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DECLARATION

I certify that the minor dissertation submitted by me for the degree Master’s of Commerce (Industrial Psychology) at the University of Johannesburg is my independent work and has not been submitted by me for a degree at another university.

CHERISE LOUW

(Name in block letters – no signature)
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ABSTRACT

Orientation – Working men and women are finding it increasingly challenging to establish a balance between their family environments and working environment, especially with the increase in the number of roles they have adopted. Personality may impact the experience of work-family conflict.

Research purpose – The main objective of this study was to determine whether gender moderates the relationship between personality variables- specifically extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism- and work-family conflict. This study also looked at whether levels of work-family conflict, extraversion, neuroticism and conscientiousness differ significantly between men and women.

Motivation for the study – There is little research done on working men and women and how they experience work-family conflict.

Research design, approach and method – A quantitative, cross-sectional survey design was utilised to gather information. The sample (N=791) was comprised of working men and women from a variety of organisations. Data were gathered by making use of the Work-to-Family Conflict Questionnaire (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996) and the Basic Traits Inventory (BTI) (Taylor & De Bruin, 2006).

Main finding – The results indicated that levels of work-family conflict do not differ significantly between working men and working women, however, differences did occur in personality between men and women. Women experience higher levels of conscientiousness and neuroticism than men. Men and women, however, do not differ in terms of levels of extraversion. Neuroticism positively predicted work-family conflict. The results also
indicated that gender does not moderate the relationship between these three personality variables and work-family conflict.

**Practical/managerial implications** - The study supplements a thin database on the experiences in terms of work-family conflict among working men and women in South Africa. Organisations should provide men and women with equal opportunities as well as support in facing challenges of work-family conflict (e.g. flexible working hours).

**Key words:** work-to-family conflict, extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, males and females
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This section serves as a background to the study by introducing the variables of interest and the hypothesised relationships between them. The problem statement and objectives of the study are given. The chapter ends with the layout of the dissertation.

1.2 Background to the study

Working individuals are faced with the need to strike a balance between family demands and roles in the family domain, and work demands and roles in the work domain (Allport, 1960). This is obviously a challenge for many individuals (Mostert, 2008). An aspect that can be expected to influence how individuals handle this challenge is the inherent personality traits that they bring into their work and personal environments (George, Helson, & John, 2011). In fact, it has been shown that personality influences workplace behaviours such as absenteeism (Furnham & Bramwell, 2006) and job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Personality can be described by many perspectives that determine the way in which individuals behave, think and feel (Roberts & Wood, 2006). A widely known conceptualisation of personality is the Big Five model, according to which the five key traits that inform our personality are agreeableness, openness to experience, extraversion, neuroticism and conscientiousness (McCrae & John, 1992). This study specifically focuses on extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism, as these personality traits have been linked to work-family conflict in several studies done outside of the South African context (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Stoeva, Chiu, & Greenhaus, 2002; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004) and only limited studies are available on the relationship between openness to experience and
agreeableness. Both extraversion and conscientiousness has shown to have a negative relationship with work-family conflict (McCrae & Costa, 1991; Wayne et al., 2004) and neuroticism has been shown to have a positive relationship with work-family conflict (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Stoeva et al., 2002).

Substantial research attention has been given to work-family conflict (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Repetti, 1988; Wille, De Fruyt, & Feys, 2013). Voydanoff (2004) pointed out that the family and work domains are no longer separate, but go hand in hand. This may lead to men and women experiencing increased pressure as they have to adapt to changes in their roles (Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2006). Today, men have started to take on more domestic responsibilities and women’s participation in the workplace has increased. Having to fulfil the role of being a parent, wife or husband, and a working individual can cause conflict and stress between these roles (Theunissen, Van Vuuren, & Visser, 2003). The pressure experienced in the work and family domains can become irreconcilable which can result in work-family conflict (Dugan, Matthews & Barnes-Farrell, 2012; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). With dual-earner couples becoming the norm, men and women are increasingly sharing domestic responsibilities (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Zvara, Schoppe-Sullivan & Dush, 2013).

The relationship between family and work is bidirectional (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; Stoeva, Chiu, & Greenhaus, 2002). As research has shown that work-family conflict has a greater impact on the well-being of individuals than family-work conflict, this study focuses on work-family conflict rather than family-work conflict (Donald & Linington, 2008; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2006). Gender differences in terms of work-family conflict (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001) and personality (Feingold, 1994; Furnham & Bramwell, 2006; Lippa, 2010) do exist. These differences could exist because men and
women are orientated differently (Cinamon & Rich, 2002) and derive meaning from different things in life (Rothbard, 2001).

1.3 Problem statement

The intensity of work-family conflict experienced by working men and women is changing due to changes in their roles and responsibilities. Men are increasingly contributing at home and women are taking on more work responsibilities (Chant & Gutmann, 2000). Research has focused mostly on women and their experience of work-family conflict (Franks, Schurink, & Fourie, 2006; MacDonald, 2004), yet men are not unaffected. Personality traits (e.g. neuroticism) affect the levels of work-family conflict (Bruck & Allen, 2003). Few studies, however, have investigated the relationships among these specific variables within the South African context in particular.

1.4 Research objective

This study aims to establish whether gender moderates the relationship between personality variables (extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism) and work-family conflict. A secondary aim is to determine whether there are significant gender differences in terms of levels of extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism, as well as levels of work-family conflict.

1.5 Research questions

The study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. Do levels of work-family conflict differ significantly between men and women?

2. Do levels of extraversion, neuroticism and conscientiousness differ significantly between men and women?
3. Does gender moderate the relationship between extraversion and work-family conflict?

4. Does gender moderate the relationship between neuroticism and work-family conflict?

5. Does gender moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and work-family conflict?

1.6 Layout of dissertation

Chapter 2 presents a detailed overview of the constructs in this study. The literature focuses on the relationships among the constructs of interest. These are: extraversion; conscientiousness; neuroticism; work-family conflict; and gender. Chapter 3 presents the research process, which includes the research design, research procedure, description of the measuring instruments used, the statistical analysis and the ethical considerations. Chapter 4 contains the research results. Chapter 5 provide a discussion of the findings. Chapter 6 provides the conclusion that incorporates an overview of the aims and findings, the meaning of these findings, as well as limitations and recommendations for future studies.

1.7 Summary

This chapter set the context for the study and introduced the variables of interest. The problem statement, aims of the study and research questions was stated. An overview of the remainder of the dissertation was provided.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter one presented a broad overview of the study and introduced the research problem. The literature review provides a detailed overview of the literature findings related to the variables in this study. The discussion commences with an investigation of personality and in particular, the role it plays in the workplace. Work-family conflict is discussed, as well as the role of gender in the relationship between work-family conflict and personality. The chapter concludes by indicating possible hypotheses related to the key variables in the study, namely: personality, work-family conflict and gender.

2.2 Personality in the workplace

Several definitions of personality have been proposed by a number of theorists, but only a few will be highlighted in this study. Hofstee (1994) defines personality from an outside-in perspective by stating that an outsider’s perspective of a person can serve as a definition of that person’s personality. An individual’s implicit ideas can also serve as a definition of their structure of personality (Hofstee, 1994). Allport (1945) linked personality to a number of dimensions, including learning, attitude and participation or behaviour. Allport (1960) furthermore states that personality should be viewed as an open system, as it is in interaction with the environment in that individuals respond to stimuli and try to maintain equilibrium in their lives. He also states that personality can be defined according to interaction with others, and with the culture or roles that people adopt. Allport’s definition highlights the multifaceted nature of personality. In fact, Roberts and Wood (2006) proposed that personality can be divided into four categories, namely: an individual’s capability of doing something; personality traits that explain what an individual thinks, feels and how he/she behaves; an individual’s motives; and the life stories of an individual. Adding to this,
McAdams (1995, 1996) describes personality as consisting of three levels. These include: the trait level which describes the person and their psychological characteristics; the second level which consists of the individual’s ambitions, the way he/she copes with problems and the things that motivate him/her; and the third level which is the individual’s actual identity.

