The Work-Family Interface in a Flexible Workplace:
How Academics Deal with Workload and Family/Home Demands

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The work-family interface in a flexible workplace: How academics deal with workload and family/home demands

Background:
In our knowledge society, it is common to experience work without boundaries. Some occupations such as self-employed professionals, physicians and academics can work longer hours, which leads to work-family conflict (WFC) (Byron, 2005; Frone, 2003; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux and Brinley, 2005). Time flexibility has been offered by employers as the most common prescriptive approach to providing a balance between work and life for their employees (Cully, Woodland, O’Reilly and Dix, 1999; Dex and Smith, 2002; Hogarth, Hasluck and Pierre 2000). However, problems concerning coping with work and domestic responsibilities remain especially acute for employees with caring responsibilities and especially women (Major, Klein and Ehrhart, 2002; Schwartz and Scott, 2000). But what happens when the work environment is flexible? Is it flexible enough to partially resolve WFC?

Purpose:
The general goal of the present study was to explore how professors manage the work-home interface. Therefore, the study aims to define professors’ work and specify how work can cause WFC, to identify the type of WFC events the exercise of this profession can entail, and to examine the strategies employed to reduce WFC and enhance work-family facilitation (WFF).

According to the aims, relevant literature was reviewed on the following issues: 1) work-family (life) interface (conflict and facilitation), 2) work overload, 3) related working concepts, including burnout and engagement, 4) the demands-resources framework (coping strategies), and 5) the professor’s work and the Spanish context.

Design/methodology/approach:
A qualitative approach was used to investigate the work-family (WF) interface antecedents, outcomes and coping strategies. A survey administered to 146 female and male Spanish university professors enquired if they perceive a lack of, a sufficient amount of, or a surplus of time to perform their work. Seventeen interviews and two focus groups were also conducted in Barcelona. The fieldwork was conducted during spring 2007 and 2011. A questionnaire, focus group and interview transcripts were entered as primary documents into the Atlas.ti software for qualitative analysis, where a Thematic Content Analysis was conducted.

Findings:
A unique set of WF interface antecedents, outcomes, coping strategies and linkages to other factors were identified in the professors’ responses.

Some professors have more than one job, some because they wish to, and others because they need to. Some may also have a presence in the political arena. Participants consider that the main task contributing to work overload is dedication to service, which means time and energy that comes from the teaching and researching realms. Only a few professors like to perform service tasks. The majority feel frustrated when obliged to carry out service tasks, since they have not been prepared to do so. This is also related to the lack of staff and
resource complaints. The Teaching and Research Academic Staff (*Personal Docente e Investigador*, PDI) feel a lack of control when performing service tasks. However, these tasks also constitute unpaid work and it is simply their turn to do service work. Service position or tasks are also notorious for their excess paperwork. Professors that perceive a lack of time usually identify some areas of their working life in which they require more time. Two fields were detected: professional development and career advancement and control and satisfaction concerning work well done. Was a heavy workload always experienced? Twenty years ago, there was less social pressure and less self-imposed pressure. Professors were subject to fewer appraisals and less competition, and people were less exposed to the global academic community.

Work overload (as a perceived lack of time to complete work) is the main stressor in the family domain. Professors’ work overload is due to the very nature of the profession and the multi-purpose nature of their work: teaching, research and service.

Antecedents can be classified into three main categories: personal, social and organizational antecedents. Personal antecedents include self-imposed pressure and career development, family-to-work conflict (FIW), shortcomings in personal organization and shortcomings in self-efficacy. For the project sample, social antecedents only concern social pressure, and organizational antecedents comprise role overload, lack of resources/staff, task and schedule distribution, unforeseen events, change, bureaucracy and information overload.

On the other hand, outcomes of work overload can be classified into three categories: physical and psychological/health outcomes, family consequences, and work consequences. The psychological/health outcomes category features the following aspects: psychological distress and emotional impact and impact on health and healthy habits. Family consequences consist of work-to-family conflict (WIF) and impact on social and personal time. Finally, work consequences involve work quality, satisfaction, participation, motivation and working climate.

What do professors do to reduce WFC? For the purposes of the study, only one demand of the work domain has been considered: work overload (related to teaching, research and service activities). From the unpaid work domain, family (tasks and leisure related to kinkeeping) and home activities (i.e. housework, grocery shopping, budgeting and management of household finance) have been considered. The resources (coping strategies) are classified into three main coping styles: load absorption, load reduction and distress reduction, thereby creating a particular taxonomy of coping strategies for Spanish academics.

Many strategies overlap and are employed to cope with work overload and family/home demands simultaneously. People cope differently according to the demand domain. However, professors evaluate the consequences generated by a certain strategy in one field on the other field. This helps them decide. However, on many occasions, there is no choice. This situation sometimes makes strategies seem counterproductive. For instance, there are some strategies for absorbing work overload (e.g. working longer hours at the office, working on Saturdays at the university or working at night) that create or intensify conflict with childcare. In other words, the behavioral-based strategy of working long hours has consequences on time-based conflict, to the detriment of competing demands and the work-family balance. In particular, the strategy of working longer hours than usual is an antecedent of work-family conflict.
Stress inevitably surfaces when professors perceive that demands exceed the resources available. Professors have their own supportive coping strategies for stress, which are classified under the style known as distress reduction.

Coping strategies aimed at absorbing workload, especially those related to exceeding working hours and having to work at home, reverberate in an increase of professors’ WF conflict and a decrease in perceived well-being. The coping style of absorbing the work overload encourages a culture of presenteeism. In other words, the practices change the structure (i.e. working culture), meaning that professors have little freedom to act, thus calling coping agency into question.

Two extreme profiles have been identified (i.e. the “overloaded and burned-out” and the “overloaded and engaged”) in coping with work overload according to reports of experience. The relationship held by both profiles with the perception of work-family interface has been demonstrated. Engaged participants are involved in strategies that integrate the work and family domain and proactive coping (engaged professors are more likely to tackle demands while relieving pressure), and the burned-out are less flexible with work and home boundaries (segmentation) and have a preventive coping style.

Changes in three variables are particularly relevant in professors’ work. The first is related to whether they have a temporary contract or tenure. The second concerns their life stage, and the third, the gender role. Academy seems to be harder for young women, not-tenured, and with young children.

Limitations:
The current research is not without its limitations. The cross-sectional research design implies that the postulated relationships between work overload and work-family conflict and vice versa cannot be interpreted causally. The study has also only had one analyst/encoder.

A weakness of the study is that it is limited by a convenient sample of academics at one major university, as interviews and focus groups were conducted in Barcelona, and it also represents higher educated Spanish employees. The extent to which the findings can be generalized to employees in other cultural contexts with a lower level of education is unknown. The processes of conducting interviews and focus groups were carried out in Barcelona, and it is assumed that the study is representative of the situation among professors across the country given that the questionnaires were distributed across the entire country.

In order to maintain the privacy of study participants, specific data regarding their discipline/profession was not collected. Therefore, future work should include information concerning academic disciplines/professions as the area in which one works may have a different work-family culture.

Theoretical Implications:
The purpose of this study was to contribute to the literature on both the work-family interface and work overload. Firstly, this study provides the antecedents and outcomes of work overload in a particular occupation and culture, namely, academics in Spain. This study identifies and describes the strategies for coping with work overload and it also determines three styles and two modes of coping. Results demonstrate the qualitative relationship between work overload and WFC.
Secondly, this study contributes to coping theories in WF literature. It affords the specific coping strategies employed by professors at public universities in Spain in order to struggle with work and family/home demands. It was found that strategies are more effective when used together, and that some practices to absorb work overload may lead to WFC, which is consistent with emergent research.

**Practical implications:**
WF scholars have studied work overload in terms of objective working hours rather than focusing on perceived work overload (and lack of time to carry out the work). This study clearly shows the linkages among antecedents, outcomes and coping strategies regarding work overload and family-to-work conflict. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to use perceived work overload or lack of time as independent variables. Ideally, to make a step forward, researchers should address the coping strategy of working beyond normal hours to tackle workload as a variable affecting the WF interface instead of objective working hours or workload, as was done in the past.

This study clearly shows the linkages among antecedents, outcomes and coping strategies concerning work overload and family-to-work conflict. Researchers are encouraged to use perceived work overload or lack of time as independent variables. Furthermore, professors’ work overload outcomes have a devastating impact on WF balance and well-being, as well as on work quality and stress that subsequently reverberates in student learning.

**Originality/value:**
The main contribution of this research consisted of setting WF research in a particular profession and context: teaching and research professors in Spain. It also recognizes that particular spillover coping strategies are predictors of WFC. Two extreme profiles for coping with the WF interface were identified, which facilitate the understanding of the reasons why working long hours sometimes has negative outcomes whereas, in other situations, it does not.

**Keywords:**
Work-family interface, spillover, work overload, coping strategies, academics.
La interfaz trabajo-familia en un entorno flexible:
Cómo el profesorado universitario gestiona la sobrecarga laboral y las demandas doméstico-familiares

Objetivo:
Este estudio explora la manera que el personal docente e investigador (PDI) gestiona la interfaz trabajo-familia. Para ello, primero se definirá el trabajo del profesorado. ¿Qué implica ser profesor en la universidad? Segundo, ¿qué tipo de conflicto trabajo-familia (CTF) es común en el ejercicio de esta profesión? Tercero, ¿qué prácticas lleva a cabo el profesorado con tal de reducir el CTF y promover la facilitación o enriquecimiento trabajo-familia? Y cuarto, ¿qué diferencias existen según las variables tipo de contrato, etapa vital, y género?
De acuerdo con estos objetivos, la revisión de literatura abordará los siguientes temas: 1) interfaz trabajo-familia (conflicto y facilitación), 2) sobrecarga de trabajo, 3) conceptos relacionados, incluidos el burnout y el engagement, 4) el marco teórico demandas-recursos (estrategias de afrontamiento), y 5) el trabajo del profesor universitario en el contexto español.

Diseño y Metodología:
Esta tesis adopta un enfoque cualitativo en el estudio de los antecedentes, consecuencias y estrategias de afrontamiento de la sobrecarga y del conflicto trabajo-familia. Un cuestionario respondido por 146 profesores y profesoras de universidades españolas pregunta abiertamente si ellos perciben que les falta, basta o sobra tiempo para realizar su trabajo, y cómo lo viven. Adicionalmente, se llevaron a cabo en Barcelona 17 entrevistas y 2 grupos de discusión. El trabajo de campo se completó entre primavera de 2007 y 2010. Los datos obtenidos de los cuestionarios, grupos de discusión y entrevistas fueron asignados como documentos primarios en el programa Atlas.ti para someterlos a un análisis de contenido temático.

Resultados:
El carácter multi-propósito del trabajo del profesorado, que combina actividades de docencia, investigación y gestión, es el principal factor de la sobrecarga de trabajo, y ésta, a su vez, es el principal factor de CTF. Además del triple perfil del profesorado, muchos están pluriempleados y algunos tienen participación política. Las tareas de gestión son vistas como labores para las cuales el profesorado no ha sido preparado, por lo que ella es fuente de estrés, burocracia y sobrecarga de trabajo que va en desmedro de la calidad de la docencia e investigación. Esta tesis hace un llamado a una mejor distribución de los recursos y del personal administrativo, para que éste actúe como soporte a las tareas nucleares de la universidad: docencia e investigación.

Además de la sobrecarga cuantitativa del profesorado, también existe sobrecarga cualitativa, relacionada particularmente a dos áreas: desarrollo profesional y promoción, y control y satisfacción por el trabajo bien hecho.

La carga laboral no es algo nuevo, pero en el pasado esta carga no había sido tan alta. Por ejemplo, hace veinte años atrás había menos presión social y presión autoimpuesta entre los profesores de la universidad. Había menos evaluación profesional, menos competencia por una plaza fija, y los profesores estaban menos expuestos a la comunidad académica global.
Así, la sobrecarga laboral, definida en este estudio como la percepción de falta de tiempo para realizar el trabajo, es identificada como el mayor estresor en el ámbito familiar. Los antecedentes de la sobrecarga laboral se clasifican en tres: antecedentes personales, sociales y organizacionales. Los factores personales incluyen la presión autoimpuesta y desarrollo en la trayectoria académica, conflicto familia-trabajo, y deficiencia en autoeficacia. Para esta muestra, los factores sociales sólo incluyen la presión social. Y finalmente, los factores organizacionales consisten en sobrecarga de rol, falta de recursos/personal, distribución de tareas y horarios, y cambio, burocracia y sobrecarga de información.

Por otra parte, las consecuencias de la sobrecarga laboral pueden clasificarse en tres categorías: consecuencias en la salud física y psicológica, en la familia, y en el trabajo. La primera categoría incluye distrés psicológico e impacto emocional, e impacto en la salud y hábitos saludables. Consecuencias familiares se refieren al conflicto trabajo-familia, y al impacto en el tiempo personal y social. Por último, las consecuencias laborales abarcan la calidad del trabajo, satisfacción, participación, motivación y clima laboral.

Entonces, ¿qué hacen los profesores para reducir el CTF? Este estudio considera sólo la una demanda del ámbito laboral: la sobrecarga de trabajo cuantitativa. Del ámbito no remunerado, considera las demandas familiares (tareas de cuidado y ocio de familiares) y demandas domésticas (como la limpieza, compras, presupuesto y finanzas del hogar). Los recursos (estrategias de afrontamiento) han sido clasificados en tres tipos: absorción de la carga, reducción de la carga, y reducción del distrés, creando así una taxonomía particular al profesorado español. Muchas estrategias se superponen y se usan tanto para afrontar la sobrecarga de trabajo como las demandas doméstico-familiares, simultáneamente. Generalmente, los profesores afrontan de manera diferente según el ámbito de procedencia de la demanda. Sin embargo, el impacto que las estrategias utilizadas tendrán sobre el otro ámbito son continuamente consideradas. Esto les ayuda a decidir, aunque en muchas ocasiones no hay elección. Ciertas estrategias, como las orientadas a absorber la carga de trabajo, parecen contradictorias, pues ellas crean o intensifican el conflicto con el cuidado de los hijos. En otras palabras, estrategias de aumentar la jornada laboral tiene consecuencias en el conflicto temporal, en detrimento de otras demandas que compiten por ese tiempo, del equilibrio trabajo-familia, y del bienestar general.

Inevitablemente, el estrés surge cuando las demandas exceden los recursos disponibles. Para el estrés, los profesores tienen estrategias de reducción del distrés que apoyan y amortiguan los efectos de las consecuencias para absorber y reducir la carga.

Esta tesis identifica dos estilos o perfiles extremos de afrontamiento entre profesores que perciben una alta carga de trabajo: los “sobrecargados y quemados” y los “sobrecargados y engaged”. Los primeros tienen un estilo de afrontamiento reactivo y preferencias por estrategias de segmentación, mientras que los segundos afrontan proactivamente y tienden a integrar el trabajo y la familia.

Las estrategias orientadas a absorber la sobrecarga laboral, especialmente la práctica de trabajar más horas, promueven la cultura del presentismo. Es decir, mientras los profesores trabajen más horas, esa práctica se vuelve normal y deseable, por lo que luego se hará más difícil ejercer estrategias en el sentido contrario. Esto cuestiona el poder de agencia del docente para actuar con libertad.
Se identifican diferencias entre algunas variables como el tipo de contrato (fijo o temporal), la etapa vital y el sexo/género. El trabajo académico parece ser más difícil para mujeres jóvenes, sin plaza fija, y personas con hijos pequeños o el primer hijo.

**Limitaciones:**
Se reconocen varias limitaciones: 1) el carácter transversal de su diseño, 2) la existencia de un único codificador/analista, y 3) la coincidencia del período de trabajo de campo (2007-2010) con el apogeo de la crisis económica y el potencial impacto de ésta en los datos.

**Implicaciones:**
La tesis señala unos aspectos de las condiciones de trabajo del profesorado universitario español (y por las referencias de la literatura, del personal académico considerado a escala global) que constituyen importantes factores de riesgo psicosocial, y por tanto unos puntos de referencia para las correspondientes políticas preventivas.

Se hace un llamado a utilizar como variable independiente la jornada laboral efectiva (consecuencia de las estrategias personales para absorber la carga), en vez de las horas de trabajo reflejadas en el contrato, o la carga de trabajo objetiva para estudiar el campo trabajo-familia. La razón de esto es que las horas de trabajo más allá de la jornada normal de trabajo inciden y contribuyen fuertemente en el conflicto trabajo-familia. Además es una medida subjetiva.

**Contribución:**
El valor de esta tesis reside en enfocar la investigación en el campo trabajo-familia sobre una profesión, país y contexto contingente particular: el personal docente e investigador en España. Los resultados demuestran que algunas estrategias personales de afrontamiento para absorber la carga laboral (como aumentar la propia jornada laboral) predice el CTF. Dos perfiles de estilos extremos se han identificado, lo cual ayuda a entender por qué aumentar las horas de trabajo tiene algunas veces consecuencias negativas y otras no.

**Palabras Clave:**
Interfaz trabajo-familia, sobrecarga de trabajo, estrategias de afrontamiento, académicos.
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Problem Statement

In recent decades, many social changes have reshaped the society in which we live. In the old days, the meaning of work was self-evident; however, in the 21st century work it is generally difficult to define as it has become “knowledge work”. This kind of work blurs the boundaries. Besides, there is always room for improvement. Workers feel pressured by several job demands such as physical workload, poor environment conditions, demanding clients, individualized workplaces, time pressure, unfavorable shift-work schedule and job insecurity, among others (e.g. Bauman, 2001; Beck, 1992, 2000; Castells, 1996; Sennett, 2000, 2006). Moreover, it is likely that jobs will continue to change.

Edmunds and Morris (2000) have shown that, though the problem of information overload has existed for many years, in recent years the problem has become more widely recognized and experienced. We now live in a global 24/7 media environment. More people report that they experience a fast pace of change, which results in more demanding and intense work tasks and atmospheres (White, Hill, McGovern, Mills and SMEaton, 2003). This involves feelings of pressure, lack of time and general “busyness” (Gambles, Lewis and Rapoport, 2006; Lewis, 2003). These pressures have often been attributed to new forms of work and working patterns, or even to the lifestyles dictated by consumerism and accumulation (Beem, 2005; Bunting, 2004).

In particular, work overload was identified as a problem throughout the modern world (Garhammer, 1998; Schor, 1991; Zuzanek, Beckers and Peters, 1998). In “The Overworked American”, Schor (1991) documented the erosion of leisure time in society, finding that, on average, Americans are working one month more per year than they did twenty years ago. According to Schor (1991), the increased workload is not limited to a few select groups, but has affected the vast majority of working Americans. Hours have risen for men as well as women, for those in the working class as well as professionals. They have risen for all marital statuses and income groups. The increase also spans a wide range of industries. However, long hours are becoming most common among employees in higher status jobs (Roberts, 2007).

Work hours are significantly though moderately related to psychological well-being; however, perceptions of work overload may be even more important with negative implications for mental health, physical health and social relationships (Perry-Jenkins, Repetti and Crouter, 2000). Obviously, exerting an excessive amount of effort over an excessive period of time is energy depleting and leads to exhaustion. Work overload is related to high levels of stress and emotional exhaustion (Lee and Ashforth, 1996), which is the main symptom of burnout syndrome. Employees that work long hours or that feel overloaded or under time pressure are more likely to feel that they lack control over their working conditions and, in turn, may be less likely to develop and use new skills (Holman and Wall, 2002), which overlaps with the burnout notion of cynicism.

The organizational world has been constantly evolving. Also changing is the family world. Traditional gender roles are renegotiated on account of the increase in dual-career couples and single-parent households that are also reflected in the workforce. The traditional single-earner
family – a male breadwinner and a female caregiver – is decreasing. The fact that women entered the labor market raised much concern over the successful combination of work and family life (Jacobs and Gerson, 2001; Mennino and Brayfield, 2002; Moen and Dempster-McClain, 1987; Pitt-Catsouphes and Christensen, 2004; Van der Lippe, Jager and Kops, 2006). Dual-earner families experience the highest levels of time pressure. Working women in particular suffer from time famine, since women still bear the responsibility for the bulk of household chores and childcare.

The so-called “balance” presumed to exist between the paid work people perform and the lives they lead beyond the confines of their job has become the focus of a significant public policy debate in Western countries. Government institutions and private companies (of all sizes) are preoccupied with where the equilibrium of that “balance” should lie and how the supposed requirements of firms for better business performance and higher productivity can be reconciled with the demands and needs of their employees that are faced with overwhelming responsibilities beyond the workplace as parents and citizens.

A great deal is heard regarding the struggles modern parents face in juggling work and family needs. Meeting the demands of today’s twenty-four-hour, Blackberry-fueled workplace and still finding time for your children can seem next to impossible. Moreover, there are dynamic relationships between work and family needs and resources throughout the course of life (Moen and Sweet, 2004). The majority of children currently grow up in families in which both parents work full-time, meaning that grandparents take on a greater role in childcare. Today, nearly 70% of Spanish women perceive that they have insufficient schedule flexibility for meeting work and family demands (Endenred-IESE, 2011).

Previous research concurs in that work demands (i.e. work-role conflict, pressure, distress, unpredictability, inequality, self-employment, greater numbers of hours, a high degree of job involvement, considerable autonomy, organizational loyalty and a high level of intrinsic motivation) can lead to Work-Family Conflict (WFC) (Byron, 2005; Frone, 2003; Eby et al., 2005). In particular, work overload has become the major source of stress and work-life balance problems (Bonney, 2005; Duxbury and Higgins, 2003; Elloy and Mackie, 2002). A supportive organizational culture/supervisor, availability of WF benefits, mentor support, a strong sense of community at work, work flexibility, greater perceived control at work and access to promotional opportunities act as buffers for WFC (Eby et al., 2005) and may lead to work-family facilitation or enrichment.

Why is WFC undesirable? Reviews report several WFC negative outcomes. Work-related outcomes are lower job and career satisfaction, lower manager-rated and self-rated performance, organizational withdrawal behavior and higher turnover (Allen, Herst, Bruck and Sutton, 2000; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998, 1999; Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran, 2005). Non-work related outcomes of Work-Family Conflict are lower life and marital satisfaction, greater emotional exhaustion and a higher number of non-work stressors (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998, 1999;Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran, 2005). Work-Family Conflict is also linked to negative health outcomes such as greater general psychological strain, increased somatic and physiological symptoms, and heightened vulnerability to depression and burnout (Allen et al., 2000; Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran, 2005).

Having sufficient time for work, family and community is important for striking a satisfactory work-life balance. Nowadays, the public sector has opened up considerably. For instance, public universities need to rapidly adjust to global demands: greater productivity, high
standards of competitiveness and flexibility to adjust to new requirements. The task of securing a tenured professorship is demanding and requires a wide range of research, teaching, writing and service skills. American faculty members in tenure-track professor positions do not work conventional hours and generally report schedules exceeding fifty hours of work per week (Zimbler and Conley, 1997). A study conducted in the U.S. by Dua (1994) revealed that one of the major stressors experienced by university professors was workload, which was the most frequently cited reason for considering job change among academics (Blix, Cruise, Mitchell and Blix, 1994). Heavy workloads have also been identified as a reason for not using WF policies in an Australian university (Waters and Bardoel, 2006).

Work-life balance has often been framed in terms of “work-family balance” or indeed work-family conflict, the notion here being that the combination and reconciliation of different roles is inherently more stressful for parents and working parents in particular (Kalliath and Brough, 2008). However, it is evident that management of the work-home interface is pertinent for everyone, not just particular groups.

Female academics report more work-family stress than men do, with no significant differences related to tenure status (O’Laughlin and Bischoff, 2005). Tammelin’s research (2009) showed that the work-family interface does not solely concern how much time is spent at work, but also work pace, scheduling, predictability and autonomy. Hilfinger Messias, Im, Page, Regev, Spiers, Yoder and Meleis (1997) requested an expanded definition of women’s work, a redefinition that goes beyond employment to reflect the multiple contexts and dimensions of women’s work as well as the diversity and differences among women. Expectant first-time parents anticipated a considerable increase in their work activities following childbirth, with women planning a greater share of the total postpartum workload (Gjerdingen, 2000).

Despite the existence of a variety of realms describing work/non-work integration, this study shall focus mainly on work and family domains, as they are the highest valued arenas. The term “work-family interface” will be employed to refer to the interface of two realms of work: professional work (as a professor) and housework (family and home activities). However, the primary analytical perspective is focused on the work domain and focuses on work overload as the main factor behind WFC. Evidently, there has been a focus on Work-Family Conflict (or Work Interference with Family) rather than Family-Work Conflict (or Family Interference with Conflict, respectively). This thesis will not be an exception.

Professors do not have a superior or supervisor as such and also some have a number of other benefits: flexible working hours, flexible workplace (they can usually work from home) and autonomy. Flexible work arrangements have constituted the main policy oriented towards fostering work-family balance in other industries, but what if the profession is inherently flexible? Though they have flexible schedules, do professors experience WFC? What kind of WFC? How do they manage WFC? Are they effective in tackling WFC?

Only by understanding why academics work as much as they do and how this work demand affects family life can it be hoped to solve these problems. By clearly defining the new work demands and the kind of resources that need to be tackled, perhaps a reasonable balance between work and family/home can be recovered.
The Present Study

The purpose of this descriptive study was to build upon the knowledge of the manner in which Spanish teaching and research personnel manage the work-home interface, particularly the tension between perceived work overload demands and family/home demands. Three specific questions will be explored. Firstly, what does “work” entail in Spanish academic settings? Secondly, what does “work-family conflict” consist of in this profession? And finally, what do professors do in order to reduce WFC and promote facilitation (WFF) and enrichment?

Research Goals

General Goal:
The purpose of the present study was to explore how professors manage the work-home interface.

Specific Goals:
To define a professor’s work and specify how work can cause WFC.
To identify the type of WFC events generated by the exercise of this profession.
To examine the strategies employed to reduce WFC and enhance WFF.

Relevance

Whilst there are extant reviews on the field of work-life balance, there is a need to take further stock of the evidence. Byron (2005) states that there is a lack of knowledge of the WFC antecedents. This study addresses this issue and contributes to the understanding of WFC antecedents in a specific profession, namely, academics in Spain.

Many scholars have pointed out a dearth of studies investigating individual-level variables such as individual differences (apart from workaholism), skill-level variables and coping and support strategies (Byron, 2005; Eby et al., 2005). Parasuraman and Greenhaus (2002) argue that a disproportionate emphasis is placed on environmental and situational factors rather than individual differences and psychological characteristics as antecedents of WFC. That is why individual coping strategies will be focused upon. Byron (2005) found that having a better coping style and (i.e. time management) skills (individual variable) led to having less WIF and FIW. Is this true in the case of Spanish academics as well?

The reader will acquire new knowledge regarding the underlying reasons behind work intensification and time pressure in the Spanish academic setting. It will soon be revealed what WFC means to these professionals, how professors experience work overload and cope with it, and finally, how this coping is related to WFC.

Furthermore, this study is relevant to professors to ascertain how they can cope effectively with work overload and family/home demands. Universities may also learn how policies are being implemented in the workplace, and how culture facilitates or hinders taking leaves of absence. WFC, malaise and dissatisfaction among professors may reverberate in negative organizational outcomes: these factors can affect the quality of classes and thus impact upon students and the quality of research in the Spanish scientific community.
Thesis Overview

Following this introduction, a review of the theoretical and empirical literature in the work and family research field is provided. The review offers a synthesis and critique of existing WF research, demonstrating the diverse and multidisciplinary nature of WF literature. The review contains an analysis of the relevant theoretical and empirical contributions provided by such research diversity while highlighting the gaps and limitations evident in the research. The literature concludes by stating the specific research questions to be addressed in the current study. Subsequent to the literature review, the third chapter establishes the design, methodology and analysis procedure. The fourth chapter reports the main findings based on the qualitative data analysis. The final chapter offers an integration of the results of the thesis, examining the extent to which the research was able to answer the questions posed. The discussion outlines the major findings of this research, conveys the contribution offered by these outcomes to WF literature and draws upon the results to discuss their implications. The chapter is concluded with a discussion of the limitations of this research and offers recommendations for future WF research and practice.
CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to present a framework within which the relationship of work overload and work-home interface can be explored. The literature review proceeds as follows: 1) a definition of the work-home interface concept and a selective examination of the dominant perspectives and models that afford an overview of the theoretical situation in the field; 2) a definition of work overload and its relationship with work-life conflict; 3) a description of a number of related working concepts such as burnout syndrome and a commentary on its relevance in the work-life field; 4) a definition of coping and a description of how people reconcile work and family demands; 5) an outline of academic work in the European and Spanish contexts; and 6) conclusions that include the agenda for this thesis.

1. What is Work-Life Balance? Some Definitions

There are many definitions of work-life balance. Though a consensus does not exist regarding the term to designate the concept, it is used as a convention.

Work-life balance is a metaphor that conveys the equilibrium between mainly two (but can be more) spheres of life. In most individuals’ lives, the two central domains are work and family. That is why the research efforts are focused primarily on the work-family interface. The weight of the spheres is not supposed to be equally distributed; not excessively heavy, not excessively light, but in harmony. This harmony is dictated by the individual, the immediate environment (e.g. family members, coworkers, etc.) and cultural patterns.

People experience work-family balance in “the extent to which individuals are equally involved in – and equally satisfied with – their work role and their family role” (Greenhaus and Singh, 2003) or, in other words, “low levels of interrole conflict and high levels of interrole facilitation represent work-family balance” (Frone, 2003: 145).

Work-family studies have also been referred to as paid versus non-paid work, work versus non-work, work-home interface, conflict, interference, balance, harmonization, reconciliation, integration, interaction and work-role fit, depending also on the theoretical perspective. Off-the-job domains are related to caregiving, home management, personal leisure, volunteering, community life, education and training, and sport and hobbies.

Where are the boundaries of work? The pressures of work, for those in work, have intensified in recent decades. Advances in information technology and information load, the need for speed of response, the importance attached to quality of customer service and its implications for constant availability and the pace of change are factors that can be sources of pressure (Guest, 2002). Work is not just the spinal column, but it begins to dominate life and a sense of work-life imbalance ensues. And does only paid employment have to be taken into consideration? There are some work-related activities such as overtime, commuting time (Geurts, Beckers, Taris, Kompier, Smulders, 2009) or networking efforts that may be considered or not as work and equally conflict with life. And what is meant by “life”? The term “life” is often replaced by “non-work”, that means “the remainder of life” besides work.
That includes free time and leisure, housekeeping and family care or simply “family”, which has been afforded the greatest amount of attention by far, rather than “life” (cf. Eby et al., 2005). Empirical studies should give a functional definition of family (e.g. nuclear and extended), rather than a legal or traditional one.

Therefore, researchers and policy-makers should delineate “work” and “life” accurately. The difficulty in work-life research begins with an inaccurate definition of the subject. Moreover, that definition will be charged with perspective. This renders the comparison of studies so difficult.

**Theoretical Perspectives of the Study of the Broad Arena of Work-Life Balance: Its Scopes and Findings**

As Poelmans (2001) states, the lack of theory surrounding the work-family field is striking. Work-family researchers in any discipline have frequently not based their predictions on strong conceptual frameworks. This section strives to recover the main theoretical influences.

The field has been dominated by role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal, 1964; Barnett and Gareis, 2006). The origins of the work-family conflict approach lie in studies of inter-role conflict (e.g., Kanter, 1977; Sarbin, 1954) and its guiding assumption is that work and family are in basic conflict because human energy is limited. Inter-role conflict denotes the conflict experienced when pressures arising in one role are incompatible with pressures arising in another role (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985).

Some of the first studies – in the 80s, basically in the United States – are related to issues such as the relationships between job satisfaction and family satisfaction, the impact of work on the family, and the influence of the family on work (Schultz and Henderson, 1985; Zahrly, 1985). Based on the literature review concerning conflict between work and family roles – large and complete at the time – Zaleznik examines work family conflicts from an intrapersonal, psychodynamic perspective and contrasts the values and defenses used by managers to succeed at work with those that are adaptive in a family environment (Yogman and Brazelton, 1986). Later on, the relationship between work and family were studied from the perspective of role conflict. Several research studies, both quantitative and qualitative, have been conducted. Most of them concerned quantitative research because of the predominant positivist tradition. These meta-analyses have studied multiple variables related to work and family. That is when focusing on the causal effects of time conflicts, role-produced strain and incompatible in-role behavior patterns, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) suggested that WFC exists when there is role pressure incompatibility in terms of time, strain, and/or behavior. Small and Riley (1990) have provided some insight into three processes whereby work can affect an individual’s personal and family life, time, energy, and psychological interference. Later on, Day (1997) clarifies some of the findings of past WFC research in inter-role perspective to improve upon some of the methods and measures previously used, adding that the time and strain demands were directly related to work-spouse and work-parent conflict. Stress and pressure at work was the focus of attention when determining WFC. Predictors and moderators of WFC were needed. The relationship between job performance and well-being varied as a function of gender, time commitment to work, and the degree of role conflict experienced (Greenhaus, Bedeian and Mossholder, 1987). Voydanoff (1988a) highlights a moderator of WFC: “Perceived control over the work situation buffered some relationships between work role characteristics and work/family conflict”. Work-role characteristics and family structure demands additionally contributed to WFC; family structure demands do not
aggravate relationships between work role characteristics and WFC (Voydanoff, 1988a). Furthermore, Burke (1988) declares that ratings of WFC were weakly correlated with demographic antecedents of his data but “strongly correlated with work setting characteristics, social support, levels of work and nonwork stress, and several outcome measures”. The resultant model presumed that WFC leads to negative outcomes and was caused by levels of subjective work and non-work stress resulting from work setting and non-work conditions.

In parallel, Interference Theories began to flourish; the segmentation model (Piotrkowski, 1979) hypothesizes that work and non-work are two distinct domains of life that are experienced quite separately and exert no influence on one another. This appears to be offered as a theoretical possibility rather than a model with empirical support. In contrast, a spillover model (Andreas and Thompson, 2008; Hanson, Hammer and Colton, 2006; Zedeck and Mosier: 1990) hypothesizes that one world can influence the other in either a positive or a negative manner. It operates by means of cross-domain processes such as resource drain, resource generation and positive and negative spillover (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000). The compensation model (Staines, 1980) proposes that what may be lacking in one sphere, in terms of demands or satisfactions, can be made up in the other. “These theories and the research evidence that supported them made an important point: work and family life influence each other, and so employers, societies and individuals cannot ignore one sphere without potential peril to the other” (Kamp Clark, 2000: 749).

