

ABSTRACT

Title of Document: AFFECTIVE PATHWAYS OF WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT AMONG DUAL-EARNER COUPLES

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2010

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The current study examined the extent to which resources generated at work influence family functioning among dual-earner couples while accounting for interdependence of observations among couples. Path analytic findings based in the Actor Partner Interdependence Model (APIM; Cook & Kenny, 2005) and Work-Family Enrichment Theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) supported the presence of a mediated model. The relationship between resources generated at work to positive family performance was mediated by positive affect at work. A number of intrapersonal effects, including one mediated effect emerged between work, positive affect at work, and family variables. One interpersonal effect was detected: female family-supportive organization perceptions predicted male dyadic adjustment. The results and implications for theory, policy, practice, and research are discussed.

AFFECTIVE PATHWAYS OF WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT AMONG DUAL-EARNER COUPLES

By

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Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the
University of Maryland, College Park, in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
2010

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Acknowledgements

I thank my committee members, Dr. Karen O'Brien, Dr. Sally Koblinskly, Dr. Matthew Miller, Dr. Cheri Ostroff, and Dr. Kathy Zamostny for their support and guidance. They have instructed me personally and professionally throughout this study and during this final chapter of my graduate education.

My research assistant Emily Ludwig contributed consistently to the successful completion in this project. Her thoughtful dedication, and perseverance with data recruitment, management, and collection, enabled this study to come to fruition.

Dr. Karen O'Brien is an inspiration for me beyond words. Karen, you have made me believe in myself as a scientist, as a practitioner, and most importantly as a young woman. Your faith in my abilities has given me the strength to continue pursuing challenging courses of research, practice, and scholarship.

My family has offered me support and encouragement throughout this process. I would like to thank my parents, Susan and Philip Dunn, my sisters, Christina and Faith, and my grandmother, Lydia Mohsenin, for their unconditional love and support in my graduate career.

I also want to thank Bruce Fretz, and the Division 17 Award Committee for funding my dissertation work. I also would like to thank Greg Hancock for generously contributing his time to help with statistical analyses.

Lastly, I thank the individuals in this study, whose willing participation has enabled me to better understand and appreciate their experiences as working parents.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

For many years, psychologists have attempted to understand the ways in which women and men in close relationships navigate the work-family interface (e.g., Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Gareis, Barnett, Ertel, & Berkman, 2009; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Perry-Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000). Over the past 30 years, educational and career landscapes have transformed dramatically. A narrowing educational gap between women and men (U.S. Census, 2005) has been accompanied by an influx of women in the job market (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009a). At present, most married couples in the U.S. (about 62%) are dual-earner couples, meaning that both the partners are employed (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009b). Such social changes in demographics (e.g., the growing number of dual-earner couples) have likely increased the interdependencies between work and family roles (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Research seems to suggest that in families where both partners work (i.e., dual-earner couples), the interface between work and family may produce a host of positive and negative relational and psychological sequelae (e.g., Byron, 2005; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Hammer, Allen, & Grigsby, 1997; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). Consistent with psychology's historical tendency of focusing on deficit perspectives (See Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), the work-family interface literature has been saturated by studies on work-family conflict. Recent theoretical advances by Greenhaus and colleagues (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006) on affective pathways of work-family enrichment have transformed the

ways in which psychologists can study the dynamic relationship between work and family. The purposes of the current study were to test theoretical propositions regarding the resources at work that contribute to enrichment in family domains, and extend knowledge by examining both members of working couples. This study purported to examine couples functioning by incorporating a conceptual and analytic strategy which accounted for the interdependence of couples' experiences. Additionally, the current study sought to address science, practice, and advocacy realms of the work-family domain, as recommended by Fassinger and O'Brien (2000).

The Current Study

The work-family conflict literature to date has documented myriad challenges which may emerge in work and family domains (See Byron, 2005 for a review). Although the work-family interface literature is quite expansive, existing studies which focus on couples have been limited by three serious methodological and conceptual shortcomings. First, there is a dearth of literature on ways in which work and family may enrich one another (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Many existing studies in the work-family conflict literature have documented ways in which work and family detract from one another. The current study is consistent with counseling psychology's historical emphasis of focusing on strengths and positive psychological functioning as this study examined positive aspects of work and family among dual-earner couples.

Second, the work-family enrichment literature has neglected cross-over effects, or the interdependence of husbands' and wives' experiences in close relationships (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2006). Scholars contend that individuals in close relationships influence each other in many ways (Berscheid & Regan, 2005; Larson &

Almeida, 1999). Thus, it is theoretically plausible that one partner's vocational functioning (e.g., much flexibility at work) may influence their partner's relationship functioning (e.g., satisfaction with the romantic relationship). It is particularly striking that in a literature which demonstrates interdependence between work and family has neglected the study of the interdependence of partners.

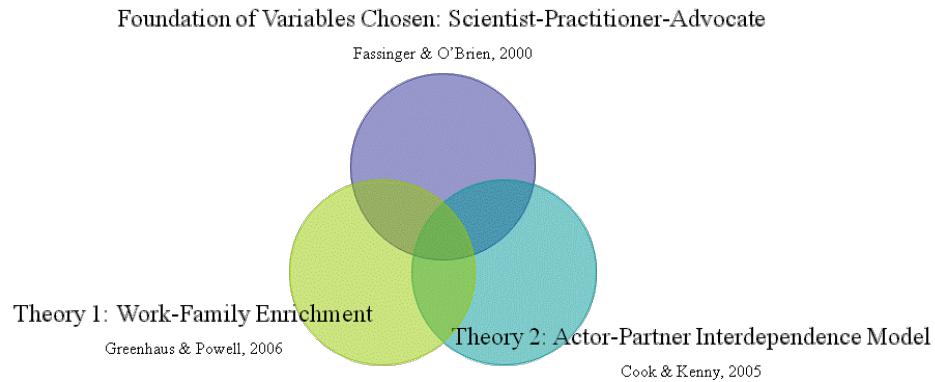
Third, the current study sought to address three areas (science, practice, and advocacy) discussed by Fassinger and O'Brien (2000) by advancing scientific understanding of work/family balance among working women, informing the practice of career counseling, and informing advocacy efforts related to women's career development. Since many studies in this area have been conducted from an industrial/organizational lens, counseling psychologists can further research to better understand how the work-family interface may inform science, practice, and advocacy. The predictor variables in this study are consistent with Fassinger and O'Brien's (2000) scientist-practitioner-advocate model of intervention with women's career development, which encourages counseling psychologists to expand their role as scientist-practitioners, and advocate for change within a social justice framework. For example, the predictor variables included in the current study were selected as potential intervention areas for counseling psychologists engaged in public policy intervention (e.g., work-place flexibility). The current study tested one component of work-family enrichment theory and sought to articulate future research and practice implications for mental health practitioners (e.g., couple counseling and career counseling). Moreover, this investigation contributed to the counseling psychology literature by focusing on how couples'

relationships and psychological and parental functioning may benefit from their work experiences.

Theoretical overview

To address conceptual and methodological limitations mentioned previously, this research integrated two theoretical frameworks, and theoretical suggestions from Fassinger and O'Brien (2000). Thus, three distinct theoretical perspectives were consulted in the current study (See Figure 1). First, we sought to implement Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory on work-family enrichment. This theory moves beyond a conflict perspective by proposing a number of mechanisms which explain the ways in which work and family may serve to enrich one another. We selected a number of variables from this model to explain the relationships between work and family among dual-earner couples. Second, we utilized a dyadic framework for understanding the ways in which work may enrich family functioning among dual-earner couples. This framework accounts for interdependence among couples by examining actor (intrapersonal) and partner (interpersonal) effects. Third, the current study selected variables which were consistent with Greenhaus and Powell's model which may be amenable to change. Our selection of variables reflected recommendations from Fassinger and O'Brien (2000) for psychologists to embody a scientist-practitioner-advocate model.

Figure 1: Theoretical Integration



Overview of Conceptual Model and Analytic Approach

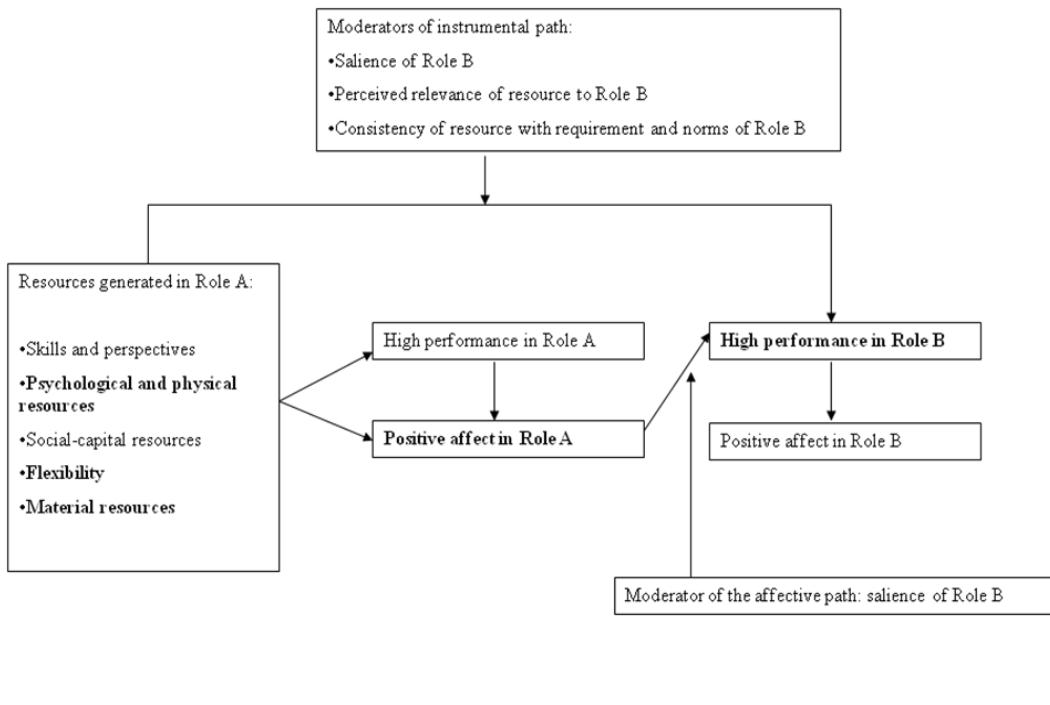
This integrated theoretical approach sought to address two major questions using appropriate statistical methods. Since this study sought to examine dyadic effects, the Actor Partner Interdependence Model (APIM; Cook & Kenny, 2005) was implemented. The purposes of the study were three tiered. The first purpose of the study was to examine relations between dual-earner couples' experiences at work and family functioning. The second purpose of this study was to examine how affect may help explain the relationship between positive functioning at work and family functioning. To address this purpose, the extent to which affect at work (a mediating variable) explained the relationship between work and family functioning among dual-earner couples was examined. To address these purposes, path analysis, a commonly used approach to test theories, was implemented to examine underlying constructs in the above theories. Path analysis was used to test the extent to which the sample data fit the hypothesized model.

Last, the third purpose of the study was to examine how family role salience related to resources generated at work and family functioning in an exploratory capacity.

Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory of work-family enrichment is embedded in a positive psychology framework. In the millennial issue of the *American Psychologist*, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) described positive psychology, which has advocated the study of positive emotions, positive character, and positive institutions. Notably, this positive psychology movement within psychology is not a new development for counseling psychology; Harari and colleagues (2005) described the congruence between counseling psychology's philosophy and positive functioning. Specifically, counseling psychology has a historical focus on attention to prevention, education, emphasis on positive personality characteristics and strengths, enhancing positive coping resources, and overall wellness. In contrast to deficit models in the work-family interface literature (i.e., work-family conflict theoretical models), positive psychological perspectives focusing on enrichment enable researchers and practitioners to move beyond pathology and focus on healthy functioning across life domains. Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model provided templates for understanding the work-family interface from a positive psychology perspective. The current study intended to test portions of this model in a sample of dual-earner couples.

Theory 1: Work-family enrichment. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) proposed two mechanisms by which work and family may augment one another (see Figure 1). The authors coined the first mechanism the "instrumental pathway," because resources are transferred from one role to another. The second mechanism is called the "affective pathway," because it implicates positive affect as a mediating variable.

Figure 2. Overview of Work-family Enrichment Theory



According to Greenhaus and Powell (2006), through the “affective pathway,” resources which are generated in one role increase functioning in another role. Because theoretical perspectives traditionally have neglected affect in the work-family interface (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wharton & Erickson, 1993) the current study sought to examine the affective pathway which links work and family domains. Although research on affect in organizations is “alive and well” (Brief & Weiss, 2002, p. 300), work-family literature only recently has begun to understand the role of affect. This may be in part because psychology has only recently (the 1980s) recognized the importance of affect (Watson & Clark, 1997). For the purposes of this paper, affective reactions are

conceptualized according Lazarus' (1993) cognitive mediation approach whereby the particular emotion (e.g., joy, sadness) one experiences depends on the appraisal, or thoughts given to a situation. Consistent with Barrett (2006), emotions are conceptualized as psychologically complex entities like fear, sadness, and joy, which are difficult to measure objectively, but can be approximated with self-report, physiological, and behavioral indices. This conceptualization of emotions is broad, meaning that emotions may be measured in a number of ways including subjective individual experience, facial movements and peripheral physiology, and objective measures of voice (Barrett, 2006).

For clarity in the subsequent explanation, Role A will be the roles assumed by a woman in work domains, while Role B will be a woman's role in her family. These roles, however, may be used interchangeably with both genders in work and family domains. In this model, the presence of the particular assets in Role A is thought to produce positive affect in Role A. For example, a mother who benefits from a flexible work environment may experience positive affect (e.g., positive mood and positive emotions) at work. These assets in Role A (e.g., a flexible work environment) may contribute to positive affect in Role A either directly or indirectly, through high performance in Role A (e.g., better job performance). According to the model, resources generated at work (e.g., a flexible work environment) may directly lead to positive affect at work, or may indirectly result in positive affect at work as a result of better job performance. Enrichment processes are hypothesized to occur when positive affect in Role A promotes positive functioning in Role B. Thus, positive affect at work is thought to enhance performance in family domains (e.g., greater relationship satisfaction). This relationship is moderated by the salience of Role B, or family role salience in this case. Since more salient roles are

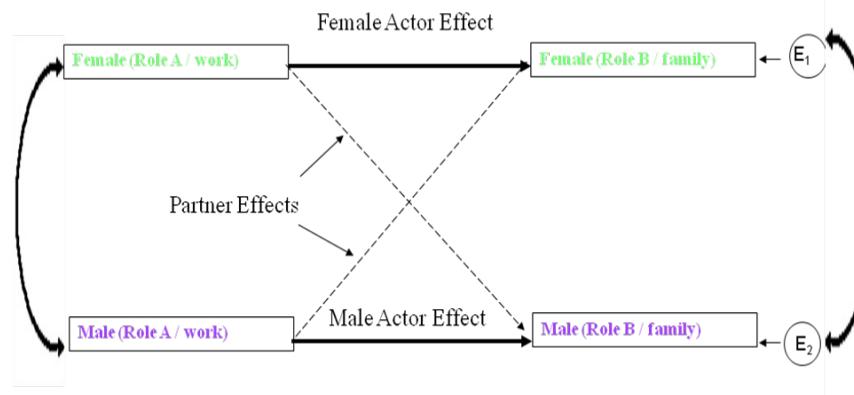
associated with higher values on performing well in a given role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), the relationship between positive affect at work and enhanced family performance would be strongest for individuals whose family role is most salient.

Theory 2: Actor-Partner Interdependence Model. The current study examined interdependence of individuals in close relationships by utilizing the Actor Partner Interdependence Model (APIM; Cook & Kenny, 2005; Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006). The Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (APIM) has been recommended for appropriately conceptualizing and analyzing dyadic relationships (e.g., Campbell & Kashy, 2002; Cook & Kenny, 2005; Kenny et al., 2006). Barnett and colleagues (1993) described how the traditional method of conducting two regressions for women and men makes several egregious errors. Notably, conducting two regressions necessitates using the same predictors in each analysis, combines between and within couple variances, and does not account for the dependent nature of observations. Many studies on emotional functioning in couples, career development, and psychological well-being have not accounted for the interactions between characteristics of the individual and their partner. Most existing research examined *actor* effects by addressing intrapersonal psychological phenomena (e.g., the trajectory of a woman's self-efficacy at work and her psychological sequela).

The current study addressed this limitation by examining *partner* effects. A partner effect refers to interpersonal phenomena (e.g., how a woman's occupational self-efficacy at for managing work and family roles influences her partner's dyadic functioning). Research has indicated that affective experiences at work cross-over into family realms among working couples (Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Wethington, 1989;

Jones & Fletcher, 1996; Song, Fu, & Uy, 2008). These inter-individual or dyadic effects have also been referred to in the literature as crossover effects (e.g., Westman, 2001). Notably, APIM (Kenny et al., 2006) can be used to examine such dyadic or cross-over effects. This model assumes that the predictors are antecedent to the outcomes (Kenny et al., 2006). Kenny and colleagues (2006) explained that there are two correlations that are part of the model. In Figure 2, r_1 is indicative of a compositional effect, meaning that the couples were likely similar before they were paired together on a number of variables (e.g., race, religion, SES, and education level). The second correlation, r_2 , is a correlation between the residual errors associated with the outcome scores. In other words, the correlation between the residual error terms depicts the non-independence not captured in the model. Using path analysis enabled these interdependent variables to correlate, thus reflecting the interdependence of observations.

Figure 3: Actor-Partner Interdependence Model



The APIM addresses analytical limitations inherent in previous studies of these constructs. Many traditional statistical analyses like ANOVA and regression assume non-independence of observations. APIM accounts for the violation of this assumption in couples, whose observations are dependent on each other. APIM effectively estimates

effects for both the individual and the dyad (Cook & Kenny, 2005). Kenny and colleagues (2006) noted that APIM can be estimated using several statistical techniques including pooled regression, multilevel modeling, and structural equation modeling. The current study examined nested actor and partner effects using path analysis and APIM for conceptualizing the appropriate statistical analyses to elucidate intrapersonal and interpersonal effects.

Foundation of Variables: Scientist-Practitioner-Advocate

There has been a false dichotomy drawn between work and family for women: Fassinger and O'Brien (2000) argued that for working women, family and work are conflated. The results of a sociopolitical work-family dichotomy can be ruinous for women: "This split prevents women from effectively integrating their work and personal lives without feeling stressed guilty, and inadequate..." (p. 260). These authors noted that vocational psychologists are in the unique position to integrate work and personal domains by recognizing the mutual interdependencies for working couples.

Based on recommendations from Fassinger and O'Brien (2000), four variables reflecting couples' work experiences were identified from Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model as possible areas for intervention and policy. Broadly, the variables were chosen in accordance with Lewin's (1936) proposition that a person's behavior is a function of the person and their environment. Thus, for enrichment to occur, the person and the environment are potential areas of intervention. In accordance with counseling psychology's emphasis on a research which informs practice, the current study included variables which may be altered. For instance, changes in work-place policy represent changes in the external environments which affect parents' well-being, and thus

indirectly affect children's development. The enhancement of occupational self-efficacy represents an example of a person variable which may be modified to improve family functioning. In short, the predictor variables are seemingly malleable, and may be changed through individual (e.g., improving workers' self-efficacy) or systemic (e.g., changing work place policies) interventions. Consistent with Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model, the variables selected include flexible work environments, family supportive organization perceptions, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy.

Predictor Variables: Resources at Work that are Amenable to Change

Flexible work environments. Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) enrichment model theorized that supportive work environments (e.g., work environments perceived as flexible or family-friendly) would have positive implications for family functioning. The current study focused on work flexibility, which was rated amongst the most important benefit options by employees, and is an important component of family supportive work practices (Allen, 2001). Many employers offer family-friendly work benefits like flextime which are intended to help employees manage multiple life roles, and reduce role strain (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999). In a recent meta-analysis, flexible work schedules influenced absenteeism, job satisfaction, and work productivity (Baltes et al., 1999). The current study assessed availability and usage of indicators of work flexibility, and examined the extent to which these variables influence dual-earner couples non-work functioning.

Family supportive organization perceptions. Despite organizations' attempts to demonstrate support by offering family-friendly benefits and flexible work schedules, Allen (2001) argued that the employees oftentimes do not perceive their work as

amenable to balancing family and work roles. Allen (2001) suggested that the availability of flexible work options may not help employees manage work and family responsibilities unless the culture and norms of the organization are modified. Employees' perceptions that their work environment is supportive of flexible work arrangements may influence work and family domains. For example, Allen (2001) reported that family-supportive organization perception (FSOPs) mediated the relationship between availability of benefits and job satisfaction, affective commitment, and work-family conflict. Thus, this study also assessed employees' perceptions of the degree to which the work environment is supportive of family.

