the variance of satisfaction with employees' work-family balance. Valcour (2007:1513) argues that 'higher job complexity is associated with greater job challenge and higher use of cognitive capacity and complex jobs allow their incumbents a greater degree of autonomy and discretion in deciding how to carry out tasks'. This is so because people in complex jobs tend to have more skills (for example, in planning, organising, handling multiple negotiations, motivating others) and psychological resources (such as self-esteem and self-efficacy) for meeting work and family demands and, thus, more satisfaction with their work-family balance. Also, those whose jobs are complex tend to earn a higher income, which enables them to afford services such as childcare and house cleaning, which, in turn, helps to reduce family demands (Valcour, 2007:1515).

3.4.5.3 Training, development, and mentoring

Training and development

There is no doubt that today's professional and managerial positions are complex and cognitively challenging, thus requiring a wide variety and high level of skills and abilities from their incumbents. Schaufeli and Salanova (2005) indicate that providing employees with a development plan, which includes structuring how and what competencies and skills employees can develop would lead to increased motivation, excellent performance, higher work engagement and lower cynicism. Properly trained and knowledgeable employees usually exhibit higher levels of critical thinking, intellectual flexibility, self-direction, and interpersonal effectiveness; and they model these capabilities at work and at home to approach and cope with the challenges of everyday life (Bakker *et al*., 2006).

In a similar vein, Gill (2007) proposes that training and career development enable employees to continue to develop new skills, self-confidence and self-efficacy to solve problems and to manage a variety of situations, both at home and at work.

The stimulation of personal growth, learning, and development may help employed women to develop a number of skills relevant to managing the work-family interface, including planning, organising, handling multiple tasks, negotiating, communicating, and motivating others.

Recently, organisations have also begun to recognise the importance of providing family members with knowledge and skills to manage and cope with family demands and personal problems. As part of their strategic responsiveness and social responsibility programmes, organisations are exploring different options for non-work-related training and support to employees and their families. In her discussion of the relationship between work and home demands and the ill health of employed females, Mostert (2009) refers to a longitudinal study by Demerouti, Taris and Bakker (2007) in this regard. Their findings suggest that organisations should not only provide work-related training and support to employees, but should also try

to provide training and support for non-work-related demands. They suggest parental training, role reorientation for couples, possibilities for working at home, and childcare facilities as additional resources.

Previous studies have also revealed that the implementation of family-friendly policies may be beneficial for combining work and family responsibilities (e.g. Demerouti, 2006; Dikkers, Geurts, Den Dulk, Peper, Taris & Kompier, 2007; Goodstein, 1994).

Training, skills development and personal growth in South African organisations are strongly promoted through the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), the Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998a) and the Skills Development Levies Act, Act 9 of 1999 (Republic of South Africa, 1999a). Both laws are directed at fostering skills among the labour force. The Skills Development Act provides a framework and organisational arrangements for identifying skills needed at sectoral levels, while the Skills Development Levies Act deals with the financing of the skills development.

Mentoring

In the management literature, social support has been primarily addressed in terms of mentoring. Mentoring relationships provide social support in the form of both career development and psychosocial assistance (Kram, 1985). The most recent conceptualization of mentoring by Higgins and Kram (2001:88-89) suggests 'a developmental network perspective, arguing that individuals may receive assistance from many people at any time'.

Mentorship is a modern term for a time-honoured concept associated with the craft apprenticeship schemes of the past (Wilbur, 1987). Clutterbuck and Sweeney (2003:4) define the mentorship process in a contemporary organisational context as 'off-line help by one person to another in making significant transitions in knowledge, work or thinking'. Mentoring can be seen as a developmental, caring, sharing, helping relationship, where one person invests time, know-how and effort to increase and improve another person's growth, knowledge and skills (Klasen & Clutterbuck, 2002). The advantages

of mentoring for individual employees include increased mobility and rapid career advancement, higher incomes and more satisfaction with pay and benefits (Akande, 1994; Hall & Khan, 2002; Parsloe & Wray, 2000). For the organisation, mentoring is a vehicle for creating opportunities for open communication among employees and for assimilating newcomers into the organisational culture (Clutterbuck, 2004).

In the South African setting, compliance with the Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998, and its affirmative action component, as described in the first part of this chapter, mandates organisations to employ and develop previously disadvantaged staff, which specifically includes women. According to Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Collins (2001) and Schreuder and Theron (2001), the implementation of mentoring has proven to be a useful mechanism for advancing workplace diversity through the development of female employees (among others) to ensure legislative compliance and to redress past inequalities.

3.4.6 Other caring practices

3.4.6.1 Employee assistance programmes

In Chapter Two, an account was given of the physical, psychological and gender-based violence, burnout and stress due to work-family demands to which women employees in South Africa are exposed. This is coupled with the ravages of HIV/AIDS, which many women suffer from, either as infected or as affected individuals. The cumulative effects of these stressors are the impairment of women's physical, social, mental and psychological well-being, which makes the need for employee assistance programmes (EAPs) urgent and compelling.

EAPA-SA (1999:5) defines an 'EAP as a work-site based programme designed to assist in the identification and resolution of productivity problems with employees impaired by personal concerns but not limited to health, marital, family, financial, alcohol, drug, legal, emotional, stress or other personal

concerns which may adversely affect employee job performance'. A literature review by Naicker and Fouché (2003), who conducted an evaluation of an in-source employee assistance programme in South Africa, shows that the propensity to use the facility is influenced by a number of demographic and organisational variables. Specifically in the South African context, black African employees, and to some extent women, who predominantly occupy lower positions in organisations, tend to be the primary consumers.

Organisational factors such as social support and supervisor encouragement are positively related to a propensity to use employee assistance programmes. Positive outcomes include improved performance, lower absenteeism, improved behaviour and better interpersonal relationships. In their own evaluative study of a South African company, Naicker and Fouché (2003) found that the utilisation rate of employee assistance programmes was 5.2%, which is comparable to the international benchmark of 5%. An analysis of the client demographics showed that, while males predominated, the percentage of female clients was much higher than their representation in the employee demographics of the company, due to the incidence of marital and family problems. Couple- and family-related problems were the most commonly reported on admission to the programme, followed by life events, psychological and work relationship problems. Marital and family problems were the most common diagnoses upon discharge from the programme.

3.4.6.2 Childcare practices

In the African and South African context, the role of being a mother is certainly the most common of the multiple roles which present-day women perform. However, due to changes in social support as a result of urbanisation and the wage economy, coupled with the traumas of daily living in a crime-ridden society and the effects of the HIV/AIDS scourge, the number of relatives available for childcare has been radically reduced. Career women, therefore, often have no option but to either rely on organised childcare facilities or undergo changes in their personal employment style, such as working from home or working part-time. Inability to meet this obligation may invoke some

guilt, which many try to relieve by devoting some of their free time to mothering or giving up their sleep or free time instead. According to Lindsey (1997), being a devoted mother carrying the load for household and childcare responsibilities has negative career consequences for women, making marriage and family assets for men, but a career inhibitor for women.

In the USA and other western countries, Goodstein (1994:354) noted that institutional pressures have led employers to consider adopting work-family initiatives which typically assume one of three main forms: first, providing fully or partially subsidized on-site childcare; second, directly financing employees' childcare expenses, for example, by contracting with external organisations or making benefit contributions, or, third, providing childcare information and referral services that link employees to childcare providers. The provision of on-site day care centres in South African organisations is yet to gain prominence

In view of the above, organisations should orient women during recruitment as to the options available to them, including strategies such as part-time work, half-day work, flexitime or on-site childcare facilities, so that employers can reduce low morale among their employees.

3.4.6.3 Work flexibility

McLellan and Uys (2009:5) describe time as a new scarcity and a fixed commodity when it comes to balancing work-family demands. They argue that when one commits a huge amount of time to one role, it may adversely affect the performance of another role. It is because of this that the ability to negotiate working hours is important. Mclellan and Uys (2009) have established that most self-employed women value spending quality time with their children and family. They also found a significant positive correlation between the number of children a woman has and the job-parent conflict she experiences. This finding implies that there is great pressure on black African families who tend to, have more children than their white counterparts.

Ginn and Sandell (1997) found that working hours are inversely related to stress. However, comparatively, the effects of hours worked was small in contrast with the type of job done, which indicates that the lower stress was due to the part-time nature of the work and its associated lower levels of responsibility. These authors therefore concluded that employed women with dependent children may have to work in less demanding jobs with shorter hours so as to maintain a good work-family balance.

Flexibility initiatives are described as efforts to create more flexible working conditions which enable workers to negotiate adjustments to when, where, and how work is done (Dancaster, 2006). It means different and, sometimes, opposing things to employers and employees. On the one hand, for employers, flexibility means that employees are available, mobile and willing to work beyond normal working hours in order to meet customers' demands. This, in essence, means that employees have to work for longer hours, put in extra time and work on week-ends. On the other hand, for employees, flexibility means that they would have more time for the family, work closer to home or at home and are able to manage work to accommodate emergencies (Dancaster, 2006:184).

The two types of flexible arrangement noted by Kropf (1999) are full-time and part-time employment. Examples of flexible arrangements in full-time employment include a compressed work week, while examples of flexibility in part-time employment are job-sharing or reduced time schedules. The benefits of flexibility are retention of valued employees, increases in morale, productivity gains and commitment to the firm.

Studies such as those of Catalyst (1996) and Dancaster (2006) have identified several barriers to the successful implementation of flexible arrangements. These barriers originate in individual, organisational and societal sources. Some of these barriers are a lack of formal policy at the national and organisational levels, stereotypes and assumptions about gender, value placed on long hours and a lack of management support and commitment to flexible work arrangements (Dancaster, 2006:180).

In order to make flexible arrangements work, individual workers and supervisors need to develop an array of skills and behaviours (Catalyst, 1996). The Catalyst study (1996) recommends that supervisors learn to look at results rather than time in the office, and at commitment to planning and communicating clear expectations. Individual workers need to develop skills and behaviours such as personal flexibility, greater self-discipline, responsiveness and trusting relationships.

Through the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, Act 75 of 1997 (Republic of South Africa, 1997a), South Africa has attempted to meet some of the needs of working women for flexibility at work. The core dimensions of the Act relating specifically to women are working time and overtime, maternity leave, alternative employment before and after birth, special precautions before and after birth and family responsibility leave. Examples from other countries indicate other supporting systems, such as flexible working arrangements, tax systems and financial support for families and childcare facilities (Dancaster, 2006). South Africa should take note of British law, which gives employees the right to request flexible working arrangements, according to its Employment Act, 2002 (cited in Grainger & Holt, 2005). When the Act was reviewed in 2005, 71% of women and 60% of men were aware of this right and that almost a quarter of employees who were eligible to make a request had done so in the past two years (Grainger & Holt, 2005). In addition, the rate of employer refusal of requests had almost halved since the right was introduced (Grainger & Holt, 2005). The Work and Families Act (2006, cited in Grainger & Holt, 2005) extended maternity and adoption pay from six to nine months, and allows a request for flexible working hours to carers of adults as from April 2007. This is equally applicable to South Africa in the light of the burden borne by working families who are also caring for people living with HIV/AIDS (Akintola, 2004).

In summary, Dancaster (2006:184) calls urgently for state policy regarding a work-life balance in South Africa and research into the organisational implementation of family-friendly arrangements, including the role of trade unions. There is no doubt that organisations can enhance their ability to recruit

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and retain a top quality workforce if they provide employees with flexibility and resources to help them to combine work and family more easily.

3.4.7 Personal resources and non-work support

3.4.7.1 Personality characteristics

Often, the ability to cope with stress created by the simultaneous demands of work and family is a function of the capabilities of the individual worker. Haynes and Feinlab (1980) suggest that personality characteristics, such as a Type A or Type B personality, locus of control and hardiness act as moderating variables that can buffer the effect of stressful conditions. Type A behaviour, which is characterized by extremes of competitiveness, striving for achievement and haste, has been found to be a significant factor in the development of stress-related illnesses (Haynes & Feinlab, 1980). Locus of control, on the other hand, refers to the extent to which a person perceives events as being the result of his or her own actions, and therefore under his or her personal control (Rotter, 1966). In general, people with an internal locus of control tend to perceive less stress, employ more task-centred coping behaviours and develop fewer psychological disorders (Weiten, 1989).

In a study which examined the relationship between personality dimensions and coping styles among 120 married working mothers, Herbst, Coetzee and Visser (2007:57) found that several personality dimensions and a sense of coherence correlated significantly with coping styles. For example, the results showed that personality traits mainly from the relating, feelings and emotions domain correlated with venting emotions as a coping strategy. Therefore, working mothers who are outspoken, outgoing, democratic and optimistic, but who tend to show a lack of emotional control and are also not modest or independent-minded, would use venting emotions as a coping strategy.

Many writers (Carmona, Buunk, Peiró, Rodríguez & Bravo, 2006; Kalimo, Pahkin, Mutanen & Toppinen-Tanner, 2003; Leiter, 1990, 1991; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998) are of the opinion that particular personality characteristics or

traits are associated with burnout. According to these authors, low levels of burnout has been associated with having a hardy personality, being extroverted, having high self-efficacy and using active or confronting coping styles; whereas high levels of burnout have been associated with having a Type A personality, neuroticism, low self-esteem, the use of escapist coping strategies, and perceiving a low level of control. It should, however, be noted that the majority of these studies relied on cross-sectional data, which makes it difficult to determine if personality characteristics are the cause or the effect of levels of burnout. This can only be resolved by a longitudinal study.

3.4.7.2 Personal coping strategies

Kleinke (1991:3) defines coping as 'the efforts we make to manage situations we have appraised as potentially harmful or stressful'. Other authors see coping as perceptual, cognitive or behavioural responses that are used to manage, avoid or control situations that could be regarded as difficult (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984; Moos, 1994; Zeidner & Endler, 1996). According to Fleishman (1984), the term 'coping' refers to either strategies or results. As a strategy, coping refers to the different methods that a person may apply to manage his or her circumstances. As a result, coping refers to the eventual outcomes of this strategy for the person. Callan (1993) defines non-coping as failed efforts to cope, accompanied by various physical and psychosocial disturbances, which result in higher stress.

Folkman and Lazarus (1980) distinguish between problem-focused and emotion-focused coping. They describe problem-focused as managing and improving an unpleasant experience or reducing the effects thereof. By contrast, emotion-focused coping behaviour is directed at reducing the effects of stressful feelings caused by an unpleasant experience through relaxation, the use of alcohol and drugs, social activities and/or defence mechanisms. Further variations of the problem and emotion-focused coping are shown in Table 3.3 (overleaf). From these descriptions, it would seem that problem-focused coping is much more salutary than emotion-focused coping.

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Table 3. 2: Variations of coping

PROBLEM-FOCUSED COPING	EMOTION-FOCUSED COPING
Active coping	Seeking social support for emotional reasons
Planning	Positive re-interpretation
Suppressing competing activities	Denial
Restraint coping	Turning to religion
Seeking social support for instrumental reasons	Venting of emotions
	Mental and behavioural disengagement
	Alcohol and drug use

Source: Adapted from Carver, Scheier and Weintraub (1989:268–270)

Studies by several researchers (Brink & De la Rey, 2001; Mclellan & Uys, 2009; Rotondo, Carlson & Kincaid, 2003) regarding the coping styles of women managers have shown that women use a variety of coping styles. Some of the common strategies are prioritising family concerns, organising and planning and problem-solving, self-controlling and the use of support structures. Most of these are problem-focused coping, as described by Carver *et al*. (1989). However, in some cases women resort to negative strategies or emotion-focused coping such as guilt, escape and avoidance, which amount to non-coping as defined by Callan (1993). There is also the danger that women may regard the responsibility of coping with work and family as a women-only problem, rather than see it as a problem to be shared by husbands, business, government and society at large (Brink & De la Rey, 2001:60). Such a mindset merely compounds the problem of working mothers.

3.4.7.4 Personal social support

Personal social support may come from an employee's spouse or partner, parents, siblings, children, extended family, and friends. Studies cited by Marcinkus *et al*. (2007:90) have shown that husbands contribute in a variety of

areas such as earnings, and personal financial management, home and family responsibilities, career management and support, and interpersonal support. Even if the largest share of the domestic burden falls on women, 'women were generally satisfied with their husband's contributions (Biernat and Wortman, 1991) and spousal support significantly influences job satisfaction and stress (Bures and Henderson, 1995). Finally, to balance the many demands of home and work, couples cooperate and collaborate to attend to all of their obligations (Barnet and Rivers, 1996)'.

In the past, family, friends and neighbours assisted women who were away farming, fishing or collecting firewood. This significant aspect of the African family system has broken down as a result of the wage economy. Nevertheless, women do access such support systems where they are available. These relationships also provide support that reduces work-family conflict by reducing time demands and stress (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1994). However, Adams, King and King (1996) have found that family-based social support was negatively associated with family interfering with work, a dimension of work-family conflict.

In a major study which tested the validity of the above, Marcinkus *et al*. (2007) found support that women in midlife generally received more personal social support than work-based support, and more instrumental than expressed support from all sources. Work-based social support was positively associated with their job satisfaction, organisational commitment and career accomplishments, while personal social support was also associated with their job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.5 SUMMARY

The feminisation of women in the labour market, coupled with the increase of dual income partners or single parenthood means that work-family issues have become serious pressure points.

This chapter has drawn institutional theory, and specifically on the external control and strategic choice perspectives to determine how government and organisations, including those in the private and public sectors, react to institutional pressures such as those emanating from women-related issues as defined in Chapter 2. Using the systems perspective, the arguments in this chapter can be illustrated as set out in Figure 3.1.

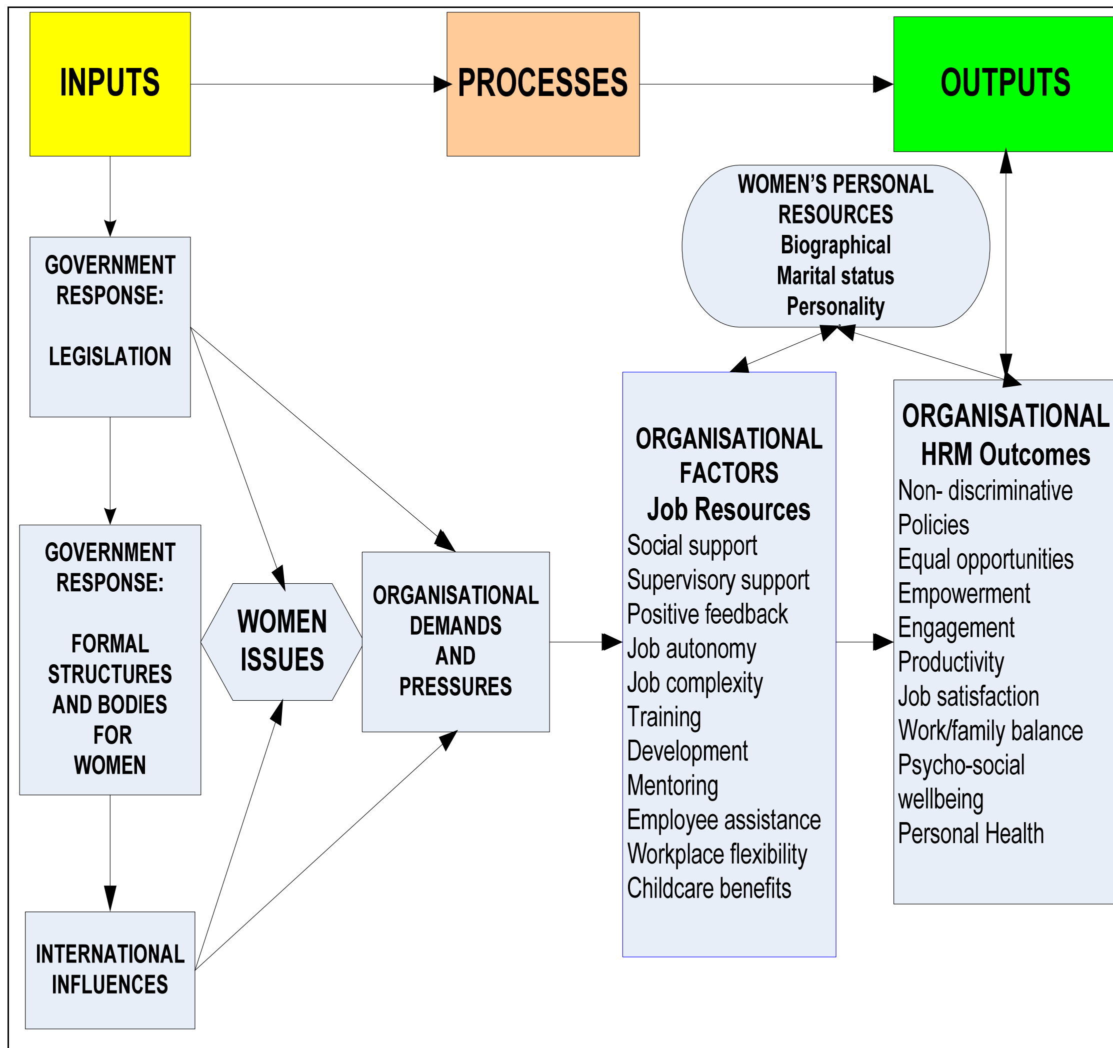

Figure 3.1: Model of the different government and organisational resources that affect work-family demands and pressures

3.5.1 Government inputs

Government has actively pursued legislative interventions from 1994 onwards. The most significant pieces of legislation in this regard are the 1996 Constitution, which guarantees equality before the law, and the Employment Equity Act, which has removed discrimination and opened up employment opportunities for women as one of the designated groups. More than twenty other pieces of legislation have been passed which attempt to empower women in the areas of family, rights, health, education and training (see Table 3.1).

Besides legislative interventions, government has also created some structures and bodies specifically designed to advance women's interests. These are offices and structures at the Parliamentary, national, provincial and local spheres of government to raise awareness of and support for women issues. An independent body, the Commission for Gender Equality, was created as the watchdog for women affairs. But, as noted above, the ability of these bodies to function effectively is still hampered by a lack of capacity, deficiencies in infrastructural facilities, a lack of resources and cooperation by men.

3.5.2 Organisational processes

Based on the Job Demands-Resources model of Bakker *et al*. (2005), critical job resources used by organisations to mitigate the effects of stress on the working mothers were reviewed. These include social support, supervisory support, positive feedback, job autonomy and job complexity, training and development and mentoring. In the South African context, training and development and employee assistance programmes (EAPs) are particularly relevant to the advancement of women and their psycho-social well-being. Others important resources are on-site day care centres and work flexibility arrangements, which mitigate time constraints.

3.5.3 The moderating influence of personality characteristics

Often, the ability to cope with stress created from the simultaneous demands of work and family is a function of the capabilities of an individual and his or her marital status. Personality characteristics, for example, Type A or Type B personality, locus of control and hardiness acts as moderating variables that can buffer the effect of stressful conditions. Studies by researchers of the coping styles of women managers show that women use a variety of coping styles, some of which are problem-focused, while others are emotion-focused. The modern economy has deprived women of the reliance on extended family support. Where it is given, the support from a husband or partner is found to contribute to women's job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.5.4 Organisational and human resource outcomes

The outputs of the foregoing represent the challenges which the human resource management (HRM) function faces in today's world of work and, especially, in South Africa, the context of this study. In both public and private sector organisations, much is expected of the HRM function to champion the outcomes desired by employees in general and women in particular. This includes the creation of a non-discriminatory environment and equal opportunities, empowerment, engagement, productivity, job satisfaction and psycho-social well-being, all of which affect work/family balance. In conceiving the role for HRM in the public sector, for example, the White Paper on Human Resource Management makes this point admirably when it states that HRM is required to play a transformative role in society. (Republic of South Africa, 1997b).

But to what extent have all these structures lived up to expectation? The review of the literature in Chapters 2 and 3 of this study bear testimony to the fact that the odds are heavily stacked against working women in general and single women in particular, whether it is in terms of societal or of organisational contexts. Society is still plagued with cultural biases, the economic exploitation of women and violence against women. In addition, many organisations are

characterised by male-dominated values, a lack of mentoring and capacity building and sexual harassment. These are serious indictments of the HRM function, on the one hand, but, on the other hand, they constitute a springboard for action. Thus, HRM needs to proactively and creatively manage the women factor in their organisations, paying particular attention to single women.

3.6 CONCLUSION

Based on the findings presented in Chapter 3, a few central conclusions can be drawn.

First, the efforts of government to support women's issues seem to have had some positive results and have succeeded to a great extent. The feminisation of the South African labour force is a direct result of government's legislative initiatives, and leadership by example. The legislation that has been enacted is comprehensive and deals with vital issues in women's lives. However, while legislation has facilitated the entry of women into organisations, especially public sector organisations, their rise to senior management and executive positions are still fraught with numerous problems. Nevertheless, the prominence given to gender equity in Parliament and government offices bodes well for more 'women-friendly' legislation and action. Indeed, a more determined effort is called for to root out systemic discrimination and to step up the training and development, coaching and counselling of women in managerial positions.

Secondly, while advocates of the feminist cause have continued to favour government legislation, they have also urged that serious attention needs to be given to restructuring managerial work (Schein, 2007). The persistence of the glass ceiling is attributed mainly to patriarchal attitudes and stereotyping of the managerial roles and leadership styles, all of which must be dismantled.

Thirdly, the Job Demands-Resources model reviewed above has highlighted job resources which can be used as levers in mitigating the stress and burnout which handicap working mothers. In particular, considering the neglect of education and development of women, their training and development in

organisations is a prerequisite to their effective performance. Establishing a mentoring programme and the provision of employee assistance programmes (EAPs) would go a long way toward coping with women's advancement and work-family demands and other sources of stress. Also the finding that most working mothers did not think they would be better mothers if they stayed at home is an acknowledgement of the changing roles of women as home-makers and their growing involvement in the workplace (Patel *et al.,* 2006).

In the next chapter, the research design and methodology adopted to provide the data to shed light on the research questions and objectives is discussed.

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters serve to provide a framework of the purpose and the importance of this study. The second and third chapters also contain the focused literature review of the study. The aim of this chapter is to outline the research approach, design and methods used in this study and to explain the reasons for choosing the statistical methods used in the analysis of the empirical data.

Dainty (2007) emphasises the importance of constructing a philosophical position and orientation towards the inquiry in conducting research. Merriman (1998:3) argues that it is helpful to link research and philosophical traditions in order to illustrate different research orientations.

Research, according to Bennett (1991), cited in Smith & Dainty, 1991:68) is ‘a systematic, careful inquiry or examination to discover new information or relationships and to expand/verify existing knowledge for some specified purpose’. Scientific research methods are used to expand knowledge in a particular field of study (Kruger & Welman, 1999:1). Scientists should follow a well-defined research design that includes various steps to reach a conclusion regarding a specific subject(s) that is being researched. Mouton (2001:55) describes a research design as a plan or blue-print of how the researcher intends to conduct the research.

4.1.1 Philosophical position and orientation

In this study, a combination of a positivist and an interpretivist research paradigm was considered. A paradigm is defined as ‘the basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigator, not only in choices of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways’ (Guba & Lincoln,

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1994:105). Table 4.1 compares the positivist and interpretivist paradigms that guided this research. This comparison of differences between the two research approaches is based strongly on the contribution of Jorgen Sandberg (cited in Weber, 2004:iv).

Qualitative and quantitative research can be seen as representing two different paradigms (Samdahl, 1999). Hathaway (1995) uses the term *empirical-analytical* to describe the paradigm structuring quantitative research, and *interpretive* for the paradigm underlying qualitative research. Both paradigms and approaches historically assumed a different ontology and epistemology.

Table 4.1: A comparison of the alleged differences between the positivist and interpretivist paradigms

Theoretical assumptions about	Positivism	Interpretivism
Ontology	Person (researcher) and reality are separate.	Person (researcher) and reality are inseparable (life-world).
Epistemology	Objective reality exists beyond the human mind.	Knowledge of the world is intentionally constituted through a person's lived experience.
Research Object	The research object has inherent qualities that exist independently of the researcher.	The research object is interpreted in the light of the meaning structure of a person's (researcher's) lived experience.
Theory building/testing	Theories are postulated that can be tested to be confirmed or rejected. A theory is proven from observable phenomena /behaviour. Theories are tested in a controlled setting, empirically supporting or falsifying hypotheses through a process of experimentation.	Theories are built / constructed from multiple realities – the researcher has to look at different things in order to understand a phenomenon. Theory is shaped by social and cultural context.
Theory of truth	Correspondence theory of truth: one-to-one mapping between	Truth as intentional fulfilment: interpretations of the research object match the

Theoretical assumptions about	Positivism	Interpretivism
	research statements and reality.	lived experience of the object.
Method	Statistics, content analysis.	Hermeneutics, phenomenology, etc.
Types of data	Quantitative data	Qualitative data
Validity	Certainty: data truly measured	Defensible knowledge claims
Reliability	Replicability: research results can be reproduced.	Interpretive awareness: researchers recognize and address the implications of their subjectivity.

Source: Adapted from Sandberg (cited in Weber, 2004:4) and Samdahl (1999)

4.1.2 Inductive and deductive reasoning in research

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007:117) state that researchers can follow a deductive or inductive approach to research. In deductive research, the researcher develops a hypothesis and then designs the research in such a way that he or she tests a theory. In inductive research, the researcher first collects the data and then, from the data analysis, develops a theory. According to Gay and Airasian (2003:4), 'an inductive research approach is typically qualitative in nature, while a deductive research approach is typically quantitative in nature'.

Quantitative methodologies test theory deductively from existing knowledge, by developing hypothesized relationships and proposed outcomes for study.Cormack (1991) states that, in comparison, qualitative researchers are guided by certain ideas and perspectives regarding the subject to be investigated and develop theory inductively. Deductive reasoning commences with generalizations, and seeks to see if these generalizations apply to specific instances, whereas inductive reasoning commences with the observation of specific facts, and seeks to establish generalizations. Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2005:283) explain that 'quantitative researchers tend to make *statistical* generalizations, which involve generalizing findings and inferences from a representative statistical sample to the population from which the sample was drawn'. By contrast, qualitative researchers tend to make *analytic* generalizations (Miles & Huberman, 1994), which are 'applied to wider theory

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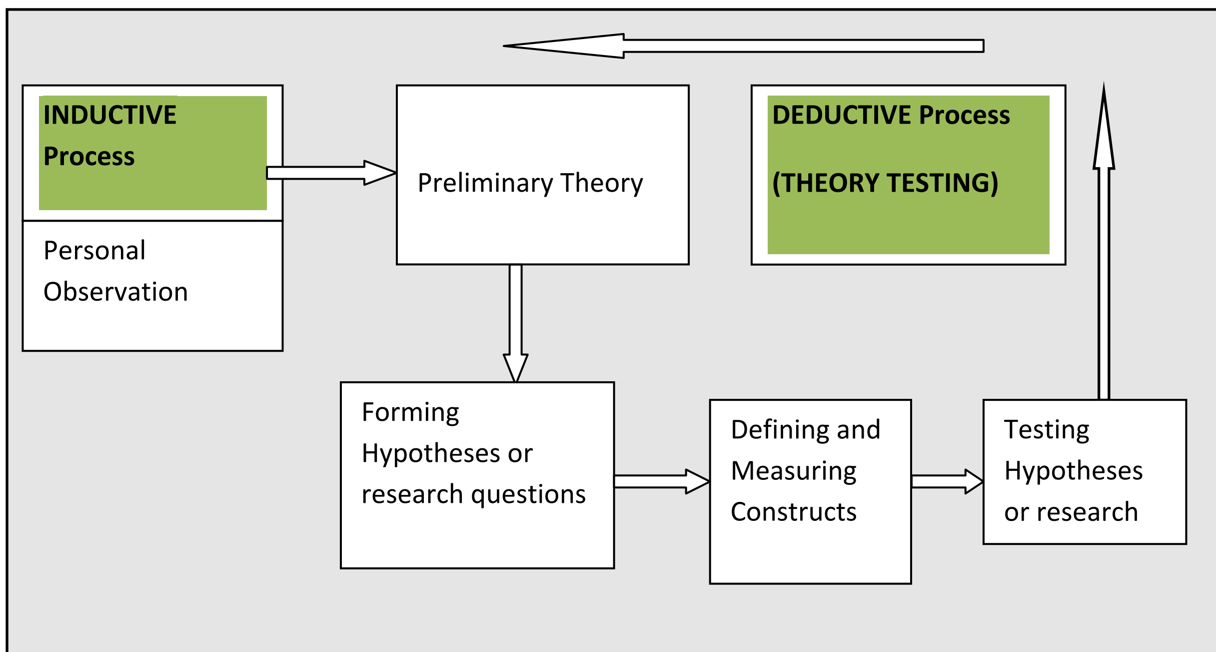
on the basis of how selected cases "fit" with general constructs' (Curtis, Gesler, Smith & Washburn, 2000:1002).

The difference between qualitative and qualitative research towards scientific reasoning, theory building, the acquisition of new knowledge and testing is depicted in Figure 4.1. In the current study, both an inductive and a deductive reasoning process were followed to acquire new knowledge.



Source: (McShane, 2003:604 cited in Du Plessis, 2003)

Figure 4.1: The theory-building process

4.2 QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACHES

4.2.1 Quantitative research

Quantitative research is often described using the term 'empiricism' (Leach, 1990) and it derives from the scientific method used in the physical sciences (Cormack, 1991). Quantitative research is about prediction and using numbers to prove or disprove a hypothesis. This method uses strict control of variables and the focus is on static reality. Empirical researchers are interested in

generating data from a large sample of study subjects so that they can generalize the conclusion to others (York, 1998). Quantitative research uses data that are structured in the form of numbers or that can be immediately transported into numbers (Ross, 1999). It is a very controlled, exact approach to research (Muijs, 2004:2).

The assumptions underlying quantitative methods include the following, according to Cyber Kebumen (s.a:42):

'reality is objective, "out there," and independent of the researcher -- therefore reality is something that can be studied objectively;

the researcher should remain distant and independent of what is being researched;

the values of the researcher do not interfere with, or become part of the research – research is value-free;

research is based primarily on deductive forms of logic and theories and hypotheses are tested in a cause-effect order; and

the goal is to develop generalizations that contribute to theory that enable the researcher to predict, explain, and understand some phenomenon'.

4.2.2 Qualitative research

There is no universal definition of qualitative research. In the literature of the social sciences and applied professional fields, terms such as interpretive, naturalistic, constructivist, ethnographic, and fieldwork are variously employed to designate the broad collection of approaches that are called simply qualitative research (Locke, Spirduso & Silverman, 2000). Denzin and Lincoln (2005:3) contend that 'qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them'.

Qualitative research methods were developed in the social sciences to enable researchers to study social and cultural phenomena (Myers, 1997). It is data that is usually not in the form of numbers. Qualitative research is an inductive approach, and its goal is to gain a deeper understanding of a person's or

group's experience. According to Ross (1999), qualitative approaches to research are based on a 'world view' which is holistic and has the following beliefs: first, that there is not a single reality; second, that reality is based upon perceptions that are different for each person and change over time; and third, that what we know only has meaning within a given situation or context.

The assumptions underlying quantitative methods include, according to Cyber Kebumen (s.a:43), the following:

> 'multiple realities exist in any given situation – the researcher's, those of the individuals being investigated, and the reader or audience interpreting the results; these multiple perspectives, or voices, of informants (i.e., subjects) are included in the study;
> the researcher interacts with those he studies and actively works to minimize the distance between the researcher and those being researched;
> the researcher explicitly recognizes and acknowledges the value-laden nature of the research; research is context-bound;
> research is based on inductive forms of logic; categories of interest emerge from informants (subjects), rather than being identified a priori by the researcher;
> the goal is to uncover and discover patterns or theories that help explain a phenomenon of interest; and
> determinations of accuracy involve verifying the information with informants or 'triangulating' among different sources of information (e.g., collecting information from different sources)'.

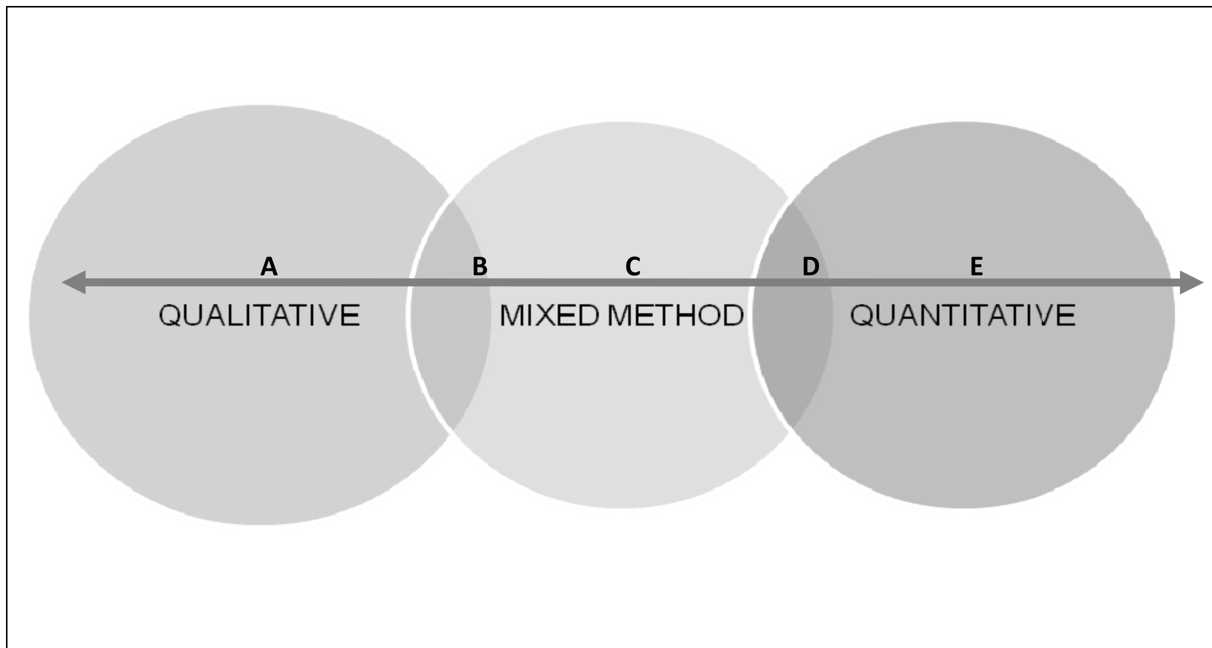
Based on the discussion of the strengths and limitations of qualitative and quantitative research presented by Schulze (2003:12) and Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:19-20), it was decided to consider the 'mixed methods research process model' as a possible research approach.

4.3 INQUIRY STRATEGY AND BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN

4.3.1 The qualitative-quantitative continuum

Many research studies are more complex than the above discussion of the main approaches implies. Almost all studies have more than one hypothesis or research question that may require the use of more than one of the research approaches and their methods. Creswell (2003) believes that a forced selection of either the quantitative or qualitative approach imposes an unfair dichotomy on a research project that does not capture all possible approaches needed to acquire new knowledge. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2008) also argue that the reality of research conducted in a social and behavioural context is that it takes place within some area of a qualitative-mixed-quantitative continuum.

