

Master's Thesis

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HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

FATHERS' EXPERIENCE OF PATERNITY LEAVE

Comparison between years 2007-2016

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Abstract

This Master thesis aims to investigate legislation no. 95/2000 on maternity/paternity leave and whether it is still serving its original twofold purpose; e.g. providing children an equal presence of both mother and father in the first forming months of life and secondly enabling both parents to effectively interweave work and personal life. The study aims to explore fathers' experience of paternity leave and to see how their experience has possibly evolved in terms of the great changes e.g. economic crisis, the wage ceiling and the increased emphasis of father's participation in terms of care responsibilities. An online questionnaire, which included for example questions on Work Family Conflict, Work Family Enrichment, and the relationship with child, organizational support and other demographic variables, was sent to fathers. Out of 1000 fathers, 410 fathers responded in 2016, but 683 fathers answered in 2007. Results showed that in 2016 fewer fathers are using their individual right of paternity leave as well as taking less of shared parental leave. There was less difference between 2007 and 2016 of paternity leave taking in terms of education levels compared to previous research and those fathers who took longer paternity leave expressed that the relationship with their child was better than according to those who took shorter leave.

Keywords

Work-family balance – Work family conflict – Work family Enrichment - Paternity leave
- Support - Icelandic fathers

Útdráttur

Í þessari meistararitgerð verður sjónum beint að hvort markmiðum fæðingarorlofslöggjafarinnar nr. 95/2000 sé að einhverju leyti náð, þ.e. annars vegar að tryggja að barn njóti samvista við báða foreldra og hins vegar að gera bæði konum og körlum kleift að samræma fjölskyldu- og atvinnulíf. Markmið rannsóknarinnar er að kanna reynslu feðra af feðraorlofi og skoða hvort upplifun feðra hafi hugsanlega breyst vegna þess umróts sem orðið hefur þ.e. efnahagshrunið, þak á greiðslur í fæðingarorlofi og hin aukna áhersla á feður sem virka þátttakendur í uppeldi og umönnun barna sinna. Rafrænn spurningalisti var sendur út til feðra og innihélt hann sem dæmi spurningar um Vinnu-Fjölskyldu togstreitu, Vinnu – Fjölskyldu auðgun, tengslamyndun við barn, stuðning frá vinnustað og aðrar bakrunnsbreytur. Af 1000 feðrum, voru 410 feður sem svöruðu árið 2016, en 683 feður svöruðu árið 2007. Niðurstöður rannsóknarinnar árið 2016, sýndu að færri feður nýta sér óskiptanlegan rétt sinn til feðraorlofs og einnig nýta þeir minna af sameiginlegum rétti. Minni munur var á milli 2007 og 2016 á menntunarstigi og töku feðraorlofs heldur en feður sem tóku lengra orlof töldu sig eiga betra samband við barn sitt en þeir feður sem tóku styttra orlof.

Lykilorð

Vinnu-Fjölskyldu Jafnvægi – Vinnu-Fjölskyldu Togstreita – Vinnu-Fjölskyldu Auðgun - Feðraorlof - Stuðningur - Íslenskir feður

Preface

This research is a 30 ECTS final project for my MSc. degree in Human Resource Management and Organizational Behavior. The process of writing a thesis requires patience, discipline, determination and many other personality traits I did not know I had in me. It takes time and effort to deliver a project like this and I could not have done that without certain people in my life. I want to sincerely thank my whole family and friends for all the support I have received for the last five years I have spent studying. A special thanks go to my husband Jóhannes W. Grétarsson for motivating me when times got difficult and my children for showing me endless love all the time. Last but not least I want to thank my supervisor Dr. Auður Arna Arnardóttir for all the useful advice and the help she has provided with while writing this thesis and finally to Sigrún Þorsteinsdóttir reading through the materials.

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1. Introduction

The birthrate in Iceland has decreased in the last years or since the maximum payments from maternity/paternity leave fund were reduced (Velferðarráðuneytið, 2016). However, many fathers want to spend more time with their child/children and wish to work fewer working hours to be able to take on care responsibilities and be a part of the upbringing (Fréttatíminn, 2016). The long-standing view of fathers being the sole breadwinners and mothers being caregivers only is waning. Results from a study conducted by Arnalds, Eydal and Gíslason (2013) shows that parents are becoming more equally involved in caregiving responsibilities of their first child than prior to legislation no. 95/2000. These results are in accordance with the aim of legislation no. 95/2000, to balance the roles of both men and women on the labour market and at home.

In light of the major changes to the legislation in recent years e.g. the low wage ceiling of 350.000 ISK, the consequences seem to have been an increased reduction in payments of maternity/paternity leave since fewer fathers are using their rights of paid paternity leave. The purpose of this current research is going a step towards finding out if legislation no. 95/2000 on maternity/paternity leave is serving its original twofold purpose of providing children an equal presence of both mother and father in the first forming months of life and secondly enabling both parents to effectively interweave work and personal life. This research will hopefully provide some insight into how Icelandic fathers experience paternity leave and what impact its use can have on various personal and work related factors. In this research the main focus will be on how fathers experience paternity leave in general, how they perceive their employer's and coworker's perspective regarding paternity leave taking and how well they manage to balance work- and family-life. This research can be enriched with a comparison of results from a previous study conducted in 2007 by Arnardóttir, Hafsteinsson and Hreinsson,.) with the objective to compare certain factors across time and try to shed light on where possible differences emerge in fathers' experience of paternity leave between the years 2007-2016.

Fathers in Iceland have not always enjoyed the privileges of being able to take paternity leave. Before any rules or legislations were made on this matter it was commonplace for the father to work outside of the home and to be the sole provider for the family, while women stayed at home and took care of the child/children as well as the household (Gíslason, 2007). Society's changed perspectives on fathers and fatherhood has reared a new generation of fathers. With the increased participation of women in the labour market, the deep-rooted gender roles have diminished and the modern father has

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replaced the old view of what fatherhood used to be like. The modern father serves a dual role, the father-role and the employee-role. This is somewhat different from how it used to be when the father mostly had a single role e.g. to be the main provider for his family (Fréttatíminn, 2016; Gíslason, 2007). The dual role requires different responsibilities from each role. It can be challenging to take care of the responsibilities at home. For example to nurture and feed the child/children, get everyone safely to kindergarten or school and other activities the children are involved in as well as cooking and other house-chores and first and foremost to be there and be available for the child 24/7. This in itself takes up a fair portion of a parent's day. In the employee-role, fathers must show up to work, be prepared to take on a work-load and finish other job related tasks to meet the requirements from supervisors and coworkers. It is a challenge to successfully balance these two roles and to prevent any conflicts from occurring when the pressure is extremely high from both home and work domains.

In 2000 the Icelandic parliament confirmed legislation no. 95/2000 which aimed at providing children with an equal presence of both mother and father, as well as enabling both parents to effectively interweave work and personal life. The entitlement of parental leave was lengthened from six months to nine months, with three months being set aside for the mother, another three designated for the father and the remaining three months for the parents to divide between them. This legislation was supposed to give fathers the opportunity to actively take care of their newborns from the beginning and to enable them to take on more load of care responsibilities. The emergence of legislation no. 95/2000 was promising from the beginning with the percentage of fathers going on paternity leave increasing significantly (Arnalds et al., 2013; Gíslason, 2007). In 2008 the economic crisis hit Iceland hard and there was a subsequent steep decline in number of fathers taking paternity leave (Eydal & Gíslason, 2015). Research conducted in 2007, prior to the economic crisis, looked into whether legislation no. 95/2000 on maternity and paternity leave had affected employment, family- and home life, in any way. Results from the study showed that the objectives of legislation no. 95/2000 were partially achieved (Arnardóttir et al., 2007). However, according to Kristín Ásgeirsdóttir (Vísir, 2014) manager of Equality Rights in Iceland, the benefits of the legislation were decreasing very fast from what they were in the first years after the legislation was put in force. Taken together, it can be questioned if the two folded objective of the legislation, is currently being reached.

One of the largest changes in people's lives is when they bring a child into the world. Having a child will affect an individual's life in many ways and it can require one

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to take maternity/paternity leave and stay at home with the newborn. The newborn child requires parents to engage in childcare responsibilities that are associated with the child's needs. The responsibilities that follow after having a child, can for example affect the mother or the father in his or her role on the labour market. In terms of the major changes that have affected the labour market through the years, more parents are working outside of the home, as an example, and the emphasis on work family balance has been increased (Carlson, Grzywacz & Zivnуска, 2009). For example how balance is experienced, considering conflicts and enrichment, working hours, job position, marital satisfaction, age of children etc. (Annor, 2014; Carlson et al., 2009). The reasons for taking paternity leave can be family- or work related as well as due to personal matters. The consequences of work-family conflict can be family-, or work related and due to personal matters (Allen, Herst, Bruck & Sutton, 2000). Personal outcomes for higher work-family conflict have been linked to poorer physical and mental health (Van Steenbergen & Ellemers, 2009) and higher work-family conflict in the work domain has been linked to lower job satisfaction, less organizational commitment, lower job performance, higher staff turnover and increased absenteeism (Allen et al., 2000; Shockley & Singla, 2011). Therefore, various factors related to the organization can impact on the probability of the father taking a paternity leave. Factors such as organizational support, job security, employment status and other circumstances related to the workplace can reduce the probability of conflicts (Sundström & Duvander, 2002). Within the family domain, increased work-family conflict has been linked to lower marital satisfaction, lower satisfaction with the family and lower family performance (Allen et al., 2000). When work- and family responsibilities cannot be combined successfully, it can create conflicts in such ways that it is impossible for an individual to stand up to the required expectations at home due to work and vice versa (Greenhaus & Singh, 2003). Research has shown that increased working hours cause greater conflict between work and family responsibilities which can result in greater stress for employees (Burnett, Coleman, Houlston & Reynolds, 2012). This study will look into whether there are differences in the level of work-family conflict experienced by fathers in 2007 and 2016. Also, it will look at how fathers perceive employer's and coworker's perspective regarding paternity leave taking i.e. whether fathers who experience greater organizational support, experience less work-family conflict and more work-family enrichment.

This research is a comparison between the research conducted in 2007 by Arnardóttir and colleagues on fathers' experience with the wage ceiling set at 600.000

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ISK and the experience of fathers today in 2016 with the wage ceiling lowered to 350.000 ISK in the wake of the financial crisis. Prior to the wage ceiling, payments from the maternity/paternity leave fund were income related and parents who had at least a 25% employment ratio on the domestic labour market received 80% of their average income during their maternity/paternity leave taking (Arnalds, Eydal & Gíslason, 2015). In 2004 a wage ceiling of 480.000 ISK was set (present value 895.271 ISK). In 2009 the wage ceiling was lowered down to 300.000 ISK (present value 362.826 ISK) and subsequently increased to 350.000 ISK (present value 366.303) in 2013 (Eydal & Gíslason; Hagstofa Íslands, 2016c). Thus, the wage ceiling affected a larger number of families than before. As mentioned above, there was a significant increase in paternity leave taking after legislation no. 95/2000 was put into effect and results from the study conducted in 2007 showed that approximately 92% of fathers from that particular sample, used their three months of paternity leave either in part or in full, but the three months set aside for both parents were mainly used by mothers (Arnardóttir et al., 2007). The research also showed that fathers felt that the relationship with the child was stronger and they expressed more joy in taking care of the child, as well as increasing their understanding on the efforts involved in being the caregiver. In summary, legislation no. 95/2000 had strengthened the relationship between the fathers and their children. In this research, results will be compared to the study conducted in 2007, which was prior to the wage ceiling being lowered. The author assumes that there will be clear differences in the patterns of how fathers use their paternity leave, as well in how the fathers' paternal experience has altered over the years.

This thesis is divided into four main chapters. The first chapter provides an introduction and a literature review, with an overview of how gender equality has increased through the years, emphasizing the development of the father's role and how it has changed due to altered cultural perspectives within our current society. The emergence of the maternity/paternity legislation no. 95/2000 e.g. the twofold aim of it and what its current situation is today will also be investigated. The benefits of experiencing balance in both work and home domains will be discussed along with the consequences of conflicts interfering within these two domains. The second chapter will provide information on the methodology. The participants will be described, the procedure of how the research was conducted as well as what statistical analysis was used for processing the data. The third chapter includes a statistical analysis of the results. Chapter four includes discussion and answers to the research questions as well as a

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comparison of the results between the studies conducted in 2007 and 2016. The discussion chapter also includes a short evaluation of the research e.g. strengths, weaknesses and possible limitations.

1.1 Literature review

1.1.1 Maternity/Paternity/Parental Leave

According to Moss (2009) the absence of parents from the labour market is often referred to as leave. Maternity leave, paternity leave and parental leave are the most common leaves (Moss, 2009). Maternity leave is meant for mothers after they give birth to a child. Paternity leave is for fathers, and is not transferable to the mother if the father decides not to use his right. The objectives of maternity/paternity leave are to enhance and develop the relationship between parents and their child and to enable both parents to successfully reconcile home and work. According to the legislation no. 95/2000, a contract for employees who take maternity/paternity leave should remain unchanged during the leave taking, thus, parents who are taking leave are provided work security on their time off from their workplace (Gíslason, 2007). Parental leave on the other hand gives parents the opportunity to divide the leave in a way that is best suitable to them (Moss, 2009). Parents in Iceland can use their parental leave until the child turns eight years old (Gíslason, 2007).