Campbell Clark (2000) introduces work-family border theory. According to the theory, people are daily border-crossers between work and family spheres. The theory addresses how domain integration and segmentation, border creation and management, border-crosser participation, and relationships between border-crossers and others at work and home influence work-family balance. This type of model opens up the idea of the permeability of each domain, although the idea of work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering with work (FIW) already existed according to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985). Testing Pleck’s (1977) hypothesis concerning gender differences in the relative permeability of work and family boundaries, Frone, Russell and Cooper (1992a) reported that work and family boundaries are indeed asymmetrically permeable, with family boundaries being more permeable than work boundaries. Individuals typically report more WIF than FIW. WIF and FIW are distinct constructs with discriminant validity (Gutek, Searle and Klepa, 1991), and are strongly correlated with each other (Frone, Russell and Cooper, 1992a, 1992b; Gutek et al., 1991; Kinnunen and Mauno, 1998). According to Gutek et al. (1991), this may have two explanations: 1) work demands can generally be assessed better, or 2) employees’ assessments are influenced by expectations of being a good employee. However, there was no evidence of gender differences in the pattern of asymmetry, indicating that the dynamics of work and family boundaries may operate similarly among men and women. The border theory might help reveal the extent to which individuals are in control of issues determining balance. It also allows physical and psychological control analysis; hence permitting the accommodation of human agency. Nevertheless, a particularly interesting perspective by which to perceive the WFC is not as a one-construct-perspective but rather as a two-directions-perspective. While other theories regarding the intersection of work and family exist, the constructs of WIF and FIW are rooted in conflict theory, which asserts that work and family domains are incompatible due to their different norms and responsibilities (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). The differing norms and responsibilities of work and family cause intrusion and negative spillover from one domain to the other. Kossek and Ozeki (1998) show that, regardless of the type of measure used (bidirectional WFC, work to family, family
to work), a consistent negative relationship exists among all forms of WFC and job-life satisfaction, and this relationship may be stronger for women than men. A great deal of research proposes to measure how work interferes with family or vice versa. By way of example, Bronneberg (1996) showed that FIW conflict was negatively related to self-rated job performance and WIF conflict was positively related to self-rated job performance. Carr, Boyar and Gregory (2008) reported a statistically significant relationship between WIF and employee retention among employees from a manufacturing plant.

Moreover, Bruck, Allen and Spector (2002) studied the relationship between WFC and job satisfaction. When considering all three forms of time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based conflict simultaneously, regression results revealed that behavior-based was the only form of conflict significantly related to job satisfaction. This study highlights the importance of considering both the form and direction of WFC, because WIF is more closely related to employee job satisfaction than FIW (Boles, Howards and Donofrio, 2001). Hochschild (1997) argues that although every mother and almost every father claimed that “family comes first”, few of these working parents questioned their long hours or availed of the company’s opportunities for flextime, paternity leave, or other family-friendly policies. She concludes that the roles of home and work had reversed: work was offering stimulation, guidance and a sense of belonging, while home had become the stressful place in which there was too much to do in too little time. Frone, Yardley and Markel (1997a) create and test an integrative model on reciprocal relationships between work-family and family-work conflict. Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Collins (2001) found that work-to-family conflict (but not family-to-work conflict) was positively related to withdrawal intentions. Kelloway, Gottlieb and Barham (1999) examine the source, nature, and direction of work and family conflict. They suggested that strain-based FIW is a precursor to both stress and turnover intentions. For them, strain-based WIF emerges as an outcome of stress.

In an attempt to shed light on the different notions and terms in the field, Clarke, Koch and Hill (2004) indicate that fit and balance are two separate constructs and suggest that fit is based more on the structural aspects of work-family interactions, whereas balance appears to be based more upon the psychological factors.

Expansion and enrichment are the two recent positive spillover approaches. Work-family expansion refers to the notion that simultaneously engaging in multiple work and family roles is beneficial for the physical, mental and relationship health of individuals (Barnett and Hyde, 2001). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) propose a theoretical model of work-family enrichment, as the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role, and offer a series of research proposals that reflect two paths to enrichment: an instrumental path and an affective path. At a resource-level analysis, Powell and Greenhaus (2006) suggested that work-family enrichment is either unrelated or negatively related to work-family conflict depending on the specific process under consideration by which experiences in one role may affect experiences in the other role. Work-family enrichment has also been referred to as work-family enhancement, work-family facilitation and positive spillover.

Recently, Greenhaus and Allen (2011) have redefined work-life balance as “the extent to which an individual’s effectiveness and satisfaction in work and family roles are compatible with the individuals’ life role priorities at a given point in time”.
Work-Family Culture and Subcultures

Soon, the notion of work-family culture 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” was introduced in the work-family discussion (Thompson, Beauvais and Lyness, 1999: 394), and recently Major, Fletcher, Davis and Germano (2008) demonstrated empirically the validity of this definition. Shown was the importance of employees’ perceptions of organizational culture for the understanding of policy implementation and employees’ attainment of work-life balance, given that a supportive work-family culture was related to higher levels of affective commitment, lower intention of turnover and less WIF (Thompson et al., 1999), while reported perceptions of the organization as not family-friendly were linked to job dissatisfaction, less organizational commitment and greater turnover (Allen, 2001).

Lewis (1997) studied the role of organizational culture in employees’ work-life policy utilization and determined that family-friendly policies are “artefacts”, representing the company’s intentions on the surface level of the culture (Schein, 1990). For Lewis (2001), the real and deep intentions may be the retention of highly trained employees or the importance of long working hours and face time for promotion.

Some manifestations of culture, e.g. use and politics of time, image of top performers, beliefs regarding real work and beliefs concerning hierarchy and control, as identified by Rapoport et al. (2002), strongly affect employees’ perceptions in the whole organization and among different departments and how they will perceive work-life policies.

The notion of subculture is defined as a “subset of an organization’s members who interact regularly with one another, identify themselves as a distinct group within the organization, share a set of problems and routinely take action on the basis of collective understandings unique to the group” (Van Maanen and Barley, 1985: 38). Subcultures may differ from the global culture (Hatch, 1997). For instance, a certain subculture may have similar values to the organizational culture and/or values that are the opposite.

Therefore, an examination of the organizational culture and the role of subcultures appears to be particularly valuable in the work-family context as it allows existing barriers and facilitations to be identified, the latter proving conducive to achieving overall work-life balance.

Antecedents and Outcomes of the Work-Life Conflict and the Work-Life Balance

Some recent studies and meta-analyses have examined the relationship between WFC and its antecedents and consequences (for reviews, see Byron, 2005; Eby et al., 2005; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998; 1999).

Work and family outcomes may be positive, negative or neutral. Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood and Lambert (2007) adapted the classification system adopted by Eby et al. (2005) to examine the WF research content areas. These areas are: (a) WF conflict (WFC; studies focusing on antecedents, consequences or the mediating role of WFC), (b) work role stress (studies linking work stress and family), (c) WF assistance (WF policies and family-supportive cultures), (d) work schedules, (e) career and job outcomes (studies linking family
to work attitudes and behaviors), (f) women’s unique WF experiences, (g) men’s unique WF experiences, (h) WF interface (studies of the WF interface using a theoretical paradigm other than conflict theory), (i) dual-earner issues, and (j) relocation. The main area was (a) WFC. As mentioned previously, the WF field is full of complexities. Firstly, personal and business outcomes have been studied the most, and only a little is known regarding the antecedents (Byron, 2005). Secondly, recent theory and research on WIF and FIW suggests that these two concepts may have different causes and effects (e.g. Frone, Russell and Cooper, 1992a, 1992b; Kelloway et al., 1999).

In this section, some references to antecedents and consequences of the interaction between work and family are presented.

**Antecedents**

Parasuraman and Greenhaus (2002) argue that a disproportionate emphasis is placed on environmental and situational factors rather than individual differences and psychological characteristics as antecedents of WFC. Kossek and Ozeki (1998) published a meta-analysis examining the job/work involvement as a potential antecedent. Subsequently, Byron (2005) adapted the classification system of Eby et al. (2005) regarding WFC antecedents, so she used the three categories: work domain variables (schedule flexibility, job stress, etc.), non-work domain variables (marital conflict, number of hours spent on housework and care, age of the youngest child, etc.), and individual and demographic variables (personality, gender, income, coping style, etc.). For an exhaustive examination of WFC predictors, see Eby et al. (2005). The main conclusion drawn is that work-related antecedents tend to be associated more with work-related interference than non-work interference (Byron, 2005). Non-work related antecedents tend to relate more to family interference with work than work interference with family, although the differences were not always statistically significant. However, of all of the antecedents, job stress, family stress, and family conflict are among the strongest associations with both WIF and FIW, suggesting that while there is differentiation, some work and family factors can simultaneously have disruptive effects on employees’ work and family lives (Byron, 2005). Those who have children at home are likely to experience higher WFC (Carlson, 1999; Grzywacz and Marks, 2000), as are those who are worried or anxious about childcare (Buffardi and Erdwins, 1997; Fox and Dwyer, 1999), or experience tension with their family and have less family support (Carlson and Perrewe, 1999; Fox and Dwyer, 1999; Grzywacz and Marks, 2000; Williams and Alliger, 1994).

Greater family involvement translates into greater WFC (e.g. Carlson and Perrewe, 1999, Fox and Dwyer, 1999, Parasuraman and Simmers, 2001), while greater job involvement is related to WIF (e.g., Gutek et al., 1991, Kossek and Ozeki, 1999).

Generally speaking, supportive work and organizational culture (Carlson and Perrewe, 1999; Greenhaus et al., 1987; Thompson et al., 1999), the availability of work-family benefits (Thompson et al., 1999) and having a mentor (Nielsen, Carlson and Lankau, 2001) are related to less WFC. Moreover, placing social value on one’s work and having access to promotional opportunities are related to lower WFC (Wallace, 1997).

Demographic variables tended to be poor predictors of WIF and FIW, while the individuals with better coping styles and (i.e. time management) skills (individual variable) led to having less WIF and FIW (Byron, 2005).
Outcomes
Perhaps the fact that research on outcomes has relied mostly on individual-level studies (contrary to antecedents’ research) accounts for the lack of understanding as to how WFC influences family or organizational members.

At the end of the 20th century, only a few studies explored the consequences of WFC on physical and psychological health. At the individual level, now in the 21st century, broad evidence points to the fact that WFC and negative spillover affect stress, employee physical health (i.e. hypertension, Frone et al., 1997b), mental health (i.e. anxiety and mood disorders, Frone, 2000), well-being, reduced spousal and parental effectiveness, family processes, decreased life satisfaction and increased psychologically threatening activities such as substance abuse (e.g. Almeida, Wethington and Chandler, 1999; Bedeian, Burke and Moffett, 1988; Byron, 2005; Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair and Shafiro, 2005; Eby et al., 2005; Frone, 2000; Greenhaus, Allen and Spector, 2006; Grzywacz and Bass, 2003). WIF and FIW are related to high stress levels, but some studies state that WIF is related to greater psychological distress (Burke and Greenglass, 1999; Kelloway et al., 1999; Parasurman and Simmers, 2001).

At the work level, some studies show that WFC—regardless of direction—has a negative impact on organizational commitment (affective and continuance), engagement, job performance, job satisfaction, absenteeism, tardiness, turnover/intentions (e.g. Adams, King, & King, 1996; Boyar, Maertz, & Pearson, 2005; Frone, 2000; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996; Greenhaus et al., 2001; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), perceived career success (Van Eck Peluchette, 1993), and job burnout (e.g. Aryee, 1993; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 1996). The positive impact that has work-family policies reflects on higher levels of productivity, job satisfaction, work schedule satisfaction, and lower levels of absenteeism (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999). Despite the proliferation of work-family policies, the growing media attention to them, and the literature on work-family issues (Kossek, Sweet, & Pitt-Catsouphes, 2006), little is known about whether and which organizational initiatives actually reduce WFC and how these changes are likely to impact employees and the organization as a whole (Kelly et al., 2008).

At the societal level, concerns relate to family disruption and community disconnection, reduced social citizenship and community engagement (Voydanoff, 2005). Also, WFCs have been linked to labor market decisions and fertility decisions (Gornick and Meyers, 2003; Stone, 2007).

On the other hand, the business outcomes of WFC or the initiatives that aim to reduce work-family conflict refer to the aggregate impact of many of these individual-level work outcomes on overall organizational-level performance. The business outcomes of WFC studied are productivity measures and financial performance, including stock market performance, as well as return on investment (ROI) information that can directly assess both the costs of work-family initiatives and the financial benefits associated with those organizational changes (i.e. aggregated absenteeism or turnover rates at the department or organizational level, as well as health-care costs) (Kelly et al., 2008).

Moderators
The moderating and mediating effects provide a better and more complete understanding of work-family relationships. Some of the moderators studied in meta-analyses include the percentage of female participants, the percentage of parents in the sample and the coding
schemes (Byron, 2005; Casper et al., 2007). Eby et al. (2005) presents a review of WFC as a mediator of the relationship between job and family variables and outcomes. Voydanoff (2002) suggests the use of social categories (gender, race and ethnicity, social class, household structure and sexual orientation) as moderators in the work-family studies, while some (Allen, 2000; Perry-Jenkins, Repetti and Crouter, 2000) use demographic characteristics (e.g. age and occupation). It is also possible to conceive marital quality as moderating effects of work overload on the parental knowledge and supervision of their children (Bumpus, Crouter and McHale, 1999). Milkie and Peltola (1999) found that those who perceived marital happiness experience more success in balancing family and work.

Research is limited, but personal and family coping resources such as self-esteem, mastery and family adaptability and cohesion may affect the extent to which work and family characteristics are related to each other and to several outcomes. As poor coping strategies may be an antecedent of WFC, recovery strategies may impinge on the relationship between WFC and well-being (Moreno Jiménez et al., 2009a) and there are also direct effects of personal coping and personality traits on WFC (Carlson, 1999; Kirchmeyer and Cohen, 1999).

Now researchers are precisely aware that individual’s WFC can be improved upon through peer and supervisor support, and can affect supervisors, children and spouses. According to Haddock, Zimmerman, Lyness and Ziemba (2006), dual-earner couples with children who considered themselves to be successful in balancing family and work described supportive practices that included: flexible work scheduling, non-traditional work hours, professional/job autonomy, working from home, supportive supervisors, supportive colleagues and supervisees, and the ability to set firm boundaries around work. The same sample also reports ten adaptive strategies for a successful work-family life: valuing family, striving for partnership, deriving meaning from work, maintaining work boundaries, focusing and producing at work, taking pride in dual earning, prioritizing family fun, living simply, making decisions proactively and valuing time (Haddock, Zimmerman, Ziemba and Current, 2001).

**Work-Life Balance and Well-Being of Multiple Stakeholders**

The main goal of these initiatives and the primary purpose of our society is to enhance quality of life by creating mechanisms that promote well-being. Multiple stakeholders benefit from the work-life balance that may be enhanced by private or public work-life policies. For instance, employees remain healthier in a balanced organization. In this respect, important questions have been addressed regarding WFC and employees’ health as measured by psychological distress, depressive symptoms, health behaviors such as sleep and exercise or cardiovascular disease (Allen et al., 2000; Allen and Armstrong, 2006; Bianchi, Casper and King, 2005). There are more general benefits to the public as well as far as these initiatives improve the health of employees and their families. Employees’ families benefit when work-family conflict is ameliorated as well (e.g. Crouter and McHale, 2005; Hammer et al., 2005; Schneider and Waite, 2006). According to studies conducted in the United States of America, communities benefit if employed individuals have more time and energy to be involved in local volunteer work and civic engagement (e.g. Bookman, 2004; Swisher, Sweet and Moen, 2004; Voydanoff, 2001).
Work-Life Balance Policies

Over recent years, Europe has moved forward in order to achieve work-life balance by recommending and implementing work-family and equity policies. Those programs have been considered a “women’s issue”. Organizations wishing to recruit, retain and promote valuable female talent developed policies to support dependent care, flexible scheduling and other initiatives that would enable mothers to remain in the workforce. The focus of the work-life field has not yet shifted to afford more attention to men and their work-life needs, as in the U.S. (Sabatini, 2010).

Work-life policies or work-family interventions are public and private initiatives that are now extended beyond the scope of family. Work-life policies strive to achieve greater complementarity and balance between work and home responsibilities. These policies apply to all workers, not just working parents.

Each country develops its own legislative framework (paid maternity and paternity leaves, extended leave of absence, care services, etc.). Private corporations apply the laws and some companies offer more. Some forms of flexible working arrangements include flexitime, teleworking/telecommuting/e-working, part-time working, job sharing, shift working, annualized hours, compressed hours, home working, career breaks/sabbaticals, study leave, zero hours contract, and v-time (“banked” voluntary overtime), taking time off and then re-entering the workforce, or simply allowing people to establish their own schedules. It is important to note that this does not involve working less, but rather it concerns letting every person find a means of fitting their work in with their life.

Over the past twenty years, many studies regarding the adoption of these policies have been conducted (e.g. Glass and Fujimoto, 1995; Goodstein, 1994; Ingram and Simmons, 1995). More recently, scholars have paid more attention to the implementation of work-family initiatives, including barriers to employees’ utilization or take-up (e.g. substitutions) of policies and benefits once they have been adopted (e.g. Ryan and Kossek, 2008; Van Dyne, Kossek and Lobel, 2007). The least availed of option is job sharing. This could be due to the fact that it is often perceived as a more difficult arrangement to organize, and it also entails a reduction in salary (Redmond, Valiulis and Drew, 2006). Nevertheless, the existence of family-friendly policies has been shown to reduce the incidence of WFC (Barling, Kelloway and Frone, 2005; Cooper, 2005) and can result in improvements in return to work after childbirth and retention rates (Squirchuk and Bourke, 1999), morale and productivity (McCampbell, 1996) and absenteeism (Kossek and Nichol, 1992).

Informal arrangements or work accommodations to family (IWAF) also exist, but they are not generally measured. A more frequent use of IWAF attenuates the positive relationship between family-to-work conflict and stress (Behson, 2002). However, recent research has suggested that informal organizational work-family support (e.g. managerial support) is more useful and effective than formal programs (Behson, 2005). Finally, the culture of a workplace has a significant effect on the use of work-life balance policies. Work-life balance policies do not prove to be very effective in an unsupportive workplace.

However, work-life policies may be motivated by external and social drivers such as customer relations at a local level, public image of the organization, competition from other organizations, legislation, demographic change and corporate responsibility. On the other
hand, internal drivers include employer of choice, cost-benefit analyses and employee health and well-being (Redmond, Valiulis and Drew, 2006).

**Costs and Benefits of Work-Life Policies**

International literature identifies the benefits of work-life balance policies. Some of them were outlined by Redmond et al. (2006):

- Improved recruitment and retention rates, with associated cost savings.
- Reduced absenteeism and sick leave usage.
- A reduction in worker stress and improvements in employee satisfaction and loyalty.
- Greater flexibility for business operating hours.
- Improved productivity.
- Improved corporate image.

On the other hand, the costs of implementing work-life balance policies include:

- Direct costs: parental leave payments or providing equipment to telecommuters.
- Indirect costs associated with temporarily filling the posts of absentees and temporary reductions in productivity arising from disruptions.
- Costs associated with designing and implementing work-life balance policies.

There is no one-size-fits-all work-life policy. The literature highlights the potential negative aspects of current flexible working trends, such as instability of tenure, low pay and low-status employment opportunities.

Although the corporate paradigm has changed from family-friendly organizations to family-responsible organizations, formal initiatives are barely used. Many studies (e.g. Atkinson and Hall, 2009; Lewis, 2001; Sullivan and Smithson, 2007) state that policy uptake and flexible working is a gendered decision. Eaton (2003) built a “usability” measure that included employees’ perceptions that the policies would not be detrimental to their careers. Individuals often do not take advantage of these policies for fear of career repercussions down the line (Bergmann, 1986; Judiesch and Lyness, 1999; Williams, 2000). Eaton’s “usability” measure is a means of assessing the supportiveness of a workplace. He found that if these policies were perceived as “usable”, there was a significant positive association with organizational commitment.

Evidence of the benefits of WF policies, or otherwise, is generally anecdotal, and therefore, in many cases, it is impossible to achieve a precise analysis of their effects. Success indicators must be developed for these policies that would provide tangible proof of whether a company is benefiting or not from adopting work-life balance arrangements.

**Methodological Considerations**

There are common criticisms of WF research, which concern methodological deficiencies.

**Methodological Gaps**

Some studies argue that an overemphasis is placed on the individual level of analysis (Eby et al., 2005; Parker and Hall, 1992; Zedeck, 1992; Zedeck and Mosier, 1990) rather than on a group, dyad or organizational level.
Methods and research designs mainly comprise quantitative approaches. Researchers have requested qualitative approaches (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999). Qualitative approaches and theory testing techniques (i.e. path analysis and structural equation modeling – SEM) have been used infrequently (Casper et al., 2007). The use of moderator and mediator analyses (Baron and Kenny, 1986) has become a prominent data-analytic strategy to test the relevance of interaction effects and the effectiveness of intervening processes. To the detriment of a better understanding of changes over time, there is an over-reliance on cross-sectional designs (Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999; Zedeck, 1992) and a lack of longitudinal or experimental studies, which reverberate in poorly understood causal relations (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999; Lambert, 1990, Kelly et al., 2008) and a lack of triangulation or corroborating evidence (Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999; Parker and Hall, 1992; Swanson, 1992; Zedeck, 1992; Zedeck and Mosier, 1990).

With regard to data analysis techniques, most studies in industrial-organizational psychology and organizational behavior (IO/OB) work-family (WF) research used simple inferential statistics and techniques examining one dependent variable with a single relation, while only a few studies used qualitative data analysis (Casper et al., 2007). Allen et al. (2000) suggested that it would be valuable to include possible moderators such as organizational and personal characteristics in future studies.

Multiple efforts have been made across the world to develop and test new instruments to measure the work-life interface, such as WFC, WIF and FIW measures (i.e. Burley, 1989; Carlson, Kacmar and Williams, 2000; Frone et al., 1992a; 1992b; Gutek et al., 1991; Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Kopelman, Greenhaus and Connolly, 1983; Netemeyer et al., 1996). Some have validated a version for Spain (e.g. Blanch and Aluja, 2009; Moreno Jiménez et al., 2009b). There has been also an over-reliance on single-source self-report survey data (Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999; Zedeck, 1992) and poor measures (Greenhaus, 1988; Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999; Swanson, 1992).

The Power of the Sample in the WF Field

Not only have theories and models varied, but samples have also. Some relevant examples are shown here. Researchers have studied the work and family interface within different samples representing a variety of socio-demographic characteristics, obtaining a plethora of results, mainly according to:

Sex/gender: working women and working men are the main categorizations since strong evidence of gender differences in “balancing” work and family were found. The differences are palpable in topics such as the use of time, gender role attitudes and the sexual division of labor (Crompton, Brockmann and Lyonette, 2005), discrimination for being a mother reflected in pay and rank (Bacik and Drew, 2006), work and family centrality (Cinamon and Rich, 2002), take-up of WF resources at the organization such as teleworking or homeworking (Sullivan and Smithson, 2007), skills development and coping strategies (Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2007), etc. It appears that the redistribution of roles within the family to match increased role responsibilities outside the home has not yet occurred (Duxbury and Higgins, 1991). Women tend to emphasize their family roles to a greater extent than men do (Gutek et al., 1991). Furthermore, as regards men, women are still more likely to have the primary responsibility of balancing family obligations with their obligations to their employer (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1993). Often, if not always, the sample is disaggregated by sex. In any case, some works encounter less and less influence of the sex/gender variable, such as only a limited moderating influence on the relationships between
the antecedents and the components of WF balance (Aryee, Srinivas and Tan, 2005), or even nil gender moderation of the influence of any of the family-responsive variables on the retention-relevant outcomes (Aryee, Luk and Stone, 1998). Some studies confirm but others reject evidence of gender differences in work-family experiences and outcomes (Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 2002). This leads to the hypothesis that gender has an indirect, mediation effect or moderating effect on family responsibilities and status. On the other hand, working fathers are conceptually and empirically underrepresented in this field. Some research on working fathers was carried out by Dermott (2003), Hill (2005), and Hill, Hawkins, Märtinson and Ferris (2003).

Professionals/occupations: As different occupations have different work demands and, therefore may report differences in WFC, many jobs (professionals or not) have been studied – i.e. executives, business people, or managers (e.g. Callaghan, 2005), lawyers (Wallace, 1997; 1999), academic staff (Kinman and Jones, 2008; Fox, Schwartz and Hart, 2006; O’Laughlin and Bischoff, 2005), teachers (Cinamon and Rich, 2005), health professionals (Thomas and Ganster, 1995), nurses (Yeh, 1991; Yildirim and Aycan, 2008), police officers (Burke, 1994; 1998; Thompson, Kirk and Brown, 2005), entrepreneurs (Foley and Powell, 1997, Parasuraman, Purohit, Godschalk and Beutell, 1996), self-employed (Swanson, Power and Simpson, 1998), etc. Eby et al. (2005) state that employees in certain occupations or industries (e.g. with high levels of stress, requiring traveling) may be more prone to WFC. For instance, the self-employed enjoy greater autonomy and schedule flexibility at work, and report higher levels of job involvement and job satisfaction than those employed in organizations. Nevertheless, they also experience higher levels of WFC, and lower family satisfaction than organizational employees (Parasuraman and Simmers, 2001).

Contract type: Contractual working conditions – full-time, part-time or temporary worker – usually reflect stability and working hours, and this influences both the resources available (e.g. paid help, quality daycare) and the stressors experienced in work and family domains (Heymann, Boyton-Jarrett, Carter, Bond and Galinsky, 2002).

Economic and social status: Socio-economic status – high, middle and low income classes – is, like many others, a taxonomy sample characterized as subjective and it may modify the perception of WFC as people may have different resources to cope with it. As known in the US, a low-income worker earns a below-poverty income ($8.71 an hour or less). Low-income workers tend to be women and people of color, and their low incomes often result from low hourly wages at contingent, short hours or temporary jobs (usually without benefits). For low-paid workers, long work hours (if they can obtain them) are often essential (Brandt, 2003). Some studies have been developed by Dean (2007) regarding the work-life balance in a low-income neighborhood, and McGinnity and Calvert (2009) explore why professionals report higher work-life conflict (as they perceive a greater lack of time) than less-educated people and debates surrounding social inequality.

Marital status: Most of the sample used in past studies were married or cohabiting (living with a partner) (Casper et al., 2007). Single people without children face expectations to work more hours that coworkers with a family (Young, 1999). Some studies focused on single people have been conducted by Bacharach, Bamberger and Conley (1991) and Repetti (1989), and for a comparison of work-life balance between singles and non-single people, see Bull and Mittelmark (2009).
Parental status: Generally speaking, samples are disaggregated by the family burden (if participants are responsible or not for children, disabled people, aging people, relatives and “Sandwich Generation” (caring for children and parents/in-laws). Differences in family structure are associated with a differential investment of psychological energy and time commitment to work which, in turn, significantly influence an individual’s income, salary progression and career advancement (Schneer and Reitman, 1993; 1995).

Family configuration: The shift from male-breadwinner to dual-earner couples and single-parent households, rather than changes in the length of the workweek per se, created growing concern over balancing work and family. This analysis suggests that debates over conflicts between work and family need to focus more on the combined work schedules of family members than on changes in individual work patterns (Jacobs and Gerson, 2001). Here some studies are presented according to family type: dual-earner families (e.g. Higgins, Duxbury and Irving, 1992; Lewis, Izraeli and Hootsmans, 1992), couples that are simultaneously business and marriage partners (Foley and Powell, 1997), expatriate families (Harris, 2004), single mothers/fathers (McManus, Korabik, Rosin and Kelloway, 2002; Vinet, 1989), and blended families, to the knowledge of the author, have not yet been studied by themselves.

Life Stage: Entering parenthood has been associated with dramatic changes in roles and responsibilities associated with caregiving that seem to transform work and family life (Kaufman and Uhlenberg, 2000). Across the intensive child-rearing years, caregiving responsibilities increase in conjunction with work responsibilities associated with career-building, which presents unique challenges to work and family life (Moen and Roehling, 2005). There is evidence among dual-earner couples with children aged 12 and under that perceived work-family interference is related to a desire for a reduced work schedule for both self and spouse (Moen and Dempster-McClain, 1987). In contrast, workers in later family life stages are likely to have fewer childcare responsibilities and seem to be more adept at managing work and family demands (Sterns and Huyck, 2001). Erickson, Martinengo and Hill (2010) confirmed these findings by looking for differences across six life stages: before children, transition to parenthood, youngest child preschool-age, youngest child school-age, youngest child adolescent and empty nest. They also found special nuances related to strain and time-based WF conflict: parents of preschool-age children may struggle with the demands of caregiving, while parents of school-age children are more likely to have time conflicts as they endeavor to be part of their children’s activities.

Territorial studies: Many studies have been developed by company, industry, state and a whole country. Most of the WF literature comes from the US, UK, Canada, New Zealand and Israel, but it is easy to find studies on work-life issues in other countries as its setting, such as Turkey (e.g. Yildirim and Aycan, 2008), Hong Kong (e.g. Hang-yue, Foley and Loi, 2005; Lo, 2003), Malaysia (Ahmad, 1996), Australia (e.g. Craig, Mullan and Blaxland, 2010) and Brazil (e.g. ILO and UNDP, 2009a). In Europe, almost every country has examined its WF situation (e.g. for Finland see Kinnunen and Mauno, 1998, and for the Netherlands, see Geurts, Kompier, Roxburgh and Houtman, 2003). In Spain, the WF research has been led by the International Center for Work and Family (ICWF) of the IESE Business School. Later on, the Instituto de la Mujer in different Autonomous Regions has made its contributions. A noteworthy Spanish study was conducted by Cardona, Chinchilla, Poelmans, Cooper and Spector (2000). All the aforementioned studies examine WFC in another culture, but not many researchers compare two or more countries. Only a few cross-cultural comparisons have been made on account of their high costs and methodological complexities (e.g. Ayree, Fields and Luk, 1999; Crompton and Lyonette, 2006; Edlund, 2007; Lu et al., 2006; Masselot and...
International organizations are also contributing to regional studies in Latin America and the Caribbean (ILO and UNDP, 2009b) and Europe (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2006). A cross-cultural study of WF balance in 29 countries indicates that the wealth of a country is strongly associated with the likelihood of achieving a balanced work-family situation (Edlund, 2007).

Little appears to be known about WF issues among employees from different racial and ethnic groups, different cultures and non-traditional families (Casper et al., 2007). Gay and lesbian employees may face different WF issues because of discrimination and stigmatization (Button, 2001; Ragins and Cornwell, 2001). Generation (Baby boomers, Gen X, Gen Y) is a sociological taxonomy that intends to reflect several shared characteristics (i.e. values, age and work attitudes) and is used mainly in the US, but is not applicable to Europe and Latin America. Work and family characteristics that reflect role involvement and quality are considered as independent variables in some studies and as outcomes in others (Voydanoff, 2002). Casper et al. (2007) showed that the knowledge of WF issues is based on studies of heterosexual, Caucasian, managerial and professional employees in traditional family arrangements.

Just the mere characteristics of the sample point to the multilevel aspect of work-family studies. As shown by Heraty et al. (2008: 209), “the literature on the work-family interface is complex, and theory in the field is uncertain and under-developed”. This affords the opportunity to explore the WF interface among Spanish professors, addressing some methodological gaps explained in Chapter III.

Some Critical Perspectives

In line with feminist critical, postmodernist and poststructuralist definitions of language, this field of work-life scholarship does not take processes of social construction shaping our work and family lives as given, neutral or apolitical (Weedon, 1987). This is a perspective of discourse and related practices of power.

Caproni (2004) argues that work-life discourse reflects individualism, goal focus, achievement orientation and instrumental rationality. She shows that WF research lacks the emotional side of human beings, and that researchers must transcend the language of the compartmentalization of life, which is actually trapping people in perceived work-life imbalance. Ransome (2007) claims that by staying in the dominant sexual/gender division of the labor paradigm, much of the current academic work-life balance discourse has become rather narrow. The difficulty of applying the current discourse to households where primary care, particularly of infants, does not actually, or any longer, account for a major share of the total responsibility burden. In the same vein, generally accepted assumptions in WF research are challenged by Pitt-Catsouphes and Christensen (2004). They encourage scholars to think out of the box and to focus on calling into question the relationship between WF and gender and employment with both an equity and differential perspective.

Lewis, Gambles and Rapoport (2007) state that the work-life balance metaphor is a social construct located within a particular period of time and originating in a Western context. This, in addition to creating enormous difficulties when comparing with the past and other cultures, is also related to the context of globalization and reorganization, mainly because people are experiencing changes at work (e.g. overload and time pressure) which engender feelings of
lack of time and pressure that are also translated in the personal/social/family domain. They argue that there are assumptions surrounding WLB terminology as gender-neutral, individual choice and culture free.
2. Work Overload Definition

For job/process designers, while a precise definition of workload is elusive, a commonly accepted definition is the hypothetical relationship between a group or individual human operator and task demands. An amount of labor or a quantified physical effort (as weight lifting or stamina) are other meanings of workload.

Overload was defined as employees’ perception that they had more work than could be completed within a given time period (Jex, 1998). Overworked people usually have unreasonable workloads, long (and odd) working hours, tougher pace or work, pressure to work overtime (paid or unpaid), and shorter (or lack of) breaks, days off and vacations.