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2008:28) describe the qualitative-mixed-quantitative continuum in terms of three methodological approaches and areas of inquiry. This is visually illustrated in Figure 4.2.



Source: Adapted from Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2008:28.

Figure 4.2: The qualitative-mixed-quantitative inquiry continuum

In Figure 4.2, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2008) display the relationship between three methodological communities. Areas A and E signify the qualitative and quantitative approach respectively. Area C visualizes an integration of both the qualitative and quantitative research approaches. A researcher's choice to move towards either end of the continuum (in other words, to Area A or Area E) represents a decision to use a purely qualitative or a purely quantitative approach. A decision to move towards the middle of the continuum (Area C) results in a mixed method approach with an equal *integration* of the two inquiry techniques. Section B describes a mixed approach in which qualitative components dominate and Section D displays an area of inquiry adopting a mixed approach in which quantitative components dominate.

According to Bergman (2008:91), using a mixed method approach with its different data collection strategies has the following advantages:

- It provides *corroboration*: Combining qualitative and quantitative research mutually corroborates results, thus providing greater validity.
- It can *offset* disadvantages: A study is able to take advantage of the strengths found in the two disjoint inquiries by offsetting any of the disadvantages found in either of the two.
- It is *comprehensive*: The researcher is able to provide a more thorough account of the field of inquiry by using both qualitative and quantitative methods.
- It allows for *instrument development*: More clear and structured scale items can be devised from a qualitative probe of the inquiry area.
- It enhances *credibility*: Using both qualitative and quantitative research strategies enhances the integrity of findings.
- It allows *discovery and confirmation*: This implies using qualitative research to generate objectives and thereafter employing quantitative methods to confirm hypotheses.

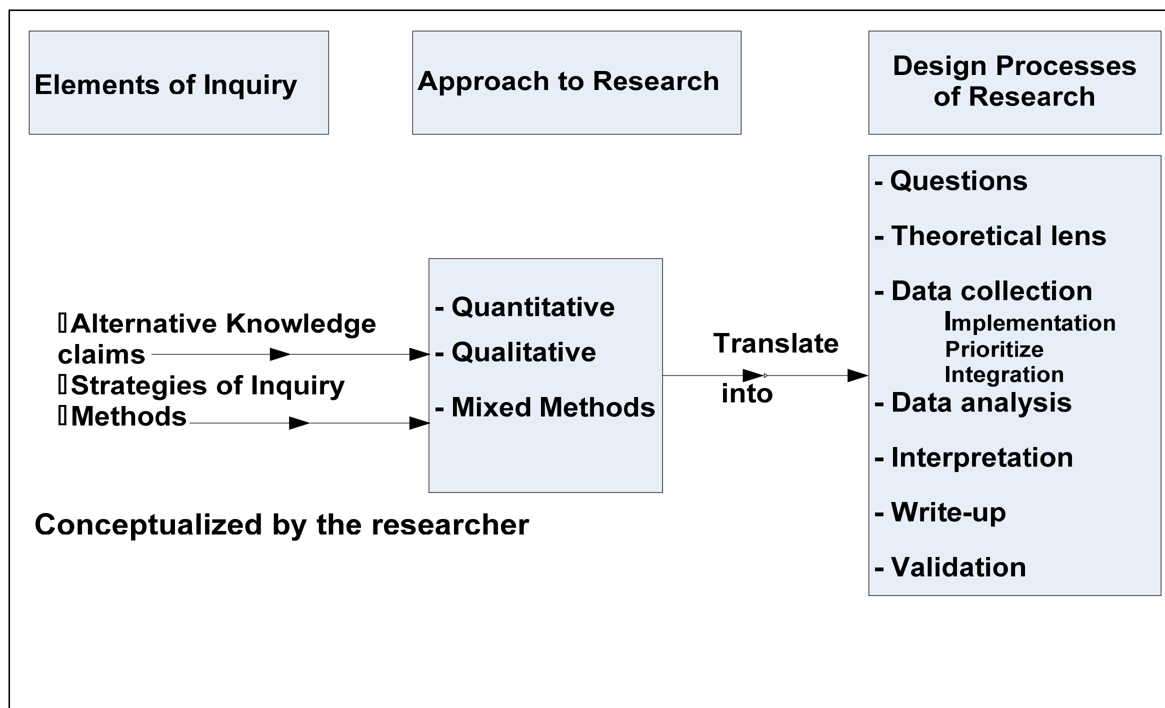
Due to the nature of the current study and the data that needed to be explored to generate new knowledge, the mixed method design of inquiry, which employs both qualitative and quantitative research practices, seemed to be the most appropriate approach to conduct the study.

4.3.2 A description of the mixed methods design

A mixed method design includes 'the incorporation of various quantitative or qualitative strategies within a single project. The imported strategies are supplemental to the major or core method and serve to enlighten or provide clues that are followed up within the core method' (Morse, cited in Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:190). The mixed method design therefore involves the collection, analysis and integration of quantitative and qualitative data in a single or multiphase study. This type of design reflects a pragmatic epistemology (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Although certain methodologies tend to be associated with a given research tradition, Dzurec and Abraham (1993:75) suggest that 'the objectives, scope, and nature of inquiry are consistent across methods and across paradigms'. A mixed methods study involves similar steps to those in traditional research methods. These include formulating a research problem and research objective; developing a research purpose, research questions(s), and hypotheses; selecting a research design/method; collecting data; analysing data; interpreting/validating data; and communicating findings (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005:276).

Designing a mixed methods study, however, also involves at least four additional steps. These include decisions about, first, the potential use of an explicit theoretical lens; second, the implementation sequence of the quantitative and qualitative data collection; third, the priority that will be given to quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis; and, fourth, at what stage in the research project the quantitative and qualitative data and findings can be integrated (Creswell, 2003:211; Hanson, Creswell, Plano Clark, Petska & Creswell, 2005:226). The adapted model of Creswell (2003) depicted in Figure 4.3 gives an indication of the relationship between the elements of inquiry and the design process for mixed method research.



Source: Adapted from Creswell, 2003:5.

Figure 4.3: Knowledge claims, strategies of inquiry, and methods leading to approaches and the design process.

When undertaking a mixed methods study, the researcher must consider the following factors or criteria to determine the type of mixed methods design to be employed in a study:

theoretical lens, which refers to the philosophical basis, or paradigm (for example, post-positivism, constructivism or feminism) that underlies a study and subsequent methodological choices;

implementation, the order in which the qualitative and quantitative data are collected, concurrently or sequentially;

priority, the weight, or relative emphasis, given to the two types of data, equal or unequal; and

integration, the mixing of qualitative and quantitative data at one or more stages in the process of research: the data collection, the data analyses, interpretation, or some combination (Creswell, 2003:211; Hanson *et al.*, 2005:227).

The types of design according to the criteria mentioned above are presented in Table 4.2, which depicts six different types of important mixed method designs proposed by Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann and Hanson (2003:224).

Table 4.2: Types of design by four criteria

Design type	*Implementation*	*Priority*	*Stage of integration*	*Theoretical perspective*
Sequential Exploratory	Qualitative followed by Quantitative	Usually Qualitative; can be Quantitative or equal	Interpretation phase	May be present
Sequential Transformative	Either Quantitative followed by Qualitative or Qualitative followed by Quantitative	Quantitative, Qualitative or equal	Interpretation phase	Definitely present (i.e., conceptual framework, advocacy, empowerment)
Concurrent triangulation	Concurrent collection of Quantitative and Qualitative Data	Preferably equal; phase can be Quantitative or Qualitative	Interpretation Analysis phase	May be present
Concurrent nested	Concurrent collection of Quantitative and qualitative Data	Quantitative or Qualitative	Analysis phase	May be present
Concurrent transformative	Concurrent collection of Quantitative and qualitative Data	Quantitative, Qualitative, or equal	Usually analysis phase; can be during interpretation phase	Definitely present (i.e., conceptual framework advocacy, empowerment)

Source: Creswell *et al.* (2003:224)

After a content analysis of various available mixed research designs, Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2005:7) identified eight mixed methods designs. They conceptualize these designs as a function of the following three dimensions: first, the level of mixing (partially mixed vs. fully mixed); second, time orientation

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(concurrent vs. sequential), and, third, the emphasis of the approaches (equal status vs. dominant status). The natures of the mixed method designs described by Creswell *et al*. (2003) and Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2005) are strongly interrelated.

The strengths and weaknesses of mixed method research design, as reported in Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), are offered in Table 4.3. A comparison of the strengths and weaknesses related to the mixed research approach and the numerous researchers that opt for this approach has convinced the researcher in the current study of the practical application, feasibility and scientific acceptability of this approach.

Table 4.3: Strengths and weaknesses of mixed research

Strengths	Weaknesses
• Words, pictures, and narrative can be used to add meaning to numbers. • Numbers can be used to add precision to words, pictures, and narrative. • It can provide quantitative and qualitative research strengths. • Researcher can generate and test a grounded theory. • Can answer a broader and more complete range of research questions because the researcher is not confined to a single method or approach. • The specific mixed *research designs* discussed in this article have specific strengths and weaknesses that should be considered (e.g., in a two-stage sequential design, the Stage 1 results can be used to develop and inform the purpose and design of the Stage 2 component).	• Can be difficult for a single researcher to carry out both qualitative and quantitative research, especially if two or more approaches are expected to be used concurrently; it may require a research team. • Researcher has to learn about multiple methods and approaches and understand how to mix them appropriately. • Methodological purists contend that one should always work within either a qualitative or a quantitative paradigm. • More expensive. • More time consuming. • Some of the details of mixed research remain to be worked out fully by research methodologists (e.g., problems of paradigm mixing, how to qualitatively analyze quantitative data,

Strengths	Weaknesses
• A researcher can use the strengths of an additional method to overcome the weaknesses in another method by using both in a research study. • Can provide stronger evidence for a conclusion through convergence and corroboration of findings. • Can add insights and understanding that might be missed when only a single method is used. • Can be used to increase the generalizability of the results. • Qualitative and quantitative research used together produce more complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice.	how to interpret conflicting results).

Source: Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:21)

4.4 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

4.4.1 Sequential exploratory design

Based on the four criteria of implementation, priority, integration and theoretical perspective, the current study employed a sequential exploratory **mixed method** design. These designs do not as a rule use an explicit theoretical lens (Creswell *et al*. 2003). However, in this study, the researcher adopted a feminist perspective. As Sarantakos (2004) explains, feminist research studies the social conditions of women in a male-dominated society. It goes further to enlighten people about taken-for-granted sexist practices, including the role of government and community practices. In short, '[f]eminist research is research on women, by women and for women' (Sarantakos, 2004:54). The main features of feminist research are shown in Table 4.4.

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Table 4.4: Feminist research: the quest for emancipation and change

Feminist research
Assumes: ➢ That the powerful dominate social life and ideology ➢ That research is owned by the powerful (men) at the expense of women ➢ That men and women differ in their perceptions of life due to their social status Employs: ➢ Engaging and value-laden methods and procedures that bring the researcher close to the subject ➢ Subjective principles of research, encouraging taking sides and personal commitment to the feminist cause ➢ A political stance to research topics and procedures Aims to: ➢ Expose the structures and conditions that contribute to the present situation ➢ Enlighten the community on the factors that generate this phenomenon and propose ways that can help alleviate the problem ➢ Empower women and give them a voice to speak about social life from their perspective ➢ Ultimately contribute towards social change and reconstruction

Source: Sarantakos (2004:55)

Linked to a feminist research approach, the present study adopted a sequential mixed method design to investigate the same underlying phenomenon in a single study. Both qualitative and quantitative data were sequentially collected, analysed and interpreted. The qualitative data was collected and analysed in the first phase, and the quantitative data was collected and analysed in the second phase of the research.

In this *two-phase* design a predominantly quantitative approach was followed. Priority was given to the quantitative design of the study; and the quantitative phase carries the most weight in the study. The data of the qualitative component of the study was primarily used to inform the quantitative data. Findings of the first phase were integrated and used in the beginning of the second phase. For example, the qualitative interview data collected in the first phase served as the foundation for the development of the measuring instrument used in this study. The findings of both phases were also considered during the interpretation phase. According to Hanson *et al.* (2005:229), mixed method sequential exploratory designs are particularly 'useful for exploring relationships when study variables are not known, refining and testing an emerging theory, developing new psychological test/assessment instruments based on an initial qualitative analysis, and generalizing qualitative findings to a specific population'.

The literature discussed thus far assisted the researcher in building a broad framework of the overall research design for this study. Figure 4.4 sets out the overall research design, which is divided into two phases and consists of six stages. This design is a 'fully mixed sequential dominant status design' (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2005:14).

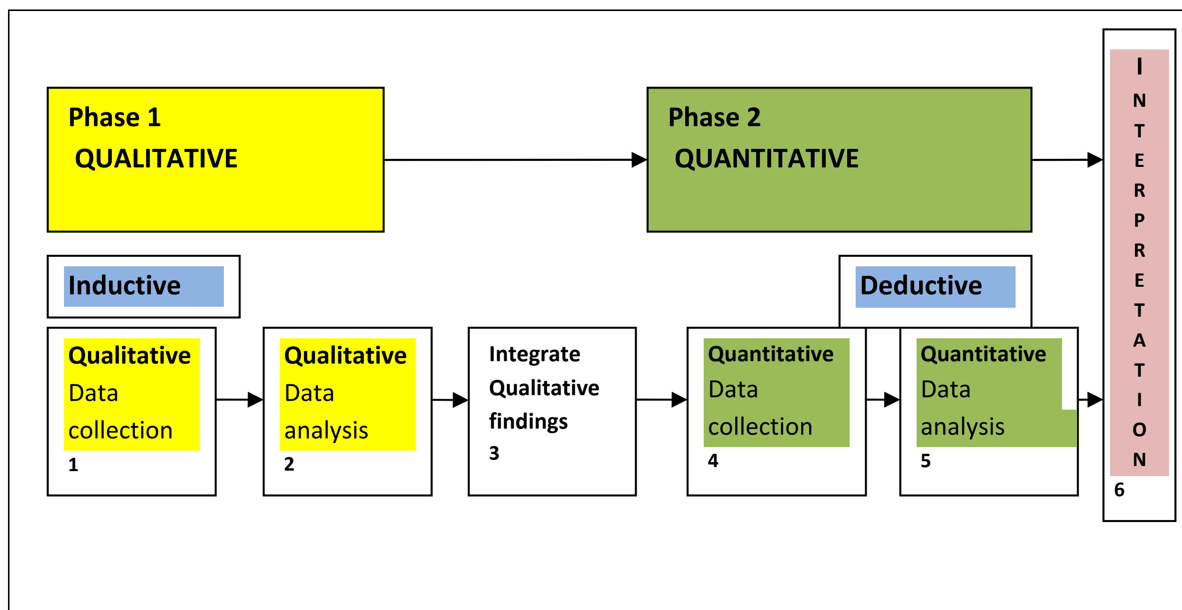

Figure 4.4: The overall research design

4.4.2 Steps followed in the execution of the study

The following steps were followed to address the research questions and research objectives;

- doing a literature study to comprehend the context of the multi disciplinary field involved;
- collecting and analysing data generated by means of interviews with individual working mothers;
- identifying and classifying the pressures and stressors facing single working mothers;
- identifying and classifying the systems and resources that support single working mothers to cope with high job and family demands;
- conceptualising and categorising related themes;
- generating questions to assess the pressures and support systems;
- creating a preliminary questionnaire with 121 items plus demographics;
- analysing the content validly of the items for each theme using Lawshe's technique;
- developing a questionnaire to explore the problems and pressures facing single working mothers and to identify the resources needed to mitigate the stressors;
- collecting data by means of the new questionnaire and two existing inventories to assess the level of stress and the coping behaviour of single working mothers;
- confirming the problems and pressures single working mothers experience;
- confirming the relevant resources that enable single working mothers to deal with high job and family demands; and
- making recommendations regarding the different strategies organisations need to develop to support single working mothers.

The research methods used in the process of inquiry, the data collection and analysis performed in the current study are depicted in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Research method related to inquiry, data collection and data analysis

Methods of data collection	Reasoning	Methods of data analysis
Qualitative Literature study Semi-structured interviews Purposive sample	Inductive	Content analysis Identification of themes related to the topic Categorisation of relevant themes Verification of themes and testing of their applicability to the interviewed sample
Qualitative & quantitative Grouping and consolidation of themes Generation of questions to assess the themes using various scientific sources	Deductive	Selection of applicable questions/ items in each theme. Analysis of the content validly of the items for each theme using Lawshe's technique Construction of a preliminary questionnaire
Quantitative Survey of a non-probability purposive sample Collection, coding and electronic capture of data Establishment of relationships between dependent and independent variables Comparison of different groupings	Deductive	Testing and validation of the measuring instrument Exploratory factor analysis Item analysis Reliability analysis Association analysis Multivariate analysis Logistic regression analysis

4.5 RESEARCH POPULATION AND SAMPLING STRATEGY

A population is the total collection of elements or participants about which the researcher makes some inferences (Cooper & Schindler, 2003:69). Alternatively, Brink (1996:121) and Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:89) define a population as a complete set of events, people or things on which the focus of the research falls and in which the researcher has an interest and about which the researcher wants to determine some characteristics.

A target population consists of a total number of elements or units from or about whom survey information is collected. These elements are usually individual persons (Dooley, 1990:140). To draw a sample, one needs to select a specific population. One also needs to identify population parameters to have a benchmark population (Nagtegaal, 1992:16). The target population in this study consisted of single and married mothers in management and professional occupations.

4.5.1 Sampling procedure

A sample is a set of individuals selected from a population and intended to represent the population under study. Samples are drawn because it would be impractical to investigate all members of a target population (Brewerton & Millward, 2002:15). Henning (2004:85) states that sampling is a process of selecting research participants.

A non-probability sampling procedure was used in this study, because all the potential candidates to be included in the sample population cannot be traced or located (Brink, 1996:56). The non-probability sampling method is applicable where the probability that a given element or individual of the population will be included in the sample is not known (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000:73). In this regard, it is important to note that for inferential theory building, generalisations based on a non-probability sample are acceptable; however, for researchers to infer generalisations about the population at large, a *probability* sample is required (Saunders *et al*., 2007:227).

The method of non-probability sampling applied in this study was a combination of purposive sampling and convenience sampling. Purposive sampling is also referred to as judgemental sampling, as it is based on the judgement of the researcher regarding the characteristics of the representative sample (Babbie, 2004:183). Brink (1996) explains that purposive sampling is based on the judgement of the researcher regarding subjects and objects that are representative of the phenomenon or topic being studied, or who are especially knowledgeable about the question at issue.

Based on the knowledge of the phenomena, the research questions asked and the research objectives of the current study, it was decided to include only single and married working mothers from the population of females working in management and professional occupations in South Africa.

Furthermore, convenience sampling was required, since, unlike with a research study based on a single organisation or professional group, there was no designated body which represents single working mothers in professional and managerial occupations. It was therefore not possible to identify or compile a list of all the potential participants in the sample frame that comply with the characteristics required for inclusion in this study. This limitation is also the reason why the size of the total population is unknown. Consequently, participants in this study were initially recruited on an informal basis by way of the snowballing technique.

In snowball sampling the researcher identifies and requests volunteers from a group of people who meet the specific requirements to participate in the study. These individuals then spread the information and identify other members (for example, fellow colleagues) from the same population for inclusion in the sample. These members of the population may in their turn identify a further set of relevant individuals so that the sample grows in size like a rolling snowball (Welman & Kruger, 1999).

According to (Patton, 1990), the advantage of a snowballing sample is that it helps to determine stakeholders;

increases the number of participants in the process;
builds on resources of existing networks; and
determines stakeholders unknown to the researcher.

The composition of the sample started with the identification of ten single working mothers who were personally known to the researcher, in managerial positions in various organisations in both the private and public sectors. Each of these ten original participants was asked whether she knew of other single working mothers, in professional and management occupations, who might be willing to take part in the research. Each was requested to provide the e-mail addresses of all potential participants that meet the specific requirements of the study. Subsequently, the newly identified potential applicants were contacted and asked to participate in the research and to provide more e-mail addresses of working mothers in professional and management positions. This request was addressed to each subsequent participant to ensure an acceptable number of research subjects. In order to ascertain the distinctiveness of the case of single working mothers, a comparative group of seven dual-career women with similar characteristics and positions was also selected, using the same snowballing technique and procedures. The e-mail addresses of potential participants in both groups were also collected by the researcher at various women's workshops and conferences.

4.5.2 Determining the sample size

Determining a sample size in order to extract sufficient data for statistical analysis can be a daunting task for a researcher. Streiner (2003) recommends that researchers keep the following three criteria in mind when considering the size of the sampling frame: the level of precision, the level of confidence or risk the study is willing to take, and the degree of variability in the attributes being measured.

There are two fundamental reasons for extracting an acceptable sample size (Kalton, 1999:90):

a minimum number of cases is required to analyse sub-group *relationships* (factor analysis, etc.) adequately; and

to draw inferential conclusions, the sample must, as far as possible, represent the population under scrutiny.

The guidelines established by Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) were applied to determine whether the study's sample size was sufficiently large. These guidelines are depicted in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Minimum sample size recommended for most common quantitative and qualitative research designs

Research Design/Method	Minimum sample size
Correlation	64 participants for one-tailed hypothesis; 82 participants for two-tailed hypotheses
Causal-Comparative	51 participants per group for one-tailed hypotheses 64 participants per group for two-tailed hypotheses
Experiment	21 participants per group for one-tailed hypothesis
Case Study	3-5 participants
Phenomenological	≤10 interviews
Grounded Theory	15-20
Ethnography	1 cultural group; 30-50 interviews
Human Ethological	100-200 units of observation

Source: Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007:289)

Following the guidelines indicated in Table 4.6, different sample sizes were used, each corresponding with the adequate sample size for the specified purpose of the three mixed method phases.

Ten single working mothers and seven married working mothers were selected for the first qualitative phase of the study. In-depth interviews were conducted with these 17 working mothers to discover the pressures and stressors facing working mothers and to get an indication of the resources that support single working mothers to cope with high job and family demands.

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In the second phase (qualitative and quantitative), the researcher grouped and consolidated the literature and interview data into themes to define the theoretical constructs. Based on these themes, 121 descriptive elements or statements (items) were generated to assess the behaviour related to the constructs.

During this phase, a panel of 30 experts judged the *relevance* and *clarity* of each descriptive element and assessed the validity of the items related to the specific construct. In classical statistical analysis of expert judgements, Lawshe (1975:578) requires a minimum of 15 panellists for quantitative validation.

In the third phase of the research, both the number of variables to be analysed and the absolute number of subjects were considered to determine the appropriate sample size for this study. This phase of the study included the employment of quantitative methods (factor analysis, item analysis and reliability analysis) to develop a valid and reliable psychometric measurement instrument. DeVellis (2003:87) contends that a large number of unspoilt returns are required for a reliable factor analysis (that is, to uncover constructs or factors) because correlation coefficients tend to be less reliable when estimated from small samples.

The literature, notably the work of Comrey and Lee (1992:67), DeVellis (2003:87), Netemeyer, Bearden and Sharma (2003:49), Nunnally and Bernstein (1994:87) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007:640), provide different views about the most appropriate number of elements for a good sample. Based on the guiding principles provided by these authors, eventually a sample of 300 participants was considered adequate.

Unfortunately, due to the nature of the population, the sampling procedures and practical restrictions, only a total of 205 individuals responded to the survey. While this response rate was low, it remains an adequate sample size to run exploratory analyses of items deemed to represent the specific constructs. Research has shown that fairly small samples between 100 and 200 is an appropriate number if several items are used to define each construct

(MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang & Hong, 1999). In addition, Comrey and Lee (1992) and Sapnas and Zeller (2002) remark that 200 participants can be considered a fair to adequate number to run an exploratory factor analysis and to obtain an accurate solution, which is in line with comments by Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988).

It seems from the previous discussion and guidelines in Table 4.6 that the sample of 205 *participants* is an adequate number for all the statistical analyses envisaged in the quantitative analysis of the data.

4.6 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Qualitative and quantitative methods were implemented for the data collection. The different methods used by the researcher were aligned to the research design and were applied in three waves:

During the first wave of data collection, in-depth interviews were conducted with 17 working mothers to gather qualitative information regarding the pressures and stressors that working single and married mothers experience, and to collect qualitative data about the systems and resources working mothers believe will help them in coping with high job and family demands.

The purpose of the second wave of data collection was to collect quantitative data from a panel of 30 experts to verify the relevance, clarity and the construct validity of the measurement items included in a draft questionnaire and to enable the researcher to make changes if necessary to develop a preliminary questionnaire.

During the third and final wave, quantitative data was collected from 205 working mothers with the preliminary questionnaire and two existing inventories. These questionnaires were distributed electronically by means of e-mail. The third data set was harnessed as the main source of information to assess the factor structure and reliability of the preliminary questionnaire that resulted from the analysis and interpretation of the first two sets of data. This data source was further used to assess the validity and reliability of the two existing inventories to survey the presence of stress

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symptoms and the coping behaviour of working mothers. Finally, the data was used to confirm the problems and pressures that single working mothers experience and to verify the relevant resources that enable single working mothers to deal with high job and family demands.

4.6.1 Procedure to collect data to develop a theoretical framework

The data about the pressures and stressors working mothers experience and the resources they need to cope with work-family demands were generated by means of interviews. 'An interview is a method of data collection that may be described as an interaction involving an interviewer and interviewee, with the purpose to obtain valid (credible) and reliable (dependable) information' (Marshall, 1998:82). In-depth interviews are often described as a conversation with a purpose and can be used in the first stages of research to obtain clarity on the problem involved. They may also be used as the main source of data or as a supplement.

In the current study, the data was collected via 17 one-on-one semi-structured interviews that lasted between 40 minutes and one hour each. The interviews were conducted at the participants' places of work or at their residence, if required. A number of reasons dictated the use of semi-structured interviews. First, the semi-structured interview is a proven, trustworthy and versatile technique for knowledge acquisition. It is recognized as a valuable research method for exploring 'data on understandings, opinions, what people remember doing, attitudes, feelings and the like, that people have in common' (Arksey & Knight, 1999:2).

Second, a semi-structured interview combines a structured agenda with the use of flexible, sensitive and reflexive methods that explore the personal experiences and interpretations that participants attach to events (Miles & Hubermann, 1994), while at the same time ensuring that stress and potential harm are minimised. This format of interviewing also prevents information from being overlooked, as may occur when a rigid interview schedule or a completely unstructured interview is followed. Eight relevant questions were constructed

and asked during the semi-structured interview (see Appendix A). Each interview explored a number of broad questions, including daily work experiences, work and family demands, relationships, work/non-work interactions, coping mechanisms and perceived support.

The average duration of each interview was 45 minutes. This allowed the researcher time in between the prepared questions to ask supplementary questions to clarify points and ask for more detail where necessary. The opportunity to probe deeper helped the researcher to gain valuable information. Additionally, the interviews with the 17 participants were tape-recorded and later transcribed, providing a theoretical model which was based on the qualitative analysis of the pressures and experiences that the mothers faced. (See Appendix B). As a result, it was not necessary for the researcher to take extensive notes during the interviews. This also helped to promote the development of rapport and a relationship between the researcher and the interviewees. A trust relationship was established with each interviewee by informing her of the confidentiality in disclosing sensitive information and providing her with an opportunity to withdraw from the interview if she wanted to. The demographic characteristics of the 17 interviewees are summarized in Table 4.

Throughout the whole process of data gathering, the guidelines for conducting an effective interview by Patton (1990:317) were followed: the researcher listened attentively and responded appropriately to let the person know she was being heard. The researcher made an effort to maintain neutrality towards the content of what the respondents were saying, as it was ‘their knowledge, experiences, attitudes and feelings’, to observe while interviewing, to be aware of and sensitive to how the person was affected by and responded to different questions, to ask clear questions, using understandable and appropriate language, to communicate clearly what information was desired, why that information is important, and to let the interviewee know how the interview is progressing and make an effort to build rapport with and hold respect for, the respondent as a person.

The data obtained from the interviews, transcribed protocols and literature were triangulated to propose a theoretical framework of the constructs that conceptualize the work and family demands that women in management and professional occupations in South Africa experience, and to define the resources needed to mitigate these demands.

Table 4.7: The demographic characteristics of the interviewees (n = 17).

Marital status	Single (n=10)		Married (n=7)		Total	
Variable	F	%	F	%	F	%
Age						
25-30	4	40.0	3	42.9	7	41.1
31-35	2	20.0	1	14.3	3	17.7
36-40	2	20.0	1	14.3	3	17.7
41-45	1	10.0	2	28.6	3	17.7
46>	1	10.0	-	-	1	5.8
Employment						
Full -time	9	90.0	7	100	16	94.1
Part-time	1	10.0	-	-	1	5.9
Years work experience						
1-3	4	40.0	3	42.9	7	41.2
4-6	4	40.0	3	42.9	7	41.2
7-9	2	20.0	1	14.2	3	17.6
Job classification						
Middle management	6	60.0	4	57.1	10	58.8
Senior management	4	40.0	3	42.9	7	41.2
Hours worked p/week						
38-40	10	100.0	7	100.0	17	100.0
Number of dependants						
One	3	30.0	2	28.6	5	29.4
Two	4	40.0	2	28.6	6	35.3
Three	3	30.0	1	14.3	4	23.5
Four	-		2	28.6	2	11.8
Negative experience						
Yes	5	50.0	4	57.1	9	52.9
No	5	50.0	3	42.9	8	47.1
Ongoing pressure						
Yes	8	80.0	4	57.1	12	70.6
No	2	20.0	3	42.9	5	29.4

Marital status	Single (n=10)		Married (n=7)		Total	
Variable	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**
Days sick leave in last three months						
None	5	50.0	2	28.6	7	41.2
One day	2	20.0	2	28.6	4	23.5
Two days	3	30.0	1	14.3	4	23.5
Three days	-	-	2	28.6	2	11.8

The age of the sample of interviewees ranged from 24 to 51 years, with a mean age of 33.9 years (SD=7.978) for the single mothers, and a mean age of 34.57 years (SD=6.679) for the married mothers. Most of the sample (16 or 91.4%) were employed full-time; only one of the single mothers worked part-time. All the interviewees were in management positions, with 58.8% in middle management and 41.2% in senior management. Their work experience ranged from one to nine years, with an average of 4.23 years (SD=2.385). Both sub-samples of interviewees have responsibilities in providing support to dependent family members. The single working mothers support, on average, two dependants; and the married mothers on average look after three dependants. Both sub-samples indicated that they had only used a small number of days for sick leave during the three months prior to the interviews.

4.6.2 Procedure to collect data to validate the draft questionnaire

Subsequent to the process described above, a draft framework questionnaire was designed, containing multiple measurement items relating to all the demand and support constructs identified for measurement. A copy of this questionnaire is contained in Appendix C. The draft questionnaire was reviewed by a group of 30 experts to ensure the necessary relevance, conciseness, clarity and validity of the items related to a specific construct. DeVellis (2003) points out that a panel of experts can be of great value to

confirm or invalidate the scale developer's definition of the phenomenon;

evaluate the items' clarity and conciseness; and

point out ways of tapping the phenomenon that the developer has failed to include.

Lawshe's (1975) content validity methodology was employed for this purpose. Lawshe's technique requires that a panel of subject matter experts who are knowledgeable about a particular area of expertise, function or discipline indicate whether or not a measurement item in a set of other measurement items is 'essential' to the functionality of a theoretical construct. (Refer to Section 4.8.2.4 regarding the use of Lawshe's technique.)

The 30 members of the panel were identified and asked to serve as content experts because of their experience and expertise in the social and management sciences. The panel consisted of 27 females (90%) and three males (10%). Their ages ranged from 25 to 58 years, with a mean age of 35.3 years (SD=7.12). Most of them (17 or 56.7%) were in the 30- to 40-year age group, while the younger and the older groups constituted 23.7% and 20% respectively. All the members of the panel had academic qualifications. Nine members (30%) of the panel had a first degree, ten (33.3%) had an Honours degree, seven (23.3%) had a Master's degree, and four (13.3%) held a doctorate. Twenty-two (73.3%) of the experts perceived themselves as part of middle management and eight (26.7%) were in senior management positions. With regard to the experts' marital status, the 23 single (76, 7%) and the three divorced (10%) members constituted 86.7% of the panel. Four married members made up the13.3% difference. In terms of their title, the bulk of the panel (83.3%) were designated as 'Miss', two (6.7%) were 'Doctor' and two were professors. Only one (3.3%) had the title of 'Mrs' and another one that of 'Mr' (3.3%). The demographic characteristics of the experts are depicted in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Demographic characteristics of the panel of experts (n = 30)

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Title		
Miss	24	80.0
Mrs	1	3.3
Mr	1	3.3
Doctor	2	6.7
Professor	2	6.7
Gender		
Female	27	90
Male	3	30
Marital status		
Single (never married)	23	76.7
Married	4	13.3
Divorced	3	10.0
Age		
<30 years	10	33.3
31-35 years	6	20.0
36-40years	8	26.7
>41 years	6	20.0
Qualification		
First degree	9	30.0
Honours degree	10	33.3
Master's degree	7	23.3
Doctorate	4	13.3
Job position		
Middle management	22	73.3
Senior management	8	26.7
Tenure in organisation		
1-4 years	17	56.7
5-8 years	11	36.7
9-12 years	2	6.6
Number of dependants		
None	1	3.3
One	7	23.3
Two	10	33.3
Three	7	23.3
Four	5	16.7

4.6.3 Procedure to collect data to validate the survey questionnaires

A survey approach was used for this study. Researchers that adopt a survey strategy are able to use a range of methods and tools within the strategy. This includes the use of interviews, documents, observations and questionnaires

(Denscombe, 2007) For the purpose of the current study, self-administered questionnaires were employed as the data-gathering method. The survey was administered electronically.

Due to the nature of the sample and its geographical distribution (country-wide), it was decided to use electronic mail as the method for delivering the survey questionnaires. Thach (1995:27) labels this type of research 'Email survey research' and defines it as 'the systematic data collection of information on a specific topic using computer questionnaires delivered to an online sample or population. Respondents receive, complete, and return their questionnaires via Email'. Couper, Traugott and Lamias (2001) and Sills and Song (2002) contend that the Internet has been found to be a useful means of conducting research with special populations that regularly use the Internet.

This procedure of data collection is viewed by several authors as a practical and feasible method that has the potential to aid in some aspects of the survey process with the following benefits (Andrews, Nonnecke & Preece, 2003; Marra & Bogue, 2006; Yun & Trumbo, 2000):

Faster survey processing: Using e-mail as a research method provides the advantages of speedy distribution and response cycles, because it can be sent, completed and returned in real-time. Unlike traditional mail, questionnaires by e-mail can be delivered simultaneously to all potential participants in a very short time (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998; Thach, 1995).

Cost saving: E-mail surveys have various cost saving benefits. The e-mail application almost eliminates printing and postage costs, and reduces the cost and time necessary to enter data, as the returned survey data are already in an electronic format (Cobanoglu, Warde & Moreo, 2001; Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). The costs per response decrease significantly as the sample size increases (Watt, 1999). There are also, apart from network use, no costs involved for the respondents.

Quicker response time with wider coverage: Due to the speed of online networks, participants can answer in minutes or hours, which improves the response time. E-mail surveys allow for a larger sample and unlimited geographic coverage.

Higher response rate: Research shows that for some populations, online data collection may facilitate a better response rate than paper surveys, and that the data collected is of a higher quality in comparison to that collected in mail surveys (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998; Sills & Song, 2002; Thach, 1995).

More sincere responses: Research shows that respondents are more likely to give truthful information on sensitive topics with electronic surveys than with paper surveys or interviews (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998; Thach, 1995). A study by Mukoma *et al*. (2004) in South Africa regarding the effects of a school-based HIV prevention programme on adolescent sexual behaviour confirmed that, overall, electronic questionnaires achieved better results in terms of acceptability and reliability.

Ease of administration: With all e-mail programs, it is possible to attach files to the e-mail message. These files can be opened by the respondent. The programs also provide the technical ability to track whether the delivered e-mail survey was opened, responded to or/and deleted, as well as whether the survey was undeliverable (Paolo, Bonamino, Gibson, Patridge & Kallail, 2000). Participants can print the questionnaire and complete it as a normal mail survey, or complete it on-line and return it via e-mail. The same format used for a mail survey can be used via e-mail, thus eliminating the need to design a special questionnaire. Finally, the respondents can easily be reached through the electronic medium, irrespective of their geographic location (Andrews *et al*., 2003; Marra & Bogue, 2006; Sills & Song, 2002; Thach, 1995).

E-mail surveys also have drawbacks that were considered in this research. Issues of concern related to this format of data-gathering includes the following:

- e-mail technology imposes limitations on the questionnaire design (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998);
- the population and sample are limited to those with access to a computer and online network (Thach, 1995);
- it is difficult to guarantee privacy, anonymity and confidentiality, as the respondent's e-mail address is generally included with his/her responses (Shannon, Johnson, Searcy & Lott, 2002); and

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there are potential technical problems with hardware and software (Thach, 1995).

A major concern in an e-mail survey is the possibility that participants who receive the questionnaire via e-mail perceive it as electronic 'junk mail' or 'spam' and delete it (Sills & Song 2002). As Thach (1995) argues, e-mail messages can be deleted as quickly as they were sent. Unlike with a standard mail questionnaire or interview, the respondent can discard e-mail at the touch of a button. This risk can be addressed by sending a personal e-mail to the potential participants, informing them about the study and the fact that they will be receiving the questionnaire via e-mail. Schaefer and Dillman (1998) found that multiple contacts and personalized letters to the individual participants have the potential to enhance the response rate.

An e-mail requesting potential respondents to participate in the study was sent to a sample of 300 working mothers that were identified during the snowball and purposive sampling process. The envisaged sample included 150 single and 150 married mothers working in management and professional positions and both targeted sub-groups received identical e-mails and attachments. A covering letter and three questionnaires were attached as a single document to the e-mails that were electronically dispatched to the two subsets in the sample. The covering letter accompanying the questionnaires explained the purpose of the research, its educational utility and relevance. It also stressed voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality. The respondents were assured that the researcher would shield the data and protect the confidentiality of respondents.

The preliminary Work-Family Pressure and Support Questionnaire (W-FPSQ), the Overall Stress Index (OSI) and the Coping Behaviour Index (CBI) were attached to the e-mail. To make it easier for the participants to complete the three questionnaires, they were presented in one document with three sections. Each section had its related instructions and relevant items. Clear standardized instructions in English were provided to direct the participants in their completion of the questionnaires. Furthermore, the layout of the comprehensive

questionnaire was offered in a user-friendly format which allowed the respondents to complete the sections one by one in their own time.

