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Work-Family Conflict and Enrichment: A Study of College Coaches

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Work-Family Conflict and Enrichment: A Study of College Coaches

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Dedication

To my dear Amy Jo and our sons

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Work-Family Conflict and Enrichment: A Study of College Coaches
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The current work-family literature strongly emphasizes the conflict between the multiple roles that workers and parents assume. This conflict literature leaves readers with the impression that individuals are experiencing stress to a level that detracts from their quality of life (Frone, 2003; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, & Granrose, 1992). A more balanced perspective recognizes both the disadvantages and the potential advantages of engaging in multiple roles. Recent evidence indicates that occupying the roles of worker and spouse/parent may also produce positive outcomes such as greater satisfaction in marriage and on the job (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Garies, 2006). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) offer one theory that explains the positive interaction between work and family roles by introducing the concept of enrichment, a theory that explains why one role might improve the quality of life in the other role. Using a sample of intercollegiate coaches ($N = 286$) from institutions located in the United States, this study assessed the influence of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment in relation to occupational and life

outcomes for college coaches. Levels of conflict in work-to-family and family-to-work were measured, as well as levels of enrichment in work-to-family and family-to-work. Multiple regression was utilized to analyze six conceptual models with gender, age of participant, the presence of children at home, work-family conflict and work-family enrichment as independent variables. The results indicated work-to-family enrichment ($\beta = .318$) and family-to-work enrichment ($\beta = .257$) were both significant predictors of life satisfaction ($p < .01$). Work-to-family conflict ($\beta = -.118$) and family-to-work conflict ($\beta = -.269$) were significant predictors of life satisfaction ($p < .01$). Likewise, work-to-family conflict ($\beta = .385$) and family-to-work conflict ($\beta = .140$) were significant predictors of career commitment ($p < .01$). Age was a significant predictor of career commitment ($p < .05$). The findings highlight the need for future theoretical models to include both work-family conflict and work-family enrichment as both contribute uniquely to career and life outcomes. Practical implications include educating athletic administrators of the benefits coaches may accrue as a result of being engaged in both family and work roles.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Statement of the Problem

The current work-family literature strongly emphasizes the conflict between the multiple roles that workers and parents assume. Research has demonstrated that simultaneously occupying the roles of worker and parent results in negative outcomes such as hypertension, increased alcohol consumption (Thomas, Beauvais, & Allen, 2006), and overall job/life dissatisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). This conflict literature leaves readers with the impression that individuals are constantly embroiled in stress that detracts from their quality of life, but a more balanced perspective would recognize both the disadvantages and the potential advantages of engaging in multiple roles. In fact, recent evidence indicates that occupying the roles of worker and parent may also produce positive outcomes such as higher self-esteem, and greater satisfaction in marriage and on the job (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Garies, 2006).

Therefore, several scholars have begun to recognize and argue for the importance of examining the positive effects of combining work and family roles (Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) offer one theory that explains the positive interaction between work and family roles by introducing the concept of enrichment. They defined enrichment as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73). The purpose of this study was to examine if work-family

enrichment and work-family conflict simultaneously influence job and life outcomes for college coaches and what portion of unique variance each contributes to life satisfaction, organizational commitment, and career commitment.

Background

Family and work lives in the United States have changed over the past fifty years. Notable changes for the family have included an increase in single parent households and families with dual wage-earners, and the decline of extended family members living together. Often, these changes reflected shifting views of gender roles in work and family life, most notably as women have added the role of worker to their lives. The rise in married women's labor force participation has increasingly highlighted work and family issues not just as an individual or family issue, but as a matter of national policy (Boris & Lewis, 2006). Although most of the focus on blending work and family has been aimed at women, men have experienced changes as well. Concurrent to the rise of women as paid workers, men have increasingly responded to their nurturing role as fathers, spending more time with their children and expressing a strong preference for further involvement (Barnett & Rivers, 2004).

Further, workers have experienced significant changes in the structure of work and the demands made on employees with the increasing occurrence of forty-plus hour work weeks, employers who demand constant access to their employees, business travel that calls employees away from home for longer time periods, and relationships in which neither the employer nor the employee make long term commitments to each other (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997; Stebbins, 2001). Such work-structures have been the

norm in the coaching profession for many years (Coakley, 1986; Dixon & Bruening, 2007). Working within this challenging structure without neglecting familial responsibilities can place considerable strain on college coaches who occupy roles as both worker and parent. Coaches also report, however, that occupying multiple roles is positive for them and provides mutual benefits to each role (Dixon & Bruening, 2007).

The study of the work-family interface is rooted in the broader concept of role theory, which recognizes that individuals occupy multiple roles simultaneously, such as student, brother, and athlete. Two prominent roles that will be the focus of this study are family member (specifically spouse and parent) and worker (specifically wage earner). Role theory does not necessarily specify the dynamics of the interactions between multiple roles. Sociologists, psychologists, organizational behaviorists, and work-family scholars have examined this interaction, with most work based in one of two major paradigms: conflict or enrichment. Conflict theorists argue that a person has finite resources, and the multiple roles a person occupies all vie for these resources, inevitably placing the roles in conflict (Barnett, Marshall, & Singer, 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Hill, Hawkins, Martinson, & Ferris, 2005; Murphy & Zagorski, 2006). Enrichment theorists argue that resources are not necessarily finite and that the multiple roles a person occupies can benefit individuals and improve role performance (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Garies, 2006; Barnett & Marshall, 1993; Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Work-family conflict is a type of inter-role conflict wherein some portion of work and family responsibilities are not compatible and consequentially have negative effects on each domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Conflict has been the prevailing

perspective for the past thirty years (Hill et al., 2005), but the concept of enrichment has emerged in the work-family interface dialogue. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) have suggested that work-family enrichment is “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role (p.73).” Work-to-family enrichment occurs when work experiences improve the quality of family life by helping the worker improve his performance of a family role. Family-to-work enrichment occurs when family experiences improve the quality of work life by helping the spouse or parent improve his performance of the work role. Individuals who experience work-family enrichment benefit on an individual level, while the work and family organizations to which they belong also benefit.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to extend existing work-family literature by demonstrating that work-family enrichment and work-family conflict simultaneously influence job and life outcomes for college coaches (illustrated in Figures 1-6). This study seeks to determine what portion of unique variance conflict and enrichment each contribute to life satisfaction, organizational commitment, and career commitment.

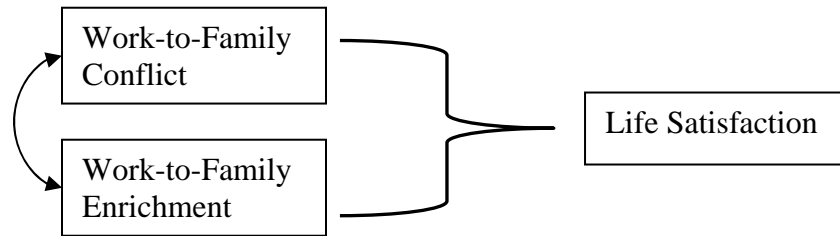


Figure 1. Work-to-family conflict plus work-to-family enrichment contributes to life satisfaction.

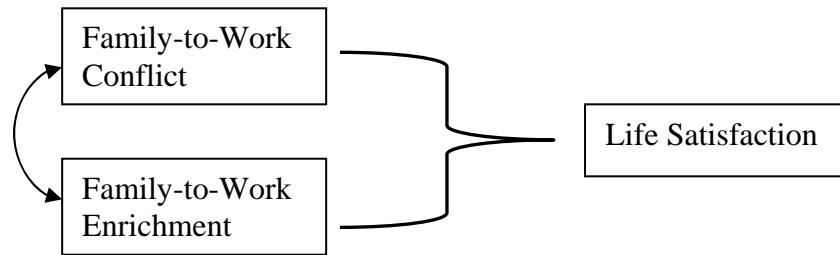


Figure 2. Family-to-work conflict plus family-to-work enrichment contributes to life satisfaction.

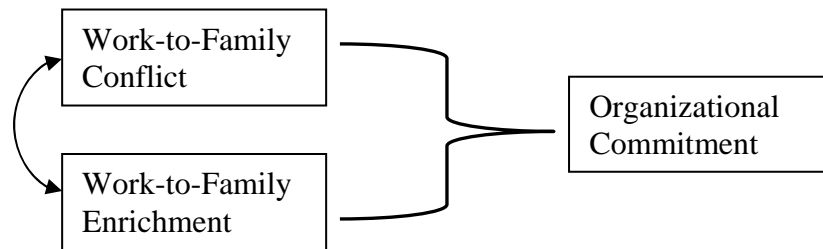


Figure 3. Work-to-family conflict plus work-to-family enrichment contributes to organizational commitment.

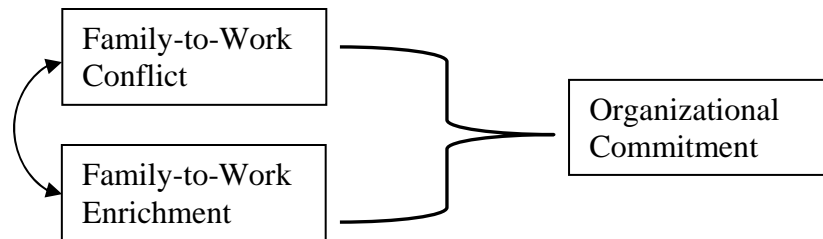


Figure 4. Family to work conflict plus family to work enrichment contributes to organizational commitment.

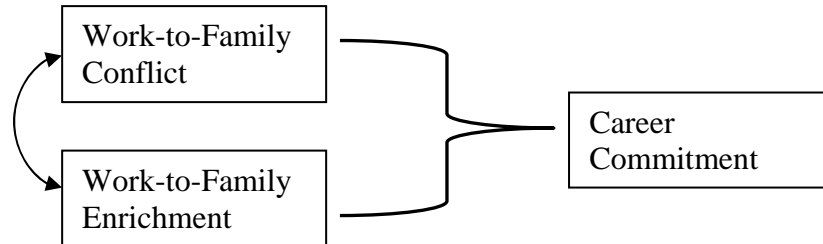


Figure 5. Work to family conflict plus work to family enrichment contributes to career commitment.

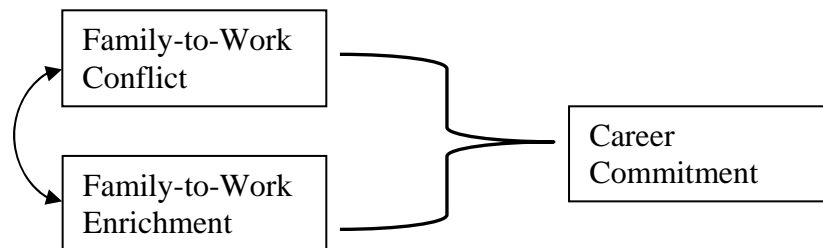


Figure 6. Family-to-work conflict plus family-to-work enrichment contributes to career commitment.

Levels of conflict in work to family and family to work were measured, as well as levels of enrichment in work to family and family to work. Also investigated was whether conflict and enrichment were experienced simultaneously in individuals and, if so, what effect this interaction had on levels of life satisfaction, organizational commitment, and career commitment.

In addition to understanding the relationship of conflict and enrichment on the outcomes of life satisfaction, organizational commitment, and career commitment, this study contributes to the literature by focusing on both fathers and mothers. Much of the work-family research has largely focused on mothers (Hill, 2003; Hill et al., 2005; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). This research has been important because working women typically experience high amounts of role conflict as they battle the time and socio-cultural expectations of filling both worker and mother roles (Dixon, 2006). Previous research on coaches indicates that coaching mothers feel a tremendous sense of guilt over the time spent away from their children, particularly over nights and weekends demanded of them in the profession. As a result, they often exit their coaching role to alleviate the strains of time and guilt (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). There is virtually no research, however, dealing with the experiences of coaching fathers (see Cunningham & Sagas, 2005 for an exception). There is evidence to suggest that fathers' and mothers' experiences from work-family interactions may be different (Levine & Pittinsky, 1998). For example, fathers may be less likely to utilize work-family benefits because to do so may demonstrate a lack of job commitment (Hill et al., 2005; Pleck, 1993). Fathers may also view family spillover into work as more problematic than work spillover into

family, while the opposite is true for mothers. Fathers may experience guilt over time imbalances in their roles, although their guilt may be expressed differently than women (Barnett, Marshall, & Pleck, 1992). Thus, there may be important gender differences in the role-interface that could be uncovered through a study including both fathers and mothers.

Further, it may be argued that an overemphasis on women's experiences in the work-family interface has led to the work-family interface being defined as a "women's issue." As such, the larger social structures of work and family are neglected and solutions for work-family conflict become largely individualized. Adding a focus on men helps to show that work-family questions are a social issue and thus deserves attention toward positive organizational and social changes (Burstein & Brichner, 1997).

The third contribution of this study is in examining the coaching profession. As the work of Dixon and Bruening (Bruening & Dixon, 2007; Dixon & Bruening, 2007) has highlighted, the coaching profession is one that has strongly embraced a face-time culture, where one demonstrates commitment to a highly competitive profession by being at the office, and where there is an expected linear correlation between time spent on the job and performance. Some authors are beginning to strongly question and criticize this type of culture for its impact on the social institution of family (Gambles, Lewis, & Rapoport, 2006). They are concerned about the growing trend toward longer working hours and spending fewer hours with family. The current study, with its emphasis on coaches, contributes to this line of research by examining this emerging social trend. Sport is such a prominent social institution in the United States that studying the impact

of its culture on its participants – particularly coaches the true “workers” of sport - may provide rich insights into work, family, and leisure in the general population as well.

Practical Implications for Athletic Departments

Work-family conflict has been demonstrated to be at least partially responsible for an increase in job turnover, at least among coaching mothers (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). Work-family enrichment, the author theorizes, may contribute to a greater level of career and organizational commitment, as well as decreased turnover intent. If this is the case, the practical implications for athletic departments would include the financial benefits of less frequently having to go through the hiring process to replace existing and established coaches. Further benefits to the organization may include the establishment of continuity within a program which may lead to the practical goal of a better win-loss record. According to Raedeke et al. (2002), “Sport organizations recognize that continuity among coaches is important to sustain quality programs (p.73).” One such program feature is being able to effectively recruit highly skilled and academically prepared athletes. Such a quality would certainly be desirable for any athletic department.

The continuity of coaching staffs not only allows a higher quality of recruiting, it also assists in individual player development. As coaches work with players they begin to recognize players’ weaknesses and strengths. The coaches are then able to focus on the skills needed to improve and overcome the deficiencies in the athlete. However, when a coach leaves, a new coach arrives who must then develop a new relationship, and reevaluate a player’s strengths and weakness, losing valuable time in player development. This is especially critical in a college setting where a player’s athletic eligibility is limited

to a finite time. These are a few factors which coaching continuity affects and which may lead to the development of programs that bring financial benefits to the institution in terms of post season tournaments, bowl games, and championships.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

This study investigated the work-family interface of male and female college coaches who are parents. For this study two perspectives of the work-family interface were of focus: work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. Specifically, this study sought to determine if work-family conflict and work-family enrichment uniquely contribute to life satisfaction, organizational, and career commitment. Additionally, in the context of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment, the study sought to detect any differences between male and female coaches.