The Work Overload Measure based on French et al. (1982) identifies the respondents’ sense of quantitative overload (i.e. the amount of work, the feeling they were working too fast or too hard, they had too much to do, or there was too much pressure on them) and qualitative overload (the feeling that they did not have the time to produce quality work or did not have the skills to perform assignments). Moreover, overload in the work and family domain (role overload) can be assessed using a scale created by Peterson et al. (1995), which consists of: 1) feeling a need to reduce some parts of their role, 2) feeling overburdened in their role, 3) feeling they have been given too much responsibility, 4) feeling that their workload is too heavy, and 5) feeling that the amount of work they have interferes with the quality they wish to maintain.

Allan, Loudoun and Peetz (2007) developed the notion of workload pressure, which encompasses both the amount and pace of work. They developed their own measurement by asking questions about the amount of time workers have to rest during breaks, whether they work to tight deadlines, leave on time, take work home, have adequate employees to complete the jobs, have a backlog of work if they are sick and whether working late is taken for granted at their workplace.

Role theories (Kahn et al., 1964; Reilly, 1982) introduces the concepts of role overload, role conflict and role ambiguity. Role overload is the degree to which a person perceives him/herself to be under time pressure because of the number of commitments and responsibilities one has in life. Role overload can be defined simply as having too much to do and not enough time in which to do it. Role overload means feeling rushed and time-crunch, feeling physically and emotionally exhausted and drained and not having enough time for oneself (Duxbury, Lyons and Higgins, 2008). Role overload is conceptually distinct from two other role stressors, role conflict – defined as having two or more different incompatible roles that collide (or do not collaborate) –, and role ambiguity – defined as being uncertain about the task requirements of a particular job, instead of role clarity. Unfortunately, role overload is a concept that has been misunderstood and not well used by some work-family scholars. The term role overload has been used interchangeably with role strain, role stress, time-based strain and role conflict (Korabik, Lero and Whitehead, 2008: 128-129). That is why the role conflict concept has been employed more among work-family researchers.

Work Overload can be defined as a situation that occurs when job demands exceed human capability and he/she has to work harder with too little resources (time, energy, etc.). Demand-resource theories rooted in scarcity theory indicate that an intervention to address workload issues would go to the source of the problem and alleviate workload by increasing
resources and reducing demands (e.g. increasing staff, reducing time pressure, increasing organizational support, increasing control over working time or increasing task control). This may be the solution in an ideal world, but in reality, with deadlines, budgets and productivity targets, this is not always possible. To provide more resources is not always the solution, as resources must be handled and therefore people become overloaded again. The use of technology is an example of this, where the cure may be worse than the disease. In this vein, Karasek and Theorell (1990) recognized that occupational stress and illness, or work satisfaction and effectiveness, arise from an interactive dynamic between the challenges (demands) presented by work tasks in relation to the resources (controls or decision latitude) that workers bring to bear in response to job demands. This is known as the job demands-job control model (or job strain model). The great influence rests on the claims that psychosocial work environments (especially high psychological demands and low job control) have an adverse impact on employee health and well-being.

The effort-recovery theory suggests ensuring, at the very least, that employees are able to take sufficient breaks and rests from periods of intense activity (Meijman and Mulder, 1998), encouraging employees to take holiday leave, or by implementing flexi-time systems that include time banks (Skinner and Pocock, 2008).

**Antecedents of Work Overload**

Sales (1970) shows, by means of an experimental study, that increased workloads may improve system performance on some levels – such as productivity – but these same increased workloads may also exert detrimental influences both upon system performance (e.g. with respect to errors) and upon individuals involved (e.g. with respect to their self-esteem and their experienced tension and anger). As deadlines do motivate and overloaded people do produce more (e.g. Jackson, 1958; Klemmer and Muller, 1953; Miller, 1960; Miller, 1962; Quastler and Wulff, 1955), there has been a managerial use of work overload to increase productivity by looking for the optimal levels of workload for maximizing employee performance. However, these optimal levels of workload are difficult to ascertain.

The main factors that contribute to work overload include:

- **Time-based or strain-based role conflict**: having two or more tasks that are incompatible. Time pressure is experienced by all kind of workers, but particularly by working parents, who have both work and home demands. For instance, WFC predicts work overload and vice versa. Demerouti, Bakker and Bilters (2004) demonstrate that WFC was both a predictor and an outcome of work pressure and exhaustion, suggesting reverse causation. Specifically, higher rates of labor market participation by women raised much concern over the successful combination of work and family life (Jacobs and Gerson, 2001; Mennino and Brayfield, 2002; Moen and Dempster-McClain, 1987; Pitt-Catsouphes and Christensen, 2004; Van der Lippe, Jager and Kops, 2006). Dual-earner families experience the highest levels of time pressure. Working women in particular suffer from time famine and exhaustion, since women still carry the responsibility for the bulk of household work and childcare, although traditional roles are changing slowly and men are more committed to care and housework.

- **In addition to paid work**, community demands contribute to employees’ workload (Voydanoff, 2005).
• **Demanding environment** at multiple levels. People may come across competitive colleagues and demanding supervisors in the workplace. Corporations who exploit their employees by manipulating an “overwork culture” and fear of job loss are killing employee motivation, commitment and ultimately, production. However, outside is a globalized market and a challenging economic environment that constantly pose a threat to organizations, clients and suppliers.

• **Cultural norms.** The “work devotion schema” is a stereotype representing unwritten rules of the “ideal worker” who is supposed to be fully work-oriented, work long hours, and not burdened by family responsibilities (Blair-Loy, 2004). Gershuny (2005) argues that *busyness* is a badge of honor. Nowadays, being busy is a positive, privileged position and only people with high status work long hours and feel busy. Hamermesh and Lee (2007) claim that complaints about being busy or a lack of time are more commonly expressed by well-off couples. Organ and Ryan (1995) argue that employees who engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (defined by Organ (1988: 4) as an individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization) may become overloaded by the additional responsibilities they have undertaken.

• **Low levels of support** from supervisors and co-workers.

• **Work intensification due to global changes.** Work overload may be deeply rooted in global changes such as the knowledge era (the knowledge or information society), the organizational capitalism model, and/or the restructuring plan for companies (mergers, acquisitions and downsizing). Modern companies are changing to a more horizontal organizational chart, experiencing *de-layering* in the management grades (Noon and Blyton, 1998), which usually results in less personnel with more tasks to perform. Another study found that participation in setting performance objectives, difficult objectives and higher performance ratings are associated with increased levels of work overload (Brown and Benson, 2005). These findings suggest that some of the features associated with a well-designed appraisal system may generate adverse outcomes for employees and, subsequently, for their organizations.

• **“Workload dilemma”**. Workload is reaching epic levels, significantly increasing employee stress and burnout and diminishing commitment. At the same time, senior managers are reluctant to add headcount and provide other resources that would reduce workload. Managers are resisting organizational change instead of altering the sources of job stress (WDF Consulting, 2010). Companies are attempting to do whatever they can with the least amount of staff possible.

• **Overtime** (paid or unpaid): having long workdays, working at night or at weekends may actually be a strategy to cope with work overload which, in turn, may create total-life overload. Employees who work more hours tend to perceive more work overload.

• **Paperwork** due to over-regulation. This may be more acute in the public sector.

• **Unrealistic deadlines.** Greater time pressure.

• **Role ambiguity**: confusion over whose responsibility a specific task or project is.

• **Technology** has been a major factor in the drastic increase in work overload and subsequent burnout. With the influx of laptops and the Internet, cell phones, smartphones and e-mail, employees are frequently in constant contact with their work, particularly for tasks that can be performed in any place and at any time. Reich (2001) maintains that advances in technology frequently mean that employees are forced to work more (rather than less) and often find it difficult to fully escape from their jobs.

• **Information overload** refers to the difficulty a person can have understanding an issue and making decisions that can be caused by the presence of excessive
information (Yang, Chen and Honga, 2003). Paradoxically, although there is an abundance of information available, it is often difficult to obtain useful, relevant information when it is needed. A Thomson Reuters White Paper (2010) indicates that when faced with unsorted, unverified “raw” data, 60% of decision-makers will make “intuitive” decisions that can lead to poor outcomes. Bawden and Robinson (2008) discuss two main classes of problems: one relating to the quantity and diversity of information available, and the latter relating to the changing information environment with the advent of Web 2.0: loss of identity and authority, emphasis on micro-chunking and shallow novelty and the impermanence of information. To cope with information overload, people filter (delete what is useless) and withdraw (keep the number of information sources to a minimum).

- **E-mail overload.** Evidence abounds that e-mail overload is a problem in the workplace (Girrier, 2003; Ingham, 2003; Whittaker and Sidner, 1996). The results of a study carried out by Thomas and Smith (2006) reveal three characteristics that contribute to e-mail overload – unstable requests, pressures to respond and the delegation of tasks and shifting interactants – suggesting that e-mail talk, as social interaction, may both create and affect overload. E-mail is a critical part of company infrastructure and business processes. For many people, e-mail is becoming the preferred method of communication, although it is also a delicate matter. “Silence” or non-response to communication (e-mail, voice mail, etc.) can be very damaging to virtual team effectiveness as it leads to individuals misattributing explanations for this silence (Cisco, 2006).

Some of the factors mentioned above exceed working conditions that may be controlled by the employer. As is evident, some constitute the effects of profound cultural changes.

**Organizational and Personal Outcomes of Work Overload**

Work overload studies have shown that it is related to a number of outcomes that are potentially detrimental to both organizational and personal health. Overload was expected to be negatively related to performance for two reasons. Firstly, overloaded employees waste time and energy coping with the stress and the anxiety caused by overload and the frustration that it immediately provokes (time and energy that could have been used to improve their job performance). Secondly, overload was found to be associated with involuntary physiological responses that interfere with job performance (Spector, Dwyer and Jex, 1988). According to Bateman (1980), work overload has negative effects on productivity, quality of employees’ work, supervisors’ ratings, employee attitudes, job satisfaction and health. In turn, dissatisfaction is related to worker absenteeism (due to sick leaves), turnover, complaints and grievances.

Unmet expectations usually result in stress, and as shown by Janssen et al. (1999) and Cordes and Dougherty (1993), work overload or a high level of demands is a significant predictor of emotional exhaustion, a main component of burnout syndrome. In fact, Maslach et al. (2001) suggest the idea that burnout is actually a response to work overload. Some social and organizational psychologists (e.g. Kahn et al., 1964; Kraut, 1965; Mueller, 1965) reported negative affective reactions in individuals exposed to role overload, such as tension, low job satisfaction, poor interpersonal relations and low self-esteem.

Hallowell is a psychiatrist that introduces a neurological approach. Caused by brain overload, attention deficit trait (or ADT as he calls it) is now an epidemic in organizations (Hallowell,
The core symptoms are distractibility, inner frenzy and impatience. People with ADT have difficulty staying organized, setting priorities and managing time. These symptoms can undermine the work of an otherwise gifted executive, which is an alternative concept to burnout and may explain why smart people under-perform.

Shirom et al. (1997) studied the effects of objective and subjective overload and of physical and emotional burnout on cholesterol and triglycerides levels. For women, emotional burnout predicted changes in the serum lipids, and for men, physical and emotional burnout predicted changes in total cholesterol. Furthermore, medical researchers have shown that subjects’ levels of serum cholesterol are increased by work overload, while other studies have suggested that high workloads may be an extremely important factor in the etiology of coronary heart disease. For a complete review of health outcomes of work overload, see Sales, 1969. Since the 1970s, sudden death due to cardiovascular and cerebrovascular disease among Japanese workers has been an important topic of debate. This phenomenon is called karoshi, which means “death from overwork”. Nishiyama and Johnson (1997) suggested that work organization and management methods in specific cultures may have different occupational health effects. Overwork can kill employees especially if combined with high demand, low control and poor social support. Now a new problem has arisen: karo jisatsu, which means “suicide from overwork” (Inoue and Matsumoto, 2000).

Who Is Overworked? Some Statistics

As work overload has been operationalized as working hours (and overtime) or role conflict, it is difficult to compare results among several studies. Individuals have different tolerances for demands and stress. However, workload can vary by gender, age, occupational level and number of children.

- Men are significantly more likely to work long hours than women, and women are less likely to be satisfied with their job overall, the more hours they work. The reverse is true for men (Kodz et al., 2003).
- Women have heavier total workloads than men. The fact that the division of labor between spouses in the home has remained the same while the employment situation of women has changed radically has led to a heavy workload for women (Frankenhaeuser 1993a, 1993b, 1996; Kahn 1991), with little opportunity for them to relax in the evenings (Frankenhaeuser et al., 1989).
- People between the ages of 30 and 49 are the most likely to work long hours (Kodz et al., 2003).
- Managers, professionals and operative and assembly workers are those occupations most likely to work long hours. Over two thirds of managerial and professional workers that work long hours are neither paid nor given time off to compensate for their extra work (Kodz et al., 2003).
- Upper management has more control over workload, but top managers are the most likely to be working over sixty hours per week (Kodz et al., 2003).
- Small business owners work the longest hours (paid and unpaid) at their main or only job, with 38% working more than 50 hours per week (Bond et al., 2002: 52).
- Total workload increases with an increase in the number of children. Parents of teenagers are more overworked than parents with younger children. In addition, employees with elder care responsibilities tend to be more overworked than employees without these responsibilities (Galinsky et al., 2005).
Elloy and Smith (2003) confirm in an Australian sample that dual-career couples experience higher levels of stress, work-family conflict and overload than single-career couples. Only 3% of dual-career, long-hour couples appear to share contentment with respect to their high levels of time commitments to work (Clarkberg and Moen, 2001: 1127).

Thirty-eight percent of Americans claim they work more than 45 hours every week, versus 30% of Canadians and 28% of Britons (Arora, 2004).

The impact of work overload is also documented by Galinsky et al. (2005).

Employees who are family-centric (prioritizing family over work) or dual-centric (affording equal priority to family and work) are less likely to be overworked than employees who are work-centric.

Sixty percent of employees, who very often have to work on an excessive number of tasks simultaneously, feel highly overworked, compared with only 22% who sometimes experience excessive multi-tasking.

Twenty percent of employees reporting high overwork levels claim they commit a great deal of mistakes at work versus none (0%) among those who experience low overwork levels.

More than one third of employees (36%) do not plan to use their full vacation.

Only 8% of those with low overwork levels have high levels of depressive symptoms compared with 21% of those who are highly overworked.

Working people’s satisfaction with various aspects of their lives, for example, health, social life and leisure pursuits, tend to decrease with the number of hours worked. This negative effect is much more marked amongst women than men (Kodz et al., 2003).

**The Relevance of Work Overload on Work-Life Balance**

As overload occurs when multiple demands exceed one’s resources such as time and/or energy (Elloy and Smith, 2003), the same definition is applicable to work overload and family overload.

What is the connection between work overload and work-life balance? Studies have indicated that workload was the single most frequently perceived source of job-related stress (Rogers, 1977) and that it is the strongest predictor of full-time employees’ work-life conflict (Geurts and Demerouti, 2003; Skinner and Pocock, 2008). In other words, scholars maintain that a major source of work-family conflict is the lack of sufficient time in the day to meet work and family obligations (Hochschild, 1997). Previous researchers have found evidence for the relationship between role overload and work-life conflict (Frone et al., 1997) and demonstrate a dual effect on work-life conflict: a higher workload increases working hours, and it also contributes to exhaustion. According to this, evidence from past research is much more plentiful in supporting the relationship between work overload and WIF conflict (Frone et al., 1997; Aryee et al., 1999; Fu and Shaffer, 2001; Wallace, 1999). Fox and Dwyer (1999) specify that the amount of time and involvement in both domains (work and family) would moderate the stressor-conflict relationships. In addition, longitudinal examinations reveal that employees’ perceptions of workload predicted work-to-family conflict over time, even when controlling the number of hours spent at work. Workload also influences affect at work, which in turn influences affect at home (Ilies, Schwind, Wagner, Johnson, DeRue and Ilgen, 2007). Longitudinal studies show that WFC predicts general well-being after six months.
Work overload not only affects the worker, but it can also have an adverse impact on the worker’s family. Changes in traditional gender roles at work and in the home are also increasing the workload placed on them. The time (and so-called “quality time”) is an issue both for the relationship between parents and children and for the couple itself. Parents transfer values and family traditions. The response children show when parents teach them to read or assist them with homework is much greater than the response to baby-sitters or teachers. Without the time to spend with their children, families lack the closeness they should ideally have. For couples, work overload can be just as devastating. Divorce rates have been higher in the last few decades than ever. Couples tend to be more irritable when they have too many things to deal with. This causes tension and anger between them which, in turn, may be devastating for the relationship.

Below are some statistics that illustrate the manner in which overwork affects families:

- In a 2001 sample of Australian fathers it was found that, “working more than 40 hours indicated a stronger negative impact of work on family than fathers working 35 to 40 hours” (Gray et al., 2004: 265-266).
- In those families where parents faced barriers to helping children with homework, 66% had children who were experiencing behavioral or academic difficulties at school (compared to only 31% of children in families where the parents were able to help with homework). Similarly, in those families where parents faced barriers to participating in school meetings and other school events, 58% of their children experienced behavioral or academic difficulties in school (compared to 33% of children in families where parents were able to become involved in the school) (Heymann, 2006: 60).
- Women in dual-earner relationships are more likely to feel overworked when either they or their husbands work very long hours (Clarkberg and Moen, 2001: 1128).
- “For every additional hour worked, the odds that a respondent will express concern about the effect of long hours on his or her family and personal lives increase by 7%” (Wharton and Blair-Loy, 2006: 426).
- “Having a husband who works more than 50 hours a week increases the odds of a woman quitting her job by 44 percent. Having a husband who works more than 60 hours a week increases her odds of quitting by 112 percent” (Williams and Boushey, 2010: 56).
- “Only 11% of married professional mothers work 50 or more hours a week. Those who don’t often are barred from the fast track” (Williams and Boushey, 2010: 51).
- “Being female increases the odds that a respondent will worry about the effect of her long hours by almost 95%” (Wharton and Blair-Loy, 2006: 426).
- “80% of men who work more than 50 hours a week would prefer shorter schedules. Only 18% of men wanted such long hours” (Williams and Boushey, 2010: 52).
3. Working Concepts and Their Relationship with the WF Interface

Many concepts of the psychology and sociology of work are related to each other and to the notion of WF interface. This section reviews some of the main terms within the same semantic field.

Working Conditions

Working conditions have been systematically related to WFC (e.g. Gallie and Russell, 2009), especially conditions related to organizational support in Spain (Taylor, Del Campo and Blancero, 2009) and abroad (e.g. Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner and Zimmerman, 2011; Major and Lauzun, 2010; Valcour, Ollier-Malaterre, Matz-Costa, Pitt-Catsoupes and Brown, in press) and organizational culture (e.g. Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino and Rosner, 2005; Mennino, Rubin and Brayfield, 2005). Researchers have developed a clearer understanding of the stressors that serve as predictors of job strain (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993; Lee and Ashforth, 1996).

Psychological Contract and Support

The psychological contract is a useful concept for understanding what employees and employers expect of a job and work environment, including not only expectations of economic retribution, tenure or promotion but also a sense of entitlement to WL benefits and flexible working arrangements. Indeed, it has recently been argued that work-life balance or integration can be a key factor in establishing a positive psychological contract (i.e. based on mutual trust, Coussey, 2000; and trust and fairness, Gracia, Silla, Peiró and Fortes-Ferreira, 2006). The changing nature of work and work organizations, particularly the breach and violation of the psychological contract, may engender a rise in employee cynicism and mistrust (Kramer, 1986; Pate, Martin and Staines, 2000), while work support may reduce employees’ negative perceptions of the family environment through reduced work-family stress, and the impact is similar for men and women (Thompson and Cavallaro, 2007).

Cartwright and Holmes (2006) called for greater job security, increased social support and the existence of WF policies have been shown to reduce the incidence of WFC, but more importantly, organizations need to create a culture which makes low demands for working outside of regular hours and respects family commitments and personal non-work time. This means ensuring that those who utilize WF policies do not experience adverse career consequences (Bellavia and Frone, 2005) and that individuals are encouraged to take their full holiday or vacation entitlement.

Meaning of Work and Domain Centrality

The meaning of work (MOW) is a concept that has been poorly studied by WF scholars and researchers in general. According to Lewis (2003), MOW is related to a discourse of choice of the profession/job and the enjoyment it rewards, mainly because the dominance work has over other activities is often a personal choice. Dempsey and Sanders (2010) undertook a critical analysis of popular autobiographies of social entrepreneurs within the US non-profit context. They stated that as meaningful work is inherently inspiring and highly fulfilling, there is less
need to protect the boundary between professional life and personal life, or to inquire about the costs of the resulting overwork, exhaustion and self-sacrifice.

Values are enduring and resistant to change (Rokeach, 1973), they help guide attitudes and behaviors (Meglino and Ravlin, 1998), and they help to determine what is important to an individual. Work centrality refers to the degree of general importance that working has in one’s life at any given time (MOW-International Research Team, 1987). Some initial research has examined employees’ central life values involving work and family and its potential impact on WFC (e.g. Carlson and Kacmar, 2000). Although past research has focused on work centrality (Mannheim, 1975, 1988, 1993), there has been less emphasis on family centrality within organizational research. Independently capturing work centrality and family centrality poses some conceptual and empirical difficulties. The impact of work-family centrality has recently been examined by Carr et al. (2008), a concept that acts as a moderator of WIF-job satisfaction and the WIF-employee retention relationship. They stated that when individuals view work as being more central to their lives, the negative relationships between WFC and organizational attitudes and organizational retention is suppressed. Hall and Hall (1979) developed a typology based on the four possible combinations of career and family involvement. This typology suggests couples will experience conflict based upon two factors, i.e. career involvement and home involvement. The group expected to experience the most stress are the couples that seek high involvement careers and high involvement family lives (called the acrobats). They suggested that the typology is not static, that is, a couple can move between various stages based on career and life stage development. The domain centrality may vary across the life course (Erickson et al., 2010).

Close to the notion of work centrality is the idea of job involvement, which is also hypothesized to affect work-family conflict, especially tested among managers (Greenhaus and Kopelman, 1981; Mortimer, 1980; Piotrkowski et al., 1987; Repetti, 1987; Voydanoff, 1982). Hall and Richter (1988) posit that WFC increases in individuals who are more involved with the work role due to the fact that they have more permeable home boundaries. In other words, such individuals are more likely to bring work problems home with them. Ridley (1973) argued that work is central to the personal lives of most professionals. The highly work-involved individual would devote personal time and attention to work at the cost of family participation, thereby increasing the potential for WFC. Related to this, existing research indicates that long weekly hours and involuntary overtime have a negative effect on WLB (Berg, Kallenberg and Appelbaum, 2003) as it reduces the quality and quantity of workers’ participation in family and social life (Pocock, 2001; Pocock and Clarke, 2004). Job involvement is generally operationalized as the extent to which one indicates job-related activities or the job itself to be of central and unique importance in their lives, and a key source of personal identity (Reeve and Smith, 2001). Job involvement has been shown to be unrelated to gender (Lorence, 1987). However, job involvement has been shown to vary according to marital status, but the findings in previous studies have been inconsistent (cf., Agassi, 1982; Haller and Rosenmayr, 1971; Singh, Gupta and Rastogi, 1981). In addition, Greenhaus et al. (2001) found career involvement impacted upon the individual’s decision to leave the organization, but family involvement had no impact on the decision to leave. Therefore, when the employees were highly involved with their careers, they were not disturbed greatly by the interference of work with family life and they are willing to tolerate the interference for the sake of their careers. In contrast, the study did not find an interaction between family involvement and intentions to leave the profession (Greenhaus et al., 2001). This may suggest that employees who are highly involved with their families are concerned
about maintaining their position with the organization, providing them with the ability to financially support their family.

Some studies have found that job involvement may exacerbate negative health outcomes in certain cases (cf. Frone, Russell and Cooper, 1995). Experiencing higher job involvement has been found to be negatively related to burnout (Paullay, 1991).

**Satisfaction, Quality of Life, and Well-Being**

As seen in section 1 of this chapter, WFC may be related to negative outcomes at home, work and personal health (physical and psychological). According to previous studies (e.g. Allen et al., 2000), WIF would have the strongest relationship to well-being in the domain of work (job burnout), the second strongest to overall well-being (depression) and the least strongest to well-being in the family domain (marital satisfaction and family climate). This study starts from the work perspective. Therefore, the definitions of burnout and engagement are presented here.

**Burnout**

The phenomenon of burnout was first observed in human services (i.e. social work, health care and teaching) (Maslach and Schaufeli, 1993). Currently, some studies have provided evidence of burnout in occupations beyond the human services (e.g. Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli, 2001; Lee and Ashforth, 1996; Shirom, 1989).

Burnout is defined as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among people that carry out “people work” of some description (Maslach 1982). Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being overextended and exhausted by the emotional demands of one’s work. It is the fatigue produced by the extra effort made at work. Depersonalization is characterized by a detached and cynical response to the recipients of one’s service or care. Finally, reduced personal accomplishment refers to the self-evaluation that one is no longer effective in working with recipients and in fulfilling one’s job responsibilities (Maslach, Jackson and Leiter, 1996). In a broad perspective, emotional exhaustion is the basic stress dimension and it overlaps with other stress reactions (e.g. fatigue, job-related depression, psychosomatic complaints and anxiety), with some job stressors (e.g. work overload, time pressure, role problems), and with attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (e.g. turnover intentions and absenteeism). Several reviews on this topic have been conducted (e.g. Lee and Ashforth, 1996; Schaufeli and Enzmann, 1998). Depersonalization is the attitudinal dimension and it refers to a mental distancing from recipients (becoming impersonal, callous, hardening and indifferent), which overlaps with alienation, estrangement, disengagement, cynicism and a special kind of withdrawal. For Leiter (1991), this is an outcome of exhaustion, while in the model of Demerouti et al. (2001), disengagement represents a shortage of resources. Lee and Ashforth (1996) showed that emotional exhaustion and depersonalization are much more strongly correlated with each other than with personal accomplishment, which is the weakest burnout dimension. This can be interpreted as a possible consequence of the core negative emotional experience of burnout (Shirom, 1989). Nowadays, reduced personal accomplishment is known as lack of professional efficacy, or simply, inefficacy. Among the individual variables responsible for the development of the syndrome would be gender (it being women that generally score higher in exhaustion and professional inefficacy) and personality variables (those with Type A behavior pattern, high neuroticism temperament, low emotional stability and external locus of control are the most susceptible to burnout). Inefficacy represents the self-assessment
dimension and is currently considered closer to a personality variable (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993; Shirom, 1989). Cherniss (1993) considers that lack of trust in self-competences is a critical issue in the development of burnout. According to Leiter (1992), burnout results from constant exposure to chronic occupational stress, which is produced by perceiving lack of efficacy in controlling job demands and seeking social support in difficult situations, best known as an “efficacy crisis”. In the same line, longitudinal studies demonstrate that teachers are likely to be burned out when they have experienced several consecutive efficacy crises (Llorens, Garcia and Salanova, 2005; Llorens, Salanova and Ventura, 2007; Martinez, Grau, Llorens, Cifre and Garcia, 2005).

Burnout is considered to be a process that gradually develops over time (Maslach, Jackson and Leiter, 1996). The job demands-resources (JD-R) perspective has mainly been influenced by two job stress models: demand-control model (Karasek, 1979) and the effort-reward imbalance model (Siegrist, 1996). The JD-R model of Demerouti et al. (2001) predicts that high or unfavorable job demands (i.e. physical workload, time pressure, recipient contact, shift work and physical environment) lead to exhaustion, whereas job resources (i.e. feedback, rewards, job control, participation, job security and supervisor support) are negatively related to disengagement. Moreover, when both exhaustion and disengagement are present simultaneously, this represents burnout syndrome. It is suggested that, as a result of changes in the workplace and society as a whole, individuals are becoming increasingly frustrated and disenchanted with work and instead are in pursuit of the opportunity for greater self-expression and fulfillment (Bunting, 2004).

Pocock (2003) found that workers who reported work intensification also reported exhaustion, frustration and guilt over their inability to meet parental and spousal expectations. Recently, differences in WFC according to different levels of self-efficacy among nurses were observed (Baghban, Malekiha and Fatehizade, 2010). This suggests that WFC and burnout are related in several ways. Carvalho, Ferreira-Peralta, and Andrade (2011) found in a sample of Portuguese university professors that work-family conflict was more strongly correlated with emotional exhaustion, while family-work conflict was more strongly correlated with depersonalization.

Engagement

On the other hand, job engagement refers to a positive, fulfilling, affective-cognitive work-related state of mind that is characterized by three dimensions: vigor, dedication and absorption (see Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Salanova, 2009; Salanova and Schaufeli, 2009; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá and Bakker, 2002).

Vigor is characterized by physical and mental resistance and high levels of energy, the willingness to put effort into one’s work, mental resilience and perseverance when difficulties are experienced at work. Dedication is characterized by a sense of meaning, enthusiasm, interest in the job content, inspiration, pride and challenge. Absorption is a persistent state of mind characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work. Being fully absorbed in one’s work is related to short-term “peak” experiences called “flow”, a state of optimal experience that is characterized by focused attention, clear mind, mind and body union, effortless concentration, complete control, loss of self-consciousness, distortion of time and intrinsic enjoyment (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).
Engagement is the positive antipode of burnout in a continuum, but both cannot be measured by means of the same instrument such as the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Vigor and dedication are the direct positive opposites of exhaustion and cynicism, respectively. Engagement is measured by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), which is a self-report like all kinds of MBI and operationalizes the three dimensions mentioned above.

Engagement is related to (and often overlaps with) work centrality, work involvement, organizational commitment, identification with work, work dedication, work attachment or workaholism, but it emerges and develops from other perspectives. Being psychologically engaged with work is more than simply not being burned out by work. Certain extra-role behaviors (e.g. organizational altruism, cooperation in groups and organizational citizenship) require employees to be somewhat more than not burned out: they need to be excited by their job and to positively look forward to going to work (Salanova and Llorens, 2008). It was recently demonstrated that personality and temperament also make a difference between burned out and engaged. Low neuroticism in combination with high extraversion and high levels of mobility (i.e. adaptation to a changing environment) characterize work engagement (Langelaan, Bakker, Van Doornen and Schaufeli, 2006).
4. Coping Strategy Definition

All workers have work-life roles that encompass a myriad of demands and issues. What can people do to reduce work-family conflict and achieve balance? Individuals have several resources. One of them is the way of coping. This section defines coping, strategies and styles, and offers a review of the literature concerning coping and the work-family interface.

According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), coping consists of cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are deemed as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person. They illustrate that the elimination of distress is primarily achieved through effective coping (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Two types of coping were described: emotion focused (resignation and avoidance coping), which is a cognitive method, and problem focused (help-seeking and direct-action coping), which entails behavioral attempts to exert control and solve problems. When an individual uses similar coping strategies for certain circumstances throughout time, s/he has a particular coping style, which can be more effective in some situations than others. Effort and productive effort are different things. Though coping is believed to moderate the effects of stressors on strain, the beneficial effect of coping on psychological stress occurs via its influence on the appraisal process (Lazarus, 1991). It means that coping with stress changes the manner in which the environment is perceived.

Pahl (1984) developed the concept of household strategy to describe the sets of decisions made by households over the domestic division of labor and the maintenance of household income, and the concept has generated considerable debate in sociological literature.

Some authors (e.g. Miller, 1960; Miller, 1962) have noted that, under conditions of role overload, a variety of “adjustment” or “coping” processes are typically brought into play; these mechanisms include omission, error, queuing, approximation and escape. Maslach’s (1993) process model of burnout indicates that excessive demands (stress), combined with a lack of personal or relational (work, couple and family) coping resources, would predict burnout. The multi-system assessment of stress and health (MASH) model is based on a comprehensive biopsychosocial system model of stress and health (Olson, 1997), and it organizes the coping resources into a relationship coping dimension (cohesion and flexibility) and skill coping dimension (problem solving and communication) (Olson, 1993; Olson, Steward and Wilson, 1995). According to Olson (1997), the greater the number of coping resources one has developed, the better one is able to manage life stress and thus increase adaptation and life satisfaction. Havlovic and Keenan (1991) classified the multiple ways individuals cope with stress into four categories: direct action, help-seeking, positive thinking and avoidance/resignation.

Coping and Work-Family Conflict

Hall (1972) categorized sixteen strategies into three types (Type I, II and III) of coping behavior from a role theory approach; structural role redefinition (e.g. eliminating or negotiating a reduction of real activities), personal role redefinition (e.g. altering one’s own standards of role performance), and reactive role behavior (e.g. adjusting to the role demands by more efficient time management). Kirchmeyer (1993) continued to apply this categorization and found that reactive role behavior was the least effective coping strategy in managing WFC.
Three main models of tactics include segmentation (individuals separate the two domains actively), compensation (individuals become highly involved in one domain and then reward the other domain) and accommodation (individuals sacrifice psychological and/or behavioral involvement in one domain to adjust to the demands of the other domain). For reviews, see Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1999) and Lambert (1990). Others (e.g. Campbell Clark, 2000) noticed that people manage boundaries by creating, maintaining and crossing borders between the two domains and manage spillover as well.

Beutell and Greenhaus (1983) found that reactive coping was perceived as less successful than active forms of coping such as role redefinition (i.e. re-negotiating role expectations and changing one’s attitudes and beliefs regarding role expectations). However, a later study found that family role redefinition (but not work role redefinition) was an effective coping strategy for dealing with family-to-work spillover among working women in Japan (Matsui, Ohsawa and Onglatco, 1995).

Wiersma (1994) identified six work-home dilemmas for dual-earner couples (household chores, maintaining social relations, role cycling, job relocations, social pressure and direct competition between spouses). He reported fourteen behavioral strategies to manage work-family conflict such as hiring outside help, setting priorities, reframing adversities, avoidance or mutual sharing. The use of these strategies varied depending on the nature of the dilemma (e.g. for home chores; hiring outside help, etc.).

Later on, Becker and Moen (1999) found that their sample of dual-earner couples used a series of coping strategies that can be classified under three scaling-back strategy categories, i.e. placing limits (e.g. limiting work hours or refusing overtime work), distinguishing between “job” and “career” (e.g. one spouse is scaling back his or her career aspirations), and trading off (e.g. long-term change of the spouses’ involvement in a career or job track). They found that the spouse that pursues the “job” and not the “career” is usually the primary caregiver. Behson (2002) validated a scale that measures informal work accommodations to family (IWAF), which are tactics that seek to adjust work to family by modifying when, where and how work gets done. He proved that IWAF moderated the positive relationship between FIW and work stress.

