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A Quantitative Study of the Variables that Influence Work-Family Conflict of Female Counselors

Emeline Eckart
University of New Orleans, eeckart@uno.edu

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A Quantitative Study of the Variables that Influence Work-Family Conflict of Female
Counselors

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
University of New Orleans
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Counselor Education

by

Emeline C. Eckart

B.A. Marquette University, 2001
M.S. Capella University, 2011

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their demographic (i.e., ethnicity, age, educational level, and annual household income), occupational (i.e., ethnicity, age, educational level, and annual household income), and family (i.e., marital/partner status; number of children at home under the age of 18; age of youngest child; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; source of support; and support) characteristics. Super's (1990) Life-Space Life-Span theory provided a framework to understand female counselors' engagement in multiple roles in work and family and the conflict that can result in two directions: work interfering with family (WIF), and family interfering with work (FIW) (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Female counselors were contacted through electronic email communication in which they received a link to access the online survey that totaled 51 questions. Female counselors from the state of Louisiana and Alabama participated in the survey for a sample size of 266.

Pearson's correlation indicated significant relationships for WIF and the following variables: (a) annual household income, (b) hours per week spent in employment, (c) counseling license, (d) workplace flexibility, (e) autonomy, (f) marital/partner status, and (g) source of support. For FIW, significant relationships were found for the following variables: (a) autonomy; (b) number of children at home under the age of 18; (c) age of the youngest child; (d) care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; (e) hours per week spent in home chores and errands; and (f) support. Autonomy and hours per week spent in employment significantly predicted female counselors' WIF scores. Autonomy; age of the youngest child; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; and support predicted female counselors' FIW scores.

Keywords: Counselors, females, work-family roles, work-family conflict

Chapter I

Introduction

In 2012 and 2013, Sandberg and Slaughter had differing perspectives on how women are pressured to *do it all*, by achieving success in both their work and family roles (Sandberg, 2013; Slaughter, 2012). During those two years, Sandberg (2013) was the Facebook Chief Operating Officer. She said that every woman should strive to have it all. She criticized women who opted out of careers and leadership positions based on their anticipation of future family plans. Her message to women was not to “leave before you leave” (p. 2). In contrast, the former director of policy planning for the U.S. State Department, Slaughter’s (2012) perspective was, “Why Women Still Can’t Have It All.” Slaughter described how her choice to step down from a powerful government position to be with her family was at odds with the social pressures she believed are part of today’s society. She said women have created myths about their ability to have it all such as “it’s possible if you are just committed enough...it’s possible if you marry the right person, [and]...it’s possible if you sequence it right” (pp. 91-94).

Spar (2012) stated that today’s women are faced with impossible achievement expectations in work and family roles. She cautioned women by stating that “no woman can have it all, and by using all as the standard of success, we are only condemning ourselves and our daughters to failure” (pp. 45-46). In the counseling profession, women are encouraged to move toward more realistic and healthy expectations that include self-acceptance and balance between work and family (Hermann, Ziomek-Daigle, & Dockery, 2014). However, little research has directly examined how counselors report the conflict between work and family roles. In the

present research, the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their demographic, occupational, and family characteristics conflict were investigated.

Background

Women comprise almost half of the United States labor force (47%) and 71% of those women participate in both work and family roles (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Kacmar, 2010). Their family structures may be traditional such as a heterosexual husband and wife or other family constellations may be unmarried partners or gay or lesbian couples. Additionally, their families may include caring for dependent children; grandchildren; and family members who are ill, disabled, or elderly (Carter & McGoldrick, 2005). Support from family members is important to women in managing their varied work and family roles (Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011). These roles are social positions (i.e., worker, mother) that individuals use as a framework for interaction with others and represent expectations for behavior that can provide individuals a clear sense of self (Burke & Reitzes, 1981; Thoits, 1992).

Women who are part of various types of family structures and who participate in both work and family roles face challenges (Christensen, 2013). Specifically, women with children under six years of age experience greater difficulty balancing work and family roles than women with older children (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014). To assist women in these challenges, some women report wanting more family-friendly policies at work such as flexible schedules, part-time work, compressed workweeks, and telecommuting opportunities (Vandello, Hettinger, Bosson, & Siddiqi, 2013). Other women may choose to have less children (Bulanda & Lippman, 2012) or not to work (Percheski, 2008). As noted by Park, Fritz, and Jex (2011); women in today's society have more flexibility in the location in which they work due to innovations in technology. Although, technology has assisted with flexibility in the workplace, technology also

has increasingly blurred the lines between family and work roles for individuals so that time at work is also spent on activities related to the family role and family time is spent on activities related to the work role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

Researchers found that individuals participating in multiple roles simultaneously, such as work and family roles, experience conflict between those roles (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Super, 1980). For women, conflict between work and family roles can be developmentally related to their age (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014; Bulanda & Lippman, 2012; Percheski, 2008). During early adulthood, women's anticipation of work-family conflict was found to affect their future life planning (Barnett, Gareis, James, & Steele, 2003). Well-educated women experienced higher work-family conflict due to more demanding jobs (Schieman & Glavin, 2011), whereas women who planned to delay family formation anticipated less conflict between work and family. Researchers also found that women who struggle with work-family conflict in middle adulthood may delay childbirth, have fewer or no children or reduce career aspirations in favor of family, leave the workforce, or seek a flexible work environment (Cinamon & Rich, 2002; Hill, Erickson, Holmes, & Ferris, 2010; Percheski, 2008; Scrimgeour, 2006). In late adulthood, Malatesta (2007) found that work-family conflict occurs in women as they are more likely to participate in long-term care of children, partners, and parents, while also being employed. Yet, other researchers found women in late adulthood experience the least amount of work-family conflict, as seniority in the workplace allows them more paid time off or autonomy in their work schedules, although at this women's health issues may preclude participation in the workforce (Gordon, Whelan-Berry, & Hamilton, 2007; Robertson-Lang, Major, & Hemming, 2011).

Most of the research on women's experiences of work and family roles has studied women in occupations such as law and medicine (Schleef, 2008; Solomon, 2011). The research that has been done in the counseling field has been primarily qualitative and focused almost exclusively on counselor educators and doctoral students, leaving the experiences of other counseling professionals unexamined (Hermann et al., 2014; Trepal, Stinchfield, & Hiayasoso, 2014). Also, little research was found in the literature on how female counselors manage work and family conflict.

Introduction of Key Constructs and Concepts

The theoretical orientation for the present research study was grounded in Super's (1990) Life-Space Life-Span theory (LSLS) and related research conducted on interrole conflict (Kahn et al., 1964). Super's LSLS theory is comprised of two distinct parts: (1) life-span (i.e., developmental stages) and (2) life-space (i.e., life roles). The life-span part of his theory consists of five developmental stages: (a) growth, (b) exploration, (c) establishment, (d) maintenance, and (e) decline. During the growth stage, an individual becomes aware of interests important to his or her self-concept and during the exploration stage an individual narrows his or her role choices based on self-concept. During establishment, an individual stabilizes in a new role and during maintenance he or she seeks to make improvements in a current role. During decline, an individual reduces his or her participation in a role. The life-space part includes nine adult roles: (a) son or daughter, (b) student, (c) leisurite (the role of an individual pursuing leisure activities), (d) citizen, (e) worker, (f) spouse, (g) homemaker, (h) parent, and (i) pensioner (individual retired from work) (Cook, 1994). The order of the roles as listed are linked to an individual's chronological age, so that the role of son or daughter is the first role an individual experiences and the role of pensioner is a role experienced in later life.

Super's (1990) LSLS theory is supported by two main empirical studies. First, the Career Pattern Study (Super, 1985), a longitudinal study, that empirically supported the five developmental stages of the life-span for each gender (Putnam & Hansen, 1972). Second, in the Work Importance Study (WIS), Super found empirical evidence for the nine life-space roles for adults (Niles & Goodnough, 1996). Super (1990) brought the life-space and life-span of his theory together to provide a holistic perspective of multiple role careers. He also described how situational (i.e., socioeconomic, historical) and personal (i.e., psychological, biological) determinants impact an individual's life-span stages and life-space roles. Three other components of his theory that impact an individual's life-span and life-space include: (a) role salience, (b) decision points, and (c) role conflict. According to Super (1980), when a role is more important to an individual at a particular time in his or her life that role is salient. Also, decision points precede an individual's transition to a role and role conflict occurs when an individual participates in multiple roles simultaneously.

In further research on Super's theory of role conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) found three types of work-family conflict that include: (a) time, (b) strain, and (c) behavior-based. With a limited amount of time available, an individual's participation in multiple roles creates conflict so that the time he or she spends in one role cannot be devoted to other roles. Strain that an individual experiences in one role can impact other roles thus creating conflict for that individual, and behavior in one role may be incompatible with behavior expected in other roles which can create behavior-based conflict. The authors proposed a model in which the three types of conflict occur in two directions: work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering with work (FIW). Their model is supported by empirical research using a sample of

1,933 working adults who indicated antecedents of conflict in both directions (Frone et al., 1992).

Specifically for women, demographic characteristics that contribute to women's experiences of work-family conflict include gender, age, education, and income (Michel et al., 2011). For gender, researchers indicated that women experienced more conflict in work and family roles than men. Bagger, Li, and Gutek (2008) indicated that women experienced more WIF than men, and other researchers indicated that women experienced more FIW than men (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000). For age, Noor (2003) indicated that women's age was not related to the conflict they experienced; whereas, Bruck and Allen (2003) indicated a positive relationship with women's age and their strain-based WIF. Also, Schieman and Glavin (2011) indicated that women's educational level impacts their work-family conflict, with higher educational levels related to higher levels of WIF. Finally, higher annual household income for women was related to their higher levels of WIF (Hennessy, 2009).

Occupational characteristics that influence women's experience of work-family conflict include workplace flexibility, autonomy, and number of hours per week spent in employment (Michel et al., 2011). Goff, Mount, and Jamison (1990) and Gryzwacz and Marks (2000) research indicated that women's experiences of increased workplace autonomy and high workplace flexibility were related to their lower levels of WIF. Whereas, Carlson et al. (2000) indicated that women's high involvement in the work role was related to their increased levels of time, strain, and behavior-based WIF.

Family characteristics that influence women's work-family conflict include marital/partner status; number of children at home under the age of 18; age when first child was born; age of youngest child; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; hours per week

spent in home chores and errands; hours per week spent caring for others; and partner support (Carlson et al., 2000; Neal & Hammer, 2009; Michel et al., 2011). In Noor's (2003) study, married women reported lower levels of WIF than women who were single, divorced, or widowed. In two research studies, women who reported more children present in the home had increased time-based WIF and women who reported a child under the age of five had increased FIW (Allen & Finkelsetein, 2014; Chen, Powell, & Greenhaus, 2009). Additionally, lower levels of WIF were related to women's choice to delay childbirth (Bulanda & Lippman, 2012). According to Lee, Foos, and Clow (2010), women providing elder care experienced higher levels of time and strain-based FIW. And, Carlson et al. (2000) stated that a high level of family involvement for women was related to their behavior-based FIW. Finally, low support from a woman's spouse was related to a woman's increased levels of WIF (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982).

Within the counseling profession, female counselor educators' workplace flexibility influenced their experience of work and family, with more balance between work and family found with counselor educators who had a high degree of workplace flexibility (Hermann et al., 2014; Trepal & Stinchfield, 2012). A supportive spouse significantly influenced female counselor educators' experience of work and family (Hermann et al., 2014). Stinchfield and Trepal (2010) found that younger children in the home also influenced female counselor educators' perceptions of balance between work and family with 38.2% of participants who reported making an effort to have children during the summer break. Also, women with younger children reported difficulty in balancing work and family roles

Importance of the Study

The present research study is important to the counseling profession for two reasons. First, a lack of research exists on female counseling professionals' experiences of work-family

conflict. Previously, researchers examined the work and family roles of women in occupations such as law, management, medicine, business, government, and universities (Fider, Fox, & Wilson, 2014; Schleef, 2008; Shelton, 2006; Slaughter, 2012; Solomon, 2011). Currently, research on work and family roles is focused on a small portion of the counseling profession; female counselor educators and female counseling doctoral students (Stinchfield & Trepal, 2010; Trepal et al., 2014). Further, research in the counseling field that does exist is primarily qualitative in nature (Hermann et al., 2014; Trepal et al., 2014), with the exception of one quantitative study in which tenured counselor educators reported more balance between work and family than non-tenured counselor educators (Stinchfield & Trepal, 2010). Hermann et al. (2014) concluded that future research is needed on female counselors' experience in work and family roles. One research method of doing that is to research work-family conflict with practicing counseling professionals.

A second importance of this research study is that knowledge of work-family conflict can help counselors make informed choices about their roles in work and family (Shelton, 2006). Lawson (2007) stated that conflict between work and family roles impacts counselors and their ability to provide services to clients. Research on counseling practitioners' experiences of work-family conflict could assist counseling professionals to understand work-family conflict and the choices they may have to prevent work-family conflict.

Purpose of the Study

Using Super's (1990) LSLS theory as a theoretical framework, the purpose of the present research study was to determine the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their demographic, occupational, and family characteristics. In the present research study, the demographic characteristics included ethnicity, age, education, and annual household

income. The occupational characteristics included hours per week spent in employment, level of state licensure, number of practice settings, number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree, workplace flexibility, and workplace autonomy. The family characteristics included marital/partner status; number of children at home under the age of 18; age of youngest child living at home; care of elderly, disabled or ill family members; hours per week spent in home chores and errands; hours per week spent caring for others; and source of support.

Research Questions

The following research questions were investigated.

1. What is the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their ethnicity, age, educational level, and annual household income?
2. What is the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their hours per week spent in employment, state licensure, number of practice settings, number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree, workplace flexibility, and workplace autonomy?
3. What is the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their marital/partner status; number of children at home under the age of 18; age of youngest child; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; hours per week spent in home chores and errands; hours per week spent caring for others; source of support; and support?

Limitations of the Study

For the present research, limitations included a self-report and cross-sectional survey design. Self-report relies on the honesty of participants because their responses may be influenced by personal beliefs, opinions, or a socially desirable response (Miller, 2012). Participants who completed the survey for the present study may have been more interested in

the topic than those who chose not to respond or their responses may be based in what they believe is socially desirable, such as experiencing less work-family conflict. Thus, a limitation for this study was that participants' responses may be biased or may not include a representative sample of the population of female counselors.

A second limitation was that participants were representative of a subset of the population at one specific point in time, thus, the sample may not be representative of the larger population of female counselors who participate in work and family roles. In a previous study, Nomaguchi (2009) found an increase in work-family conflict among adult employees in a 20 year period beginning in 1977 and ending in 1997. Therefore, it is possible that the expectations for women in work and family are different for participants in the present study, than in the past and in the future.

A third limitation of this research was that review of the research revealed numerous variables significantly related to work-family conflict such as supervisor support, personality type, and family friendly workplace policies (Michel et al., 2011). For the present research, it was not possible to investigate all of the variables suggested in the literature. It is possible that variables not chosen in the present research would have significant relationships with female counselors' work-family conflict.

Delimitations of the Study

Participants in the present study were limited to female counselors who participate in work and family roles. According to Carlson et al. (2000) compared to males, females experience more WIF and FIW. Female participants in this study were also those who supplied their email address to the professional organizations, had access to the internet and a working email address. A final delimitation is that all participants were considered as having a family by

the presence of one or more children, partner, spouse, or elderly relative residing in their homes and were employed at least part time. Thus, the results of this research included voluntary female counselors who reported involvement in work and family roles based on the criteria for a family.

Assumptions of the Study

In the present study, an assumption was that the instruments used were valid and reliable. A second assumption was that female counselors do experience work-family conflict. Finally, it was assumed that participants will answer all survey items honestly and accurately.

Definition of Terms

Counselor. An individual with a master's degree in counseling that builds a collaborative relationship with clients and uses specific interventions to improve client mental health (Riebschleger, 2001).

FIW. Conflict between work and family roles that occurs in a direction so that family interferes with work (Carlson et al., 2000).

Gender roles. A set of norms for the roles in which men and women take part in (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010).

Life-space. Life-space is comprised of the major adult roles an individual may be involved in. These include son or daughter, student, leisurite, citizen, worker, spouse, homemaker, parent, and pensioner (Cook, 1994).

Life-span. Life-span represents the major life stages individuals experience throughout their lifetime. These stages are growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline (Zunker, 2006).

Roles. Social positions that individuals use as a framework for interaction with others, represent expectations for behavior, and give individuals a clear sense of self (Burke & Reitzes, 1981; Thoits, 1992).

Role salience. The “relative importance of a role in relation to an individual’s other major life roles” (Sverko, 2001, p. 123).

WIF. Conflict between work and family roles that occurs in a direction so that work interferes with family (Carlson et al., 2000).

Workplace autonomy. Workplace autonomy is comprised of three types of autonomy that include “*work method autonomy* (i.e., the degree of discretion/choice individuals have regarding the procedures/methods they utilize in going about their work), *work scheduling autonomy* (i.e., the extent to which workers feel they can control the scheduling/sequencing/timing of their work activities), and *work criteria autonomy* (i.e., the degree to which workers have the ability to modify or choose the criteria used for evaluating their performance)” (Breugh, 1999, pp. 359-360).

Work-family conflict. A type of inter-role conflict in which requirements to fulfill one role (work/family) make it difficult to fulfill the requirements of the other role (family/work) (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010).

Chapter II

Literature Review

Introduction

This literature review focuses on women's experiences of work and family roles and specifically examines the challenges for women participating in both roles (Christensen, 2013; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Super's (1980) Life-Span Life-Space theory provides a theoretical framework to describe the interaction of multiple roles that can lead to conflict. The literature on work-family conflict is reviewed and includes a perspective of how conflict occurs in two directions: work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering with work (FIW) (Frone et al., 1992). Finally, the demographic, occupational, and family characteristics that influence work-family conflict of mental health professionals and female counselors are examined.

Life-Span Life-Space Theory

Brief History

Donald Super's research began with his Career Development Theory in which he describes an individual's career process. In contrast to Parsons' (1909) trait-and-factor theory that matched individuals' personality traits with their occupations; Super's (1957) Career Development Theory linked individuals' developmental stages with their careers. Later in 1981, Super revised his Career Development Theory by introducing his Developmental Self-Concept Theory (Super & Knasel, 1981). In his revised theory, the developmental component was retained from his previous Career Development Theory but he also brought more emphasis on the influence of an individual's self-concept to his or her career. Super's (1990) final revised theory resulted in the Life-Span Life-Space (LSLS) theory, which departs from an emphasis on a worker role and instead recognizes the interaction of all social roles of individuals in a contextual

manner. Around that time, researchers like Burke and Reitzes (1981) and Thoits (1992) provided a definition of roles as social positions that individuals take within society which represent expectations for their behaviors when they interact with others. Social roles also give individuals a clear sense of self. Over a period of 40 years, the significance of Super's theoretical revisions was the change from a stage model, to a model inclusive of stages where individuals adapt to their changing life roles based on the social and contextual factors within their environment (Blustein, 1997; Savickas, 1997). Super's LSLS theory is comprised of two distinct parts: (1) life-span (i.e., developmental stages) and (2) life-space (i.e., life roles).

Life-Span

For the first part of Super's (1980) LSLS theory, life-span, five stages are included: (a) growth, (b) exploration, (c) establishment, (d) maintenance, and (e) decline. Researchers studied the career development of individuals across the five stages (Coogan & Chen, 2007; Scharf, 2006). During the growth stage, they found that individuals are aware of attitudes, interests, and needs associated with their self-concept; whereas, during the second stage, exploration, individuals narrow their role choices. During the third stage, establishment, individuals experience a new role and stabilize in that role. During the fourth stage, maintenance, individuals' continuously adjust to their current role to improve performance in that role. Finally, during the stage of decline, individuals move toward reduced output within a role.

The five life-span stages were empirically supported through a 25-year longitudinal study, the Career Pattern Study (CPS, Super, 1985) that examined tasks and stages of career development with a sample of 100 men at ages 14, 21, 25, and 36. Super's analysis of the results of his CPS study indicated that the five stages overlap and are not strictly defined by age limits. In his CPS study, evidence of the exploration stage was found in 80% of participants at age 21,

50% of participants at age 25, and 37% of participants at age 36. Super also indicated that a transition occurs between the exploration and establishment stages around age 25, with 50% of participants in the exploration stage and 50% of participants in the establishment stage. By age 36, 64% of participants had reached the establishment phase, which indicated a transition out of exploration.

