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Exploring Crossover Effects Among Working Spouses Through The Lens Of Social Cognitive Theory: Soc And Work-Family Conflict

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**EXPLORING CROSSOVER EFFECTS AMONG WORKING SPOUSES THROUGH
THE LENS OF SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY: SOC AND WORK-
FAMILY CONFLICT**

by

KEVIN T. WYNNE

DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University,

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Date

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my amazing and incredibly supportive wife, Rebecca Hrvatin Wynne, and my little dude, Liam. Without Becky's support and understanding, completing this project would have been much more difficult. I had spent countless hours and late nights at a coffee shop or in the living room behind my computer screen, and she had been both continually supportive and self-sacrificial in terms of keeping Liam occupied. As I have said before, I always thought she was a better student than I ever was or am.

While dissertating, Liam has been equal parts frustrating distraction and comic relief! In my most productive hours, I felt palpable guilt for not directing my energy toward my favorite small person. On the other hand, on many occasions, Liam pleaded for me to leave my computer and play with him in the basement and I obliged. Taking breaks to play with him has kept me sane in the present, and thinking about the importance of finishing the dissertation has kept me focused on the future. Becky and Liam, you were, and are, my inspiration.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Demands at both work and at home have proliferated over recent decades, resulting in a daily struggle to keep up with personal and family obligations. Hours worked per week have steadily risen in Westernized nations, and the rapid development of technology (e.g., wireless technologies and portable electronic tools; Hill, Miller, Weiner, & Colihan, 1998) has made both family- and work-related demands apparently omnipresent and salient (Kosek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2005; Shumate & Fulk, 2004). Moreover, increasing proportions of females are participating in the workforce, in addition to handling domestic responsibilities (e.g., Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Poelmans, Stephanova, & Masuda, 2008). Married professional women indeed struggle with conflict between their work and family lives, even in non-Western cultures (Aryee, 1992). Also, female entrepreneurs and business owners experience arguably greater difficulty balancing work and family compared to their male counterparts (Jennings & McDougald, 2007).

With demands both at home and at work becoming more onerous, working individuals are finding it increasingly challenging to balance work responsibilities and non-work responsibilities (e.g., child care, leisurely or recreational activities, household duties, relationship-related commitments or activities, elder care, etc.; Perry-Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000). In fact, a recent survey—the 2013 Today's Professional Woman Report by LinkedIn—of 1,023 working professionals found that, for both men and women, the number one career-related concern was finding a balance between work and family demands

(http://www.businesswire.com/news/home/20131030005200/en#.Us9zB_ZQ1CQ). For

individuals with significant roles at work and away from work, conflict between roles in each domain invariably emerges as a result.

As a consequence, work-family conflict, or the struggle to balance work and family demands, has become ubiquitous. *Work-family conflict* (WFC) is generally defined as interrole conflict that involves mutual incompatibility between work and family role demands; meeting demands in one domain makes it difficult to meet demands in the other (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Accordingly, both researchers and practitioners have called for action to better understand how we can manage demands from both domains and mitigate WFC (e.g., Hall & Richter, 1988).

As concern with WFC has burgeoned among working professionals and employers alike, so has the academic research on the topic. The literature on WFC has seen commensurate growth and now is a thriving area of research among organizational scholars. At the time of this writing, a basic search using the key words “work family conflict” returned 2,530,000 results in Google Scholar and 5,044 results in the widely used PsycINFO psychology research literature database. There are at least three major academic-oriented handbooks dedicated to the topic (Korabik, Lero, & Whitehead, 2008; Kossek & Lambert, 2005; Major & Burke, 2014) and at least 760 book chapters focusing on various aspects such as antecedents, outcomes, moderators, mediators, contextual factors, etc. (e.g., Wynne & Baltes, 2014).

Moreover, there is a paucity of research that fully and cogently explains how family members may potentially positively or negatively affect one another’s WFC. A concurrent phenomenon is that the number of dual-career couples is increasing at a rapid rate (e.g., Elloy & Smith, 2004). Women are placing greater emphasis on their careers, opportunities

are becoming more available for females, and men are embracing their role at home more so than ever before (Elloy & Smith, 2004). As such, men and women's roles at home and at work—as well as commensurate WFC—are changing and becoming more complex.

As the fundamental unit of interpersonal interaction (Kenny et al., 2006), an emerging body of research is beginning to emphasize the mutual influence that partners in dyadic relationships—especially cohabitants and others in close personal relationships (e.g., dating couples, married partners, friends, siblings, coworkers, parent-child dyads, doctor-patient dyads, etc.)—have on one another. For example, Hammer and colleagues (Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003; Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shafiro, 2005) discovered that members within dual-earner couples had profound influences on one another through negative and positive spillover. Specifically, spouses' WFC affects partners' work-related withdrawal behaviors and levels of depression.

Thus, the WFC phenomenon has been fully acknowledged in practice and well-studied in research, and scholars are beginning to understand both the antecedents and consequences of WFC. However, despite all of the advances in science and practice, we have yet to garner a complete understanding of how WFC can be significantly and practically mitigated.

Increasing our understanding of coping strategies in relation to work and family demands is beneficial to employees, especially those in committed relationships, particularly so conflict (and, consequently, the resulting negative outcomes) can be mitigated to make work and family life more manageable. One particular set of coping strategies—*selection, optimization, and compensation* (SOC)—has been found to reduce WFC (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003). Specifically, the SOC approach suggests a

number of effective coping behaviors and strategies that, when adopted, facilitates dealing with WFC. In this dissertation, I contend that these strategies hold promise in predicting and potentially mitigating WFC among dual-earner couples.

The purpose of the present study is to build on the extant research and more closely examine the mutual influence of coping between spouses as well as the positive and negative work-family outcomes that may emerge from this mutual influence. Specifically, the present paper examines a set of effective behavioral coping strategies (i.e., SOC), WFC, and crossover effects within married couples—how each spouse’s use of SOC strategies used at home affects his/her own and his/her partner’s subsequent WFC. I also draw upon classical social cognitive theory to offer an explanation for similarities in SOC strategies employed between spouses.

First, research on WFC is reviewed, followed by a review and discussion of the selective optimization with compensation lifespan development theory. Then, the mutual influence of spouses is discussed through the lens of social cognitive theory, before positing and detailing specific hypotheses.

CHAPTER 2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The present dissertation attempts to advance our understanding of how behavioral coping strategies, as described by the SOC model, affect interrole conflict among couples. That is, the aim is to explicate the influence that spouses' own SOC behavior has on their own and their partners' WFC. The following section describes the theory that undergirds the present examination and hypotheses. A review of the relevant literatures is provided, followed by a proposed, novel perspective on the subject through the lens of social cognitive theory. Specifically, I propose that social learning may be a useful framework with which may explain coping strategy use and effectiveness between partners. The literatures on WFC, SOC, and social cognitive theory are reviewed in detail next.

Work-Family Conflict

Perhaps the most commonly reported—and thus among the most commonly researched—type of interrole conflict in the organizational and popular literatures is *work-family conflict* (WFC). WFC is defined as “a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Thus, WFC occurs when demands from one's role in one domain (e.g., work) interfere with or are incompatible with demands from one's role in another domain (e.g., family; e.g., Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In particular, WFC emerges when role, time, and behavioral demands in (or strains from) one domain are discordant with demands or responsibilities in another domain. That is, participation in one role makes another role more difficult.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) identified three main sources of conflict. *Time-based conflict* occurs when roles are in direct conflict or competition for time. *Strain-based conflict* occurs when strain in one role reduces energy and thus affects performance in the other role. *Behavior-based conflict* occurs when the two roles' expected behaviors are incompatible.

A vast body of research—both classical and contemporary—has indicated that WFC is linked to a number of negative outcomes. The stress associated with this conflict can affect myriad factors in one's life, such as health (e.g., Greenhaus, Allen, & Spector, 2006), job and life satisfaction (e.g., Bruck, Allen, & Spector, 2002), and absenteeism and turnover (e.g., Boyar, Maertz, Pearson, & Keough, 2003).

Also, conflict is multidirectional in that it can involve either work interfering with family (WIF) or family interfering with work (FIW; also referred to as family-work conflict or FWC) or both (e.g., Cinamon & Rich, 2002; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996; also Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992) further examined WFC by deliberately distinguishing between work interfering with the family domain and family interfering with the work domain in their measurement of the construct. Thus, scholars in the work-family space argue and have established that WFC is bidirectional in nature—work can interfere with family life (e.g., a time-sensitive project requires that an employee miss a family function), family life can interfere with work (e.g., a sick child cause a worker to report to work late), or both.

Aryee (1992) examined unique types or dimensions of WFC among married professional women in Singapore—conflict between the job and one's spouse, one's role as a parent, and one's status as a homemaker. Professional women experienced all three

types of conflict—role stressors were the primary antecedent for job-spouse and job-homemaker conflicts. On the other hand, job-parent conflict was explained primarily by task characteristics.

Other antecedents of WFC include life role salience (personal expectations regarding various roles), family characteristics (e.g., degree of spousal support, spousal work-role involvement/commitment, division of household responsibility, parental demands, number and ages of children), task characteristics (e.g., variety, autonomy, complexity), work schedule (e.g., inflexibility, number of hours worked per week), and role pressures (role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload). Outcomes of WFC, as reviewed by Aryee (1992), include marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, work quality, and intention to withdraw from the workforce. WFC is positively related to the latter outcome and negatively related to the others. Other studies have focused on psychological and physical health outcomes, such as depression, poor physical health, and heavy alcohol use (e.g., Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996).

Since 2000, researchers have learned even more about the antecedents of WFC, as well as outcomes of WFC beyond psychological health. For example, attributions to life roles (which involve age, hours at home and working at the job, and spousal support) were associated with WFC (Cinamon & Rich, 2002). Similarly, Grzywacz, Almeida, and McDonald (2002) found that age had a curvilinear effect on negative spillover between the work and family domains.

Moreover, WFC is positively associated with greater job demands (e.g., workload, cognitive demands) and negatively associated with perceived flexibility (Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, & Weltzman, 2001), control, and other resources at work (e.g., social support,

autonomy, feedback; Butler, Grzywacz, Bass, & Linney, 2005), especially in early and middle adulthood (Demerouti, Peeters, & van der Heijden, 2012). Likewise, in her seminal meta-analysis, Byron (2005) found antecedents to include work-domain variables (such as job involvement, hours spent at work, work support, schedule flexibility, and job stress), nonwork-domain variables (such as family/nonwork involvement, family support, family stress, family conflict, number of children, age of youngest child, spousal employment, and marital status), and demographic/individual variables (such as sex, income, and coping style/skills).

In regards to outcomes, “dual loyalties” to family and career are linked to stresses such as role ambiguity, role conflict, and overload, often to the detriment of personal relationships (Elloy & Smith, 2004). A longitudinal study found that WFC predicted job dissatisfaction, parental distress, and psychological symptoms later on, especially among women (e.g., Kinnunen, Geurts, & Mauno, 2004). Low satisfaction and well-being predicted subsequent WFC among men.

Boyar et al. (2003) focused on withdrawal behaviors as the outcome of interest. These authors built upon and extended prior research by assessing the causal link between WFC and FWC. They found that work stress (role conflict, role overload) and family responsibility predicted WFC and FWC, which in turn influenced turnover intentions. Interestingly, they found and conclude that work-related conflict can spill over into the family sphere, but family-related conflict is less likely to spill over to the work domain, perhaps because family boundaries are more permeable than work boundaries (see also Leiter & Durup, 1996).

Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, LeBreton, and Baltes (2009) quantitatively reviewed prominent “full-range” WFC theoretical models (i.e., work and family domain antecedents and outcomes, with WFC as a mediator; see Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; also see Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; also see Frone et al., 1992), using a meta-analytic approach to compare those models with their proposed model. The antecedents that are generally included in these full-range models are social support, role involvement, role conflict, time demands, role overload, and role ambiguity. Outcomes generally include job, family, and life satisfaction.

Michel et al.’s (2009) proposed integrative model is more sophisticated in that it includes “quasi-linking” mechanisms (i.e., both indirect and direct effects) that are explained by an array of theoretical approaches. It also separates work/family outcomes and life outcomes in the causal sequence (the former affecting the latter). This model demonstrated good fit and more parsimony than established models. Moreover, WFC accounted for significant variance in job, life, and family satisfaction outcomes.

Michel and his colleagues (Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011) followed up with a meta-analysis clarifying the antecedents having the largest influences on WIF/WFC and FIW/FWC. The results confirmed that the primary antecedents of WIF are work role stressors, work role involvement, work social support, work characteristics, and personality. The primary antecedents of FIW are family role stressors, family social support, family characteristics, and personality.

Lastly, Fisher, Bulger, and Smith (2009) expanded the interrole conflict notion beyond the family domain and examined enhancement and interference between work and nonwork, more broadly. Work interference with personal life and personal life

interference with work are both positively related to stress and negatively related to job and life satisfaction. I now shift from antecedents of WFC to factors that tend to reduce WIF and FIW.

As noted above, Byron's (2005) quantitative review concluded that coping skills (active coping style, personal coping style, time management behaviors) are negatively associated with WFC—in fact, coping style is associated with WIF and FIW to approximately the same extent. Employing a positive coping style tends to protect individuals from WIF and FIW. Positive coping style, especially in terms of time management skills, seems to be a promising protective mechanism against WFC for workers. Coping often occurs at the individual level on a person-by-person basis. I next turn to and discuss personal strategies that individuals use to cope with WFC.

Coping strategies. Researchers have discussed several different types of coping strategies that individuals employ to mitigate the negative consequences of work-life conflict (e.g., Burley, 1994). These could be categorized as either emotion-focused coping or problem-focused coping, the majority of studies having examined the former type. For instance, individuals can deal with the stress from WFC in emotionally relieving ways that are geared toward restoring perceptions of well-being, such as exercising mindfulness, seeking emotional support, denial, forgiveness, engaging in counterproductive work behaviors, focusing on self-compassion, or even adopting a poor diet and heavy alcohol use (e.g., Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989; Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996; Garland, Gaylord, & Park, 2009; Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010; Neff, 2003; Weinstein, Brown, & Ryan, 2009; Worthington & Scherer, 2004).

More recently, several research papers have laid important groundwork by emphasizing problem-focused behavioral coping strategies (e.g., planning, suppression of competing activities, defining problems, generating solutions, etc.; Carver et al., 1989; Lapierre & Allen, 2006), which are argued to be generally more effective than emotion-focused coping strategies (e.g., Herman & Tetrick, 2009; Jennings & MacDougald, 2007; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; a caveat is that effectiveness may depend on controllability of the stressor). For instance, Burley (1994) reported that individuals used such behaviors as increasing efficiency and procuring support as effective coping strategies. Also, results from Lapierre and Allen's (2006) suggested that the use of problem-focused coping seems to buffer WFC and enhance well-being. Herman and Tetrick (2009) found that problem-focused coping strategies were positively related to repatriation adjustment. Problem-focused behaviors, however, may also be counterproductive in some cases, such as attempting to cope by employing reactive "do it all" role behaviors, which involves attempting to (unrealistically) address all demands (Jennings & McDougald, 2007).