Based on a paradigm of strengths and resources as suggested by proponents of the “positive psychology” movement (e.g. Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), Haddock et al. (2001) found that successful dual-earner families structure their lives around the following ten major strategies: valuing family, striving for partnership, deriving meaning from work, maintaining work boundaries, focusing and producing at work, taking pride in dual earning, prioritizing family fun, living simply, making decisions proactively and valuing time. The explicit discussion of how to manage a dual-career lifestyle was found as another form of effective coping, which was related to less interrole conflict and greater problem-solving effectiveness (Steffy and Ashbaugh, 1986). The main contribution of the work of Haddock et al. (2001) was that dual-earner families have or can acquire the competences necessary to cope with the challenges of balancing work and family life in a proactive and self-directed way.

Rotondo, Carlson and Kincaid (2003) examined the efficacy of different coping styles (direct action, help-seeking, positive thinking and avoidance/resignation) on reducing work family conflict in both directions (i.e. WIF and FIW). They found that help-seeking and direct action coping used at home were associated with lower FIW. Avoidance/resignation coping was associated with both higher WIF and FIW. Following the same line, Rotondo and Kincaid...
(2008) tested how direct action, advice-seeking, positive thinking and cognitive reappraisal affect both WF and FW conflict and facilitation. They found that coping effectiveness varied depending on the source domain, and that none of the coping styles were associated with lower levels of WFC, although direct-action was associated with lower FWC. However, it was found that positive thinking increases WF and FW facilitation. It suggests that positive thinking may have a role in achieving work-family balance.

Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007) introduced a new typology of eight categories. These categories provide a symmetrical idea of coping as they are divided into four categories in the home domain, and four in the work domain; super at home, good enough at home, delegation at home, priorities at home, super at work, good enough at work, delegation at work, and priorities at work. Their findings showed that more frequent use of these tactics decrease FIW and WIF. The results of an Israeli study carried out by Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2009) point to the advantage of personal coping strategies over organizational supports (policies, benefits and services) in reducing WFC. The authors warn that implications must not be misunderstood. Results in coping with WFC will be superior if organizational efforts are added to personal resources.

Undoubtedly, coping efficacy is referred primarily to active coping (doing something about the source of stress). Problem-focused coping is the most effective, while the least effective coping style is emotion-focused coping (i.e. avoidance/resignation) (Rotondo et al., 2003; Shinn, Wong, Simko and Ortiz-Torres, 1989) or general emotion-focused strategies (Bhagat Allie and Ford, 1995; Rotondo and Perrewe, 2000). As greater control can be exercised at home, the family domain should be the target for problem-focused coping strategies (Rotondo and Kincaid, 2008). Finally, people have to be persistent and make frequent use of coping strategies to ensure success in dealing with their source of stress (Behson, 2002; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2007).

However, some authors disagree with the efficacy of coping. There is strong evidence that reveals that individual coping is difficult and relatively ineffective in dealing with complex stressors (Menaghan and Mervis, 1984; Shinn et al., 1984). Brotheridge (2001) recommended being careful with interventions made typically in organizations (such as stress management courses), as she found that coping resources appeared to be more broadly relevant in predicting strain rather than lower levels of stress.

As shown in recent years, evidence illustrates that coping with work/home stress and WF conflict are clearly related.
5. Being a Professor at a Spanish Public University: Conceptualization of Work

Professors are not beyond the trend of the “overload culture”. One of the most important antecedents of work overload among academics is organizational change.

Public universities are experiencing substantial changes. Opening up to global markets has modified their management system. Public universities must now comply with international standards, academics must compete against other public and private universities all around the globe, and even against institutes of technology. In the case of Spanish universities, some recent works aim to study the adaptation process to the new university environment (Bricall 2000; Capelleras and Veciana 2003; García and Fernández 2002). This phenomenon has also been studied under the umbrella of academic capitalism, a concept coined by Slaughter and Leslie (1997). Barnett (2003) portrays universities as institutions defined in corporate terms and by the free market. The language of academic life has changed. Administrative and academic personnel think in terms of “innovation, flexibility, and adaptation” (Barnett, 2003: 67). The words currently employed are “efficiency, productivity, technology, credit hours generated, grants with overhead received, accountability, assessment, competition, costs, total quality management” (Bean, 1998: 497). Inspired by the notion of academic capitalism, Blanch and colleagues (Blanch and Stecher, 2009, 2010; Blanch and Cantera, 2011) study the psychological side effects of the new working conditions that emerge from this organizational capitalism, both in the public academic realm and in the public health service. They see psychosocial risk factors in academic capitalism, as there is more paperwork and bureaucracy, less time to socialize with coworkers, rivalry between co-workers, time pressure and work overload (Cifre and Llorens, 2002).

Changes in the European University Context

In 2000, during discussion over the Treaty of Lisbon, Member States signed an agreement to develop a competitive and dynamic knowledge-based European economy. This changed the objectives for employment and higher education. The Bologna Process¹ is named after the Bologna Declaration, which was signed in the Italian city of Bologna on 19 June 1999 by ministers in charge of higher education from 29 European countries. Today, the process brings 47 countries together.

The whole continent is experiencing reform in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) created in the Bologna Process to: facilitate mobility of students, graduates and higher education staff; prepare students for their future careers and for life as active citizens in democratic societies; and support their personal development, and offer broad access to high-quality higher education, based on democratic principles and academic freedom.

Changes at European level certainly affect work at Spanish level. Spanish universities have established their own timetable to adapt themselves to the new commitments. The objectives of the Bologna Process were expected to be reached in 2010. A study conducted in a Spanish university confirms the global trend. The two major stressors perceived by academic staff were emotional overload and quantitative overload (Cifre and Llorens, 2002), especially suffered among young professors.

However, it is also true that the high demands experienced by university professionals have existed for some time.

A study conducted in the U.S. by Dua (1994) found that one of the major stressors experienced by university professors was workload, which was the most frequently cited reason for considering job change among academics (Blix et al., 1994). In Dua’s study (1994), younger staff members reported more job stress than older staff. Both the job stress and non-work stress were associated with poor physical health, poor emotional health and high job dissatisfaction (Dua, 1994). Kinman and Jones (2003) studied the stressors among UK academics and suggested that job stress and demands have increased significantly in recent years, and that perceptions of work-home conflict had particularly strong associations with psychological distress and job dissatisfaction. UK academics have high levels of job demands and psychological distress, and working in the evening and at weekends is commonplace, therefore work-life balance was generally poor and most respondents wished for more separation between their work and home lives (Kinman and Jones, 2008).

**Characteristics of the Spanish Labor Market**

Female employment in Spain has risen markedly over the past fifteen years, from 32.5% in 1995 to 53.5% in 2009. However, despite this significant increase, female employment in Spain is still below the OECD average (59.6%); 75% of mothers return to work only eight years after childbirth (OECD, 2011). Therefore, there is greater disposition for women to enter the workforce. Moreover, there is mass female admission to university. They are better educated and, consequently they are entering the corporate world. Nevertheless, women in high positions are still in short supply.

According to Chinchilla and Poelmans (2002), there are five circumstances which intensify work-family conflict in Spanish settings: 1) female participation in the workforce is among the highest rates in Europe, 2) this process began later that in other countries, thus there should be more inter-generational and inter-gender conflict, 3) Spain (as Europe) is experiencing a demographic winter (low birthrate and higher life expectancy), 4) the week generally has five working days, which commences at 8am and extends to 9pm, because of the long lunch break, and 5) the Spanish family is still the most important unit in our society.

**Spanish Regulation Governing Work-Life Balance**

In 1999, Spain adopted its first law (Law 39/1999) concerning work-life conciliation for employees. In between, some modifications have been made. In 2007, the law entitled “For Equal Opportunities for Women and Men” (Organic Law 3/2007) concluded the legal but not the social discussion of previous years on the policy’s availability and its effects. The dilemma is that work-life policies (in both the public and private sector) are oriented towards ensuring future employment, but it does little to ensure equality and work-life balance among employees. Meeting both employees’ and organizations’ interests is the two-fold goal. It is possible to design work that integrates work needs and family needs in a positive, synergistic manner (Bailyn, Drago and Kochan, 2001).

Legislation guarantees the rights of leave policies and child-care services. On account of the economic downturn, financial allowances such as the monthly €100 per child under three
years of age and the €2,500 per birth or adoption were discontinued in January 2011 in order to reduce the budget deficit.

Companies, which are responsible for applying the legal framework, are somewhere between two extremes, those that comply with the provisions of the law and nothing more, and those that go beyond the legislation. The latter category are in the minority (mainly large local and transnational enterprises) but exert a great impact on society, as they are reputed for being a “great place to work”, and therefore have set an example for other companies.

According to the National Institute of Statistics in Spain (INE), women have children at the age of 31.12 years old. It also states that following ten years of growth, in 2010 the birth rate fell to 1.38 children per woman (INE, 2011). This could be explained by two perspectives that may affect decisions to have children in the medium and long term: firstly, the economic downturn, which began in September 2007 and generated uncertainty in the markets and the workplace, and secondly, the repeated reduction of social expenditure in family policy and the increase in taxes (VAT and income tax – IRPF).

**Professors’ Work**

A key criticism of WF research is that work has been poorly conceptualized (Zedeck, 1992), thus the work of university teaching and research academic staff will be defined below.

Female and male professors at public universities have to play by new rules in a highly demanding labor market. They may spend a great deal of time as a lower rank of professor, which reverberates in part-time dedication and a temporary contract.

The ANECA\(^2\) (*Agencia Nacional de Evaluación de la Calidad y Acreditación*) assesses the teaching and researching performance of academics as a compulsory requirement for hiring by public or private universities in Spain.

As regards the recruitment of university professors, a previous positive evaluation conducted by ANECA, or the competent regional quality assurance agency, is a compulsory requirement prior to recruitment. ANECA exercises responsibility for and authority over all Spanish higher education institutions. These evaluations are free of charge and compulsory before contracting teaching or researching staff.

In addition, the Royal Decree on University Professor Habilitation establishes that a habilitation process qualifies to sit for civil servant exams for a public university position. This recognition will benefit the professor, as he or she has a new contract that ensures greater stability, full-time dedication, higher wages, etc.

The Teaching and Research Academic Staff (*Personal Docente e Investigador*, PDI), the “stable” professor (with tenure), has to perform multiple tasks: teaching, research and service duties. Some different roles of the PDI include: professor of master classes, administrator, director, research collaborator, coordinator of masters and doctorates, head of department, secretary of department, dean, etc. Professors’ work overload is due to the very nature of the profession and the multi-purpose nature of their work (Kinman, 2001).

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Teaching tasks generally vary throughout the academic year. This means that classes may be concentrated more in one semester than the other, as does the volume of correction of exams, projects, and support and orientation for students. Teaching can be carried out on the undergraduate (bachelor’s degrees) and graduate programs (postgraduate courses, master’s degrees and doctorate programs).

Researching used to be tied to the subject given by the PDI. The PDI also usually collaborates in one or more research groups, and has one or more projects underway as well. This kind of work involves meetings, the search for funding – through official announcements – empirical work, the generation of results, national and international conference papers and presentations, publishing – ideally in scientific journals with a high impact factor –, and finally, transferring this knowledge to students.

Management or service tasks include program coordination and directive responsibilities, as head of department, dean or vice-chancellor.

These are the common guidelines for PDI, although the scientific discipline to which he/she belongs will affect the dynamic.

**Professional Rank at the University**

As in many other professions, university professors have a hierarchical rank. The rank name may vary according to the country, thus there is a comparative table (see Table 1) with the highest rank “A” to the lowest rank “D”.

**Table 1: Comparative Table of International Rank in Academic Settings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Spanish Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>This is the highest academic and tenure rank. Full-professors can become</td>
<td>Catedrático</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>university deans. Normally, professors are employed full-time for teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and researching and have economic support from research centers and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>companies.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>It includes tenured professors that work as non-seniors, like “A”, but they</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>are much more senior than “C” (in the USA, &quot;B&quot; rank is the associated</td>
<td>Titular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>professor).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Academics with a PhD and without tenure at the public university, in other</td>
<td>Ayudante</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>words, they have a contract of indefinite duration. Normally, they are</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>junior professors beginning their academic career.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>PhD students or research assistants, whose work does not call for a</td>
<td>Asociado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>doctorate degree. Generally, these kinds of jobs are designed to be part-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time work, so it may be compatible with education and jobs off-site.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Spain, the first two categories have tenure, which is a contract with the State regulated by a law known as the *Estatuto Básico del Empleado Público* (Law 7/2007). On the other hand, the last two categories have an indefinite term contract with the university, regulated by the *Estatuto de los Trabajadores* (Law 8/1980).

**Female Professors in European Universities**

*Gender equality in academia:* Studies show the persistence of gender discrimination in terms of salaries, number of contracts and evaluations (European Commission, 2009; Monroe et al., 2008). The “generation effect” is also an argument for lower wages among women because male professors have greater seniority at the organization (approximately ten years more than
women, especially evident among A-Professors), which means an extra bonus that increases salaries. Discrimination and injustices are now less hostile. In general, the male attitude to women of “she does it all, I only help her a little” is capturing the benevolent sexism. That is a type of concealed and almost invisible sexism. At the same time, the female faculty member accepts implicitly that she has the secondary career and she has to provide him with time for work (Kuschel and Íñiguez, 2008). Gaio Santos and Cabral-Cardoso (2008) examined the work-family culture in a Portuguese university and they found that the preservation of traditional gender roles in the family and a work-family culture that is largely family-unfriendly are the main contributors to the conflict.

Segregation in academia: According to the latest release from the European Commission (2009), teaching is a highly feminized occupation across European countries, but not in tertiary education. The overall share of women in tertiary education is high within the EU-25 (43.1% in 2007) but still well below 50% (43.1% in 2007 calculated for the EU-25, where Spain only corresponds to 38.4%). There is a pronounced segregation and hierarchy by gender in this occupation, especially among A-Professors. Women participate in less than 30% in each of the EU-15 states studied in 2004 (Eurostat, 2008: Table A.47). On that occasion, Spain indicated a female proportion of 17.6% in the A-Professors rank, 36.1% in the B-rank, 52.2% in the C-rank and 50.6% in the D-rank. As far as they ascend on the hierarchical ranks, there are less female professors (see figure 1).

Figure 1: Scientific Career at Spanish Universities, 2009

![Figure 1: Scientific Career at Spanish Universities, 2009](http://amit-es.org/index.php?id=63)

Women are opting out of university for multiple reasons. One of them is the difficulty they have struggling with work demands and, at the same time, the family demands of nurturing and caring for children (Blackburn and Jarman, 2004). The easiest solution – and the most superficial – is to create day care services and other facilities, although these arrangements do not affect the hard core of the organization. “Alternative versions of reality require a questioning of the assumptions underpinning the WLB discourse and fundamental mindset changes. At the most basic this will include: a focus on workplace change, implementation and practice rather than just WLB policies or individual/household WLB strategies” (Lewis et al., 2003). However, a poor working climate is another reason for women opting out. Research carried out in the U.S. found that faculty women perceive more exclusion from
academic departments with a low representation of women. Perceptions of procedural fairness and gender equity are powerful factors that foster inclusion and warm the climate for both men and women (Maranto and Griffin, 2011). A study that explored inter-gender differences in research performance among Spanish National Research Council (CSIC) scientists stated that women with intermediate levels of seniority (11-20 and 21-30 years of working life) show lower productivity than their male counterparts, which might explain the slower promotion observed for female scientists (Mauleon, Bordons and Oppenheim, 2008).

**Effects on work-family balance:** According to Monroe et al. (2008), a rigid system of rewards, high levels of isolation, stress and fatigue among female faculties, continuing unconscious and deep-seated discrimination and stereotyping by male colleagues, and a remarkably unbreakable glass ceiling make scant allowance for deviation from the traditional male model. For many of them, this lifestyle is incompatible with raising children and caring tasks. Canadian female academics reported working excessively hard, taking responsibility for supporting others (colleagues and students), and being “good department citizens”, yet feeling disappointed by the results. Their “feeling bad” was related to their sense of being undervalued, because of the unequal division of labour (Acker & Feuerverger, 1996). Issues around children and career, anxieties about evaluation, and fatigue and stress shape the daily lives of women academics. The women cope and resist, although one of the major responses – working harder and sleeping less– might be considered somewhat short of empowering (Acker & Armenti, 2004).

A comparative study was conducted in Nigeria between academic married women and female married bankers (Aluko, 2009). It showed that academics were liberal women, and academia provided more freedom and autonomy than banking. Their principles allow academic women to work on things they really care about and the system of tenure provides a higher level of job security compared to banking. A study revealed group differences based on gender but no differences based on tenure status alone and no significant interactions between gender and tenure status. Among academics in the U.S., women reported greater academic and family stress and perceptions of less institutional support for balancing work and family as compared to men (O’Laughlin and Bischoff, 2005). Hogan, Carlson and Dua (2002) found that younger academic staff reported higher levels of job and non-work stress, and females reported higher levels of non-work stress, irrespective of job category. In the Spanish setting, Sáenz and Lorenzo (1993) conducted a survey in the University of Granada and found that the most satisfactory aspects are related to teaching, relationships with students, and relationships with colleagues and professional self-achievement. Moreover, they found differences in satisfaction according to faculty, rank, gender and the length of work experience.
6. Agenda for this Thesis

Frone (2003) stated that described taxonomies of coping are based on small and narrow samples and that no studies have sought the contribution of particular coping strategies to effectively reduce WF conflict and enhance WF balance. In the same vein, Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007) suggest developing a particular taxonomy, because it could foster sensitivity and therefore better elucidate the relationship between multiple (and unique) forms of coping and WFC. Studies must go beyond current taxonomies (e.g. problem or emotion-focused; active or passive coping; behavioral, cognitive, affective-based coping, etc.).

As employed parents may develop separate coping strategies (with work demands and WIF specifically, and with family demands and FIW specifically) (Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2007), it may be useful to have a heterogeneous sample composition (single people and couples). Personal attitudes and values may change the preferred coping strategy.

An understanding of the relationships between coping and WFC is needed as much of the past research concerning WFC has failed to take into consideration the complex nature of the WF issues (Rotondo et al., 2003). Rotondo and Kincaid (2008) suggest exploring the role of positive thinking and direct action in promoting work-life balance from the two domains. They also propose paying more attention to the reasons why emotion and problem-focused coping do not effectively reduce WFC.

Coping and stress have been subject to much research, but coping and the work-home interface have been poorly studied (Behson, 2002; Eby et al., 2005). Many individuals receive personal satisfaction and identity, as well as stress from both work and their families (Jackson, Schwab and Schuler, 1986).

In researching coping resources such as those related to work overload, it is important to evaluate key coping resources that are most relevant in the situation of employee work-life balance.

In summary, the literature review demonstrates that a meaningful job, flexible schedules, WF policies, family-friendly culture, autonomy and lower levels of WFC have the potential to enhance WFF. This study shall verify whether these characteristics are present in Spanish academic working conditions. Recent studies showed the importance of work overload as the major stressor or job demand in “knowledge work”. The impact of work overload on WFC was reported abroad and in several professions, but not among Spanish professors. WFC has been systematically related to negative outcomes. Therefore, the perception of workload will be explored, examining professors’ work, whether academics experience WFC and of which type. Finally, the literature showed that there are many ways to struggle with work and home demands. The study shall analyze whether professors are more likely to tackle demands or to relieve pressure, examining their coping strategies and styles.
CHAPTER III: METHOD

Overview

The methodological design of this research features a cross-sectional approach, incorporating qualitative data that included a set of three instruments: question 23 of the questionnaire, the focus groups, and the interviews, analyzed in that order. The instruments were designed to ask participants to describe their perceived workload, time available to get work done, and work-family balance. The design embraces various previously discussed the methodological gaps in the WF field.

Design

Multi-method approach

The sources of data were: interviews, focus groups, and questionnaires, following the suggestions of going beyond the current overreliance on single source self-report survey data (Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Zedeck, 1992) and develop studies with a qualitative approach (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Historically, research in the WF field has relied extensively upon quantitative methodological approaches, whith these studies often criticiscized for a lack of theoretical foundation and direction (Kingston, 1989). We also choose a qualitative approach to enhance a vivid identification of complex experiences of the work-family interface. This will allow us to derive theory and explanation inductively from a rich source of grounded data (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The qualitative research paradigm refers to research that elicits participant accounts of meaning, experience or perceptions. It also produces descriptive data in the participant’s own spoken words (De Vos, 2002). An exploratory research design is recommended when the researcher wants to build a foundation of general ideas that can be thoroughly explored at a later time. According to Taylor and Bogdan (1987) qualitative research is inductive and participants are embedded in their contexts and therefore they are analysed holistically. Qualitative researchers are aware that they may affect participants, and reserachers understand that they must experience reality just the way participants experience reality, moving away prejudices. For the qualitative researcher all perspectives are equally valuable. Qualitative research follows rigorous procedures, which are not necessarily standardized (Taylor & Bogdan, 1987).

Casper et al. (2007) suggest increasing the use of multisource data for a better understanding of the complexity of WF relations and in order to establish convergent validity. The quantitative part of the data collection measures the perceived "level" of work-family conflict or balance, while the qualitative data allows the study of "episodes" and the precise attribution of cause and effect (Maertz & Boyar, 2011).

Cross-sectional study
Although prior researches reported and criticized an overreliance on cross-sectional designs (Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Zedeck, 1992); it has been also the most frequent design.

Triangulation: There is a lack of triangulation or corroborating evidence (Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Parker & Hall, 1992; Swanson, 1992; Zedeck, 1992; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). The concept of triangulation is sometimes used to designate a conscious combination of quantitative and qualitative methodology, but it can also refer to the use of multiple methods of data collection with a view to increasing the reliability of observation (De Vos, 2002; Denzin, 1973). This study addresses this issue by analyzing several data sources.

Level of Analysis: In the WF field there has been an overemphasis on the individual level of analysis (Eby et al., 2005; Parker & Hall, 1992; Zedeck, 1992; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990), rather than others such as crossover level (e.g., wife's job variable predicting husband's outcome), couple/marriage level, organization level, group level, or other dyad (e.g., supervisor–subordinate) (Casper et al., 2007). This study focuses on both the individual and social (by categories or groups of professionals) levels, to establish the links between individual and organizational levels of analysis.

Sampling

Field Selection: the organization in which the interviews and focus groups will be held will correspond to the following criteria: 1) public and profit-driven organization; 2) service-supplier center; 3) large or medium size in terms of structure, organization chart, and number of employees; 4) with workplace interventions (e.g. work and non-work life or flexibility policies); 5) with women employees; 6) accessibility for the researcher, especially for the interviews and focus groups. In this case, the organization selected was the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB), Campus Bellaterra.

Characteristics of the reference population: This section identifies characteristics common to the target population. Participants will be selected from the UAB has 3,379 academicians, according to data of the academic year 2009-2010. Demographic features are shown in Tables 2, 3, and 4.

Table 2: Proportion of lecturers according to sex and scientific area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>79.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>172</td>
<td></td>
<td>217</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>43.4%</td>
<td>56.6%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>639</td>
<td>1,134</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Sciences</td>
<td>47.0%</td>
<td>53.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>504</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Sciences</td>
<td>35.8%</td>
<td>64.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>604</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Sciences</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>866</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,278</td>
<td></td>
<td>2,101</td>
<td></td>
<td>3,379</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 Data from December 31st, 2009. It does not include research staff, Ph.D. students, nor staff at linked centers.
Table 3: Lecturers’ age distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Rank</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 25</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 to 34</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 to 44</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 to 54</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>725</td>
<td>1,110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 to 65</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>523</td>
<td>755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 65</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,278</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,101</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,379</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Professors' status distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional Category</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full university professor</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full university college professor</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenured university professor</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>516</td>
<td>848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contracted professor</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate professor</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research professor</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant professor</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>436</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>1,061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical assistant professor</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>484</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent foreign assistant professor</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting professor</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emeritus professor</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td></td>
<td>57</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,278</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,101</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,379</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sampling Technique:** Convenience sampling: The subjects were mainly selected because they were easiest to recruit for the study (convenient accessibility and proximity to the researchers) and we did not consider selecting subjects that are representative of the entire population. However, we know that experiences in random sampling result in low response rates when the questionnaire represents a high effort (25-40 minutes of filling up). And this is relevant when taking into account highly educated professionals as academic staff, who have little time available. As in our case, when there is no guarantee of a minimum statistical representativeness (because of a low response rate), it helps to look for an adequate theoretical representativeness, intentionally looking for participants that represents the salient aspects of the academic staff.

**Participant Selection Criteria:** We were not looking for representativeness at the first exploratory stage, but we did try to capture the heterogeneity of the sample, as Bartunek and Seo (2002) have suggested that case diversity can be a powerful means of developing and testing grounded theory. So, we have incorporated WF scholars’ suggestions of including single people, single-parent families, dual earners, blended families, employees with responsibility for elder care, and other non-traditional families in the sample (Greenhaus, Calahan & Godshalk, 2000; Parasuraman, Singh, & Greenhaus, 1997; Parker & Hall, 1992; Voydanoff, 1988b; Watkins & Subich, 1995) because family type is a variable that offers social support and unleashes WFC. We also decided to include male experiences (Barnett, 1998; Swanson, 1992; Voydanoff, 1988b) as sex-based socialization shaping WF experiences (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000). Participants in the interviews and focus groups
followed specific inclusion criteria: i) full-time professors, ii) men and women, attempting to obtain heterogeneous opinions that may be gender-sensitive, iii) preferably, with family responsibilities, and iv) professors who were willing to participate in the research.

*Participants:* Finally, 17 professors agreed to be interviewed. We also conducted 2 focus groups (the first in 2008 with 9 participants and the second in 2009 with 5 participants). Overall, there were 167 survey responses from public (or mixed, but not private) universities in Spain. Participants in the interviews and focus groups were employees of the Autonomous University of Barcelona. The sample gathered by the survey were professors employed in public universities from Spain (Barcelona and its surroundings, Malaga, Madrid, and Oviedo).

*Demographic Characteristics of the sample:* Table 5 gives us an overall view of the sample characteristics.

Table 5: Demographic characteristics of the sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technique Date</th>
<th>Survey 2009-2010 167</th>
<th>Focus Groups 2008-2009 14 (9+5)</th>
<th>Interviews 2007-2009 17</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>53% female, 47% male</td>
<td>FG1: 7 females, 2 males. FG2: 2 females, 3 males.</td>
<td>10 females 7 males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>&lt;34 years 29% [35-44 years] 27% [45-54 years] 30% [&gt;55 years] 14%</td>
<td>FG1: 43-65 years old. FG2: INA</td>
<td>They were aged between 38 and 62 years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Contract</td>
<td>Tenured employees 42% Temporary employee 58%</td>
<td>FG1: 5-27 years at the university. FG2: 12-38 years.</td>
<td>9 tenured employees, 6 temporary employees, 2 were Administration and Services Staff (PAS) rather than professors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience at the University</td>
<td>&lt;5 years 27% [6-10 years] 22% [11-15 years] 19% [&gt;16 years] 32%</td>
<td>FG1: 9 tenured employees, 6 temporary employees, 2 were Administration and Services Staff (PAS) rather than professors.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current or past service work</td>
<td>Yes 42% No 58%</td>
<td>FG1: INA FG2: Yes 100%</td>
<td>Yes 47% (8) No 18% (3) INA 35% (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard of living</td>
<td>Good 76% Average 23% Low 1%</td>
<td>INA</td>
<td>INA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohabitation</td>
<td>Alone 19% In couple 59% With other relatives 18% With other people 4%</td>
<td>INA</td>
<td>INA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family responsibilities (dependants)</td>
<td>0 person: 68% 1 person: 10% 2 persons: 18% 3 or more persons: 4%</td>
<td>FG1: 9 married. 3 had no children. 4 had 2 children, and 2 had 3 children or more. 1 had a grandchild. FG2: 4 married. 1 single. All had at least 1 child. 1 had a grandchild.</td>
<td>0 person: 11.5% (2) 1 person: 18% (3) 2 persons: 35% (6) 3 or more persons: 24% (4) 6% (1) had a grandchild INA: 11.5% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Chores</td>
<td>Own tasks 19% Others’ tasks 11% Shared tasks 70%</td>
<td>INA</td>
<td>Shared tasks 88% (15) Others’ tasks 12% (2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*INA = Information Not Available.*
Techniques and instruments

Seventeen interviews, 2 focus groups, and a survey were applied in this study. For its features, see Table 6.

Table 6: Characteristics of the techniques

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Survey</th>
<th>Focus Groups</th>
<th>Individual Interviews</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instrument</td>
<td>Kofarips Questionnaire</td>
<td>See scripts in appendix 3</td>
<td>See scripts in appendix 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>See appendix 2</td>
<td>See scripts in appendix 3 and 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>Public Universities in Spain</td>
<td>UAB</td>
<td>UAB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>167. Complete answers 146. 9+5=14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questions</td>
<td>Operationalization:</td>
<td>Work overload</td>
<td>Work overload</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topics</td>
<td>WF Conflict item 1.8</td>
<td>Work-family balance</td>
<td>Work-family balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Work Overload item 1.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Well-being (qBLG)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question 23: Workload and time to do work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emerging</td>
<td>Account of workload and time available.</td>
<td>Description of the professor's</td>
<td>Career track and life events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data</td>
<td>Preliminary map of background, outcomes, and</td>
<td>work, in general. Differences and similarities.</td>
<td>Description of current work and family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Coping strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Organizational policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Engagement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Method

Procedure

The paper-and-pencil questionnaire was distributed by the CoLABORando Group. Participants in interviews and focus groups were recruited by e-mail or telephone, with follow-up as necessary. A sample of the e-mail with the invitation can be found in the appendices (appendices 6 to 10). The contact details were gathered from the university website www.uab.cat. We were also open to one participant recommending another potential participant (snowball technique). Interviews and focus groups had the same initial protocol, allowing some standardization of the data collection. After a brief introduction to the study, in which the confidentiality and anonymity of the answers were emphasized, the interviewer asked for permission to record the session. There was only one “off-the-record” interview, which was transcribed with the help of notes during the session and memory right after the interview. After each interview and focus group session, the employees were kindly requested to fill out the questionnaire in private and to post it afterwards to the project director, located in the same university. Some of them agreed. The questionnaires contained a letter briefly introducing the goal of the KOFARIPS Study. Filling them in was entirely voluntary, leaving some responses blank was allowed.

For 2010, the research team has more than 2,050 completed questionnaires. For the purposes of this dissertation, we selected the cases of male and female professors working at Spanish

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public universities. According to our criteria, there were 167 cases, but only 146 gave a complete/valid answer.

With this, the qualitative data was re-read and approached from a new perspective. The qualitative phase was then divided into two stages; the immersion/exploratory stage (2007) and the in-depth strategy stage (2009).

Interviews: The main technique was the interview that helped approximate an informal conversation through the use of open questions, so participants could share information they deemed appropriate and significant. The model is a conversation held between equals, not a formal exchange of questions and answers.

Doing an open-question, face-to-face interview has many advantages. The interviewer can explore answers with respondents and can achieve a better understanding of the way people see the world related to past and present events helping with an understanding of the current situation. The interviewer can also help respondents with unfamiliar words or questions, and is able to get more qualitative data. By doing this, researcher prejudices are exposed in the study, allowing the possibility of identifying interviewees' real perceptions. The disadvantages are that this is a very time-consuming technique, because of the transcription and analysis phases. Because of this, Vallés (2002) lists “qualitative interview” limitations that need to be taken into consideration:

- It is generally extensive in time.
- It shows validity and reliability problems.
- The data is not produced in its natural context, but rather is re-run data.
- Potential lack of informant spontaneity.

We developed a two-part semi-structured interview. The first part allowed us to get to know the speakers better by asking them to tell us something about themselves, their background, and their work and family roles. This allowed participants to select items they deemed critical to their success and kept the interview focused on topics judged important by the speakers. In the second part of the interview, we asked more specific questions about whether they had ever experienced WFC, what the sources of the conflict were, what the effects were, and how they coped with it at the university and at home. The specific questions posed grew out of our reading of the WFC literature and were designed to capture the way our interviewees perceived themselves, what kind of gender roles they played at work and home, etc. We treated all questions as prompts to guide the interview rather than working mechanically through questions. The interviews ranged in length from twenty minutes to just over one hour, with an average length of thirty-three minutes. All participants were interviewed in the university context: mainly in their offices or in the nearest cafe.

Focus groups: The second qualitative technique was the focus groups. Krueger (1991) defines the focus group as a carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions on defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment. Morgan (1998) describes focus groups as a research technique that collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher. Focus groups were initially used in market research to test potential consumer responses to both products and their presentation in advertising campaigns (Edmunds, 2000; Templeton, 1996). They are now viewed by social scientists as a flexible and cost effective method for exploring attitudes experiences and responses of non-random samples of people who fit a particular profile (Bloor, Frankland, Thomas, & Robson, 2001; Morgan, 1998). These have several advantages as an exploratory tool, especially for getting
people to talk about their attitudes and perceptions. They provide in-depth information and help with pre-testing initial ideas. They generate, explore, and identify key ideas and concepts. They also provide a way of understanding the sample, in other words, helping us see what is important for the people we are studying. And, as in the interviews, respondents can be helped with unfamiliar words or questions. Focus groups allow us to explore similarities and differences among professors. The focus groups were designed to last one hour and participants were invited for breakfast in a conference room in the Department of Social Psychology at the UAB.

The limitations include:
- Participant recruitment can be difficult without a strong incentive.
- They only reveal the attitudes of a small group.
- They can be an inefficient way of gathering information.
- The moderator's need to be in control of the group dynamics could result in tainted responses.
- Data quality may also be influenced by the moderator.

Given these limitations, the field work was carried out in several stages. During spring 2007, we did 10 interviews and during winter 2009 we conducted 7. The first focus group was conducted in summer 2008 and the second during winter 2009. Meanwhile, the CoLABORando research group was in charge of collecting the questionnaire data and transcribing it on-line.

