The aim of the study was to find out the bi-directional relationship between workstress and marital relation. The purpose was to develop an understanding of the psychological interface of such a complex relationship by specifically examining the positive and negative spill over between work and marital roles with their antecedents and outcomes. Using mail survey and a total sample of fifty (50), dual earner persons made of twenty one (21) females and twenty nine (29) males from Ghana, linear regression analysis was employed to test the various hypotheses. Findings indicate that the hypothesis that workstress would impact negatively on marital relations was supported (P<0.01, F (8, 442) = 0.006). In addition, the hypothesis that males and females would be significantly different with regard to the coping mechanism used as a result of the interaction between workstress and marriage was not confirmed (P>0.05, F (1, 19) = 0.23); (P>0.05,F (1, 23) = 0.69). Finally, the hypothesis that there would be significant relationship between one's coping strategy and the quality of family relations was not supported (P>0.01, F=. 653).

Keywords: Stress, workstress, work/nonwork, marital relations, positive spillover, negative spillover

INTRODUCTION

Stress has generally been viewed as a set of neurological and physiological reactions that serves an adaptive function (Franken, 1994). Situations of stress can be interpreted as harmful, as threatening, or as challenging, with so many factors that can contribute to stress and the eminent difficulty to define the concept of "stress". According to Selye (1982) an important aspect of stress is that a wide variety of dissimilar situations are capable of producing the stress response such as fatigue, effort, pain, fear, and even success. This led to several definitions of stress, each of which provides different aspects of stress. One of them is the Biopsychosocial Model of Stress (Bernard and Krupat, 1994) which involves three components: an external component, an internal component, and the interaction between the external and internal components.

The external component of the Biopsychosocial Model of stress involves environmental events that precede the recognition of stress and can elicit a stress response. The stress reaction is elicited by a wide variety of psychosocial stimuli that are either physiologically or emotionally threatening and disrupt the body's homeostasis (Cannon, 1932).

The internal component of stress involves a set of neurological and physiological reactions to stress. This is linked to Hans Selye (1982) definition of stress as "nonspecific" in that the stress response can result from a variety of different kinds of stressors and focused on the internal aspects of stress. The set of responses was termed as the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS), composed of Alarm Reaction, Stage of Resistance and Exhaustion which is viewed as a set of reactions that mobilize the organism's resources to deal with environmental threats. Alarm Reaction corresponds to neurological and physiological responses linked to the sympathetic nervous system and the pituitary glands. The sympathetic nervous system stimulates the adrenal glands. During perceived stress or threat, the adrenal glands release corticosteroids whilst the pituitary glands release adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) both of which increase metabolism that provides immediate energy for the fight-or-flight mechanism. When the threatening situation continues for a long time, a continued state of arousal known as Stage of Resistance increases the level of hormones which may harm internal organs of the organism that has the potential to weaken the organs and make them susceptible to disease. After prolonged resistance, The Exhaustion stage occurs where the stored body's energy gets depleted and eventually leads to exhaustion and breakdown of systems of the body. Hence diseases caused by stress occur in the resistance stage which Selye refers to as...
“diseases of adaptation” that include high blood pressure, cardiovascular and kidney diseases.

The third component of the bio psychosocial model of stress is the interaction between the external and internal components, involving the individual’s cognitive processes. The cognitive model which was propounded by Lazarus and colleagues (1984) refer to it as a transaction between the individual and the environment. According to this theory, the appraisal of events plays an important role in the magnitude of the stress response and the kind of coping mechanisms that people use to manage their stress. They intimated that, the cognitive appraisal of stress is a two-part process which involves a primary appraisal and a secondary appraisal. Primary appraisal involves the determination of an event as stressful. During primary appraisal, the event or situation can be categorized as irrelevant, beneficial, or stressful. If the event is appraised as stressful, the event is then evaluated as a harm/loss, a threat, or a challenge. Secondary appraisal occurs after assessment of the event as a threat or a challenge. During secondary appraisal the individual now evaluates his or her coping resources and options. Stress arises only when a particular transaction is appraised by the person as relevant to his or her well-being.

Research shows that, health problems and increased accidents are associated with stressful work demands, job insecurity and changes in job responsibilities (Bernard and Krupat, 1994). Many of us say we are stressed when we deal with a frustrating work situation, or when we experience relationship difficulties.