A prominent school of thought that emerged in personality is the trait-based theory. In this study, the trait-based theory of personality was applied. This is the school of thought most often utilised when including personality variables in a study (Roberts, Jackson, Duckworth, & Von Culin 2011). Tellegen (1991) defined a personality trait as “a psychological (therefore) organismic structure underlying a relatively enduring behavioural disposition, i.e., a tendency to respond in certain ways under certain circumstances” (p. 622). Eysenck and Eysenck (1980) defined personality traits as “individual differences with respect to their location on semi-permanent personality dispositions” (p. 191). One of the most influential trait conceptions of personality is the Big Five (Branco e Silva & Laher, 2012).

2.2.1 The Big Five model of personality

The Big Five model of personality (McCrae and Costa, 1990) puts emphasis on five broad dimensions of personality in an attempt to describe individual differences in a meaningful way (De Haan, Dekovic, & Prinzie, 2012).

The Big Five comprise the following five factors: openness to experience, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism and conscientiousness (Caspi, 1998; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1993; Hendriks, Hofstee, & De Raad, 1999a, 1999b; McCrae & John, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1999). The Big Five has proven to have convergent and discriminant validity and can therefore be applied to adults for the foreseeable future (McCrae & Costa, 1990). The Big Five personality traits which have been linked to work-family conflict, include extraversion (Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004), conscientiousness (Bruck & Allen, 2003) and
neuroticism (Stoeva, Chiu, & Greenhaus, 2002). Extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism were chosen for this study for two reasons. Firstly, research has found a relationship between these traits and work-family conflict and secondly, gender differences have also been evident in research related to these personality traits.

**2.2.1.1 Extraversion**

Extraversion is based on interaction and relationships between people (Pervin, 1996). When a person displays extraversion they usually have an interest in people and they seek interaction, impact and status or power in the workplace and at home (George, Helson, & John, 2011). Extraverts display the following characteristics: they are sociable and outgoing; they are assertive and speak their minds; they are optimistic about the future; and they are energetic, talkative and cheerful (McCrae & Costa, 1999). Individuals receiving a low score on this personality dimension are known as introverts and are less outspoken, more reserved and like to do things by themselves (McCrae & Costa, 1999).

Extraverted individuals usually have a need for interaction with other individuals as this interaction leads to experiencing feelings of happiness, positivity and energy (Taylor & De Bruin, 2004). In the workplace, extraverted individuals may display specific behaviours including approaching workplace challenges with energy, having an enthusiastic approach to work, enjoying social events and leading a team, being opinionated, accomplishing a greater number of tasks in a given period, being less prone to stress or fatigue, displaying a need for challenging or stimulating work, and seeking opportunities to be innovative (Digman, 1990; John & Srivastava, 1999; McCrae & John, 1992; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004).
2.2.1.2 Conscientiousness

Kaplan and Saccuzzo (2001) define conscientiousness as “the degree to which a person is persevering, responsible and organised as opposed to lazy, irresponsible and impulsive” (p. 438). A conscientious individual is determined, punctual, organised and strong-willed and is usually successful both academically and in the workplace (Costa & McCrae, 1991). An individual who is low on conscientiousness does not set goals for himself/herself, and is an unreliable person because he/she does not perform and is careless (Costa & McCrae, 1991).

Some of the main characteristics of a conscientious individual includes the need to keep everything neat and tidy and to follow certain steps before acting or making a decision, finishing tasks that have been started, being reliable and following certain principles, being diligent and ambitious when it comes to setting and carrying out goals, and thinking and checking the facts before acting (Taylor & De Bruin, 2004). Specific workplace behaviours that can be expected from conscientious employees include the following: being achievement orientated; being efficient or thorough in carrying out tasks; being a hard worker and being productive; accepting responsibility for actions taken; accomplishing much in a given period; having high self-esteem at work; easily developing good interpersonal relationships; being trustworthy; and putting others’ interests before their own when necessary (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Judge & Higgins, 1999; McCrae & John, 1992; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004).

Despite all the above positive descriptors of conscientiousness, the trait may also have some negative aspects attached to it. A strong sense of achievement and competitive nature can interfere with relationships (McCrae & John, 1992). According to Andreassen, Hetland and Pallesen (2010) conscientious individuals tend to be over-achievers with high expectations for themselves, and can therefore spend a lot of time at work. In addition, they state that this can lead to undesirable consequences such as stress and burnout.
2.2.1.3 Neuroticism

Kokkinos (2007, p.230) defines neuroticism as “the susceptibility to psychological distress, inability to control urges, proneness to unrealistic ideas and inability to cope with stress”. An individual who is emotionally unstable will score high on neuroticism and will experience feelings such as worry or fear, guilt, sadness, anger, embarrassment, and disgust (Costa & McCrae, 1991). When individuals score low on neuroticism, they are usually more emotionally stable and will be more even-tempered and relaxed (McCrae & Costa, 1999). An emotionally stable person may handle stressful situations and pressure more easily than an emotionally unstable person who is more impulsive and experiences stress easily when under pressure (McCrae & Costa, 1999). A neurotic person usually experiences distressing emotions such as shame, depression and anger (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001).

The main characteristics of a neurotic individual are anxiety, depression or feelings of hopelessness, sensitivity to criticism or being easily embarrassed, and easily becoming upset or feeling angry (Taylor & De Bruin, 2004). Eysenck and Eysenck (1975) describe an emotionally unstable (i.e., neurotic) individual as someone who is a worrier and who constantly thinks that things will go wrong. Neurotic individuals or people experiencing negative affectivity tend to focus on their mistakes and disappointments in their life and they are very sensitive to frustrations and failures in daily activities (Watson & Clark, 1984). Specific emotions experienced by neurotic employees include the following: experiencing anxiety or stress when put under pressure or when the work load increases; becoming defensive when criticised or questioned by fellow workers; experiencing insecurity in jobs and daily tasks and responsibilities; increased worry and stress leading to the person not finishing tasks on time (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Judge & Higgins, 1999; McCrae & John, 1992; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004).
Previous studies have examined the relationship between the above personality dimensions and employee behaviour in the workplace, and found that personality traits have an influence on work-related outcomes (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Judge & Ilies, 2002). These findings will be elaborated on in the next section.

2.2.2 The role of personality in the workplace

An individual’s personality is part of who he/she is and determines the way in which he/she behaves and responds to situations (De Haan, Dekovic, & Prinzie, 2012). As it would in other spheres of a person’s life, personality influences the way in which an individual interprets and reacts to a situation in the work environment (George, Helson, & John, 2011; Matthews & Deary, 1998). Personality traits influence the way in which people see themselves and may even determine whether they are selected into a work environment or not (Caspi & Roberts, 2001; Roberts, Caspi, & Moffit, 2003). An individual’s personality can influence mood, self-esteem as well as perceptions of support received from fellow workers (Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004). Previous research findings showed that personality traits can predict certain work behaviours such as absenteeism (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 2003), other counterproductive work behaviours such as theft, fraud and bullying (Roberts, Harms, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2007) and productive behaviours such as job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). These findings will be further explored below.

