

**Bringing Home the Bacon: Does Job Insecurity Predict Work-Family Conflict among U.S. Workers?**

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### **ABSTRACT**

Perceived job insecurity is a prevalent work stressor, affecting almost a fifth of the U.S. workforce. Does the fear of job loss cross over to engender a sense of work-family conflict? Due to the salience of the male breadwinner status, is job insecurity a stronger predictor of work-family conflict for men, as compared to women? Or do individuals' contributions to the household income exert a greater influence on the relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict? In other words, would job insecurity be a stronger predictor of work-family conflict as one's personal income comprises a greater share of the household income? Using General Social Survey data from 2006, 2010, and 2012, we examine the association between job insecurity and work-family conflict among U.S. workers. We find that respondents with higher job insecurity indeed report higher work-to-family conflict. Job insecurity is more likely to translate into higher levels of work-to-family conflict for women, suggesting that women usually carry out the mental labor of family work. We also find the link between job insecurity and work-family conflict is magnified for middle-class women. In addition, as lower-class women contribute more to household income, the association between job insecurity and work-to-family conflict becomes magnified, while no such pattern is observed for men. Research examining antecedents of work-family conflict have primarily focused on objective work demands (such as work hours, and workload), and family demands. Our study contributes to existing literature by showing that perceived job insecurity, a prevalent contemporary work stressor, may also lead workers to feel a higher sense of conflict between work and family domains, but also that this is moderated by gender and one's relative breadwinning status within the household.

**Keywords:** Job insecurity; work-family conflict; gender; relative income

### INTRODUCTION

Job insecurity is a prevalent work stressor in the United States. A study in 2010 finds that almost a third of Americans report a likelihood of losing their job in the near future (Alterman et al. 2012), though reports of job insecurity have declined as the economy has improved, falling to only about one in five workers reporting job insecurity in 2014 (see Gallup Poll). At the same time, a majority of U.S. men and women report some form of work and non-work conflict (Aumann, Galinsky and Mators 2011; Schieman, Milkie and Glavin 2009; Jacobs and Gerson 2004). What is not known is the relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict (but see Moen, Kelly and Huang 2008).

In this paper, we draw on a nationally representative sample to examine their relationship, investigating the extent to which perceived job insecurity translates into higher feelings of conflict between the work and family. While most of the extant literature on the antecedents of work-family conflict focuses on the work conditions or family demands, job insecurity may elicit a sense of work-family conflict, as workers strive to enact the “ideal worker norm” (Williams 2000, Kelly et al. 2010), working more hours to lower chances of being laid off. There is also the possibility of job insecurity eliciting a sense of worrying and mental labor, contributing to feelings of work-family conflict.

One study finds that workers who experience job insecurity were less likely to utilize work-family leave policies, and to let work permeate into their personal lives (Bowell, Olson-Buchanan and Harris 2014). According to Boswell, Olson-Buchanan and Harris (2014, p.891): “the fear of job loss is likely to elicit a need to be seen by the employer as a valuable, perhaps indispensable, worker. Conversely, behaviors that could possibly be seen as contrary to high work effort may be eliminated or greatly reduced by an employee facing job insecurity.” At the

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

same time, workers' assessment of the possibility of future job loss may create feelings of conflict between work and family domains.

The relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict may well differ by gender and (relative) breadwinner status. In other words, who might also carry the mental labor of family work when the possibility of job loss becomes more likely? Is it driven more by gender repertoire (i.e. men worrying more because of the prevalence of the male breadwinner norm), or is it driven by actual breadwinner status (individuals' personal income as a proportion of the household income)? How might these relationships also differ across socio-economic background? We address these research questions, asking: 1) Does job insecurity predict higher work-family conflict in a sample of U.S. workers in recent years? 2) Is the relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict stronger for men, as compared to women? And do the relationships differ across socio-economic backgrounds? 3) Does the relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict become stronger as one's personal income comprises a larger share of the household income, presumably given the effects of the respondent's job loss having a greater impact on the household?