Material resources: Income. Material resources earned at work were hypothesized to enrich family functioning (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). According to Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) conceptualization, material resources referred to money (e.g., income) and benefits (e.g., health insurance) attained at work. A large body of research has sought to establish causal links between income and various psychological and relational outcomes. For example, greater income has been associated consistently with positive outcomes like cognitive stimulation in young children (Votruba-Drzal, 2005), marital satisfaction (Rogers & DeBoer, 2001), and well-being (Rogers & DeBoer, 2001). Recently, Liu and Ali (2007) elucidated some of these intricate relationships between social class and mental health.

The current study examined ways in which income generated at work may enrich family variables among dual-earner couples. Not all research has indicated positive relationships between income and psychological functioning (e.g., Diener et al., 1999; Diener, 2000). Research in subjective well-being has indicated that the correlations

between income and subjective well-being are small to zero in many cases (Diener, 2000; Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). In a review of the subjective well-being literature, Diener and colleagues (1999) noted that the wealthier tend to be happier than the poor, but the effects are modest. With regard to dual-earner couples, Barnett and Hyde (2001) hypothesized that higher income couples may remove some pressure from husbands to provide financially for the family. In sum, the current study sought to elucidate the influence of income on enrichment processes among dual-earner couples.

Occupational self-efficacy. Self-efficacy refers to cognitive appraisals of one's ability to perform a specific behavior (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy is a core construct in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977). According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy may be developed by facilitating mastery experiences (e.g., I have managed work and family before in the past), social modeling (e.g., I have noticed that my mentor successfully balances work and family life), social persuasion (e.g., I was persuaded by my boss that I have the skills and resources to navigate successfully my work and family roles), and psychological responses (e.g., My mood, physical reactions, and stress levels at work may influence how well I perform in my family roles). Hackett and Betz (1981) applied Bandura's self-efficacy theory to vocational psychology. Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994) has implicated domain specific self-efficacy as a critical variable in career development. Self-efficacy within work domains is of particular interest to counseling psychologists who strive to broaden career choices (e.g., encouraging more women to enter into STEM fields), and help individuals improve job performance and job satisfaction. Self-efficacy also has been applied broadly to the Industrial/Organizational psychology literature. For example, meta-analytic review of

self-efficacy and work performance indicated a strong positive correlation (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) suggested that situation-specific self-efficacy may be a better predictor of work-related performance than personality based constructs.

The current study examined occupational self-efficacy, one type of domain-specific self-efficacy. Consistent with Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model, occupational self-efficacy reflects a resource which may be generated in the context of a work role. Occupational self-efficacy reflects the extent to which individuals across occupations are confident within work domains (Schyns & von Collani, 2002). Occupational self-efficacy differs from work-related generalized self-efficacy (Speier & Frese, 1997) which is broader in nature. Work-related self-efficacy as conceptualized by Speier and Frese (1997) refers to generalized self-efficacy expectations, including beliefs about one's abilities to reach goals. In contrast, occupational self-efficacy is a medium level self-efficacy predictor which is domain-specific to work, but not task specific to a particular job (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008). Occupational self-efficacy allows researchers to compare across working individuals (Schyns & von Collani, 2002).

Occupational self-efficacy has been studied broadly as a predictor of vocational and work outcomes. For example, Schyns and von Collani (2002) found that occupational self-efficacy predicted job satisfaction beyond global self-evaluation constructs like self-esteem, locus of control, and generalized self-efficacy. Occupational self-efficacy also is strongly negatively correlated with neuroticism, indicating that individuals with high levels of emotional lability, and irritation are less likely to feel confident about their abilities to succeed at their job. Occupational self-efficacy has been studied across

numerous countries, and has been found to predict job satisfaction, job performance, and job commitment (Rigotti et al., 2008). Schyns (2004) proposed that leaders in organizations may bolster employees' occupational self-efficacy, which may influence employees' readiness to undertake increasingly complex tasks at work. Although research has examined occupational self-efficacy in the organizational context, there has been no work to date which has explicated the role of occupational self-efficacy as part of a constellation of social-cognitive variables at work which influence family functioning among dual-earner couples. The current study sought to extend the literature by highlighting ways in which occupational self-efficacy may enrich family functioning.

Outcome Variables: Family Performance

The current study assessed the ways in which resources generated at work influence family functioning. In accordance with Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) enrichment model, family satisfaction, dyadic adjustment, and parenting behavior were included as measures of performance in family domains.

Life satisfaction and domain-specific family satisfaction. Subjective well-being is a way of conceptualizing the hedonic pain/ pleasure continuum in the human experience and has two major components: affect and life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 1993; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Satisfaction with life represents the extent to which a person experiences global satisfaction with her or his life (Diener, 2000). Global life satisfaction has been shown to correlate with specific aspects of life satisfaction in specific domains like marital satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999). Although there are multiple ways to conceptualize satisfaction with life (e.g., marital and occupational), global life satisfaction is a subjective judgment of one's life which is related positively to measures

of well-being and negatively related to psychopathology (Pavot, Diener, Colvin, & Sandvik, 1991) and is a relatively stable and global component of subjective well-being. There are numerous influences on reports of life satisfaction including temperament, personality, cultural factors, self-esteem, and social support (Diener, 2000). According to Pavot and Diener (1993), life satisfaction as a construct demonstrates some temporal stability; however, life satisfaction is sensitive enough that it may change over the course of clinical intervention.

Although examining life satisfaction among families is one way to conceptualize positive psychological functioning, Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory suggested that an investigation of work-family enrichment processes should include measures of work and family functioning. Thus, the current study assessed family satisfaction, one type of domain specific life-satisfaction. Lent and Brown (2008) noted that counseling professions' foci on prevention and remediation have promoted emphases on domain-specific aspects of well-being which are amenable to change. The current study conceptualized family satisfaction as an indicator of domain-specific life satisfaction. Understanding family satisfaction is important in terms of identifying feelings and attitudes in normal and dysfunctional families (Carver & Jones, 1992). Although research has revealed repeatedly that work influences family functioning (e.g., Ford et al., 2007; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Whiston & Cinnamon, under review), no studies have examined ways in which resources generated in work are related to a global indicator of family satisfaction.

Dyadic adjustment. According to Graham and colleagues (2006), dyadic adjustment is a reliable and valid construct which assesses relationship quality.

According to Spanier (1976), dyadic adjustment has several components, including dyadic satisfaction, consensus on matters important to relationship functioning, relationship cohesion, and affective expression. Notably, dyadic adjustment predicts indispensable relationship outcomes like marital dissolution (e.g., Sabourin, Valois, & Lussier, 2005), and individual outcomes like personal well-being (e.g., Proulx, Helms, & Buehler, 2008). A meta-analytic review also implicated marital functioning in influencing health outcomes indirectly (e.g., through depression), and directly (e.g., physiologically; Kiecolt-Glaser, 2001). The current study examined the degree to which resources generated at work may influence dyadic functioning.

Parent performance: Parenting behavior. Parenting behavior is one way to conceptualize performance in family roles. Couples who demonstrate enrichment according to Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model, should experience enhanced performance in their parenting roles. Parenting behavior encompasses specific ways in which parents interact with their children. Research has suggested that parents' behaviors towards their children influences their children's psychological functioning, as measured by children's depressive symptomatology (Dallaire et al., 2006; Jones, Forehand, Rakow, Colletti, McKee, & Zalot, 2008), externalizing disorders (Caron, Weiss, Harris, Catron, 2006; Skopp, McDonald, Jouriles, & Rosenfield, 2007), and Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (Wells et al., 2006). Additionally, mothers who are at higher risk for child-physical abuse have reported fewer supportive behaviors and more hostile/coercive behaviors with their children (Dopke, Lundahl, Dunsterville, & Lovejoy, 2003). In short, parenting behaviors are one indicator of parental functioning, and are

associated with a host of important variables related to children's psychological and physical well-being.

Lovejoy and colleagues (1999) conceptualized parenting behavior as consisting of two distinct and unrelated constructs: supportive/engaged parenting, and hostile/coercive parenting. Since the current study focuses on enrichment processes and positive functioning, the supportive/engaged parenting behavior construct was of particular interest. Lovejoy and colleagues (1999) suggested that supportive/engaged parenting is comparable to the construct of parental warmth. They defined supportive/engaged parenting as, "behavior which demonstrates the parent's acceptance of the child through affection, shared activities, and emotional and instrumental support" (p. 535). Research indicated that mother's supportive/engaged parenting behavior was related positively to positive affect, and negatively to maternal stress, parental distress, and child dysfunction (Lovejoy et al., 1999). In sum, the current study investigated the extent to which resources generated at work influence parenting behaviors through affective processes among dual-earner couples.

Exploratory Analyses: Family Role Salience

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) posited that affective enrichment processes are moderated by role salience. For example, flexible work environments may influence marital functioning, only if marital functioning is deemed to be salient in one's life. Thoits (1991) noted that roles are sets of behavioral expectations or scripts that are attached to positions in social structures. Moreover, identities derived from roles (e.g., mother, worker, or wife) influence how an individual views themselves, and how they ought to behave. As discussed above, theory also has suggested that role salience may be

a moderator in the relationship between resources generated at work and family functioning (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Therefore, role salience was included in this study. However, this construct was studied in an exploratory manner because examining role salience as a moderator would entail implementing multi-group path analysis by conducting a median split based on couples' level of role salience. These procedures, i.e., testing moderation using multi-group path analysis, are statistically limited (G. Hancock, personal communication, September 11, 2009). Additionally, detecting interaction effects using this method would require a very large sample size. To examine moderation, the model would need to be examined independently for both groups (high and low family role salience), and differences between corresponding parameters would need to be examined by constraining parameters and examining model fit indices. Thus, in this study, family role salience was examined in a preliminary manner as a variable which may relate to the work-family enrichment processes.

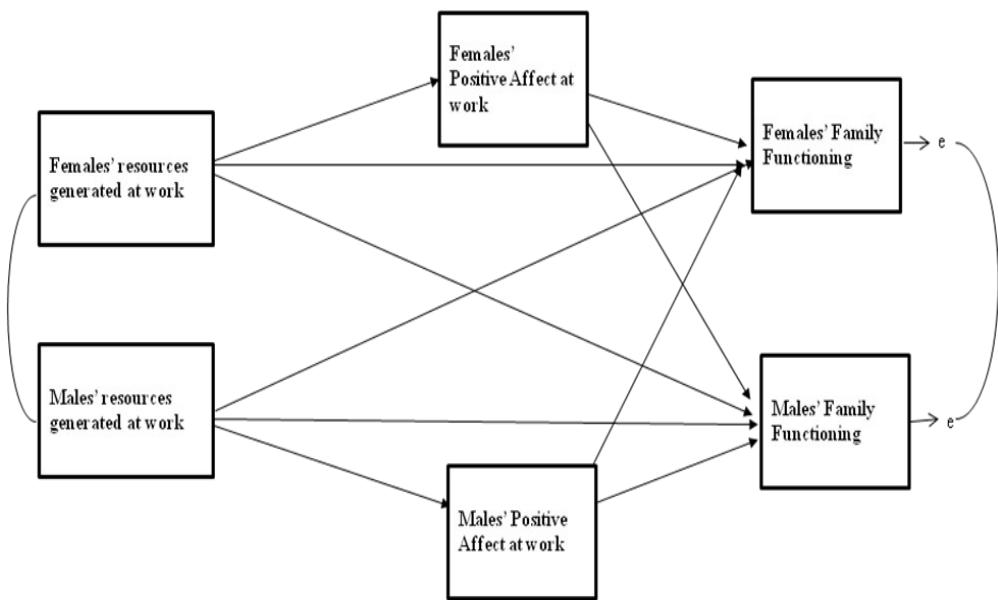
Statement of the Problem

For counseling psychologists, the aforementioned societal transformations in work and family demographics provide an opportunity to examine how dual-earner couples function. Elucidating the processes of the work-family interface is relevant beyond individual psychological and vocational functioning. Understanding this intersection and corresponding affective pathways of enrichment among dual-earner couples also inform how their functioning influences their partner's functioning, the health of their relationship, and their parenting outcomes.

To extend the work-family interface literature, the current study tested a portion of the Work-Family Enrichment Theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) by examining the

extent to which resources generated in work domains (supportive and flexible work environment, family supportive organization perceptions, income, and occupational self-efficacy), along with positive affect at work, related to aspects of family functioning (family satisfaction, dyadic adjustment, and parenting behavior). Additionally, affect at work was examined as a mediating variable to help explain how and why resources generated at work relate to family functioning. The Actor Partner Interdependence Model (Cook & Kenny, 2005) enabled an examination of the Greenhaus and Powell's model by examining intrapersonal and interpersonal effects. Role salience was included in the correlational analyses in an exploratory capacity to examine relations with the variables of interest. Last, all variables were selected in accordance with Fassinger and O'Brien's (2000) recommendations that counseling psychologists engage in science, practice, and advocacy roles. The proposed model includes variables included in the current study that were hypothesized components of work-family enrichment.

Figure 4: Proposed Model: Interdependent Affective Pathways of Enrichment:



CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This review of the literature on the affective pathways of work-family enrichment among dual-earner couples is divided into subsections. The first section is an overview of the social context of the work-family interface, with particular attention devoted to sociocultural changes, and US policy. The second section highlights theoretical advances in the work-family enrichment literature, including the work-to-family interface, and affective processes in work-family enrichment. The third section overviews the predictor variables in the current study (supportive and flexible work environments, family supportive organization perceptions, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy). Role salience was also examined in an exploratory manner as variable which may affect the strength and magnitude of the work-to-family interface. The fourth section reviews family outcomes including family satisfaction, dyadic adjustment, and parent behavior. The fifth section reviews methodological considerations and the Actor Partner Interdependence Model.

Social Context of the Work-Family Interface

The work-family interface in the United States continues to change as the country's social mores develop and shift. Notably, over the last 30 years, women's presence in the work force has increased (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009a), while marital trends indicate Americans are increasingly remaining single at higher rates, and marrying at later ages (U.S. Census, 2005). In 1970, women constituted only 38% of the labor force; by 2000, the U.S. Census estimated that women constituted about half of the employed labor force.

A recent report by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2009a) overviewed changes in women's work experiences over the last 30 years. According to this report, women are increasingly likely to work full-time and year-round in part because of economic necessity. Furthermore, women's lifetime participation in the labor force increasingly mirrors men's participation, as women add on work responsibilities to traditional family responsibilities. Women are increasingly likely to pursue managerial occupations; however, there remain marked gender disparities in occupational selection. For example, the report noted that women represent 92% of Registered Nurses but only 24% of management occupations. About half of women remain employed in sales (retail and personal services), services, and administrative support. Although the ratio of women's to men's earnings have risen over the past 30 years, women continue to play "catch up" to men, as the number of women with college degrees has increased. Women of color are twice as likely as Asian and White women to live below the poverty line (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009a).

These sociocultural changes have been accompanied by shifting work and family roles for women and men (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). According to Barnett and Hyde (2001), traditional sociological and psychological theories which emphasize inherent gender differences have been largely unsuccessful at explaining the contemporary intersection between gender, work, and family. Barnett and Hyde (2001) offered four principles which elucidate the work-family interface for women and men. First, they asserted that multiple roles are generally beneficial for relationship health, mental health, and physical health. They reviewed literature on identity accumulation, and cited empirical studies which support the benefits of multiple roles (e.g., employee, parent, and

partner) for women and men. Second, they offered numerous hypothesized processes which explain how, why, when, and for whom multiple roles can be beneficial. Some processes and constructs they reviewed include buffering (e.g., the negative effects of one role may be buffered by the positive effects of another role), financial effects (e.g., more income may predict reductions in individual distress), social support mechanisms (e.g., social support may be enhanced by engaging in multiple roles), and gender-role ideology (e.g., attitudes towards gender roles may influence the extent to which multiple roles are beneficial). Third, Barnett and Hyde (2001) highlighted conditions under which multiple roles are beneficial, and discussed the phenomena of role strain, role overload, and multiple role stress. Fourth, the authors asserted that gender differences in personality traits, behavior, and affect are generally small. In sum, the roles women and men assume, and the ways in which these roles are enacted are influenced by the social context of the work-family interface.

Sociocultural Changes and US Policy

Recent societal changes in the U.S. have not been accompanied by commensurate modifications of work place policies (Shapiro, Ingols, & Blake-Beard, 2008). The United States has been criticized for having a weak policy protecting the needs of working families (Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). In 1993, the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) allowed for 12 weeks of unpaid leave with job protection for employees having or adopting children or caring for sick children, a spouse, or a parent. FMLA excludes an estimated 95% of employers and 50% of employees because it applies to work places with 50 or more employees, and has other notable restrictions. Furthermore, the FMLA is of little to no use for seasonal or part-time workers, and same-gender couples (Perry-

Jenkins et al., 2000). Columbia University's Clearinghouse on International Development in Child, Youth, and Family Policies (2002) further criticized the FMLA because the leave is unpaid and too brief, and does not adequately address the concerns of individuals who experience financial pressure to return to work. The Clearinghouse described the U.S. as an outlier compared to other industrialized and developing countries in terms of offering leave-time for working parents. For example, the worldwide average paid maternity leave is about 16 weeks, a benefit which is not mandated in the US.

Focusing on the “Positive:” Work-family Enrichment Theory

The work-family literature is largely dichotomized between perspectives from two fields: an organizational behavior perspective, and a clinical perspective which emphasizes family functioning. Whiston and Cinamon (under review) highlighted how vocational psychologists also have contributed theoretically and empirically to the work family literature. All of these perspectives have been plagued by the same problem: the conflict perspective has dominated the work-family interface literature (Barnett, Marshall, Raudenbush, & Brennan, 1993; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Although various theories have been utilized to explain the linkages between work and family, until recently, there was little theoretical attention to ways in which work and family may engage in a “mutually symbiotic” relationship, where work enriches aspects of family life and visa versa. Existing work-family interface studies largely focus on ways in which work and family detract from one another. This focus on pathology is consistent with the historical tendency of psychological research to portray ways in which people cope with difficult life situations (See Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

Focusing on negative aspects of the work-family interface (e.g., negative mood) connotes a misleading portrayal, as research indicates that enrichment and conflict demonstrate remarkably small correlations (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) noted that the average correlation across 21 studies between work-family conflict and enrichment was -.02. This finding suggested that conflict and enrichment are seemingly dissimilar and orthogonal constructs. Thus, experiencing negative affect from work-family conflict does not seemingly preclude the experience of positive affect from enrichment. This is consistent with a host of psychological literature has established that positive and negative aspects of emotional functioning are largely uncorrelated. For example, Watson, Clark, and Tellegen's (1988) seminal article on positive and negative affect popularized the idea that positive and negative affect are largely orthogonal.

The work-family interface has been studied from positive perspectives by psychologists from different disciplines examining seemingly related constructs. For example, studies in this area have examined constructs like positive spillover (e.g., Barnett, Marshall, Sayer, 1992; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Hanson, Hammer, & Colton, 2006), facilitation (e.g., Boyar & Mosley, 2007; Hill, 2005; van Steenbergen, Ellemers, & Mooijjaart, 2007; Voyandoff, 2005; Wayne et al., 2004) or enhancement (e.g., Gordon, Whelan-Berry, & Hamilton, 2007). Whiston and Cinamon (under review) reviewed the reciprocal effects of work and family, and noted that different branches of psychology endorse different perspectives on the work-family interface. For example, marriage and family researchers are principally concerned with the influences of work on marital and family functioning, while Industrial/Organizational

psychologists are concerned with how family influences behaviors and outcomes in organizations. Vocational psychologists also have contributed to the work-family interface literature by examining family influences on vocational development (Whiston & Cinamon, under review). Frone (2003) argued that researchers should specify the directionality of the work-family interface, including work-to-family conflict, family-to-work conflict, work-to-family facilitation, and family-to-work facilitation. Also, Whiston and Cinamon (under review) noted that this taxonomy represents a positivist tradition, which may not reflect the socially constructed nature of the work-family interface.

Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory is unique among work-family theories which attempt to account for positive interdependencies. The work-family enrichment theory offers a nuanced theoretical rationale for the interrelationships between work and family. The theory incorporates references to role theory, and ways in which work and family can have positive effects on each other. They proposed three ways in which researchers may conceptualize positive aspects of the work-family interface according to research in role accumulation. First, individuals who participate in multiple roles may experience additive effects of well-being (i.e., individuals who are satisfied with work and family roles experience greater overall well-being). Second, participation in both work and family domains can have a stress buffering effect (e.g., a moderating effect whereby negative experiences at work may be attenuated by satisfying familial relationships). The third positive effect may happen when positive experiences from one role produce positive experiences in another. For example, individuals may increase their abilities, skills, or resources in work domains, which may translate to family roles. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) argued that this third pathway is the key for understanding

enrichment, and ways in which family and work “improve the quality of life in the other role” (p. 73).