Importantly, Baltes and Heydens-Gahir (2003) discovered that SOC strategies, a set of problem-focused behavioral coping strategies, were negatively related to WFC. Specifically, when individuals reported greater adoption of SOC behaviors, they also reported lower amounts of job and family stressors, which in turn were associated with less WFC.

As an interesting note, Baltes and Young (2006) speculated that, as the population (and thus the workforce) ages, eldercare will become a significant source of WFC. That is, perhaps WFC increases again in a later stage if and when eldercare responsibilities are manifested. This effect may be even more problematic for those in the so-called

“sandwich generation” (ages 40-64), who may have to deal with both childrearing and eldercare responsibilities (Matthews & Rosenthal, 1993).

Despite likely differences in the nature of WFC across age groups and career stages, the present paper does not focus on differences across the lifespan, but rather differences across relatively narrow and defined time points among working spouses. The next section introduces and reviews theory and research on SOC, which represents a set of behavioral coping strategies that holds some promise in mitigating WFC across members of spousal dyads.

Selective Optimization with Compensation

Selection, optimization, and compensation (SOC)—originally termed “selective optimization with compensation”—involves a set of adaptive strategies that individuals use to deal with life challenges (e.g., Baltes & Baltes, 1990). SOC originated as a systemic “meta theory of development” in the lifespan developmental psychology literature and suggests how one may maximize gains and minimize losses toward successful development (Baltes, 1997; Baltes & Baltes, 1990; Baltes & Carstensen, 1996; Baltes & Lang, 1997; Freund & Baltes, 1998; Marsiske, Lang, Baltes, & Baltes, 1995). SOC theory posits “that across the lifespan, individuals further their development adaptively by maximizing their potential gains and minimizing losses” (Li, Lindenberger, Freund, & Baltes, 2001, p. 230).

SOC, as a general model of development, directly and indirectly relates to three general functions of development—the functions of *growth* (reaching higher levels of functioning), *maintenance* (maintaining adequate levels of functioning, even with new challenges), and *regulation of loss* (reorganizing functioning when maintenance is not

feasible; Baltes, Staudinger, & Lindenberger, 1999). In fact, Ebner, Freund, and Baltes (2006) found that personal goal orientation tends to shift across the lifespan. Younger adults were oriented toward growth. Conversely, older workers tended to be oriented toward maintenance and loss-prevention, the former being associated with greater well-being. Among younger workers, orientation toward loss-prevention was negatively associated with well-being.

Baltes (1997) noted that these general functions “represent the systemic whole of individual development” (p. 369). According to this perspective, SOC has been described as a response to decreases in biological plasticity, increases in the need for culture, and decreases in the efficacy of culture as age increases throughout the lifespan (Baltes & Smith, 2004).

The SOC theory suggests a number of behaviors that can help individuals adapt to losses or declines in resources as well as other challenges to healthy adjustment as they age. Specifically, SOC consists of three interrelated elements or processes, which are described next: *selection, optimization, and compensation*.

Selection. Selection generally involves consciously and actively setting goals/preferences (although it can be passive or subconscious; Baltes et al., 1999). It involves goal directionality, identification of goal domains, and narrowing of the pool of potentialities (Baltes, 1997; Baltes et al., 1999).

Selection stems from the premise that development always has specific goals of functioning. SOC theory assumes that there are constraints on time and resources, which require that a certain set of goals or directions be selected over others. Baltes (1997)

noted that, “age-associated losses in biological potential or plasticity increase the pressure for selection” (p. 371).

The selection element is broken down into two types or subprocesses: *elective selection* and *loss-based selection* (Baltes, 1997; Freund & Baltes, 1998). The former refers to motivation-based selection and involves specification of goals, constructing a goal hierarchy, and goal commitment. The latter stems from a reduction in the availability of means/resources and involves restricting focus to the most important goals, searching for new goals, reconstructing or revising one’s existing goal hierarchy, and adapting standards in response to a loss or decline.

As an illustration, one may employ the elective selection strategy by breaking a major project into more manageable components, specifying and prioritizing goals for each component, and then accomplishing corresponding subgoals each day. Or, as a case of loss-based selection, if an employee has faced a loss in resources, such as reduced workability due to injury, perhaps she could seek fewer work assignments until she is fully functioning again (i.e., select the highest priority and most feasible work assignments).

Optimization. Optimization generally involves pursuing goal-relevant means (e.g., resources) to achieve desired outcomes (Baltes, 1997; Baltes et al., 1999; Freund & Baltes, 1998). Generally speaking, it involves acquiring or orchestrating means, enhancing existing goal-directed means, and searching for enhancing contexts. Put another way, the focus is on acquiring, refining, or maintaining means suitable for securing relevant outcomes.

Optimization is congruent with the view that development is considered as a “movement toward increased efficacy and higher levels of functioning” and therefore requires the “application of a set of behavior-enhancing factors” (Baltes, 1997, p. 371). These behavior-enhancing factors include attentional focus, effort/energy, time allocation, practice of skills, acquiring new skills/resources (e.g. training), modeling successful others, and motivation for self-development. Other optimization-oriented processes are persistence and seizing the right moment (Freund & Baltes, 2002). For example, if one has been promoted and is expected to devote longer hours at work, he or she might enroll in a workshop or training session related to upcoming projects, which may facilitate efficiency once in the new role. If a worker is expecting an especially busy month, as a form of optimization, she might prospectively create a calendar listing all important dates and deadlines. Interviews with older workers found that they used optimization strategies such as assessing one’s own skills, maintaining optimism and positive attitudes toward change, and drawing on past experience (Unson & Richardson, 2012).

Compensation. Compensation generally refers to procuring resources for counteracting or *reacting* to a loss or decline in goal-relevant means (Baltes, 1997; Baltes et al., 1999; Freund & Baltes, 1998). In other words, unlike optimization, compensation occurs when means are no longer available, conflict among goals is present, or resources become further limited (Baltes, 1997; Baltes & Smith, 2004). One reason that compensation occurs is because selection and optimization in relation to one set of goals implies loss of attention toward other goals. Another potential cause relates to age-associated declines in plasticity (e.g., Baltes, 1987; Baltes & Carstensen, 1996; Lerner, 1984; Willis, 1990).

In general, compensation involves acquiring new goal-directed means due to the loss of available means/resources, changes in adaptive contexts, and readjustment of goal structures (Baltes et al., 1999). Specific actions associated with the compensation element include increased attentional focus, increased effort/energy, increased time allocation, activation of unused skills/resources, acquiring new skills/resources, modeling successful others who compensate, use of external aids or help from others, and therapeutic intervention. Other compensation-oriented processes include substitution of means and neglect of optimizing other means (Freund & Baltes, 2002), in addition to on-the-job training and tapping into professional networks (Unson & Richardson, 2012). For example, an employee who is covering an extra shift at work temporarily may exercise compensation by asking a relative to help with household duties (childcare, yard care, etc.) until his schedule is back to normal. In other situations, enlisting the help of other team members to help with a heavy workload may be an effective compensation strategy. Although optimization and compensation may be similar in that they both refer to means to achieve one's selected goals, "optimization refers to achieving higher level functioning, whereas compensation refers to counteracting losses" (Baltes, Zhdanova, & Clark, 2011, p. 520).

In sum, selection, optimization, and compensation work in concert as an ensemble of strategies. Elective selection refers to behaviors relating to developing and clarifying goals, selecting among and focusing on a limited subset of plausible goals, and constructing a goal hierarchy based on goal importance. Loss-based selection refers to behaviors such as shifting focus toward the most important goals (and relinquishing less important goals) when a loss in means is encountered, as well as revising one's goal

hierarchy. Optimization refers to behaviors relating to acquiring and investing in means with which to achieve one's selected goals. Lastly, compensation refers to a response to losses or declines in means—specifically, investing in substitute or alternative means. See Table 1 for a summary of the elements of SOC.

Demerouti, Bakker, and Leiter (2014) confirmed the factor structure of SOC with data collected with a popular measure of SOC. According to the confirmatory factor analysis results, fit of the four-factor model was suboptimal, but marginally adequate. Furthermore, elective selection and loss-based selection were not found to be strongly correlated. These results corroborate prior assertions by Baltes and his fellow colleagues who study SOC (P. B. Baltes, M. M. Baltes, Freund, & Lang, 1995; P. B. Baltes, M. M. Baltes, Freund, & Lang, 1999). Thus, the four-factor model was retained for testing of the primary hypotheses (described in greater detail below).

Increased engagement in SOC behaviors is associated with a number of positive developmental outcomes such as higher levels of well-being (Freund & Baltes, 1998; 2002), dual-career vocational advances (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003), and job performance ratings (Bajor & Baltes, 2003). SOC is also correlated with conscientiousness (neuroticism is associated with just the optimization facet; Freund & Baltes, 2002), as well as subjective ratings of competence maintenance and goal attainment (Abraham & Hansson, 1995). Lastly, the SOC “life-management” strategies are associated with subjective indicators of successful aging (e.g., satisfaction with aging, positive emotions, absence of loneliness; Freund & Baltes, 1998; 2000). Next, SOC as it relates to work-related phenomena is discussed.

Work-Related Selection, Optimization, and Compensation

P. B. Baltes and his colleagues (e.g., Baltes et al., 1999) termed SOC as “orchestrating processes” that mediate the relationship between antecedent conditions (e.g., age-related changes in plasticity) and outcomes (e.g., maximization of gains and minimization of losses). In fact, Baltes (1997) suggested that how the elements of SOC are specifically defined, operationalized, and manifested depends on the theoretical framework or domain. As such, SOC is viewed as a meta-theory or highly general theoretical approach “that is inherent in any developmental process” (i.e., universalistic) and is, therefore, applicable to a broad range of not only goals but also domains (Baltes, 1997, p. 371). Principles of SOC theory can be integrated into many different theoretical perspectives (Baltes & Smith, 2004).

In particular, the SOC theory described above has recently been adapted and applied to workplace settings and career development, first by Wiese and colleagues (Wiese, Freund, & Baltes, 2000; Wiese, Freund, & Baltes, 2002), and then later by B. B. Baltes and colleagues (Bajor & Baltes, 2003; Baltes & Dickson, 2001; Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003; Baltes & Wynne, 2012; Baltes & Young, 2007; Baltes et al., 2011; Early & Baltes, 2012; Baltes, Wynne, Sirabian, Krenn, & De Lange, 2014), partially in recognition that work and family/partnership are central domains in adulthood and that successful life management involves coordination of these domains. This body of research suggests that SOC is not only an effective set of strategies that people use to deal with challenges across one’s lifespan, but also that SOC may be effective in dealing with developmental challenges across one’s career.

Early application of SOC to the pursuit of work-related goals. Wiese et al. (2000) was perhaps the first to explicitly apply SOC theory to the vocational domain.

These authors focused on young adults' pursuit of career-related and partnership-related goals, as there tends to be a simultaneous desire to start a family while also developing one's career. Because young adults desire and are committed to both types of goals, they often experience conflicting demands, posing a developmental challenge for them. Thus, the authors proposed that SOC may represent relevant strategies of successful life management for young adults.

Wiese et al. (2000) applied SOC to an action-theoretical framework, whereby selection refers to processes relating to structuring and choosing goals congruent with personal motives. Optimization in this context refers to applying goal-relevant means to achieve set goals or higher levels of functioning—for example, investing time, persisting in the face of difficulties, modeling others' successful behaviors, or developing skills (e.g., practicing) in order to meet the selected goals. Compensation refers to applying goal-relevant means to counteract losses in other goal-related means. Examples of compensation include finding substitute means or external aids (e.g., hiring a babysitter, asking a coworker to take one's shift, etc.) and increasing effort. Losses can occur as a critical life event (e.g., accidents that result in reduced physical functioning, unexpected loss of employment, etc.) or gradually (e.g., increasing workload, decreasing availability of time, increasing childcare demands, etc.).

Wiese et al. (2000) found that goals relating to the work and partnership domains greatly outweighed other types of goals for young adults, and self-reported use of SOC positively related to both global life management and domain-specific success. Among SOC components, selection was of lesser importance to the young adults in the sample.

Wiese et al. (2002) followed up on these cross-sectional findings with a longitudinal study. Results suggest that optimization and the degree of compensation predicts the degree to which younger professionals feel emotionally balanced and satisfied with their work situation over time. Both of the studies mentioned above demonstrate and establish the successful application of the SOC framework to the vocational domain. The authors conclude that, “in its meta-theoretical formulation, the SOC model allows one to comprehensively integrate theoretical concepts and empirical findings of developmental, vocational, and organizational psychology” (Wiese et al., 2002, p. 333).

More recently, organizational scholars have further investigated the role that SOC plays in the performance process (Bajor & Baltes, 2003; Baltes et al., 2014; Demerouti, Bakker, & Leiter, 2014; Müller, De Lange, Weigl, Oxfart, & Van der Heijden, 2013; Müller, Weigl, Heiden, Herbig, Glaser, & Angerer, 2012; Yeung & Fung, 2009). For instance, Bajor and Baltes (2003) discovered that SOC is a unique predictor of job performance. Specifically, employment of SOC accounted for unique variance in the prediction of work performance above and beyond conscientiousness, especially for positions with greater responsibility such as managerial positions. Moreover, elective selection and optimization partially mediated the relationship between conscientiousness and performance.

Likewise, SOC is positively associated with work ability, especially among older nurses (Müller et al., 2013). Yeung and Fung (2009) found that SOC impacted job performance across the span of adulthood in their experience sampling study of salespersons' global and momentary adoption of SOC strategies. Elective selection was positively related to sales productivity, especially among younger workers (and also among older workers engaged in a highly difficult task). Compensation was related to

higher performance maintenance among older employees. Furthermore, these relationships were moderated by task difficulty. In situations of lower (higher) difficulty, employment of SOC was positively (negatively) related to sales increases for older workers. The opposite was observed for younger employees.

Müller et al. (2013) demonstrated that SOC buffered the negative effect of poor health on intention to remain in bridge employment. Unlike those who use a high degree of SOC, those who use a low degree of SOC were at greater risk of dropping out of the workforce when their health was poor (and vice-versa), primarily as a result of compensation behaviors. In other words, at least among older workers, SOC was shown to minimize the deleterious effects of health problems on intention to remain in the workforce.

Similarly, Demerouti et al. (2014) found that SOC moderated the relationship between burnout and job performance, providing an explanation for the weak relationships between burnout and job performance in the literature. Specifically, SOC behaviors buffered the negative impact of burnout on performance. In particular, compensation was the most effective at buffering the negative effect of disengagement on performance (although selection exacerbated the harmful relationship). The argument is that SOC represents adaptive strategies that are used to maintain performance levels when facing burnout. The results suggest that compensation elements of the SOC model are particularly successful strategies in mitigating the debilitating effects of burnout on performance.