### ***Perceived Job Insecurity and its Implications for Workers***

Researchers have examined the effects of job insecurity in the workplace, finding it to predict a number of employee attitudes, such as turnover intentions (Barling and Kelloway 1996; Chirumbolo and Hellgren 2003; Emberland and Rundmo 2010; Moen et al. 2015; Staufenbiel and Konig 2010; Stiglbauer, Selenko, Batinic, and Jodlbauer 2012), organizational commitment (Chirumbolo and Hellgren 2003; Davy, Kinicki, and Scheck 1997), withdrawal cognitions (i.e. thoughts of quitting, search intentions, and intentions to quit, see Davy, Kinicki, and Scheck

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

1997), relationships with colleagues and supervisors (Kinnunen et al. 2000), work performance (Probst et al. 2007; Selenko, Mäkikangas, Mauno, and Kinnunen 2013; Staufenbiel and König 2010), counter-productive work behavior (Probst et al. 2007), absenteeism (Staufenbiel and König 2010), job satisfaction (Theodossiou and Vasileiou 2007), and organizational citizenship behavior (Feather and Rauter 2004). At the same time, existing studies find that in light of job insecurity, workers may actually try to work harder, in order to portray themselves as good workers, to increase their chances of being retained by their employer (Bowell, Olson-Buchanan and Harris 2014; Staufenbiel and König 2010). In their paper on the effects of job insecurity on performance, turnover intentions, and absenteeism among 136 German non-managerial employees, Staufenbiel and König (2010) argue that job insecurity may trigger an active way of coping, inducing increased work efforts if workers believe it will enhance their job security.

Literature on work-family conflict has considered actual workload and home responsibilities as antecedents, but is also increasingly taking into consideration the effects of job stress, such as role stress, role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, and psychological demands (Bryon 2005) or differences in level of work-family conflict given employee's location within an organization (DiRenzo, Greenhaus, and Weer 2011). Might it be the case that the possibility of job loss may also spillover into the home domain, creating a sense of work-family conflict (Hill, Ferris, Martinson 2003; Moen, Fan and Kelly 2013)? To our knowledge, there have been only two studies which examined the relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict, though they are both conducted on European workers and report mixed findings.

Using data from a sample of Swedish teachers from surveys collected in 2004 and 2005, Richter, Naswall and Sverke (2010) find that job insecurity at Time 1 (2004) predicted work-family conflict at Time 2, a year later (2005), though only for male teachers, and that this was

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

partially mediated through workload at Time 2. In contrast, drawing on a cross-sectional sample of respondents in 1995 from four different organizations in Finland, Kinnunen and Mauno (1998) report that job insecurity predicts lower work-family conflict, but only for women.

In this study, we examine the relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict drawing on recent data from the General Social Survey, a nationally representative sample of U.S. workers. There are reasons to believe that we might observe a different relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict among U.S. workers, as compared to previous evidence on European workers. For instance, in her study using data from the European Social Survey, Sjöberg (2010) finds that unemployment benefits generosity (measured by three dimensions: wage replacement rate, duration of benefits, and the average amount each country spends on an unemployed person, adjusted for purchasing power parity) mitigates the adverse wellbeing effects of labor market uncertainty (captured as having experienced unemployment spells). In other words, respondents in high benefits countries report comparatively higher subjective wellbeing, compared with otherwise similar individuals living in countries with low benefits generosity.

Given this finding, we expect job insecurity to predict higher levels of work-family conflict among U.S. workers compared with what previous European studies have found. First, the United States has been described as a liberal welfare state, categorized by market dominance and modest social insurance, while Finland and Sweden (the countries in which previous studies were conducted) have been described as social democratic welfare states with high government support (Esping-Andersen 1990). Given their differences in benefits generosity, the United States should see higher levels of work-family conflict resulting from job insecurity than what previous European studies have suggested. Second, job insecurity is an increasingly common

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

stressor in recent years, given the prevalence of offshoring and outsourcing of work, and the turbulent economic climate in the United States. This may have heightened the effects of perceived job insecurity, which may be captured by our analysis based on recent surveys. Along these lines, we hypothesize that job insecurity is a significant predictor of work-family conflict among U.S. workers.

*Hypothesis 1:* U.S. workers with high job insecurity also report high work-family conflict.

### ***Job Insecurity, Gender, and Work-Family Conflict***

Gender has been theorized as an important predictor of job insecurity as well as a key moderator of the relationship between insecurity and employee wellbeing. However, whether job insecurity permeates into the family domain more for men or for women is an empirical question. Two perspectives, gender ideologies and gender contingencies of mental and emotional labor, yield contrasting expectations.

Gender ideologies such as the male breadwinner model has been described as one reason why men may often report higher job insecurity, as well as be more affected by insecurity itself (Guimont et al. 2006; Kalil et al. 2010; Levenstein, Smith and Kaplan 2001; Westman 2000). Empirical findings have been mixed, suggesting that these relationships are complex (Cheng and Chan 2008; Levenstein, Smith and Kaplan 2001). For instance, in a study of 2,357 adults in Alameda County, California, job insecurity predicted hypertension in men, but not in women (Levenstein, Smith and Kaplan 2001). A meta-analysis of 133 studies, however, finds that men

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

and women are equally affected by perceived job insecurity in terms of its job and health consequences (Cheng and Chan 2008).