In a study by Oh, Lee, Ashton and de Vries (2011) it was found that extraversion does not predict deviant behaviour in the workplace, but when combining low honesty-humility with high extraversion, deviant behaviour is likely to occur. In addition, Furnham and Bramwell (2006) showed that extraversion is a predictor of absenteeism in the workplace. Joseph, Luyten, Corveleyn and De Witte (2011) established that neuroticism has shown to have a positive relationship with emotional exhaustion (burnout) and depersonalisation, however, has shown to be negatively related to personal achievement and work engagement.
Neal, Yeo, Koy and Xiao (2012) found that neuroticism was negatively related to all dimensions of work role performance (e.g., individual and team effectiveness).

Roberts, Jackson, Duckworth and Von Culin (2011) state that individuals who are sociable, gregarious, assertive and lively tend to perform better in the workplace than individuals who are more introverted. Extraversion and conscientiousness are negatively associated to emotional exhaustion (burnout) and depersonalisation, and positively associated to personal accomplishment and work engagement (Joseph, Luyten, Corveleyn, & De Witte, 2011). Roberts, Jackson, Duckworth and Von Culin (2011) found that conscientiousness predicts job performance better than any of the other Big Five personality traits. Higher conscientiousness has also been related to a lower rate of absenteeism among males and female employees (Furnham & Bramwell, 2006; Störmer & Fahr, 2013). According to Neal, Yeo, Koy and Xiao (2012) conscientiousness is positively related to all dimensions of work role performance. In their study George, Helson and John (2011) found that conscientiousness and extraversion were related to major aspects of the work environment such as the nature of work; job satisfaction; work status; and persistence at work. Furnham and Bramwell (2006) did a study on traits from the Big Five model of personality and found that extraversion and conscientiousness is significantly negatively correlated with neuroticism. In addition they found that conscientiousness is significantly positively correlated with extraversion. Work-family conflict is another aspect connected to the workplace that can be influenced by personality. The next section discusses this aspect.

2.3 Work - Family Conflict

Over the years, people have deemed work life and family life as separate domains, but the overlapping of the two domains has become the norm and people have started to believe that these domains are dependent on each other (Voydanoff, 2004). Owing to its impact on
work and people (employees and families), work-family conflict has been increasingly studied by researchers (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000).

The variety of terminology utilised by researchers, when investigating the relationship between family and work, has found to be confusing. Work-family conflict has been referred to as work-family tension (Herman & Gyllstrom, 1977), job-family role strain (Kelly & Voydanoff, 1985), work role incompatibility (Jones & Butler, 1980), inter-role conflict (Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983) and work-to-family interference (Magee, Stefanic, Caputi, & Iverson, 2012). Work-family conflict has been defined as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77).

According to Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian (1996) work-family conflict occurs when an individual’s job demands interfere with his/her ability to meet family-related demands and family-work conflict occurs when domestic responsibilities or demands interfere with job demands. This study will refer to the term work-family conflict or work-to-family conflict specifically. When an individual has to participate in a work role, it becomes harder for that individual to participate in their family roles or vice versa (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). Kelly and Voydanoff (1985) define work-family conflict as something that occurs when an individual has many roles to fulfil (e.g., worker, spouse, and parent). Every role is accompanied by new demands that require the individual’s time, energy and commitment.

An individual’s involvement with his/her work has been referred to as a psychological response, a psychological identification with work, and a part of forming a person’s idea of themselves (Yogeov & Brett, 1985). In a study done on managers, it was found that when individuals spend most of their time at work, they tend to experience higher levels of work-family conflict (Repetti, 1988). Researchers have linked this relationship between work
involvement and work-family conflict to the number of hours an individual spends on work and family. Wille, De Fruyt and Feys (2013) found that individuals who work extensive hours and have many children experience higher levels of work-family conflict. Pleck (1979) also mentions that if an individual is psychologically involved in a role he/she will become increasingly aware of the challenges within that role. This may increase role conflict (Simunic & Gregov, 2012). When an individual spends more time and energy on one role, they have less time and energy to spend on another role (Calvo-Salguero, Martinez-de-Lecea, & Aguilar-Luzon, 2012). An individual will also invest more of his/her time and energy in roles perceived to be important (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Reinardy, 2007). This lack of time to spend on certain roles can lead to the following negative consequences for the individual: depression; work or family stress; lower levels of family or job commitment; being absent at work or even at home; and changing jobs continuously (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997; Spector, Miller, Poelmans, Cooper, Berwier, Hart et al., 2005).

Work-family conflict becomes more extreme if the individual’s work or family roles form a central part of their self-concept (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) and this again may result in negative outcomes such as burnout (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991), a decrease in the well-being of the individual at home and at work (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), psychological and/or physical strains such as depression or headaches (Frone, Russel, & Cooper, 1992), and/or dissatisfaction at home or at work (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). Apart from work-family conflict being related to work and family roles, the direction and type of work-family conflict needs to be considered as well.

In the past, work-family conflict was studied as conflict occurring when work demands interfere with family or domestic demands and was therefore measured uni-directionally (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Over time, however, it became apparent that work-family
conflict takes place in two directions namely family-to-work conflict and work-to-family conflict (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Stoeva, Chiu, & Greenhaus, 2002; Duxbury, Higgins, & Mills, 1992; Frone, Russel, & Cooper, 1992; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). The bidirectional nature of work-family conflict can be seen as consisting of two components, namely: work activities interfering with family responsibilities (WIF); and family activities interfering with work responsibilities (FIW) (Gutek et al., 1991). For individuals to completely understand the interface of work-family, both these directions of work-family conflict need to be taken into consideration (Frone et al., 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In this study however, only work-to-family conflict was included as research has shown that work-to-family conflict has a greater impact on individuals than family-to-work conflict (Donald & Linington, 2008). In addition, researchers have deemed work-to-family conflict to be of great concern as it has been associated with negative consequences such as distress, strain and condensed family bonds (MacDermid & Harvey 2006; Stevens, Kiger, & Riley, 2002).

There are three dimensions of work-family conflict, namely, time-based conflict, strain-based conflict and behaviour-based conflict (Carlson, 1999; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) explain these dimensions as follows: an individual experiences time-based conflict when the time they spend on responsibilities and demands in one role hinders the time they have to spend on responsibilities and demands in other roles; strain-based conflict takes place when an individual experiences pressure (work pressure or family pressure) in one role and this interferes with their fulfilment of other roles; and an individual experiences behaviour-based conflict when their performance in one role does not match their performance in another role.

According to Carlson (1999) the study of personality variables such as the Big Five can form a part of the foundation of work-family conflict, because research has indicated that
aspects of personality and work-family conflict are related. This relationship will be further explored in the next section.

2.3.1 Personality and work-family conflict

As has been pointed out before, the way in which an individual behaves at home and at work, and the way in which an individual interprets his/her work and home life, can be influenced by that individual’s personality (Matthews & Deary, 1998). A number of studies have found that perceptions of work-family conflict and certain personality traits are related (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Michel & Clark, 2009).

In a study by Wayne, Musisca and Fleeson (2004) extraversion was linked to positivity and energy. These factors led to participants getting more tasks done in a certain amount of time and being less burnt out or tired. They also stated that extraverts are more focussed on the positive side of a challenging situation and may therefore see the situation as being less stressful and, in turn, handle work-family conflict with more ease than others. Wille, De Fruyt and Feys (2013) did a study on career success and work-family conflict, and found that neurotic individuals experience the impact of work-family conflict more intensely than extraverted individuals. The latter is strongly associated with inter-role conflict and work-family conflict.

Conscientious individuals put in great amounts of effort to attain their goals at home and at work. This may create an opportunity for conflict, but these individuals are efficient and organised, which enables them to accomplish goals with less inter-role conflict (McCrae & Costa, 1991). Conscientious individuals tend to finish work and home activities quickly and on time as they do not attend to work tasks while at home and do not bring their personal issues into the workplace, which results in them being able to separate their work life from their family life (Wayne et al., 2004). Conscientious individuals have the ability to organise and plan which aids them in preventing family or work conflicts (Bruck & Allen, 2003). Role
ambiguity at work or at home tends to have a less harmful effect on the well-being of conscientious individuals. This is essential as stress related to role ambiguity has a relationship with work-family conflict (Aryee, 1992).