In addition, Baltes et al. (2014) proposed, tested, and found longitudinal evidence for a mediational model, in which a promotion-focus goal orientation mediates the

relationship between future time perspective and SOC. That is, when workers perceive much more time available in their personal and work life, they tend to be oriented toward promotion-focused goals and, in turn, adopt SOC-focused behaviors, all of which are conducive to enhanced job performance. I next turn to how SOC relates and has been applied to WFC in particular.

Recent application of SOC to WFC. Much of the contemporary vocation-related SOC research has focused on reducing WFC through the enacting of SOC behaviors (e.g., Early & Baltes, 2012). Importantly, P.B. Baltes and colleagues (e.g., Baltes & Smith, 2004) suggest that SOC may be particularly germane to multi-task or dual-demands domains (i.e., balancing work and family demands), noting that “SOC theory suggests that developmental researchers may want to use experimental paradigms developed for the study of dual- or multitask performance to better understand the developmental dynamics that individuals face as they regulate themselves in a complex time and context environment” (Baltes & Smith, 2004, p. 136).

Most recently, B. B. Baltes and colleagues have demonstrated the effectiveness of SOC in reducing WFC through a series of studies. First, Baltes and Heydens-Gahir (2003) found that general (and domain-specific) SOC behaviors were associated with lower amounts of work and family stressors, and in turn, lower WIF and FIW. However, these results were based on cross-sectional data.

Early and Baltes (2012) subsequently tested a longitudinal model to examine the effect of SOC strategies on WFC. Results indicated a longitudinal relationship between SOC and WFC, suggesting that SOC strategies can reduce WFC over time.

Research has since progressed to include individual differences, as well as other outcomes. For example, Young, Baltes, and Pratt (2007) expanded upon the aforementioned research (i.e., Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003) on the relationships between SOC and job/family stressors, a primary antecedent of WFC. These researchers demonstrated that demand and supply of resources moderate the relationship between SOC and job/family stressors. In other words, the influence of SOC strategies on job and family stressors depends on the amount of resources available to (number of benefits offered, supervisor support) and demanded of (youngest child at home) an employee. For workers with the greatest demands, SOC behaviors are actually even more effective at reducing the negative impact of stressors.

Baltes et al. (2011) explored how SOC fits into the larger picture—what role SOC plays in the known relationship between individual difference variables and WFC. They examined the relationships among personality, SOC, and WFC. These researchers tested the mediating effect of SOC on the relationship between personality characteristics and WFC, and they found that certain personality traits influence the likelihood that SOC strategies are used. Specifically, emotional stability is related to WIF, and negative affect is related to both WIF and FIW. Moreover, conscientiousness and agreeableness are associated with greater use of SOC, which in turn, results in lower levels of WFC. Overall, SOC represents the behaviors through which personality traits affect WFC outcomes.

In sum, the body of research suggests that SOC—in both home and work contexts—has a clear influence on WFC. Specifically, conscientiousness and agreeableness are linked to greater adoption of SOC, which leads to lower levels of job/family stressors and, in turn, WFC, especially among those with the greatest

demands. As robust as this body of research is becoming, research on how couples affect each other in terms of their coping styles is lacking (for a recent and notable exception, see Unger, Sonnentag, Niessen, & Kuonath, 2015). Thus, the present dissertation extends the research on SOC and WFC by examining not only SOC's effect on one's own outcomes (actor effects), but also on one's spouse (partner effects).

Before hypotheses are presented on crossover effects, I next discuss the use of SOC and its effect on one's partner's use of SOC through the lens of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1971). Specifically, I draw upon classical social cognitive theory to offer an explanation for similarities in SOC endorsement between spouses.

Similarities in SOC among Spouses: A Social Cognitive Theory Perspective

Originally named *social learning theory*, Bandura (1971; 1986) developed *social cognitive theory* partly as a rebuttal to the previously held prevailing notions that people were influenced either entirely by inner forces (e.g., innate personality traits), as suggested by the psychodynamic approach, or entirely by environmental influences, as suggested by the behaviorism movement. Unlike these schools of thought, Bandura argued that there were other, more valid and evidenced explanations for how people were influenced—explanations that passed stringent empirical tests and demonstrated predictive and causal effects.

Central to social cognitive theory is an agentic perspective involving self-regulation and the notion of bidirectional influences between individuals and the environment. Bandura notes that social learning involves a “continuous reciprocal interaction between behavior and its controlling conditions” and that “virtually all learning phenomena resulting from direct experiences can occur on a vicarious basis through observation of other

people's behavior and its consequences for them" (p. 2). As a core part of the theory, Bandura emphasized the "influential contribution of cognitive processes to human motivation, affect, and action" (2011, p. 352).

In other words, because humans are social beings capable of perception, self-awareness, and experiencing phenomena vicariously, we are able to learn or determine which outcomes are likely to result from which behaviors simply by observing others' behaviors—successes, failures, pains, punishments, etc.—rather than a tedious process of trial and error. Similarly, human beings exercise complex, higher-order cognition that generates foresight and solving problems symbolically. Thus, our patterns of behavior are partly acquired through cognition resulting from our social interactions with others, rather than being entirely dependent on inner forces or reinforcement effects through rewards and punishment.

A small but important aspect of social cognitive theory is the concept of *social modeling*. Bandura (1971) used the term social modeling to refer to a process of observational learning that occurs through the influence of behavioral examples. Bandura argues most of our manifested behavior is learned by observing others. Unlike Miller and Dollard's (1941) classical theory of imitative, operant conditioning-oriented social learning, Bandura (1971) argued "learning occurs through symbolic processes during exposure to the modeled activities before any responses have been performed or reinforced" (p. 6). One function of modeling is to acquire knowledge without risk of costly or dangerous errors. To emphasize the point, Bandura even cites some extreme cases in which learning would be impossible without social modeling such as the impossibility of learning the linguistic skills need for language without hearing speech from others.

Bandura (1965; 1971; 2011) posited that modeling operates through four cognitive subfunctions. These elements involve the following types of processes: attentional (recognizing essential aspects of the behavior being modeled), representational (imagining the stimuli as happening to oneself and verbal coding of observed events; i.e., symbolic coding), enactive translational (symbolic representations lead to guided actions), and motivational (receiving incentives that promote translating learning into action).

According to social cognitive theory, behavior is learned before it is performed. Learning comes from exposure to another person, such as a spouse. Bandura (1971) states, “by observing a model of the desired behavior, an individual forms an idea of how response components must be combined and temporally sequenced to produce new behavioral configurations” (p. 8). Modeling may be the primary vehicle with which one spouse influences the other—specifically how one’s use of coping strategies affects the other’s use of coping strategies. Although workers may spend as much (or more) time with coworkers than their spouse, research suggests married individuals are strong adopters of their spouses’ habits. Thus, I propose that spouses adopt one another’s coping strategies at home, and, accordingly, endorsement of SOC at home will be similar between spouses through modeling. For example, a husband who has a wife who frequently uses to-do lists and calendars to achieve her goals (i.e., successful SOC strategies, as noted above) is likely to not only notice these behaviors but also adopt them for himself. In the next section of this dissertation, I suggest that partners in a dyad (i.e., spouses) learn from each other at home through the social modeling process, as

described and theorized by Bandura. As will be explained below, I posit that it is through this process of mutual influence that crossover effects are manifested.

CHAPTER 3 CURRENT STUDY AND HYPOTHESES

As mentioned above, Baltes and Heydens-Gahir (2003) found that employment of SOC behaviors in the work and family domains were associated with lower amounts of work and family stressors, respectively. In turn, decreased stressors subsequently resulted in lower WIF and FIW.

Thus, the Baltes and Heydens-Gahir study was monumental in demonstrating a key antecedent of WFC (i.e., SOC) and improving our understanding of how SOC can mitigate WFC. However, this study is limited in important ways. Specifically, interpretation of the results must be tempered because of the cross-sectional nature of the data. Also, it remains unknown what effect each spouse's enactment of SOC behavior has on the other spouse's SOC and work- and family-related outcomes.

The Baltes and Heydens-Gahir research sets the foundation for the present dissertation; the aim is to extend these findings and elucidate the crossover effects of spousal coping strategies over multiple time points, focusing on the use of the strategies at home. It is posited that partners have much more opportunity to observe and acquire one another's behavior at home than at work (i.e., most spouses are non-work-linked couples and thus work in disparate workplaces, with their time together mostly or entirely taking place in the family domain; Halbesleben, Zellars, Carlson, Perrewe, & Rotondo, 2010). Thus, this dissertation limits its scope to SOC in the family domain.

The present study answers previous calls (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003; Young et al., 2007) for more research by examining (a) cross-lagged relationships between SOC and WFC and (b) potential crossover effects of spouses' use of SOC on one another's outcomes. Compared to cross-sectional designs, the lagged design allows for stronger

causal inferences and for the examination of causal mechanisms to explain the effects. This approach answers Westman and Piotrkowski's (1999) call for more research emphasis in this area.

The present dissertation attempts to address the question, does one spouse's ("Spouse A") use of SOC at home affect the other spouse's ("Spouse B") use of SOC at home? Furthermore, how does the use of SOC "cross over"—how do spouses affect each other's WFC outcomes? What are the potential positive and negative effects of one spouse's use of SOC on the other's outcomes at a later time-point?

In other words, studies have found that the use of SOC behaviors is related to reduced WFC overall (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003)—but do employees have a crossover effect on their spouses' WFC? An ancillary, exploratory research question posed is, *do the crossover effects differ depending on the type (facet) of SOC?*

Spouses' Use of SOC: Bidirectional Influences and Actor Effects

First of all, as noted above, prior research has established a negative relationship between general SOC and WFC overall. It is expected that these findings (i.e., actor effects) will be replicated in the current dissertation study.

H1: Wives' SOC coping behaviors at home at Time 1 (T1) will be negatively related with their own FIW (H1a) at Time 2 (T2). Likewise, again in the family/home domain, husbands' SOC at T1 will be negatively related with their own FIW (H1b) at T2.

Social modeling effects. Bandura (1971) highlights that association preferences play a major factor in "observational experiences." The behavior learned depends partly on the type and closeness of the group with whom one associates. Additionally, the

amount of exposure to and time spent with another person also plays a major role in the behaviors observed and thus the amount of influence one person has on another. It can be argued that few, if any, types of dyadic relationships share more intimacy than married couples, partly due to the tendency for cohabitation. Typically, spouses spend as much or more time with each other as people do with anyone else, creating vast opportunities for observational learning and acquisition of the partner's behavioral tendencies, especially those behaviors that are clearly rewarded, admired, or otherwise bring benefits to the actor. Thus, it is reasonable that, within intimate dyads, one person's behaviors that elicit positive outcomes will likely be adopted by the other member in the dyad.

As noted above, SOC behaviors have been shown to be highly effective in dealing with challenges across numerous domains (e.g., Baltes et al., 1999). In particular, SOC has been shown to be linked to decreased WFC among working individuals. When SOC behavioral coping strategies are demonstrated by—and beneficial effects enjoyed by—one spouse routinely, the other spouse has opportunities to observe the behaviors and the positive results, experience them vicariously, and personally adopt these behaviors accordingly. On the other hand, when alternative, ineffective coping strategies (e.g., emotion-focused coping) are demonstrated by one spouse routinely, the other spouse has opportunities to observe the behaviors and their potentially negative results and avoid these behaviors accordingly. This suggests a correlation between the SOC endorsed by one spouse and SOC endorsed by the other spouse. To address this proposition, the following hypothesis is proffered:

H2: Again in the family/home domain, wives' SOC coping behaviors at home at T1 will be positively related with husbands' SOC at home at T1 (H2).

Effects of Spouses' Use of SOC: Crossover Effects

The primary focus of the present dissertation is centered on examining crossover effects between spouses at home. The following section describes these effects in greater detail and proposes corresponding hypotheses.

Crossover effects of SOC between spouses. Because SOC behaviors allow one to be more efficacious at dealing with challenges in a particular domain, the demonstration of these behaviors is likely to improve the functioning of one's unit (i.e., married couple) as well. Since spouses' WFC is largely intertwined, less conflict experienced by one may mean less conflict experienced by the other. Thus, one spouse's effective handling of a work- or family-related challenges likely results in benefits to the other spouse as well.

As noted above, Baltes and Heydens-Gahir (2003) found that greater endorsement of SOC, as an ensemble of behavioral coping strategies, is associated with less WFC. As individuals engage more in effective coping behaviors at home, they are more effective at handling demands and thus the better they are at managing stressors associated with WFC, including FIW conflict. That is, to the extent that individuals employ SOC behaviors, FIW is mitigated, such that family matters interfere with work matters to a lesser degree.

In other words, those employing SOC strategies at home are better able to attend to and meet demands in the family domain. In turn, when employees are better able to attend to demands in the family domain, they are better able to reduce the burden imposed on their spouses to attend to the (shared) family domain demands.

It follows that, when employees receive more help with family duties from their spouses, they are freed to attend to demands in other domains (i.e., work) to a greater extent, suggesting less FIW experienced by the spouse. This proposition is consistent with conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 2002), which posits that people have limited resources to deal with demands and thus are motivated to conserve those resources. Thus,

H3: There will be a crossover effect, such that wives' SOC coping behaviors at T1 will be negatively related with husbands' FIW at T2 (controlling for the actor effect, or the effect of the independent variable on one's own outcome).

H4: There will be a crossover effect, such that husbands' SOC coping behaviors at T1 will be negatively related with wives' FIW at T2 (controlling for the actor effect).

Facet-level crossover effects of SOC: An exploration. Although the extant research evidence is insufficient to formally propose hypotheses at the facet-level (i.e., selection, optimization, and compensation facets), I describe and propose several research questions to guide future research that is aimed at examining facet-level effects. As explained next, the effect of SOC on FIW may differ greatly depending on the type of SOC behavior.

Selection and optimization crossover effects. As discussed above, the benefits of SOC—particularly in terms of mitigated WFC—one spouse enjoys will likely be enjoyed by the other as well (except for compensation, which will be discussed next). Because selection and optimization behaviors allow one to be more efficacious at dealing with challenges in a particular domain, the demonstration of these behaviors is likely to

improve the functioning of one's unit (i.e., married couple) as well. As an illustration, the more one person makes use of a goal hierarchy, prioritizes tasks, exerts effort, seeks ways to overcome challenges, etc., the more effective he or she will be at managing demands and thus the less WFC he/she will experience. Again, since spouses' WFC is largely intertwined, less conflict for one may mean less conflict for the other. Therefore, the proposed research question is, will there be a crossover effect, such that each spouse's selection and optimization at T1 will be negatively correlated with the other spouse's FIW at T2 (controlling for the actor effect)?

Compensation crossover effects. Compensation involves seeking aid or assistance from others when facing a loss in resources. Among couples, when a partner needs help, oftentimes the spouse is the first person able and willing to help. Thus, one spouse often "picks up the slack" for the other spouse when challenges are met and resources are limited. To serve as an illustration, one example could be a wife who needs to stay late to finish a project at work and thus cannot pick up a child from school; she may contact the husband and ask him to exercise flexibility to the extent possible to pick up the child instead. When one spouse loses flexibility and faces conflict, at home or at work, the other spouse is asked to help. In other words, when demands increase for one person and he or she chooses to compensate for it, it is usually his/her spouse who is asked to take on the compromised demands. With this type of compensation, as demand increases for one, conflict increases for the other.