Studying Work-Family Conflict and Enrichment with Coaches

There are many reasons to study work-family conflict and enrichment in the lives of coaches. Coaches are a vital part of sports, serving as the visible “employee” of the institution. Chalip (2006) has challenged sport management researchers to discover what makes the sport industry similar to and unique from non-sport organizations, and to learn what the boundary conditions are on the theories that are built. Therefore, studying work-family conflict and enrichment in relation to college coaches may help inform the larger literature. For example, if coaches do experience enrichment, this may set them apart from other industries. Also, if enrichment does not exist for college coaches, is this because of the profession or because of the limitations to enrichment?

Another justification for the study of coaches arises from the work of Frisby (2005) who has emphasized that the research of sport may help highlight areas for change, particularly in underrepresented populations. This study includes both men and

women. Women traditionally have been underrepresented in the coaching field.

Likewise, in the study of the work and family interface fathers have been—conceptually and empirically—underrepresented (Hill, 2003). As a result, a call for additional studies including fathers and the work-family interface has been issued (Hill et al., 2005; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). This study endeavors to answer this call.

In addition, Dixon and Bruening (2005) have provided distinct reasons why researchers need to make use of the sport industry, of which coaches are a prominent component, in examining the work-family interface. The first is that individuals working in the sport industry are faced with the expectation that they will be working long, non-traditional hours (i.e., weekends, nights, and holidays) and will be traveling extensively. Such work characteristics put coaches in a context where work-family conflict is conspicuous (Dixon & Bruening, 2005).

Second, coaches are instructive because sport is a male dominated profession, which allows researchers insight into particular social and structural strains that are not obvious in more gender balanced occupations (Dixon & Bruening, 2005). For women this means they often have to prove their worthiness, which means working harder and more obviously than their competitors. For men, this means they are expected to have a full support system at home and never to let family interfere with work obligations (Knoppers, 1992).

Third, the coaching profession is one that has strongly embraced a face-time culture, where one demonstrates commitment to a highly competitive profession by being on the job, and where there is an expected linear correlation of time spent at work to

performance (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). Face-time, an increasingly common experience in a range of occupations, is perceived to be a factor of wage earning work that intrudes into family life (Gambles et al., 2006).

Support and understanding from family members is often vital for coaches. When this support and understanding is missing, coaches are forced to make difficult choices. Either they have to leave one or both roles or take them less seriously (Coakley, 1986). According to Sabock (1985, p. 135), “Coaching and its impact on the family is one of the facets of the profession that demands a great deal of understanding.” In addition, support from extended family members, especially for child care, may be absent. In order to retain employment, coaches must go to where the jobs are and therefore are not always able to stay close to family (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). Such situations may elevate perceived levels of work-family conflict.

Current Coaching Environment

To gain an appreciation for using coaches as the subjects to study work-family conflict and enrichment one must have some background knowledge into their lives. This is most important for individuals outside the profession of sport. As with many occupations in the sport industry, coaching is typically not a family-friendly profession. Dixon and Bruening (2007) point out that coaching is a “multi-faceted, high paced work setting full of practices, recruiting, off-season workouts, administrative duties, and teaching responsibilities [that have] created an environment where only those willing to work twelve hours days, six days a week, for fifty weeks a year can thrive” (p. 384).

This is often the case for coaches of intercollegiate athletic teams, as they work to provide nighttime and weekend games and events that serve as entertainment for other members of their community. Very often other families participate in the sporting event as a leisure activity, while coaches are working. Thus work often interferes directly with the coach's own family leisure time and children's activities (Dixon & Bruening, 2007).

Coaching jobs require long, non-traditional hours, and extensive travel (Dixon & Bruening, 2007) which translates into time away from home and family. Within the coaching culture exists the concept of the coach as "toiler." Doherty (1985) viewed a toiler as "one who engages in fatiguing, emotionally stressful, and ever arduous work for long hours day after day" (p. 11). Such long days may leave little energy or time for the coach to fulfill his family role when they return home.

In the current climate, the coaching profession is seen as a year-round vocation (Brown & Little, 2001). Work hours exist not only during the playing season, but throughout the year as coaches spend extensive time recruiting new prospects, supervising off season workouts, holding meetings, running camps and planning for the next season.

Besides putting together a winning program, coaches have other responsibilities which take time and energy. Coaches are many times a salesperson, as they sell themselves, the program, and the institution not only to future players and their families, but to the community that surrounds their program and ultimately, the nation that watches. Coaches often also serve as a parental figure as they have a primary concern for the players (Doherty, 1985). The parental aspect is most important as athletes are often

away from their homes for the first time. All these requirements keep their job, and not their family, as their primary focus.

Collegiate coaches often rise to the position of coach because they have been an athlete in the sport at the college level. As a result, many of the values and beliefs they held as an athlete are transferred to the coaching role. Hughes and Coakley (1991) suggested that being an athlete involves making sacrifices for the game. The athlete is expected to love the game above all else, and prove it by subordinating other interests for the sake of an exclusive commitment to the game by doing whatever is necessary to meet the demands of a team or competition. Sport nurtures the concept of sacrifice for success, where athletes and coaches are praised for sacrificing all other aspects of their lives in pursuit of achieving their athletic goals (Dixon, Bruening, Mazerolle, Davis, Crowder, & Lorsbach, 2006; Sage, 1998). Such sacrifice may lead to pressure and strain in the coaching role, leading to a strategic withdrawal. In turn, this response leads to the development of a coaching subculture (Coakley, 1986). Through the subculture, ideas of success and sacrifice are perpetuated.

Subcultures may be defined as segments of a society embracing certain distinctive cultural elements of their own. These elements include a shared set of identifiable beliefs, values, and means of symbolic expression (Green, 2001). As coaches enter into the profession, they look to the values, beliefs, and behaviors of experienced and successful coaches who serve as role models. It is expected that new coaches follow these models. Those who do not choose to follow accepted coaching methods risk receiving negative

sanctions from those in the coaching profession. This can have serious consequences, as their future may rely upon the endorsement of established coaches (Coakley, 1986).

Coaches often form a type of genealogical tree, with which they trace back to previous associations with fellow coaches to explain the habits and practices in which they currently engage (Brown & Little, 2001; Durocher & Linn, 1975; Walsh, Billick, & Peterson, 1997). Today's coaches may be impacted by ideas taught many generations ago. For example, during World War II, the U.S. Navy instituted athletic programs which were coached and officiated by officers who had previously been successful coaches and athletes, and who would go on to post war collegiate coaching careers.

Within these physical fitness programs, large numbers of men were indoctrinated with the spirit of there being no substitute for winning, an idea that soon invaded the literature (Schenewark, 1997). Sport became synergistic in the war effort as men were developed to be tough, rugged, ruthless participants. Little or no attention was given to social contacts or sportsmanship. Participants were expected to develop loyalty, sacrifice personal interest for those of the group, and continue physical activity during leisure time.

Such physical fitness programs produced individuals who went to work in athletics at various colleges following the war. One such individual was Gomer Jones, who would serve as athletic director and head football coach at the University of Oklahoma. For Jones, his experience in the military was the single most valuable incident in his education as a coach (Jones, 1961). Other products of this system included legendary coaches Woody Hays and Paul "Bear" Bryant (Rominger, 1985). They serve as

examples of coaches who carried with them values from their wartime service, and implemented these beliefs into their programs.

Woody Hayes, who worked not only on weekends but also over holidays both in and out of season, estimated that he had been away from home over two hundred nights in one year (Doherty, 1985). Giving up nights and weekends for practices and games can be a significant problem for coaches who are also spouses and parents (Coakley, 1986).

Paul “Bear” Bryant stated “a man not only neglects his family, but the rest of his life in order to compete successfully in coaching. He’s never happy. Even when he wins, he’s worried about losing the next game. After a winning season, he’s worried about the next season. And when he loses, he is miserable and mean to be around. He takes his losses home with him” (Coakley, 1986, p. 309).

These attitudes concerning work and family permeate a new generation of coaches helping to maintain the coaching subculture and are not necessarily unique to men. Coaching mothers reported concern over what would take place the following day, even on their day off (Dixon & Bruening, 2007).

While Dixon and Bruening (2007) have documented that work-family conflict exists in the coaching profession as it pertains to women, research including male coaches may broaden our understanding of work-family conflict. Further, little consideration has been given to coaches and work-family enrichment. Such research may inform us and allow for improvement in individual and family lives as well as the work organizations with which coaches find themselves employed.

Introduction to the Work-Family Interface

According to Kanter (2006), humans have a basic need for both interpersonal relationships and material sustenance. Historically, the family has been the core of interpersonal relationships. It is often within families that individuals develop, nurture, and reap the benefits of satisfactory interpersonal relationships. Material sustenance, for the majority of Americans, is obtained by the trading of work for a wage. Money from this employment practice is then used to purchase needed supplies and goods to maintain and enrich life.

The importance of earning a wage increased throughout the nineteenth century and affected the way work and family roles were viewed. From colonial times through pre-industrialization, work and family were seldom seen to be distinct roles. However, industrialization would begin to change these perceptions. Prior to 1841 the term “housework” did not exist as the concept that work done in the home was different from any other work done by family members (Stebbins, 2001). By the middle of the nineteenth century the ideology of domesticity developed which placed men and women in separate spheres and made public work socially unacceptable for married, middle class women (Caffrey, 1991). Throughout this time period, with the ever increasing industrialization of the United States, wage-earning men stopped working from the home and as a result began to lose many of their family responsibilities, while women began to take on greater responsibilities in the home for moral, religious, and educational tasks (Stebbins, 2001). By the end of the nineteenth century management experts such as Max Webber argued that strong family influences could “undermine the development of

rational bureaucracies” (Stebbins, 2001, p. 6) and families began to be increasingly viewed as a hindrance to an organization’s success (Stebbins, 2001).

The United States witnessed further changes to family structure and work life in the 20th Century. The domesticity model (women at home and men at work) predominate in the early 20th Century, hit its apex in the 1950’s with the ideal standard of a middle class or “traditional” family, with a stay-at-home mother and a wage earning father evolved. However, in the decades after the 1950s, economic factors (such as the rise in the inflation rate) and new social values related to the role of women, have led to an ever increasing number of women in the workforce (Stebbins, 2001). The second half of the twentieth century has also witnessed an increase in single-parent households and alternative family arrangements (i.e. unmarried adults living together, couples choosing not to have children). It was estimated in 1997 that only 10 percent of all working households consisted of the 1950’s concept of a traditional family structure (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997). In fact, currently between 60 and 70 percent of families consist of two working parents (Barnett & Rivers, 2004). The rise of married women’s labor force participation has increasingly highlighted work and family issues not just as an individual or family concern, but as a subject of national policy (Boris & Lewis, 2006).

While most of the focus on blending work and family has been aimed at women, the balance of work and family roles has also been a concern for men. Concurrent to the rise of women as paid workers, men, once viewed solely from the role of family provider, have increasingly responded to the need to develop their nurturing role as husbands/fathers. American fathers are spending more time with their children than they

did twenty years ago, and they express a strong preference for further involvement (Barnett & Rivers, 2004). Barnett has described the past twenty years as the “era of the involved father” (Stebbins, 2001, p. 26), because men have increasingly become more involved as parents and domestic assistants. Though not equal partners in parenting, there has been a demonstrable increase in their care-giving participation (Stebbins, 2001).

During this same time period, work has become increasingly demanding and invasive in people’s lives (Gambles et al., 2006). No longer can employees plan on a forty-hour work week. Technology has enabled some workers to participate in well-paid and/or interesting jobs from home. However, the internet and other new technologies have also challenged the separation of work and home as employees are able to be “on the job” and in touch with employers twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Gambles et al., 2006; Stebbins, 2001). Increasingly, employers have demanded constant access to employees through email and cell phones and have also required increased travel away from home for longer time periods.

The last generation has also witnessed greater instability in the workforce with neither the employer nor the employee making long term commitments to each other. These characteristics of the current workplace have contributed to employees working long and hard to complete heavy workloads in order to demonstrate their value to employers. Similarly, workers have put in long hours of what has been referred to as “face time” in order to demonstrate commitment to the organization (Gambles et al., 2006). Such changing aspects of the family and work life of modern America have led

scholars to recognize and seek understanding of the dynamics within the work-family interface as it impacts both work and family life.

Role Theory

The study of the work-family interface is rooted in the broader concept of role theory. Role theory has been the most common explanation for the nature of the relationship between work and family (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Thompson et al., 2006). In general, role theory recognizes that individuals occupy multiple roles, often simultaneously. For example, in the context of college sports the concept of multiple roles is commonly discussed in relation to student-athletes. The dual roles of student and athlete are common for many lives. Often these roles conflict, (e.g., travel time and away games conflict with classes) yet the individuals are expected to excel in both roles, as an athlete on the playing field and as a student in the classroom. Two prominent roles, which are the focus of this study, are those of family member (specifically, spouse and parent) and worker (specifically, a wage earner).

Role theory, while it posits multiple role occupation, does not necessarily specify the dynamics of the interactions between multiple roles. Over the past fifty years, sociologists, psychologists, organizational behaviorists, and work-family scholars have examined the nature of this interaction, with most work being based in one of two major paradigms: conflict and enrichment. At the most basic level, conflict theorists (e.g., Adams, King, & King, 1996; Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983; Murphy & Zagorski, 2006) have argued that a person has finite resources such as time and energy.

The multiple roles a person occupies all vie for these limited resources, inevitably placing the roles in conflict and competition with each other. Resources spent in one role must necessarily come at the expense of the other role, thereby resulting in negative outcomes from the stress and strain of juggling demands. Enrichment theorists (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Marks, 1977) in contrast, argue that resources are not necessarily finite and that the multiple roles a person occupies can serve to enhance and enrich each other, resulting in positive outcomes for the person and their sphere of influence. Each perspective and the empirical basis for support are explained in further detail below.

Conflict Perspective

From a role conflict perspective, as individuals take on multiple life roles, it becomes increasingly difficult to successfully manage each role because time and resources spent in one role necessitate time and resources away from the other. Thus, the navigation of multiple roles, especially those of worker and family member, results in interrole conflict, usually from the spillover of demands in one role to those of another (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). For the past twenty-five years much of the research on the work family interface has emphasized conflict, stress and impaired well being, and continues to be the dominant paradigm for the study of the work-family interface (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hill, 2003).

Important to the conflict perspective is the assumption that work and family are separate and incompatible roles, and that the relationship between work and family comprise a zero-sum entity (Hill, 2003). This means that resources, notably time and

energy, used in fulfilling one role's requirements no longer exist to fulfill requirements for a different role. This assumption originates from the scarcity hypothesis, which emphasizes that resources such as time and energy are fixed and of limited quality (Barnett et al., 1992; Hill, 2003; Murphy & Zagorski, 2006).

In effect, a person with multiple roles has greater demands on their fixed time and energy, such that when resources are used in one role, resources are depleted and unavailable for use in another role. For example, energy used in the work role will deplete the amount of energy left to fulfill the family role and visa versa. This lack of energy to fulfill role responsibilities results in tension and conflict that produces an associated cost. This cost is assessed by various outcomes of psychological distress, for example, decreased marital and job satisfaction (Barnett & Gareis, 2006).

Inter-role conflict occurs when compliance with one role is incompatible with the full compliance of another role (Adams et al., 1996; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). This may be brought about by the requirements of different roles competing for a person's limited resources, such as time, money, or space (Kopelman et al., 1983). Work-family conflict is defined as "a type of inter-role conflict wherein, some portion of work and family responsibilities are not compatible and therefore, have consequential effects on each domain" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Largely, the study of work-family conflict is based on the assumption that work and family are two separate, incompatible and competing roles individuals attempt to fulfill (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Kopelman et al., 1983).