Conscientious individuals experience less work-family conflict due to their ability to manage their time, demands and responsibilities (Bruck & Allen, 2003). Baltes, Zhdanova and Clark (2011) showed that conscientiousness was significantly related to WIF and FIW. Other studies have also linked conscientiousness to lower levels of WIF or work-family conflict (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Wayne et al., 2004).

According to Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) individuals who display high levels of negative affectivity usually place themselves in situations that involve more stress. In addition, Bruck and Allen (2003) found that individuals displaying negative mood states or emotions tend to experience more work-family conflict. They also found that neuroticism had a significant relationship with work-family conflict, WIF, FIW, time-based conflict and strain-based conflict. According to Carlson (1999) negative affectivity has a strong relationship with strain-based conflict and relates positively to time-based and behaviour-based conflict as well. Negative affectivity may be a characteristic of certain personality types. For example, a neurotic individual may experience increased levels of stress at home and at work. This might lead to the individual experiencing increased levels of work-family conflict (Stoeva et al., 2002). According to Wayne et al. (2004), neurotic individuals spend much time worrying and focusing on the negative side of a situation which gives them less time to spend on work and family tasks and responsibilities. In addition, they also found that neuroticism is related to low levels of time management as well as the individual being consumed by role demands and therefore experiencing increased levels of stress. Neuroticism has been shown to be the personality trait with the greatest influence on self-reported job strain measures (Kokkinos, 2007; Stelmack, 2004; Tai & Liu, 2007; Zuckerman, 2005).
therefore seems plausible that neuroticism may increase work-family conflict through factors such as job strain.

As mentioned earlier, several studies have found gender differences in the experience of work-family conflict. Similarly, studies have also found gender differences in personality. The following section will focus on gender differences in the workplace, and more specifically, the role of gender in the relationship between work-family conflict and personality.

2.4 Gender in the workplace

2.4.1 Work in the 21st century

According to the literature, the traditional family model of the husband being the provider and the wife taking care of domestic chores and childrearing is becoming something of the past (Hall & Hall, 1980; Piotrkowski, Rapoport, & Rapoport, 1987). The traditional division of labour between partners has changed and work and family can no longer be organised in the traditional way (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). Men have started to perceive family roles and responsibilities to be very important while still having their traditional work role, and women consider their work role as being very important while still maintaining their traditional family roles (Cinamon & Rich, 2002).

Many of the theories on globalisation are either gender-neutral or gender-blind which means that most of the theories ignore the way in which globalisation may shape gender relationships and the differing effects it has on men and women (Chow, 2003). In fact Chow contends that gender is at times taken for granted as if it is not really an important concept in the workplace.
2.4.2 Challenges faced by working men and women

The literature clearly shows that much less research has been done on the experiences of men in the workplace than of women. This may be owing to the relatively recent increase in employed women (Velamuri, 2012), and also the fact that women have been marginalised to a large extent for many years (Conradie, 2013). Although the bulk of this discussion will thus relate to working women, it should be borne in mind that men also face particular workplace challenges and are not exempt from the challenge of balancing work and family.

In a democratic country such as South Africa the attainment of equality between men and women in all spheres of life (e.g., social, cultural and economical) is of prime importance. Gender equality in the workplace has not yet been fully achieved in South Africa and remains a challenge (Michailidis, Morphitou, & Theophylatou, 2012).

Despite the fact that there is an increase in powerful women in the working world (King, 2006; Sarra, 2005; Scott & Nolan, 2007), research indicates that men still earn more than women (Besen & Kimmel, 2006; Blau & Kahn, 2004; Burress & Zucca, 2004; Ngo, Foley, Wong, & Loi, 2003) and women in leadership positions are under-represented in the workplace (Noble & Moore, 2006; Probert, 2005).

In a recent study it was found that women face more obstacles (e.g., sexual harassment and discrimination) than men in the workplace and therefore many well-educated, experienced women are overlooked for promotion in favour of their male co-workers (Michailidis, Morphitou, & Theophylatou, 2012). Schneider, Swan and Fitzgerald (1997) state that sexual harassment and discrimination in the workplace have damaged many women’s psychological and physical well-being, and even led to many women leaving their jobs. Some men tend not to take women seriously at work because they feel that all women will leave the workplace at some point to start a family and will therefore not be prepared to
work the hours that men would (Hymowitz, 2005). In many instances, women who have made it to top management positions do leave these positions, for a number of reasons, including that they find it difficult to combine their work with their family life; they are in continuous battles with traditional organisational cultures that are male-dominated; and some women feel dominated or intimidated by the male leader stereotype (Haywood, 2005; Noble & Moore, 2006; Probert, 2005).

In the past women were led to believe that their first and most important priority was to be a wife and a mother and to put their career second (Gilbert, 1993). The stereotype that a women’s place is in the home taking care of her family and doing household chores has had an influence on women’s lives as “gender stereotypes influence beliefs, behaviours and self-concepts at both conscious and unconscious levels” (Rhode 2003, p. 7). Another stereotype that exists about men and women in the workplace is that “women take care and men take charge” (Bible & Hill, 2007, p. 66).

There is an increasing need for men to be included in studies on gender discrimination, as there is a misleading impression about the power and privileges of men remaining stable and fixed, which is not the case (Kajifusa, 1998). Men are becoming more involved in the home environment and they are focusing their attention more on their families (Michelson, 1983; Pleck, 1979, 1985; Zvara, Schoppe-Sullivan & Dush, 2013). More research needs to be done on men in the workplace and how the changes in women’s work and family lives have led to changes in the work and family lives of men as well, for example, changes in male-female power relations (Chant & Gutmann, 2000).

The gender stereotype of the male being the breadwinner has damaged the status and identity of the male population in that it has led to society believing that men are detached from their family life and only care about work (Silberschmidt, 1999). Changing times have
led to men being confused about their roles in the family environment and about the meaning of masculinity (Chant & Gutmann, 2000). In addition, these authors state that men feel more and more insecure in their jobs because women are entering the workplace and are taking over some of the projects that men used to run. When men are increasingly spending time with their family or in their home environment and behave in ways contradictory to what society expects, they experience higher levels of work-family conflict (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). According to Schwartzberg and Dytell (1996) women feel a certain sense of obligation to their family role that may cause them to experience more family-to-work conflict than men. Some men feel that their primary role is to work which causes them to experience greater work-to-family conflict than women (Cinamon & Rich, 2002).

2.4.3 Expectations of working men and women

Men and women have different expectations with regard to work (Bowen, Cattell, & Distiller, 2008). O’Neil, Hopkins and Bilimoria (2008) state that, when it comes to women, success at work and job satisfaction are closely related to life issues in that women want to succeed both in their careers and in their personal life. Gilbert and Walker (2001) found that women tend to be motivated by flexible working hours, maternity leave and a safe working environment, while men tend to be motivated by remuneration and achievement. These expectations could lead to men and women being orientated differently in their careers as well as choosing specific careers that would meet these expectations. Despite changes in gender roles, traditional socialisation still has an impact as women are more likely to choose service-orientated or health-orientated careers, whereas men are more likely to occupy top management positions (Burress & Zucca, 2004).

Another reason for men and women’s choice in careers relate to the meaning they derive from their careers. According to Rothbard (2001) men experience more enrichment
from their work roles than family roles and women experience more enrichment from their family roles than work roles. Women may therefore consciously search out careers and occupations that allow them more leave benefits and fewer or flexible working hours (O’Neil, Hopkins, & Bilimoria, 2008). Unfortunately this has a negative impact on their earning potential as well as promotional opportunities (Fransen, Plantenga, & Vlasblom, 2012). This may be one of the reasons why men hold more management positions than do women (Bible & Hill, 2007; Wentling, 2003).