Thus, the proposed research question is, will there be a crossover effect, such that individuals' compensation in the family/home domain at T1 will be positively correlated

with their spouses' FIW at T2 (controlling for the actor effect)? The method and results sections are presented next. A discussion of the results and then a conclusion will follow.

CHAPTER 4 METHOD

Procedure

The data for this dissertation was from a larger data collection effort. In order to reduce common method bias (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) and mitigate the issues associated with cross-sectional data, the survey data were collected at multiple time points; demographics, SOC, and WFC were measured at T1. SOC, WFC, and the other variables (see below), including non-dissertation-related variables, were measured approximately two weeks later at T2¹. An adequate time lag mitigates common method bias (i.e., participants' lack of memory of their responses at T1 results in a minimized influence on their responses at T2). Few studies to date have collected WFC-related dyadic data over multiple waves and thus guidance is lacking, in regards to an ideal time lag. One notable example is Watkins et al. (2012), who used a two-month time lag (another exception is Hammer et al., 2005, which used a one-year time lag). However, the time lag in the current research was limited to approximately two weeks in order to encourage participation, thus making it more likely to maintain an adequate response rate and reduce attrition. Notably, Taris and Kompier (2003; 2014) suggest that using a full panel design (i.e., key study variables being measured at all time points) is more important than the actual time lag interval because reciprocal effects can then be examined.

Ultimately, 400 participants were targeted for inclusion in the analysis, or 200 working husband-wife dyads. Kenny, Kashy, and Cook (2006) surveyed a representative set of dyadic studies, noting that the median sample size is 101 dyads, with 80 dyads being very typical. With a large effect size, Kenny et al. (2006) found that power is sufficient at $n = 80$ dyads (or about 100 dyads for a medium effect size). A sample of as

few as 25 dyads can be tested for consequential (significant) nonindependence (although Tambling, Johnson, & Johnson, 2011 describe an analytic strategy that can be used to overcome the limitations of smaller sample sizes using a pooled regression approach). Lastly, Kline (2005) suggests at least 100 dyads for structural equation modeling. In light of these guidelines, the sample size in the present dissertation is adequate for the proposed analyses.

Participants were recruited by Qualtrics Panels, a U.S.-based participant recruitment service. The service, which accesses panels and provides a pool of participants for researchers, has been used in prior research to recruit participants willing to complete surveys online in exchange for monetary incentives.

Only U.S.-based panelists meeting certain criteria were included in the study. In particular, individuals in the recruitment pool who indicated that they (a) are married and living with a spouse (i.e., committed cohabitating relationship; Matthews et al., 2006), (b) are working full-time, and (c) qualify as being in a dual-career couple (i.e., have a spouse working at least part-time or 20 hours per week; Hammer et al., 2003) were included and sent an emailed invitation.

Once consent was received and eligibility criteria confirmed, panelists were asked to complete the questionnaires online using Qualtrics, a web-based surveying tool. As used in the method employed by Ayotte (2013), participants were asked to affirm a statement (by typing their initials) that they completed the questionnaires independently from their spouses and that they did not discuss their responses until after submission. All respondents were promptly compensated for their participation in the first wave. Demographic variables—including sex, age, ethnicity, industry, hours worked per week,

years working at the current job, years working at the current organization, number of children, age of youngest child, elder care responsibilities, and chronic illness in the family—were measured to examine sample characteristics (see Appendix C for questionnaire). In prior dyadic research, demographic variables are used to describe the nature of the dyads and confirm that participants meet the selection criteria. They are also used as qualifiers, moderators, and control variables. For the current study, demographic variables were collected in this dissertation to verify that the husband and spouse met the inclusion criteria (working, married, etc.). Demographics were also collected for future research intended to explore the extent to which relationships are moderated by or depend on work factors such as hours worked per week and familial factors such as number and age of children and propinquity of close relatives.

After data had been collected, in preparation for data analysis, data were organized in the dyad format, in which each case contains both members' scores (Kenny et al., 2006; Tambling et al., 2011). This format allows the analyst to control for actor effects when examining partner effects.

Participants

In total, 27,712 panelists ("Spouse A") were initially recruited to participate in the study and thus were sent an invitation email for the Spouse A wave 1 survey. As a practical matter, a generous oversampling was done in order to accommodate attrition and increase the likelihood of reaching the final targeted *N* size at the end of T2. A total of 3,962 of these respondents did not pass the attention check screens (see Appendix C for items).

A total of 3,611 panelists met the quotas/eligibility requirements, agreed to recruit their spouse (“Spouse B”) by emailing him/her a link to the second part of the T1 survey, passed attention checks and screens, and completed the Spouse A wave 1 survey in its entirety. A total of 364 of these respondents did not pass the attention check screens. $N = 1,353$ of panelists’ spouses met the eligibility requirements, passed attention checks, and completed the Spouse B wave 1 survey in its entirety, resulting in $N = 1,353$ complete sets of dyadic data for T1.

Two weeks after participation, Spouse A respondents (within the $N = 1,353$ dyads who fully completed the wave 1 survey) were re-invited and asked to take the T2 survey, with bonus compensation offered as an incentive to again participate and recruit their spouses’ participation. A total of eight of these respondents did not pass the attention check screens.

$N = 555$ of these panelists passed attention checks, completed the Spouse A wave 2 survey in its entirety, and sent the Spouse B wave 2 survey link to their partners. A total of six of these respondents did not pass the attention check screens. Two hundred and fifty-eight partners completed the Spouse B survey at T2. Importantly, although we requested that only heterosexual married couples participate, upon inspection, six same-couples were self-reported. Thus, prior to analysis, these same-sex couples were removed, resulting in a final sample of $N = 252$ complete sets of dyadic data across the two time points.

Among Spouse A respondents (panelists), 68% were female, with a mean age of 43.23 years ($SD = 10.99$). They were mostly White (83.3%), and they worked, on average, 41.35 hours per week ($SD = 6.33$) and had worked for their employer for 9.77 years (SD

= 8.29). Among Spouse B respondents, 68% were male, with a mean age of 44.37 years (SD = 11.44). They were mostly White (82.1%), and they worked, on average, 39.55 hours per week (SD = 12.26) and had worked for their employer for 9.19 years (SD = 8.99).

Breaking down the sample by gender, wives (females) were mostly White (83.3%) with a mean age of 42.32 years (SD = 10.83). They had, on average, worked for their employer for 9.39 years (SD = 8.36). Husbands (males) were mostly White (80.6%) with a mean age of 45.42 years (SD = 11.42). They had, on average, worked for their employer for 9.52 years (SD = 8.89).

On average, couples in the study were in their first marriage (77.8%) and had more than one child, the youngest in the household ranging from newborn to over 21 years. All spouses (100%) reported both (a) cohabitating with their partner and (b) their relationship status as “married.” Lastly, 92.1% of the sample reported that they had eldercare responsibilities for at least one relative.

Measures

Several validated instruments were used to measure the variables of interest—SOC and WFC—as well as a number of additional variables not central to the dissertation. All measures at T2 asked participants to refer to the past two weeks when completing the questionnaire. Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for major study variables are shown in Table 2. All measures demonstrate good internal consistency.

SOC. A short, 24-item version of the SOC scale developed by P. B. Baltes, M. M. Baltes, Freund, and Lang (1999) was used to measure SOC behaviors used at home.

Each of the four components of SOC—ES, LBS, optimization, and compensation—is measured with six items (see Appendix A for the scale)².

The scale was employed in a similar manner as in Müller et al. (2013), with each item being rated on a five-point Likert-type scale anchored at the ends by a target SOC behavior and a distractor (non-SOC) behavior. This response scale is in contrast to the method traditionally used with the SOC scale (i.e., choosing dichotomously between a target SOC behavior and a distractor, and then rating oneself on a follow-up item on the extent to which the selection describes oneself; see Baltes and Heydens-Gahir, 2003 for a detailed description of how this alternative scaling is scored). The employed response scaling method allows the scale to be substantially shorter—which mitigates fatigue and carelessness effects (Hinkin, 1998)—while maintaining measurement integrity.

A pilot study was conducted to test for measurement equivalence of the two different response scales. The result was that the two response scaling methods were psychometrically similar. Responses from the two methods were strongly correlated (overall SOC, $r = .90$), providing empirical evidence for the use of present method. Specifically, elective selection ($r = .78$), selection ($r = .76$), optimization ($r = .82$), and compensation ($r = .76$) facets, as measured by the two different types of response scaling, were significantly correlated. Furthermore, the pilot study indicated no difference in internal consistency ($\alpha = .86$).

Therefore, the alternative response scaling was employed in this dissertation. Means were computed across the items within each component, such that higher scores on this measure indicate stronger endorsement of the respective SOC strategy at home. Cronbach's alphas in this sample were .73 for the panelist (Spouse A T1 survey) and .76

for their spouses (Spouse B T1 survey). Wife SOC was not significantly correlated with age ($r = .095, p > .05$) or organizational tenure ($r = -.028, p > .05$). Likewise, husband SOC was not significantly correlated with age ($r = .121, p > .05$) or organizational tenure ($r = .113, p > .05$).

WFC. WFC was measured with Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) 10-item scale. The scale has two primary components: *work-family conflict*, or aspects of work that interfere with the family domain (i.e., WIF) and *family-work conflict*, or aspects of the family domain that interfere with work (i.e., FIW). Example items include, "The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life" (p. 410). The scale is measured on a 1-7 Likert-type scale, and WIF and FIW items are averaged such that higher scores on this measure indicate higher levels of the WIF and FIW dimensions, respectively (see Appendix B). Cronbach's alphas in this sample were .92 for the panelist (Spouse A T2 survey) and .91 for their spouses (Spouse B T2 survey).

Additional variables. Lastly, a host of additional variables were measured, but are not included in the hypotheses (e.g., emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, grit, negative affectivity, job demands, workaholism, attention check and insufficient effort responding items).

Dyadic Data Analytic Method: Review of Study on Dyads

The psychological literature has established that partners in dyads influence the thoughts, emotions, and behaviors of each other (Kenny et al., 2006). However, not until fairly recently have advanced dyadic data analytic methods emerged and researchers begun to recognize the importance of using such methods (Ayotte, Margrett, & Patrick, 2013; Card, Selig, & Little, 2008; Desai et al., 2012; Kenny et al., 2006; Loeys &

Molenberghs, 2013; Tambling et al., 2011; Westman & Piotrkowski, 1999). Until 2006 (Kenny et al., 2006), there was not an authoritative text on dyadic data analysis (although contemporary theory was rooted in Kashy and Kenny, 1999, and Kenny, Kashy, and Bolger, 1998). Until 1995 (Kenny, 1995; Kenny, 1996; Kenny & Cook, 1999), there was not a published research article explaining methods to properly examine dyadic data (although Thompson and Walker discussed the dyad as a unit of analysis and provided a detailed account of various conceptual and methodological issues implicated nearly two decades earlier in 1982).

Although systematic study of dyads has occurred for decades (Kenny et al., 2006), the literature has accelerated more recently. Like Hammer and colleagues' research (described above), Matthews, Del Priore, Acitelli, and Barnes-Farrell (2006) also examined WFC among dual-earner couples. They found that personal WFC and perception of partner's WFC were related to both personal and partner outcomes. Streich, Casper, and Salvaggio (2007) studied the degree of agreement of WFC between spouses and argued for the importance of capturing perceptions of both partners.

Kluwer, Heesink, and Van de Vliert (1996) discovered that wives' dissatisfaction with household division of labor was related to both partners' conflict about household labor. Almeida, Wethington, and Chandler (1999) reported that tension spilled over from marital dyads to parent-child dyads, especially when fathers experienced greater work stress. Lastly, Cook and Kenny (2005) examined longitudinal data on mother-teen dyads and used an advanced statistical technique (described below) to demonstrate the bidirectional nature of attachment security.

More recently, Watkins, Ren, Boswell, Umphress, Triana, and Zardkoohi (2012) examined the influence within couples on job search behavior. They found that spouses' perception of their partner's WFC was positively related to job search activity. As mentioned above, Desai et al. (2012) found that spousal similarity in both stable and changing factors contributes to similarity in depression.

This sampling of recent research on dyadic data is reflective of the escalating interest in the topic as well as the increased need for advanced techniques. Because of both the burgeoning interest in increasing the rigor of dyadic research and growing recognition that research methods used to study dyads have been insufficient and perhaps flawed, a small but expanding body of research has attempted to explore more effective methods of analyzing dyadic data. This body of research, by and large, has argued that existing methods used to analyze dyadic data were inadequate because they were overly simplistic. Specifically, these researchers exhorted the field to fully acknowledge non-independence of observations and thus the importance of controlling for individual-level effects when examining crossover effects. The prevailing model that has emerged is known as the *Actor-Partner Interdependence Model* (APIM), which is explained in greater detail next.

Importantly, the methods that researchers have overwhelmingly used to examine individual behavior (especially WFC; Westman & Piotrkowski, 1999) assume independence of data, which Kenny et al. (2006) describe as "what not to do" (p. 47). Kenny et al. warn dyadic researchers to avoid the suboptimal and flawed strategies of ignoring nonindependence, analyzing or collecting data from only one member, or treating the data as two separate samples. A key assumption in contemporary dyadic data

analysis is nonindependence, or heightened similarity due to something shared in common between data sources.

In a seminal handbook, Kenny et al. (2006) offer what is perhaps the most extensive treatment on the subject of dyadic data analysis. These authors note the widespread incorrect assumption among scholars that research subjects are wholly independent, leaving the influence of related members ignored. As defined by Kenny et al., *nonindependence* is an increased similarity between respondents due to something shared in common (e.g., cohabitation, upbringing, kinship, team goals, work unit, organizational culture, etc.). Nonindependence can emerge from common fate (an antecedent acting on both members), partner effects (members influencing each other's outcomes), mutual influence (relationships between members' outcomes), or a compositional effect (members being already similar, such as in terms of socioeconomic status). Because dyad members are, in essence, yoked, nonindependent data should be treated as dyadic data, not individual data.

Kenny et al. and Card et al. (2008) argue that, when dealing with dyadic data, nonindependence should be assumed and be measured as both an empirical and theoretical matter. The degree of this nonindependence can be measured with advanced techniques with a sample as small as $N = 25$ dyads. Nonindependence is an important consideration because it affects variances and can increase Type I error. Relating to the work and family domains, Westman and Piotrkowski (1999) argue that work-family research suffers from methodological limitations, such as relying solely on self-report data and cross-sectional designs. They note that this research has focused too exclusively on individual-level phenomena rather than treating the couple as the unit of analysis. The

present dissertation responds to these criticisms. It also begins to answer Perry-Jenkins, Repetti, and Crouter's (2000) call for more research on how families shape employees' behavior at work, but further aims to address these research questions using the most advanced techniques.