Work-to-Family Enrichment

The current study sought to examine ways in which aspects of work influence family functioning. While Greenhaus and Powell’s (2006) model offers several explanatory mechanisms for understanding ways in which work and family influence each other, the current study sought specifically to examine the work-to-family interface. This decision to limit the number of independent and dependent variables included in non-exploratory research is of pivotal importance in psychological research for statistical concerns (Cohen, 1990). For example, Cohen (1990) argued against including too many variables in quantitative analyses because of redundancy in regard to the criterion variable, and because of escalating type I error. Through this study, we hoped to illuminate thoroughly specific relations derived from the basis of this theory, thus enabling future researchers to build on our work. Last, the current study sought to focus on work-to-family relationships, in part because of salient findings from recent meta-analyses and literature reviews of the work-family interface.

For example, a recent meta-analysis on cross-domain relationships on stressors and supports across work and family domains revealed larger effect sizes for work influencing family, than family influencing work (Ford et al., 2007). A second meta-analysis of work-family conflict and job-life satisfaction found that the relationship between work-family conflict and job-life satisfaction was strongest for work-to-family conflict (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Whiston and Cinamon (under review) noted that the few studies on work-to-family facilitation have revealed larger effect sizes for family

influencing work, than work influencing family. They noted that family may facilitate work more than work facilitates family. Despite these findings, the authors discussed the importance of studying ways in which work facilitates family variables because of the potential for public-policy interventions at work (e.g., policies which mandate family-friendly benefits).

Ford and colleagues' (2007) meta-analysis examined cross-domain relations between work-family conflict and satisfaction. In other words, the authors examined ways in which work influences family satisfaction, and family influences job satisfaction. The results indicated that significant cross-domain relationships exist: "Overall, 7% of the variance in family satisfaction and 37% of the variance in work interference with family was related to variables in the work domain, whereas 7% of the variance in job satisfaction, and 21% of the variance in family interference with work was accounted for by variables in the family domain" (p. 67). The findings suggested that work stress crosses over into the family domain more so than family stress crosses over into the work domain. The findings also suggested that gender moderates the relationship between job stress and family satisfaction, with a stronger negative relationship emerging for men. Specifically, the negative relationship between job stress and family satisfaction was stronger for men. The authors noted that these findings are consistent with Pleck's (1977) classic work on the permeability of gender role norms among women and men, and recent empirical findings about gendered role identity (e.g., Cinamon & Rich, 2002a). Thus, although they conceded that gender differences may exist in work-family spillover, these differences as observed may have attenuated 30 years after Pleck's (1977) hypothesis. The authors noted that they did not take into account other variables (e.g.,

demographics) which might further explain cross-domain relationships. Alternatively, they noted that this difference may be an artifact of inadequate measures of variables (e.g., family stress) in the family domain.

Another meta-analysis in the work-conflict literature suggested that work may influence family functioning more than family influences work functioning (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). The results of this meta-analysis revealed a stronger relationship between work-to-family conflict and life satisfaction (-.35) than family to work conflict and life satisfaction (-.25). The authors also suggested this relationship appeared to be stronger for women (-.42) than for men (-.32); however, the confidence intervals of these relationships overlapped, and thus the results are somewhat tentative. Although this meta-analysis did not examine enrichment processes or family functioning, the findings suggested that the ways in which people negotiate work and family roles relate to life satisfaction.

Another reason to focus on work-to-family influences is that these relationships may be more stable over time than family-to-work influences. A recent investigation on the stability of work-family conflict over time revealed that the experiences of work-to-family conflict, and family-to-work conflict were stable across 6 years (Rantanen et al., 2008). However, the authors noted that the relationship between work-to-family conflict and psychological functioning was particularly stable and enduring over time, suggesting that work-to-family conflict may be less context bound than family-to-work conflict.

In contrast to these findings on the work-to-family enrichment, Whiston and Cinamon (under review) contended that empirical studies on positive relations between work and family have suggested there are higher relations of family-to-work than work-

to-family facilitation. Others have similarly noted that family interfering with work may influence mental health negatively more than work interfering with family (Gareis et al., 2009; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). Although family may enrich work more than work enriches family, based on the advocacy and interventions perspectives discussed earlier, the current study examined the enrichment processes from work to family.

Affective Pathways

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) argued that positive moods and affect are important components of how resources generated at work influence functioning in family domains. Positive affect is characterized by a state of high energy, full concentration, and pleasurable engagement, and refers to the extent to which people feels enthusiastic, active, and alert (Watson et al., 1988). Although Greenhaus and Powell (2006) noted that moods and emotions have been distinguished elsewhere in the literature, they argued that positive affect includes positive emotions and moods generated from a given role.

There is a plethora of evidence illustrating that positive affect is related strongly to healthy psychological functioning (e.g., Crawford & Henry, 2004; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Notably, presence of positive affect is one of the three components of subjective well-being (Diener, 2000). Positive affect is a measure of positive mood, and is characterized by feeling alert, attentive, and enthusiastic (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Positive affect has been related consistently to positive psychological functioning like life satisfaction (Lent et al., 2005) and an absence of pathologies including depression (Watson et al., 1988). Recently, Kuppens and colleagues (2008) found that that the experience of positive affect, rather than the absence of negative affect is most strongly related to life satisfaction across 46 countries. This is consistent with the

theoretical proposition that positive affect is thought to predict global life satisfaction (Lent et al., 2005).

The relationship between affective functioning and marital stability has been well established in the literature. For example, Gottman and Levenson (2002) implicated poor affect regulation among couples as a better predictor of divorce than marital satisfaction. They suggested that overt and pervasive negative interactions characterize couples that divorce early, while emotionally avoidant couples may divorce later. On the other hand, a higher ratio of positive to negative codes during conflict discussion predicts stable relationships (Gottman, 1994). The deleterious effects of marital conflict and divorce are clear; divorce has been related to a host of negative psychological and physical outcomes for both partners including violence, depression, suicide, and physical illness (Gottman, 1998). Children also are affected by negative affective interactions; a host of child development research also suggests that hostile interactions and marital conflict predicts adjustment problems in children including internalizing and externalizing disorders, poor academic achievement, and other adjustment difficulties (e.g., Davies & Cummings, 1994). In sum, understanding emotional components of the work-family interface holds promise for counseling psychologists to understand nuanced aspects of psychological, relational, and parental functioning.

Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model suggested that work and family may influence each other directly or indirectly through affective processes. According to the affective pathway of their model, resources generated at work may indirectly influence performance in other roles by promoting positive affect at work. As discussed above, resources generated in Role A (e.g., work flexibility) may indirectly influence

performance in other roles (e.g., dyadic adjustment) by improving positive affect in Role A (e.g., positive affect at work). Moods and emotions at work are critical indicators of how workers feel, and are conceptualized as causes or indicators of job satisfaction (Brief & Weiss, 2002), and job performance (Wright & Staw, 1997). Brief and Weiss (2002) suggested that temperament may influence job satisfaction by enhancing positive mood at work, and facilitating positive interpretations of job circumstances. These authors also noted that positive affect at work may be influenced by exogenous factors like stressful events, workgroup characteristics, physical settings, and organizational rewards and punishments. Thus literature has suggested that positive affect may prove useful in understanding links between work and family roles.

Affective functioning among couples

The current study sought to elucidate affective processes among couples. This area of research holds tremendous importance for psychologists involved in treating affective distress among dual-earner couples. Notably, Berscheid and Regan (2005) overviewed the importance of emotion in close relationships. Human emotion occurs in the context of social relationships. People most frequently experience positive and negative intense emotions in close relationships. At the heart of close relationships theory is the assumption that emotionally fulfilling relationships are at center of healthy romantic relationships.

Emotions serve multiple purposes in close relationships, including sharing information about oneself, and communicating caring about others' needs. A great deal of research has investigated the importance of adaptive emotional expressivity to marital functioning. Levinger and Senn (1967) first demonstrated the importance of emotional

expressivity as a predictor of marital satisfaction. Subsequent emotion work theory has suggested that happy couples *work* on the emotional part of their relationship (Erickson, 1993). Based on longitudinal findings of couples who eventually divorced, Gottman and Levenson (2002) suggested that emotionally expressive couples may predict later divorcing, while emotionally volatile couples tend to divorce earlier. Other research suggested that grave problems may emerge when couples mismanage their emotions in a close relationship. For instance, Bornstein (2006) highlighted how emotional dependency is related to problematic intimate relationships and intimate partner violence. In sum, the current study sought to address the role of emotions in work and family domains with the hope of elucidating potential avenues for further research and intervention. For counseling psychologists, working with emotions in close relationships has promising practice implications. Thus, in the spirit of positive psychology, the current study sought to examine the ways in which positive affect at work influences individuals' family-outcomes, and their partner's family outcomes.

A few studies have examined the role of affect at work among working couples (e.g., Heller & Watson, 2005; Jones & Fletcher, 1996; Song et al., 2005). For example, Heller and Watson (2005) conducted a study of mood, and spillover between work and family domains among married couples. They sought to elucidate the role of mood as a mediating variable to explain spillover between work and family. They utilized a daily-diary within-subjects methodology to measure concurrent and lagged effects of mood and satisfaction from day-to-day. Their results indicated significant concurrent relationships between job and marital satisfaction. For example, the findings suggested that marital satisfaction at night predicted job satisfaction the next day. Notably, positive mood

partially mediated this relationship. This study supports Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory regarding the importance of affect in mediating the relationship between resources generated in one domain, and functioning in another domain. One notable consideration in the interpretation of these results is the potential confounding role of personality. Heller, Judge, and Watson (2002) found that personality is a confounding variable linking trait affectivity and job and life satisfaction. They argued that the relationship between job and life satisfaction is in part based on personality. Notably, these studies did not account for interdependence of observations among couples as part of the analytic strategy. Thus, personality may also be a contributing variable which explains the extent to which work and family functioning are positively related. Although personality was not assessed in the current study, future studies should investigate the extent to which personality influences enrichment processes linking work and family domains.

Other research has examined the extent to which daily fluctuations in mood at work affects marital partners (e.g., Jones & Fletcher, 1996; Song et al., 2008). These studies assessed daily mood to examine spillover (intrapersonal) and crossover (interpersonal) effects among couples. Most recently, Song and colleagues (2008) found that mood crossover effects are contingent on situational factors like whether the couple is together, or if the couple has children. Specifically, cross-over effects were more evident when the couple was physically together and less evident when the couple had children. Based on their findings, they hypothesized that cross-over effects between dyad members may be brief, while spillover effects may be longer-lasting. They also posited that having children may either cause couples to restrain the expression of negative affect to protect children, or deter the expression of negative affect because attention is directed

at children. By using daily-sampling methodology, these studies captured the nuanced interdependence between couples' mood at work and home; however, they did not examine enrichment processes because they did not include resources generated in work domains. The current study extends beyond these investigations by using an enrichment framework to examine interdependence in work and family domains among working couples.

Review of Predictor Variables and Moderating Variable

Flexible and Supportive Work Environment

Flexible and supportive work environments have received a great deal of attention from scholars in the work-family literature (e.g., Allen, 2001; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Hammer, Neal, Newson, Brockwood, & Colton, 2005; Parker & Allen, 2001; Shockley & Allen, 2007; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Examining work flexibility as a predictor of family enrichment processes also is important given recent transformations in the world of work. For example, recent technological advances seemingly have transformed the nature of the world of work by enhancing workplace flexibility (Hill, Yang, Hawkins, & Ferris, 2004). Certain technologies like Blackberrys, iPhones, and pagers may enable parents to conduct work from home, and may blur boundaries between work and family.

Although many Americans benefit from flexible work schedules, not all workers benefit equally. Parker and Allen (2001) examined employees' fairness perceptions of work/family benefits. They discussed "family-friendly backlash" and reviewed empirical literature which highlights employees' attitudes towards work/family benefits. They cited the growth of the "Childfree" Network as one prominent example of an advocacy group

which promotes the rights of childless workers. Furthermore, while Gallup (2007) findings suggested that most Americans (90%) feel at least somewhat satisfied with flexibility of their jobs, the probability of a worker having a flexible job environment is greater based on certain demographic characteristics (e.g., White, male, and highly educated; Golden, 2001). Furthermore, not all employees view family-friendly benefits as equitable. Grover (1991) found that individuals who would likely benefit from family-friendly benefits were most likely to endorse perceive parental-leave policies as fair.

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) noted that flexible and supportive work environments may influence positive functioning in family domains; however, recent empirical findings have highlighted mixed results (Hammer et al., 2005a; Shockley & Allen, 2007). The current investigation allowed for another look at these discrepancies, with special attention to variables which may explain different patterns of results in the literature.

Several studies have found positive relations between work flexibility and family outcomes. For example, a recent meta-analysis also suggested that telecommuting has general beneficial effects on reducing work-family conflict (Gajedrean & Harrison, 2007). Furthermore, telecommuting, an example of a flexible work arrangement, was related to positive supervisor relationships, increased job satisfaction, and lower turnover intentions. The authors nuanced analyses revealed that experience with telecommuting influences when telecommuting has positive benefits. More experience with communicating was related to positive benefits. The authors surmised that employees using flexible work arrangements like telecommuting may learn to structure tasks over time to minimize work-family conflict.

Other studies have suggested that flexible work arrangements may not have positive effects on family outcomes. For example, the results of a study by Shockley and Allen (2007) suggested that flexible work arrangements may not be effective for all employees. They also noted that flextime may be more helpful for reducing work-family conflict than flexplace. Hill and colleagues (2006) noted that there may be an upper-limit to flexibility among dual-earner families. Their study supported their hypothesis that the dual-career couples with children who work for a combined 60 hours per week maximize family satisfaction. They suggested that these families were able to use flexible work schedules, share chores, child care, and both husbands and wives were able to derive satisfaction from their careers. These studies highlight that flexibility may influence positively family functioning when considering certain policies (e.g., flextime), and certain work schedules (e.g., a combined 60 hour work week). This finding must be viewed in the context of the number of hours devoted toward child care among dual-earner couples in the United States. Mothers tend to spend more time on average than fathers providing primary childcare (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008). The results of this study suggest that there may be gender differences in facilitative nature of flexible work arrangements.

In sum, the literature has elucidated how certain work policies and schedules may enhance the positive effects of flexible work arrangements. Furthermore, recent studies have examined ways in which psychological processes may explain ways in which benefit availability (e.g., flextime or flexplace) influences job and family satisfaction. For example, Thomas and Ganster (1995) suggested that supportive practices were related to psychological outcomes because of improved control perceptions. Specifically, the

results suggested that having a flexible work schedule enhances employees' perceptions of control over family and work matters, which is related to better psychological functioning, and lower work-family conflict. Valcour's (2007) findings were consistent with Thomas and Ganster's; her results suggested that control over work time was related positively to satisfaction with work-family balance. The results also indicated that control over work time moderated the relationship between work hours and work-family balance. Specifically, the negative relationship between work hours and work-family balance was attenuated when workers reported a high degree of control over their schedule.

Additionally, Allen's (2001) study of employees' perceptions revealed relationships between family-supportive organization perceptions and a host of work and family variables. Family-supportive organization perceptions predicted work-family conflict, job satisfaction, organization commitment, and turnover intentions when controlling for benefits offered by organizations (e.g., child care supports). Thus, the extent to which an employee perceives the organization as supportive is important to consider when evaluating the influences of family-friendly benefits. Thompson, Beauvais, and Lyness' (1999) study of organizational culture corroborates these findings. They found that perceptions of the work culture as family-friendly influenced employees benefit usage, organizational attachment, and work-family conflict. Thus, the perception that an organization is supportive of families influences employees' attitudes towards the organization, and their report of work-family conflict. O'Driscoll and colleagues (2003) also found that availability and usage of family-friendly benefits were not related to role strain or work-family conflict. Their results suggested that policies alone may be insufficient for reducing role strain. Also, the results indicated that the presence of

family-friendly organization perceptions as a part of a family-friendly organizational culture may reduce work-family conflict.

Flexible work schedules seemingly relate to family functioning by reducing role strain; workers may prefer flexible work schedules because they reduce the likelihood of time and role conflicts (Golden, 2001). Having flexible work schedules may allow parents to devote more time to family responsibilities. Golden (2001) pointed out that disparities exist among which workers get flexible work schedules. The results of a probit estimation suggested that the probability of having a flexible work schedule is lower for females, people of color, and individuals with low levels of education. Notably, a recent study indicated that women in dual-earner relationships who use work place supports like flextime may not benefit (Hammer et al., 2005a) because women may have to undertake additional child caring responsibilities. Although perceived benefits offered by work place may serve to reduce role strain, women may be vulnerable to undertaking excessive responsibilities. These results were contradicted by Shockley and Allen (2007) who found that flexible work arrangements were most beneficial for women who reported greater family obligations. The current study sought to examine positive affect at work as a potential mediating variable clarify these seemingly contradictory relationships. In sum, the current investigation included measures of work flexibility, and family-supportive organization perceptions to address these unanswered questions.

Income

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) posited that material resources generated at work may enrich family functioning. They argued that resources like income and job benefits generated at work may enhance the quality of family life. This review focused on

research which investigated the relationship between income and functioning in family domains, with attention to sociocultural aspects of income (e.g., intersections between income, breadwinning, race, and gender), positive psychology approaches to examining the effects of income on well-being, and potential mediating and moderating mechanisms of the relationship between income and family functioning.

Parents' income has been the topic of much scrutiny by government agencies and private research institutions. This emphasis is in part due to the devastating effects of poverty on families. Maslow (1943) emphasized how survival is a motivating factor in human existence. The National Center for Children in Poverty (2007) reported that 28 million children in the U.S. live in families who are unable to meet their basic needs. Research has documented a strong relationship between socioeconomic status and physical health (Gallo & Matthews, 2003). Additionally, an estimated 30 million parents, a quarter of the U.S. labor force, work in jobs that pay poverty-level wages, and offer little to no opportunity for growth and advancement (Schulman, 2003). Results from The Early Childhood Longitudinal Study highlighted marked academic disparities among children who grow up in low-income households (National Center for Education Statistics, 2007). Other research has supported the idea that income promotes positive cognitive and academic functioning among children (e.g., Votruba-Drzal, 2003). In sum, a host of literature has included income or socioeconomic status because of the inherent importance of income to survival and positive functioning among children and families.

Raley and colleagues (2006) examined patterns of breadwinning among dual-earner couples since the 1970s. Their results suggested that equal breadwinning is increasing; however, the majority of wives continue to be secondary providers. They also

commented that there are increases in the number of wives who are primary breadwinners. Their findings also suggested that older women were less likely to be dominant financial providers in their marriages. Women with higher educational attainments were more likely to be primary providers. Additionally, wives with young children are more likely to have husbands who assume the primary breadwinner role. The results also suggested that Black couples are more likely to be dual providers. Although these results did not highlight the specific relationships between income and family functioning, the findings demonstrate how the provider role has changed over the years.

Broadly, psychological theories have elucidated ways in which income may influence family functioning. There have been notable findings between income and family functioning in areas of child development and marital functioning. Bandura and colleagues (1996) noted that children's development occurs within a broad psychosocial network. They hypothesized that socioeconomic status affects children's academic achievement indirectly by influencing parental (e.g., parental academic self-efficacy), and child (e.g., children's academic self-efficacy) variables. The authors identified numerous mediational paths (e.g., self-efficacy beliefs) by which socioeconomic status influences a child's academic functioning. In addition, income influences marital adjustment and psychological well-being among dual-earner couples (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Perrone & Worthington, 2001). For instance, Perrone and Worthington (2001) found that income served as an instrumental support for dual-earner couples. Their study of dual-earner couples revealed that income predicted support for dual-career life style, which predicted marital quality.

Research in positive psychology on life satisfaction also has indicated small positive correlations between income and well-being, suggesting that richer countries are slightly happier than poorer countries (Diener, 2000). Lyubomirsky, King, and Diener (2005) summarized extant research on income and life satisfaction, and noted that happier people seem to earn higher incomes. The correlation between income and well-being may be partially explained by certain country's ability to meet people's basic needs like food, water, and shelter (Diener, 2000). Furthermore, as societies grow increasingly wealthy, differences in well-being are more likely due to social relationships or work enjoyment (Diener & Seligman, 2004). Diener and Biswas-Diener (2002) reported that potential moderators of the relationship between income and well-being included sex, the wealth of the society, life circumstances, roles, and values. Also, materialism was correlated negatively in most cases with life satisfaction (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002). Diener and colleagues (1999) noted that the effects of demographic variables like income and marriage should be studied by examining interaction effects between internal (e.g., ability to cope with job stress) and external circumstances (e.g., availability of flexible work hours). In sum, income is seemingly related to well-being, but the relationship seems to differ between people, contexts, and cultures. In the current study, we examined the effects of income on family functioning among dual earner couples. Additionally, we used the Actor Partner Interdependence Model (Cook & Kenny, 2005), and positive affect at work as a mediating variable to elucidate this relationship.