Work and marital roles are among the most salient of adult life, and married women and men are increasingly likely to share both economic and domestic responsibilities throughout the life course (Moen, 1992; Spain and Bianchi, 1996). Currently a majority of married mothers with children under age six are employed and employed wives contribute significantly to their families' total income (White and Rogers, 2002). In addition, women, like, men appreciate the personal rewards from paid work and value job advancement (Hodson, 1996). With respect to marriage, although marriage rates have declined in recent years, the great majority of men and women continue to marry (Cherlin, 1992). Although rates of divorce continues to be historically high, remarriage after divorce continues to occur for most women and men (Teachmen et al., 2000), suggesting that people place a high value on marriage.

Work-related stress is the result of a conflict between the role and needs of the individual employee and organisational, personal or ergonomic factors in their work place. There can also be an unacceptable tension between the demands of work and the individuals’ life outside work. As stated by McCarthy, stress is often typified by a lack of control over conditions at work (2004).

The workers life away from the job can cause stress on the job. Burke and Weir, (1977) found that a close supportive marriage in which an employee can informally discuss job problems with his or her spouse is likely to prevent or reduce on the job stress and increase both family and occupational satisfaction. In contrast, a less successful marriage can intensify, if not create stress at work.

As Quick et al. (1997) indicated, work stress comes as a result of multiple actors. These include :(a) culture of the work, composed of lack of communication and consultation, a culture of blame when things go wrong and denial of potential problems. Again an expectation that people will regularly work excessively long hours or take work home with them.(b) Demands on the job that is, too little to do, too little time, too little or too much training, boring or repetitive work and the working environment in which there is lack of control over work activities and role- staff feeling that the job requires them to behave in conflicting ways at the same time and where there is confusion about how everyone fits (in) relationship- poor relationship with others , bullying, racial or sexual harassment.(d) support and the individual- lack of support from managers and co-workers, not being able to balance the demands.(e) change- uncertainty about what is happening and fears about job security.

Elaborating further on the sources of workstress, Kahn et al (1964) stated ‘role ambiguity’ and later they, and Beehr (1976) and Schuler (1980), conceptualized it as the lack of specificity and predictability concerning an employee’s job or role functions and responsibilities. Others (Beehr, 1985; Cooper, 1981; Terborg, 1985) subsequently added that role ambiguity is an objective situation at work in which there is insufficient, misleading, or restricted flow of information pertaining to one’s work role (Pearce, 1981), but it should not be operationalized in terms of uncertainty (Beehr and Bhagat, 1985).

Gupta and Jenkins (1985), in a study on dual-career couples, intimated that people in such relationships can experience many types of conflicts, depending on whether the conflicts are with one’s spouse or family role, one’s work role, or between the two.

According to Gupta and Jenkins (1985), the magnitude of work-nonwork stress is likely to be particularly severe for members of two-career relationships. With expanded work and family responsibilities for both partners, the likelihood of work-nonwork time conflicts increases, the stressors in the work and non-work domains can easily cumulate and the resultant strains may spill over into other life roles. In addition to the usual stressors, workingmen and women encounter in their work and non-work roles two types of inter-individual (between partner) stressors have been identified as unique to two–career couples (Gupta and Jenkins, 1985).

According to Frone’s (2003) review, family dissatisfaction and poor performance in one’s family role
are caused when work problems “spill over” to the family domain. When family problems spill over to one’s work domain it also results in work role-related problems, such as withdrawal behaviours (except for quitting, because that would create a host of other family-role problems) and poor performance. Both work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict have been studied as having negative effects such as psychological distress, abuse of alcohol, and poor physical health (Frone, 2003).

The home can be a relief from job stress and a sanctuary in which to regenerate or it can be a source of turmoil (Ivancevich and Mattenson 1987). Home stressors include family structure and the quality of family relationships and financial concerns (Johnson, 1997). Work-related variables that have been shown to help protect people from experiencing work-family conflict or its effects include supervisor support and informal work accommodations to family. Specifically, work role conflict has been found to be positively related to work-to-family conflict for people who have low levels of supervisor support, but not for those who have high support (Fu & Shaffer, 2000). In addition, making more frequent adjustments to one’s work patterns in order to accommodate family responsibilities attenuates the positive relation between family-to-work conflict and work stress (Benson, 2002a).