However, gender ideologies have been shown to play a role when they are measured directly. In their study of 203 married employees, Gaunt and Benjamin (2007) find that men with traditional values in fact experience greater job insecurity than women with traditional values. They define “traditional” as gauged from respondents’ gender attitudes and identity, and the importance attached to work and family, with questions such as “Personally, work and family are of similar importance to me,” or “Personally, work is more important to me.” The authors also find that job insecurity is related to loss-of-control stress (14 items including questions such as ‘Over the past month, how often were you angered because of things that happened that were beyond your control’), financial stress (5 items including questions pertaining to worries about ability to ‘maintain your financial independence from others,’ ‘manage your financial commitments’) and stress expressions at home (18 items with questions regarding the degree to which respondents felt annoyed or nervous in their relationship with their partner or children) among traditional men, and egalitarian men and women, but not for traditional women.

The gendered effects of job insecurity may also be especially prominent within couples. For instance, in a study of 60 working couples, Jones and Fletcher (1993) find that the transmission of work stress is mostly from men to women, but not the other way around. For example, for women with spouses in high stress jobs (characterized by high job demands and low support), each unit of the husband’s job demand is associated with women’s anxiety, while each unit of the husband’s job support is associated with women’s lower anxiety and lower depression.



## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

In their study of 1,393 married women, Rook, Dooley and Catalano (1991) also find that husbands' work stress (defined as undesirable job events based on nine events he could have experienced in the three months prior to the interview, including job loss, demotion, business loss or failure, worsening conditions on the job, or conflict with a coworker or boss) translates into higher psychological distress for wives.

*Hypothesis 2a:* The relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict is greater for men, as compared to women, because of their normative breadwinner status.

Another body of literature, however, suggests that women may be more likely to experience spillover (feelings, attitudes, and behaviors that develop in one domain are carried over to another) as compared to men. In a study of employees at one organization in Finland, Mauno and Kinnunen (1999) find that job insecurity predicts job exhaustion and work spillover into parenthood for women one year later, but not for men. Spillover into parenthood comes from five items, such as "My working life interfere with the amount of time I spend with my children," "When I get home from work I often do not have the energy to be a good parent," and "Because I'm often irritable after work, I am not as good a parent as I would like."

Women may particularly be at risk given their typical role in carrying out the emotional work of families (Cooper 2014; Offer 2014). In his study using time-diary data from the 500 Family Study, Offer (2014) finds that while both fathers and mothers in dual-earner families reported thinking frequently about job-related matters, only mothers' job-related thoughts spill over into their unpaid work and free-time activities. For fathers, even though they think more frequently about job-related matters, these thoughts do not spill over into their unpaid work,

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

suggesting that mothers experience more mental work-to-family spillover. Therefore, it may also be the case that the relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict is stronger for women, as compared to men.

***Hypothesis 2b:*** The relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict is greater for women, as compared to men, because of the gender contingencies of mental and emotional labor.

Social class may complicate the gendered job insecurity/work-family conflict relationship. In her qualitative study of fifty socio-economically diverse families, Cooper (2014) argues that in middle-class and lower-class families, women are the “designated worriers”, charged with keeping insecurity at bay, while their husbands are kept comparatively unburdened. Women are engaged with day to day household management of finances, of penny pinching, and of the emotional labor of insecurity (Hochschild 1983). In upper-class households, while both men and women report anxiety about finances, generally it is the man who focuses on financial concerns, while the woman focuses on family issues. Given this, women who experience job insecurity in lower and middle-class households may report even greater work-family conflict, as compared to their upper-class counterparts.

***Hypothesis 3:*** The relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict is stronger for lower and middle-class women, as compared to upper-class women; while the relationship is stronger for upper-class men, as compared to lower and middle-class men.

*Breadwinner status, job insecurity and work-family conflict*

Women are increasingly the main earners (breadwinners) of their families (Raley, Mattingly and Bianchi 2006; Payne and Gibbs 2013). According to a report by Payne and Gibbs using 2011 data from the American Community Survey, within dual earner couples, 49% of wives earn less than their husbands, while the remaining 51% have either similar earnings, or earn more than their husbands.

