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Nonwork-to-Work Spillover: A More Balanced View of the Experiences and Coping of Professional Women and Men[1]

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A more balanced view of nonwork-to-work spillover was advanced here. The concentration of research on the negative side may serve to support some damaging assumptions about professional women. A sample of 221 experienced managers indicated how parenting, community work, and recreation affected work both positively and negatively, and the extent they used certain coping strategies. Women comprised 35% of the sample and ethnic minorities comprised 18%. The managers agreed more strongly with statements about positive nonwork-to-work spillover than with those about the negative side. Women and men reported largely the same levels of nonwork involvement, time commitment, satisfaction, positive spillover, and use of the coping strategies. Compared to men, women did report lower negative spillover overall, and greater use of the strategies when they were parents. The findings suggest that employers should be less concerned with how active women are in nonwork, and more concerned with how well both men and women manage their various life domains.

Although participation in nonwork domains, such as parenting, community work, and recreation, has been recognized for contributing favorably to work (Crouter, 1984; Kanter, 1977; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1980), the majority of studies continue to focus on the conflict between nonwork and work. This concentration on negative outcomes may be particularly damaging to women's acceptance and advancement in nontraditional professions, such as management. Women, regardless of employment status and occupation, continue to carry many responsibilities for family

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life (Bolger, Delongis, Kessler, & Wethington, 1989; Yogev, 1981). Hence, research that emphasizes the interfaces of life domains being conflict ridden and the spillover from nonwork to work being largely dysfunctional can serve to support a common rationalization for the low representation of women at senior levels. That is, because women are highly active outside of work, their chances of resource depletion, role overload, and interdomain conflict must be great, and consequently, their capacity to perform at work would be reduced. This kind of reasoning was evident in the employer responses to female executives having children that were reported by Morrison, White, and Van Velsor (1987). In order to challenge such thinking, far more research must be directed at the benefits of nonwork for work.

For almost two decades, role theorists have argued in the sociological literature that the positive outcomes of multiple domain participation, such as enhanced status security and personality enrichment, outweigh the negative ones (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974; Thoits 1983). Empirical studies of employed women and men have reported benefits and rewards arising from such participation (Gray, 1983; Piotrkowski, 1979; Yogev, 1981), and the number of nonwork roles to correlate positively with personal well-being and job satisfaction (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Pietromonaco, Manis, & Frohardt-Lane, 1986). Moreover, studies that directly examined the effects of nonwork on work found considerable evidence of positive spillover despite the presence of the negative kind, and suggested that the two kinds represent separate dimensions of experience rather than opposite ends of the same continuum (Crouter, 1984; Kirchmeyer, 1992). Positive nonwork-to-work spillover involved nonwork supporting, facilitating, or enhancing work, whereas the negative kind involved nonwork making work difficult, problematic, or unsatisfactory. Overall, the findings support a more balanced view of work–nonwork relationships and suggest that any comprehensive theory must encompass both the positive and negative sides of spillover.

In regard to the negative outcomes of multiple domain participation, considerable research has been aimed at determining their antecedents. A number of domain qualities including unsatisfying experiences (Barling, 1986; Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Yogev, 1986), high involvement (Frone & Rice, 1987; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Wiley, 1987; Yogev, 1986), lack of control (Barling, 1986), and extensive time commitment (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; Pietromonaco et al., 1986; Yogev, 1986) have been associated with high levels of interdomain conflict and stress. It seems that with increasing domain involvement and commitment, the burdens of that domain become more pronounced and the negative spillover to other domains heightened. On the other hand, with increasing levels of domain

satisfaction, the burdens of that domain seem to become less pronounced and the negative spillover to other domains reduced.

In addition, the type of personal strategy that women and men use to cope with the many demands and responsibilities of multiple domains appears to affect the experience of interdomain conflict and its consequences (Barling, 1986; Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983; Hall, 1972). Beutell and Greenhaus (1983), for example, found that employed women who held traditional gender role attitudes experienced considerable conflict when they employed the "supermom" strategy; that is, when they aimed to meet all role expectations. Perhaps, for employers, the concern need not be how active professional women are outside of work, but rather how well both men and women manage a diversity of life domains.

From the findings, a variety of conclusions could be drawn about how to reduce the burdens of multiple domain participation. For example, to reduce interdomain conflict, professionals may be advised to reduce their nonwork involvements or to disregard certain role expectations. However, until the antecedents of the positive outcomes of multiple domain participation are as well understood as the negative ones, such advice may be premature. Role theorists, for example, argued that with increasing levels of domain involvement and satisfaction, the rewards and pleasures of domain participation become more pronounced and the positive spillover to other domains heightened (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). Therefore, by reducing their nonwork involvements, professionals may risk reducing positive spillover to work along with the negative kind. Kirchmeyer's (1992) study of young business school graduates provided support for this argument. However, generalizing the experiences of these rather inexperienced managers to older, more experienced professionals deserves caution.

Furthermore, the effectiveness of coping strategies should be assessed in terms of their ability not only to reduce the negative outcomes of multiple domain participation, but to enhance the positive ones as well. Superior strategies would be those that result in the highest net positive outcome. To specifically investigate the effects of coping types on work, Hall's (1972) study of the strategies of women to cope with role conflict provides a meaningful framework. The women who were active in multiple domains reported using 16 coping strategies that were classified according to three types. Structural role redefinition was described as a proactive attempt to deal with the objective reality of one's roles by reducing the role demands and changing others' expectations. The second type, personal role redefinition, represents a more defensive approach where conflicts are reduced through changing one's personal attitudes and behaviors as opposed to altering role demands. Finally, reactive role behavior involves no attempt

to address conflict, but rather, the individual strives to improve his or her ability to satisfy all demands.