4.7 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ON THE FINAL SAMPLE

Of the 300 self-administered questionnaires sent out electronically, 205 were returned. This represented a return rate of 68.33% usable questionnaires. The return rate is marginally higher than the average return rate on mail-administrated surveys (Sheehan, 2001). The final sample included 104 single and 101 married working mothers. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), this number is adequate for an exploratory factor analysis and for most multivariate statistical analyses.

The sample ranged from skilled to senior management, whilst also representing diversity in terms of age and level of experience. Demographic information was extracted from all respondents in the first section of the questionnaire. Table 4.9 provides a summary of the demographic variables contained in the sample.

Table 4.9: A summary of the demographic variables contained in the sample (n=205)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Title		
Ms	14	6.8
Mrs	89	43.4
Miss	96	46.8
Doctor	5	2.5
Prof	1	0.5
Age		
25-30	30	14.6
31-34	64	31.2
35-38	83	40.5
39-44	28	13.7

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Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Marital status		
Single	104	50.7
Never married	76	37.1
Divorced	28	13.7
Married	101	49.3
Employment		
Full -time permanent	162	79.0
Part-time permanent	39	19.0
Casual full-time	1	0.5
Missing values	3	1.5
Years experience in organisation or profession		
1-3	44	21.5
4-6	67	32.7
7-9	48	23.4
10-12	24	11.7
13-15	12	5.9
16-18	6	2.9
19-21	1	0.5
Missing values	3	1.5
Job classification		
Skilled	6	2.9
Professional	93	45.4
Middle management	64	31.2
Senior management	38	18.5
Missing values	4	2.0
Qualification		
Certificate	3	1.5
Diploma	5	2.4
1st degree	38	18.5
Honours degree	74	36.2
Master's degree	79	38.5
Doctorate	6	2.9
Hours worked per week		
20-33	73	35.6
34-37	74	36.0
38-40	52	25.4
Over 40	6	3.0

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Number of children		
One	39	19.0
Two	93	45.4
Three	47	22.9
Four	18	8.8
Five	6	2.9
Six	2	1.0
Negative experience in last three months		
Yes	66	32.2
No	139	67.8
Ongoing negative pressure		
Yes	109	53.2
No	96	46.8
Days of sick leave in the last three months		
0	66	32.2
1-4	112	54.6
5-7	27	13.2
Negotiate non-standard working hours		
Yes	78	38.0
No	127	62.0
Age of youngest child		
1-5	85	41.5
6-0	89	43.4
11-18	31	15.1

4.7.1 Title and marital status

Since this study focused on married and single mothers, men were not approached at all. It was imperative to measure the status of the respondents, as in South African society, status confers social dignity and approval. Two measures of status were adopted, namely title and marital status (married and single, with the 'single' category subdivided into 'never married' and 'divorced').

With regard to title, nearly all (97.0%) participants fall into the categories of Ms (6.8%), Mrs (43.4%) and Miss (46.8%). Five participants (2.5%) were called Doctor and one (0.5%) had the title of Professor. With regard to marital status, the single women (women who have never married (76) and the divorced women (28)) constituted 104 or 50.7% of the respondents. The remaining 101 or 49.3% were married, which makes it an almost even split between the foremost variable of interest to this study.

4.7.2 Age

The respondents' ages ranged from 25 to 44 years (a spread of 19 years). The mean age was 34.5 years, with a standard deviation of 3.92. It was decided to group the ages into four categories. As is shown in Table 4.9, the age group from 25 to 30 years represented 30 (14.6%), the 31- to 34-year old category represented 64 (31.2%), the 35- to 38-year old age group represented 83 (40.5%) and the age group from 39 to 44 years represented 28 (13.7%) of the respondents. This information suggests that the bulk of the sample (147 respondents) fell into the age group from 31 to 38 years, while the younger and the older groups made up 15% and 14% respectively, a picture which approximates to a normal distribution (Sk = -0.104; Ku = -0.261).

4.7.3 Years of experience in the organisation or profession

Years of experience are a measure of an individual's membership of an organisation, which in turn affects an individual's attitudes and chances of promotion. The data shows that the respondents have a wide range of experience, with about 40% having spent one to five years and six to ten years respectively in their organisations or profession. A total of 37 or 17.1% have more than ten years of professional experience.

4.7.4 Nature of employment

The data on the nature of employment shows that nearly 80% of the respondents are permanently employed, while 39 (19%) are employed part-

time. The nature of employment may have an effect on a respondent's perceptions of work and personal pressure and the type of support she needs to cope with work and family demands.

4.7.5 Job classification

The table shows that the respondents mostly came from managerial ranks with 45.4% in professional management, and 50% in either senior or middle management positions. Four respondents did not indicate their levels of management. The management levels are important in determining not only the load of managerial responsibilities, but also the perquisites of the office.

4.7.6 Qualification

Only 8 or 4% of the respondents had less than a first degree, while others had either a first degree (18.5%), an Honours degree (36.1%) or Master's degree (38.5%). Six (2.9%) had doctorates. In essence, therefore, the respondents are highly educated by the standards of the South African workforce in general and women in particular.

4.7.7 Hours worked per week

The table shows that the hours worked per week ranged from 20 to 50 (with a spread of 30). The mean hours worked per week was 33.6 hours, with a standard deviation of 6.24. The data, when reorganised, indicated that 73 (35.6%) of the respondents worked between 20 to 30 hours per week, 74 (36%) worked between 34 and 37 hours per week, and 52 (25.4%) worked between 38 and 40 hours per week. Only six (3%) worked over 40 hours a week. The influence of time on the pressures experienced could be a significant factor in the managerial lives of working married and single mothers.

4.7.8 Number of children

The respondents all had children, ranging from one to six. The average is two

children, with a standard deviation of one. The attachment of black African families to children is an important cultural trait, which the modern working life has put under pressure. It is at the centre of the work-family conflict and is especially acute for single working mothers, more so than for their partnered counterparts (one of the significant motivations for undertaking this study).

In addition to taking care of their children, the members of a black African family, more so than their European counterparts, are also obliged to care for other members of the extended family, such as cousins, nephews and nieces. It was therefore important to measure the extent of the respondents' responsibilities for the extended family system. The data shows that the single mothers in the study provided for seven family members and the married mothers had to contribute to meet the needs of up to 17 additional persons. Extended family members included parents (5), mothers-in-law (2) and fathers-in-law (3), step-children (6), cousins (4), nieces (2) and nephews (2).

4.7.9 Negative experiences

Work and family pressures are often exacerbated by life's unpredictable traumas. It was important that this information be sought from the respondents. About one third of the respondents (66 or 32.2%) reported having had such negative experiences, while 139 or 67.8% did not. The nature of these negative experiences was also explored and the responses yielded the following categories:

Negative experiences happening to self

The most frequently cited cases were

- a break-up in a relationship;
- automobile accidents, thefts and hijacking;
- divorce;
- betrayal by partners, infidelity;
- home burglary; and
- rape.

Negative experiences happening to very close friends

- a break-up of relationships;

- death of close friends (classmates, pals, friends, colleagues, family members);
- retrenchment of husband/wife; and
- the rape of a best friend.

4.7.10 Ongoing negative pressures

Some of these negative pressures are also on-going for 109 (53.2%) of the respondents, which means that there were probably fewer people who admitted to experiencing negative pressures in the first instance. The important point to bear in mind is that about half of the respondents have been victims, directly or indirectly, of recent negative experiences which are still having an impact on their lives. Cross-tabulation of the respondents' experiences of unpleasant events and their experience of on-going negative pressures indicated a significant association between the two sets of responses (Phi = 0.375; $p < 0.001$).

4.7.11 Days of sick leave

The incidence of sick leave was measured by asking the respondents the number of days of sick leave they had taken in the last three months. They reported taking between zero and seven days. The mean was 2.1, with a standard deviation of 1.89. The data, when reorganised, indicated that 66 or 32.2% of the respondents had not taken any sick leave during the last three months. On the other hand, 112 or 54.6% took between one and four days, while 27 or 13.2% took between five and seven days. Apart from the number of days of productive work lost to the organisations and the nation, sick leave, whether permitted or unpermitted, is symptomatic of pressures, including sickness and other negative experiences such as the trauma mentioned above.

4.7.12 Negotiate non-standard working hours

The pressures at work and the incidents of family demands might necessitate

the reorganisation of work to accommodate the workers. Hence, the ability of the workers to negotiate such non-standard working hours was tested by asking the respondents if it was possible for them to enter into such negotiations. About 38% indicated that they could negotiate non-standard working hours while 62% indicated otherwise.

4.7.13 Age of youngest child

The respondents were asked to indicate the age of their youngest child, since this could affect working mothers' priorities and commitment to their home life. Children at a tender age are more dependent and need more full-time care. The results indicate that the mean age of the youngest child was 6.87, with a standard deviation of 3.74. The children's ages ranged from one to 18 years and the reorganised data shows that 85 or 41.5% were between one and five years old, while 89 or 43.4% were between six and ten years old. In other words, 85% of the respondents had children aged between one and ten years. Only 31 or 15.1% had children over the age of ten years. Thus, most of the children of the respondents were of primary school age, when children need much attention in and out of school.

Although South Africa is a country with a diverse population encompassing many people with different cultures and languages, it was decided beforehand not to ask the participants to classify themselves in terms of ethnicity. In post-apartheid South Africa, a question regarding a person's ethnicity or race remains a sensitive topic, and the researcher did not want to offend any of the potential participants in the targeted sample. It was also reasoned that the decision not to enclose questions related to race might increase the response rate. However, the most important reason for this decision is the underlying assumption that women of all races have more in common as women than there are differences.

4.8 MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

4.8.1 Introduction

A questionnaire as a measure of behaviour is one of the most efficient instruments available for collecting data. Hence, questionnaires are widely used by social scientists to measure factors as diverse as opinions, attitudes, emotional states, personality and a variety of organisational behaviour constructs. A questionnaire is a series of written questions in a sequence on a topic about which the respondent's opinions are sought (Sommer & Sommer, 1991). In the field of Organisational Psychology, questionnaires typically contain fixed-response questions about organisational and personal variables and can be administered to large numbers of people simultaneously. According to Foddy (2001), questionnaires provide a rapid and often inexpensive way of discovering the characteristics of subjects under investigation. Behr (1988) points out that questionnaires are used in more than half of the total research in education to look for factual information, and to determine opinions, attitudes and interests.

Researchers can use either closed-ended (structured) or open-ended questionnaires (unstructured) to obtain the data relevant to the topic of the research study. A structured questionnaire provides different options for each question, and the respondent is simply required to select and mark the applicable answer (Babbie, 1998). This makes it easier to answer questions and classify and code information. However, this may force the respondent to think along certain lines (Behr, 1988).

Unstructured questionnaires require far more cooperation on the part of the respondents, since they are required to answer the open-ended questions in their own words. The use of unstructured questionnaires in a mail survey significantly reduces cooperation without providing much helpful information (Sudman & Blair, 1998), and mail surveys with unstructured questionnaires tend to have the lowest response rates of all survey methods (Welman & Kruger, 1999).

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The researcher therefore considered the closed-ended format questionnaire as the most suitable method for collecting the primary data to answer the research questions asked in this study. The advantages of using a structured questionnaire included the following, according to Behr (1988):

A great advantage of the structured questionnaire is its *usefulness.* It can be sent to a large number of respondents to obtain their input and opinions on the topic of the study.

It is a relatively inexpensive method that saves time and cost. Questioning people is usually much faster and more cost-effective than observing respondents. Both time and money are saved.

Structured questionnaires are more convenient for respondents to complete. It is easier for respondents to answer as they are given choices and the answering of questions can be kept impersonal.

The questionnaire technique promotes anonymity and may result in more honest responses.

Closed-ended questionnaires with standardised scales simplify the coding of data and facilitate the accumulation and analysis of data.

The closed-ended questionnaire provides a level of objectivity of measurement, as it offers a quantifiable framework for the quantitative processing of the responses of the respondents.

The downside of using structured questionnaires includes, first, that responses are only related to the questions covered in the instrument; second, that respondents cannot seek clarification; and, third, that these instruments are impersonal and allow response biases (Cummings & Worley, 2001:115). A fourth limitation is that there is limited opportunity for probing for clarification, or to provide such clarification. The questionnaire technique is not suited to answering questions related to 'How?' and 'Why?'

4.8.2 Questionnaire construction

There are specific sets of rules on constructing a structured questionnaire. Hence, the development of a valid and reliable questionnaire is a complex process (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:115). Nevertheless, there are general

guidelines on where to start and the kind of pitfalls to avoid. According to Oppenheim (1996), there are five categories of decisions one has to consider before constructing a questionnaire. These relate to the main method of data collection; methods of approach to the respondents; how questions will be ordered and sequenced; and the order of questions within each question sequence; and lastly the use of different types of questions, such as closed or free response questions.

The methodology for developing a measurement instrument described in the guidelines by DeVellis (2003:60-71) and Pett, Lackey and Sullivan (2003:47) was found to be the most useful in developing the measurement instrument for the current study.

Table 4.10: Comparison of two sets of scale development guidelines

Steps	DeVellis (2003:60-71)	Pett *et al.* (2003:47)
1	Determine clearly what must be measured.	Identify the measurement framework.
2	Generate item pool.	Identify the empirical indicators of the construct.
3	Determine the format for measurement.	Develop the instrument.
4	Have initial item pool reviewed by experts.	Pilot test the instrument.
5	Consider inclusion of validated items.	Determine the number of subjects.
6	Administer the items to a development sample.	Administer the instrument.
7	Evaluate the items.	
8	Optimise scale length.	

Sources: DeVellis (2003:60) and Pett *et al.* (2003:47).

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A combination of the steps referred to in Table 4.10 was followed in this study to develop the measurement instrument needed to quantitatively estimate the theoretical constructs. The following steps were followed:

identify the measurement framework and define the construct;

generate an item pool;

determine the format for measurement;

have the initial item pool reviewed by experts;

administer items to a development sample; and

evaluate the items and optimize scale length.

4.8.2.1 Identify the measurement framework and determine what must be measured

In Step One, clear and exact parameters of what is to be measured was established through a comprehensive literature study and an analysis of data generated by means of the interviews. This step helped the researcher to comprehend the context of the subject matter involved and to determine a clear frame of reference of the level of specificity at which the construct was to be measured.

Using these analyses, two interrelated theoretical models were developed. The first model illustrates the constructs associated with the constraints, problems and stressors that affect working women's job performance and family life. The second model shows the governmental, organisational and personal resources necessary to support working mothers to cope with high job and family demands. The systems approach was used to display both models; and the relevant concepts were presented according to input variables, process variables and output variables. Based on the two interrelated models discussed in Chapters 2 and 3 and the data generated from the interviews, the concepts identified were categorised into the following nine related themes or domains:

Theme/Domain 1: Work demands and family responsibilities;

Theme/Domain 2: Time pressure;

Theme/Domain 3: Financial pressure;

Theme/Domain 4: Feelings of isolation;

Theme/Domain 5: Childcare arrangements;

Theme/Domain 6: The need to improve oneself;

Theme/Domain 7: Presence of mentors;

Theme/Domain 8: Organisational support; and

Theme/Domain 9: Personal support.

4.8.2.2 Identify the indicators of the construct and generate an item pool

During this step appropriate items were constructed and selected from different resources. A painstaking effort was made to ensure that all items reflect the concepts of interest and the latent underlying variables of the draft framework questionnaire. To ensure that the questions will elicit the data that is required, the researcher made sure that the content of the items was related to the themes and in line with the purpose of the framework questionnaire.

Furthermore, when the items were chosen for the draft framework questionnaire, the characteristics of good and bad items, the principles relating to redundancy, and the implications of positively and negatively worded items were considered, as recommended by DeVellis (2003:60) and Mouton (2001:103). To safeguard against possible poor internal consistency of the scales, 121 items was originally included in the initial item pool. An objective in the generation of scale items is to have at least twice as many items as the final number that is needed (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994:128). Redundancy is more desirable in the initial item pool than in the final scale (DeVellis, 2003). Positively (90) and negatively (34) worded items were included to limit affirmation or agreement bias (a tendency of a respondent to agree with items, irrespective of their content).

4.8.2.3 Determine the format for measurement and the scaling of questions

In this step, a decision was made on the scaling methodology and the number of response categories. It was decided to use the nine key elements or latent domains of the construct (see Section 4.8.2.1) as scales in the scaling of the

draft framework questionnaire. 'Scaling', according to Netemeyer *et al*. (2003:2-10), is the measurement of the theoretical construct on a multi-item basis. The latent domains were assessed with a number of grouped items (scale) that provide quantitative estimates of the corresponding construct, as proposed by DeVellis (2003:60). The items of the nine subscales of the framework questionnaire were included on their face validity and consisted of items that are more or less parallel. In selecting the items for the different scales, the researcher aspired to choose appropriate items that fully covered a domain and not just one part of it, as recommended by Comrey and Lee (1992). Pett *et al*. (2003:16) claim that in developing a psychological scale, a researcher is more interested in the latent domain the items attempt to measure than in the items themselves. For this reason, it was important to validate the quality of the items prior to developing the actual scale, by using a technique such as Lawshe's (1975) test of content validity. Revising and discarding unnecessary items was considered after the Lawshe (1975) analysis.

In the development of the framework questionnaire, the level or scale of measurement was also considered, as it is paramount in shaping the information that was collected (DeVellis, 2003:16). The process of measurement involves assigning numbers or symbols to different characteristics of variables or to observations, according to rules. The way that the numbers are assigned determines the scale of measurement. In this research, categorical, rank ordered and continuous scales were used in the construction of the preliminary questionnaire.

Depending the use for which the data that is collected is intended (Netemeyer, *et al*., 2003:22), four levels of measurement are traditionally distinguished, namely the nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio levels. These four levels of measurement are important in determining the nature of the scale, the data and the appropriate statistics. Cooper and Schindler (2003:223), as well as Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner and Barrett (2007:37-42, 88-89), describe the measurement characteristics of four different levels of measurement and the scale associated with them along these lines:

Nominal (categorical scale): This is the most basic level of measurement and the numerals assigned simply name or categorise responses. Gender, ethnicity, language and religion are examples of variables measured on a nominal level. The arbitrary number assigned to a category gives the identity of the category and has no numerical value. Many of the variables included in the demographic section of the questionnaire are at this level.

Ordinal (rank ordered scale): The rank ordered scale can be used for the empirical determination of greater or lesser value, for example, the quality of organisational support may be ranked as very good, good, average, poor or very poor. However, the difference between a response with a higher ranking and one with a lower ranking cannot be quantified. There is no objective distance between any two points on this scale. Items with three or more ordered response levels are called ordered-category items and are assessed at an ordinal level.

Interval (continuous scale): In a continuous scale, it is assumed that the scale has equidistant points between each of the scale elements. This means that the points are ordered on the scale from low to high in categories that are equally spaced. Differences in the distance along the scale can be empirically interpreted. For example, a summated Likert-scale using several Likert-type items of which the items measure on a 'strongly agree' to a 'strongly disagree' continuum of several points would be considered an interval level measure. However, if the scores of respondents on a single Likert-type item are used for analysis, it is considered an ordered-category item that is measured at an ordinal level.

Ratio (continuous scale): This is the highest level of measurement and provides for the empirical determination of equality of ratios, as in most physical measurements, for example, age in years, temperature in degrees, mass, length or time. These measures have standardised equal intervals between the levels or scores and a true zero level. This kind of measurement scale is not normally used in the behavioural sciences.

Scaling is also referred to as the process of creating a continuum on which objects are located according to the number of the measured characteristics

they possess (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 1995). Debate continues in the literature regarding the exact number of response categories or points that it is best for a continuous scale to measure at an interval level. In this study, it was decided to use a Likert-type scale that has a relatively structured response format. This scale consists of a collection of statements or items about the attitudinal object and asks for an agreement or disagreement response on a specific statement. Based on the statement or item, the respondent chooses a number from 1 to 7, using the criteria set out in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Structured response format for a Likert-type item

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

This is the most popular scale in psychological and behavioural research for measuring opinions, beliefs or attitudes (Cooper & Schindler, 2003:253; Creswell, 2002:310; Pett *et al*., 2003:32). Uebersax (2006) found rampant confusion about the use of Likert-designed scales and items in the literature. With this in mind, Uebersax (2006) pointed out that the following characteristics define a Likert-type scale:

the scale itself consists of several items;

options are arranged horizontally;

response options are anchored with consecutive integers;

response options should additionally be anchored with verbal labels representing evenly spaced gradation;

response options are symmetrical about a neutral point; and

the scale measures levels of agreement or disagreement in respect of a statement.

Unfortunately, due to the inherent limitations of scaling psychological measurements, the level of measurement of the questionnaire used in the present study can only be regarded as consisting of approximately equal intervals, as described by Kerlinger and Lee (2000) and Morgan *et al*. (2007).

4.8.2.4 The revision of the initial item pool by experts

In this phase, subject matter experts were asked to rate the relevancy of each statement to the latent domain the researcher intended to measure. The panel of experts was also requested to evaluate the clarity and conciseness of items; and to point out ways of enhancing the measurement of the phenomenon by identifying items that had not been included. The main purpose of this step was to test and revise the questionnaire before the main study was undertaken, in line with the recommendations of Coleman and Briggs (2002:167).

The framework questionnaire consisting of 121 items, plus demographic information, was pre-tested and verified by a group of 30 experts to ensure the necessary relevance and validity, by employing Lawshe's content validity methodology (Lawshe, 1975:263-575). A copy of this questionnaire is contained in Appendix C. The results of the application of Lawshe's technique were used to eliminate irrelevant items.

The application of this technique provided the researcher with a quantitative index of the extent to which the subject matter experts agree on the contributions of each measurement item to the constructs that the instrument is intended to measure. The subject matter experts' data was used to compute the Content Validity Ratio (CVR) for each possible item in the measurement instrument as follows:

$$CVR = \frac{n_e - N/2}{N/2}$$

Where:

CVR = CVR value for the item:

ne = number of subject matter experts indicating that a measurement item is **'essential'**; and

N/2 = total number of subject matter experts on the panel divided by two.

The CVR is a quasi-quantitative approach to content validity commonly used to facilitate ‘the rejection or retention of specific items’ (Lawshe, 1975:568). One can infer from the CVR equation that it takes on values between -1.0 where none of the subject matter experts think that a particular measurement item is ‘essential’ and +1.0 where all the subject matter experts think that a particular measurement item is ‘essential’. Where a CVR = 0.0 it means that 50% of the subject matter experts in the panel of size N believe that the measurement item is ‘essential’. Therefore a CVR > 0.0 would indicate that more than half of the subject matter experts believe that a particular measurement item is ‘essential’.

According to Lawshe (1975:567) two assumptions can be made, namely:

- any item which is perceived as ‘essential’ by more than half of the subject matter experts, has some degree of content validity; and
- the more subject matter experts (above 50%) who perceive the item as ‘essential’, the greater the extent or degree of its content validity.

On this basis, content validity is achieved when an item is considered ‘essential’ by more than 50% of the subject matter experts. Lawshe (1975:568) has further established minimum CVRs for different panel sizes, based on a one-tailed test at the = 0.05 significance level. The minimum required CVR values as determined by Lawshe (1975:568) for different panel sizes are depicted in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Minimum CVR values for different numbers of subject matter experts

Number of panellists	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40
Minimum CVR value	0.99	0.62	0.49	0.42	0.37	0.33	0.31	0.29

Source: Lawshe (1975:568)

For example, with 30 subject matter experts on the panel, measurement items for a specific construct whose CVR values are less than 0.33 would be deemed not ‘essential’ and would be deleted from subsequent consideration. For the

purposes of this study, a CVR value of 0.40 and higher was set as the criterion for the inclusion of an item in the domain or constructs it is related to.

4.8.2.5 Administer items to a development sample, evaluate the items and optimize the scale length

During this step, the construct validity of the final measuring instrument was determined and an evaluation of the items in each scale was done (DeVellis, 2003:51). To this end, the preliminary questionnaire was distributed to 300 potential participants that belonged to a non-probable purposive sample of mothers working in management and professional occupations. The questionnaire was distributed electronically by means of e-mail. The data set generated in this manner was used to test and validate the preliminary questionnaire.

Exploratory factor analyses, reliability analyses and item analyses were performed to ensure that the final questionnaire complies with the requirements and criteria for a measuring instrument to be suitable in the behavioural sciences. These criteria include validity, reliability and practicability, as proposed by Cooper and Schindler (2003).

Exploratory factor analysis was carried out to establish the underlying internal structure of the preliminary Work-Family Pressure and Support Questionnaire (W-FPSQ). DeVellis (2003) and Field (2009) note that factor analysis helps investigators to determine how many latent variables underlie a set of items and which groups of items, if any, constitute a unidimensional set or domain. Spector (1992) suggests that with multidimensional scales, factor analysis can be used to verify that the items empirically form the intended factors or scales. In the current study, principal axis factoring was used as a method to determine the contribution of the 96 items towards the latent domains or factors of the W-FPSQ and to get an indication of the construct validity of the W-FPSQ.

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According to Spector (1992), the purpose of item analysis is to identify those items that form an internally consistent scale and to eliminate those items that do not. Reliability testing of the proposed scales of the W-FPSQ means that the related items should consistently reflect the construct that the questionnaire claims to measure, in line with the arguments of Field (2009:673). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to establish the reliability or extent to which items cohere with a specific scale or domain, as suggested by Field (2009:674). By determining the reliability of the W-FPSQ, the researcher was able to establish the consistency to which all the items of a scale measure the same domain, as proposed by Saunders *et al*. (2007:367). The average correlations between the items of each scale were also calculated to examine the internal consistency and unidimensionality of the factors of the W-FPSQ, as suggested by Clark and Watson (1995). Lastly, the item-discrimination index of the individual items was calculated to ascertain the ability of each item to discriminate between high and low scores, in line with Gregory (2004).

The results of the above mentioned steps and statistical calculations are depicted and discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

4.8.3 The layout of the questionnaire

It was decided to use a structured questionnaire with closed-ended questions in the present study (see Appendix D). A structured questionnaire provides alternative responses to each question, and the respondent simply needs to select and mark the applicable answer. In this study, a Likert-type scale with various items or statements was used, and the respondents had to indicate on a seven-point scale if they agree or disagree with a statement.

Survey questionnaires are normally used to obtain the following types of information from respondents: demographic details (age, marital status, job classification, and so on), perceptions, opinions, beliefs, stereotypes, attitudes and values. For this study, a questionnaire was developed for collecting information on mothers' demographic details, the various problems and stressors that they face and the resources available to mitigate work and family

demands. Two sub-scales of an existing inventory were used to assess the stress symptoms experienced by working mothers and to gauge the coping behaviour they used to manage stressful situations. The covering letter (see Appendix D) and the questionnaire (see Appendix D) were drawn up in English. The layout of the questionnaire is provided in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Layout of the questionnaire

Section	Topic of section	No of questions
1	Personal particulars (demographic data)	15
2	The problems , stressors and issues that working mothers face and support systems	96
3	Stress symptoms experienced over the last three months	11
4	The various ways of coping with the source of pressure experienced	17
Total number of questions		139

Section 1 consisted of 15 questions related to the respondents' personal information and required the respondents to choose the options that apply to them. These questions referred amongst other things to respondents' title, age, marital status, job classification and work arrangement.

Section 2 of the questionnaire consisted of 96 statements related to work and family demands and stressors respondents may experience and the resources available to mitigate work and family demands. The statements were formatted according to a Likert-type scale, with anchors ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

Section 3 consisted of 11 questions concerning stress-related behaviour. This included physical symptoms and feelings of exhaustion and low energy levels that respondents may have experienced during the last three months prior to the completion of the questionnaire.

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Section 4 included 17 items regarding various ways to consciously or subconsciously deal with sources of pressure and stress. These items provide a measurement of respondents' coping behaviour to avoid the stressors or manage their stress.

The items used in Sections 3 and 4 were derived and excerpted from 'The Pressure Management Indicator Questionnaire' (PMI) developed by Cooper and Williams (1996) and published by Resource Systems. The researcher requested and received permission from Resource Systems (Stephen Williams) to use the PMI in the present study (see Appendices E and F).

According to Gill and Davidson (2001:386-387), the PMI measures sources of stress using eight sub-scales and the effects of stress by means of seven sub-scales. The sub-scales of the PMI have been found to demonstrate high levels of reliability. Except for one sub-scale ('daily hassles'), the reliability coefficients of all the sub-scales exceed alpha = 0.7 (Williams & Cooper, 1998:311). The validity of some of the PMI scales is still to be established, according to Gill and Davidson (2001:387). Aligned with the objectives of this study, it was decided to use only two of the sub-scales of the PMI, namely the 'physical health' and 'coping strategy', to assess the level of stress symptoms and the coping behaviour of single and married working mothers. Consequently, 26 items of the 146 items of the PMI were considered for inclusion in the current survey.

Nine of the 11 items in Section 3 were extracted from the 'physical health' sub-scale of the PMI. Two additional items were added to cover the effects of stress further. The 17 items related to coping behaviour were derived from the 'coping strategy' sub-scale of the PMI. All the items included in Sections 3 and 4 were personalised to ensure that the respondents could identify themselves with the related behaviour more easily when applicable. For the purposes of this study, the 11 items which parallel the essentials of physical stress symptoms and feelings of exhaustion were incorporated into a questionnaire named the Overall Stress Index (OSI), and the 17 items that are related to coping with stress were included in a measure called the Coping Behaviour Index (CBI).

The items in both questionnaires were scaled and scored in accordance with the scoring method laid down for the relevant sub-scales by Cooper and Williams (1996). The items of the OSI are rated on a six-point scale. The respondents had to indicate how often they had experienced specific stress symptoms over the last three months. The scoring is on a continuum from 1 to 6 with the following descriptive categories: 'Never', 'Very infrequently', 'Infrequently', 'Sometimes', 'Frequently', and 'Very frequently'. The items of the CBI are also rated on a six-point scale and the respondents had to indicate the coping behaviour they used to deal with issues or events that had been a source of pressure to them during the last three months. The following descriptive categories was used for each item: (1) Never used by me, (2) Seldom used by me, (3) On balance not used by me, (4) On balance used by me, (5) Extensively used by me, (6) Very extensively used by me. Analyses of the factor structure, construct validity and the reliability of the OSI and CBI for the present sample (n = 205) are reported in Sections 5.4 and 5.5 of the study.

4.8.4 Appearance of the questionnaire and covering letter

The physical appearance of the questionnaire plays a vital role in a respondent's decision whether or not to complete it. Aaker *et al.* (1995) regard the clarity of reproduction and the appearance of crowding as important factors. For this study, the questionnaire was well formatted, and ample white space was allowed between the questions, as well as between the sections. Clear instructions on how to complete the questionnaire were also provided.

Time constraints also have a direct influence on respondents' willingness to complete the questionnaire. If the questions are too difficult or too time-consuming to complete, the respondents tend not to complete the questionnaire. Although the composite questionnaire consisted of 139 questions, which is a fairly large number of questions, the questions were formulated in a simple way which made it relatively easy for the respondents. Approximately 30 minutes were needed to complete the questionnaire for this study.

The first part of the survey questionnaire contained a covering or introductory letter and information on how the participants should complete the questionnaire. According to Coleman and Briggs (1995), a covering letter is an essential part of a survey. It is a tool which is employed to introduce the respondents to the questionnaire and to improve participation (see Appendix D). It is common, especially with mail-administered questionnaires, to have low response rates which ultimately affect the validity of the research (Yun & Trumbo, 2000). In order to increase the response rate and to prove that the e-mail was not junk mail, a covering letter using an official letterhead and signed by the study leader was attached to the questionnaire. The covering letter stated the purpose of the study, the potential benefits and its significance. Furthermore, it referred to the ethical considerations, such as privacy, voluntary participation, and the confidentiality of the answers. The respondents were also assured of anonymity in order to encourage them to be honest in answering the questionnaire.

4.8.5 Ethics

The study was conducted in an ethical manner. The University of Pretoria's ethics committee's approval was sought before the commencement of this study. According to Cooper and Schindler (2001:112), 'research must be designed so a respondent does not suffer physical harm, discomfort, pain, embarrassment, or loss of privacy'. In order to prevent any such detrimental effects for any subject, the researcher ensured that the context of the research was explained, that participation was voluntary (informed consent was obtained from all participants) and that confidentiality has been honoured. Neuman (1997:455) cites the following principles of ethical social research:

- 'ethical responsibility rests with the individual researcher;
- subjects or students should not be exploited for personal gain;
- some form of informed consent is highly recommended or required;
- all guarantees of privacy, confidentiality and anonymity should be honoured;
- subjects should not be coerced or humiliated;
- deception should only used when needed and should always be accompanied by debriefing;

- the details of the study should be released with the results;
- interpretations of the results consistent with the data should be made;
- an appropriate research method for the topic should be used;
- undesirable consequences to research subjects should be detected and removed;
- possible repercussions of the publication of the results should be anticipated;
- the sponsor funding the research should be identified;
- cooperation with hosting nations doing comparative research should be instituted;
- high methodological standards should be used and the researcher should strive for accuracy; and
- secret research should not be conducted'.

It should be noted that not all these criteria applied to this study, but all the relevant requirements mentioned above were met in the execution of all the phases of this research.

4.9 DATA ANALYSIS

4.9.1 Textual data analysis

The data analysis commenced with the textual data generated by means of the semi- structured interviews. Holsti (1969:14) offers a broad definition of content analysis; he describes it as 'any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages'. Strauss and Corbin (1990) define content analysis as a process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising and categorising of data. Marshall and Rossman (1989, cited in De Vos, 1998; 342-343) suggest five steps in quantitative data analysis:

Step 1: Organise the data.

Step 2: Generate categories, themes and patterns.

Step 3: Test emerging hypotheses against the data.

Step 4: Search for alterative explanations of the data.

Step 5: Record the findings.

In this study, the researcher followed the steps set out below. Firstly, she listened to all the taped responses of the 17 interviewees a few of times to develop a holistic understanding of concepts involved. The second step in the data analysis involved categorizing the data. This included breaking down the semi-structured interviews into units of analysis. Thirdly, the content (words, statements and views) of the units of analysis were extracted from the data to understand how single and married mothers respectively experience their world of work and family life. Fourthly, the different examples were clustered (Miles & Huberman, 1994) to identify the existence of certain prominent themes. Fifthly, the common themes were integrated into relevant constructs that were used to build a theoretical framework. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003:43), 'a construct is an image or idea specifically invented for a given research and/or theory-building purpose'.

Nine themes or domains were identified that were important to understand the nature of the problems, pressures and stressors working mothers experience; and the nature of the resources that can mitigate the stressors and support working mothers to cope with work and family demands (refer to Section 4.8.2.1 for the list of domains that signify the measuring construct of this study).

4.9.2 Capturing and coding the quantitative data

Data obtained from respondents on questionnaires must be thoroughly scrutinized before it can be analysed. Data preparation includes data editing, coding, inspection and statistical adjustment of the data, if required (Aaker *et al*, 1995).

Upon receipt of the questionnaires, each questionnaire was edited to identify omissions, ambiguities and errors in the responses. Illegible or missing answers were coded as 'missing'. This simplified the data analysis, but did not distort any interpretations of the data.

Coding the closed-ended questions was fairly straightforward, because the questionnaire made provision for response values and a column which was used for variable identification. The response values of the sample (n=205) were originally captured on an Excel spreadsheet and later exported into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows (Version 17.0) to generate the diagnostic information. The datasets of the single and married working mothers were merged in SPSS and all the variables were numerically coded, named, defined and labelled. Value labels were assigned to the different groupings and the levels of measurement were indicated. Thereafter, frequency analysis was done on the data to check for duplicate entries, labels, missing values, discrepant values, wild codes and data input errors. All mistakes were rectified.

4.9.3 Statistical analysis

One of the issues that are often raised in survey research is whether the statistical procedures used for the processing of the data are the most appropriate. Various factors have to be considered before suitable statistical techniques can be selected for analysing complicated data sets (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In this research, the objectives of the study, the sample size, the distribution of sample scores, the type of measurement, the number of variables that needed to be analysed simultaneously and homogeneity of variance were the determining factors.

The data gained from all the returned questionnaires was subjected to specific quantitative explorative procedures and analyses. The frequency distribution of each variable and scale, as well as its level of measurement were determined. This exercise was important to examine the extent to which the assumptions of the statistics that were considered were met. Two general types of statistical methods were available to the researcher, namely, parametric and non-parametric methods. The conventional assumption about the population scores in a parametric test is that they are normally distributed, the variances of the groups are equal and the dependent variable is an approximate interval scale.

By contrast, the non-parametric method, often referred to as a distribution-free method, does not rely on assumptions that the data are drawn from a given probability distribution (Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner, & Barrett, 2007).

The choice of statistical procedures was also based on the level of measurement achieved in the research. In this study, categorical, rank order and continuous scales were used in collecting the data to quantify the independent and dependent variables:

- Permissible statistics at a nominal measurement level or categorical scale include counts, cross-tabulation with the Chi-square, Phi or Cramer's V. Highly sophisticated modelling techniques are also available for nominal data.
- Statistics that may be used at an ordinal measurement level or rank order scale are in the non-parametric group and consist of mean ranks, median and mode, the Mann-Whitney test, the Kruskal-Wallis, Spearman rank order correlation or Kendall Tau and non-parametric MANOVA.
- When an interval measurement level or continuous scale are used, the statistics that may be considered fall into the parametric group and include measures of central tendency and variability, factor analysis, Student's t-test, the one-way ANOVA, Pearson correlation, Regression, Multiple regression, factorial ANOVA and MANOVA .
- All the parametric statistical procedures listed above can be used for calculations involving ratio type data.

After considering the factors mentioned above, a number of statistical techniques were selected as the basis for describing and making inferences about the data set. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to analyse the data. These included statistical applications and calculations such as factor analysis, correlation, comparing two means, multivariate analysis of variance and logistic regression, strength of association and effect size.

4.9.3.1 Factor analysis

In the behavioural sciences, factor analysis is frequently used to uncover the latent structure (dimensions) of a set of variables and to assess whether given instruments measure substantive constructs (Cortina, 1993). Hence, Hatcher (1994) has recommended that researchers use the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) procedure when they attempt to determine the number and content of factors measured by an instrument.

In the present study, principal factor analysis (PFA) was used to establish the internal structure and factor validity of the questionnaires that were used. PFA is also referred to as principal axis factoring (PAF) or common factor analysis and is a form of factor analysis that seeks the least number of factors that can account for the common variance of a set of variables (Garson, 2008).

In the present study, a principal factor analysis was done for each of the questionnaires, namely the Work-Family Pressure and Support Questionnaire (W-FPSQ), the Overall Stress Index (OSI), and the Coping Behaviour Index (CBI). The statistical software package SPSS for Windows (Version 17.0) was used for the majority of the statistical procedures.

The steps followed in the factor analysis were as follows:

Step 1: Computing a matrix of correlations between the items.

Step 2: Subjecting the correlation matrix to a factor analysis.

Step 3: Deciding on the number of factors (dimensions) to be extracted.

Step 4: Extracting an x-number of factors.