Drawing on interview data from their qualitative study of 55 women and 56 men in three organizations in the UK, Charles and James (2003) argue the experience of job insecurity and its impact depends on both the home situation and their partner's situation. They conclude:

Thus job insecurity, redundancy or unemployment, whether experienced by respondents or by those close to them, have an impact not only on involvement in paid work but also on the relative importance attached to home and work...role reversal is a strategy adopted in response to job insecurity by some of our respondents and that this may involve a change from being the ancillary to being the principle wage earner (2003, p. 254).

Accordingly, we test whether it may be personal income as a proportion of the household income that is a significant moderator of the relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict. This follows from the fact that it would be more consequential for individuals and their family if the person who earns a greater share of the household income loses their job.

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

*Hypothesis 4:* For both men and women, the relationship between job insecurity and work-family conflict becomes greater as one's personal income comprises a larger share of the household income.

## METHOD

### *Data and Sample*

This study draws on data from the cross-sectional 2006, 2010, and 2012 General Social Survey (GSS), a nationally representative survey on attitudes and behaviors that has been administered since 1972. The GSS uses a multi-stage stratified sample of adults living in the United States (Smith et al., 2012).

The sample size of the combined GSS is 8528. But the question of job insecurity was only asked for a segment of the sample (N = 2768), in particular, those who are working or with a job. Given our focus on couples, we remove respondents with no spouse (N = 1326). After further excluding cases missing on any variable used in our analysis, the size of our final analytic sample is 1047 (mostly due to non-response of income).

### *Measures*

#### *Dependent Variables*

*Work-to-family conflict* asks "How often do the demands of your job interfere with your family life?" It is reverse-coded so that higher scores indicate more conflict (1-4, from "never," "rarely," "sometimes" to "often").

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

### *Primary Independent Variables*

*Perceived job insecurity* was measured using one question “Thinking about the next 12 months, how likely do you think it is that you will lose your job or be laid off—very likely, fairly likely, not too likely, or not at all likely?” We reverse coded this measure so that higher scores indicate greater job insecurity, ranging from 1 to 4.

### *Potential Moderators*

We present models separately for men and women to assess *gender* differences. Class is operationalized with *personal income*, measuring earnings from all sources before taxes or other deductions. Respondents were asked to choose one group that best described their income from a range of categories from under \$1,000 to \$150,000 or over. We divided income into three groups, with cutoffs determined from the distribution of the men and women samples. The first group, representing the lower class, comprises those reporting income below the first quartile (category of \$35,000 to \$39,999 for men and category of \$15,000 to \$17,499 for women). The second middle-class group comprises those reporting income between the categories of \$40,000 to \$49,999 and \$75,000 to \$89,999 for men (inclusive), and between the categories of \$17,500 to \$19,999 and \$40,000 to \$49,999 for women (inclusive). The third group, the upper class, comprises those reporting income above the fourth quartile (\$90,000 for men and \$50,000 for women).

*Breadwinner status* represents respondents’ contribution to household income. We use the midpoint to code each income category, and then divide personal income by household income.

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

### *Control Variables*

In multivariate analyses we adjusted for key socio-demographic characteristics, including race (white, black, and other), age, and whether any household member is younger than 18. SES characteristics are controlled for as well, such as education (college = 1), household income (logged), and occupation (managerial, professional, white-collar, and blue-collar workers). We further adjust for spouses' labor force attachment (spouse not working versus spouse working full or part time). Two gender ideology measures are included. Respondents were asked whether they strongly disagree, disagree, agree, or strongly agree with the statement that "It is much better for everyone involved if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family." The other question is a 1-5 response to the statement "Family life often suffers because men concentrate too much on their work" (strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree). Lastly, in all analysis we control year dummies to capture any differences due to the Great Recession.

### *Analytic Strategy*

Analyses were conducted in STATA 11.2 SE. To examine whether job insecurity is associated with work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 1), we estimate an OLS model with job insecurity as a main predictor, controlling for socio-demographic characteristics. The same model is then estimated separately by gender (Hypothesis 2) and by gender and class (Hypothesis 3). Lastly, we interact job insecurity (centered) with respondents' contribution to household income (centered) to understand whether within-household income arrangements modify the relationship between job insecurity and conflict from the work to the family domain (Hypothesis 4). All descriptive statistics and estimated models are weighted.

## RESULTS

### *Descriptive Summaries*

Weighted means or percentages of dependent and independent variables are presented in Table 1. Descriptive statistics are first shown for the whole sample and then separately by gender. The last column reports whether there are significant differences between men and women, based on *t*-tests.