Occupational Self-efficacy

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) argued that psychological resources generated at work may improve quality of life in family domains. Self-efficacy is one psychological

resource which may be generated in a given work role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). As a psychological resource in the Work-Family Enrichment theory, self-efficacy's positive effects on performance may not be intentional (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Thus, individuals would not necessarily intentionally utilize self-efficacy to increase performance at work or in family domains. Bandura (1977) introduced a theory of self-efficacy which Hackett and Betz (1981) applied to the career development literature. Later, Lent and colleagues (1994) developed Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent et al., 1994) and articulated how self-efficacy might influence the development of interests, career choices, and performance. Self-efficacy theory (Hackett & Betz, 1981; Lent & Brown, 1994) transformed the career development literature; from 2001-2006, approximately 11 % of articles in several important journals in counseling psychology and career development (*Journal of Counseling Psychology, Journal of Career Assessment, and Journal of Vocational Behavior*) referenced self-efficacy in their titles and/or abstracts (Gore, 2006). Understanding self-efficacy is of critical interest in career development because self-efficacy beliefs have been linked consistently to academic outcomes including performance and persistence (e.g., Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991).

Fassinger (2008) also discussed the importance of understanding how discrimination, subtle prejudices at work and school, and lack of encouragement for marginalized groups (e.g., women, people of color, sexual minorities, and individuals with disabilities) have resulted in barriers for vocational development. Examining self-efficacy represents a step towards understanding social cognitive elements of the work-family interface. Based on self-efficacy theory outlined above, it follows that beliefs about one's prospective ability to be effective in work domains may influence outcome

expectations, and ultimately performance variables at work. Examining self-efficacy advances understanding regarding social cognitive elements of the work-family interface.

Self-efficacy in work domains includes several types of self-efficacy such as vocational self-efficacy (e.g., Donnay & Borgen, 1999), self-efficacy in work and family roles (e.g., Cinamon, 2006; Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, & O'Brien, 2001), academic self-efficacy (e.g., Gore, 2006), career self-efficacy (e.g., Betz & Hackett, 2006), job self-efficacy (e.g., Ohly & Fritz, 2007), and self-management self-efficacy (e.g., Burr & Cordery, 2001). Many of these constructs seemingly overlap in terms of item content. For example, job self-efficacy, occupational self-efficacy, and self-management self-efficacy represent domain specific forms of self-efficacy at work. Occupational self-efficacy was chosen for inclusion in this study because it represents a domain specific form of self-efficacy, has been validated as a construct cross-nationally (Rigotti et al., 2008), and is broad enough of a construct to be compared across diverse occupations (Schyns & von Collani, 2002).

A wide range of research in Industrial/Organization psychology has examined the effects of generalized self-efficacy. Judge and Bono (2001) explored the relationship between core self-evaluation traits (self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (low neuroticism) and job satisfaction and job performance. The results of their meta-analysis revealed moderate positive correlations between the aforementioned variables and job satisfaction and job performance. They suggested that these traits were among the best predictors of job satisfaction and job performance. Notably, they did not examine occupational self-efficacy, a domain specific measure of self-efficacy. Generalized self-efficacy represents a global competence belief,

which is relatively stable over time. Self-efficacy is thought to be domain specific and amenable to change. Although occupational self-efficacy is a self-evaluative construct, it captures self-efficacy with regard to specific job-related tasks. Thus, this construct may be more appropriate for investigating job related performance and satisfaction. The current study sought to extend these findings by examining the influence of occupational self-efficacy on affect at work, and aspects of family functioning.

Other literature has specifically examined self-efficacy within the work-family interface. For example, Butler, Gasser, and Smart (2004) examined outcome expectations for the use of family-friendly benefits on employee utilization of benefits. They argued that the mere availability of benefits does not guarantee employee utilization. Individuals may evaluate potential outcomes along family domains when deciding whether or not to utilize the benefits. They also examined whether self-efficacy for coping with work-family conflict would predict utilization of benefits. The results suggested that individuals high in work-family self-efficacy were less likely to use family-friendly benefits, perhaps because individuals feel confident in their ability to manage work and family demands without using benefits. Contrastingly, positive outcome expectations for family were related positively to benefit use, and stronger use intentions. One salient limitation is that their sample consisted predominately of parents of college-age children. A more variable sample with school-age children would include parents who are more likely to need and utilize family-friendly benefits. The current study sought to address this limitation by examining a social cognitive predictor of family functioning among a sample with younger children.

Because self-efficacy is domain specific as opposed to a global measure of functioning like self-esteem (Lent et al., 2005), the construct may be operationalized and measured in a number of ways. Lent and Brown (2006) proposed a four category system for measuring the construct which included content or task-specific self-efficacy (i.e., measures of one's ability to perform tasks necessary in career domains), coping self-efficacy (i.e., ability to deal with domain-specific problems), process self-efficacy (i.e., ability to deal with tasks inherently necessary for career preparation, entry, adjustment, and change), and self-regulatory self-efficacy (i.e., person's beliefs in abilities to become motivated to engage in behaviors directed towards self-enhancement). In the current study, occupational self-efficacy is one psychological resource which seemingly embodies elements of task-specific, process, and self-regulatory forms of self-efficacy. First, regarding content or task-specific occupational self-efficacy, an individual who feels confident in their abilities at work has strong beliefs about their ability to complete work tasks with success. Second, as an example of process self-efficacy, occupational self-efficacy necessitates an ongoing ability to manage generic tasks necessary at work. Third, occupational self-efficacy refers to beliefs about one's ability to succeed at work by staying motivated to complete necessary tasks. This exemplifies the self-regulatory function of self-efficacy. In sum, this type of domain specific self-efficacy includes several elements of different types of self-efficacy.

Research has examined the relationship between leadership and occupational self-efficacy. Schyns (2004) discussed ways in which leaders can facilitate occupational self-efficacy among employees. She offered examples of ways in which leaders can help their employees increase their occupational self-efficacy by engaging in mastery experiences

(e.g., delegating high task demands), vicarious experience (e.g., supervisors can model for their employees), and social persuasion (e.g., supervisors can motivate their employees). Felfe and Schyns (2006) surmised that transformational leaders' should demonstrate elevated levels of occupational self-efficacy, and should be able to engage in challenging tasks, and demonstrate innovative behaviors. Although their original hypotheses about followers' transformational leadership were not supported, the authors discussed the importance of occupational self-efficacy as a correlate of transformational leadership. They posited that leaders who empower their subordinates, the need for leadership may decrease as subordinates' self-efficacy increases.

Numerous studies have examined the relationships between occupational self-efficacy, and work variables. Rigotti and colleagues (2008) examined occupational self-efficacy in five different countries. Across these diverse samples, occupational self-efficacy was related positively to job satisfaction. With the exception of Great Britain, occupational self-efficacy was related positively to job commitment. The results also indicated positive relationships between occupational self-efficacy and perceived job performance. Another study also found that occupational self-efficacy was related positively to job satisfaction among older adults (Dendinger, Adams, & Jacobson, 2005). Although there has been a great deal of literature on various types of work-related self-efficacy, there are to date no studies which examine the effects of occupational self-efficacy on family functioning from an enrichment perspective. The current study sought to contribute to the literature by examining occupational self-efficacy within Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) Work-Family Enrichment theory.

Role Salience

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) posited that the relationship between work and family is moderated by role salience. Their theoretical rationale reflects tenets of social identity theory, which posits that social roles help form individuals' social identity. Role salience was examined in an exploratory capacity using correlational analyses in the current study.

There have been a number of studies on role salience in the work-family interface. In vocational psychology, Super (1990) proposed a life span approach to studying career development which accounted for the differing levels of importance career may occupy in individual's lives. Contemporary research in vocational psychology has sought to further elucidate the construct of role salience. Recently, Cinamon and Rich (2002b) conducted a study on attribution of importance to life roles and work-family conflict. A cluster analysis revealed three distinct groups according to attribution of importance to work and family roles: family (high importance to family, low importance to work), work (high importance to work, low importance to family), and dual (high importance to work and family). Their nuanced analyses enabled them to explore relationships between bidirectional work-family conflict and the three distinct work-family salience profiles. The results suggested that when considering work-family conflict, $W \rightarrow F$ is more powerful than $F \rightarrow W$. Furthermore, they found that spousal support was related positively to $W \rightarrow F$ conflict among individuals in the work profile. This study contributed to the work-family literature by examining patterns of groups according to role salience, and their relationship with work-family conflict. Cinamon and Rich (2002a) extended these findings by examining gender differences among the three profiles. The results revealed

gender differences in the profiles: there were more men than women in the work profile, and there were more women than men in the family profile. There were no gender differences in the dual profile. However, work appeared to be more central to the lives of men, while family was more central for women. Also, men worked more hours overall than women. Although multiple roles may be beneficial for women and men, Barnett and Hyde (2001) noted that there may be “upper limits” when demands become excessive.

A recent study corroborated some of the Cinamon and Rich’s (2002a; 2002b) findings about family role salience. Graves, Ohlott, and Ruderman (2007) examined the relationship between commitment to family roles and managers’ attitude and performance among a sample of managers. They found that commitment to family roles (parental and marital) was not related to increased family-to-work interference. Rather, their findings suggested that commitment to marital roles reduced interference. Managers’ partners may lend assistance at home, which may lead to increased support. Another pertinent finding was that parental role commitment was related positively to career satisfaction and work performance. In sum, their results suggested that family role salience may enhance the work-family enrichment process among dual-earner couples. Although role salience was not examined in the current study as a moderating variable because of inadequate power to detect reliable effects, future research may examine the extent to which this variable influences the strength and magnitude of work-to-family enrichment.

Review of Outcome Variables

Family Satisfaction

Greenahus and Powell (2006) described ways in which resources generated at work influence family functioning. One way to conceptualize family functioning is satisfaction with life, with an emphasis on family satisfaction. Satisfaction with life represents the extent to which a person experiences global satisfaction with their life (Diener, 2000). Global life satisfaction is correlated with specific aspects of life satisfaction in specific domains like marital satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999). Although there are multiple ways to measure satisfaction with life (e.g., marital, and occupational), global life satisfaction is a subjective judgment of one's life which is related positively to measures of well-being and negatively related to psychopathology (Pavot, Diener, Colvin, & Sandvik, 1991). These researchers posited that satisfaction with life is a relatively stable and global phenomenon which is a component of subjective well-being. There are numerous influences on reports of life satisfaction including temperament, personality, cultural factors, self-esteem, and social support (Diener, 2000). Diener (2000) also noted that life satisfaction was related to income, and satisfaction with life is still considered very important along with satisfaction in other life domains like work in non-western countries. In the study of subjective well-being and life satisfaction, researchers have emphasized the importance of including personality-genetic and socio-cultural influences (Schimmack, Radhakrishan, Oishi, Dzokoto, & Ahadi, 2002).

Pavot and Diener (1993) noted that satisfaction with life represents the cognitive component of well-being. According to Diener (2000), subjective well-being refers to people's cognitive and affective self-evaluation of their lives. Components of subjective

well-being include life satisfaction, pleasant affect, and unpleasant affect (Diener et al., 1999). Subjective well-being is commonly conceptualized as happiness (Diener, 2000; Diener et al., 1999). While past studies on SWB have attempted to identify characteristics of individuals who experience happiness, current directions seek to address when and how well-being operates (Diener, 2000). Notably, Ryan and Deci (2001) described how typical hedonic outcomes include life satisfaction and happiness while eudemonic outcomes include meaning of life and life purpose. These researchers noted that hedonic psychologists assert that subjective happiness underlies well-being, and involves the construal of judgments of life events.

Currently, global satisfaction with life is measured by a unidimensional measure (see Diener, 1988). Diener (2000) noted that measures of life satisfaction are susceptible to mood and social desirability. In the assessment of subjective well-being, positive affect is frequently incorporated in analyses. Lent and colleagues (2005) suggested that positive affect can be included as a predictor of life satisfaction. Also, positive more so than negative affect may be related to life satisfaction and represents a target amenable to therapeutic efforts and self-directed interventions (Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996).

Although several studies in the work and family domain investigated family functioning from a positive perspective, there are some problematic concerns regarding the operationalization of family satisfaction. For example, in Ford and colleagues' (2007) meta-analysis of cross-domain relationships between work and family, the authors aggregated measures of family satisfaction including marital satisfaction and satisfaction with child-care. While effects from work and family may influence each other across domains, collapsing these measures together does not allow for a nuanced investigation

of how work influences global family satisfaction as reported by dual-earner couples. Others have developed measures which assess global family functioning along a number of dimensions (see Tutty, 1995 for a review). None of these measures, however, have measured overall satisfaction with family life from a positive psychology perspective. The current study sought to examine satisfaction with family among dual-earner couples by modifying Diener et al.'s (1985) Satisfaction with Life Scale to account for global satisfaction with family life.

Dyadic Adjustment

Positive dyadic adjustment refers to the quality of marital functioning. Numerous studies in the marriage and family literature and in vocational psychology have examined dyadic adjustment among dual-earner couples. Hundreds of articles were published in the 1990s alone on an array of topics related to marital satisfaction (Bradbury, Fincham, & Beach, 2000). For the purposes of this review, I reviewed studies which examined the enhancing nature of close personal relationships. Additionally, the literature on dyadic adjustment was reviewed, with special attention devoted toward dyadic satisfaction, the work-marriage intersection, and methodological considerations in studying dyadic adjustment.

According to Spanier (1976), dyadic adjustment may refer to a qualitative evaluation of a state, or a process. When dyadic adjustment is studied as a process, it is most effectively investigated over time using longitudinal methodology. Dyadic adjustment as a qualitative evaluation is characterized by a snapshot at relationship functioning at one time point. Spanier also noted that dyadic adjustment may be conceptualized without a time reference if adjustment is characterized as an immutable

state at the time of measurement. Spanier specified that dyadic adjustment occurs along a continuum of good and poor adjustment. He asserted that the outcome of dyadic adjustment is contingent upon “the degree of troublesome dyadic differences, interpersonal tensions and personal anxiety, dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, and consensus on matters important to dyadic functioning” (p. 17).

Research has revealed enhancing aspects of personal relationships (Kiecolt-Glasser & Newton, 2001). Recent meta-analytic findings suggested that marital functioning was correlated positively to aspects of personal well-being concurrently and over time (Proulx et al., 2008). Additionally, the results revealed that this relationship may be stronger for women. Other research indicated that romantic relationships can provide social support, buffer against stress, and serve to promote psychological and physical health (Kiecolt-Glasser & Newton, 2001). Kiecolt-Glasser and Newton’s review on marriage and health revealed that marital relationships indirectly affect health outcomes through depression and health habits. Furthermore, they stated that marital happiness contributes more to global happiness than any other predictor, including work and friendships. Their review also suggested that women may experience more stress and satisfaction from marriage than men. In sum, there is a host of literature which has elucidated beneficial aspects of marital relationships.

Researchers have identified marital satisfaction as a key component of dyadic adjustment and relationship quality (e.g., Bradbury, Ficham, & Beach, 2000; Neff & Karney, 2008; Spanier, 1976; Voyandoff, 2005). Bradbury et al. (2000) reviewed the research produced in the 1990s on marital satisfaction. Their review centered on three prominent themes in marital satisfaction research: interpersonal processes within

marriages, the sociocultural contexts within which marriages operate, and the conceptualization and measurement of marital satisfaction. This review expounded upon these three relevant themes.

As summarized by Gottman (1998), the vast literature on interpersonal processes has examined the interactions between couples by examining cognition (e.g., attributions), affect (e.g., emotional expressions), physiology (e.g., blood pressure), patterns (e.g., demand/withdraw), social support (e.g., support received between dual-earner couples), and violence (e.g., physical aggression). Gottman (1998) reviewed marital process research, including longitudinal criterion for predicting divorce. Gottman (1994) revealed that the ratio of positive to negative codes during a conflict discussion was 5 for a stable couple, and .8 for a distressed couple. Gottman (1994) also noted that couples heading for divorce engaged in four particularly destructive behaviors he termed “The Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse:” criticism, defensiveness, contempt, and stonewalling (listener withdrawal).

Consistent with the emphasis on studying the sociocultural context, Voyandoff (2005) overviewed the importance of implementing ecological conceptualizations of marital functioning. She explored ways in which researchers can draw upon ecological frameworks (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1977) to examine cross-domain relationships between work and family. Additionally, family systems theory, derived from broader ecological and systems theory, has been used to explain work and family relationships among dual-earner couples (e.g., Hammer et al., 2005a; Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shafiro, 2005). Each part of the family system interacts with other parts, which influences other family members’ attitudes and behaviors.

Family-focused research in marriage and family (e.g., Voyandoff, 2005), and Industrial/Organizational research (e.g., Barling & MacEwen, 1992) have examined ways in which work influences marital functioning. For example, Gareis and colleagues (2003) examined the effects of work schedule on marital quality among dual-earner couples using HLM and dyadic analytic strategies. The results suggested that women's and men's beliefs that their schedules and work hours were working for them, predicted higher reports of marital quality. They also examined the relationship between workers' beliefs about how their partner's work schedule fit with the family, and marital outcomes. Women rated their marital quality higher when their husband's perceived that their work schedules fit the family's needs. This study was unique in that it examined actor and partner effects of work experiences on marital functioning. The current study extended these findings by utilizing an enrichment perspective, integrating mediating mechanisms, and incorporating resources which may be generated at work.

Eby and colleagues (2005) reviewed the Industrial Organizational/Organizational Behavior literature on the work-family interface, and found little research on marital functioning. They argued that the work-family literature in Industrial Organizational/Organizational Behavior has been characterized by an over-emphasis on work roles, and has neglected a thorough investigation of marital satisfaction, parental outcomes, child outcomes, and non-work (e.g., leisure) outcomes. They indicated, however, that several studies linked negative work experiences to decrements in marital functioning. For example, Barling and MacEwen (1992) examined the processes by which work experiences (i.e., job insecurity, role ambiguity, role conflict, and job satisfaction) influence marital functioning (psychological aggression, sexual satisfaction,

and marital satisfaction). Their results suggested that there is a zero correlation between work experiences and marital functioning. Notably, their results suggested that work experiences affected marital functioning through depression and concentration. Thus, negative work experiences created personal strain which affected marital functioning. Consistent with Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model, these results indicate that affective pathways are important components of the work-family interface. The current study sought to extend these findings by investigating affective pathways among dual-earner couples, and by utilizing an enrichment perspective.

Last, there has been some discussion in the marriage and family literature on how to conceptualize and measure marital functioning most appropriately. One salient problem with the marriage and family literature over the past 10 years is that "normative" work was conducted on European Americans (McLoyd, Cauce, Takeuchi, & Wilson, 2000). Thus, the extent to which measurements of dyadic functioning are appropriate across racial and ethnic groups is a salient concern. McLoyd and colleagues (2000) commented that there was little evidence that predictors of marital quality differ across racial/ethnic groups; however, there exists a notable difference in marital happiness across races, with African-Americans reporting lower marital happiness than European-Americans. The authors discussed several hypotheses, including differential hardships, and the impact of economic resources on couples of color. Although the current study does not purport to test these hypotheses, it is possible that enrichment processes vary somewhat according to racial/ethnic group membership, and access to financial resources.

Parenting Behavior

Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) work-family enrichment theory suggested that resources generated at work may influence functioning in family domains. Parenting behavior is an indicator of overall family functioning which has been widely studied in the broader psychological literature. Perhaps the most cogent reason for studying parenting behavior is the strong association between parenting behaviors and children's development and psychological well-being. Most prominent theories of child and human development dating back to Freud have emphasized the importance of early childhood events and experiences with primary caregivers. Watson and Rayner's acclaimed (1920) study of Little Albert revolutionized the field of psychology, by suggesting that children's behaviors can be conceptualized as learned and conditioned emotional reactions to external stimuli. Later in the 20th century, attachment theory (e.g., Ainsworth, Bell, & Stayton, 1974) offered tremendous insights about the nature of parent-child relations. Bandura's (1961) Bobo Doll experiment suggested that children acquire behaviors through social learning and imitation/modeling. Social learning theory has been broadly applied to parent-child relationships (e.g., Patterson & Bank, 1989). In short, a host of psychological theories and early investigations have inspired hundreds of theoretical treatises and empirical investigations on the antecedents, correlates, processes, and outcomes of parenting behavior related to child development. For the purposes of this literature review, I highlighted a few meta-analyses which explicated the causes and correlates of positive parenting behavior, with a special emphasis on the links between parenting behavior and children's psychological functioning. Also, a few methodological considerations for studying parenting outcomes were addressed.

The literature on parenting behavior has elucidated some parental correlates of positive parenting behaviors. Krishnakumar and Buehler (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of interparental conflict and parenting. Their results do not support the idea that parents who have a contentious relationship effectively compartmentalize their conflict, and engage in positive relationships with their children. Instead, conflictual marital interactions likely spill over into parenting roles. For example, parents in conflictual relationships are less likely to demonstrate positive accepting parenting behaviors. They conceded that an alternative explanation may be that parents with poor interpersonal skills may be likely to exhibit marital distress and problematic parenting. Other research indicated that positive parenting was correlated with parent psychological functioning. For example, Lovejoy and colleagues (2005) conducted a meta-analysis of maternal depression and parenting behavior and identified a small negative effect size between maternal depression and positive parenting behavior, meaning that depressed mothers engage in fewer positive parenting behaviors. Upon closer examination, this relationship was moderated by SES, child age, and length and type of observation. For example, depression was only predictive of less positive parenting when the mother was also economically disadvantaged. One shortcoming of the studies highlighted by these meta-analyses was the lack of attention devoted to highlighting positive work and family functioning. The current study contributed to the literature by investigating correlates of positive parenting behavior from an enrichment perspective.