Step 5: Rotating the factor solution to a more interpretable solution.

4.9.3.2 Reliability analysis

Testing the internal consistency or reliability of a scale is important, because it measures the degree to which all the items in a scale measure the same attribute. Internal consistency implies a high degree of generalizability across the items within the test. Cronbach's alpha coefficient is the most common estimate of internal consistency of items in a scale. According to Cortina,

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(1993), alpha is a sound measure of error variance, and can be used to confirm the unidimensionality of a scale, or to measure the strength of a dimension once the existence of a single factor has been determined.

Coefficient alpha reflects important information on the proportion of error variance contained in a scale. Owing to the multiplicity of the items measuring the factors, the Cronbach alpha coefficient is often considered to be the most suitable, since it has the most utility of multi-item scales at the internal level of measurement (Cooper & Emory, 1995). In addition to estimating internal consistency from the average correlation, the formula for alpha also takes into account the number of items, since the more items there are, the more reliable a scale will be. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) recommend an alpha coefficient of 0.70 or higher for a set of items to be considered a reliable scale.

The internal consistency coefficient, Cronbach's alpha coefficient, was computed for each of the factors identified, and is discussed in the next chapter.

4.9.3.3 Item discrimination analysis

The items of the W-FPSQ were subjected to an item discrimination analysis to provide evidence that the items produced a statistically acceptable dispersion of scores. According to Gregory (2004:131), 'an effective test item is one that discriminates between high scores and low scores on the entire test' or scale. As suggested by Gregory (2004), the item-discrimination index was computed by comparing the item mean scores of the highest 25% and the lowest 25% of responses for each item after factor analysis. Student's t-test for independent groups was conducted to establish the differences between the item mean score of the highest and lowest quartiles for each item in the scales of the W-FPSQ.

4.9.3.4 Analysis of item distribution

Descriptive statistics (for example, means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) were used to analyse the distribution of the values of each item

included in the different factors. Measures of location (mean), spread (standard deviation), and shape (skewness and kurtosis) were calculated. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003:472-477), 'the mean and standard deviation are called dimensional measures (in other words, expressed in the same units as the measured quantities). By contrast, skewness (sk) and kurtosis (ku) are regarded as non-dimensional measures'.

Skewness is an index that characterises the shape of the distribution. When sk is approximately 0, a distribution approaches symmetry. Kurtosis is a measure of a distribution's 'peakness or flatness'. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003:472), there are three different types of kurtosis:

- peaked or leptokurtic distributions – scores cluster heavily in the centre (a positive ku value);
- flat or platykurtic distributions – evenly distributed scores and facts flatter than a normal distribution (a negative ku value); and
- intermediate or mesokurtic distributions – neither too peaked nor too flat (a ku value close to 0).

As with skewness, the larger the absolute value of the index, the more extreme the characteristic of the index. To verify the results of the skewness (sk) and kurtosis (ku) analyses, the distribution of the data was further subjected to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov goodness-of-fit test (K-S) and the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality.

4.9.3.5 Analysis of the association between grouping variables

An analysis of the association between grouping variables was done to establish whether the characteristics of the single and married working mothers matched each other, and to verify that both groups were comparable. The Chi-square (^{2}), Phi-coefficient (φ) and Cramer's V (V) were computed to test the relationship and strength of the relationship between sample identity and the demographic characteristics of the participants. The Phi-coefficient (φ) and Cramer's V (V) also provided information on the effect size of the association between categorical variables (Morgan *et al*., 2007:103).

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4.9.3.6 Spearman's rank order correlation

Whenever it is necessary to determine the relationship between two variables, measures of association or correlation analysis must be employed. Correlation analysis is not only directed at discovering whether there is a relationship between two variables, but also analyses the direction and magnitude of the relationship (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2002). Due to the fact the assumptions of the normality of the scores were noticeably violated, it was decided to use the Spearman's rho method to calculate the correlations between the different variables. In principle, Spearman's rho is simply a special case of the Pearson product-moment correlation; however, the Spearman statistic is based on the correlation of the ranked data, as opposed to using the actual raw scores (Field, 2005; Morgan *et al*., 2007).

Spearman's rho statistically determines the extent to which changes in one variable (in most cases, the independent variable 'X') are associated with changes in another variable (in most cases, the dependent variable 'Y') (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). However, Gravetter and Wallnau (2002) warn that although a relationship or correlation may exist between two variables, it does not necessarily imply causation.

All that an association measure expresses is the degree of covariation between two variables.

4.9.3.7 Multivariate analysis of variance

Multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) is used to determine the main and interaction effects of categorical variables on multiple dependent interval variables. MANOVA makes use of one or more categorical independents as factor variables, with two or more dependent variables. MANOVA tests the differences in the centroid (vector) of means of the multiple interval dependents, for various categories of the independent(s). After an overall F-test has shown significance, post hoc tests are used to evaluate differences between specific

means. The post hoc multiple comparison tests are performed separately for each dependent variable (Field, 2005:571-595).

Because the data set did not meet the assumption of normality and homogeneity of variance-covariance, the non-parametric MANOVA with rank order data was performed in the present study, as suggested by Zwick (1985:148-152). Furthermore, non-parametric post hoc tests were considered to calculate the differences between the rank order means with only two categories or sub-groups (Morgan *et al*., 2007). The familiar Mann-Whitney distribution-free test was deemed appropriate for this calculation (Morgan *et al*., 2007).

4.9.3.8 The Mann-Whitney test

The Mann-Whitney (M-W) test is a non-parametric test that can be used to assess whether two samples of observations come from the same distribution. This test is used when the assumptions of the t-test are violated in that the dependent variable data set is non-normally distributed or ordinal (Field, 2005; Morgan *et al*., 2007). The M-W test is only slightly less powerful than Student's t-test. This non-parametric test (M-W) is used with a between-groups design with two levels of the independent variable, for example, marital status (single and married). Z-values are calculated that 'can be used to approximate the significance level for the test. In this case, the calculated z is compared to the standard normal significance levels' (Winks, 2008).

4.7.3.9 Logistic regression analysis

According to Field (2005:218) logistic regression is a multiple regression, but with an outcome variable that is a categorical dichotomy, and predictor variables that are continuous or categorical. Generally, the dependent or response variable is dichotomous, such as presence/absence or success/failure. In this study, logistic regression was used to predict the marital status of the respondents. In other words, logistic regression allows researchers to predict a discrete outcome, such as group membership, from a set of

variables that may be continuous, discrete, dichotomous, or a mix of any of these (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007:437).

Logistic regression also makes no assumptions about the distributions of the predictor variables. For example, logistic regression does not require normally distributed variables, does not assume linearity of the relationship between the independent variable(s) and the dependent variable(s), and does not assume homoscedasticity (equal variance within each group) (Garson, 2008; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007:437).

Associated with logistic regression is a set of significance tests used to determine inclusion or elimination of each coefficient from the model. These include the log-likelihood ratio, the Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test and the Wald test for predictors combined over multiple categories. The proportion of variance in the outcome variable that is associated with the predictor variables are estimated with a pseudo R^2, provided by Cox and Snell's R^2 and Nagelkerke's R^2 (Field, 2005:218; SPSS Electronic manual, s.a.). The impact of predictor variables is usually explained in terms of odds ratios {Exp( )} 'which is an indicator of the change in odds resulting from a unit change in the predictor' (Field, 2005:225).

4.9.3.10 Practical significance

Statistical significance tests are used to show when differences between groups are significant (Pett *et al*., 2003). The p-value is a criterion of this, giving the probability that the obtained value or larger could be computed under the assumption that the null hypothesis (example, no difference between the means) is true. A small p-value (example, smaller than 0.05) is considered sufficient evidence that the result is of statistical significance at the 95% level of confidence. However, statistical significance does not necessarily imply that the result is important in practice, because these tests have a tendency to yield small p-values (indicating significance) as the size of the data sets increases.

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), a practical significance can be understood as a large enough difference to have an effect in practice. When a relationship between variables is large enough to be important, the test statistic or correlation effect size is compared to various cut-off points or values as recommended. In many cases, it is necessary to know whether a relationship between two variables is practically significant – for example, between marital status and the respondents' perceptions of work-family demands. The statistical significance of such relationships can be determined with the correlation coefficients (r). To assess the significance of the z-statistic of the Mann-Whitney test the coefficient 'r' was computed by using the conversion formula, $r = z/\sqrt{(N)}$ suggested by Field (2005) and Morgan *et al*. (2007).

Effect size was determined by using the absolute value of 'r' and relating it to the cut-off points for practical significance as recommended by Cohen (1988):

- $r = 0.10$ small effect
- $r = 0.30$ medium effect
- $r = 0.50$ large effect

It is important to note that effect size in this context does not refer to cause and effect relationships between variables, but merely provides a value that quantifies the practical significance of findings (Rosenthal, Rosnow & Rubin, 2000).

4.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter has discussed the research design and methodology used in this study, which was conducted employing a social science approach, applying both inductive and deductive reasoning. The research design contained exploratory and descriptive components that informed the use of both qualitative and quantitative information gathering methods. The mixed methods approach, in which a qualitative approach was sequentially followed by a quantitative approach, was adopted (see Figure 4.5). The research as a whole was conducted within the framework of a feminist research paradigm.

The second part of this chapter dealt with the population, method of sampling, data collection procedures, the design and layout of the questionnaire, the pre-testing of the questionnaire, the data analysis and statistical methods used in the study. Statistics such as factor analysis, reliability and item distribution analysis, Spearman rank order correlation (rho), non-parametric MANOVA, analysis of variance (Mann-Whitney test) and logistics regression analysis were used in this study to provide a basis for discussion of the results as set out in Chapter 5.

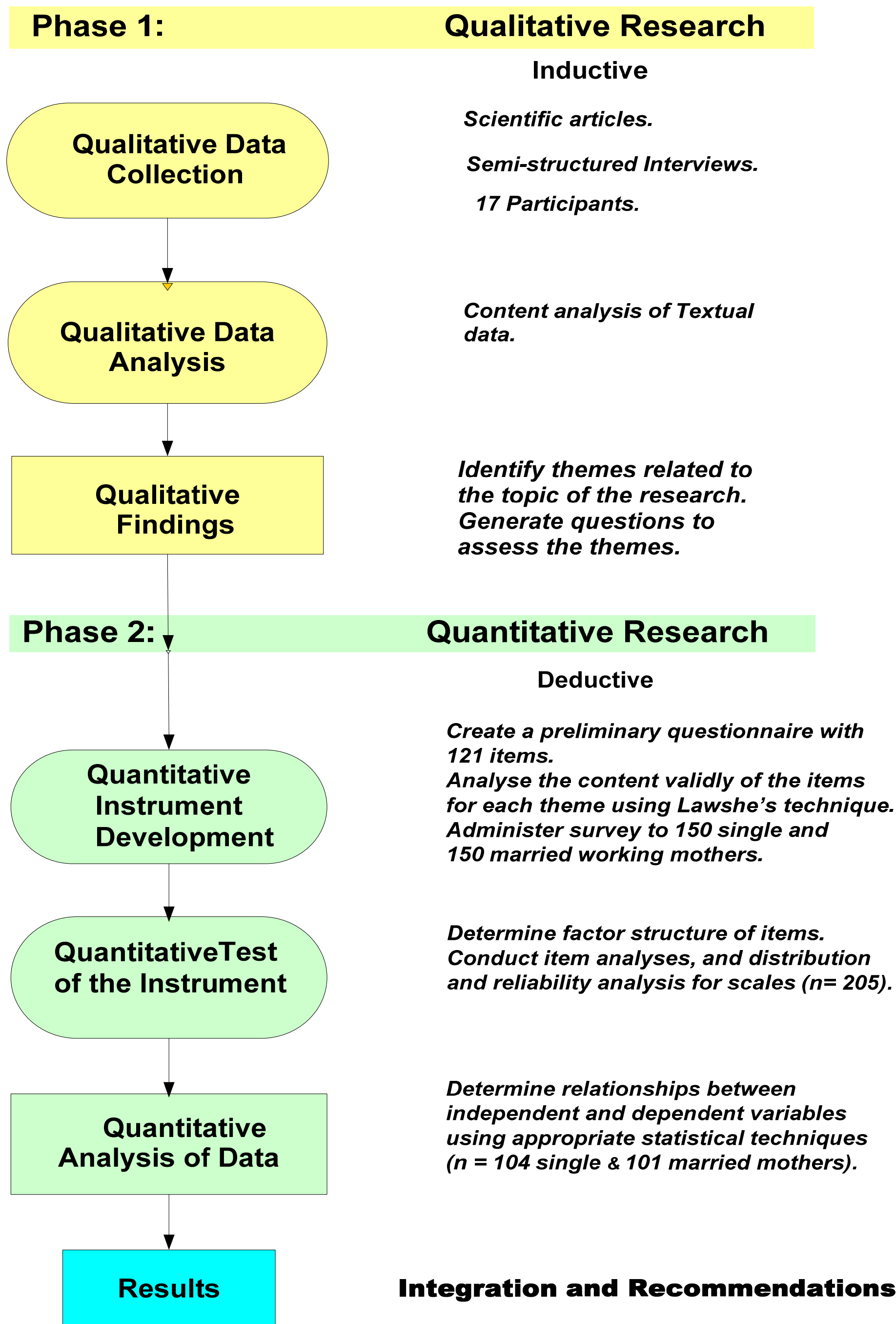

Figure 4.5: Mixed methods sequential explorative approach

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a theoretical discussion of the research and statistical methodology. This chapter focuses on the reporting, interpretation and discussion of the research results. First, the results of Lawshe's test of the content validity of the initial items is reported and discussed. Thereafter the results of the exploratory factor analysis and the item and reliability analysis of the questionnaires are reported comprehensively. In addition, the results of the analyses of variance, the correlation between the variables and logistic regression analysis to predict marital status are reported and interpreted.

5.1.1 Assessment of the content validity of preliminary items

As indicated in Chapter 4, a draft framework questionnaire was designed that contained multiple measurement items relating to all the constructs identified for measurement. The framework questionnaire was pre-tested and verified by a group of 30 professionals to assess the construct validity of the items. The panel used a three-point rating scale developed by Lawshe (1975) to determine the relevancy of each statement to the latent domain the researcher intended to measure. (A copy of this questionnaire is provided in Appendix C.) The main purpose of this step was to test the preliminary questionnaire prior to revision.

The result of the calculations using Lawshe's technique are presented in Table 5.1. This table includes the Content Validity Ratio (CVR) for each item for the following domains:

Domain 1: Work demands and family responsibilities;
Domain 2: Time pressure;
Domain 3: Financial pressure;
Domain 4: Feelings of isolation;
Domain 5: Childcare arrangements;

Domain 6: The need to improve oneself;

Domain 7: Presence of mentors;

Domain 8: Personal support; and

Domain 9: Organisational support.

Table 5.1: The results of Lawshe's test for content validity

Item	Elements	Endorsements of statement			CVR	Retain yes/ no	Direction
		Essential	Useful, but not essential	Not necessary		Reject if CVR is < 0.4	Positive/ Negative
1. Work demands and family responsibilities							
1	I balance my work and family time.	24	6	0	0.60	Yes	Positive
2	My job keeps me away from my family.	22	7	1	0.46	Yes	Negative
3	I am able to 'switch off' at home.	24	6	0	0.60	Yes	Positive
4	I have time to do things with the family.	24	5	1	0.60	Yes	Positive
5	My time off matches my family members' schedules.	25	4	1	0.66	Yes	Positive
6	Responsibilities at home do not put me under strain.	26	3	1	0.73	Yes	Positive
7	I am pursuing a career at the expense of my home life.	23	5	2	0.53	Yes	Negative
8	I am comfortable with the arrangements for my children while I am working.	24	3	3	0.60	Yes	Positive
9	People at work think my family responsibilities interfere with my work.	24	3	3	0.60	Yes	Negative
10	Work demands affect my relationship with my child/children negatively.	23	4	3	0.53	Yes	Negative
11	I have little influence over what happens to me at work.	24	4	2	0.60	Yes	Negative
12	I spend enough time with my family.	22	4	4	0.46	Yes	Positive
13	I wish I had more time to do things with my family.	18	7	5	0.20	No	Negative
14	There are conflicting job tasks and family demands in the role I play.	21	7	2	0.40	Yes	Negative
15	When I go to bed at night, my mind is not occupied by tasks I have to do the following day.	17	7	6	0.13	No	Positive
16	There is stability and dependability in my home life.	21	8	1	0.40	Yes	Positive
17	I get so involved with my job that I feel a conflict of loyalty between my home and work responsibilities.	22	6	2	0.46	Yes	Negative
18	Responsibilities at home do not put me under strain.	23	4	3	0.53	Yes	Positive

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Item	Elements	Endorsements of statement			CVR	Retain yes/ no	Direction
		Essential	Useful, but not essential	Not necessary		Reject if CVR is < 0.4	Positive/ Negative
19	Family demands have a favourable influence on my work.	24	3	3	0.60	Yes	Positive
20	I feel physically drained when I get home from work.	22	4	4	0.46	Yes	Negative
21	I feel emotionally drained when I get home from work.	22	7	1	0.46	Yes	Negative
22	My job improves the quality of my life.	23	5	2	0.53	Yes	Positive
23	I am in a job with a schedule flexible enough to let me meet my family responsibilities.	24	4	2	0.60	Yes	Positive
2.Time pressure							
1	I have enough time for myself.	21	7	2	0.40	Yes	Positive
2	I often have too much to do in too little time.	23	5	2	0.53	Yes	Negative
3	Unrealistic deadlines for the completion of work are not a regular occurrence.	23	5	2	0.53	Yes	Positive
4	I usually leave work on time.	21	5	4	0.40	Yes	Positive
5	My job leaves me enough time to spend with my family and friends.	23	5	2	0.53	Yes	Positive
6	I wish I had more time to do things with my family.	18	9	3	0.20	No	Negative
7	I spend quality time with my friends.	18	7	5	0.20	No	Positive
8	I do not work overtime during weekends.	18	6	6	0.20	No	Positive
9	I am overwhelmed with the workload I face each day.	21	3	6	0.40	Yes	Negative
10	The hours I work make it difficult to look after my child/children.	21	6	3	0.40	Yes	Negative
11	I feel I have to rush to get everything done each day.	24	7	9	0.60	Yes	Negative
3. Financial pressure							
1	I am in serious debt.	21	8	1	0.40	Yes	Negative
2	I do not have enough money to give my child/children what they need.	20	6	4	0.33	No	Negative
3	I feel that I am not meeting all of my child's/children's needs.	21	7	2	0.40	Yes	Negative
4	Sacrificing for my children is a part of single parenthood.	21	8	1	0.40	Yes	Positive
5	There is no great need to earn because of financial security.	19	8	3	0.27	No	Positive
6	I do not have enough money to cover medical and dental care.	22	7	1	0.47	Yes	Negative
7	My work input is adequately remunerated.	26	3	1	0.73	Yes	Positive
8	My fringe benefits are good.	22	3	5	0.47	Yes	Positive
9	There is financial support from others outside work.	21	5	4	0.40	Yes	Positive
10	I would love to move to a better home, but do not have sufficient funds to do so.	22	6	2	0.47	Yes	Negative

Item	Elements	Endorsements of statement			CVR	Retain yes/ no	Direction
		Essential	Useful, but not essential	Not necessary		Reject if CVR is < 0.4	Positive/ Negative
11	I am financially independent.	27	1	2	0.80	Yes	Positive
4. Feelings of isolation							
1	I feel socially isolated.	23	5	2	0.53	Yes	Negative
2	My identity is based solely on being a parent.	23	6	1	0.53	Yes	Negative
3	My job gives me a welcome break from housework and my child/children.	24	2	4	0.60	Yes	Positive
4	I feel that I am less likely to get chosen for certain assignments because of 'who I am' (e.g. a single mother).	22	3	5	0.47	Yes	Negative
5	When I am with my friends, I am able to be completely myself and relax.	20	4	6	0.33	No	Positive
6	I am invited to gatherings often.	19	5	6	0.27	No	Positive
7	I enjoy life outside of work.	23	4	3	0.53	Yes	Positive
8	I have extensive interests and activities outside work	20	6	4	0.33	No	Positive
9	When I have a problem, there is someone I can confide in and talk it over with.	24	1	5	0.60	Yes	Positive
5. Childcare arrangements							
1	If my child/children fall ill, there is someone who can stay home and look after him/her/them.	23	3	4	0.53	Yes	Positive
2	I am comfortable with the arrangements for my child when I am at work.	25	3	2	0.67	Yes	Positive
3	Making arrangements for my children while I work does not involve lots of effort.	23	4	3	0.53	Yes	Positive
4	I can usually get a babysitter if I want to go out in the evening.	21	8	1	0.40	Yes	Positive
5	It is easy to find someone to look after my child/children when I cannot be with him/her/them.	21	8	1	0.40	Yes	Positive
6	I get support when I have to take my child/children to a clinic/hospital.	20	7	3	0.33	No	Positive
7	I do not feel guilty about leaving my child/children when I go out to work.	22	6	2	0.47	Yes	Positive
8	I meet my child's/children's emotional needs and social development needs.	20	6	4	0.33	No	Positive
9	I worry about my child/children when I am at work.	23	3	4	0.53	Yes	Negative
10	My child's/children's health is not affected when he/she/they is/are placed in childcare.	23	5	2	0.53	Yes	Positive
6. The need to improve oneself							
1	The people I work for find it easier to blame than to praise.	25	3	2	0.67	Yes	Negative
2	I often feel undervalued.	23	5	2	0.53	Yes	Negative
3	I am not especially achievement-oriented.	22	2	6	0.47	Yes	Negative

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Item	Elements	Endorsements of statement			CVR	Retain yes/ no	Direction
		Essential	Useful, but not essential	Not necessary		Reject if CVR is < 0.4	Positive/ Negative
4	There is inadequate training and development at my place of work.	23	4	3	0.53	Yes	Negative
5	When obstacles get in the way of my advancement, I keep trying.	24	6	0	0.60	Yes	Positive
6	My goal is to reach the top in my career.	24	4	2	0.60	Yes	Positive
7	It is not important to me to keep moving up in the hierarchy.	22	5	3	0.47	Yes	Negative
8	I feel that in my job I can develop or grow personally.	22	5	3	0.47	Yes	Positive
9	I have some influence over what happens to me at work.	26	1	3	0.73	Yes	Positive
10	I have a lot of discretion in my work.	25	0	5	0.67	Yes	Positive
11	My job taps into the range of skills which I feel I possess.	26	1	3	0.73	Yes	Positive
12	I keep up with new techniques, ideas, technology or innovations.	23	5	2	0.53	Yes	Positive
13	I get adequate feedback about my own performance.	24	3	3	0.60	Yes	Positive
14	There is potential for career advancement in my job.	24	5	1	0.60	Yes	Positive
15	There are opportunities for personal development in my job.	26	2	2	0.73	Yes	Positive
16	It is important to me to be seen as very successful.	26	4	0	0.73	Yes	Positive
7. Presence of mentors							
1	My manager encourages me to discuss my career and family problems.	26	4	0	0.53	Yes	Positive
2	When my manager gives me advice, s/he makes me feel stronger.	23	3	4	0.60	Yes	Positive
3	My manager encourages me to discuss positive/ negative feelings that I may have about my ability to succeed.	24	3	3	0.60	Yes	Positive
4	My manager guides me towards identifying problem areas in my work and helps me find the best solution.	22	3	5	0.33	No	Positive
5	My manager is always available when needed.	20	6	4	0.33	No	Positive
6	My manager is not intimidating; s/he is easy to approach at any time.	23	4	3	0.53	Yes	Positive
7	My manager gives me constructive feedback skilfully.	21	5	4	0.40	Yes	Positive
8	My manager serves a role model for achieving balance between personal and professional life.	24	3	3	0.60	Yes	Positive
9	My manager is a good listener.	25	5	0	0.67	Yes	Positive
10	My manager encourages me to review my strategies for managing my life while pursuing	23	5	2	0.53	Yes	Positive

Item	Elements	Endorsements of statement			CVR	Retain yes/ no	Direction
		Essential	Useful, but not essential	Not necessary		Reject if CVR is < 0.4	Positive/ Negative
	my career goals.						
8. Personal support							
1	Finding someone to look after my child/children when I cannot be with him/her/them is not a problem.	24	3	3	0.60	Yes	Positive
2	I get enough help and support from my child's/children's father(s).	22	5	3	0.46	Yes	Positive
3	I feel comfortable asking my co-workers for their help.	23	5	2	0.53	Yes	Positive
4	My supervisor is concerned about my welfare.	12	13	5	0.20	No	Positive
5	People offer to help me without having to be asked.	16	4	10	0.07	No	Positive
6	It is easy to get help from my colleagues.	15	5	10	0.00	No	Positive
7	I lack social support from people at my work.	16	7	7	0.07	No	Negative
8	My friends are supportive and helpful.	12	14	4	0.20	No	Positive
9	There is practical support from others outside work.	13	13	4	0.13	No	Positive
10	My parents are supportive and helpful.	13	13	4	0.13	No	Positive
9. Organisational support							
1	My organisation makes childcare provision for its employees.	25	4	1	0.67	Yes	Positive
2	There is great flexibility in my organisation.	25	2	3	0.67	Yes	Positive
3	My organisation appreciates any extra effort from me.	22	5	3	0.60	Yes	Positive
4	My organisation ignores any complaint from me.	23	4	3	0.53	Yes	Negative
5	There is job sharing in my organisation.	22	4	4	0.60	Yes	Positive
6	There is an option to work from home in my organisation.	26	2	2	0.73	Yes	Positive
7	A flexible work schedule is made available in my organisation.	23	4	3	0.53	Yes	Positive
8	My organisation has policies to support mothers in securing a realistic work life balance.	20	8	2	0.33	No	Positive
9	My organisation has on-site childcare.	21	8	1	0.40	Yes	Positive
10	My organisation brings in additional resources to handle workload.	23	4	3	0.53	Yes	Positive
11	My organisation shows an awareness of how much pressure mothers deal with.	20	9	1	0.33	No	Positive
12	My organisation has an open-door policy.	22	6	2	0.60	Yes	Positive
13	My organisation provides information on additional sources of support.	22	6	2	0.60	Yes	Positive
14	There is financial support for mothers with career responsibilities in my	20	10	0	0.33	No	Positive

Item	Elements	Endorsements of statement			CVR	Retain yes/ no	Direction
		Essential	Useful, but not essential	Not necessary		Reject if CVR is < 0.4	Positive/ Negative
	organisation.						
15	My organisation takes an interest in mothers' personal lives.	25	4	1	0.66	Yes	Positive
16	My organisation consults with mothers when making decisions about their work load.	21	8	1	0.40	Yes	Positive
17	Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem.	21	9	0	0.40	Yes	Positive
18	My organisation really cares about my well-being.	23	7	0	0.53	Yes	Positive
19	My organisation tries to make my job as interesting as possible.	26	4	0	0.73	Yes	Positive
20	My organisation is willing to help me when I need a special favour.	22	7	1	0.60	Yes	Positive
21	My organisation shows little concern for me.	18	12	0	0.20	No	Negative
22	If the organisation could hire someone to replace me, paying the person a lower salary, it would do so.	21	6	3	0.40	Yes	Positive

The results indicate that the majority of the measurement items (96) were related to the construct domains they were supposed to present. The CVR values of these items ranged from 0.78 to 0.40. All the items that met the statistical significance level of = 0.05 (CVR ≥ 0.40) were retained for the next phase in the development of the questionnaire.

Based on the results achieved through the application of Lawshe's content validity technique, the following 25 items were eliminated:

I wish I had more time to do things with my family.

My supervisor is concerned about my welfare.

People offer to help me without having to be asked.

It is easy to get help from my colleagues.

I lack social support from people at my work.

My friends are supportive and helpful.

There is practical support from others outside work.

My parents are supportive and helpful.

When I go to bed at night, my mind is not occupied by tasks I have to do the following day.

I wish I had more time to do things with my family.

I spend quality time with my friends.

I do not work overtime during weekends.

I do not have enough money to give my (child/children) what they need.

There is no great need to earn because of financial security.

When I am with my friends, I am able to be completely myself and relax.

I am invited to gatherings often.

I have extensive interests and activities outside work.

I get support when I have to take my child/children to a clinic/hospital.

I meet my child's/children's emotional needs and social development needs.

My manager guides me towards identifying problem areas in my work and helps me find the best solution.

My manager is always available when needed.

My organisation has policies to support mothers in securing a realistic work life balance.

My organisation shows an awareness of how much pressure mothers deal with.

There is financial support for mothers with career responsibilities in my organisation.

My organisation shows little concern for me.

5.2 FACTOR ANALYSIS

5.2.1 Exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to discover patterns among the variations in values of the variables and to assess whether the preliminary questionnaire measured substantive constructs or factors that are relatively independent of one another (Babbie & Mouton, 2006). The EFA was carried out by means of principal axis factoring (PFA) and rotated using the varimax rotation with Kaiser's normalization to an orthogonal solution. PFA allows for seeking the least number of factors that can account for the common variance in a set of variables (Garson, 2008).

To assess compliance with the distribution requirements, Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy were applied. Kaiser's criterion (1961), Cattell's (1966) scree-plot and Horn's (1965) parallel analysis were used to estimate the number of significant item factors. Horn's (1965) method of parallel analysis entails contrasting the eigenvalues of a correlation matrix of random uncorrelated items with the eigenvalues of the matrix of the actual data, based on an equal sample size and an equal number of variables. Factors in or dimensions of the matrix are retained if the eigenvalue from the actual data is greater than the eigenvalue from the random data (O'Connor, 2000:397). According to Hayton, Allen and Scarpello (2004), parallel analysis provides the most accurate estimate of the number of true factors in a complex dataset.

The squared multiple correlations (SMCs) were calculated to estimate the internal consistency of the factor solution. Squared multiple correlations are 'the squared multiple correlations of factor scores predicted from scores on the observed variables'. This index gives an indication of 'the certainty with which factor axes are fixed in the variable space' (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007:649). The factor scores of the respondents were calculated by means of the regression approach, as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007:651).

In the first round of EFA, the 96 items of the preliminary questionnaire were inter-correlated and rotated to form a simple structure by means of the varimax rotation. Owing to the size (96 X 96), the inter-correlation matrix is not reported. Based on Kaiser's (1961) criterion (eigenvalues larger than unity), 16 factors were postulated. The 16 factors explained 75.30% of the variance in the factor space of the data. The factor analyses yielded more factors in the real test space than was expected. This is probably due to the presence of differentially skew items (Schepers, 2004). Next, the items included in the 16 factors were scrutinized. Thereafter, all items with factor loadings less than 0.45 or which cross-loaded high on more than one factor and items which seemed to be exceedingly similar in content were omitted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007:649). Factors with three or fewer items were also omitted.

In the end, 54 items were retained and were subjected to a second round of EFA with varimax rotation. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test for measuring sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity displayed satisfactory results. The calculated KMO value of 0.931 was greater than 0.7 and Bartlett's test of sphericity [^{2} (1431) = 10718.090, $p < 0.001$] confirmed that the properties of the inter-correlation matrix of the 54 item scores were suitable for factor analysis. Based on Kaiser's criterion, eight factors with eigenvalues greater than one were extracted. The eight rotated factors explained 69.625% of the total variance in the data. An inspection of the scree-plot indicated that seven factors had been determined. The result of the parallel analysis presented in Figure 5.1 confirmed that there were actually seven significant constructs. Parallel analysis indicated a break in the scree-plot between roots seven and eight. The curve of the eigenvalues of the random data set (the broken line) intersects the curve of the eigenvalues for the real data (the solid line) at root seven (Hayton *et al*., 2004).

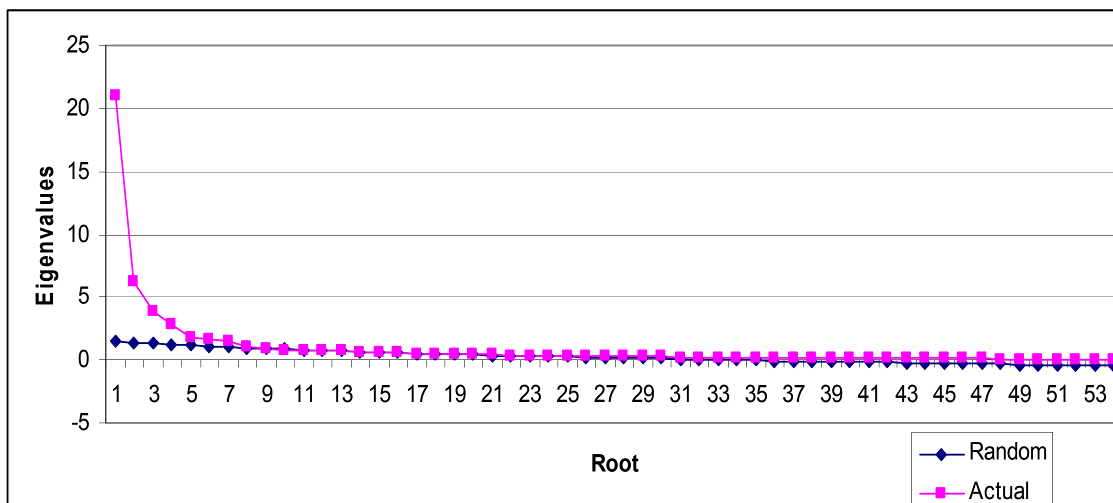

Figure 5.1: Scree-plot of the actual and the random data

However, only one item with a factor loading of 0.48 was associated with Factor 7 and the factor loadings of all the other items were less than 0.40. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007:646), the interpretation of factors defined by only one or two variables is risky, under even the most exploratory of factor analyses. Consequently, Factors 7 and 8 were disregarded for the

purposes of this study. The six rotated factors that were retained explained 65.292% of the total variance of the data.

The results of the principal axis factor analysis for the 54 retained items are summarized in Table 5.2. The factor loadings, percentage variance after extraction, and squared multiple correlations for each factor are reported.

According to the results depicted in Table 5.2, the factor scores of the factor solution ranged

from 0.486 to 0.875 for Factor 1;

from 0.496 to 0.836 for Factor 2;

from 0.672 to 0.891 for Factor 3;

from 0.481 to 0.760 for Factor 4;,

from 0.478 to 0.753 for Factor 5, and

from 0.474 to 0.703 for Factor 6.

Comrey and Lee (1992) suggest that loadings in excess of 0.71 are considered excellent, 0.63 very good, 0.55 good, 0.45 fair and 0.32 poor. According to these guidelines, it can be concluded that the items of the questionnaire are adequate for measuring the factor they are related to: 'The greater the loading, the more the variable is a pure measure of the factor' (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007:649).

The squared multiple correlations of 0.666 to 0.931 between the item scores and the factor scores indicated that the factor solution was internally consistent and that all the factors were well defined by the relevant items. Squared multiple correlation values of 0.7 and higher mean that the observed variables (item scores) account for substantial variance in the factor scores (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007:649).

Table 5.2 Principal factor extraction and varimax rotation of the items: factor loadings, eigenvalues, percentage variance, and squared multiple correlation of the six factors (n = 205)

ITEM	FACTORS PER ITEM	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I get so involved with my job that I feel a conflict of loyalty between my home and work responsibilities.	0.875					
82	I feel I have to rush to get everything done each day.	0.850					
25	I would love to move to a better home, but do not have sufficient funds to do so.	0.842					
10	I often have too much to do in too little time.	0.811					
51	My identity is based solely on being a parent.	0.771					
80	I am overwhelmed with the workload I face each day.	0.769					
81	The hours I work make it difficult to look after my child/children.	0.734					
71	Work demands affect my relationship with my child/children negatively.	0.708					
93	I worry about my child/children when I am at work.	0.648					
12	I am in serious debt.	0.643					
49	I feel socially isolated.	0.611					
31	I often feel undervalued.	0.599					
43	People at work think my family responsibilities interfere with my work.	0.553					
40	There are conflicting job tasks and family demands in the role I play.	0.511					
20	I feel emotionally drained when I get home from work.	0.486					
67	There are opportunities for personal development in my job.		0.836				
66	There is potential for career advancement in my job.		0.834				
57	I feel that in my job I can develop or grow personally.		0.730				

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ITEM	FACTORS PER ITEM	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	My work input is adequately remunerated.		0.693				
21	My job improves the quality of my life.		0.674				
56	My organisation tries to make my job as interesting as possible.		0.647				
59	I have some influence over what happens to me at work.		0.636				
68	My organisation is willing to help me when I need a special favour.		0.605				
39	My fringe benefits are good.		0.552				
77	My job leaves me enough time to spend with my family and friends.		0.504				
47	I usually leave work on time.		0.496				
79	My manager encourages me to review my strategies for managing my life while pursuing my career goals.			0.891			
58	My manager serves as a role model for achieving balance between personal and professional life.			0.880			
50	My manager gives me constructive feedback skilfully.			0.847			
65	I get adequate feedback about my own performance.			0.799			
70	My manager is a good listener.			0.799			
60	My manager encourages me to discuss positive/negative feelings that I may have about my ability to succeed.			0.774			
44	My manager is not intimidating, s/he is easy to approach at any time.			0.672			
89	There is great flexibility in my organisation.				0.760		
62	There is an option to work from home in my organisation.				0.692		
63	A flexible work schedule is made available in my organisation.				0.660		

ITEM	FACTORS PER ITEM	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	My organisation takes an interest in mothers' personal lives.				0.616		
86	I am in a job with a schedule flexible enough to let me meet my family responsibilities.				0.513		
17	My organisation provides information on additional sources of support.				0.487		
6	My organisation consults with mothers when making decisions about their work load.				0.481		
35	Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem.				0.481		
3	I am able to 'switch off' at home.					0.753	
4	I have time to do things with the family.					0.714	
2	I balance my work and family time.					0.681	
9	I have enough time for myself.					0.548	
18	Family demands have a favourable influence on my work.					0.521	
38	I spend enough time with my family.					0.519	
23	My time off matches my family members' schedules.					0.478	
42	I am comfortable with the arrangements for my children while I am working.						0.703
28	I can usually get a babysitter if I want to go out in the evening.						0.702
27	Making arrangements for my children while I work does not involve lots of effort.						0.655
69	It is easy to find someone to look after my child/children when I cannot be with him/her/them.						0.569
72	I do not feel guilty about leaving my child/children when I go out to work.						0.487
52	If my child/children fall/s ill, there is someone who can stay home and look after him/her/them.						0.474

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ITEM	FACTORS PER ITEM	1	2	3	4	5	6
Eigenvalues		21.010	6.177	3.869	2.846	1.837	1.602
Percentage variance after rotation		17.246	12.538	11.596	8.953	8.862	6.097
Squared multiple correlation (SMC)		0.931	0.901	0.931	0.825	0.763	0.666

5.2.2 Factor naming and description

The aim with the development of the questionnaire was to explore the problems and pressures single mothers in professional occupations and management positions in South Africa experience, and to identify the resources needed to mitigate these stressors.