1.1.2 Maternity and Paternity Leave in the Nordic Countries

The industrialization, in the beginning of the 19th century, had a profound effect on the Nordic labour market (Valdimarsdóttir, 2005). The changes were especially pronounced for women, mainly because they were given the opportunity to work outside of the home. The traditional role of women had been to stay at home, tend to household-chores and look after the children at the same time. Women who worked outside of the home often had to bring their children with them, which made it hard for them to take proper care and be attentive of them. Instead, the caretaking was often left in the hands of older children or other relatives. Due to the industrialization and the increased participation of women in the labour market, the urge for change increased, with an emphasis on women's rights. Nordic countries e.g. Norway, Sweden and Denmark, confirmed laws on maternity leave in the late 19th and early 20th century. The laws only applied to women on the labour market where they were prohibited to work by their employer. The laws were mainly seen as protection for the mother and her child/children with the aim to put their health as a

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priority. No commitments were made regarding payments or work guarantee during their leave (Valdimarsdóttir, 2005). For the first time since 1946, a legislation on maternity leave was put forward in Iceland. It was not until 1981 that shared parental leave was introduced to parents, where mothers were obligated to take the first month after giving birth and then parents could divide the next two months between them. In 1990 all Nordic countries had an active legislation, although Iceland offered the shortest period of leave; six months compared to 12 months in Sweden (Valdimarsdóttir, 2005). At a conference held in 1975 on equal rights for men and women, one of the discussion topics was the importance of fathers taking one or two weeks' leave following childbirth. The arguments put forward for fathers taking leave so early was that women were not able to take care of the newborn child, as they would need to rest and recover in the first week. Also there was an increased emphasis on the fathers' relationship with the newborn child and that this parental bond needed to be developed from the very beginning (Gíslason, 2007). According to Gíslason (2007), it was the first time this kind of a discussion occurred in public, e.g. the right for fathers to take paternity leave. At this point in time gender equality on the labour market and at home was not current in the general zeitgeist or seen as a reason for fathers taking paternity leave (Gíslason, 2007). Today, society's perspective has change into encouraging fathers to use their rights of paternity leave and to leave behind the old perspective e.g. on fathers being the breadwinners and women the main caregivers (Haas, Allard & Hwang, 2002). Paternity leave is a known phenomenon in Europe and is offered in several countries such as Sweden which has had oldest active legislation regarding paternity leave, since 1974. Sweden has increased emphasis on offering fathers paternity leave with the aim of making the father equally as important as the mother e.g. in terms of nurturing the child and developing an emotional attachment with it as well (Haas et al., 2002). Iceland has been lagging behind other Nordic countries regarding laws and regulations on maternity/paternity leave. In Norway, the first laws on maternity leave were taken into force in 1892, with Sweden, Denmark and Finland following soon after. Iceland has always been slower than these countries to adopt and confirm similar laws, and to upgrade and improve current laws (Valdimarsdóttir, 2005).

1.2 Attachment Development

The concept of attachment can be described as a loving and/or a caring relationship. This has been used to define the relationship that is built and developed between parents and their children (Honig, 2002). The attachment theory by John Bowlby states that the children have a primary need in terms of protection and security provided by their parents

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(Bowlby, 1988). Newborn children are born with the ability to bond with their caregiver from the beginning. The child's relationship with, and the attachment to the parent is important for its future development and subsequent attachments (Gíslason, 2008; Kjartansdóttir, 2009).

The first stage of an attachment between parents and child often begins when the mother is pregnant, continuing until the birth of the child. After birth, the relationship with the parents usually continues to strengthen and develop (Haut, Peddicord & O'Brien, 1994). According to law, all children have the right to enjoy care from both parents and a father's use of paternity leave makes it possible for children to enjoy the presence of both parents, which creates a closer relationship for children with their fathers (Brandth & Gíslason, 2011).

For the first three months, parents' interactions with their child is important. In this context interaction refers to parents noticing communicative signals from the child, e.g. the child responding to touch and eye contact as well as play. If these aspects are emphasized it could assist parents in bonding with their child during the first weeks and months of its life (Bretherton, 1985).

Times have changed in terms of how fathers spend time, and develop relationships with, their offspring. Lamb and colleagues (Lamb, Frodi, Hwang, Frodi & Steinberg, 1982) stated that there were differences in how mothers and fathers built their attachment to their child. The time fathers spent with their children was more characterized by play and entertainment, whereas the time spent with the mother was more characterized by caretaking. The time fathers spend with their children is also often spent in the presence of the mother (Craig, 2006; Silver, 2000). In one study, mothers held their children, gently caring for them, smiling and sweet-talking, and in turn, the fathers were more actively playing and interacting with them on the basis of their physical strength (Lamb et al., 1982). Interestingly, Lamb (2010) noticed in his research 28 years later, that mothers were playing with their children as much as the fathers and the fathers did not show less love or kindness than the mothers did. It was the quality of the interaction that mattered in relation to the attachment formation, not the duration of the time spent with the children. Lamb also stated that the quality of time fathers spend with their child can predict how future relationships between the father and the child will develop (Lamb, 2010). Further research conducted by Habib and Lancaster (2005) explored how work could have impact on the development of the relationship between father and child. Those fathers who spent time with their child post work developed a stronger relationship with their child than

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those who did not. The results also showed that those fathers who developed stronger relationships with their children also spent more time with them (Habib & Lancaster, 2005). Pruett (1995) stated that fathers experience their role of fatherhood as limited due to the mother being the main caretaker and therefore they try to imitate her behavior. Further research has also indicated differences in how fathers stimulate play with their children compared to mothers. Fathers tend to use fewer toys, motivating their children's curiosity and determination in solving mental and physical puzzles (Pruett, 1995).

When fathers attend the birth of their child, they are provided with a unique opportunity to participate in this journey that is childbirth. They, as is the mother, are provided with the opportunity to hold their child and make eye contact with it from the very first moments. These factors do enhance the formation of attachment between the father and the child (Wieser & Castiglia, 1984). According to Donovan (1995), fathers can feel rejected right after the birth of their child since this is the period when the mother and the child are receiving the most attention and the mother's focus is almost solely on the newborn. Bonney, Kelly and Levant (1999) stated that every child is special and it does not matter if it is your first, second or third child, the experience of a newborn is special. How this journey is experienced, depends on the father and his views on his role as a caretaker. Previously, societal factors were regarded as the main forming agent of the relationship between father and child (Bonney et al., 1999). According to (Bonney et al., 1999) the mothers can have a great impact on how much time fathers spend with their child e.g. if they have enough trust towards the father as a caretaker. Research has shown that if the mother trusts and allows the father to be responsible in the caretaker role it can increase the father's confidence and interest in taking care of the child's needs. Fathers tend to show more understanding of the child's needs when they have the opportunity to spend alone-time with it (O'Brien, Brandth & Kvande, 2007). Research has also shown that fathers who take longer paternity leave when the mother has returned to work, develop their own caregiving methods (Brandth & Kvande, 2003).

The participation of fathers as caretakers shows that they are equally important to the child as the mother, and those fathers who spend their time in this role have a more positive view towards being a father (Bonney et al., 1999). Research has further indicated that fathers who actively participate in their children's lives can have an impact on their social- and emotional development. Thus, taking paternity leave can be likened to an investing in the child's wellbeing. The more time spent with the child the more it increases the participation of the father in the child's life (Rege & Solli, 2010).

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1.3 The Role of Fathers

Throughout the years, the fathers's role has been changing, especially their increased participation in the initial caregiving of the child. Fathers have a participatory role in the pregnancy and the birth itself, seeing themselves as active participants from the beginning (Chandler & Field, 1997).

Williams (2008) conducted a research on what it meant to be a father. He collected data from male participants whereas they described their views on their roles as fathers. Results showed that the fathers experienced their role as being a parent to the child on equal basis as the mother, actively participating in the daily life of the child, and securing both its safety and the wellness. The fathers felt like it was their responsibility to provide financial safety so that their family would never have to experience scarcity. The fathers agreed that those who actively participated in their children's lives would gain the most satisfaction from it (Williams, 2008). Gíslason (2002) states that gender does not have an impact on the quality of the relationship a parent has with its child, it is the person who takes care of the child who will form a bond with it, regardless of whether that is the mother or the father (Gíslason, 2002). When fathers became more involved in the caregiver role, their responses were similar to the mothers' and it became clearer that fathers' emotions are similar to those of mothers' (Gíslason, 2002). The societal perspective has changed regarding the role of fathers e.g. the fathers are expected to participate from the beginning of pregnancy until the birth and the majority of the time, they are required to be present during the birth of the child. In addition, there has been an increased participation in home life in terms of care responsibilities and parenting (Gíslason, 1997).

According to Wall and Arnold (2007) the expectations of fathers regarding the childcare has increased. Modern fathers nurture their children, their relationship is closer and they have a deeper emotional involvement. They are also enjoying the work and taking care of the needs of their child with their spouse. This is in accordance with results from the research conducted by Arnardóttir et al. (2007), however, there is an ongoing debate regarding the view on the "modern" father with regards to cultural differences and how much effort is actually provided by fathers in terms of caretaking. Research has indicated that the participation of fathers is greater than it used to be 30 years ago, but still the mother is seen as the main caregiver when it comes to young children (Wall & Arnold, 2007). Many fathers express that they would like to spend more time with their children and that they feel strained at work due to long working hours, therefore having

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less time to spend with their children (Milkie, Mattingly, Nomaguchi, Bianchi, and Robinson, 2004). Research has also indicated a certain consensus among fathers in where they express that there is a shared responsibility regarding parenting and caretaking (Milkie, Bianchi, Mattingly & Robinson, 2002). Much of the prior research in this field has pointed out the importance of development of attachment between fathers and their children and that there is a clear evidence that this attachment is very similar to the attachment between a mother and her child. Thus, both the mother and the father are considered equally important for a child's healthy development (Ludolph & Dale, 2012).

1.3.1 Gender Based Perspectives

A study conducted in 2004 by Einarsdóttir & Pétursdóttir illuminates the gender differences, based on their own perspectives on caregiving. The results indicated that the caregiving role comes more naturally to women than men. Women take on the role of responsibility at home even though the father is taking paternity leave. The fathers' perspective was that they are essential at work and they are the main providers as well (Einarsdóttir & Pétursdóttir, 2004). This has changed and fairly recent research has shown that fathers today are becoming more involved and engaged in care responsibilities of their children (Fägerskiöld, 2008). Several factors are assumed to be the main reason for mothers using more of the shared parental leave than fathers. One is that the health care system is recommending that mothers breastfeed the child until it reaches six months old (Heilsugæslan, 2008). In a published brochure from the Primary Health Care in Iceland it is stated as such:

“Breastfeeding is the greatest gift we have been given. It has a positive effect on physical and mental health of the mother and her child. This intimacy creates an opportunity for enhanced relationship and builds up a solid foundation from the beginning which can last throughout the life” (Heilsugæslan, 2008). (p. 1).

The World Health Organization (WHO) also states that breast milk is the only nutrition that a child needs for the first six months. Breastfeeding can lower the risk of infant death as well as reducing risk of diseases (WHO, 2011). According to this information, women are strongly recommended to take at least six months maternity leave. When women have finished their independent maternity leave of three months and

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the parental leave, they often take extra unpaid leave from work or work part-time jobs. If women choose not to use their parental leave it can often be related to their position in the labour market or their degree of education (Valdimarsdóttir, 2006). Highly educated women, middle managers/managers are less likely to use parental leave. They feel pressurized from their employer to go back to work as soon as possible. Alternatively it can also be that their income is very high, which motivates them to return to the labour market (Gíslason, 2007). This also applies to fathers where deciding factors on using their rights to parental leave can be, for example, their degree of education as the higher their education levels the more likely they are to take paternity leave. Job security is also positively linked to a father's usage of paternity leave (Bygren & Duvander, 2006). Fathers who earn more than an average salary are more likely to take paternity leave than those who earn less, with employment status and circumstances at the workplace being important factors as well (Sundström & Duvander, 2002).

Women have sometimes been criticized for sharing too much of the parental leave with the fathers. They have been told that they are less qualified as mothers and even as not being “good mothers” for not spending as much time as possible with the child. It is the complete opposite when fathers use parental leave, they receive great compliments and praise for willingly participating in the caregiving of the child (Gíslason, 2007).

1.4 The Importance of Providing Paternity Leave

An experiment conducted on paternity leave in 1996-1998, by the Equal Rights Committee in Reykjavík showed interesting results (Gíslason, 2007). Eight fathers, (municipal workers) participated in the experiment, and all of them received a three month paternity leave with payments. The purpose was to demonstrate the effect of fathers spending time with their children, and to show the correlation between this relationship, and being able to achieve a balance between home-life and work as well. A documentary was made on the results of the experiment which brought a lot of attention and had an impact on society's perspective (Einarsdóttir, 1998). The documentary was also meant to show the increased urge for legal changes in terms of paternity leave (Eydal & Gíslason, 2008). A survey conducted in 1997 also showed that 87.5% of fathers said they would take three months paternity leave if offered, and if it would not have an impact on the mother's rights. The same survey also showed that a decrease in income needed to be at a minimum, so fathers would claim their rights (Gíslason, 1997). At this time most

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fathers were taking leave in one way or another such as using a part of their summer holiday or unpaid leave from work.

On the 28th of April in 2000, Páll Pétursson, a former Minister of Social Affairs brought up a proposal for law on maternity and paternity leave. Minister Pétursson, stated that one of the main reasons for the gender based wage gap, was that women were more tied at home than their husbands and therefore their absence from the labour market would be increased due to childbirth. The urge for providing paid leave for fathers was necessary as Minister Páll Pétursson stated in his speech:

“The premises of men and women to be able to participate equally in the labour market and other jobs outside of the home is that they divide the caretaking of their children”

The Minister further added:

“The experience has been that many fathers have been missing out on spending time with their children”
(Alþingi, 2000).

The law was confirmed on the 6th of June, 2000, and applied to parents on the labour market for maternity and paternity leave. These legislations applied to non-working parents and students who received a maternity grant as well. The laws applied to childbirth, adoption or permanent fostering of a child. The maternity leave was now three months for mothers, three months for fathers and three months that parents could share between them as they found appropriate. Parents who were also students had the rights to a maternity grant for three months and another three months they could share which also applied to non-working parents. If one parent did not use their three months they expired since they were applicable to each parent and non-transferable. Additionally, non-paid parental leave for maximum 13 weeks was optional for parents (Laws on maternity- and parental leave no. 95/2000). Legislation no. 95/2000 was a milestone in the history of the maternity and paternity leave system. When this law was taken into force payments for people from the public sector and the private labour market were no longer discriminatory (Valdimarsdóttir, 2005). By now there was an increased emphasis on gender equality, which was one of the chief aims of law no. 95/2000 - to provide the child/children with

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an equal presence of its mother and father, as well as enabling both parents to strike a fair balance between work and their personal life.

1.4.1 Paternity Leave in Iceland- Rights for Fathers

In the year 2001 when legislation no. 95/2000 was put into force, paternity leave became more frequently used by fathers. Prior to that, their right for such leave was limited to two weeks away from work and the rest was depending on the mother, whereas she had to transfer her own right to the father. Law no. 95/2000 provided fathers with the same rights as mothers - three months of individual paternity leave. It was done stepwise, where one month was added to the paternity leave from 2001 to 2003. These laws motivated fathers to take paternity leave more than ever, and put Iceland in the front line compared to other Nordic countries in terms of fathers taking paternity leave. The aim of the paternity leave was to develop and enhance the relationship between the father and the child from the very beginning, to ensure that the bond would continue to grow after the paternity leave was over. Another objective of the paternity leave was for fathers to take on more responsibility at home to increase the equality of men and women in the labour market (Valdimarsdóttir, 2006). A summary from a Nordic audit shows that there are five factors that can increase the likelihood of fathers taking paternity leave:

1. Independent right which entails payments as well
2. The paternity leave is not transferable to the mother
3. There has to be a certain flexibility regarding the paternity leave
4. The possibility of taking leave after the child has turned six months old
5. The payments during paternity leave have to be high (Carlsen, 1998).