Consistent with the boundary /border theory (Ashforth et al., 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996) and border theory (Clark, 2000; Michaelson and Johnson, 1997), each of a person’s roles takes place within a specific domain of life, and these domains are separated by borders that may be physical, temporal, or psychological (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000). Specifically it addresses the issue of “crossing borders” between domains.

The theories indicated, the flexibility and permeability of the boundaries between people’s work and family lives will affect the level of integration, the ease of transitions, and the level of conflict between these domains. Flexibility is described as the degree to which the boundaries between domains may shift (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000). For example, can an employee work at home, or is she restricted to the workplace? Can an employee work whichever hours he chooses, or is he limited to regular work hours? Permeability is “the degree to which elements from other domains may enter” (Clark, 2000, p. 756).

In other words, when one is in a particular domain, how easy is it for people, materials, and thoughts from another domain to enter? According to boundary/border theory, boundaries that are flexible and permeable facilitate integration between work and home domains. When these domains are relatively integrated, transitions should be easier, but work-family conflict should be more likely. Conversely, when these domains are segmented, transitions should be more effortful, but work-family conflict should be less likely. Thoits (1992) indicated that, being a spouse is highly salient for the self-concepts of both married women and men, second only to being a parent. In contrast, being a worker ranks approximately fifth in salience for women and men, lower than being a friend or a churchgoer. Additional research attests to a range of material, sexual, social and emotional benefits associated with being married (Mirowski and Ross, 1989; Stack and Eshelman, 1998).

A lot of research has been conducted on family-to-work conflict and work stress but results are general and not specific to Ghana. Hence an increased need to study the bidirectional relationship that exists between workstress and marriage, with the further objective of analysing their implications for human resource practices as well as family counselling interventions. The purpose of this study was to develop an understanding of the psychological interface of such a complex relationship by specifically examining the positive and negative spill over between work and marital roles with their antecedents and outcomes.

The outcome of the study has the potential to improve the quality of life of dual-career couples which is likely to increase organisational outcome and national productivity. Hence the following hypotheses:

a) Workstress will affect marital relations negatively.
b) There will be significant difference between coping strategies adopted by men and women.
c) There will be a significant relationship between one’s coping strategy and the quality of family relation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study was conducted in Ghana with fifty (50) married persons involving, twenty one (21) females and twenty nine (29) males. The response rate was 92%, that is, 21 for females and 25 for the males. The Age range of the respondents was 25-50 and on the average the years of marriage ranged from 5-30.

Measures

a) Workstress was conceptualised as a latent construct measured by observed indicators of stress at the workplace. It was measured with a 15-item tapping the respondent’s experiences of stress at the workplace including such aspects as work overload, fatigue, wellbeing and supervisor support. Responses to these items were given on a scale of 1(strongly disagree), 2(disagree), 3(agree), and 4(strongly agree). Higher scores on this measure indicated higher levels of stress and the vice versa at the respondent’s workplace. The work addiction risk test scale (Robinson 1999a) was used to assess the level of workstress experiences of respondents. The coefficient alpha reliability for the scale was 0.04.

b) The reciprocal relationship between marriage and workstress has been measured with 10-items tapping
distinct but related aspects of the interaction between work and family. Items assessing various problems in the relationship between work and family include withdrawal, the frequency of disagreement in general, spill over effect of marital problems on work and vice versa. Responses to these items were measured using a four point likert scale, ranging between strongly disagree to strongly agree. It was an adoption from the work-family interface scale by Curbow et al., (2003). This corresponds with the first hypothesis that workstress will impact negatively on marital relations. The coefficient alpha reliability for the scale is 0.36.

c) Coping strategy was measured on 7- items. Responses to the items were on a four point likert scale that ranged between strongly disagree and strongly agree. Higher scores indicated healthy coping that may have positive spill over effects from work-to-family and vice versa. Items assessing the coping strategies include: setting achievable goals for oneself, delegation of work to others, scheduling time for family members, leaving work concerns at the office and enjoying time spent at home. This is consistent with the third hypothesis that, there will be significant relationship between the coping strategy adapted and the quality of family relation. The items were adapted from The Marital Disaffection scale, an inventory for assessing emotional estrangement in marriage (Kayser, K.1996). The coefficient alpha reliability for this scale was 0.05.