After studying the contents of the items defining each factor, it seemed that Factor 1 was predominately related to the pressures facing mothers in professional occupations and management positions. The content of the remaining five factors or scales were all related to resources that may be of value in supporting single working mothers to deal with high job and family demands. The following descriptive labels were assigned to each scale after studying the contents of the items defining each factor:

Factor 1: Work-family pressure

This factor focuses primarily on pressures associated with conflict in balancing work and family demands. The elements of this factor include issues related to work hours, time pressure, workload, role overload and role conflict, and the inability to satisfy family and professional role expectations. This factor also includes items related to pressures associated with financial constraints, and feelings of social isolation, low self-esteem and emotional exhaustion. This factor measures the presence of time-, strain- and behaviour-based conflict and pressures experienced by working mothers. Fifteen items loaded on this factor, and the factor loadings ranged from

0.875 to 0.486. This factor accounted for approximately 17.25% of the total variance.

Factor 2: Personal development

This factor refers to the opportunities that working mothers have for personal development, growth and career advancement in their jobs. This factor also includes items related to autonomy, stimulating work, adequate remuneration and time to spend with family and friends. This scale measures both the intrinsic and extrinsic job resources that provide support to employees at the organisational, work and social levels. In all, 11 items loaded on this factor, with factor loadings ranging from 0.836 to 0.496. This factor accounted for 12.54% of the explained variance.

Factor 3: Management support

This factor includes items related to management behaviour that provides social and interpersonal support to employees in the form of both work and psychosocial assistance. The elements of this factor include managers' encouraging working mothers to pursue their career goals, giving adequate and constructive feedback on performance, and recognising working mothers' need to achieve a balance between their personal and professional lives. Other characteristics of management support denoted by this factor are listening, encouraging, and being approachable and open-minded. The factor loadings of the seven items related to this scale ranged from 0.891 to 0.672. These items explained 11.60% of the variance.

Factor 4: Organisational flexibility

The factor refers to the role of the organisation in creating and providing a flexible work environment. This includes a flexible work schedule, allowing workers to work from home, involving or consulting mothers in decisions about workloads, providing information on additional sources of support and taking an interest in mothers' personal lives. Finally, this factor also looks at whether an organisation is willing to help when workers have a problem. This scale measures resources that provide support to employees at the work and social levels. Eight items loaded on this factor. It explained 8.95%

of the total variance. The factor loadings of the eight items ranged from 0.760 to 0.481.

Factor 5: Time for family interaction

This factor is relates to work-home interaction and refers to working mothers' experience of the availability of time for family interaction. The items of this factor are associated with an employee's ability to 'switch off' at home, to balance work and family time, to have time to do things with the family and have enough time for themselves, and time on hand to match family members' schedules. It also includes the point of view that family demands have a favourable influence on women's work. Seven items loaded on this factor, with loadings ranging from 0.753 to 0.478. This factor accounted for approximately 8.86% of the total variance.

Factor 6: Childcare support

This last factor includes six items that define working mothers' perceptions of childcare arrangements. The variables of this factor included working mothers' satisfaction with arrangements made for their children while the mothers are working, the availability of a helper or baby sitter when mothers are absent or when their children are ill, and the ease in which working mothers can arrange for someone to look after their children. These six items explained 6.10% of the total variance, and their loadings ranged from 0.703 to 0.474.

5.3 FACTORIAL RELIABILITY

5.3.1 Reliability and item statistics

The reliability of the factors of the questionnaire was determined by means of Cronbach's alpha coefficient, as proposed by Field (2005). The mean inter-item correlations between the items of each scale were also calculated to examine the internal homogeneity and unidimensionality of the six factors, as suggested by Clark and Watson (1995). The means, standard deviations, corrected item-

total correlations, mean inter-item correlations and Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the six factors are provided in Tables 5.3 to 5.8.

As indicated in Tables 5.3 to 5.8, the items of each factor correlated significantly (r ranged from 0.447 to 0.897) with the total score of the relevant factor, indicating that the items are related to the construct they signify. DeVellis (2003) regards an item with an item-correlation of more than 0.20 as generally acceptable. Compared to the guideline for alpha ≥0.70 recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), the alpha coefficient for the six factors all yielded acceptable values (Factor 1 =0.948; Factor 2 =0.927; Factor 3 =0.943; Factor 4 =0.897; Factor 5 =0.926 and Factor 6 =0.912). Furthermore, the deletion of any of the items did not increase the internal consistency of a factor substantially.

Table 5.3: Reliability and item statistics for Factor 1: Work-family pressure (n =205)

Items/variables	Mean	Std dev.	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if the item is deleted
10. I often have too much to do in too little time.	3.6537	2.45789	0.778	0.943
12. I am in serious debt.	3.5171	2.23518	0.709	0.944
15. I get so involved with my job that I feel a conflict of loyalty between my home and work responsibilities.	3.8195	2.53826	0.827	0.941
20. I feel emotionally drained when I get home from work.	4.3854	2.39337	0.594	0.947
25. I would love to move to a better home, but do not have sufficient funds to do so.	3.7610	2.36113	0.823	0.942
31. I often feel undervalued.	3.6146	2.53462	0.706	0.944
40. There are conflicting job tasks and family demands in the role I play.	2.7024	2.22822	0.446	0.950
43. People at work think my family responsibilities interfere with my work	3.3707	2.31134	0.662	0.945
49. I feel socially isolated.	3.6976	2.32764	0.723	0.944
51. My identity is based solely on being a parent.	3.8537	2.36354	0.758	0.943

71. Work demands affect my relationship with my child/children negatively.	4.0732	2.53205	0.730	0.944
80. I am overwhelmed with the workload I face each day.	3.9659	2.51345	0.789	0.942
81. The hours I work make it difficult to look after my child/children.	4.3707	2.45930	0.685	0.945
82. I feel I have to rush to get everything done each day.	3.9415	2.48258	0.850	0.941
93. I worry about my child/children when I am at work.	4.1366	2.48542	0.688	0.945
Number of items: 15 **Mean inter-item correlation: 0.72** **Cronbach's alpha coefficient: 0.948**				

Table 5.4: Reliability and item statistics for Factor 2: Personal development (n =205)

Items/variables	Mean	Std dev.	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if the item is deleted
21. My job improves the quality of my life.	5.3756	1.63311	0.731	0.919
22. My work input is adequately remunerated.	5.6537	1.81282	0.735	0.919
39. My fringe benefits are good.	5.0341	2.08021	0.665	0.922
47. I usually leave work on time.	4.9268	1.94521	0.686	0.921
56. My organisation tries to make my job as interesting as possible.	5.0000	1.89167	0.697	0.920
57. I feel that in my job I can develop or grow personally.	5.7805	1.55160	0.715	0.920
59. I have some influence over what happens to me at work.	5.3122	1.93272	0.741	0.918
66. There is potential for career advancement in my job.	5.8634	1.68351	0.791	0.917
67. There are opportunities for personal development in my job.	5.6780	1.75280	0.801	0.916
68. My organisation is willing to help me when I need a special favour.	5.3951	1.82439	0.652	0.922
77. My job leaves me enough time to spend with my family and friends.	4.4634	2.35040	0.608	0.927

Number of items: **11**
Mean inter-item correlation: **0.71**
Cronbach's alpha coefficient: **0.927**

Table 5.5: Reliability and item statistics for Factor 3: Management support (n =205)

Items/variables	Mean	Std dev.	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if the item is deleted
44. My manager is not intimidating, s/he is easy to approach at any time.	4.9268	2.14876	0.702	0.946
50. My manager gives me constructive feedback skilfully.	5.3805	1.89468	0.858	0.930
58. My manager serves as a role model for achieving balance between personal and professional life.	5.6000	1.84338	0.897	0.927
60. My manager encourages me to discuss positive/negative feelings that I may have about my ability to succeed.	5.4293	1.81257	0.758	0.939
65. I get adequate feedback about my own performance.	5.6049	1.87736	0.816	0.934
70. My manager is a good listener.	5.5659	1.76896	0.791	0.936
79. My manager encourages me to review my strategies for managing my life while pursuing my career goals.	5.4634	1.94404	0.880	0.928

Number of items: **7**
Mean inter-item correlation: **0.82**
Cronbach's alpha coefficient: **0.943**

Table 5.6: Reliability and item statistics for Factor 4: Organisational flexibility (n =205)

Items/variables	Mean	Std dev.	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if the item is deleted
6. My organisation consults with mothers when making decisions about their work load.	3.0195	2.35347	0.617	0.890
17. My organisation provides information on additional sources of support.	3.4488	2.41595	0.686	0.883
24. My organisation takes an interest in mothers' personal lives.	3.7073	2.37061	0.707	0.881
35. Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem.	4.8927	1.97985	0.655	0.887
62. There is an option to work from home in my organisation.	3.5220	2.38372	0.701	0.882
63. A flexible work schedule is made available in my organisation.	3.9268	2.19838	0.726	0.880
86. I am in a job with a schedule flexible enough to let me meet my family responsibilities.	4.3951	2.28486	0.656	0.886
89. There is great flexibility in my organisation.	4.0732	2.37625	0.694	0.883
Number of items: **8** **Mean inter-item correlation:** **0.68** **Cronbach's alpha coefficient:** **0.897**				

Table 5.7: Reliability and item statistics for Factor 5: Time for family interaction (n =205)

Items/variables	Mean	Std dev.	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if the item is deleted
2. I balance my work and family time.	3.9902	2.29447	0.747	0.917
3. I am able to 'switch off' at home.	4.4488	2.21039	0.792	0.912
4. I have time to do things with the family.	4.5854	2.15997	0.751	0.916
9. I have enough time for myself.	4.0927	2.42661	0.811	0.910
18. Family demands have a favourable influence on my work.	3.9463	2.25181	0.775	0.914
23. My time off matches my family members' schedules.	4.3366	2.15545	0.788	0.913
38. I spend enough time with my family.	4.7805	2.32329	0.706	0.921
Number of items: 7 **Mean inter-item correlation: 0.77** **Cronbach's alpha coefficient: 0.926**				

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Table 5.8: Reliability and item statistics for Factor 6: Childcare support (n = 205)

Items/variables	Mean	Std dev.	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if the item is deleted
27. Making arrangements for my children while I work does not involve lots of effort.	5.0488	2.15969	0.723	0.901
28. I can usually get a babysitter if I want to go out in the evening.	4.7366	2.00707	0.758	0.896
42. I am comfortable with the arrangements for my children while I am working.	4.7415	2.09493	0.801	0.890
52. If my child/children fall/s ill, there is someone who can stay home and look after him/her/them.	4.2780	2.35475	0.747	0.898
69. It is easy to find someone to look after my child/children when I cannot be with him/her/them.	4.5024	2.12276	0.810	0.888
72. I do not feel guilty about leaving my child/children when I go out to work.	4.0732	2.32411	0.700	0.905
Number of items: 6 **Mean inter-item correlation:** 0.76 **Cronbach's alpha coefficient:** 0.912				

The results reflected in Tables 5.3 to 5.8 also indicate that the mean inter-item correlations of the six factors/scales were higher than the range of 0.15 to 0.50 recommended by Clark and Watson (1995). The average inter-item correlations for the six factors/scales all yielded exceptionally high values (Factor 1 = 0.718; Factor 2 = 0.711; Factor 3 = 0.815; Factor 4 = 0.680; Factor 5 = 0.767; Factor 6 = 0.756). The high mean inter-item correlations are probably the result of the fact that the items were previously all scrutinized and endorsed by a panel of subject matter experts. The application of Lawshe's methodology in this study definitely enhanced the specificity of the target constructs. According to Clark and Watson (1995), a much higher average inter-item correlation can be expected when one is measuring a narrow or well-defined construct. The mean inter-item correlations scores on the six factors/scales appear to satisfy the requirements of homogeneity and unidimensionality and the items can be considered to be representative of the specific factor/scale that they assessed.

Based on the results reported above, all the items of the six factors were retained as separate scales to measure work-family pressure and to identify the resources needed to support single working mothers in coping with stress. For the purposes of this study, the questionnaire was called the Work-Family Pressure and Support Questionnaire (W-FPSQ).

Next, the 54 items of the six sub-scales of the W-FPSQ were subjected to an item analysis to provide evidence that the items have the ability to discriminate between high and low scoring groups. For this purpose, the item-discrimination index was computed for each item included in the six scales, using the t-test for independent groups, as suggested by Gregory (2004). The results of the item-discrimination analysis for each scale are reported in Appendix F.

The outcome of the item analysis illustrates that all the items have acceptable item-discrimination index values. The results indicate that every one of the items on each scale was able to discriminate significantly ($p < 0.001$) between the high- and low-scoring groups in the present sample.

The results of the analyses of the data indicated that the psychometric properties of the W-FPSQ meet the minimum requirements and that the questionnaire is sufficiently reliable and valid to capture the present sample of working mothers' perceptions of the pressures and support they experienced.

5.4 THE FACTOR STRUCTURE OF THE OVERALL STRESS INDEX

5.4.1 Internal structure and validity of the Overall Stress Index

To determine the factor structure and validity of the Overall Stress Index (OSI) for the present sample, the inter-correlation matrix of the scores of the respondents ($n = 205$) on the 11 items was subjected to PFA and rotated by means of the varimax rotation with Kaiser's normalization. To assess compliance with the distribution requirements, Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy were used.

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Kaiser's criterion (1961), and Cattell's (1966) scree-plot were used to estimate the number of significant item factors.

The KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity produced satisfactory results. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy value (0.903) was greater than 0.7. This means that the data set was likely to factor well. Bartlett's test of sphericity confirmed [^{2} (55) = 1211.696, $p < 0.001$] that the properties of the correlation matrix of the item scores were suitable for factor analysis. Based on Kaiser's criterion (eigenvalues greater than one) and the scree-plot (Figure 5.2), two factors were postulated which explained 56.82% of the variance in the factor space after rotation. Although the items related to both factors had loadings higher than 0.5, the two factors were not well defined because of relatively high cross-loadings of four items. The rotated factor matrix of the solution, the eigenvalues and percentage variance explained are set out in Table 5.9.

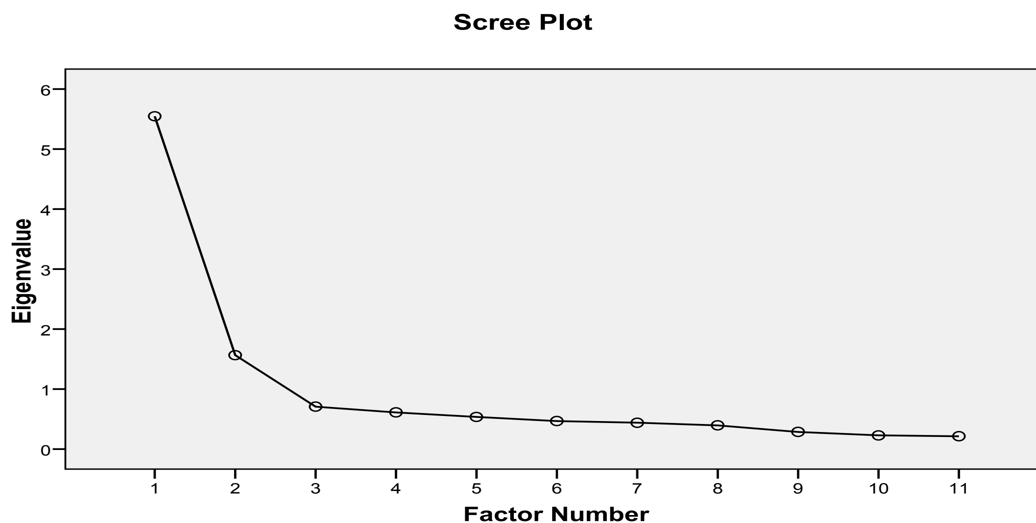

Figure 5.2: Scree-plot of the data captured with the Overall Stress Index

Table 5.9: Factor loadings, eigenvalues and percentage variance after rotation of the two factors related to the OSI (n = 250)

Item	Factor	
	1	2
S5. I get a prickling sensation or twinges in parts of my body.	0.803	0.298
S4. I get muscle tremors (e.g. eye twitch).	0.786	0.240
S3. I experience shortness of breath or feel dizzy.	0.767	0.358
S11. I feel hopeless about the future.	0.740	0.215
S10. I experience panicky spells.	0.720	0.137
S7. I lack energy.	0.074	0.711
S8. I have difficulty sleeping.	0.309	0.697
S9. I get headaches or feel pressure in my head.	0.137	0.630
S2. I have a tendency to eat, drink, or smoke more than usual.	0.428	0.605
S1. I feel unaccountably tired or exhausted.	0.259	0.583
S6. I feel as though I do not want to get up in the morning.	0.450	0.572
Eigenvalues	**5.547**	**1.565**
Percentage variance after rotation	**31.723**	**25.089**

5.4.2 Factor naming and description of the OSI

After studying the contents of the items defining each factor, the following descriptive labels were assigned to the factors:

Factor 1: Physiological symptoms (PSS)

This factor is made up of five items factor loadings of 0.7 and higher. The main features of these items are physiological reactions, such as prickly sensations or twinges in the body, muscle tremors, shortness of breath or dizziness and panicky spells. This factor accounted for 31.72% of the total explained variance

Factor 2: Exhaustion symptoms (ESS)

Six items loaded on this factor and they indicate lack of energy, difficulty in sleeping, headaches, exhaustion and a tendency to eat, drink, or smoke more than usual. This factor accounted for 25.09% of the total explained

variance. Two items loaded high on both factors, namely the tendency to eat, drink or smoke more than usual and a feeling of being too tired to get up in the morning.

5.4.3 Reliability of the two scales of the OSI

The reliability coefficients of the two scales of the OSI are depicted in Tables 5.10 and 5.11. The results indicate that the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of both scales were high. Alpha coefficients of 0.899 and 0.842 were calculated for the PPS scale and the ESS scale respectively. The results of the statistical analysis of the responses on the OSI suggest that the questionnaire was sufficiently reliable and valid to capture the stress symptoms that the working mothers in the sample experienced.

**Table 5.10: Reliability and item statistics for Factor 1: Physiological symptoms (PSS) (n = 205)
(n = 205)**

Items	Mean	Std dev.	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if the item is deleted
S3. I experience shortness of breath or feel dizzy.	2.0732	1.51448	0.778	0.871
S4. I get muscle tremors (e.g. eye twitch).	1.9024	1.46202	0.776	0.872
S5. I get a prickling sensation or twinges in parts of my body	1.9951	1.50326	0.803	0.866
S10. I experience panicky spells.	1.8829	1.53902	0.690	0.890
S11. I feel hopeless about the future.	2.0683	1.58585	0.711	0.886

Number of items: 5
Mean inter-item correlation: 0.75
Cronbach's alpha coefficient: 0.899

Table 5.11: Reliability and item statistics for Factor 2: Exhaustion symptoms (ESS) (n = 205)

Items	Mean	Std dev.	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if the item is deleted
S1. I feel unaccountably tired or exhausted.	3.4488	1.69010	0.589	0.822
S2. I have a tendency to eat, drink, or smoke more than usual.	2.8488	1.83420	0.654	0.810
S6. I feel as though I do not want to get up in the morning.	2.7610	1.59240	0.627	0.815
S7. I lack energy.	3.5317	1.45360	0.601	0.820
S8. I have difficulty sleeping.	2.9122	1.55995	0.691	0.802
S9. I get headaches or feel pressure in my head.	3.4341	1.55356	0.569	0.826

Number of items: 6
Mean inter-item correlation: 0.62
Cronbach's alpha coefficient: 0.842

5.5 FACTOR STRUCTURE OF THE COPING BEHAVIOUR INDEX (CBI)

5.5.1 Internal structure and validity of the Coping Behaviour Index (CBI)

The inter-correlation matrix of the scores of the present sample of working mothers (n = 205) on the 17 items of the CBI was subjected to PFA and rotated by means of the varimax rotation with Kaiser's normalization.

The KMO measure of sampling adequacy of 0.962 and Bartlett's test of sphericity [^{2} (136) = 3015.145, p< 0.001] confirmed that the properties of the correlation matrix of the item scores were suitable for factor analysis. Based on the scree-plot (Figure 5.3) and Kaiser's criterion (eigenvalues greater than one), two factors were postulated which explained 63.373% of the variance in the factor space after rotation. The rotated factor matrix of the solution, the eigenvalues and percentage variance explained after rotation are set out in Table 5.12.

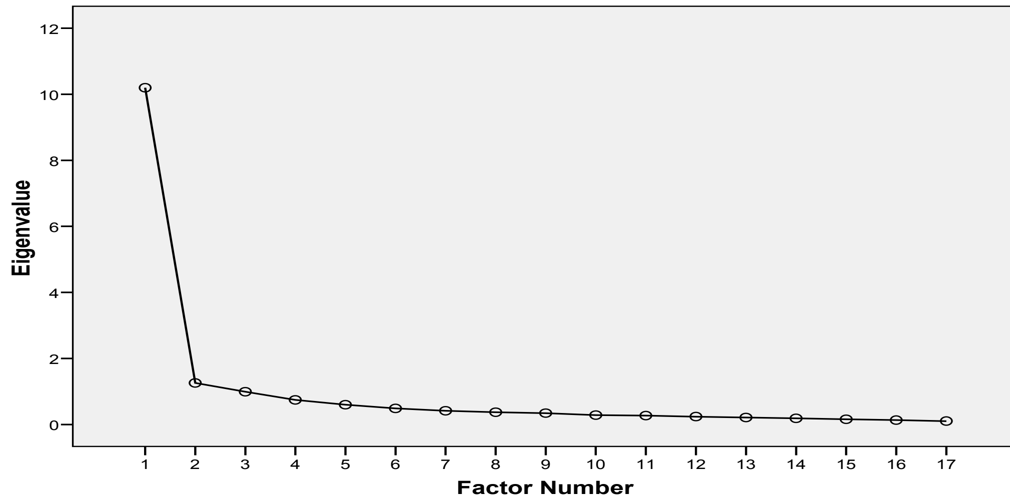

Figure 5.3: Scree-plot of the data captured with the Coping Behaviour Index

Table 5.12: Factor loadings, eigenvalues and percentage variance after rotation of the factors related to the Coping Behaviour Index n= 205)

Items	Factor	
	1	2
C5. I plan ahead.	0.856	0.307
C4. I talk to understanding friends.	0.806	0.231
C6. I expand my interests and activities outside work.	0.746	0.415
C10. I seek as much social support as possible.	0.693	0.334
C7. I pay selective attention (concentrating on specific problems).	0.674	0.469
C3. I use effective time management.	0.664	0.498
C8. I set priorities and deal with problems accordingly.	0.625	0.476
C17. I share my concerns with other people.	0.440	0.361
C11. I do not let things get to me.	0.347	0.767
C12. I keep calm under pressure.	0.294	0.759
C16. I try to reduce my workload.	0.194	0.735
C14. I find time to relax.	0.401	0.687
C2. I try to deal with the situation objectively, in an unemotional way.	0.469	0.657
C13. I keep home and work separate.	0.505	0.650
C15. I enjoy life outside of work.	0.449	0.614
C1. I resort to hobbies and pastimes.	0.393	0.586
C9. I try to ‘stand aside’ and think through the situation.	0.544	0.581
Eigenvalues	**10.197**	**1.258**
Percentage variance after rotation	**31.941**	**31.432**

5.5.2 Factor naming and description of the Coping Behaviour Index (CBI)

The items of the CBI deal with perceptual, cognitive or behavioural responses that are used to avoid, control or manage situations that could be regarded as worrying or stressful. These responses include planning ahead, expanding interests and activities outside of work, seeking as much support as possible, concentrating on specific problems, effective use of time and setting priorities, interpreting the problem whilst maintaining a positive outlook on the problem and taking care to handle the stressful event in a mature manner.

The two factors of the CBI were not well defined. Ten of the 17 items cross-loaded relatively high on both factors (see Table 5.12.) The discriminatory ability of the two factors was poor, as is reflected in the high inter-correlation coefficient between the summated scores of the two factors ($r_{x1x2} = 0.840$, $p < 0.0001$) and their correlation with the total score for the 17 item CBI ($r_{x1y1} = 0.926$, $p < 0.0001$; $r_{x2y1} = 0.968$; $p < 0.0001$). To avoid the problem of multicollinearity, it was decided to combine the scores of the two subscales of the CBI and generate an overall coping behaviour score for each respondent in the present sample.

The item reliability coefficients and total scale reliability of the CBI are reported in Table 5.13. The high reliability coefficient of 0.957 and mean inter-item correlation value of 0.738 for the 17 items of the CBI indicates that the questionnaire meets the requirements of homogeneity and unidimensionality and that these items can be considered to be representative of the coping behaviour that the questionnaire measures.

Table 5.13: Reliability and item statistics for the Coping Behaviour Index (n = 205)

Items	Mean	Std dev.	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if the item is deleted
C1. I resort to hobbies and pastimes.	4.4927	1.14883	0.681	0.955
C2. I try to deal with the situation objectively, in an unemotional way.	4.6927	0.96923	0.784	0.953
C3. I use effective time management.	4.7463	0.96205	0.800	0.953
C4. I talk to understanding friends.	4.8390	0.89027	0.694	0.955
C5. I plan ahead.	4.8195	0.84111	0.784	0.953
C6. I expand my interests and activities outside work.	4.8000	0.94142	0.793	0.953
C7. I pay selective attention (concentrating on specific problems).	4.7659	0.95168	0.785	0.953
C8. I set priorities and deal with problems accordingly.	4.8000	0.94661	0.756	0.954
C9. I try to 'stand aside' and think through the situation.	4.7805	0.96284	0.779	0.953
C10. I seek as much social support as possible.	4.8390	0.95406	0.701	0.955
C11. I do not let things get to me.	4.6927	1.17915	0.770	0.954
C12. I keep calm under pressure.	4.5512	1.21007	0.724	0.955
C13. I keep home and work separate.	4.6683	1.03716	0.802	0.953
C14. I find time to relax.	4.7366	1.00921	0.757	0.954
C15. I enjoy life outside of work.	4.6634	0.97462	0.741	0.954
C16. I try to reduce my workload.	4.6829	1.05809	0.644	0.956
C17. I share my concerns with other people.	4.8146	0.89923	0.557	0.957

Number of items: **17**
Mean inter-item correlation: **0.738**
Cronbach's alpha coefficient: **0.957**

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5.6 EXPLORING THE DATA

5.6.1 Distribution of the data

In order to subject the summated scale scores of the various measures to further statistical analysis, the distribution of the scores on the scales needed to be carefully examined to decide on the most appropriate type(s) of statistical analysis. Table 5.14 shows the descriptive statistics of the measuring instruments and the demographic variables. This table depicts the mean, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of the scores for each variable that was measured on a continuous scale.

To determine if parametric statistics were more applicable than non-parametric statistics, it was important to consider the assumption(s) that are relevant to the use of parametric tests. According to Field (2005:64), most parametric tests require that the population score is normally distributed, that the variances of the groups are equal, and that the dependent variables are measured on an interval level. In order to determine whether a factor is normally distributed, Morgan *et al*. (2007) suggest that the skewness and kurtosis of a distribution should not be more than 2.5 times the standard error. In the present study, the skewness and kurtosis of the dispersion of the variables could not be more than 0.425 and 0. 845 respectively to be regarded as normally distributed. Inspection of Table 5.14 reveals that the distribution of the sample scores of only four variables (25%) (these are marked with a single asterisk (*)) complied with the criteria of Morgan *et al*. (2007) and were approximately normally distributed, whereas the distribution of 12 of the variables (75%) appeared to be non-normal. The finding that the assumption of normality was not met for the six scales of the W-FPSQ may imply that caution should be exercised in generalising the results of this research beyond the sample collected (Field, 2005:641).

Table 5.14: Distribution of the scores of the total sample on the different variables (n = 205)

Measurement/Scale	Mean	Std dev.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Sk stats	Std error	Ku stats	Std error
Demographic information						
Age in years*	34.45366	3.915035	-0.104	0.170	-0.261	0.338
Years of experience in organisation/profession	6.81683	3.937461	0.964	0.170	0.676	0.338
Hours work per week*	33.60000	6.236829	-0.372	0.170	-0.302	0.338
Number of dependants	2.34146	1.03870	0.920	0.170	0.991	0.338
Age of youngest child	6.8683	3.73998	0.557	0.170	-0.231	0.338
Days sick leave in last three months	2.10	1.899	0.504	0.170	-0.726	0.338
W-FPSQ						
Work-family pressure	56.86	27.5348	-0.098	0.170	-1.583	0.338
Personal development	58.48	15.6501	-1.428	0.170	1.331	0.338
Management support	37.97	11.4980	-1.556	0.170	1.117	0.338
Organisational flexibility	30.99	14.0211	0.190	0.170	-1.272	0.338
Time for family interaction	30.18	13.1779	-0.313	0.170	-1.377	0.338
Childcare support	27.38	10.9038	-0.425	0.170	-1.132	0.338
OSI						
Physiological symptoms (PSS)	9.92	6.4233	1.175	0.170	0.212	0.338
Exhaustion symptoms (ESS)*	18.94	7.2572	-0.069	0.170	-0.675	0.338
Overall stress score	28.86	12.2001	0.545	0.170	-0.510	0.338
CBI						
Overall coping behaviour*	80.38	13.0749	0.126	0.170	0.189	0.338

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To verify the expected non-normal distribution of the scores, all the variables were further subjected to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) goodness-of-fit test and the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality. Since one of the main foci in this study is a comparison of married and single working mothers, the distribution of each group was also calculated separately.

The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test are depicted in Tables 5.15 and 15.16 for the overall sample and the two sub-samples. In general, the Shapiro-Wilk test provides a more accurate calculation than the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Field, 2005:527). According to Tables 5.15 and 15.16, the two-tailed test for significance indicated that the distributions of the scores for most variables were non-normal ($p<0.05$). Thus the hypothesis that the sample distribution comes from a specific normal distribution is rejected at the 0.05 level of significance for both the overall sample and the two sub-samples. Since the distribution of the independent and the dependent variables were approximately non-normal, non-parametric statistical methodology was considered appropriate for the comparative and associational analyses of the data in this study.

Table 5.15: Results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for the distribution of the data of the total sample (n=205)

Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Demographic information						
Age in years	0.098	202	0.000	0.986	202	0.044
Years of experience in organisation/profession	0.144	202	0.000	0.925	202	0.000
Hours work per week	0.235	202	0.000	0.910	202	0.000
Number of dependants	0.274	202	0.000	0.863	202	0.000
Age of youngest child	0.108	202	0.000	0.959	202	0.000
Days sick leave in last three months	0.190	202	0.000	0.889	202	0.000
W-FPSQ						
Work-family pressure	0.152	205	0.000	0.891	205	0.000
Personal development	0.159	205	0.000	0.834	205	0.000
Management support	0.258	205	0.000	0.741	205	0.000
Organisational flexibility	0.110	205	0.000	0.938	205	0.000
Time for family interaction	0.153	205	0.000	0.903	205	0.000
Childcare arrangement	0.172	205	0.000	0.905	205	0.000
OSI						
Physiological symptoms	0.247	205	0.000	0.774	205	0.000
Exhaustion symptoms	0.109	205	0.000	0.963	205	0.000
Overall stress score	0.099	205	0.000	0.953	205	0.000
CBI						
Overall coping behaviour	0.101	205	0.000	0.963	205	0.000

Table 5.16:Tests of normality for each variable by marital status

Variables	Marital status	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Age in years	Single	0.105	101	0.008	0.986	101	0.385
	Married	0.091	101	0.038	0.976	101	0.063
Years of experience in organisation/profession	Single	0.132	101	0.000	0.886	101	0.000
	Married	0.132	101	0.000	0.952	101	0.001
Hours work p/week	Single	0.202	101	0.000	0.914	101	0.000
	Married	0.276	101	0.000	0.883	101	0.000
Number of dependants	Single	0.266	101	0.000	0.864	101	0.000
	Married	0.273	101	0.000	0.863	101	0.000
Age of youngest child	Single	0.132	101	0.000	0.952	101	0.001
	Married	0.097	101	0.020	0.960	101	0.004
Days sick leave in last three months	Single	0.157	101	0.000	0.913	101	0.000
	Married	0.221	101	0.000	0.859	101	0.000
Work-family pressure	Single	0.206	101	0.000	0.846	101	0.000
	Married	0.214	101	0.000	0.814	101	0.000
Personal development	Single	0.201	101	0.000	0.857	101	0.000
	Married	0.227	101	0.000	0.831	101	0.000
Management support	Single	0.226	101	0.000	0.812	101	0.000
	Married	0.268	101	0.000	0.662	101	0.000
Organisational flexibility	Single	0.128	101	0.000	0.925	101	0.000
	Married	0.143	101	0.000	0.925	101	0.000
Time for family interaction	Single	0.123	101	0.001	0.933	101	0.000
	Married	0.232	101	0.000	0.809	101	0.000
Childcare support	Single	0.130	101	0.000	0.950	101	0.001
	Married	0.280	101	0.000	0.777	101	0.000
Physiological symptoms	Single	0.145	101	0.000	0.908	101	0.000
	Married	0.433	101	0.000	0.571	101	0.000
Exhaustion symptoms	Single	0.153	101	0.000	0.950	101	0.001
	Married	0.083	101	0.082	0.953	101	0.001
Overall stress score	Single	0.089	101	0.046	0.984	101	0.261
	Married	0.095	101	0.025	0.945	101	0.000
Overall coping behaviour	Single	0.096	101	0.024	0.963	101	0.006
	Married	0.110	101	0.004	0.947	101	0.001

5.6.2 The comparison of the characteristics of the sub-samples

Before the main statistical analysis was undertaken, it was necessary to determine whether the characteristics of the single and married working mothers matched each other, and to verify that both groups were comparable. The Chi-square (^{2}), Phi-coefficient (φ) and Cramer's V (V) were computed to test the relationship and strength of the relationship between sample identity and the demographic characteristics of the participants.

The Chi-square results revealed that the ages of the single working mothers and that of the married working mothers were evenly distributed (^{2} (18) = 17.127; $p \geq 0.514$); the total hours spent at work during a week was approximately the same for both groups of mothers (^{2} (8) = 14.622; $p \geq 0.067$): the number of dependants was similar for both samples (^{2} (5) = 7.981; $p \geq 0.157$); the ages of youngest children of the single and married mothers were alike (^{2} (15) = 10.683; $p \geq 0.775$); and both groups took the same total number of days of sick leave in a three month period (^{2} (7) = 6.265; $p \geq 0.509$). However, the single and married mothers differed significantly regarding their years of experience at their present organisation or in their present profession (^{2} (15) = 38.284; $p < 0.001$). The average years of experience for the married mothers was 8.29 years (SD = 4.070) as opposed to 5.35 years (SD = 3.198) for the single working mothers. According to Cohen's (1988) criterion, this finding may have implications, because the effect size (V = 0.438) of the difference was relatively large.

Cramer's V (V) and the Phi-coefficient (φ) were computed to test the strength of the relationships between sample identity and the demographic characteristics of the participants. No significant association was found between the sample grouping and qualification (V = 0.137; p = 0.275), job classification (V= 0.082; p = 0.513), nature of employment (φ = 0.084; p = 0.230), and the experience of negative events in the last three months (φ = 0.566; p = 0.452). On the other hand, single working mothers experienced more ongoing negative pressure (= 0.190; $p \leq 0.007$), and were less convinced than the married mothers that it was

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possible to negotiate non-standard working hours with their organisations (φ = -0.152; p ≤ 0.029). The effect sizes of 0.19 and 0.15 are too small to have any practical implications and the differences between the two sub-samples are negligible.

The results of the comparisons mentioned above indicated that on the whole the characteristics of the single and married working mothers matched each other, and that the two groups were comparable. Detailed results of the Chi-square (^{2}), Cramer's V (V) and Phi-coefficient (φ) calculations are summarised in Appendix G.

5.6.3 The use of non-parametric tests

Due to the skewness of the distribution and the fact that the variances in the groups were unequal for six of the ten dependent behavioural scales, it was decided to use non-parametric tests. These tests are commonly referred to as distribution-free tests. As non-parametric methods, their applicability is much wider than that of the corresponding parametric methods. Due to the reliance on fewer assumptions, non-parametric methods are also more robust (Field, 2005). Non-parametric or distribution-free statistical tests do not depend on any assumptions about the form of the sample population or the values of the population parameters. Examples of non-parametric tests used in this research include Pearson's Rank order correlation (rho), the non-parametric multivariate analyses of variance (the non-parametric MANOVA) and the Mann-Whitney U-test.

5.7 RESULTS OF THE ASSOCIATIONAL STATISTICS

5.7.1 Correlation between the demographic, support, coping, pressure and stress variables

Because the assumption of the normality of the scores was noticeably violated, it was decided to use Spearman's rho method to calculate the correlations between the different variables.

The difference between Pearson's coefficient and Spearman's rho is in the type of data being used. Pearson's coefficient requires interval or ratio data while Spearman's rho only requires ordinal data (Myers & Well, 2003). Blalock (1979) contends that rho is really a measure of the linear relationship between variables, being a measure of the strength of the goodness-of-fit of the least squares straight line, however, this association by no means proves causality. The strength of the association between two variables shows only the degree of covariation between the variables, as one cannot rule out the existence of the influence from extraneous variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Therefore, Cohen (1988) recommends a cut-off point of $r = 0.30$ (medium effect size) as a basis for accepting the practical significance of correlations between variables.

The Spearman's rho correlation and the inter-correlation of the variables are presented in Tables 5.17 to 5.19. Three tables were necessary because the size of the 17 X 17 correlation matrix was too large to include all the correlation coefficients in a single table. The Spearman's rho inter-correlation matrix for the demographic characteristics are shown in Table 5.17, and the results of the association between the demographic characteristics and the support variables, coping behaviour, and pressure and stress scales are reported in Table 5.18. The correlation coefficients indicating the relationship between the support, the coping behaviour, the pressure and the stress scales are depicted in Table 5.19.

Table 5.17: Spearman's rho inter-correlation of the demographic variables (n = 205)

Spearman's rho	Age in years	Years of experience in organisation/ profession	Level of qualification	Hours work per week	Number of dependants	Age of youngest child	Days sick leave in last three months
Age in years	1.000						
Years of experience in organisation/profession Sig (2-tailed)	0.544** 0.000	1.000					
Level of qualification Sig (2-tailed)	0.276** 0.000	0.298** 0.000	1.000				
Hours work p/week Sig (2-tailed)	0.075 0.285	-0.122 0.085	0.009 0.903	1.000			
Number of dependants Sig (2-tailed)	0.570** 0.000	0.329** 0.000	0.265** 0.000	-0.024 0.737	1.000		
Age of youngest child Sig (2-tailed)	0.282** 0.000	0.171* 0.015	0.036 0.610	0.096 0.169	-0.169* 0.015	1.000	
Days sick leave in last three months Sig (2-tailed)	-0.066 0.348	-0.120 0.090	-0.072 0.304	-0.083 0.238	0.086 0.381	-0.156* 0.026	1.000

** P< 0.001; *p< 0.00; $r_s \leq 0.10$ suggests a small effect; $r_s \geq 0.30$ suggests a medium effect; and $r_s \geq 0.50$ suggests a large effect.