These factors were kept in mind when legislation no. 95/2000 was created. At first all five factors applied to the Icelandic law but now only the first four exist. The current situation is that fathers in Iceland do have a paid independent right of three months which is non-transferable to the mother mapping onto the first two factors. The flexibility regarding paternity leave is considered decent and parents can decide how much of the leave they take together at the same time or separately. The maternity/paternity leave can be used until the child reaches 18 months old and longer in terms of an adoption or permanent fostering of a child. Parents can also take their leave on a continuum if they wish or, alternatively, they can negotiate with their employer how they arrange their leave i.e. it can be divided into more than one period concomitantly to a reduced employment

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rate. However, parents can never take less than one week of maternity/paternity leave at a time (ASÍ, 2016). The fifth factor currently does not apply to Iceland, where payments in terms of maternity/paternity leave have been lowered greatly following the economic crisis in 2008 (Velferðarráðuneytið, 2016). When the legislation was first put into force, an increased number of fathers went on paternity leave but recent numbers show that the rates of claiming paternity leave, have declined (Velferðarráðuneytið, 2016).

1.4.2 The Effect of the Economic Crisis on Law no. 95/2000

According to Gíslason (2007), the changes when law no. 95/2000 was taken into force from 2001 to 2004 had a positive impact on the Icelandic society; the objectives of this law was reached and gender equality was enhanced and promoted (Gíslason, 2007). In 2004 the maternity/paternity fund was suffering financially and the urge for changes became clear. This was due to the increased number of fathers taking paternity leave. A larger proportion of fathers were using their rights, more than expected in the beginning. In response to the financial loss, the revenues for maternity/paternity fund were increased and external payments from the fund were reduced at the same time. A wage ceiling was put on the fund's payments and the timeframe for the applicable wages was lengthened from 12 months to 24 months. To counteract any abuse regarding maternity/paternity leave payments, all data was put through the tax system (Gíslason, 2007). These changes caused the maximum payments to drop down to 480,000 ISK per month (present value 895,271 ISK) (ASÍ, 2013). Data from Vinnumálastofnun (2010) shows that the wage ceiling affected approximately 2.6% of fathers and 0.4% of mothers which would have a direct impact on the usage of maternity/paternity leave. This was assumed to leave behind some negative consequences that would affect parents. Due to the lengthening of the timeframe regarding applicable wages from 12 months to 24 months, it made it very difficult for parents who wanted to have children within a short time period. If parents had another child within 24 months they would only receive 80% of their income prior to the childbirth. These changes were assumed to also have an impact on birth rate in Iceland e.g. a decline in birth rate (Gíslason, 2007). In 2008 and 2009 when maximum payments from the fund were at the highest level, the birth rate was indeed 2.1-2.2 children for each woman's life span. However in 2013 the birthrate had decreased down to 1.93 child for each woman.

1.4.3 The Economic Crisis – Effects on Paternity Leave

One of the main reasons for the decrease in the number of fathers taking paternity leave is that financial outlays to the maternity leave fund have been reduced since the economic crisis in 2008. Following 2009, when the maximum payments to parents taking maternity/paternity leave were reduced, the number of parents taking leave systematically decreased.

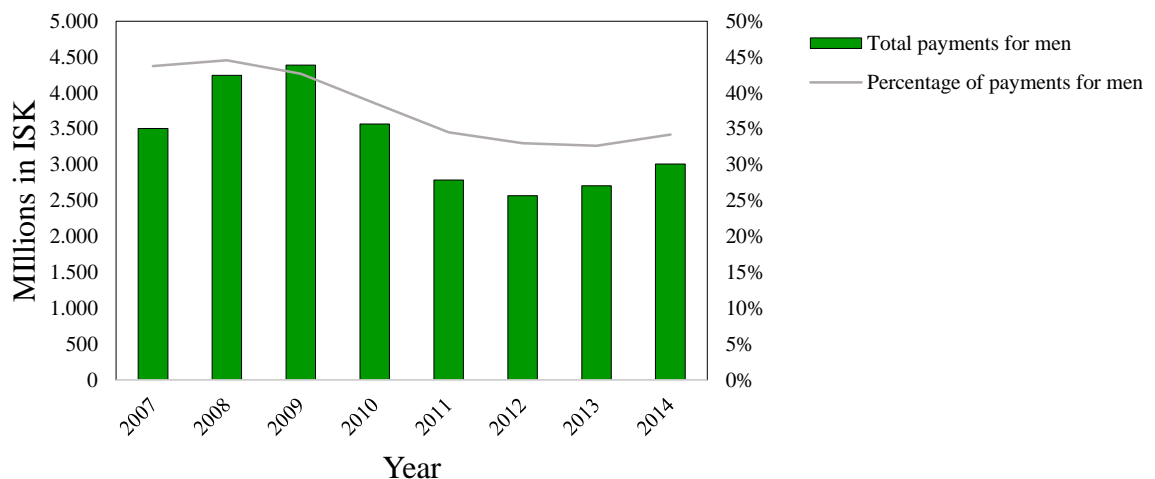


Figure 1. Financial outlays of total payments and the percentage of total payments from the maternity/paternity leave fund.

Figure 1 shows the financial outlays of total payments and the percentage of total payments from the maternity/paternity leave fund that fathers received from 2007-2014. As seen in the figure, the decrease in payments after the economic crisis is evident, dropping down from 47.2% in 2009 to 34.2% in 2014 (Hagstofa Íslands, 2016b). The wage ceiling seems to have had a major impact on fathers' decision to claim their paternity leave, hence the aim of legislation no. 95/2000 is also affected by the wage ceiling.

The crisis had negative effects on a large number of Icelandic families. Fathers had to take on more work to be able to provide for the family, which can be tied back to the gender based pay gap, e.g. fathers are less willing to take paternity leave since they earn higher wages than their spouses (Velferðaráðuneytið, 2010). The shared parental leave, mostly used by mothers and the wage gap between fathers and mothers can be a deciding factor in whether fathers take paternity leave or not. Males are still seen as more valuable resources than females in the labour market, and in most cases they earn higher salaries, which will reduce the loss of income if the father does not take paternity leave.

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(Gíslason, 2007). Prior studies have shown that those fathers who are earning a higher than average salary, are more likely to use their parental leave, and those that do use it, have received positive societal responses (Gíslason, 2007).

1.5 Changes in the Maternity/Paternity Leave Taking Pattern

In addition to the decrease in maximum payments from the maternity/paternity leave fund, data from the Statistics Iceland showed another negative consequence in that fewer fathers were claiming their paternity leave rights (Hagstofa Íslands, 2015).

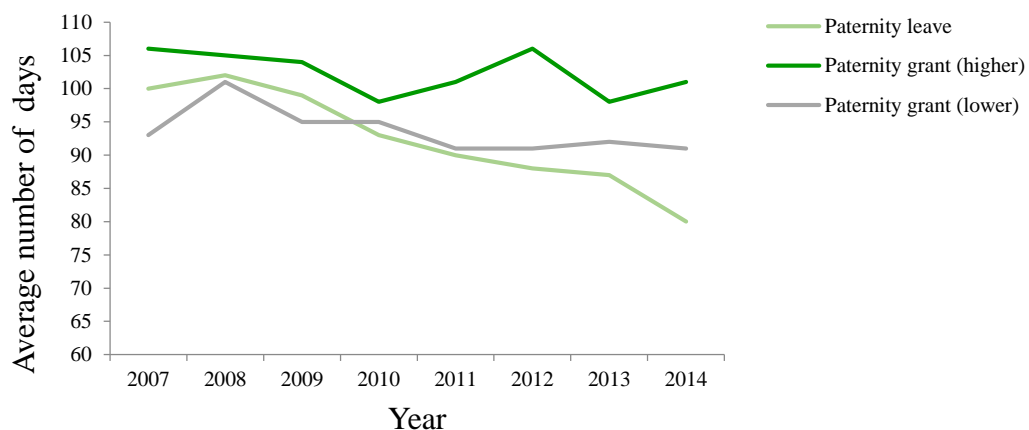


Figure 2. Number of days of paternity leave.

Figure 2 shows the general trend of the decreasing number of days the fathers used for paternity leave, year by year. The average number of days for fathers taking paternity leave was 100 days in 2007 compared to 80 days in the year 2014 (Hagstofa Íslands, 2015). In addition to these, the number of days of paternity grants (for students and those working less than a 25% employment ratio) decreased for fathers as well (Hagstofa Íslands, 2015).

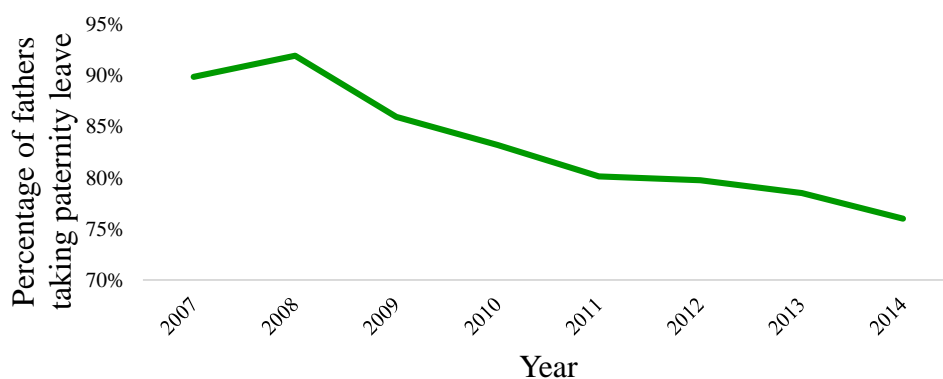


Figure 3. Percentage of fathers who take paternity leave.

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Figure 3 shows that the percentage of fathers who took paternity leave decreased from 89.9% in 2007 down to 76% in 2014 (Hagstofa Íslands, 2016a). Based on this figure it can be assumed that the twofold aim of the legislation is not being met. That is, to provide children with an equal presence of both mother and father in the first forming months of life and secondly enabling both parents to effectively interweave work and personal life, is not being reached. Kristín Ásgeirsdóttir, manager of Equality Rights in Iceland stated in 2010 that the reduction of maximum payments from maternity/paternity leave had an immediate impact on the length of paternity leave taken by fathers:

“This system had three main objectives. To increase gender equality in the labour market, to give young children the opportunity to bond with both of their parents from the very beginning and to reduce the gender based pay gap. The first two objectives have been achieved but the gender based pay gap has not reduced. Each step toward cutting down this system will cause the objectives to become more distant”(Morgunblaðið, 2010).

At the time there had been an ongoing unsteadiness of payments from the maternity/paternity leave since December 2008, in where the payments dropped from 480.000 ISK (present value 623,977 ISK) down to 400.000 ISK (present value 519,981 ISK). In June 2009 payments dropped further from 400.000 ISK to 350.000 ISK (present value 439.695 ISK) with concurrent lengthening of the period for parents to use their maternity/paternity leave. The bottom was reached in the beginning of 2010 when maximum payments dropped down to 300.000 ISK and those parents who were earning more than 200.000 ISK per month received only 75% of income exceeding that amount (Eydal & Gíslason, 2015). When this change took place it affected more parents than ever, especially the fathers. The wage ceiling affected approximately 45.7% of fathers and 19% of mothers (Eydal & Gíslason, 2015; Vinnumálastofnun, 2010).

A report from ASÍ (2013) stated that a skewed gender ratio was evident following these changes and it has also affected the aim of the original law no. 95/2000 i.e. to provide the child/children with an equal presence of its mother and father as well as enabling both parents to strike a balance between work and their personal life. The length of paternity leave taken by fathers had reduced and the time mothers spent on maternity

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leave had reduced (ASÍ, 2013). These drastic changes were from the beginning only thought to be temporary and with the economic recovery, these changes would be reversed. This has not been the case for Iceland (Eydal & Gísalson, 2015). In 2013 the wage ceiling was increased from 300.000 ISK to 350.000 ISK and some steps have been taken towards lengthening the leave from nine months to 12 months. This will be done incrementally until 2016 (ASÍ, 2013). Suggestions from a taskforce created with the intentions to improve the current maternity/paternity leave system in Iceland recently published a report including their suggestions. These were, for example; to raise the maximum payments from the maternity/paternity leave fund so that parents will not suffer a great loss of income and at the same time to increase the probability of parents using their maternity/paternity leave fully. The wage ceiling will be raised to 600.000 ISK per month and to further reduce loss of income, the first 300.000 ISK will remain unaffected although parents will receive 80% of their income above 300.000 ISK. This change will be applicable from 1st of January 2017 to parents who give birth to a child, adopt, or foster a child permanently. There was an emphasis on covering the gap that arises when parents are taking leave and when the child is old enough to start kindergarten. Therefore, the taskforce also put forward suggestions on lengthening the leave up to 12 months as well as offering parents of 12 months old children a place at kindergarten. In terms of these suggestions, claimed right of maternity/paternity leave will be five months for each parent and two months of shared leave that parents can divide between them in the most convenient way for them. This will be applicable from the 1st of January 2021 or later, to parents who give birth to a child, adopt, or foster a child permanently (Velferðarráðuneytið, 2016).

1.6 Prior Research on Paternity Leave

Fathers' use of paternity leave increased considerably, shortly after the legislation was approved in 2000. In 2001, applications from fathers reached 82.4%, and applications from mothers up until 2008 grew up to 90%. On average, three months of paternity leave were used by fathers and in most cases the shared leave was mainly used by mothers (Arnalds et al., 2013). Results from research conducted both before and after legislation no. 95/2000, on how parents shared their responsibility of caretaking and their participation in the labour market showed that working hours for both parents were reduced after the approval of the legislation. When fathers had completed their paternity leave, their participation in caregiving kept growing which was one of the objectives of

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the aforementioned legislation (Arnalds et al., 2013). Eydal (2007) conducted research on how parents arranged their maternity/paternity leave, their employment from pregnancy until the child reached three years and how the parents divided their work in terms of caretaking. Results showed that the gap regarding working hours was reduced significantly from 2001-2007, whereas in 2001 the gap was 13 hours compared to nine hours in 2007. The research also revealed that caretaking of the child was more equal between genders. Three surveys were conducted on parents who had their first child/children in 1997, 2003 and 2009 (Arnalds et al., 2013). The aim was to explore how parents divided the caregiving and how parents got on following the paid parental leave. Results from the surveys showed that there was a clear difference between 1997 and 2003 in terms of how parents shared the caregiving role, e.g. with more fathers participating. Between the years 2003 and 2009 the caregiving followed a similar pattern to the 2003 trend, however, when the child turned four months old, the fathers' participation in caregiving was greatly increased compared to 2003. In 2009, when the child was turning three years old, results showed that the child received equal caregiving from both parents in 59% of cases, compared to 49% in 2003 and 36% in 1997. According to the results, paternity leave enhanced the likelihood of fathers taking an equal amount of responsibility of their child/children (Arnalds et al., 2013). Taken together, increased number of fathers on paternity leave has provided a long lasting effect, wherein the parents share more equal responsibility when it comes to caretaking and employment participation during the first years (Eydal, 2007).