Three Bases for Conflict

Murphy and Zagorski (2006) refer to three areas for conflict. Time-based conflict occurs when time demanded by family competes with work activities. Key to the conflict is the idea that time is finite. Individuals with inflexible work schedules and working women experience the greatest time-based conflict. Working parents struggle to find time to fulfill both roles. In addition, parents feel time spent at work deprives their children of time spent together (Halpern & Murphy, 2006). Certain job features such as required long hours, and the lack of employee control over work time will influence time-based conflict (Murphy & Zagorski, 2006).

The second basis for conflict is strain-based, which occurs when stress from one domain spills over into another domain, and can occur in a bi-directional nature (Murphy & Zagorski, 2006; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). A stressor is defined as any perceived feature of the environment that harms, threatens, or challenges the worker, while strain refers to the psychological, physiological, and behavioral changes that occur as a result of exposure to stressors (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Job features which may induce stress include jobs that are challenging and lack stability, employment that gives employees no control over work time or work processes, heavy workloads, and/or employers with unlimited access to their employees through the use of modern technology such as cellular phone, pagers, and e-mail (Murphy & Zagorski, 2006). Concerns over child and family care may serve as stressors which can influence an individual's worker role.

The third basis of conflict occurs when the way a person has to behave at work conflicts with the way they need to behave at home or visa versa. This is referred to as

incompatible roles (Halpern & Murphy, 2006; Murphy & Zagorski, 2006). For example, an offensive lineman in football is taught that he must control his opponent by use of his physical strength and domineering behavior. At home, however, these same methods would be unacceptable in controlling his children.

Correlates of Work-Family Conflict

Research has indicated that the correlates and consequences of work-family conflict are multilevel, that is on an individual, organizational, and socio-cultural basis (e.g., Allen, 2001; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Frone, 2003; Thompson et al., 2006). According to Allen (2001), “Work-family role strain is the result of the combined influence of demands and coping resources derived from individual, family, and work-related sources” (p. 417). For example, at the individual level, the presence of young children is associated with increased work-family conflict (Carlson, 1999; Greenhaus & Buetell, 1985). At the organizational level, the number of hours worked, inflexible scheduling, unsupportive work-family cultures, and unsupportive supervisors have been linked to higher work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Clark, 2001; Dixon & Sagas, 2007). Byron (2005) performed a meta-analysis and identified factors that could be used to predict the likelihood of work-family conflict for individuals. Below, notable correlates are further examined.

Gender as a Correlate to Work-Family Conflict

Current research suggests that differences exist among men and women concerning the correlates of work-family conflict. In general, being male appears to exacerbate any negative effects of family domain antecedents, such as family stress,

family conflict, number of children, and marital status, related to work-family conflict. Paradoxically, females tend to enjoy greater protective benefits from those antecedents, such as flexible work schedules, and to some extent, supportive families, which lessened the experience of interference (Byron, 2005). Because women tend to take on greater responsibilities for childcare, mothers experience more distress from the greater workload, but only when they are also highly involved in their work.

Difference in gender is also accentuated by life cycle stages. Higgins et al. (1994) determined that individual experiences with work-family conflict were influenced by their gender and their life cycle stage. For men, work-family conflict decreased as their families went through three stages: Stage 1, families with preschool children; Stage 2, families with grade school children; Stage 3, families with adolescents. For women, work-family conflict did not decrease until the third stage when their children were teenagers. This seems reasonable because women are the primary caregivers and are likely to experience a greater burden for caring for the child until the child begins to naturally increase towards independence, beginning to manage and care for more of their temporal needs during the adolescent years.

Associated with life cycle is the demographic of age. Grzywacz and Marks (2000) mentioned that both younger men and younger women report a greater level of work-family conflict than do older individuals. It is likely that the younger an individual is the more likely they are to have young families. They are also more likely to be beginning a career, and will not be established, thus experiencing a sense of instability that enhances a

sense of strain increasing the level of work-family conflict which older established employees have already experienced.

Family Composition as a Correlate to Work-Family Conflict

Thompson et al. (2006) observed that employees with young children or large families are more likely to experience conflict. This seems likely, as younger children require more attention and personal care. While not discussed in-depth, large families also are more likely to experience conflict (Thompson et al., 2006). Kinnunen and Mauno (1998) found that the higher the number of children in a family, the higher the level of family-work conflict among both men and women. However, they did not elaborate on why this was the case. Perhaps the reason that families with a large number of children are more likely to experience conflict is the fact that limited family time must be divided among more individuals. It may also be a result of an increase in duties to be performed. For example, a family with one child has one fourth of the amount of laundry to wash, children to bathe, or youth sport games to attend than a family with four children. Because previous research has demonstrated a positive relationship to work-family conflict (Frone et al., 1997; Higgins et al., 1994; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996), the presence of children in the home is included in this study.

In addition, employees who provide care for aging parents are more likely to experience work-family conflict. This may become much more frequent as the baby-boomer generation is entering the ranks of senior citizens, and as the current generation

of parents has fewer children, there is greater stress for the caring child who has no one else to turn to for physical, emotional, or financial help (Scharlach & Boyd, 1989).

Consequences of Work-Family Conflict

The presence of work-family conflict may have detrimental consequences to employees, families, and work organizations. Conflict between the roles of work and family may be an important stressor that can influence outcomes in the affected life domains (Frone, 2003). Parasuraman, Greenhaus, and Granrose (1992) showed that work-family conflict is positively associated with overall life stress. For organizations and the economy as a whole, stress has a tremendous financial cost. The American Stress Institute estimates \$300 billion per year is lost by businesses in the United States due to stress. Stress results in lower productivity, higher absenteeism, employee turnover, alcoholism, and medical costs (Murphy & Zagorski, 2006). Further evidence suggests employees under high stress can cost organizations money because of higher accident levels, lost time, and reduced productivity (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Collins (2001) showed stress to be related to an employee's turnover intention. Further consequences of such stress has seen an increase in the number of companies being sued for stress originating in the work place, and being held responsible by verdicts of the court (Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

Frone (2003) indicated that stress associated with work-family conflict influences the overall health and well being of individuals exposed to the conflict. Among these health concerns are depression and coronary heart disease (Thomas & Ganster, 1995), hypertension, greater alcohol consumption, and substance abuse (Thompson et al., 2006).

Individuals experiencing high levels of work-family conflict are more likely to experience anxiety and anger/hostility troubles. Each of these concerns can have a negative effect on the family.

In addition, research has repeatedly shown other negative outcomes of work-family conflict. For example, Kossek and Ozeki's (1998) meta-analytic results showed a consistent negative relationship between work-family conflict and job-life satisfaction (see also Dixon & Sagas, 2007). As well, work and family conflict may lead to lack of advancement, greater job turnover, changes in occupation, and job termination (Dixon & Bruening, 2005).

From Conflict to Balance and Enrichment

In spite of a prolonged focus on conflict, another body of research suggests that work-family relationships may be balanced or even enriching. Clark (2001) defined work-family balance "as satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict" (p. 349). Frone (2003) stated that the concept of work-family balance is "commonly understood to be the lack of conflict or interference between work and family roles" (p.145). However, Greenhaus et al. (2001) offered the following definition of work-family balance: "The extent to which an individual is equally engaged in and equally satisfied with his or her work role and family role (p. 513)." These three definitions have merit. The Greenhaus et al. (2001) definition asserts that equally engaged and equally satisfied is essential to work-family balance.

Three components of work-family balance have been proposed by Greenhaus et al. (2001). The first component is time balance, which constitutes an equal amount of

time devoted to work roles and family roles. The second component is involvement balance, which consists of an equal level of psychological involvement in work and family roles. The third component is the satisfaction balance. With satisfaction balance, an equal level of satisfaction is achieved with work and family roles. However, the weakness of the definition is that equal satisfaction may be equal dissatisfaction. By embracing the definitions purposed by Clark (2001) and Frone (2003) the positive nature of work and family roles are emphasized.

Yet the concept of balance has inherent problems. Halpern and Murphy (2006) saw balance as a metaphor in which the adult is at the fulcrum of a large balance beam, with spouse and children (family) responsibilities at one end and work at the other end. Such a metaphor suggests the idea of compromise as the key to work-family balance, where individuals are constantly required to withdraw from one role in order to keep the two roles in balance. Murphy and Zagorski (2006) pointed out this dilemma stating, “Most of the current thinking implies that employees are attempting to achieve a life in which each realm of their lives is in balance or at least not in conflict. However, balance may not be the appropriate goal. Balance may suggest that employees will make a compromise thereby, giving less effort to work or to families” (p. 29).

Halpern and Murphy (2006) also suggested a second metaphor for work-family balance. This metaphor consists of a juggler who, if he/she holds on too long to the work component, the family component will crash. Therefore, the individual must keep a diligent gaze on both roles as they spin around the individual to ensure that one or the other does not smash on the floor of life. Both metaphors provide different perspective on

the concept of work-family balance. One metaphor is not better than the other however; each contains an inherently pessimistic perspective.

Organizations have instituted policies and programs to help employees balance family and work. These may result in fewer work absences, less illness, and improved employee retention (Halpern & Murphy, 2006). Some programs seek to give employees more control over their home life. These programs may include flexible working hours or flex time, and job sharing. Some organizations may offer a cafeteria style benefit program which allows the employee to tailor the benefits to their own needs (Murphy & Zagorski, 2006). Thomas and Ganster (1995) studied the impact of family supportive work variables and found that flexible scheduling and supportive supervisors especially helped to manage the conflict. However, organizational policies designed to help employees integrate work and family roles do not necessarily reduce individual work-family conflict or may be marginally effective at best (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

Clark (2001) argued that programs are not enough in and of themselves, to affect work-family conflict and that what is needed is a work-family supportive culture. Culture may be defined as the shared assumptions, beliefs and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and family lives (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Thompson et al. (1999) identified three dimensions of work-family culture. The first is managerial support for work-family balance. The second dimension is the reduced perception of negative career consequences associated with utilizing work-family benefits, or devoting time to family responsibilities. The third dimension of work-family supportive culture concerns the norms of

organizational time demands or expectations in which employees prioritize work above family. Organizations need all three to help employees feel supported in their dual roles.

A supportive work-family culture is related to employees' use of benefits as well as work attitudes. These attitudes may result in employees having greater commitment, less intention to leave and less work-family conflict (Clark, 2001; Dixon & Sagas, 2007). Supervisors' support of employee's efforts to balance work and family contribute to employees being less likely to experience work-family conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Therefore, "the most progressive organizations go beyond instituting programs and change the culture of the organization to become more family friendly" (Clark, 2001, p. 348).

So far research suggests that balance is more desirable than conflict, leading to more satisfied, productive, and healthier employees. Also of importance is the realization that the culture of the organization is critical to the promotion of work-family balance. Without a pro-family culture, programs themselves are insufficient to achieve and reap the benefits of work-family balance.

Beyond balance, Frone (2003) considered the concept of work-family enhancement (similar to facilitation or positive spillover). He defined work-family enhancement as "the extent to which participation in work (or home) is made easier by virtue of the experiences, skills, and opportunities gained or developed at home (or work)" (p.145). Greenhaus and Powell (2006), using more bi-directional terms, defined work-family enrichment as, "The extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role" (p.73).

Based on a study by Grzywacz and Marks (2000), Frone (2003) argued that it may not be useful to take an integrative model of work-family conflict and “simply substitute in” (p.152) work-family enhancement. Therefore, he called for the development of new models to elucidate the causal antecedents in which work and family positively interface.

Work-Family Enrichment Perspective

Concurrently developing with the role conflict literature was a literature base that questioned the fundamental assumption of scarcity, upon which role conflict theory was based. Sieber (1974) and Marks (1977) both questioned whether resources such as time, money, and energy were finite. They argued instead that such resources could expand based on relationships, skills, networks, etc. that were garnered through multiple role occupation. For example, a man might garner business contacts through marriage that would help enhance his material wealth, which would in turn enhance his family well-being.

Building on this concept, several recent scholars have begun to recognize and argue for the importance of examining the positive effects of combining work and family roles (e.g., Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Garies, 2006; Barnett & Marshall, 1993; Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). They suggest that while important and insightful, the conflict literature leaves one with the impression that individuals are constantly embroiled in stress that detracts from their quality of life, rather than a more balanced perspective that recognizes both the disadvantages and the advantages of engaging in multiple roles. Further, while the conflict perspective lends

some explanatory power (Bellavia & Frone, 2005; Eby et al., 2005), there is certainly an understanding that positive or enriching effects can also be experienced from the work-family interface.

Empirical Evidence for Enrichment

Empirical evidence supports the claim that work and family roles can have a positive impact on each other. Men and women who engage in multiple roles report lower levels of stress-related mental and physical health problems and higher levels of subjective well-being than their counterparts who engage in fewer roles (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Crosby & Jasker, 1993; Simons, 1992; Thoits, 1992; Wethington & Kessler, 1989). For example, Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, and King (2002) found that simultaneously occupying multiple roles for high-level managerial women resulted in a higher level of life satisfaction and other psychological benefits, development of multi-tasking skills, higher self-esteem, and higher self-acceptance. This finding has been further supported by Barnett and Gareis (2006), who claimed that women gained a subjective sense of success in balancing work and family demands and an inherent satisfaction from this accomplishment. Women adding the working role benefited from the reward of earning a salary, doing challenging work, utilizing all of one's talents, having access to health benefits, and receiving social support (Barnett & Gareis, 2006).

Wethington and Kessler (1989) found that women who increase their employment from homemaker to part- or full-time status showed lower levels of depression, while other studies found employed women to be less depressed than non-employed women (Aneshensel, 1986; Kandell, Davies, & Raveis, 1985). Employed women also reported

higher levels of subjective well-being than any of the non-employed women or their counterparts who engaged in fewer roles (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Crosby & Jasker, 1993). While not all studies of women in multiple roles produced positive results, in no studies were employed women experiencing worse mental and physical health and lower quality of life than non-employed women (Barnett & Gareis, 2006). Bruening and Dixon (2007) found that mothers in the coaching profession felt that working made them better mothers and being mothers improved their coaching abilities.

Although the number of studies is limited, fathers have also been examined in relation to work-family enrichment. Barnett et al. (1992) showed that men's psychological well being benefited equally from their experiences in their employee, spouse, and father roles, with fewer reported physiological symptoms of distress (Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Gore & Mangione, 1983). According to Crosby (1991), multiple roles enhance psychological resources by offering diverse opportunities for gratification and validation of life. Rewarding job experiences offset the negative effects of child-care burdens on mental health (Barnett, Marshall, & Sayer, 1992).

Barnett and Marshall (1993) looked at working fathers who took an active role in the lives of their children and concluded that they were better at coping with other life stressors. As a result, these fathers were reported to be in better physical health. Though not confirmed, this enhancing effect may be the result of the attendant good feelings fathers had about themselves, engendered by having created satisfying relationships with their children. Research concerning fathers concluded that men seek their primary

emotional, personal, and spiritual gratification in their family setting (Farrell & Rosenberg, 1981; Lein, Durham, Pratt, Schudson, Thomas, & Weiss, 1974).

