

Implications of men's extended for their personal and marital



The “standard working week” is standard no longer. For men, the change has been towards an increase in work hours. This is occurring in an era marked by wives increasingly sharing the income-earning load, a consequent need for husbands to take on more of the home-making load, and a need for workplaces to allow this to happen. Given such a climate of conflicting demands, are those extra hours men put into the job worth it in terms of personal and marital happiness?

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One of the most striking social changes affecting family life over the last few decades has been the surge in the workforce participation of married women (that is, women who are in a registered or de facto marriage). Since 1966, the proportion of such women in the labour force has almost doubled (from 29 per cent to 57 per cent in 2001), and close to 60 per cent of couple parents with dependent children are now dual earners (ABS 1980, 2001). However, married women with dependent children are still more likely to work part-time (57 per cent) than full-time (43 per cent) (ABS 2001).

Such a major social change inevitably causes “ripple effects”, requiring other adjustments within the home, workplace and community to facilitate the new way of life. However, as Moen and Yu (2000) point out, “discordant” customs and practices invariably persist for some time after major social changes have occurred.

Greater workforce participation by wives has placed pressure on husbands to play a more active role in the non-financial aspects of home making. Indeed, de Vaus (1997) found that almost all men and women across all age

work hours happiness

groups believed that if wives worked full-time, then the husband and wife should share household tasks equally.

But how much do men do around the house? While mothers continue to carry most of the family's domestic responsibilities, there is some evidence to suggest that fathers are playing a more active role in their children's lives, although their time spent in other domestic tasks does not appear to have changed much (Dempsey 2000; Russell et al. 1999; Bittman and Matheson 1996; Bittman et al. 2000).

Employed mothers themselves have also adjusted by doing less "family work" – a trend that has been facilitated by the availability of non-parental child care and the introduction of labour saving devices and pre-prepared meals, take-aways, cleaning services, and the like (Bittman and Matheson 1996).

Various policies have also been implemented in the workplace to accommodate the family commitments of employees, including the introduction of flexible work hours and leave to look after family members, both young and old. However, changes in one aspect of employment – the amount of time full-time workers spend on the job – have become less, rather than more, "family-friendly". Work hours of full-time workers have *increased* in recent decades, especially for men, as workforce numbers have been reduced through the so-called "economic rationalism" process (Healy 2000; Winefield et al. 2002). In other words, changes in full-time work hours have not simply lagged behind the trend towards a workforce with increased family responsibilities; they have diametrically opposed it.

This article focuses on the impact of men's work hours on their perceived relationship with their partners and satisfaction with life. The strength of relationships between work hours, time stress, spousal relationships and personal wellbeing is explored. Of course, a host of other factors affect spousal relationships and/or personal wellbeing, and while a few of these are assessed, the main focus of the analysis is on the repercussions of extended work hours.

The following discussion first outlines trends in paid work hours over the 20th century, apparent reasons underlying recent trends, and previous research into some of the personal repercussions of

long work hours. On the basis of this background information, predictions of the links between work hours and these other factors are then specified and later assessed on the basis of data collected through a survey conducted by the Australian Institute of Family Studies in 1996, the *Australian Life Course Survey*.

Trends in paid work hours

For the most part, the 20th century saw a gradual shortening of the "working week" for full-time employees. In the early 1900s, the length of the working week was close to 50 hours. By 1948, a "40-hour week" for full-time workers (involving eight hours of work five days per week) had been adopted by the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration and all state industrial tribunals. By the late 1970s, as married women's entrance into the workforce was gaining momentum, 35-hour or 38-hour weeks had become standard in many industries (ABS 1995).

However, towards the end of the 20th century, such breakthroughs for employees began to erode. Healy (2000) shows that the proportion of men in the workforce who were working 45 or more hours per week (here called "extended hours") increased between 1986–87 and 1998–99, while the proportion working 35–44 hours (here called "standard hours") fell. These trends applied across all age groups except teenagers, and were particularly marked for those aged 45–59 years. In fact, employed men in three age groups (35–44 years, 45–54 years, and 55–59 years) were more likely in 1998–99 to work extended hours than standard hours.