Table 5.18: Spearman's rho correlation between the demographic variables and the support, coping behaviour, pressure and stress scales (n = 205)

Spearman's rho	Personal development	Management support	Organisational flexibility	Time for family interaction	Childcare arrangement	Overall coping behaviour	Work-family pressure	Physiological symptoms	Exhaustion symptoms	Overall stress score
Age in years	0.110	0.097	0.093	0.075	0.019	0.020	-0.094	-0.088	-0.074	-0.082
Sig (2-tailed)	0.118	0.169	0.183	0.238	0.786	0.777	0.180	0.208	0.294	0.243
Years of experience in organisation/ profession	0.237**	0.157*	0.292**	0.282**	0.168*	0.069	0.376**	0.281**	0.319**	0.317**
Sig (2-tailed)	0.001	0.025	0.000	0.000	0.017	0.326	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Level of qualification	0.093	0.163*	0.086	0.080	0.113	0.029	-0.107	0.006	-0.066	-0.047
Sig (2-tailed)	0.185	0.019	0.221	0.251	0.106	0.679	0.128	0.932	0.348	0.506
Hours work p/week	0.058	0.152*	-0.043	-0.044	0.082	-0.040	0.082	0.001	-0.050	-0.049
Sig (2-tailed)	0.407	0.030	0.539	0.534	0.243	0.573	0.205	0.995	0.479	0.482
Number of dependants	0.072	0.104	0.008	0.077	0.051	0.144*	-0.148*	0.096	-0.117	-0.134
Sig (2-tailed)	0.303	0.138	0.915	0.270	0.464	0.039	0.034	0.169	0.095	0.056
Age of youngest child	0.088	0.012	0.107	0.151*	0.058	-0.054	0.060	-0.037	-0.073	-0.052
Sig (2-tailed)	0.209	0.860	0.125	0.031	0.406	0.442	0.390	0.602	0.301	0.460
Days sick leave in last three months	0.001	-0.067	-0.021	-0.034	-0.088	0.005	0.066	-0.087	0.156*	0.126
Sig (2-tailed)	0.991	0.340	0.765	0.633	0.633	0.949	0.347	0.215	0.025	0.071

** P< 0.001; *p< 0.00; $r_s \leq 0.10$ suggests a small effect; $r_s \geq 0.30$ suggests a medium effect; and $r_s \geq 0.50$ suggests a large effect.

The correlation results depicted in Table 5.17 and Table 5.18 indicate that for the present sample:

Age is significantly correlated with years of work experience ($r_s = 0.544$, $p < 0.001$); qualifications ($r_s = 0.276$, $p < 0.001$); number of dependants ($r_s = 0.570$, $p < 0.001$) and age of the youngest child ($r_s = 0.282$, $p < 0.001$). Age did not bear any significant relationship to the supporting resources or pressures affecting working mothers, their experience of stress symptoms or their coping behaviour. The effect size of the correlation between age, years of work experience and the number of dependants is large ($r \geq 0.5$).

Working mothers' years of experience in their present organisation or profession displays a significant relationship with most of the variables under study. It is positively and significantly related to age ($r_s = 0.544$, $p < 0.001$), with a large effect size; level of qualification ($r_s = 0.298$, $p < 0.001$), with a small to medium effect size; number of dependants ($r_s = 0.329$, $p < 0.001$), with a medium effect size; and the age of the youngest child ($r_s = 0.171$, $p < 0.05$), with a small effect size. Years of experience was also positively related to personal development ($r_s = 0.237$, $p < 0.01$); organisational flexibility ($r_s = 0$ 0.292, $p < 0.001$) and time for family interaction ($r_s = 0.282$, $p < 0.001$); but was negatively related to working mothers' perceptions of work-family pressures ($r_s = -0.376$, $p < 0.001$); and the stress dimensions ($r_s = -0.281$, -0.319, and -0.317, $p < 0.001$, respectively). The effect size of the correlations between years of experience and working mothers' perceptions of the support and stress variables are small to medium.

Level of qualification was significantly related to years of experience ($r_s = 0.298$, $p < 0.001$); number of dependants ($r_s = 0.265$, $p < 0.001$); and management support ($r_s = 0.163$, $p < 0.05$). According to Cohen's criterion (1988), these correlations have small size effects. Furthermore, level of qualification bears no noteworthy correlation with work-family pressure or the stress measurements.

The total hours that the married mothers spend at work in a week did not correlate significantly with any of their demographic characteristics, or their support, coping, pressure and stress scores.

The number of dependants that working mothers support correlated significantly ($p < 0.001$) with age (0.570), years of work experience (0.329) and level of qualification (0.265). The number of dependants also correlated positively with the overall coping behaviour score ($r_s = 0.144$, $p < 0.05$) and negatively with the work-family pressure score ($r_s = -0.148$, $p < 0.05$). The last two correlations covered very small size effects and are negligible.

The age of the youngest child correlated significantly with the respondents' age ($r_s = 0.282$, $p < 0.001$); years of work experience ($r_s = 0.171$, $p < 0.05$); number of dependants ($r_s = -0.169$ $p< 0.05$); and time for family interaction ($r_s = 0.151$ $p < 0.05$). However, the effect sizes of these correlations were all small and insignificant.

The number of days sick leave taken by the working mothers over a period of three months correlated negatively with the age of the youngest child ($r_s = -0.156$, $p < 0.05$) and related positively with the experience of exhaustion symptoms ($r_s = 0.156$, $p < 0.05$). Both correlation coefficients had a small effect size of 0.15, which is considered negligible, according to Cohen's (1988) criterion.

It seems that working mothers' years of experience in their present organisation or profession are the most important demographic variable in understanding possible variability in the sample's support, pressure and stress scores. Years of experience accounted for 14.1% of the variability in work-family pressure and 10.1% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

The correlation matrix depicted in Table 5.19 shows that the scores on the ten behavioural scales inter-correlated significantly ($p \leq 0.01$). The rho inter-correlation coefficients ranged from 0.236 to 0.720 for the support/ coping behaviour scales, and from 0.471 to 0.936 for the pressure/stress scales. The correlation coefficients between the support/coping behaviour scales and the pressure/stress scales fluctuated from -0.200 to -0.722. Of the 45 rho coefficients, 24 signified large size effects, ten indicated medium size effects and nine small size effects.

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The specific results indicated that:

Scores on the personal development scale correlated significantly ($p < 0.001$) with the sample's scores on the coping behaviour scale, $r_s = 0.327$, signifying a medium effect size. Personal development was significantly negatively ($p < 0.001$) related to work-family pressure ($r_s = -0.544$); physiological symptoms ($r_s = -0.496$); exhaustion symptoms ($r_s = -0.620$); and overall stress ($r_s = -0.636$). These correlations denote large size effects according to Cohen's criterion (1988). Opportunities for personal development accounted for 29.6% of the variability in work-family pressure and 40.4% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

Perceptions of management support correlated positively with the scores on the coping behaviour scale ($r_s = 0.236$, $p < 0.01$) and negatively with the scores for work-family pressure ($r_s = -0.297$, $p < 0.001$); physiological symptoms ($r_s = -0.264$, $p < 0.001$); exhaustion symptoms ($r_s = -0.366$, $p < 0.001$); and overall stress ($r_s = -0.374$, $p < 0.001$). The effect size of the correlations are small to medium. Management support seemed to explain 14% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

Organisational flexibility scores correlated positively with the scores on the coping behaviour scale ($r_s = 0.335$, $p < 0.001$) and negatively with the scores for work-family pressure ($r_s = -0.495$, $p < 0.001$); physiological symptoms ($r_s = -0.286$, $p < 0.001$); exhaustion symptoms ($r_s = -0.579$, $p < 0.001$); and overall stress ($r_s = -0.507$, $p < 0.001$). Four of the correlations' effect sizes were medium to large. Creating and providing a flexible work environment seemed to explain 24.5% of the variability in work-family pressure and 25.7% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

The scores on the time for family interaction scale correlated significantly ($p < 0.001$) with the scores on the coping behaviour scale, $r_s = 0.335$, with a medium effect size. The availability of time for family interaction related significantly negatively ($p < 0.001$) with work-family pressure ($r_s = -0.624$); physiological symptoms ($r_s = -0.497$); exhaustion symptoms ($r_s = -0.722$); and overall stress ($r_s = -0.701$). According to Cohen's criterion (1988), these correlations denote large size effects. Time for family interaction accounted for 38.9% of the variability in work-family pressure, 52.1% of the variability in

the occurrence of exhaustion symptoms and 49.1% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

Childcare support correlated positively with the scores on the coping behaviour scale ($r_s = 0.216$, $p < 0.01$, small effect) and negatively with the scores for work-family pressure ($r_s = -0.544$, $p < 0.001$); physiological symptoms ($r_s = -0.380$, $p < 0.001$); exhaustion symptoms ($r_s = -0.613$, $p < 0.001$); and overall stress ($r_s = -0.592$, $p < 0.001$). The effect size of three correlations were large. Childcare arrangements accounted for 29.6% of the variability in work-family pressure, 37.6% of the variability in the occurrence of exhaustion symptoms and 35.0% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

Significant negative correlations between the overall coping behaviour score and the scores on the pressure/ stress scales were found. However, the effect size of all the rho correlation coefficients was relatively small. The correlations were $r_s = -0.268$ for work-family pressure, $r_s = -0.200$ for physiological symptoms, $r_s = -0.243$ for exhaustion symptoms and $r_s = -0.260$ for overall stress.

The high inter-correlations between the five support scales compelled the researcher to investigate the implication of the overlap in variance of the variables. The unique contribution of the support variables may be much smaller, despite the substantial correlation with the dependent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007:137). To address this problem the multiple correlation coefficients (R) were calculated between the scores of the sample on the support scales and their scores for work-family pressure, the physiological symptoms and exhaustion symptoms, and for the overall stress scale. This calculation provides a more realistic indication of the combined effect of the support scales scores (independent variables) in the determination of variance (R^2) in the pressure and the stress scores (dependent variables). It is important to mention that the R results cannot be used to infer causal relationships (Field, 2005:129) and that the values of R or R^2 are not precise, as the distribution of the variables did not comply with the assumption of normality. These results are summarised in Table 5.20.

Table 5.19: Spearman's rho correlation between the support, coping behaviour, pressure and stress scales (n = 205)

Spearman's rho	Personal development	Management support	Organisational flexibility	Time for family interaction	Childcare support	Overall coping behaviour	Work-family pressure	Physiological symptoms	Exhaustion symptoms	Overall stress score
Personal development	1.000									
Management support Sig (2-tailed)	0.521** 0.000	1.000								
Organisational flexibility Sig (2-tailed)	0.716** 0.000	0.400** 0.000	1.000							
Time for family interaction Sig (2-tailed)	0.699** 0.000	0.346** 0.000	0.720** 0.000	1.000						
Childcare support Sig (2-tailed)	0.686** 0.000	0.552** 0.000	0.639** 0.000	0.705** 0.000	1.000					
Overall coping behaviour Sig (2-tailed)	0.327** 0.000	0.236** 0.001	0.335** 0.000	0.335** 0.000	0.216** 0.002	1.000				
Work-family pressure Sig (2-tailed)	-0.544** 0.000	- 0.297** 0.000	-0.495** 0.000	-0.624** 0.000	-0.544** 0.000	-0.268** 0.000	1.000			
Physiological symptoms Sig (2-tailed)	-0.496** 0.000	-0.264** 0.000	-0.286** 0.000	-0.497** 0.000	-0.380** 0.000	-0.200** 0.004	0.471** 0.000	1.000		
Exhaustion symptoms Sig (2-tailed)	-0.620** 0.000	-0.366** 0.000	-0.579** 0.000	-0.722** 0.000	-0.613** 0.000	-0.243** 0.000	0.666** 0.000	0.595** 0.000	1.000	
Overall Stress Score Sig (2-tailed)	-0.636** 0.000	-0.374** 0.000	-0.507** 0.000	-0.701** 0.000	-0.592** 0.000	-0.260** 0.000	0.660** 0.000	0.815** 0.000	0.936** 0.000	1.000

** p< 0.001; *p< 0.00; $r_s \leq 0.10$ suggests a small effect; $r_s \geq 0.30$ suggests a medium effect; and $r_s \geq 0.50$ suggests a large effect.

Table 5.20 shows the results of the estimation of the multiple correlation coefficients (R) when all the support variables are combined and used simultaneously in the calculation of their collective relationship with the dependent variables individually. The multiple correlations (R) for personal development, management support, organisational flexibility, time for family interaction and childcare arrangement were approximately 0.642 for work-family pressure; 0.545 for physiological symptoms; 0.740 for exhaustion symptoms; and 0.709 for the overall stress measures. The five support variables appeared to collectively explain approximately 41.2% of the variability in work-family pressure; 29.7% of the variability of the physiological symptoms and 54.7% of the variability in the occurrence of the exhaustion symptoms. About 50.2% of the variability in the overall stress scores was due to the effect of the combined support scales. According to Cohen's criterion (1988), the effect size of R^2 is medium to large.

These results, although they are questionable because of the non-normal distribution of the scores, give an important indication of the value of support systems to assist working mothers to manage and cope with work-family pressure and stress.

Table 5.20: Multiple correlation between scores on the support scales and scores on the pressure and stress scales (n = 205)

Support scores with	Multiple correlation		Std error of the estimate	Change statistics			
	R	R Square		F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change
Work family pressure	0.642	0.412	21.38441	27.844	5	199	0.000
Physiological symptoms	0.545	0.297	5.45365	16.798	5	199	0.000
Exhaustion symptoms	0.740	0.547	4.94481	48.083	5	199	0.000
Overall stress	0.709	0.502	8.71401	40.182	5	199	0.000

5.8 RESULTS OF THE ANALYSES OF VARIANCE

5.8.1 Introduction

Non-parametric multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), as discussed by Zwick (1985), was used to uncover the main 'effects' of marital status and three categorical stress-related occurrences on the sample's perception of their personal development, management support, organisational flexibility, time for family interaction, childcare support, the overall coping behaviour scores, and their work-family pressure and overall stress scores. The test of between-subjects effects for the MANOVA was used to measure any statistically significant relationship between the mean rank scores of the different subgroups in the sample (Field, 2005:572). In cases where the F-tests were significant, the *post hoc* Mann-Whitney test was used to explore the difference between the mean rank scores of the two groups, as suggested by Morgan *et al*.(2007).The partial eta square (^{2}) was calculated to determine the effect sizes or strength of association between the demographic variables and the dependent variables (Cohen, 1988).

The MANOVA is a complex statistical method that analyses variants in multiple dependent variables together. The MANOVA provides a multivariate F-value based on a linear combination of dependent variables, as well as univariate F-values for each separate dependent variable. For the analysis to have greater power, the dependent variables should be conceptually correlated with one another at a low to moderate level. If the dependent variables are too highly correlated, multicollinearity is a restriction. Conversely, if the dependent variables are uncorrelated, there is usually no reason to analyse them together (Field, 2005: 573). Due to the high rho inter-correlation between the scores on the overall stress scale and its two sub-scales (physiological symptoms and exhaustion symptoms) of 0.815 and 0 0.936 respectively, only the mean rank scores for the overall stress measure were included in this analyses.

5.8.2 The results of the non-parametric multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA)

The GLM procedure of SPSS was used to determine if vectors of the mean ranks for the categorical groups differed from each other to a statistically significant degree regarding the dependent variables. The first was to perform Box's M-test on the original data. This test for the homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices indicated that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables were not equal across the groups and that the assumption of equality was violated, $F = 2.191$, $p < 0.001$. Because the assumption of normality was violated, the non-parametric MANOVA with rank order data was performed, as suggested by Zwick (1985:148-152).

A four-way non-parametric factorial MANOVA was performed to determine whether there were statistically significant differences between the vectors of the mean rank scores of the subgroups for marital status, experience of negative events, ongoing negative pressure and negotiating non-standard working hours for the eight 'dependent variables'. The number of respondents in each subgroup or subset of the categorical variables is depicted in Table 5.21, and the relationship between the categorical independent variables and the dependent variables is summarized in Table 5.22.

Table 5.21: Number of respondents in each subgroup of the categorical variables (n = 205)

Between-subjects factors	Value label	N
Marital status	Single	104
	Married	101
Experience of negative events in the last three months	Yes	66
	No	139
Experiences ongoing negative pressure	Yes	109
	No	96
Negotiates non-standard working hours with the organisation	Yes	78
	No	127

Table 5.22: Results of the MANOVA: the relationship between the categorical variables and the dependent variables (n=205)

Effect		Value	F	Hypo-thesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial eta square	Obser-ved power
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	0.975	942.913	8	193	0.000	0.975	1.000
Marriage	Pillai's Trace	0.523	26.494	8	193	0.000	0.523	1.000
Experience negative events	Pillai's Trace	0.049	1.256	8	193	0.269	0.049	0.569
Ongoing negative pressure	Pillai's Trace	0.052	1.335	8	193	0.228	0.052	0.601
Negotiate working hours	Pillai's Trace	0.375	14.485	8	193	0.000	0.375	1.000

The result of the MANOVA captured in Table 5.22 indicates that marital status and negotiating non-standard working hours have a considerable effect on the sample's perception of organisational support, coping behaviour, and work-family pressure and stress measures.

There were significant differences in the vectors of the mean rank scores of mothers' being single or married (Pillai's Trace = 0.523; F (8, 198) = 26.494, p = 0.001), and the vectors of the mean rank scores of mothers that responded 'Yes' or 'No' regarding their ability to negotiate non-standard working hours. Pillai's Trace of 0.375 with an associated F (8, 198) = 14.485, p = 0.001 was statistically significant for opportunity to negotiate. The Chi-square test statistic confirmed the inequality of the location vectors of the mean rank scores of the two subsets for being married (^{2} (8) = 103.031, p < 0.001) and the two subsets for negotiating non-standard working hours (^{2} (8) = 73.875, p < 0.01).

The following variables did not have an effect on the variance in the eight dependent variables: experience of negative events ($F = 1.256$; $p = 0.269$) and ongoing negative pressure ($F = 1.335$; $p = 0.228$).

5.8.3 Results of the test of between-subjects effects

The significance of the 'effect' of marriage and negotiating working hours and the variation in the mean rank scores across the subsets were analysed further. The results of the test of between-subjects effects and Cohen's criterion of the partial eta square (^{2}) for practical significance were used. According to Cohen (1988), the effect size is large when $^2 \geq 0.15$; medium when $^2 = 0.06$ to 0.14; and small when $^2 = 0.01$ to 0.05. Where the F-tests were significant, the Mann-Whitney test was used to explore the nature of the variance between the subsets, as suggested by Morgan *et al*. (2007).

The results of the test of between-subjects effects, associated with the non-parametric MANOVA, are summarised in Table 5.23. Because of the size of the information, only the essential results regarding the effect of marital status and negotiating non-standard working hours are provided here. The complete results of the test of between-subjects effects are set out in Appendix H.

From Table 5.23, it is apparent that in this sample there were statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) differences between the mean rank scores of single and married working mothers regarding their perceptions of the support and the overall coping behaviour variables, as well as the pressure and stress measures. The 'effect' of marital status on the perceptions of personal development, time for family interaction, childcare support, work-family pressure and overall stress were large ($^2 = 0.150$ to 0.438). The effect size was medium ($^2 = 0.10$) for organisational flexibility and small for management support and overall coping behaviour ($^2 \leq 0.054$). Marital status seemed to account for 15% of the variability in childcare support, 32.9% of the variability in time for family interaction, 32.9% of the variability in work-family pressure and 43.8% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

Table 5.23: The interaction effects of marital status and negotiating working hours with the support, coping behaviour and pressure and stress variables

Source	Dependent variable	F	df	Sig	Partial eta square	Observed power
Marriage	Rank Personal development	34.098	1	0.000	0.146	1.000
	Rank Management support	11.479	1	0.001	0.054	0.921
	Rank Organisational flexibility	22.060	1	0.000	0.099	0.997
	Rank Time for family interaction	98.160	1	0.000	0.329	1.000
	Rank Childcare arrangement	35.362	1	0.000	0.150	1.000
	Rank Overall coping behaviour	8.924	1	0.003	0.043	.844
	Rank Work-family pressure	97.974	1	0.000	0.329	1.000
	Rank Overall Stress Score	155.917	1	0.000	0.438	1.000
Negotiate working hours	Rank Personal development	42.036	1	0.000	0.174	1.000
	Rank Management support	10.383	1	0.001	0.049	0.894
	Rank Organisational flexibility	98.983	1	0.000	0.331	1.000
	Rank Time for family interaction	18.290	1	0.000	0.084	0.989
	Rank Childcare arrangement	19.864	1	0.000	0.090	0.993
	Rank Overall coping behaviour	8.600	1	0.004	0.041	0.831
	Rank Work-family pressure	15.994	1	0.000	0.074	0.978
	Rank Overall Stress Score	10.108	1	0.002	0.048	0.886

Statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) differences exist between the mean rank scores of working mothers that responded 'Yes' or 'No' in negotiating non-standard working hours on all the support, coping behaviour, pressure and stress variables. The opportunity to negotiate working hours had a large effect on their judgement of organisational flexibility and personal development (^{2} = 0.174 to 0.331). The effect size was medium regarding time for family interaction, childcare support and work-family pressure (^{2} = 0.074 to 0.090) and was small for management support and the overall coping behaviour and the overall stress scores (^{2} = 0.041 to 0.049). Approximately 17.4% of the variance in personal development and 33.1% of the variance in organisational flexibility were related to the negotiation of non-standard working hours.

The inclusion of the variable 'working mothers' years of experience in their present organisation or profession' as a covariate in the model did not have any significant effect on the results of the between-subjects effect of marital status or the opportunity to negotiate work hours. In combination with the other four factors in the model, the effect of 'years of experience' on the eight dependent variables was statistically insignificant ($p = 0.223$ to $p = 0.988$).

5.8.4 Mann-Whitney test

To compare the mean rank scores of each of the two subsets or groupings for marital status and the negotiation of working hours, sixteen *post hoc* Mann-Whitney tests were performed. The Mann-Whitney test is an appropriate *post hoc* test when an independent variable with two categories and one continuous dependent variable with a non-normal distribution are used, and the difference between the mean of the rank scores of the respondents in the two groupings needs to be tested.

When the responses of two subgroups are being compared, the Mann-Whitney test provides a z-value to assess whether or not the two samples come from the same distribution. To assess the effect size of the z-statistic of the Mann-Whitney test, the coefficient 'r' was computed by using the conversion formula $r = z/\sqrt{(N)}$ suggested by Field (2005) and Morgan *et al*. (2007). The z-values for the variables 'marital

List of research project topics and materials

status' and 'negotiation of working hours' were calculated separately. The z-value, mean rank score and effect size (r) for each of the eight behavioural scales are reported in Table 5.24 for marital status (single/married) and in Table 5.25 for negotiation (Yes/No).

5.8.4.1 Marital status

With regard to the relationship between marital status and the dependent variables, Table 5.24 shows statistically significant differences ($p < 0.01$ to $p < 0.001$) between single working mothers and married working mothers' responses on all the behavioural scales. When the 104 single working mothers' scores were compared to those of the 101 married working mothers, the single mothers' scores were significantly lower than those of their married counterparts on the five support scales and on the coping behaviour scale, and significantly higher on the pressure and stress scales.

Single mothers appear to be more ***discontented*** with

- the opportunities for personal development, growth and career advancement in their present jobs (U = 3137.00, Z = -4.985, p = 0.001), with a medium effect size, r = 0.348;
- the social and interpersonal support that their managers provided them in the form of both work and psychosocial assistance (U = 3890.00, Z = -3.218, p = 0.001), with a small effect size, r = 0.225;
- the supportive role of their organisation in creating and providing a flexible work environment (U = 3671.00, Z = -3.725, p = 0.001), with a small effect size, r = 0.260;
- their experience of the availability of time for family interaction (U = 1902.00, Z = -7.896, p = 0.001), with a large effect size, r = 0.551; and
- the childcare arrangements made for their children while working (U = 3027.50, Z = -5.247, p = 0.001), with a medium effect size, r = 0.366.

In comparison with the scores of the married working mothers, the single working mothers' scores on the coping behaviour scale were also significantly lower. Although the effect size (r = 0.201) was small, the results suggested that single mothers seem to believe that they are failing in their efforts to manage adverse situations and that they are not coping with stress (U = 4036.00, Z = -2.879, p = 0.01).

Table 5.24: Mann-Whitney test: Comparison of mean rank values by marital status

Behavioural scales	Marital status	N	Mean rank score	U	Z	Sig. two-tailed	Effect size r
Personal development	Single Married	104 101	82.66 123.94	3137.00	-4.985	0.000**	0.348
Management support	Single Married	104 101	89.90 116.49	3890.00	-3.218	0.001**	0.225
Organisational flexibility	Single Married	104 101	87.80 118.65	3671.00	-3.725	0.000**	0.260
Time for family interaction	Single Married	104 101	70.79 136.17	1902.00	-7.896	0.000**	0.551
Childcare support	Single Married	104 101	81.61 125.02	3027.50	-5.247	0.000**	0.366
Overall coping behaviour	Single Married	104 101	91.31 115.04	4036.00	-2.879	0.004*	0.201
Work-family pressure	Single Married	104 101	135.45 69.58	1877.00	-7.950	0.000**	0.555
Overall stress Score	Single Married	104 101	141.02 63.85	1297.50	-9.320	0.000**	0.651

** P< 0.001; *p< 0.01; r ≤ 0.10 suggests a small effect; r ≥ 0.30 suggests a medium effect; and r ≥ 0.50 suggests a large effect.

The inability to cope also seems to be reflected in the mean rank scores of the single working mothers on both the work-family pressure and overall stress scales. As seen in Table 5.24, the single working mothers were significantly more negative about their capacity to balance work and family demands and their ability to satisfy

professional and family role expectations (U = 1877.00, Z = -7.950, p = 0.001, with a large effect size, r = 0.555). The mean rank score (135.45) of the single working mothers was substantially higher than the mean rank score (69.58) of the married working mothers. Hence, it seems that single mothers in this sample experienced high levels of work-family pressure due to time constraints, workload and role overload and their inability to manage work and family role conflict. Likewise, marital status interacted significantly with the experience of stress symptoms. The mean rank score (141.02) of the single mothers on the overall stress scale was more than twice as large as the mean rank score (63.85) of the married working mothers (U = 1297.50, Z = -9.320, p = 0.001, large effect size, r = 0.651). This finding indicates that the single working mothers in this sample experienced soaring levels of exhaustion and physiological distress in comparison to the stress symptoms the married mothers expressed.

Thus, it is clear that marital status does have a major impact on working mothers' experience and perceptions of work-family pressure and stress, as well as the support systems that are needed to deal with or to mitigate stressful circumstances.

5.8.4.2 Possibility to negotiate non-standard working hours

Depending on the respondents' answers to the question regarding the 'possibility to negotiate non-standard working hours with the organisation', the respondents were categorized into two subgroups, a 'Yes' group (78) and a 'No' group (127). The mean rank scores of the 'Yes' and 'No' subsets on the dependent variables are shown in Table 5.25.

The statistics show that there were significant differences ($p < 0.05$ to $p < 0.001$) in the mean rank scores of those who were able to negotiate non-standard working hours with their organisations and those who were not able to do so. This variable had a significant impact on the perceptions of the subsets in the sample towards the support and coping scales and the pressure and stress measures. Although there were significant differences ($p < 0.01$) between the mean rank scores between the 'Yes' and 'No' subsets with regard to all ten behavioural scales, it is evident that

most of these differences had a medium to small effect size. However, being able to negotiate non-standard working hours was significantly (p = 0.001) related to the support scales, that is personal development and organisational flexibility.

Table 5.25: Mann-Whitney test: Comparison of mean rank values by the ability to negotiate non-standard working hours

Behavioural scales	Negotiate working hours	N	Mean rank score	U	Z	Sig. two-tailed	Effect size r
Personal development	Yes No	78 127	136.42 82.47	2346.00	-6.327	0.000	0.442
Management support	Yes No	78 127	120.53 92.23	3585.50	-3.327	0.001	0.232
Organisational flexibility	Yes No	78 127	147.15 75.8	1509.50	-8.354	0.000	0.584
Time for family interaction	Yes No	78 127	126.53 88.55	3118.00	-4.454	0.000	0.311
Childcare support	Yes No	78 127	127.56 87.92	3037.50	-4.652	0.000	0.325
Overall coping behaviour	Yes No	78 127	118.55 93.45	3740.00	-2.957	0.003	0.207
Work-family pressure	Yes No	78 127	79.35 117.52	3108.50	-4.474	0.000	0.313
Overall stress score	Yes No	78 127	83.08 115.23	3399.50	-3.770	0.000	0.263

** P< 0.001; *p< 0.00; r ≤ 0.10 suggests a small effect; r ≥ 0.30 suggests a medium effect; and r ≥ 0.50 suggests a large effect.

Relatively large and practically significant differences were obtained between the subsets' perceptions of the two support scales of personal development and organisational flexibility. The mean rank scores of the 'Yes' and 'No' subsets on these two scales were 'Yes' = 136.42 and 'No' = 82.47 for personal development and 'Yes' = 147.15 and 'No' = 75.8 for organisational flexibility, respectively. The

respondents in the 'Yes' subset were significantly more positive about the opportunities available for working mothers to attain personal growth, career advancement and autonomy in their jobs (U = 2346.00, Z = -6.327, p = 0.001, with a high medium effect size, r = 0.442). The 'Yes' group had also strong positive views about their organisation's capacity to create and provide a flexible work environment and were pleased with their organisation's support to working mothers at both the work and social levels (U = 1509.50, Z = -8.354, p = 0.001, with a large effect size, r = 0.584).

5.9 RESULTS OF THE LOGISTIC REGRESSION

A logistic regression analysis was performed on the marital status of the respondents as the outcome variable. The following eight continuous variables were included as predictors in the original model, namely personal development, management support, organisational flexibility, time for family interaction, childcare support, overall coping behaviour, work-family pressure and overall stress.

Backward stepwise regression was used. Field (2005) recommends this method as the preferred approach in exploratory analyses. The analysis starts with a full model and the predictor variables are eliminated from the model in an iterative process. After four steps, the backward stepwise regression analysis was completed and a model including five predictors was created. Three of the predictor variables were removed in the process, namely overall coping behaviour in Step 2, childcare support in Step 3, and personal development in Step 4.

The goodness-of-fit of the resulting model was statistically tested against the constant-only model provided by the analysis. To compensate for inflated Type 1 error, reasonable criteria to determine the significance for this test were calculated. Alpha was set at 0.006 for eight predictors and a constant ($\alpha = 0.05 / 9 = 0.006$) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).
The -2 log-likelihood values (-2LL) of the new model was 137.914 and the -2 log-likelihood value of the constant-only model was 284.146. The comparison of the -2 log-likelihood values of the two models indicated that the change in the amount of

information provided by the final model was statistically significant at a 99% level of confidence (^{2} (5, N = 205) = 146.23, p < 0.0001). The computed model indicated that five predictors, as a set, distinguished reliably between single and married mothers.

The classification of the respondents as either single or married was exceptionally good. Based on the five predictor variables, 86.5% of the single working mothers and 89.1% of the married working mothers were correctly classified. The overall accuracy of this model to predict marital status with a predictor probability of 0.5 or greater was 87.8%. The predicted probability of the marital status of the respondents is illustrated in Figure 5.4.

```
   16
      M                                                            S
      M                                                            S
F     M                                                            S
R  12 M                                                            S
E     M                                                          SSS
Q     M                                                        SSSSS
U     MM    M                                                  SSSSS
E  8  MM    M                                                  SSSSS
N     MM    MM     S                                           SSSSS
C     MM    MMS    M                                           SSSSS
Y     MMSMMMMMM    M     S                                   SSSSSSS
   4  MMSMMMMMM    M     S                      S           SSSSSSSS
      MMMMMMMMM    M     M  S  S                S     S    SSSSSSSSS
      MMMMMMMMMS MMMM  M  MS MMM  M   S S SS    SS M SSSSMSSSS
      MMMMMMMMMMSMMMMS M  MM MMMSSM M M   S SSMSMSSSMSMSMS MSSSMSSMS

Predicted Prob:
       0           0.25            0.5           0.75              1
Group:MMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMMSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSSS
```

Symbols: M – Married S – Single. Each Symbol Represents 1 Case.

Figure 5.4: Observed groups and predicted probabilities of marital status

The Hosmer-Lemshow's goodness-of-fit test also endorsed the efficiency of the produced model. The number of subjects allocated to ten observed groups did not differ statistically significantly from the number of subjects allocated to the ten groups created by the logistic regression model. The Chi-square statistics (^{2} (8, N = 205) = 6.401, p = 0.602) confirmed that the variables in the model predicted the observed data very well.

The predictor measurements that contributed significantly to the model were management support, organisational flexibility, time for family interaction, work-family pressure and stress. Table 5.26 shows the regression coefficients ( ), Wald statistics, odd ratios, and 95% confidence intervals for odd ratios for each of the five predictors.

Table 5.26: Logistic regression analysis of marital status as a function of support and stress variables working mothers' experience

Variables in the equation		Wald Chi-square	Sig	Odds ratio	95%confidence interval for odds ratio	
					Lower	Upper
Management support	-0.055	6.271	0.012	0.947	0.907	0.988
Organisational flexibility	0.131	18.284	0.000	1.140	1.074	1.211
Time for family interaction	-0.114	11.294	0.001	0.892	0.835	0.954
Work-family pressure	0.036	11.149	0.001	1.037	1.015	1.059
Overall stress	0.118	16.722	0.000	1.125	1.063	1.190
(Constant)	-3. 913	5.334	0.021	50.046		

The Wald statistic test provides information about the statistical significance of each coefficient ( ) in the model. The test has a Chi-square distribution and calculates whether the -coefficient for the predictor is significantly different from zero. The Wald's Chi-square values for the variables organisational flexibility, time for family interaction, work-family pressure and stress were significant at the 0.001 level and for management support significant at the 0.01 level. The results indicating that each variable on its own accord made a significant contribution to the reliable prediction of marital status.

The odds ratios of organisational flexibility (1.140), work-family pressure (1.037), and stress (1.125) were greater than one, indicating that an increase of one unit in any

one of these three predictors will increase the odds of being classified as a single mother by 3.7% to 14.0%. The odds ratios of management support (0.947), and time for family interaction (0.892) were less than one. These results imply that the odds of a subject's being classified as single decreases with 5.3% to 16.5% with a one-unit increase in any one of the two predictors. The confidence intervals of the odds ratios for the individual predictors were constantly either positive [Exp( ) > 1] or negative [{Exp( ) < 1]. This allows the possibility of generalising these findings to the broader population of single and married mothers working in professional and management potions (Field, 2005). The relatively small standard error (SE) of each predictor variable confirms that the model is statistically stable. The magnitude of the SEs ranged from 0.011 to 0.034. The size of the inter-correlation coefficients of the predictor variables (0.286 to 0.727) attests to the absence of multicollinearity.

The proportion of variance in the outcome variable associated with the predictor variables is indicated by R^2. However, 'for regression models with a categorical dependent variable, it is not possible to compute a single R^2 statistic that has all of the characteristics of R^2 in the linear regression model, so approximations are computed instead'(SPSS Electronic manual). To estimate the coefficient of determination Cox and Snell's R^2 and Nagelkerke's R^2 were computed. The estimated squared multiple correlations as calculated with the two mentioned methods suggested that the model could account for approximately 51% to 68% of the variance in the outcome variable.
Finally, McFadden's p^2 = 0.512, as a measure of the strength of the association between the predictor variables and the model were highly satisfactory (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In terms of Cohen's (1988) criterion, this relatively high p^2 value signifies that the effect size of the logistic model is large and of practical importance.

5.10 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the focus was reporting on and interpreting the research results. First, the results of Lawshe's method to test the content validity of the initial items were depicted. Next, the results of the exploratory factor analysis and item and reliability analysis of the W-FPSQ, the OSI and the OCI measurers were reported

comprehensively and critically. In addition, the results of the correlation and inter-correlation matrixes of the different independent and dependent variables were depicted in various tables and intensively discussed. Finally, the results of the multiple analyses of variance, and logistic regression analysis were examined. Applicable figures were used to demonstrate the scree-plots of the different factor analyses and to illustrate the outcome of the logistic regression analysis. (See Figures 5.3 to 5.4.)

On the whole, it can confidently be said that data have been harnessed to answer the research questions and to substantiate the research objectives. The use of relevant and appropriate statistics have thrown light on the defining characteristics of working women in general and single women in particular. In the next chapter, the results of the study are critically discussed and recommendations are made.

CHAPTER 6
SUMMARY, DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The study is about managing problems and pressures facing single working mothers in management and professional occupations in South African organisations. Given their numbers in terms of South Africa's demography, single working mothers are under-researched in South Africa, as in many other countries. The phenomenal rise in the number of women in the labour market in South Africa since the 1990s means that the challenge of maintaining the delicate balance between women's personal and professional lives can no longer be ignored. The ability of women in general, and of single mothers in particular, to succeed in their economic pursuits depends, amongst other things, on their psychosocial well-being. It was therefore an important motivation for this study to ensure that the goals of economic emancipation and the potential contributions of women, and especially single mothers, in management and professional occupations, are not undermined by the psychosocial dysfunctionalities that women face in the workplace. To ensure employee well-being, organisations need to develop supporting policies and benefits that could shield working mothers against negative work-family interaction. Otherwise, the hope of poverty eradication and of the increased contributions by women to national development will remain a mere pipedream.

In this chapter, the objectives of the study and the methodology used are briefly re-stated, followed by a summary of the results and a discussion of the main findings of the study. The managerial implications are indicated and recommendations are made based on the findings.

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6.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This study specifically sought to measure the pressures and the stressors which single mothers working in management and professional occupations in South Africa encounter and to determine whether single mothers in management and professional occupations experience more pressures and stress than married mothers in related positions. Furthermore, the study sought to examine the difference between single and married working mothers' contentment with specific work and family-supportive resources. Based on the foregoing, the study wanted to identify the kinds of resources that organisations need to provide in order to support single working mothers to cope with work and family demands and stress.

The primary objectives of the research were

- to develop a valid and reliable measuring instrument to survey the problems and pressures single mothers in management and professional occupations in South Africa experience;
- to survey single working mothers' perceptions about the resources they perceive to be important in supporting them to deal with high job and family demands and to cope with stress; and
- to make recommendations regarding possible support systems and practices that organisations could implement to assist single working mothers in coping with work and family pressures and stress.

6.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

6.3.1 Methodology and procedure

To achieve the primary objectives of this research, theoretical information and empirical data relating to the specific issues of the research had to be collected. A sequential mixed method design was adopted to gather the data for the development of a questionnaire and to explore the relationship between supportive resources, work-family pressure and stress, and to compare single and married working mothers' perceptions regarding various resources.