Verdoff, Douvan, and Kulka (1981) reported that men, who hold all three roles of spouse, parent, and paid worker, rated family roles as more critical to their well being than occupational roles. Several additional studies have highlighted the centrality of the paternal role for men's well-being (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). Fathers who are more involved with their children had more stable marital relationships due to the fact that their wives were happier when their husbands were more involved with the children (Kalmijn, 1999). When relationships with their wives and/or children were positive, poor experiences on the job did not have a significant effect on men's distress (Barnett, Marshall, & Singer, 1992). Spending more time with one's own children enhances the perception that work is beneficial to family life and enables one to deal more successfully with individual stress (Hill, 2003).

Work and family roles can have a positive impact on each other, for both men and women, psychologically and physically. These findings are important as it confirms the idea that work and family can be enhancing in an individual's life. Earlier research supports the concept that work and family need not only be conceptualized as separate conflicting spheres but as overlapping spheres that are often in harmony and producing positive outcomes in each sphere (Barnett & Hyde, 2001).

Enhancement and Enrichment

Although empirical evidence for the enrichment perspective exists, it has been within the past six years that two prominent theoretical frameworks have emerged to

explain how this process works. The first has been the concept of enhancement under the direction of Barnett and Hyde (2001). The second is the theory and proposed model of enrichment as put forth by Greenhaus and Powell (2006).

Barnett and Hyde (2001) dismiss the scarcity assumption of multiple role occupation, putting forth instead the Expansionist Theory. Expansionist theory assumes that multiple roles are not harmful per se, but generally beneficial for both men and women. Supporting this assumption is the belief that human energy is a potentially expandable resource. Engaging in multiple roles provides the opportunity to increase the individual's energy supply. Critical to this concept is the concept of role quality.

Role quality is calculated by “subtracting the average concern score from the average reward score for any particular role” (Barnett & Gareis, 2006). As a result positive mental health, physical health, and relationship health are potential outcomes of engaging in multiple roles of a high quality (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). However, the authors acknowledge limitations to their theory. They believe that the expansionist theory, vital to the concept of enhancement, may be culturally and time bound, specifically to Western cultures in recent history.

Regardless of these limitations, the concept of enhancement has focused on the benefits received by the individual engaged in the work and family roles of their life. While these benefits (mental, physical, and relationship health) can serve as an advantage to organizations and families it is not essential to the concept of enhancement. Therefore, organizations may see little benefit in the concept of enhancement. On the other hand enrichment may benefit work and family organizations as well as the individual.

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) offered an alternate theory to explain the positive interaction between work and family roles. They introduced the concept of enrichment. Enrichment is defined as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (p.73). The key difference between enhancement and enrichment is that the enhancement perspective focuses on the benefits to the individual, that is participation in the worker and family role improves or adds to the strength, worth, beauty, or other desirable qualities to the individual. In contrast, enrichment is concerned with the added feature or quality that improves something, in this case the fulfillment of the worker and family role. The concept of enrichment directly affects organizations and families. Because of this implication the enrichment perspective may have more explanatory and practical value to both organizations and families.

A Resource Approach

Key to the enrichment perspective is the concept of resources. A resource is “an asset that may be drawn on when needed to solve or cope with a challenging situation” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p.80). Some resources are tangible, such as physical health or money. Other resources are intangible, such as self-esteem, information, and acceptance, yet are very important to the concept of enrichment because they can be used in the performance of the family or work role. According to Greenhaus and Powell’s model of work-family enrichment, five types of resources may be generated in either the work or family role that can produce a positive effect in the other role, thus improving the quality of life within that role. These five resources are the following: 1) skills and

perspectives, 2) psychological and physical, 3) social-capital, 4) flexibility, and 5) material. Each resource is further described below.

Skills “refer to the broad set of task-related cognitive and interpersonal skills, coping skills, multitasking skills, and knowledge and wisdom derived from role experiences” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80). An example of skills constructed in one role then being used to enrich the performance of another role is the development of conflict resolution skills. In a work environment an employee may belong to an organization that has trained its personnel in how to resolve conflicts on the job. These skills are then seen by the employee to have the potential for use in the home/family environment to resolve conflicts amongst family members. Making use of this skill may lead to a greater degree of job satisfaction at work or family satisfaction at home by positively dealing with conflict.

Perspectives “involve ways of perceiving or handling situations such as respecting individual differences, valuing differences in cultural background, being understanding of other people’s problems, and learning the value of trust” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80). Learning the value of trust may become a new perspective for the worker who has small children. Children often trust their parents wholeheartedly. Having a child and seeing this sense of trust may cause the worker to see if that level of trust can be nurtured and developed at the workplace. After having a child, a person may expand their concept of life to be more than work. They may gain a perspective that life is constantly changing and therefore no longer see change as an unpleasant component of life.

Psychological resources include “self-evaluations, such as self-efficacy, and self-esteem” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80). Also included is personal hardiness, positive emotions about the future, including optimism and hope. An individual may garner a sense of self-worth which comes from being “successful” in their occupation. This sense of self-worth may enrich their sense of being a good parent because they feel they are capable to provide for their family members in a way that the family could otherwise not enjoy.

Physical resources are equated with physical health. Physical health is an important resource as it can influence the individual’s ability to be employed or to enjoy wholesome recreational activities with their family members. This in turn can affect material resources and/or psychological resources.

Social capital resources are considered “influence and information” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80) that assist individuals to achieve their goals. Extended family members may be critical in the building of social capital resources. Family members established in a profession, especially a highly competitive profession such as politics (Kennedy family), art and entertainment (Barrymore family) or sports (Earnhardt family) provide influence, information and connections that foster and elevate family members into these professions.

Flexibility refers to the “discretion to determine the timing, pace, and location at which role requirements are met” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80). Employees who experience flexibility because of the policies of the work place are likely to devote more time to home, children, and relaxation. This leads to having to make fewer tradeoffs,

experiencing less work-family conflict, and feeling better about their parenting than people who work in less supportive organizations.

Material resources “include money and gifts obtained from work and family roles” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80). For example financial resources (money earned, bonuses) from work are important. The greater the material resources the greater the likelihood that a parent may obtain high quality services for their children such as schooling, medical care, and childcare. This may lead to healthier children and children who perform much better at school.

Although the resource model has not been tested, it poses a practical conceptual framework for explaining how work and family may be mutually enriching. Its practicality lies in the concept of the development of resources. It is conceivable therefore, that individuals, work organizations, and families may influence the development of resources which can bring about work-family enrichment.

Conflict and Enrichment: Co-Existing Concepts

Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne and Grzywacz (2006) argued,

Work-family enrichment is conceptually and empirically distinct from work-family conflict. Conflict is a psychological stressor that results from irreconcilable between individuals work and family responsibilities.

Enrichment is essentially a developmental phenomenon whereby individuals acquire gains through their engagement in one domain, and then apply those gains for the betterment of another domain. (p.149)

Conflict remains a relevant and effective concept that explains much of the negative side of work-family role interaction. However, accepting the assumption that the work-family interface has positive qualities that benefit organizations and families, enrichment seems to be a promising conception of work-family interaction. The model of enrichment offers the prospect to demonstrate that individuals, who are engaged in work and family roles, are valuable and productive employees and positive family members. As the concepts of conflict and enrichment are not opposites of each other on a spectrum of work-family role interactions, it is expected that an individual may experience enrichment and conflict at the same time.

In the past, work and family were seen as separate and conflicting spheres, where the best that one could hope for was to achieve balance (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). Earlier, two metaphors for work-family balance were presented. One was that of the work role being on one side of a beam placed in a fulcrum, while family role was on the opposite end. This concept emphasized that compromise must be made between the two roles in order that one role does not displace the other, bringing about negative repercussions. Inherent in this metaphor is that neither families nor organizations receive full benefits from the individual who maintains both the work and family roles.

The second metaphor was that of a juggler who juggles the many responsibilities of work and family, keeping all in a constant motion. However, underlining this concept is the idea that at any time an individual may “drop” one role or both roles. This “crash” will leave a disaster (loss of employment and/or family) that will require this individual to pick up the pieces and try to recover, if possible. In either of these metaphors work and

family are always at odds with each and are not a value to either the family or an organization.

There will be times in life, regardless of how good a person is capable of balancing or juggling the demands of work and family, when conflict will arise (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). For this reason it is assumed that conflict is always present at one level or another, and can never be completely eliminated from life. This does not mean that the simultaneous occupation of both work and family roles will always be negative for families or organizations. A new metaphor may demonstrate this concept. The metaphor is that of a chocolate-vanilla soft swirl ice cream cone, the summer time dessert enjoyed in many regions of the United States. Chocolate and vanilla flavors are not opposites of each other, just as work-family enrichment and work-family conflict are not opposites of each other. Both exist in the same cone (or life). One may experience one flavor more than another at any one bite, just as one may experience more conflict or enrichment at certain times in life (or during the work day/year), but both are always present and existing, making the dessert (life) achieve its full delight.

One cannot completely eliminate conflict, and enrichment may not ever be fully achieved. Further, the perceived absence of conflict does not mean enrichment and the lack of enrichment will not necessitate conflict. Enhancement suggests that the spheres are overlapping and not always competing (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). Enrichment takes it a step further and states that the spheres are not always competing but are helping each other.

The enrichment concept needs to be further explored. For example, do conflict and enrichment exist in the same life (even at the same time)? It is a given, by definition, that organizations and/or families benefit from work-family enrichment. Yet it needs to be determined if the presence of work-family enrichment can overcome the negative outcomes of work-family conflict and help individuals to experience a greater level of positive outcomes which are associated with engaging in both work and family roles.

Coaches are employed in an occupation that typically is not considered a family-friendly profession, one in which a great deal of time is spent away from the family, and one in which a subculture has developed that promotes the idea of success through sacrifice, even of one's own family, while often espousing the importance of family. Therefore, this study seeks to extend prior research in work-family conflict and enrichment by studying coaches to gain a better understanding of how enrichment interacts with conflict, and discover their effects on coaches' levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction.

Conceptual Models

In order to understand the influence of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on coaches levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction, six models were tested (see Figures 7- 12 below). Gender, age, and the presence of children at home were the control variables. These demographic variables have been suggested by existing literature to influence levels of work-family conflict (Byron, 2005; Carlson, 1999; Clark, 2001; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Greenhaus & Buetell, 1985; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Higgins, Duxbury, & Lee, 1994; Thompson

et al., 2006). It has not been determined if these demographic variables influence work-family enrichment, as enrichment is a recent concept. However it seems logical that the variables of age, gender, and the presence of children at home may influence work-family enrichment levels. Similarly previous research further suggests that these variables may influence the outcomes such as life satisfaction and career commitment (Judge & Watanabe, 1993; Kinnunen & Maunos, 1998; Sagas & Cunningham, 2005).

Work-family conflict and work-family enrichment levels for coaches were measured. Six models (see Figures 7-12) were tested in order to capture the bidirectional nature of the work-family interface. As suggested in the literature, both conflict and enrichment may be experienced as work influencing the family or as family influencing work (Greenhaus & Buetell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). For example, coaches often work late nights which may interfere and influence the family life at home. Similarly a family crisis may serve to distract a coach from work responsibilities.

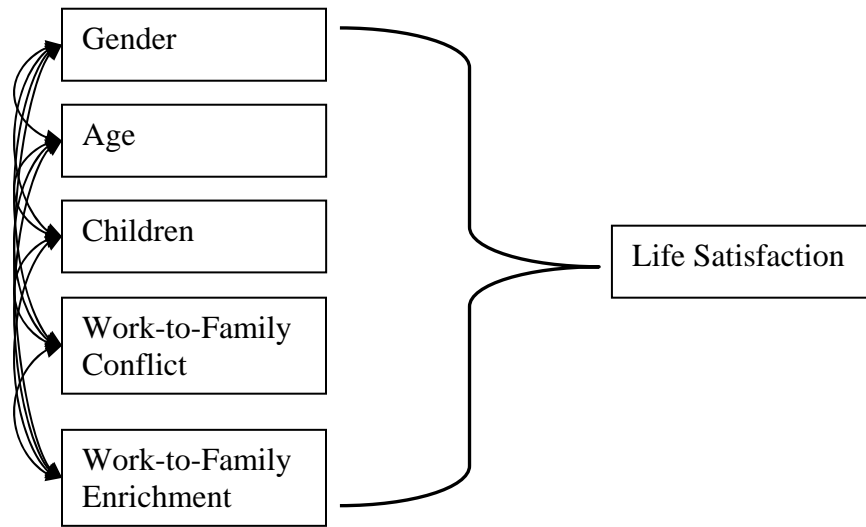


Figure 7. Work-to-family conflict plus work-to-family enrichment contributes to life satisfaction.

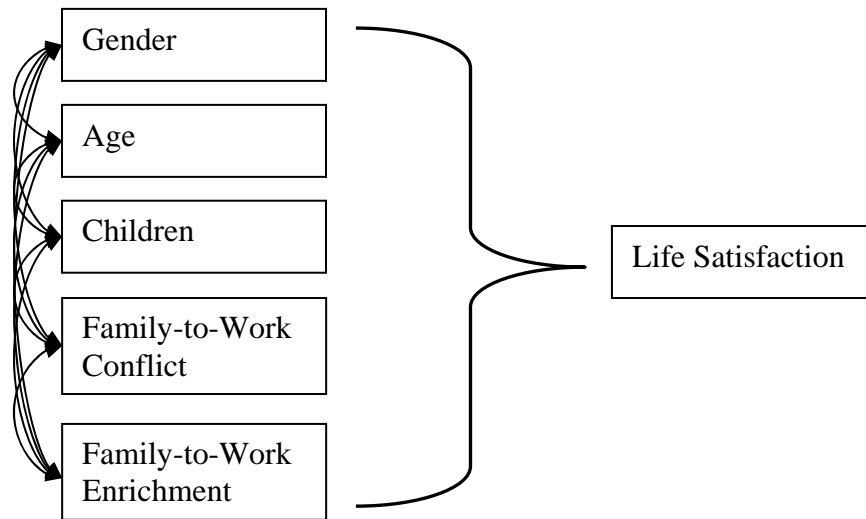


Figure 8. Family-to-work conflict plus family-to-work enrichment contributes to life satisfaction.

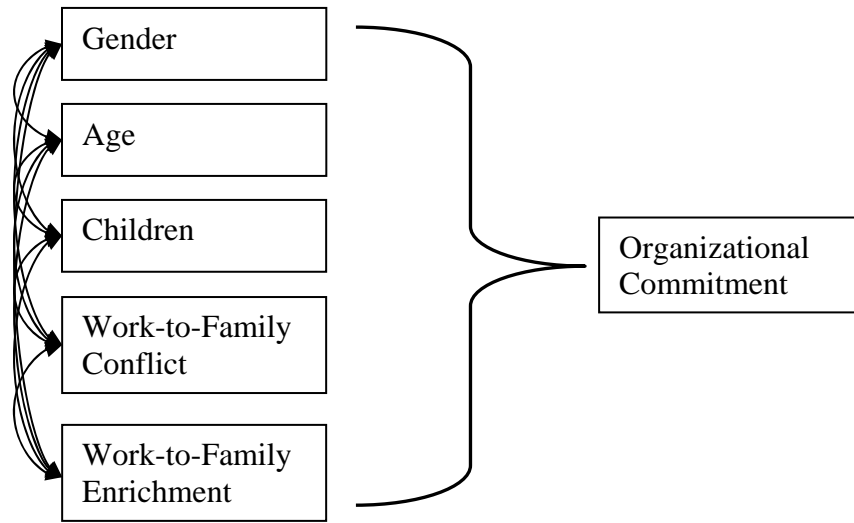


Figure 9. Work-to-family conflict plus work-to-family enrichment contributes to organizational commitment.