Research on Icelandic fathers has shed light on differences in how fathers arrange their paternity leave, with factors such as income being of great importance. One study conducted on fathers who had their first child in 2003 showed that income was a large factor and the higher the income, the higher percentage of fathers used their paternity leave. Furthermore, fathers who were not in cohabitation with their spouse were less likely to use their paternity leave than those who were in cohabitation (Eydal, 2008). A study undertaken by Arnardóttir et al. (2007) showed that approximately 92% of Icelandic fathers were using their paternity leave, however, there was a difference in the usage depending on the fathers' education and employment status. Higher education levels correlated negatively with usage of paternity leave. The research also revealed that the increased use of paternity leave made fathers bond more strongly with their children, and that they expressed more joy and understanding of the effort involved in taking care of a child. There was even a deeper consensus on this matter among younger fathers and

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fathers who used more of the shared parental leave than for those who were older or used less of their rights. To summarize, the results from 2007 indicated that law no. 95/2000 was being at least partially reached at that time (Arnardóttir, 2008).

1.6.1 Paternity Leave and the Relationship with the Child

Studies have shown that the effects of fathers taking paternity leave, can have long lasting results. Studies from Norway show that fathers who had children later than 1993, i.e. when paternity quota of paid parental leave was given to fathers, were more involved in caregiving and also worked fewer working hours per week than those fathers who had their child/children before 1993 (Rege & Solli, 2010). The importance of paternity leave and possible long-term effects on bonding has not been studied extensively. Few studies have analyzed the importance of paternity leave used by fathers in relation to their long-term bond with the child. However, Duvander and Jans (2009) who studied the link between fathers' leave and their relationship with their children following leave. Results showed that longer leave taking was positively correlated to fewer working hours when the child was older, compared to fathers who used less of their paternity leave. This correlation was also evident in cases where the parents were divorced and the child was living with the mother. Fathers who saw their child/children more often, used longer paternity leave than those fathers who did not. Hence, it can be concluded that it is not only using the leave that matters or how much fathers are involved in the caregiving (Brandth & Gíslason, 2011). Many studies have linked a father's early involvement and caregiving responsibilities to numerous positive outcomes for the child (Haas & Hwang, 1999; Sarkadi, Kristiansson, Oberklaid, & Bremberg, 2008). Initial paternal involvement can lead to continuous development and engagement in the child's life. School performance, social, behavioural and psychological wellness have all been positively linked to early interaction between fathers and their children (Brandth & Gíslason, 2011). However, sufficient research has not been conducted in the Scandinavian nations, which is unfortunate due to the extensive work undertaken to increase fathers' involvement in caregiving. Wide-ranging research is needed on the impact paternity leave can possibly have on children's cognitive and social development (Brandth & Gíslason, 2011). No concerns regarding the length of maternity/paternity leave have been expressed in terms of children being able to bond with both of their parents. Most research has focused on the relationship between parents and their children with the aim of balancing the equal

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rights of the genders and the relationship of fathers to their child/children (Brandth & Gíslason, 2011).

1.6.2 Work-Family Balance, Conflicts and Enrichment

According to Carlson et al. (2009), there is a continued urge to clarify the difference between work-family balance (when one is experiencing balance), work-family conflicts, (when one feels like work interferes with home and vice versa) and work-family enrichment, (whereas one experiences enrichment at work due to family and vice versa). According to some studies, work-family balance is an important variable when considering people's wellness, and an essential component for a healthy and properly functioning society (Halpern, 2005). Some attempts have been made to explain what is meant by work-family balance. Throughout the years, the compatibility between family-life and work has been defined as the absence of conflict between these two domains (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Frone (2003), refers to work-family balance as a conflict free work- and family-life in where a person is more able to enjoy things in life with ease. Carlson et al. (2009) define the concept of work-family balance as when one can successfully live up to the expectations of both his colleagues at work and his family, regarding the roles that are required of him in each domain. The definition of work-family balance by Greenhaus et al., (2006) was put forward as: *"the extent to which an individual's effectiveness and satisfaction in work and family roles are compatible with the individual's life priorities"* (p. 10). The significance of this definition by Greenhouse and Allen (2006) has been questioned by Grzywacz and Carlson, (2007) whereas "balance" is a difficult concept to define and "satisfaction", hard to measure. The key is to decide if work-family balance is a psychological – or a social construct. Greenhouse and Allen (2006) refer to "balance" as a psychological construct, which leads to the question if one can be satisfied with his actions at work and at home as well. There can be many reasons for one being satisfied e.g. the individual might have a hard working spouse doing most of the house chores which makes it more easy for him to live up to expectations and thus feel more satisfied (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). In this research, conflicts will be defined as strain or tension that arises when work- and family-life cannot be combined together successfully and interferes with the roles of an individual. This definition has been used previously in the study by Arnardóttir et al. (2007). Conflict has two directions e.g. whereas work can interfere with family and family can interfere with work (Carlson & Frone, 2003). Previous research has shown three ways in how conflicts

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can occur: 1. Conflicts based on time where demands from work and family are required at the same time. 2. Conflicts based on strain, when individual's role is interfered with by another role. 3. Conflicts based on behaviour, wherein the behaviour expected in one role is incompatible with the behaviour expected in another role. The consequences of conflicts between work- and family-life can impact negatively on various factors such as job satisfaction, satisfaction within the family and overall life satisfaction. According to research conducted by Arnardóttir et al. (2007), conflicts between work- and family-life are more commonly experienced by men than women. It was concluded that the reason for women experiencing less conflict between work- and family-life was their employment-status i.e. that women were more likely to seek jobs that resemble the ones at home (Arnardóttir et al., 2007).

Enrichment is conceptualized as when work enriches the home-life or home-life enriches one's work but it can also have a contrasting effect e.g. home-life can have a negative impact on work and vice versa. People can focus on work- and home-life separately but neither one enriches the other e.g. an individual who enjoys time with his family can produce a positive spillover to his workplace and experiencing a difficult time at home it can lead to a negative spillover as well, resulting in a negative atmosphere in the workplace. This also applies to his family, if an individual has a difficult time at work it could lead to a negative spillover in his family-life (Poelmans, Kalliath & Brough, 2008).

1.6.3 Interweaving Work- and Home-Life

Now, more than ever, it has become crucial for organizations to help their employees to balance their work- and family-life (Carlson et al., 2009). According to Halpern (2005) the challenge to combine work and family successfully, is one of the main challenges of today's generation. There is an indication that organizations who emphasize strategic policies on enhancing work-family enrichment, i.e. an individual's experience at work, how his role as an employee can increase the quality of his participation or performance at home (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Compared to other nations, Icelanders seem to spend a greater amount of time working in paid employment. The participation of both men and women in the Icelandic labour market and the number of hours they work are among the highest within the Nordic nations (Stefánsson, 2008). A study containing data from 2005 was conducted by Stefánsson (2008), exploring whether work- and family responsibilities were causing stress within the Icelandic society. Results revealed that

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work-family conflicts were perceived as higher in Iceland compared to other countries which reflects the excessive number of hours worked by men and women on the Icelandic labour market. The participants were in general positive towards their work and they did not express that they experienced work- or family responsibilities as stressors. However, there was a consensus amongst participants expressing a wish to reduce their working hours to increase the opportunity to spend more time on other activities (Stefánsson, 2008). In Iceland the work interferes more with family-life than vice versa, which can result in reduced quality of life (Stefánsson, 2008). A study conducted by Martinengo, Jacob and Hill (2010) showed that men experience higher work-family conflict since they spend less time at home which makes them unable to attend work related events such as meetings but on the other hand experiencing interruptions at home due to work responsibilities. Women on the other hand experienced higher family-work conflict. When work-family conflict was explored further, depending on the age of the children, results showed that women experienced much higher level of family-work conflict than men when the children were in pre- or elementary school. Women experienced twice as much work-family conflict when the youngest child was still attending preschool (Martinengo et al., 2010). There is a gender based difference when it comes to the experience of family-life, where 75% of men expressing the wish of spending more time with their families compared to 58.8% of women. This underpins the idea that a larger proportion of women spend their time doing house chores and strengthening their relationship with other family members while men spend more time on the labour market, which results in less participation at home, affecting the relationship with their families (Stefánsson, 2008).

1.6.4 The Benefits of Work-Family Balance

Work-family balance is a mutually beneficial, both for employees and the organizations. Reaching this balance has been linked to higher job- and life satisfaction, increased productivity and reduced absence from work. Imbalance is, however, associated with a negative impact on work as well as family, causing greater stress and higher turnover, greater risk of depression and general dissatisfaction with life (Allen et al., 2000; Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999). According to Poelmans et al. (2008) employees are the most valuable resource within the organization and thus if employees experience work-family balance it can be regarded as advantageous for the organization. Since competition is rife between rival organizations, it can be a competitive advantage for an

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organization to have family-friendly policies, since employees gravitate towards a workplace where they know that their wellbeing, and that of their family, is guarded.

Organizations without family-friendly policies for employees can cause stress within the workforce which can interfere with their performance, either at home or at work. Increased stress can affect the organization, causing less productivity and poor employee performance (Yuile, Chang, Gudmundsson & Sawang, 2012). By constantly trying to improve the reconciling of work and family- responsibilities, the conflicts that arise between the two domains i.e. work- and home-life are systematically being reduced or eliminated (Hein, 2005).

1.6.5 The Dual Role and Support in the Workplace

The concept of social support in the workplace is defined as the individual's perception on how welfare is being valued by supervisors and coworkers within the organization, and how much effort is given to enhance this welfare (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner & Hammer, 2011). In Sweden, a particular policy is in place emphasizing the father's usage of paternity leave. In Iceland, the Equality Laws state that the employer of a maternity/paternity leave beneficiary has to provide assistance when it comes to interweaving home-life and work (Alþingi, 2011). According to Larson (1992) companies have to deliver a plan on how they are going to motivate fathers to use their rights of paternity leave.

Work-family support has been defined as how an individual perceives a supervisor's care regarding the welfare of his family and whether the supervisor helps in some ways to reduce work-family conflicts or shows understanding of the individual's need for work-family balance (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner & Hansen, 2008). According to prior research, supervisors are considered to play an important role when it comes to balancing employees' work and family roles, however, it is not clear how supervisors can cater to their employees' needs in terms of an effective work-life balance (Lauzun, Morganson, Major & Green, 2010). Some researchers have explained that work-family conflict can be formed out of gender roles. As mentioned earlier, men's responsibilities have previously included being the main providers for the family and for that reason they were released from family responsibilities. Instead, the family became a major reason of work being important for men (Barnett & Baruch, 1987). The need for serving a dual role i.e. as an employee and a family member has increased over the years and since women share a major part of the labour market, the need for fathers' dual roles

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has increased. The role hypothesis, refers to multiple roles causing greater stress and conflict and thus the greater the responsibility expected from an individual the greater pressure is put on him, requiring him to negotiate with the appropriate parties. The greater the workload in each role, the harder it is to meet required expectations, which can cause serious conflicts (Grönlund, 2007).

In light of all these changes that have occurred over the years it is interesting to compare some of the factors that might be affected by the changes in terms of legislation no. 95/2000, between the years 2007 to 2016. How large is the percentage of fathers using their independent rights of paternity leave and are they taking no leave, partial leave or a full leave and how does this compare to 2007. And what are the possible reasons fathers have for not using their individual leave? It is also interesting to explore the possible impact paternity leave taking can have on the relationship between fathers and their child/children and how well they manage to reconcile work- and family-life.

Hypothesis 1:

Comparison between the studies from 2007 and 2016 show that the average length of claimed individual paternity leave has decreased.

Numbers have shown that when legislation no. 95/2000 was taken into force parents did use their right of maternity/paternity leave up until late 2008-2009. Today, numbers show that the percentage of fathers that do not use their claimed right of paternity leave has increased, since the maximum payments from the maternity/paternity leave fund were reduced back in 2009 (Velferðarráðuneytið, 2016).

Hypothesis 2:

Fathers in the 2016 research with managerial responsibility take shorter claimed paternity leave than those who have no managerial responsibility.

According to results from the study by Arnardóttir et al. (2008), fathers with managerial responsibilities claimed less of their paternity leave. In terms of those results, it is interesting to explore if this still remains unchanged.

Hypothesis 3:

Fathers in the 2016 study, who claim longer paternity leave express that their relationship with their child is better than those who take shorter or no leave.

One of the chief aims of legislation no. 95/2000 was to enhance the relationship between parents with their child. The research conducted in 2007 by Arnardóttir et al. revealed that

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fathers who took longer paternal leave experienced a stronger emotional attachment with their child and their enjoyment of care responsibilities and to the appreciation of how much effort involved in taking care of a child was higher than for those who took shorter paternal leave. This study seeks to confirm that finding, i.e. whether fathers who take longer paternity leave experience a better relationship with their child than those who take shorter or no leave.

Hypothesis 4:

Comparison between the studies from 2007 and 2016 shows that the level of work/family conflict, on all subscales (time, strain, behavior), experienced by fathers in the 2016 study is higher than for fathers in the 2007 study.

Due to the increased requirements for fathers serving a dual role i.e. as an employee and an active family member and the suggestion of multiple roles causing greater stress and conflict in terms of pressure, it is interesting to explore whether there are differences between the fathers in the study from 2007 and 2016. The measures were based on an 18 item scale, developed by Carlson, Kacmar and Williams (2000).

Hypothesis 5:

Fathers in the 2016 study who experience greater organizational support, experience less work-family conflict and more work-family enrichment than fathers who report less organizational support.

Prior research has shown that organizational support is important for employees in terms of maintaining balance between the work domain and the family domain (Lauzun et al., 2010). When fathers cannot reconcile work and family successfully, conflicts may begin to arise which can cause strain or tension (Arnardóttir et al., 2007). Therefore, the assumption that organizational support can decrease the probability of work-family conflicts and increase work-family enrichment is made.

2. Methodology

2.1 Method

A quantitative research was conducted with the objective of exploring fathers' experience of paternity leave and what possible effect it can have on various factors such as the development of attachment with the child/children, how fathers experienced employers' perspective on paternity leave, and how effectively fathers manage to balance work- and home responsibilities and pressures. Using questionnaires enabled the researcher to measure, for example, the behaviour, thoughts and attitudes of fathers.