As far as the differential abilities of Hall's (1972) strategy types to reduce conflict or to enhance satisfaction, some findings suggest little difference between the two redefinition types and the reactive type to be least effective (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983; Hall, 1972). Because redefinition types actually address conflicts rather than accommodate them, it seems possible that such strategies may best help busy professionals reduce the spillover of nonwork strains and time demands to work. However, another study (Gray, 1983) failed to support the superiority of any type in terms of women's perceived satisfaction with the strategies. Overall, there is little evidence to support any firm conclusion regarding the superior effectiveness of one type of strategy over another.

In regard to differences between men and women on either spillover experiences or coping strategies, the findings have proven to be inconsistent so far. Some suggest women experience more stress from multiple domain participation (Greenhaus, Bedian, & Mossholder, 1987; Yogev, 1986) and utilize less effective coping strategies (Pearlin & Schooler, 1982), whereas others suggest women are better able to cope with conflict (Bolger et al., 1989; Kirchmeyer, 1992) and have a greater repertoire of strategies (Scherer, Petrick, Brodzinsky, & Goyer, 1991). Still others suggest little difference between men and women (Barling, 1986; Beutell & O'Hare, 1987; Frone et al., 1992; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979). As far as the positive side of spillover, one study (Kirchmeyer, 1992) did examine this dimension and found no gender difference in the extent to which young managers perceived nonwork participation supporting and enhancing work.

The present study was designed to contribute to a more balanced view of work–nonwork relationships. Our primary aim was to identify the successful strategies employed by busy female and male managers to cope with the many demands and responsibilities of multiple domains. However, unlike previous research, here the effectiveness of strategies was assessed in terms of both positive and negative kinds of spillover to work. Understanding how professionals achieve full nonwork lives that in turn benefit their functioning at work has important implications for both individuals and their employers. Also examined here was the ability of coping strategies to explain the variance in outcomes beyond that of personal characteristics and domain qualities which have received more attention from researchers.

For all research variables, the responses of women were compared to those of men. We wished to provide some further evidence to determine just how different work–nonwork relationships are for female professionals as compared to their male counterparts. It is important that both gender differences and similarities in professionals' nonwork involvements, coping

strategies, and spillover experiences be revealed. Focusing on women alone, or simply on the differences between men and women, may perpetuate a stereotype among employers that only professional women face nonwork demands and require strategies to cope with them.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Nonwork involvement and commitment were examined once again, but in this instance, their relationships with positive as well as negative kinds of spillover to work were of interest. Because women's nonwork participation may be perceived as only dysfunctional for work, relationships with both kinds of spillover should be tested directly. Moreover, in this study, the relationships were tested with a sample of women and men who were experienced professionals from a variety of work settings. Hypotheses were developed in line with earlier findings and arguments (e.g., Frone et al., 1992; Marks, 1977; Wiley, 1987).

Hypothesis 1. Higher levels of ego involvement and time commitment in nonwork will be associated with greater negative spillover from nonwork to work.

Hypothesis 2. Higher levels of ego involvement and time commitment in nonwork will be associated with greater positive spillover from nonwork to work.

Relationships between nonwork satisfaction and the spillover experiences were also examined here. Because women may be perceived as gaining more satisfaction from nonwork domains than men and possibly at the expense of fulfilling work-related roles, relationships with both kinds of spillover to work also deserve testing with a sample of experienced professionals. Again, hypotheses were developed in line with earlier findings and arguments (e.g., Barling, 1986; Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Marks, 1977).

Hypothesis 3. Higher satisfaction with nonwork will be associated with less negative spillover from nonwork to work.

Hypothesis 4. Higher satisfaction with nonwork will be associated with greater positive spillover from nonwork to work.

No specific hypothesis was advanced concerning the differential effects of Hall's (1972) coping types on either positive or negative spillover. Rather, it was simply hypothesized that the more actively a professional tried to manage his or her multiple domains, the more favorable the net effect on work would be. Coping activity refers to the extent that the strate-

gies are used as opposed to the number of strategies used. The use of any of Hall's (1972) strategy types may well represent a way for the individual to "take control" of his or her busy life and thereby increase his or her personal hardiness — a factor shown previously to moderate the negative consequences of interdomain conflict (Barling, 1986).

Hypothesis 5. More active coping with multiple domain participation will be associated with less negative spillover from nonwork to work.

Hypothesis 6. More active coping with multiple domain participation will be associated with greater positive spillover from nonwork to work.

An important aim of this study was to compare the spillover experiences and coping strategies of professional women with those of professional men. The inconsistency among previous findings concerning interdomain conflict, however, prevented us from hypothesizing about gender differences based on these findings alone. Rather, studies comparing the nonwork demands of employed women to those of employed men (e.g., Bolger et al., 1989; Crouter, 1984; Gutek et al., 1991) proved more helpful in this regard. Due to their greater nonwork demands, women could be expected to experience higher levels of both positive and negative kinds of spillover to work than would men.

Hypothesis 7. Women will experience greater spillover experiences from nonwork to work than will men.