Additionally, Super (1985) found with the CPS results that each transition to the next life-span stage includes recycling through one or more of the previous stages. In his study, 70% of participants who were between the ages of 25 to 36 exhibited that they were in the establishment stage as indicated by occupation stability. However, 30% of participants who changed occupations indicated recycling through the exploration stage and then moving forward to the establishment phase in new careers. As an example of recycling through the life-span stages Super (1990) stated,

A high school graduate entering his or her first job usually goes through a period of growth in the new role, of exploration of the nature and expectations of that role. He or she becomes established (and perhaps disestablished) in it, maintains the role if successful, and then experiences decline or disengagement, if with further growth he or she becomes ready to make a job or occupational change (p. 215).

Although Super completed two major studies on the life-span stages, Swanson (1992) criticized Super's stage approach because of Super's focus on the exploration stage with adolescents, with little research conducted with middle and older adults.

Several researchers validated the existence of the exploration stage in adolescents and examined the life-span stages in middle and older adults (Hess & Jepsen, 2009; Hirschi, Abessolo, & Froidevaux, 2015; Kim, 2014). With adolescents, researchers found evidence for

the exploration stage of 60 elementary and 60 middle school students in Italy (Ferrari et al., 2015), 228 at-risk adolescents in Switzerland, 223 first-year students enrolled at a Swiss university, and 266 students enrolled at a German university (Hirschi et al., 2015). Also, the presence of the life-span stages was found in research of middle and older adults (Hess & Jepsen, 2009; Simpson, 1984). In a study of middle adulthood African American women in the establishment phase of their law careers, Simpson (1984) found women reported satisfaction in the work role and disappointment in the family role. In a similar study by Jepsen and Dickson (2003), the authors found 146 rural high school graduates who reported they were in the occupational establishment stage, which occurred 25 years after their occupational exploration stage. Hess and Jepsen (2009) found significant differences in the life-span stages of 345 working adults in Australia who reported more job satisfaction and commitment to their jobs in the exploration stage than in other stages. In a qualitative study, nine Koreans who were in later adulthood described their transition into retirement as a process of learning a new role (Kim, 2014).

Life-Space

The second part of Super's LSLS theory, life-space provides a more holistic perspective of an individual's career that shifts the focus from solely one work role to a perspective that embraces the interaction of all life roles (Blustein, 1997). Super (1990) described life-space as "the constellation of positions occupied and [the social] roles played by a person" throughout an individual's life (p. 218). For Super, the term career does not just equate to work-related activities. Instead, Super (1980) defined career as "the combination and sequence of roles played by a person during the course of a lifetime" (p. 282). He used the term occupational career to refer to occupational positions of a work role. Life-space consists of nine major life roles found

for each gender: (a) child (son or daughter), (b) student, (c) leisurite (i.e., role of an individual pursuing leisure activities), (d) citizen, (e) worker, (f) spouse, (g) homemaker, (h) parent, and (i) pensioner (i.e., role of an individual retired from work) (Super, 1980). The nine major life roles are listed in chronological order of when an individual experiences the role, so that some roles are experienced early in life, some throughout life, and some may not be experienced until later in life. Additionally, at distinct points of the life-span, an individual may participate in one role and at another time the individual may participate in multiple roles.

Empirical support for Super's life-space is found in the Work Importance Study (WIS) that was conducted in 12 countries in which evidence was found for the universality of the nine major life roles (Niles & Goodnough, 1996; Sverko, 2001). Evidence of the nine roles was also found for both genders, with differences indicated in the way individuals experience the various roles (Perrone & Civileto, 2004). Lytle, Foley, and Cotter (2015) described the importance of continuous evaluation of how individuals participate in their life-space roles. In their recent research, they indicated that in today's society the role of pensioner is no longer associated with non-participation in work, as many individuals extend their work role through full, part-time, and volunteer employment following retirement from their careers.

Nevill and Super's (1988) precedence for researchers who study Super's life-space roles is a dichotomous research design with the work role compared to other roles. In their research with 372 undergraduate students, they found that women were more committed to work and home roles than males. The dichotomous design was also found in the review of the literature on the reversal trends of the roles of a child, parent, and spouse in which Macfie, Brumariu, and Lyons-Ruth (2015) discussed how a change in the parent-child relationship can negatively affect the socio-emotional development of the child, increasing the risk for psychopathology. Martin,

Blozis, Boeninger, Masarik and Conger (2014) found that entry into the spouse and parent role was associated with an earlier decrease in substance use, while entry into the work role had no effect on problem behavior.

Symoens and Bracke (2015) said that when newlywed and cohabiting couples participated in work and family roles, cohabiting couples reported lower levels of satisfaction in life than married couples and higher levels of depression than married women. In a study of female entrepreneurs participating in work and family roles, Shelton (2006) found that women who shared their management responsibilities were able to balance work and family roles more effectively. Yet, in Vair's (2013) qualitative research with 21 mothers participating in full-time employment, mothers reported tension between the work and family roles and difficulty in achieving balance.

Life-Career Rainbow

Super (1990) used a Life-Career Rainbow because he "sought to bring [the] life stage and role theory together to convey a comprehensive picture of multiple role careers" (p. 211) (see Figure 1). Although Super used the Life-Career Rainbow to depict his LSLS theory, critics still viewed his theory as fragmented in its structure and lacking measurable constructs (Brown & Brooks, 1990; Salomone, 1996). In Super's (1990) Rainbow, the outer, or overarching band, represents the five career stages of the life-span in which an individual can recycle through a stage at any time. In the second band or the band below the outer band, the life-span stages are developmentally linked to an individual's age ranges. The remaining bands moving inward to the center of the rainbow comprise the nine life-space roles, as each band corresponds to a life role. Additionally, depicted below the bands of the rainbow are two determinants; situational

(i.e., socioeconomic historical) and personal (i.e., psychological biological). Both determinants impact an individual's stages and roles.

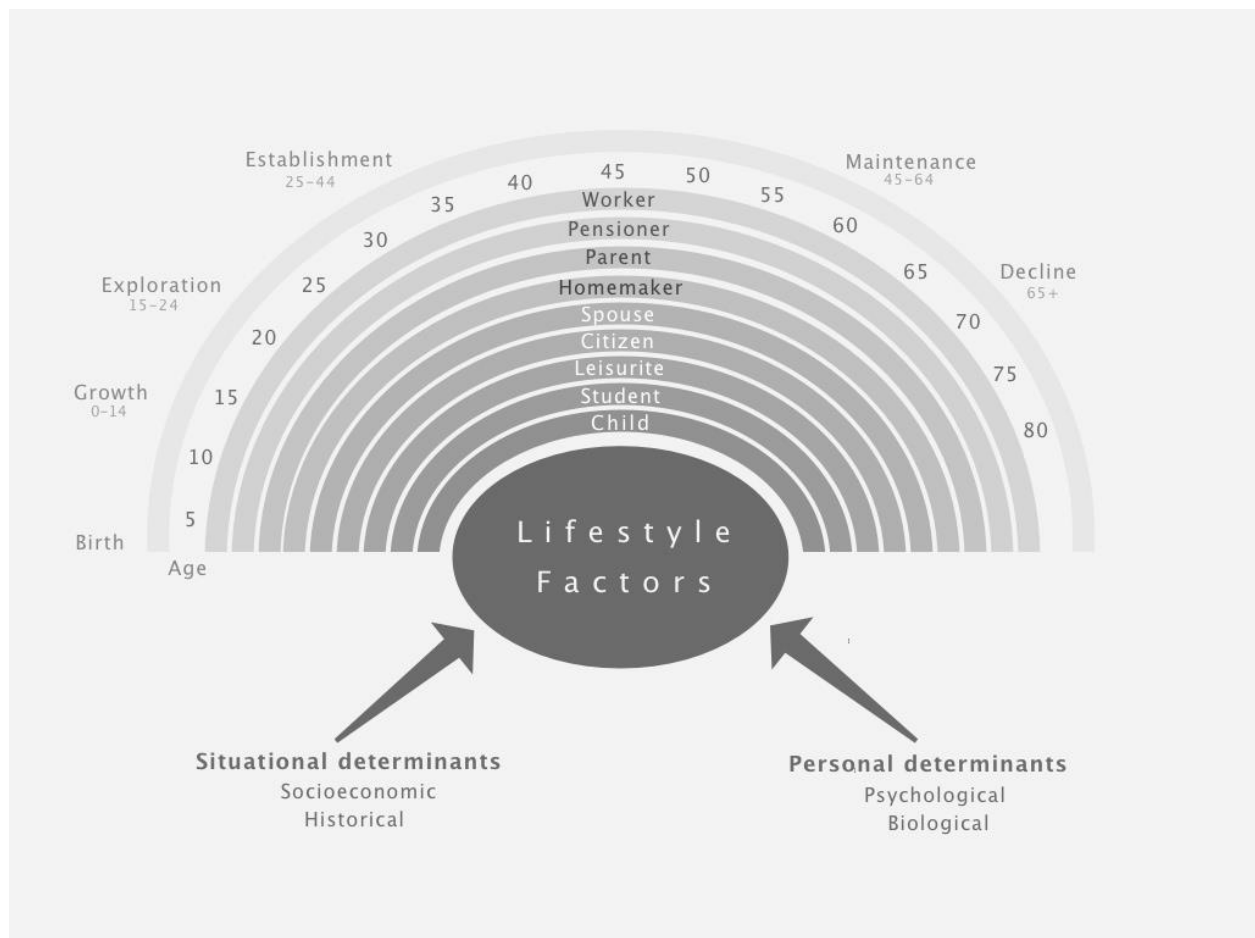


Figure 1. The Life-Career Rainbow in which the outer band represents the five life-span stages and the inner bands represent the nine roles of the life-space. Adapted from “A Life-Span, Life-Space Approach to Career Development” by D. E. Super, 1980, *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 16(3), p. 289. Copyright 1980 with permission from Elsevier.

Age ranges. With the age ranges that are depicted in the rainbow, recent researchers found that individuals perceive and adapt to their roles based on developmental changes related to their age (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014; Barclay, Stoltz, & Chung, 2011). The age ranges that are depicted in the second band of the rainbow begin with the first age range that includes children. In this age range from 0 to 14 years old, children experience the growth stage of the life-span in which they establish self-concept and interests. Cognitive theories of development

suggest that children develop schemas about behaviors expected of each gender, which then influence occupational choices during adulthood (Donleavy, 2008). For example, through their education and family life style, young girls may limit their future career options allowing for marriage and motherhood by choosing occupations expected of women as care-takers; such as teachers, nurses, and counselors (Gottfredson & Becker, 1981; Okimoto & Heilman, 2012; Ramvi & Davies, 2010).

The next age range is comprised of adolescents between the ages of 15 to 24 in the exploration life stage. Hawes et al. (2015) described adolescents in this stage as taking on more responsibilities and separating from the family of origin. Increasing responsibilities include exploration, contemplation, and participation in various work roles. Novakovic and Fouad (2013) found that adolescent females' age was a significant predictor in that as females get older they plan for more traditional careers, whereas adolescent males continue to pursue careers that conform to masculine gender expectations (Gottfredsen & Becker, 1981). In additional research on the effect of gender on work and family role experiences, females who rejected traditional gender roles were generally the most educated (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). Exploration of the family role in this stage involves forming intimate relationships outside of the family of origin, to include casual or intimate romantic relationships (Sandberg-Thoma & Dush, 2014). In a study of 1,195 men and women, Skogbrott, Levenson, Torsheim, and Wold (2014) found that females were committed to the family role earlier than males, whereas males were committed to the work role earlier than females. Other findings were that for both genders, individuals who explored higher education and the work role in their early 20s, experienced more positive functioning in adulthood.

In the next age range of the rainbow, 24 to 44, individuals in early adulthood are in the establishment stage of their work and family roles. During this age range, some individuals may delay or do not establish themselves in a family role and their focus is on their careers (Carter & McGoldrick, 2005). Whereas, for other individuals who establish themselves in the family role and when both partners work, the role of work is negotiated in each partner's life. Egalitarian couples are more likely to make choices in which both partners' careers are considered (Pixley, 2009). However, in a study that asked middle-class dual-earner couples in traditional families whose career was given priority in the relationship, participants were four times more likely to report the husband's career as the priority (Pixley & Moen, 2003). Rexroat (1985) said that women who are married or are in a long-term committed relationship are less likely to be in a work role than women who are not married. Also, as women establish themselves in the spouse and homemaker role, they take on the responsibility of maintaining a household and caring for others (Mattingly & Sayer, 2006). As couples begin to explore the parent role, Sandberg (2013) said that men typically focus on the worker role as providers for their family and women may forgo participation in leadership positions and in the work role because of anticipation of future conflict between work and family roles.

In the fourth age range of middle adulthood that is between the ages of 45 to 64, individuals are in the maintenance stage of the work role. Super (1990) suggested that males in this age range concentrate on building their careers, having professional identities, and becoming experts in their chosen professions and careers. Similarly, women in this age range who choose not to have children focus on their careers and work role. Choi's (2002) research found that women without children reported more opportunities for career advancement during middle adulthood, similar to their male counterparts. In contrast, women who raise children may

experience a decline in participation in their work role, as the parent role becomes more salient (Carter & McGoldrick, 2005). An example is Wallis' (2004) statement that since 2000, the number of professional women who choose to stay home with their children has increased. Grant-Vallone and Ensher (2011) found mothers that work full-time prefer careers that allow them to work from home or allow for flexible schedules.

In the last age range 65 plus, late adulthood; men and women who have had no interruptions in employment and have reached the peak of their careers move into the decline stage of the work role and take on the pensioner role (Choi, 2002). In research of men and women who enter the pensioner role, Gordon et al. (2007) found that women were more likely to want to continue working past the age of 65 and that they sought more challenges at work than males. In comparison, Degges-White (2003) said that women who left or reduced their participation in the workforce while raising children, may cycle through the life-span stages from decline to a return to the stages of exploration and re-establishment of their careers. In research of men and women between the ages of 50 to 75, Moen and Flood (2013) found women were more likely to reduce their participation in paid work, but not volunteer work when compared with males. In longitudinal data of 234 couples in the sandwich generation, women reported that a shift occurred in the priority of parent and child roles (Neal & Hammer, 2009). Specifically in American society, care for elderly relatives falls primarily on women (Lee et al., 2010). For both genders, participation in the leisurite and family-related roles, such as parent and grandparent roles increase (Carter & McGoldrick, 2005).

Determinants. As depicted in the career rainbow, situational determinants can impact an individual's life-span stages and the nine roles through historic, social, or economic factors in the environment; whereas personal determinants can impact an individual's attitudes, values,

interests, and genetics (Super, 1980). Peake and McDowall (2012) indicated several situational and personal determinants that impacted an individual's voluntary change in career. In their qualitative study, seven participants described situational determinants that influenced their career change such as job loss, support of colleagues, overseas market, and advances in technology. Personal determinants of participants included finding new interests, feeling frustrated and dissatisfied with work, and wishing to start a family. Additionally, participants viewed changes in social and personal determinants as the catalyst that prompted career change, which brought them to exploration of a new career.

Life-Span Life-Space Components

In Super's (1980) LSLS theory, three mediating components impact an individual's progression through the five life-span developmental stages and the nine life-space roles, which include decision points, role salience, and role conflict. Decision points occur due to changing situational and personal determinants, such as a shift in the economy that impacts an individual's employment or an individual's financial family needs or an individual's achievement in an area such as promotion in the workplace. According to Super (1980),

Decision points occur before and at the time of taking on a new role, of giving up an old role, and of making significant changes in the nature of an existing role. These are illustrated by the decision to enter a school, college, or university when there is some freedom of choice of age and entry and type of school; by decisions concerning the use of leisure while a pupil or student; by decisions to enter or not to enter the labor market, to apply for and accept or decline a particular job, to work part time and return to full-time job training for updating or for another occupation; and by decisions as to whether, when, how, and where to retire (p. 291).

An individual's decision points in one role may be tied to or interact with other roles, or decision points may be isolated and unrelated to other roles. When faced with decision points, individuals adapt to situational and personal determinants that can result in a change in role (Super, Osborne, Walsh, Brown, & Niles, 1992). The shift in the nine life-space roles that occurs throughout the five life-span stages is the result of an individual's decision points and their adaptability, "the quality of being able to change, without great difficulty, to fit new or changed circumstances" (Savickas, 1997, p. 254). In a research study with male and female college juniors and seniors faced with a decision point of shifting from the student role to the work and family role, no significant differences were found in the decision to commit to a work role; however, women were more likely to have made a decision to commit to the family role (Friedman & Weissbrod, 2005).

The result of an individual's decision point can be because of the salience of a role, the second mediating component in Super's LSLS theory. Role salience occurs when a certain role is more important to an individual than his or her other roles, thus he or she is more committed to that role at a particular time (Super, 1990). Role salience allows individuals to understand, enact and prioritize their multiple roles (Cook, 1994; Reitzes & Mutran, 1994; Sverko, 2001). Nevill and Super (1988) identified three elements that impact role salience: (a) commitment, (b) participation, and (c) knowledge. Commitment is an individual's sense of belonging with other people due to a certain salient role. How an individual participates in a role, or the time and energy he or she spends in a role determines the salience of that role. An individual's knowledge gained from the direct or vicarious experience in a role determines the salience of that role.

Super (1980) believed that "roles increase and decrease in importance with the life stage in which an individual finds himself [or herself], according to the developmental tasks which are

encountered with increasing age” (p. 288). Individual assessment of the salience of roles helps that individual make decisions about the priority of one role in relationship to his or her other life roles (Super et al., 1992). Researchers found that the salient role to an individual changes throughout an individual’s life (Cook, 1994; Sverko, 2001). Sverko (2001) found differences in adolescents’ perceptions of whether a role was salient versus adults’ perceptions of a salient role, in which adolescents indicated higher salience in their daughter or son role, whereas adults indicated higher salience in their work role.

The third mediating component that impacts an individual’s life stages and life roles is role conflict. Super (1980) hypothesized that participation in multiple roles simultaneously in the same life-stage leads to role conflict. Kahn et al. (1964) found that role conflict occurred when incompatible pressures between two or more roles existed.

Work-Family Conflict

Specific to conflict in work and family roles, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) reviewed the literature and proposed a model for the study of work-family conflict. They defined work-family conflict as “a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (p. 77). They outlined three specific types of work-family conflict: (a) time-based, (b) strain-based, and (c) behavior-based. Time-based conflict occurs when time spent in one role cannot be spent in other roles, strain-based occurs when stress experienced in one role affects performance in other roles, and behavior-based occurs when acceptable behaviors in one role are incompatible with behavioral expectations of other roles. Further research by Frone et al. (1992) indicated that a bi-directional component of work-family conflict exists between work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering

with work (FIW). The authors emphasized the importance of measuring both directions of conflict between work and family, as distinct antecedents and outcomes.

Antecedents of Work-Family Conflict

Empirical evidence indicated that three main characteristics are antecedents to an individual's work-family conflict, which include: (a) demographic, (b) occupational, and (c) family (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Noor, 2003; 2004). Researchers indicated that these three characteristics increase work-family conflict for individuals (Carlson et al., 2000; Frone et al., 1992), whereas other researchers indicated that they decrease work-family conflict (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982; Bulanda & Lippman, 2012). Additionally, studies indicated that the three characteristics influence the directionality of work-family conflict so that some contribute to WIF, and others contribute to FIW (Bagger et al., 2008; Frone et al., 1992).

When assessing for work-family conflict in general; Allen, Herst, Bruck, and Sutton (2000) found that higher levels of work-family conflict were associated with negative work outcomes; such as job dissatisfaction, job burnout, and job turnover. Other researchers who measured the direction of conflict found that FIW was negatively correlated with job satisfaction, higher levels of depression, and poor physical health for women (Frone et al., 1992; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1994). In both studies, direction of conflict was measured with Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian's (1996) Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict scales. In comparison, Madsen (2006) used the Carlson et al.'s (2000) Work-Family Conflict Scale to measure the direction and type of conflict in 221 employees and found teleworkers reported significantly lower levels of strain-based WIF than non-teleworkers. Thus, researchers measure general work-family conflict, direction of work-family conflict, or direction and type of work-family conflict (i.e., WIF, time-based FIW).

Demographic characteristics. For demographic characteristics, research results were inconsistent on the relationship of ethnicity and work-family conflict (Cole & Secret, 2012; Grzywacz et al., 2007). Grzywacz et al. (2007) found low work-family conflict in a small sample of 26 Hispanic immigrant employees, compared to no significant differences in work-family conflict in Roehling, Jarvis, and Swope's (2005) study based on ethnicity of a large sample of 1,761 White, Black, and Hispanic men and women in the United States. In one study of 607 African American women, racial bias in the workplace was perceived as increasing conflict that women experienced between work and family roles (Cole & Secret, 2012).