The research on the relationship between positive parenting and children's outcomes has been more impressive. The presence of children's externalizing behaviors is the most commonly studied topic in the area of parent-child relations (Rothbaum &

Weisz, 1994). Meta-analytic findings suggested that parenting behavior was related to children's functioning as indicated by the presence of externalizing disorders (Rothbaum & Weisz, 1994). The authors identified key elements involved in positive parenting that were consistently negatively related to externalizing disorders among children. The results suggested that caregiving, which can be characterized by acceptance and responsiveness, is associated negatively with children's externalizing disorders. The authors suggested that optimal parenting may entail engaging in behaviors which are specific to each child. Depending on the child's needs, parents demonstrating accepting and responsive parenting behaviors also utilized tactics of high control and low control. The results also revealed other notable patterns. For example, relationship between quality of parent caregiving and absence of externalizing disorders was stronger for older children. Additionally, absence of child externalizing disorders was more strongly related to mother's caregiving than father's caregiving. In synthesizing their results, the authors proposed that the findings are consistent with a reciprocity framework. They noted that reciprocal parent-child interactions over time influence children's behaviors. In sum, this meta-analysis suggested that parenting behaviors were predictive of children's externalizing disorders.

Other recent meta-analyses have explored the relationship between positive parenting and children's emotional functioning. Paulussen-Hoogeboom and colleagues (2007) conducted a meta-analysis to explore the relationship between parenting behaviors and children's negative emotionality. The meta-analysis revealed few main effects; rather, the results suggested that the relationship was moderated by context and measurement characteristics. For example, child negative emotionality was most strongly

related to less positive parenting among families from low SES. Among families from high SES, child negative emotionality was related to more positive parenting. The authors suggested that parents from higher SES backgrounds may be able to adapt their parenting strategies for difficult children.

Methodologically, there are some considerations for investigating parenting behavior. Interviews and observations may reveal stronger links between parenting behavior and child externalizing disorders than questionnaires (Rothbaum & Weisz, 1994). Greater effect sizes between caregiving and absence of externalizing disorders may also be observed when caregiving parenting behaviors are measured, for older children, for mothers, and for boys (Rothbaum & Weisz, 1994). Additionally, Morsbach and Prinz (2006) reviewed special considerations for utilizing self-report measures as indicators of parenting behavior. They cited a number of areas which make self-reports vulnerable to distortions. For example, asking participants to estimate high frequency behaviors over the course of months may exert excessive cognitive burden on participants. Also, there is a lack of consensus in the parenting literature about how to operationally define certain constructs like “time out.” They posited that parenting behavior taps areas of sensitivity for many parents. Social desirability may play a role in parental reports of certain parenting behaviors. The measure of parenting behavior constructed by Lovejoy et al. (1999) circumvents some of the difficulties discussed by Morsbach and Prinz (2006). This measure was validated using multimethod, multi-informant, and multi-setting approaches (see the Method section for an extensive review of this measure).

Methodological Considerations and the Actor Partner Interdependence Model

The study of couples functioning entails unique theoretical, methodological, and statistical considerations. Cook and Snyder (2005) highlighted some prominent problems associated with studying couples, one of the central concerns being the nonindependence of observations. Traditional statistical approaches used to in the study of individuals (e.g., Analysis of Variance, regression) assume independence of observations. That is, each participant's outcomes are independent of other participants. However, in a study of dyads that are close, each participant is by definition interdependent upon someone else in the dataset (i.e., her/his partner). Given the interdependence in studies of close relationships, traditional analyses such as regression or ANOVA assuming independence of observations are not appropriately suited for studying the interdependent phenomena associated with couples functioning. Assuming independence of observations may increase Type I or Type II errors depending on the research question.

Unlike other conceptual and methodological approaches, APIM provides a framework for conceptualizing and analyzing data at the dyadic level by estimating actor and partner effects (Cook & Kenny, 2005; Kenny et al., 2006). Dyadic relationships are characterized by mutual influence, as couples influence each other's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Campbell & Kashy, 2002). By estimating actor and partner effects, researchers and clinicians can determine the roles of interpersonal processes in dyadic interaction, and develop appropriate clinical interventions (Cook & Kenny, 2005; Kenny et al., 2006). APIM used in conjunction with multilevel models can be used to account for these mutual influences (Campbell & Kashy, 2002; Kenny et al., 2006).

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is one type of modeling approach which is commonly used to study couples. Kenny and colleagues (2006) reported that SEM is a preferable analytic strategy when the dyads are distinguishable and SEM can be used to test couples' actor and partner effects hypothesized by APIM. Since couples are distinguishable, SEM was used in the current study to examine the work and family experiences among a sample of working couples.

Interactions and mediational analyses also can be modeled using SEM depending on the theoretical propositions (Kenny et al., 2006). According to West and colleagues (2008) mediators can be tested in APIM by including the variables in the analyses in a series of equations. Mediation enables psychologists to answer "how" and "why" a predictor is related to an outcome variable. Establishing mediation requires three conditions to be fulfilled (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Frazier & Tix, 2004). First, the independent variable (resources generated at work) must affect the mediator (positive affect at work) in first equation. Second, the independent variable (resources generated at work) must affect the dependent variable (family performance) in the second equation. Perfect mediation is met if the independent variable (resources generated at work) has no effect on the dependent variable (family performance) when the mediator (positive affect at work) is entered into the equation. In the current study, the affect of both members of the couples was included in the model to assess for mediation.

Analysis Strategy

Although Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was selected originally as the analytic strategy of preference to test a latent model, the results indicated inadequate support for the presence of a latent model (See Chapter 4). Thus, path analyses were

conducted based on the Actor Partner Interdependence Model framework using LISREL 8.80 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 2006). This approach enabled an examination of the work-family interface among dual-earner couples, while accounting for interdependencies among partners.

To estimate parameters in the data, an iterative estimation technique called Maximum Likelihood Estimation (ML) was used. This method is generally preferred for model estimation, and providing estimates for parameters because it makes minimal distributional assumptions apart from multivariate normality. In addition to examining the χ^2 estimate, other indices were used to assess model fit including the comparative fit index as per Hu and Bentler's (1999) guidelines: (CFI; $\geq .95$), the root mean-square error of approximation, (RMSEA; $\leq .06$), and the standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR; $\leq .09$).

Hypotheses and Research Questions

In accordance with the model proposed by Greenhaus and Powell (2006), and a review and critique of the literature, several research questions and hypotheses were developed about work flexibility, family-supportive organization perceptions, income, work-related self-efficacy, positive affect at work, family role salience, family satisfaction, dyadic adjustment, and parenting behavior. Additionally, prior to conducting the principle analyses, relationships among the variables of interest and the demographic variables were assessed. Descriptive statistics for the measures used in this study were calculated and the relationships among the variables were assessed using Pearson *r* correlations. For all analyses, a *p* value of .01 was used.

Purpose 1

The purpose of the study was to investigate the degree to which resources generated at work, and positive affect at work related to familial outcomes at home while accounting for interdependence of observations among dual-earner couples. As discussed above, path analyses were conducted to examine actor (intrapersonal) and partner (interpersonal) effects.

Analyses

These analyses were conducted by examining overall model fit, and the strength and magnitude of path coefficients using path analysis in LISREL 8.80 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 2006).

Hypothesis 1a: Actor effect. Females' resources generated at work (i.e., supportive and flexible work environments, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy) will be associated positively with females' report of family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior).

Hypothesis 1b: Partner effect. Females' resources generated at work (i.e., supportive and flexible work environments, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy) will be associated positively with males' report of family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior).

Hypothesis 1c: Actor effect. Males' resources generated at work (i.e., supportive and flexible work environments, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy) will be associated positively with males' report of family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior).

Hypothesis 1d: Partner effect. Males' resources generated at work (i.e., supportive and flexible work environments, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy) will be associated positively with females' report of family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior).

Hypothesis 1e: Actor effect. Females' resources generated at work (i.e., supportive and flexible work environments, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy) will be associated positively with females' positive affect at work.

Hypothesis 1f: Actor effect. Males' resources generated at work (i.e., supportive and flexible work environments, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy) will be associated positively with males' positive affect at work.

Hypothesis 1g: Actor effect. Females' positive affect at work will be associated positively with females' report of family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior).

Hypothesis 1h: Partner effect. Females' positive affect at work will be associated positively with males' report of family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior).

Hypothesis 1i: Actor effect. Males' positive affect at work will be associated positively with males' report of family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior).

Hypothesis 1j: Partner effect. Males' positive affect at work will be associated positively with females' report of family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior).

Purpose 2

The second purpose of the study was to examine the extent to which positive affect at work mediated relationship between resources generated at work and performance in family domains. By grounding the study in the Actor Partner Interdependence Model, the analysis accounted for interdependence of observations among dual-earner couples.

Analyses

These analyses also were conducted by examining overall model fit, and comparing a direct effects model to a mediated model. The strength and magnitude of path coefficients were examined using path analysis in LISREL 8.80 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 2006). Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure for testing mediation was implemented.

Hypothesis 2a: Mediation involving female actor effects. Females' positive affect at work will partially mediate the relationship between females' resources generated at work (i.e., supportive and flexible work environments, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy) and females' report of family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior).

Hypothesis 2b: Mediation involving actor and partner effects. Females' positive affect at work will mediate the relationship between females' resources generated at work (i.e., supportive and flexible work environments, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy) and males' report of family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior).

Hypothesis 2c: Mediation involving male actor effects: Males' positive affect at work will partially mediate the relationship between males' resources generated at work (i.e., supportive and flexible work environments, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy) and males' report of family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior).

Hypothesis 2d: Mediation involving actor and partner effects. Males' positive affect at work will mediate the relationship between males' resources generated at work (i.e., supportive and flexible work environments, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy) and females' report of family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior).

Purpose 3

The third purpose of the study was to examine how family role salience related to resources generated at work and family functioning.

Analyses

Pearson r correlations were examined to investigate relations among the variables.

Research Question 1. How does family role salience relate to resources generated at work (i.e., supportive and flexible work environments, material resources, and occupational self-efficacy) and family functioning (i.e., family satisfaction, dyadic functioning, and parent behavior) among dual-earner couples?

CHAPTER III

Method

Design

The purpose of this study was to examine ways in which certain components of work may enrich aspects of family functioning. This study included variables derived from the Work-Family Enrichment Theory proposed by Greenhaus and Powell (2006). Consistent with their model, the predictor variables were family supportive benefits, family-supportive organization perceptions, income, and occupational self-efficacy. The mediating variable was positive affect at work. The outcomes were family satisfaction, dyadic adjustment, and parenting behavior. Also, family role salience was examined in an exploratory capacity. The Actor Partner Interdependence Model (Cook & Kenny, 2005) was used to frame the intrapersonal and interpersonal hypotheses in the current study.

Participants

One hundred and seven married dual-earner couples working full time (30+ hours per week on average) participated in the current study. Since this is a study of couples and the Actor Partner Interdependence Model requires both members of the couple to be included in analyses; participants were asked to participate in the study only if their partner also was willing to participate. For the first half of the recruitment phase, couples with two children under age 16 were recruited for this study. After several months of data collection, recruitment criteria were changed to obtain additional participants. Specifically, couples with at least one child living in their homes under the age of 16 were invited to enroll in this study. Participants were selected according to these criteria

because the work-family interface may be particularly salient for couples with young children requiring child care. For a comprehensive analysis of participants' demographic information, see Tables 1-3 and the Results chapter (Chapter 4).

Power estimates. Determining the exact sample size needed to detect significant effects in multilevel modeling using the Actor Partner Interdependence Model involves multiple considerations. For example, Snijders and colleagues (1993) discussed the difficulty in estimating the number of participants needed to detect given effect sizes when using multi-level modeling. They proposed several complex formulas for estimating the number of participants required to detect reliable effects; however, they also noted that the researcher must have a working familiarity with the population parameters, including variance components, means, and covariance matrices. Although these power formulas provide approximations of sample sizes, further research needs to be conducted before general rules can be utilized universally.

Contemporary research on power analysis suggested that conducting analyses *a priori* is preferable (e.g., Hancock & Mueller, 2006). Hancock and Mueller (2006) described the statistically complex process of conducting power analysis of covariance structure modeling. For example, Hancock and Mueller (2006) described how estimating the power π requires estimating the degree of noncentrality. The authors noted that when there are fewer degrees of freedom in the model, the sample size required to test overall data-model fit increases. Additionally, lower sample size may affect the stability of the findings, due to higher variability of standard errors. These factors must be considered when interpreting power estimates in the current study.

Accounting for individual and couples level effects increases power by removing the variability between couples from the error term (Barnett, et al., 2003). Kenny et al. (2006) discussed the complexity in approximating power and effect size computation using the Actor Partner Interdependence Model. Determining power involves estimating d or r from nonindependent data, controlling for multicollinearity between actor and partner effects, and correcting the sample size based on the degree of nonindependence in the data. Because of the abstruse mathematical formulas for calculating power analyses for the Actor Partner Interdependence Model and structural equation modeling, we utilized Cohen and colleagues' (2003) method for conducting power analyses. Tashiro and Frazier (2007) conducted a couples study using the Actor Partner Interdependence Model and moderated analyses and also utilized these formulas for estimating power in moderated multiple regression.

Approximately 76 participants are needed to detect medium effect sizes ($sr^2 = .09$) for a power of .80, with an alpha level of .05. Following other statistical procedures detailed by Cohen (1992) and Cohen and colleagues (2003), for a power of .80 and an alpha level of .01, approximately 126 participants were needed to detect small effect sizes for each beta weight in multiple regression. In research on couples, fewer participants might be required because using latent models increases power by removing the variability between couples from the error terms. However, in the current study, multiple analyses were performed to examine actor and partner effects among couples. Thus, the current study sought to adjust for the number of tests being conducted by recruiting about 100 couples or 200 participants to approximate adequate sample size. The sample consisted of 107 couples, 214 individuals.

Procedure

Recruitment procedure A: Personal contacts of members of research team. The first method of data collection involved the principal student investigator, the faculty investigator, and members of the research team establishing personal contacts with members of dual-earner couples (See Appendix A for data collection materials). Researchers invited these individuals to participate in a study of dual-earner couples in person, or through email. Additionally, the researchers contacted couples and asked these couples to invite other dual-earner couples to participate in the study. Dual-earner couples were encouraged to share with others (via email and word of mouth) the invitation to participate in the study by emailing umdcouplesstudy@gmail.com.

Recruitment procedure B: Internet avenues. A link to the study was advertised on listservs, online forums (e.g., parent groups on www.yahoo.com and www.craigslist.org), social networking websites (e.g., www.facebook.com), websites for parents (e.g., www.parentconnection.com), and other online groups and forums. Interested participants emailed umdcouplesstudy@gmail.com to receive special codes to enable participation.

Recruitment procedure. Participants were emailed scripts for data collection (See Appendix A for comprehensive list of scripts and letters). These scripts contained specific information about the study including the nature of the study, the incentive to participate (1/10 couples were awarded a \$50 AMEX gift card), and contact information of the investigators. Participants were asked to complete the measures independently, not in consultation with their partner. After participants expressed interest in the study, they received a link to the study (i.e., www.hostedsurvey.com/couplesstudy) and individualized codes for themselves (e.g., C1F) and their partners (e.g., C1M). Potential

participants were be contacted via email every two weeks up to four times after initial contact to remind them about the invitation to participate in the study.

Maintaining confidentiality. To protect potential participants' confidentiality, one data file containing the code identifying each member of the couple and their partners' email addresses was maintained in a locked filing cabinet in a locked room. All participants followed the secure link on their personal computers, and entered their individualized codes which enabled them to participate in the study. After entering their code, they were asked to read and electronically sign an informed consent form before answering a series of questionnaires.

Participants were told that researchers would make every effort to maintain confidentiality and that their participation was voluntary and could be withdrawn at any time. Furthermore, participants were informed that their responses would not be shared with their partners, and that the surveys contained ID numbers, not names. Since there was a risk that the partner might leave the computer where she or he was working and the other partner would see the responses, we reminded participants at the end of the survey to be sure to close the survey window.

Incentives to increase participation. Participants were informed that they may choose to be entered into a lottery upon completion of the study (See Appendix K for lottery forms). At the end of the survey, participants were given a confirmation code (e.g., AMEX) which signifies that they completed the study. They were asked to email umdcouplesstudy@gmail.com with their confirmation code, home address, and phone number if they would like to enter into the lottery. They were reminded that their entry into the lottery was only permitted when both members of the couple completed the

questionnaires. One in ten couples were awarded a \$50 AMEX gift card in November 2009.

Measures

Family supportive benefits: Flexible work arrangements and dependent care support. In accordance with Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model, participants were asked to assess use and availability of benefits as a measure of work flexibility (See Appendix B). Parker and Allen (2001) developed a measure of flexibility which included indices of benefit availability, personal use, and coworker use. The co-worker subscale initially utilized by Parker and Allen (2001) was not included in the current study. Thus, only indices of work-family benefit availability and usage were assessed in the current study.

Parker and Allen (2001) developed a list of 11 family-friendly benefits that may be offered by organizations. Since recent studies have suggested that employees have different responses to varying types of family-friendly benefits (e.g., Thomas & Ganster, 1995), Parker and Allen (2001) categorized the types of family friendly benefits according to two major groups. The list included items which assessed flexible work arrangements (FWA; flextime, compressed work week, telecommuting, part-time work, and job sharing), and dependent care supports (DCS; on-site child care center, subsidized local child care, child-care information/referral services, paid maternity leave, paid paternity leave, and elder care). Participants were asked to assess these benefits along two dimensions: benefit availability and personal use of the benefit. To score the items, benefits which were positively endorsed as available or used were scored as a "1" while benefits that were not endorsed were scored as a "0." Scores for each scale were summed.

Parker and Allen (2001) found that personal use of FWA was related to perceptions of the organization as a fair place. Additionally, the findings of the study suggested that personal use of FWA may be related to positive views of work/family benefits. Allen (2001) used a shorter 10-item scale for assessing work flexibility. The results of her study suggested that the relationships between benefit availability and various outcomes including work-family conflict and job satisfaction were mediated by family-supportive organization perceptions. There are no reliability estimates available for these scales, which is likely because the scales are categorical in nature.

In the current study, family-supportive benefits were summed to measure total family-friendly benefits offered and utilized. Thus, two variables resulted from these summations: family-friendly benefits offered and family-friendly benefits utilized.

Family-supportive organization perceptions. The Family-supportive Organization Perceptions Scale (FSOPs) was included as a measure of the extent to which couples view their work places as supportive of household and family responsibilities (see Appendix C; Allen, 2001). The 14-item subscale has one factor. Each item ranged on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A sample item from the measure is “Employees are given ample opportunity to perform both their job and their personal responsibilities well.”

The scale was developed and validated on employees from various jobs including a technology firm, a utility company, and a women’s business group. The majority of the participants were White and working in white collar jobs. To enhance content validity, the 14-items were selected to represent recent theoretical work on work and family. In the initial scale development study, FSOPs were related to social support, work-family

conflict, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions after accounting for multiple control variables (e.g., family responsibility, tenure, and marital status). Allen (2001) also suggested that FSOPs mediate the relationship between family-supportive supervisors and work-family conflict. Furthermore, FSOPs partially mediated the relationship between supervisor support and organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions (Allen, 2001).

The scale has demonstrated strong reliability in several studies (Allen, 2001; Grandey et al., 2007). In the initial scale development (Allen, 2001), the overall Cronbach's alpha was .91, indicating high internal consistency. In addition, Grandey and colleagues (2007) examined the factor structure of the FSOP scale among a sample of male hourly workers, and found that a unidimensional structure did not emerge. In their analysis, they found three components in the overall scale. The first component had five items, and represented the organizational supportiveness of work-family balance ($\alpha=.74$). The second component reflected the perception that the organization expected complete work focus ($\alpha=.66$). The authors remarked that the third component reflected segmentation, or separateness, of work and family issues ($\alpha=.52$). The authors surmised that male hourly workers may think about family supportive organization perceptions differently than female white collar workers. The authors chose the first subscale which represented work-family balance as a measure of family-supportive organization perceptions. They argued this construct was more germane for blue-collar workers, who viewed the other items as distinct from the validation sample of primarily White collar female workers (Allen, 2001). In the current study, Allen's (2001) scale was utilized because of the higher reliability estimates, and more consistent use of the overall subscale

score in other studies of family-supportive organization perceptions (e.g., Behson, 2002; O'Driscoll et al., 2003).