**2.4.4 Dual-earner couples**

With the increase in female employment there has naturally been a significant increase in the number of dual-earner couples (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Bond, Galinsky, & Swanberg, 1998). With both partners working, research shows that both men and women take responsibility for household and work duties (Bond et al., 1998; Gilbert, Hallett, & Eldridge, 1994). However, women are still carrying the bulk of home responsibilities such as washing clothes and taking care of the children (Daniels, 2010). Some researchers found that men and women are able to balance their work and family roles by sharing domestic and child rearing responsibilities (Novack & Novack, 1996; Spade & Reese, 1991; Willinger, 1993). On the other hand, Bosch (1999) found that women who are not at home much tend to cause more stress for their husbands.

Ho, Chen, Cheung, Liu and Worthington, Jr. (2013) did not find a significant relationship between personality traits and work-family conflict for dual-earner couples. They stated that a reason for this may be that couples with similar personality traits tend to share similar gender role expectations and may be more understanding towards each other and end up experiencing work-family enhancement, rather than work-family conflict. On the other hand, negative spill-over could occur, where individuals’ problems and conflict at work cause
them to become drained or preoccupied, making it difficult for them difficulty to participate in family life (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991).

2.4.5 Personality and gender

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) conducted a study on the differences of gender in personality traits and found that men and women differ in cognition, temperament and social behaviour. Specifically they found that men are more assertive and less nervous than women. Lippa (2010) found that men and women have different personality traits and this can either be due to the way they were raised or their genes. In terms of the Big Five personality traits, males’ scores are higher than females when it comes to being assertive and dominant, but males score lower than females when it comes to being sociable and warm (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001; Feingold, 1994; Schmitt, Realo, Voracek, & Allik, 2008).

Feingold (1994) found that women are less assertive than men, but tend to be more extraverted, anxious, trustworthy and tender-minded than men. Whereas Feingold (1994) found that women scored higher on extraversion than men, Lynn and Martin (1997) found the opposite. George, Helson and John (2011) showed that introverted and extraverted women have an equal tendency to prepare themselves for a career and seek employment outside the home. In Feingold’s study (1994) women scored higher than men on conscientiousness. Women who score high on conscientiousness showed greater commitment to wife and mother roles and maintaining the careers they had (George, Helson, & John, 2011). Furnham and Bramwell (2006) stated that gender was negatively correlated to extraversion as well as conscientiousness, but positively correlated to neuroticism (with higher scores for women).

Studies have shown that females score significantly higher than males on neuroticism (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001; Feingold, 1994; Schmitt, Realo, Voracek, & Allik, 2008; Wille, De Fruyt, & Feys, 2013) which means they are more prone to experiencing
anxiety, anger, shame and even depression (Lynn & Martin, 1997). In another study done on men and women, Kling, Hyde, Showers and Buswell (1999) state that women score lower on self-esteem than men. Men, on the other hand, reported higher levels of anger than women (Scherwitz, Perkins, Chesney, & Hughes, 1991). Wille, De Fruyt and Feys (2013) found that gender was significantly related to the Big Five, in that women scored significantly higher on neuroticism than men. Bouchard Jr and Loehlin (2001) showed that, in terms of the Big Five, the largest gender differences appeared to be found in neuroticism.

Schmitt et al. (2008) found that in general, females score higher than males on extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism. According to John et al. (1997) there is a universal pattern of gender differences in response to the Big Five personality inventory items, with women scoring higher than men on neuroticism and men scoring higher than women on extraversion and conscientiousness.

Women have shown increased presence in the workplace and men in the home environment which has led to men and women experiencing higher levels of work-family conflict due to the challenge of maintaining a balance between work and family demands (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). Research findings regarding the relationship between gender and work-family conflict follows.

2.5 Work-family conflict and gender

Gender differences can be expected in terms of work-family conflict, as work and family carry specific gender roles which can be in conflict with each other (McElwain, Korabik, & Rosin, 2005). In fact, Parasuraman and Simmers (2001) found gender to be one of the contributory elements to work-family conflict because of work and family role pressures, such as parental demands and lack of flexibility.
Results of studies on gender differences and the experience of work-family conflict are contradictory. Wallace (1997), for example, found no gender differences in the experience of work-family conflict. He did, however, state that men do experience work-family conflict when it comes to work expectations and they tend to put their family responsibilities second, creating an imbalance between family and work for men, which may increase their experience of work-family conflict. In support of this, Cook and Minnotte (2008) did a study on the work-family interface and found that women reported lower levels of work-family conflict than men. In contrast, Duxbury and Higgins (1991) established that, for females, work demands made it more difficult to carry out their responsibilities at home and this led to an increase in work-family conflict. Males on the other hand, did not experience such high levels of work-family conflict because they had fewer responsibilities to fulfil at home. These authors also found that women who experience a lot of work-family conflict choose to leave their work or work part time.

A few studies have shown that women report higher levels of family-to-work conflict and men report higher levels of work-to-family conflict (Anderson & Leslie, 1991; Ho et al., 2013; Pleck, 1977). While some researchers found that women experience more FIW than men and men experience more WIF than women, other researchers found that the opposite is starting to occur (Byron, 2005; Cinamon & Rich, 2002).

As pointed out by Kerpelman and Schvaneveldt (1999), men and women vary in what they believe to be important when it comes to work and family roles, and findings therefore cannot be generalised. Duxbury and Higgins (1991) found that working men expect their families to adapt and adjust in such a way as to accommodate the work demands they face, whereas working women adjust their careers and reduce their work demands in order to meet family demands. Support from family may therefore also have an effect on the level of work-family conflict experienced.
A study by Cinamon and Rich (2002) found that men spend more time on work than women, but women spend more hours on work and family activities together than men. Duxbury and Higgins (1991) found that many men take their work home or use family time to relax and recover from a stressful day at work. This could lead to an increase in work-family conflict as it interferes with quality time spent with their family or on family responsibilities.

Ho et al. (2013) found that men who feel supported by their work report significantly less work-to-family conflict. They also found that women who feel supported by family report less family-to-work conflict. Moreover, their findings indicated that work-family conflict experienced by an individual (male or female) has a positive relationship to the work-family conflict experienced by his/her spouse. Duxbury and Higgins (1991) state that men seemed to adapt more easily than women to stressors in the work environment and women adapt or handle stresses more easily than men in the home environment.

2.5.1 The moderating role of gender in work-family conflict

Gutek, Searle and Klepa (1991) found that gender can have an influence on perceived conflict and can moderate the relationship between the time an individual spends at work or with family, and work-family conflict. They specifically found that full-time employees who spend more than thirty five hours at work per week experienced more WIF. In addition to this, they found that individuals (male and female) who work full time spend less time on family responsibilities than they spend at work. Stewart-Sicking, Ciarrocchi, Hollensbe and Sheep (2011) found that gender moderated the relationship between workplace conditions and the wellness of employees.
2.6 Marital status, age and education

Furnham and Bramwell (2006) found a significant positive correlation between conscientiousness and age (older participants were more conscientious), and a significant negative correlation between neuroticism and age (younger participants were more neurotic). On the other hand, Charles, Reynolds and Gatz (2001) stated that older individuals are able to cope better with negative feelings that may be caused by factors such as work-family imbalance, when compared to younger individuals. Mazerolle, Bruening and Casa (2008) conducted a study on work-family conflict within the athletic profession and found that no differences were detected between gender, or marital status, and work-family conflict. They added that these specific demographic variables were not considered to be antecedents of work-family conflict. In fact, married individuals, with or without children, did not differ in their experience of work-family conflict than that of single individuals (Mazerolle, Bruening, & Casa, 2008). Certain personality traits have been linked to certain demographic variables. Slavin-Mulford, Sinclair, Malone, Stein, Bello and Blais (2013) found that antisocial behaviour and carelessness is negatively correlated to an individual’s educational level. Similarly, in this study, demographic variables will be controlled for.