Healy (2000) notes that such trends contradict the commonly held assumption that the decline of the standard working week represents a polarisation of hours worked – that is, a shift towards working either extended hours or fewer than standard hours. Rather, for men in these age groups, the shift away from standard work hours has been in one direction: towards longer hours. Healy further notes that this trend was not confined to professional/managerial workers, although those with managerial and administrative responsibilities were more likely than other employed men to work 49 or more hours per week.

Unfortunately, the Australian Bureau of Statistics data on which Healy's analysis is based provide information about the marital status of employed women but not of men. Healy shows that there was also an increase in the proportion of employed married women working extended hours (except for teenagers and those aged 60–64 years), although no more than 16 per cent of employed married women in any age group were working extended hours in 1998–99. Part-time work (1–34 hours) was three to six times more common than extended hours in 1998–99, and there was little change in the proportions working part-time since 1986–87. During this period, the proportions of employed single women working extended hours and part-time hours increased across most age groups, with part-time hours being more common than extended hours.

The single women most likely to be working extended hours were 45–54 years old (22 per cent).

In short, Healy shows that the proportion of employed men and women working a standard week has fallen, with this fall representing a trend towards working extended hours for men and married women, and towards extended and part-time hours for single women. Furthermore, employed men are much more likely to be working extended hours than employed married or single women, with men aged 35–59 years being more likely to work extended hours than standard hours. Consistent with these trends, Figart and Mutari (1998) maintain that, increasingly, gender roles are being differentiated by work hours rather than by labour force status (cited by Moen and Yu 2000).

Given the broadening of expectations about men's contributions to family life, we might expect that those who are working extended hours will experience a strong sense of time pressure, and possibly resentment from their wives – both of which might erode their enjoyment of life. However, the reasons behind long work hours are likely to affect outcomes.

Why are people working long hours?

Several personal reasons have been offered for extended work hours becoming commonplace for full-time male workers. However, Healy maintains that working extended hours may often be involuntary and perhaps coercive, for the shift was strongest amongst those who had reached an age when the

labour force participation rate for men starts declining and the threat of retrenchment increases.

Results of the small-scale, exploratory study by Pockock and colleagues (2001) were consistent with the contention that some employees in Australia work “unreasonable hours” (whether excessive hours or disruptive schedules) to protect their jobs. However, a number of the 54 employees in this study indicated that they adopted “unreasonable hours” to enhance the chances of promotion and sometimes for the sheer pleasure derived from work. Some indicated that they very much enjoyed aspects of their work, with some expressing a strong sense of commitment to their clients or to those they supervised; they derived much personal satisfaction from seeing their work benefiting others.

In the United States, Hochschild (1997) also concluded that, while some employees have little say in the hours they work, managers often worked excessive hours more from enjoyment and a desire to do their job well than through coercion. Their work life became even more appealing if their spouses made home life more difficult by complaining about the excessive work hours. Likewise, the British study discussed by Millward in this edition of *Family Matters* suggests that reasons for working non-standard hours vary according to occupational status: men in professional or managerial occupations who adopt such practices typically do so because their work is intrinsically rewarding, while men in lower status occupations feel they have little choice in the hours they work.

1. PREDICTED PATHWAYS TO WELLBEING

The central issue in the analysis was the direct and indirect impact of extended work hours on relationship wellbeing and life satisfaction, when the effects of some other variables likely to affect personal and marital wellbeing were controlled.

Income level, extended work hours and life satisfaction

It was assumed that the men on higher incomes (most of whom had professional or managerial occupations) would be more likely than those on relatively low incomes (more than half of whom held blue collar occupations) to be involved in jobs that are intrinsically rewarding. It was thus predicted that extended work hours for men on relatively high incomes would enhance life satisfaction directly. No direct link was predicted between extended work hours and life satisfaction for lower income men on the grounds that, while such work may provide some benefits (job security, extra pay), it would be less likely to involve particularly rewarding activities. Thus, the same model was tested for the two income groups, with the prediction that a direct link between extended work hours and life satisfaction would be significant for the higher income group only.