Lastly, it was hypothesized that the coping strategies actually would be stronger predictors of the spillover experiences than gender would be. This hypothesis served to test our central theme that employers should be concerned less with the extent woman are active outside of work, and more with how well both men and women manage their multiple domains.

Hypothesis 8. The coping strategies will more strongly predict spillover experiences than will gender.

METHOD

Sample

The final sample consisted of 221 (78 women, 143 men) Canadian managers. The average manager had 21 years of full-time work experience, worked 45 hours per week, joined his or her current employer 10 years ago, and earned $58,000 in the past year. Men and women differed significantly on two personal factors. On average women were 40 years of age

while the men were 44 years of age, and men were more likely to have a nonemployed spouse. That is, 27% of the men had a nonemployed spouse whereas 12% of the women had such a spouse. Self-reported data indicated the sample was drawn from a wide range of public and private organizations across Canada. Thirty-nine respondents reported they were members of ethnic or racial minorities, including primarily Chinese, East Indian, and African Canadians.

Procedure

A self-administered questionnaire was mailed to 610 members of a national management association in Canada. Prior to the mailing, an announcement of the study was made in the association's newsletter. Forty percent completed and returned the questionnaire to the university-based researchers. Eleven of the respondents (3 women, 7 men) were not involved in any nonwork domain of interest to the study, and hence, failed to provide useable data. They did not differ from the final sample in terms of any personal or work-related factor. Because another 8 respondents were not employed full-time, they were also ineligible to participate.

In addition to sections covering personal and work-related aspects, the questionnaire contained three sections that pertained to three diverse nonwork domains, that is (1) the domain of parenting; (2) the community domain including involvement in political parties, charities, and religious congregations; and (3) the recreation domain covering involvement in recognized groups such as sports teams, social clubs, and hobby associations. These domains encompass common social roles (e.g., Pietromonaco et al., 1986; Thoits, 1986), and altogether may present a fuller picture of nonwork participation than do roles related strictly to home life. Another section of the questionnaire addressed strategies that the managers could use to cope with the demands and responsibilities of multiple domains.

Measures

Coping Strategies. The 16 strategies described in Hall's (1972) study were developed into 16 scale items. A complete listing of the strategy items by type is presented in Table I of the results. These items are lengthier but somewhat similar to those developed earlier by Gray (1983). Respondents were asked to think about how they manage their various life roles, and to indicate how typical each strategy is of their own approach according to a 4-point scale ranging from *not typical of me* to *very typical.*

Table I. Means and Standard Deviations of Coping Strategies by Sex[a]

Strategy	Women		Men		
	Mean[b]	SD	Mean[b]	SD	*t* Value
Structural role redefinition					
A. Concentrate on those activities of nonwork roles that are meaningful to me, and drop the meaningless activities.	2.92	1.02	2.89	.91	.02
B. Hire the services of others (such as house cleaners, financial planners) to relieve me of time-consuming duties outside of work.	1.96	1.11	1.84	1.03	.61
C. Arrange with others (such as my kids, other parents, fellow hobbyists) to help with nonwork responsibilities.	2.43	.97	2.34	.93	.53
D. Ask others (such as my spouse, fellow community workers) to help work out any difficulty with fulfilling nonwork responsibilities.	2.51	.98	2.16	.94	6.75[c]
E. Overlap different roles whenever possible (e.g., participating in a sport that my kids enjoy, doing community service that really uses my professional skills).	2.73	.85	2.60	.98	.91
F. Try to change common misconceptions about professionals (such as "one cannot be a successful professional without sacrificing his or her personal life").	2.61	1.09	2.38	1.07	2.30
Personal role redefinition					
G. Establish personal sets of priorities and rules for dealing with the responsibilities of various roles (e.g., a child with a high fever takes precedence over work whereas a child with sniffles does not).	3.41	.79	3.09	.92	6.30[c]
H. Keep roles separate from each other (e.g., keeping work out of family life, choosing community service totally unlike work).	2.76	1.02	2.68	1.09	.31
I. Reduce my standards within certain roles (e.g., accepting performance that is "good enough" as opposed to "my best").	1.82	.93	1.72	.92	.61
J. Develop attitudes which put role demands in a positive light.	3.28	.67	3.11	.82	2.21
K. Eliminate involvement with an entire group (such as a community group, a sports team) because of the demands.	2.00	1.04	2.10	1.05	.46
L. Rotate attention among various roles depending on which has the most pressing demands (e.g., while handling a community problem, work is paid little attention).	1.65	.87	1.79	.95	1.05
M. Consider the fulfillment of role demands as a way to develop and grow.	3.41	.75	3.34	.72	.53

Table I. Continued

Strategy	Women Mean[b]	Women SD	Men Mean[b]	Men SD	t Value
Reactive role behavior					
N. Increase my efficiency by scheduling and organizing role activities carefully.	3.43	.75	3.21	.76	4.00[c]
O. Use no conscious strategy to deal with the demands of various roles.	1.53	.92	1.55	.90	.04
P. Work hard to do everything expected of me.	3.38	.76	3.35	.69	.09

[a]Women $N = 78$; men $N = 143$.
[b]Scale: 1: *not typical of me*; 2: *slightly typical*; 3: *fairly typical*; 4: *very typical.*
[c]$p < .05$.