We have a heterogeneous participant design for the focus groups, mainly in terms of age, sex, and scientific area, with no intention to pursue any specific representation objectives.

The structures of the focus groups 1 and 2 were similar to the interviews (presentation, permission to record, introductory paragraph, questions, and informed consent letter).

**Data analysis**

Most studies commonly use simple inferential statistics and techniques to examine one dependent variable with a single relationship, and qualitative data analysis is infrequent (Casper et al., 2007).

In this study, qualitative analysis was completed prior to analyzing quantitative data (provided by the CoLABORando group) to avoid bias during the coding process.

For the qualitative data (question 23 of the questionnaire, focus groups, and interviews), we did a descriptive, slightly hermeneutic, *Thematic Content Analysis* (TCA) of the transcripts. It is “slightly hermeneutic” as we have avoided a deep interpretation of the themes identified until later in the dissertation manuscript: in the Discussion section. As we have used Atlas.ti software, we have incorporated some criteria of the Grounded Theory approach, but we did not create a grounded theory. Interviews and focus groups were recorded and transcribed verbatim by the same researcher. To ensure that the anonymity of the respondents was preserved, all reference to the interviewees’ names, the names of their partners, children, city of residence, faculty, or any other element identifying any individual was removed from the transcript.
The transcriptions of the question 23 of the questionnaire, the interviews and the focus groups were entered into Atlas.ti. Each instrument has its own hermeneutic unit (HU) in Atlas.ti, in other words, each instrument was analyzed separately and in that order (from general to specific).

Two strategies of analysis were used: the textual and contextual level of analysis, which can be better visualize in the Carney’s Ladder of Analytical Abstraction (Carney, 1990 cited in Miles & Huberman, 1994: 92) shown in the following diagram (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Carney’s Ladder of Analytical Abstraction applied in this dissertation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Actions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.-</td>
<td>Developing and testing propositions to construct an explanatory framework</td>
<td>Delineating the deep structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.-</td>
<td>Repackaging and aggregating data (contextual)</td>
<td>Identifying overall trends in the data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.-</td>
<td>Summarizing and packaging the data (textual)</td>
<td>Trying out coding to find a set that fits</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First, for the “summarizing and packaging data” level, data was transcribed and organized in files. Data was read repeatedly. A hermeneutic unit (HU) was created in Atlas.ti, and primary documents (PD) or transcripts were assigned into the HU. We defined the goals of each HU. The preparation of the materials was ready for preliminary coding (for the coding process and inclusion criteria for question 23, see appendix 11). We guided our coding with the conceptual maps created at the preliminary stages of the analysis of question 23. Top-down coding was applied (i.e., an intuitive and deductive coding), in which we code and quote simultaneously. Exhaustive coding was conducted such that all sample characteristics (variables) reported were coded, but, within each characteristic, coding was mutually exclusive, such that a participant fitted into only one category. With this, the first level of analysis (also known as the textual level) was complete. We recorded emerging hypotheses and draw graphic representations of the characteristics of the sample, which corresponds to the second level of Carney’s Ladder of Analytical Abstraction.

In the second (contextual) level of analysis – “repackaging and aggregating the data” – we carried out down-up coding (i.e., inductive coding): we created new codes and split old ones (collapsing or subdividing categories as appropriate). We defined when to use it and we picked some examples to illustrate the aim of the code. In simple words, the second level refines and polishes the code system. After a few days, the principal researcher reread the original interview transcripts without looking at previous units or categories. She reconsidered each unit and category. At the same time, memos (notes) were written and relations between
codes and between quotes (hyperlinks) were established. Non-variable coding was not mutually exclusive, such that quotes fitted into one or more categories, which allowed us to search later on (in the third level) for neighbors and co-occurring codes. If obvious information was missing from text, we identified categories that were missing and saved them for discussion.

The second level of analysis specifically searched for relationships within the data, seeking patterns or small groups of data that represented sub-themes or constructs within the two major themes. Frequency of quotes in a given code is not very important in the HU separately, although it helps to determine the overall relevance of each code. Summary tables of emerging codes were organized by frequency: from the most frequent code to the least. What was not in the text was also interpreted. To interpret the work and family/home demands framework emerging in this study, comparisons were made with conceptual perspectives already existing in the work and family literature, as suggested by Neuman (1994). Consequently the labels associated with the various concepts and themes identified in this study were chosen to reflect those that had previously been identified in the WF literature. Tables 8, 9, and 12 summarize the data representing the themes and concepts reflecting the antecedents, outcomes, and coping strategies for a specific job demand: the work overload. The quotations\(^6\) that illustrate each term were located in the appendices 14 to 16. Tables 15 and 16 summarize the results of the profiles of “overloaded & burned-out” and “overloaded & engaged” (for the quotations, see appendices 17 and 18). The discussion appearing after the summary of results integrates the findings evident in this study with the research results published in previous studies.

In the third level of analysis, co-occurrence of quotes in the text shed light on hidden themes and inter-codes relations. The examination focused on the meanings rather on the words. First, we situated identified meaning units in relation to context and structure for each participant and then for the participants as a whole. With this information we have drawn networks and relationships also presented in the results.

**Software of analysis**

Nowadays, a number of software programs are available to assist qualitative data analysis, automating the labeling and grouping of texts, and they are especially useful in the analysis of numerous transcripts. We have used Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDAS) for our analysis of text materials:

- *Freemind*\(^7\), for aid with conceptual maps in the preliminary data categorization phases.
- *Atlas.ti*\(^8\) v6.1.13, which was developed by the inspiration of Grounded Theory. Atlas.ti provides standard coding, retrieving, and querying functions along with sophisticated hyperlinking tools and semantic networking. It handles textual and multi-media data formats. We have followed some suggestions for the use of Atlas.ti given in the usage guide written by Muñoz Justicia (2005).

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\(^6\) In this occasion, quotations are not translated from the Spanish and Catalan to English.


\(^8\) The free trial version is highly recommended. See http://www.atlasti.com/ Retrieved on May 2011.
Reliability

Reliability was checked by re-coding a sub-sample of interviews after two months. The coder often presented the analysis to the CoLABORando group. At those meetings, the results were discussed and the coder received feedback. However, there was no empirical validity test.

Ethical considerations

Participants were informed about ethical considerations such as the voluntary and confidential nature of their participation, the research goal, and asked for their permission to record the conversation (for the case of interviews and focus group sessions). At the end of the session and questionnaire, they voluntarily signed the informed consent form (see appendices 6 and 7). We interpreted this authorization as a personal—not institutional– intention to collaborate, giving their personal perceptions as employees.

While many academics agreed to speak using their full or first names, we decided to give a code number to all our speakers, to further shield the identities of the speakers.
CHAPTER IV: FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

Overview

This chapter states each research question and reports the results by means of an analysis of the qualitative data.

1. Description of the Professor’s Work

This thesis addresses some previous limitations by defining “paid-work” accurately. The work of university professors consists of performing tasks in three areas: teaching (preparing and delivering classes, attending students), research (e.g. coordinating or collaborating in one or more research groups, supervising dissertations, reviewing potential journal articles, competing for funding, taking part in national and international conferences), and service (e.g. coordinating a master's degree, a doctorate, being head of a departmental unit, secretary, head of department, dean or chancellor). These tasks are usually inter-connected. For instance, a professor teaches the subject they are researching and manages their own projects and resources according to their research interests.

Quantitative Work Overload: Where Does the Time Go?

Some professors have more than one job: as freelancers, in the private sector, in other universities, or in the public sector. Some have several jobs because they wish to while others because they need to.

Being a university professor is generally synonymous with seducing by way of words and with a genuine interest in improving conditions in the world. As a result, it is not surprising that PDI may also be present in the political arena.

Participants consider that the main task contributing to work overload is dedication to service, which means time and energy that comes from the teaching and researching realms. Only a few professors like to perform service tasks. The majority feel frustrated when obliged to carry out service tasks as they have not been prepared to do so. This is also related to the lack of staff and resource complaints. The PDI feel a lack of control when undertaking service tasks; moreover, these tasks also constitute unpaid work and it is simply their turn to do service work. Service position or tasks are also notorious for their excess paperwork.

Over the course of their academic career, in recognition of teaching hours, research merits and some service positions, PDI gain points that help them achieve a higher experience category which proves useful to obtaining a higher position in Spanish public universities.

To conduct research, a great deal of resources and personnel are required. A significant proportion of the working time at the university is dedicated to research group meetings.

Furthermore, a number of working days in the academic year are given over to working trips. Conferences add new projects and networks to the workload.
Quotations that illustrate the quantitative work overload among professors are outlined in tables in appendix 12.

**Qualitative Work Overload**

Professors that perceive a lack of time usually identify some areas of their working life in which they require more time. Two fields were detected:

*Professional development and career advancement:* People feel that development of knowledge and skills are needed in order to feel capable of performing their tasks. Undertaking meaningful tasks such as working on a (doctoral or post-doctoral) dissertation or competing for a higher position requires greater mental effort. Important but not urgent tasks are often postponed, which is a source of distress.

*Control and satisfaction of a job well done:* As they have many tasks to perform over a very short period of time (quantitative work overload), they quicken their pace and engage in less reflection to the detriment of the quality of the work. The results are often disappointing for them and those that are most interested. This leads to dissatisfaction.

Quotations that illustrate the qualitative work overload among professors are outlined in the tables in appendix 13.

**Changes in Workload Over Time**

But has the workload always been high? What was it like twenty years ago? Senior professors that have been working in academia for twenty or thirty years claim that the workload was also heavy in the past, but for different reasons. When professors are young and have little or no work experience, they have to work a great deal to prove their worth in their academic career. They have to build upon their experience and merits to expand upon and improve their resume.

Has there always been a heavy workload? No. In the past, there was less social pressure and less self-imposed pressure. Professors were subject to fewer appraisals and less competition, and people were less exposed to the global academic community. Table 7 illustrates these ideas by means of quotations.

“The past is always better”. Nostalgia may also account for part of the arguments.

Table 7: Workload at the University: What Was It Like Twenty Years Ago and What Is It Like Now?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quotations regarding workload variation over the years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“La universidad era un sitio que tú elegías como un lugar de trabajo especial. Donde sabías que intelectualmente tenías que dar a tope. Donde no podías decir ‘bueno yo a las 5 de la tarde’... Para eso hay otra cosa, ¿no?”[FG1_M06]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Están de lectores, están de una cosa que no les queda claro de qué va. Nosotros teníamos como mínimo más posibilidades que se iba estirando, mínimamente bien. Aunque fuera, ya decías tú, hiciste un parón de 10 años que te frenaba un poco, pero ellos [los jóvenes de ahora]... si es que frenan se van a la calle”. [FG1_M01]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“pero la cosa es que antes era bueno, docencia... si quieres hacer algún articulito. Ahora te lo exigen y lo tienes que acreditar, además”. [P09_M02]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Antecedents and Consequences of Work Overload

One of the specific goals of this thesis was to analyze the antecedents and outcomes of the work overload among professors in Spanish public universities.

Antecedents can be classified into three main categories: personal, social and organizational antecedents. Personal antecedents include role overload, self-imposed pressure and career development, family-to-work conflict (FIW), shortcomings in personal organization and shortcomings in self-efficacy. For the purposes of the sample, social antecedents only consist of social pressure. Organizational antecedents encompass role overload, lack of resources/staff, task and schedule distribution, unforeseen events, change, bureaucracy and information overload.

Figure 3: Categories of Antecedents and Consequences of Work Overload

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antecedents and brief description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Role overload</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having multiple roles, tasks or responsibilities at work or having more than one job. Some professors have more than one job: as freelancers, in the private sector, in other universities, or in the public sector. Some have several jobs because they wish to, and others because they need to.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-imposed pressure and career development</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work overload can be due to the intrinsic requirements of promotion or public recognition in the academic arena. If the PDI is young, he/she must accumulate experience and merits to build upon and improve their resume. Some PDI that are parents also have the pressure of competing with their single colleagues that do not have family responsibilities. Given that all this pressure proves crucial to qualifying for promotion, it involves a high emotional load as well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family-to-work conflict (FIW)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demands and concerns in the family domain spill over to the work domain. A session with the pediatrician, plans for vacations or the Christmas season are good examples of work overload provoked by family responsibilities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Antecedents of Work Overload
Lack of resources/staff
PDI requires more staff that provide support in undertaking administrative tasks mainly or research tasks (e.g. transcriptions, statistical tasks and translations). As the university often has poor or no resources available for new staff, rather than hiring personnel for substitutions in cases of leave, management assigns the pending work to a professor that has their own duties.

Task and schedule distribution
According to many participants, the load and schedule of classes are distributed unevenly over the year. For some of them, work overload is concentrated at the very end of each term (e.g. grading exams). This may be due to poor department management (of personnel, service responsibilities, lecture rooms and schedules).

Social pressure
Society exerts pressure on the employee. He/she must have a high position, be good at work, be respectable and have a family and a house. Professors are expected to achieve all that as soon as possible.

Unforeseen events
Distractions or unexpected urgent demands such as interruptions, firefighting and dedication to others’ work usually overload the PDI (e.g. receiving emergency emails and phone calls, taking breaks to browse the Internet, a quick chat with co-workers that walk into the office, instant messages).

Shortcomings in personal organization
Poor ability to organize and manage work demands within the time available make PDI work at a slower pace, procrastinate, delay and put things off and leave work undone and accumulated.

Shortcomings in self-efficacy
New demands call for extra efforts (e.g. preparing material for a new subject that has been assigned and carrying out service tasks), which lead to a heavier workload. As knowledge and skills are needed, PDI feel a lack of control over the task.

Change, bureaucracy and information overload
Paperwork is a common issue in the public sector. However, changes in the organization or in the educational system (e.g. Bologna Process) increase the work demands by adding processes and protocols. New definitions of the educational programs must be drawn up, and the skills to be obtained by the student must be outlined. There is an excessive amount of information to be processed, and it is not always clear what to do next.

Professors’ work overload is due to the very nature of the profession and the multipurpose nature of their work: teaching, research and service.

On the other hand, outcomes of work overload can be classified into three categories: Physical and Psychological/Health Outcomes, Family Consequences and Work Consequences. The psychological/health outcomes category features the following items: psychological distress and emotional impact and impact on health and healthy habits. Family consequences include work-to-family conflict (WIF) and impact on social and personal time. Finally, work consequences involve work quality, satisfaction, participation, motivation and working climate.

Table 9: Consequences of Work Overload

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consequences and brief description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Psychological distress and emotional impact</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work overload provokes stress and tension. Having too much to do in too little time and important tasks being left undone make people feel frustrated, irritated and resigned. It also makes people feel uncomfortable and incompetent, which reduces the sense of self-efficacy. The three components of burnout (emotional exhaustion, cynicism and inefficacy) were also identified as outcomes of work overload. Engagement (characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption), the opposite of burnout, has been found as a positive consequence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work quality</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When the PDI is overloaded, he/she perceives less dedication to work and poor reflection to the detriment of the quality of the job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work-to-family conflict (WIF)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demands and concerns in the work domain spill over to the family domain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Impact on health and healthy habits</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work overload provokes tiredness, mental exhaustion, headache, backache, bad humor, bad mood,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
etc. To tackle work overload, PDI sleep less and have lunch in fifteen minutes. It is a vicious cycle as it generates less concentration.

| **Satisfaction** | Work outcome that results from an assessment of the quality of work. |
| **Impact on social and personal time** | Demands and concerns in the work domain spill over to social and personal time. |
| **Participation** | With an excessive number of tasks to perform, less and less professors are interested in participating in the organization. |
| **Motivation** | Work overload leads to less motivation, interest and encouragement. |
| **Working climate** | Work overload and its spillover to colleagues have an adverse impact on the “good vibes” at the workplace. |

Time is one of the most important resources to ensure high quality of work. Heavy workloads and lack of time reduces the quality of work and increases the strain on professors which, in turn, impact upon satisfaction, motivation and working climate. This illustrates that many outcomes of work overload are strongly related to one another.

To sum up, Figure 4 shows an integrated view of the antecedents and consequences of work overload among Spanish academics.

Figure 4: Antecedents and consequences of work overload

In summary, the three-fold profile of professors’ work contributes to work overload. Professors experience both quantitative and qualitative work overloads. A number of subtle differences are noted between tenured and not-tenured professors, and among men and women. Lecturers that are not in the tenure track experience more qualitative work overload on account of the strain of meeting research goals and competing for a higher position. Tenured professors also have heavy workloads because they are engaged in demanding projects in order to maintain their lifestyles. Women have greater total workloads than men since they are still considered the primary caregivers and household managers. This leads to greater perceived exhaustion and psychological distress.
2. What Does Work-Family Conflict Entail in the Academic Setting?

What kind of WFC can the academic career entail? A work conflict or family conflict becomes a work-family conflict when it affects the other domain. This may happen in different ways (time, strain or behavior) and in different directions (work interferes with family and/or vice versa).

Many participants have difficulties in defining their WFC, and therefore they conclude they have little or no WFC.

Professors have several resources for managing WF demands. Firstly, they have personal resources that include skills and knowledge translated into strategies to cope with conflict. Other resources are offered by the organization in terms of policies, services, supportive coworkers, culture and subcultures.

Actually, they experience day-to-day conflicts that can be resolved rapidly by the use of professors’ working conditions and that is why they are difficult for them to perceive. Professors avail of flexibility in their working schedule to modify working hours at the workplace. They can work at any time and in any place, as they also have job autonomy and no supervisor. Seniority helps professors choose the class schedule. These working conditions generally work together.

When is there a greater perception of WFC? The perception of WFC is higher when the professor faces a family problem (e.g. change in life stage, caregiving of a child or an elderly/ill parent) and

1. no organizational support is available.
2. the organizational culture and/or subcultures are not WF supportive.
3. personal coping strategies are not sufficiently effective (not even cognitive strategies to lower expectations).

In brief, there is a higher perception of WFC mainly when the professor has a sense of limited control over the situation.

There is also a high degree of perception of WFC when the professor has a low level of or no support from his/her partner; however, this issue was not studied on this occasion.

Table 10: Professors’ WFC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professors’ working conditions to reduce day-to-day WFC (e.g. picking up children from school)</th>
<th>Flexibility, autonomy and seniority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ya hace años que (mis hijos) no viven en casa. Yo no tengo ningún problema de conciliación familiar. (...) Normalmente yo suelo concentrar la docencia si es posible, entonces el primer semestre a lo mejor estoy 10 horas en la facultad cada día, en cambio ahora procuro estar de 9 a 5 o una cosa así. Los vienes por la tarde nunca vengo. (...) Los profesores no son lo mismo que el personal administrativo, que tiene que fichar. Aquí el profesor lo que tiene es que... evidentemente tienes que cumplir el horario de clases y de tutorías... pero hay mucha gente que prefiere quedarse a trabajar en casa y no estar aquí, porque están más tranquilos. Así que no hay ningún control, por lo tanto no tenemos problemas de horario. [P07_M04]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Si un día por la tarde necesito ir a buscar a los niños porque mi mujer no puede o tal, pues te lo puedes combinar. Si no tienes clases te lo combinas, y luego ya trabajas más por la noche. Quiero decir, tenemos un horario muy flexible, aparte de las clases, lo otro si ya es investigar, bueno, ya lo sabes, lo puedes hacer en cualquier sitio a cualquier hora. [P07_H01]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When the WFC originates in the work domain, it normally gives rise to work overload.

**How do Work Overload Impact on the Work-Family Interface?**

High quantitative workloads (a new research project, a publishing deadline, unknown service tasks) may spill over to the home domain (see figure 6, the network in appendix 17 and its quotations in appendix 18), particularly when professors decide to work longer hours (for instance, at the office). Then, they arrive home late and miss family time (e.g. children’s homework, family dinner, children’s bath, or simply leisure time with the family). They make an extra effort in order to maintain a balance and therefore longer hours do not undermine the family. The professor cannot fully recover from work and they are still thinking of unfinished tasks. A lack of rest leads to mental exhaustion which, in turn, decreases focus and performance at work the following day. Although they may have planned their tasks at work that day, they cannot work productively and procrastinate or make mistakes, which again contributes to workload. This is a vicious circle that begins with the work-to-family spillover and the subsequent lack of recovery in the family spills over to the work domain in the form of exhaustion, a shortage in concentration and in performance. This situation has negative outcomes, particularly personal repercussions that reverberate in organizational effects.  

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9 The relationship between work overload and the WF interface was here the focus. In appendices 19, 20, and 21 the relationships between work overload and well-being, quality of work, and participation are presented, respectively.
Particularly for women, the chain seems to begin in the family domain (family-to-work spillover or FIW), with negative outcomes at a personal, family and organizational level. The combination of time-based conflict and strain-based conflict from one domain into another provides a more comprehensive view of conflict in the WF interface (Moen and Roehling, 2005). The inclusion of behavior-based conflict is suggested to help understand the origin of the time-based conflict, as the practice of absorbing work overload reverberates in quantity and/or quality of family time.

Table 11: Quotations Illustrating FIW

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quotation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sí hay baja conciliación, disminuye la calidad de las clases, y eso afecta al alumnado. La no conciliación hace que nuestro trabajo sea de peor calidad, “hago lo justo y en la franja baja”. Con esto disminuye la motivación. Haces tu trabajo de mala gana, y eso que te gusta. [EIO9_M07]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Es verdad que yo me llevo mucho trabajo a casa, pero yo estoy con mi hija. A veces estoy un poco estresada, porque digo “madre mía que no me sé la clase de mañana y la otra preguntándome sobre las matemáticas y no sé qué”. Pero estoy en mi casa. [P09_M03]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he venido a trabajar algún sábado o algún domingo o días que dices no hay nadie aquí. Tienes que firmar abajo y de todo. Pero han sido puntualmente. Sabes que son momentos puntuales o semanas puntuales de mucho trabajo o porque ha habido un saldo tan negativo que me he tenido que dedicar tanto a mi casa, que dices oye, lo del trabajo no sale y me tengo que... claro, te lo marcas tú en cierta manera. La semana pasada estuve una semana mala y llevo un retraso importante. [P07_M01]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The professor’s work is a multi-task job, which increases the risk of work overload. Work overload (as a perceived lack of time to complete work) is perceived as the main stressor in the family domain, just ahead of a lack of organizational support, family support, and the distance between work and home (commuting time).

**What Spills Over the Family Domain?**

Each professor has their main activity, according to their preferences and experience: teaching, research or service.

If teaching is the main activity, the preparation of classes spills over to the family domain. A female and not-tenured participant was teaching-oriented and experienced some trouble in
expressing her ideas by way of a PowerPoint presentation. This constituted her primary source of stress, it made her feel frustrated and strain spilled over to the home realm. If researching, reading and writing time spills over to the family domain, a female and tenured professor usually avoids bringing work home. However, when she does, she reads while her daughter does her homework at the dinner table. This allows the professor to supervise and help her daughter.

If a management position (or service work) is the greater or main activity of the work domain, paperwork spills over to the family domain. In short, depending on what the main activity is, then it is more likely to spill over to the family domain.

**Cultural Norms: Barriers or Facilitators?**

As described in the chapter on conceptual framing, the examination of the organizational culture and its subcultures may allow us to identify barriers and facilitators to policy use, and therefore to achieving work-family balance. For quotations that illustrate the cultural norms at the UAB, see Appendix 22.

First of all, when reading this qualitative data, two figures can immediately be appreciated in the mythology of university culture that act as mirrors for the professors. One is the top performer, who works long hours, is highly or mainly involved in research, likes to publish and attends national and international conferences, and appears not to have any home distractions. This corresponds to the cultural images reported by Rapoport et al. (2002).

On the other hand, the low performer is perceived as a low-skilled professor that only works the hours they are at the workplace. In other words, they work the very minimum and have no interest in getting involved in more work activities.

The image of top performer reinforces the culture of presenteeism. The culture rules that the norm is “classes are sacred, do not miss them”.

The meaning of work for professors is strongly related to the profession’s discourse of choice and the enjoyment it rewards, as stated by Lewis (2003). One argument is that the dominance of work over other activities is often a personal choice. This was common among the professors interviewed, both men and women. This choice is differently attributed to the potentially absorbing and satisfying nature of knowledge work, and to personality (I am ambitious), professional identity (I do it for the students and new generations) and extensive societal contexts that equate self-worth with intense work involvement and career achievements. It is likely that all these interrelated factors contribute to some extent to the construction of long working hours as a life choice, as work has become more satisfying than home (Hochschild, 1997). Paid work can be absorbing and stimulating and is the source of recognition and status, while home just becomes hard work, especially for parents of young children. For professors that have more experience, the student is the source of meaning of their work. Middle-aged professors have serious difficulties in struggling with teaching, research and service activities. However, young professors know that the main activity must be research as it concentrates the incentives (e.g. recognition, funding and points for promotion).

The analysis suggests that the take-up of WF policies hinges on two conditions. Firstly, the gender of the professor determines the willingness to avail of said policies. The analysis of
qualitative data confirms that women are more likely to take maternity leave and reduce working hours, while men hardly ever take paternity leave. Secondly, it is also true that the use of the aforementioned policies is dictated by the department or research center (subculture) in which the professor works. Both women and men can take all kinds of leave in departments related to the social sciences (e.g. psychology, economics, sociology and law), whereas in the physics or engineering department for instance, taking leave by anyone is not well perceived. However, it must be admitted that there are relatively less women in those areas.

The most common WF informal arrangement is to ask a coworker to give classes on a given day while the professor attends family demands. It is a resource that is always available, and in every university department. However, in light of the heavy workloads, nobody wishes to request it, because they do not wish to return the favor.
3. Coping with Work Overload and with Family/Home Demands

What do professors do to reduce WFC and enhance WFF?

The demands studied on this occasion were work overload and family and home demands. According to the model of Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli (2001), the resources can be money, networks, time, etc. As suggested by Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007), a specific taxonomy for the sample (professors) has been drawn up, as they may have unique coping mechanisms constrained by the profession.

For the purposes of the study, only one demand of the work domain has been considered: work overload (related to teaching, research and service activities). From the unpaid work domain, family (tasks and leisure related to kinkeeping) and home activities (i.e. housework, grocery shopping, budgeting and management of household finance) have been taken into consideration. Figure 7 shows the coping strategies, which are classified by their aim or intention, regardless of their effectiveness. Personal and organizational efforts are both considered in this figure. There is one scenario in which a particular style of coping may be effective with one demand but not with the other. Many strategies overlap and are used to cope with work overload and family/home demands simultaneously.

Figure 6: Coping Strategies for Work Overload and Family/Home Demands

This list has been compiled from the data and is not a closed list. It represents the particular sample of Spanish university professors.

The resources (coping strategies) are gathered into three main coping styles: load absorption, load reduction and distress reduction. These styles are not exclusive, because they depend on both situation and personality.
This figure demonstrates that people cope differently according to the demand domain. However, professors evaluate the consequences that a certain strategy in one field has over the other field. This helps them decide. However, on many occasions there is no choice. This situation makes strategies sometimes seem counterproductive. For instance, there are some strategies for absorbing work overload (e.g. working longer hours at the office, working on Saturdays at the university or working at night) that create or intensify conflict with childcare. In other words, the behavioral-based strategy of working long hours has consequences on time-based conflict, to the detriment of competing demands and the work-family balance. In particular, the strategy of working longer hours than usual is an antecedent of work-family conflict.

Unavoidably, stress surfaces when professors perceive that demands exceed resources available. For stress, professors have their own supportive coping strategies classified under the style known as distress reduction. Table 12 defines each strategy, which are organized by frequency of quotation occurrence.

Table 12: Coping Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coping strategies and brief description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work centrality and sense-making</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This strategy has cognitive and affective components. Professors obtain self-affirmation and motivation and convince themselves that their work is a valuable job, that they like it, that they do it because of the students. They have positive thinking, have faith, and appeal to a higher purpose. As Davis et al. (1998) described, &quot;sense-making&quot; relates to finding a reason for what happened, integrating it into existing schemata, such as religion, knowledge about health, or consequences of life stress. Wong (1998) proposes that &quot;pursuing worthwhile goals&quot; is included in his motivational dimension which reflects meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Time/task management</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategy consisting of planning, organizing, optimizing, prioritizing and distributing tasks over working time, which creates a sense of personal control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Use of working conditions</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professors that have better working conditions, such as time and technological flexibility, autonomy, tenure and seniority, may avail of them to go home earlier, work at home and choose a better class calendar. They have control over their schedule, interests and working space.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Working long hours</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To tackle workload, professors stay longer hours at the university or bring work home. This strategy is very common in environments that enhance presenteeism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Market services</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support based on reciprocity (to hire help: babysitter, housemaid, private daycare center, didactic playroom, old people's home and on-line purchase).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organizational support</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This strategy consists of a supportive workplace culture (colleagues’ support, reassignment of class schedule, meeting schedules – informal arrangements), leave (maternity and paternity leave, extended leave of absence), working time arrangements (part-time work, reduced working hours) and organizational services (campus daycare center, health center and drugstore). This strategy is very common in environments with a healthy working climate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Naturalization</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive strategy that convinces PDI that this job has always been overloaded and that there is no cause for concern.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social support/delegation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support based on solidarity (to receive help from partners, children, extended family and friends). It is a critical coping resource and &quot;it refers to everyday actions that convey care and concern&quot; (Ezzedeen and Ritchey, 2008: 1109).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lessons from the past</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDI invokes memories from the past when stressful encounters were overcome successfully, in order to reassure and reinforce him/herself and to decrease stress. Baumeister (1991) calls it &quot;reporting success in overcoming difficult obstacles in one's past&quot;.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Acceptance/adaptation/adjustment
Cognitive reappraisal in order to become accustomed to a new situation (higher workload), comfortably and with a positive attitude. This strategy is related to a high sense of meaningful work (work centrality and sense-making).

### Do one’s utmost to work
To try to do one’s best and improvise to get the work done.

### Boundary management
Individuals proactively manage multiple roles using boundary management strategies tailored to their individual needs for more or less role spillover. These intentionally planned strategies can be situated on a continuum ranging from segmentation (according to Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999, deliberately keeping work and family roles separate as a preventive strategy) to integration (i.e. blurring boundaries between roles in order to be more flexible and available for whatever demands may arise). For a review, see Thompson et al. (2007).

### Reduction of expectations
To convince oneself that one cannot do something (well).

### Tolerance and resignation
Cognitive process of accepting situations not happily, but with resignation.

### Work absence
Professors miss work both to finish urgent work at home without distractions in the workplace, and to take care of family duties.

### Relax and switch off
In order to avoid/forget work responsibilities and enjoy a physical and mental recovering time, professors do exercise (sport, meditation, yoga, etc.), go shopping, pray, watch television, and read material not related to work. At least twice a year (for Christmas and summertime) they take a vacation.

### Stress management
Preventive coping to prepare for uncertainty in the medium/long term. Professors make an effort and organize in order to avoid/minimize future stressful events.

### Renunciation and compensation/trade-off
To quit temporarily in one domain (family or work) and compensate for it later. This strategy differs from “task/time management” as the former has a strong emotional component (e.g. guilt, frustration and a sense of lack of control). When work spills over to the family domain, it is seen as a cost/sacrifice/trade-off that has to be made in order to be a good employee.

### Resistance
Strategy divided in two: task rejection and simplification (rejection of more responsibilities openly) and work avoidance (e.g. not replying to e-mails, not-answering the cell phone, doing things the wrong way so nobody will trust him/her again, calling work and claiming that he/she is sick and cannot go to work and doing something else). The former is done openly and the latter secretly. Micro-resistances are a matter of “survival”, a “safety valve”, and a way to create the illusion of control over the workload, when resources are scarce.

### Work fast
To work at a faster pace, in a hurry.

---

### Simultaneously Strategies and Outcomes of Work Overload

Some outcomes of work overload can also be found as coping strategies (see quotations in Table 13). Firstly, work overload creates time pressure and undermines the quality of work. Furthermore, “to lower the quality of work” might be a deliberate strategy to cope with work overload. Secondly, work overload adversely affects health and healthy habits, as professors get worried and sleep badly and less. However, professors can sleep less on purpose to dedicate that time to working. The same logic applies to short breaks at lunch time. Finally, work overload impacts negatively on social and personal time, but it is also true that some professors “sacrifice” their personal life.
Table 13: Outcomes of Work Overload that Also Operate as Coping Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome of WO</th>
<th>Coping with WO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sensación de pérdida de calidad por hacer tantas tareas a la vez. [01-0-99-C0024]</td>
<td>Haciéndolo mal (no todo, pero más de lo que me gustaría). [01-0-20-C0006]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Se retrasa el final de las tareas y actividades [01-0-14-C0021]</td>
<td>Sustituyendo un poco la calidad por la cantidad. [01-0-99-C0025]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no tengo nada grave pero estoy enferma, y tiene que ver directamente con cómo han ido esos años de apurar el cuerpo al máximo y luego eso te pasa factura. [01-0-99-C1409]</td>
<td>Durmiendo menos y dedicándole más horas [01-0-99-C0011]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asumo que es una profesión sin horario, pero ello repercute negativamente en mi vida social. [01-0-20-C0018] dispongo de menos tiempo para mí [01-0-99-C0140]</td>
<td>Es necesario tiempo que acabo robando a mi vida social. [01-0-99-C1188]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are strategies that only operate in extreme situations: leaving children alone at home while working, and bringing children to the workplace. It was infrequent to find these practices among professors’ responses, but it is suspected that they are more common than expected, and that there are cultural patterns that make these practices frowned upon or simply unacceptable.

**Use of Work-Life Policies**

Figure 7 shows that the uses of working conditions and organizational support have a different intention.

Leave (maternity and paternity leave and extended leave of absence), working time arrangements (part-time work and reduced working hours) and organizational services (campus daycare center, health center and drugstore) included in the category of “organizational support”, are mainly related to childcare, according to participants. For this reason, it is difficult for a professor to take an extended leave of absence when his/her parent is seriously ill. Rather than formal arrangements, they feel more comfortable taking advantage of working conditions such as flexibility, autonomy and seniority, which offers sufficient facilities to resolve a family/home problem in the short term.