Extended work hours, time stress, and life satisfaction

In this analysis, time stress was measured by the men's beliefs that they did not have enough time with their family, with their friends and for themselves. It was predicted that extended work hours would

increase time stress which would in turn lower life satisfaction for both groups of men.

Extended work hours and relationship wellbeing

Extended work hours were also expected to have an adverse effect on the quality of the couple relationship (here called “relationship wellbeing”) for both groups of men, since working long hours would limit opportunities for the couple to share time together for enjoyable activities. As noted above, such time appears to be important in preserving happy relationships. Furthermore, some wives may resent their husbands' work-related absence from family life.

Time stress and relationship wellbeing

Time stress was predicted to represent another threat to relationship wellbeing for both groups, for it seems reasonable to suggest that such stress would be prone to put people in a negative frame of mind that would not be conducive to pleasant interactions with others.

As noted above, a myriad of other factors would contribute to spousal relationships and enjoyment of life, but few additional factors are examined here, for a central aim of this analysis is to derive a simple model pertaining to the impact of work hours. The additional factors examined are: the couple's mode of handling

Thus, several factors may explain the trend towards extended work hours. The additional time spent at work may extend that period of daily life which is particularly rewarding and/or may reflect limited choice and concerns about job advancement or job security. The personal repercussions of extended work hours are thus likely to be complex.

Winefield et al. (2002) maintain that work that is obligatory (“labour”) is likely to have largely detrimental repercussions, despite the fact that earnings may provide access to desirable resources. Their review of the literature suggests that some forms of work are no better than unemployment, and that the stress of overwork linked with the reduction in workforce numbers can lead to psychological and physical health problems. On the other hand, they note that work holds many functions. Work that provides a sense of achievement and personal worth can be beneficial to the worker.

Nevertheless, even intrinsically rewarding work may generate conflict in the family, particularly if family members believe that it interferes too much with family life. Under these circumstances, any personal satisfaction derived from such heavy involvement in work may be eroded by conflict with those at home, for the quality of intimate relationships appears to be a critical factor shaping happiness (McCabe et al. 1996; Myers and Diener 1995). In other words, work can have beneficial, detrimental or mixed effects not only on the workers themselves but also on their families.

Work and family life

The term “spillover” is commonly used in discussions of links between work and family life. Negative spillover occurs when work and family interfere with each other, when stressors mount in both domains at much the same time, and when negative moods from one domain are transmitted to the other. Positive spillover, on the other hand, occurs when one domain improves functioning in the other (Grzywacz et al. 2002). Not surprisingly, research



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suggests that personal wellbeing is eroded by negative spillover and enhanced by positive spillover (Grzywacz and Marks 2000).

A considerable body of research now suggests that heavy workplace demands have negative spillover effects on the quality of marital relationships (Kluwer et al. 1996; Russell and Bowman

conflict (as reported by the men), presence and number of children in the household, and men’s perceived financial difficulties (here called “financial stress”).

Mode of handling conflict and relationship wellbeing

A couple’s mode of handling conflict seems to be a critical factor shaping the quality of the relationship (Clements et al. 1995; Wolcott 1997). It appears that “explosive” behaviour, such as shouting, hitting or throwing things, can be especially detrimental to relationships. It was thus predicted that such behaviour would have a negative impact on spousal relationships and would thereby lower life satisfaction.

Presence and number of children, time stress, relationship wellbeing and life satisfaction

Several studies have suggested that children have a negative impact on marital happiness or on the quality of the interaction between spouses, with a national longitudinal study in the United States suggesting that this effect is apparent regardless of the age of the children (Lavee et al. 1996; VanLaningham et al. 2001). However, research results are by no means consistent, with some studies failing to find a significant link between the presence of children and relationship wellbeing (Clements et al. 1998). Where a link is observed, it tends to be explained in terms of the financial costs of children, the limited time parents have to spend with each other in companionate activities, and heightened parental distress (Hill et al. 2001; VanLaningham et al. 2001). Consistent with this explanation,

an Australian Bureau of Statistics survey suggests that parents are more likely than other men and women to report feeling rushed or pushed for time (ABS 1999). It was thus predicted that the presence of children would lower marital wellbeing and life satisfaction directly as well as indirectly, through increasing sense of time stress – an experience that would itself be enhanced by increases in family size.