On average, respondents report work-to-family conflict at 2.36 on a 1-4 scale, between “rarely” and “sometimes” having conflicts spilling over from work over to family. Note that men report significantly higher levels of work-to-family conflict than do women (2.46 vs. 2.24,  $p < .001$ ). Reported job insecurity is 1.49, between “not at all likely” and “not too likely” of losing their jobs or being laid off. Women earn significantly lower than do men (\$39,061 vs. \$61,630,  $p < .001$ ), and contribute less to household income compared with men (47% vs. 68% among men,  $p < .001$ ).

As for the demographic composition, slightly less than half of the sample consists of women (46%), 79% are white, and their ages range from 20 to 88 with a mean of 45. About two in five have at least one child younger than 18 living at home. Fully 37% are college educated. The largest occupational group is white-collar workers (37%), followed by blue-collar workers (24%), whereas managers and professionals make up for 16% and 22% of our sample. About 71% have a full- or part-time working spouse, especially for women respondents (82% vs. 62% among men respondents,  $p < .001$ ).

(Insert Table 1 about here)

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

### *Job Insecurity Predicting Work-to-Family Conflict but with Gender Differences*

#### *(Hypotheses 1 and 2)*

In Model 1 of Table 2, we establish that job insecurity is indeed a significant predictor of work-to-family conflict, and Models 2 and 3 examine whether the association between job insecurity and work-to-family conflict differs between men and women. Consistent with Hypothesis 1, each additional unit of job insecurity is associated with 0.096 point greater level of work-to-family conflict ( $p < .05$ , Model 1), controlling for a number of socio-demographic characteristics. Gender differences are detected as well, providing support for the “gender contingencies of mental and emotional labor” thesis (Hypothesis 2b). Each additional level of job insecurity predicts 0.152 ( $p < .05$ , Model 3) point higher work-to-family conflict in women, but is not associated with men’s assessment of work-to-family conflict. (Model 2).

(Insert Table 2 about here)

### *Class Differences in the Job Insecurity/Work-to-Family Conflict Link (Hypothesis 3)*

We next examine whether the relationship between job insecurity and work-to-family conflict varies across class as operationalized by income. Table 3 indicates that, as expected in Hypothesis 3, middle-class women are particularly susceptible to higher levels of job insecurity, translating into higher work-to-family conflict. Controlling for socio-demographic characteristics, each additional level of job insecurity predicts 0.220 ( $p < .05$ ) point higher work-to-family conflict for middle-class women (earning between \$17,500 to \$49,999), but has no predictive power for women respondents with lower or higher income. Men respondents do not



## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

seem to be affected (in terms of work-family conflict) by job insecurity, regardless of their class membership.

(Insert Table 3 about here)

### *Breadwinner Status as a Predictor and Moderator in the Job Insecurity/Work-to-Family Conflict Relationship (Hypothesis 4)*

Lastly, we add respondents' contribution to household income. We find this measure is both directly related to work-to-family conflict, and, as predicted in Hypothesis 4, modifies the relationship between job insecurity and work-to-family conflict, but only among women.

(Insert Table 4 about here)

For women at the top of the income distribution (earning a minimum of \$50,000), contributing more to the household income is associated with higher levels of work-to-family conflict (.827,  $p < .05$ ). In addition, for women in the lowest-earning group, as they contribute more to household income, the association between job insecurity and work-to-family conflict becomes ever strengthened (interaction term .866,  $p < .01$ ). As shown in Figure 1, when these lower-class women contribute 20% of household income, job insecurity translates into negligible work-to-family conflict; but as they contribute more, higher levels of job insecurity predicts noticeably higher work-to-family conflict. By contrast, no such pattern is observed for men or women with higher income.

(Insert Figure 1 about here)

## **Discussion**

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

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## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

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JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

**Table 1: Descriptive Statistics**

	<b>Overall (N = 1047)</b>		<b>Men (N = 562)</b>		<b>Women (N = 485)</b>		
	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	
Work to Family Conflict (1-4)	2.36	0.94	2.46	0.93	2.24	0.94	***
Job Insecurity (1-4)	1.49	0.78	1.49	0.8	1.49	0.75	
Personal Income	51161	43198	61630	46563	39061	35313	***
Household Income	89723	53601	92192	55957	86870	50650	*
Ratio Personal/Household Income	58%	0.28	68%	0.25	47%	0.27	***
Women	46%	0.5					
Race							
White	79%	0.41	77%	0.42	81%	0.39	
Black	8%	0.28	8%	0.27	9%	0.29	
Other	13%	0.33	15%	0.36	10%	0.3	
Age	45.39	11.89	46.1	11.97	44.57	11.74	*
Child < 18 at Home	43%	0.5	44%	0.5	42%	0.49	
College	37%	0.48	35%	0.48	39%	0.49	
Occupation							
Managerial	16%	0.37	17%	0.37	15%	0.36	
Professional	22%	0.42	15%	0.36	30%	0.46	***
White-collar	37%	0.48	27%	0.44	49%	0.5	***
Blue-collar	24%	0.43	41%	0.49	5%	0.23	***
Spouse Working	71%	0.45	62%	0.48	82%	0.39	***
"Better for man to work, woman tend home" (1-4)	2.17	0.82	2.31	0.79	2	0.82	***
"Men hurt family when focus on work too much" (1-5)	3.32	1.08	3.52	1.03	3.09	1.08	***
Survey Year							
2006	44%	0.5	44%	0.5	43%	0.5	**
2010	27%	0.45	25%	0.43	30%	0.46	**
2012	29%	0.45	31%	0.46	27%	0.44	