Nonwork Domain Involvement. The extent of personal identity or ego involvement in a nonwork domain was measured with four items from Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) job involvement scale. Items were altered to reflect each particular nonwork domain. For example, the item "To me, my work is an important part of who I am." was altered to read "To me, being a parent is an important part of who I am." Earlier research used similar items to measure family involvement (Frone & Rice, 1987; Frone et al., 1992; Yogev, 1986). Respondents indicated their levels of agreement or disagreement according to a 6-point Likert scale.

Nonwork Domain Satisfaction. One item was used to measure the level of satisfaction with one's role or roles in a nonwork domain. For example, respondents were asked the extent they agreed or disagreed with the statement "I feel highly satisfied with my role as a parent." for the parenting domain. A 6-point Likert scale was used here as well.

Time Commitment. The amounts of time committed to nonwork domains were measured by asking respondents to report the numbers of hours that they typically spend per week involved in the activities of the various domains.

Positive Spillover. Kirchmeyer's (1992) measure of positive nonwork-to-work spillover was employed here. She developed 15 statements about spillover in accordance with Sieber's (1974) four positive outcomes of role accumulation (that is, accumulation of role privileges, status security, status enhancement, and personality enrichment). The statements began with the phrase "Being a parent," "Being involved in the community," or "Being involved in recreation/hobby groups." Examples include "Earns me certain rights and privileges that otherwise I could not enjoy," "Gives me support so I can face the difficulties of work," "Provides me with contacts who are helpful for my work," and "Shows me ways of seeing things that are helpful at work." For every domain in which the respondent participated, he or

she was asked to indicate the extent he or she agreed or disagreed with each statement according to a 6-point Likert scale.

Negative Spillover. Kirchmeyer (1992) also developed an eight-item measure of negative nonwork-to-work spillover to correspond to her positive measure. In this case, the statements were developed in accordance with Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) three forms of interdomain conflict (that is, time based, strain based, and behavior based). Examples include "Demands time from me that could be spent on my job," "Tires me out so I feel drained for work," and "Makes it hard to adjust back to the way I must act at work." As with the positive items, respondents were asked to indicate the extent they agreed or disagreed with each particular form of nonwork participation affecting work in these ways. Once again, a 6-point Likert scale was employed.

Data Analysis

Factor analysis was performed on the coping strategies to identify underlying dimensions. Then, to examine relationships among the study variables, correlational analysis was undertaken. Differences between the responses of women and those of men were also determined by t tests. Differences in variable correlations between men and women were determined by Fisher's z tests. Finally, hierarchical regression analysis was used to assess the incremental power of the coping strategies to explain spillover beyond personal characteristics and domain qualities.

RESULTS

Eighty-four of the 221 respondents participated in only one of the three nonwork domains, 100 participated in two, and 37 participated in all of them. With the inclusion of the 11 respondents who participated in none of these domains, being female meant participating in slightly fewer nonwork domains (M = 1.51, SD = .69 vs. M = 1.81, SD =.82, with t = 7.90, $p < .01$). One hundred and nine of the respondents had dependent children, 160 were involved in community work, and 126 participated in recreation groups. Note that another 56 respondents had independent children living on their own, but because the questioning was aimed at parents with dependent children, these respondents were not included in the parenting subsample.

The average parent in the subsample had two children and spent 29 hours per week in their company. Community workers were involved in an average of two groups for five hours per week. Their community roles in-

cluded volunteers, administrators, board members, and fundraisers in groups such as charities, churches, youth centers, and lobby groups. Those active in the recreation domain participated in two different groups for six hours per week on average. Their roles included coaches, managers, players, and volunteers in various sports teams, craft groups, and social clubs. Total numbers of children and associations revealed no notable relationship with other research variables.

Table I presents the mean and standard deviation of each coping strategy by gender and the results of a series of *t* tests. In general, men and women responded rather similarly by ranking as most typical the same five strategies (establish personal priorities, develop positive attitudes, consider demands fulfilling, increase efficiency, work hard to do everything), and presenting a significant mean for only three strategies (ask others to help, establish personal priorities, increase efficiency). For each of these three strategies, the women's mean was higher than the men's, and the resultant *t* value met only the .05 level of significance vs. the more stringent .01 or .001 level. Both men and women rated lowest the item of no conscious strategy. The distribution of this item was highly skewed with 84% of the respondents rating it as not typical of them or only slightly typical. Furthermore, it correlated negatively or negligibly with other strategy items, and failed to load with others in a factor analysis.

Factor analysis of the other 15 strategy items revealed three main factors whose loadings did not follow Hall's (1972) three types. Eight items (concentrate on meaningful activities, overlap roles, establish personal priorities, separate roles, develop positive attitudes, consider demands fulfilling, increase efficiency, work hard to do everything) loaded on the most dominant factor, and they were drawn from all three types. According to the mean values, these items were rated as most typical overall. Altogether they suggested a coping theme of applying good personal organization and developing an appropriate attitude, and achieved an acceptable level of internal reliability of .76.

The remaining two factors were far less prominent. Four items (hire others, arrange with others, ask others, rotate attention) loaded on the first factor, and three items (change others, reduce standards, eliminate involvement) loaded on the second factor. These factors revealed low levels of internal reliability (alpha = .46, alpha = .39). Hence, the meaningfulness of their factor scores was doubtful. In addition, neither the factor scores nor any of the individual items revealed any notable relationship with other research variables. Because of the weak statistical properties of these two factors and the nonstrategy item, hypothesis testing at this time was limited to the dominant coping factor. Note that other multi-item measures

achieved acceptable levels of internal reliability, and hence, their items' ratings were summed confidently into single scores.