Financial stress

The adage that “money doesn’t buy happiness” appears to be reasonably well founded. A great deal of research suggests that income is only weakly related to subjective wellbeing. This weak relationship is often explained in terms of the tendency for people to adjust to their circumstances (Myers and Diener 1995). Furthermore, high income earners may live beyond their means and some people with lower incomes may derive satisfaction from managing to live within their limited means. Thus, subjective wellbeing is more likely to be affected by an individual’s interpretation of their financial situation than by objective indicators of financial status. It is therefore predicted that men who feel they are under financial stress will be less satisfied with their lives than other men. Furthermore, it is predicted that perceived financial stress will have an adverse effect on their relationship with their partner, for there is some evidence to suggest that men in particular are inclined to adopt a more hostile and less warm mode of interaction with their partners when under financial stress (Rogers 1999).

2000). This is hardly surprising, given that having time to be together to talk to each other and engage in mutually enjoyable activities appears to be an important ingredient of happy relationships (Parker 2001; Wolcott 1999). As Wolcott (1999) notes, much greater emphasis is now placed on meeting each other's emotional and companionship needs than was apparent when the "male breadwinner/female home maker" model prevailed. Yet opportunities to fulfil these aspects of the relationship may be curtailed by the trend towards working extended hours. However, not all research has observed a significant link between extended work hours and marital wellbeing (for reviews, see Crouter et al. 2001; Russell and Bowman 2000).

Given the pressure on men now to play a more active role in family life (Russell et al. 1999), it seems likely that extended work hours would add to their sense of being pressed for time. Indeed, the British study outlined by Millward in this edition of *Family Matters* suggested that men were concerned about the limited time they had with their children (see also Hand and Lewis in this edition of *Family Matters*, and Russell et al. 1999). Such time stress may spill over into family life and general happiness.

In short, it seems reasonable to suggest that the impact of extended work hours on enjoyment of life is likely to be complex, and would depend partly on the way such work hours are experienced, the extent to which they generate a sense of time pressure, and their impact on the quality of the spousal relationship.

In the light of this background research, a set of predictions concerning the impact of extended work hours was developed comprising interrelationships between extended work hours, time stress, relationship wellbeing and life satisfaction. A variety of other factors are likely to contribute to wellbeing outcomes, three of which are included in

the analysis – presence and number of children, mode of handling domestic conflict, and financial stress. The set of predictions and their rationale are discussed in accompanying Box 1.

The study

The *Australian Life Course Survey*, conducted by the Australian Institute of Family Studies in 1996, provided an opportunity to investigate the links between extended work hours and wellbeing. Glezer and Wolcott (1999) have already shown that half the employed men who participated in this survey and who were working more than 40 hours per week felt that their work interfered with their family life. The present analysis focuses on direct and indirect links between working long hours (here defined as 45 or more hours), quality of relationship with partner, and life satisfaction.

The analysis focused on around 540 men aged 25–55 years who were in paid work and living with a partner. Almost all men derived their incomes from one job only. Because the reasons for, and repercussions of, work hours may vary according to income level, separate analysis was thus undertaken for men on higher and lower incomes. (Self-employed men were omitted from this analysis because their stated incomes may be particularly unreliable.)

Categories of annual gross income were the same as those used in the 1996 Census. "Lower income" men were defined as those with gross annual incomes below the median income bracket for the total sample (\$36,400 – \$41,599) (n=215), while "higher income" men were those with gross annual incomes at or above this level (n=323). Because this income threshold for subdividing the groups is arbitrary, the analysis was repeated for a smaller group of men with incomes at slightly lower and higher

2. MEASURES USED IN PATH ANALYSES

Life satisfaction represented the sum of ratings of satisfaction on six issues: your independence, the chance you have to do what you want; the way you handle problems that come up in your life; the sense of purpose and meaning in your life; the extent to which you are the kind of person you would like to be; what you are accomplishing in life; and your life as a whole. Respondents rated these issues on a scale, ranging from (1) Very satisfied to (5) Very unsatisfied. Ratings were later reversed so that high scores reflected high satisfaction.