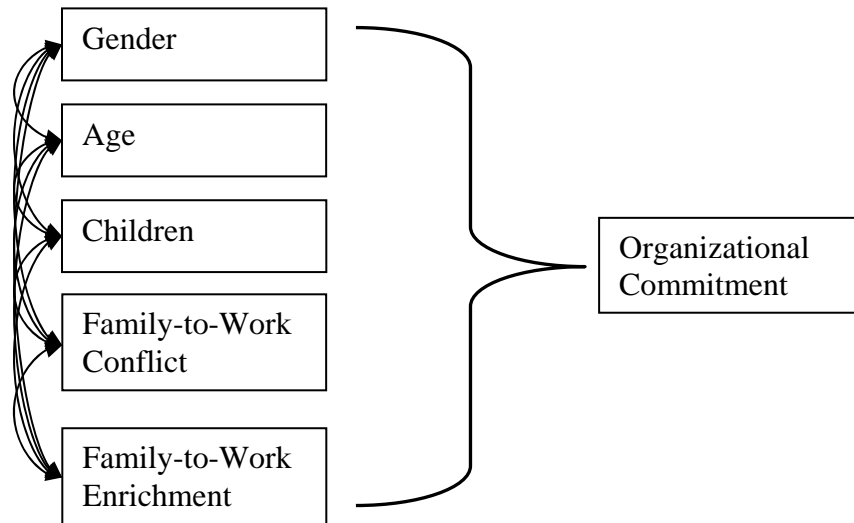


Figure 10. Family to work conflict plus family to work enrichment contributes to organizational commitment.

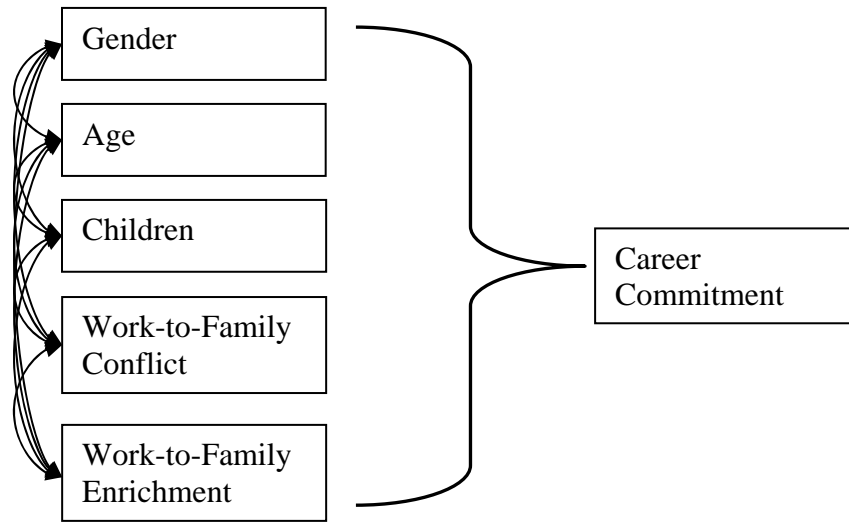


Figure 11. Work to family conflict plus work to family enrichment contributes to career commitment.

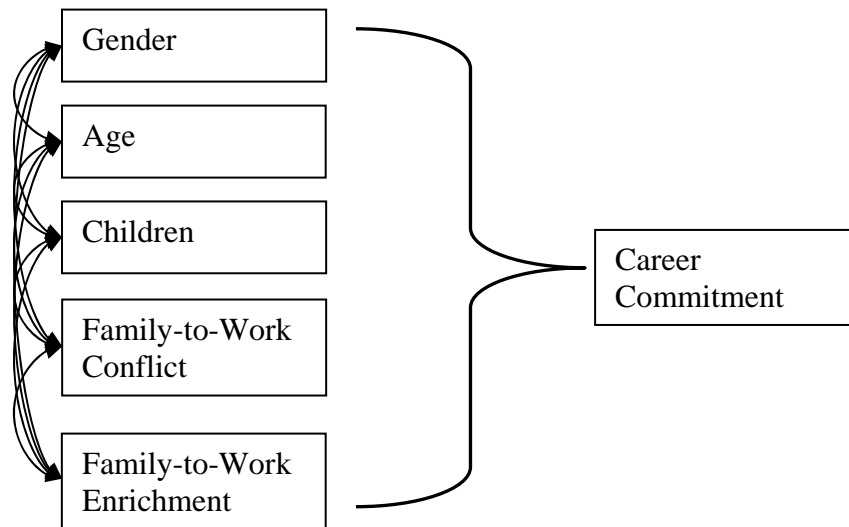


Figure 12. Family-to-work conflict plus family-to-work enrichment contributes to career commitment.

Chapter 3: Method

This chapter provides an overview of the methodology used in conducting this study. First, the procedures in conducting the study are discussed to provide a step-by-step outline of the research. Second, the sample for the study is discussed. Third, the design of the survey instrument used to collect the data is provided. Fourth, each measure used in the study is discussed. This section is divided into control, dependent, and independent variables. Fifth, specific analytical tools used are introduced.

Recruitment Protocol

The approach for this study was a web-based survey following Dillman's (2007) protocol. Participants were recruited from published e-mail addresses located at collegiate athletic websites or from coaching association directories. Participants were sent an e-mail that gave a brief explanation of the study and a link to the survey instrument (see Appendix A). This e-mail included the purpose of the study, and an explanation of the benefits and risks, as well as an explanation of implied consent. Consent to participate was determined by the participants voluntarily going to the site containing the location of the survey. Participants logged onto the website and entered their responses. They did not provide any identifying information, ensuring that the participants' responses were completely anonymous.

The survey took approximately fifteen minutes to complete. The participants would then submit their survey and sign-off. Their information was compiled in a central location (website) with access only to the principal investigator and his advisor.

A follow-up e-mail was sent one week after the initial e-mail. Since it could not be determined who had responded the message thanked those who had responded, but also reminded and requested those who had not participated to do so. This was the only communication with the participants. If a participant had a question, contact information was provided in the consent message sent by email. The data for the study were collected over a four week period.

Sample

There were a total of 4553 collegiate coaches emailed a message inviting them to participate in the study. This large number of emailed requests to participate in the study was made to account for email addresses that were no longer operational (i.e. the email address is listed however the coach has moved onto a different institution) and because it was not practical to determine whether each individual coach met the criteria of being in a familial relationship. While it may have been possible to determine beforehand which coaches had families this may have compromised the random selection of participants.

A total of 441 collegiate coaches throughout the United States opened the on-line survey questionnaire. Two hundred eighty-two participants completed the entire survey and indicated that they were currently in a familial relationship. Incomplete surveys were not included on the data analyses. In order to ensure that the coaches in the study had at least some level of inter-role conflict (Clark, 2001; Dixon & Sagas, 2007) as well as enrichment with their families, a selection of coaches was made for inclusion in this study. Therefore, 109 cases were removed because they either failed to respond to the questions concerning their family composition or they indicated they were not currently

living in a familial home. Therefore, 64% of the coaches who first opened the survey and then completed it made the final sample which consisted of 282 coaches. The participants were men (68 %) and women (32 %) coaches who were also parents. The majority were either married or living with a significant other ($n= 266$). Single parents comprised 6% ($n= 16$) of the final sample. Households which had at least one child in the home made-up 73% of the final sample ($n= 206$). The sample included both head (58 %) and assistant coaches (42 %). They were employed at various NCAA (National Collegiate Athletic Association) Division I (49%), II (17.7%), III (25.4%), or NAIA (National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics) (7.9%) institutions. As to the number of years active as a college coach 42.9% of the participants had worked more than ten years, 32.6% five to ten years and 24.5% less than five years.

Instruments

Control Variables

Demographics. A one page questionnaire was designed to elicit basic demographic information such as age, gender, marital status, children in the home, and university classification. Demographic information was collected for control purposes. Gender, age, and children living at home have consistently accounted for variance in predicting work-family conflict (Byron, 2005; Carlson, 1999; Clark, 2001; Frone et al., 1997; Greenhaus & Buetell, 1985; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Higgins et al., 1994; Thompson et al., 2006); therefore, they were included as controls.

Independent Variables

Work-family enrichment scale. The first independent variable measured was work-family enrichment. Work-family enrichment is defined as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73). It was measured using an eighteen-item scale from Carlson et al. (2006). Carlson et al. (2006) detailed background information for the scale, including development and validation. The scale is bi-directional in that it assesses both directions of work-family enrichment (i.e., work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment). This instrument was chosen as it was the only instrument validated to measure enrichment as defined by Greenhaus and Powell (2006).

Respondents rated the degree to which each statement described their experiences on a five-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Carlson et al. (2006) reported a coefficient alpha of .92 for the whole instrument, indicating high internal reliability. Carlson et al. (2006) also reported that the nine work-to-family items had a coefficient alpha of .92, while the nine family-to-work items achieved a coefficient alpha of .86. In the current study a coefficient alpha of .92 for the whole instrument was likewise achieved. Coefficient alphas of .92 and .91, respectfully, for work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment were achieved, indicating high internal reliability for each scale.

Work-family conflict. Work-family conflict is defined as a form of interrole conflict whereby some functions of each role spill into those of the others (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). It was measured using a ten-item scale from Netemeyer et al. (1996).

The scale is bi-directional in that it assesses both directions of work-family conflict (i.e. work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict). Respondents rated the degree to which each statement described their experiences on a five-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

Netemeyer et al. (1996) reported a coefficient alpha of .88 for work-to-family conflict and of .86 for family-to-work conflict. In the current study a coefficient alpha of .87 for the whole instrument was achieved. Coefficient alphas were .87 and .85, respectfully, for work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict, indicating good internal consistency.

Dependent Variables

Organizational commitment. Affective organizational commitment is defined as the “employee’s desire to remain with the organization because they want to” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 3). Allen and Meyer’s (1990) well-known eight-item scale of affective commitment was used to measure this construct. A five point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) was used to capture responses. Allen and Myer (1990) reported a coefficient alpha of .87 for their affective organizational commitment scale. The current study had a coefficient alpha of .84.

Career commitment. Carless’ (2005) five-item scale was used for measuring career commitment. Career commitment is defined as an “affective attachment to a chosen career role or defined line of work.” It is “characterized by the development of personal career goals, the attachment to, identification with, and involvement in those goals” (Carless, 2005, p. 342). Respondents rated the degree to which each statement

described their experiences on a five-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Carless (2005) reported a coefficient alpha of .83 for the career commitment scale. The current study had a coefficient alpha of .80.

Life satisfaction. Finally, life satisfaction was measured using a single-item global measure created by Near, Rice, and Hunt (1978). For this item, a five point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from not satisfied (1) to extremely satisfied (5) was used to capture responses.

Data Analysis

For each scale, values reported were averaged. Each scale item ranged from 1 to 5. For example the five items used to measure work-to-family conflict ranged from 1 to 5. If a subject scored each item a 5, these were added together and then divided by 5 to produce the mean scale score of 5 (within a range of 1-5). For this example, the subject's mean of 5 indicates that he or she experienced a high level of work-to-family conflict.

Multiple regression was used to analyze each conceptual model. The use of multiple regression was employed in order to establish that a set of independent variables (i.e., work-to-family enrichment and work-to-family conflict) would explain a proportion of variance in a dependent variable (life satisfaction, career commitment, organizational commitment). Multiple regression may also establish the relative predictive importance of the independent variable (by comparing beta weights).

Multiple regression analysis has two primary virtues: It permits use of more than one predictor or independent variable and, most importantly, it permits each independent variable to serve as a control variable for all other independent variables.

In order to determine how much of the unique variance is attributed to any explanatory variable, the semi-partial correlation was used. Unique variance was calculated by squaring the semi-partial correlation and expressing the product as a percentage. For the current study, the unique variance was calculated for each predictor variable that was statistically significant within the respective model.

The following assumptions of multiple regression were checked: linear relationship between independent variables and dependent variables, no measurement error in the independent variables, homoscedasticity of residuals, and that residuals are normally distributed (Whittaker, 2006).

The assumption of linearity between the predictor variables and the dependent variable was checked by plotting unstandardized residuals against the predictor variable and against the unstandardized predicted values. Loess lines fitted in the plots generally followed the horizontal 0-line, indicating that there is linearity between the predictor variables and the dependent variable (Whittaker, 2006).

The assumption that the independent variables are measured reliably was done prior to the running of multiple regression. Reliability analysis indicated whether the predictor variables were measured reliably. A check of coefficient alphas indicated no problems with this assumption (Whittaker, 2006).

In order to detect if the homoscedasticity of residuals assumption had been violated, the saved residuals from running the multiple regression were plotted against each independent variable and against the predicted values. The plots were examined, and

no relationship between the variability of the residuals and either the independent or the predicted values were observed (Whittaker, 2006).

The assumption of normality of the residuals was inspected graphically using a histogram and a normal probability plot. Inspection of the normal probability plot indicated normality of the residuals as residuals did not deviate much from the straight line. Inspection of the histogram indicated that the residuals approximated the normal curve (Whittaker, 2006).

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to examine if work-family conflict and work-family enrichment simultaneously influence job and life outcomes for college coaches. In particular the study sought to determine what portion of unique variance each—conflict and enrichment—contribute to life satisfaction, organizational commitment, and career commitment.

This chapter outlines the results from the analysis of data collected from the participants. It is divided into the following sections: description of the sample, results for multiple regression for conceptual models 1 through 6.

Description of the Sample

Means and standard deviations for each study variable were calculated and are reported in Table 1. For each scale, values reported were summed then averaged. Each scale item ranged from 1 to 5. Bivariate correlations of study variables are reported in Appendix C.

A t-test for dependent samples was conducted to determine significance of the scores for work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. Work-to-family conflict reflected a mean score of 3.52. The family-to-work conflict mean score was 2.43. According to the results $t(281) = 21.852, p < .001$ there were significant differences between work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict, suggesting that coaches perceive more problems with work conflicting with family, than vice versa.

The subjects seemed to experience a high level of overall work-family enrichment. The work-to-family enrichment mean was 3.56, while the family-to-work enrichment mean was 3.73 suggesting that coaches see the family role improving their work role and vice versa. A t-test for dependent samples was conducted determined, $t(281) = -8.285, p < .001$ there were significant differences between work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment.

Regarding the dependent variables of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction, the participants reported average life satisfaction ($M = 3.61$) which was higher than the midpoint of the scale. Overall the subjects' scores appeared fairly neutral and homogenous in their responses concerning organizational commitment with a mean score of 3.10 and a standard deviation of .30.

Table 1

Means, and standard deviations of study variables (N=282)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Age	38.63	9.82
WFC	3.52	.81
FWC	2.43	.78
WFE	3.56	.70
FEW	3.93	.64
Organizational commitment	3.09	.30
Career commitment	3.25	.57
Life satisfaction	3.61	.94

Note. Judgments were made on 5-point scales. WFC = work-to-family conflict; FWC = family-to-work conflict; WFE = work-to-family enrichment; FWE = family-to-work enrichment.

Conceptual model 1

Conceptual model 1 examines the relationship between work-to-family conflict and enrichment on life satisfaction. To address this pathway, a multiple regression analysis was conducted in which the three demographic variables, age, gender and children in the home, along with work-to-family enrichment and work-to-family conflict were entered into the equation as independent variables. The dependent variable was life satisfaction. This pathway is illustrated in Figure 13.