Notes: The last column provides results from t-test showing whether gender differences are statistically significant.

\*\*\* p<0.001, \*\* p<0.01, \* p<0.05, + p<0.10

JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

**Table 2: OLS Regressions Predicting Work-to-Family Conflict**

VARIABLES	Model 1 Overall	Model 2 Men	Model 3 Women
Job Insecurity (1-4)	0.096* (0.047)	0.048 (0.066)	0.152* (0.061)
Women	-0.233** (0.073)		
Race (Ref. = White)			
Black	-0.138 (0.114)	-0.199 (0.192)	-0.064 (0.134)
Other	-0.287* (0.119)	-0.246 (0.159)	-0.343+ (0.176)
Age	-0.003 (0.003)	-0.007 (0.004)	0.001 (0.004)
Child < 18 at Home	0.091 (0.078)	0.076 (0.113)	0.111 (0.099)
College	0.150* (0.070)	0.119 (0.086)	0.162 (0.115)
Logged Household Income	0.040 (0.057)	0.052 (0.099)	0.014 (0.073)
Occupation (Ref. = Managerial)			
Professional	-0.086 (0.078)	0.084 (0.111)	-0.290* (0.126)
White-collar	-0.373*** (0.079)	-0.115 (0.102)	-0.658*** (0.118)
Blue-collar	-0.285* (0.115)	-0.150 (0.135)	-0.311 (0.202)
Spouse Working	-0.011 (0.075)	-0.037 (0.098)	0.039 (0.111)
"Better for man to work, woman tend home" (1-4)	-0.007 (0.040)	-0.049 (0.062)	0.027 (0.058)
"Men hurt family when focus on work too much" (1-5)	0.043 (0.035)	0.070 (0.045)	0.019 (0.047)
Survey Year (Ref. = 2006)			
2010	0.142+ (0.078)	0.260* (0.115)	-0.002 (0.098)
2012	-0.101 (0.084)	-0.097 (0.112)	-0.122 (0.121)
Constant	2.079** (0.697)	2.025+ (1.186)	2.073* (0.878)

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Observations	1,047	562	485
R-squared	0.090	0.078	0.118

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Note: Standard errors in parentheses

\*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*  $p < 0.05$ , +  $p < 0.10$



JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

**Table 3: OLS Regressions Predicting Work-to-Family Conflict, by Personal Income Tertiles (T)**

VARIABLES	Personal Income Tertiles					
	Men			Women		
	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3
Job Insecurity (1-4)	0.068 (0.102)	0.039 (0.087)	0.078 (0.128)	0.110 (0.121)	0.220* (0.088)	0.023 (0.088)
Race (Ref. = White)						
Black	-0.225 (0.265)	-0.146 (0.271)	0.337 (0.401)	-0.223 (0.404)	-0.108 (0.186)	-0.213 (0.304)
Other	0.363 (0.254)	-0.535** (0.173)	0.066 (0.224)	-0.463 (0.298)	-0.348 (0.319)	-0.320+ (0.173)
Age	-0.007 (0.006)	0.004 (0.005)	-0.020** (0.007)	-0.009 (0.007)	0.003 (0.006)	0.006 (0.008)
Child < 18 at Home	0.207 (0.172)	0.136 (0.130)	0.002 (0.192)	-0.005 (0.193)	0.190 (0.140)	0.163 (0.170)
College	-0.190 (0.214)	0.194+ (0.114)	0.312+ (0.174)	0.210 (0.293)	0.072 (0.151)	-0.074 (0.221)
Logged Household Income	0.183 (0.172)	-0.386* (0.170)	0.505 (0.336)	-0.016 (0.093)	-0.162 (0.126)	-0.239 (0.202)
Occupation (Ref. = Managerial)						
Professional	0.048 (0.378)	0.194 (0.161)	0.010 (0.199)	0.044 (0.340)	-0.120 (0.199)	-0.292+ (0.161)
White-collar	-0.061 (0.234)	-0.116 (0.138)	0.294 (0.221)	-0.095 (0.330)	-0.559** (0.168)	-0.736** (0.217)
Blue-collar	-0.121 (0.251)	-0.058 (0.153)	0.073 (0.251)	-0.150 (0.376)	0.024 (0.340)	-0.908** (0.288)
Spouse Working	-0.144 (0.224)	-0.015 (0.141)	0.254 (0.160)	0.387 (0.238)	-0.031 (0.176)	0.144 (0.208)
"Better for man to work, woman tend home" (1-4)	-0.216* (0.099)	0.049 (0.080)	0.079 (0.120)	0.165+ (0.094)	0.045 (0.090)	-0.030 (0.107)
"Men hurt family when focus on work too much" (1-5)	0.140 (0.092)	-0.014 (0.046)	0.096 (0.089)	0.058 (0.091)	-0.040 (0.068)	0.121+ (0.070)
Survey Year (Ref. = 2006)						
2010	0.542** (0.187)	0.300+ (0.168)	0.093 (0.215)	-0.224 (0.238)	0.097 (0.164)	-0.031 (0.210)
2012	0.067 (0.205)	-0.069 (0.146)	-0.037 (0.145)	-0.008 (0.276)	-0.277+ (0.163)	0.012 (0.165)
Constant	0.463 (1.814)	6.526** (1.937)	-3.433 (3.996)	1.654 (1.099)	3.960** (1.480)	5.017* (2.348)

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Observations	183	276	103	126	244	115
R-squared	0.129	0.141	0.197	0.100	0.143	0.205

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Note: Standard errors in parentheses

\*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*  $p < 0.05$ , +  $p < 0.10$

JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

**Table 4: OLS Regressions Predicting Work-to-Family Conflict, by Personal and Household Income Tertiles**

VARIABLES	Personal Income Tertiles					
	Men			Women		
	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3
Job Insecurity (1-4) (centered)	0.071 (0.104)	0.042 (0.085)	0.021 (0.173)	0.113 (0.115)	0.225* (0.088)	-0.031 (0.080)
Ratio Personal/Household Income (centered)	-0.005 (0.327)	0.182 (0.455)	0.507 (0.494)	-0.765 (0.524)	-0.309 (0.503)	0.827* (0.371)
Job Insecurity * Ratio (centered)	-0.172 (0.328)	-0.294 (0.345)	-0.749 (0.643)	0.866** (0.268)	-0.122 (0.464)	0.476 (0.405)
Race (Ref. = White)						
Black	-0.248 (0.274)	-0.164 (0.277)	0.474 (0.370)	-0.012 (0.389)	-0.094 (0.185)	-0.295 (0.311)
Other	0.354 (0.260)	-0.532** (0.174)	0.101 (0.233)	-0.390 (0.295)	-0.331 (0.318)	-0.438* (0.204)
Age	-0.007 (0.006)	0.005 (0.005)	-0.021** (0.007)	-0.004 (0.006)	0.003 (0.006)	-0.003 (0.009)
Child < 18 at Home	0.204 (0.172)	0.143 (0.130)	0.014 (0.194)	0.094 (0.189)	0.184 (0.140)	0.051 (0.174)
College	-0.177 (0.217)	0.195+ (0.111)	0.260 (0.173)	0.197 (0.302)	0.087 (0.156)	-0.126 (0.220)
Logged Household Income	0.176 (0.168)	-0.323 (0.257)	0.576 (0.357)	-0.174 (0.109)	-0.268 (0.216)	-0.036 (0.232)
Occupation (Ref. = Managerial)						
Professional	0.027 (0.379)	0.193 (0.158)	-0.003 (0.205)	0.010 (0.304)	-0.111 (0.198)	-0.227 (0.155)
White-collar	-0.087 (0.246)	-0.121 (0.137)	0.278 (0.211)	-0.047 (0.286)	-0.548** (0.168)	-0.652** (0.225)
Blue-collar	-0.125 (0.252)	-0.054 (0.151)	-0.001 (0.246)	-0.254 (0.335)	0.036 (0.339)	-0.841** (0.279)
Spouse Working	-0.135 (0.218)	0.020 (0.144)	0.295+ (0.165)	0.484* (0.223)	-0.042 (0.181)	0.269 (0.211)
"Better for man to work, woman tend home" (1-4)	-0.213* (0.100)	0.048 (0.080)	0.058 (0.120)	0.097 (0.087)	0.036 (0.087)	-0.006 (0.104)
"Men hurt family when focus on work too much" (1-5)	0.138 (0.090)	-0.020 (0.046)	0.093 (0.084)	0.057 (0.082)	-0.038 (0.067)	0.148* (0.069)
Survey Year (Ref. = 2006)						
2010	0.519* (0.100)	0.309+ (0.080)	0.141 (0.084)	-0.221 (0.082)	0.094 (0.067)	0.023 (0.069)