In summary, individuals (male and female) possess certain personality traits. These traits determine an individual’s workplace behaviours and how he/she reacts to certain things such as work-family conflict (De Haan, Dekovic, & Prinzie, 2012; George, Helson, & John, 2011). Studies have shown that the personality factors extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism lead to an increase or decrease in the experience of work-family conflict (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Michel & Clark, 2009; Stoeva et al., 2002; Wille, De Fruyt, & Feys, 2013). Prior research therefore indicates that a relationship does exist between personality and work-family conflict. Whether men or women experience more work-family conflict remains vague as previous findings are contradictory, but studies have shown that there is a relationship
between gender and work-family conflict (McElwain, Korabik, & Rosin, 2005; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). Studies have also shown that men and women differ in terms of the levels of different personality traits that are measured (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001; Lippa, 2010). Due to the fact that certain personality traits predict work-family conflict, it seems likely that personality may influence the work-family conflict experienced by men and women respectively. Gender could therefore play a moderating role in the relationship between personality and work-family conflict. Based on the above, the research questions are presented in the section that follows.

2.7 Research Questions

The following research questions were investigated:

1. Do levels of work-family conflict significantly differ between men and women?

2. Do levels of extraversion, neuroticism and conscientiousness differ significantly between men and women?

3. Does gender moderate the relationship between extraversion and work-family conflict?

4. Does gender moderate the relationship between neuroticism and work-family conflict?

5. Does gender moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and work-family conflict?

2.8 Summary

An overview of current literature on extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism, and work-family conflict was provided in this chapter. Although no studies could be found
that examine the moderating effect of gender on the relationship between personality and work-family conflict, research does show that men and women experience work-family conflict differently. Similarly, levels of some personality factors also differ between men and women. It could be argued, therefore, that gender can influence the strength of the relationship between personality traits and work-family conflict, in a similar fashion as it does in the relationship between workplace conditions and well-being (Stewart-Sicking et al., 2011). This study sets out to investigate this hypothesis. The research questions that flow from this discussion were also presented in this chapter. The next chapter will address the methodology used in the study.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHOD

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, an overview of the existing literature concerning the research variable was provided. This chapter consists of an overview of the research process including the main objectives of the study. The data gathering instruments are described and ethical considerations are discussed. The statistical analysis is also presented in this chapter.

3.2 Research Questions

The main aim of this study was to determine whether gender moderates the relationship between selected personality factors and work-family conflict. A secondary aim was to determine whether levels of work-family conflict, extraversion, neuroticism and conscientiousness differ significantly between men and women. To this end, the following research questions were investigated:

1. Do levels of work-family conflict significantly differ between men and women?

2. Do levels of extraversion, neuroticism and conscientiousness differ significantly between men and women?

3. Does gender moderate the relationship between extraversion and work-family conflict?

4. Does gender moderate the relationship between neuroticism and work-family conflict?

5. Does gender moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and work-family conflict?
The independent variables in this study were gender, extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism, while the dependent variable in the study was work-family conflict.

3.3 Research Design

The study followed a quantitative cross-sectional survey design. Quantitative data analysis was used in order to determine whether there is a relationship between personality and work-family conflict and whether gender moderates this relationship. Questionnaires were used to gather the data.

3.4 Research Method

3.4.1 Population and Sampling

This study formed part of a larger study on well-being in the workplace. An existing data set was utilised. The sample comprised working men and women from several organisations. Questionnaires were sent out via email, completed online and sent to a portal from which the data was captured on a spreadsheet. Participants were working people older than 18 years of age.

3.4.2 Description of the Sample

The sample consisted of 519 working females and 272 working males which made up a total of 791 participants. The majority of participants (93.4%) worked full-time and 4.8% of participants worked part-time. Most of the participants (95.4%) worked for an employer and 3.8% of participants were self-employed. The mean age of the participants was 37.3 years old (SD=10.84) of which the minimum was 18 years old and the maximum was 67 years old. About half of the participants were married (49.7%), while 50.2% were not married. With regard to the number of children, 30.7% of participants had no children, while the rest had between one and seven children. Most of the participants in the study had post school
qualifications (51.1%) while the rest of the participants had a grade 12 level of education (46.9%). The majority of the sample was White (50.8%) followed by Black (25.5%), Coloured (13.8%), Indian (8.6%) and other ethnicities (0.8%). Most of the participants were English speaking (49.8%) or Afrikaans speaking (24.9%) while the remainder of participants spoke other South African languages. In the case of variables not adding up to 100%, this is due to missing values.

3.4.3 Measuring Instruments

A biographical section in the questionnaire requested information concerning the following: gender; marital status; age; number of children; and educational status. To measure the research constructs, the following instruments were employed:

3.4.3.1 Basic Traits Inventory (BTI)

The BTI is a South African instrument and has proven to be valid across cultures. This instrument was developed by Taylor and De Bruin (2006) and it is based on the Big Five personality factors. It therefore measures personality in terms of extraversion, openness to experience, neuroticism, agreeableness and conscientiousness by making use of 193 items. A sample item of extraversion is “I like to take risks for fun”. A sample item for conscientiousness is “I plan tasks before doing them” and a sample item for neuroticism is “I find it difficult to control my feelings”.

In this study, the short version of the BTI was used. The short version consists of 60 items and represents a brief measure of the Big Five personality traits (Taylor & De Bruin, in press). Each of these traits is measured by 12 items. Items are rated by participants on a five-point Likert-type scale with the responses ranging from “Strongly Agree” to “Strongly Disagree”. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for the short version for extraversion (α=
0.80), neuroticism ($\alpha = 0.86$) and conscientiousness ($\alpha = 0.85$), relevant to this particular study, were found by Taylor and De Bruin (2006) to be satisfactory. Overall the reliability of the BTI-short version is $> 0.80$ and is therefore satisfactory.

### 3.4.3.2 Work-to-Family Conflict Questionnaire

The Work-to-Family Conflict Questionnaire developed by Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian (1996) was utilized. This questionnaire measures the extent to which work demands interfere with family life. It consists of a five-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This measure consists of five items and a sample item is “The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life”. The Work-to-Family Conflict Questionnaire reports a high internal consistency of 0.86, which is satisfactory.

### 3.4.4 Statistical Analysis

SPSS Version 20 (2013) was used as the statistical program for statistical analysis. Correlations were calculated to determine the strength and direction of significant relationships among the research variables (Cohen, 1988). In cases where significant correlations were found, moderated hierarchical regressions were performed. T-tests were conducted to determine whether there are significant differences in terms of levels of work-family conflict, extraversion, conscientiousness, and neuroticism between men and women.

The dependent variable in the study was work-family conflict. The personality factors extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism were independent variables. A regression analysis was performed for each of these independent variables. In the first step, marital status, age and education were controlled for. In the case of marital status and education, categories were lapsed into two sub-categories each and marital status was renamed
“relationship status”. In the second step, the personality variable, neuroticism, was entered. In the third step gender was entered. In the fourth step the interaction term, NeuroXGender, was entered. A significant Rsquare change in the 4th step indicated that gender moderated the relationship between work-family conflict and the independent variable. A relaxed criterion of p < 0.10 was used (Aiken & West, 1991) to determine significant interaction effects.