Regarding construct validity, FSOPs were related negatively to job satisfaction and work-family conflict. In two subsequent studies using the FSOP, the internal consistency was estimated at .89 (Behson, 2002; O'Driscoll et al., 2003). Furthermore, O'Driscoll et al. (2003) found that the FSOP scale was related negatively to work-family conflict and psychological strain, and was related positively to organizational benefits available and organizational benefits used. The FSOP scale also was related positively to work-family culture, perceived organizational support, trust in management, job satisfaction, and affective organizational commitment (Behson, 2002).

Material resources received from work. Income was assessed in the current study to measure material resources received from work (See Demographics Section). According to Greenhaus and Powell (2006), material resources from work include money and gifts received from work roles. Income was assessed by one question about annual income. Participants were asked to check a box which indicated their approximate gross (before tax) household income which included their income and their partner's income.

Occupational self-efficacy. Two measures of occupational self-efficacy were included in the current study (See Appendix D). The Personal Beliefs Efficacy Scale (PEBS; Riggs, Warka, Babasa, Betancourt, & Hooker, 1994) was included in the current study. This scale measures participants' beliefs in their abilities to perform job-related tasks. This measure consists of 10 items which reflect perceptions of participants' ability to do tasks required by their job. Responses are measured on a 5-point Likert scale which ranges from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). A sample item is "I have

confidence in my ability to do my job." Previous studies have found strong internal consistency reliability estimates ranging from .80 to .86 (Lubbers, Loughlin, & Zweig, 2005; Riggs et al., 1994).

There also is evidence supporting the construct validity of this scale. The PEBS has been found to correlate positively with job-related affect ($r = .20$) and job performance ($r = .31$; Lubbers et al., 2005). One limitation of this scale is that some of the items seem to measure perceptions of skills or abilities rather than confidence in doing core job-tasks. Therefore, a survey was developed for use in this study to supplement the PEBS.

Eleven items were generated by this writer and Dr. Karen O'Brien to represent multiple dimensions of self-efficacy in work domains. The items purported to measure self-efficacy in work domains according to Lent and Brown's (2006) conceptualization four measures of self-efficacy: task-specific, coping, process, and self-regulatory. A sample item measuring task-specific self-efficacy was "I have confidence that I can perform the tasks needed for my job." A sample item measuring coping self-efficacy was "I am confident that I can cope with challenges associated with my work." Consistent with this theory, process self-efficacy, and self-regulatory, and self-regulatory self-efficacy were also measured. This scale was coined "Self-efficacy in Work Domains" (SEWD), and the response for the items range on a scale from 0 = not at all confident to 9 = extremely confident (see Appendix D).

Affect at work. The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988) was used in the current study to assess affect at work (See Appendix E). The PANAS is commonly used to assess both positive and negative affect. The 20-item

PANAS has two 10-item subscales measuring positive and negative affect. These scales are largely orthogonal in nature, as indicated by medium negative correlations between the subscales (Watson et al., 1988). The scale ranged from 1 (*very slightly or not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*). Participants rated to what extent they endorse the descriptions in either the given moment, today, the past few days, the past week, the past few weeks, the past year, or in general. In the current study, participants were asked to rate how they have feel in general at work. Other studies on affect and work have utilized the PANAS (e.g., Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 2006; Wright & Staw, 1999). Montgomery and colleagues (2005) similarly modified the PANAS to capture positive and negative affect at work. Specifically, they asked participants to rate their mood in life in general, and their mood in work domains.

According to Watson and colleagues (1988), positive affect indicates feeling active, enthusiastic, and alert, with high energy, full concentration, and pleasurable engagement. Positive affect is also related to the trait dimension of positive emotionality. A sample item from the scale is “inspired.” Negative affect suggests feelings of distress, hostility, nervousness, and anger. On average, participants tend to report more positive than negative affect. A sample item from the scale is “jittery.”

The scale was initially developed with undergraduate college students and university employees but has since been replicated in hundreds of studies. The initial instrument development demonstrated high reliability with alpha coefficients ranging from .86 (the past year) to .90 (today) for the positive affect scale, and .84 (past year) to .87 (today and in general). The authors conducted test-retest reliability analyses, and suggested that reliability estimates for the “general” time frame indicated that the

measure can be used as a trait measure of affect. The measure also can be used to assess momentary moods; however, the PANAS does reflect that affect is in large part dispositional. Additionally, Watson and colleagues (1988) found support for construct validity through expected relations with measures of depressive symptomatology, psychological dysfunction, and current affective state. These results were corroborated by Crawford and Henry (2004), who found consistent patterns of relationships between the PANAS and measures of depression and anxiety in a large non-clinical sample in Britain. Notably, one concern for measuring affect is sensitive to the time of day; for example, positive affect tends to rise during the morning (Watson et al., 1988).

The PANAS was recently used to measure dispositional affect in a sample of couples (Heller et al., 2002). Among couples, dispositional positive affect was positively related to job and life satisfaction, while dispositional negative affect was negatively related to those variables. Furthermore, the authors found expected relationships between positive affect, negative affect, and measures of personality including neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness. For example, positive affect was related positively to extraversion, while negative affect was related positively to neuroticism. In a daily diary study of employed married couples, daily positive and negative was averaged across daily reports. The results indicated that negative affect was correlated negatively with marital satisfaction.

Role salience. The Life Role Salience Scales (LRSS; Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986) was included in the current study to assess role salience among participants. Role salience refers to individuals' level of value and commitment to various roles in their lives (see Appendix F). There are four domains within the overall

measure: occupational, marital, parental, and homecare roles. The original measure has eight subscales which assess role reward values and role commitments across the four different types of roles; however, only scales which measure role salience in family domains were considered in the current study (marital domain role salience and parental domain role salience). The current study incorporated the commitment and value dimensions of the salience measure by including the following four subscales: Parental Role Reward Value, Parental Role Commitment, Marital Role Reward Value, and Marital Role Commitment.

The measure was initially developed and validated on samples of undergraduates, faculty members, and married couples. Each item ranges on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*disagree*) to 5 (*agree*). A sample item from the Parental Role Reward Value was “If I chose not to have children, I would regret it.” A sample item from the Parental Role Commitment was “I expect to be involved in the day-to-day matters of rearing children of my own.” A sample item from the Marital Role Reward Value was “Having a successful marriage is the most important thing in my life to me.” A sample item from the Marital Role Commitment was “I expect to commit whatever time is necessary to making my marriage partner feel loved, supported, and cared for.” Consistent with Graves et al. (2007), the terms “committed relationship” and “life partner” was be substituted for the terms “marriage” and “spouse.”

The measure has demonstrated adequate reliability and validity. The measure demonstrated high internal consistency estimates ranging from .79 to .94 (Amatea et al., 1986). Ruderman and colleagues (2002) utilized the Commitment subscales of the LRSS. Reliability estimates were provided for Marital Commitment ($\alpha = .79$), and Parental

Commitment ($\alpha = .84$). Cinamon and Rich (2002b) conducted a varimax factor analysis of the scale, which yielded distinct scales for each role. Additionally, in a study of dual-earner couples, Shukla and Gupta (1994) provided correlates of the LRSS. They found that few gender differences emerged, indicating females and males responded similarly. Additionally, the results suggested that the stage of marital career did not influence responses on the LRSS. Support for predictive validity was found in a recent study of managers where marital and parental role commitments reduced psychological strain, and were associated with enhanced work outcomes (Graves et al., 2007). Additionally, Ruderman and colleagues (2002) found that multiple role commitments were related to well-being among female managers.

Family Satisfaction. The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener et al., 1985) was modified in the current study to assess the participants' global satisfaction with their family lives (see Appendix G). This measure assesses the cognitive aspect of life satisfaction. This measure has been described as widely-used and well-validated (Steger, Frazier, Oishi, & Kaler, 2006). In a review of the measure, Pavot and Diener (1993) noted that the scale was not intended to assess domain specific areas of satisfaction (e.g., family satisfaction). However, a review of the literature revealed that there were no scales which measured overall satisfaction with family life from a positive psychology or enrichment perspective. Thus, for the purposes of this study, the SWLS was modified to account for satisfaction with family life. For example, the item "In most ways my life is close to ideal" was changed to "In most ways my family life is close to ideal." The responses on this 5-item measure range from 0 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*).

The original measure demonstrated adequate reliability and validity in a number of studies. Pavot and Deiner (1993) noted that the measure evidenced temporal stability; however, the measure is sensitive enough to detect changes in life satisfaction over time. As indicated in Pavot and Diener's (1993) review, the scale had excellent internal consistency estimates ranging from .79 to .89. Furthermore, in a meta-analytic study of personality and subjective well-being, DeNeve and Cooper (1998) found that life satisfaction was correlated positively with extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience. Life satisfaction was correlated negatively with neuroticism. In a sample of couples, life satisfaction was related positively to job satisfaction (Heller & Watson, 2005). Pavot and colleagues (1991) provided evidence for cross-method convergence with other measures of well-being. The results of their investigation suggested that the SWLS was correlated with other measures of well-being, and memory indicators of life satisfaction, thus providing support for convergent validity. The SWLS also was correlated in expected directions with positive and negative affect.

Dyadic Adjustment. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS; Spanier, 1976) was administered to assess couples' relationship quality (Appendix H). According to Graham et al. (2006), the DAS was the most widely used measure of relationship functioning in the social sciences literature. By 1985, the DAS was cited in over 1,000 studies (Spanier, 1985). The original DAS (Spanier, 1976) had four subscales: Dyadic cohesion, Consensus, Satisfaction, and Affective expression. Since the creation of the 32-item DAS, several shortened scales have been utilized as proxies of relationship functioning including the 4-item DAS (Sabourin, Valois, & Lussier, 2005), 6-item DAS (Sharpley & Cross, 1982), the DAS-7 (Hunsley, Best, Lefebvre, & Vito, 2001), and the DAS-14

(Busby, Christensen, Crane, & Larson, & Christensen, 1995; Crane, Middleton, & Bean, 2000).

The original DAS (Spanier, 1976) was employed in the current investigation to examine different aspects of relationship functioning. The DAS items are summed, creating a total score ranging from 0-151. Sabourin et al. (2005) noted that the cutoff scores between 95 and 105 are used to differentiate between distressed and non-distressed couples. Couples scoring above these cut off points would be considered non-distressed, and couples scoring below would be considered distressed. An example item from the Dyadic cohesion is “Handling of Family Finances.” An example item from the Consensus subscale is “Laugh together.” An example item from the Satisfaction subscale is “In general, how often do you think things between you and your partner are going well?” An example item from the Affective expression subscale is “Demonstration of affection.”

The DAS has demonstrated adequate reliability and validity across a number of studies. Spanier (1976) developed and validated the measure on a sample of married individuals in the northeast. Spanier also provided evidence of the scale’s internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and construct validity. Spanier provided Cronbach’s alpha internal consistency estimates of the DAS subscales and the overall sum of the scales: Dyadic Cohesion (.86), Dyadic Consensus (.90), Dyadic Satisfaction (.94), Affective Expression (.73), and DAS-total (.96). Spanier (1976) found that each of the 32 items correlated with marital status; furthermore, the total score on the DAS was markedly different for divorced and married couples.

Since Spanier's (1976) original instrument development study, there have been hundreds of studies which have utilized the DAS. Worthington and colleagues (1995) provided estimates of Cronbach's alpha for the subscales: Dyadic cohesion (.59), dyadic consensus (.81), dyadic satisfaction (.75), and affective expression (.67). Most recently, Graham et al. (2006) conducted a reliability generalization meta-analysis of the measure to examine the psychometric properties. Their analysis of 403 studies of the DAS provided updated internal consistency estimates for the DAS: Dyadic Cohesion (.79), Dyadic Consensus (.87), Dyadic Satisfaction (.85), Affective Expression (.71), and DAS-total (.92). They noted that the factor structure of the DAS was comparable to Spanier's (1976) study, with the exception of the Affective Expression subscale, which demonstrated inadequate reliability estimates.

Parenting Behavior. The Parent Behavior Inventory (PBI; Lovejoy et al., 1999) was administered to assess parents' self-report of their parenting behaviors (see Appendix I). The 20-item PBI has two 10-item subscales: Supportive/engaged, and hostile/coercive. Since the purpose of the current study is to investigate enrichment processes, the Supportive/Engaged scale was included. An example item from the scale is "I laugh with my child about things we find funny." The responses on this 6-item measure range from 0 (*not at all true- I don't do this*) to 6 (*very true- I often do this*).

The measure was developed and validated in a series of 8 studies. Some of the initial samples included mothers of young children in the community. The supportive/engaged subscale demonstrated high internal consistency ($\alpha = .83$), and adequate 1-week test-retest reliability ($r = .74$). Notably, parents tended to endorse the supportive/engaged behaviors more than hostile/coercive behaviors. Researchers have

reported little to no correlation between the two distinct types of behaviors (Dallaire et al., 2006; Lovejoy et al., 1999). The scale demonstrates adequate content validity, as the items were selected and refined by experts in child development and parenting. Lovejoy and colleagues (1999) also provided support for convergent and discriminant validity. For example, the PBI was correlated in expected directions with parenting stress, maternal affect (positive and negative affect), and child behavior problems. Additionally, the self-report PBI converged with observer ratings of parenting behaviors. The authors noted that the PBI may be used as an observational or self-report assessment of parenting behaviors.

Since the initial instrument development, the PBI has been utilized in several studies of parenting. Skopp and colleagues (2007) reported strong internal consistency estimates ranging from .87 to .93. The authors noted positive correlations emerged between the supportive/engaged subscale and maternal education. Negative relationships emerged between supportive/engaged parenting behaviors and mother's reports of child externalizing problems, and mother's report of partner aggression. Dallaire and colleagues (2006) found that supportive/engaged parenting was related negative to children's depressive symptoms. Thus, children with less supportive/engaged parents reported more severe depressive symptoms.

Demographic Questionnaire. The demographic questionnaire developed by the principal investigator was included at the end of the survey (See Appendix K). The questionnaire collected the following information: age, gender, race/ethnicity, income, level of education, area of geographic location, type of town/city, population of town/city, relationship status, number, age, and gender of children, number of children

living in the home under age 16, current employment status, current occupation, length of time at current occupation, number of hours worked per week, and information about the current intimate relationship.

CHAPTER 4

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Prior to conducting formal statistical analyses, missing values analyses were conducted using SPSS 16.0. Missing values pattern analyses indicated that there was no pattern of missing data among participants. All participants had completed more than 90% of the questions, and were retained for subsequent analyses. On average, participants missed less than one question (females $M = .62$, $SD = 1.64$; males $M = .47$, $SD = 1.47$). Data imputation was conducted using multiple imputations (EM) for each scale at the individual level. The following analyses were performed using imputed data from SPSS.

Other preliminary analyses included testing for multivariate normality, which is an assumption of Maximum Likelihood Estimation. The results suggested that the data did not violate assumptions of multivariate normality ($\chi^2 = 2.13$, $p = .34$).

Sample

One hundred and fifty couples, or three hundred participants, agreed to participate in the current study. Thirty- two couples were not included in data analysis because at least one member of the couples agreed via email to complete the study, but one or both failed to logon to the website. Thus, one hundred and eighteen couples completed the study (78.6% completion). One hundred and seven couples were retained for analysis; 11 couples were not included in analyses because they did not meet inclusion criteria (e.g., one or both members of the couple worked less than 30 hours per week). Notably, of the 64 potential participants who did not finish the measures, most were male (69%).

Descriptive Statistics

See Tables 1 to 4 for complete data about sample characteristics. The participants ranged in age from 27 to 67; the average age of males ($M = 39.56$, $SD = 6.79$) in the study was slightly higher than females ($M = 37.93$, $SD = 5.69$). The average length of their current relationship was around 12 years ($M = 12.18$, $SD = 5.50$). Most participants had completed college or graduate school (females = 86%; males = 84 %), and came from an upper income bracket (female Mean = 70,000-79,999; male Mean = 80,000-89,999). On average, males ($M = 44.98$, $SD = 7.79$) reported working slightly longer hours than females ($M = 42.51$, $SD = 6.91$). This difference in hours worked between females and males was statistically significant ($t = 3.22$, $p <.01$).

Participants were employed in a number of different occupations (see Table 3). The occupations were categorized according to Bureau of Labor Statistics Standard Occupational Classification System (see U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2000). Overall, the sample was highly concentrated in high-status and high-wage occupations. The largest occupational category was education, training and library for females (34.9%), and business and financial operations for males (16.5%). Many participants were employed in management positions (females = 18.3%; males = 15.6%). Participants were employed in healthcare practitioner occupations like physical therapist or dentist (females = 7.3%; males = 6.4%). More males than females were employed in several occupational categories including legal (females = .9%; males = 5%), architecture and engineering (females = .9%; males = 3.7%), protective services (females = 0%; males = 3.7%)

The sample was predominately White (female = 79%; male = 81.3%), although other racial and ethnic groups were represented (female Asian = 8.4%, male Asian =

5.6%; female Hispanic/Latina = 4.7%, male Hispanic/Latino = 4.7%; female Black/African-American = 1.9%, male Black/African-American = 3.7%; female Multiracial = 2.8%). The sample included participants from many different geographical areas within the United States (Mideast = 36.4%, West Coast = 22.4%, Southeast = 21.5%, Rocky Mountains = 1.9%, Plains = .9%, New England = .9%). Most participants were from suburban locations (71%), but with some participants living in urban (22.4%) and rural (5.6%) areas. Couples on average reported having about two children. Couples in the sample had on average about one female child (females $M = 1.18$, $SD = .82$; males $M = 1.14$, $SD = .82$) and one male child (females $M = .91$, $SD = .77$; males $M = .92$, $SD = .73$). The average child in the study was about 6 years old (females $M = 5.81$, $SD = 4.55$; males $M = 6.32$; $SD = 4.38$).

The sample characteristics as measured by the variables of interest are discussed below. Overall, the couples in the sample tended to receive and use few benefits at work. For instance, both women and men reported that only a few dependent child care supports or flexible work arrangements were offered (females $M = 3.23$; $SD = 2.30$; males $M = 2.57$, $SD = 2.58$), and fewer were utilized (females $M = 1.32$; $SD = 1.31$; males $M = 1.03$, $SD = 1.05$). Despite having few benefits offered or utilized, couples endorsed perceptions that their work organizations were somewhat family-friendly (females $M = 34.05$; $SD = 7.00$; males $M = 32.40$, $SD = 8.13$). Couples reported high levels of self-efficacy in work domains (females $M = 85.45$; $SD = 10.57$; males $M = 86.09$, $SD = 10.29$), and strong beliefs about their personal work skills, and ability to perform well at their job (females $M = 30.90$; $SD = 4.68$; males $M = 30.89$, $SD = 5.00$).

Positive affect at work among couples fell between “moderate” and “quite a bit” (females $M = 29.37$; $SD = 6.09$; males $M = 28.55$, $SD = 7.14$).

Couples reported feeling strongly about the importance of family as measured by high levels of value and commitment to parental and marital role (females $M = 63.14$; $SD = 9.28$; males $M = 63.13$; $SD = 9.03$). Couples also endorsed high levels of family satisfaction (Females $M = 15.21$; $SD = 4.01$; Males $M = 14.89$; $SD = 3.87$), and dyadic adjustment (females $M = 97.89$; $SD = 10.50$; males $M = 97.34$; $SD = 10.75$). Lastly, both females ($M = 45.25$; $SD = 5.44$), and males ($M = 44.66$; $SD = 6.29$) reported feeling supportive and engaged as parents.

Correlational Analyses

Correlational analyses were conducted to examine relationships among the variables of interest in the current study. Based on the large number of correlations, only correlations where $p < .01$ are discussed.

Some correlations emerged among the work and family variables of interest and demographic variables. For example, participants’ age correlated with a few variables of interest. Male income correlated positively with male age ($r = .31$) and female age ($r = .26$). Female self-efficacy at work correlated negatively with male age ($r = -.26$). Female age correlated negatively with male family satisfaction ($r = -.25$). Female parent behavior inventory correlated negatively with female age ($r = -.33$) and male age ($r = -.27$). Age was related negatively to female family role salience ($r = -.25$). Also, male positive affect at work correlated positively with hours per week at work ($r = .30$).

The strongest correlations are described here, and the reader is referred to Table 5 to view results. The correlations below include relationships between work variables, positive affect at work, and family functioning among dual-earner couples.

Among the participants, there were positive correlations among the variables measuring resources generated at work. For example, a positive correlation was found between benefits offered at work and benefits utilized at work (female $r = .45$; male $r = .65$). Among males, benefits utilized at work correlated positively with family-supportive organization perceptions ($r = .30$). Among females, family-friendly organization perceptions correlated positively with self-efficacy in work domains ($r = .29$). Last, participants who endorsed high levels of self-efficacy in work domains also were likely to report high levels of personal beliefs self-efficacy (females $r = .63$; males $r = .53$). These two measures were correlated positively and strongly, as they both indicate self-confidence at work.

Correlations also emerged between resources generated at work and positive affect in the workplace. For males, family-friendly organization perceptions correlated moderately with positive affect at work ($r = .36$). Couples high in self-efficacy in work domains also were likely to report higher levels of positive affect at work (females $r = .42$; males $r = .52$). Likewise, participants with high levels of perceived beliefs efficacy tended to endorse more positive affect at work (females $r = .39$; males $r = .33$).