In a study of gender differences and conflict between work and family roles in a sample of 225 employees comprised of 142 women and 83 males, women reported greater levels of strain-based WIF than men and greater levels of time, strain, and behavior-based FIW than men (Carlson et al., 2000). Frone et al. (1992) found that gender differences were attributed to women spending more combined time on work and family activities than men. Whereas, in a different study of 816 working men and women, men viewed their work role as consistent with their family role in the sense that being a worker allows them to provide for their family (Reitzes & Mutran, 2002). Bielby and Bielby (1989) found that women believed they needed to trade off or choose between work and family roles.

Cinamon and Rich (2002) examined WIF and FIW with a sample of 213 married employees living in Israel and found that women reported experiencing more WIF than men. In Cinamon's (2010) study on anticipation of work-family conflict that measured WIF and FIW, women who planned to reduce professional aspirations for family involvement reported less expected WIF; whereas, women who wanted to achieve in both work and family reported higher anticipated WIF. In a sample of 163 employees, women were affected less by the impact of FIW

on job satisfaction, when compared with males (Bagger et al., 2008). The authors speculated that women experienced family interfering with work less because their roles were often assumed to be primarily a family role.

For women involved in two care giving roles, such as the sandwich generation in which women care for children and aging parents, in a sample of 225 couples; women reported lower WIF and higher FIW than men (Neal & Hammer, 2009). In an earlier study of 309 couples of the sandwich generation that used Netemeyer et al.'s (2006) Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict Scales, Hammer and Neal (2008) found no significant differences between wives and husbands on WIF. However, wives experienced significantly more FIW than husbands because care of elderly family members was viewed as primarily the wife's responsibility

Inconsistent research exists on the relationship between women's age and work-family conflict. Bruck and Allen (2003) indicated that age was positively associated with strain-based WIF in women, whereas Noor (2003) found that age of women was not a predictor of WIF or FIW. Gordon, Beatty, and Whelan-Berry (2002) found that older women reported less work-family conflict than younger women because younger women reported their career building years coincided with expansion of their families (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014). In a study of 489 working women in which the direction of conflict was measured, Gordon et al. (2007) found that women age 50 and older experienced a higher level of WIF when compared to their level of FIW. Older women reported making intentional choices about participation in work and family that allowed them to experience their work and family roles in ways that were more satisfying.

Other demographic characteristics such as educational level and socioeconomic status have been examined in work-family conflict research. In data from 2,544 individuals that participated in the 2002 National Study of the Changing Workforce, Schieman and Glavin

(2011) found that well-educated individuals experienced higher levels of WIF due to job-related stressors. Individuals with less than a high school degree and who worked shift-work also experienced higher levels of WIF. In a study that type but not direction of conflict was examined, participants of higher income households reported experiencing more time-based work-family conflict, whereas individuals without sufficient annual income reported experiencing time and strain-based work-family conflict (Steiber, 2009). Individuals in the lower income group reported participating in more difficult work and working more hours, than individuals with higher income. Research specifically about women and their socioeconomic status indicated that the higher their socioeconomic status was, the higher they experienced WIF, in comparison to women in lower socioeconomic status (Hennessy, 2009).

Occupational characteristics. For occupational characteristics, work-family conflict is impacted by individuals' job autonomy, workplace flexibility, occupation, and number of hours per week spent in employment (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014; Dierdorff & Ellington, 2008; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Hill et al., 2010). Grzywacz and Marks (2000) indicated that increased job autonomy and decision-making about work based on positive and negative spillover between work and family was related to lower levels of WIF. In a sample of 4,107 participants from 23 countries in Europe, participants with a high level of job autonomy reported experiencing less work-family conflict (Stieber, 2009). In an extensive study of 10,687 participants from 21 countries, researchers found that a high level of workplace autonomy was related to lower strain-based WIF in women (Lyness, Gornick, Stone, & Grotto, 2012).

Hill et al. (2010) found lower levels of work-family conflict in flexible working environments because workers reported they were able to work more hours before experiencing work-family conflict. In a meta-analysis, Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, and Schockly (2013) found a

negative relationship between WIF and workplace flexibility, yet no significant relationship was found between FIW and workplace flexibility. The authors discussed the possibility that having more flexibility at work may increase an individual's involvement in family-related tasks in ways that do not create conflict with their work role.

In a review across 126 occupations, individuals in occupations that involved responsibility for others and substantial interaction with others were more likely to experience higher work-family conflict (Dierdorff & Ellington, 2008). Examples of these occupations are police work, general practitioners, and mental health professionals. Carlson et al. (2000) found increased levels of time, strain, and behavior-based WIF in individuals with a high level of work role involvement. Hartung and Rogers (2000) examined professional work settings of women and found significant WIF for women with equally high levels of commitment to roles in work and family. In their study of 126 female and 145 male medical students, the authors found that female medical students were equally committed to their work and family roles and demonstrated more commitment to the work role. Additionally, in a study involving over 300 government employees, Carlson and Kacmar (2000) found that when individuals experienced conflict the less salient role was perceived by employees to be the source of conflict. For example, when the family role was highly salient to an employee, the work role was perceived to be the source of conflict. Frone et al. (1992) replicated that finding in a sample size of 1,616 employed individuals, when they found that individuals with low salience in a family role perceived the family role created conflict in the work role.

Women working over 35 hours per week reported greater FIW than men, although no differences in WIF were found between men and women working over 35 hours per week in a sample of 690 dual-earner couples (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014). Adkins and Premeaux (2012)

found a linear relationship between WIF and the number of hours an individual worked; however, they found a curvilinear relationship between FIW and the number of hours worked. In Hughes' (2007) research, the number of hours worked was not related to WIF. The author concluded that autonomy and flexibility in the workplace helped reduce the negative impact of longer work hours. Additional findings of Matthews, Swody, and Barnes-Farrell (2012) suggested that the more hours individuals spent in the work role, the more individuals perceived higher WIF.

Family characteristics. Research on family characteristics and work-family conflict included an individual's marital status; number of children at home under the age of 18; age of the youngest child; individual's age when the first child was born; hours per week spent in home chores and errands; hours per week spent caring for others; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; and support (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014; Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982; Carlson et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2010; Minnotte, 2012; Noor, 2003). In a sample of 147 British women with children, Noor (2003) found that married women reported lower levels of WIF than women who were single, divorced, or widowed. In a different study of a sample of 2,335 workers, single mothers reported more FIW than single fathers, married fathers, and married mothers (Minnotte, 2012). Differences were attributed to single mothers' perceptions of greater family demand and having fewer resources, such as support from family and friends. However, no differences in work-family conflict were found in a sample of 329 married versus unmarried elder care providers (Barrah, Shultz, Baltes, & Stolz, 2004).

Additional family characteristics that Chen et al. (2009) found in a sample of 528 employees included when more children were present in the home parents experienced an increase in time-based WIF. However, in a study of 118 female nurses, number of children in

the home was not significantly related to FIW (Okonkwo, 2014). In a study of 690 employed individuals with children, the age of children living at home was a predictor of work-family conflict for parents, with level of FIW higher when the youngest child in the household was age five or younger (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014). The authors found that FIW for parents declined when the youngest child reached preschool age; however, their WIF declined when the youngest child was between 6 and 12 years old. Between the ages of 12 to 18, parents' WIF and FIW remained stable and after the youngest child reached the age of 18, both WIF and FIW declined. In the same study, parents with no children in the home, and parents with grown children who had moved out of the house reported the least amount of FIW.

The age at which a woman had her first child was also a predictor of work-family conflict in a sample of 147 working mothers (Noor, 2004). In a cross-sectional quantitative study using a sample of 1,953 employed women who were parents of a child under the age of 18 and were married or living with a partner, Bulanda and Lippman (2012) found that women who delayed childbirth reported experiencing less WIF. Also, the authors found that the age at which a woman had her first child was a stronger predictor of work-family conflict than occupational characteristics.

The number of hours spent in the family role impacts individual's work-family conflict and perceptions about the source of that conflict (Carlson et al., 2000; Dugan, Matthews, & Barnes-Farrell, 2012). For the number of hours spent in the family role, in a sample size of 1,121 working participants Carlson et al. found that a high level of involvement in the family role was associated with behavior-based FIW. Yet, in a sample of 289 undergraduate students, Dugan et al. found that when individuals felt they were not spending sufficient time in the family role, they devoted more time to the family role and were more likely to report experiencing WIF.

In the same study, time spent in the work role was perceived by participants as related to WIF, yet time spent in the family role was not perceived to be related to FIW.

In a study of 571 female full-time employees that used Carlson et al.'s (2000) WIF and FIW sub-scales to measure work-family conflict, Lee et al. (2010) found that women who provided elder care experienced significantly higher levels of time and strain-based FIW than women who did not provide elder care. In Lee's (1997) early research of 67 employees with elder care responsibilities, women reported that caring for elderly parents or family members was often more demanding than caring for children, yet in Lee et al.'s (2010) study, women who provided childcare experienced higher FIW than women who provided elder care and no childcare. In another study of 329 elder care providers, no significant differences were found in FIW between married and non-married elder care providers and the amount of time spent each week providing eldercare was not related to FIW (Barrah et al., 2004). In a sample of 67 active caregivers; Li, Shaffer, and Bagger (2015) found that when care of the elderly was highly demanding participants reported higher FIW than when elder care was less demanding.

Spousal support was a predictor of less work-family conflict for women (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982). In a study of 115 college women with at least one child in the home, Beutell and Greenhaus found that spousal support was significant in reducing the amount of work-family conflict experienced in women. In a meta-analytic review based on 178 samples, Michel et al. (2011) found that increased support from family members was related to a decrease in FIW. In a study of 1,826 married individuals, Thoits (1986) indicated that anxiety scores for employed mothers were higher than employed fathers. In a longitudinal study of 621 participants (Frone et al., 1992) and a second longitudinal study of 366 women (Frone et al., 1994), no relationships

were found between individuals' FIW and their family satisfaction; however, increased work-family conflict was negatively related to family satisfaction.

Work-Family Conflict of Mental Health Professionals

Researchers examined similar demographic, occupational, and family characteristics that influence the level of work-family conflict experienced specifically by mental health professionals (Duan, Brown, & Keller, 2010; Olarte, 2004). Kalliath, Hughes, and Newcombe (2012) used the Carlson et al. (2000) Work-Family Conflict Scale with 439 social workers and found that social workers experienced time, strain, and behavior-based WIF and FIW. The highest level of conflict reported was strain-based WIF and the lowest level of conflict reported was strain-based FIW. For the demographic characteristic of gender, a sample of 83 male counseling psychologists reported experiencing work-family conflict. They stated that their greatest challenge was maintaining a sense of balance between work and family (Duan et al., 2010). Rupert, Stevanovic, and Hunley (2009) found that 205 male psychologists reported more WIF when compared to 282 female psychologists, however no significant differences were found in their FIW. In a study of female psychiatrists' personal and professional choices, females in academic institutions reported more work role satisfaction, which was attributed to higher socioeconomic status and educational level (Olarte, 2004).

Occupational characteristics of mental health professionals that influence the level of work-family conflict include workplace flexibility, workplace autonomy, workplace setting, number of hours spent in employment, and level of professional experience. In a study of 439 Australian social workers, Kalliath and Kalliath (2013) found that a flexible work environment reduced participants' WIF. Rupert et al. (2009) found with a sample of 487 psychologists who had greater workplace autonomy, they reported lower WIF.

For workplace setting, women psychiatrists favored working in a private practice setting because of the work flexibility found within that environment, as well as the ability to match work schedules with their children's school schedules (Olarate, 2004). In the same study, female psychiatrists reported spending more time in their work role as opposed to the family role when the work role was an academic setting. Additionally, in a sample of 487 psychologists, Rupert et al. (2009) found that the more hours participants worked per week the higher their WIF. Rodolfa, Kraft, and Reilley (1988) indicated experience level as a characteristic that influenced professionals' perceptions of stress in their work role. In their study of 279 psychologists, student trainees reported 61% more stress in their work role than more experienced professionals and attributed this to entering a new profession.

Family characteristics that influence female mental health professionals' experience of work-family conflict include partner support, age of children, and time spent in family activities (Duan et al., 2010; Lin, 2013; Olarte, 2004). Researchers found that spouse and partner support predicted WIF in a study of 83 male counseling psychologists (Duan et al., 2010), a study of 174 counseling psychology faculty members (Brown & Duan, 2007), and a study of 439 Australian social workers (Kalliath & Kalliath, 2013). Family support was negatively related to FIW in a sample of 1,200 psychologists (Rupert, Stevanovic, Hartman, Bryant, & Miller, 2012). In a sample of 174 counseling psychology faculty that included 95 female counseling psychology faculty members reported seeking social support as a means to cope with conflict between work and family roles (Brown & Duan, 2007).

Lin's (2013) qualitative research on a female counseling psychologist indicated that the level of WIF was higher for women participating in work and family roles with a child under the age of five, when compared to women with older children. Olarte (2004) found that women

psychiatrists with children spent more time in family activities compared to female psychiatrists without children. However, in qualitative interviews with five female psychologists Insko (2008) found female psychologists experienced a higher level of work-family conflict due to feelings of inadequacy as a parent despite having formal training in topics such as human development.

Work-Family Conflict of Female Counselors

A review of the literature specific to female counselors' experiences with work-family conflict revealed a limited amount of research (Hermann et al., 2014; Trepal & Stinchfield, 2012). Matheson and Rosen (2012) examined demographic characteristics in interviews with 16 marriage and family therapy faculty members and found participants that were older, male, and had more experience reported more balance between work and family roles. Researchers revealed that occupational characteristics such as workplace flexibility and workplace setting influenced counselors' experiences of work-family conflict (Hermann et al., 2014; Trepal & Stinchfield, 2012). In Trepal and Stinchfield's qualitative study with 20 tenured and non-tenured counseling faculty, workplace flexibility was viewed by faculty as a positive factor in balancing work and family, but also was challenging at times. A sample of 10 doctoral students who were also mothers at the time they were enrolled in counselor education programs reported that they expected earning their degrees would give them more workplace flexibility and result in less conflict between work and family (Trepal et al., 2014). Hermann et al. (2014) found similar results in a study of five counselor educator mothers, in which participants reported less work-family conflict which was attributed to a flexible work environment.

Review of the literature on counselors' family characteristics revealed spousal support, number of children in the home, and age of youngest child in the home was important to

counselors' experiences in work and family (Hermann et al., 2014; Stinchfield & Trepal, 2010). In a sample of five assistant and associate professors, female counselor educators who described the importance of having a supportive spouse in lessening their conflict in work and family roles (Hermann et al.). In a study of 70 female counselor educators, Stinchfield and Trepal found 26.5% of the female counselor educators reported delaying the start of their career to have a family and 17.6% reported they had fewer children in order to be successful in academia. In their research, assistant professors reported having more children under the age of six living with them, as well as more children in the household than full professors. Also, a qualitative theme of female counselor educators was increased conflict between work and family when children in the home were young. In comparison, in a later qualitative study of 20 participants that consisted of in-depth interviews, age of female counselor educators' children did not impact women's role as counselor educators (Trepal & Stinchfield, 2012).

Summary

In LSLS theory, Super (1980) brought the life-space roles and the life-span stages together to provide a developmental theory for understanding work and family roles of women. Review of the literature indicated participation in multiple roles, such as work and family, can lead to conflict between those roles (Frone et al., 1992; Hermann et al., 2014; Super, 1980). Three main categories of characteristics that contribute to work-family conflict include: (a) demographic, (b) occupational, and (c) family (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Noor, 2003; 2004). Researchers indicated that these characteristics increase conflict (Frone et al., 1992), whereas other researchers indicated that the characteristics are not related to conflict, or conflict decreases because of these characteristics (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982; Bulanda & Lippman, 2012). These

characteristics can impact mental health professionals as well as female counselors in their work and family roles (Trepal & Stinchfield, 2012).

Chapter III

Methodology

Introduction

This chapter contains a detailed description of the research questions and methodology, which includes the purpose of the study and a description of the participants and instrumentation. The instrumentation section includes the Demographic, Occupational, and Family Characteristics Survey and a description of the psychometric properties of the Work-Family Conflict Scale (Carlson et al., 2000), Work Autonomy Scale (Breaugh, 1985), and Quality of Relationship Inventory (Pierce, Sarason, & Sarason, 1991). The final section of this chapter includes a description of the data collection procedures and methods of data analysis.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their demographic, occupational, and family characteristics. Super's (1990) Life-Space Life-Span theory was the theory used to frame the study of female counselors' engagement work and family that can create conflict with work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering with work (FIW) (Frone et al., 1992).

Participants

For the present study, participants included a convenience sample of members of the Alabama Counseling Association (ALCA) and the Louisiana Counseling Association (LCA) who completed the entire survey. Participants were female counselors who were 18 years of age or older, had a family member currently residing with them (as indicated by the presence of a partner; spouse; child/children; or elderly, sick, or disabled relative residing in the home) and who were engaged in part-time work or more in a counseling setting. The participant sample

size was computed using a G*power analysis (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007), with a minimum sample size of 122 female counselors. Because the Alabama and Louisiana counseling associations were not able to separate male and female members, the survey was sent to 2,000 members of the Alabama Counseling Association and 2,362 of the Louisiana Counseling Association. For female counselors, 354 responded to the survey. A criteria for the study was a female counselor must complete the Work-Family Conflict Scale (i.e., dependent variable) or her response was excluded from to the total sample size. Of the 354 responses, 266 female counselors completed the entire survey and the remaining participants left more than 35% of the survey blank. The completion rate for those participants that started the survey is 75%.

Demographic characteristics. Participants were asked to indicate their demographic information which included ethnicity, age, education level, and annual household income. For ethnicity, the highest percentage of participants indicated White ($n = 203$, 76.3%) and the second highest percentage indicated African American ($n = 53$, 19.8%) (see Table 1). Four participants reported Hispanic (1.5%), two reported Asian (0.8%), one reported Native American (0.4%), and one indicated Other (0.4%) as Italian/Indian. Two participants (0.8%) had missing data. Participants' ages ranged from 25 to 73 with the average age of 42 ($M = 42.41$, $SD = 11.18$) (see Table 1). For annual household income, the highest percentage of participants chose over \$100,000 ($n = 90$, 33.8%) (see Table 1). The second highest percentage was in two categories: \$75,001 to \$100,000 and \$50,001 to \$75,000 ($n = 66$, 24.8%). The third category was \$25,001 to \$50,000 ($n = 38$, 14.4%). Three participants (1.1%) indicated the category under \$25,000 and three participants (1.1%) had missing data.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics by Frequencies, Means, and Standard Deviations (N = 266)

Variable		<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Ethnicity					
	White	203	76.3		
	African American	53	19.8		
	Hispanic	4	1.5		
	Asian	2	0.8		
	Native American	1	0.4		
	Other	1	0.4		
	Missing, no response	2	0.8		
Age				42.41	11.18
Annual Household Income					
	> \$100,000	90	33.8		
	\$75,001-\$100,000	66	24.8		
	\$50,001-\$75,000	66	24.8		
	\$25,001-\$50,000	38	14.4		
	< \$25,000	3	1.1		
	Missing, no response	3	1.1		

Occupational characteristics. Participants were asked to indicate the following occupational information: (a) hours per week spent in employment, (b) level of educational degree, level of state licensure and other certifications, (c) current practice setting, (d) number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree, and (e) workplace flexibility. For total hours spent in employment each week, the highest percentage of participants indicated a total of 41 to 50 hours ($n = 116$, 43.6%) (see Table 2). The second highest percentage was 31 to 40 hours ($n = 88$, 33.1%). The remaining participants reported greater than 50 hours ($n = 23$, 8.6%), 21 to 30 hours ($n = 18$, 6.8%), 11 to 20 hours ($n = 14$, 5.3), less than 10 hours ($n = 4$, 1.5%), and three (1.1%) had missing data.

For educational degree, licensure, and certification; participants indicated all options that applied. The highest percentage of participants was a Master's Degree in Counseling and a Licensed Counselor ($n = 143$, 53.8%) (see Table 2). The second highest percentage was a

National Certified Counselor ($n = 90$, 33.8%), followed by a Master's Degree in Counseling not registered with the state licensing board ($n = 56$, 21.1%), followed by Master's Degree in Counseling and registered with the state licensing board ($n = 48$, 18%), Licensing Board Approved Supervisor ($n = 39$, 14.7%), Other ($n = 26$, 9.8%), Doctoral Degree (Ph.D.) ($n = 24$, 9%), Education Specialist (Ed.D. or Ed.S.) ($n = 21$, 7.9%), National Certified School Counselor ($n = 16$, 6%), Master's Degree-Psychology ($n = 11$, 4.1%), Master's Degree-Social Work ($n = 1$, 0.4%), and Certified Clinical Mental Health Counselor ($n = 1$, 0.4%).