Actor-Partner Interdependence Model. Kenny and his colleagues have developed and refined the theory around a framework—known as the APIM—to measure bidirectional effects in interpersonal relationships (Cook & Kenny, 2005; Kenny et al., 2006). This perspective incorporates a conceptual view and statistical techniques for testing interdependence. According to the longitudinal theoretical model, for each dyad member, there is an *actor effect*, or the effect of the independent variable on one's own outcome. There also is a *partner effect*, or the effect of each partner's independent variable on the other partner's outcome. Furthermore, the scores on the independent variable between dyad members are correlated, as are the error terms of the dependent variable among dyad members. The analysis implicated by the APIM “can be used to estimate actor and partner effects for both dyadic and group data...when the independent variable is mixed, and it allows either categorical or continuous independent variables” (Kenny et al., 2006, p. 146).

Dyadic research often involves actor-partner interactions (i.e., maximum/minimum output per dyad, absolute difference between or within dyads, products of actor and partner effects, etc.), and the APIM allows for the identification of relational phenomena. Importantly, when estimating the effects of actor-partner interactions, the APIM controls for main effects. According to this argument, when relational phenomena are examined *without* applying the APIM, one is operating at the individual level of analysis rather than

dyadic. Kenny et al. recommend using theory to decide how to operationalize the actor-partner effects and to interpret accordingly.

In terms of the method used in the present dissertation, the nonindependent unit is spousal dyad. Spouses can generally be conceptualized as either *nondistinguishable* (no significant characteristics that distinguish member A from member B; e.g., roommates) or *distinguishable* (one or more significant characteristics that distinguish member A from member B; e.g., leader-follower).

Several assumptions were made in the present dissertation that have important implications for the type of analytic approach that was pursued. In particular, the present study took the position that spouses have a reciprocal influence (i.e., each member is both an actor and a partner). Moreover, these spouses were assumed to be distinguishable because married partners are distinct in important ways (e.g., gender, full-time versus part-time status, panelist versus non-panelist, number of hours at work versus at home, breadwinning status, homemaking status, etc.) that have bearing on their level of WFC and other work- and family-related outcomes. Another assumption is one of “mixed variables,” referring to the fact that SOC and WFC are assumed to vary within *and* between dyads. Analysis of mixed independent variables allows for investigation of mutual influence. Furthermore, this dissertation adopted the “standard design,” in which each person is a member of only one dyad.

CHAPTER 5 RESULTS

Several statistical procedures were conducted to analyze the hypothesized relationships described above on the sample of dyads who responded to all parts of the survey ($N = 252$). Prior to hypothesis testing, however, the data were screened for accuracy (e.g., out-of-range values, computational inaccuracy), missing data, nonlinearity, nonnormality, outliers, homogeneity of variance, and multicollinearity among variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Data were also screened for inattention and inappropriate responding (see Appendix D for items), as well as to verify that participants in the sample meet the inclusion criteria. T1 data were screened first, and then T2 data were screened subsequently. The steps for the data screening process are described in greater detail next.

Data Screening: T1

Several analyses were conducted to inspect the T1 data prior to hypothesis testing. Specifically, data were screened for accuracy, missing data, nonlinearity, nonnormality, outliers, homogeneity of variance, and multicollinearity among variables. Results from the data screening procedures are provided below.

Accuracy of data. First, univariate descriptive statistics for T1 variables were inspected for accuracy of input. For the variables *work-family conflict* and *SOC*, there are no out-of-range values.

Specifically, *work-family conflict* items appropriately ranged from a minimum value of 1 to a maximum value of 7. *SOC* items appropriately ranged from a minimum value of 1 to a maximum value of 5. There are also no out-of-range values for *race/ethnicity* and *gender*; *race/ethnicity* appropriately ranges from 1 to 6, and *gender* appropriately ranges

from 1 to 2. Moreover, the means and standard deviations are all plausible (refer to Table 2); no values appear to be extreme.

The coefficient of variation was calculated as a check on computational inaccuracy. Information can be lost when variance is very small and means are large. When the coefficient of variation is less than .0001, deflated correlation (from inaccuracy) is implicated. None of the T1 variables had a coefficient of variation less than or near .0001. Thus, any deflated correlations are unlikely to stem from computational inaccuracy.

Outliers. Next, T1 data were examined to identify any univariate outliers, as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Univariate outliers were detected by computing and inspecting standardized scores for each variable. The criterion used for identifying outliers was ± 3.29 . Two outliers were identified for SOC at T1 (both wives). Two outliers were identified for FIW at T1 (one wife and one husband). Since the outliers appeared to be an extreme univariate case (i.e., not part of the population from which they were intended to be sampled), these outliers were deleted, which then reduced the sample size to 248 cases (dyads) for the analysis. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) noted that deleting cases that are not part of the population does not affect generalizability of results to the intended population.

After T1 variables were checked for excessive skew and kurtosis (see below), regression analysis was run to identify multivariate outliers. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that, "a case that is a multivariate outlier...lies outside the swarm, some distance from the other cases" (p. 74). A high score represents an unusual combination of scores on the independent variables, providing an indication of the kinds of cases to which the results do not generalize.

In interpreting the Mahalanobis Distance statistic, any case with a Mahalanobis distance greater than $\chi^2(4) = 18.47$ (at the $p < .001$ criterion) is a multivariate outlier³. There was one case at T1 with a Mahalanobis distance statistic greater than 18.47, indicating the presence of a multivariate outlier at T1 in the dataset. This high score represents an unusual combination of scores on the independent variables, providing an indication of the kinds of cases to which the results do not generalize. Again, it was assumed that the multivariate outlier was not a part of the population of interest and thus was deleted. After deleting the one case, the sample size was reduced to 247 dyads.

Test of assumptions of the general linear model. T1 data were examined for violations of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homogeneity of variance prior to hypothesis testing, since significance tests are based on the assumption of multivariate normality.

First, normality was examined. To identify nonnormal variables, skewness and kurtosis were checked for each T1 variable. Skewness for each variable was divided by the standard error of skew, and kurtosis was divided by the standard error of kurtosis; in order to determine whether or not each variable had significant skew or kurtosis, ± 3.29 was used as the cut-off value ($p < .01$).

For T1, variables *wife FIW* and *husband FIW* were significantly skewed. These findings were verified by visually inspecting the histograms for each variable for excessive skew and kurtosis. Transformation of arbitrary response scales (e.g., Likert-type) does not make interpretation significantly more difficult (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The variables were thus transformed for subsequent analyses.

At T1, *wife FIW* had significant, substantial positive skew (standardized skew = 7.00). Inspection of the histogram indicated that scores tended to cluster at the low range of the scale. *Wife FIW* scores were then transformed using log transformation, which was conducted by taking the log of each participant's score. After transformation, skew was no longer significant (standardized skew = 1.04).

At T1, *husband FIW* had significant, substantial positive skew (standardized skew = 6.44). Inspection of the histogram indicated that scores tended to cluster at the low range of the scale. *Husband FIW* scores were then transformed using log transformation, which was conducted by taking the log of each participant's score. After transformation, skew was no longer significant (standardized skew = 1.79). *Husband FIW* became platykurtic after the transformation (standardized kurtosis = -3.55)⁴.

Furthermore, pairwise (bivariate) scatterplots were visually inspected for nonlinearity and heteroscedasticity. All 4 scatterplots were generated and inspected⁵. Cases with missing values were excluded listwise. Upon visual inspection, violations to the assumption of linearity and homoscedasticity were not evident.

Multicollinearity of variables. Lastly, T1 variables were evaluated for multicollinearity and singularity. First, the correlation matrix was checked for any correlations between different variables approaching or exceeding $r = .90$, which indicates redundancy among variables. No correlation coefficients approached or exceeded $r = .90$.

Moreover, collinearity diagnostics were inspected. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that collinearity problems are indicated by having a condition index value greater than 30 and having two or more variables with large variance proportions on the same dimension. Collinearity diagnostics for T1 variables indicate that no dimensions had a

condition index value greater than 30. Given the weak evidence for collinearity, all of the T1 variables were retained at this step.

Lastly, when the SMC is high (approaches 1), multicollinearity is suggested. Tolerance (1 minus SMC) values are all relatively high for all of the T1 variables. Taken together, collinearity is not evident in the data (i.e., lack of multicollinearity and singularity).

Data Screening: T2

Several analyses were conducted to inspect the T2 data prior to hypothesis testing. Specifically, data were screened for accuracy, missing data, nonlinearity, nonnormality, outliers, homogeneity of variance, and multicollinearity among variables. Steps for the data screening process are detailed below.

Accuracy of data. First, univariate descriptive statistics for T2 variables were inspected for accuracy of input. For the variables *work-family conflict* and *SOC*, there are no out-of-range values.

Specifically, *work-family conflict* items appropriately ranged from a minimum value of 1 to a maximum value of 7. *SOC* items appropriately ranged from a minimum value of 1 to a maximum value of 5. Moreover, the means and standard deviations are all plausible (refer to Table 2). No values appear to be extreme.

The coefficient of variation was calculated as a check on computational inaccuracy. Again, information can be lost when variance is very small and means are large; when the coefficient of variation is less than .0001, deflated correlation (from inaccuracy) is implicated. None of the T2 variables had a coefficient of variation less than

or near .0001. Thus, any deflated correlations are unlikely to stem from computational inaccuracy.

Outliers. Next, T2 data were examined to identify any univariate outliers, as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Univariate outliers were detected by computing and inspecting standardized scores for each variable. The criterion used for identifying outliers was +/- 3.29. One outlier was identified for *FIW* at T2 (one husband). Since the outlier appeared to be an extreme univariate case (i.e., not part of the population from which they were intended to be sampled), these outliers were deleted, which then reduced the sample size to 246 cases (dyads) for the analysis. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) noted that deleting cases that are not part of the population does not affect generalizability of results to the intended population.

After T2 variables were checked for excessive skew and kurtosis (see below), regression analysis was run to identify multivariate outliers. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that, "a case that is a multivariate outlier...lies outside the swarm, some distance from the other cases" (p. 74). A high score represents an unusual combination of scores on the independent variables, providing an indication of the kinds of cases to which the results do not generalize.

In interpreting the Mahalanobis Distance statistic, any case with a Mahalanobis distance greater than $\chi^2(4) = 18.47$ (at the $p < .001$ criterion) is a multivariate outlier³. There were zero cases at T2 with a Mahalanobis distance statistic greater than 18.47, indicating the absence of a multivariate outlier at T2 in the dataset; thus, the sample size remained at 246 dyads.

Test of assumptions of the general linear model. T2 data were examined for violations of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homogeneity of variance prior to hypothesis testing, since significance tests are based on the assumption of multivariate normality.

First, normality was examined. To identify nonnormal variables, skewness and kurtosis were checked for each T2 variable. Skewness for each variable was divided by the standard error of skew, and kurtosis was divided by the standard error of kurtosis; in order to determine whether or not each variable had significant skew or kurtosis, ± 3.29 was used as the cut-off value ($p < .01$).

For T2, variables *wife FIW* and *husband FIW* were significantly skewed. These findings were verified by visually inspecting the histograms for each variable for excessive skew and kurtosis. Transformation of arbitrary response scales (e.g., Likert-type) does not make interpretation significantly more difficult (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The variables were thus transformed for subsequent analyses.

At T2, *wife FIW* had significant, moderate positive skew (standardized skew = 5.81). Inspection of the histogram indicated that scores tended to cluster at the mid-to-low range of the scale. *Wife FIW* scores were then transformed using square root transformation, which was conducted by taking the square root of each participant's score. After transformation, skew was no longer significant (standardized skew = 3.20).

At T2, *husband FIW* had significant, substantial positive skew (standardized skew = 7.12). Inspection of the histogram indicated that scores tended to cluster at the low range of the scale. *Husband FIW* scores were then transformed using log transformation,

which was conducted by taking the log of each participant's score. After transformation, skew was no longer significant (standardized skew = 1.88).

Furthermore, pairwise (bivariate) scatterplots were visually inspected for nonlinearity and heteroscedasticity. All 4 scatterplots were generated and inspected⁵. Cases with missing values were excluded listwise. Upon visual inspection, violations to the assumption of linearity and homoscedasticity were not evident.

Multicollinearity of variables. Lastly, T2 variables were evaluated for multicollinearity and singularity. First, the correlation matrix was checked for any correlations between different variables approaching or exceeding $r = .90$, which indicates redundancy among variables. No correlation coefficients approached or exceeded $r = .90$.

Moreover, collinearity diagnostics were inspected. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that collinearity problems are indicated by having a condition index value greater than 30 and having two or more variables with large variance proportions on the same dimension. Collinearity diagnostics indicate that no dimensions had a condition index value greater than 30. Given the weak evidence for collinearity, all of the T2 variables were retained at this step.

Lastly, when the SMC is high (approaches 1), multicollinearity is suggested. Tolerance (1 minus SMC) values are all relatively high for all of the T2 variables. Taken together, collinearity is not evident in the T2 data (i.e., lack of multicollinearity and singularity). After data screening, $N = 246$ dyads remain for hypothesis testing, which is described next.

Hypothesis Testing

After the data have been thoroughly screened, various analyses were used to test the hypotheses described above. After factor analysis (CFA)⁶ was conducted to examine the factor structure of measures of the primary variables, structural equation modeling (SEM) techniques were used to estimate the APIM, as well as to test the strength, direction, and nature of the hypothesized paths. In other words, an SEM approach was used to determine fit of the proposed model and test APIM for actor and partner effects—the relationships among *wife SOC*, *husband SOC*, *wife FIW*, and *husband FIW*.

Non-independence and distinguishability. A fundamental assumption of the APIM approach is that dyad members' scores on key variables are non-independent. That is, intra-dyad members share something in common that results in their scores being more similar than inter-dyad members' scores (Kenny et al., 2006; also Peugh, DiLillo, & Panuzio, 2013). Thus, scores of individuals within dyads are likely to be more correlated than scores from individuals across dyads; variance is shared between members within each dyad. Traditional analytic approaches that assume independence of observations can result in biased parameter estimates and standard errors if not handled correctly when applied to dyadic data.

Another assumption of the statistical approach used in the present study is that dyad members are distinguishable. That is, it is assumed that each member within a dyad (married couple) possesses a particular characteristic (gender) that distinguishes them in ways important to the research questions.

Although both non-independence and distinguishability can be estimated quantitatively with empirical tests, Peugh et al. (2013) argued that quantifying these assumptions is not a justified or necessary analytic step. This is because dyadic dependence is more of a theoretical concern rather than an empirical one. In other words, theory should drive the justification of assumptions of distinguishability and non-independence.

Furthermore, Kenny et al. (2006) only offer rough guidelines in terms of a criterion to determine adequate non-independence for dyadic analysis. For instance, these authors offer a suggested correlation of $r = .45$ and a liberal significance level, such as $p < .20$. In any given analysis, without adequate power to test for these effects, non-independence must be assumed (Tambling et al., 2011).