In other words, formal arrangements are associated with the approach of reducing load and solving specific childcare issues, while informal arrangements are related to solving day-to-day family/home issues, without giving up the paid workload.
Burnout and Engagement Profiles: Two Extreme Coping Styles

The analysis showed that in the sample concern burned-out participants and the contrary, i.e. engaged people. Table 14 illustrates the three components of burnout (i.e. emotional exhaustion, cynicism and inefficacy) and the three components of engagement (i.e. vigor, dedication and absorption) by means of quotations.

Table 14: Quotations Illustrating the Components of Burnout and Engagement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Burnout</th>
<th>Engagement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soy una persona con una ética del trabajo</td>
<td>Bueno, casi diría que soy autónomo. Digamos, el</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aceptable, sé mis obligaciones y voy a cumplirlas, pero que no esperen de mí que vaya más allá. Y durante muchísimos años, las universidades han funcionado a base de ir más allá, de ir más allá. A lo mejor ha sido un error hacerlo, porque la administración, no sólo la administración de la universidad, las otras administraciones se acostumbraron a que &quot;ah, esto sigue funcionando, podemos dar un poco más de vuelta de tuerca. Sigue funcionando. Podemos dar otra vuelta de tuerca...&quot; Llegará el día en que el tornillo se pasa, entonces no puedes seguir dando vueltas eternamente. Quizás a lo mejor esto ha sido un fallo nuestro. Si nos hubiéramos planteado esto en un momento: &quot;mire, perdone, cuando has dado esta vuelta de tuerca, no estamos dispuestos a hacerlo&quot;, a lo mejor hubieran retrocedido. Como si la responsabilidad fuera propia. [FG2_H03]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emocional Exhaustion</strong></td>
<td>Vigor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>La gente lleva muchos años con cargas muy fuertes. [01-0-99-C1409]</td>
<td>tengo una carga de trabajo alta, pero es también por mi propia auto exigencia de cara a publicar. Ahora tengo que presentar no sé qué, ahora estoy organizando... Bueno, en la dinámica de lo que es más la tarea de la investigación, que realmente es de mucha exigencia. Pero es lo que a mí me gusta y no me resulta graso. [P09_M01]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Con un nivel de estrés muy alto. Agotamiento. [01-0-99-C0106]</td>
<td>&quot;Trabajo mucho, pero lo vivo con alegría&quot;. [01-0-20-C0011]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cynicism</strong></td>
<td>Dedication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inicialmente mal (vivía la falta de tiempo para realizar mi trabajo), ahora con cierto distanciamiento [01-0-19-C0003]</td>
<td>El alumno es la clave. Lo interesante de enseñar... o sea, un profesor tiene dos razones. Yo siempre digo que me pagan por aprender, entonces eso es un privilegio. Pagarte por aprender es un privilegio. Entonces, la compensación que uno encuentra es justamente el transmitir de la forma más productiva posible a las generaciones futuras. Ahí está el binomio, el equilibrio de una y la otra. Por lo tanto el transmitir no es un trabajo, es casi un placer. [P09_H06]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inefficacy</strong></td>
<td>Absorption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Se vive con impotencia y con sensación de no hacer bien el trabajo. [01-0-14-C0017]</td>
<td>como son cosas muy intensas y muy apasionadas hay veces que te sientes y ves que hay un libro de poemas que está a punto de salir que necesita una concentración especial y durante unos días dedicás en cuerpo y alma a aquello. Y lo mismo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The study examined whether burnout or engagement modified the coping strategies employed in any manner. In fact, two coping styles at the extreme end of each pole are palpable. The “overloaded and burned-out” and “overloaded and engaged” profiles are described below.

**Overloaded and Burned-Out: the Limited Execution Coping Mode**

Based on the principle that perceived work overload leads to perceived lack of time, question 23 of the questionnaire was analyzed: “Regarding your workload and the time to carry it out, do you have a lack of time, enough time, or do you have time left?” According to Figure 8, 74% of the sample claim to perceive a lack of time to complete work.

Figure 7: Time Available to Get Work Done

Figure 8: How Do Overloaded Professors Experience High Workload?

Eighty-four percent of the overloaded participants (see Figure 9) have had a bad experience or feel bad about it. They declare that they feel stressed out, exhausted, overwhelmed and physically weak or ill (i.e. emotional exhaustion). As the workload has been perceived to be
high for a long time and they feel they exert no control over the situation despite their efforts (inefficacy), they have developed a slack attitude, in other words, they have limited work and take some distance from the job and their coworkers (cynicism). Emotional exhaustion, inefficacy and cynicism are the three components of burnout syndrome. This study found that this portion of the sample, that shall be named “overloaded and burned-out”, is more likely to work the minimum required and to procrastinate. They have an external locus of control and achieve poor performance in order to protect themselves from burnout. This practice of “limited execution” is a preventive coping strategy as the focus is on avoiding threat and loss (Schwarzer and Taubert, 2002). Many of the participants that experience or have experienced burnout have had successive crises of efficacy (e.g. strong disagreement with the workload that the faculty assigned to him/her, or disagreement with the schedule). In this study, the category of “cynicism” is closely related to “lessons from the past”. Many burned-out participants have reported a lack of enthusiasm, indifference and apathy, which resulted in a negative (or several) past experience(s) at work. High demands and lack of resources can generate such crises of efficacy that, over time, could give rise to burnout (characterized by emotional exhaustion, cynicism and professional inefficacy).

Two thirds of the “overloaded and burned-out” participants are women. Forty percent have temporary contracts, while 58% have tenure. Forty four percent have had or currently have service work responsibilities, while 56% have not had or do not.

Table 15: Limited Execution Coping Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overloaded and burned-out coping mode: Limited execution</th>
<th>Pero lo que ocurre es que a veces, creo que un fenómeno que pasa mucho es que la universidad, las estructuras queman a las personas. Entonces, en un momento determinado la persona tira la toalla, él dice si yo voy a seguir viendo, pero voy a pasar a un modelo diferente, ([FG2_M05]: Pasa al mínimo) a un medio “stand by”, pero ya me han quemado, y creo que eso sí que está pasando. La gente está un poco más quemada, más descreídas. Yo vine aquí para hacer unas cosas con motivación y de pronto me doy contra la pared una y otra y otra vez, entonces, ya sé lo que tengo que hacer. Soy una persona con una ética del trabajo aceptable, sé mis obligaciones y voy a cumplirlas, pero que no esperen de mí que vaya más allá. [FG2_H03] Si que hay días que bueno, que me tengo que quedar a hacer alguna cosa. Pero sí puedo yo los sábados y domingo no toco nada, si puedo. Sí tengo una clase que tengo que mirar, tampoco me cuesta tanto, me la miro. Pero pocas veces ahora intento hacer. Es que ya no quiero. No quiero hacer el sábado y domingo. No me da la gana, es así. He dejado demasiado por el camino. Pero sí que acaso tuviera tu edad lo tendría que hacer. [FG1_M01] Ahora, por qué tenemos interés y responsabilidad: yo es por los alumnos, nada más, ni por los compañeros, ya no digamos por los... lo que decís del rectorado y vicerrectorado. [FG2_H01]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Overloaded and Engaged: the Engagement Coping Mode

On the contrary, there is a small portion (8%) of the overloaded participants that feel good with that situation. Their focus is on solving the challenge. An “overloaded and engaged” person can be described as a leader, self-responsible, with an internal locus of control, engaged (characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption) and committed to work. He/she is less likely to feel depressed and burned-out.

According to the current study, “overloaded and engaged” participants work longer hours and often reach a state of “flow” (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Half of the participants are women and half are men. All of them have worked for more than thirteen years in an academic setting and
more than nine years at the same university. They have a fixed-term contract (tenure) and have had or currently have service responsibilities. There is only one exception in which the person has worked for four years at the university, has a temporary contract and has never had service responsibilities. However, they all are involved in proactive coping as “work centrality and sense-making”, positive thinking and direct action.

Table 16: Engagement Coping Mode

| Overloaded and engaged coping mode: Engagement | Trabajo mucho, pero lo vivo con alegría. [01-0-20-C0011] |
| Effort to build meaning into working. It is “work centrality and sense-making” coping at a higher level of mastery. | TODO MI TIEMPO lo dedico a mi trabajo universitario y no me agobia. [01-0-07-C0001] |
| Me motivan las dos cosas: me gusta mucho el trabajo que tengo y creo que trabajar en la universidad es una suerte. (...)Yo creo que lo importante de un trabajo es que te guste lo que haces y estés bien. A mí me gusta. (...)De hecho, la flexibilidad y la autonomía son dos de las cosas que más valoro de estar en la universidad. Eso y el no tener jefe. [P09_H05] |

To sum up, the “overloaded and engaged” is a minority that perceived high workload and lack of time, yet they experience it positively. They have resources that act as health-protecting factors, which keep them healthy even after encountering high workload levels.

Both the “overloaded and burned out” and the “overloaded and engaged” profiles correspond to different dynamics. The aim of the “overloaded and burned-out” is to avoid burnout effects (e.g. protect him/herself from frustration), while the “overloaded and engaged” promotes the eustress (e.g. to maintain the “flow” states and energy). The burned out have a preventive coping style, while the engaged are involved in a proactive coping style.

As the answers to question 23 of the questionnaire were generally brief, the answers to question 15 (of the same questionnaire) were also explored, thereby facilitating a more in-depth understanding of the two profiles. Participants were asked to write four key words that best define their work.

Two profiles have been selected by means of the criterion described above (people that perceive a high workload and feel bad about it, and people who feel well in the same situation). Table 17 shows some words used by the “overworked and burned-out” and the “overworked and engaged”. Vast differences in the manner they both describe their work are observed.

Table 17: Selection of Key Words Employed by the “Overworked and Burned-Out” and the “Overworked and Engaged” Profiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key words “Overloaded and burned-out”</th>
<th>Key words “Overloaded and engaged”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TRAICIÓN</td>
<td>SATISFACTORÍO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEDIO</td>
<td>MOTIVADOR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DESORDEN</td>
<td>ABSORVENTE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPTIMISMO</td>
<td>INNOVADOR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INESTABILIDAD</td>
<td>Investigación</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATURACIÓN</td>
<td>Administración.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILUSIÓN</td>
<td>Clases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESPERANZA</td>
<td>Informática</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROFESIONALIZACIÓN</td>
<td>Satisfacción</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DESENCANTO</td>
<td>Promoción</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMBIVALENCIA</td>
<td>Estudiantes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Generally speaking, burned-out participants use words with negative connotations, contrary to the engaged participants. Some words describe burnout syndrome (e.g. saturation, exhausting, disenchantment, disappointing). Burned-out respondents also mention a number of positive words, all of which could be classified under a hope category (optimism, enthusiasm and hope). While positive words used by the engaged participants are mainly related to a satisfaction category (satisfying, motivating and innovating), they also focus on the task itself (e.g. research and classes) and on what affords meaning to their job (e.g. promotion, students and specialization).

The Burned-Out and Engaged Perception of the Work-Family Interface

With regard to these results, it has been hypothesized that both the extreme profiles described above may exert an influence on the perception of work-family balance or conflict.

As shown in Table 18, two main differences can be noted between the engaged and burned-out participants in coping with work-family interface.

Firstly, boundary management and therefore the use of working conditions are perceived differently. Engaged participants are involved in strategies that integrate the work and family domain. They are accustomed to including the family in work activities (e.g. travel and department events). They also work at home and use working time to deal with family issues, no strings attached. On the other hand, the burned-out are less flexible with work and home boundaries and therefore think and cope as if work and family were totally separate arenas (segmentation).

Secondly, engaged people are proactive and are constantly seeking resources to resolve work-family conflict and to promote balance, while burned-out people seem to adopt a distant attitude to work-family conflict (cynicism) and become paralyzed, waiting for others to solve their problems (avoidance that leads to inefficacy).

Table 18: Different Coping Styles in WFC According to Burned-Out and Engaged Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coping</th>
<th>with WFC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Overloaded and burned-out” Segmentation and preventive coping</td>
<td>“Overloaded and engaged” Integration and proactive coping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yo sé que no me puedo ir a tomar el café media hora, como me gustaría, pero a cambio de eso, tengo una racionalización, o en el momento en que me gustaría. Tengo que saber que el espacio de hablar con la gente es el que es y el espacio de irme a la piscina si lo consigo una hora al mes, pues es el que es. Pero que al menos no se te pasan los días de la manera que a lo mejor se te pasan, si no te enfrentas a que tu tiempo es muy limitado. [FG1_M04]</td>
<td>Me venía a la titulación cuando yo ya estaba con el bombo. Pero obviamente yo dije adelante. Y cuando tuve a la criía, estuve preparando mi proyecto docente. Aproveché la baja de estar en casa, y esos ratos libres que tenía para hacer el proyecto. [P07_M01]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Si que noto que evidentemente no puedo, o sea voy con el freno puesto, porque la entrada de cosas, o vas con el freno, con hijos o sin hijos, te desborda absolutamente. [FG1_M04]</td>
<td>Si estás dispuesto, como nuestro caso, a sacrificar horas de sueño para estar con los niños y luego, lo que tengas que hacer, hacerlo cuando se han dormido. (...) esto para mí es una suerte, aunque sea a costa de dormir menos, y de ir cansado, pero</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Y cuando me voy de vacaciones, me voy de vacaciones muy lejos. Donde no funciona el teléfono móvil y sólo te puedan alcanzar por teléfono vía satélite. Además llego, me meto en el barco, me gusta navegar y bucear, lo guardo en la caja fuerte apagado y cuando salga y desembarque ya lo volveré a encender. [FG1_H02]

Lo que me gustaría es poder tener cajitas, de decir bueno, hasta aquí llega el trabajo, y yo creo que hemos perdido muchísimo con el tema del correo electrónico y todo esto, porque en cualquier momento es difícil no decir basta. [FG1_H03]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 19: How Work Centrality Leads to WIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>How work centrality leads to WIF</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yo me he encontrado con colegas que han tenido problemas familiares precisamente por la profesión. Yo creo que han perdido un poco la noción de la vida y cuando empiezan a investigar e ir a congresos, pues vas recibiendo invitaciones; porque no viene aquí, por qué no viene allí. Hay facilidades de recibir becas, y al final se han encontrado con que la mujer y los hijos los dejaban porque les decían ya no te vemos nunca no te necesitamos para nada porque era gente que pasaba 6 meses fuera, pasaba una semana, regresaba pasaba 4 o 5 meses fuera. A mí me parece una locura, he procurado que no se repitiera en mi caso. (...) Yo lo he evitado antes que hubiera estos problemas. Pero lo he vivido de cerca con gente que yo conocía que ha producido realmente una ruptura de la familia. [P07_H02]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nevertheless, excessive engagement and therefore work centrality (i.e. career oriented and a highly salient work role) leads to work-to-family spillover (WIF), which reverberates in work-family imbalance that may have undesirable consequences. The more time spent at the workplace, the more difficult relationships become at home, which reinforces the desire to spend time at work. Work becomes a refuge from home, rather than home being a refuge from work, as was assumed to be the case in industrial times (Lewis, 2003).
4. Some sample differences

Changes in three variables are particularly relevant in professors’ work. The first is related to whether they are on a fixed-term or temporary contract. The second concerns their life stage, while the third is associated with gender roles.

Professors with temporary contracts have the additional task of sitting public examinations for tenure. As mentioned above, this increases qualitative work overload.

Parents with small children experience greater work overload and WFC. For instance, female professors that return to work after maternity leave experience an adjustment period with an emotional load and self-pressure that contributes to work overload.

From the gender perspective, women also have the traditional role of caring for the family and home, which adds to the total workload. Women have a low sense of control and are more likely to feel shortcomings in personal/professional organization. Therefore, work overload leads to higher stress levels for women than for men. Women also experience more FIW than WIF, which is explained in Table 11. The higher levels of stress may also be explained because they may be more family-oriented or “work-and-family” oriented, and not just work-oriented, as men generally are.

In short, being a woman with small children and without tenure is the most difficult and stressful state in academia.
CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Overview

In this chapter, the goals of this study and the selected literature review are recapitulated. The main findings are discussed, the research limitations are presented, and the strong points of this thesis are addressed and related to the theoretical and practical implications. Finally, suggestions for further research are put forward.

Summary of the Study

This study sought to explore how professors manage the work-home interface. For this purpose, 1) professors’ work was defined and 2) the type of WFC events experienced by this profession were ascertained. Finally, 3) the strategies employed to reduce WFC and enhance WFF were examined.

According to the aims, relevant literature on the following issues was presented:

- Work-family (life) interface (conflict and facilitation).
- Work overload.
- Related working concepts, including burnout and engagement.
- The demands-resources framework (coping strategies).
- The professor’s work and the Spanish context.

A qualitative study was conducted, which comprised the application and thematic content analysis of a questionnaire distributed throughout Spain and focus groups and interviews conducted in a public university in the Barcelona area.

The main findings were as follows:

- Professors’ work is a multi-task job, which increases the risk of work overload.
- Work overload (as a perceived lack of time to complete work) is perceived as the main stressor in the family domain.
- A unique set of work overload antecedents and outcomes were identified in the professors’ responses.
- Some measure of work-family conflict in the Spanish academic setting has been identified. Generally speaking, professors perceive low levels of WFC, and day-to-day WFC episodes can rapidly be resolved by means of their working conditions (flexibility, autonomy and seniority).
- Professors also have a set of coping strategies to manage work/family pressures. A map of the coping strategies linked to the work demands of work overload and to family/home demands has been drawn up. Three non-exclusive styles regarding its intention were observed: to absorb load, to reduce load and to reduce distress. Qualitative data indicate that some strategies to absorb work overload – such as working longer hours – are antecedents of work-family conflict.
• Professors prefer to use working conditions (i.e. flexibility, autonomy and seniority) and WF informal arrangements (i.e. to be temporarily replaced by a colleague in a certain class) than formal WF policies for the day-to-day WF struggle.

• Two extreme profiles have been identified (i.e. the “overloaded and burned-out” and the “overloaded and engaged”) in coping with work overload according to reports of experience. The relationship held by both profiles with the perception of work-family interface has been demonstrated. Engaged participants are involved in strategies that integrate the work and family domain and proactive coping (engaged professors are more likely to tackle demands while relieving pressure), and the burned-out are less flexible with work and home boundaries (segmentation) and have a preventive coping style.

• It has been observed that participants perceive higher levels of WFC when they sense low or non-organizational support, and personal resources are not sufficiently effective to replace organizational support. Three situations were identified: 1) when administrative staff are insufficient and professors have to deal with service tasks they do not control, 2) when professors need to be absent from work and a substitute to deliver their classes is unavailable, or they prefer not to give the burden to a colleague, and 3) when availing of WF policies is frowned upon or simply unacceptable.

• Finally, the cultural norms governing work-family coping strategies (e.g. the use of policies, informal arrangements and absenteeism/attendance) were identified from the qualitative data (at the UAB), which acts as a case study.

Discussion

This section analyzes and interprets, in accordance with the aims, the findings of the study.

It has been noted that some coping strategies are missing at times in this sample. Help-seeking is a behavioral manifestation of social support, which typically refers to the level of perceived support available from relevant others (Rotondo et al., 2003). Furthermore, there are two cases in which professors avoid requesting assistance: (1) from colleagues, because colleagues might need the favor returned in the future and that may overload and inconvenience them (informal arrangements among colleagues –organizational support in Table 12). Actually, they do so rarely but they always avoid missing classes. For this sample, requesting help from parents is always acceptable, but curiously it is not acceptable (it is uncomfortable) to request help from (2) parents-in-law (family support in Table 12). Nevertheless, the most usual and consistently applied coping strategy for respondents with care responsibilities was reliance upon the extended family, pointing to family as a source of care provision.

Strategies related to negotiating the sharing or reallocation of time (Thorne, 2001) are also absent. How does the couple or family agree upon the division of labor? Are female and male roles taken for granted?

As observed by this study, in the coping strategies adopted in the day-to-day lives of professors, overlooked is the existence of a long-term coping strategy to tackle work overload: postponing maternity. It is common for participants to have decided to postpone parenting until they obtained a more stable work situation. The finding related to women (and couples) postponing maternity after having obtained a more stable position at Spanish universities is consistent with the statement based on many academic women in U.S. colleges
who plan or sequence childbearing around the tenure process (Drago, Crouter, Wardell and Willits, 2001).

Two thirds of the participants that comprise the “overloaded and burned-out” group were women. Several explanations as to why there is a higher number of stressed-out women are discussed.

Firstly, women often perceive greater demands in terms of childcare and family obligations (e.g. Dressel and Clark, 1990; Piotrkowski, Rapoport and Rapoport, 1987), and it is also true in academic settings (Acker and Armenti, 2004). Women work harder to be a “good department citizen”, but they are not rewarded accordingly (Acker and Armenti, 2004). Subtle cultural barriers and preconceptions affecting women in Spanish academia are still palpable (Kuschel and Íñiguez, 2008).

Secondly, women report more overload and conflict yet employ less effective coping skills than men (Moen and Yu, 2000).

Thirdly, the sample had a similar representation of women and men, thus the bias of more women in the sample can be ruled out.

Finally, Salanova and Llorens (2008) claim that women generally score higher in exhaustion and professional inefficacy. Although women withstand pressure better, they are at risk of burnout; however, more men report developed burnout and not women.

According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), behavior-based conflict occurs when behaviors expected in one role are incompatible with behaviors expected in another role. Although academic positions generally have the advantage of a flexible work schedule, O’Laughlin and Bischoff (2005) state that one outcome of said flexibility is that work is often accomplished at home in the evening or on weekends. Working at home may create behavior-based conflict, as the focus and energy needed to fulfill work expectations is likely to conflict with demands for attention from children and/or spouses. The present study demonstrates the manner in which behavior-based conflict generates time-based conflict, and therefore among academics or entrepreneurs, the coping strategy of working longer hours is the source of the work-family conflict. In particular, the strategy of working longer hours than usual is an antecedent of work-family conflict. Eby et al. (2005) calculated that only 1% of the studies included in their meta-analysis examined the coping strategies as a predictor of work-family conflict.

To achieve work-life balance, professors need to reduce conflict and to enhance facilitation (Frone, 2003). Research reports that situational appraisals of control have been linked to the performance of active problem-solving coping strategies (Folkman, Aldwin and Lazarus, 1981), and that positive thinking is not an effective strategy because avoidance/resignation does not solve the problem. It was demonstrated that emotion-focused coping proved the least effective in reducing work-family conflict; however, positive thinking may have a role in achieving work-family balance. Employees who believe that they have little or no control to influence the environment (work or home) are less likely to engage in active problem-solving coping and more likely to employ emotion-focused strategies such as avoidance (Folkman, 1984). Are these strategies effective in reducing WFC? The results show that strategies are not effective in isolation, but definitively are when combined with another strategy. For example, a professor stays long hours at college to absorb workload (behavioral and problem-focus strategy). When he/she returns home, unpaid work continues: he/she prepares dinner, plays with the children, baths them and gets them ready for bed. By and large, following all those tasks, he/she tries to dispel stress (emotion-focus strategy), and takes some time to relax and unwind. As shown, strategies support each other and the forms of coping seem to operate differently depending on the domain, as suggested by Rotondo and Kincaid (2008).
The use of formal WF arrangements (policies, programs and services) depends on the perception of a supportive WF culture (Thompson, Beauvais and Lyness, 1999). It does not merely concern providing policies for their symbolic value, but rather creating a workplace culture that supports and encourages the use of said policies. Previous research shows that personal strategies are more effective than organizational support (Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2009). This can be explained by the fact that by investing our own resources (energy and time) in reducing WFC, a sense of enhancement, professionalism and positive esteem is gained, which stem from the perception that one can cope effectively with challenges and be self-reliant (Väänänen, Buunk, Kivimäki, Penti and Vahtera, 2005).

Avoidance/resignation coping is less effective because it was demonstrated to be related to the highest levels of WFC, probably because conflict appears to be ongoing and never-ending, thus more problematic to the individual (Rotondo et al., 2003). Coping strategies and styles are not exclusive, because they depend on both the situation and personality, which leads to the difficulty of measuring coping in a satisfactory manner (Schwarzer and Taubert, 2002). Moreover, high workloads have also been identified as a significant stumbling block to the uptake of WF policies in higher education (Waters and Bardoel, 2006). Byron (2005) found that people with better coping styles and (i.e. time management) skills (individual variable) managed to have less WIF and FIW.

Having an abundance of resources available can dull the decision process. For example, many organizational arrangements (information on paper, e-mails, website, etc.) to balance work and family, the policies offered by law, the programs offered by the department and the informal arrangements offered by the nearest working environment usually confuse people. Many professors avoid taking up leave as they find said resources very thorny.

Related to this and to the “overloaded and burned-out” and “overloaded and engaged” profiles, Sumer (1997) found that participants with a preoccupied style were more likely to experience negative spillover from the home domain to the work domain. However, “securely attached” participants significantly experienced more positive spillover in both directions than the other three attachment groups. She also found that participants with a dismissing style significantly experienced more segmentation than those with a preoccupied style. Here the dismissing style overlaps with the cynicism and depersonalization feature of the burnout syndrome. Demerouti et al. (2001) stated that situations in which professors cannot achieve their goals due to a lack of external resources make it difficult for individuals to cope with work overload, and less motivation and withdrawal from the job may prove to be important self-protection mechanisms that prevent future frustrations of not obtaining work-related goals. On the other hand, Salanova and Llorens (2008) review four possible causes of psychological engagement proposed by scientific research: 1) job resources (e.g. autonomy, social support and feedback); 2) personal resources (such as self-efficacy or belief in one’s own ability to do one’s job well); 3) recovery due to effort; and 4) emotional contagion outside of work, which would act as invigorating factors in relation to work. The fourth statement means that work-family balance has the potential to contribute to engagement, as confirmed by Montgomery, Peeters, Schaufeli and Den Ouden (2003). They found that employees who generalize positive emotions from work to home or vice versa (that is, who show positive balance between work and family/home) present higher levels of engagement.

In the present study, self-motivation (included in the work centrality and sense-making category) is a means of convincing oneself that things are going well or will improve.
Nevertheless, some authors (Haar, 2006; Rotondo et al., 2003, Rotondo and Kincaid, 2008) have not found that positive thinking was effective in reducing WFC. However, personal resources such as optimism and self-efficacy, among others, make a huge difference among professors’ coping styles. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) suggest that job resources foster the development of personal resources.

The WF machinery must work perfectly. For this reason, professors have become sentries on continuous alert. Work and family life might be lived as parallel and separate arenas, but the demands in both domains must be reflected upon simultaneously. Most of the time, professors are planning and organizing, confirming a meeting with the research team and the appointment to their child’s dentist.

**Conclusion**

Work-family issues are important research targets from the point of view of the well-being of individuals, families and organizations. The present study has shown that coping strategies to struggle with both work overload and family/home demands is a particularly fertile avenue.

Consistent with previous research, work overload clearly emerged as the strongest factor of WFC.

On the whole, a successful policy aimed at reducing WFC is to create flexible schedules. However, professors already have flexibility and autonomy to carry out their work whenever and wherever they wish. However, this is the trap in which they are caught, because they endeavor to absorb workload by working long hours, which provokes WFC (episodes and level) or, at least, a sense of work-life imbalance that, in turn, decreases perceived well-being.

For professors, flexibility is not the solution. Is it possible to reduce the workload? It is important to consider how to begin tackling workload, which is the most significant barrier facing organizations that are committed to workplace flexibility and work-life effectiveness as a win/win business strategy. What part of workload can be reduced? It must be borne in mind that a share of the high levels of workload is caused by social and self-imposed pressures. The part of the workload that could be reduced would be service tasks. Participants requested more administrative staff that support professors’ work. They agreed resources are available, yet they are not properly distributed in the university.

Research has not focused on the specific behavioral decisions that may influence WF conflict (Zusman, 2010). Many studies examine the role of the time-based and strain-based work-family conflict, but there is little empirical evidence of the behavioral-based conflict. Therefore, the aim of this paper was to examine WF conflict as an outcome of the decision to work beyond normal working hours. The behavioral coping strategy of working beyond normal working hours (to absorb workload) provoked WF episodes of conflict, as work invades family and personal time, and as a consequence, family spills over to the work domain, instigating a vicious circle that leads to a rise in WF conflict levels.

Although an active coping response is basically adaptive in the short run, it is likely to be maladaptive as a habitual response pattern to work or, if sustained over a prolonged period of time, because it might deplete the individual’s energy resources (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). The increasing span of workers’ hours means that work frequently conflicts with the most valued times for family activities: weekends and evenings (Staines and Pleck, 1984).
According to this, the coping style of absorbing work overload encourages a culture of presenteeism. In other words, daily practices change the structure (i.e. working culture), meaning that professors have little freedom to act, thus calling the agency for coping into question.

The coping strategies that characterized the profiles have been studied. In particular, the “overloaded and engaged” mode of coping is related to facilitation in the WF sphere. Noteworthy is a study conducted by Taris et al., (2006). It was found that the effects of the number of hours worked overtime and according to one’s contract were usually weak and insignificant, suggesting that high effort expenditure does not necessarily have adverse health consequences. Here the profiles of “overloaded and burned-out” and “overloaded and engaged” facilitate an understanding of the reasons why working long hours sometimes has negative outcomes and in other situations, it does not.

The main contribution afforded by this research entailed setting WF research in a particular profession and context: teaching and research professors in Spain. It also recognizes that particular spillover coping strategies create WF conflict.

**Study Limitations**

The current research is not without its limitations. One of them results from the methodology: the cross-sectional research design. This implies that the postulated relationships between work overload and work-family conflict and vice versa cannot be interpreted causally. The study also has one only analyst/encoder.

Empirical evidence of the different perceptions of workload and work-family balance between the “overloaded and burned-out” and the “overloaded and engaged” through the comparison of means could have been provided. However, this study did not because quantitative “single-item indicators” of perceived work-family/personal balance and work overload constituted a weakness of this study. Moreover, more robust indicators of colleague and supervisor support should be considered in future research in this area.

Another weakness of the study is that it is limited by a convenient sample of academics at one major university, as interviews and focus groups were conducted in Barcelona, and it also represents higher educated Spanish employees. The extent to which the findings can be generalized to employees of other cultural contexts and with a lower level of education is unknown. Interview processes and focus groups were carried out in Barcelona and it can be assumed that it is representative of the situation of professors throughout the country as the questionnaires were distributed across the country.

In order to maintain the privacy of the study participants, specific data concerning their discipline/profession was not collected. Therefore, future work should include information regarding academic disciplines/professions as the area in which one works may have a different work-family culture.

A final limitation is that the fieldwork was undertaken prior to the 5% wage cut applied to all Spanish government employees. According to Siegrist (1996), this fact might exert an impact on a perceived “effort-reward imbalance” that compromises employees’ health. Professors may now have a stronger feeling that they are undervalued.
To resolve this limitation, new interviews and focus groups could be conducted as a part of a longitudinal study. As shown by Cantera, Cubells, Martínez, and Blanch (2009) assuming family burdens and domestic responsibilities in the current economic and cultural context increases the positive appraisal of work and family, both in men and women.

**Implications of the Study**

**Theoretical Implications**

The purpose of this study was to contribute to the literature on both the work-family interface and work overload. Firstly, this study provides the antecedents and outcomes of work overload in a particular occupation and culture, namely, academics in Spain. This study identifies and describes the strategies to cope with work overload and also determines three styles and two modes of coping. Results demonstrate the qualitative relationship between work overload and WFC.

Secondly, this study contributes to coping theories in WF literature. It affords the specific coping strategies employed by professors at public universities in Spain in order to struggle with work and family/home demands. This thesis found that the two profiles (overloaded and burned-out or engaged) operate differently in order to cope with work overload, but more importantly, these profiles have different perspectives on coping with the WF interface (i.e. segmentation vs. integration, preventive vs. proactive coping strategies). It was observed that strategies are more effective when used in combination, and that some practices for absorbing work overload may lead to WFC, which is consistent with emergent research. In the long run, strategies oriented to absorb work overload will not be effective anymore, as it does nothing to change the source of the stress (e.g., Gray, 1983; Hall, 1972), although in the short run it helps by adding a sense of control.

**Practical Implications**

WF scholars have studied work overload in terms of objective working hours rather than focusing on perceived work overload (and lack of time to undertake the work). This study clearly shows the linkages among antecedents, outcomes and coping strategies of work overload and family-to-work conflict. Researchers are encouraged to use perceived work overload or lack of time as independent variables. Ideally, to make a step forward, researchers should address the coping strategy of working beyond normal hours to tackle workload as a variable affecting the WF interface instead of objective working hours or workload, as was done in the past.

Furthermore, professors’ work overload outcomes prove devastating for WF balance and well-being as well as for work quality and stress, which subsequently reverberates in student learning.

As shown by Demerouti et al. (2001), the provision of adequate job demands and job resources help to reduce exhaustion, without attempting to change people’s perception and interpretations of their working conditions. This study illustrates that working-hour arrangements and work-life policies are necessary and may help; however, they neither resolve the professors’ work overload nor their work-life conflict. Reformulating the job will not solve the problem of work overload as the results show that some antecedents of professors’ work overload are social and self-imposed pressure. It is also true that a common and understandable reason for work overload and the consequent time pressure in academia is
an insufficient number of support staff. Public sector organizations face considerable financial pressures and often cut back on staff to reduce their costs.

Public organizations have made enormous advancements in implementing work-family policies, nevertheless, they are still oriented mainly towards childcare. Managers, deans and the organizational culture must enhance the take-up of leave for caring for elderly/ill parents, which is the second largest issue facing professors, especially professors in tenured positions. These policies may both help to balance work and family and to foster gender equality in academia.

**Suggested Agenda for Further Research**

The current findings of the overloaded and burned-out or engaged profiles and the differences in the perception of work and family boundaries suggest that future research use said profiles and compare respective levels of work-life conflict/balance, and thoroughly explore the differences in coping styles. Future research efforts should seek scenarios in which one style of coping is effective, and other contexts in which it is not, and the kind of short-term and long-term implications for health and well-being.