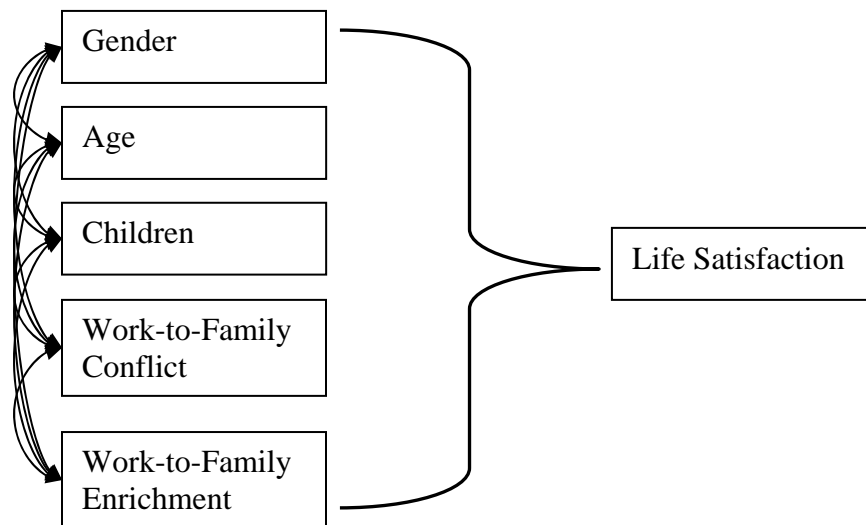


Figure 13. Work-to-family conflict plus work-to-family enrichment contributes to life satisfaction.

A significant overall model emerged ($F(5, 276) = 12.156, p < 0.01$). The adjusted R^2 revealed that the model accounted for 17% of the variance. The regression results of this analysis are reported in Table 2. The results revealed that both work-to-family enrichment and work-to-family conflict were significant in predicting life satisfaction.

The standardized coefficients (beta) give a measure of the contribution of each variable to the model. In relation to life satisfaction, work-to-family enrichment ($\beta = .316$) contributed more to the model than work-to-family conflict ($\beta = -.196$). Work-to-family enrichment's contribution was in a positive direction, meaning that as the level of work-to-family enrichment increases, life satisfaction level increases. Work-to-family conflict's contribution however was in a negative direction. As work-to-family conflict increases, life satisfaction levels decreased.

Unique variance was calculated by squaring the semi-partial correlation and the product was then expressed as a percentage. In relation to life satisfaction, work-to-family enrichment contributed 9.1% of unique variance and work-to-family conflict contributed 3.1% of unique variance, suggesting that both work-to-family conflict and work-to-family enrichment are useful in determining life satisfaction levels.

Table 2.

Multiple regression of work-to-family enrichment and work-to-family conflict on life satisfaction (N=282)

<u>Study variables</u>	<u>Unstandardized Coefficient</u>	<u>β</u>
Gender	.003	.001
Age	-.002	-.025
Children in the home	.082	.043
WFE	.424**	.316
WFC	-.227**	-.196

Note. R^2 = .18, .17; * p < .05, ** p < .01, WFC = work-to-family conflict; WFE = work-to-family enrichment.

Conceptual Model 2

Conceptual model 2 examines the impact of family-to-work enrichment and conflict on life satisfaction. To address this pathway, a second multiple regression analysis was conducted in which the three demographic variables, age, gender and children in the home, along with family-to-work enrichment and family-to-work conflict were entered into the equation as independent variables. The dependent variable was life satisfaction. This is illustrated in Figure 14.

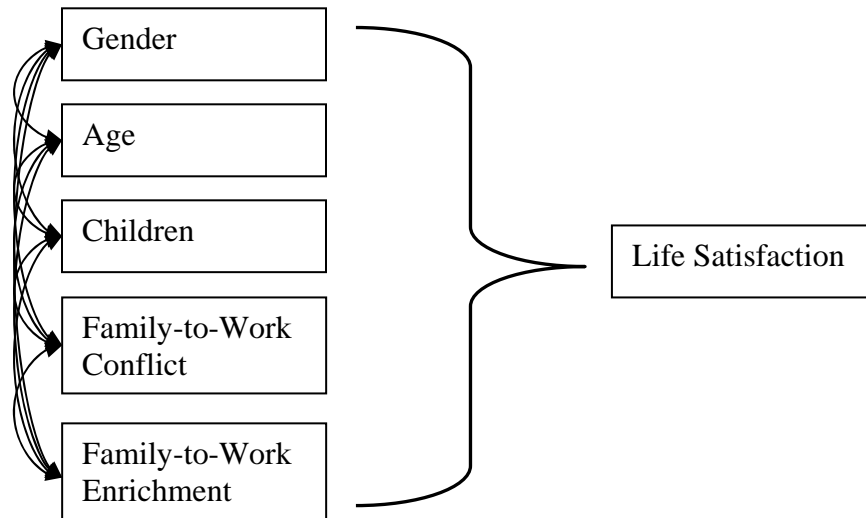


Figure 14. Family-to-work conflict plus family-to-work enrichment contributes to life satisfaction.

A significant overall model emerged ($F(5, 276) = 11.258, p < 0.01$). The adjusted R^2 revealed that the model accounted for 14% of the variance. The regression results of this analysis are reported in Table 3. The results of this analysis revealed that both

family-to-work enrichment and family-to-work conflict were significant in predicting life satisfaction.

In relation to life satisfaction, family-to-work enrichment ($\beta=.288$) contributed slightly less to the model than family-to-work conflict ($\beta=-.266$). Similar to work-to-family enrichment, family-to-work enrichment's contribution was in a positive direction, meaning that as the level of family-to-work enrichment increases, life satisfaction level increases. Family-to-work conflict's contribution however was in a negative direction. As family-to-work conflict increases, life satisfaction levels decreased.

In relation to life satisfaction, family-to-work enrichment contributed 7.8% of unique variance. Family-to-work conflict contributed 6.8% of unique variance. As with the first model, the results suggest that both conflict and enrichment are useful in determining life satisfaction levels.

Table 3.

Multiple regression of family-to-work enrichment and family-to-work conflict on life satisfaction (N=282)

<u>Study variables</u>	<u>Unstandardized Coefficient</u>	<u>β</u>
Gender	-.112	-.055
Age	.002	.017
Children in the home	.031	.016
FWE	.426**	.288
FWC	-.322**	-.266

Note. R^2 = .15, .14; * p < .05, ** p < .01, FWC = family-to-work conflict; FWE = family-to-work enrichment.

Conceptual Model 3

To address model 3, a third multiple regression analysis was conducted in which the three demographic variables, age, gender and children in the home, along with work-to-family enrichment and work-to-family conflict were entered into the equation as independent variables. The dependent variable was organizational commitment. This is illustrated in Figure 15.

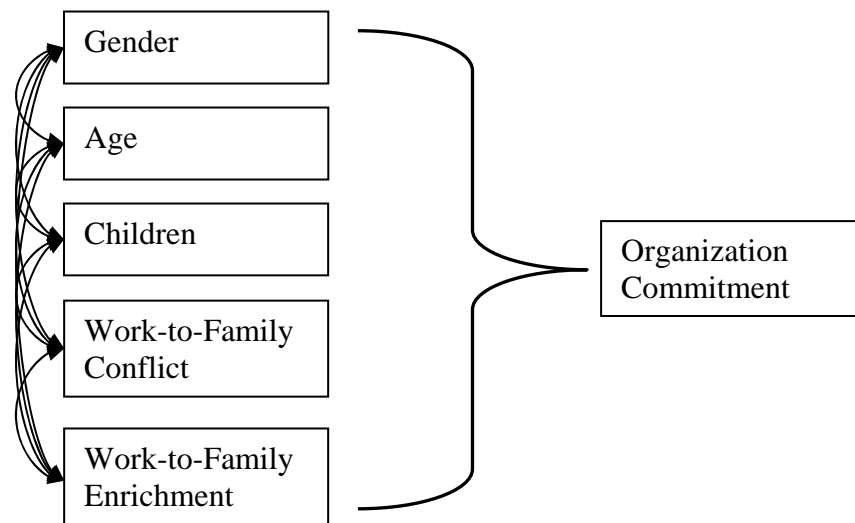


Figure 15. Work-to-family conflict plus work-to-family enrichment contributes to organizational commitment.

The results of this analysis revealed that a significant overall model did not emerge ($F(5, 276) = 1.14, p > .05$). Neither work-to-family enrichment nor work-to-family conflict was significant in predicting organizational commitment. The regression results are reported in Table 4.

Table 4.

Multiple regression of work-to-family enrichment and work-to-family conflict on organizational commitment (N=282)

<u>Study variables</u>	<u>Unstandardized Coefficient</u>	<u>β</u>
Gender	-.082*	-.127
Age	.000	.014
Children in the home	-.020	-.034
WFE	.015	.037
WFC	.025	.069

Note. R^2 = .02, .003; * p < .05, ** p < .01, WFC = work-to-family conflict; WFE = work-to-family enrichment.

Conceptual Model 4

To address model 4, a fourth multiple regression analysis was conducted in which the three demographic variables, age, gender and children in the home, along with family-to-work enrichment and family-to-work conflict were entered into the equation as independent variables. The dependent variable was organizational commitment. This is illustrated in Figure 16.

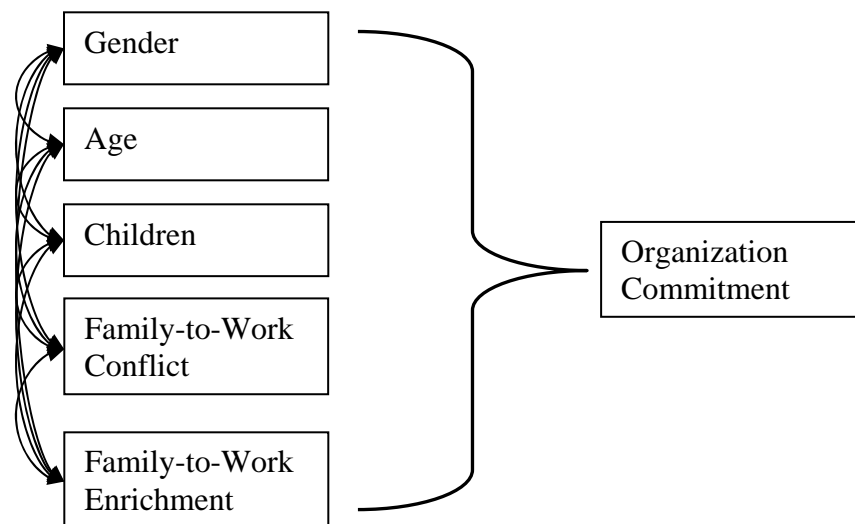


Figure 16. Family-to-work conflict plus family-to-work enrichment contributes to organizational commitment.

The results of this analysis revealed that a significant overall model did not emerge ($F(5, 276) = 1.29, p < .05$). Neither family-to-work enrichment nor family-to-work conflict was significant in predicting organizational commitment. The regression results are reported in Table 5.

Table 5.

Multiple regression of family-to-work enrichment and family-to-work conflict on organizational commitment (N=282)

<u>Study variables</u>	<u>Unstandardized Coefficient</u>	<u>β</u>
Gender	-.087*	-.135
Age	.000	.015
Children in the home	-.026	-.043
FWE	.037	.080
FWC	.015	.039

Note. $R^2=.02, .005$; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, FWC = family-to-work conflict; FWE = family-to-work enrichment.

Conceptual Model 5

To address conceptual model 5, a fifth multiple regression analysis was conducted in which the three demographic variables, age, gender and children in the home, along with work-to-family enrichment and work-to-family conflict were entered into the equation as independent variables. The dependent variable was career commitment. This is illustrated in Figure 17.

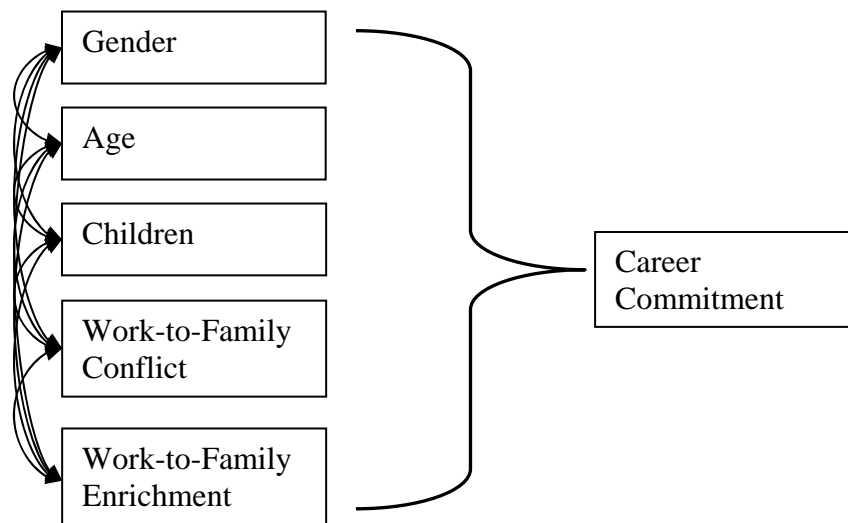


Figure 17. Work-to-family conflict plus work-to-family enrichment contributes to career commitment.

A significant overall model emerged ($F(5, 276) = 11.634, p < .01$). The adjusted R^2 revealed that the model accounted for 16% of the variance. The regression results of this analysis are reported in Table 6. The results of this analysis revealed that work-to-family enrichment was not significant in predicting career commitment. However, work-

to-family conflict was significant in predicting career commitment. Age was also significant in predicting career commitment.

Work-to-family conflict ($\beta = .368$) was a much stronger contributor to the model than was age ($\beta = -.130$). Work-to-family conflict contributed 13.2% of unique variance. The unique variance contributed by age was 1.3%. The results suggest that work-to-family enrichment does not contribute to career commitment.

Work-to-family conflict's contribution was in a positive direction, meaning that as the level of work-to-family conflict increased, career commitment level increases. The results also suggest that as an individual increases in age, his/her commitment to career decreases.

Table 6.

Multiple regression of work-to-family enrichment and work-to-family conflict on career commitment (N=282)

<u>Study variables</u>	<u>Unstandardized Coefficient</u>	<u>β</u>
Gender	-.063	-.52
Age	-.007*	-.130
Children in the home	-.037	-.032
WFE	-.034	-.042
WFC	.257**	.368

Note. R^2 = .17, .16; * p < .05, ** p < .01, WFC = work-to-family conflict; WFE = work-to-family enrichment.

Conceptual Model 6

To address conceptual model 6, a sixth multiple regression analysis was conducted in which the three demographic variables, age, gender and children in the home, along with family-to-work enrichment and family-to-work conflict were entered into the equation as independent variables. The dependent variable was career commitment. This is illustrated in Figure 18.