Following Peugh et al.'s (2013) guidance, the argument for these assumptions is rooted in the theoretical arguments of the present paper, as described in the above sections. Nonetheless, the data were checked for empirical evidence to support these assumptions. For instance, an indication of distinguishability is whether or not there is a mean difference across levels of the distinguishing variable (e.g., Tambling et al., 2011). In other words, distinguishability is evidenced when husbands and wives differ in their mean scores on SOC or FIW through paired samples t tests. T tests revealed a significant difference in husbands and wives' scores on FIW [$t(241) = 58.44, p < .01$], but not SOC [$t(241) = 0.14, p > .05$], providing some marginal evidence of distinguishability.

Additionally, for distinguishable dyads, a measure of non-independence is the Pearson product-moment correlation between dyad members on key variables (Cook & Kenny, 2005). A strong correlation suggests an association or dependence between the

scores of members within a dyad. The correlations between wives' and husbands' SOC ($r = .27, p < .01$) and FIW ($r = .58, p < .01$) are both positive and significant, suggesting evidence of non-independence of observations.

Structural equation modeling. While other data analytic approaches are available (i.e., ordinary regression analysis, multilevel modeling), the SEM approach is the perhaps the most popular for analyzing distinguishable dyadic data and estimating APIM as it the simplest and most straightforward method, offering many advantages over alternatives (Cook & Kenny, 2005; Kenny et al., 2006). In particular, SEM is a well-established data analytic method, and APIM can be directly estimated using an application of SEM. Also, unlike other approaches, more than one equation can be estimated and tested at the same time. Similarly, it is possible to compare and statistically evaluate the size of the parameters with in the model. Moreover, both organization of data and estimation of effects are considerably simpler for SEM than for alternative approaches. For these reasons, as well as the fact that interpretation of actor and partner effects is fairly straightforward (Kenny et al., 2006), SEM was used to estimate APIM in the present dissertation.

Written in the form of two linear equations, where Y_W is the wife's FIW, Y_H is the husband's FIW, X_W is the wife's SOC, and X_H is the husband's SOC, the model can be summarized as:

$$Y_W = a_W X_W + p_{WH} X_H + E_W,$$

$$Y_H = p_{HW} X_W + a_H X_H + E_H.$$

Separate actor and partner effects are estimated for each dyad member. Specifically, a_W is the effect of the wife's SOC on her own level of FIW, and a_H is the effect

of the husband's SOC on his own level of FIW. The partner effect p_{HW} is the effect of the wife's SOC on her husband's FIW, and p_{WH} is the effect of the husband's SOC on his wife's FIW.

Analysis. Four dyads were missing data on one or more of the key variables for hypothesis testing. Given that there is not yet a clear consensus for handling missing data in APIM analysis, these cases were removed. This resulted in $N = 242$ for hypothesis testing, more than adequate for analyses involving structural equation modeling (i.e., at least 100 dyads; Kline, 2005).

All analyses were run by analyzing the full data using the maximum likelihood method. In accordance with APIM procedures, the residual effects from each spouse's SEM equations are allowed to correlate in order to control for other sources of non-independence. In order to assess model fit, path analysis was conducted using MPlus Version 7.2 (Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2012). SEM procedures were used to fit the proposed model to the data.

Multiple indices of model fit were used, including normal weighted least squares chi-square (Bollen, 1989), comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR; Hu & Bentler, 1995; 1999), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Good fit is indicated by a small non-significant chi square, CFI values above .90 or higher (Hoyle, 1995), SRMR values less than .08 (Bollen & Long, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999), and RMSEA values less than .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1998). The CFI and RMSEA are less sensitive to sample size than chi square.

First, null (constraining all possible parameters) and saturated (estimating all possible parameters) models were estimated in order to establish the worse and best

possible model fit, respectively. Next, an initial path model was estimated in which parallel constructs across partners were allowed to covary (Kenny et al., 2006; see Figure 1). In the initial SOC model, the two actor effect parameters were constrained to be equal and the two partner effect parameters were constrained to be equal. In the present dissertation, non-equal effects were not proposed or specified—spouse/gender effects were not assumed. That is, it was not hypothesized whether the actor effects and partner effects differ significantly across spouses. Thus, an initial model with parameters constrained to be equal was first tested for model fit. This model assumes that the actor effects and partner effects for both spouses are all equal. Results indicate that the initial path model (all actor and partner effects constrained to be equal) demonstrated good fit [$\chi^2(3) = 5.55, p = .14$; CFI = .977; SRMR = .041; RMSEA = .059].

As an exploration, two additional models were tested for model fit and compared to the initial model using the chi-square difference test (Hoyle, 1995; also see Cook & Kenny, 2005, for a description of this test as applied to SEM in the context of APIM). If the chi square values are statistically significantly different than the initial model, one can conclude that the parameters are not equal (i.e., forcing or constraining parameters to be equal significantly worsened model fit), and thus—by definition—one partner has more influence in the relationship.

Specifically, one alternative model was tested that constrained only partner effects to be equal (estimating actor effects). Results indicate that this path model demonstrated good fit [$\chi^2(1) = 2.77, p = .10$; CFI = .984; SRMR = .029; RMSEA = .085]. This model did not fit the data significantly better than the initial model, $\Delta\chi^2(2) = 2.78, p = .25$.

Another alternative model was tested that constrained only actor effects to be equal (estimating partner effects). Results indicate that this path model demonstrated good fit [$\chi^2(1) = 0.01, p = .92$; CFI = 1.00; SRMR = .002; RMSEA = .000]. Although the chi-square difference test is not significant, $\Delta\chi^2(2) = 5.54, p = .05$, the change in the CFI fit index ($\Delta\text{CFI} = .023$) is significant, as it exceeds the threshold of .01. Overall, this model fit the data marginally better than the initial model and thus was retained as the “final” model.

As a note, although modification indices are provided with the output and a powerful tool for model improvement, it is advisable to avoid overfitting a model with good fit as increasingly modified models have limited generalizability; modification is acceptable only when it is informed by theory and explicitly based on theoretical grounds (e.g., Kline, 1998; Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2012; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006; Sorbom, 1989). Accordingly, the initial APIM model that constrained only the actor effects was retained and not modified; thus, this APIM model is retained as the “final” APIM model. Fit indices for the null, saturated, initial, and alternative/final models are shown in Table 3.

In order to assess the significance of the hypothesized relationships (i.e., investigating whether wife SOC and husband SOC predict wife FIW and husband FIW, in terms of actor and partner effects), coefficients for the hypothesized paths in the final model were also examined. Parameter estimates for the hypothesized model are shown in Figure 2. Per standard procedure in APIM (Kenny et al., 2006), unstandardized coefficients are reported here (variances for wives and husbands may differ). SOC at

home at T1 explained 6.4% of the variance in wife FIW and 5.9% of the variance in husband FIW.

Results of the final model suggest significant actor and partner effects. Specifically, in regards to actor effects, hypothesis 1 was supported for both partners; wife SOC at T1 significantly predicted wife FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.099, p < .001$) and husband SOC at T1 significantly predicted husband FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.099, p < .001$). Furthermore, wife SOC was positively related to husband SOC ($\beta = .274, p < .001$), supporting H2. In regards to partner effects, wife SOC at T1 significantly predicted husband FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.051, p < .05$) and husband SOC at T1 significantly predicted wife FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.171, p < .01$), providing support for H3 and H4, respectively. The evidence suggests that husbands' influence on wives is stronger than wives' influence on husbands. Overall, these findings generally support the hypothesized model.

Notably, although the values are rather small, the partner effects are above and beyond the actor effects. In other words, results provide strong evidence for the incremental validity of these crossover effects in that spouses' SOC strategies contribute unique variance in predicting the partners' FIW, thus supporting the roles of wife SOC and husband SOC as unique predictors of husband FIW and wife FIW, respectively.

Exploring the effects of SOC on FIW at the facet level. Lastly, exploratory models were tested, for which the effect of each facet of SOC on FIW were examined separately. As shown in Table 3, structural equation models with elective selection, loss-based selection, optimization, and compensation each predicting FIW demonstrated good fit.

Again, the measurement and testing of actor effects represent the question of whether one's SOC facet predicts one's own FIW (e.g., Cook & Kenny, 2005). The

measurement and testing of partner effects represent the question of whether one's SOC facet predicts the other spouse's FIW (e.g., Cook & Kenny, 2005). These actor and partner effects are presented in the top and bottom sections, respectively, of Tables 4-7.

Results suggest significant actor and partner effects for all four facets: elective selection, loss-based selection, optimization, and compensation. Specifically, wife elective selection at T1 significantly predicted wife FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.047, p < .01$) and husband elective selection at T1 significantly predicted husband FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.047, p < .01$). In regards to partner effects, wife elective selection at T1 significantly predicted husband FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.047, p < .01$) and husband elective selection at T1 significantly predicted wife FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.047, p < .01$).

Wife loss-based selection at T1 significantly predicted wife FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.031, p < .10$) and husband loss-based selection at T1 significantly predicted husband FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.031, p < .10$). In regards to partner effects, wife loss-based selection at T1 significantly predicted husband FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.031, p < .10$) and husband loss-based selection at T1 significantly predicted wife FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.031, p < .10$).

Wife optimization at T1 significantly predicted wife FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.050, p < .01$) and husband optimization at T1 significantly predicted husband FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.050, p < .01$). In regards to partner effects, wife optimization at T1 significantly predicted husband FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.050, p < .01$) and husband optimization at T1 significantly predicted wife FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.050, p < .01$).

Wife compensation at T1 significantly predicted wife FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.033, p < .05$) and husband compensation at T1 significantly predicted husband FIW conflict at

T2 ($b = -.033, p < .05$). In regards to partner effects, wife compensation at T1 significantly predicted husband FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.033, p < .05$) and husband compensation at T1 significantly predicted wife FIW conflict at T2 ($b = -.033, p < .05$).

Overall, the results suggest significant actor and partner effects, in terms of each of the SOC facets. That is, spouses' use of each of the SOC facets negatively and strongly influences subsequent FIW within the couple. In the next section, these results are discussed further. Conclusions are drawn, and implications, limitations, and future directions are elaborated.

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION

The work and family domains are both important to and can be quite enriching for working couples throughout their careers. However, having to maintain the obligations of both types of demands can also be challenging. As family-related and/or work-related demands increase throughout life (see Baltes & Young, 2007 for a detailed discussion of how these demands change throughout adulthood), many working couples may find it difficult to manage the interface between work and family. Researchers have uncovered various factors that have an effect on WFC, and they are beginning to explore the mutual influence between working spouses. In particular, prior research has indicated that use of the resource allocation strategies of goal selection, optimization, and compensation (SOC) is an important predictor of WFC for working individuals (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003).

The present dissertation extends the prior research on SOC and WFC by proposing that dual-earner couple members' behaviors have a profound effect on not only their own well-being but their spouses' as well. As such, this study used the APIM framework to better understand the dynamic between working spouses' use of SOC strategies at home and important work and life outcomes. Specifically, the purpose of the present paper is to integrate a contemporary theory of development—SOC—with psychological theories of influence (social cognitive theory) to examine the extent to which partners influence each other's use of SOC and subsequent outcomes, specifically in terms of WFC.

In particular, the present study proposed and tested an APIM in which each spouse's use of SOC coping strategies at home affects both his/her own and as his/her

spouse's FIW. It was hypothesized that husbands' and wives' reported use of SOC behaviors overall will be positively related. Additionally, it was hypothesized that there will be actor and partner effects overall (although differences in effects were not specified), such that each spouse's use of SOC overall will be negatively related to his/her own and his/her partner's level of FIW.

Results of the analysis supported these hypotheses in the present study. Results suggest significant actor and partner effects. First, each spouse's use of SOC overall is negatively related to his/her own and his/her partner's degree of FIW. That is, consistent with prior research on the effect of individuals' SOC on WFC (Baltes et al., 2011; Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003), the more a wife used SOC strategies at home, the less she reported that family obligations interfered or conflicted with her work role (controlling for the partner effect). Likewise, the more a husband used SOC strategies at home, the less he reported that family obligations interfered or conflicted with his work role (controlling for the partner effect). These results directly support prior research that suggests one's use of SOC is a unique predictor of one's own WFC experiences (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003).

Perhaps more interestingly, the use of SOC strategies "crossed over" to benefit the other spouse. That is, the more a wife used SOC strategies at home, the less her husband reported that family obligations interfered or conflicted with his work role. Likewise, the more a husband used SOC strategies at home, the less his wife reported that family obligations interfered or conflicted with her work role. Importantly, these effects emerged even after controlling for the actor effects. That is, spouses' SOC strategies contribute unique variance in predicting the partners' FIW, thus supporting

the roles of wife SOC and husband SOC as unique predictors of husband FIW and wife FIW, respectively.

Given the strong evidence for incremental validity, measuring partner effects would be a worthwhile endeavor for future research aimed at predicting WFC.

Researchers, for example, might investigate whether SOC partner effects add to the prediction of WFC above and beyond role stressors (e.g., role overload), social support (e.g., supervisor support), and work and family characteristics (e.g., job autonomy; see Michel et al., 2011 for a comprehensive review of the antecedents of WFC).

Lastly, husbands' and wives' reported use of SOC behaviors overall is positively related; the explanations for the similarity of SOC usage between spouses will need to be explored further, but I offer social cognitive theory (i.e., social modeling) as a point of departure. Overall, these partner effects represent the primary contribution to the literature. Moreover, an emergent method (APIM) was used to appropriately analyze the intra-dyad phenomena, since traditional analysis assumes independence of observations, which, if violated, can produce biased estimates (Peugh et al., 2013).

These results are consistent with Baltes and Smith (2004), who noted that, "individuals are better able to manage the tasks of life when they engage in selecting, optimizing, and compensating. Thus, SOC functions like a development-enhancing and loss-preventing general purpose mechanism" (p. 137). Thus, SOC has been shown to be an effective method of coping across life domains and should ameliorate some of the difficult challenges that accompany having active work and non-work roles (i.e., work-family conflict) for working couples. The caveat is that the effectiveness of SOC strategies in reducing WFC may depend on the type of SOC behaviors engaged, as certain

elements (i.e., compensation) may manifest unintended consequences when relying on the spouse, such as increased (rather than decreased) spouse WFC. Thus, the influence of SOC on FIW, at the facet-level, was explored. As strongly recommended in Moghimi, Zacher, Scheibe, and Van Yperen's (in press) quantitative review on SOC, in addition to overall SOC scores, scores from all four subcomponents of SOC were examined as well.

When examining exploratory models at the facet-level, similar patterns appeared to hold across the four facets of SOC. Specifically, results suggested that election selection, loss-based selection, optimization, and compensation facets all may have similar effects in terms of actor and partner effects. The more a spouse reported use of each respective type of SOC, the less FIW was reported by both spouses. Thus, exploratory results of this study suggests that the effect of SOC on FIW might not be moderated by type of SOC.