WF researchers are encouraged to study whether coping strategies are gendered in academia. It is evident that more research is required to explore the role of positive thinking and efforts to build meaning in reducing work-family conflict and enhancing balance.

Another undesirable outcome of WF conflict in the medium and long term is “opting-out” (or resigning from the job), which describes the decision of married women to voluntarily give up professional careers and remain out of the labor force for a relatively extended period of time (beyond the duration of parental leave) during which they are engaged in family caregiving, primarily motherhood, to the exclusion of paid employment. It is driven by women’s changing preferences for domesticity and rejection of career success as conventionally defined. Research suggests that women are not “choosing” to quit but rather are unable to continue, pushed out by the conditions of their jobs rather than pulled home by their children (Sloan Work and Family Research Network, 2010). Qualitative data analysis showed that participants are not willing to resign from their job, but they are willing to reduce responsibilities (e.g. service activities). Women in academia may perceive high levels of WFC but they still withstand it. Further research is needed to determine whether women are resigning as academicians. Professors have schedule flexibility and autonomy; however, these favorable working conditions may be threatened in service tasks. What conditions speed up opting-out? Do they have service responsibilities?

Contemporary work-life theory often incorporates concepts of work and family role demands, work and family role resources and role salience. Each of these concepts is embedded in family life course location. The concepts of family life stages are useful for exploring differences in the experience of work and family life throughout the course of life. The size and range of family life stages will provide the needed contrast and context in which to theorize more specifically with regard to changes in the WF experience across the life course (Grzywacz, Almeida and McDonald, 2002). Exploring differences across family life stages grounds the importance of a family life course approach and invites refinement and qualification of theoretical concepts.
Male and female professors experience low participation in responsible jobs and participation rejection (as coordinators of masters and doctorates, heads of department, secretaries of department, deans, etc.), faced with work-life imbalance. From the management perspective, these behaviors are interpreted as a sign of low organizational commitment. Are women and increasingly more men opting to take leave from demanding environments in order to achieve a better and more comfortable life and as response strategies adopted to tackle organizational labor demands? Does it mean low organizational commitment? Further research could analyze whether WFC is generating this phenomenon of detachment and disengagement from work.
REFERENCES


organizational case studies (Employment Relations Research Series, No. 16), Executive Summary. London: Department of Trade & Industry.


PRINT SOURCES


Law 39/1999 *para promover la conciliación de la vida familiar y laboral de las personas trabajadoras* (to promote the reconciliation of work and family life of employed persons), published in BOE 5th November 1999.


Publications and Presentations arising or related to this Thesis, and short Vita

**Refereed Journal Publications**


**Refereed Conference Presentations**


About the Authoress

Katherina Kuschel is a researcher and a doctoral candidate in the Department of Social Psychology at the Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona. She holds a B.A. in Commercial Engineering from Universidad del Desarrollo, Chile. Trained as an economist, her specialties are women’s employment, corporate social responsibility, and organizational development. She is particularly interested in the barriers and facilitators for women's advancement in employment. Gender and work-life balance policies are also part of her research interests. Her PhD work focuses on how work overload affects work-family balance among professors at public universities in Spain. Currently, Katherina collaborates with an international research team interested in the overall quality of working life in public universities and hospitals.
## Appendix 1: Glossary of abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Term in English</th>
<th>Term in Spanish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HU</td>
<td>hermeneutic unit</td>
<td>Unidad Hermenéutica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD</td>
<td>primary document</td>
<td>Documento Primario</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAB</td>
<td>Autonomous University of Barcelona</td>
<td>Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRP</td>
<td>Teaching and research personnel</td>
<td>Personal docente e investigador (PDI)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WLB</td>
<td>Work-Life Balance</td>
<td>Equilibrio Trabajo-Vida</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WFB</td>
<td>Work-Family Balance</td>
<td>Equilibrio Trabajo-Familia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WLC</td>
<td>Work-Life Conflict</td>
<td>Conflicto Trabajo-Vida</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WFC</td>
<td>Work-Family Conflict</td>
<td>Conflicto Trabajo-Familia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WIF</td>
<td>Work interferes with Family</td>
<td>Trabajo interfere con Familia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHI</td>
<td>Work-Home Interference</td>
<td>Interferencia Trabajo-Hogar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIW</td>
<td>Family interferes with Work</td>
<td>Familia interfere con Trabajo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WFF</td>
<td>Work-Family Facilitation</td>
<td>Facilitación Trabajo-Familia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 2: KOFARIPS Instrument: questionnaire sections that were relevant for the study.

15. Escriba 4 PALABRAS CLAVE que definan su actual experiencia de TRABAJO en la UNIVERSIDAD/en el HOSPITAL:

________________   ________________   ________________   ________________

23. Sobre su carga de trabajo y su tiempo para realizarla,
a. ¿Le basta, le sobra o le falta tiempo para realizar su trabajo?

b. ¿Cómo vive esta situación?

DATOS CENSURALES
Marque con una X la casilla de la respuesta elegida

30. País:  __Brasi  __Chile  __España  __Perú  __USA  __Venezuela  
__Argentina  __Colombia  __Paraguay  __Uruguay  __Otro:_____

31. Nacionalidad:  __Brasi  __Chile  __España  __Perú  __USA  __Venezuela  
__Argentina  __Colombia  __Paraguay  __Uruguay  __Otro:_____

32. Sexo: __Hombre  __Mujer

33. Año de nacimiento: 19____

34. Actualmente vivo: __Solo/a  __Con pareja  __Con otros familiares  __Con otras personas

35. Número hijos menores de edad y/o personas dependientes a cargo: ___

36. Tareas domésticas:  __Las asume en exclusiva  __Las comparte  __Las asume otra persona

37. Sustento familiar:  __Lo asume en exclusiva  __Lo comparte  __Lo asume otra persona

38. Nivel de vida:  __Bueno  __Regular  __Malo

39. Práctica profesional:  __Docencia-Investigación en Universidad

__Medicina en Hospital  __Enfermería en Hospital

40. Antigüedad en la profesión: ______ años

41. Situación contractual:  __Contrato estable (indefinido)  __Contrato inestable (temporal)

(En caso de) Temporalidad contrato:  __Voluntaria  __No Voluntaria
42. Dedicación laboral al centro: __Jornada completa __Tiempo parcial __Otra: ________

43. Actual régimen de dedicación laboral al centro: __Voluntario __No Voluntario

44. Tipo de centro: __Universidad __Hospital __Otro

45. Carácter del centro (Titularidad, Gestión, Utilización, etc.): __Pública __Mixta __Privada

46. Antigüedad como profesional en el centro: ______ años

47. Responsabilidades directivas (actuales o pasadas) en el centro: __Sí __No
Appendix 3: Focus Group 1 Guide

Apertura y presentación

Primero, quisiera agradecer su interés y tiempo que dedican a esta investigación. Aprecio muchísimo su colaboración.

Presentación: Me gustaría presentarme; mi nombre es Katherina Kuschel, vengo de Chile y soy economista de la Universidad del Desarrollo, en Santiago. En este departamento realizo el doctorado en Psicología Social y desarrollo mi tesis interesada especialmente en observar la manera en que el PDI de las universidades públicas perciben el trabajo como profesor universitario y cómo lo compatibilizan con la vida familiar y personal. Mi proyecto tiene como título "Work and professors at public universities: detachment, disengagement and work-life balance".

Presentación de los profesores: breve ½ min., (nombre, cargo, antigüedad en la universidad, situación familiar)

Indicación del procedimiento que se utilizará: conversar, hacer una entrevista, conocer su opinión, la experiencia del profesorado. Pueden hablar tanto de su propia experiencia, como de la de su grupo de trabajo, su ámbito, etc. Dinámica del diálogo: conversación informal, diálogo relajado, preguntas y respuestas; no respuestas buenas o malas; todas oportunas y respetables; La duración del diálogo: 45 minutos.

El diálogo de hoy tiene como finalidad ser material para mi tesis; hay garantía de anonimato y confidencialidad; Les pido permiso para la grabación. Firma del consentimiento informado al final de la sesión.

Tema del grupo de discusión: Brevemente, un pincelazo sobre la Carga de trabajo del PDI y conciliación trabajo y vida familiar y personal, y luego, cómo gestionamos estos ámbitos.

Introducción + Guión

Pienso sacar el máximo provecho de este tiempo que me han cedido, y por lo tanto, comenzaré en primera fase, por poner en jaque la siguiente afirmación:

“Gracias a la literatura y nuestra propia experiencia, sabemos que el trabajo se ha convertido en una tarea cada vez más extensa e intensa. Por una parte, las nuevas tecnologías aumentan y mejoran los medios para hacer las cosas más rápido, y más cosas, Ahora gran parte del tiempo de trabajo lo empleamos en autoadministrarnos, uno mismo es su propio secretario; revisar y contestar los mails, llevar la agenda, etc. Por otro lado, aumentan los requerimientos, es decir, nos piden publicar, colaborar con otros grupos de investigación, acá y en el extranjero, asistir a congresos, y todo esto, al mismo tiempo que tenemos que cumplir con las obligaciones del contrato: dar clases, e investigar”.

El tiempo de trabajo te lo haces a medida. Puedes quedarte hasta tarde, venir los sábados o domingos a la Autónoma, o llevar el trabajo a casa, los fines de semana…
De esta forma, con cada vez más trabajo, poco tiempo, y poco tiempo de calidad, podemos dedicar a los nuestros, a los hobbies (o aficiones), a los grandes proyectos vitales (como tener hijos, comprar una casa, etc.)

¿Estarian Uds. de acuerdo con esto que acabo de decir? ¿Así más o menos se vive la carga de trabajo del PDI en la universidad?

Si es así, entonces podemos pasar a la segunda fase.
Y cómo esto repercute en la vida familiar y personal. ¿Cuán intensa/alta/fuerte (alto/bajo) es esta situación?

Tercera fase. (Coping strategies)
¿Sabemos afrontar esta situación? ¿Cómo la afronta (gestiona, cómo lo llevan, cómo se lo montan) la gente de nuestro ambiente laboral? ¿Cómo se las arreglan cuando los ámbitos del trabajo y de la familia se encuentran?

Cuarta fase.
¿Qué prioridades se establecen en esos casos? (valores)

Cierre del diálogo

Asegurar de que todos los temas han sido efectivamente abordados.
Terminar con un mini-resumen: crear narrativa para revalidar.
¿Alguien quiere añadir, puntualizar o rectificar algún aspecto de su intervención?
Me despedido entonces, reiterando mi agradecimiento por vuestra colaboración.
Entrega de la declaración de consentimiento informado.
¿Qué les ha parecido?
Appendix 4: Focus Group 2 Guide

Tema: 2 (Sobretiempo, carga, tiempo, CTF, presentismo, etc.) en PDI C+T de UAB.
Coordinadora de FG: Kathy, ayudada por Melina Mota, Paola González y Marlon Xavier.
Fecha tentativa: miércoles 18 de Noviembre 2009, 11am.
Tipo de Incentivo: desayuno, presupuesto de 20€
Perfil de participantes: PDI C+T (6 a 8 personas).

| Presentación y apertura | · Primero, quisiéramos agradecer su interés y tiempo que dedican a esta investigación. Apreciamos muchísimo su colaboración. |
| · Pertenecemos a un grupo del Departamento de Psicología Social, vinculados a una investigación internacional (este es un estudio internacional sobre calidad de vida laboral en universidades y hospitales públicos) dedicado a estudiar los cambios en las formas de organización en el trabajo y cómo los profesionales experimentan esto. |
| · Estamos en la segunda fase de la investigación. Nos gustaría saber su opinión/experiencia sobre los temas que han emergido como resultado de los cuestionarios, en una primera etapa. |
| · Nosotros somos Paola, Melina, Marlon y Katherine, y somos el grupo encargado en investigar un aspecto: los temas de condiciones laborales (carga de trabajo, tiempo) y conciliación-trabajo-familia. |

| Presentación de los participantes | Les pedimos ahora que nos cuenten brevemente, en ½, minuto, su nombre, cargo, antigüedad en el centro y situación familiar. Lo que se considere relevante. |

| Reglas del juego | · Nos dedicaremos esta hora y cuarto a... (estructura). |
| · La dinámica consta de una conversación informal, será un diálogo relajado. Todas las opiniones son igualmente válidas y respetables. Pueden hablar tanto de su propia experiencia, como de la de su grupo de trabajo, su ámbito, etc. |
| · La duración del diálogo: a partir de aquí, 60 minutos. |
| · Consideraciones éticas: hay garantía de anonimato y confidencialidad; Les pedimos permiso para la grabación. Más tarde, al final de la sesión, les entregaremos el consentimiento informado. |

| Consigna | La idea de este espacio de conversación es que Uds. puedan narrar/conversar acerca de sus actuales condiciones de trabajo y su experiencia en este centro universitario. |
| 1.- Cada participante habla desde su experiencia, se discute. |
| Nos interesa conocer sus opiniones y percepciones respecto a aquellos cambios ocurridos en la organización del trabajo y las formas de gestión y administración de la institución y si esto tiene o repercusión en la conciliación trabajo-familia. |
| 2.- Profundizar. |
| Nos gustaría que en la conversación pudieran abordar algunos temas que se han destacado en una primera fase del estudio que estamos realizando, como la relación entre conciliación y; |
| 3.- Concluir con un mini-resumen. |
| 1. Carga de trabajo, tiempo para realizarla. |
| 2. Condiciones de trabajo materiales, técnicas, contractuales |
| 3. Relación con decanos, directores de departamento o proyecto, colegas, etc. |
| 4. Factores de Riesgo Psicosocial |
| 5. Compromiso, presentismo (trabajar aunque estando enfermo) |

| Qué ha cambiado, qué efectos ha tenido y cómo afronta Ud. esto. |

1. Pensamos sacar el máximo provecho de este tiempo que me han cedido, y por lo tanto, comenzaremos en primera fase, por poner en jaque la siguiente AFIRMACIÓN: “Gracias a la literatura y nuestra propia experiencia, sabemos que el trabajo se ha convertido en una tarea cada vez más extensa e intensa. Por una parte, las nuevas tecnologías aumentan y mejoran los medios para hacer las cosas más rápido, y más cosas, Ahora gran parte del tiempo de trabajo lo empleamos en autoadministrarnos, uno mismo es su propio secretario; revisar y contestar los mails, llevar la agenda, etc. Por otro lado, aumentan los requerimientos, es decir, nos piden publicar, colaborar con |
otros grupos de investigación, acá y en el extranjero, asistir a congresos, y todo esto, al mismo tiempo que tenemos que cumplir con las obligaciones del contrato: dar clases, e investigar”. El tiempo de trabajo te lo haces a medida. Puedes quedarte hasta tarde, venir los sábados o domingos a la Autónoma, o llevar el trabajo a casa, los fines de semana… De esta forma, con cada vez más trabajo, poco tiempo, y poco tiempo de calidad, podemos dedicar a los nuestros (a nuestros hijos en edad escolar), a los hobbies (o aficiones), a los grandes proyectos vitales (como vivir en pareja, tener hijos, comprar una casa, etc.) ¿Estarian Uds. de acuerdo con esto que acabo de decir? ¿Así más o menos se vive la carga de trabajo del PDI en la universidad?

2. Si es así, entonces podemos pasar a la **segunda fase**. Y cómo esto repercute en la vida familiar y personal. ¿Cuán intensa/alta/fuerte (alto/bajo) es esta situación?

3. **Tercera fase.** (Coping strategies) ¿Sabemos afrontar esta situación? ¿Cómo la afronta (gestiona, cómo lo llevan, cómo se lo montan) la gente de nuestro ambiente laboral? ¿Cómo se las arreglan cuando los ámbitos del trabajo y de la familia se encuentran?

4. **Cuarta fase.** ¿Qué prioridades se establecen en esos casos? (valores, incluir compromiso)

**DIÁLOGO DE CIERRE:**

- a) Terminar con un mini-resumen: crear narrativa para revalidar.
- b) ¿Alguien quiere añadir, puntualizar o rectificar algún aspecto de su intervención?
- c) Nos despedimos entonces, reiterando nuestro agradecimiento por vuestra colaboración.
- d) Entrega del consentimiento informado (ver PDF en mail con fecha 27 de marzo 2009)
- e) ¿Qué les ha parecido?

**OBSERVACIONES:**

- a) Llegar con antelación y preparar la sesión (distribución de sillas, desayuno, cafetera, grabadora(s), señales de dirección en los pasillos, etc.)
- b) Responsabilidades de la persona ayudante:
  - i. Llevar el registro de los participantes, sus nombres/asistencia vs. confirmados.
  - ii. La gestión de encendido y vigilancia de la grabadora (que esté funcionando, discretamente).
  - iii. Entregar al final de la sesión, copias del Consentimiento Informado.
- c) Si se redunda sobre algún tema por sobre los otros, el director del grupo debe tomar un rol más directivo e insistir en tocar todos los temas. Asegurarse de que todos los temas han sido efectivamente abordados.

Cada grupo deberá establecer un timing. Proponemos 10 minutos de presentación-apertura y 50 minutos para discutir. 5 minutos de cierre.
### Appendix 5: Individual Interview Guide of 2007 and 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEMAS A TRATAR 2007</th>
<th>OBJETIVO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contexto personal del entrevistado. Datos personales:</td>
<td>Contextualización del entrevistado frente al</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nombre, edad, sexo, situación civil, personas a su</td>
<td>tema de la conciliación</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cargo, etc. Tiempo que lleva en el cargo.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>De dónde vienen, cómo llegaron a la organización.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cómo fue el proceso de implementación de los programas.</td>
<td>Proceso de Traducción</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>¿Quiénes van dirigidos? ¿Qué tanto pueden las políticas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de CVL ayudar a la gente? ¿Ha tenido dificultades en</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>la incorporación e implementación de dichos recursos?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>¿Qué se ha hecho hace 5 años? ¿Qué cree Ud. que estarán</td>
<td>Evolución</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>haciendo en 5 años más?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>¿Ha hecho uso de esos programas? ¿Cómo?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>¿Ha surgido algún tipo de presiones? ¿Cómo reaccionan</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>los síntomas?</td>
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</table>

<table>
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<th>TEMAS A TRATAR 2009</th>
<th>OBJETIVO</th>
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<td>Contexto personal del entrevistado. Datos personales:</td>
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</tr>
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<td>nombre, edad, sexo, situación civil, personas a su</td>
<td></td>
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<td>cargo, etc. Tiempo que lleva en el cargo.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>&quot;En la primera fase de la investigación hemos visto</td>
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<td>que el trabajo se ha convertido para muchos en una</td>
<td></td>
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<td>tarea cada vez más extensa e intensa. Por una parte,</td>
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<tr>
<td>las nuevas tecnologías aumentan y mejoran los medios</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>para hacer las cosas más rápido, y más cosas, Ahora</td>
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<tr>
<td>parte del tiempo de trabajo lo empleamos en</td>
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<tr>
<td>autoadministrarnos, uno mismo es su propio</td>
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<tr>
<td>secretario/a; revisa y contesta los e-mails, lleva</td>
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<tr>
<td>la agenda, etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Por otro lado, aumentan los requerimientos, es decir,</td>
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<tr>
<td>nos piden publicar, colaborar con otros grupos de</td>
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<tr>
<td>investigación, acá y en el extranjero, asistir a</td>
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<tr>
<td>congresos, y todo esto, al mismo tiempo que tenemos</td>
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<tr>
<td>que cumplir con las obligaciones del contrato: dar</td>
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<tr>
<td>clases, e investigar&quot;. ¿Estarían Uds. de acuerdo con</td>
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<tr>
<td>esto que acabo de decir? ¿Así más o menos se vive la</td>
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<tr>
<td>carga de trabajo del PDI en la universidad?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inconvenientes de balance trabajo-familia/personal y</td>
<td>Conflicto Trabajo-familia</td>
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<tr>
<td>otras complicaciones enmarcadas en el ámbito de la</td>
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<tr>
<td>CVL. &quot;Tenemos cada vez más trabajo (y de qué</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>naturaleza), menos tiempo, y poco tiempo de calidad</td>
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<tr>
<td>que puedas dedicar a la familia, amigos, formación,</td>
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<tr>
<td>actividad política, o aficiones&quot;. Y cómo esto (la</td>
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<tr>
<td>sobrecarga de trabajo) repercute en la vida familiar</td>
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<tr>
<td>y personal. ¿Cuán intensa/alta/porcentual (alto/bajo)</td>
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<tr>
<td>es esta situación?</td>
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<tr>
<td>¿Sabemos afrontar esta situación? ¿Cómo la afronta</td>
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<tr>
<td>(gestiona, cómo lo llevan, cómo se lo montan) la</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>gente de nuestro ambiente laboral? ¿Cómo les sienta</td>
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<tr>
<td>este ritmo de trabajo?</td>
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<tr>
<td>El tiempo de trabajo se hace a medida. Puedes quedar</td>
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<tr>
<td>hasta tarde, venir los sábados y domingos a la</td>
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<tr>
<td>Autónoma, o llevar el trabajo a casa, los fines de</td>
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<tr>
<td>semana... Sacrifico horas de sueño por terminar el</td>
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<tr>
<td>trabajo. Durmo poco. A veces vienes a la U incluso</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>estando enfermo. Las clases son sagradas. ¿Qué pasa</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>si no nos sentimos bien? ¿Han acudido alguna vez</td>
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<tr>
<td>enfermos a trabajar? ¿Qué tan central es el trabajo</td>
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<tr>
<td>en sus vidas?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

|              |                                                   |
Appendix 6: Informed Consent Form for Interviews of 2007 and Focus Group 1

Declaración de Consentimiento Informado

Barcelona, julio de 2008

Katherina Kuschel Rietzsch, miembro del Departamento de Psicología Social de la Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona está realizando un estudio sobre la manera en que el Personal Docente e Investigador (PDI) de las universidades públicas percibe los aspectos positivos y negativos de su trabajo, y las relaciones del mismo con la vida familiar y personal.

El nombre y otros datos personales, así como los del centro docente en el que trabaja, serán absolutamente confidenciales y analizados en forma anónima, comprometiéndome al uso estrictamente científico del material registrado.

Agradezco su disposición a participar.

Como participante en el estudio, DECLARO:

**QUE, HE RECIBIDO:**
La información adecuada sobre los objetivos y procedimientos de la sesión.
El reconocimiento suficiente de mis derechos a la confidencialidad y al anonimato, a retirarme del estudio en cualquiera de sus fases, si así lo estimo conveniente, y al conocimiento de los resultados de la investigación.

**QUE, HE DECIDIDO:**
Participar libre y voluntariamente en el mismo.
Autorizar la grabación de la sesión a fin de lograr una recogida fidedigna de mis opiniones.
Autorizar a la investigadora responsable al uso de las informaciones generadas para los fines del proyecto, incluyendo la propiedad intelectual y la divulgación científica de sus resultados.

____________________     ____________________
Entrevistadora      Firma del/la entrevistado/a
Appendix 7: Informed Consent Form for Interviews of 2009 and Focus Group 2

Josep M Blanch, Catedrático de Psicología Social Aplicada
Departamento de Psicología Social. Campus UAB. Edificio B
08193 Bellaterra (Barcelona), España.
Despacho B5 042. Tel.: 34 93 5 81 1326. Fax: 34 93 5 81 2125
E-mail:josepmaria.blanch@uab.es

DECLARACIÓN DEL COORDINADOR DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN
Como Coordinador del Estudio Internacional sobre Calidad de Vida Laboral en Universidades y Hospitales, proyecto de investigación financiado por el MEC español, en el marco del Plan Nacional I+D+I, referencia: SEJ2007-63686/PSIC (2007-2010), DECLARO:

1. QUE con este estudio nuestro equipo pretende conocer más y mejor en qué sentido y en qué medida los actuales procesos de cambio organizacional en Universidades y Hospitales inciden sobre calidad de vida laboral del personal empleado en estas instituciones.

2. QUE para ello nos proponemos usar técnicas cuantitativas y cualitativas de recogida de la información (cuyos detalles de aplicación precisaremos en cada caso) que, en ninguna circunstancia, comportan riesgos físicos o psicológicos para las personas participantes.

3. QUE, en cumplimiento de la normativa vigente sobre protección de datos de carácter personal, la información que usted nos proporcione para esta investigación será tratada de acuerdo con la exclusiva finalidad científica del proyecto, respetándose la confidencialidad de las respuestas y el anonimato de quienes, libre y voluntariamente, hayan tenido la amabilidad de mostrarnos algunas facetas de su experiencia laboral.

4. QUE los resultados del estudio facilitarán el progreso en el conocimiento del tema y el diseño de modelos de promoción de entornos laborales saludables y de prevención de factores de riesgo psicosocial en el trabajo, sin aludir a ninguna organización en particular.

5. QUE, como primer responsable del proyecto, estoy localizable y disponible (en las direcciones arriba señaladas) para las aclaraciones o precisiones pertinentes y oportunas sobre el estudio.

DECLARACIÓN DE LA PERSONA PARTICIPANTE EN LA INVESTIGACIÓN
Como participante en el estudio, DECLARO:

1. QUE, he recibido:
   a. La información adecuada sobre los objetivos y procedimientos del proyecto.
   b. El reconocimiento suficiente de mis derechos a la confidencialidad y al anonimato, a retirarme del estudio en cualquiera de sus fases, si así lo estimo conveniente, y al conocimiento de los resultados de la investigación.

2. QUE, he decidido:
   a. Participar libre y voluntariamente en el mismo.
   b. Autorizar al investigador responsable, y por extensión a su equipo, al uso de las informaciones generadas para los fines del proyecto, incluyendo la propiedad intelectual y la divulgación pública y científica de sus resultados.
Nombre y apellidos: Firma:
Teléfono de contacto: e-mail:
Lugar y fecha: 

Responsable local del estudio: Nombre y apellidos:
Teléfono de contacto: e-mail:
Appendix 8: Introductory Email, Invitation for the Focus Group 1

¡Buenos días Profesor!

Aún no he tenido el placer de conocerlo.

En primer lugar, me gustaría presentarme; vengo de Chile y soy economista de la Universidad del Desarrollo, en Santiago. Sin embargo acá realicé el doctorado en Psicología Social en la UAB.

Estoy desarrollando mi tesis doctoral, especialmente interesada en observar la manera en que el PDI de las universidades públicas percibe el trabajo como profesor universitario y cómo lo compatibilizan con la vida familiar y personal. Mi proyecto tiene como título "Work and profesors at public universities: detachment, disengagement and work-life balance".

Me encantaría que pudiera participar en un focus group (con desayuno) el próximo miércoles 16.

Lugar de la sesión: "sala de reuniones" al lado de secretaría del Departamento de Psicología Social de la Facultad de Psicología de la UAB (Edifici B, Campus de la UAB, 08193 Bellaterra).
Fecha: miércoles 16 de julio.
Horario: de 10am a 11am.
Tema del grupo de discusión: Carga de trabajo del PDI y conciliación trabajo y vida familiar y personal.

¿Qué le parece? Ahí conversaremos sobre la experiencia del profesorado universitario en el ámbito laboral, familiar y personal. Espero su confirmación.

De antemano, muchas gracias.
Se despide atentamente,
--
Katherina Kuschel Rietzsch
93-4856826
649187906
Appendix 9: Follow-up Email for Focus Group 1

¡Buenos días profesora!

Este es un mail recordatorio para confirmar su asistencia a la sesión de "desayuno de discusión" de mañana miércoles.

Lugar de la sesión: "sala de reuniones" al lado de secretaría del Departamento de Psicología Social de la Facultad de Psicología de la UAB (Edifici B, Campus de la UAB, 08193 Bellaterra).
Fecha: miércoles 16 de julio.
Horario: de 10am a 11am.
Tema del grupo de discusión: Carga de trabajo del PDI y conciliación trabajo y vida familiar y personal.

Espero contar con su presencia.
Que tenga un excelente día,
--
Katherina Kuschel Rietzsch
93-4856826
649187906
Appendix 10: Acknowledge Email

Estimado/a colega,

Me dirijo a Ud. con el fin de agradecer su asistencia al desayuno de discusión del pasado miércoles 16, su interés y tiempo dedicados a este proyecto.

Considerando la diversidad de contribuciones y la amplitud del tema, y dando por supuesto que alguno/a aún desee aportar más desde su interesante experiencia, me gustaría saber su opinión ante una eventual petición de colaboración en el futuro.

Espero que Ud. haya disfrutado de la reunión tanto como yo.

Se despide cordialmente,
--
Katherina Kuschel Rietzsch
93-4856826
649187906
Appendix 11: Question 23: Coding Procedure and Inclusion Criteria

Procedimiento de Codificación

Inicialmente, se utilizó el programa Excel. Éste contenía la base de datos (1251 filas, por eso lo llamamos la "Fase 1250") con el número de caso, las respuestas a la pregunta 23a y 23b y algunos datos censales (que servirían de variables).

El objetivo planteado para la primera etapa fue transformar datos cualitativos en formato cuantitativo.

- Categorización de datos cuantificables de P23a y P23b.
- Determinar a quiénes les Falta, Basta, Sobra, Depende, No Categorizable, Missing.
- Determinar cómo lo viven: Mal, Normal, Bien, Depende, No Categorizable, Missing.
- Representar con gráficos y porcentajes.

Criterios de Inclusión

Para 23a, son "FALTA", todos aquellos que:

- responden falta y similares: falta tiempo, no hay tiempo, falta mucho tiempo, el tiempo no me da, etc.
- responden depende, aunque normalmente falta y similares.
- responden A veces falta/en momentos puntuales, pues al corroborar la respuesta 23b notamos que lo vive mal.
- responden basta, pero con momentos difíciles, pues al corroborar la respuesta 23b notamos que lo vive mal.

Para 23a, son "BASTA", todos aquellos que:

- responden: me basta, equilibrio, es suficiente, estoy satisfecho, etc.

Para 23a, son "DEPENDE", todos aquellos que:

- Matizar el "depende". Fluctúa, a veces sobra, a veces falta
- quienes dicen que falta o basta, pero casi nunca sobra.
- quienes están a merced de la guardia (Del día / hora / demanda, Guardia diurna/nocturna, Especialidad/puesto/planta, nº de ingresos, gravedad del paciente) o de un ciclo en el año (Concentración de clases, Corrección de exámenes/trabajos, Publicación, Congresos)
- cuando se refieren al tipo de tarea. "Para docencia y tareas administrativas basta, pero para investigación, falta".

Responden depende, quienes tienen autonomía para decidir su horario y carga.

Aspectos distintivos de la "fase 1000"

En la "fase 1000", se categorizaba como "DEPENDE" por el sólo hecho de mencionarlo, sin embargo, ahora se mira con detalle si normalmente falta o se experimenta estrés. En estos casos, en la fase "1250" se recategoriza como FALTA.

Para 23b, son "MAL", todos aquellos que:

responden con palabras con contenido emocional negativo

- responden que lo viven/llevan con estrés, tensión, agobio, angustia, ansiedad, preocupación, rabia, impotencia, cansancio, desgaste.
- responden que es difícil/pesado/complicado/perjudicando algo
• Algunos de ellos también suelen incluir causas, consecuencias, soluciones, quejas y estrategias de afrontamiento.
Para 23b, son "NORMAL", todos aquellos que:
• responden normal, regular, con tranquilidad/normalidad/calma, sin angustia, sin preocupación.
Para 23b, son "BIEN", todos aquellos que:
• responden muy bien, bien, perfectamente, estupendamente, de maravilla, contento, satisfecho, etc.
Para 23b, son "NO CATEGORIZABLE", todos aquellos que:
• cuando la analista no entiende lo que se quiere decir, por dónde van. Responden otra cosa: No, Sí, #¿NOMBRE?
• dan razones/causas de su carga de trabajo
• dan sugerencias/soluciones a la sobrecarga: aumentar personal, mejorar mi organización
• se quejan: Vuelta al tiempo de la esclavitud
• describen las consecuencias de la sobrecarga de trabajo. (sobre la conciliación trabajo-familia, amigos, colegas/Calidad del trabajo en términos del producto, servicio o atención entregada/productividad/concentración/desmotivación/desgano/cansancio/dolores de espalda/mal humor...)
• dan estrategias de afrontamiento (de diversa índole): cuando hay palabras como me adapto/acostumbro/lo acato/acepto/aso con paciencia, dignidad, resignación, pragmatismo, lo mejor que puedo... apechugo, con pasión, con entereza, ánimo...