Hypothesis testing was carried out separately in the three nonwork subsamples because the nature of nonwork-to-work spillover and its relationships with other variables may vary by the kind of domain (Marks, 1977). Table II presents basic statistics of the variables and intercorrelations among them. Because men and women differed on age and the spouse's employment status, these two variables were included in the analysis for control purposes. In each subsample, the average per item score was higher for the positive spillover measure (3.83, 4.01, 3.66) than for the negative spillover measure (2.37, 1.90, 1.69). Also, the two kinds of spillover correlated significantly in each subsample with the direction being negative in parenting and positive in the other domains.

Significant correlations between the qualities of nonwork and the spillover variables provided considerable support for Hypotheses 1–4. Domain involvement correlated positively both with positive spillover in each domain ($r = .47$ at $p < .001$, $r = .38$ at $p < .001$, $r = .50$ at $p < .001$) and with negative spillover in the community and recreation cases ($r = .22$ at $p < .01$, $r = .36$ at $p < .001$). Although the correlation between involvement and the negative spillover from parenting was also positive ($r = .10$ at $p = .15$), it did not achieve significance at conventional levels. As far as the relationships with time commitment, all significant correlations were in the predicted directions. The hours spent in community work and recreation correlated positively with positive spillover ($r = .24$ at $p < .01$, $r = .30$ at $p < .01$) and those spent in recreation correlated positively with negative spillover ($r = .17$ at $p < .05$). The correlations with domain satisfaction achieved significance in all cases of positive spillover ($r = .34$ at $p < .001$, $r = .40$ at $p < .001$, $r = .43$ at $p < .001$), and in the parenting and community cases of negative spillover ($r = -.31$ at $p < .01$, $r = -.28$ at $p < .001$). These correlations were also in predicted directions.

All correlations between the dominant coping factor and the spillover variables achieved statistical significance. Use of the main strategies correlated positively with positive spillover ($r = .27$ at $p < .01$, $r = .22$ at $p < .01$, $r = .24$ at $p < .01$) and negatively with negative spillover ($r = -.35$ at $p < .001$, $r = -.21$ at $p < .01$, $r = -.24$ at $p < .01$). Hence, support was provided for Hypotheses 5 and 6, at least in terms of using these eight main strategies. The coping strategies also revealed consistent correlations with two other variables across the subsamples. That is, the significant correlation between use of the strategies and having a nonemployed spouse was consistently negative ($r = -.25$ at $p < .01$, $r = -.22$ at $p < .01$, $r = -.20$ at $p < .05$), and the one between use of the strategies and domain

Table II. Basic Statistics and Intercorrelations Among Variables[a]

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Parenting										
1. Positive spillover	57.41	10.65	(.85)							
2. Negative spillover	18.97	6.36	−.20[b]	(.79)						
3. Age	39.91	6.34	−.06	−.18[b]						
4. Being female	.26	.44	.05	−.16[b]	−.25[c]					
5. Nonemployed spouse	.25	.44	.10	−.08	.04	−.34[d]				
6. Domain involvement	16.34	3.75	.47[d]	.10	−.27[c]	.05	.09	(.78)		
7. Domain satisfaction	4.59	1.26	.34[d]	−.31[c]	−.05	.18[b]	−.10	.42[d]		
8. Domain hours	29.35	20.00	.07	−.05	−.25[c]	.06	.04	.25[c]	.21[b]	
9. Main coping strategies	24.78	4.09	.27[c]	−.35[d]	.06	.27[c]	−.25[c]	.12	.26[c]	.08
Community work										
1. Positive spillover	60.18	13.43	(.89)							
2. Negative spillover	15.19	6.22	.18[b]	(.85)						
3. Age	43.62	8.99	−.14	−.16[b]						
4. Being female	.36	.48	.09	−.14[b]	−.24[c]					
5. Nonemployed spouse	.21	.41	.03	.10	.17[b]	−.16[b]				
6. Domain involvement	11.82	3.93	.38[d]	.22[c]	−.06	.06	.06	(.75)		
7. Domain satisfaction	4.40	1.18	.40[d]	−.28[d]	.13	.00	.00	.45[d]		
8. Domain hours	5.19	4.20	.24[c]	.13	.24[c]	−.13	−.03	.49[d]	.35[d]	
9. Main coping strategies	24.87	3.84	.22[c]	−.21[c]	.04	.05	−.22[c]	−.12	.26[c]	.06
Recreation										
1. Positive spillover	54.98	14.93	(.88)							
2. Negative spillover	13.55	5.85	.35[d]	(.85)						
3. Age	41.82	9.18	−.17[b]	−.31[d]						
4. Being female	.29	.45	.00	−.31[d]	−.19[b]					
5. Nonemployed spouse	.23	.42	−.24[c]	.08	.22[c]	−.22[c]				
6. Domain involvement	11.93	4.13	.50[d]	.36[d]	−.18[b]	−.03	−.03	(.78)		
7. Domain satisfaction	4.57	.94	.43[d]	−.02	.04	−.06	−.11	.31[d]		
8. Domain hours	5.82	3.69	.30[c]	.17[b]	−.06	−.12	−.09	.39[d]	.34[d]	
9. Main coping strategies	24.33	3.89	.24[c]	−.24[c]	.02	.03	−.20[b]	−.10	.33[d]	−.07

[a]Parenting N = 109. Community Work N = 160. Recreation N = 126. Total N = 221. For domain variables, Cronbach alphas are shown on the diagonals in parentheses. For 8 coping strategies, alpha = .76.
[b]$p < .05$.
[c]$p < .01$.
[d]$p < .001$.

satisfaction was consistently positive ($r = .26$ at $p < .01$, $r = .26$ at $p < .01$, $r = .33$ at $p < .001$).