For current practice setting, participants indicated all options that applied. The highest percentage of participants ($n = 99$, 37.2%) indicated a school K-12 setting and the second highest percentage ($n = 78$, 29.3%) indicated a private practice (see Table 2). The next highest percentage was community mental health center ($n = 36$, 13.5%) followed by university counseling center and inpatient/outpatient addiction treatment setting ($n = 21$, 7.9%), mental health rehabilitation ($n = 14$, 5.3%), counselor education ($n = 13$, 13.5%), hospital ($n = 12$, 4.5%), government/military ($n = 11$, 4.1%), employee assistance program ($n = 9$, 3.4%), crisis center/call center ($n = 8$, 3.0%), and prison/detention ($n = 6$, 2.3%). No one indicated a play therapy center.

For the number of current practice settings, participants were asked to indicate their current practice setting by choosing one or more settings out of the 13 settings listed. The total number of practice settings was computed and used in further data analysis. Responses were grouped into female counselors who chose: (a) one setting ($n = 202$, 75.9%) or (b) more than one setting ($n = 58$, 21.8%) (see Table 4). These groupings were chosen to differentiate the number of female counselors employed in a single primary current practice setting and female counselors employed at multiple current practice settings.

For the number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree, participants' responses ranged from 1 to 31 years and the average number of years was 11 ($M = 11.15$, $SD = 7.2$) (see Table 2). The amount of flexibility participants believed they had in scheduling their employment was indicated on a Likert scale from 1 (*no flexibility*) to 7 (*complete flexibility*). Participants' responses ranged from 1 to 7 and the average score was 3.9 ($M = 3.91$, $SD = 1.84$) (see Table 2).

Table 2

Occupational Characteristics and Workplace Flexibility by Frequencies, Means, and Standard Deviations (N = 266)

Variable	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Hours Per Week Spent in Employment				
< 10	4	1.5		
11-20	14	5.3		
21-30	18	6.8		
31-40	88	33.1		
41-50	116	43.6		
> 50	23	8.6		
Missing, no response	3	1.1		
Education/License/Certifications*				
Doctoral Degree (Ph.D)	24	9.0		
Education Specialist (Ed.D./Ed.S.)	21	7.9		
Master's Degree in Counseling-not registered with state counseling board	56	21.1		
Master's Degree in Counseling-registered with state counseling board	48	18.0		
Master's Degree in Counseling-licensed counseling professional with state regulations (e.g., LPC, LMFT LMHC, LCMHC)	143	53.8		
Master's Degree-Psychology	11	4.1		
Master's Degree-Social Work	1	0.4		
Licensing Board Approved Supervisor	39	14.7		
Certified Clinical Mental Health Counselor	1	0.4		
National Certified School Counselor	16	6.0		
National Certified Counselor	90	33.8		
Other	26	9.8		
Current Practice Setting*				
School K-12	99	37.2		
University Counseling Center	21	7.9		
Inpatient/Outpatient Addiction Treatment	21	7.9		
Community Mental Health Center	36	13.5		
Counselor Education	13	4.9		
Private Practice	78	29.3		
Crisis Center/Call Center	8	3.0		
Play Therapy Center	0	0		
Mental Health Rehabilitation	14	5.3		
Hospital	12	4.5		
Prison/Detention	6	2.3		
Government/Military	11	4.1		

Variable		<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Current Practice Setting*					
	Employee Assistance Program	9	3.4		
Number of Current Practice Settings					
	1	202	75.9		
	>1	58	21.8		
	Missing, no response	6	2.3		
Years of Experience Post-Master's				11.15	7.2
Workplace Flexibility				3.91	1.8

Note. *Participants indicated all that applied, therefore the total *f* is greater than 266 and the % column does not add up to 100 for Education/License/Certifications and Practice Settings.

Family characteristics. Participants were asked information about their family characteristics that included marital/partner status; number of children at home under the age of 18; age of youngest child in the home; age when first child was born; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; hours per week spent in home chores and errands; hours per week spent caring for others; and source of support. For participants' marital/partner status, the highest percentage was married ($n = 202$, 75.9%) (see Table 3). The second highest percentage was single ($n = 30$, 11.2%), followed by not married but in a long-term relationship ($n = 16$, 6.0%), divorced ($n = 13$, 4.9%), widowed ($n = 2$, 0.8%), and separated or other ($n = 1$, 0.4%). One (0.4%) was a missing case.

When asked how many children participants have at home, the highest percentage responded not applicable ($n = 134$, 50.4%) (see Table 3). The second highest percentage reported they have two children at home ($n = 55$, 20.6%), the third highest percentage have one child ($n = 54$, 20.3%), the fourth have three children ($n = 18$, 6.8%), and two (0.8%) have four children. Three (1.1%) had missing responses. When asked the age of the youngest child living at home, the average age of the youngest child was 7 ($M = 7.86$, $SD = 4.99$) (see Table 3). When asked participants' age when their first child was born, the average age was 27 ($M = 27.04$, $SD = 4.80$) (see Table 3).

When asked if participants care for an elderly, ill, or disabled family member; the highest percentage ($n = 222$, 83.4%) indicated no and 43 (16.2%) indicated yes (see Table 3). One (0.4%) participant did not respond. For hours spent per week on home chores and errands, participants' with the highest percentage was less than 10 hours per week ($n = 130$, 48.9%) (see Table 3). The second highest percentage was 11 to 20 hours ($n = 110$, 41.3%), followed by 21 to 30 ($n = 15$, 5.6%), and 41 to 50 ($n = 2$, 0.8%). One (0.4%) participant spent more than 51 hours per week on home chores and errands and three (1.1%) were missing cases. For hours spent caring for others, the highest percentage ($n = 103$, 38.7%) was less than 5 hours per week (see Table 3). The second highest percentage was for both 5 to 10 hours and 11 to 20 ($n = 41$, 15.4%), followed by 21 to 30 ($n = 26$, 9.8%), more than 51 ($n = 22$, 8.3%), 31 to 40 ($n = 15$, 5.6%), 41 to 50 ($n = 6$, 2.3%), and 12 (4.5%) were missing cases.

Question 42 of the survey asked which individual provided participants the most support. The highest percentage ($n = 206$, 77.4%) indicated spouse or partner, the second highest percentage indicated mother ($n = 23$, 8.6%), followed by daughter ($n = 6$, 2.3%), father and sister ($n = 3$, 1.1%), grandmother ($n = 2$, 0.8%), son and brother ($n = 1$, 0.4%), Other ($n = 17$, 6.4%), and four (1.5%) were missing cases (see Table 3).

Table 3

Family Characteristics by Frequencies, Means and Standard Deviations (N = 266)

Variable		<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Marital/Partner Status					
	Single	30	11.2		
	Married	202	75.9		
	Not married, but in long-term relationship	16	6.0		
	Separated	1	0.4		
	Divorced	13	4.9		
	Widowed	2	0.8		
	Other	1	0.4		
	Missing, no score	1	0.4		
Number of Children at Home Under the Age of 18					
	N/A	134	50.4		
	1	54	20.3		
	2	55	20.6		
	3	18	6.8		
	4	2	0.8		
	Missing, no score	3	1.1		
Age of Youngest Child Living at Home				7.86	4.99
Age of Self When 1 st Child Born				27.04	4.80
Care of Elderly, Disabled or Ill Family Members					
	Yes	43	16.2		
	No	222	83.4		
	Missing, no case	1	0.4		
Hours Per Week Spent Doing Home Chores and Errands					
	< 10	130	48.9		
	11-20	110	41.3		
	21-30	15	5.6		
	31-40	5	1.9		
	41-50	2	0.8		
	> 51	1	0.4		
	Missing, no score	3	1.1		
Hours Per Week Spent Caring of Others					
	< 5	103	38.7		
	5-10	41	15.4		
	11-20	41	15.4		
	21-30	26	9.8		

Variable	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Hours Per Week Spent Caring of Others				
31-40	15	5.6		
41-50	6	2.3		
> 51	22	8.3		
Missing, no score	12	4.5		

Instruments

The instruments used in the present study included one survey; the Demographic, Occupational, and Family Characteristics Survey and three scales; the Work-Family Conflict Scale (Carlson et al., 2000), the Workplace Autonomy Scale (Breugh, 1985), and the Quality of Relationship Inventory (support scale) (Pierce et al., 1991); respectively. Additionally, two written response questions were included at the end.

Demographic, occupational, and family characteristics survey. The Demographic, Occupational, and Family Characteristics Survey was developed by the present researcher and includes 14 questions which are divided into three characteristics sections: Demographic, Occupational, and Family (see Appendix A).

The Demographic Characteristics section includes three questions. The first question was a descriptive question about ethnicity in which participants chose from the following choices: (a) African American/Black, (b) Asian, (c) Hispanic, (d) Native American and (e) White, and (f) Other. Question two asked participants to choose their age using a dropdown menu. Question three asked participants to indicate annual household income from the following choices: (a) under \$25,000; (b) \$25,001 to \$50,000; (c) \$50,001 to \$75,000; (d) \$75,001 to \$100,000 and (e) over \$100,000. With the exception of the first question (i.e., ethnicity), question one and two were used as independent variables.

The Occupational Characteristics section included five questions. Question four asked participants to indicate how many hours per week they spent in employment from the following choices: (a) <10, (b) 11 to 20, (c) 21 to 30, (d) 31 to 40, (e) 41 to 50, and (f) >51. Question five asked participants to indicate level of educational degree, state licensure and/or other certifications. Participants marked all that applied from the following choices: (a) Doctoral Degree (Ph.D), (b) Education Specialist (Ed.D or Ed. S), (c) Master's Degree in Counseling-not registered with the state counseling licensing board, (d) Master's Degree in Counseling-registered with the state counseling licensing board and under supervision for state licensure (e.g., Counselor Intern, Provisional Licensed Professional), (e) Master's Degree in Counseling-licensed counseling professional in accordance with state regulations (e.g., LPC, LMFT, LMHC, LCMHC), (f) Master's Degree-Psychology, (g) Master's Degree-Social Work, (h) Licensing Board Approved Counseling Supervisor (e.g., LPC-S, LPCC-S), (i) Certified Clinical Mental Health Counselor (CCMHC), (j) National Certified School Counselor (NCSC), (k) National Certified Counselor (NCC), and (l) Other. Question six asked participants to indicate all that applied for current practice setting from the following choices: (a) School K-12, (b) University Counseling Center, (c) Inpatient/Outpatient Addiction Treatment, (d) Community Mental Health Center, (e) Counselor Education, (f) Private Practice, (g) Crisis Center/Call Center, (h) Play Therapy Center, (i) Mental Health Rehabilitation (MHR), (j) Hospital Setting, (k) Prison/Detention, (l) Government/Military, and (m) Employee Assistance Program (EAP). Question seven asked participants to indicate their counseling experience post-master's degree from less than six months through 30 years using a drop down menu. The final item, question eight, asked participants "How much flexibility do you have in scheduling your employment?"

Participants responded using a 7-point Likert scale from (1) *no flexibility* to (7) *complete flexibility*.

The Family Characteristics section included six questions. Question nine asked participants to indicate marital/partner status from the following choices: (a) single, (b) married, (c) not married, but in a long-term relationship, (d) separated, (e) divorced, (f) widowed, and (g) other. Question 10 asked participants to indicate the number of children at home under the age of 18 ranging from 0 to 10 or not applicable using a drop down menu. Question 11 asked participants to indicate age of youngest child living at home from less than 1 year through 18 years or not applicable using a drop down menu. Question 12 asked participants to indicate their age when their first child was born or not applicable using a drop down menu. Question 13 asked participants to indicate yes or no to whether they care for elderly, ill, or disabled family members. The final question, question 14, was divided into two parts. Part A asked participants to indicate how many hours per week they spend in home chores and errands. Participants were asked to indicate one the of hourly ranges: (a) < 10, (b) 11 to 20, (c) 21 to 30, (d) 31 to 40, (e) 41 to 50, and (f) > 51. Part B asked participants to indicate how many hours per week they spend caring for others (i.e., children, aging parents, disabled or ill family members). Participants were asked to indicate one of the hourly ranges: (a) <5, (b) 5 to 10, (c) 11 to 20, (d) 21 to 30, (e) 31 to 40, (f) 41 to 50, and (g) >51.

Work-family conflict scale. The Work-Family Conflict Scale is an 18-item scale that measures the direction of conflict and the type of conflict experienced (Carlson et al., 2000; see Appendix B). Two subscales measure the direction of conflict: (1) work interfering with family (WIF) and (2) family interfering with work (FIW). Each subscale is divided into three subscales that measure types of conflict: (a) time-based, (b), strain-based, and (c) behavior-based for both

WIF and FIW. Responses to each item are on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (5) *strongly agree*. Nine items from each subscale are averaged to obtain a score for each sub-scale, with a 1 indicating a low level of WIF or FIW and 5 indicating a high level. The WIF subscale score is the average of items 15 to 17, 21 to 23, and 27 to 29. The FIW subscale score is the average of items 18 to 20, 24 to 26, and 30 to 32. An example of a sub-scale score would be if a participant rated all nine items as a 3, the researcher would add each of the nine items for a total score of 27 and then divide by the number of items (i.e., nine) for a sub-scale score of 3. A total score for all 18 items is not used for the Work-Family Conflict Scale.

Previous scales that measure work-family conflict only assess for the direction of conflict (Frone et al., 1992; Netemeyer et al., 1996). Carlson et al. (2000) developed the Work-Family Conflict Scale to measure both direction and type of work-family conflict. The authors described the extensive research procedures used to validate the Work-Family Conflict Scale, which included three studies reported in one article titled the *Construction and Initial Validation of a Multidimensional Measure of Work-Family Conflict*. The first study was completed with a sample of 236 undergraduates enrolled in an upper level business course that consisted of a content analysis of items from existing scales resulting in 20 items on the Work-Family Conflict Scale. Using an exploratory factor analysis with oblique rotation and a second sample of 390 employees, the researchers found three factors based on the 20 items and the three types of conflict (i.e., time, strain, or behavior). The 20 items did not load on the three factors equally, therefore the authors concluded that more items were needed. Thirty-four more items were developed in the second study of their research to assess for content adequacy with a group of 132 Master of Business Administration (MBA) students. Thirty items from the results of the second study were distributed to 228 executive MBA graduates. Structural equation modeling

was used to analyze items which resulted in the final version of the Work-Family Conflict Scale that contains 18 items. In the third study of their research with a sample 225 full-time employees, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using the 18 items to confirm a six-factor model for the type and direction of conflict, with a coefficient alpha of .70.

Internal consistency reliabilities were found for each dimension in the Work-Family Conflict Scale which ranged from .78 to .87 (i.e., time-based WIF = .87, time-based FIW = .79, strain-based WIF = .85, strain-based FIW = .87, behavior-based WIF = .78, behavior-based FIW = .85). Allen and Armstrong (2006) found similar reliabilities for the six subscales with a range of .87 to .88 with a sample of 246 employed individuals. In their research, Cronbach's alphas for the WIF subscale was .81 and the FIW subscale was .83. Frone et al. (1992) found the relationship between antecedents such as role overload, role ambiguity, and social support; and satisfaction outcomes in work and family which were similar to previous research, thus indicating predictive validity.

In a study of Iranian employees, researchers found cross-cultural generalizability for the six dimensions of the scale (Karimi, 2008). Lim, Morris, and McMillan (2011) found additional construct validity of the 18 items in a Korean version of the scale. Since its development, the Work-Family Conflict Scale has been used in over 25 studies (Allen & Armstrong, 2006) and 20 different countries to measure topics such as worker health and organizational work-family policies (Shockley & Allen, 2007). Matthews, Kath, and Barnes-Farrell (2010) developed a short form of the Work-Family Conflict Scale and stated that Carlson et al.'s (2000) scale is "one of the most psychometrically sound measures of work-family conflict available to researchers today" due to its ability to measure all six dimensions of work-family conflict (p. 76).

Permission to use the Work-Family Conflict Scale was obtained through email communication with one author (see Appendix C).

Work autonomy scale. The Work Autonomy Scale (WAS; Breugh, 1985) is a self-report measure consisting of nine items comprised of three subscales that measure type of autonomy (see Appendix D). The author defined the three types of autonomy as

work method autonomy (i.e., the degree of discretion/choice individuals have regarding the procedures/ methods they utilize in going about their work), *work scheduling autonomy* (i.e., the extent to which workers feel they can control the scheduling/sequencing/timing of their work activities), and *work criteria autonomy* (i.e., the degree to which workers have the ability to modify or choose the criteria used for evaluating their performance) (Breugh, 1999, pp. 359-360).

Participants respond to a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (7) *strongly agree*. Each score from an item is added for a total score that ranges from 7 to 63, with higher scores indicating a high level of work autonomy. Breugh (1985) developed his scale because he found existing instruments, such as the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) and the Job Characteristic Inventory (Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976) focused on an overall measure of autonomy instead of discerning between different types of autonomy.

The psychometric properties of the WAS were assessed through a series of studies completed by the author (Breugh, 1985). The author determined test-retest reliability during the scale development by administering the WAS to 97 employees, followed by a second administration one month later, which yielded test-retest reliabilities that ranged from .65 to .76. Average correlation of items among the three subscales ranged from .29 to .42. Breugh reported coefficient alphas ranging from .79 to .90. Also, the WAS was administered to 312

employees at two separate companies to determine stability and reliability across the two samples in which congruence coefficients were above .90 (i.e., sample 1, $r = .94$; sample 2, $r = .98$) (Harman, 1971). In later research with a sample of 93 MBA students and 114 undergraduate business students, Breugh and Becker (1987) found internal consistency reliability coefficient alphas of .97, .97, and .96 for the three types of autonomy. Breugh (1999) found reliability in a later study that looked at group comparisons and found reliability of the three scales that ranged from .81 to .88. In that study, he found that full-time employees reported more autonomy than part-time employees, which demonstrated reliability of the WAS.

Breugh and Becker (1987) demonstrated validity of the three autonomy subscales through a principal factor analysis with a sample of 4,921 participants, in which three factors were found: (a) work method autonomy, (b) work scheduling autonomy, and (c) work criteria autonomy. In an additional study using a confirmatory factor analysis, Breugh (1989) confirmed the three factors previously listed. Breugh and Becker (1987) found significant differences in 114 undergraduate students divided into one of eight conditions for the three types of autonomy; however, correlations between the three types of autonomy were low, with an average of .19. Additionally, the WAS items were correlated with variables such as satisfaction with work, job involvement, decision-making, supervisor satisfaction, general job satisfaction, and role ambiguity (Breugh, 1989; Breugh & Becker, 1987) as well as a global autonomy measure (Breugh & Becker, 1987).

In 1985, one criticism by Bailyn was that strategic or operational autonomy was not included in the WAS. In 1989, Breugh responded that he believed strategic and operational autonomy closely resemble the work method autonomy and work criteria autonomy subscales of the WAS. A second criticism later by Evans and Fischer (1992) was whether the WAS is biased

because employees are likely to answer in a way that presents them as in control. The authors conducted their own confirmatory factor analysis with a sample of teachers and found partial support for a secondary factor (i.e., control), as well as support for the three factor model of the WAS. For the present study, permission to use the WAS was obtained through email communication with the author (see Appendix E).

Quality of relationship inventory (support subscale). The Quality of Relationships Inventory (QRI; Pierce et al., 1991) measures an individual's perceptions of the support he or she receives within a particular relationship (see Appendix F). Pierce et al. developed the QRI to measure support in a specific relationship, as opposed to an overall measure of support. The QRI consists of 39 items divided into three subscales that measure support, conflict, and depth in a specific relationship. For the purposes of this research, the support subscale was utilized which consists of seven items. As part of the instructions, participants were first asked to reflect on an individual that provides them support and which of those individuals provides the most support. A question was added to the subscale for participants to indicate "Which individual in your household provides you the most support?" from the following choices: (a) spouse or partner, (b) mother, (c) father, (d) grandmother, (e) grandfather, (f) son, (g) daughter, (h) sister, (i) brother, (j) aunt, (k) uncle, (l) cousin, and (m) Other. Next, participants were asked to reflect on their relationship with that person and rate their perceptions of support received on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from (1) *not at all* to (4) *very much*. The QRI support subscale is scored by averaging a participant's responses to each item, with higher scores indicating a higher level of support. For example, if a participant rated all seven items as a 3 for each item, the total of all seven items would equal 21, which was divided by the number of items (i.e., $21/7 = 3$) for a final score of 3.