Using the snowball sampling method, the researcher identified 17 women professionals and managers (ten single working mothers and seven partnered working mothers), who were interviewed about their experiences in managing their work-life balance. A semi-structured interview approach was used in which the interviewees were asked eight questions (see Appendix A) and their responses were tape-recorded and transcribed; and the content was analysed. Themes were extracted and later used to develop a set of 121 questions. Lawshe's (1975) technique was used to determine the extent of overlap between these items and the construct domain of the questionnaire. The content validity of the items was assessed by a panel of 27 female and three male experts from a cross-section of public and private organisations in South Africa. Only 96 items, which met Lawshe's criteria of content validity, were retained.

The resulting questionnaire and a covering letter (see Appendix D) were e-mailed to a non-probability purposive convenience sample of 300 women professionals and managers. A total of 205 usable questionnaires were returned and formed the basis of the quantitative part of the study.

Appropriate statistical techniques were used to analyse the data to answer the research questions and objectives of the study. The data were analysed in accordance with the basic associational design and a comparative design, as suggested by Morgan and Griego (1998:77-86). The associational design was used to determine the strength of the relationship between sample identity and the demographic characteristics of the participants, and to explore the relationship between working mothers' perceptions of work and family-supportive resources, work-family pressure and stress. The 'between independent groups design' was used, first, to establish whether the samples were homogeneous in terms of their demographic characteristics and, second, to compare the responses of different groupings in the sample on the measures/scales for work-family pressure, stress and the supporting resources mentioned in this study.

6.3.2 Participants

The sample included 104 single and 101 married working mothers. The 104 single working mothers included 76 unmarried mothers and 28 divorced mothers. This constituted 50.7% of the respondents. The married working mothers made up 49.3%. There was therefore an almost even division between the two sub-samples.

The ages of the sample ranged from 25 to 44 years, with a mean age of 34.43 years for the single working mothers and a mean age of 34.48 years for the married working mothers. The respondents had a 17-year range of work experience, with a mean of 5.35 years' work experience for the single mothers and a mean of 8.29 years' work experience for the married mothers.

The participants were relatively evenly divided between respondents from the managerial and professional ranks – the percentage of participants in the management and professional positions were respectively 48 (46.2%) and 54 (51.9%) for the single mothers and 54 (53.5%) and 45 (44.6%) for the married mothers.

The participants were well educated: of the respondents, three or 1.5% held a certificate and five (2.4%) had a diploma. The rest had been awarded a first degree (18.5%), an Honours degree (36.2%) or a Master's degree (38.5%). Six or 2.9% had doctorates. The number of degrees and the level at which the degrees were awarded were approximately similar for both the single and the married working mothers.

All the respondents had children, ranging from one to six children per family unit. The average was two children, with a standard deviation of one. The average mean age of the youngest child of the respondents in the sample was 6.73 years for the children of single mothers, and 7.01 years for the children of married mothers.

Associational and comparative statistical tests – the Chi-square (^{2}), Phi-coefficient (φ) and Cramer's V (V) – indicated that the characteristics of the single and married

working mothers in the sample matched each other to a large extent and that the groups were comparable. This, in essence, fulfilled a central aspect of the study, which was aimed at comparing the stress and coping styles of single and married working women.

6.3.3 Measuring instruments

One of the main aims of the study was the development of a questionnaire to explore the problems and pressures that single mothers in professional occupations and management positions in South Africa experience, and to identify the resources needed to mitigate these stressors. The research was able to develop acceptable and psychometrically sound instruments for measuring the constructs used in this study.

The leading instrument employed in the research was the Work-Family Pressure and Support Questionnaire (W-FPSQ). The W-FPSQ was used to collect information regarding the participants' demographic characteristics and to assess the level of work-family pressures they experienced, as well as the resources available to them to mitigate the pressure arising from work and family demands.

The W-FPSQ consists of three sections. Section A contains demographic data, and Section B contains one scale with items relating to work-family pressures. Higher scores indicate a greater degree of work-family pressure. Section C includes five scales that signify the resources that employees need to balance work and family responsibilities. Higher scores indicate a greater degree of employee contentment with the available resource(s). The items in both Sections B and C were scaled and scored according to a Likert-type scale, with anchors ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

To assess the level of stress working mothers experience and to gauge the coping behaviour they use to manage stressful situations, two sub-scales of the Pressure Management Indicator Questionnaire (PMI) were used. The items of the sub-scales were personalised to ensure that the respondents could identify themselves with the

related behaviour more easily if applicable. These two measurements were named the Overall Stress Index (OSI) and the Coping Behaviour Index (CBI).

Overall stress was measured with the OSI, using nine items derived from the ‘physical health’ sub-scale of the PMI. Two additional items were added to cover the effects of stress further. The stress measure consists of 11 items that assess stress-related physical symptoms and feelings of exhaustion. The items of the OSI refer to *physiological reactions*, such as prickly sensations or twinges in the body, muscle tremors, shortness of breath or dizziness; and to *exhaustion*, in other words, a lack of energy, difficulty in sleeping, headaches, and low energy levels.

The Coping Behaviour Index (CBI) consists of 17 items derived from the ‘coping strategy’ sub-scale of the PMI. The items refer to various ways to consciously or subconsciously deal with sources of pressure and stress. The CBI deals with perceptual, cognitive or behavioural responses that are used to avoid, control or manage situations that could be regarded as worrying or stressful. These responses include planning ahead, expanding interests and activities outside of work, seeking as much support as possible, concentrating on specific problems, effective use of time and setting priorities, interpreting the problem whilst maintaining a positive outlook on the problem and taking care to handle the stressful event in a mature manner.

The items in both the OSI and CBI indexes were scaled and scored in accordance with the scoring method laid down for the relevant sub-scales. The items of the OSI are rated on a six-point scale; and the respondents had to indicate how often they had experienced specific stress symptoms over the last three months. The items of the CBI are also rated on a six-point scale; and the respondents had to indicate the coping behaviour they used to deal with issues or events that had been a source of pressure to them during the last three months. Higher scores on the OSI are related to high levels of stress. By contrast, higher scores on the CBI signify more helpful coping behaviour.

6.4 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

6.4.1 Exploratory factor analysis

The W-FPSQ was constructed to survey single and married working mothers' experience of work-family pressure and the resources they require to cope with work-family pressure and stress. A total of 96 items were initially included in the W-FPSQ. After two applications of EFA, 54 of these items yielded a six-factor solution. The six factors displayed adequate factorial validity, unidimensionality and reliability. The magnitudes of the factor scores of the items in each of the six factors were all larger than 0.47, with factor scores ranging from 0.47 to 0.89. The mean inter-item correlations ranged from 0.68 to 0.81; and the Cronbach's alpha coefficients from 0.897 to 0.948. These results provided sufficient evidence of the psychometric adequacy of the W-FPSQ.

Similarly, the OSI and CBI demonstrated satisfactory psychometric properties and reinforced the overall confidence in the findings of the study. Factor analysis of the responses of the present sample on the OSI showed that five items identify physical stress symptoms (PSS) (Cronbach's alpha = 0.899) and six items measure feelings of exhaustion (ESS) (Cronbach's alpha = 0.842). The scores of the two scales were summed to form an OSI (Cronbach's alpha = 0.898).

The analysis of the factor structure of the CBI produced two poorly defined factors. Ten of the 17 items cross-loaded relatively high on both factors. The inter-correlation between the summated scores of the two factors was exceptionally high (r = 0.840). To avoid the problem of multicollinearity, it was decided to combine the scores of the two subscales to compute an overall coping behaviour index score for each respondent. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the present sample on the CBI was 0.957.

6.4.2. Pressures facing women professionals and managers at work

Factor 1 of the W-FPSQ measures work and family role conflict. This scale consists of 15 items, with factor loadings from 0.875 to 0.486, and it accounts for approximately 17.25% of the total variance in the dataset. This factor was called work-family pressure, as it focuses primarily on pressures associated with conflict in balancing work and family demands. The elements of this factor include issues related to number of work hours, time pressures, workload, role overload and role conflict, and the inability to satisfy family and professional role expectations. This factor also includes items related to pressures associated with financial constraints, and feelings of social isolation, low self-esteem and emotional exhaustion. This factor measures the presence of time-, strain- and behaviour-based conflict and the pressures experienced by working mothers (Cronbach's alpha = 0.948).

6.4.3 Perceived support and resources needed to mitigate high job and family demands

The resources were defined by the content of the remaining five factors or scales of the W-FPSQ:

Personal development: This factor refers to the opportunities that working mothers have for personal development, growth and career advancement in their jobs. It measures both the intrinsic and extrinsic job resources that provide support to employees at the organisational, work and social levels (Cronbach's alpha = 0.927).

Management support: This factor includes items related to management behaviour that provides social and interpersonal support to employees in the form of both work and psychosocial assistance. The elements of this factor include managers' encouragement of working mothers to pursue their career goals, adequate and constructive feedback on performance, and a recognition of working mothers' need to achieve a balance between their personal and professional lives (Cronbach's alpha = 0.943).

Organisational flexibility: This factor describes a caring and family-oriented organisation which provides a flexible work environment. This includes flexible work schedules, allowing employees to work from home, involving and consulting with employees in decisions about workload and control over work time. This scale measures resources that provide support to employees at the work and family level (Cronbach's alpha = 0.897).

Time for family interaction: This factor is related to work-family interaction and refers to working mothers' experience of the availability of time for family interaction and building family relations. The items of this factor are associated with an employee's ability to 'switch off' at home, to balance work and family time, time to do things with the family and have enough time for themselves, and time on hand to match family members' schedules. It also includes the viewpoint that (satisfied) family demands have a favourable influence on their work. This scale is related to personal and social support (Cronbach's alpha = 0.926).

Childcare support: The variables of this factor include working mothers' satisfaction with arrangements made for their children while the mothers are working, the availability of a helper or baby sitter when mothers are absent or when their children are ill, and the ease with which working mothers can arrange for someone to look after their children (Cronbach's alpha = 0.912).

6.4.4 Demographic characteristics and outcome variables

Correlation analyses using Spearman's rank order correlation (rho), showed the following significant relationships between the demographic characteristics and the dependent variables for the present sample:

Working mothers' age, years of work experience and the number of dependants they had were all significantly related. The age of the respondents, however, did not bear any significant relationship to their support, coping behaviour, pressure and stress scores.

Working mothers' years of experience in their present organisation or profession appeared to have a significant relationship with most of the variables under study, and notably with age, the number of dependants, personal development,

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organisational flexibility and time for interaction, but was negatively related to perceptions of work-family pressures and stress dimensions.

Level of qualification showed no noteworthy correlation with work-family pressure or the stress measurements.

The total hours that a married mother spends at work in a week did not correlate significantly with any of the demographic characteristics, or the support, coping, pressure and stress scores.

The number of dependants correlated positively with the overall coping behaviour score and negatively with the work-family pressure scores.

The number of days' sick leave taken by the working mothers over a period of three months correlated negatively with the age of the youngest child and related positively with the experience of exhaustion symptoms, although the effect sizes were small.

In summary, it seems that working mothers' years of experience in their present organisation or profession are the most important demographic variable in understanding possible variability in the sample's support, pressure and stress scores. Years of experience accounted for 14.1% of the variability in work-family pressure and 10.1% of the variability in the overall stress scores. However, the inclusion of working mothers' years of experience as a covariate did not have any significant effect on the results of the between-subjects effect of marital status or the opportunity to negotiate work hours.

6.4.5 The relationship between the supportive resources and specific behavioural dimensions

The correlation between the different resources, coping behaviour, work-family pressure and stress experienced by the present sample indicated the following important relationships:

Personal development correlated significantly positively with coping behaviour, but negatively with work-family pressure, physiological symptoms, exhaustion symptoms and overall stress. Personal development accounted for 29.6% of the

variability in work-family pressure and 40.4% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

Perceptions of management support correlated positively with the scores on the coping behaviour scale and negatively with the scores for work-family pressure, physiological symptoms, exhaustion symptoms, and overall stress. Management support explained 14% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

Organisational flexibility scores correlated positively with the scores on the coping behaviour scale and negatively with the scores for work-family pressure, physiological symptoms, exhaustion symptoms, and overall stress. Four of the correlations' effect size was medium to large. Creating and providing a flexible work environment seemed to explain 24.5% of the variability in work-family pressure and 25.7% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

The scores on the time for family interaction scale correlated significantly with the scores on the coping behaviour scale, with a medium effect size. The availability of time for family interaction related significantly negatively with work-family pressure, physiological symptoms, exhaustion symptoms, and overall stress. Most of these correlations denoted large size effects. Time for family interaction accounted for 38.9% of the variability in work-family pressure and 49.1% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

Childcare support correlated positively with the scores on the coping behaviour scale and negatively with the scores for work-family pressure, physiological symptoms, exhaustion symptoms and overall stress. The effect sizes of three correlations were large. Childcare arrangement accounted for 29.6% of the variability in work-family pressure and 35.0% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

Significant negative correlations were found between the overall coping behaviour score and the scores on the pressure/stress scales. However, the effect size of all the rho correlation coefficients was relatively small.

The five support variables appeared to collectively explain approximately 41.2% of the variability in work-family pressure, 29.7% of the variability of the physiological symptoms and 54.7% of the variability in the occurrence of the exhaustion

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List of research project topics and materials

symptoms. Approximately 50.2% of the variability in the overall stress scores was due to the effects of the combined support scales.

6.4.6 The effect of marital status and the ability to negotiate non-standard working hours

The results of the non-parametric MANOVA indicate that marital status and negotiating non-standard working hours had a considerable effect on the sample's perception of the support, coping behaviour, pressure and stress measures. There were significant differences in the vectors of the mean rank scores of mothers who were single as opposed to married, and the vectors of the mean rank scores of mothers that responded 'Yes' rather than 'No' to the question as to whether they can negotiate non-standard working hours. Experience of negative events and ongoing negative pressures did not have an effect on the variance in the eight outcome variables.

With regard to the relationship between marital status and the dependent variables, the results show significant statistical differences between single working mothers' and married working mothers' responses on all the behavioural scales. Compared to the scores of the 101 married working mothers, the 104 single working mothers' scores were significantly lower on the five support scales and significantly higher on the pressure and stress scales. In comparison to the scores of the married working mothers, the single working mothers' scores on the coping behaviour scale were also significantly lower, suggesting their limited ability to manage adverse situations.

The possibility to negotiate non-standard working hours has a notable effect on the sample's perceptions in respect of the support, coping behaviour, pressure and stress measures. Significant differences in the mean rank scores were noted between the scores of those mothers who were able to negotiate non-standard working hours with their organisations and those who were not able to do so. The 'Yes' group's scores (78) were significantly higher than the 'No' group's scores (127) on the five support scales and on the coping behaviour scale, and significantly lower on the pressure and stress scales. Relatively large and practically significant

differences were obtained between the 'Yes' and 'No' subsets' perceptions of the two support scales of personal development and organisational flexibility.

6.4.7 Ability to predict the marital status of the respondents

Logistic regression analysis was done to develop a model to predict the marital status of the respondents in the present sample. The predictor measurements that contributed significantly to the model were management support, organisational flexibility, and time for family interaction, work-family pressure and stress. Single working mothers' perceptions were characterised by poor management support, limited opportunities to interact with family members and limited work flexibility and the existence of high levels of work-family pressure and stress. The results of the logistic regression showed highly acceptable statistical features which allow the possibility of generalising these findings to the broader population of single and married mothers working in professional and management positions.

6.5 DISCUSSION

6.5.1 Introduction

Since 1994, South Africa has done away with the apartheid system, which denied the majority of the population of their fundamental human rights, and has also adopted legislation that legally removes other forms of oppression and discrimination under which various groups of the populace laboured. This was achieved, among other things, through the Constitution, which guarantees the fundamental human rights to life and property, and accords men and women equal rights before the law. More than twenty pieces of legislation were promulgated between 1994 and 2000 that directly and indirectly address women's issues in the areas of family, legal rights, employment, health, property, education and training.

Specifically, through legislative initiatives such as the Constitution (Republic of South Africa, 1996a) and the Employment Equity Act, Act No 55 of 1998, discrimination against women has been abolished. As one of the designated groups for affirmative

action, women are to be given preference in selection and promotion. Parliamentary structures and specialised bodies such as the Commission for Gender Equality have been created to mobilise and advance the cause of women in the economy, resulting in the rapid entry of women into the labour force. Statistics indicate that, while the number of men in the broad labour force increased by 35% from 1995 to 2005, by comparison, the number of women has increased by 59%. In 2005, women accounted for almost six in every ten new members of the labour force in South Africa (Republic of South Africa, Department of Labour, 2006).

Research has revealed that inevitably work-family conflicts arise when an increasing number of traditional women have to fulfil multiple roles by managing work and family demands, some of which are incompatible (Janssen, Peeters, De Jonge, Houkes & Tummers, 2004). The seriousness of such conflicts and their largely deleterious impact have understandably been a matter of concern, not only to researchers, but also to a multitude of other stakeholders, such as the employees themselves, their managers and organisations, trade unions, social workers, the community, government and researchers. This study was born from such concerns and the findings described above are discussed in the light of previous studies and contemporary events. The discussion highlights the significance of the entry of women into the labour force, with a special focus on single mothers as a neglected group in research. World-wide, their needs have been overlooked in much of the literature on women professionals, according to Gill and Davidson (2001).

Understanding the relationship between work-family conflict and employee well-being is important in order to discover how working mothers can be supported to cope with work and family demands. While there has been an increased focus on the work-family conflict of working mothers, less is known about single working mothers and their experience of work-family pressure and stress and the resources they need to cope with pressures and stress. Research has shown that single working mothers have greater exposure to ongoing financial strain, the stresses of care-giving and other sources of stress than other working mothers do.

6.5.2 Relationship between resources and work-family pressure and stress

The present study focuses on work and family-supportive resources and makes a contribution to the work-family interaction literature. The results indicate that working mothers form inferences about the work-family support that organisations provide and that these perceptions can be measured. The present study indicates a significant relationship between working mothers' contentment with several supportive resources and their experience of work-family pressure and stress. The working mothers who perceived that they received more work and family-supportive resources (personal development, management support, organisational flexibility, time for family interaction, and childcare support) experienced less work-family pressure and notably less stress. These supportive resources contributed significantly to the variance associated with work-family pressure and stress. The five support variables appeared to collectively explain approximately 41% of the variability in work-family pressure, and about 50% of the variability in the overall stress scores.

The dynamics of these findings can best be understood by considering Bakker and Geurts's (2004:362) and Van Aarde and Mostert's (2008:8) explanations of the 'spill-over' of positive load effects from work to family life and from family life to work. In the context of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model designed by Demerouti *et al*. (2001) and the Effort-Recovery (E-R) model developed by Meijman and Mulder (1998), it seems that sufficient and relevant work resources may enable female workers to deal with high work demands and simultaneously increase their enthusiasm to put energy into their work. This positive effect created at work may spill over to the home domain (positive work-family interaction). Having the necessary resources at work may create the energy and opportunity for women to recover adequately after a day at work. This reduced need for recovery at home leaves employees with more energy to engage in pleasant activities at home and to fulfil their family roles and obligations (family interaction). Sufficient family resources may also enable women to deal with high family demands and at the same time increase their enthusiasm to put energy into their work (Bakker *et al.,* 2005; Bakker *et al*., 2007). The current study suggests that access to the resources and benefits

required for personal development, management support, organisational flexibility, time for family interaction and childcare support could lead to a reduction in negative work-to-family interaction and an increase in positive family-to-work interaction.

6.5.3 Comparing single and married mothers

In this sample, marital status also contributes significantly to the variance associated with work-family pressure and stress. While both single and married women are affected by the challenges of balancing work and family responsibilities, the results suggest that the single working mothers in the present sample experienced higher levels of distress in their daily lives, and perceived their organisation as less work-family-supportive than their married counterparts did. Single working mothers scored significantly higher ($p < 0.001$) on the work-family pressure scale and the stress scale, and significantly lower ($p < 0.01$) on the five supportive resource scales than the comparative group of married working mothers. Single working mothers appeared to be significantly unhappy with their opportunities for personal development, the support that their managers provide and the role of their organisation in creating and providing a flexible work environment. They were exceedingly dissatisfied with the lack of availability of time for family interaction and childcare support. Interestingly, when one examines the two different sets of resources, resources associated with work-support (personal development, management support, flexible work) on the one hand, and resources related to family-support (flexible work hours, time for family interaction and childcare) on the other, it seems that single working mothers put a very high premium on family-supportive resources to cope with work-family pressure and stress.

The results of the present study are consistent with the views of previous researchers (Gordon *et al*., 2002; Koekemoer & Mostert, 2006) in that these results suggest that organisations should create a family-friendly environment and policies to support single working mothers in balancing work and family demands. Family-friendly organisations are institutions that have formal policies that allow single working mothers flexible working hours, control over their work time, the option to work from home, and childcare facilities (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2006:95).

Opportunities for single working mothers to interact more frequently with their families, to participate in family activities and to devote time to themselves are important to assist women in experiencing life-balance and to promote their well-being (Mclellan & Uys, 2009; Whitehead & Kotze, 2003). Such family-friendly benefits can support single working mothers to fulfil both work and family demands without incurring penalties in either domain (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). In this context, Goff, Mount and Jamison (1990) also found that parents with children under the age of five experienced a lower degree of work-family conflict and that there was less absenteeism if these parents work for organisations that provide day-care facilities.

In the current study, in comparison with the married working mothers, the single working mothers' scores on the coping behaviour scale were also significantly ($p < 0.01$) lower, suggesting a decreased ability to manage adverse situations. This finding is consistent with previous predictions and findings, such as those of Gill and Davidson (2001), who lamented that previous research has 'paid little attention' to single mothers, and who concluded in their own study that single working mothers are a distinct group.

6.5.4 Possibility to negotiate non-standard working hours

The possibility to negotiate non-standard working hours was positively related ($p < 0.05$ to $p < 0.001$) to the sample's perception of the support, coping behaviour, pressure and stress measures. The 'Yes' group's (78) scores were significantly higher than those of the 'No' group (127) on the five support scales and on the coping behaviour scale, and significantly lower on the work-family pressure and stress scales. Relatively large and practically significant differences were obtained between the 'Yes' and 'No' subsets' perceptions regarding two of the support scales, namely personal development and organisational flexibility. The respondents in the 'Yes' subset were significantly more positive about the opportunities available to working mothers to attain personal growth, career advancement and autonomy in their jobs (a high medium effect size, $r = 0.442$). The 'Yes' group also had strong positive views about their organisations' capacity to create and provide a flexible

work environment and they were pleased with their organisations' support for working mothers at both the work and social levels (a large effect size, r = 0.584).

The 'Yes' group seemed to perceive personal growth and career advancement in their jobs as an important resource to help working women to develop a number of skills relevant to managing the work-family interface. Personal growth and autonomy enable people to cope with their workload, handle a higher overall level of demands and enlist the support of others in structuring and meeting demands (Ruderman *et al*., 2002). In a similar vein, Gill (2007) proposes that training and career development initiatives enable employees to continue to develop new skills, self-confidence and self-efficacy to solve problems and to manage a variety of situations, both at home and at work. Providing employees with the opportunity for career development and personal growth also leads to increased motivation, excellent performance, higher work engagement and lower cynicism, according to Schaufeli and Salanova (2007).

Furthermore, the 'Yes' subset was also of the opinion that their employers were willing to provide them with a flexible work environment, which includes flexible work schedules, control over workload and work time. This result suggests that mothers who could negotiate non-standard working hours were more likely to avail themselves of the opportunities provided by flexible working conditions. Considerable evidence exists that the adoption of benefits that enhance workplace flexibility and control over work time are important antecedents of satisfaction with work-family balance. Practices such as flexitime, voluntary shifts, part-time work and job sharing have become important commodities in assisting parents in meeting their multiple role demands (Galinsky & Stein, 1990; Williams & Alliger, 1994). Such resources make it possible for working mothers to work closer to home or at home, and offer mothers the possibility to interrupt or reduce work to attend to family needs and emergencies (Eaton, 2003; Wood, De Menezes & Lasaosa, 2003). Having greater control over working hours increases people's ability to fulfil both work and family demands without incurring penalties in either domain (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). The study by Gill and Davidson (2001) shows that work flexibility is particularly valued by single parents. Having control over their time can create

opportunities for single working mothers to interact more frequently with their families, to participate in family activities and to devote time to themselves or leisure activities. These activities are important for experiencing a life-balance and well-being (Whitehead & Kotze, 2003).

6.5.5 Predicting the marital status of the respondents

Logistic regression analysis provided a reliable model to predict the marital status of the respondents in the present sample. The measurements that contributed significantly in predicting marital status were management support, organisational flexibility, and time for family interaction, as well as work-family pressure and stress. This model attests that organisations should foster a workplace culture that values and supports work-family balance. Creating a family-supportive environment with family-friendly policies and benefits can help single working mothers to cope with work and family demands. However, the needs of the married and single working mothers play a pivotal role in organisations' deciding on the right mix of policies and programmes to support these mothers in balancing work and family demands and coping with stress.

The model indicates that targeted interventions that increase management support and promote emotionally close family relationships may be more beneficial in reducing single working mothers' work-family conflict and stress than programmes that enhance personal development, flexible work hours and even childcare support. These findings suggest that to buffer single working mothers' experience of work-family pressure and stress, specific work-family supportive resources should be considered to accommodate their specific needs.

In this regard, Gill and Davidson (2001:395) have found that single working mothers perceived flexible working hours and the opportunity to reduce working hours as a less appropriate strategy, because of their greater financial needs, 'as well as the adverse effects of such working arrangements on (their) future career opportunities'. According to Grzywacz and Marks (2000), the needs of employees and the work-family outcomes envisaged by management must first be established before specific

interventions are implemented. 'Work-family initiatives are more likely to be effective when employees believe the organization is truly supportive of their needs to balance work and family obligations' (Allen, 2001:432). It should be noted that the perceptions about and use of work-family supportive resources are therefore strongly related to an individual employee's personal circumstances, needs and goals and the availability of resources and family-friendly benefits (Allen, 2001; Diener & Fujita, 1995). Hochschild (1997) has found that married employed women with children are more satisfied with their jobs than single employed women or married employed women without children, and that full-time workers experience better health than their reduced-hours counterparts. Bakker *et al*. (2005:178-179) warns that an increase in some resources may not always coincide with a decrease in the symptoms of burnout – they cite Warr's (1987) argument that work resources such as autonomy, social support, and feedback may have a non-linear effect on well-being.

This study has convincingly established that marital status significantly affects the level of work-family pressure and stress experienced by working mothers, and that the single and partnered mothers in the sample differed significantly in their contentment with the different work and family-supportive resources provided by their organisations. The findings strongly suggest that resources, benefits and interventions aimed at mitigating either single or married mothers' work-family pressure and stress will be more applicable and successful if they are tailor-made to address the needs of the two groups. However, before these findings can be generalised to the broader population of working mothers, several limitations to the present research should be considered.

6.6 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

6.6.1 The utility of the Work-Family Pressure and Support Questionnaire

There are some limitations to the current research, with a range of implications for future research.

Firstly, while the findings obtained in this study indicate that the psychometric properties of the W-FPSQ are statistically robust, further studies are required to examine its factor structure, the reliability and validity of the scales fully. Because the analyses conducted in this research were exploratory, additional research is needed to confirm the factor structure of the W-FPSQ using confirmatory factor analysis.

Secondly, the sample sizes used in the study were considerably smaller than those normally used in scale development research (Comrey & Lee, 1992:67). The present findings need to be replicated with other larger samples of participants to confirm the results of the present study and to support the generalisation of the findings to populations of South African working mothers. However, it should be noted that, according to deliberations by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007:613) on sample size, the number of 205 respondents is adequate for an EFA and for most multivariate statistical analyses. Therefore, the W-FPSQ has a great deal of utility in spite of the small sample size.

Thirdly, several of the participants endorsed response options at the higher or lower end of the Likert scale used for the W-FPSQ; consequently, the scores on the six scales were all non-normally distributed. Although assumptions on distribution do not apply in factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007:613), this situation called for the employment of non-parametric statistical techniques to analyse the current data set.

Fourthly, further research needs to be conducted among a broader cultural spectrum of participants, which should include working mothers from diverse ethnic groups and at various organisational levels. Such research should allow for other means of data collection that do not require computer or Internet access.

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Nevertheless, the W-FPSQ shows promise for evaluating the perceived negative aspects of work-to-family spill-over and the supportive resources available to working mothers. This research has contributed to knowledge regarding work-family interaction and provides a tool that researchers and practitioners can use to describe and evaluate working mothers' experiences of balancing work and family responsibilities and to examine the extent to which organisations are perceived as work- and family-supportive. Depending on the research question to be answered, the six scales of the W-FPSQ can be used as dependent variables or as independent variables. Furthermore, the W-FPSQ can be used to generate information that management needs to develop and implement work- and family-supportive policies that will help working mothers to balance work and family demands. These scales offer the potential

- pro-actively to identify specific strengths and weaknesses in organisations to provide effective supportive resources to working mothers;
- to identify the presence or a lack of specific resources that are important to support women in balancing work and family life;
- to get feedback from dual-career couples on the efficiency of support systems and relevancy of resources provided by management; and
- to provide a starting point for communication between management and working mothers to put into practice work- and family-supportive resources that will benefit both parties.

6.6.2. Generalising the findings of the study

There are several limitations that restrict the generalisation of the findings and the mode of causal inference.

Firstly, the method of non-probability sampling applied in this study was a combination of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. In this regard, it should be noted that, for inferential theory building, generalisations based on a non-probability sample are acceptable; however, for researchers to infer generalisations about the population at large, probability samples are required (Saunders *et al*., 2007:227).

Secondly, data collected at a single point in time (a cross-sectional survey), as in this study, is limited, because no relationships can be interpreted causally, and no final causal inferences can be drawn with regard to the variance between single and married mothers' satisfaction with the different supportive resources.

Thirdly, as in most other studies, this study relied on self-reporting measures regarding the work-family pressure and level of stress the respondents experienced and their perceptions of the resources offered by their organisations. Respondents' response styles, emotional state, and even previous experiences could have led to response bias in the reporting.

Finally, the finding that the assumption of normality was not met for the six scales of the W-FPSQ may have implications for any generalisation of the results of this research beyond the sample (Field, 2005:641).

Despite its limitations, the study has made a promising contribution towards a better understanding of the work and family supportive resources. It will ultimately help to create applicable family-friendly policies and benefits, as well as the effective management of these resources.

These results also have implications for future research. It would be helpful to determine the extent to which the family-supportive variables account for variance in the work engagement, motivation, performance and job attitudes of single and married mothers. Researchers should also examine how married and single working mothers perceive the fairness of different work- and family-supportive resources. Management can use the principles of distributive justice and procedural justice to assist them in evaluating their employees' reactions to different policies and interventions related to work-family support. The assessment of the fairness of work- and family-support could become an integral part of quality-of-work life surveys performed in organisations (Allen, 2001:432).

Additional research is needed to assess the influence of the work and family environment on employee reactions to family-friendly benefits. Since organisations

differ in respect of their 'family-friendly support services' or cultures, according to Evbuoma (2008), further studies should also consider the impact of organisational characteristics on the perceptions of single and married mothers. A comparison of how single and married mothers fare in private and public sector organisations would also be illuminating, especially since the public sector has provided a welcome home for many women.

Moreover, future studies should attempt to compare single working mothers with single working fathers, the latter having been marginalised in studies of work-family conflicts. Just as the single mothers face pressures and stress peculiar to their gender and marital status, it is not inconceivable that single fathers, too, face specific problems when compared to partnered fathers and mothers.

Finally, given the overwhelming evidence of the negative impact which work-family conflict has on families, especially on the health and mental well-being of single working mothers, the effects of such conflict on child development deserves to be urgently investigated, especially in an African setting, where the once communal spirit of *ubuntu* (caring for others) has been eroded by forces of urbanisation and modernisation.

6.6.3 Contribution of the present research

The findings of the present study contribute to the body of Organisational Behaviour and work-family conflict literature and to Human Resource Management research. Perhaps the two most noteworthy findings of this study relate to the effect of marital status and the possibility to negotiate flexible working hours on the respondents' perceptions regarding the supportive resources that organisations provide, their coping behaviour and their experience of work-family pressure and stress. It must be remembered that one of the motives for undertaking this study was to identify the peculiarities, if any, pertinent to working single mothers as opposed to working mothers with partners.

Ascertaining that resources such as personal growth, management support, organisational flexibility, family interaction and childcare support can mitigate work-family pressure and stress is a notable contribution. Various previous studies confirm the importance of these five resources in supporting both married and single working mothers to cope with work-family pressure and stress. The results of the study, however, emphasise the necessity for the managements of organisations to give more consideration to family-friendly practices and benefits if they are sincere in their desire to support single working mothers to cope effectively with work and family demands. Providing resources such as flexible work schedules, flexible work hours, childcare assistance and time for family interaction is very important in assisting single working mothers to balance their work and family responsibilities.

6.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the literature study (mainly concentrated in Chapters 2 and 3), and the empirical findings of the current study (presented mainly in Chapters 4 and 5), a number of recommendations are noteworthy. These are set out in the sections below.

6.7.1 Improving job resources

The study has clearly shown that single working mothers are a 'distinct group facing unique problems and pressures, and deserve to be recognized as such' (Gill & Davidson, 2001:397). Furthermore, the pressures they face, as captured in this study, represent levers that can be used by employers to address the plight of single mothers. Doing so requires a multi-pronged approach which seeks to address job design concerns, especially time constraints and workload, role conflict and lengthy working hours and time for family interaction in such a way that single working mothers can still adequately fulfil their cherished role as mothers – employers need to provide opportunities for personal and career development through training and development, coaching and counselling. Mentoring programmes are also urgently needed to ensure that women shatter the 'glass ceiling'. Supervisors can play an important role in all of these strategies – they should themselves be role models in

balancing work and family life, especially in terms of providing a consultative and flexible work environment which matches the demands of home (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker *et al*., 2005:170).

However, in terms of priority, Gyllensten and Palmer (2005:102) argue that 'primary workplace interventions aiming to prevent or reduce stressors are the most proactive approaches to stress management and they are generally found to be effective in reducing stress'. HSE (2001) recommends that sources of work-related stress should be combated at an organisational level first, before interventions focusing on the individual (for example, coaching, counselling and training) are introduced. Cahill, Landsbergis and Schnall (1995) provide a step-by-step process of healthy organisational changes aimed at increasing

- employees' autonomy or control;
- skill levels;
- social support (both supervisory support and co-worker support);
- physical working conditions;
- healthy use of technology;
- a reasonable level of job demands;
- job security and career development;
- healthy work schedules; and
- the personal coping mechanisms of employees.

Similar strategies are proposed by authors such as Frone (2003) and Mostert (2009), who emphasize that the corporate world should be aware of the relationship between demands from work and interference between work and home and the link with ill-health. Organisations should monitor work and home demands. Organisational resources which can be used to mitigate work and home demands include practices such as flexibility in weekly working hours, daily starting and finishing times, time for family interaction, out-of-hours childcare, flexible carer's leave and paid maternity and paternity leave.

6.7.2 Establishing family-friendly organisational cultures

According to Evbuoma (2008), many organisations in developed nations such as America, but also in Nigeria and other developing countries, are beginning to institute 'family friendly' personnel policies in order to reduce stress associated with dual careers, through the provision of on-site childcare facilities, elderly care and employee assistance programmes. Such policies are aimed at work performance and family adjustment, in order to generate commitment to work. Evbuoma (2008) gives some examples of such family-friendly programmes, such as child and elder day-care services, school facilities for staff children in organisations, crèches, breast-feeding centres, health and recreation centres and flexible working, which have in turn improved morale and elicited dramatic commitment from employees. This is also confirmed in Hirsh, Hayday, Yeates & Callender (1992) study where about 72% of the management and professional women that they surveyed reported that childcare arrangements had a significant effect on their jobs and career choices. Work-life balance programmes do exist in some multi-national companies in South Africa, although studies of their operations and impact are very limited (Mangeni & Slabbert, 2005). Mangeni and Slabbert (2005) suggest that the widespread use of such programmes needs to be adopted and adapted to suit South African conditions. Creating a family-supportive environment with family-friendly policies and benefits will moderate the effect of potential negative work to family spill-over and is becoming increasingly important for mothers with children and other dependants at home.

6.7.3 Empowering women to negotiate non-standard working hours

Based on the finding in this study that women's ability to negotiate non-standard working hours did make a difference in the pressures faced by women at work, it is strongly suggested that women in general and single working mothers in particular seek avenues for enhancing their bargaining power in organisations. The results of this study show that only 38% of the respondents were able to re-negotiate their working hours. The majority (62%) were not able to do so. In their study, Gill and Davidson (2001) also found only two of 12 interviewees were able to successfully

negotiate non-standard working hours with their employing organisations. Such was the value that women attached to flexible working hours that some women in their sample changed employers in order to achieve it. Job sharing was not considered a valued alternative, because of the implications of reduced earning which could only worsen the financial constraints faced by single parents. Considering the importance of flexible working hours, Gill and Davidson (2001) are of the opinion that women should be 'more proactive' in seeking reduced time working, even if no formal facility currently exists within their organisations for them to do so. However, their chances of success would be greatly enhanced if trade unions lend their voices and weight to this cause by making work-life balance programmes a bargaining issue. The UK example in which workers were granted rights to apply for flexible hours should be looked into in South Africa.

At the informal level, the role of the supervisor is important in job re-negotiation, mentorship and employee assistance programmes. A supervisor who shows a holistic concern for the employees and consults with them in work assignments would go a long way toward assisting subordinates to cope with the volume of the workload and time constraints – one of women's nightmares, as Gill and Davidson (2001) discovered.

6.7.4 Changing stereotypical attitudes towards women

The issue of empowering women as discussed above cannot be addressed without also considering the holistic empowerment of men, and restricting traditional family scenarios. According to April *et al*. (2007), one of the greatest restraints cited by women who want to advance their careers is their situation at home, where they are mothers first and foremost, before being managers or professionals. This is also borne out in this study, where women have several school-going children and often several other dependants, including aged parents, cousins and other relatives, to take care of. Their care and welfare is the sole responsibility of the *matrona domo*. If women's position changes in the workplace, April *et al*. (2007) argue that men's roles and attitudes to home responsibilities are likely to change too, and that a big part of women's journey to success lies in transforming the lives of men as well.

But more fundamental is the need for an attitudinal change on the part of men and society as a whole. Greene (1985:33) believes that people's firm belief in the stereotypes attached to gender roles and the unwillingness of men to accept women as their equals have prevented women from participating equally with men in leadership positions. Schein (2007) has shown that men's stereotypical attitudes to women have, unfortunately, remained unchanged for many decades, in spite of legislative enactments. Therefore, societal beliefs and stereotypes about gender need to be changed, through a process of education, socialisation and training.