Los casos duplicados detectados son informados al encargado de la base de datos.
Se pensó seguir utilizando Excel, pero éste tenía algunas limitaciones, respecto a la creación de vínculos (relaciones fijadas) y mapa conceptual (network).
### Appendix 12: Quotations that illustrate Quantitative Work Overload

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Multi-tasking</strong></th>
<th><strong>Related Task Satisfaction</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Quotations that illustrate Quantitative Work Overload</strong></td>
<td>**“He sido vicedecano de (…) la Facultad y ahora soy el secretario de la Facultad. (…) Yo creo que a alguien probablemente le gustará [hacer tareas de gestión]. A mí no. Me gusta dar clases, la investigación, etc. Entiendo que hay que hacerlo y que es un trabajo que hay que repartirse entre todos y es justo que alguna vez nos toque. Pero no es algo que me apasione. (…) tenemos convenios con otras facultades de Europa y con Estados Unidos. (…) Bueno, es una parte importante del trabajo de gestión. El trabajo de gestión incluye la gestión de esos convenios y acuerdos con otras instituciones”.” [P09_H0]</td>
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<tr>
<td>&quot;El tiempo de trabajo] &quot;me es suficiente a excepción en los periodos de examen, que son periodos largos de tiempo”. [01-0-99-C0144]</td>
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<tr>
<td>[Períodos estresantes de trabajo] &quot;Ha sido simplemente porque durante algunos meses se han juntado muchos, pues más viajes de lo habitual, o más clases de las habituales, o necesidad de presentar, por casualidad, varios informes de diferentes proyectos. Então ha habido varias veces, o bastante veces en las que hay meses de mucho, mucho trabajo. Pero no es aquello de decir, &quot;mira, hay un período en el que…” No. Regularmente hay períodos de mucho trabajo. Pero bueno”. [P09_H05]</td>
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<tr>
<td>&quot;Tengo más responsabilidades de las que creo que soy capaz de hacer. (…) Me sobrecarga porque me meto en demasiados berrinches y llega un momento en que nos soy capaz de sacarlo todo. O sea, yo tengo la sensación de que el Principio de Peter es opcional. Ya no sé. No creo que sea un nivel de incompetencia cualitativa, sino incompetencia cuantitativa&quot;. [FG1_H07]</td>
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<tr>
<td>Falta tiempo porque el contrato laboral exige estar contratado en otra organización (pluriempleo). [01-0-99-C1385]</td>
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<tr>
<td>necesidad de combinar muchos trabajos [01-0-20-C0025]</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Several Jobs</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Además la gente que estamos en la [universidad a distancia] tiene otro trabajo. Trabajamos en otro sitio las horas normales y además luego trabajamos en la [universidad a distancia], entonces, es durillo [01-0-99-C0011]</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Political Participation</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>&quot;Y además, tengo una cierta actividad política, porque soy regidora en el Ayuntamiento de [localidad], que es donde vivo. Ahora estoy en la oposición, con lo cual es más fácil compaginar [risas] los dos trabajos. En el período anterior, que estábamos en el gobierno, pues era más complicado”. [FG1_M09]</td>
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<tr>
<td>&quot;(…) también, no exactamente político, pero por accidente estoy en el comité de empresa de la Autónoma”. [FG1_M05]</td>
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<tr>
<td>&quot;supongo que nos ayudaríamos a las cargas laborales de contrato; claro, si no tuviéramos que (…) ocupar cargos de gestión que nadie quiere ocupar…” [01-0-99-C1246]</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<p>| <strong>Incompatible Job Demands</strong> |   |
| &quot;Hay incompatibilidad entre docencia e investigación&quot;. [FG2_H01] |   |
| &quot;La gente está como focalizada a la investigación. Yo creo que la universidad ha abandonado un poco, yo lo veo en muchos compañeros que se dedican muchísimo a la investigación y a actualizar, a preparar las clases, muy poco. Nos han puesto la zanahoria de la investigación delante. Nos han dicho: ‘cada 6 años que tú consigas un tramo de investigación te daremos X euros’. Entonces la gente se ha puesto las pilas en su investigación. La investigación lleva su tiempo: meterte en el laboratorio, tomar tus muestras, luego procesar todo el trabajo, es mucha dedicación, buscar información. Y todo eso en detrimento de las clases&quot;. [P09_M0] |   |
| &quot;Están en estos términos de ‘a ver, vale muy bien, artículo, dónde está indexado y dónde apareces, si eres la autora 1, la 2, la 3’. Así. Cuando tienes que rellenar el aplicativo informático, es como ¿qué me piden? Bueno, voy a ir por ahí. Es muy triste, porque entonces claro… (…) entonces dices vale, si tengo que sacar horas para investigación y publicar, ¿en detrimento de qué?, ¿cómo que no me prepare tan bien las clases? De que vaya a las clases sin… Yo no porque llevo muchos años. (…) Y a veces el requisito indispensable es que hagas esta estancia fuera en el extranjero. Claro, cuando tienes una niña pequeña, ¿qué quieres? ¿Me voy a [otro país] 6 meses? ¿Arrastro a mi marido también? No me compensa. Otra cosa sería concentrar la docencia en un semestre y la otra te quedas aquí sólo haciendo investigación”. [P09_M02] |   |
| “La docencia, para ser buena, necesita la investigación, por lo tanto son dos campos que no se pueden separar. Si los separas, estás en nivel de secundaria, no es de la universidad ya”.” [P07_H04] |   |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Service Tasks (lack of control and paperwork excess)</strong></th>
<th><strong>Job Recognition</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;me toca hacer de Cap d’Unitat, que no es remunerado, que no es reconocido. Porque un cargo que realmente es remunerado sí que es acreditado, como un Cap de Departament, o una secretaría de un departamento, o un decano, un rector. Una cosa así. Pero gestión qué te lleva, porque desde comprar material para tus compañeros, gestionar bajas maternales, bajas por enfermedad, cualquier cosa que vaya saliendo. Ahora con los nuevos grados hay reuniones de preparación para las nuevas asignaturas&quot;. [P09_M02]</td>
<td>&quot;(...) gestión es en parte voluntario, ¿no? No hay nadie obligado a hacer gestión. Sí te dan puntos, te pagan 3 euros, o no sé qué [risas]. Es cierto que dan puntos. Pero ahí está un poco la persona. Es decir, el problema es el trabajo o el problema es de lo que uno quiere hacer. Si uno tiene como objetivo prioritario, por decirlo en términos coloquiales, entonces es que eso va más que todo lo demás. Si uno no tiene ese objetivo, en principio es un trabajo que no te impide realmente lo otro. Esa es mi opinión&quot;. [P09_H0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;[master coordinator] es una labor no remunerada, que nadie quiere hacerse cargo de ella, porque supone establecer toda la correspondencia. Cuando empezan las pre-inscripciones en la primavera, te envían cartas de todo el mundo, de gente que está interesada en venir a hacer el máster. Pierdes, entre comillas, tiempo, has de contestar esa correspondencia, has de informar a la gente, luego llegan las matriculaciones, has de estar pendiente, porque necesitas... cada uno te cuenta su vida... Dos horas al correo contestando. Luego hay unas jornadas de presentación, cuando se matricula, y luego, claro, doy docencia también en el máster&quot;. [P09_M0]</td>
<td>&quot;Si yo no publico internacionalmente en journals indexados tampoco me van a acreditar. Entonces mi prioridad es la investigación. (...) Sí, dirigir tesis, publicar internacionalmente, estar en grupos de investigación o liderar algun grupo de investigación. Todo esto te da puntos. Además que la parte docente de diseñar materiales, impartir clases, todo esto. Tiene que ir por ahí. O lo que se haga que sea más visible&quot;. [P09_M02]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Soy coordinador de estudios, y coordinación de un máster. Las dos dan más trabajo que como profesor&quot;. [P09_H0]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;de la carga de trabajo que tenemos, mucha de esta carga es una carga administrativa, que podríamos tener más apoyo para que se llevara a cabo. Y todo esto recae sobre nosotros y en el fondo, lo único que está haciendo es disminuir los otros aspectos, la docencia y la investigación, que yo creo que son los que nos tendrían que potenciar&quot;. [FG2_M04]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lack of Staff and Resources</strong></td>
<td><strong>Working Travel</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Al menos, nuestro campo es absolutamente interdisciplinar y nosotros aquí tenemos veterinarios, biólogos, ingenieros agrónomos, tenemos matemáticos para hacer modelos matemáticos a nivel de campo. Yo no concibo investigar sola, es imposible. (...) Todos los lunes se hacen reuniones a las 11 am, después de terminar las clases&quot;. [P09_M0]</td>
<td>&quot;Entonces cuatro o cinco días del mes, que vendría a ser una quinta parte del tiempo, viajando. Los viajes forman parte del trabajo, creo que hay que hacerlo, sean congresos o reuniones para proyectos, o lo que sea. Sí que desorganiza mucho. Primero porque es un esfuerzo adicional de horarios y demás, y después porque hay que preparar el viaje. Cuando vuelves tienes el trabajo que te ha puesto el viaje más el trabajo que no has hecho durante los días que has estado fuera. Y esa es otra de las cosas que desorganiza bastante este horario más o menos planificado que uno intenta tener. Es frecuente que después de un viaje sean esos días los que alargas más la jornada o tienes que venir algún sábado, etc.&quot;. [P09_H0]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Appendix 13: Quotations that illustrate Qualitative Work Overload**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional development and career advancement</th>
<th>Control and satisfaction of the work well done</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;No me sobra [tiempo] porque estoy haciendo una tesis y sigo trabajando de lunes a domingo&quot;. [01-0-99-C1409]</td>
<td>&quot;Es estresante, me preocupa no poder llegar al nivel de calidad.&quot; [01-0-99-C1028]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Lo vivo] &quot;con mucho estrés por la sensación perenne de que parece que te estás dejando cosas importantes en las que no deparas&quot;. [01-0-99-C0024]</td>
<td>&quot;A veces con agobio, por no poder llegar a todo, y sobre todo tener la sensación que aquello que se hace se queda incompleto&quot; [01-0-99-C0211]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Agobiado pero también desconcertado. Prefiero hacer menos faenas pero mejor hechas. Ahora estoy haciendo muchas más de las que quisiera, y siento como si estuvieran inacabadas o poco revisadas.&quot; [01-0-99-C0025]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 14: Quotations that illustrate antecedents of work overload

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Illustrative quotations of antecedents of work overload</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Role overload</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Me dedico a hacer docencia, hago investigación también, formo parte de un grupo consolidado y también hago algo de gestión. Ahora desde hace unos 5 años soy coordinadora de doctorado y mi departamento está dividido en dos unidades departamentales y también soy la coordinadora de una de las unidades. [FG2_M04]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-imposed pressure and career development</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Es más que esto. Precisamente porque has tenido hijos quieres demostrar –y supongo que es una cuestión también de personalidad– quieres demostrar que tú con hijos trabajas exactamente igual que el que no los ha tenido. Con lo cual la presión que te pones tú misma... [FG1_M09]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Las exigencias de investigación son obligadas en una etapa. ¿Por qué? Porque necesitas hacer méritos, que es lo que han dicho, para promocionarte, etc. [FG2_H02]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family-to-work conflict (FIW)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Las Navidades son una época especialmente complicada, porque a veces tienes compromisos que atender. Nunca puedes terminar y al ser sobretodo nosotros que somos tantos, es muy complicado porque tienes que tener una planificación exquisita para que no concurran circunstancias incómodas. (...) realmente es el momento para mí más incómodo de todo el año. [P09_M01]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(venir a la Universidad el fin de semana) Sabes que son momentos puntuales o semanas puntuales de mucho trabajo o porque ha habido un saldo tan negativo que me he tenido que dedicar tanto a mi casa, que dices “oye, lo del trabajo no sale”. [P07_M03]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lack of resources/staff</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ha ido aumentando el peso tanto de la parte de la docencia, la parte de la investigación y la parte de la gestión. Y eso, poniendo los mismos medios (...) a nosotros se nos pone de parte una profesora y nos dicen que ese es un problema del departamento. No es un problema de la universidad, es un problema del departamento. No hay sustitución, y lo que viene es que no habrá sustituciones para maternidad (...) yo creo que no faltan recursos, lo que están es mal distribuidos o gestionados. [FG2_H03]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yo tengo hace 19 años una secretaria particular que la pago yo. ¿Por qué? Porque era imposible manejar todo lo que tenemos que manejar si no tienes ese apoyo. [FG2_H02]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task and schedule distribution</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Se reparte de forma muy irregular con periodos bastante estresantes alternados con otros muertos. [01-0-99-C0102]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social pressure</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pero también es verdad que nosotros nos planteábamos yo creo, las cosas de distinta manera. Yo tampoco me había planteado a los 30 años tener un piso, y es que ahora es obligación. Es una cosa que se plantean ellos que es otra manera de vivir. [FG1_M01]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unforeseen events</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sería suficiente si no hubiese tantas intervenciones (personas que consultan a cualquier hora sus dudas [alumnos y profesores], e-mails, reuniones urgentes, etc.). [01-0-20-C0019]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Shortcomings in personal organization</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tendría que aprender a organizarme mejor el tiempo. [01-0-99-C0014]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Shortcomings in self-efficacy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Me asignan docencia que no domino y que se me ha dicho que haría si o sí. [01-0-99-C0121]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tampoco me considero especialmente tonta, pero me suponia... es como empezar en un trabajo nuevo. [FG2_M05]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Change, bureaucracy, and information overload</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suele faltar tiempo, sobre todo por el incremento de la burocracia. [01-0-99-C0114]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siempre falta tiempo. El 80% se emplea en desear información inútil. [01-0-99-C0024]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 15: Quotations that illustrate consequences of work overload

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Illustrative quotations of consequences of work overload</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Psychological distress and emotional impact</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>me produce ansiedad/angustia</em> [01-0-99-C0143]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Con mucho estrés.</em> [01-0-07-C0002]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Con resignación</em> [01-0-99-C1008]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Con amargura</em> [01-0-99-C0186]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otra de las cosas es que me están enfadando mucho que no puedo hacer cosas tan elementales como dedicar una vez al mes siempre por una cosa o por otra se me fastidia hacer una caminada, que suelo hacer de 20 o 25 kilómetros. [FG1_H07]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Con un nivel de estrés muy alto. Agotamiento.</em> [01-0-99-C0106]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inicialmente, ahora con cierto distanciamiento [01-0-19-C0003]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Se vive con impotencia y con sensación de no hacer bien el trabajo. [01-0-14-C0017]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TODO MI TIEMPO lo dedico a mi trabajo universitario y no me agobia. (Lo vivo) la mar de bien. Sobre todo por el ECONOCIMIENTO DEL ALUMNADO, con el que tengo muy buena relación. [01-0-07-C0001]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work Quality</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Sensación de pérdida de calidad por hacer tantas tareas a la vez.</em> [01-0-99-C0024]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>agobio, por no poder llegar a todo, y sobre todo tener la sensación que aquello que se hace se queda incompleto</em> [01-0-99-C0211]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work-to-family conflict (WIF)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Esforzándose para que no afecte a mi familia.</em> [01-0-20-C0021]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lo he podido compatibilizar, normalmente a base de echarle muchas horas. [FG2_H03]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Impact on health and healthy habits</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Con frecuencia mal, ahora no tengo nada grave pero estoy enferma, y tiene que ver directamente con cómo han ido esos años de apurar el cuerpo al máximo y luego eso te pasa factura.</em> [01-0-99-C1409]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Durmiendo menos</em> [01-0-99-C0011]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Entonces, lo que me sucede es que eso me tensiona y lo sufro personalmente. (...)Tengo síntomas psicosomáticos. Esto es estrés. Debe ser estrés porque no se pasa, ni se pasan con medicamentos ni se arreglan con nada.</em> [FG1_H07]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Satisfaction</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Me angustia. Parece que nunca pueda tener la satisfacción de haber terminado mi trabajo</em> [01-0-19-C0014]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Impact in social and personal time</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>dispongo de menos tiempo para mi</em> [01-0-99-C0140]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repercute negativamente en mi vida social. [01-0-20-C0018]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Uno de los problemas que tiene abierto la (universidad) desde hace muchos años es ese tema de la participación que va bajando descaradamente y es lo que tú dices, o entran personas con unos intereses muy determinados para hacer ciertas cosas o para hacer el trabajo de base cada día hay más desinterés y además es completamente lógico.</em> [FG2_H03]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>es una labor no remunerada, que nadie quiere hacerse cargo de ella.</em> [P09_M03]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Yo reconozco que no voy con las mismas ganas que iba antes a hacer clases, porque tienes otras 10 mil cosas, y por lo tanto no vas con la misma tranquilidad ni poder dedicarle el mismo tiempo.</em> [FG2_H03]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Working climate</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Me puse mala a fin de semestre y) al final pagaron a mis compañeros para corregir los exámenes de junio. Pero tener yo que mover palillos porque claro, la gente se te rebota. No es aquello de compañeroísmo. Sí, podemos ser buenos compañeros, pero es aquello de “jolín, anda que ésta a ponerse mala ahora, ahora me toca a mi corregir 100 exámenes, y encima no me pagas”. [P09_M02]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 16: Quotations that illustrate coping strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Illustrative quotations of coping with work overload</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work centrality and sense-making</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yo escogí mi trabajo y cuando me canse, ya lo dejaré. [01-0-99-C1290]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vendrán tiempos mejores [01-0-09-C0003]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trabajo mucho, pero lo vivo con alegría. [01-0-20-C0011]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A mí me gusta hacer cosas nuevas, conseguir aprender cada día más cosas y por eso sabes que te tienes que meter en un rollo bastante importante, que depende de ti. O sea, nadie te obliga a tener 7 u 8 proyectos de investigación a dirigir 10 tesis doctorales... a todo este tipo de cosas nadie te obliga. Eso es una cosa que tú te metes ahí porque lo ves claro y porque va la marcha. [FG2_H02]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Time/task management</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aprovecho más las horas de trabajo. Desarrollando una buena organización del tiempo, para poder limitar el horario laboral sin menguar la productividad. [01-0-99-C1341]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Use of working conditions</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bien porque existe la flexibilidad horaria, entonces puedes montártelo para buscar el mejor momento y lugar para trabajar. Eso no quita que falté tiempo, pero al menos el que dedicas lo puedes hacer en buenas condiciones la mayoría de veces. [01-0-99-C1094]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>También creo, que dentro de todo yo soy un poco privilegiado. Privilegiado en el sentido que en mi contrato hay un cierto grado de estabilidad, dentro de la universidad. [01-0-99-C0143]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normalmente yo suelo concentrar la docencia si es posible [P07_M04]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work long hours</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trabajando 14 horas diarias, entre mi centro de trabajo y casa [01-0-19-C0013]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procuro evitarlo (llevar trabajo a casa). Sí que es verdad que algún día, raramente entre semana, porque la verdad es que si empiezo a las 7 y si acabo a las 5 o 6, ya son muchas horas y no suelo llevarme trabajo a casa. Algún sábado por la mañana sí, esporádicamente. (...) Yo vengo, no te diré todos los sábados por la mañana, pero a lo mejor uno sí y uno no. El resto del fin de semana, es muy extraño que venga. [P09_H05]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Me llevo trabajo a casa, sólo aquél que yo misma me puedo organizar, y lo completo mientras los niños duermen. [E09_M07]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Market services</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al final empezamos a probar la compra a domicilio por internet [P07_H04]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y hemos tenido que buscar una guardería privada de fuera del campus de la universidad. [P07_H03]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tengo una señora que me ayuda, que quizá a lo mejor eso, 2 veces por semana, que yo creo que eso hace que realmente lo duro me lo quita. Lo duro me lo quita y yo voy manteniendo. [P07_M01]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sí, nosotros tenemos un canguro que es una mujer del mismo edificio. De hecho es nuestra vecina. Normalmente, ella nos cuida a los niños un par de horas. [P07_H04]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El servicio de ludoteca es exactamente una solución puntual por si tienes que hacer algo, durante 2 horas. [P07_M02]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organizational support</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>creo que hay otras cosas que ayudan; el tener un entorno que te ayude, el tener un equipo de gente con la que puedas trabajar, todo eso es importante también [FG1_M04]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lo que se suele hacer es que si alguien tiene niños pequeños, evitar que le toque a primeras horas de la mañana o a últimas horas de la tarde, porque es cuando es más complicado, porque tienes que dejarlo en la escuela, recogerlo de la escuela. Entonces se tiende a negociar entre los profesores. [P07_H03]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>En aquél entonces eran 3 meses (permiso de maternidad), ahora las cosas han cambiado mucho. Ahora, si te lo sabes montar, prácticamente están casi un año, con lo de lactancia, no sé qué. [P09_M03]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No hubo problemas. Lo solicité (el permiso de paternidad) y sin problemas se me concedió. Fueron 3 meses... 3 o 4 meses. (...)Ya que teníamos la posibilidad de pedir el permiso, aprovechamos al menos, pues el impacto estaría más amortiguado. [P07_H04]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Es una reducción (de jornada de 30%) muy pequeña. Era útil, lo que pasa es que tampoco te soluciona la vida, pero te ayuda. [P07_H03]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Naturalization</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>La carga de trabajo siempre ha sido alta, constante. [P09_M01]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siempre ha sido así, veo que no soy la única. [01-0-99-C0031]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asumo que es una profesión sin horario [01-0-20-C0018]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Social support/delegation
Yo tengo la suerte de que tengo un familiar. Bueno, mis padres no porque yo soy de fuera, pero mis suegros sí que están dispuestos [P07_M01]
Me lo comino con mi marido [P07_M01]
Yo he optado por tener a mis hijos en casa hasta los 3 años, hasta que empiezan P3. Es lo que recomiendan los pediatras en EEUU. Ante el argumento de llevarlos a una guardería por su socialización temprana, ya socializa el pequeño con sus 2 hermanos mayores. [E09_M07]

Lessons from the past
Los 3 primeros años fueron duros porque hubo más horas de docencia, había que hacer investigación, sacar horas para la tesis y fueron años de dormir 4 horas, trabajar de lunes a domingo... [01-0-99-C1409]
Yo me pasaba toda la noche al lado del ordenador pasando mis fichas para mi tesis, o sea que yo el trabajo lo he tenido desde el principio, y si quieres hacer investigación —yo hago investigación, continuo haciéndolo— tienes que dedicarte desde el principio, y compaginarlo con la familia también. [FG1_M08]

Acceptance/adaptation/adjustment
Estoy acostumbrado a hacer las cosas porque me gusta y porque quiero, así que no me supone molestia. [01-0-99-C0129]

Do one’s utmost to work
intento hacerlo lo mejor posible [01-0-99-C0121]

Boundary Management
lo que me gustaría es poder tener cajitas, de decir bueno, hasta aquí llega el trabajo [FG1_M03]
Y cuando me voy de vacaciones, me voy de vacaciones muy lejos. Donde no funciona el teléfono móvil y sólo te puedan alcanzar por teléfono vía satélite. Además llego, me meto en el barco, me gusta navegar y bucear, lo guardo en la caja fuerte apagado y cuando salga y desembolque ya lo volveré a encender. [FG1_H02]

Reduction of expectations
intento reconocer que todo no puedo hacer bien [01-0-99-C0185]
nunca me propongo hacer más de lo que puedo [01-0-99-C1436]
Aprendes una serie de cosas; que no eres imprescindible, porque no lo eres. Tú desapareces y el mundo continúa exactamente igual y que hay cosas en la vida que tienen mucha importancia. [FG1_H02]

Tolerance and resignation
Me adapto y me resigno. [01-0-99-C1256]

Work absence
Tenemos momentos que estáis haciendo artículos de forma muy intensa, que estáis revisando, que estáis a punto de enviar. Nos quedamos en casa a trabajar. Hombre, sí estás aquí, querías o no, la gente entra, te distraen. Mira, estáis bien. En casa te quedas, si no hay niños [risas], te aíslen mucho más y hoy en día que tienes una buena conexión a Internet, tienes esto de la VPN de la (universidad), que trabajas en casa como si estuvieras aquí dentro físicamente. De hecho, muchos compañeros, catedráticos y todo, trabajamos en casa. Es una forma de aislarte. El tipo de trabajo que tenemos lo podemos hacer en cualquier sitio, a cualquier hora. [P07_H01]
Sí, algún día lo he hecho (quedarse en casa, por ejemplo cuando estás preparando algún paper o algo), al menos dos o tres horas me he quedado y luego he venido. Por esto que te digo, cuando he visto que iba a tener aquí una mañana movida, y que no iba a poder hacer lo que quería. Muy pocas ocasiones, pero alguna vez lo he hecho, sí. [P09_M03]
el lunes y martes me he quedado en casa con mi hijo que tenía fiebre [P07_M02]

Relax and switch off
El deporte me sirve de catarsis. [01-0-99-C1067]
Desconectas, pero la cabeza continúa. Y entonces te pasas un poco de vueltas, como yo digo.
Entonces tengo dos estrategias. Si eso me ocurre por la tarde igual me voy a pasear, o salgo a correr con el perro y tal echarmos una carrera y demás. Sólo un trozo de jardín que tenemos que también me sirve como descanso. Y si es por la noche lo que hago es que me colo una novela de Mankell o me pongo una serie tipo Medium, algo así como para que me atiente y me absorba un poco y entonces me relaje. [P09_M01]

Stress management
la verdad es que como sé que no me queda demasiado tiempo de contrato, procuro no angustiarme. [01-0-09-C0009]
Voy haciendo a mi ritmo intentando no alterarme [01-0-99-C0065]
pero racionalizando la tensión para gestionarla. [01-0-20-C0027]
Dejando aparte los viajes o estancias, entonces he podido conciliar, pero renunciando a unas estancias largas fuera. [P07_H02]

Por una parte dices que es maravilloso, pero por otra parte tienes que renunciar a muchas cosas y que a lo mejor a ti te pueden gustar, que poco a poco vas recuperando. [P07_M01]

Entonces esto para mí es una suerte, aunque sea a costa de dormir menos, y de ir cansado, pero poder estar cuando se bañan los niños, poder estar en la cena, poder salir a jugar por la tarde con ellos. Y bueno, sí es implica que duermo menos esta noche, bueno. ¿Qué le voy a hacer, no? [P07_H01]

Por una parte dices que es maravilloso, pero por otra parte tienes que renunciar a muchas cosas y que poco a poco vas recuperando.

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Appendix 17: Work Overload & Work Family Conflict.

Appendix 18: Network with quotations that illustrates WIF.
Appendix 19: Relationship between Work Overload and Well-being.

Appendix 20: Relationship between Work Overload and Quality of Work.
Appendix 21: Relationship between Work Overload and Participation.
Appendix 22: Quotations that illustrate the cultural norms at the UAB.

**Image of top performers: Work long hours and involved in research or teaching at 100%**

El gran investigador es el que desde que llega a su centro de trabajo, desde las 8 de la mañana hasta que se va, está en la investigación. Yo de 9 a 11 estoy dando clases, a las 11 me meto y doy un seminario, luego voy a prácticas y CUANDO PUEDO, en los periodos que hay menos docencia, me meto en la investigación, y eso no es. (...) Los grandes investigadores son los que dedican su tiempo por completo a esto. [P09_M03]

Lo mejor no me compensa venir a casa porque tengo que llevar no sé cuantos libros e ir súper cargada, pues digo me vengo a trabajar aquí y he venido a trabajar algún sábado o algún domingo o días que dices no hay nadie aquí. Tienes que firmar abajo y de todo. [P07_M01]

Mis compañeros son una vergüenza, no enseñan, porque es que no enseñan, si es que llega a estar físicamente aquí. Pero hacen méritos, curriculum, y después lo harán enseguida catedrático o tal. Los alumnos lo dicen, “catedrático nuevo, el profesor más inútil de los que hay”. Es bastante penoso. [FG2_H01]

Esa es en cierta manera la “trampa”; tienes flexibilidad para adaptarte a las necesidades de los niños, pero a cambio tienes jornadas de trabajo más largas para poder, si quieres, recuperar ese tiempo. No es recuperar. Si quieres acabar el trabajo, es decir, si tú tienes un trabajo de 9 a 5, sino ese trabajo lo hace otro, y sino se acumula todo el trabajo. Si el que hay arriba de responsable quiere que salga el trabajo, pues pondrá a otra persona para que salga ese trabajo. En el caso de los investigadores lo haces tú o no lo hace nadie. [P07_H04]

Trabajo en casa si tengo cosas (pendientes). [P09_M04]

**Image of low performers: Work at the minimum**

Aquí puedes faltar al trabajo, quejarte, y no te echan… y puedes seguir peleando. [EI09_M07]

A pesar de ese marco que dice la universidad del 40-40-20 (docencia+ investigación+gestión), eso es ficticio. Es decir, tú puedes hacer el 20-20-0 y nadie te va a exigir el otro 60. Que ese es el problema básico de aquí. [FG2_H02]

Hubo mujeres, igual que hombres que trabajaron muchísimo, pero hubo muchísimos que no trabajaron nada. Daban sus clases, es decir, sus 3 horas de clase a la semana, o las 6, y con eso hacían toda su historia. [FG1_M06]
**Absentism & Presenteeism: Classes are sacred**

Si mi hija tiene fiebre, lo que no hago es faltar, puede ser que la traiga aquí. (...) un día que me la quedaría en casa, puedo ser que me la traiga al despacho y yo me vaya a clase, y después vayamos a casa cuando termine la clase. [FG2_M05]

cuando se habla del absentismo laboral, en el caso de mi departamento creo que el porcentaje de absentismo ha sido extremadamente bajo, tengo la sensación que es mucho más bajo que en las empresas (...) yo diría que en la Autónoma, lo que conozco, el absentismo es muy bajo. [FG2_H03]

No faltó. Es que realmente, llegar a anular clases, no he tenido nunca. Me las he montado, para sobre todo no faltar a clases, porque sé que igual a mi a veces me la han pedido, yo sé que a mí no me hace ninguna gracia dar un trabajo extra, por tanto si yo puedo pondré todos los medios para no faltar a clases. La semana que estuve mala yo me "chooteé" un buen Apiretal, Espidifen, bajada de fiebre, dar la clase y aguantar. [P07_M01]

qué pasa, que cuando uno se pone enfermo, quién tiene que dar la clase. El del despacho de al lado. O sea, que te sabe bastante mal. Entonces, minimizas, desde luego, cualquier síntoma que tengas, te tomas el Ibuprofeno si estás con gripe... Quiero decir, en otros trabajos estoy segura que esto te permitiría tomar una baja o ir al médico. [FG2_M04]

Si tengo fiebre... a ver es un problema de autoexigencia. En muchas ocasiones de autoexigencia del hecho de que la autoexigencia te lleva a caer revertado, es a lo que me refiero. (...) Bueno, yo tengo que avisar si tengo docencia con los estudiantes o si tengo alguna reunión, o algún compromiso, pero en principio no hay ningún problema. (...) tengo ahora un compañero que ha estado toda la semana enfermo y me consta que lo está pasando mal porque no le gusta tampoco perder el contacto con el estudiante. [P09_M01]

(estando enfermo) Por supuesto está el tema de las clases, a veces lo puedes arreglar con un compañero, un intercambio. Si tenías otras personas dependientes de ti, normalmente he asumido el venir. Normalmente cuando llego a situaciones de ese tipo es cuestiones muy urgentes con un doctorando, cuestiones de ese tipo, las he hecho. [FG2_H03]

(estando de baja de paternidad) Investigación continué haciendo en un nivel más relajado pero no me desconecté totalmente. (...) Cuando trabajas en equipo en investigación, si tomas un permiso de paternidad, no puedes reducir totalmente la actividad, porque tienes un equipo y otra gente depende de ti. [P07_H04]

Precisamente la baja maternal la utilicé para hacer los primeros capítulos mecánicos de mi proyecto docente. [P07_M01]

Las clases son sagradas. Procuro no faltar. Si falto lo recupero más adelante. Pongo una fecha. [EIO9_M07]

**Meaning of work: Choice & Enjoyment**

Yo creo que en general, quien está en la universidad, y yo ya hablé de mi caso y la gente de mi alrededor, que es una opción que tomas en un momento determinado. Quedarte en la universidad es una opción, es algo que te gusta. [FG2_H03]
Use of WF policies: determined by gender and department

Maternity Leave
También en la universidad es más informal todo. Quiero decir que si estás 4 días pues no pasa nada si la ley dice 3, digamos. [P07_H01]
En aquel entonces eran 3 meses, ahora las cosas han cambiado mucho. Ahora, sí te lo sabes montar, prácticamente están casi un año, con lo de lactancia, no sé qué. En aquel entonces yo dejé a mi hija en la guardería de aquí con 4 meses. En la GESPA con 4 meses. [P09_M03]

Paternity Leave
No, no, no, no, no, jamás, jamás, jamás (me planteé tomar permiso de paternidad). Por eso te digo, es un tema que no discutimos. Lo veíamos como natural, obvio, no se cómo decirlo. El rol tradicional, el rol de toda la vida que es la mujer la que... y no nos lo planteamos. [P07_H01]
No hubo problemas. Lo solicitó y sin problemas se me concedió. Fueron 3 meses... 3 o 4 meses. (...) Se le solicita al director del departamento y ellos lo comunican arriba a RRHH y la parte de los justificantes, es automático. Nuestro caso fue por adopción de los niños. Los 2 niños ya están adoptados y son hermanos. Ambos a la vez. [P07_H04]

Reduction of Working hours
(ante la solicitud) la respuesta primera negativa del departamento luego se moderó porque vieron que venían recursos para poder hacer frente a la reducción que yo tenía. Se contrató a una persona que sustituiría el grupo de clases que yo no daba, la asignatura que yo dejé de dar; alguien dio mi docencia en mi lugar. Entonces, cuando se vio que no había ningún problema, que había esos recursos, más personas del departamento se acogieron a la misma medida. Porque vieron que eso existía y que además eso no significaba sobrecargar de docencia al resto de personas, sino que significaba contratar a alguien, y que por tanto no causaba ningún perjuicio al departamento. Pero nadie sabía eso. Eso en los documentos no está. (...) Gente que tenía a lo mejor su segundo o tercer hijo, que nunca habían hecho uso de esos recursos, porque creían que si utilizabas eso iba a verse de forma negativa por parte del departamento y además significaba cargar a los compañeros de docencia extra. (...) cuando yo tuve la reducción de docencia, todo el mundo interpretó que yo no iba a utilizar eso para estar más tiempo con mi hijo, sino que lo iba a utilizar para dedicarme más a la investigación (...) Hay gente que lo ve muy bien, y hay gente que en mi caso, encuentran ridículo que un hombre con permiso. Si ya lo tiene la mujer, para qué lo va a tener el hombre. Ese es un argumento que lo he oído muchas veces. Argumentos del estilo de "si tu mujer no sabe cambiar pañales" o cosas de ese estilo. Esos argumentos se oyen en la universidad, aunque parezca sorprendente. Pero hay gente que opina también lo contrario. Hay gente que lo ve bien, hay gente de todo. [P07_H03]

Use of WF informal arrangements: determined by workload and working climate

Pero el profesor tiene una clase, firma la clase, pero no pasa nada si le va a sustituir un colega un día. (…) Sí, si hace falta sí que lo hacemos. No es taparnos faltas, sino echarnos una mano, que es un concepto diferente. [P07_M01]
Normalmente sí es un día, dos días, no pasa nada. Pero ya cuando ya se tienen que poner en marcha otros mecanismos... el otro día en la reunión con la Decana, nos decía que hasta un mes de baja son los propios compañeros los que te tienen que suplir. Móntatelo como quieras. A partir de un mes te ponen suplente. Entonces tienes que pringar. (…)No es aquello de compañeroismo. Sí podemos ser buenos compañeros, pero es aquello de “jolín, anda que ésta a ponerse mala ahora, ahora me toca a mí corregir cien exámenes, y encima no me pagan”. Claro, una cosa es esta y la otra es decir “bueno, tengo que pringar, pero al menos me saco un dineral”, que es lo legal. [P09_M02]