Relationship wellbeing was based on responses to the three questions: "How often have you considered ending your relationship?" "How often do you regret you married or live together?" These two questions were rated on scales from (1) Often to (4) Never. The third question, "Taking all things together, how would you describe your relationship?", was rated on a scale from (1) Very happy to (5) Very unhappy. Rating were later reversed so that high scores reflected positive relationship wellbeing.

Time stress was gauged by asking respondents if they felt they did not have enough time to spend with family, with friends or for self. Total scores ranged from 0 to 3.

Financial stress was based respondents' rating of their financial situation, from (1) Extremely difficult to (5) Doing very well. This rating was later reversed.

Serious disagreements. Respondents were asked to indicate how they handled serious disagreements with their partner, by rating the frequency with which they adopted different behaviours, from (1) Often to (4) Never. Two items were used in the development of the "Explosive" mode of handling conflict measure: "Argue heatedly or shout at each other", and "End up hitting or throwing things at each other". Ratings were reversed and summed so that high scores reflect high tendency to adopt such "explosive" behaviour.

Other variables used in the analysis are more self-evident: the number of hours worked per week, and the number of children in the household, which was classified into "no children" and "three or more children".

levels (“lower income” = below \$31,200 and “higher income” = \$41,600 or more, where $n = 161$ and 250 respectively). The pattern of results continued to hold, suggesting that they were not a function of the specific initial threshold adopted for subdividing the groups. The discussion below focuses on results emerging for the larger groups, where \$36,000 is the threshold defining “lower” and “higher”.

Table 1 sets out socio-demographic characteristics of the two income groups, along with their work hours, and mean scores on all variables included in the analysis. The nature of these variables is described in accompanying Box 2.

The two groups differed significantly in terms of most socio-demographic characteristics. There was a wide age range within both groups, but compared with the lower income group, men with higher incomes were more likely to be at least 45 years old and less likely to be under 35 years old. The majority in both groups were married, but lower income men were more likely than higher income men to have been cohabiting. In addition, the higher income men were more likely to have higher formal qualifications and occupational status, and to live in an urban area. However, the groups did not differ significantly in terms of family size.

Compared with the lower income men, those with higher incomes were significantly more likely to work extended hours, although it should be noted that just over half the men in the lower income group reported working extended hours. Those with higher incomes also indicated significantly higher time stress and lower financial stress, compared with the lower income group. No significant differences were apparent in their perceptions about the way they and their partner handled conflict (that is, the couples’ proneness to adopt “explosive” strategies).

Results

The initial set of predictions was tested statistically using regression-based path analysis (see Hatcher 1994). For each income group, the presence and number of children were not significantly related to either life satisfaction or relationship wellbeing, and thus these pathways were omitted. The revised model appeared to fit the data well according to six “goodness of fit” statistical tests recommended by Hatcher (1994). (These results are available on request.)

Figures 1 and 2 depict the significant pathways between variables for lower and higher income men. Five pathways were significant for both income groups, three of which formed direct pathways to life satisfaction: satisfaction tended to increase as a function of high relationship wellbeing but decrease as a function of high sense of financial and time stress. Furthermore, “explosive” modes of handling conflict tended to lower relationship wellbeing and thereby lower life satisfaction. Finally, for both income groups, extended work hours had an adverse effect on time stress and thus lowered life satisfaction indirectly. All these trends were predicted.

It is interesting to note that time stress held a stronger relationship with life satisfaction for lower income men, as indicated by the regression coefficients (-.28 compared with -.14). In other words, time stress appeared to erode life satisfaction more consistently for the lower income group than for the other group. Time stress may at times involve the challenging experience of pitting oneself against the odds for higher income men, and this may form part of the enjoyable nature of work activities. However, such comments are purely speculative and should not detract from the fact that, for both income groups, time stress for the most part appeared to have detrimental consequences.