The correlational analysis indicated no effect of gender on domain involvement, time commitment, or positive spillover. Being female correlated negatively, rather than positively as predicted, with negative spillover in all cases ($r = -.16$ at $p < .05$, $r = -.14$ at $p < .05$, $r = -.31$ at $p < .001$), and positively with parenting satisfaction ($r = .18$ at $p < .05$) and with the use of the main coping strategies among parents ($r = .27$ at $p < .01$). Breakdowns of all the variables, however, revealed only two differences between the means of men and those of women at conventional levels of significance. That is, women reported lower negative spillover from recreation than did men ($M = 10.68$, SD = 4.38 vs. $M = 14.69$, SD = 5.98, with $t = 12.92$, $p < .001$), and female parents reported the coping strategies to be more typical of them than male parents did ($M = 26.63$, SD = 2.96 vs. $M = 24.13$, SD = 4.24, with $t = 7.98$, $p < .01$). Also noteworthy is that the respondent's age, possibly a reflection of his or her children's ages, correlated negatively with negative spillover in all cases ($r = -.18$ at $p < .05$, $r = -.16$ at $p < .05$, $r = -.31$ at $p < .001$).

In addition, all correlations among the study variables were subjected to Fisher's z test to determine if the correlation for women was different from the one for men. Only the correlations between hours spent in parenting and positive spillover (for women $r = .49$ at $p < .05$ vs. for men $r = -.04$ at $p = .70$, with $z = 2.47$, $p < .01$) and between having a nonemployed spouse and negative spillover from recreation (for women $r = -.38$ at $p < .05$ vs. for men $r = .09$ at $p = .44$, with $z = 2.32$, $p < .05$) were significantly different. In light of the numbers of variables and relationships among them, and the probability of some differences arising simply by chance, the total number of differences between these men and women seems almost trivial.

The hierarchical multiple regression procedure served to assess the power of the main coping strategies to explain the spillover variances beyond personal and domain quality variables. Age, being female, and having a nonemployed spouse were entered in the first step of the regression in order to control for their effects. The domain quality variables followed by the coping strategies were entered in subsequent steps. The results of the analysis with positive spillover as the dependent variable are presented in Table III. The entrance of the personal variables in the first step proved significant in only one subsample. That is, having a nonemployed spouse achieved significance in the equation for recreation-to-work spillover. In the next step, the addition of the domain quality variables increased the amount of explained variance significantly in all equations by at least 22%. In the final step, the explained variances were increased significantly by at

least 3%. Hence, use of the coping strategies did contribute significantly to predictive equations of positive spillover, although domain involvement remained the strongest contributor in all cases. The stronger contributions of the coping strategies as compared to those of gender supported Hypothesis 8.

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis with negative spillover as the dependent variable are presented in Table IV. In step one, the personal variables explained significant amounts of variance in all cases, with age and sex being the important contributors. The addition of the domain quality variables in the next step increased the explained variances significantly by at least 10%. In the final step, variance was increased significantly only in the parenting equation. The addition of the coping strategies in the recreation case, however, did approach conventional levels of significance ($p = .059$). In the case of community work. the coping strategies contributed virtually nothing to explaining the variance in negative spillover beyond the personal and domain quality variables. The strongest predictor in the final equation for parenting was domain satisfaction followed closely by the coping strategies, and the strongest predictor in the community work case was domain satisfaction followed by domain involvement. In contrast, the strongest predictors were two personal variables, being female and age, in the recreation case. Hence, support for Hypothesis 8 was provided only in the parenting equation.

DISCUSSION

This sample of experienced managers indicated higher levels of agreement with statements about positive nonwork-to-work spillover than with those about the negative side. For these women and men, the benefits of multiple domain participation did seem to outweigh the burdens. Although women participated in slightly fewer nonwork domains than did men, the women who were active in a domain reported largely the same levels of involvement, time commitment, and satisfaction as the men. In addition, men and women were almost identical in the extent to which they perceived nonwork participation as supporting, facilitating, and enhancing work. If employers' assumptions about work–nonwork relationships can influence their human resources management, then these findings have important practical implications. It makes little sense for employers to deny women responsibility and advancement because of their activities outside of work once common assumptions about women's nonwork involvements being far greater than men's, and the predominantly negative nature of nonwork-to-work spillover, are successfully challenged.