Sampling Technique

The participants were randomly selected and purposively given the questionnaire to fill out.

Step-By–Step Procedure

The sampling frame was made up of married couples (marriage between a man and a woman) who are workers. Contact was made with various departmental heads of major work places and had rapport with human resources personnel. The objective of the study was explained to them and was provided with the records needed. Names and e-mail addresses were randomly selected and the aims and objectives of the study were explained to prospective participants. Questionnaires were distributed to respondents who responded to the initial mail through mail surveys and were asked to send them to the researcher by mail.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and inferential statistics

Descriptive and inferential analyses were conducted for the three variables which are workstress, marital relations and coping strategies. Linear regression analysis was used to test the three hypotheses. That is to find out:

(a) The extent to which work stress can affect marital relationship negatively.

(b) The extent to which men and women can be different with regard to the coping strategies adopted as a result of work-marital conflict and or marital-work conflict.

(c) The extent to which the coping strategy adopted will result in the quality of family relation and job satisfaction.

The conceptual model guiding the analysis is workstress and marital relations. As stated, regression was used to evaluate the relationship between workstress and marital relations to test the relative strengths and weaknesses of each directional path and to consider potential gender differences in these relationships.

Summary impression of descriptive statistics

Hypothesis 1:

Compares workstress and marital relations, the mean for work stress (M=33.19, SD= 4.98) was greater than the mean for marital relations (M=25.73, SD=4.30). This implies that workstress impacts negatively on marital relations.

Hypothesis 2:

Compares the potential difference between males and females with regard to the coping strategies

Moderating variable gender (females and males)

Females (M=20.57, SD=2.97) compared with the mean for Males (M =20.16, SD=2.46) points to the fact, there is no difference between males and females with regard to the coping strategies adopted.

Hypothesis 3:

Compares the overall relation between coping strategies adopted in general, without considering the moderator variable gender and quality of marital relations.

Coping strategies (M=20.35, SD=2.68) compared with the mean for the quality of marital relations is (M= 25.73, SD=4.30). This implies that the kind of coping mechanism adopted has no influence over quality of marital relations.

Inferential statistics

Regression, correlation and ANOVA analyses were conducted for the three hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1

ANOVA results indicated a significant association between workstress and marriage (P<0.01, F (1, 442) = 0.006). This is consistent with the first hypothesis that, workstress will impact negatively on marital relations.
This suggests a stronger support for the notion of potential spill over effect of work stress on marriage.

Correlation analysis using Pearson correlation gives a positive correlation of 0.401 at a significant value of 0.003, which points to the fact that the relationship between marital relations and work stress was strong (P<0.01).

Hypothesis 2

ANOVA analysis comparing the coping strategies of females and males were insignificantly related (P>0.05, F(1, 19) = 0.23); (P>0.05, F(1, 23) = 0.69); for the coping strategy adopted by males and females. This implies that there are no differences in the coping strategies adopted by males and females.

Correlation results showed females (-0.27) and males (-0.09) were negative. This suggests that males and females may adopt the same kind of coping strategy.

Hypothesis 3

ANOVA results for females indicated no significant relationship (P>0.01, F(1, 19) = 653). It was not significant for males (P>0.01>F(1, 23) =770). Comparing the two results suggests that, males and females in Ghana have no specific ways of coping with marital stress.

Pearson correlation indicated a negative relationship between the kind of coping resource used and the quality of marital relations (-.053). The relationship was not significant (P>0.05).

Summary

The key issue is the reciprocal paths between work stress and marital relations because it incorporates the appropriate information which provides a sense of direction in relationships. Application of Pearson’s correlation did not show strong support for both males and females, which indicates moderate or partial spill over in terms of negative and positive experiences.

A unique feature of regression is its ability to test reciprocal paths simultaneously and provide evidence of the relative strengths of the relationships. This feature allowed the assessment of the influence operating in both directions or in one direction. Since levels of marital satisfaction and job satisfaction at previous waves were taken into account, the bidirectional paths estimated the extent to which coping strategies adopted reflected quality of marital relationship and also the extent to which marital quality reflected job satisfaction.