Financial stress significantly affected relationship wellbeing for lower income men only. As noted earlier, the lower income men indicated significantly higher average financial stress, compared with the higher income group. Relationships may be particularly likely to be threatened when financial stress reaches a certain threshold.

Contrary to expectations, extended work hours did not appear to have a direct adverse effect on relationship wellbeing. It is likely that the impact of

Table 1 Men in higher and lower income groups: socio-demographic characteristics, work hours and mean scores on key variables

	Lower income <\$36,400 pa %	Higher income \$36,400+ pa %
Age**		
25 – 34 years	33	22
35 – 44 years	40	41
45 – 54 years	27	37
Education***		
No post-school qualification	60	37
Some post-school qualification	27	25
Tertiary	13	38
Area of residence***		
Urban	53	71
Rural	47	29
Occupation***		
Upper white collar	31	67
Lower white	14	12
Blue collar	55	22
Marital Status***		
Married	82	18
Cohabiting	92	8
Number of children in household		
No children	27	22
1 or 2 children	52	57
3 or more children	21	21
Work hours per week***		
45 or more hours	52	72
30-44 hours	45	27
30 or fewer hours	2	1
	Mean score	Mean score
Life satisfaction	24.1	24.6
Relationship wellbeing	10.7	10.9
“Explosive” mode of handling conflict	3.2	3.1
Time stress*	1.3	1.5
Financial stress***	1.6	1.2

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (where two-tail tests are used in relation to mean scores).
Source: Australian Life Course Survey (1996), Australian Institute of Family Studies, 2002.

Figure 1 Higher income men (\$36,400+ p.a.): significant paths to relationship wellbeing and life satisfaction

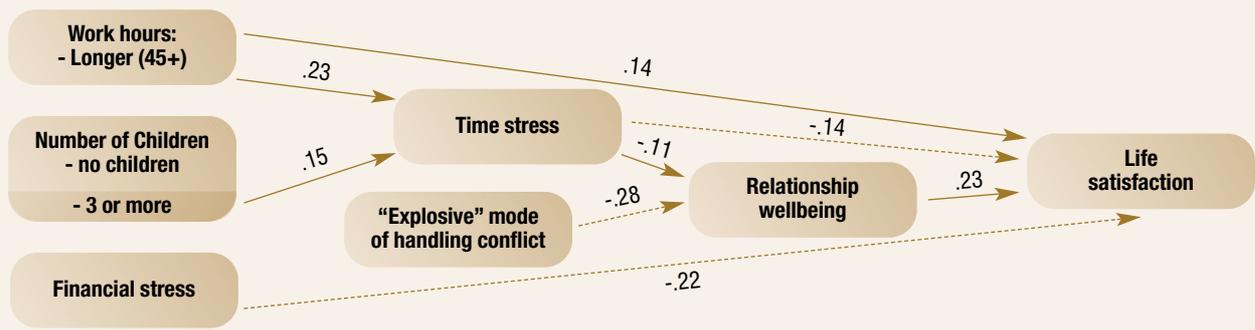
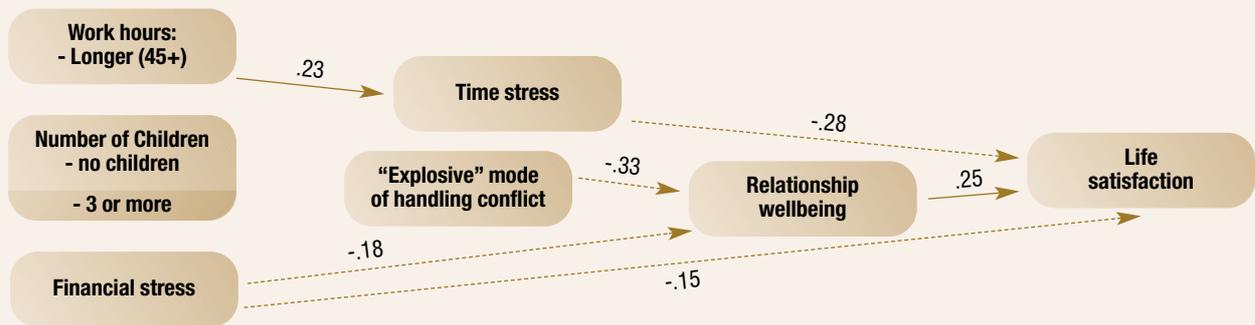