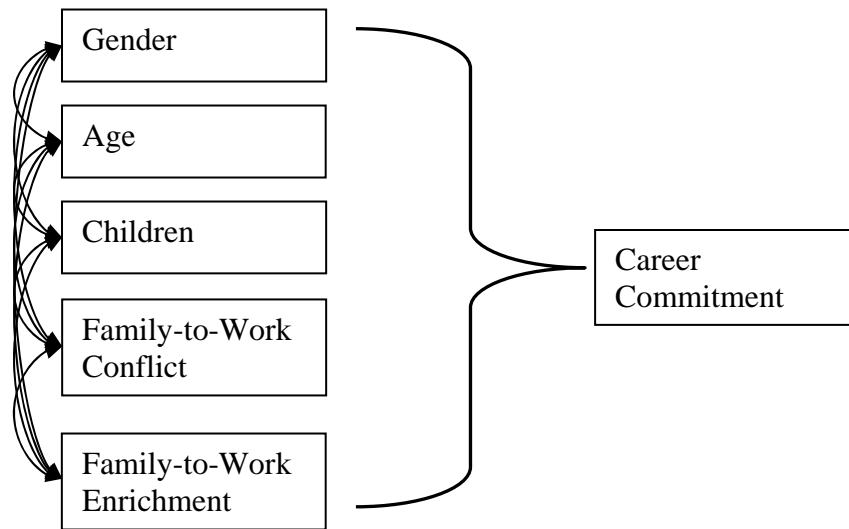


Figure 18. Family-to-work conflict plus family-to-work enrichment contributes to career commitment.

A significant overall model emerged ($F(5, 276) = 2.759, p < .05$). However, the predictability of the model is very low with the adjusted R square showing the model accounted for 3% of the variance. The regression results of this analysis are reported in Table 7.

The results of this analysis revealed that family-to-work enrichment was not significant in predicting career commitment. Yet, family-to-work conflict and age were significant in predicting career commitment.

Unlike conceptual model 5, family-to-work conflict ($\beta=.139$) contributed less to the model than age ($\beta= -.172$). Similar though, the results suggest that as an individual ages their commitment to career decreases. Family-to-work conflict contributed 1.9% of unique variance. The unique variance contributed by age was 1.9%. The results suggest that family-to-work enrichment does not contribute to career commitment. Family-to-work conflict was positively related to career commitment, suggesting that as the level of conflict increases so did the level of career commitment.

Table 7.

Multiple regression of family-to-work enrichment and family-to-work conflict on career commitment (N=282)

<u>Study variables</u>	<u>Unstandardized Coefficient</u>	<u>B</u>
Gender	-.060	-.049
Age	-.010*	-.172
Children in the home	.041	.035
FWE	.007	.008
FWC	.101*	.139

Note. R^2 = .05, .03; * p < .05, ** p < .01, FWC = family-to-work conflict; FWE = family-to-work enrichment.

In summary, six conceptual models were tested which produced four significant models. The results indicated work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment were both significant predictors of life satisfaction. Work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict were significant predictors of life satisfaction and career commitment. Age was a significant predictor of career commitment and a minor contributor to the overall variance of career commitment. Figure 19 illustrates the significant pathways which have been discussed throughout this chapter.

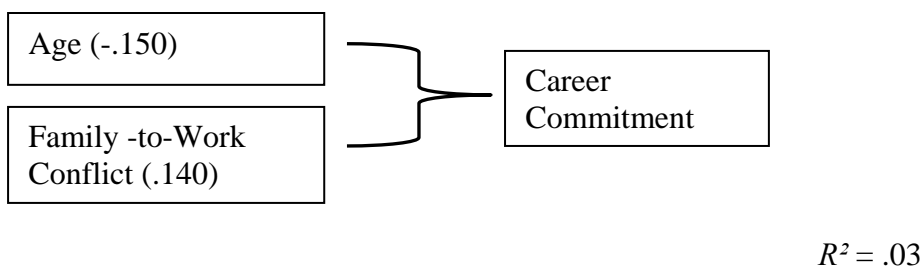
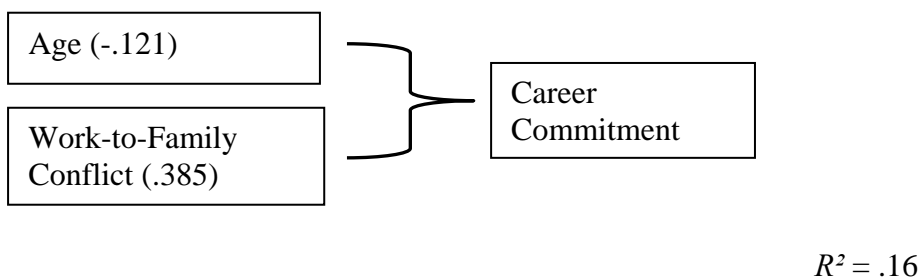
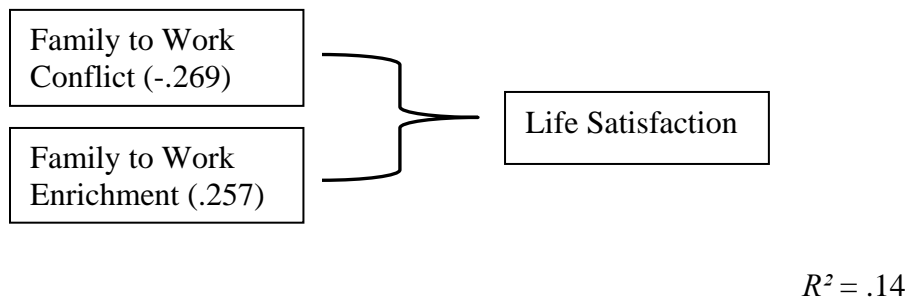
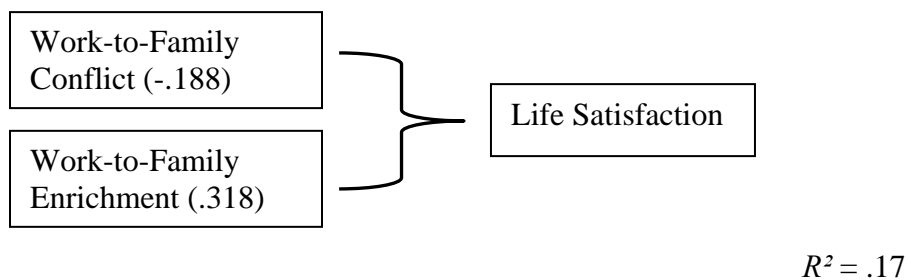


Figure 19. Summary of significant pathways with β weights for each significant variable set in parentheses.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The primary purpose of this study was to examine if work-family enrichment and work-family conflict simultaneously influence job and life outcomes for college coaches, and what portion of unique variance each contributes to life satisfaction, organizational commitment, and career commitment. Six conceptual models were tested and analyzed by multiple regression. This chapter discusses these results and is divided into the following sections: (a) overall levels of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment (b) conceptual models 1 and 2, (b) conceptual models 3 and 4, and (c) conceptual models 5 and 6.

Overall levels of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment

The current study explores the concept that individuals (in this case college coaches) can simultaneously experience both conflict and enrichment. The study indicates that collegiate coaches with families, both mothers and fathers, are indeed experiencing both work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. Likewise, the study helps to confirm that conflict and enrichment are bidirectional (Carless et al., 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) in that the work role affects the family role and the family role affects the work role.

Coaches are similar to other populations in that they reported greater levels of work-to-family conflict ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .81$) than family-to-work conflict ($M = 2.43$, $SD = .78$) (Casper, Martin, Buffardi, & Erdwins, 2002). Concerning enrichment, coaches reported higher levels of family-to-work enrichment ($M = 3.93$, $SD = .64$) than work-to-

family enrichment ($M = 3.56, SD = .70$). It is interesting to note that work-to-family conflict and work-to-family enrichment levels are nearly identical and that coaches do not indicate their occupation as particularly enriching nor conflicting to the family role.

Overall, coaches reported higher levels of enrichment than conflict. Combining the scales from work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment provides an overall level of work-family enrichment. Combining the scales from work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict provides an overall level of work-family conflict. In so doing, the level of work-family enrichment ($M = 3.73, SD = .56$) was substantially higher than work-family conflict ($M = 3.00, SD = .67$).

The reported scores of family-to-work enrichment and family-to-work conflict indicate that a coach's family is a positive influence in their lives. That is, their family role seems to help them in the performance of their work role. While these findings suggest the benefit of the family role in fulfilling the work role, it cannot be determined which resources generated in the family role are benefiting the work role. However, if having a family role benefits the work role, these results may encourage intercollegiate athletic departments in employing coaches with family responsibilities.

Regarding work-to-family conflict, the family role does not conflict highly with the coaches' work role as compared to the work role conflicting with the family role as demonstrated by the level of work-to-family conflict. However it is the work-to-family direction in conflict that has the greatest influence on coaches, supporting the notion that the coaching profession can have a negative effect on family life (Coakley, 1986; Dixon & Bruening, 2007).

Conceptual models 1 and 2

The first two conceptual models focused on the bidirectional nature of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment in relation to life satisfaction. The first model illustrates that work-to-family conflict is significantly related to life satisfaction and accounted for 5.38% of the variance on this dependent variable. As work-to-family conflict levels increased, life satisfaction decreased. Similar to work-to-family conflict, family-to-work conflict had a negative relationship to life satisfaction and accounted for 6.91% of variance. As family-to-work conflict scores increased, life satisfaction decreased. The findings of this study are consistent with previous research indicating that a consistent negative relationship exists among all forms of work-family conflict and life satisfaction, supporting the concept that work-family conflict does detract from life satisfaction (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

Conflict is important to the models, yet within the same models work-family enrichment exhibited its influence as well. Work-to-family enrichment was significantly related to life satisfaction and accounted for 11.99% of the variance. While not quite as strong of an influence as work-to-family enrichment, family-to-work enrichment was also significantly related to life satisfaction and accounted for 7.25% of variance. Whether in the direction of work-to-family or family-to-work, enrichment manifested a positive effect on life satisfaction. Increases in enrichment scores were related to an increase of life satisfaction scores. It should be noted that in both models 1 and 2 the enrichment variable is the greatest contributor to life satisfaction. Enrichment contributed more to life satisfaction than conflict in either model.

These models also show that the absence of conflict does not equal enrichment, nor does the absence of enrichment equal conflict: coaches are experiencing both. The two constructs are intermeshed and both are needed in a model to get a better understanding of outcomes. The results from this study support previous findings that conflict and enrichment are conceptually and empirically distinct and are not opposites on a spectrum (Carlson et al., 2005). While research has focused on the negative outcomes of multiple roles, the results of these models support the concept that the advantages of pursuing multiple roles are likely to outweigh the disadvantages (Barnet & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Likewise, the results from models 1 and 2 convey the logical notion that enrichment should be included in future models of life outcomes.

Conceptual models 3 and 4

Neither work-family conflict nor work-family enrichment (regardless of the direction) was significant in predicting organizational commitment. This finding is interesting. It is expected that work-family conflict would attribute to lower organizational commitment. Work-family conflict is a stressor (Frone, 2003), which has been suggested to contribute to turnover intention (Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Greenhaus et al., 2001). In addition, high turnover has been linked to lower commitment levels (Raedeke, et al., 2002). Therefore, it was expected that organizational commitment would be negatively affected by work-family conflict.

It is unclear how organizational commitment is affected by work-family conflict. Previous research has found that organizational commitment is negatively affected as a result of work-to-family conflict (Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Netemeyer et al., 1996;

Thompson et al., 1999). However, other researchers have found no negative relationship between work-to-family conflict and organizational commitment (Casper et al., 2002). This study supported the findings of Casper et al. (2002) which found that work-to-family conflict did not affect organizational commitment. In addition, the current study found no relationship between family-to-work conflict and organizational commitment.

As for work-family enrichment it is assumed that the positive nature of enrichment would encourage organizational commitment. Wayne, Randel and Stevens (2006) have produced the only study that examined the relationship between organizational commitment and work-family enrichment. Their study suggested that experiencing enrichment may promote greater organizational commitment and retention. However, this was not the result of the current study.

Differences in outcomes may be the result of sample differences. Wayne et al. (2006) acknowledged their study may be limited by the fact that their sample was obtained from a single organization, a major insurance company in the southeastern United States. Differences may also be in the nature and culture of the coaching occupation. It is common to hear in popular media and among coaches the adage “coaches are hired to be fired” (Edes, 2006; Maske, 2007; Pakarinen, 2007) or “it is not if you get fired but when you get fired” (Edwards, 1998). Perhaps it is such beliefs that contribute to coaches not forming a strong attachment to the organization and therefore a lack of organizational commitment. That is, regardless of the direction (work-to-family or family-to-work) or level of conflict or enrichment, coaches expect they will not remain with one particular organization.

The transitory nature of the occupation may foster the belief that job termination may come at anytime from the organization. This belief in turns fosters the concept that coaches need to look out for themselves, be ready to capitalize upon a successful season (or positive publicity) and take any opportunity to secure a more lucrative or stable position within the occupation, therefore coaches may be more willing to leave an organization for another while “the getting is good,” than employees in other occupations.

An additional reason for differences between the current study and Wayne et al. (2006) may be from the instrument used to measure work-family enrichment. Wayne et al. (2006) acknowledged that at the time of their study “there were no well-developed and validated measures of enrichment” (p. 453). In order to measure enrichment they adapted three items from previous research designed to measure each direction (work-to-family and family-to work) enrichment. They further acknowledged that future research should use multidimensional measures of enrichment, specifically the instrument developed by Carlson et al. (2006), which is what the current study employed.

Conceptual models 5 and 6

The final two conceptual models examined the relationship between work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and career commitment. Each year a considerable number of coaches leave the occupation (Raedeke et al., 2002). Models 5 and 6 sought to determine if conflict or enrichment contributed to the level of career commitment.

Similar to organizational commitment, it was initially expected that a high level of work-family enrichment would positively contribute to the level of career

commitment, while a high level of conflict would negatively contribute to career commitment. The logic behind this concept is the belief that work-family enrichment leads to positive outcomes, with one possible positive outcome being career commitment. It is assumed that individuals enter careers (such as coaching) for the long term. It is also believed that individuals who experience the positive nature of work-family enrichment in which “experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p.73) will continue with their roles throughout their working life. As reported in the results, neither work-to-family nor family-to-work enrichment was significant in predicting the level of career commitment.

That there is a negative relationship between work-family conflict and career commitment was assumed because of the results from Kossek and Ozeki’s (1998) meta-analysis that showed a consistent negative relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction. Therefore, individuals with low job satisfaction will seek a new job and possibly a new career. As documented by Dixon and Bruening (2007), work-family conflict does exist in the coaching profession. Further, a considerable number of coaches leave the occupation each year (Raedeke et al., 2002). It is a logical assumption that work-family conflict may be associated with negative career commitment. But the results for this study show that work-to-family and family-to-work conflict is not associated with negative career commitment for coaches.

Work-to-family conflict, which accounted for 15.28% of variance for career commitment had the opposite effect. Similarly, family-to-work conflict accounted for 2.21% of the variance in relation to career commitment. In both work-to-family and

family-to-work conflict there was a positive relationship with career commitment. This might be explained by Carlson and Kacmar (2006) who found that the values individuals hold to work and family roles, such as commitment, influence the outcomes of work-family conflict. If sport nurtures the concept of sacrifice for success, with coaches (and athletes) being praised for sacrificing all other aspects of their lives in pursuit of achieving athletic goals (Dixon et al., 2006; Sage, 1998), perhaps coaches as a whole, value their work roles more than their family roles. They may exhibit a greater commitment to their work role, decide that the family role needs to make sacrifices in order to achieve success in the sport arena, establish their careers and therefore experience a greater level of work-family conflict, especially in the direction of work-to-family.

Another possible reason for the positive association between work-family conflict and career commitment is found in the ideas of Sieber (1974) who put forth the concept that individuals who accumulate roles may compensate for failure in one role by falling back on gratification in another role. Therefore, a coach who experiences a higher level of conflict between work and family roles may seek gratification by being more committed to his occupation and achieving success in his work role. The reason for such a choice is the fact that he has been more involved or experienced in the work role than he is in the family role.