2.2 Participants

The sample for this research consisted of 1000 fathers in Iceland who had a child born within the period of 1st of January 2011 to 31st of December 2013. The reason for choosing this certain time period is for all fathers to have finished their paternity leave taking since many of the questions relate to fathers' experiences after the leave. Out of the 1000 fathers, 710 provided their e-mail addresses. A total of 80 fathers did not want to participate in the research and 220 participants did not answer the questionnaire, therefore the total number of participants was 410. The stated reasons for not wanting to participate were either no interest or no time ($n = 56$), travelling abroad ($n = 4$), language barriers ($n = 17$), took their leave in another country ($n = 3$). A total of 211 potential participants (21.1%) could not be reached, where of 107 (10.7%) names were registered to a phone numbers in the phone directory that proved to be disconnected, and 104 (10.4%) fathers who could not be reached by any means. A total of five attempts were made to reach participants that did not answer their phone. A total of 710 (71%) fathers received a questionnaire via e-mail and 410 responded (a 41% response rate). The mean age of fathers was 36.54 years (ranging from 22 years to 54 years), 50.4% were married, 45% cohabiting, and on average the number of children living at home was 2,3. The average monthly salary of fathers was 626.662 ISK ($SD = 461.700$ ISK) and the average working hours per week were 45.62 hours ($SD=19.2$). The average working hours per week for their spouses were 34.2 hours ($SD=19.24$).

2. Methodology

Table 1.

Demographic variables.

	N	%
Relationship status		
Single	4	1.0
In a relationship	12	2.9
In cohabitation	185	45.1
Married	207	50.5
Widower	1	0.2
Missing values	1	0.2
Total	410	100
Education level		
Elementary school	50	12.2
Technical school	115	28.0
College	38	9.2
University (BA, BS)	108	26.3
University (MA, MS, MBA)	75	18.2
University (Doctoral degree)	4	1.0
Other	20	4.9
Total	410	100
Managerial responsibility		
Yes, great	45	11.0
Yes, some	118	28.8
No	209	51.0
Not applicable	36	8.8
Missing values	2	0.5
Total	410	100
Job position		
Managers	68	16.6
Professionals	207	50.5
Clericals	73	17.8
Fisherman	22	5.4
Farmer	10	2.4
Students	14	3.4
Unemployed	3	0.7
Disabled	2	0.5
Missing values	11	2.7

2.3 Measures

The questionnaire consisted of 79 questions that were divided into five main categories. Part one included questions for maternity/paternity- and parental leave that were previously composed by researchers in a study from 2007 by Arnardóttir et al. These questions were meant to explore if statutory right had been used by individuals or couples

2. Methodology

and to see how parents had divided their rights of shared leave i.e. if the leave had been taken on a continuum or if it had been divided. Also, there were questions on how many days were taken, if the individual had been working alongside the leave-taking. In addition, the percentage of a spouse's employment was investigated. Furthermore, there were questions on why the leave had been arranged like it was and if one had been working in other paid jobs while taking the leave. Part two of the questionnaire included questions to evaluate the impact of leave-taking on home-life, caregiving and support. These questions aimed at investigating how the individual evaluated his relationship with his child and his participation at home e.g. how house chores were divided before and after the leave and also questions that related to the equality between couples. Part three of the questionnaire included questions on what impact paternity leave had had on various factors such as the relationship with the child. Part four of the questionnaire included questions on fathers' perspectives in terms of perceived organizational support before and after paternity leave, their spouses and outlook on family and life. The fifth and final part of the questionnaire included questions on work- and family- balance and the coordination of work- and family-life. A five point Likert scale was used to answer the majority of the questions.

Demographic variables

Information on participants in the present study was provided, such as gender, year of birth, relationship status, highest level of education, job position, managerial responsibility, average monthly salary, number of children living at home, number of hours worked per week and spouse's number of hours worked per week. An open ended question was used to seek information on fathers' job position. Job position was coded into eight different categories e.g. managers (for example, CEO), professionals (for example a chef), clericals (for example a sales-man), fishermen, disabled, unemployed, farmers, students.

The Work-Family Conflict Scale

An 18 item scale, developed by Carlson et al. (2000) was used to measure work-family conflict. The participants responded to all the items on a five point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This scale consists of nine items that measure the conflicts within the work-domain to family-domain from three different perspectives (time, strain and behaviour). For example: "My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like". The other nine items measure the conflicts

2. Methodology

within the family-domain to work-domain from three different perspectives (time, strain and behaviour). For example: “Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work”. Cronbach’s alpha for this scale in the present study was 0,892 indicating high internal consistency (see table 2).

Table 2.

Cronbach’s alpha for the Work Family Conflict Scale and subscales.

	N	α
Work family conflict	9	0.852
Time	3	0.844
Strain	3	0.798
Behaviour	3	0.848
Family work conflict	9	0.868
Time	3	0.879
Strain	3	0.793
Behaviour	3	0.870
Total	18	0.892

The Work-Family Enrichment Scale

A scale developed by Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne and Grzywacz (2006) was used to measure work-family enrichment. The scale consists of 18 items that measure enrichment within two domains, from work to family and from family to work. An example of an item measuring enrichment from work to family is: “My involvement in my work helps me to acquire skills and this helps me to be a better family member”. An example of an item measuring enrichment from family to work direction is: “My involvement in my family helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker”. The participants responded to all the items on a five point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). As for the previous study conducted in 2007 by Arnardóttir et al. the length of the survey was shortened in the present study by reducing scale items down to 10. Cronbach’s alpha for this scale in the present study was 0.919 indicating excellent internal consistency. Cronbach’s alpha for work-family enrichment was 0.827, indicating a relatively high internal consistency and for family-work enrichment 0.909, indicating excellent internal consistency.

Organizational support

Four questions, previously composed for the 2007 study with three questions additionally developed by Clark (2001) were used to measure perceived organizational support. The

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scale measures the amount of perceived organizational support by assessing supervisors' emotional support towards the family-domain. An example of an item is "My supervisor understands my family demands" and "How much or how little do you feel like your job security is being threatened in terms of paternity leave taking". All questions were answered on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha for this scale in the present study was 0.838, indicating relatively high internal consistency.

Relationship with the child

Five questions, previously composed for the 2007 study with three questions developed in addition by Haas and Hwang (2008) were used to evaluate how fathers perceive their relationship with their child. An example of an item is "Sometimes I think that I have missed some of the most important periods of my children's lives" and "How much or how little do you feel like paternity leave has affected your emotional attachment with your child". All questions were answered on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha for this scale in the present study was 0.750, indicating acceptable internal consistency.

Measures of total length of parental/paternity leave

The total length of paternity/parental leave was categorized into four week periods (0-4, weeks etc.). Due to there being only one participant in the 21-24 week category, the last two categories e.g. 17-24 weeks were merged into one. Table 3 shows how participants arranged their paternity/parental leave.

Table 3.

Total length of parental/paternity leave categorized by number of weeks on monthly basis.

	N	%
0-4 weeks	84	20.5
5-8 weeks	110	26.8
9-12 weeks	32	7.8
13-16 weeks	142	34.6
17-24 weeks	9	2.2
Missing values	33	8.0
Total	410	100

Reasons for arrangement of paternity leave and satisfaction with leave taking

Two open ended questions regarding paternity leave taking were composed for the present research. Question 1. What was the reason for arranging paternity leave like you did?

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Question 2. Were there any factors that had an impact or prevented you to fully use your right of paternity leave? Lastly, a single question was used to evaluate if fathers were satisfied or dissatisfied with their paternity leave taking, measured on a five point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied).

2.4 Procedure

The questionnaire was pretested for the 2007 study by the researchers (Arnardóttir, et al., 2007). For the current data collection researchers contacted marketing firm Markvisst ehf on the 19th of February and purchased a sample of 1000 fathers' names who had had a child during the time period of 1st January 2011 to 31st December 2013. The sample included social security numbers, names, addresses, postal addresses, birth year of the children and phone numbers. The data was handed to the researcher in an Excel file. Due to this time frame all of the fathers who answered the questionnaire had completed their statutory right for paternity leave, which is 24 months according to legislation no. 95/2000. From the 5th to 14th of March 2016, the researcher and two research assistants called the fathers, introduced the study and sought their approval and participation in the research, fathers were asked for their e-mail addresses as well as their spouses' email addresses, if appropriate. Those who agreed to participate then received an e-mail that included a short description of the research and its purpose as well as a link to a webpage on where the questionnaire could be found. Along with this, a lottery was introduced as well where participants could sign up their e-mail address and have the chance to win a gift certificate from Icelandair airline. Estimated answering for the questionnaire was about 15 minutes. The questionnaire was open from 14th of March until the 23rd of March. On the 18th of March, a reminder was sent out to participants who had not answered and again on the 23rd of March.

3. Results

3. Results

Table 4 shows Pearson's correlations and descriptive statistics for the variables in the research i.e. individual right of paternity leave, shared right of parental leave, total length of leave, work-family conflict (time, strain, behaviour), family-work conflict (time, strain, behaviour), work-family enrichment, family-work enrichment, organizational support and fathers' relationship with the child. Demographic variables included in the table are: age, number of children, monthly salary and hours worked per week. The table further shows the total number of responses for each variable (N), mean (M), standard deviation (SD) and the correlation between the variables in the research. As evident from the table, the correlation is not very high, except for the variables that are dependent on each other, for example, individual right of paternity leave and total length of paternity leave.

Table 4.

Descriptive statistics and correlations for the variables in the research.

	N	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Age	405	36,5	6,19																		
2. No. of children	405	2,36	0,95	,295**																	
3. Hours pr. week	398	45,62	19,20	,040	,058																
4. Salary pr. month	387	626.662	461.701	,053	,105*	,062															
5. individual right	402	7,93	4,84	,065	-,098*	,014	-,103*														
6. Shared right	403	2,15	3,21	-,003	-,065	,001	-,059	,247**													
7. Total l. leave	400	10,10	6,41	,050	-,100*	,016	-,104*	,875**	,685**												
8. WFC	385	2,65	0,76	-,006	,099	,206**	,007	-,028	-,054	-,056											
9. WFC time	384	2,80	0,95	-,030	,108*	,246**	,125*	-,018	-,028	-,025	,790**										
10. WFC strain	385	2,50	0,90	,004	,063	,115*	-,072	,014	-,030	-,013	,727**	,359**									
11. WFC behaviour	382	2,55	0,79	,014	,052	,118*	-,034	-,054	-,064	-,083	,826**	,483**	,398**								
12. FWC	387	2,44	0,69	,007	,043	,070	-,013	-,005	-,054	-,041	,556**	,333**	,421**	,531**							
13. FWC time	386	2,30	0,85	-,055	,050	,013	-,073	-,031	-,060	-,061	,596**	,294**	,502**	,588**	,728**						
14. FWC strain	379	2,02	0,82	,098	,075	,108*	,090	,037	-,060	-,012	,370**	,271**	,247**	,332**	,821**	,303**					
15. FWC behaviour	366	2,52	0,72	,024	-,024	,077	,014	,021	-,032	-,008	,309**	,191**	,241**	,284**	,849**	,348**	,718**				
16. WFE	381	3,68	0,64	-,038	,055	-,003	,070	-,035	,010	-,015	-,133**	-,137**	-,006	-,151**	-,338**	-,112*	-,321**	-,387**			
17. FWE	376	3,93	0,63	-,030	,001	-,047	-,017	,027	-,002	,027	-,106*	-,079	-,025	-,128*	-,344**	-,189**	-,293**	-,355**	,742**		
18. ORG. SUP	400	3,94	0,67	-,051	-,074	-,086	,024	-,053	,049	-,016	-,399**	-,353**	-,276**	-,332**	-,311**	-,187**	-,268**	-,307**	,232**	,193**	
19. Rel.sh. w. child	405	3,76	0,66	-,135**	-,106*	-,023	-,012	,101*	,027	,097	,205**	,203**	,096	,159**	,036	,105*	-,023	-,043	,142**	,224**	-,049

*Correlation is significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. **Correlation is significant at $\alpha = 0.01$.

Hypothesis 1:

Comparison between the studies from 2007 and 2016 show that the average length of claimed individual paternity leave has decreased.

A comparison of the amount of individual paternity leave used was conducted. Fathers from the 2007 research who had had children within the period 1st of January 2003 – 31st of December 2005 were compared to fathers in the 2016 research who had children within the period 1st January 2011 – 31st December 2013.

An independent T-test was used to compare the mean length of individual paternity leave. The test showed a significant difference $t(1045)=2.386, p=0.017$.

Hypothesis 1 is confirmed as fathers from the 2007 research used on average 10 weeks of their individual paternity leave (SD=3.8), but fathers in the 2016 research used 6.92 weeks on average of their individual paternity leave (SD=4.82).

In total 75% of fathers from the 2007 research used 12 weeks of paternity leave compared to 42.2% of fathers in the 2016 study. In the first research a total of 8.1% did not use any of their individual right compared to 12.2% in this current investigation.

Comparison between the 2007 and 2016 research in terms of fathers with doctoral degree did not show a significant difference $t(15)=0.728, p=0.478$. In the 2007 research, fathers with doctoral degrees used on average 8.6 weeks of their individual paternity leave rights compared to 6 weeks in the 2016 research. However, there was a significant difference between the mean length of paternity leave taking for fathers with elementary school education $t(144)=5.864, p<0.001$. In the 2007 research, fathers who had completed elementary school used on average 10.7 weeks of their individual right, however, in the 2016 study fathers who had completed elementary school used on average 6.8 weeks.

A comparison of the amount of shared parental leave was also conducted. An independent T- test did not reveal a significant difference between the means $t(1036)=0.983 p=0.326$. Fathers in the 2007 research used on average 1.5 week (SD=3.7) compared to 1.15 week (SD=3.2) for fathers in the 2016 research. Nearly 85% (83.3%) of fathers in the 2007 research did not use any of the shared parental leave compared to 84.1% of fathers in the 2016 research.

An independent T-test for mean length of shared parental leave for fathers with doctoral degree did not reveal a significant difference between the means $t(15)=0.542, p=0.596$. In the 2007 research those with doctoral degree used on average 0.3 weeks of

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the shared parental leave but none of the fathers with a doctoral degree in the 2016 study used any of the shared parental leave.

An independent T-test for mean length of shared parental leave for fathers with elementary school education did not reveal a significant difference between the means $t(140)=1.617$, $p=0.108$. In the 2007 research those with elementary education used on average 3.1 weeks of the shared parental leave compared to 1.15 weeks in the 2016 research.

Hypothesis 2:

Fathers in the 2016 research with managerial responsibility take shorter claimed paternity leave than those who have no managerial responsibility.