Table III. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis with Positive Spillover as the Dependent Variable

Variables	Parenting			Community work			Recreation		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Age	−.08(−.04)[a]	.08(.05)	.02(.01)	−.19(−.13)	−.28(−.18)	−.27(−.18)	−.22(−.14)	−.13(−.08)	−.13(−.08)
	−1.22	.50	.11	−1.49	−2.26[b]	−2.29[b]	−1.43	−.98	−.99
Being female	1.93(.08)	.99(.04)	−.18(−.01)	1.97(.07)	1.72(.06)	1.42(.05)	−2.33(−.07)	−.61(−.02)	−.56(−.02)
	.72	.41	−.08	.82	.79	.67	−.74	−.23	−.22
Nonemployed spouse	3.24(.13)	2.50(.10)	3.49(.14)	1.92(.06)	1.96(.06)	3.33(.10)	−7.46(−.21)	−5.89(−.17)	−4.78(−.14)
	1.22	1.05	1.49	.68	.77	1.31	−2.19[b]	−2.05[b]	−1.67
Domain involvement		1.15(.41)	1.10(.39)		.58(.17)	.83(.24)		1.38(.38)	1.50(.41)
		3.87[d]	3.77[d]		1.81	2.52[b]		4.40[d]	4.78[d]
Domain satisfaction		1.62(.19)	1.31(.16)		3.47(.31)	2.55(.22)		4.52(.29)	3.27(.21)
		1.88	1.54		3.55[d]	2.51[b]		3.37[c]	2.28[b]
Domain hours		−.03(−.06)	−.04(−.08)		.34(.11)	.28(.09)		.11(.03)	.24(.06)
		−.67	−.83		1.17	.97		.31	.68
Main coping strategies			.59(.23)			.76(.22)			.72(.18)
			2.35[b]			2.68[b]			2.22[b]
R^2	.02	.26	.30	.02	.24	.28	.07	.37	.40
Adjusted R^2	.00	.22	.25	.00	.21	.25	.05	.34	.36
F	.65	5.40[d]	5.64[d]	1.23	7.33[d]	7.60[d]	2.78[b]	10.57[d]	10.09[d]
ΔR^2		.24	.04		.22	.04		.30	.03
F for ΔR^2		9.97[d]	5.53[b]		13.12[d]	7.20[c]		17.12[d]	4.92[b]

[a]The table shows unstandardized regression coefficients with standardized coefficients in parentheses and t values on the following line.
[b]$p < .05$.
[c]$p < .01$.
[d]$p < .001$.

Table IV. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis with Negative Spillover as the Dependent Variable

Variables	Parenting			Community work			Recreation		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Age	−.24(−.24)[a]	−.19(−.19)	−.14(−.14)	−.15(−.22)	−.12(−.17)	−.12(−.17)	−.25(−.40)	−.21(−.33)	−.21(−.33)
	−2.41[b]	−1.89	−1.41	−2.61[b]	−2.10[b]	−2.09[b]	−4.61[d]	−3.92[d]	−3.97[d]
Being female	−3.97(−.27)	−3.13(−.22)	−2.17(−.15)	−2.28(−.18)	−2.20(−.17)	−2.18(−.17)	−4.74(−.37)	−4.51(−.35)	−4.53(−.35)
	−2.60[b]	−2.17[b]	−1.54	−2.11[b]	−2.26[b]	−2.24[b]	−4.26[d]	−4.23[d]	−4.30[d]
Nonemployed spouse	−2.33(−.16)	−2.95(−.20)	−3.76(−.26)	1.60(.10)	1.23(.08)	1.15(.07)	1.20(.09)	1.01(.07)	−.62(.05)
	−1.56	−2.08[b]	−2.75[c]	1.26	1.08	.99	1.00	.87	.53
Domain involvement		.44(.26)	.49(.29)		.57(.36)	.56(.35)		.45(.32)	.41(.29)
		2.49[b]	2.86[c]		3.97[d]	3.72[d]		3.58[d]	3.27[c]
Domain satisfaction		−2.01(−.40)	−1.76(−.35)		−2.49(−.47)	−2.44(−.46)		−.77(−.12)	−.33(−.05)
		−3.90[d]	−3.54[d]		−5.70[d]	−5.24[d]		−1.42	−.57
Domain hours		−.02(−.06)	−.01(−.04)		.21(.14)	.21(.14)		.04(.03)	.00(.00)
		−.60	−.42		1.60	1.61		.34	.02
Main coping strategies			−.48(−.31)			−.04(−.03)			−.25(−.17)
			−3.29[c]			−.31			−1.91
R^2	.10	.24	.32	.07	.29	.29	.24	.34	.36
Adjusted R^2	.07	.19	.27	.05	.26	.25	.22	.30	.32
F	3.56[b]	4.88[d]	6.17[d]	3.57[b]	9.31[d]	7.94[d]	11.73[d]	9.03[d]	8.46[d]
ΔR^2		.14	.08		.22	.00		.10	.02
F for ΔR^2		5.69[c]	10.83[c]		14.07[d]	.75		5.03[c]	3.64

[a]The table shows unstandardized regression coefficients with standardized coefficients in parentheses and t values on the following line.
[b]$p < .05$.
[c]$p < .01$.
[d]$p < .001$.

Men and women did differ in the extent to which they saw nonwork making work difficult, problematic, or unsatisfactory. As compared to men, women indicated lower levels of agreement with statements about the negative spillover from all nonwork domains, albeit only slightly in the parenting and community work cases. Other recent studies have also found negative spillover to be less pronounced for women than for men (Bolger et al., 1989; Kirchmeyer, 1992). In regard to home-to-work spillover, Bolger et al. (1989) suggested that men have not been well socialized into the homemaking role and consequently are unprepared to contain the stresses that accompany it. On the other hand, Gutek et al. (1991) used a gender role framework to explain why women would report lower family-to-work interference than would men. In short, they argued that because family work represents a traditional gender role domain for women, women would feel less of an imposition from this kind of work.