DISCUSSIONS

The purpose of this study was to develop an understanding of the psychological interface between work stress and marital relationships specifically the positive and negative spill over between work and marital roles with several antecedents and outcomes. Drawing on previous research and by using a 50 (fifty) sample cross sectional data and regression analysis technique, three central questions were addressed. That is work stress will impact negatively on marital relations (work-marital conflict), a test for possible difference between men and women in their reaction to work-marital issues and the kind of coping strategy adopted and the resulting effect on the quality of marital relationship.

First the results indicate that there is a process of spill over between work and marital roles and between marital relationship and work. This is consistent with two studies (Frone et al., 1997; Rogers, 1999), which used structural equation model with reciprocal paths to assess the direction of influence between work and family domains. Frone and colleagues found that, there is a reciprocal relationship between the perceptions of work to family conflict and family to work conflict.

Not surprisingly, there was some support for the positive benefits of formal work-marital initiatives consistent with the boundary /border theory. It emphasizes the degree of flexibility and permeability of the boundaries between people’s work and family lives that may or will affect the level of integration, the ease of transitions, and the level of conflict between these domains (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996). Though, conversely, when these domains are segmented, transitions should be more effortful, but work-family conflict should be less likely. When employees have flexible work schedules they apparently experience less work-marital conflict.

In addition to previous work in this area, the results highlighted the importance of informal workplace practices. This finding suggests a link to manager support for employees to successfully manage the integration of work with marriage and marriage with work. It is possible that the availability of such policies and practices may have a positive impact on attitudes whether or not an employee benefits personally, because those provisions indicate concern on the part of the organization for employee well-being.

Secondly the results indicated that, marital quality is more influential in the work-marital interface. The evidence of positive spillover, with increases in marital satisfaction contributing significantly to increases in job satisfaction, thus reducing the stress component at work over time. Consistent with previous research attesting to the importance of marital relationships in individuals’ lives, Thoits (1992) indicated that, being a spouse is highly salient for the self-concepts of both married women and men, second only to being a parent. In contrast, being a worker ranks approximately fifth in salience for women and men, lower than being a friend or a churchgoer. Additional research attests to a range of material, sexual, social and emotional benefits associated with being married (Mirowski and Ross, 1989; Stack and Eshelman, 1998; Waite, 1995).
Finally it came to light that, these spillover processes operate similarly for both married women and men, which is consistent with the notion of convergence in the lives of both men and women (Spain & Bianchi, 1996). Although married women retain primary responsibility for childcare and household work and though their average rate of participation in the labour force remains lower than those of men, married women’s lifetime attachment to the labour force is similar to that of men (Moen, 1992).

It is possible that, the general measures of marital quality and work satisfaction are less sensitive to gender differences than measures of daily interaction and mood such as those used by researchers who find gender differences in the relationship between work and family (MacEven and Barling, 1994). However, given the similarities in the salience of spouse and worker role identities for married men and women (Thoits, 1992), it may be that there are fewer gender differences in general than are apparent in daily interaction. For example there is a large body of literature to attest to the fact that women experience higher levels of work-marital conflict than men do (Duxbury and Higgins, 1991). Some suggest that women may be biologically “programmed” through sex-based hormonal systems, for example to respond differently to stressors. This hypothesis is borne out by differences in symptomatology shown by women versus men, wherein women tend to exhibit emotional symptoms, such as depression, mental illness, and general psychological discomfort, men tend to manifest physiological disease, such as heart disease and cirrhosis (Jick and Mitz, 1985).

Others argue that gender differences in stress response are attributable to differences in socialization process and differences in role expectations that expose women to a higher level of stressors. In the home domain, women irrespective of their involvement in paid work have been found to be significantly more likely than men to bear primary responsibility for home chores and child care (Duxbury et al., 1991 and cited that at the workplace, women have been found to be disproportionately represented in occupations with “built-in strain such as clerical work, which couples high work demands with little discretionary control. Although it is difficult to determine which of these mechanisms is most responsible for women’s differential response to stress there is little doubt that women are exposed to different if not more stressors, at both work and at home (Matteson and Ivancevich, 1987).