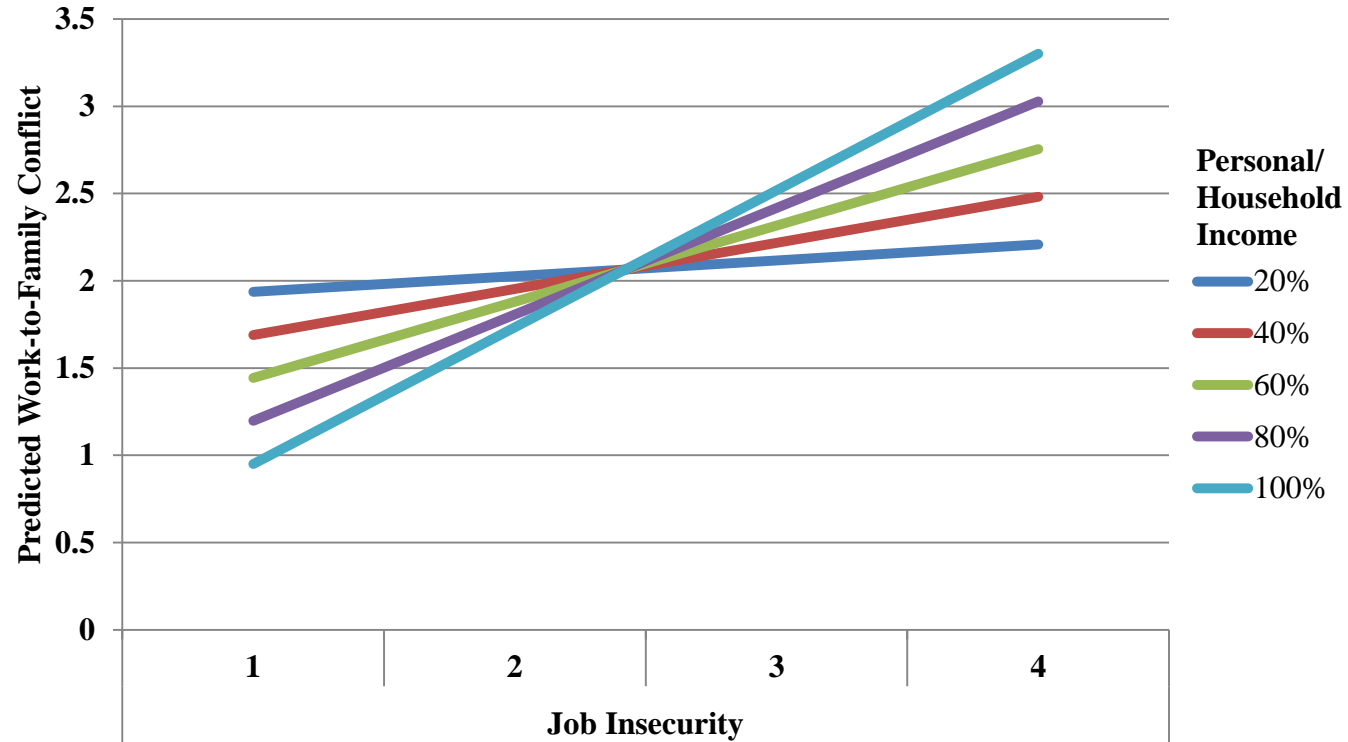
JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

	(0.199)	(0.171)	(0.213)	(0.224)	(0.162)	(0.218)
2012	0.063	-0.052	0.005	0.073	-0.280+	0.062
	(0.205)	(0.149)	(0.146)	(0.263)	(0.163)	(0.169)
Constant	0.682	5.837*	-4.100	3.259*	5.473*	2.874
	(1.831)	(2.867)	(4.241)	(1.356)	(2.479)	(2.706)
Observations	183	276	103	126	244	115
R-squared	0.131	0.144	0.219	0.142	0.145	0.241

Note: Standard errors in parentheses

\*\*\* p<0.001, \*\* p<0.01, \* p<0.05, + p<0.10

## JOB INSECURITY AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT



**Figure 1: Breadwinner Status Moderates the Relationship between Job Insecurity and Work-Family Conflict**