Similar explanations can be applied to the findings of this study not only in the case of parenting but in the community work and recreation cases as well. Perhaps the supportive and communal orientations of female roles serve to prepare women for the demands and stresses of service and volunteer participation. Moreover, if service and volunteer duties better fit with women's traditional gender role domains than with men's, then women may view such duties as less of an imposition. There is also the possibility that service and volunteer duties that are specific to women simply may be less burdensome than those specific to men. Future research aimed directly at better understanding why negative spillover would be less pronounced for women than for men seems deserving.

Resultant associations between the domain qualities and spillover not only replicated some earlier findings concerning interdomain conflict and stress (e.g., Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Pietromonaco et al., 1986; Yogev, 1986), but provided evidence to support the hypotheses of role theorists (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974) and earlier work with inexperienced managers (Kirchmeyer, 1992) as well. With increasing levels of domain involvement, the benefits as well as the burdens of that domain appear to become more pronounced, and the positive and negative sides of spillover both heightened. Hence, professionals who reduce domain involvement in order to reduce interdomain conflict also risk reducing the positive outcomes of domain participation.

On the other hand, with increasing levels of domain satisfaction, the benefits of that domain appear to become more pronounced but the burdens less pronounced, and the positive side of spillover is heightened while the negative is reduced. For professionals, achieving role experiences that are satisfying seems critical to ensuring that the net effect of nonwork participation is a positive one. Coping ability may actually influence domain

spillover not only directly, but indirectly through this satisfaction variable as well. The positive correlations between use of the coping strategies and all domains' levels of satisfaction suggest such a possibility.

Although use of the coping strategies proved to have modest predictive ability of the outcomes of domain participation beyond personal and domain quality variables, there was no support for the superior effectiveness of any of Hall's (1972) three coping types. The dominant coping factor that emerged from the managers' responses comprised eight strategies drawn from all types. These main strategies appeared to be effective at reducing the negative side of spillover as well as enhancing the positive side. The findings suggest that successfully coping with multiple domains for professionals involves applying good personal organization and developing an appropriate attitude. Other strategies that include utilizing others, changing others' misconceptions, rotating attention, and reducing involvements were rated as less typical by the managers and demonstrated no notable effect on spillover. Contrary to the hypotheses of this study, it was not simply more active coping that enhanced the net spillover effect, but rather, greater use of certain strategies. Strategies aimed at altering one's own attitudes as opposed to altering those of others, and increasing one's personal efficiency as opposed to decreasing one's activity level or relying on others, appeared to be most effective in helping these busy managers cope with a multitude of life domains.

The women and men of this study reported rather similar usage of the coping strategies. This finding is itself noteworthy and contributes to a growing body of literature indicating that women and men of comparable profession and rank are far more similar than what had been expected (for review see Powell, 1990). The women who were parents, however, did report the main strategies to be more typical of them than the men who were parents. Even though these men and women invested similar levels of involvement and time commitment in the parenting domain, certain aspects of parenting that are still largely unique to women may have demanded more active coping from the women. Their more active coping helps to account for the women not experiencing any more negative spillover from parenting than men, despite the greater child-care demands on women reported earlier (e.g., Gutek et al., 1991). Overall, the findings support our central theme that employers' concerns need not be how active professional women are in nonwork domains, but rather, how well both men and women manage their multiple domains.

A shortcoming of this study is that nonwork involvement directed at household maintenance was not examined. We had hoped to present a fuller picture of nonwork participation by asking these busy professionals about their roles in several diverse life domains, rather than about those related

strictly to home life. As suggested by the findings, many professionals are highly involved in nonwork activities outside of the home. The nonwork experiences of such men and women are not captured fully by work–nonwork studies that concentrate on work–home relationships. In addition, common rationalizations for women failing to reach senior levels appear to involve women's parenting role, rather than roles related to household maintenance (Morrison et al., 1987). Hence, assumptions concerning the relationship between parenting and work were of particular interest. Nevertheless, our disregard of household maintenance meant that nonwork involvement possibly more burdensome for women than for men was not included in the analysis. Household maintenance may best account for important nonwork differences between women and men as compared to parenting, community work, or recreation. The research findings of others (e.g., Bolger et al.,1989; Gutek, et al., 1991) support such an argument.

Some findings concerning the spouse's employment status also deserve discussion. For both the men and women of this study, having a nonemployed spouse was associated with lowered use of the coping strategies. Perhaps having such a spouse eliminates certain nonwork demands, and thereby reduces the professional's need for active coping. In addition, the spouse's employment status made a significant contribution to the final equation of negative parenting-to-work spillover. Having a nonemployed spouse meant experiencing less negative spillover in this case. Parenting, unlike community work and recreation, may involve certain demands and strains on work that are eased significantly by a nonemployed spouse. Finally, having a nonemployed spouse correlated negatively with the positive spillover from recreation. We were unable to explain why such a spouse would be associated with a decrease in recreation supporting and enhancing work.

In summary, this study approached the topic of nonwork-to-work spillover with the view that nonwork can be beneficial as well as harmful to work. This approach served to challenge some common assumptions about the capacity of professional women to perform at work. There was no evidence of female managers being any more involved in three common nonwork domains nor any less effective at coping with the demands and responsibilities than their male counterparts. To rationalize the low representation of women at senior levels simply because of their nonwork participation received no support here. Future research that similarly acknowledges both sides of nonwork-to-work spillover would prove far more fruitful in this area than research that concentrates on stress and conflict.

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