Correlations suggested relations between the mediating variable in the study, positive affect at work, and family functioning. The results indicated positive affect at work correlated positively with family satisfaction for females ($r = .40$). Thus, women

who reported positive feelings while work also were more likely to endorse high levels of family satisfaction.

At the $p < .01$ level, only one correlation emerged between resources generated at work and measures of family functioning. Among females, personal beliefs efficacy at work was related positively to family satisfaction ($r = .29$). Although other correlations were observed, many of these effects were modest in size (see Table 5).

Positive correlations were observed among the indicators of family functioning in the current study. Family satisfaction correlated positively with dyadic adjustment (females $r = .52$; males $r = .52$). Thus, participants who reported higher levels of satisfaction with their family also endorsed high levels of functioning in their romantic relationship.

Last, a number of positive correlations were observed between women's and men's scores on the same measure. Although interdependence of observations is not accounted for in Pearson's r correlations, these relationships between women's and men's are noteworthy and indicative of non-independence of observations (Kenny et al., 2006). In terms of resources generated at work, females and males incomes correlated positively ($r = .38$). Also, female family satisfaction was related positively with male family satisfaction ($r = .47$). The relationship between male and female positive parenting behavior was positive ($r = .34$). Female and male dyadic adjustment were also related positively ($r = .71$).

Structural Equation Modeling Preliminary Analyses

Initially, SEM was used to test for the presence of latent variables in the hypothesized model. The first model which was tested allowed all structural parameters

to be freely estimated without placing constraints on the parameters. This preliminary model indicated that the measured variables hypothesized to load on the proposed latent factors (resources generated at work and family functioning factors for women and men) were poor indicators of the factors. Results indicated a non-positive definite fit among the variables. In this case, the estimation process resulted in solutions with zero or negative eigenvalues which is an impossibility in matrix algebra. Upon inspection of the variance matrices, several variables had negative variances, which were unable to be interpreted because variance values are always positive. In the factor analysis literature, this scenario is common, and has been linked to the problem of Heywood cases, where the error variance is negative, and the standardized loading is greater than one (See Dillon, Kumar, & Mulani, 1987). In LISREL and other programs used to examine latent models, the program uses mathematical functions from matrix algebra to produce unique estimates for variances and covariances. The program attempts to generate estimates which are unique and optimum given the observed data and the hypothesized latent model. Negative error variances are pervasive in structural models, and may suggest lack of fit, misspecification of error, empirical identification, or sampling fluctuations (Dillon et al., 1987). In models with non-positive definite fit, LISREL terminates, and does not produce fit statistics.

Since LISREL does not identify the specific source of the non-positive definite fit, the researcher is tasked with locating the problem by examining the matrices. According to Byrne (1998), CFA procedures can be implemented to examine the measurement model prior to examining a latent structural model to determine if the measurement model is psychometrically sound. At this juncture, for theoretical and

practical reasons, the model was dissected into the two component measurement models (i.e., work and family measurement models). As discussed previously, the hypothesized structural model based on Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory proposed latent relationships between resources generated at work and family functioning. In essence, this overall structural model based on their theory was comprised of two confirmatory measurement models (i.e., work and family), linked by structural pathways between latent work and family constructs in couples. In these confirmatory models, measured work variables (e.g., family-friendly benefits) were hypothesized to load on work factors, while measured family variables (e.g., parenting behavior) were hypothesized to load on the family functioning factor. On a practical level, by conducting two separate confirmatory factor analyses, the process of examining the matrices to diagnose the source of the error messages was simplified. Thus, the overall model was divided into a work CFA and a family CFA to investigate more closely whether the source of the non-positive definite fit originated from the work, and/or the family variables. This technique allows for a closer diagnostic analysis of the source of the error message, and the terminated solution from the overall model. Upon inspection of the CFAs, the work and family CFAs both resulted in negative estimates for error variances, thus the problem of non-positive definite fit remained in both measurement models.

Next, following techniques outlined by Byrne (1998), Dillon and colleagues (1987), and G. Hancock (personal communication, September 11, 2009), various techniques were employed to diagnose the source of the non-positive definite fit error. For example, according to Bryne (1998), re-specification of the model may help remedy the non-positive definite fit problem. Other techniques include setting the offending error

variances to zero or placing constraints on the unique variance (Dillon et al., 1987). G. Hancock (personal communication, September 11, 2009) also suggested using different start values to remedy the problem. Thus, the decision was made with the collaboration of Dr. Hancock, an expert in Structural Equation Modeling and LISREL, to employ a number of these techniques to identify the source of the non-positive definite fit.

First, all possible combinations of start values were chosen to determine if the non-positive definite problem was related to scaling. Doing so did not remedy the problem of non-positive definite fit in either the work or the family confirmatory factor analytic model. Next, paths between women and men were set equal to each other in an effort to specify a more parsimonious model that was suitable for the data. Through the many trials involved in respecification, or revisions of the measurement model, two work variables were consistently identified as problematic variables with negative error variances, specifically, women's and men's report of Family-Friendly Benefits Offered and Family Friendly Benefits Utilized. These four variables were allowed to continue in the model as single indicators of a factor to eliminate problems they may have been causing at the factor level. The resulting models generated loadings with fit statistics; however, inspection of the covariance matrices revealed negative error variance estimates. Thus, these four variables were removed from the model. The resulting model had a better fit among the work confirmatory factor analytic model. However, the issues with negative variance persisted in the work and family measurement models. Based on these preliminary analyses, the exogenous and endogenous factors of the model were ineffectual for explaining the relations among the data. Thus, the problem existed at the factor level as opposed to the measured variable level.

In short, without standardizing the model, the model was unable to run without producing negative variance estimates. According to Byrne (1998), standardizing the model at the latent level enables researchers to eliminate the necessity of a start, or reference value for latent models, and may be a viable option when considering the issue of scaling. However, standardizing the model at the factor or the variable level was not considered as a viable option because of the inability to compare the magnitude or valence of the relations among the variables. In the current study, one of the major purposes was to examine different pathways between work and family among women and men. Had the model been standardized, the comparisons made between the different effects for women and men would have been rendered meaningless. Since the measured variables did not load on the latent variables as hypothesized, path analysis was chosen as an alternative method for analyzing the data in the absence of support for a latent structure among the variables.

Path Analysis Overview

Path analysis is one of the building blocks of structural equation modeling, and represents an extension of regression models. In path analysis, single indicators represent each of the variables in the model. This approach was deemed appropriate because of the ability to examine structural relations among the variables, without introducing a measurement or latent overlay to the model. Like structural equation modeling, path analysis can be used for testing model fit, and examining the structural relations among variables. Unstandardized path analysis also enabled the examination of direct, indirect, and spurious relationships, while leaving certain relationships unanalyzed for theoretical reasons. Thus, the variables which were previously examined in a latent capacity were allowed to continue in a measurement model as single item indicators of the constructs that they represent.

In conducting path analysis, one must attend to the number of parameters being estimated and the sample size needed to detect reliable effects. Since various parameters were being estimated for both members of the working couple, there was an initial concern with the number of parameters estimated and the sample size. Specifically, the total sample size ($N = 107$) was smaller than the number of parameters which were being estimated in the model. To simplify the model, and provide more robust estimates, the four variables mentioned above (Family-Friendly Benefits Offered and Family-Benefits Utilized for women and men) were omitted from the model. This simplification also somewhat minimized problems associated with detecting reliable effects. Thus, path analysis was conducted with the remaining variables using LISREL to examine the hypothesized enrichment pathways among the hypothesized variables. As discussed in

the method section, there is lower variability (error) among couples because of interdependence of observation, thus power is increased. However, as discussed above, these analyses should be interpreted with caution because of the number of tests being performed.

Path Analysis: Affective Pathways of Work to Family Enrichment

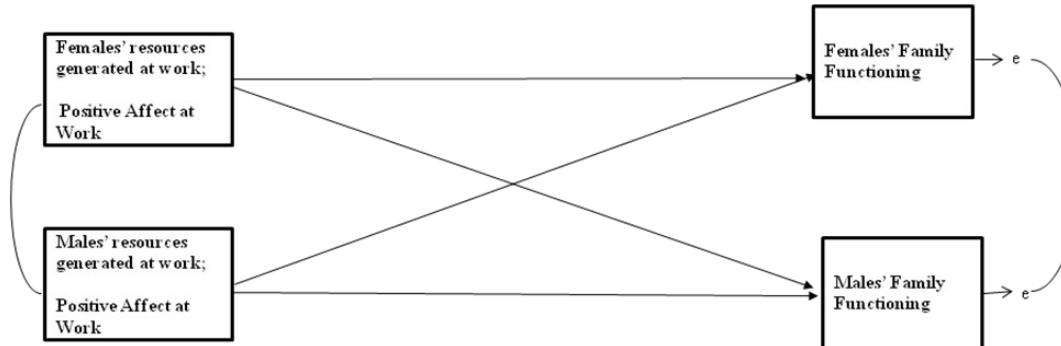
Thus, a total of four variables indicating resources generated at work were examined for women and men: Income, Self-Efficacy in Work Domains (SEWD), Perceived Efficacy Beliefs Scales (PEBS), and Family-Friendly Supportive Organization Perceptions (FSOP). Three outcome variables were included as indicators of family functioning: Parent Behavior Inventory (PBI), Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS), and Family Satisfaction Scale (FSS). Positive Affect (PA) was examined subsequently as a mediating variable. To address the first purpose of the study, the relationships between resources generated at work, positive affect at work, and family functioning were first examined using a direct effects model. To account for interdependence between couples, exogenous variables, and the errors of endogenous variables were allowed to covary. The models tested were derived variables from Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory. They depicted the hypothesized direct effects between resources generated at work and positive affect at work as predictors of family outcomes.

Purpose 1

As mentioned previously, the first purpose of the study was to investigate the degree to which resources generated at work, and positive affect at work relate to familial outcomes at home while accounting for interdependence of observations among dual-earner couples. To address this purpose, prior to estimating paths, the first step in path

analysis entails model testing to demonstrate the extent to which the sample data fit the hypothesized model. When all errors of endogenous variables were allowed to covary, the model was saturated, or just-identified. Thus, four small covariances between corresponding error terms (e.g., error covariances between women's and men's scores on outcome variables) were constrained to increase the degrees of freedom from zero, and allow for model fit indices to be produced. This model re-specification produced excellent model fit indices: $\chi^2(4, N = 107) = 3.66$, comparative fit index (CFI) = 1.00, root mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.00, standardized root mean square Residual (SRMR = .01).

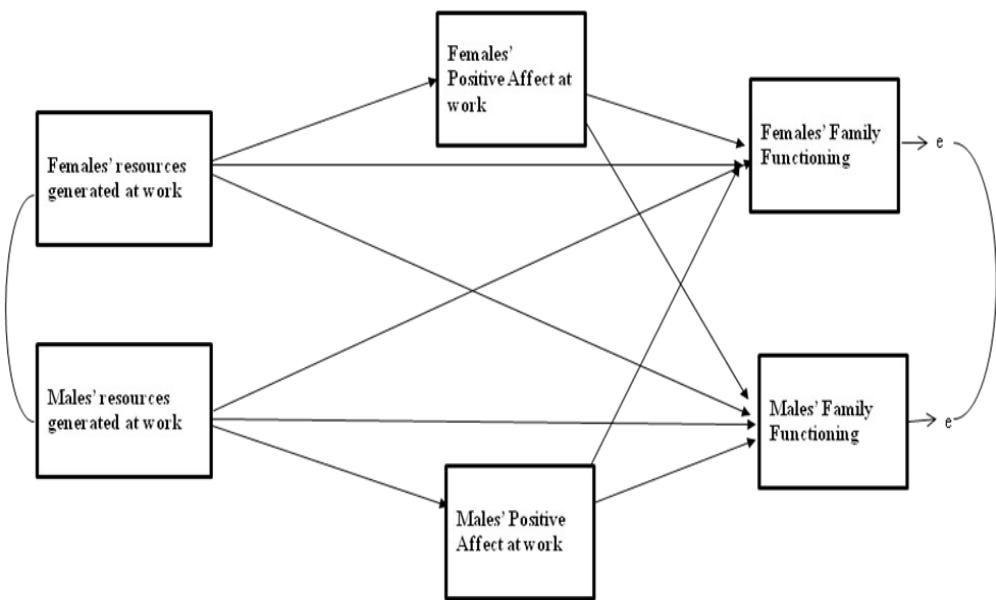
Figure 4. Direct Effects Model*



*Fit indices: $\chi^2(4, N = 107) = 3.66$, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, SRMR = .01

This directs effect model (see Figure 4) next was compared to a mediated model (see Figure 5) which included positive affect at work as a mediator between resources generated at work and family functioning. These models are nested because both contain the same variables.

Figure 5. Affective Pathways of Enrichment: Mediation Model*



*Fit indices: $\chi^2(12, N = 107) = 9.80$, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, SRMR = .02

Purpose 2

The second purpose of the study was to examine the extent to which positive affect at work mediates the relationship between couples' resources generated at work, and family functioning. Similar to the direct effects model, analogous parameters in the model which indicated interdependence between women and men (e.g., Women's Positive Affect, and Men's Positive Affect) were allowed to covary. To ensure an equitable comparison, the same four error covariances were constrained in the mediated model as the direct effects model. This more parsimonious model indicated excellent data fit: $\chi^2(12, N = 107) = 9.80$, comparative fit index (CFI) = 1.00, root mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .00 and standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR = .02).

Next, the mediated model was compared to a direct effects model using a χ^2 difference test ($\Delta \chi^2$). This test was conducted to compare alternate competing models (i.e., direct effects versus mediated). A comparison of the mediated model compared positive affect as a mediating variable ($\chi^2_{(12)} = 9.80$) to a direct effects model with positive as a predictor variable ($\chi^2_{(4)} = 3.44$) resulted in a non-significant difference in χ^2 values of ($\Delta \chi^2_{(8)} = 6.14$). Since the χ^2 difference test did not yield significant findings, it can be concluded that the addition of constraints did not significantly reduce the model fit. Thus, the more parsimonious mediated model (Figure 5) was retained for future analyses.

Path coefficients. To further address the first and second purposes of the study, specific paths between resources generated at work, positive affect at work, and family functioning were examined in the above mediated model (see Tables 6 and 7). Consistent with APIM, actor and partner effects for both members of the working couple were

examined. When conducting dyadic data analysis using SEM, unstandardized coefficients should be reported because doing so enables legitimate comparisons across members of the couple. Male to female partner effects measure the extent to which male's resources generated at work influence his partner's family functioning. Thus, unstandardized coefficients, unstandardized standard error estimates, and *t* values are reported below.

Female actor effects refer to the effect of the female's resources generated at work on her level of family functioning, while male actor effects refer to the effect of the male's resources generated at work on his level of family functioning. As discussed above, actor effects are intrapersonal in nature

Positive affect at work. The overall model accounted for 21% of the variance in predicting female's positive affect at work and 35% of the variance in predicting male's positive affect at work. Among females, the path between perceived beliefs efficacy and positive affect at work was significant ($b = .29$, $SE = .15$; $t = 1.96$). Significant relations emerged between family-supportive organization perceptions and positive affect at work among males ($b = .22$, $SE = .07$; $t = 2.94$). Additionally, the path between self-efficacy in work domains and positive affect at work was significant ($b = .28$, $SE = .07$; $t = 4.05$). Consistent with the specified theory, interpersonal partner effects were not examined between resources generated at work and partner's positive affect at work.

Dyadic Adjustment. The overall model accounted for 19% of the variance in predicting female's dyadic adjustment ($R^2 = .19$), and 14% of the variance in predicting male's dyadic satisfaction ($R^2 = .14$). A path emerged between female's family-supportive organization perceptions and dyadic adjustment among females ($b = .51$, $SE = .20$; $t = 2.56$). Females' personal beliefs efficacy also was related to females' dyadic

adjustment ($b = .93$, SE = $.37$; $t = 2.54$). Additionally, females' income was negatively related to female's report of dyadic adjustment ($b = -1.43$, SE = $.53$, $t = -2.84$). No partner effects involving dyadic adjustment emerged.

Parenting behavior. The overall model accounted for 9% of the variance in predicting female's parenting behavior ($R^2 = .09$), and 9% of the variance in predicting male's parenting behavior ($R^2 = .09$). No actor or partner effects emerged involving parenting behavior.

Family satisfaction. The overall model accounted for 23% of the variance in predicting female's family satisfaction ($R^2 = .23$), and 12% of the variance in predicting male's family satisfaction ($R^2 = .12$). Females' positive affect at work was related positively to females' family satisfaction ($b = .22$, SE = $.06$; $t = 3.28$). Females' personal beliefs efficacy also was associated positively with females' family satisfaction ($b = .22$, SE = $.10$; $t = 2.15$). No partner effects emerged involving family satisfaction.

Mediation effects

Mediation enables psychologists to answer "how" and "why" a predictor is related to an outcome variable. Establishing mediation requires three conditions to be fulfilled (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Frazier & Tix, 2004). First, the independent variable (resources generated at work) must affect the mediator (positive affect at work) in the first equation. Second, the independent variable (resources generated at work) must affect the dependent variable (family performance) in the second equation. Perfect mediation is met if the independent variable (resources generated at work) has no effect on the dependent variable (family performance) when the mediator (positive affect at work) is entered into the equation. The following steps are in accordance with Baron and Kenny's

(1986) steps for establishing mediation, and West and colleagues (2008) procedures for detecting mediation using the Actor Partner Interdependence Model.

Step 1: Predictor (resources at work) to mediator (positive affect at work). First, positive affect at work was examined as an outcome variable for resources generated at work. This model had adequate fit ($\chi^2(8, N = 107) = 6.57$), comparative fit index (CFI) = 1.00, root mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .00 and standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR = .02). Female personal-beliefs efficacy ($b = .32$, SE = .15; $t = 2.12$) and female self-efficacy in work-domains ($b = .13$, SE = .07; $t = 1.93$) were related positively to females' positive affect at work. Among males, male family-supportive organization perceptions ($b = .22$, SE = .07; $t = 2.91$) and male self-efficacy in work-domains ($b = .28$, SE = .07; $t = 4.07$) were related positively to males' positive affect at work. Collectively, the variables predicted 23% of the variance in females' positive affect at work, and 35% of males' positive affect at work.

Step 2: Predictor (resources at work) to outcome (family performance) In the current study, a direct effects model including resources generated at work and family performance (without positive affect at work) indicated the presence of seven significant effects (of 42 possible effects tested). This model had adequate fit ($\chi^2(4, N = 107) = 4.49$), comparative fit index (CFI) = 1.00, root mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .04 and standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR = .02). Female personal-beliefs efficacy was related positively to females' family satisfaction ($b = .29$, SE = .11; $t = 2.72$). Female income was related negatively to dyadic adjustment ($b = -1.37$, SE = .51, $t = -2.68$). Female family-supportive organization perceptions was related positively to female dyadic adjustment ($b = .12$, SE = .06; $t = 2.15$). Female family-

supportive organization perceptions ($b = .51$, SE = .17; $t = 2.58$), and female personal beliefs efficacy ($b = .97$, SE = .36, $t = 2.666$) were related positively to female dyadic adjustment. Male family-supportive organization perceptions was related to male dyadic adjustment ($b = .45$, SE = .20; $t = 2.22$). One partner effect emerged: female family-supportive organization perceptions were related to male dyadic adjustment ($b = .12$, SE = .05; $t = 2.09$).

Step 3: Mediator (positive affect at work) to outcome (family performance). This model had adequate fit ($\chi^2(4, N = 107) = 2.49$), comparative fit index (CFI) = 1.00, root mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .00 and standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR = .02). However, positive affect at work explained less of the variance in family performance variables (R^2 ranged from .03 to .16). The only significant paths included the relationship between female positive affect and female family satisfaction ($b = .26$, SE = .06; $t = 4.32$), and female positive affect and male family satisfaction ($b = .13$, SE = .06; $t = 2.11$).

Step 4: Sobel-test to establish mediation. Although a number of effects merged between predictor, mediated, and outcome variables in the current study, only one set of variables met criteria for mediation as indicated by Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure for testing mediation. Sobel-test calculations indicate that for females, positive affect at work mediated the relationship between females' personal beliefs efficacy and females' family satisfaction ($Z = 2.02$, $p < .05$).

Purpose 3

The third purpose was to examine ways in which family role salience related to work and family functioning among dual-earner couples. Among males, income

correlated negatively with family role salience ($r = -.27$). Thus, men who earned more money reported less value and commitment to family roles. Self-efficacy in work domains among females also correlated positively with family role salience among females ($r = .27$).