Also of significance in this model was the variable of age. Age contributed 1.28% to 1.87% (depending on the model) of the unique variance. As age increased, career commitment decreased. The result is supported by the work of Evans and Bartolome

(1984) who found that young adults were more career focused and less family centered. Likewise, Carlson and Kacmar (2006) theorized that the importance of work and family roles may fluctuate over time, affecting the consequences of work-family conflict, which in this study was career commitment.

Perhaps this result takes into account that an individual's perspective on life tends to change as they mature. For example as individuals age and sacrifices (i.e. finances and time) are made in behalf of their family role, they may make family a higher priority than their career. Instead of a poor season being the reason for a coach ending a career, often the concept of spending more time with family is given for a coach's resignation or retirement. Often this reason is ridiculed as a noble excuse, but perhaps spending more time with family is a valid reason for leaving the coaching occupation.

Gender was not significant to the overall models tested. It seems that the most logical explanation to this result comes from Hill (2003) in which he found that men and women report similar levels of work-family conflict, however the differences between the genders come as a result of how or when work-family conflict is experienced. Similarly Milkie and Peltola (1999) that men and women reported similar levels of success in achieving work-family balance, however the way they achieve such balance may be different.

This study made no allowance to determine if the experience of men and women were different; it simply measured the levels of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. Future research should be conducted to discover if gender does influence the experience of conflict and enrichment within the coaching ranks.

Another possible explanation for gender not being significant for the models may lie in the lessons on the athletic fields. As mentioned earlier coaches are involved in a field where sacrifice is encouraged. This concept may be equally embraced by both men and women and may be of greater influence than gender. Also of importance may be the personalities of the coaches themselves. Individual personality may be related to levels of work-family conflict (Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson (2004) reported that individual personality may be related to levels of work-family conflict and work-family facilitation experienced. Individuals who are drawn to coaching may exhibit certain personality characteristics which once again may be more influential than gender to the models presented in the study.

As to the presence of children in the home being significant in the models the study did not seek to determine the child care situations of the coaches. It is not clear from the sample if the coaches, their spouses, or another individual (i.e. grandparent) are the primary care giver. Likewise this study did not determine spouses or partners employment status which may greatly influence their child care options. For example if a coach has a partner who stays at home and takes care of the duties required to manage a household, the coach may experience greater levels work-family enrichment or life satisfaction. This is a factor which should be explored in future research.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

This study has investigated two concepts of the work-family interface, namely work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. Specifically, this study examined whether work-family enrichment and work-family conflict simultaneously influence job and life outcomes for college coaches, and what portion of unique variance each contributes to these outcomes: life satisfaction, organizational commitment, and career commitment. The results indicate that coaches are experiencing work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. This chapter offers overall conclusions and contributions of this study to the dialogue of work-family literature. Limitations and directions for future research are also presented.

Overall conclusions

In summary, the coaches believed that their experiences in their work role contributed to and improved their quality of life and helped them to fulfill family roles. Likewise, their family role seems to improve their quality of life and helps them to fulfill their work role. These findings support the notion that work experiences can enrich family life and that the coaches' family role benefits their work role. However, this study is not able to determine which resources are being used, how they are developed, and which are of the greatest consequence in assisting coaches from one role to another.

Prior studies that examined the relationship between work and family life emphasized the conflicting responsibilities and time commitments of professional and familial roles, but this study supports a growing consensus that researchers have

traditionally underestimated the positive outcomes attached to work-family enrichment. In fact, work-family enrichment may contribute more to perceived life satisfaction than work-family conflict detracts from it. Furthermore, this study supports the concept that the advantages of pursuing multiple roles may outweigh the disadvantages (Barnet & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Future models of life outcomes must acknowledge and account for the potential benefits of work-family enrichment, lest they overemphasize an outdated sociological model that fails to consider the positive effects of adopting multiple social roles simultaneously.

Contributions

The findings within this study are important because they suggest that individuals do experience work-family conflict and work-family enrichment in the same occupation. According to the results, work-family conflict is present in the lives of collegiate coaches but so is work-family enrichment. The results also indicated that the simultaneous occupation of both work and family roles is not always negative for individuals, families, or organizations. This adds validity to the metaphor of the work-family interface being viewed as a chocolate-vanilla soft swirl ice cream cone. As pointed out, chocolate and vanilla flavors are not opposites of each other, just as work-family enrichment and work-family conflict are not opposites of each other. Both exist in the same cone (or life). Individuals may experience one flavor more than another at any one bite, just as one may experience more conflict or enrichment at certain times in life, but both are always present and existing, making the dessert (life) achieve its full delight. Similarly the results further demonstrate that the directionality of conflict and enhancement are not equally

contributing to similar outcomes. Therefore, further research should incorporate measurements of directionality (work-to-family and family-to-work).

Contrary to the abundance of research on how individuals' work and family lives can conflict, research in the area of work and family has recently begun to explore how individuals' work and family lives may enrich each other. Researchers have called for a more balanced approach that recognizes the positive effects of combining work and family roles (Barnett, 1998; Frone, 2003; Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The current study has contributed to this appeal and expands the growing literature on this topic.

The current study offers a contribution to the work-family literature by exploring the positive side of enrichment. In addition, this is currently the only study to examine conflict and enrichment in relation to career commitment, an important consideration in a job market where long term commitments between employee and employer have become increasingly rare. While this study reveals that college coaches view their families as positive influences in their careers, it also suggests that work-family conflict tends to increase a coach's career commitment. This increased career commitment does not translate to a specific organization. However, a coach's organizational commitment is not associated with either work-family conflict or work-family enrichment.

In terms of practical implications, the reported scores of family-to-work enrichment and family-to-work conflict are encouraging to coaches who are considering the addition of the family role in their life. As the results suggest, a coach's family is a positive influence in their life. Their family roles frequently help them in the performance

of their work role and rarely conflict with the work role. These results may also encourage intercollegiate athletic departments in employing coaches with family responsibilities. For athletic directors who make the final decisions on hiring and firing coaches, this study suggests that a coach's work-family conflict and work-family enrichment have little bearing on his or her performance or institutional commitment. While conflict and enrichment may positively affect individual quality of life, they do not negatively impact organizational or career commitment. Athletic directors might even consider giving preferential consideration to coaches with families, as the benefits of work-family enrichment seem to outweigh any potential negatives from work-family conflict. Further, research investigating which aspects of family life and which responsibilities of a coach's family role contribute to their work performance might make the process of enrichment more clear, and allow decision makers to identify those individuals more likely to experience the positive aspects of assuming a work and family role simultaneously.

Limitations

This study offers an important contribution to the literature on the potential benefits of work-family enrichment, but there are limitations. The first limitation includes the sample. Since this study focused on collegiate coaches, the generalization of the findings could be limited to coaches of collegiate sports. Differences in the nature of coaching at various levels may result in different results for high school coaches. The coaches of this study work in the collegiate setting, therefore they often have greater flexibility in their work hours than, for example, a high school coach whose work day is

much more structured during the day, but who may not have the same commitment to travel and time away from home that is experienced by a collegiate coach. Such differences may affect how work-family conflict is managed or experienced.

A further limitation is that the study only considers the voluntary responses of coaches who chose to participate in the attached survey, and the voluntary nature of this response could have biased my data in favor of enrichment.

Additional limitations include the statistical analysis design. With multiple regression only relationships can be ascertained, not causality. Therefore, independent variables that were significant in a model cannot be assumed to cause the outcomes of increased or decreased levels of career commitment or life satisfaction. Likewise, the cross-sectional nature of the data does not allow for causal inference. Neither can it be determined if either work-family conflict or work-family enrichment levels are increasing or decreasing as the data only describes the current population.

Directions for future research

While this study has focused on intercollegiate coaches, future research should expand the occupational base of sport and examine the work-family interface in the lives of other employees in the sport industry including sport information directors, sport marketers, executives, athletic directors, facility managers, etc. Further research may also examine the differences in work-family enrichment and work-family conflict among coaches of different sports, such as high profile sports (e.g., football, basketball) and minor sports (e.g., cross country, rowing), as this study included a wide variation of collegiate sports and made no distinction in analysis. Similarly, this study included all

levels of collegiate sport and did not attempt to examine if coaches at the various levels of collegiate sport (e.g., NCAA Divisions I, II, and III) experience different levels of work-family enrichment and work-family conflict.

Additional research such as a qualitative study may reveal insights into the resources generated among the coaching profession which contribute to work-family enrichment. It is still unclear which resources coaches perceive as important to the concept of enrichment, how those resources are generated, and how they contribute to life quality from one role to the other role. A better understanding of the factors that contribute to work-family enrichment will potentially allow coaches to modify their dual work and family roles to experience the benefits of enrichment. Additionally, identifying the specific resources that contribute to enrichment may make it possible for athletic directors to identify those coaches whose family situations make them most likely to experience high levels of enrichment.

As work-family enrichment research goes forward, researchers will need to explore the effects of dual roles on other family members. The concept of enrichment focuses on benefits to the worker engaged in both roles. While the workers acknowledge benefits to themselves, can it be determined that their families benefiting? Such work has been carried out for work-family conflict and the same needs to be done for work-family enrichment (Stewart & Barling, 1996).

Similarly, such work needs to be carried out to see if there is value in work-family enrichment for organizations. This study found no relationship between organizational commitment and work-family enrichment, but other work related outcomes, such as job

satisfaction, turnover rate and interest in other coaching jobs, might be impacted by enrichment. If further studies determine that work-family enrichment produces outcomes beneficial to family and work organizations, athletic directors will promote organizational environments that foster enrichment. Research could examine if family-supportive organization practices (Allen, 2001), or the culture of the workplace can nurture enrichment.

More research is needed, especially in the area of work-family enrichment to examine if the findings of this study can be replicated with other industries, which in turn will help determine if the present findings are unique to coaching and/or the sport industry. Work-family enrichment is a relatively new concept (in comparison to work-family conflict) that will benefit from further research in order to provide deeper understanding of the work-family experience.

Appendix A

Consent Form

Dear Coach,

The past decade has seen a marked increase in concern for work and family balance. This survey seeks to build upon previous research by examining work-family enrichment and conflict within the lives of college coaches. We would like your opinions on this issue, and invite you to share approximately 15 minutes of your time in completing the survey.

Your participation will consist of completing the online survey at the link listed at the bottom of the page. Although it is not clear that you will benefit directly from this study, your participation will help others in the future by providing valuable information about how universities can help employees balance work and family.

Your participation in this research is voluntary. You may refuse or discontinue your participation at any time. By submitting this questionnaire, you are indicating your willingness to participate freely in this research study, and the return of the questionnaire will be considered your consent to participate. You are further indicating that all of your present questions have been answered in a language you understand.

Simply click on the link, answer the questions and click on “submit.” Your response is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Jarrod Schenewark
Doctoral Student
University of Texas at Austin
JSchenewark@yahoo.com

Professor Marlene Dixon
Advisor
University of Texas at Austin

P.S.: If you have questions about your rights as a research participant or complaints about the research, please contact the Office of Research Compliance and Support at (512) 471-8871 or email: orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu.

Appendix B

Instrument

INSTRUMENT

Demographics:

1) What is your gender? Male ____ Female ____

2) What is your age? _____

3) What is your present marital status?

1. Never married ____ 2. Married ____ 3. Partner ____ 4. Separated/Divorced ____ 5. Widowed ____

4) How many children do you have? _____

How many children currently live at home? _____

Number of children, age: 0-5 ____ 6-12 ____ 13-18 ____

Number of children who are: Male ____ Female ____

5) What is the current classification of your university?

NCAA Division I ____ II ____ III ____ NJCCA ____ NAIA _____

6) What sport(s) do you coach?

7) Are you the: Assistant coach ____ Head coach ____

8) Does your spouse work outside the home? Yes ____ No ____

Are they employed: Full-time ____ Part-time _____

9) How long have you been at your current institution?

10) How long have you been active as a college coach?

Work-family enrichment (Carlson, D.S., Kacmar, K.M., Wayne J.H., & Grzywacz, J.G., 2006):

To respond to the items that follow, indicate your agreement with the entire statement using the scale provided below. Please note that in order for you to strongly agree (4 or 5) with an item you must agree with the *full* statement. Take for example the first statement: My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.

To strongly agree, you would need to agree that (1) your work involvement helps you to understand different viewpoints *AND* (2) that these different viewpoints transfer to home making you a better family member.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

- 1) My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.
- 2) My involvement in my work helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member.
- 3) My involvement in my work helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member.
- 4) My involvement in my work puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member.
- 5) My involvement in my work makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member.
- 6) My involvement in my work makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member.
- 7) My involvement in my work helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member.
- 8) My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member.
- 9) My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member.
- 10) My involvement in my family helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker.

- 11) My involvement in my family helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker.
- 12) My involvement in my family helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker.
- 13) My involvement in my family puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker.
- 14) My involvement in my family makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker.
- 15) My involvement in my family makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker.
- 16) My involvement in my family requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker.
- 17) My involvement in my family encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker.
- 18) My involvement in my family causes me to be more focused at work and this helps me be a better worker.

Work-family conflict (Netemeyer, Boles, & McCurrian, 1996):

The following ten items pertain to your perceived level of work-family conflict. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following ten statements according to the five point index below:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

- 1) The demands of my work interfere with my home and family.
- 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 home do not 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.

Organizational Commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990):

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

- 1) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
- 2) I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
- 3) I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- 4) I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.
- 5) I do not feel like part of the family at my organization.
- 6) I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization.
- 7) This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
- 8) I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

Career Commitment (Carless, 2005):

- 1) The costs associated with the work of a college coach sometimes seem too great.

- 2) Given the problems I may encounter as a college coach, I wonder if I will get enough out of it.
- 3) Given the problems I may encounter as a college coach, I wonder if the family and/or relationship difficulties will be worth it.
- 4) If I had all the money I needed without working, I would probably still work as a college coach.
- 5) I will work as a college coach for the remainder of my life.

Life Satisfaction (Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1978):

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statement according to the five point index below:

Not Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Fairly Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

- 1) Considering everything, how satisfied are you with life in general at the present time?

Appendix C

Bivariate correlations table

Table 8

Bivariate correlations of study variables (N=282)

Variable	No. of Items	WFE	FWE	WFC	FWC	Org. C.	Career C.	Life Sat.	Child	Gender	Age
WFE	9	1.00									
FWE	9	.409**	1.00								
WFC	5	-.328**	-.053	1.00							
FWC	5	-.091	-.121*	.429**	1.00						
Org. C.	8	.012	.052	.054	.040	1.00					
Career C	5	-.163**	.005	.398*	.148**	.130**	1.00				
Life Sat.	1	.382**	.312**	-.297**	-.295**	-.016	-.244**	1.00			
Children		.034	.083	-.007	.040	.000	-.002	.047	1.00		
Gender		.005	.130*	.007	-.093	-.123*	-.019	-.001	-.230**	1.00	
Age		.009	-.100	-.124*	-.022	-.033	-.151*	.014	.294**	-.287*	1.00

** $p < .01$ * $p = .05$

Legend: WFC=work-to-family conflict; FWC=family-to-work conflict; WFE=work-to-family enrichment; FWE=family-to-work enrichment; Org. C.=organizational commitment; Career C.=career commitment; Life Sat.=life satisfaction; Child=children in the home

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