To determine psychometric properties for the QRI, Pierce et al. (1991) conducted a variety of analyses to assess for reliability and validity. Instrument development and validation was completed with a sample of 94 male and 116 female undergraduate students. Using a principal factor analysis with oblique rotation, the researchers confirmed three factors were contained in the QRI. The alpha coefficient for the support scale ranged from .83 to .88. Nakanos' (2002) research with 187 Japanese women found the presence of two factors as opposed to three. However, in additional studies researchers confirmed the three factor solution of the QRI in a sample of 1,494 Germans (Reiner, Beutel, Skaletz, Brahler, & Stobel-Richter, 2012), 388 cancer patients in France (Cousson-Gelie, de Chalvron, Zozaya, & Lafaye, 2013), and 300 couples (Verhofstadt, Buysse, Rosseel, & Peene, 2006).

Pierce et al. (1991) assessed for concurrent validity of the QRI and found relationship specific support made a significant contribution to the prediction of personal adjustment, when compared to the same analysis using general support. Construct validity was also assessed through a comparison of the QRI with two other instruments (Nakano, 2002), as well as other relationship specific variables such as family, sexuality, relationships, and children (Reiner et al., 2012). In a later study, researchers confirmed test-retest reliability during administration to undergraduate students at one time and then again 12 months later, which resulted in test-retest reliabilities that ranged from .48 to .79 (Pierce, Sarason, Sarason, Solky-Butzel, & Nagle, 1997). Internal consistency of the three scales ranged from .70 to .90. Cousson-Gelie et al. (2013) also found stability of the three scales over a three-month period, with a test-retest reliability coefficient of $r = .422$. In a study of couples using only the QRI support scale, an alpha coefficient of .85 was indicated for husbands and .83 for wives (Verhofstadt, 2013). These results support the reliability and validity of the QRI, as well as the use of only one of the three

scales in research. For this research, prior to responding to the QRI, participants were asked which individual in their household provides them the most support and chose from: (a) spouse or partner, (b) mother, (c) father, (d) grandmother, (e) grandfather, (f) son, (g) daughter, (h) sister, (i) brother, (j) aunt, (k) uncle, (l) cousin, and (m) Other. Next, participants were asked to reflect on their relationship with that person and rate their perceptions of support on the QRI. Permission to use the QRI support scale was obtained through email communication with one author (see Appendix G).

Written response questions. Two final questions of the present research survey asked participants for written responses to two items (see Appendix H). The first question asked participants to “Please describe ways in which your work interferes with your family.” The second question asked participants to “Please describe ways in which your family interferes with your work.” As suggested by Friborg and Rosenvinge (2013), open-ended questions are a method of providing in-depth information about participants’ experience of work-family conflict.

Data Collection Procedures

On May 7, 2015, approval was gained from the University of New Orleans Institutional Review Board (see Appendix K). In the present study, minimal risks were involved which included disclosing information considered personal or sensitive in regards to individual experiences of work and family conflict. All participants were over the age of 18. In initial participation email request, the elements of informed consent were provided to participants. Potential participants were informed that by completing and submitting the survey, they were indicating consent (see Appendix I). Confidentiality of participants was maintained through security layers provided by QualtricsTM software. Participants were given a secure link to access

the survey that was included in the informed consent. Once participants accessed the survey, data was stored via a code that represented each participant so that anonymity was maintained.

Both ALCA and LCA sent an email announcement to their members to contact potential participants (see Appendix I). The announcement contained a description of the study, a statement about participant anonymity, an informed consent, the description of the incentive (i.e., blind drawing completed after the survey was closed in which five participants received a \$50 gift certificate from Amazon.com), a secure link to access the survey through Qualtrics™, and the information on how to request a summary of the results. A follow-up email was sent two weeks later thanking those participants who had participated and encouraging those who had not responded to participate (see Appendix J).

After linking to the on-line survey included in the email request, participants were asked to complete the Demographic, Occupational, and Family Characteristics Survey, which was followed by the Work-Family Conflict Scale (Carlson et al., 2000), the Workplace Autonomy Scale (Breugh, 1985), the Quality of Relationship Inventory-Support Scale (Pierce et al., 1991), and the two open-ended questions. After completion of the survey, the incentive was offered with a final question that asked participants if they would like to participate in the blind drawing for a \$50 gift certificate from Amazon.com. If participants responded yes, they were asked for identifying information that was excluded from data analysis and stored in Qualtrics™ separate from their data. Once the survey was closed, the drawing for the incentive occurred and winners were notified via email.

Methods of Analysis

Once the survey was closed, raw data was coded and entered into IBM SPSS Statistics version 21.0. Descriptive statistics were analyzed which included frequencies and percentages

for categorical variables. For continuous variables, descriptive statistics included means and standard deviations.

Pearson correlation analysis was used to determine the relationship between work-family conflict and the independent variables. For dichotomous independent variables, SPSS defaults to compute a point bi-serial correlation. An alpha level of .05 was used to minimize the occurrence of a Type I error for all statistical analyses. An alpha level at .05 results in a 5% probability that a Type I error will occur (Field, 2009). Multiple regression analyses were used to predict the dependent variables (i.e., WIF and FIW) using demographic, occupational, and family variables. The independent variables were entered into the regression model through forced entry, in which all variables were entered simultaneously. The *t*-statistic was used to determine whether the independent variables contributed significantly to the outcome variables in the regression models. Accuracy of the regression model was assessed through R^2 , which indicated the percentage of the variance in the dependent variable that is accounted for by the independent variable. The value of *b* in the regression model indicated the strength of the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. Assumptions of the regression analyses that were checked included the Durbin-Watson test and the assumption of no multicollinearity. The Durbin-Watson test examines independent errors, or if residuals are correlated (Field, 2009). The assumption of no multicollinearity was assessed by checking the variance inflation factors (VIF) (Field, 2009).

Variables. This study contained one dependent variable, work-family conflict. The Work-Family Conflict Scale (Carlson et al., 2000) was used as a multidimensional measure of work-family conflict of participants that included two directions of conflict (i.e., WIF and FIW).

The independent variables included 12 categorical variables (i.e.; ethnicity; educational level; hours per week spent in employment; state licensure; number of practice settings; marital/partner status; number of children at home under the age of 18; age of youngest child; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; hours per week spent in home chores and errands; hours per week spent caring for others; and source of support) and six continuous variables (i.e., age, annual household income, number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree, workplace flexibility, workplace autonomy as measured by the WAS, and support as measured by the QRI) (Breugh, 1985; Pierce et al., 1991).

Research Questions and Data Analysis

The following research questions were investigated.

Research question 1. What is the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their ethnicity, age, educational level, and annual household income?

Data analysis. A Pearson correlation and regression analysis were used to examine the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict scores using the Work-Family Conflict Scale (Carlson et al., 2000) and their ethnicity, age, educational level, and annual household income.

Research question 2. What is the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their hours per week spent in employment, state licensure, number of practice settings, number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree, workplace flexibility, and workplace autonomy?

Data analysis. A Pearson correlation and regression analysis were used to examine the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict scores using the Work-Family Conflict Scale (Carlson et al., 2000) and their hours per week spent in employment, state

licensure, number of practice settings, number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree, workplace flexibility, and workplace autonomy.

Research question 3. What is the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their marital/partner status; number of children at home under the age of 18; age of youngest child; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; hours per week spent in home chores and errands; hours per week spent caring for others; source of support; and support?

Data analysis. A Pearson correlation and regression analysis were used to examine the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict scores on the Work-Family Conflict Scale (Carlson et al., 2000) and their marital/partner status; number of children at home under the age of 18; age of youngest child; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; hours per week spent in home chores and errands; hours per week spent caring for others; source of support; and support as measured by the QRI.

Chapter IV

Results

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their demographic, occupational, and family characteristics. The first section in this chapter includes a summary of the independent variables examined in each research question, descriptive statistics of female counselors' workplace flexibility, work interfering with family scores (WIF), family interfering with work scores (FIW), workplace autonomy scores (WAS), and quality of support scores (QRI). The subsequent section includes the results of the three research questions.

Independent Variables for Research Questions

Due to the variance in percentage of responses to the independent variables with some variable choices receiving low or no responses, the following items from the Demographic, Occupational, and Family Characteristics Survey were grouped together and coded for the purposes of statistical analysis that were used for the three research questions. Listwise deletion of missing cases was used, so that missing cases were not included in analysis and the resulting n is listed in Table 4.

Independent variables for research question 1. Two categorical variables were used for research question one; ethnicity and education level. Two continuous variables were used for research question one; age and annual household income.

Ethnicity. Because female counselors' responded to question one that included seven ethnic choices and their responses resulted in less than 2% in five of the seven choices, ethnicity was grouped into female counselors who were White ($n = 203$, 76.3%) and all other responses for ethnicity were grouped as non-White ($n = 61$, 23.7%) (see Table 4).

Educational level. Female counselors responded to question five that combined education, licensure, and certifications by marking all that applied. Based on their responses two groups were formed: (a) Ph.D., Ed.D., or Ed.S. ($n = 45$, 16.9%) and (b) No Advanced Degree ($n = 221$, 83.1%) (see Table 4). For the first group, responses were coded as a 1 for female counselors who chose either one of two choices [i.e., (a) Doctoral Degree (Ph.D.) or (b) Education Specialist (Ed.D. or Ed.S.)]. For the second group, No Advanced Degree, responses were coded as a 2 for anyone who did not select (a) Doctoral Degree (Ph.D.) or (b) Education Specialist (Ed.D. or Ed.S.) and who chose at least one of the following remaining 10 choices [(i.e., (c) Master's Degree in Counseling-not registered with the state counseling licensing board, (d) Master's Degree in Counseling-registered with the state counseling licensing board and under supervision for state licensure (e.g., Counselor Intern, Provisional Licensed Professional), (e) Master's Degree in Counseling-licensed counseling professional in accordance with state regulations (e.g., LPC, LMFT, LMHC, LCMHC), (f) Master's Degree-Psychology, (g) Master's Degree-Social Work, (h) Licensing Board Approved Counseling Supervisor (e.g., LPC-S, LPCC-S), (i) Certified Clinical Mental Health Counselor (CCMHC), (j) National Certified School Counselor (NCSC), (k) National Certified Counselor (NCC), and (l) Other]. These two groupings were chosen as they reflect the degree level requirements of various mental health counselors.

Age. The independent variable of age is continuous and therefore was not grouped (see Table 4).

Annual household income. The independent variable of annual household income was treated as a continuous variable and was not recoded (see Table 4). Specifically, adhering to Field's recommendation annual household income was used as a continuous variable known as

an interval variable in which “equal intervals on the scale represent equal differences in the property being measured” (p. 9).

Independent variables for research question 2. Three categorical variables were used for research question two; hours per week spent in employment, counseling license, and number of practice settings. Three continuous variables were used for research question two; number of years of counseling experience post-master’s degree, workplace flexibility, and workplace autonomy.

Hours per week spent in employment. From the descriptive statistics based on question four, the groupings for number of hours female counselors spent in employment each week were reduced from six groups to three: (a) 41 hours and greater ($n = 139, 52.3\%$), (b) 31 to 40 hours ($n = 88, 33.1\%$), and (c) less than 30 hours ($n = 36, 13.5\%$) (see Table 4). These groupings were chosen as they reflect a typical full-time work week of 40 hours. The first grouping, 41 hours and greater, captured female counselors that work more than full-time. The second grouping of 31 to 40 hours approximated a typical work week and the third grouping of less than 30 hours indicated female counselors in part-time employment.

Counseling license. Female counselors responded to question five that combined education, licensure, and certifications by marking all that applied to 12 options. Based on their responses two groups were formed: (a) Licensed ($n = 146, 54.9\%$) and (b) Not Licensed ($n = 120, 45.1\%$) (see Table 4). For the first group, Licensed, responses were coded as a 1 for female counselors who chose either one of two choices [i.e., (e) Master’s Degree in Counseling-licensed counseling professional in accordance with state regulations (e.g., LPC, LMFT, LMHC, LCMHC) or (h) Licensing Board Approved Supervisors (LPC-S, LPCC-S)]. For the second group, Not Licensed, responses were coded as a 2 for female counselors who did not select (e)

Master's Degree in Counseling-licensed counseling professional in accordance with state regulations (e.g. LPC, LMFT, LMHC, LCMHC) or (h) Licensing Board Approved Supervisors (LPC-S, LPCC-S) and chose from one out of the remaining 10 options [i.e., (a) Doctoral Degree (Ph.D.), (b) Education Specialist (Ed.D. or Ed. S.), (c) Master's Degree in Counseling-not registered with the state counseling licensing board, (d) Master's Degree in Counseling-registered with the state counseling licensing board and under supervision for state licensure (e.g., Counselor Intern, Provisional Licensed Professional), (f) Master's Degree-Psychology, (g) Master's Degree-Social Work, (i) Certified Clinical Mental Health Counselor (CCMHC), (j) National Certified School Counselor (NCSC), (k) National Certified Counselor (NCC), and (l) Other]. The grouping of licensed and not licensed were chosen as a reflection of the professional license attained by counseling professionals within Louisiana and Alabama.

Number of practice settings. For question six, female counselors indicated number of practice settings by choosing from one or more settings out of the 13 settings listed. Data for this variable was not recoded in further analysis (see Table 4).

Number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree. For question seven, the independent variable of female counselors' number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree is continuous and was not recoded (see Table 4).

Workplace flexibility. For question eight, female counselors indicated a Likert-scale response which was not recoded (see Table 4). Female counselors' average flexibility was 3.91 ($SD = 1.84$).

Workplace autonomy. The independent variable of workplace autonomy was measured by the Workplace Autonomy Scale (WAS), which is a continuous variable and was not recoded (see Table 4). Scores ranged from 7 to 63, with higher scores indicating a high level of work

autonomy. The average WAS score was 45.74 ($SD = 10.21$). Cronbach's alpha was .91 for the WAS items.

Independent variables for research question 3. Seven categorical variables were used for research question three: marital/partner status; number of children in the household under the age of 18; age of youngest child; care of elderly, disabled, or ill family members; hours per week spent in home chores and errands; hours per week spent caring for others; and source of support. One continuous variable, support was measured by the QRI.

Marital/partner status. From the descriptive statistics based on question nine, marital/partner status was grouped into two groupings: (a) in a relationship ($n = 218$, 82.0%) and (b) not in a relationship ($n = 47$, 17.6%) (see Table 4). Female counselors who chose one of the following items were grouped into in a relationship grouping: married, or not married but in a long-term relationship. Female counselors who chose one of the following items were grouped into the not in a relationship category: single, separated, divorced, widowed, and other. These two groupings were chosen to reflect female counselors for whom the family role included spouse or partner and female counselors for whom the family role does not include spouse or partner.

Number of children at home under the age of 18. From the descriptive statistics based on question 10, number of children in the household under the age of 18 was grouped into two groupings: (a) no children ($n = 134$, 50.4%) and (b) one or more children ($n = 129$, 48.5%) (see Table 4). Based on Chen et al.'s (2009) research that the presence of children in the home is related to work-family conflict in women, these two groupings were chosen to reflect female counselors for whom the family role included children and female counselors for whom the family role did not include children.

Age of youngest child living at home. From the descriptive statistics based on question 11, age of youngest child in the home was grouped into three groupings of female counselors with: (a) no children ($n = 133$, 50.1%), (b) children less than 6 years old ($n = 58$, 21.7%), and (c) children age 6 and older ($n = 72$, 27.1%) (see Table 4). These three groupings were based on Allen and Finkelstein's (2014) finding that women with a child 5 years old and younger experienced more FIW.

Care of elderly, disabled, or ill family members. The two groups for female counselors' responses to question 13; care of elderly, disabled, or ill family members remained in two groups of yes or no (see Table 4).

Hours per week spent in home chores and errands. For the first part of question 14, the number of hours per week spent in home chores and errands was reduced from six groups to two groups: (a) less than 10 hours per week ($n = 130$, 48.9%) and (b) 11 hours and greater per week ($n = 133$, 50.0%) (see Table 4). This grouping was chosen based on Milkie's (2009) study of 241 mothers in paid work who reported participating in second shift work that occurred when they spent more than 10 hours per week in housework. The groupings reflect female counselors who spend up to 10 hours per week in home chores and errands and those female counselors who spend substantially more time in home chores and errands.

Hours per week spent caring for others. For the second part of question 14, the number of hours per week spent caring for others was reduced from seven groups to three: (a) less than 5 hours per week ($n = 103$, 38.8%), (b) 5 to 20 hours per week ($n = 82$, 30.8%), and (c) greater than 21 hours per week ($n = 69$, 25.9%) (see Table 4). The groupings were based on female counselors who spent zero to minimal time caring for others each week, those whose time spent

caring for others was equivalent to part-time employment, and those whose time spent caring for others was more than part-time employment.

Source of support. Based on the statistical results from the QRI, female counselors indicated which individual in their household provides them the most support from the following 13 choices: (a) Spouse or Partner, (b) Mother, (c) Father, (d) Grandmother, (e) Grandfather, (f) Son, (g) Daughter, (h) Sister, (i) Brother, (j) Aunt, (k) Uncle, (l) Cousin, and (m) Other (see Table 4). The source of support was grouped into two groups: (a) spouse or partner (i.e., first choice) ($n = 206$, 77.4%) and (b) family member (i.e., one of the remaining 12 choices) ($n = 56$, 21.1%). According to Hermann et al. (2014), female counselors described a supportive spouse as important to how they experience work-family conflict, therefore groupings were based on female counselors who received support from their spouse or partner and female counselors who received support from their family members and other persons who are not their spouse or partner.

Quality of relationship inventory (support scale). The Quality of Relationship Inventory (QRI) (support scale) was used to measure female counselors' support. Scores ranged from 1 to 4, with higher scores indicating a high level of support. The average QRI score was 3.36 ($SD = 0.63$) (see Table 4). Cronbach's alpha was .87 for the QRI items.

Table 4

Independent Variables for Research Questions: Means, Standard Deviations, and Frequencies

Independent Variables for Research Question 1		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>f</i>	%
Ethnicity (<i>n</i> = 266)	White			203	76.3
	Non-White			63	23.7
Age (<i>n</i> = 251)		42.41	11.18		
Educational Level (<i>n</i> = 266)	No Advanced Degree			221	83.1
	Ph.D., Ed.D., or Ed.S.			45	16.9
Annual Household Income (<i>n</i> = 263)	> \$100,000			90	33.8
	\$75,001-\$100,000			66	24.8
	\$50,001-\$75,000			66	24.8
	\$25,001-\$50,000			38	1.1
	< \$25,000			3	1.1
Independent Variables for Research Question 2					
Hours Per Week Spent in Employment (<i>n</i> = 263)	> 41			139	52.3
	31-40			88	33.1
	< 30			36	13.5
Counseling License (<i>n</i> = 266)	Licensed			146	54.9
	Not Licensed			120	45.1
Number of Current Practice Settings (<i>n</i> = 260)	1			202	75.9
	> 1			58	21.8
Years of Counseling Experience (<i>n</i> = 266)		11.15	7.21		
Flexibility (<i>n</i> = 265)		3.91	1.84		
Autonomy (WAS) (<i>n</i> = 266)		45.7	10.21		

Independent Variables for Research Question 3		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>f</i>	%
Marital/Partner Status (<i>n</i> = 265)	In a Relationship			218	82.0
	Not in a Relationship			47	17.6
Number of Children at Home Under Age of 18 (<i>n</i> = 263)	0			134	50.4
	1 or >			129	48.5
Age of Youngest Child Living at Home (<i>n</i> = 263)	0			133	50.1
	< 6 years old			58	21.7
	6 years and older			72	27.1
Care of Elderly, Disabled, or Ill Family Members (<i>n</i> = 265)	Yes			43	16.2
	No			222	83.4
Hours Per Week Spent in Home Chores and Errands (<i>n</i> = 263)	< 10			130	48.9
	11 >			133	50.0
Hours Per Week Spent Caring of Others (<i>n</i> = 254)	< 5			103	38.8
	5-20			82	30.8
	> 21			69	25.9
Support Source (<i>n</i> = 266)	Spouse/Partner			206	77.4
	Mother			23	8.6
	Daughter			6	2.3
	Father			3	1.1
	Sister			3	1.1
	Grandmother			2	0.8
	Son			1	0.4
	Brother			1	0.4
	Other			17	6.4
	Missing, no score			4	1.5
Support Source Regroup (<i>n</i> = 262)	Spouse/Partner			206	77.4
	Family Member			56	21.1
Support (QRI) (<i>n</i> = 266)		3.36	0.63		

Note. Variables with missing, no responses were excluded from groupings.