In the 2016 research, fathers with great managerial responsibility used on average 5.89 weeks of their individual right compared to those with no managerial responsibility who used 7.5 weeks on average. In the 2016 study, results from a one-way ANOVA analysis showed a significant difference in means for the length of paternity leave in terms of managerial responsibility $F(2, 366)=3.77$, $p=0.024$. The Bonferroni post-hoc test indicated a significant difference between fathers who have great managerial responsibility and those who do not have managerial responsibility with a mean difference of 1.587 ($p=0.046$). The Bonferroni post-hoc test also indicated that there is a significant difference between fathers who have some managerial responsibility and those who do not have managerial responsibility with a mean difference of 1.298 ($p=0.020$). As can be seen in figure 4 those with great or some managerial responsibility take shorter paternity leave than those who do not have managerial responsibilities, thus confirming hypothesis 2.

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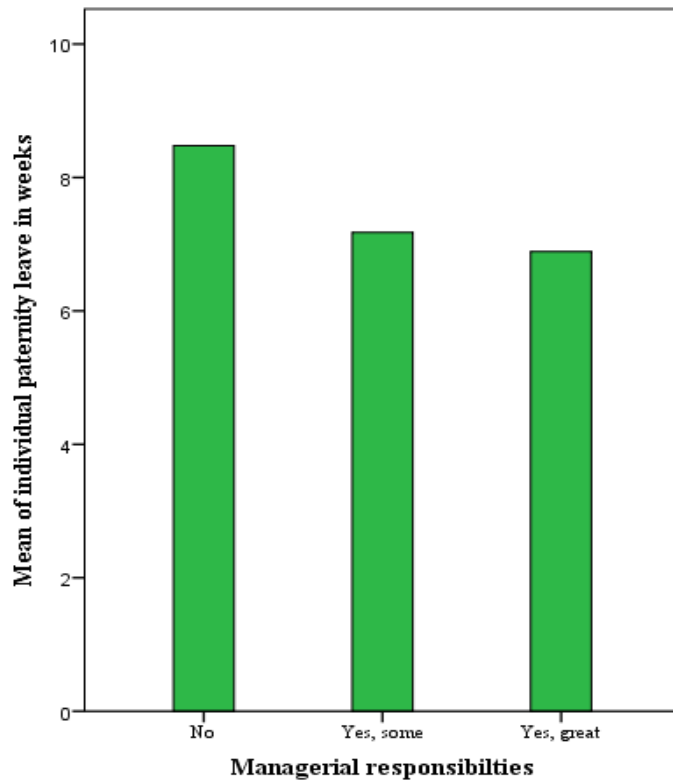


Figure 4. Mean length of paternity leave in terms of managerial responsibility.

Hypothesis 3:

Fathers in the 2016 study, who take longer paternity leave express that their relationship with their child is better than those who take shorter or no leave.

A scale with a total of 8 questions was used to assess fathers' relationship with their child and how involved they were in care responsibilities. Table 5 shows the mean responses for each question, along with the total mean score for the whole scale. All questions were answered on a 5 point Likert scale.

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Table 5.

Fathers' relationship with the child and care responsibilities.

	M	SD
<i>How much or how little do you feel like paternity leave taking has increased your...</i>		
... understanding of your child's needs	4.01	0.98
... satisfaction of care responsibilities in terms of childcare	4.29	0.91
... emotional attachments to your child	4.40	0.86
... understanding of how much effort it is to take care of a child	4.09	1.07
... involvement in care responsibilities after completing paternity leave	3.61	1.12
I think that I have a good relationship with my child(ren)	4.47	1.07
Sometimes I think that I have missed some of the most important periods of my children's lives	2.48	1.20
I wish I shared more of the daily care of the children	3.09	1.14
Total for eight questions	3.76	0.66

Table 5 shows that the mean is high for all questions and therefore it can be concluded that fathers generally perceive their relationship with their child as good.

A one-way ANOVA analysis was performed on the assessment of the relationship and care responsibilities in terms of the total length of paternity/parental leave revealed a significant difference in means $F(4, 372)=5.20, p<0.001$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni test indicated that the mean score for 0-4 weeks ($M=3.48, SD=0.80$) was significantly different from 5-8 weeks ($M=3.88, SD=0.63, p<0.001$), 9-12 weeks ($M=3.81, SD=0.67, p=0.031$) and 13-16 weeks ($M=3.80, SD=0.57, p<0.001$). Hence, 0-4 weeks were evaluated as significantly different from 5-8, 9-12 and 13-16 weeks but other comparisons did not reveal significant differences in means. Hypothesis 3 that fathers who take longer paternity leave express that their relationship with their child is better than those who take shorter or no leave, is confirmed.

Hypothesis 4:

Comparison between the studies from 2007 and 2016 shows that the level of work/family conflict, on all subscales (time, strain, behaviour), experienced by fathers in the 2016 study is higher than for fathers in the 2007 study.

To evaluate if fathers found it difficult to reconcile both work and home domains the conflicts from work interfering with home and vice versa were measured by using the work-family conflict scale by Carlson et al. (2000). On average, the fathers in the 2016 study did not express that they experience conflicts in either domains, ($M=2.55 SD=0.66$).

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A paired-samples t-test was conducted to compare work-family conflict to family-work conflict. There was a significant difference in means between work-family conflict ($M=2.65$, $SD=0.76$) and family-work conflict ($M=2.44$, $SD=0.69$; $t(386)=6.11$, $p<0.001$).

A repeated Measures ANOVA was conducted to compare scores for work family sub-scales (time, strain, behaviour), $F(1.385)=13.94$, $p<0.001$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni test indicated that the mean score for time ($M=2.85$, $SD=0.97$) was significantly different from strain ($M=2.47$, $SD=0.90$, $p<0.001$). Behaviour ($M=2.65$, $SD=1.03$) was significantly different from both time ($p=0.001$) and strain ($p=0.002$). The largest mean difference was between behaviour and strain ($MD=0.38$).

Repeated Measures ANOVA was conducted to compare scores for family work sub-scales (time, strain, behaviour), $F(1.370)=89.69$, $p<0.001$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni test indicated that the mean score for time ($M=2.00$, $SD=0.87$) was significantly different from strain ($M=2.71$, $SD=0.85$). Mean scores for behaviour ($M=2.55$, $SD=0.81$, $p<0.001$) was significantly different from both time ($p<0.001$) and strain ($p<0.001$). The largest mean difference was between strain and time ($MD=0.62$).

To answer the hypothesis if fathers in the 2016 study experienced higher level of work- family conflict and family-work conflict, on all subscales (time, strain, behaviour), than fathers in the 2007 study, a series of independent t-tests were performed.

Table 6.

Descriptive statistics for work family/family work conflict and subscales (time, strain, behaviour) and results from independent t-tests comparison of 2007 and 2016 studies.

	2007		2016		Independent t-test	
	M	SD	M	SD	MD	t
WFC	2.62	0.65	2.65	0.76	0.03	-0.70
Time	2.80	0.95	2.85	0.97	0.04	-0.59
Strain	2.50	0.90	2.47	0.90	-0.03	0.56
Behaviour	2.55	0.79	2.64	1.02	0.09	-1.65
FWC	2.28	0.62	2.44	0.69	0.15	-3.56*
Time	2.30	0.85	2.09	0.87	-0.21	3.70*
Strain	2.02	0.82	2.71	0.85	0.68	-12.15*
Behaviour	2.52	0.72	2.55	0.81	0.03	-0.55

*Significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

Table 6 shows that there is a significant difference in means between 2007 and 2016 on the average score for family-work conflict and the subscales strain and time. It can therefore be concluded that fathers in the 2016 study experienced higher level of family-work conflict compared to fathers in 2007. Results also show that fathers in the 2016

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study experienced higher levels of strain-related conflict where family responsibilities interfere with work. However, there was a significant decrease in fathers' experience of time related conflict between 2007 and 2016. The hypothesis is thus confirmed in terms of family-work conflict and the subscale, strain.

Hypothesis 5:

Fathers in the 2016 study who experience greater organizational support, experience less work-family conflict and more work-family enrichment than fathers who report less organizational support.

To evaluate if fathers in the 2016 study who experienced greater organizational support experienced less work-family conflict and more work-family enrichment, a questionnaire was designed. Four questions, previously composed for the prior research in 2007 with three questions additionally developed by Clark (2001) were used to measure the amount of perceived organizational support. Responses for organizational support ($M=3.94$, $SD=0.67$) and work-family conflict ($M=2.65$, $SD=0.76$). Linear regression indicated that work-family conflict ($\beta=-0.40$, $p<0.001$) explained a relatively low 15.9% of the variance in terms of organizational support. Other variables such as age, salary per month and hours per week did not contribute to the model. A stepwise regression was conducted to explore the relationship between organizational support and work-family conflict. Variables added to the original model where work-family conflict was the only predictor were: age, salary, hours worked per week, number of children and managerial responsibility. Two dummy variables were created to add managerial responsibility (three categories) to the model. The first was: 'yes, great', coded as 1 and 'yes, some' and 'no' were combined and coded as 0. The second was: 'yes, some', coded as 1 and 'yes, great' and 'no' combined and coded as 0. The results from the stepwise regression produced one significant model with an additional predictor, a dummy variable for managerial responsibility ('Yes great' = 1, 'yes, some' = 0, 'no' = 0) ($\beta=0.219$, $p=0.029$).

A stepwise regression was also conducted to explore the relationship between organizational support and work-family enrichment. Variables added to the original model where work-family enrichment was the only predictor were: age, salary, hours worked per week, number of children and managerial responsibility, with the same dummy variables as in the previous regression model. The results from the stepwise regression did not produce any significant models with the additional predictors.

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Organizational support showed significant negative correlation to work- family conflict, (medium effect size $r = -0.40$, $p < 0.001$). Figure 5 shows the relationship between work-family conflict and organizational support as negative and linear and therefore it can be concluded that the greater the amount of organizational support is perceived by fathers, the less work family conflict is experienced.

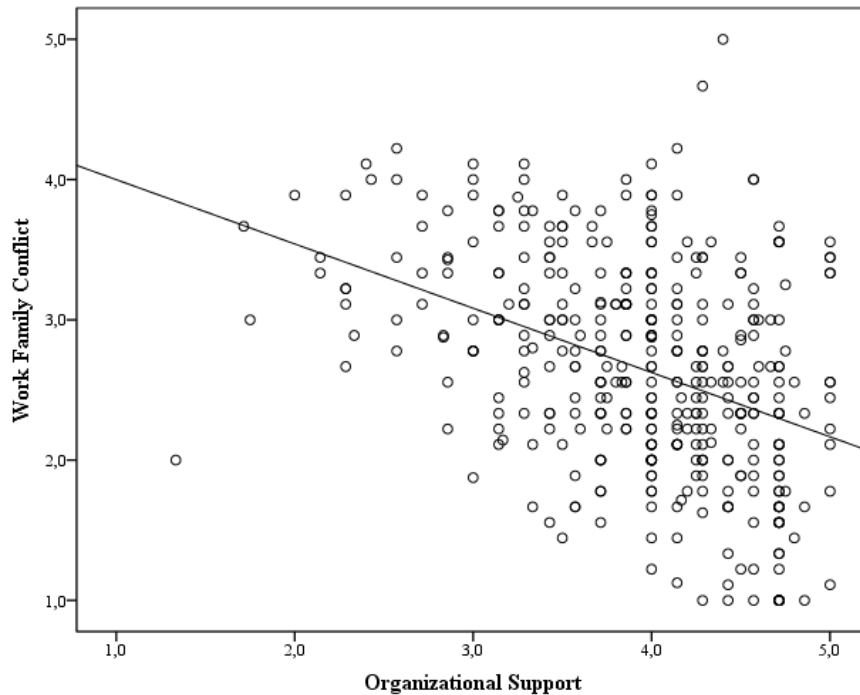


Figure 5. Scatterplot for perceived organizational support and work-family conflict.

Responses for work-family enrichment ($M = 3.68$, $SD = 0.64$) showed a significant positive correlation to organizational support, (small to medium effect size $r = 0.23$, $p = 0.001$).

Figure 6 shows that there is a considerable variability in the relationship between work - family enrichment and perceived organizational support. However, the relationship is significantly positive and linear, hence, it is concluded that the greater the amount of organizational support is perceived by fathers, the greater work-family enrichment is experienced.

3. Results

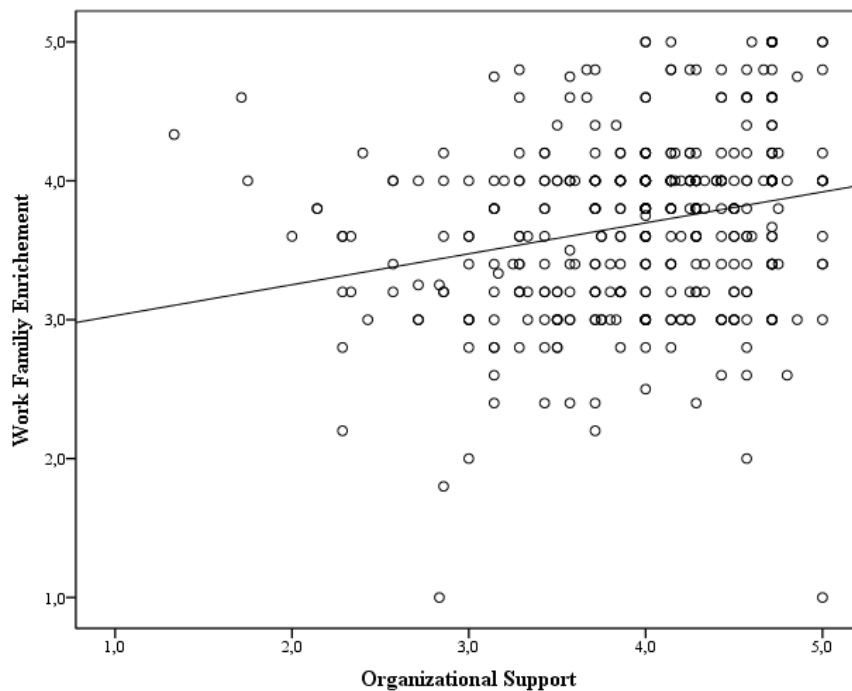


Figure 6. Scatterplot for perceived organizational support and work-family enrichment.

In accordance to these results the hypothesis that fathers who experience greater organizational support experience less work-family conflict and more work-family enrichment is confirmed.

For this study, two open ended questions were composed.

Question 1. What was the reason for arranging paternity leave like you did and Question 2. Were there any factors that had an impact or prevented you to fully use your of paternity leave rights? The most frequently stated reasons were categorized into four different categories e.g.: income, work related situation, family related reasons and other. An example of an answer which was categorized as income related was: *“The wage ceiling is too low and the loss of income during paternity leave is too high”*. An example of an answer which was categorized as work related situation was: *“I changed jobs and in my new job it was too difficult to apply for paternity leave”*. An example of an answer which was categorized as family related reasons was: *“The child needed its mother because of breastfeeding”*. An example of an answer which was categorized as other was: *“Moral standard”*.