Contrary to expectations, the compensation component of SOC was negatively related to FIW. A positive relationship was expected because compensation can have detrimental effects if one spouse must frequently rely on the other spouse to "pick up the slack." The key assumption here, of course, is that one spouse will compensate for the other. One possible explanation for the unexpected results is that participants were using non-spouse individuals as a frame of reference when reported compensation behaviors.

Compensation partly involves receiving aid or help from others to manage demands. These "others" can be the other spouse, a relative, hired help, a neighbor, etc. The relationship between compensation strategies and FIW is likely to be moderated by the type of individuals on whom the spouse depends to pick up the slack. For example, if a wife reports that she relies on her husband for compensation, the husband may likely

then report *higher* FIW (i.e., positive partner effects). On the other hand, if a wife reports that she relies on a relative (e.g., her mother) for compensation, the husband may likely then report *lower* FIW (i.e., negative partner effects). *Source* of compensation should be measured and tested as a moderator in future research. In fact, a recent quantitative review exhorted SOC researchers to explore the potential for SOC strategy use to be maladaptive in various situations (Moghimi, et al., in press).

Importantly, these exploratory findings should be considered as preliminary and thus taken with caution, however, since limited theoretical justification was offered a priori. As discussed below, future research should replicate these analyses with more data and with more explanation.

In sum, the results suggest that (a) husbands and wives' use of SOC is positively related and perhaps mutually learned (socially modeled), (b) SOC is generally an effective set of strategies for individual members of dual-earner couples in terms of outcomes such as interrole conflict (even when controlling for partner effects), and (c) each spouse's use of SOC tends to "crossover" to mutually influence the other spouse's well-being (i.e., partner effects are evident, even when controlling for actor effects), providing evidence for incremental validity of SOC→FIW partner effects.

Limitations, Implications, and Future Directions

Although the present research makes several important contributions to our current knowledge about the relationships between individuals' use of SOC and how they affect their spouses' well-being, it is certainly not without limitations. The purpose of discussing these limitations is to acknowledge that they cannot be fully addressed

because of practical constraints, discuss how they have been minimized, and offer future directions that one may take from the present research.

A primary methodological limitation with the current design is that one cannot guarantee that the second spouse (“Spouse B”) indeed did take the second half of the study (Spouse B survey) instead of the original participant (“Spouse A”). When one spouse takes both spouses’ surveys, the assumption of distinguishability (i.e., husbands are different than wives) is violated, affecting the appropriateness of the chosen analysis. Furthermore, correlations between partners’ scores will be artificially inflated.

The study is conducted on a best efforts basis; steps were taken to reduce the likelihood that one spouse completed both members’ surveys. For example, two separate email addresses were used (one for each spouse) by Qualtrics to administer the surveys. Additionally, the instructions in each survey made it very clear that participants should be completing their own surveys. Specifically, surveys included an affidavit, which participants were required to read and sign (only with initials to protect anonymity) in order to proceed (i.e., “I completed this questionnaire independently from my spouse. Furthermore, I did NOT discuss my responses with him/her until after submission”). Also, a warning was given that the participant may not be paid if it was determined that he or she completed surveys for both spouses. Future research should discover novel methods with which one can easily and practically ensure that each dyad member is taking his/her own survey independently. One may suppose that this is a more difficult challenge with cohabiting married spouses than other types of dyad members, given that the nature of intimacy inherent in romantic relationships, as well as cohabitation, both facilitate one dyad member taking both surveys, etc.

On a related note, the self-report nature of the measurement of SOC is a limiting factor, methodologically. This is because one's perceptions of one's behaviors is reliant upon adequate memory and also may not be an accurate reflection of the execution of those behaviors. It may be quite fruitful for future research to include other-source ratings of each spouse's SOC behaviors, as suggested by Moghimi et al. (in press). Also, alternative methods of measurement are encouraged and should be considered (e.g., observational studies, diary studies, situational judgment tests, etc.).

Another limitation is that the present dissertation focuses solely on cohabitating heterosexual married couples, and thus the results may not generalize to other types of prevalent domestic partnerships, some of which are becoming increasingly common (e.g., non-cohabitating married couples, non-married cohabitating couples, homosexual married and non-married couples, etc.). Of particular interest, it remains unknown whether or not the same effects would emerge for homosexual couples, the implications of which are becoming increasingly important. Debate over the legitimacy of domestic partnerships in general—and gay marriage in particular—has emerged as a leading political issue in recent years in the U.S.

Theory suggests that homosexual couples may have a qualitatively different experience at home, relative to traditional, heterosexual married couples. Some reasons may include limited (albeit increasing) acceptance of homosexuality in Western culture, differences in adherence to traditional religion, a lower rate of parenthood relative to traditional partnerships, and a different set of resources and support network (e.g., LGBT community). These have implications for FIW at home as well as for interpersonal dynamics, both internal and external to the dyad. Thus, the present study sought first to

examine actor and partner effects in the most common type of partnerships, traditional cohabitating heterosexual married couples. Future research should explore the complexities associated with non-traditional partnerships and determine how these complexities might influence the effect of coping strategies on FIW within dyads.

The present dissertation aimed to extend previous findings on the effect of SOC on WFC (i.e., Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003) to individuals within dyads. Specifically, this study focused on determining if SOC had a crossover effect within married couples, in general. However, it was not specified whether the actor effects and partner effects differ significantly across spouses. Indeed, some research suggests that women perceive more WFC than men do (Frone et al., 1992). Other research suggests that women and men engage in different types of coping strategies and to different degrees (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Propositions around differential effects for wives and husbands lies beyond the intended scope of the present dissertation. Nonetheless, some initial evidence was provided that actor effects are very similar between spouses. On the other hand, partner effects are quite disparate in their strength. Specifically, husbands had a greater influence on their wives than vice-versa; the partner effect of husbands' use of SOC on wives' FIW was stronger than the partner effect of wives' use of SOC on husbands' FIW. A logical next step for future research would be to expand upon this and propose and test models that include gender difference considerations.

A noteworthy limitation is that the effect of individuals' use of compensation strategies is highly dependent on the source of compensation (e.g., spouse, coworker(s), relatives, friends, babysitter, etc.). As noted above, future research should focus on

testing for a moderating effect of Spouse A's *source* of compensation on the relationship between Spouse A's use of compensation and Spouse B's FIW.

Also, it is posited that the extent one exercises the compensation strategy in the *work* domain (e.g., asks for help from a coworker), WIF will be reduced for that person (e.g., Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003), likely freeing up resources to attend to family matters. This, in turn, reduces the burden on his/her spouse at home. Scholars should examine how SOC used in work and family domains may influence outcomes in the work domain and other domains.

Furthermore, other methods of analysis exist as alternatives to APIM (e.g., common fate model, mutual influence model, sequential analysis, growth curve analysis). However, APIM is currently the prevailing, preferred method with which one may use to examine close dyadic relationships in terms of estimating interdependence (Cook & Kenny, 2005). Nonetheless, APIM is conceived as complementary, not competing with other methods of analysis; in fact, APIM is a general model to which other methods can be applied or integrated (e.g., Cook & Kenny, 2005).

In a similar vein, theoretically speaking, there are potential alternative explanations for crossover effects. However, these explanations are not necessarily contradictory, but may be complementary. For instance, social information processing theory (SIP; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) posits that attitudes emerge as a consequence of the social context, especially embedded information within social cues presented by other people (e.g., words or actions of others within one's social network). In other words, according to the SIP model, social cues influence mental processing (attention and comprehension, encoding and simplification, retention and retrieval), which, in turn, influence job attitudes.

Alternatively, Hammer et al. (2003) and Watkins et al. (2012) both take a family systems theory approach in their research and explanation for crossover effects.

Desai, Schimmack, Jidkova, and Bracke (2012) also take a different perspective in regards to the influence between spouses. These researchers found that spousal similarity in both stable and changing factors contributes to similarity in depression. Specifically, Desai et al. take the view that shared-environmental factors interact with genetic factors to contribute to depressive symptoms. Future studies—perhaps qualitative or quantitative reviews—should attempt to compare and contrast these different perspectives in regards to the conceptualization and manifestation of crossover effects.

Lastly, a recently published quantitative review proposed and tested a model that included a broad spectrum of person and contextual antecedents (e.g., job autonomy), and job performance and occupational well-being outcomes (e.g., job strain; Moghimi, et al., in press). Future research exploring the roles these factors play in the proposed model is warranted. Just one related research question is, what is the fuller causal sequence through which SOC predicts partner's and own WFC? Specifying these potential effects, as well as boundary conditions, will help build a fuller understanding of dynamics within working married couples.

Conclusion

Prior research on coping strategies has found the use of SOC to be a unique predictor of important outcomes in work and family domains, such as job performance (Bajor & Baltes, 2003) and work-family conflict (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003).

Interestingly, the present dissertation revealed that a spouse's use of SOC is a unique predictor of his/her partner's WFC.

The extant research thus far has demonstrated that the use of SOC behaviors reduces subsequent WFC. An emergent question addressed by the present dissertation is, among dual-earner couples, do spouses' use of SOC affect their partners' work and life outcomes? The present study's primary contribution is addressing this question and filling this important gap. In doing so, the present dissertation integrates the SOC, WFC, and dyadic literatures by acknowledging the mutual influence inherent in relationships and further illuminating the unique effects that emerge from non-independent dyadic phenomena.

FOOTNOTES

¹ Details for measures of the non-study variables (e.g., number of items, item content, etc.) are available upon request.

² The 24-item empirically derived shortened version of the full SOC scale consists of the following items, as identified and described in Baltes et al. (1999): ES1, ES2, ES3, ES5, ES7, ES10, LBS3, LBS4, LBS5, LBS7, LBS10, LBS12, O1, O2, O7, O8, O9, O10, C4, C6, C7, C9, C11, C12.

³ Values in the χ^2 table in the back of the Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) text were used to interpret the Mahalanobis Distance statistic.

⁴ Kurtosis was not dealt with, as Tabachnick & Fidell (2007) note that, with large samples, the impact of departure from zero kurtosis is diminished—with negative kurtosis, the impact it has on variance (underestimation) diminishes with samples of 200 or more.

⁵ Scatterplots, as well as the histograms that were generated to visually inspect the variables for skew and kurtosis, are available upon request.

⁶ Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to confirm the factor structure of the measures used in this study. It was expected that four factors would result for the SOC measure (i.e., elective selection, loss-based selection, optimization, compensation) and two factors would result for the WFC measure (i.e., WIF, WIF). CFAs for each spouse for SOC demonstrated marginal fit. CFAs for each spouse for WFC demonstrated marginally adequate fit. Nonetheless, scales used were all established, validated scales. Also, SOC is not known for having high reliabilities (or good CFA results) since one could argue it is more of a formative construct than a reflective one (e.g., Baltes et al., 1995). Measures

had been previously validated in prior research and thus were used as designed. Fit indices, as well as loadings, for the CFAs are available upon request.

FIGURES

Figure 1

Conceptual Model Illustrating Crossover Effects of SOC on FIW Conflict and Proposed Hypotheses

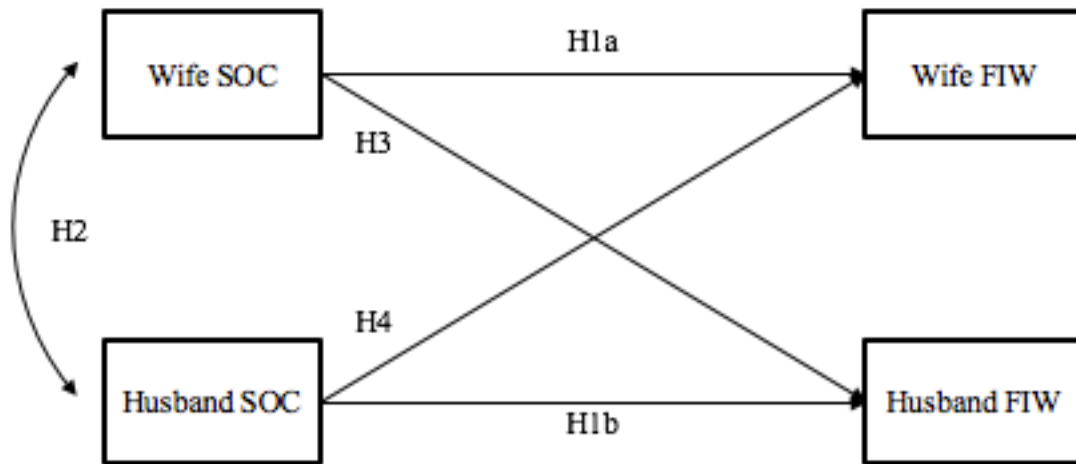
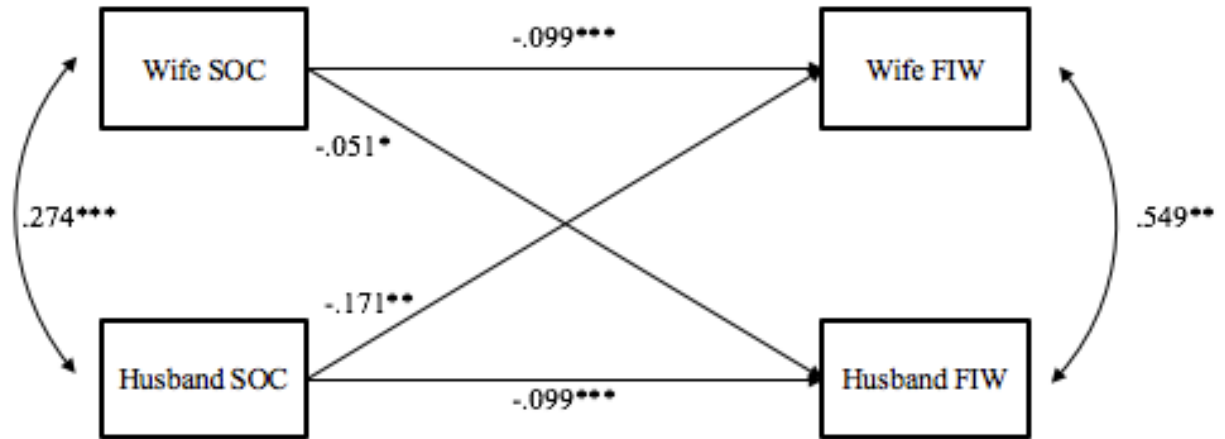


Figure 2

Structural Equation Model Illustrating Crossover Effects of SOC on FIW Conflict



Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

TABLES

Table 1

Selection, Optimization, and Compensation Embedded in an Action-Theoretical Framework (Freund & Baltes, 1998)

<u>Selection</u> (goals / preferences)	<u>Optimization</u> (goal-relevant means)	<u>Compensation</u> (means / resources for counteracting loss / decline in goal-relevant means)
<u>elective selection</u> - specification of goals - goal system (hierarchy) - contextualization of goals - goal-commitment	- attentional focus - seizing the right moment -persistence - acquiring new skills/resources - practice of skills - effort/energy - time allocation	- substitution of means - use of external aids/ help of others - use of therapeutic intervention - acquiring new skills/resources - activation of unused skills/resources - increased effort/energy - increased time allocation
<u>loss-based selection</u> - focusing on most important goal(s) - reconstruction of goal hierarchy - adaptation of standards - search for new goals	- modelling successful others	- modelling successful others who compensate -neglect of optimizing other means

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Study Variables (Before Variable Transformation)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
1. Wife SOC (T1; <i>N</i> = 245 dyads)	3.41	.43				
2. Husband SOC (T1; <i>N</i> = 242 dyads)	3.29	.49	.27**			
3. Wife FIW (T2; <i>N</i> = 245 dyads)	2.30	1.21	-.21**	-.19**		
4. Husband FIW (T2; <i>N</i> = 242 dyads)	2.19	1.19	-.21**	-.17**	.57**	

Note: Raw means and standard deviations are presented.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Goodness of Fit Summary for Proposed and Exploratory Models

Model	χ^2	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA
SOC: Null	-	-	-	-
SOC: Saturated	0.00	1.00	.00	.00
SOC: Initial (all 4 paths equal)	5.55	.98	.04	.06
SOC: Alternative 1 (2 partner effects equal)	2.77	.98	.03	.09
SOC: Alternative 2/Final (2 actor effects equal)	0.01	1.00	.00	.00
Exploratory Model 1: ES Facet	5.23	.98	.04	.06
Exploratory Model 2: LBS Facet	3.03	1.00	.03	.01
Exploratory Model 3: Optimization Facet	6.07	.97	.04	.07
Exploratory Model 4: Compensation Facet	3.46	1.00	.03	.03

Note: $N = 242$ dyads. All χ^2 values are non-significant ($p > .05$). CFI= Comparative Fit Index, SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Residual, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation, SOC = Selection, Optimization, and Compensation, ES = Elective Selection, LBS = Loss-Based Selection.