Dependent Variable Descriptive Statistics

Work-family conflict scale. The two subscales included in the Work-Family Conflict Scale were used to measure the direction of female counselors' conflict (i.e., WIF and FIW). For both WIF and FIW scores ranged from 1 to 5, with 1 indicating a low level of WIF and 5 indicating a high level of WIF. The average WIF score was 2.67 ($SD = 0.66$) and the average FIW score was 2.21 ($SD = 0.59$) (see Table 5). Cronbach's alpha for the WIF subscale items was .81 and .83 for the FIW subscale items.

Table 5

Participants' Scores for WIF and FIW by Means and Standard Deviations (N = 266)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Work Interfering with Family (WIF)	2.67	0.66
Family Interfering with Work (FIW)	2.21	0.59

Results of Research Questions

Research question 1. What is the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their ethnicity, age, educational level, and annual household income?

Pearson's correlation was completed on the variables of WIF ($M = 2.67$, $SD = .66$), FIW ($M = 2.21$, $SD = .59$), ethnicity, age ($M = 42.41$, $SD = 11.18$), education level and annual household income ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 1.11$) to examine significant relationships (see Table 6). The results of Pearson's r indicated a significant positive correlation between female counselors' WIF and FIW scores (i.e., $r = .57$, $p < .05$) and age and annual household income (i.e., $r = .35$, $p < .01$). A significant negative correlation was found between female counselors' WIF scores and their annual household income (i.e., $r = -.13$, $p < .05$), ethnicity and annual household income (i.e., $r = -.21$, $p < .01$), and education level and annual household income ($r = -.15$, $p < .05$).

Correlations were not significant between WIF and ethnicity (i.e., $r = .08, p > .05$), WIF and age (i.e., $r = -.06, p > .05$), and WIF and education (i.e., $r = .03, p > .05$). Insignificant correlations were found for FIW and ethnicity (i.e., $r = .02, p > .05$), FIW and age (i.e., $r = -.04, p > .05$), FIW and educational level (i.e., $r = -.02, p > .05$), and FIW and annual household income (i.e., $r = -.05, p > .05$). Insignificant correlations were found for ethnicity and age (i.e., $r = -.12, p > .05$), ethnicity and educational level (i.e., $r = .01, p > .05$), and age and education level (i.e., $r = -.10, p > .05$).

Table 6

Means, Standard Deviations, and Pearson's r for Participants' Work-Family Conflict Scores by Ethnicity, Age, Education, and Income

	WIF	FIW	Ethnicity	Age	Education	Income
WIF	1.00	.57**	.08	-.06	.03	-.13*
FIW	.57**	1.00	.02	-.04	-.02	-.05
Ethnicity	.08	.02	1.00	-.12	.01	-.21**
Age	-.06	-.04	-.12	1.00	-.10	.35**
Education	.03	-.02	.01	-.10	1.00	-.15*
Income	-.13*	-.05	-.21**	.35**	-.15*	1.00
<i>M</i>	2.67	2.21		42.41		3.77
<i>SD</i>	.66	.59		11.18		1.11
<i>N</i>	266	266	264	251	266	263

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Note. The variables of ethnicity and education were dichotomous, thus means and standard deviations were computed.

A standard multiple regression analysis was used to examine whether female counselors' demographic characteristics predicted their work-family conflict (see Table 7). The model included the independent variables of ethnicity (0 = White, 1 = Non-White), age, educational level (0 = Doctoral, Ed.D. or Ed.S., 1 = no advanced degree), and annual household income. The model was not a good fit for the variables and did not explain the variance of female counselors' WIF scores, $F(4, 239) = 1.29, p > .05$ with R^2 of .021. The variables of ethnicity (i.e., $t(239) = 1.14, p > .05$), age (i.e., $t(239) = -.06, p > .05$), education level (i.e., $t(239) = .06, p > .05$), and

annual household income (i.e., $t(239) = -1.54, p > .05$) did not contribute to the model for female counselors' WIF scores. The model was not a good fit for the variables and did not explain the variance in female counselors' FIW scores, $F(4, 239) = 0.15, p > .05$ with R^2 of .003. The variables of ethnicity (i.e., $t(239) = .34, p > .05$), age (i.e., $t(239) = -.54, p > .05$), education level (i.e., $t(239) = -.28, p > .05$), and annual household income (i.e., $t(239) = -.10, p > .05$) did not contribute to the model for female counselors' FIW scores.

Table 7

Regression Model for Participants' Ethnicity, Age, Education, and Income Predicting Work-Family Conflict

Variable	WIF					FIW				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Ethnicity	.12	.10	.08	1.14	.26	.03	.09	.02	.34	.73
Age	.00	.00	.00	-.06	.95	.00	.00	-.04	-.54	.59
Education	.01	.12	.00	.06	.95	-.03	.10	-.02	-.28	.78
Income	-.07	.04	-.11	-1.54	.26	.00	.04	-.01	-.10	.92

Notes. $R^2 = .021$ for WIF, $R^2 = .003$ for FIW, $p > .05$

Research question 2. What is the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their hours per week spent in employment, state licensure, number of practice settings, number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree, workplace flexibility, and workplace autonomy?

Pearson's correlation was completed on the variables of WIF ($M = 2.67, SD = .66$), FIW ($M = 2.21, SD = .59$), hours per week spent in employment, state licensure, number of practice settings, number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree ($M = 11.15, SD = 7.21$), workplace flexibility ($M = 3.91, SD = 1.84$), and workplace autonomy (WAS) ($M = 45.74, SD = 10.21$) to examine significant relationships (see Table 8). The results of Pearson's r indicated a significant positive correlation between female counselors' WIF and their hours per week spent in employment (i.e., $r = .23, p < .01$), WIF and state licensure (i.e., $r = .17, p < .01$), hours per

week spent in employment and state licensure (i.e., $r = .21, p < .01$), state licensure and number of practice settings (i.e., $r = .16, p < .05$), number of years of experience post-master's degree and workplace autonomy (i.e., $r = .19, p < .01$), and workplace flexibility and workplace autonomy ($r = .51, p < .01$). A significant negative correlation was found between female counselors' WIF and workplace flexibility (i.e., $r = -.24, p < .01$), WIF and workplace autonomy (WAS) (i.e., $r = -.36, p < .01$), FIW and WAS (i.e., $r = -.21, p < .01$), hours per week spent in employment and workplace flexibility (i.e., $r = -.16, p < .01$), state licensure and number of years of experience post-master's degree (i.e., $r = -.29, p < .01$), state licensure and workplace flexibility ($r = -.26, p < .01$), and state licensure and workplace autonomy (i.e., $r = -.23, p < .01$).

Correlations were not significant between WIF and number of practice settings (i.e., $r = .04, p > .05$) and WIF and number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree (i.e., $r = -.06, p > .05$). Insignificant correlations were found for FIW and hours per week spent in employment (i.e., $r = .00, p > .05$), FIW and state licensure (i.e., $r = .10, p > .05$), FIW and number of practice settings (i.e., $r = .08, p > .05$), FIW and number of years of experience post-master's degree (i.e., $r = .00, p > .05$), and FIW and workplace flexibility (i.e., $r = .00, p > .05$). Correlations were not significant between hours per week spent in employment and number of practice settings ($r = -.10, p > .05$), hours per week spent in employment and number of years of experience post-master's degree (i.e., $r = .02, p > .05$), hours per week spent in employment and workplace autonomy (i.e., $r = -.07, p > .05$), number of practice settings and number of years of experience post-master's degree (i.e., $r = .07, p > .05$), number of practice settings and workplace flexibility (i.e., $r = -.08, p > .05$), number of practice settings and workplace autonomy (i.e., $r = -.06, p > .05$), and number of years of experience post-master's degree and workplace flexibility (i.e., $r = .05, p > .05$).

Table 8

Means, Standard Deviations, and Pearson's r for Participants' Work-Family Conflict, Occupational Characteristics, Flexibility, and Autonomy

	WIF	FIW	Hours Per Week Work	Counseling License	Number of Settings	Years of Experience	Flexibility	Autonomy
WIF	1.00	.57**	.23**	.17**	.04	-.06	-.24**	-.36**
FIW	.57**	1.00	.00	.10	.08	.00	.00	-.21**
Hours Per Week Work	.23**	.00	1.00	.21**	-.10	.02	-.16**	-.07
Counseling License	.17**	.10	.21**	1.00	.16*	-.29**	-.26**	-.23**
Number of settings	.04	.08	-.10	.16*	1.00	.07	-.08	-.06
Years of experience	-.06	.00	.02	-.29**	.07	1.00	.05	.19**
Flexibility	-.24**	.00	-.16**	-.26**	-.08	.05	1.00	.51**
Autonomy	-.36**	-.21**	-.07	-.23**	-.06	.19**	.51**	1.00
<i>M</i>	2.67	2.21				11.15	3.91	45.74
<i>SD</i>	.66	.59				7.21	1.84	10.21
<i>N</i>	266	266	263	266	260	266	265	266

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Note. The variables of hours per week spent in employment, counseling license, and number of practice settings were dichotomous variables, thus means and standard deviations were not computed.

A standard multiple regression analysis was used to examine whether female counselors' occupational characteristics and autonomy predicted their work-family conflict (see Table 9). The model included the independent variables of hours per week spent in employment (0 = < 40, 1 = 41 and greater), state licensure (0 = Licensed, 1 = not having a license), number of practice settings (0 = more than 1 setting, 1 = 1 setting), number of years of counseling experience post-

master's degree, and workplace autonomy. The independent variable of workplace flexibility was not included in the regression analysis as it was found to interact with other variables in the model. The results of the regression model indicated that two predictors explained 19.3% of the variance in female counselors' WIF scores, $F(5, 251) = 12.00, p < .05$ with R^2 of .193. Those predictors were hours per week spent in employment, $\beta = .21, p < .05$ (i.e., $t(251) = 3.53, p < .05$), and female counselors' workplace autonomy $\beta = -.35, p < .05$ (i.e., $t(251) = -5.98, p < .05$). The Durbin-Watson was at 1.98, suggesting no correlation between the residuals. VIF scores ranged from 1.070 to 1.242 indicating no multicollinearity. The variables of state licensure (i.e., $t(251) = .77, p > .05$), number of practice settings (i.e., $t(251) = .55, p > .05$), and number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree (i.e., $t(251) = .56, p > .05$) did not contribute to the model for female counselors' WIF scores.

The results of the regression model indicated that the model explained 6.7% of the variance in female counselors' FIW scores, $F(5, 251) = 3.61, p < .05$ with R^2 of .067. It was found that autonomy predicted FIW, $\beta = -.23, p < .05$ (i.e., $t(251) = -3.64, p < .05$). The Durbin-Watson was at 1.97, suggesting no correlation between the residuals. VIF scores ranged from 1.07 to 1.24 indicating no multicollinearity. The variables of hours per week spent in employment (i.e., $t(251) = -.26, p > .05$), state licensure (i.e., $t(251) = 1.12, p > .05$), number of practice settings (i.e., $t(251) = .81, p > .05$), and number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree (i.e., $t(251) = 1.23, p > .05$) did not contribute to the model for female counselors' FIW scores.

Table 9

Regression Model for Participants' Occupational Characteristics and Autonomy Predicting Work-Family Conflict

Variable	WIF					FIW				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Hours Per Week	.28	.08	.21*	3.63	.00	-.02	.07	-.02	-.26	.79
Counseling License	.07	.08	.05	.77	.44	.09	.08	.08	1.12	.26
Number of Settings	.05	.09	.03	.55	.58	.07	.09	.05	.81	.42
Years of Experience	.00	.01	.03	.56	.58	.01	.01	.08	1.23	.21
Autonomy (WAS)	-.02	.00	-.35*	-5.98	.00	-.01	.00	-.23*	-3.64	.00

Notes. $R^2 = .193$ for WIF, $R^2 = .067$ for FIW, * $p < .05$

Research question 3. What is the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their marital/partner status; number of children at home under the age of 18; age of youngest child; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; hours per week spent in home chores and errands; hours per week spent caring for others; source of support; and support?.

Pearson's correlation was completed on the variables of WIF ($M = 2.67$, $SD = .66$); FIW ($M = 2.21$, $SD = .59$); marital/partner status; number of children at home under the age of 18; age of youngest child; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; hour per week spent in home chores and errands; hour per week spent caring for others; source of support; and support as measured by the QRI ($M = 3.37$, $SD = .63$) to examine significant relationships (see Table 10). The results of Pearson's r indicated a significant positive correlation between female counselors' WIF and marital/partner status (i.e., $r = .20$, $p < .01$); WIF and source of support (i.e., $r = .23$, $p < .01$); female counselors' FIW and number of children at home under the age of 18 (i.e., $r = .17$, $p < .01$); FIW and age of youngest child (i.e., $r = .22$, $p < .01$); FIW and participation in care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members (i.e., $r = .19$, $p < .01$); and FIW and hours per week spent in home chores and errands (i.e., $r = .12$, $p < .05$); marital/partner status and care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members (i.e., $r = .14$, $p < .05$); marital/partner status and source of support

(i.e., $r = .79, p < .01$); number of children at home under the age of 18 and age of the youngest child (i.e., $r = .53, p < .01$); number of children at home under the age of 18 and hours per week spent in home chores and errands (i.e., $r = .17, p < .01$); number of children at home under the age of 18 and hours per week spent caring for others (i.e., $r = .59, p < .01$); age of youngest child and hours per week spent in home chores and errands (i.e., $r = .15, p < .05$); age of youngest child and hours per week spent caring for others (i.e., $r = .50, p < .01$); care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members and source of support (i.e., $r = .13, p < .05$); hours per week spent in home chores and errands and hours per week spent caring for others (i.e., $r = .23, p < .01$). A significant negative correlation was found between female counselors' FIW and support (i.e., $r = -.16, p < .05$); marital/partner status and number of children at home under the age of 18 (i.e., $r = -.25, p < .01$); marital/partner status and age of youngest child (i.e., $r = 0.20, p < .01$); marital/partner status and hours per week spent in home chores and errands (i.e., $r = -.17, p < .01$); marital/partner status and hours per week spent caring for others (i.e., $r = -.20, p < .01$); marital/partner status and support (i.e., $r = -.22, p < .01$); number of children at home under the age of 18 and source of support (i.e., $r = -.22, p < .01$); age of youngest child and source of support (i.e., $r = -.17, p < .01$); care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members and hours per week spent caring for others (i.e., $r = -.13, p < .05$); hours per week spent in home chores and errands and source of support (i.e., $r = -.19, p < .01$); hours per week spent caring for others and source of support (i.e., $r = -.20, p < .01$); and source of support and support (i.e., $r = -.20, p < .01$).

Correlations were not significant between female counselors' WIF and number of children at home under the age of 18 (i.e., $r = -.02, p > .05$); WIF and age of youngest child (i.e., $r = .10, p > .05$); WIF and care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members (i.e., $r = .11, p > .05$);

WIF and hours per week spent in home chores and errands (i.e., $r = -.03, p > .05$); WIF and hours per week spent caring for others (i.e., $r = -.05, p > .05$); and WIF and support (i.e., $r = -.05, p > .05$). Insignificant correlations were found for female counselors' FIW and marital/partner status (i.e., $r = .08, p > .05$), FIW and hours per week spent caring for others (i.e., $r = .12, p < .05$), and FIW and source of support (i.e., $r = .11, p > .05$). Correlations were not significant for number of children at home under the age of 18 and care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members (i.e., $r = -.10, p > .05$); number of children at home under the age of 18 and support (i.e., $r = .02, p > .05$); age of youngest child and care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members (i.e., $r = -.11, p > .05$); age of youngest child and support (i.e., $r = .12, p > .05$); care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members and hours per week spent in home chores and errands (i.e., $r = .02, p > .05$); care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members and support (i.e., $r = -.11, p > .05$); hours per week spent in home chores and errands and support (i.e., $r = .05, p > .05$); and hours per week spent caring for others and support (i.e., $r = .00, p > .05$).

Table 10

Means, Standard Deviations, and Pearson's r for Participants' Work-Family Conflict, Family Characteristics, and Support

	WIF	FIW	Marital Partner Status	Number of Children	Age of Young Child	Care of Elderly	Hours Chores/ Errands	Hours Caring of Others	Support Source	Support (QRI)
WIF	1.00	.57**	.20**	-.02	.10	.11	-.03	-.05	.23**	-.05
FIW	.57**	1.00	.08	.17**	.22**	.19**	.12*	.12	.11	-.16*
Marital Partner Status	.20**	.08	1.00	-.25**	-.20**	.14*	-.17**	-.20**	.79**	-.22**
Number of Children	-.02	.17**	-.25**	1.00	.53**	-.10	.17**	.59**	-.22**	.02
Age of Young Child	.10	.22**	-.20**	.53**	1.00	-.11	.15*	.50**	-.17**	.12
Care of Elderly	.11	.19**	.14*	-.10	-.11	1.00	.02	-.13*	.13*	-.11
Hours Chores/ Errands	-.03	.12*	-.17**	.17**	.15*	.02	1.00	.23**	-.19**	.05
Hours Caring of Others	-.05	.12	-.20**	.59**	.50**	-.13*	.23**	1.00	-.20**	.00
Support Source	.23**	.11	.79**	-.22**	-.17**	.13*	-.19**	-.20**	1.00	-.20**
Support (QRI)	-.05	-.16*	-.22**	.02	.12	-.11	.05	.00	-.20**	1.00
<i>M</i>	2.67	2.21								3.37
<i>SD</i>	.66	.59								.63
<i>N</i>	266	266	265	263	256	265	263	254	262	266

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Note. The variables of marital/partner status; number of children at home under the age of 18; age of youngest child; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; hours per week spent in

home chores and errands; hours per week spent caring for others; and support source were dichotomous variables, thus means and standard deviation were not computed.

A standard multiple regression analysis was used to examine whether female counselors' family characteristics and support predicted work-family conflict (see Table 11). The model included the independent variables of marital/partner status (0 = in a relationship, 1 = not in a relationship); number of children at home under the age of 18 (0 = no children, 1 = 1 or more children); age of youngest child (0 = no children or children 6 years of age and older, 1 = children 5 years of age and younger); care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members (0 = no, 1 = yes); hours per week spent in home chores and errands (0 = less than 10 hours, 1 = 11 or more hours); hours per week spent caring for others (0 = 20 hours or less, 1 = 21 hours and greater); and support as measured by the QRI. The independent variable of support source was not placed into the regression model. When assessing for multicollinearity, the VIF frequency indicated the variable of support source was correlated with the variable of marital/partner status. The model was not a good fit for the variables and did not explain the variance in female counselors' WIF scores, $F(7, 230) = 1.94, p > .05$ with R^2 of .056. The predictors of marital/partner status (i.e., $t(230) = 2.91, p < .05$); number of children at home under the age of 18 (i.e., $t(230) = .04, p > .05$); age of youngest child (i.e., $t(230) = .94, p > .05$); care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members (i.e., $t(230) = 1.07, p > .05$); hours per week spent in home chores and errands (i.e., $t(230) = -.11, p > .05$); hours per week spent caring for others (i.e., $t(230) = -.47, p > .05$); and support (i.e., $t(230) = -.61, p > .05$) did not contribute to the model for female counselors' WIF scores.

The results of the regression model indicated three predictors explained 13.0% of the variance in female counselors' FIW scores, $F(7, 230) = 4.90, p < .05$ with R^2 of .130. The following predictors were found: (a) age of youngest child, $\beta = .22, p < .05$ (i.e., $t(230) = 2.89, p$

< .05); (b) participating in care of an elderly, ill, or disabled family, $\beta = .18, p < .05$ (i.e., $t(230) = 2.80, p < .05$); and (c) marital/partner, $\beta = -.12, p < .05$ (i.e., $t(230) = -2.42, p < .05$). The Durbin-Watson was at 1.20, suggesting no correlation between residuals. The VIF scores ranged from 1.066 to 1.760 suggesting no multicollinearity. The predictors of marital partner status (i.e., $t(230) = 1.49, p > .05$), number of children at home under the age of 18 (i.e., $t(230) = .85, p > .05$), hours per week spent in home chores and errands (i.e., $t(230) = 1.23, p > .05$), and hours per week spent caring for others (i.e., $t(230) = -.11, p > .05$) did not contribute to the model for female counselors' FIW scores.