For question number two, the same categories were used but with ‘No’ as an additional option. An example of an answer which was categorized as income related was: *“Only because of too low income”*. An example of an answer which was categorized as work related situation was: *“I started my career in a new company”*. An example of an

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answer which was categorized as family related reasons was: *“I just wanted to spend time with my child”*. An example of an answer which was categorized as other was: *“It is just unethical to require working people to pay for my paternity leave and it is a sign of a serious misunderstanding to call that rights”*.

Table 7.

Frequencies for stated reasons and contributors.

	N	%
Question 1^a		
Income	173	42,2
Work	49	12,0
Family	29	29,0
Other	31	7,6
Missing values	37	9,0
Total	410	100
Question 2^b		
No	107	26,1
Income	129	31,5
Work	31	7,6
Family	21	5,1
Other	18	4,4
Missing values	103	25,1
Total	410	100

^a Reasons for paternity leave arrangement.

^b Factors contributing to paternity leave arrangement.

The most frequently stated reasons and contributing factors in terms of arrangements of paternity leave were income related. Table 4 shows that 42,2% of fathers stated that their reason for arranging paternity leave as they did, was because of loss of income and the wage ceiling. Fathers were also asked to respond to the question: *“How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with your paternity leave taking”* on a five point Likert scale. Table 8 shows that 25,9% of fathers were dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with their paternity leave taking compared to 46,76% of fathers who were satisfied or very satisfied with their paternity leave taking.

Table 8.

How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with your paternity leave taking.

	N	%
Very dissatisfied	50	12.2
Dissatisfied	56	13.7
Not dissatisfied or satisfied	89	21.7
Satisfied	110	26.8
Very satisfied	81	19.8
Missing values	24	5.9
Total	410	100

4. Discussion

This research is in part a comparison on a study conducted by Arnardóttir et al. (2007). The emphasis in this study was to explore how fathers experience paternity leave and how the use of paternity leave has possibly evolved over the years in Iceland in terms of major economic changes e.g. economic crisis, the wage ceiling and the increased emphasis on fathers' participation in terms of care responsibilities. In the study there was an emphasis on the relationship development between fathers and children and if the length of paternity leave could possibly be related to a better relationship with the child. Work-family conflict was measured to see if there was a difference in the level of conflicts between fathers in 2007 and 2016 and if organizational support could lead to less work-family conflict and increased work-family enrichment. It is important to investigate this subject due to societal changes in terms of fathers' roles, where an increasing number of fathers want to become active in care responsibilities and the upbringing of their children. The consequences in the wake of the economic crisis in Iceland, 2008 have caused vast changes that have affected several aspect of the society, including legislation no. 95/2000. The twofold aim; providing children with an equal presence of both parents in the first forming months of life and secondly enabling both parents to effectively interweave work and personal life, is not being reached. Results from this study show that fewer fathers in 2016 are claiming their individual right of paternity leave compared to fathers in 2007. Many fathers refer to the payments from the maternity/paternity leave fund as being too low, which directly affects their decision on whether they use their rights of paternity leave fully, partly or not at all. These results emphasize the importance of raising the wage ceiling which would enable parents to spend more time with their families without excessive financial worries. These results bring a positive contribution into this field of studies and provide useful information for different parties, for example the labour market in terms of creating a family-friendly culture and environment, thereby reducing stress and absenteeism, the maternity/paternity leave fund in Iceland and other stakeholders and supporters who work on improving the wealthfare and gender equality of Icelandic parents.

Comparison between the studies from 2007 and 2016 show that the average length of claimed individual paternity leave has decreased.

This research focused on father's experience of paternity leave and if any changes have occurred between the years 2007 – 2016. Fathers in the 2016 study are claiming less of their individual paternity leave than fathers from the 2007 study. The amount of

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independent paternity leave claimed decreases from 75% down to 42.2% which indicates that some factors are affecting how fathers arrange their use of paternity leave. In the study from 2007 by Arnardóttir et al. there were only 8.1% fathers that did not claim any of their individual right of paternity leave compared to 12.2 % in the present study. In 2007 there was a difference in the length of paternity leave taking and the level of education but according to the 2016 results there is a very little difference between the levels of education and paternity leave. When it comes to shared parental leave, the length is very similar between the years 2007-2016, e.g. mothers still use most of the shared right. Fathers in the 2016 study with extensive or some managerial responsibility take shorter independent paternity leave than those who have no managerial responsibility. This is in accordance with results from the research conducted by Arnardóttir et al. (2007).

Fathers in the 2016 study, who claim longer paternity leave express that their relationship with their child is better than those who take shorter or no leave.

Paternity leave should enable fathers to build a closer relationship with their child (Brandth & Gíslason, 2011). The results from this study show that most fathers are, on average, satisfied with the relationship with their children. Fathers who used 0-4 weeks of paternity leave differed from those who took longer leave i.e. 5-8, 9-12, 13-16 weeks which indicates that fathers who take longer leave perceive their relationship as better than those who take shorter leave. Therefore it can be concluded that the length of paternity leave plays a role in the relationship development of fathers and their children. These results are in accordance with results from the study by Arnardóttir et al. (2007), where fathers who took longer independent paternity leave were more positive towards the questions on their relationship with their children than those who took shorter leave. However, it has to be kept in mind that these answers might be biased due to self-reporting i.e. fathers who take longer leave might be justifying their length of leave by stating that their relationship is better when it might not be the case. As Lamb (2010) stated, it is not the quantity of the time spent with the child, but the quality of time that matters, therefore it is important *how* fathers spend their time with their child when they are taking paternity leave.

Comparison between the studies from 2007 and 2016 shows that the level of work/family conflict, on all subscales (time, strain, behaviour), experienced by fathers in the 2016 study is higher than for fathers in the 2007 study.

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Results showed that fathers did not express difficulties in terms of reconciling work- and family responsibilities, which is in accordance with previous results by Stefánsson (2008). However, there was a significant difference between work-family conflict and family-work conflict for fathers in the 2016 study. The level of work-family conflict was perceived higher than the level of family-work conflict where the subscale *time* within work- family conflict seems to interfere more than the other subscales; *strain* and *behaviour*. Thus, it can be concluded that the amount of time fathers spend on work-related tasks interferes with their roles within the family domain. When family-work conflict was explored, fathers expressed that they perceived the level of *strain* higher than for *behaviour* and *time*. Thus, it can be concluded that strain caused by family responsibilities can interfere with father's role within the work domain.

Results show that fathers in the 2016 study experience significantly higher level of family- work conflict than fathers from the 2007 study. In the 2016 study, fathers seem to experience lower level of time related conflicts and higher level of strain related conflicts than fathers in 2007.

Fathers in the 2016 study who experienced greater organizational support, experience less work-family conflict and more work-family enrichment than fathers who report less organizational support.

Organizational support can reduce the risk of suffering conflict (Sundström & Duvander, 2002) and as prior research has indicated, this kind of support is important in terms of maintaining balance between the work- and family domains (Lauzun et al., 2010). Prior research indicates that organizations who emphasize strategic family-friendly policies can increase the employee's participation or performance at home, i.e. the work enriches the family-life (Greenhouse & Powell, 2006). In this study, organizational support was negatively correlated to work-family conflict and thus it is concluded that fathers who perceive greater organizational support express less work-family conflict. Work-family enrichment was positively correlated with organizational support and therefore it is assumed that fathers who perceive more organizational support express more work-family enrichment. Controlling for other variables did not provide any additional information about the relationship between organizational support and work-family conflict- and enrichment. According to the results in this study, fathers who experienced organizational support did express lower levels of conflict and higher levels of enrichment. The results underpin what prior research has shown i.e. that organizational

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support is important and organizations that emphasize family-friendly policies increase the possibility of the work domain bringing a positive spillover to the home domain.

Paternity leave taking – reasons for arrangements and contributing factors

Answers from the open ended questions in this study were summed up and results showed that most fathers declare the reason for their paternity leave arrangements to be that of a financial matter. Many of the fathers stated that the wage ceiling was too low and they could not afford to take all of the paternity leave due to a major loss of income. This applied both as a reason for how paternity leave was arranged and as a barrier of not using the leave fully. Other issues, such as family or work related situations were mentioned as well. For example, the mothers' wished to have the fathers claim paternity leave and a reason for not taking the leave was for example: the child was still being breast feed by the mother. Work related situation was for example that fewer fathers were claiming their paternity leave rights, mainly due to worries about job security post leave. In general, it can be concluded that the wage ceiling plays a great role if fathers are able to claim their rights of paternity and parental leave. The wage ceiling affects a much larger number of families than before which is probably a major reason for the decreased number of fathers claiming their rights. When fathers were asked how satisfied or dissatisfied they were with their paternity leave, most fathers stated that they were satisfied or very satisfied but still there was a quite large number of fathers that were dissatisfied or very dissatisfied.

Strengths and limitations of the study

In this research the sample consisted of 1000 fathers where 410 responded a questionnaire, returning a 41% response rate from the initial sample. It is not possible to generalize the results for the total population of fathers in Iceland but they still provide a good indication on the current status. The results in the present study are in accordance with recent data from Statistics of Iceland which shows that the number of fathers taking paternity leave is decreasing. It is not possible to know if the fathers' responses to the questionnaires are totally honest, for example it is hard to admit that you do not have a good relationship with your child and therefore response bias can prevail. Parental rights in same-sex marriage were not explored and the study is cross-sectional i.e. fathers in the 2007 study were not necessarily in the research sample for the 2016 study. The research can provide information that serves fathers with increased knowledge of their rights in terms of payments from the maternity/paternity leave fund and where they can possibly seek further information of their rights. Extending the findings to real-life would provide

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on the option of publishing a brochure with the aim of emphasizing the importance of paternity leave and the relationship formation with fathers and their children.

Future Research

For future research it would be interesting to explore if there is some kind of a demasculating effect that arises when fathers take paternity leave i.e if they experience themselves as „lesser men“ when claiming paternity leave. Further research could also aim to explore the effects of same sex marriage, as it would be interesting to investigate how the paternal leave usage is for example for two males, especially if both are well educated as they usually have higher salaries than females. Other interesting topics for further research would be exploring any differences between fathers who live within the capital of Reykjavík and those who live in the countryside and if the use of paternity leave decreases when parents have more children due to the increased expenses involved. Future research could also explore if parents who have a supportive network of relatives, such as grandparents, take longer or shorter leave and if there is a difference in the pattern of paternity leave use if parents get divorced within the first two years. It is necessary to conduct further studies in this field to reveal the consequences that can possibly occur in terms of the decreasing claims in paternity leave and to think about the long term effect it can have. We have come this far in being one of the most generous nations in providing paternity leave by taking into force a legislation that promotes gender equality, providing the child/children an equal presence of both parents. Today this legislation is not serving its original twofold purpose and an urgent change needs to be made to counteract the current development.

Conclusion

This study provides useful information and an overview for those who will conduct further studies in this field. It also provides insight into trends emerging from 2007-2016 in terms of claims on paternity leave. This will hopefully be one step towards a change of legislation no. 95/2000 for improving the conditions and facilitating fathers to take both the individual right of paternity leave and a fair amount of the shared parental leave as well. Hopefully these results will underpin the necessity for actions in terms of improving legislation no. 95/2000 and thereby raising the wage ceiling again so it will not affect as great number of families as it does today.

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Appendices

Appendix 1.

Úthringingar nemenda

Góðan daginn / gott kvöld ég heiti _____
 og hringi frá Háskólanum í
 Reykjavík. Gæti ég fengið að ræða við _____ (nafn þátttakanda)
 Tilefni þessarar símhringingar er að nafn þitt er í úrtaki rannsóknar sem ætlað er að kanna *reynslu feðra af feðralofi og hver hugsanleg áhrif taka þess hefur á ýmsa þætti eins og tengslamyndun við barn, viðhorf vinnuveitanda í garð feðraorlofstöku og jafnvægi í samþættingu atvinnu- og einkalífs*. Í ljósi þeirra breytinga sem átt hafa sér stað síðast liðin ár þ.e. veruleg lækkun launþaks á tekjum í orlofi og færri feður nýta sér orlofsrétt sinn, er mikilvægt að kanna hvort núverandi fæðingarorlofslög uppfylli þau markmið sem upphaflega voru sett fram og einnig að sýna fram á mikilvægi þess að feður nýti rétt sinn til feðraorlofs. Því skiptir þátttaka þín miklu máli. Jafnframt erum við að leita eftir því að makar fylli út annað eintak spurningalistans til að fá fram sjónarhorn þeirra.
 Því leita ég nú eftir samþykki þínu þess efnis að mega senda þér vefræna útgáfu spurningalistans sem þú svarar eftir þínum hentugleika. Alls tekur um 10 - 15 mínútur að ljúka svöruninni. Spurningalistinn verður sendur út í þessari viku og þeir sem ljúka svörun geta tekið þátt í happadrætti þar sem dregið er um tvö gjafabréf frá *Icelandair*.

Ef Já : Netfang föður ?

 Netfang maka þíns?

 Ef Já en ekki með netfang: STAÐFESTA

HEIMILISFANG og segja að þú munir senda spurningalistann í pósti ásamt umslagi til endursendingar til okkar.

Ef Nei: Ég þakka þér kærlega fyrir að gefa þér tíma til að hlusta á mig.

Þakka svo viðmælenda fyrir þátttökuna: TAKK FYRIR!

Appendix 2.

Fyrir stuttu síðan var haft samband við þig símleiðis vegna þess að nafnið þitt var í úrtaki rannsóknar sem ætlað er að kanna *reynslu feðra af feðralofi og hvaða hugsanleg*

áhrif taka þess hefur á þætti eins og tengslamyndun við barn, viðhorf vinnuveitanda í garð feðraorlofstöku og jafnvægi í samþættingu atvinnu- og einkalífs. Rannsóknin er framkvæmd í tengslum við þær breytingar sem hafa orðið síðast liðin ár, eins og veruleg lækkun launabaks á tekjum í orlofi og að færri feður nýta sér orlofsrétt sinn. Vegna þessara breytinga er mikilvægt að kanna hvort núverandi fæðingarorlofslöggjöf sé raunverulega að uppfylla þau markmið sem lögð voru fram og jafnframt sýna fram á mikilvægi þess að feður nýti rétt sinn til feðraorlofs. Því skiptir þátttaka þín miklu máli. Meðfylgjandi er spurningalisti sem við biðjum þig að svara eftir þínum hentugleika og minnum á að öll svör eru nafnlaus og órekjanleg. Að lokinni svörun getur þú tekið þátt í happadrætti þar sem dregið er um tvö gjafabréf frá Icelandair.