Table 4

Exploratory Models (Elective Selection): APIM of Husband-Wife Dynamics (N = 242 dyads)

<i>APIM parameters</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>z</i>
Actor effects		
ES _W →FIW _W	-.047**	-3.28
ES _H →FIW _H	-.047**	-3.28
Partner effects		
ES _W →FIW _H	-.047**	-3.28
ES _H →FIW _W	-.047**	-3.28

Note: The estimates are unstandardized regression coefficients. ES_W = Wife Elective Selection, ES_H = Husband Elective Selection, FIW_W = Wife Family Interference with Work, FIW_H = Husband Family Interference with Work.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 5

Exploratory Models (Loss-Based Selection): APIM of Husband-Wife Dynamics (N = 242 dyads)

<i>APIM parameters</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>z</i>
Actor effects		
LBS _W →FIW _W	-.031+	-1.85
LBS _H →FIW _H	-.031+	-1.85
Partner effects		
LBS _W →FIW _H	-.031+	-1.85
LBS _H →FIW _W	-.031+	-1.85

Note: The estimates are unstandardized regression coefficients. LBS_W = Wife Loss-Based Selection, LBS_H = Husband Loss-Based Selection, FIW_W = Wife Family Interference with Work, FIW_H = Husband Family Interference with Work.

* $p < .05$; + $p < .10$.

Table 6

Exploratory Models (Optimization): APIM of Husband-Wife Dynamics (N = 242 dyads)

<i>APIM parameters</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>z</i>
Actor effects		
$O_W \rightarrow FIW_W$	-.05**	-3.87
$O_H \rightarrow FIW_H$	-.05**	-3.87
Partner effects		
$O_W \rightarrow FIW_H$	-.05**	-3.87
$O_H \rightarrow FIW_W$	-.05**	-3.87

Note: The estimates are unstandardized regression coefficients. O_W = Wife

Optimization, O_H = Husband Optimization, FIW_W = Wife Family Interference with Work,

FIW_H = Husband Family Interference with Work.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 7

Exploratory Models (Compensation): APIM of Husband-Wife Dynamics (N = 242 dyads)

<i>APIM parameters</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>z</i>
Actor effects		
$C_W \rightarrow FIW_W$	-.033*	-2.13
$C_H \rightarrow FIW_H$	-.033*	-2.13
Partner effects		
$C_W \rightarrow FIW_H$	-.033*	-2.13
$C_H \rightarrow FIW_W$	-.033*	-2.13

Note: The estimates are unstandardized regression coefficients. C_W = Wife

Compensation, C_H = Husband Compensation, FIW_W = Wife Family Interference with

Work, FIW_H = Husband Family Interference with Work.

* $p < .05$; + $p < .10$.

APPENDIX A

SCALE 1: DUTCH SOC QUESTIONNAIRE (24-ITEM VERSION) – FAMILY

Instructions: We are very interested in learning about how you go about accomplishing things in your *family life*. That is, how do you decide what is important to you *at home*? And how do you go about accomplishing what you want *at home*?

On the next page, we present examples of two different ways people might behave at home. Imagine there are two people talking about what they would do in a particular situation at home. We would like you to decide which person is more similar to you. Which one behaves more like the way you probably would at home? Consider both 1) things that you want to improve and 2) things that you are satisfied with and want to maintain.

In other words, two differing statements are presented in each of the following questions. Please indicate the degree to which the statements fit your situation--how much you lean one way or the other. The closer the chosen option is to a statement, the more you agree with it. If you fully agree with a statement, for example, choose the option closest to that statement. If you find yourself similar to the two statements equally, for example, choose the middle option.

As a reminder, some or all of these items may look familiar to you. Please respond quickly and honestly.

Person A						Person B

1)

PERSON A

I concentrate my efforts on a few things.

PERSON B

I divide my energy among many things.

2)

PERSON A

I keep working on what I have planned until I succeed.

PERSON B

When I do not succeed right away at what I want to do, I don't try other possibilities for very long.

5)

PERSON A

I am always working on several goals at once.

PERSON B

I always focus on the one most important goal at a given time.

6)

PERSON A

I prefer to wait for a while and see if things will work out by themselves.

PERSON B

I make every effort to achieve a given goal.

9)

PERSON A

Even when I really consider what I want in life, I wait and see what happens instead of committing myself to just one or two particular goals.

PERSON B

When I think about what I want in life, I commit myself to one or two important goals.

12)

PERSON A

When I can't do something as well as I used to, I think about what exactly is important to me.

PERSON B

When I can't do something as well as I used to, I wait and see what comes.

15)

PERSON A

For important things, I pay attention to whether I need to devote more time or effort.

PERSON B

Even if something is important to me, it can happen that I don't invest the necessary time or effort.

16)

PERSON A

Even if I can't do something as well as before, I pursue all my goals.

PERSON B

If I can't do something as well as before, I concentrate only on essentials.

17)

PERSON A

I always pursue many goals at once, so that I easily get bogged down.

PERSON B

I always pursue goals one after the other.

20)

PERSON A

When I can't carry on as I used to, I direct my attention to my most important goal.

PERSON B

When I can't carry on as I used to, I direct my attention, like usual, to all my goals.

23)

PERSON A

When things aren't going so well, I accept help from others.

PERSON B

Even in difficult situations, I don't burden others.

25)

PERSON A

I can change a goal again at any time.

PERSON B

When I decide upon a goal, I stick to it.

26)

PERSON A

When I want to achieve something difficult, I think carefully about the best time and opportunity to act.

PERSON B

When I want to achieve something, I take the first opportunity that comes.

27)

PERSON A

When things don't work the way they used to, I accept things the way they are.

PERSON B

When things don't work the way they used to, I look for other ways to achieve them.

28)

PERSON A

When things don't work so well, I pursue my most important goals first.

PERSON B

When things don't go so well, I leave it at that.

30)

PERSON A

PERSON B

When I have started something that is important to me, but has little chance at success, I make a particular effort.

When I start something that is important to me but has little chance at success, I usually stop trying.

34)

PERSON A

When I want to get ahead, I also look at how others do it who succeed.

PERSON B

When I want to get ahead, only I myself know the best way to do it.

35)

PERSON A

When I can't do something as well as I used to, I accept the change.

PERSON B

When I can't do something as well as I used to, then I ask someone else to do it for me.

37)

PERSON A

I consider exactly what is important for me.

PERSON B

I take things as they come and carry on from there.

38)

PERSON A

I don't think long about how to realize my plans, I just try it.

PERSON B

I think about exactly how I can best realize my plans.

40)

PERSON A

When I am not able to achieve something any more, I trust that the situation will improve by itself.

PERSON B

When I am not able to achieve something any more, I direct my efforts at what is still possible.

43)

PERSON A

When something doesn't work as well as usual, I don't spend much time thinking about it.

PERSON B

When something doesn't work as well as usual, I look at how others do it.

47)

PERSON A

When something does not work as well as before, I listen to advisory broadcasts and books as well.

PERSON B

When something does not work as well as before, I am the one who knows what is best for me.

48)

PERSON A

When I can no longer do something in my usual way, I don't think long about it.

PERSON B

When I can no longer do something in my usual way, I think about what, exactly, I am able to do under the circumstances.

APPENDIX B

SCALE 2: WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

IMPORTANT: The following questions will ask about your overall experience as an employee, not about a specific job.

Instructions: Please indicate to degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.

2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.

3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.

4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.

5. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.

6. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.

7. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.

8. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.

9. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.

10. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.

APPENDIX C

SCALE 3: DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

Instructions: Please answer the following questions about your employment.

Are you currently employed? If yes, indicate part-time or full-time.

Yes, part-time

Yes, full-time

No

How many hours do you work per week, on average? Please round to the nearest whole number.

(Please indicate: _____)

How many hours does your spouse work per week, on average? Please round to the nearest whole number.

(Please indicate: _____)

What is your job title?

(Please indicate: _____)

Approximately how many years have you worked *in your current position*? Please round to the nearest whole number.

(Please indicate: _____)

Approximately how many years have you worked for your current employer? Please round to the nearest whole number.

(Please indicate: _____)

Instructions: Please answer the following questions about yourself.

What is your gender?

Male

Female

Decline to answer

What is your age (in years)?

(Please indicate: _____)

Decline to answer

What is your race/ethnicity?

White/European American

Black/African American

Arab/Middle Eastern

Asian/Pacific Islander

Hispanic/Latino(a)

Native American

Decline to answer

What is your highest level of education?

Did not graduate high school

GED

High school graduate

Some college

College graduate (have earned at least one bachelor's degree)

Some post-graduate

Post-graduate (Master's, PhD, JD, MD, etc.)

What is your current marital/relationship status? Check all that apply.

Married

Not married, but in a serious relationship with a significant other

Single/Dating (not in a serious relationship)

Single, never married

Separated

Divorced

Widowed

How many marriages have you had total, including your current one?

(Please indicate: _____)

How long have you been married in your current marriage? Please round to the nearest whole number (in years).

(Please indicate: _____)

Does your spouse live with you?

Yes

No

How long has your spouse lived with you? Please round to the nearest whole number (in years).

(Please indicate: _____)

How many hours do you spend at home per week on average, including for sleep? Please round to the nearest whole number (in hours).

(Please indicate: _____)

How many hours does your spouse spend at home per week on average, including for sleep? Please round to the nearest whole number (in hours).

(Please indicate: _____)

Who is more responsible for household chores—who spends more time and effort, on average, on household responsibilities?

Me

My spouse

How many children do you have?

(Please indicate: _____)

What is the age of your youngest child? Please round to the nearest whole number (in years).

(Please indicate: _____)

How many children 18 years or younger do you currently have living with you?

(Please indicate: _____)

Does have a child with special needs?

Yes

No

Who is more responsible for childcare duties—who spends more time and effort, on average, on parental responsibilities?

Me

My spouse

Do any of your children have any serious health problems?

Yes

No

Does your spouse have any serious health problems?

Yes

No

Do you have any serious health problems?

Yes

No

For how many elderly adults (including relatives) are you responsible?

(Please indicate: _____)

Approximately how far away from your home do your closest relatives live (on whom you can count for help in an emergency)? Please round to the nearest whole number in minutes it takes to drive to your relatives' house.

(Please indicate: _____)

Do you have any other comments?

(Please indicate: _____)

APPENDIX D

SCALE 4: ATTENTION CHECK ITEMS

Instructions: Please indicate to degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

1. Please select Strongly Agree.

2. I eat cement occasionally.

3. Please select Disagree.

4. I work twenty-eight hours in a typical work day.

5. I responded to the items in this questionnaire honestly.

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ABSTRACT**EXPLORING CROSSOVER EFFECTS AMONG WORKING SPOUSES THROUGH THE LENS OF SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY: SOC AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT**

by

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Managing competing demands from multiple life domains poses a significant challenge for today's workforce. In particular, employees who also have an active role at home often experience work-family conflict (WFC), which is associated with a number of negative outcomes. Research has shown that the selection, optimization, and compensation (SOC) set of coping strategies includes behaviors that tend to reduce WFC. However, it remains unknown how working spouses' use of these effective strategies "crossover" to influence the partner's outcomes. Using an emergent data analytic method—the actor-partner interdependence model—the present dissertation explored the effect of each spouse's SOC on his/her own WFC (actor effects) while controlling for the partner effect, as well as the effect of each spouse's SOC on the other spouse's WFC (partner effects) while controlling for the actor effect. Results found good model fit for the proposed model and small but significant actor and partner effects. Importantly, partner effects represent effects above and beyond actor effects, suggesting the incremental validity of spouses' SOC in predicting partner WFC.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Kevin Thomas Wynne was born in San Francisco, California, but spent most of his childhood growing up in northeastern Ohio. After high school, Kevin met his then-soon-to-be wife, Becky Hrvatin at Ohio University in beautiful Athens, Ohio. Then, they both transferred to The Ohio State University, with Kevin earning a BA in psychology. Kevin subsequently earned an MS in management from Mays Business School at Texas A&M University in College Station, Texas, and he is currently a PhD candidate in Industrial/Organizational Psychology at Wayne State University in Detroit, Michigan.

Professionally, Kevin Wynne has consulted for and with a number of local, regional, and national organizations and has experience in the areas of assessment, selection, test development, metrics/statistical analysis, performance/talent management, and leadership development. Kevin recently became a Research Fellow and is conducting research at the U.S. Air Force Research Laboratory (AFRL) at Wright-Patterson Air Force Base in Ohio. Prior to AFRL, Kevin was a consultant at *APTMetrics* in Evanston, Illinois, and I/O intern in the Assessment Technology Group (R&D) at DDI in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Prior to working at DDI, Kevin was a Program Specialist in Talent Development at Sodexo North America in Gaithersburg, Maryland and also worked in Organization and Leadership Development at Lockheed Martin Aeronautics in Fort Worth, Texas.

Kevin currently lives in Dayton, Ohio, and enjoys spending time with his wife (Becky), toddler (Liam), and cat (Blazer). In the rare event that spare time emerges, he enjoys exploring neighborhoods, traveling, and doing outdoor activities—hiking, camping, trail-running, snowboarding, and bicycling.