3.4.5 Ethical Considerations

Participants were informed that participation was voluntary and that they were free to withdraw at any time. They were assured of confidentiality and anonymity and were encouraged to answer the questions honestly. Individual feedback was not given, but participants were given the opportunity to send an email to the researcher if they wished to receive a copy of the final research report.

3.5 Summary

This chapter described the method that was followed to conduct the study. The research questions were stated, the sampling method and measuring instruments were discussed and the statistical analysis utilised was described. Ethical aspects were dealt with last.
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results are presented. First, the sample is described and descriptive statistics are tabulated and explained. Second, the results for the independent samples t-test are provided. Following this, the results of one moderated hierarchical regression analysis are presented.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.1 contains the mean scores, standard deviation scores, Cronbach alpha coefficients and Pearson’s inter-correlations.

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics and Pearson’s inter-correlation of variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. WFC</td>
<td>13.29</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Extraversion</td>
<td>43.68</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Conscientiousness</td>
<td>48.00</td>
<td>6.73</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Neuroticism</td>
<td>30.26</td>
<td>9.21</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>-.23**</td>
<td>-.17**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p < 0.01 (2-tailed)

Table 4.1 shows that work-family conflict (WFC) displayed a significant positive correlation with neuroticism (r = .18, p < .01). Extraversion displayed a significant positive correlation with conscientiousness (r = .28, p < .01) and a significant negative correlation with neuroticism (r = -.23, p < .01). Conscientiousness displayed a significant negative correlation with neuroticism (r = -.17, p < .01). The effect sizes for all these correlations were small (r = .10 to .29) (Cohen, 1988).
4.3 T-Test

Table 4.2 provides the results for the independent samples t-test.

Table 4.2: Independent Sample T-Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WFC</td>
<td>13.64</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>13.12</td>
<td>5.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1.32</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>43.54</td>
<td>6.72</td>
<td>43.75</td>
<td>6.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>47.09</td>
<td>7.13</td>
<td>48.48</td>
<td>6.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>28.37</td>
<td>8.78</td>
<td>31.27</td>
<td>9.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 shows that there was no significant difference in work-family conflict (WFC) scores between men ($M = 13.64, SD = 5.37$) and women ($M = 13.12, SD = 5.35; t (783) = -1.32, p = .19, two-tailed$). There was also no significant difference in extraversion between men ($M = 43.54, SD = 6.72$) and women ($M = 43.75, SD = 6.85; t (758) = .40, p = .69, two-tailed$). There was, however, a significant difference in conscientiousness between men ($M = 47.09, SD = 7.13$) and women ($M = 48.48, SD = 6.48; t (770) = 2.72, p = .01, two-tailed$). The magnitude of the differences in the mean scores (mean difference = 1.38, 95% CI: 0.39 to 2.38) was very small (eta squared = .001). There was a significant difference in neuroticism scores between men ($M = 28.37, SD = 8.78$) and women ($M = 31.27, SD = 9.29; t (753) = 4.15, p = .00, two-tailed$). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 2.9, 95% CI: 1.53 to 4.27) was very small (eta squared = .001).
4.4 Regression Analysis

Owing to the fact that only neuroticism was significantly correlated with work-family conflict, only one regression analysis was performed to determine whether gender moderates the relationship between neuroticism and work-family conflict.

The data was inspected to ensure that all the assumptions of multiple regression were met. Scores were centred in order to address the problems associated with multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). Correlations of variables, Tolerance and VIF were also inspected. Mahalanobis distances were inspected to check for extreme scores and Cook’s Distance was studied to ensure that there were no significant outliers. The Normal Probability Plot (P-P) of the regression standardised residuals showed no major deviance for normality, and the Scatterplot of the standardised residuals also showed that no assumptions were violated. Thus the assumptions of outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and independence of residuals were met.

Table 4.3 shows the results of the moderated hierarchical regression analysis.
Table 4.3: Hierarchical regression analysis predicting work-family conflict from neuroticism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Step 2</th>
<th>Step 3</th>
<th>Step 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>13.96</td>
<td>13.77</td>
<td>13.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship status</td>
<td>-1.14**</td>
<td>-1.25**</td>
<td>-1.22**</td>
<td>-1.25**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>1.06**</td>
<td>1.00*</td>
<td>.95*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>.11***</td>
<td>.12***</td>
<td>.10***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NeuroXGender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model $R^2$</td>
<td>.02*</td>
<td>.05***</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model $\Delta R^2$</td>
<td>.02*</td>
<td>.04***</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As can be seen in Table 4.3 relationship status, age and education, were controlled for in the first step. The total variance explained by these variables was 1.5% [$R^2 = 0.015$, $F(3,721) = 3.71, p < .05$] and it was significant. An inspection of the beta coefficients shows that, of these three demographic variables, it was only relationship status that contributed significantly to the variance explained.

Neuroticism was entered in the second step. This accounted for an additional 3.7% of the variance [$R^2\Delta =, F(1,720) = 28.09, p < .001$] and this was also significant. Gender was entered in the third step. This accounted for an additional 0.4% of the total variance [$R^2\Delta =, F(1,719) = 2.85, p > .05$]. This was not significant. In the fourth step the interaction term
(NeuroXGender) was added, which accounted for an additional 0.2% of the variance \( R^2 \Delta = \), \( F (1,718) = 1.32, p > .10 \). This was not significant.

4.5 Summary

The results of the study were presented in this chapter. The sample was described and descriptive statistics were presented. The results showed no significant differences in levels of work-family conflict between men and women. Women scored significantly higher on conscientiousness and neuroticism than men. Neuroticism was the only personality variable that positively predicted work-family conflict. No support was found for the moderating role of gender in the relationship between extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism, and work-family conflict. The next chapter provides a discussion of the research findings.
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will discuss the research findings from this study and compare them to existing literature. The results will be discussed according to the research questions.

5.2 Demographic variables

Relationship status, age and education were included as demographic variables in this study. The results showed that relationship status was the only demographic variable that made a statistically significant contribution to work-family conflict. An inspection of the beta coefficients shows that only relationship status significantly predicted work-family conflict, with those in relationships experiencing higher levels of work-family conflict than those who are not in relationships. This is contrary to the finding of Mazerolle, Bruening and Casa (2008).

5.3 Work-family conflict and gender

The first question in the study was whether levels of work-family conflict differ significantly between men and women. The results in this study showed that there was no significant difference in work-family conflict scores between men and women. This finding is in line with some studies (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Wallace, 1997), yet contradicts some other findings (Pleck, 1977; Anderson & Leslie, 1991).

This finding may reflect recent shifts in gender roles, as men are increasingly carrying more responsibilities at home while also working (Cinamon & Rich, 2002; McElwain, Korabik & Rosin, 2005), whereas women, on the other hand, are taking on more responsibilities in the workplace (Cook & Minnotte, 2008). The current finding could also be a result of the increase in dual-earner couples which may even out the stress between partners.
because they are both earning and family responsibilities are shared (Ho et al., 2013). The experiences of men and women, in terms of work-family conflict, may be in the process of becoming more similar.

5.4 Extraversion and gender

The results showed that there was no significant difference in levels of extraversion between men and women. This result contradicts previous findings such as Feingold (1994) who found that women are more extraverted than men and Lynn and Martin (1997) who found the opposite. Research findings on extraversion and gender appear to remain inconsistent.

5.5 Conscientiousness and gender

The results showed that there was a significant difference in levels of conscientiousness between men and women. Women were found to be more conscientious than men, which is similar to Feingold’s (1994) finding.

A reason for this may be that women are more efficient in planning and being organised than men (Costa & McCrae, 1991). Women may also have a greater tendency to keep things neat and tidy and to follow certain steps before making a decision (Taylor & De Bruin, 2004). Today, women still carry the bulk of domestic responsibilities combined with work responsibilities which requires them to display characteristics commonly ascribed to conscientiousness.