Kærar þakkir fyrir þátttökuna og þitt framlag við að gera þessa rannsókn að veruleika

Appendix 3.

Rannsókn á reynslu af og áhrifa þess

Um leið og þú fyllir út þennan spurningalista viljum við þakka þér fyrir þátttökuna og minna á að öll svör eru nafnlaus og með öllu órekjanleg. Spurningalistinn inniheldur fjögur megin þemu og áætlaður tími svörunar er u.þ.b. 10-15 mín. Þegar þú hefur lokið svörun spurningalistans getur þú skráð netfang þitt inn á sér vefslóð, þar sem dregið verður um tvö gjafabréf frá Icelandair.

Gangi þér vel og enn og aftur takk fyrir.

I. Bakgrunnsbreytur

1. Hvert er kyn þitt?
 - KK
 - KVK
2. Hvert er fæðingarár þitt? _____
3. Hver er hjúskaparstaða þín?
 - Einhleyp(ur)
 - Í samandi
 - Í sambúð
 - Gift(ur)
 - Fráskilin(n)
 - Ekkja/Ekkill
4. Hvert er hæsta skólastig sem þú hefur lokið prófi úr?
 - Grunn/gagnfræðaskóli
 - Iðn/fagskóli
 - Menntaskóli
 - Háskóli (BA, BS)
 - Háskóli (MA, MS, MBA, ..)
 - Háskóli (Doktorsgráða)
5. Hvaða starfi gegnir þú (opin)

6. Hefur þú mannaforráð á vinnustað?

- Já mikil
- Já nokkur
- Nei
- Á ekki við

7. Hver eru mánaðarlaun þín? (Fyrir skatt) (*Vinsamlega skráðu aðeins tölugildi en enga bókstafi*)

8. Hversu mörg börn búa á lögheimili þínu? (*Vinsamlega skráðu aðeins tölugildi en enga bókstafi*)

9. Hve margar klukkustundir vinnur þú að jafnaði á viku? (*Vinsamlega skráðu aðeins tölugildi en enga bókstafi*)

10. Hve margar klukkustundir vinnur maki þinn að jafnaði á viku?

- _____ og á ekki við.

Í eftirfarandi spurningum hér að neðan (spurningar nr. 12,13,14) ertu vinsamlegast beðin/n um að svara út frá barni þínu sem fætt er innan tímabilsins 31. desember 2011- 1. janúar 2013.

11 . Hvert er fæðingarár barnsins sem spurningum er svarað út frá?

- 2011
- 2012
- 2013

12. Ég tel að samband mitt við barn mitt sé gott

	1	2	3	4	5
	Mjög ósammála	Ósammála	Hvorki sammála né ósammála	Sammála	Mjög sammála

13. Stundum finnst mér eins og ég hafi misst af mikilvægum tímabilum í lífi barns míns

	1	2	3	4	5
	Mjög ósammála	Ósammála	Hvorki sammála né ósammála	Sammála	Mjög sammála

14. Ég vildi óska að ég sinnti meira af daglegri umönnun barns míns

	1	2	3	4	5
	Mjög ósammála	Ósammála	Hvorki sammála né ósammála	Sammála	Mjög sammála

Page Break

II. Skipting orlofstöku

15. Hversu margar vikur af lögbundnum og óskiptanlegum 3ja mánaða rétti þínum til fæðingarorlofs nýttir þú?

- Enga
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

- 6
- 7
- 8
- 9
- 10
- 11
- 12

16. Hversu margar vikur af sameiginlegum 3ja mánaða rétti foreldra til fæðingarorlofs nýttir þú?

- Enga
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7
- 8
- 9
- 10
- 11
- 12

17. Hvað réði því að orlof var tekið með þessum hætti? (*Vinsamlega skrifið í auða reitinn hér til hliðar*)

18 a) Varst þú sátt(ur) með fæðingarorlofstöku þína?

b) Voru einhverjir þættir sem höfðu áhrif á eða komu í veg fyrir að þú nýttir þér orlof þitt til fullnustu? (*Vinsamlega skrifið í auða reitinn hér til hliðar*)

19. Sinntir þú einhverjum öðrum launuðum störfum, öðrum en aðalstarfi sem orlof er tekið frá, á meðan á töku fæðingarorlofs stóð?

- Já
- Nei

III. Áhrif fæðingarorlofstöku

20. Eftir töku fæðingarorlofs upplifi ég meira jafnvægi á milli mín og maka míns hvað varðar ýmsa þætti daglegs lífs

1	2	3	4	5
Mjög ósammála	Ósammála	Hvorki sammála né ósammála	Sammála	Mjög sammála

21. Að hversu miklu eða litlu leyti telur þú að taka fæðingarorlofs hafi ...

a) aukið skilning þinn á þörfum ungs barns?

- 1 2 3 4 5
Ekkert Lítið Hvorki mikið né lítið Mikið Mjög mikið
- b) aukið ánægju þína af því að annast barnið þitt?
- 1 2 3 4 5
Ekkert Lítið Hvorki mikið né lítið Mikið Mjög mikið
- c) aukið tilfinningaleg tengsl þín við barn þitt?
- 1 2 3 4 5
Ekkert Lítið Hvorki mikið né lítið Mikið Mjög mikið
- d) aukið skilning þinn á því hversu mikil vinna það er að annast lítið barn.
- 1 2 3 4 5
Ekkert Lítið Hvorki mikið né lítið Mikið Mjög mikið
- e) aukið þátttöku þína í umönnun barnsins eftir að orlofi lauk?
- 1 2 3 4 5
Ekkert Lítið Hvorki mikið né lítið Mikið Mjög mikið
- f) aukið þátttöku þína í heimilisstörfum eftir að orlofi lauk?
- 1 2 3 4 5
Ekkert Lítið Hvorki mikið né lítið Mikið Mjög mikið
- g) aukið jafnræði milli þín og maka.
- 1 2 3 4 5
Ekkert Lítið Hvorki mikið né lítið Mikið Mjög mikið

22. Að hve miklu eða litlu leyti fannst þér starfsöryggi þínu ógnað við töku fæðingarorlofs?

- Alls ekki ógnað
- Lítið ógnað
- Nokkuð ógnað
- Mikið ógnað

23. Hversu jákvæður eða neikvæður var vinnuveitandi þinn gagnvart fæðingarorlofstöku þinni?

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög neikvæður Neikvæður Hvorki jákvæður né neikvæður Jákvæður Mjög jákvæður

24. Hversu jákvæðir eða neikvæðir voru samstarfsmenn þínir gagnvart fæðingarorlofstöku þinni?

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög neikvæðir Neikvæðir Hvorki jákvæðir né neikvæðir Jákvæðir Mjög jákvæðir

25. Hversu mikils eða lítils stuðnings naust þú frá vinnuveitanda eftir töku fæðingarorlofs?

- Stuðningur ekki merkjanlegur
- Lítils stuðnings
- Nokkurs stuðnings
- Mikils stuðnings

Page Break

IV. Viðhorf

Viðhorf

26. Ég upplifi það ekki sterkt að ég tilheyri fyrirtækinu sem ég starfa hjá.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála

27. Ég finn ekki hjá mér neina skyldu til að halda áfram hjá núverandi vinnuveitanda.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála

28. Fyrirtækið sem ég starfa hjá á tryggð mína skilið.

1 2 3 4 5

- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
29. Ég fæ mikla ánægju út úr starfi mínu.
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
30. Ég álít starf mitt frekar óspennandi.
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
31. Samband mitt og maka míns er gott.
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
32. Samband mitt við maka minn er mjög stöðugt.
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
33. Samband mitt og maka míns er traust.
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
34. Að flestu leyti er líf mitt eins gott og ég gæti óskað mér.
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
35. Til þessa hef ég öðlast flest það í lífinu sem ég tel mikilvægt.
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
36. Ég hef færni til að semja um og mæta þeim væntingum sem gerðar eru til mín á vin nustað og heima fyrir.
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
37. Ég stand undir þeim væntingum sem mikilvægir fjölskyldumeðlimir og vinnfélagar gera til mín
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
38. Þeir sem standa mér næst telja mig hafa gott jafnvægi milli vinnu og fjölskyldulífs
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
39. Yfirmaður minn hefur skilning á skyldum mínum gagnvart fjölskyldu minni
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
40. Yfirmaður minn viðurkennir að ég hef ákveðnar skyldur gagnvart fjölskyldu minni
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála
41. Á vinnustað mínum er almennur skilningur gagnvart umönnunarskyldu minni
- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki sammála né ósammála Sammála Mjög sammála

Ánægja

42. Hversu ánægð(ur) ertu með hversu nánir fjölskyldumeðlimir eru hver öðrum?

- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög óánægð(ur) Óánægð(ur) Hvorki óánægð(ur) né ánægð(ur) Ánægð(ur) Mjög ánægð(ur)
43. Hversu ánægð(ur) ertu með gæði samskipta milli fjölskyldumeðlima?

- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög óánægð(ur) Óánægð(ur) Hvorki óánægð(ur) né ánægð(ur) Ánægð(ur) Mjög ánægð(ur)
44. Hversu ánægð(ur) ertu með hversu miklum tíma þið eyðið saman sem fjölskylda?

- 1 2 3 4 5
- Mjög óánægð(ur) Óánægð(ur) Hvorki óánægð(ur) né ánægð(ur) Ánægð(ur) Mjög ánægð(ur)

45. Hversu ánægð(ur) ertu með umhyggju fjölskyldumeðlima hver fyrir öðrum?

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög óánægð(ur) Óánægð(ur) Hvorki óánægð(ur) né ánægð(ur) Ánægð(ur) Mjög ánægð(ur)

46. Á heildina litið, hversu ánægð(ur) eða óánægð(ur) ertu með starf þitt?

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög óánægð(ur) Óánægð(ur) Hvorki óánægð(ur) né ánægð(ur) Ánægð(ur) Mjög ánægð(ur)

47. Á heildina litið, hversu ánægð(ur) eða óánægð(ur) ertu með hjónaband/samband þitt?

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög óánægð(ur) Óánægð(ur) Hvorki óánægð(ur) né ánægð(ur) Ánægð(ur) Mjög ánægð(ur)

48. Á heildina litið, hversu ánægð(ur) eða óánægð(ur) ertu með líf þitt?

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög óánægð(ur) Óánægð(ur) Hvorki óánægð(ur) né ánægð(ur) Ánægð(ur) Mjög ánægð(ur)

Page Break **Jafnvægi milli vinnu og fjölskyldu**

49. Starf mitt hindrar mig of mikið í að gera hluti með fjölskyldunni.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

50. Sá tími sem ég þarf til að verja til vinnu kemur í veg fyrir að ég geti sinnt mínum hluta heimilishaldsins.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

51. Ég missi af fjölskylduatburðum vegna þess hversu mikill tími fer í að sinna starfi mínu.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

52. Sá tími sem fer í að sinna fjölskyldunni kemur nokkuð oft niður á starfi mínu.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

53. Sá tími sem ég ver með fjölskyldu minni veldur því oft að ég ver ekki tíma í starfstengdar athafnir sem gætu hjálpað starfsframa mínum.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

54. Ég þarf að sleppa starfstengdum athöfnum vegna þess tíma sem ég þarf að verja með fjölskyldunni.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

55. Þegar ég kem heim úr vinnunni er ég oft of þreytt(ur) til að taka þátt í fjölskyldulífi og heimilishaldi.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

56. Þegar ég kem heim úr vinninni er ég oft svo tilfinningalega þurraus(n) að ég get ekki gefið af mér til fjölskyldunnar minnar.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

57. Vegna álags í vinnunni er ég stundum of stressuð/stressaður þegar ég kem heim til að gera það sem ég hef ánægju af.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

58. Vegna álags heima fyrir er ég oft niðursokkin(n) í fjölskyldumál í vinnunni.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

59. Ég á oft í erfiðleikum með að einbeita mér að starfi mínu vegna álags sem tengist fjölskyldunni.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

60. Spenna og kvíði vegna fjölskyldumála dregur oft úr getu minni til að sinna starfi mínu.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

61. Þær aðferðir sem ég nota við að leysa verkefni í starfi eru ekki árangursríkar heima fyrir.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

62. Hegðun sem er gagnleg og nauðsynleg fyrir mig í starfi myndi gera ógagn heima fyrir.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

63. Árangursrík vinnubrögð í starfi hjálpa mér ekki að verða betra foreldri eða betri maki.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

64. Vinnubrögð sem skila árangri heima fyrir virðast ekki vera árangursrík í starfi.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

65. Hegðun sem er mér gagnleg og nauðsynleg heima fyrir myndi gera ógagn í starfi.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

66. Þær aðferðir sem ég nota við úrlausnarefni heima fyrir virðast ekki vera jafn nýtsamlegar í starfi.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

67. Þátttaka mín í starfi mínu hjálpar mér að öðlast færni og það hjálpar mér að vera betri fjölskyldumeðlimur.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

68. Þátttaka mín í starfi mínu stuðlar að vellíðan minni og það hjálpar mér að vera betri fjölskyldumeðlimur.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

69. Þátttaka mín í lífi fjölskyldu minnar gerir mig glaða(n) og það hjálpar mér að vera betri starfsmaður.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

70. Þátttaka mín í starfi mínu veldur því að mér finnst ég hafa náð árangri og það hjálpar mér að vera betri fjölskyldumeðlimur.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

71. Þátttaka mín í starfi mínu veldur því að mér finnst ég njóta velgengni og það hjálpar mér að vera betri fjölskyldumeðlimur.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

72. Þátttaka mín í lífi fjölskyldu minnar hjálpar mér að öðlast þekkingu og það hjálpar mér að vera betri starfsmaður.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

73. Þátttaka mín í lífi fjölskyldu minnar hjálpar mér að öðlast færni og það hjálpar mér að vera betri starfsmaður.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

74. Þátttaka mín í lífi fjölskyldu minnar kemur mér í gott skap og það hjálpar mér að vera betri starfsmaður.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

75. Þátttaka mín í lífi fjölskyldu minnar stuðlar að vellíðan minni og það hjálpar mér að vera betri starfsmaður.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

76. Þátttaka mín í starfi mínu gerir mig glaða(n) og það hjálpar mér að vera betri fjölskyldumeðlimur.

1 2 3 4 5
Mjög ósammála Ósammála Hvorki ósammála né sammála Sammála Mjög sammála

Kærar þakkir fyrir þátttökuna og þitt framlag við að gera þessa rannsókn að veruleika og við minnum á að ef þú hefur áhuga á að taka þátt í happadrætti þar sem dregið er um tvö gjafabréf frá Icelandair þá skaltu smella á linkinn hér að neðan.

Linkur fyrir þá sem vilja setja netfang sitt í flug happadrættið HÉR!