It is quite surprising that, in this study there was no gender difference regarding the coping resources used by men and women. It is therefore appropriate to state that, certain mediating variables may be responsible for these interesting findings. Consistent with this ensuing statement, Agyemang-Bawuah (1983) found among the “Senior Members” and their wives at the University of Ghana that both husbands and wives participated less in the performance of household tasks such as washing of clothes, dishes and ironing. These tasks, which were considered menial, were mostly delegated to house helpers. With many women engaged in economically productive work outside the home, the use of house-helpers has become very important feature in the performance of household tasks.

Consistent with Oppong (1975) it is a norm in the household of the educated elite for the working wife and mother to delegate many of her childrearing chores to relatives and unrelated employees many of whom are under the age of 15. She further found that childcare tasks were performed jointly by most of the spouses, with very few men participating in these household tasks alone. Further factors like wife's income level, her educational level and the husband's lectureship grade affected the husband's participation in household task performance. According to Quartey (1991), there is a marked variation in labour allocation over the life cycle of the household. As the dependency ratio of the household increased, the volume of the household task increased as well and as the children grew older to be able to share in the household task, the volume of work of parents declined.

With these social, psychological and attitudinal issues in mind, dual-earner couples in Ghana are likely to manage their marital relationships to the extent that there is relatively less significant interrole conflict and home management stress. This is in line with Pfeiffer and Ross (1982) findings of the notion of the wife as a career resource and conformance to social expectations. They argued that within our society, men are supposed to support a wife and are rewarded for doing so. For men marriage represents an opportunity to take on “the good provider role” (Bernard, 1981) whereas for women marriage can represent a source of conflict with her employment. Hence the net effect of family on job stress is more straightforward for men and marriage seems to be uniformly positive for them. Having an employed wife may slightly be less positive than having a wife who is not employed as an employed wife may slightly reduce his job satisfaction if he feels that her employment indicates that he is inadequate as a provider for the family.

As dual-earner couples, the very fact that both husband and wife are employed is a challenge to the prescribed norms under which each partner was socialized. Therefore a key factor in successful arrangements within dual-earner couples seems to be an appropriate match between husbands’ and wives’ expectations and attitudes consistent with (Sekaran, 1986).

CONCLUSIONS

The information gathered highlighted the permeability of work-marital boundaries and revealed a complex pattern of linkages among stressors, strains and other outcomes.
in the two life domains. Three distinct categories of links are evident.

First, there is growing support for the proposition that work and marital stressors have additive effects such that, the greater the extent of stressors encountered in the two spheres, the greater the resulting strain experienced by the focal individual. A second perspective is that stressors and strains generated within one domain can transfer or “spill over” into the other domain, thus creating additional sources of stress in the latter with potentially damaging consequences.

The third and potentially most stressful link is that involving work-marital conflict engendered by the intersection of simultaneous role pressures emanating from the two life domains. The concurrent role demands can greatly exacerbate the level of stress experienced and have dysfunctional work and marital consequences. The exposure to work-marital stressors need not invariably have detrimental effects on the individual. Certain psychological resources associated with increased age and experience, internal locus of control can buffer the individual from the deleterious effects of stressful work-marital experiences. Based on evidence of both main and moderating effects of varied coping responses and social support on indices of strain and other outcomes, a proactive approach is needed to deal with environmental stressors and identified variety of individual strategies for managing stress and its consequences.

The resistance of certain chronic organizationally generated stressors to amelioration through individual coping efforts and heightened organizational self-interest in managing the high cost of stress emphasize the need for concomitant organizational interventions designed to reduce stress to tolerable levels as well as equip individuals to manage stress effectively.

In fact work-marital conflict affects more than just the individual experiencing it; it also directly or indirectly affects family members, co-workers, supervisors, organizations and communities. Work-marital conflict often seems to have been seen as a problem for individual workers. However, given its potentially severe consequences and the widespread impact, it seems to be a problem best tackled with collaboration from organizations, individuals and governments. With these parties collaborating to find possible solutions and researchers conducting sound studies to test the efficacy of such solutions, an optimal balance between work and marital life for all can be achieved.

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