6.7.5 Providing educational programmes for women

Many studies, such as those of Felstehausen, Couch, and Wragg (1993), Schuchardt and Guadagno (1991) and Robbins and McFadden (2003) have found that women in general, and especially single mothers, have low qualifications which prevent them from entering and competing with men for positions of responsibility and power. In addition, women and especially single working mothers experience stress and strain both at work and at home, which has an adverse effect on their mental health and well-being. Mostert (2009:6), in her discussion of the relationship between work and home demands and ill health of employed women, refers to a longitudinal study by Demerouti *et al*. (2007) in this regard. Their findings suggest that organisations should not only provide work-related training to employees, but should also try to provide parental training and role reorientation for couples as an additional resource to support working mothers who combine work and family responsibilities.

Most of the authors above are unanimous in emphasizing the importance of exposing women in general, and single mothers in particular, to educational programmes which should include parenting and employment skills, stress management, time and financial management, health and nutritional information, negotiation skills and ways to cope with change. Other areas of skills development include networking and socialisation skills and considering the importance of social support in combating stress. It is important to develop these skills as early as

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possible among youths, before they enter into the world of work. Policy-makers and educators need to become aware of the magnitude of the problem.

6.7.6 Mitigating or eliminating sexual harassment and violence

In view of the prevalence of sexual harassment and violence against women in the South African society, both preventative and intervention strategies are required to deal with these issues. According to Ramsaroop and Parumasur (2007), sexual harassment in the workplace can be curbed by early identification and effective management. They identify cues for early identification of an environment of sexual harassment which includes, among other things, inappropriate dress, unacceptable and unprofessional behaviour, inappropriate jokes and sexual innuendo. These authors also call for constant monitoring of the workplace in order to identify and remove offensive materials and curb offensive behaviour, as well as training, coaching and empowering employees to fight sexual harassment. They conclude by emphasizing the need for developing and implementing sexual harassment policies which will indicate an organisation's non-tolerance of sexually related misconduct.

6.7.7 Monitoring legislative support

Although many pieces of legislation have been enacted over the years that directly or indirectly support women's liberation and empowerment, the implementation of these laws needs to be rigorously monitored to ensure that their goals are being met, and defaulter organisations should be appropriately dealt with. The growing importance of women in Parliament and government positions bodes well for the enactment and enforcement of family-friendly legislation.

6.8 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study is important in adding to the knowledge and understanding of women in general and single mothers in particular. The fact that marital status emerged

as a defining characteristic in this study should inspire more studies across different contexts in South Africa. In conclusion, this study looks at the future of women managers and professionals based on the findings of this study and contemporary developments. While the gates of the world of work have been opened to women through legislative and other imperatives, the opportunity for women to rise to important positions still remains elusive for many women. This study has illustrated the plight of women in general and that of single mothers in particular. It is hoped that the recommendations made will be implemented by the relevant stakeholders.

The future of single mothers is still rather bleak. The *Sunday Times* of 12 July 2009: 3) reported that 40% of South Africa's 18 million children are being raised by single mothers. The report further indicated that seven million children are growing up with single mothers, outnumbering the 6.2 million – around 34% of the country's children – who live with both parents. The findings in this study show that single working mothers appear to be more *discontented* than their married counterparts with opportunities for personal and career development, social and interpersonal support, flexible work arrangements, the availability of time for family interaction and childcare arrangements made for their children while working. The effects of these issues on their performance, physical and mental well-being are noticeable.

Moreover, the impact of these matters on the development of their children is unknown and, therefore, urgently require in-depth study. The *Sunday Times* report quotes a recent UK study into the effects of family breakdown, where 24% of children are raised by single parents. The study found that the most common negative effects of single parenting are behavioural problems, under-achievement at school, mental health problems, alcohol and drug abuse, and an inability to form lasting relationships. This is a major challenge in a country already in the grip of crime and other social problems, such as HIV/AIDS. In the light of these problems, studies of women in general and single women in particular deserve urgent attention. If this challenge is taken up by all the relevant stakeholders, the objectives of the current study will have been met.

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List of research project topics and materials

In view of the vast reservoir of potential contributions that women in general and the many single mothers in our country in particular can make to our economy and our society, it is perhaps apposite to conclude with the following *caveat*: 'Single parenthood should be conceived as a risk factor for exposure to stress, rather than as an indicator of personal vulnerability' (Avison, 1997:662).

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

SECTION A

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. How old are you?

Years

2. Are you single or married?
   Relationship status

Single	1
Married	2

3. How long have you been in the organisation?

Years

4. Work arrangement.

Full-time	1
Part-time	2
Contract	3

5. Job classification.

Skilled	1
Middle Management	2
Senior Management	3

6. How many hours do you work in a typical week?

Hours

7. How many dependants do you have?

Number of children	
Other family	

8. Have you had any major event happen to you in the last three months which had a bad effect on you e.g death of a close one?

Yes	1
No	2

9. How many days of sick leave have you taken in the last three months?

Days

10 Are you subject to any ongoing negative pressure that started more than three months ago and is still having an impact?

Yes	1
No	2

11 How important is your career to you?

Not Important 1 2 3 4 5 6 Very Important

SECTION B: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What pressures do single mothers in management and professional occupations encounter?
2. Do single mothers in management and professional occupations experience social isolation?
3. What kinds of pressure do single mothers face from balancing home and work?
4. What kinds of daily hassle, i.e. day-to-day irritants in the workplace, do they face at work?
5. What impact do these pressures have on their job performance, job satisfaction, career goal and aspirations?
6. Do single mothers in management and professional occupations experience greater sexual harassment?
7. What coping strategies do single mothers in management and professional occupations adopt and with what success?
8. What are the strategies implemented by organisations to support single mothers?

APPENDIX B

THEORETICAL MODEL BASED ON THE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE PRESSURES AND EXPERIENCES THAT SINGLE MOTHERS FACE

Stressors/Pressures	Response pattern	The Effects/Emotional and Behavioural outcomes
1. Difficulty in reconciling work demands with family responsibilities	This was largely due to the fact that 70% of the single mothers interviewed were responsible for managing and supervising other people, thus they had to multitask by trying to juggle home chores with work stress and work demands. There was also a need to try and balance work and family because most had to get to work early and sometimes attend meetings after work. 70% of the women had problems with reconciling demands (especially deadlines at work with demands at home).	***Due to this stressor they experienced high levels of role conflict, sheer exhaustion, fatigue and a lack of organisational commitment.***
2. Limitations in job choices	60% of the women interviewed reported that they had limited their choice of job to those which did not involve travel or too much after-hours working, which, in effect, limited their career development as a result. The majority of women in the sample changed jobs or career fields in order to find work which would accommodate their family responsibilities better.	***Lack of job satisfaction and career development***
3. Lack of support	Lack of support was seen as a constant source of pressure, 'being a mum and dad' at the same time and also due to the fact that very few had access to support from the extended family. 80% of the single mothers experienced difficulty in finding a support system to look after a child, especially when the child took ill and the mothers were required to take off from work.	***Depression and low energy levels***
4. **Work-family conflict**	70% of the women complained that they experienced pressure in the work environment, especially when it came to work overload. They	***Lack of job satisfaction and family satisfaction, stress symptoms***

	experienced problems in balancing work and family responsibilities and demands. They also experienced pressure in the family environment, for example, the presence of young children and having the primary responsibility for children as discussed earlier. 50% of the women interviewed went on to say that they experienced interpersonal conflict within the family unit, for example, unsupportive family members.	
5.Time pressure	90% of the women interviewed described a situation where most were already 'stretched to the limit' in terms of time and energy, and therefore gave priority to manageable working hours above status or financial reward.	***Lack of energy***
6. Financial pressure	90% of the women interviewed carried the sole responsibility for providing financially for the family. The single mothers in the sample therefore described a greater need to earn, both to provide for the immediate needs of their children, and for longer-term financial security. Lack of money was a problem, both for meeting day-to-day financial commitments and having little available for 'extras'.	***Lack of contentment and high anxiety levels***
7. Feelings of isolation	Nearly 90% of the women sampled felt excluded from a prevailing 'couples culture' and were seldom invited to mixed gatherings, and some reported that they were judged negatively by the church and married women, because society tends to look down on single mothers. The pressures resulting from being a member of a minority group have been well documented. In addition to inhibiting their opportunities for recreation and social activities, this was an additional source of stress for the women surveyed.	***Feeling neglected and discriminated against***
8. Illness of children and child care arrangements	Illness of a child was perceived as a great source of pressure, because 70% of the women had to be frequently absent from work because of their child's illness. In the case of childcare, the single mothers experienced difficulties associated with after-hours work,	***High level of pressure and fatigue***

	especially when they were required to work late. The single mothers were not able to rely on partners for help with after-work childcare; moreover their choice of childcare (after work) provision was also more limited, because of a lack of money.	
9. The need to prove themselves	50% of the women interviewed felt pressurised constantly to prove themselves at their place of work. This is in conjunction with the need for personal development.	***High level of strain***
10. Absence of mentors	40% of the women felt that the absence of a mentor was a source of pressure for them, because they had no one to turn to or look up to for advice when tackling problems at home and at work.	***Feelings of neglect***

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APPENDIX C:

THE FRAMEWORK QUESTIONNAIRE

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DEPARTEMENT MENSLIKE HULPBRONBESTUUR

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Participation in a Research Study: University of Pretoria

PRESSURES FACING SINGLE MOTHERS IN PROFESSIONAL AND MANAGEMENT POSITIONS

Dear Respondent

The purpose of this questionnaire is to establish the relevance of a number of constructs on the pressures and issues that single working mothers with dependants may experience. This questionnaire forms part of the PhD (Organisational Behaviour) study of Buki Sonubi at the University of Pretoria at the Department of Human Resource Management under the supervision of Prof. Leo Vermeulen.

The objective of the study is to contribute to the existing body of knowledge on the management of pressures facing single mothers in professional occupations and in management positions in South African organisations.

After interviewing a total of 17 working mothers, nine domains related to problems, stressors and issues facing mothers in professional occupations and management positions were identified. The nine domains are:

- reconciliation of work demands with family responsibilities;
- personal support;
- time pressure;
- financial pressure;
- feelings of isolation;
- childcare arrangements;
- need to improve oneself;
- absence or presence of mentors; and
- Organisational support.

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By completing this questionnaire, you will make a large contribution to our understanding of which of the statements in the questionnaire are relevant/essential to reflect the different dimensions/domains we are interested in. This will help to determine the content validity of the items and their relevance to the nine domains.

It should take only about 30 minutes or less to complete the questionnaire. Your responses and other details will be considered highly confidential. All the responses will be analysed and only the consolidated results will be made available.

In order to ensure the integrity of the conclusions drawn from this survey, it is important that you consider all the statements/items. Please email the completed questionnaire to bukisonubi@yahoo no later than 18 June 2008.

DEMOGRAPHIC DETAIL

Title	
How old are you?	
Gender	
Are you single or married? Relationship status:	
How long have you been in the organisation/ have you been practising your profession?	
Job classification	
Highest qualification	
How many dependants do you have?	

INSTRUCTIONS

In order to answer this questionnaire, please indicate whether you consider the listed statements/items relevant.

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The information we get from you will help us to establish how relevant the statements are to assessing the domains in this study.

There are no right or wrong answers.

Please consider each item individually, based on your experience. Indicate your answer with an 'X' in either the 'Relevant/Essential', 'Useful but not essential' or 'Not necessary' category.

Please mark only **one** of the 3 (three) options in each item.

If you mark a statement as **'Relevant/Essential'**, that means that you agree that the aspect is strongly related to the domain and context.

If you mark a statement as **'Useful, but not relevant/essential'**, that means that you consider the aspect to be related to the topic, but that you do not think that it is important to include it in the questionnaire.

If you mark a statement as **'Not relevant/necessary,'** that means that you do not think that the statement is associated with pressures and issues that single working mothers with dependants may experience.

Example of response options:	Relevant / Essential	Useful, but not essential	Not relevant/ necessary
The price of gold affects single working mothers' development.			X
Mentorship is needed for the development of single working mothers.	X		
Single working mothers should be encouraged to study.		X	

Are the following (positively and negatively worded) statements/items relevant in assessing/measuring the nine domains/constructs?

Please evaluate the relevance of the item/statement of each domain by simply putting a cross in a block that matches your opinion.

NOTE. If you think that an item is **not** relevant in the particular domain where it is listed, but you feel that it is relevant/essential in one of the other domains, please mark it as 'relevant/essential' and **write the number** of the applicable domain in the last column.

1. RECONCILING WORK DEMANDS WITH FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES	Relevant/ essential	Useful, but not essential	Not relevant/ necessary	Applicable behavioural domain
I balance my work and family time.				
My job keeps me away from my family.				

I am able to 'switch off' at home.				
I have time to do things with the family.				
My time off matches my family members' schedules.				
Responsibilities at home do not put me under strain.				
I am pursuing a career at the expense of my home life.				
I am comfortable with the arrangements for my children while I am working.				
People at work think my family responsibilities interfere with my work.				
Work demands affect my relationship with my child/children negatively.				
I have little influence over what happens to me at work.				
I spend enough time with my family.				
I wish I had more time to do things with my family.				
There are conflicting job tasks and family demands in the role I play.				
When I go to bed at night, my mind is not occupied by tasks I have to do the following day.				
There is stability and dependability in my home life.				
I get so involved with my job that I feel a conflict of loyalty between my home and work responsibilities.				
Responsibilities at home do not put me under strain.				
Family demands have a favourable influence on my work.				
I feel physically drained when I get home from work.				
I feel emotionally drained when I get home from work.				
My job improves the quality of my life.				
I am in a job with a schedule flexible enough to let me meet my family responsibilities.				
2. PERSONAL SUPPORT	Relevant/ essential	Useful, but not essential	Not relevant/ necessary	Applicable behavioural domain
Finding someone to look after my child/children when I cannot be with him/her/them is not a problem.				
I get enough help and support from my child's/children's father(s).				

I feel comfortable asking my co-workers for their help.				
My supervisor is concerned about my welfare.				
People offer to help me without having to be asked.				
It is easy to get help from my colleagues.				
I lack social support from people at my work.				
My friends are supportive and helpful.				
There is practical support from others outside work.				
My parents are supportive and helpful.				
3. TIME PRESSURE	Relevant/ essential	Useful, but not essential	Not relevant/ necessary	Applicable behavioural domain
I have enough time for myself.				
I often have too much to do in too little time.				
Unrealistic deadlines for the completion of work are not a regular occurrence.				
I usually leave work on time.				
My job leaves me enough time to spend with my family and friends.				
I wish I had more time to do things with my family.				
I spend quality time with my friends.				
I do not work overtime during weekends.				
I am overwhelmed with the workload I face each day.				
The hours I work make it difficult to look after my child/children.				
I feel I have to rush to get everything done each day.				
4. FINANCIAL PRESSURE	Relevant/ essential	Useful, but not essential	Not relevant/ necessary	Applicable behavioural domain
I am in serious debt.				
I do not have enough money to give my (child/children) what they need.				
I feel that I am not meeting all of my child's/children's needs.				
Sacrificing for my children is a part of single parenthood.				
There is no great need to earn because of financial security.				
I do not have enough money to cover				

medical and dental care.				
My work input is adequately remunerated.				
My fringe benefits are good.				
There is financial support from others outside work.				
I would love to move to a better home, but do not have sufficient funds to do so.				
I am financially independent.				
5. FEELINGS OF ISOLATION	Relevant/ essential	Useful, but not essential	Not relevant/ necessary	Applicable behavioural domain
I feel socially isolated.				
My identity is based solely on being a parent.				
My job gives me a welcome break from housework and my child/children.				
I feel that I am less likely to get chosen for certain assignments because of 'who I am' (e.g. a single mother).				
When I am with my friends, I am able to be completely myself and relax.				
I am invited to gatherings often.				
I enjoy life outside of work.				
I have extensive interests and activities outside work.				
When I have a problem, there is someone I can confide in and talk it over with.				
6.CHILDCARE ARRANGEMENTS	Relevant/ essential	Useful, but not essential	Not relevant/ necessary	Applicable behavioural domain
If my child/children fall ill, there is someone who can stay home and look after him/her/them.				
I am comfortable with the arrangements for my child when I am at work.				
Making arrangements for my children while I work does not involve lots of effort.				
I can usually get a babysitter if I want to go out in the evening.				
It is easy to find someone to look after my child/children when I cannot be with him/her/them.				
I get support when I have to take my child/children to a clinic/hospital.				
I do not feel guilty about leaving my child/children when I go out to work.				

I meet my child's/children's emotional needs and social development needs.				
I worry about my child/children when I am at work.				
My child's/children's health is not affected when he/she/they is/are placed in child care.				
7. THE NEED TO IMPROVE ONESELF	Relevant/ essential	Useful, but not essential	Not relevant/ necessary	Applicable behavioural domain
The people I work for find it easier to blame than to praise.				
I often feel undervalued.				
I am not especially achievement-oriented.				
There is inadequate training and development at my place of work.				
When obstacles get in the way of my advancement, I keep trying.				
My goal is to reach the top in my career.				
It is not important to me to keep moving up in the hierarchy.				
I feel that in my job I can develop or grow personally.				
I have some influence over what happens to me at work.				
I have a lot of discretion in my work.				
My job taps into the range of skills which I feel I possess.				
I keep up with new techniques, ideas, technology or innovations.				
I get adequate feedback about my own performance.				
There is potential for career advancement in my job.				
There are opportunities for personal development in my job.				
It is important to me to be seen as very successful.				
8. PRESENCE OF MENTORS	Relevant/ essential	Useful, but not essential	Not relevant/ necessary	Applicable behavioural domain
My manager encourages me to discuss my career and family problems.				
When my manager gives me advice, s/he makes me feel stronger.				

My manager encourages me to discuss positive/negative feelings that I may have about my ability to succeed.				
My manager guides me towards identifying problem areas in my work and helps me find the best solution.				
My manager is always available when needed.				
My manager is not intimidating, s/he is easy to approach at anytime.				
My manager gives me constructive feedback skilfully.				
My manager serves a role model for achieving balance between personal and professional life.				
My manager is a good listener.				
My manager encourages me to review my strategies for managing my life while pursuing my career goals.				
9 ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT	Relevant/ essential	Useful, but not essential	Not relevant/ necessary	Applicable behavioural domain
My organisation makes childcare provision for its employees.				
There is great flexibility in my organisation.				
My organisation appreciates any extra effort from me.				
My organisation ignores any complaint from me.				
There is job sharing in my organisation.				
There is an option to work from home in my organisation.				
A flexible work schedule is made available in my organisation.				
My organisation has policies to support mothers in securing a realistic work life balance.				
My organisation has on-site child care.				
My organisation brings in additional resources to handle workload.				
My organisation shows an awareness of how much pressure mothers deal with.				
My organisation has an open-door policy.				
My organisation provides information on additional sources of support.				
There is financial support for mothers with career responsibilities in my organisation.				
My organisation takes an interest in mothers' personal lives.				

My organisation consults with mothers when making decisions about their work load.				
Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem.				
My organisation really cares about my well-being.				
My organisation tries to make my job as interesting as possible.				
My organisation is willing to help me when I need a special favour.				
My organisation shows little concern for me.				
If the organisation could hire someone to replace me, paying the person a lower salary, it would do so.				

Thank you.

This information will be processed only in accordance with the provisions of the Data Protection Act and any other relevant legislation.

Please return this form to the researcher:

bukisonubi@yahoo.com.

APPENDIX D:
THE FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

DEPARTEMENT MENSLIKE HULPBRONBESTUUR
DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
Tel.: 012-420-3074
Fax: 012-420-3574

Participation in a Research Study: University of Pretoria

Dear Madam

You are invited to participate in a study regarding **Managing pressures facing single mothers in professional occupations and management positions in South African organisations**. This study is conducted by Buki Sonubi under the supervision of Prof Leo Vermeulen of the Department of Human Resource Management, University of Pretoria.

1. **Purpose of the study:** To identify the pressures facing single working mothers in management and professional occupations in South African organisations.

2. **Ethical considerations**: Participation in this survey is a tacit agreement by you for a general consent in the use of the data for academic research purposes. The main risk associated with this interview is the possible discomfort when answering certain questions of a personal nature.

3. **Confidentiality:** Please be assured that all the information received will remain strictly confidential and will be treated in a professional manner. Numerical codes will be used to replace any possible identification. Participation in this study is voluntary.

4. **Risk and discomfort:** No risks or discomfort are associated with taking part in this research. I need approximately 45 minutes of your time. You are allowed to stop to take a break at any time and you are allowed to withdraw from the whole process at any time, should you feel uncomfortable.

5. **Potential benefits:** Once the data have been analysed, the findings will be useful in that women themselves would be able to take proactive steps to bring women's

BaSoPe.com

issues into the open or to the attention of trade unions. Besides, as others have done elsewhere, the women concerned could negotiate conditions with their organisation which will enable them to fulfil their work and family responsibilities. The research findings will be shared with you and your organisation. In this way, your contribution to the research should benefit you and your institution in future. The overall results will be published in scientific journals. Your company will not be associated with any research reports or publications that use the results of this study.

6. **Additional information:** You are more than welcome to raise any questions or concerns with the researcher, Buki Sonubi, at 0837726775.

Thank you for participating in this study.

Yours faithfully

Prof. Leo Vermeulen

DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

PRESSURES FACING SINGLE MOTHERS IN PROFESSIONAL AND MANAGEMENT POSITIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION 1

Please complete the following information about yourself. If you are completing this form electronically, please simply delete the options that do not apply to you.

'I hereby give my informed consent to take part in the research project'.	**YES**

1. Title	Mr, Ms, Mrs, Miss, Dr, Prof., etc.
2. How old are you?	……….. years
3. Are you single or married? Relationship status	Single/ Married/ Divorced
4. How long have you been in the organisation/have you been practising your profession?	………….years
5. Work arrangement	Self-employed Employed permanent full-time Employed permanent part-time Employed casual full-time Employed casual part-time Unemployed
6. Job classification	Skilled Professional Middle management Senior management
7. Highest qualification	
8. How many hours do you work in week?	
9. How many dependants do you have?	Children = Other = (please specify)

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List of research project topics and materials

Question	Response
10. Have you had any major event happen to you in the last three months which had a bad effect on you, for example, the death of someone close to you?	Yes/ No (If yes, please specify)
11. How many days of sick leave have you taken in the last three months?	…………….calendar days
12. Are you subject to any ongoing negative pressure that started more than three months ago and is still having an impact on you?	Yes/ No
13. How recently have you separated from your partner?	………….years ……………months
14. Is it possible to negotiate non-standard working hours with your organisation?	Yes/No
15. How old is your youngest child?	………..…years

SECTION 2

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please complete the following questionnaire. There are no right or wrong answers. Simply evaluate each item based on your own experience.

This section is about the problems, stressors and issues that single working mothers face. Please indicate the extent to which the statements in each category apply to you personally. Respond by indicating if you strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, agree or strongly agree with the following statements.

Simply mark a cross in a block appropriate to your opinion.

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. My organisation brings in additional resources to handle workload.							
2. I balance my work and family time.							
3. I am able to 'switch off' at home.							
4. I have time to do things with the family.							
5. Finding someone to look after my child/children when I cannot be with him/her/them is not a problem.							
6. My organisation consults with mothers when making decisions about their work load.							
7. I am pursuing a career at the expense of my home life.							
8. I get enough help and support from my child's/children's father(s).							
9. I have enough time for myself.							
10. I often have too much to do in too little time.							
11. Unrealistic deadlines for the completion of work are not a regular occurrence.							
12. I am in serious debt.							
13. My organisation has an open-door policy.							
14. There is stability and dependability in my home life.							
15. I get so involved with my job that I feel a conflict of loyalty between my home and work responsibilities.							
16. Responsibilities at home do not put me under strain.							
17. My organisation provides information on additional sources of support.							
18. Family demands have a favourable influence on my work.							
19. I feel physically drained when I get home from work.							
20. I feel emotionally drained when I get home from work.							
21. My job improves the quality of my life.							
22. My work input is adequately remunerated.							
23. My time off matches my family members' schedules.							
24. My organisation takes an interest in mother's personal lives.							

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
25. I would love to move to a better home, but do not have sufficient funds to do so.							
26. I am comfortable with the arrangements for my child when I am at work.							
27. Making arrangements for my children while I work does not involve lots of effort.							
28. I can usually get a babysitter if I want to go out in the evening.							
29. I enjoy life outside of work.							
30. My job keeps me away from my family.							
31. I often feel undervalued.							
32. I am not especially achievement-oriented.							
33. There is inadequate training and development at my place of work.							
34. Responsibilities at home do not put me under strain.							
35. Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem.							
36. My manager encourages me to discuss my career and family problems.							
37. When my manager gives me advice, s/he makes me feel stronger.							
38. I spend enough time with my family.							
39. My fringe benefits are good.							
40. There are conflicting job tasks and family demands in the role I play.							
41. If the organisation could hire someone to replace me, paying the person a lower salary, it would do so.							
42. I am comfortable with the arrangements for my children while I am working.							
43. People at work think my family responsibilities interfere with my work.							
44. My manager is not intimidating, s/he is easy to approach at anytime.							
45. I feel comfortable asking my co-workers for their help.							
46. My organisation really cares about my well-being.							
47. I usually leave work on time.							
48. I feel that I am not meeting all of my child's/children's needs.							

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
49. I feel socially isolated.							
50. My manager gives me constructive feedback skilfully.							
51. My identity is based solely on being a parent.							
52. If my child/ children fall ill, there is someone who can stay home and look after him/her/them.							
53. When obstacles get in the way of my advancement, I keep trying.							
54. My goal is to reach the top in my career.							
55. It is not important to me to keep moving up in the hierarchy.							
56. My organisation tries to make my job as interesting as possible.							
57. I feel that in my job I can develop or grow personally.							
58. My manager serves a role model for achieving balance between personal and professional life.							
59. I have some influence over what happens to me at work.							
60. My manager encourages me to discuss positive/ negative feelings that I may have about my ability to succeed.							
61. There is job sharing in my organisation.							
62. There is an option to work from home in my organisation.							
63. A flexible work schedule is made available in my organisation.							
64. I keep up with new techniques, ideas, technology or innovations.							
65. I get adequate feedback about my own performance.							
66. There is potential for career advancement in my job.							
67. There are opportunities for personal development in my job.							
68. My organisation is willing to help me when I need a special favour.							
69. It is easy to find someone to look after my child/children when I cannot be with him/her/them.							
70. My manager is a good listener.							
71. Work demands affect my relationship with my child/children negatively.							

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
72. I do not feel guilty about leaving my child/children when I go out to work.							
73. I do not have enough money to cover medical and dental care.							
74. When I have a problem, there is someone I can confide in and talk it over with.							
75. My job taps into the range of skills which I feel I possess.							
76. My organisation has on-site child care.							
77. My job leaves me enough time to spend with my family and friends.							
78. I am financially independent.							
79. My manager encourages me to review my strategies for managing my life while pursuing my career goals.							
80. I am overwhelmed with the workload I face each day.							
81. The hours I work make it difficult to look after my child/children.							
82. I feel I have to rush to get everything done each day.							
83. I have a lot of discretion in my work.							
84. Sacrificing for my children is a part of single parenthood.							
85. My job gives me a welcome break from housework and my child/ children.							
86. I am in a job with a schedule flexible enough to let me meet my family responsibilities.							
87. The people I work for find it easier to blame than to praise.							
88. My organisation makes childcare provision for its employees.							
89. There is great flexibility in my organisation.							
90. My child's/children's health is not affected when he/she/they is/ are placed in child care.							
91. My organisation appreciates any extra effort from me.							
92. My organisation ignores any complaint from me.							
93. I worry about my child/children when I am at work.							
94. There is financial support from others outside work.							
95. I feel that I am less likely to get chosen for certain assignments because of 'who I am' (e.g. a single mother).							

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
96. It is important to me to be seen as very successful.							

Please respond to these statements, thinking about how often you have felt these symptoms over the last three months.

	Never	Very infrequently	Infrequently	Sometimes	Frequently	Very frequently
1. I feel unaccountably tired or exhausted.						
2. I have a tendency to eat, drink, or smoke more than usual.						
3. I experience shortness of breath or feel dizzy.						
4. I get muscle tremors (e.g. eye twitch).						
5. I get a prickling sensation or twinges in parts of my body.						
6. I feel as though I do not want to get up in the morning.						
7. I lack energy.						
8. I have difficulty sleeping.						
9. I get headaches or feel pressure in my head.						
10. I experience panicky spells.						
11. I feel hopeless about the future.						

THIS FINAL SECTION LISTS SEVERAL WAYS OF COPING. Please respond to these statements by thinking about how you have dealt with issues or events that have been a source of pressure to you during the last three months.

	Never used by me	Seldom used by me	On balance, not used by me	On balance, used by me	Extensively used by me	Very extensively used by me.
1. I resort to hobbies and pastimes.						
2. I try to deal with the situation objectively, in an unemotional way.						
3. I use effective time management.						
4. I talk to understanding friends.						
5. I plan ahead.						

6. I expand my interests and activities outside work.						
7. I pay selective attention (concentrating on specific problems).						
8. I set priorities and deal with problems accordingly.						
9. I try to 'stand aside' and think through the situation.						
10. I seek as much social support as possible.						
11. I do not let things get to me.						
12. I keep calm under pressure.						
13. I keep home and work separate.						
14. I find time to relax.						
15. I enjoy life outside of work.						
16. I try to reduce my workload.						
17. I share my concerns with other people.						

Thank you.

This information will be processed only in accordance with the provisions of the Data Protection Act and any other relevant legislation.

Please return this form to the researcher:

bukisonubi@yahoo.com.

APPENDIX E:
LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO USE THE PMI

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

DEPARTEMENT MENSLIKE HULPBRONBESTUUR
DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
Tel.: 012-420-3074
Fax: 012-420-3574

24 April, 2007

RE: Permission to use PMI Questionnaire for Doctoral Degree

Dear Sir / Madam

I am currently a doctoral student at the University of Pretoria, under the supervision of Prof. Leo Vermeulen of the Department of Human Resource Management, University of Pretoria.

Basically my research entails identifying the pressures facing single mothers in management and professional occupations in South African organisations. The potential benefits are that once the data have been analysed, the findings will be useful in that women themselves would be able to take proactive steps to bring women's issues into the open or to the attention of trade unions. Besides, as others have done elsewhere, women concerned could negotiate conditions with their organisation which will enable them to fulfil their work and family responsibilities.

For this purpose, I would like to obtain permission to use the Pressure Management Indicator questionnaire.

I thank you for your time and consideration. A response regarding this matter will be greatly appreciated.

Kind regards

Buki Sonubi (0837726775; bukicherry@yahoo.com)

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APPENDIX F:

PERMISSION LETTER FOR USE OF THE PMI

StressRisk
assessment
complete stress intervention management system

12 May, 2007

RE: Permission to use PMI Questionnaire for Doctoral Degree

Dear Buki

Thank you for your interest in using the PMI as part of your research study.

We are happy to support the work of researchers and have no objection to the use of the PMI Questionnaire. It should be noted that whilst we will endeavour to answer any queries related to the PMI, you will need to carry out your own scoring and analysis.

I attach a copy of the PMI in adobe format and wish you all the best in your research.

Kind regards

Michael Cummings

Resource Systems

Claro Court, Claro Road

Harrogate, HG1 4BA

tel: +44 (0) 1423 539 529

fax: +44 (0) 1423 578 075

APPENDIX G

Results of the Chi-square (^{2}), Cramer's V and Phi-coefficient ( ) to test the strength of the relationship between sample identity and the demographic characteristics of the sample

Variable	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Age in years (^{2})	17.127[a]	18	0.514
Cramer's V	0.289		0.514
Years experience - Org/Prof (^{2})	38.824[a]	15	0.001
Cramer's V	0.438		0.001
Hours work per week (^{2})	14.622[a]	8	0.067
Cramer's V	0.267		0.067
Number of dependants (^{2})	7.981[a]	5	0.157
Cramer's V	0.197		0.157
Age of youngest child (^{2})	10.683[a]	15	0.775
Cramer's V	0.228		0.775
Days' sick leave in last 3 months(^{2})	6.265[a]	7	0.509
Cramer's V	0.175		0.509
Qualifications (^{2})	3.875[a]	3	0.275
Cramer's V	0.137		0.275
Nature of employment (^{2})	1.439[a]	1	0.230
Phi	0.084		0.230
Job classification (^{2})	1.336[a]	2	0.513
Cramer's V	0.082		0.513
Experience of negative events in last 3 months (^{2})	0.566[a]	1	0.452
Phi	0.053		0.452
Ongoing negative pressure (^{2})	7.379[a]	1	0.007
Phi	0.190		0.007
Negotiate non-standard working hours(^{2}),	4.746[a]	1	0.029
Phi	-0.152		0.029

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APPENDIX H: RESULTS OF THE NON-PARAMETRICFOUR-WAY FACTORIAL MANOVA: THE MAIN AND INTERACTION EFFECTS OF THE CATEGORICAL INDEPENDENT VARIABLES ON THE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Source	Dependent variable	Type I Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig	Partial Eta square	Observed power
Corrected model	Rank Personal development	204666.509	4	51166.627	19.984	0.000	0.286	1.000
	Rank Management support	82368.688	4	20592.172	6.529	0.000	0.115	0.991
	Rank Organisational flexibility	275058.553	4	68764.638	31.097	0.000	0.383	1.000
	Rank Time for family interaction	270332.056	4	67583.014	30.289	0.000	0.377	1.000
	Rank Childcare arrangements	169470.011	4	42367.503	15.513	0.000	0.237	1.000
	Rank Overall Coping Score	63565.315	4	15891.329	4.914	0.001	0.089	0.957
	Rank Work-family pressure	263774.253	4	65943.563	29.063	0.000	0.368	1.000
	Rank Overall Stress Score	325292.565	4	81323.141	41.546	0.000	0.454	1.000
Intercept	Rank Personal development	2174845.000	1	2174845.000	849.437	0.000	0.809	1.000
	Rank Management support	2174845.000	1	2174845.000	689.545	0.000	0.775	1.000
	Rank Organisational flexibility	2174845.000	1	2174845.000	983.512	0.000	0.831	1.000
	Rank Time for family interaction	2174845.000	1	2174845.000	974.709	0.000	0.830	1.000
	Rank Childcare arrangements	2174845.000	1	2174845.000	796.342	0.000	0.799	1.000
	Rank Overall Coping Score	2174845.000	1	2174845.000	672.537	0.000	0.771	1.000
	Rank Work-family pressure	2174845.000	1	2174845.000	958.499	0.000	0.827	1.000
	Rank Overall Stress Score	2174845.000	1	2174845.000	1111.068	0.000	0.847	1.000
Marriage	Rank Personal development	87301.135	1	87301.135	34.098	0.000	0.146	1.000
	Rank Management support	36203.734	1	36203.734	11.479	0.001	0.054	0.921
	Rank Organisational flexibility	48782.369	1	48782.369	22.060	0.000	0.099	0.997
	Rank Time for family interaction	219022.515	1	219022.515	98.160	0.000	0.329	1.000
	Rank Childcare arrangements	96574.834	1	96574.834	35.362	0.000	0.150	1.000
	Rank Overall Coping Score	28858.005	1	28858.005	8.924	0.003	0.043	0.844
	Rank Work-family pressure	222303.706	1	222303.706	97.974	0.000	0.329	1.000
	Rank Overall Stress Score	305198.439	1	305198.439	155.917	0.000	0.438	1.000
Experience of negative events	Rank Personal development	6645.932	1	6645.932	2.596	0.109	0.013	0.361
	Rank Management support	10624.827	1	10624.827	3.369	0.068	0.017	0.447

	Rank Organisational flexibility	6278.524	1	6278.524	2.839	0.094	0.014	0.389
	Rank Time for family interaction	9744.052	1	9744.052	4.367	0.038	0.021	0.548
	Rank Childcare arrangements	18646.577	1	18646.577	6.828	0.010	0.033	0.739
	Rank Overall Coping Score	1116.962	1	1116.962	0.345	0.557	0.002	0.090
	Rank Work-family pressure	3420.558	1	3420.558	1.508	0.221	0.007	0.231
	Rank Overall Stress Score	96.836	1	96.836	0.049	0.824	0.000	0.056
Ongoing negative pressure	Rank Personal development	3094.186	1	3094.186	1.209	0.273	0.006	0.194
	Rank Management support	2793.391	1	2793.391	0.886	0.348	0.004	0.155
	Rank Organisational flexibility	1116.990	1	1116.990	0.505	0.478	0.003	0.109
	Rank Time for family interaction	756.497	1	756.497	0.339	0.561	0.002	0.089
	Rank Childcare arrangements	0.473	1	0.473	0.000	0.990	0.000	0.050
	Rank overall Coping Score	5780.006	1	5780.006	1.787	0.183	0.009	0.265
	Rank Work-family pressure	1760.142	1	1760.142	0.776	0.380	0.004	0.142
	Rank Overall Stress Score	210.565	1	210.565	0.108	0.743	0.001	0.062
Negotiate n-s working hours	Rank Personal development	107625.255	1	107625.255	42.036	0.000	0.174	1.000
	Rank Management support	32746.736	1	32746.736	10.383	0.001	0.049	0.894
	Rank Organisational flexibility	218880.670	1	218880.670	98.983	0.000	0.331	1.000
	Rank Time for family interaction	40808.992	1	40808.992	18.290	0.000	0.084	0.989
	Rank Childcare arrangements	54248.127	1	54248.127	19.864	0.000	0.090	0.993
	Rank overall Coping Score	27810.343	1	27810.343	8.600	0.004	0.041	0.831
	Rank Work-family pressure	36289.847	1	36289.847	15.994	0.000	0.074	0.978
	Rank Overall Stress Score	19786.725	1	19786.725	10.108	0.002	0.048	0.886
Error	Rank Personal development	512067.491	200	2560.337				
	Rank Management support	630805.812	200	3154.029				
	Rank Organisational flexibility	442260.947	200	2211.305				
	Rank Time for family interaction	446255.444	200	2231.277				
	Rank Childcare arrangements	546208.489	200	2731.042				
	Rank overall Coping Score	646758.685	200	3233.793				
	Rank Work-family pressure	453802.247	200	2269.011				

	Rank Overall Stress Score	391487.435	200	1957.437				
Total								
	Rank Personal development	2891579.000	205					
	Rank Management support	2888019.500	205					
	Rank Organisational flexibility	2892164.500	205					
	Rank Time for family interaction	2891432.500	205					
	Rank Childcare arrangements	2890523.500	205					
	Rank overall Cope-score	2885169.000	205					
	Rank Work-family pressure	2892421.500	205					
	Rank Overall Stress Score	2891625.000	205					
Corrected Total	Rank Personal development	716734.000	204					
	Rank Management support	713174.500	204					
	Rank Organisational flexibility	717319.500	204					
	Rank Time for family interaction	716587.500	204					
	Rank Childcare arrangements	715678.500	204					
	Rank overall Coping Score	710324.000	204					
	Rank Work-family pressure	717576.500	204					
	Rank Overall Stress Score	716780.000	204					