Figure 2 Lower income men (under \$36,400 p.a.): significant paths to relationship wellbeing and life satisfaction



Note: In Figures 1 and 2 above, the numbers on the arrows linking variables are the standardised path coefficients, indicating the strength of the effect of the predictor on the outcome variable, when other predictors are controlled. A positive coefficient indicates that the outcome tends to rise or fall in unison with the predictor, while a negative coefficient indicates an inverse relationship - the higher the score on the predictor, the lower is the score on the outcome. To highlight these effects, unbroken arrow shafts are presented for positive relationships and broken arrow shafts are presented for inverse relationships.

Source: Australian Life Course Survey (1996), Australian Institute of Family Studies, 2002.

work hours on relationship wellbeing depends on the way such work hours are interpreted by each partner. While some wives may object to their husbands working extended hours, others may accept this practice as an important means of achieving mutually accepted goals (such as financial security or promotion). Furthermore, the amount of time men spent with their families was not assessed. Some of those who were working standard rather than extended hours may spend little of their non-work time with their families, thus weakening any link between work hours and relationship wellbeing.

Three other significant pathways emerged for higher income men, two of which concern the experience of time stress. Having three or more children increased time stress which in turn adversely affected relationship wellbeing. Possibly the children of higher income men may have been involved in a greater number of organised activities, thus placing more time pressure on parents. However, it is difficult to identify possible reasons for time stress having a significantly adverse effect on relationship wellbeing for higher income men but not for lower income men. The relationship between these variables for higher income men was only marginally significant.

The other significant pathway for the higher income group was predicted to be exclusive to that

group: extended work hours enhanced life satisfaction for higher income men only. Thus extended work hours held mixed blessings for these men. On the one hand, their work hours appeared to promote personal wellbeing directly, but on the other hand, they appeared to lower satisfaction, by increasing sense of time pressure, which had flow on negative effects on the couple's relationship and for life satisfaction.

Such a process is consistent with arguments advanced by Hochschild (1997), and the broad findings of Pocock et al (2001): extended hours can be personally rewarding but also costly for relationships which are of central importance to personal wellbeing. A vicious cycle may develop, whereby men may avoid escalating relationship difficulties by spending more time enjoying their work. As predicted, the direct effect of extended work hours on life satisfaction was not apparent for the lower income group. Their work may not offer the intrinsic rewards experienced by those earning higher incomes.

Conclusion

As Winefield et al. (2002) have argued, work has many functions and can have direct and indirect repercussions that are beneficial, detrimental, or both. The present analysis attempted to identify the nature of some of these direct and indirect pathways.

According to the analysis, men in higher income brackets appear to gain some emotional rewards from working extended hours. However, there seem to be considerable costs attached to this practice, particularly given that the resulting increase in time stress seems likely to have a negative impact on the domain in life that is especially crucial to wellbeing: quality of relationship with their partner. For lower income men, the few effects identified were negative: extended work hours increased time stress and thereby lowered life satisfaction.

Winefield et al. (2002) note that most paid work is becoming increasingly polarised – it will involve either higher skilled professional-type jobs or unskilled, labouring and service-type jobs. If the trend towards extended hours continues, then we may be likely to see increasing numbers of workers caught up in a work arrangement that is enjoyable but threatens their personal relationships and may well have a negative impact on health. We may also see increasing numbers whose long work hours offer few benefits: their lifestyles, and possibly health, may be diminished by the world of work.

In this analysis, attention was directed to workers and their relationships with their partners. Of course there are many other questions that need to be answered, including the nature of flow-on effects of processes suggested above for the children.

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