Table 11

Regression Model for Participants' Family Characteristics and Support Predicting Work-Family Conflict

Variable	WIF					FIW				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Marital/Partner Status	.35	.12	.20	2.91	.00	.15	.10	.10	1.49	.14
Number of Children	.00	.12	.00	.04	.97	.08	.10	.85	.85	.40
Age Youngest Child	.12	.13	.07	.94	.35	.31	.11	.22*	2.89	.00
Care of Elderly	.13	.13	.07	1.07	.29	.30	.11	.18*	2.80	.01
Hours Chores/ Errands	-.01	.09	-.01	-.11	.92	.10	.08	.08	1.23	.21
Hours Caring of Others	-.06	.13	-.04	-.47	.64	-.01	.11	-.01	-.11	.92
Support (QRI)	-.05	.07	-.04	-.61	.54	-.15	.06	-.12*	-2.42	.02

Notes. $R^2 = .056$ for WIF, $R^2 = .130$ for FIW, * $p < .05$

Open-Ended Written Responses

In addition to the objective questions, female counselors responded to two open-ended questions. Of the 266 female counselors, 244 (92%) female counselors provided narrative responses for WIF and 240 (90%) female counselors provided narrative responses for FIW suggesting they wanted to add more information about their experiences of work-family conflict. The qualitative responses to both WIF and FIW were reviewed and several were selected that provide descriptive examples. Additionally, several responses were selected that provide narratives to illustrate the unique aspects of female counselors and the impact of work and family

roles. The selected narratives exemplify some of the struggles for eight female counselors surrounding work-family conflict.

Work interferes in family. Three examples of female counselors' perspectives of how their work interferes with their family are included. One female counselor wrote, *"My work is 75 miles away from my home and spouse. I therefore have an apartment where I live during the week. My husband and other family members and I talk daily to bridge the gap, but it does put a strain on my marriage."* A second female counselor wrote, *"I'm too tired to be fully present and attentive to my adult daughter with Asperger's who lives with me."* The third female counselor responded that she *"decided not to have children to avoid this issue."*

Family interferes in work. Examples of three additional female counselors' perspectives of how their family interferes with their work are included. One female counselor wrote, *"In order to be a 'good' mother I can't be at work during the hours I would be most needed due to homework."* A second female counselor wrote, *"Sometimes I have to take off from work to take my elderly relative to the doctor. I have to check in with my relative during the day to see if I need to do something for her after work."* The third female counselor responded that *"family is a priority so I will arrange my schedule to insure I am able to make it to family events."*

Counseling profession and work-family conflict. An additional two female counselors gave their perspective of how unique aspects of the counseling profession impacted their work-family conflict. The first female counselor wrote, *"I am sometimes so emotionally drained from listening to clients in therapy sessions that I am just done at the end of the day."* The second female counselor wrote, *"As a woman, work/life balance is a juggling act. You want to care for*

your clients and meet their needs, but often are torn in making decisions to be with your children instead.”

Summary of the Findings

Out of 354, 266 female counselors responded to the Demographic, Occupational, and Family Characteristics Survey, Work-Family Conflict Scale, Work Autonomy Scale, and Quality of Relationship Inventory (support scale). Data analysis included descriptive statistics, Pearson correlations, and multiple regression. For the dependent variable of work-family conflict, female counselors' responses indicated they experienced higher work interfering with family (WIF) than family interfering with work (FIW). Using descriptive analysis, female counselors scored slightly higher than the midpoint for WIF and slightly lower than the midpoint for FIW.

Pearson's correlation indicated significant relationships between WIF and FIW and the following independent variables: (a) annual household income; (b) hours per week spent in employment; (c) counseling license; (d) workplace flexibility; (e) autonomy; (f) marital/partner status; (g) number of children at home under the age of 18; (h) age of the youngest child; (i) care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; (k) hours per week spent in home chores and errands; and (l) source of support . The following inverse relationships were found with WIF: (a) autonomy, (b) annual household income, and (c) workplace flexibility. For FIW, inverse relationships were found with: (a) autonomy and (b) support. The following positive relationships were found with WIF: (a) hours per week spent in employment, (b) counseling license, (c) marital/partner status, and (d) support source. For FIW, positive relationships were found with: (a) number of children at home under the age of 18; (b) age of the youngest child; (c) care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; and (d) hours per week spent in home chores and errands.

Three multiple regression models were built to analyze the relationships between the three independent variable sets (i.e., demographic, occupational, and family) and the dependent variable of work interfering with family (WIF). The model for occupational characteristics, flexibility, and WAS predicting WIF explained the most variance in female counselors' WIF scores. Predictor variables for WIF included WAS, which had the greatest impact, followed by hours per week spent in employment. Three multiple regression models were built to analyze the relationships between the three independent variable sets (i.e., demographic, occupational, and family) and the dependent variable of family interfering with work (FIW). Of these models, the model for family characteristics and support predicting FIW explained the most variance in female counselors' FIW scores. Predictor variables for FIW included: (a) WAS; (b) age of the youngest child; (c) care of an elderly, ill, or disabled family member; and (d) support.

The open-ended responses in the survey provided information about female counselors' perceptions of WIF and FIW. Female counselors described practical conflicts due to location and working hours, as well as being emotionally drained from working with clients or family members with needs. Other female counselors described unique aspects of the counseling profession that impacted their experience of work-family conflict.

Chapter Five

Discussion

Introduction

The conflict women experience between work and family roles is an area of research focus in the literature (Kahn et al., 1964; Carlson et al., 2000). Researchers found demographic, occupational, and family characteristics related to women's experience of work-family conflict in the direction of work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering with work (FIW) (Frone et al., 1992; Michel et al., 2011). Super's (1980) LSLS theory served as the theoretical framework to understand how the personal and situational determinants identified in the present study (i.e., demographic, occupational, and family) impacted female counselors' experience of their work-family conflict. The purpose of the present research was to determine the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their demographic, occupational, and family characteristics.

In this chapter, results of the research questions are summarized and discussed as they relate to the existing literature. Implications of the research findings for the current study are provided surrounding three areas: female counselors, counselor educators, and counselors in practice. Limitations of the study and recommendations for future research are outlined as well as conclusions.

Research Findings Related to Literature

Work-family conflict. Super (1980) hypothesized that role conflict occurs when individuals participate in multiple roles simultaneously, such as both work and family roles. Frone et al. (1992) added a bi-directional perspective to role conflict that focused on conflict between work and family, with work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering with

work (FIW). Using the Carlson et al. (2000) Work-Family Conflict Scale, female counselors in the present study reported experiencing higher WIF than FIW. Additionally, female counselors' mean for WIF ($M = 2.67$) and FIW ($M = 2.21$) scores were consistent with previous research that included 225 full-time employees, in which women's mean WIF scores was 2.75 and their mean FIW scores was 2.20 (Carlson et al., 2000). In a study related to mental health professions, social workers reported experiencing more WIF than FIW (Kalliath et al., 2012).

Demographic characteristics. In the present study, no relationship was found between female counselors' WIF or FIW and their ethnicity, which is similar to Roehling et al.'s (2005) research with 1,761 White, Black, and Hispanic men and women where no differences were found in participants' WIF or FIW and their ethnicity. For the demographic of age in the present research, female counselors' WIF and FIW was not related to their age. As in a sample of 147 women, Noor (2003) did not find that age predicted the direction of women's WIF or FIW. Yet, in a sample of 489 working women, Gordon et al. (2007) found that women over the age of 50 experienced more WIF than FIW.

For education in the present study, female counselors who had a doctoral degree (Ph.D.) or a specialized degree (Ed.D. or Ed.S.) and female counselors without an advanced degree, no relationship was found between their WIF or FIW and education level. Whereas in a previous study, 2,544 individuals with a college degree reported higher levels of WIF than individuals without a college degree (Schieman & Glavin, 2011). Previous researchers indicated a relationship did exist between work-family conflict and annual household income (Hennessy, 2009; Steiber, 2009). Specifically, in both studies, the researchers indicated that women with both high and low socioeconomic status experienced work-family conflict but that women of high socioeconomic status experienced more WIF than FIW. Contrary to previous research, in

the present study when female counselors' annual household income increased their WIF decreased but no relationship was found for their FIW and annual household income.

Occupational characteristics. In the present study, a relationship was found between female counselors' WIF and the hours per week they spent in employment. Higher WIF was predicted in female counselors working over 40 hours per week. This finding supports the findings of Adkins and Premeaux (2012), who indicated that a relationship exists between work hours and work-family conflict with a sample of 564 workers. Similarly, a sample of 487 psychologists also reported higher WIF as their work hours increased (Rupert et al., 2009). For FIW in the present study, no relationship was found between female counselors' hours per week spent in employment and their FIW, whereas in Allen and Finkelstein's (2014) study of 690 dual-earner couples, women working over 35 hours per week experienced greater FIW.

Additionally, an occupational characteristic that was examined in the present study specific to the counseling profession was counseling license. A relationship was found between female counselors' WIF and not having a license, in which female counselors who did not have a license reported higher WIF than female counselors who were licensed. An additional characteristic specific to the counseling profession was female counselors' number of years of experience post-master's degree in which no relationship was found with their WIF or FIW. The finding in the present study is in contrast with previous research with 279 psychologists, in which Reilley (1988) found that psychology trainees reported 61% more stress in their work role than more experienced professionals and the trainees attributed their stress to entering a new profession and having less experience in that profession. In the present study, no relationship was found between female counselors' WIF or FIW and the number of practice settings in which

they were employed, whereas Burden (1986) found increased work-family conflict in females employed in more than one setting.

The present study supported the finding of Hill et al.'s (2010) research that workplace flexibility reduced work-family conflict in a sample of 75 countries in which 48% of participants were women. Additionally, Allen et al. (2013) conducted a meta-analysis that included 61 independent samples from 58 separate articles and concluded the direction of work-family conflict (i.e., WIF, FIW) is important to the relationship of work-family conflict and workplace flexibility. The authors found a significant relationship between WIF and workplace flexibility. Similarly, in the present study an inverse relationship was found between female counselors' WIF and workplace flexibility, in which female counselors' workplace flexibility increased as their WIF decreased. Allen et al. did not find a significant relationship between FIW and workplace flexibility. Similarly, results of the present study did not indicate a relationship between FIW and workplace flexibility.

For the occupational characteristic of workplace autonomy, in a study of 4,107 participants from 23 countries in Europe (Stieber, 2009) and a second study of 10,687 participants from 21 countries (Lyness et al., 2012), the researchers found women with greater workplace autonomy reported less work-family conflict. In the mental health professions, 439 social workers and 487 psychologists with greater workplace autonomy also reported lower WIF (Kalliath & Kalliath, 2013; Rupert et al., 2009). In the present study, an inverse relationship was found between female counselors' WIF and FIW and their perceived workplace autonomy. Additionally, female counselors' workplace autonomy predicted lower WIF and FIW.

Family characteristics. For the family characteristic of marital/partner status, in Noor's (2003) study of 147 women, she found that married women reported lower WIF than women

who were single, divorced, or married. In the present study, a similar relationship was found between female counselors' WIF and marital/partner status. Contrary to research with 2,335 workers, Minotte (2012), found that women not in a relationship reported higher FIW, whereas in the present research no relationship was found between female counselors' FIW and their marital/partner status.

For the characteristic of number of children at home under the age of 18, Chen (2009) found that with a sample of 528 male and female employees, the number of children in the home was related to WIF. However, in the present study, a relationship was found between female counselors' FIW and the number of children in their home. This finding contrasts with previous research with a sample of 118 female nurses, in which the number of children at home was not significantly related to FIW (Okonkwo, 2014).

Previous researchers indicated a relationship exists between work-family conflict and age of the youngest child in the home (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014; Lin, 2013). In a quantitative study of 690 employed participants, Allen and Finkelstein found that having a child in the home five years of age or younger predicted employees' FIW. In Lin's (2013) qualitative research of a female counseling psychologist's experience over 10 years, the psychologist described experiencing higher FIW when her child was five years old and younger, than when her child was older. In two qualitative studies with counseling professionals, the impact of children's age on counseling professionals' work-family conflict differed for each study (Stinchfield & Trepal, 2010; Trepal & Stinchfield, 2012). In Stinchfield and Trepal's sample of 70 female counselor educators, a qualitative theme found was that conflict between work and family increased when children in the home were younger. Yet, in Trepal and Stinchfield's qualitative study of 20 female counselor educators, age of children was not perceived by participants to impact their

work and family roles. The results of the present research support Stinchfield and Trepal's finding that female counselors' FIW increases when children in the home are younger. More specifically, for female counselors in this sample, having a child five years of age and younger predicted higher FIW.

In the present study, female counselors' family role involvement included two family characteristics; hours per week spent in home chores and errands and hours per week spent caring for others. In a sample of 1,121 participants, Carlson et al. (2000) found that a high level of involvement in the family role was related to FIW. In support of Carlson et al.'s general finding regarding the family role, the present research indicated a relationship between female counselors' FIW and the number of hours each week spent on home chores and errands; however a relationship was not found with female counselors' WIF or FIW and the number of hours each week they spent caring for others.

Another family characteristic and a finding of the present study was care of an elderly, ill, or disabled, which was similar to the findings of two other research studies (Lee et al., 2010; Li et al., 2015). In a study of 571 full-time employees, Lee et al. (2010) found that women providing elder care experienced higher FIW than women who did not provide elder care. Li et al. (2015) indicated that when care of the elderly was highly demanding employees reported higher FIW than when elder care was less demanding. In the present research, female counselors' experience of FIW was related to their care of an elderly, ill, or disabled family members and caring for elderly, ill, or disabled family members predicted higher FIW for female counselors.

In the present study, the final family characteristic was family support in which a positive relationship was found between female counselors' experiences of WIF and support that came

from family members other than their spouse or partner. Other research such as Beutell and Greenhaus (1982) found that with 115 female college students, they reported less work-family conflict when support was received from their spouse. And, in a qualitative research study of a panel of five female counselor educators, they described a supportive spouse as important to their experiencing less work-family conflict (Hermann et al., 2014). In a meta-analysis of 178 studies, Michel et al. (2011) indicated that family members' support was related to less FIW. In previous research of 1,200 psychologists, Rupert et al. (2015) found that support was negatively related to FIW. Whereas in the present study, an inverse relationship was found between FIW and female counselors' perceived support and that support predicted less FIW for them.

Implications

Female counselors. Female counselors that experience work-family conflict are at risk for burnout (Brauchli, Bauer, & Hammig, 2011). In a sample of 6,091 female and male employees, WIF was strongly associated with burnout and FIW was a weaker but also a significant predictor of burnout (Brauchli et al., 2011). Hardiman and Simmons (2013) discussed two broad categories of variables that contribute to burnout; work environment and personal variables. In the present study, a specific work environment variable that predicted female counselors' work-family conflict was working over 40 hours per week. Personal variables in the present research that predicted female counselors' FIW were having a child five years of age and younger and caring for an elderly, ill, or disabled family member. An implication that can be derived from the present findings is that female counselors could work toward balance in work and family roles in order to prevent possible burnout while working as counselors.

In a sample of 1,200 psychologists (Rupert et al., 2015) and a panel of five female counselor educators (Hermann et al., 2014), researchers indicated mental health professionals who have a supportive individual in their lives experience less FIW. Those findings were replicated in the current study when female counselors' support predicted less FIW for them. An implication related to these finding is that female counselors who surround themselves with support when participating in both work and family roles either from a family member, supervisor, or through participation in counseling may experience less FIW.

Counselors. To connect theory with practice, knowledge of Super's (1980) LSLS theory can help counselors when counseling women who participate in both work and family roles. It is important for counselors working with women to examine their own biases and values related to gender roles and be aware of those when working with female clients (Coogan & Chen, 2007). An implication related to Super's theory is that counselors can use the life-career rainbow to examine the various life-space roles in which female clients participate. Counselors can help female clients examine possible personal and situational determinants that may create work-family conflict (i.e., hours per week spent in employment; marital/partner status; source of support; number of children; age of youngest child; care of elderly, ill, or disabled family members; and support source) and those determinants that may decrease work-family conflict (i.e., annual household income; workplace flexibility; workplace autonomy; and support). Counselors can help clients examine these characteristics with possible implications and move toward more balance between work and family roles.

Tajlili (2014) discussed the importance of career counselors in assisting female clients to understand the influences that work and family roles have on clients, thus empowering women to make intentional choices about their participation in both work and family roles. An implication

for counselors who work with women is that counselors should be aware of the impact that work-family conflict has on women; such as lower family satisfaction, higher depression, low physical health, higher alcohol consumption (Frone et al., 1992; 1994) and lower job satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000). Counselors can discuss with female clients the relationships between WIF and FIW and the occupational and family characteristics found in the present research.

Implications related to these findings for women are that WIF may be higher in female counselors working over 40 hours per week and FIW may be higher in female counselors with a child under the age of five or that care for an elderly family member. The implication for females who wish to reduce their WIF and FIW is to seek working setting that have autonomous work environment and reduce their FIW by increasing their sources of support. Knowledge of these relationships can help women make choices about how they participate in work and family roles.

Counselor educators. The results of this study can be applied to the field of career counseling. Specific standards of the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Programs (CACREP, 2009), Section II.G.4.d. states teaching career development should include “interrelationships among and between work, family, and other life roles and factors” (p. 11). In the current study, relationships were found between female counselors’ work and family roles and the various factors that impact those roles. Also, Section E.4. states counseling students should “understand the changing roles of women..., and the implications of these changes for employment, education, family, and leisure” (p. 25). An implication derived from the qualitative responses from the present study was that female counselors commented on their changing roles in their family, work, and leisure. Two examples were one female counselor decided not to have

children, whereas a second female counselor described the impact that her work had on her leisure time since her employment location was 75 miles away from home.

Leitner (1973) stated that “educators may serve as models for counselor-trainees and counselors may serve as models for their client’s behavior change” (p. 110). In the present research, female counselors experienced more WIF than FIW. Thus, an implication for educators is that they can teach students about how to manage work and family roles through modeling behaviors or discussing with students the interaction of work and family roles.

A final implication for counselor educators includes supporting the parenthood choices of female counseling students. Females in academic settings report perceived discrimination based on their active participation in the family role (Hermann et al., 2014). In a study of 10 counseling doctoral students who were soon to be mothers, students identified their mentors (i.e., dissertation chair or major professor) as important individuals who provided logistical and emotional support during their transition to the role of mother (Holm, Prosek, & Weisberger, 2015). Logistical support included offering administrative information for meeting program requirements, whereas emotional support included empathic responses and recognition of student stress. In the present study, support predicted less FIW for female counselors, and counselor educators are individuals that can provide that support.

Limitations and Delimitations

Limitations concerning the self-report and cross-sectional design of the study and data collection were discussed in the first chapter. Self-report relies on the honesty of participants because their responses may be influenced by personal beliefs, opinions, or a socially desirable response (Miller, 2012). Female counselors who completed the survey for the present study may have been more interested in the topic than those who chose not to respond or their responses

may have been based in what they believed was socially desirable, such as experiencing less work-family conflict. Thus, counselors' responses may not have included a representative sample of the population.

A second limitation, due to the cross-sectional design, is that participants were representative of a subset of the population at one specific point in time and within a certain location, specifically female counselors in the states of Alabama and Louisiana. Female counselors in two southern states in the United States may differ culturally in their work and family roles than their counterparts in other areas of the United States (Shen et al., 2011). Thus, the sample may not be representative of the larger population of female counselors who participate in work and family roles across the United States or in other countries. It is possible that the expectations for women in work and family are different now, such as the number of hours worked per week, than in the past and in the future. Nomaguchi (2009) found an increase in work-family conflict among adult employees in a 20-year period beginning in 1977 and ending in 1997, suggesting a change in women's participation in work and family roles during that time and after.

A third limitation of this study is that all the variables related to work-family conflict presented in the literature were not examined such as supervisor support, personality type, and family friendly workplace policies (Michel et al., 2011). The variables not investigated in the present research may have influenced the work-family conflict of female counselors in the current study. Additionally, data were gathered from the perspective of one gender, female counselors who responded to the survey. For another perspective Pedersen and Minnotte (2012) found a crossover effect, in which husband's job satisfaction was related to their spouses' perceptions about work-family conflict.

A delimitation of the present research was that participants were limited to female counselors in Alabama and Louisiana who were participating in work and family roles. Participants were considered as having a family by the presence of one or more children, partner, spouse, or elderly relative residing in their homes, and were employed at least part time. Female counselors in the present research also had to supply their email address to the Alabama Counseling Association or the Louisiana Counseling Association, had to have a working email address, and had to be able to access to the internet.

Recommendations for Future Research

A unique finding of the current study was that female counselors' workplace flexibility was related to lower WIF but not FIW. However, because the independent variable of workplace flexibility interacted with five other independent variables (i.e., hours per week spent in employment, counseling license, number of practice settings, years of counseling experience post-master's degree, and autonomy), it was removed from the regression model to predict WIF and FIW. Previous research by Trepal & Stinchfield (2012) indicated inconsistencies in how counselor educators described workplace flexibility, suggesting flexibility is viewed both positively and negatively by female counselor educators. They viewed workplace flexibility as positive when facilitating balance between work and family roles, but they also viewed flexibility as negative in not being able to separate work and family roles. A recommendation for future research is a qualitative examination of counselors' perceptions regarding workplace flexibility, which could assist in a better understanding of specific ways in which workplace flexibility impacts counselors' work-family conflict.