5.6 Neuroticism and gender

The results showed that there was a significant difference in levels of neuroticism between men and women, with women scoring higher than men. This is in line with most
literature findings (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001; Feingold, 1994; Schmitt, Realo, Voracek, & Allik, 2008; Wille, De Fruyt, & Feys, 2013).

Women are more likely to experience feelings of worry, guilt, sadness, anger or embarrassment (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001; Taylor & De Bruin, 2004). This may be exacerbated by the stress that women experience at work owing to the multitude of roles that they have to fulfil.

5.7 Neuroticism and work-family conflict

The findings showed that neuroticism is significantly correlated with work-family conflict. This is in line with the majority of previous literature findings (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Carlson, 1999; Kokkinos, 2007; Stelmack, 2004; Stoeva et al., 2002; Tai & Liu, 2007; Zuckerman, 2005). A reason for this may be that neurotic individuals experience negative mood states (e.g. worry) which could increase the levels of stress they experience at home and in the workplace (Wayne et al., 2004).

5.8 Gender as a moderator

Gender did not significantly moderate the relationship between extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism, on the one hand, and work-family conflict on the other hand. This was an unexpected finding as some studies have found that gender could be a moderator between time spent at home or work and work-family conflict (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991) or workplace conditions and wellbeing (Stewart-Sicking, Ciarrocchi, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2011). This study’s finding, coupled with the finding that there are no differences in the way that men and women experience work-family conflict may indicate that men and women do not experience stressors that differently, as might be generally expected.
5.9 Summary

This chapter presented a discussion of the findings in the current study. Relationship status was the only demographic variable that significantly predicted work-family conflict. No difference was found when it came to gender and work-family conflict. No significant differences were found between men and women in terms of levels of extraversion. However, women showed significantly higher levels of conscientiousness and neuroticism than men. Neuroticism was the only personality variable that significantly and positively predicted work-family conflict. Finally, no support was found for the moderating role of gender in the relationship between extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism, and work-family conflict. Implications of the findings, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research are discussed in Chapter 6.
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a broad overview of the study is provided. The main findings, according to the problem statement and research questions, are integrated in this chapter to serve as a summary of the results. The value-add, in terms of theory, practice and methodology of the study will be given in this chapter. The final part of this chapter will present suggestions for future research as well as limitations of the study.

6.2 Reason for undertaking the research

The 21st century has led to many changes in the roles that men and women play at home and in the work environment. Women are increasingly entering the workplace and many of these women hold top management positions. Women do, however, still carry the bulk of domestic responsibilities. Men need to adapt to changes regarding gender in the workplace as well as societal expectations. Men have also started to take on domestic responsibilities. These changes in the roles of men and women have increased the necessity for individuals to find a balance between work and home. This may, however, be challenging and lead to men and women experiencing work-family conflict.

This study inspected the role of extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism in the experience of work-family conflict among South African men and women because there is a lack of information available on this topic. The moderating role of gender was inspected for the same reason.

6.3 Summary of the findings

The results of the study showed that, in this sample, women had significantly higher levels of conscientiousness and neuroticism than men. There were no significant differences
in the levels of work-family conflict between men and women. Neuroticism significantly predicted work-family conflict. Limited research was found on the moderating role of gender in the relationship between extraversion, conscientiousness, and neuroticism on the one hand, and work-family conflict on the other. Given the existing research findings, this lack of any significant interaction effects, was counter-intuitive, and may have been sample-specific. It may also reflect changes in society, where the roles of men and women are becoming increasingly more egalitarian, and the experiences of men and women, in terms of work-family conflict, are becoming more similar.

6.4 Implications of the study

This study contributes to the available information on work-family conflict in South Africa. The study also validates certain findings on the Big Five model of personality and work-family conflict. The study confirmed numerous other research findings showing that women score consistently higher on neuroticism than men. It also provided further evidence that neuroticism significantly predicts work-family conflict. Individuals with high levels of neuroticism may struggle to find balance in their lives and may experience increased levels of stress. Organisations should take this into account when selecting employees and employers should consider alternatives such as the option of flexible work hours for men and women who adopt multiple roles. Contradictory to previous findings, this study indicated that the way in which men and women experience work-family conflict does not differ. This could be due to the fact that women are entering the workplace more and men are adopting more family responsibilities. Both men and women share home responsibilities. Couples should provide each other with support by sharing responsibilities in the home and work environment. Organisations should therefore consider men and women in terms of providing flexible working hours as many men adopt the majority of family and home responsibilities while their wives are at work, and vice versa.
6.5 Limitations of the study

A limitation of this study was that only three of the Big Five personality factors were examined. A second limitation is the lack of qualitative data used in the study. This could have provided more in-depth information on how men and women perceive work-family conflict (Cook & Minnotte, 2008). As self-report questionnaires were utilised, response bias may have influenced the results. Participants may have answered questions dishonestly due to social desirability (Grumm & von Collani, 2009). Self-reported data can lead to problems of common method variance, perception bias or common method bias (Ho et al., 2013; Ten Brummelhuis, Haar, & van der Lippe, 2010). The current study is a cross-sectional study which means that causality, regarding relationships between variables, could not be established (Ten Brummelhuis, Haar, & van der Lippe, 2010). The cross-sectional design of the study only provided information on a specific time period in the participant’s lives, which could lead to inaccurate representations of the constructs in the study (Jenkins-Guarnieri, Wright, & Hudiburgh, 2012).

6.6 Recommendations for future research

In this study, work-family balance was mainly approached from a conflict perspective. The integration of work and family domains could produce beneficial outcomes; therefore, future research could consider the positive spill over between work and family roles. This study focused on extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism as personality variables from the Big Five. Future studies could focus on the other two personality variables-agreeableness and openness to experience. Longitudinal studies would shed more light on the relationships between the variables included in the study and could aid in detecting significant interaction effects more effectively (Ho et al., 2013). A larger sample size would also yield more statistical power.
6.7 Conclusion

There have been only a few studies that have investigated the impact of work-family conflict on working men and women in South Africa. Today, men and women struggle to maintain a balance between their job and family life. This often leads to these individuals experiencing work-family conflict. To increase the understanding of factors that may contribute to male and female experiences of work-family conflict, three of the Big Five personality variables, namely extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism, were considered. The moderating role of gender was also investigated. The Work-to-Family Conflict Questionnaire (Netemeyer et al., 1996) and the Basic Traits Inventory (BTI) (Taylor & De Bruin, 2006) was used to gather information. These measuring instruments have a quantitative, cross-sectional design.

The results indicated that the levels of work-family conflict do not differ significantly between men and women. There was no difference in levels of extraversion between men and women. Women scored significantly higher on conscientiousness and neuroticism than men. The study also confirmed that neuroticism significantly predicts work-family conflict. No support for the moderating role of gender in the relationship between the specific personality variables and work-family conflict was found.

The findings of the current study add to the limited research available on work-family conflict and gender, work-family conflict and personality, and gender and personality among South African working men and women. Practically, organisations should consider men or women who are low in levels of neuroticism in the selection and placement of employees. Organisations should be aware of the fact that men also experience work-family conflict. Supportive measures (e.g. flexible working hours) should therefore not be provided only to female employees, but to male employees as well. Both men and women should be aware of
the possible strain experienced by their spouse due to managing multiple roles and responsibilities and trying to maintain balance between work and family. Couples should negotiate time spent on family and home responsibilities in order to relieve some of the stress created by work-family conflict. This study contributes to the field of Industrial Psychology in that the increased experience of work-family conflict leads to a decrease in work-life balance, which is one of the key focus areas in Industrial Psychology.
Reference List:


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