A second unique finding of the present research was that female counselors' family characteristics predicted work-family conflict in the direction of FIW, not the direction of WIF.

Previous researchers found that when individuals experienced conflict, the less salient role is perceived to be the source of that conflict (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Frone et al., 1992). In the present research, female counselors' average WIF was higher than their average FIW, which could indicate female counselors perceived their family role to be the less salient role, thus the source of their work-family conflict. A recommendation for future researchers is to explore the salience of female counselor's roles, as well as their perspectives on the source of their work-family conflict.

Based on Super's LSLS theory, a third recommendation would be to further examine the components of his theory, such as the situational and personal determinants that impact female counselors' experience of work and family roles. Researchers could use a qualitative inquiry to gather a description of the situational and personal determinants unique to female counselors, such as self-care and burnout (Brauchli et al., 2011; Landrum & Garza, 2015). Researchers could also continue with a quantitative examination of work-family conflict that examines variables not studied in the present research, such as supervisor support and type of practice setting, as a lack of quantitative research on the work and family roles of professional counselors exists (Hermann et al., 2014).

The present study focused on the experiences of female counselors, though researchers found men also experience work-family conflict (Ergeneli, Ilsev, & Karapinar, 2010). A recommendation for future research is to examine work-family conflict in counselors that would include analysis of gender differences. Duan et al. (2010) discussed the importance of not making the assumption that only females experience difficulty in balancing work and family roles. In their study, finding balance was important to the wellbeing of male professionals.

Further research on the general population of counselors' work and family roles that includes gender differences is recommended.

Finally, a recommendation for future researchers is to examine the positive aspects of participation in work and family roles, which parallels the emphasis on positive psychology in the counseling literature (Morgansen, Litano, & O'Neill, 2014). The research focus of the present study was work-family conflict, however future researchers could examine female counselors' experience of work-family enrichment and work-family balance. Work-family enrichment is "the extent to which experiences in one role (i.e., work) improve the quality of life in the other role (i.e., home)" (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 72), whereas work-family balance is the ability to balance the roles and responsibilities of the various roles an individual participates in (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007).

Conclusions

The results of the present study suggests that overall female counselors experience more WIF than FIW. Specifically, workplace autonomy was the largest predictor of lower WIF and FIW of female counselors, suggesting that female counselors who wish to experience less work-family conflict should strive for autonomy in the workplace. Also, female counselors should be attentive to the number of hours they work past 40 hours a week because as noted by female counselors in the present study WIF was predicted by those who were employed over 40 hours each week. Additionally, higher FIW was predicted in female counselors with children five years of age and younger as well as female counselors who were caring for elderly, ill, or disabled family members. It is suggested that female counselors with young children or that are caring for elderly, ill, or disabled family members are aware how those family situations impact FIW so they are better able to manage that conflict. Support predicted less FIW in female

counselors, suggesting that support is a means to reduce FIW and female counselors should seek supportive relationships. Finally, the results of this study indicate the direction of conflict matters, as the family characteristics predicted conflict in the direction of FIW, not WIF.

The current study added to the literature surrounding female counselors' experience of their work and family roles by adding a quantitative research component to work-family conflict specific to female counselors practicing in the counseling field. The independent variable that contributed the most to predicting less WIF and FIW in female counselors was workplace autonomy, which implied that female counselors who experience work-family conflict should seek autonomy in their workplace. Also, the present research can be used by counselor educators when teaching career counseling courses to support female counseling students in their choices about work and family. The response rate to the survey and depth of qualitative responses suggested female counselors were eager to discuss their experiences in their work and family roles. Counselors can continue to listen empathically to their female clients as women discuss the struggles and challenges of participation in both work and family roles (Christensen, 2013).

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Appendix A

Demographic, Occupational, and Family Characteristics Survey

Demographic, Occupational, and Family Characteristics Survey

Demographic Characteristics: Please respond to each of the following that best describes your personal information.

1. Ethnicity:

- 1 ☐ African American/Black
- 2 ☐ Asian
- 3 ☐ Hispanic
- 4 ☐ Native American
- 5 ☐ White
- 6 ☐ Other _____

2. Age: _____ (Drop down menu)

3. Annual Household Income:

- 1 ☐ Under \$25,000
- 2 ☐ \$25,001-\$50,000
- 3 ☐ \$50,001-\$75,000
- 4 ☐ \$75,001-\$100,000
- 5 ☐ Over \$100,000

Occupational Characteristics: Please respond to each of the following that best describes your occupational information.

4. Approximately, how many *hours* per week do you spend in total employment?

- 1 ☐ <10 hours
- 2 ☐ 11-20 hours
- 3 ☐ 21-30 hours
- 4 ☐ 31-40 hours
- 5 ☐ 41-50 hours
- 6 ☐ >51 hours

5. Level of educational degree, state licensure and/or other certifications? (Check all that apply)

- 1. ☐ Doctoral Degree (Ph.D)
- 2. ☐ Education Specialist (Ed.D or Ed.S)
- 3. ☐ Master's Degree in Counseling-not registered with state counseling licensing board
- 4. ☐ Master's Degree in Counseling-registered with state counseling licensing board and under supervision for state licensure (e.g., Counselor Intern, Provisional Licensed Professional)
- 5. ☐ Master's Degree in Counseling-licensed counseling professional in accordance with state regulations (e.g., LPC, LMFT, LMHC, LCMHC)
- 6. ☐ Master's Degree-Psychology
- 7. ☐ Master's Degree-Social Work
- 8. ☐ Licensing Board Approved Counseling Supervisor (e.g., LPC-S, LPCC-S)
- 9. ☐ Certified Clinical Mental Health Counselor (CCMHC)
- 10. ☐ National Certified School Counselor (NCSC)
- 11. ☐ National Certified Counselor (NCC)
- 12. ☐ Other _____

6. Current practice setting? (Check all that apply)

- 1 ☐ School K-12
- 2 ☐ University Counseling Center
- 3 ☐ Inpatient/Outpatient Addiction Treatment
- 4 ☐ Community Mental Health Center
- 5 ☐ Counselor Education
- 6 ☐ Private Practice
- 7 ☐ Crisis Center/Call Center
- 8 ☐ Play Therapy Center
- 9 ☐ Mental Health Rehabilitation (MHR)
- 10 ☐ Hospital Setting
- 11 ☐ Prison/Detention Setting
- 12 ☐ Government/Military
- 13 ☐ Employee Assistance Program (EAP)

7. Number of years of counseling experience post-master's degree:

(drop down menu including <6 months, 6 months to 1 year, 1 to 2 years; to 30 years)

8. How much flexibility do you have in your work schedule at your employment?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
no		moderate				complete
flexibility		flexibility				flexibility

Family Characteristics: Please respond to each of the following that best describes your family. You can respond N/A (not applicable) when appropriate.

9. Marital/Partner Status:

- 1 ☐ Single
- 2 ☐ Married
- 3 ☐ Not Married, but in long-term relationship
- 4 ☐ Separated
- 5 ☐ Divorced
- 6 ☐ Widowed
- 7 ☐ Other

10. Number of children at home under the age of 18? _____ (Drop down menu including n/a, and zero through ten)

11. Age of your youngest child living at home? _____ (Drop down menu including n/a, <1 through 18)

12. Age of yourself when your first child was born: _____ (Drop down menu including n/a)

13. Do you currently take care of elderly, disabled or ill family members?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

14. Approximately, how many *hours* per week do you spend doing the following activities?

a) Home chores and errands

- 1 ☐ <10 hours
- 2 ☐ 11-20 hours
- 3 ☐ 21-30 hours
- 4 ☐ 31-40 hours
- 5 ☐ 41-50 hours
- 6 ☐ >51 hours

b) Care of others (children, aging parents, disabled or ill family members)

- 1 ☐ <5 hours
- 2 ☐ 5-10 hours
- 3 ☐ 11-20 hours
- 4 ☐ 21-30 hours
- 5 ☐ 31-40 hours
- 6 ☐ 41-50 hours
- 7 ☐ >51 hours

Appendix B

Work-Family Conflict Scale

Work-Family Conflict Scale

The statements below ask about how you feel about your work and nonwork roles. Read each statement and mark the box reflecting your agreement or disagreement with the statement.

1
strongly
disagree

2
disagree

3
neither
agree or
disagree

4
agree

5
strongly
agree

15. My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.
16. The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.
17. I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.
18. The time I spend on family responsibilities often interfere with my work responsibilities.
19. The time I spend with my family often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.
20. I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities.
21. When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.
22. I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.
23. Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.
24. Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work.
25. Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.
26. Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job.
27. The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.
28. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.

- 29. The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.
- 30. The behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.
- 31. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.
- 32. The problem-solving behavior that works for me at home does not seem to be as useful at work.

Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., & Williams, L. J. (2000). Construction and initial validation of a multidimensional measure of work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56(2), 249-276. doi:10.1006/jvbe.1999.1713

Appendix C

Permission Letter for Use of the Work-Family Conflict Scale

Permission Letter for Use of the Work-Family Conflict Scale

RE: work-family conflict measure - Emeline Carol Eckart

Page 1 of 2

RE: work-family conflict measure

Carlson, Dawn S. <Dawn_Carlson@baylor.edu>

Mon 11/3/2014 4:33 PM

To: Emeline Carol Eckart <eeckart@my.uno.edu>;

Emma,

You have permission to use the scale. The final scale consists of 18 items and is in a table in the paper. I use a 5 point Likert scale of strongly agree to strongly disagree. I average the 9 items per direction so I get a scale for work to family conflict and one for family to work conflict. Best of luck with your dissertation.

Dr. Carlson

Dawn S. Carlson, Ph. D.
Professor of Management
H. R. Gibson Chair of Organizational Development
Hankamer School of Business
Baylor University
One Bear Place 98013
Waco, TX 76798-8013
phone: 254-710-6201
fax: 254-710-1093
e-mail: Dawn_Carlson@Baylor.edu

From: Emeline Carol Eckart [mailto:eeckart@my.uno.edu]

Sent: Monday, November 03, 2014 10:26 AM

To: Carlson, Dawn S.

Subject: work-family conflict measure

Dr. Carlson,

I am a Ph.D. student in the University of New Orleans Counselor Education department, and will be writing my dissertation on level of work-family conflict experienced by counselors. I was able to retrieve your article on initial validation of the work-family conflict measure, and was wondering if I could have permission to use that measurement for my study? Additionally, I didn't see a final version of the measure in the article, and was wondering how I can attain that?

The article I am referencing is

Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., & Williams, L. J. (2000). Construction and initial validation of a multidimensional measure of work-family conflict. *Journal Of Vocational Behavior*, 56(2), 249-276.

<https://pod51030.outlook.com/owa/>

12/5/2014

Appendix D

Work Autonomy Scale

Work Autonomy Scale

Please rate your responses to the following items with (1) = strongly disagree to (7) = strongly agree.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree	slightly degree	disagree	neither agree nor disagree	slightly agree	agree	strongly agree

-
33. I am allowed to decide how to go about getting my job done
34. I am able to choose the way to go about my job
35. I am free to choose the method(s) to use in carrying out my work.
36. I have control over the scheduling of my work.
37. I have some control over the sequencing of my work activities.
38. My job is such that I can decide when to do particular work activities.
39. My job allows me to modify the normal way we are evaluated so that I can emphasize some aspects of my job and downplay others.
40. I am able to modify what my job objectives are.
41. I have some control over what I am supposed to accomplish.
-

Breaugh, J. A. (1985). The measurement of work autonomy. *Human Relations*, 38(6), 551-570.
doi:10.1177/001872678503800604

Appendix E

Permission Letter for Use of the Work Autonomy Scale

Permission Letter for Use of the Work Autonomy Scale

RE: Work Autonomy Scales - Emeline Carol Eckart

Page 1 of 1

RE: Work Autonomy Scales

Breaugh, James <jbreaugh@umsl.edu>

Sat 11/22/2014 4:00 PM

To: Emeline Carol Eckart <eeckart@my.uno.edu>;

Good luck with your dissertation. You have my permission to use the scales. I simply unit weighted each item (add number up).

Jim Breaugh
218 Express Scripts Hall
Dept. of Management
U. of Missouri – Saint Louis
St. Louis, MO 63121
jbreaugh@umsl.edu
314-516-6287

From: Emeline Carol Eckart [<mailto:eeckart@my.uno.edu>]
Sent: Saturday, November 22, 2014 9:57 AM
To: Breaugh, James
Subject: Work Autonomy Scales

Dr. Breaugh,
I am a Ph.D. student in the University of New Orleans Counselor Education program and am working on my dissertation. I am seeking permission to use your Work Autonomy Scales as part of a study on the level of work-family conflict experienced in counselors. Also, is there a specific scoring procedure for the scales?
Thanks,
Emma Eckart

Emma Eckart, M.S., NCC
Doctoral Candidate
Counseling Program Lab Coordinator & Community Liaison
University of New Orleans
Eeckart@uno.edu
504-280-5435

<https://pod51030.outlook.com/owa/>

12/5/2014

Appendix F

Quality of Relationship Inventory (Support Scale)

Quality of Relationship Inventory (Support Scale)

Reflect on the individuals that live in your household, and which of those individuals provides you the most support.

42. Which individual in your household provides you the most support?

- 1 ☐ Spouse or partner
- 2 ☐ Mother
- 3 ☐ Father
- 4 ☐ Grandmother
- 5 ☐ Grandfather
- 6 ☐ Son
- 7 ☐ Daughter
- 8 ☐ Sister
- 9 ☐ Brother
- 10 ☐ Aunt
- 11 ☐ Uncle
- 12 ☐ Cousin
- 13 ☐ Other

Please use the scale below to answer the following questions regarding your relationship with that individual.

-1-
Not at all

-2-
A little

-3-
Quite a bit

-4-
Very much

43. To what extent could you turn to this person for advice about problems?

44. To what extent could you count on this person for help with a problem?

45. To what extent can you count on this person to give you honest feedback, even if you might not want to hear it?

46. To what extent can you count on this person to help you if a family member very close to you died?

47. If you wanted to go out and do something this evening, how confident are you that this person would be willing to do something with you?

48. To what extent can you count on this person to listen to you when you are very angry at someone else?

49. To what extent can you really count on this person to distract you from your worries when you feel under stress?

Pierce, G. R., Sarason, I. G., & Sarason, B. R. (1991). General and relationship-based perceptions of social support: Are two constructs better than one? *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 61(6), 1028-1039.

Appendix G

Permission Letter for Use of the Quality of Relationship Inventory (Support Scale)

Permission Letter for Use of the Quality of Relationships Inventory (Support Scale)

Re: QRI - Emeline Carol Eckart

Page 1 of 1

Re: QRI

Gregory Pierce <gpierce@hamilton.edu>

Fri 11/21/2014 4:48 PM

To: Emeline Carol Eckart <eeckart@my.uno.edu>;

2 attachments

QRI.word.doc; QRI.scoring_instructions.doc;

Hi Emma:

You most certainly have my permission to use the QRI. I've attached the scoring instructions as well as a copy of the instrument.

Best,

Greg

On 11/21/14, 11:32 AM, Emeline Carol Eckart wrote:

Dr. Pierce,

I am a Ph.D. student in the University of New Orleans Counselor Education program and am interested in using the Quality of Relationship Inventory as part of my dissertation. Specifically, I am seeking permission to use the support scale, and also wanted to inquire on how to score the one scale?

Thanks,

Emma Eckart

Emma Eckart, M.S., NCC

Doctoral Candidate

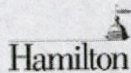
Counseling Program Lab Coordinator & Community Liaison

University of New Orleans

Eeckart@uno.edu

504-280-5435

--



Gregory R. Pierce, Ph.D.
Professor of Psychology
HAMILTON COLLEGE
198 College Hill Rd.
Clinton, NY 13323

Science Center 3037
email: gpierce@hamilton.edu
Phone: (315) 859-4721
FAX: (315) 859-4807

<https://pod51030.outlook.com/owa/>

12/5/2014

Appendix H

Written Response Questions

Written Response Questions

Please write your response to the following two questions.

50. Please describe ways in which your work interferes with your family.

51. Please describe ways in which your family interferes with your work.

Appendix I

Initial Email Communication

Initial Email Communication

Dear Counselor,

I am a graduate student under the direction of Dr. Roxane L. Dufrene in the Counselor Education Department at the University of New Orleans. I am conducting a research study to determine the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their demographic, occupational, and family characteristics.

I am requesting your participation, which will involve approximately twenty minutes of your time. Your participation in this study is voluntary. To participate in this research, participants should be *female* counselors working in a counseling setting. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. The questionnaire is anonymous. The results of the study may be published but your name will not be known. As an incentive for participation, you will have the option at the end of the survey to become eligible for a drawing in which five participants will receive a \$50 gift certificate for Amazon.com. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to provide your name and email address. Your responses in this section will be kept separate from your survey responses so that your personal information cannot be associated with your data input on the survey. Once the survey is closed, a blind drawing will be completed in which five email addresses are picked, and those participants will be notified via email.

Please direct your questions or concerns regarding this research to Emeline C. Eckart, (eeckart@uno.edu), or my faculty advisor, Dr. Dufrene (rdufren1@uno.edu). If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact Dr. Ann O'Hanlon at the University of New Orleans at 504-280-3990.

Submission of the survey will be considered your consent to participate. The survey can be accessed through the link below, or by copying the link into your web browser.

Survey link

Sincerely,

Emeline C. Eckart, MS, NCC
Doctoral Candidate, University of New Orleans
2000 Lakeshore Drive
Bicentennial Education Building, RM 212
New Orleans, LA 70148

Appendix J

Second Email Communication

Second Email Communication

Dear Counselor,

Please disregard this email if you have already participated in this research. I am a graduate student under the direction of Dr. Roxane L. Dufrene in the Counselor Education Department at the University of New Orleans. I am conducting a research study to determine the relationship between female counselors' work-family conflict and their demographic, occupational, and family characteristics.

I am requesting your participation, which will involve approximately twenty minutes of your time. Your participation in this study is voluntary. To participate in this research, participants should be *female* counselors working in a counseling setting. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. The questionnaire is anonymous. The results of the study may be published but your name will not be known. As an incentive for participation, you will have the option at the end of the survey to become eligible for a drawing in which five participants will receive a \$50 gift certificate for Amazon.com. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to provide your name and email address. Your responses in this section will be kept separate from your survey responses so that your personal information cannot be associated with your data input on the survey. Once the survey is closed, a blind drawing will be completed in which five email addresses are picked, and those participants will be notified via email.

Please direct your questions or concerns regarding this research to Emeline C. Eckart, (eeckart@uno.edu), or my faculty advisor, Dr. Dufrene (rdufren1@uno.edu). If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact Dr. Ann O'Hanlon at the University of New Orleans at 504-280-3990.

Submission of the survey will be considered your consent to participate. The survey can be accessed through the link below, or by copying the link into your web browser.

Survey link

Sincerely,

Emeline C. Eckart, MS, NCC
Doctoral Candidate, University of New Orleans
2000 Lakeshore Drive
Bicentennial Education Building, RM 212
New Orleans, LA 70148

Appendix K
IRB Approval Letter

IRB Approval Letter

University Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research University of New Orleans

Campus Correspondence

Principal Investigator: Roxane L. Dufrene
Co-Investigator: Emeline C. Eckart

Date: May, 07 2015

Protocol Title: "A Study to Examine How Demographic, Occupational, and Family Characteristics Relate to Work-Family Conflict in Female Counselors"

IRB#: 01May15

The IRB has deemed that the research and procedures described in this protocol application are exempt from federal regulations under 45 CFR 46.101 category 2, due to the fact that data will be collected anonymously.

Exempt protocols do not have an expiration date; however, if there are any changes made to this protocol that may cause it to be no longer exempt from CFR 46, the IRB requires another standard application from the investigator(s) which should provide the same information that is in this application with changes that may have changed the exempt status.

If an adverse, unforeseen event occurs (e.g., physical, social, or emotional harm), you are required to inform the IRB as soon as possible after the event.

Best wishes on your project.
Sincerely,



Robert D. Laird, Ph.D., Chair
UNO Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research

VITA

The author was born in Savannah, Georgia. She obtained her Bachelor's degree in Psychology with a minor in History and Naval science from Marquette University in 2001. She graduated from Capella University in 2011 with a Master's of Science in Mental Health Counseling and from the University of New Orleans in December 2015 with a Doctorate of Philosophy in Counselor Education. Emeline is currently working as the clinical coordinator for the University of New Orleans Counselor Education Department. She is a Nationally Certified Counselor and a Licensed Professional Counselor registered with the Louisiana Board of Examiners.