Family role salience also positively related to the measures of family functioning, the outcome variables in this study. Specifically family role salience correlated positively with family satisfaction in females and males (females $r = .47$; males $r = .50$). Thus, participants who reported greater levels of value and commitment to family also reported higher levels of family satisfaction. Additionally, couples who reported higher levels of family role salience also endorsed higher levels of dyadic adjustment (females $r = .49$; males $r = .35$). Family role salience correlated positively with positive parenting behavior among females ($r = .27$).

There also were a number of notable correlations involving women's and men's scores on role salience and the variables of interest. For example, female self-efficacy in work domains correlated positively with male family role salience ($r = .27$). Thus, women's report of confidence in work domains was related positively to men's report of value and commitment to family roles. Additionally, female positive affect at work correlated positively with male family role salience ($r = .38$). This relationship indicated that women's report of positive affect in the workplace was related positively to men's report of value and commitment to family roles. Female's family role salience also was correlated positively to male dyadic adjustment ($r = .42$), suggesting that women's report of greater value and commitment to family roles was related positively to men's report of better relationship functioning. Male family role salience corresponded positively to

female family satisfaction ($r = .28$). Likewise, female family role salience correlated positively with male family satisfaction ($r = .39$). Last, positive correlations also were observed between female family role salience and male family role salience ($r = .36$).

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

The overarching purpose of the current study was to examine ways in which resources generated at work, and positive affect at work, related to aspects of family performance. By implementing a dyadic methodological approach, this study has contributed to the burgeoning work-family interface literature by examining ways in which resources generated in work domains augment family functioning among dual-earner couples. Although interdependencies between work and family are well-documented in the work-family interface literature (e.g., Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Gareis et al., 2009; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000), this is the first study which has examined Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) work-family enrichment theory among full-time dual-earner couples with young children, a subset of parents for whom the interface between work and family may be particularly salient.

This study sought to complement the existing work-family interface literature by accounting for interdependence among couples, and by selecting predictor variables amenable to change. The conceptual and analytic framework, the Actor Partner Interdependence Model (Cook & Kenny, 2005), accounted for interdependence of observations among couples, and enabled an examination of ways in which partners' work experiences influence each other's family performance. Thus, by including both members of the working couple, the results captured interpersonal aspects of the work-family interface. The current study also contributed to the work-family interface literature by addressing science, practice, and advocacy realms of the work-family domain, as

recommended by Fassinger and O'Brien (2000). The predictor variables selected in the work realm reflect potential areas of intervention for counseling psychologists working in individual therapy, career counseling, couples counseling, policy, and advocacy. Additionally, the theoretical framework which emphasized positive psychological functioning was in concert with counseling psychology's emphasis on capitalizing on human strengths, and positive aspects of vocational and familial functioning.

Sample Characteristics

The pattern of relationships observed among the variables must be interpreted with understanding of the unique sample characteristics in the current study. Although this study recruited couples from across the country, compared to other dual-earner couples in the United States, the couples represented a unique and privileged subset of working parents. On average, participants were highly-educated and from a high socioeconomic bracket. About half of the participants held Masters or Doctoral degrees, and on average participants reported earning between \$70,000 and \$80,000 per year. Combining the individual incomes of these highly educated couples resulted in an average income of approximately \$150,000 per family. The couples in this study on average earned considerably more than \$32,390 per year, the median wage of American employees (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009c). This level of educational and economic privilege likely facilitated many aspects of the work-family interface, including but not limited to the ability to afford childcare. Also, couples on average had two young children, and the majority of couples reported paying for childcare. Almost half of the sample respondents reported that a grandparent or nanny helped care for the children. Thus, another important consideration in this study is that the majority of the sample only

had one or two children living at home, and they typically were able to afford childcare, or solicit childcare assistance from a family member (e.g., grandparent). Only a few participants reported that they were directly involved in the care of aging parents. This level of privilege in conjunction with the lack of additional dependent care responsibilities among participants in the sample may have restricted the variability among the variables of interest in the sample.

Additionally, the types of occupations in which the participants were employed revealed a high concentration of high-status or professional occupations. These occupations may have facilitated participants' ability to capitalize on benefits or resources generated from work domains. Certain job categories in the Standard Occupational Classification System (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2000) like building and grounds cleaning, farming and forestry, and food preparation were not represented in the sample, while other occupational categories like management occupations (e.g., finance manager) were represented highly across both sexes. Although almost 20% of women and men in the sample occupied management positions, participants' occupations within the management category may have varied. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2009b), women are under-represented in certain management positions like engineering managers (6.5%), but are more represented than men in other management positions like human resources (66.3%). Within occupational category analyses were not conducted due to low number of participants in each type of position; however, it is possible that further gender differences existed within job category type.

Although there were some similarities in the types of occupations reported by women and men, there were some prominent gender differences of importance as well.

Women were very concentrated in educational jobs, while a higher number of men than women occupied jobs in business and finance. Many of the female educators in this sample may have benefited from more flexible work environments than other professions. Other gender differences included the complete absence of males from certain female-dominated occupations like administrative services, and females from other male-dominated occupations like construction, protection services, armed forces, or installation occupations. In the subsequent discussion of the current findings, these unique sample characteristics must be considered. Specifically, the participants in the current study occupied higher status and higher paying occupations, which may have afforded more benefits and flexibility, than is typical among occupations held by most American workers. The work-to-family enrichment processes may operate differently among parents in lower-status occupations, as these families may receive fewer benefits and supports at work.

Additionally, family and work experiences may be influenced by other socio-cultural variables. The sample was comprised of mostly White participants, and exclusively heterosexual couples. A mounting body of research in career and vocational psychology has documented that traditional career theories may apply differently or not at all for people of color (e.g., Worthington, Flores, & Navarro, 2005). People of color also may face differential economic hardships, along with individual or institutional discrimination. For example, people of color, women, and individuals with less education tend to have less flexible work environments (Golden, 2001).

Lesbian, gay, and bisexual individuals also may experience unique vocational experiences (e.g., Libberdale, Croteau, Anderson, Tovar-Murray, & Davis, 2007) which

influence the way in which they navigate heterosexist work climates. In sum, inclusion of more people of color in the study, and LGBT dual-earner couples may have produced different or mixed findings, as there are documented differences in work and family functioning among racial/ethnic and sexual orientation minorities. Given the demographic profile of participants, the results should not be generalized as they represent the work to family enrichment processes of a subset of dual-earner couples.

Although formal statistical analyses comparing the current sample to other samples along the variables of interest were not conducted, it is prudent to understand sample characteristics as measured by participants' amount of resources generated at work, positive affect at work, and family performance. While couples' report of family-supportive organization perceptions fell below reports from employees in a large sample of employees, the participants reported more flexible and dependent care benefits available and utilized (Allen, 2001). Participants also reported high levels of self-efficacy in work domains along both measures of self-efficacy. On the other hand, compared and contrasted with other samples of working parents, the couples in the current study tended to fall lower on positive affect at work over the past week than levels of positive affect rated by U.S. students (Watson et al., 1988), non-clinical U.K. samples (Crawford & Henry, 2004), and other dual-earner couples (Song et al., 2008; vanEmmerik & Jawahar, 2006). Thus, as a group, this sample may have been lower in positive affect. Although recall bias may have affected their ability to gauge retrospectively their last week at work, the participants' reports seem to suggest a lower level of overall positive affect at work than other samples. Along the dimension of family satisfaction, comparisons cannot readily be made because the Life Satisfaction Scale (Pavot & Diener, 1993) was adapted

for use in the current study. However, on average, the participants reported high levels of satisfaction with their family lives. Participants also reported very similar levels of warm and supportive parenting behaviors compared to mothers of young children (Lovejoy et al., 1999), and similar levels of dyadic adjustment to other married couples (Spanier, 1976).

Overall Findings

Overall, the findings supported the presence of relationships among work variables and family performance. Although the results are tentative because of small to moderate effect sizes and the large number of paths examined, the excellent model fit indices suggested that positive affect at work served as a mediator in the relationship between resources generated at work and family performance. The results lend support to Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) work-family enrichment theory, and the notion of affective pathways in work-family enrichment.

At the path coefficient level, the results highlighted ways in which specific resources generated at work related positively to positive affect at work, and positive affect at work in turn related positively to healthy aspects of family functioning. These findings are consistent with literature which has found support for emotion as a mediating variable between work and family experiences (e.g., Heller & Watson, 2005; Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 2006). Thus, the pattern of results was consistent with the hypothesis that positive affect at work operates as a mediating variable between resources generated at work and family functioning (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

These findings also were consistent with literature on spillover and congruence, two theoretical mechanisms involving positive affect which have been hypothesized to

link work and family domains among adults (see Edward & Rothbard, 2000). According to spillover mechanisms, there are inherent similarities between work and family domains which explain positive relations between aspects of work and family functioning (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Accordingly, spillover may occur by means of the causal effects of mood, values, skills, in translating positive effects between work and family domains. The current findings may suggest that similar psychological processes (e.g., positive affect) may be operating at work and at home, thus explaining the spillover effect, as measured by variance accounted for in predicting aspects of family performance. Spillover theory would explain that positive mood at work affected general positive mood of parents, which in turn enhanced family performance. Alternatively, the pattern of findings in the current study can be conceptualized according to congruence mechanisms, whereby work and family are related positively because of a third variable (i.e., dispositional positive affect) which simultaneously influences positive mood at work and positive mood in family domains. Applied to the current study, enhanced mood in work domains may have led to better family performance. In sum, these two theories provide possible explanations for the findings in the current studies. Alternate explanations, including the potential confounding role of trait positive affectivity, will be discussed further. Future studies may seek to compare and contrast these two mechanisms by examining models which measure the unique roles of dispositional affect, and affect in work and family domains. The implications of these findings will be overviewed, as they carry importance for elucidating the ways in which peoples' lives may be improved in work and family domains.

Purpose 1: The Relationships between Resources Generated at Work, Positive Affect at Work, and Family Performance

Intrapersonal “actor” effects: An overview. In addressing the first purpose of the study, the relationships involving resources generated at work, positive affect at work, and family performance were examined. In total, eight intrapersonal effects were found in the model: two intrapersonal effects emerged among males, and six relations among females.

Contrary to the hypotheses, the relationships between resources generated at work did not relate to family performance variables among males at the path coefficient level. Furthermore, income was related in an unexpected manner to dyadic adjustment among females. These unanticipated findings will be discussed as they also elucidated ways in which the work-family interface operates among dual-income couples.

However, other findings were consistent with work-family enrichment theory. For example, relations were observed between resources generated at work and positive affect at work among males. Specifically, males’ positive affect at work was related to males’ report of family-friendly organization perceptions; additionally, males’ positive affect at work was related positively to males’ confidence in their abilities in work domains. The results suggested that although males’ positive affect at work may be influenced by resources generated at work (e.g., self-efficacy), these work-related variables did not predict males’ family functioning. The results among the variables of interest were more robust among females; specifically, a series of relations were observed between resources generated at work, positive affect at work, and family performance. As stated above, among females, six intrapersonal relationships emerged between the

variables of interest. These findings, along with relevant theoretical and practical implications will be discussed further.

This pattern of findings may be clarified by a rational view perspective (Gutek, Searle, & Kelpa, 1991). According to this perspective, more time spent in roles associated with work and family is related positively to more conflict between work and family domains (Gutek et al., 1991). Previous research has found that women spend more time in family work than men (Gutek et al., 1991). It seems theoretically plausible that this perspective applies to work-family enrichment, whereby women's greater devotion or time spent in family roles may intensify the relationship between resources generated at work and family performance. Also, gender along with other factors like socioeconomic background, past organizational experiences, and individual differences in socialization, may contribute in part to desire for work-family segmentation, and satisfaction with organizational policies (Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). According to Grandey and colleagues (2007), males are more likely to segment work and family roles, and to report greater work-focus than their female counterparts. Thus, it is possible that these inter-domain relationships are more prominent among women, who may experience a greater integration between work and family roles.

Intrapersonal "actor" effects: Specific findings. Eight specific actor effects emerged among women and men in the prediction of the family performance outcome variables. As mentioned above, only two of these findings were found among males in the study. First, the results suggested that family-supportive organization perceptions predicted positive affect at work among males, but not among females. This is consistent with research which has found that perceptions among workers that the work-place is

family-friendly is more than a “woman’s issue” (Grandey et al., 2007). Among blue-collar male workers, family-supportive organization perceptions were related negatively to work-family conflict, and positively to job satisfaction.

Also, self-efficacy in work domains emerged as a predictor of positive affect at work among both females and males, although this finding was more robust among males. Two different measures were used in the current study to capture occupational self-efficacy. Among females, the PEBS (Riggs et al., 1994), a measure which captured perceptions of skills or abilities, related to positive affect at work. In contrast, males’ reports on the SEWD (Dunn & O’Brien, under development), a measure intended to capture multiple dimensions of self-efficacy at work (e.g., coping self-efficacy, process self-efficacy), was related to males’ report of positive affect at work. These inconsistencies suggested that the two measures may be assessing different constructs related to self-confidence in work domains. Furthermore, the inconsistencies suggested that there may be gender differences in the way in which these variables related to positive affect at work. According to these perspectives, critical distinctions in perceptions of self-confidence between women and men may exist, and these differences may relate to positive affect in work domains. Females’ positive affect at work may be particularly related to perceptions of skills or abilities, while males’ overall sense of confidence in various work domains more clearly related to positive affect at work.

Several other actor effects that pertained to women highlighted a pattern of findings consistent with many of the hypothesized relations between resources generated at work, positive affect at work, and family functioning. As discussed above, females’ positive affect at work was related to females’ perceptions of skills and abilities in work

domains. This suggested that women who are confident in their abilities at work also are likely to have positive affect at work. Also, positive affect at work was related to family satisfaction among females. Taken together, these findings underscore the importance that perceptions about work and appraisals of skills and abilities in work domains play in the work-family enrichment process among women. These findings are consistent with our predictions that social-cognitive resources generated at work would relate to participants' positive affect at work.

Since the relations between self-efficacy and positive affect at work were more robust among males (as evidenced by greater effect sizes), the results tentatively suggested that working fathers' positive mood at work may have been particularly influenced by their self-efficacy in work domains. This finding may be understood by examining self-efficacy theory and gender-role socialization (e.g., Hackett & Betz, 1981). Although gender roles in the work-family interface are evolving, men have historically been viewed in a breadwinner role (Perrone et al., 2009). Because of gender-differences which persist in the work-family interface, men may receive more opportunities to develop self-efficacy at work, and may derive positive affect more readily from those experiences. Females' positive affect at work may be less affected by the extent to which women perceive themselves as efficacious at work, or conceptualize their organizations as family-friendly.

Although relations between positive affect at work and social-cognitive resources generated at work were not as robust among females, resources generated at work related to indices of family functioning. For example, family-supportive organization perceptions related positively to family satisfaction and dyadic adjustment. These results are

consistent with other research which has revealed relations between flexibility and family well-being (e.g., Clark, 2001). One reason these findings were more prominent among women may be the nature of family role salience. Research has suggested that women may have greater family role salience than men (Gutek et al., 1991). Among females high in family role salience, the interface between work and family may be particularly pronounced. Future studies may examine the extent to which family role salience moderates the relationship between resources generated at work and family functioning. In sum, the relations between family-supportive organization perceptions, dyadic adjustment, and family satisfaction among females were consistent with Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) work-family enrichment theory.

Contrary to the hypotheses, among females, income was related negatively to dyadic adjustment. According to this finding, women who reported earning more money also reported lower relationship satisfaction. Although this finding was contrary to Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) proposition that material resources like income facilitate the relationship between work and family domains, this finding was consistent with patterns of mixed findings regarding income and psychological functioning (e.g., Diener et al., 1999; Diener, 2000). As discussed previously, correlations between subjective well-being and income have emerged as small to zero in many cases (Diener et al., 1999; Diener, 2000). One possible explanation for this null finding is that income may promote positive family performance in some circumstances by facilitating ability to pay for family-facilitating aids like childcare.

Alternatively, consistent with predictions from Barnett and Hyde (2001), couples having high incomes may not experience as much pressure on husbands to provide

financially for the family. Other research has indicated that the relationship between wives' incomes and odds of divorce is highest when wives contribute between 50 to 60% of total family resources (Rogers, 2004). The authors hypothesized that inequality in income leads to more interdependence in marriage and marital stability, while financial equality and economic independence increases likelihood of divorce. These findings were based on examining the occurrence of divorces in almost 2,000 couples over 17 years. This pattern was most pronounced when marital happiness was low or moderate. In the current study, couples' incomes were relatively comparable and their levels of dyadic adjustment were similar to other married couples. Taken together, it is possible that the couples in the current study were economically resourced independent of one another, and represented a unique subset of dual-earner couples. In future studies, more nuanced analyses addressing the role of income, economic interdependence, and marital happiness in dual-earner couples may help clarify the strength, magnitude, and presence of the relationship between income and indices of family functioning.

.Interpersonal “partner effects”: An overview. As discussed above, interpersonal effects were less prominent than intrapersonal effects in the current study. The predictor (work) variables as measured were most useful for predicting actor (intrapersonal) effects. There are some theoretical possibilities for the dearth of partner findings in the current study. As discussed by Larson and Almeida (1999), the transmission of emotions in families may not be “one-to-one” (p. 14). For example, it is possible that a man's experience of pride generated from feelings of self-confidence in work domains may not transmit to his partner if she is overwhelmed by family responsibilities. The transmission of emotions in couples may depend on other factors like chronic stress processes (Bolger

et al., 1989), personality traits, alcoholism, coping strategies, or gender roles (Larson & Almeida, 1999). Also, the current study examined positive affect at work, and did not investigate ways in which negative affect operates between work and family domains. Thus, the lack of partner finding involving positive emotions is consistent with research which indicates that positive emotions may be less contagious than negative emotions in families (Larson & Almeida, 1999). Future research may investigate the extent to which the degree of relationship closeness or communication patterns influences the degree of interdependence or cross-over effects between couples. Superficially, this pattern of results implies that relational aspects of the work-face interface may be less salient than intrapersonal effects. However, a recent study of dual-earner couples in China revealed that crossover (partner) effects involving affect at work and at home indeed emerged for both members of the working couple, but the effects were only observable when mood was reported 10 minutes apart using experience-sampling methodology (Song et al., 2008). In the current study, couples' report of mood at work was made retrospectively, thus moment-to-moment transmission of mood between couples was not captured. Methodological and measurement issues may have impeded the ability to detect partner effects. Nevertheless, it is certainly plausible that the interpersonal nature of work-to-family effects is less powerful than intrapersonal mechanisms of work-to-family enrichment.

Interpersonal "partner effects": Specific findings. Only one partner effect emerged among all path coefficients examined. In that case, females' perception of workplace family-supportiveness was related positively to males' dyadic adjustment. The presence of this path coefficient lends tentative support to the relational nature of the

work-family interface. Specifically, in this instance, males' dyadic adjustment may be influenced by the extent to which his partner perceives her work to be family-friendly. This finding is consistent with theory which predicts positive crossover effects from work to home among couples (e.g., Westman, 2001). Females who perceive their workplace as family-friendly may derive some benefit from endorsing this perception, which crosses over to their partners' report of the romantic relationship. Although previous studies have examined ways in which strain crosses over between work and family (e.g., Jones et al., 1996; Westman, 2001), this is the first study to investigate ways in which resources generated at work cross over to the partner in the context of an enrichment framework. Consistent with cross-over theory (e.g., Westman, 2001), partners' experiences at work may produce outcomes in one's partner by a direct mechanism of empathy or understanding. In this case, males' perception of the romantic relationship may be enhanced when his partner feels her work-environment is family-friendly because the partners care for each other or spend a lot of their lives together. To examine this possibility further, variables like the closeness of the romantic relationship or the level of empathy in the relationship may be examined in future studies of interpersonal effects between work and family among dual-earner couples.

Purpose 2: Positive Affect at Work as Mediating Variable

As stated above, the mediated model accounted for a moderate amount of variance in couples' performance in family domains, and variance in couples' positive affect at work. More specifically, the model accounted for a moderate amount of variance in dyadic functioning, and family satisfaction, with less variance accounted for in the prediction of positive parenting behavior. Lovejoy and colleagues (1999) remarked that

parents' report of parenting behaviors may be influenced by their beliefs and mood. Thus, positive parenting behaviors may be influenced by pre-existing moods or global perceptions of parent-child relationship. This would render reports of positive parenting behaviors subject to factors other than mood at work. Alternatively, children may bring joy to parents' lives independent of work, thus positive affect at work may influence parenting behavior less than positive affect derived from parenting experiences. As compared to spouses, children may be a step further removed from affect in work domains. In addition to these possibilities, the instructions in the measure asked couples to rate positive parenting behavior for just one of their children, further contributing to the weak relationships involving this construct.

Also, upon examination of mediated effects, only one mediated actor effect emerged. Positive affect at work mediated the relationship between females' confidence in her ability to perform her job and females' report of family satisfaction. This relationship was hypothesized to emerge among the variables according to Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory; however, similar mediated findings did not emerge among males. Thus, the role of affect at work as a mediating variable between resources generated at work and family satisfaction may hold greater explanatory power for women. This finding is consistent with a meta-analysis which found that the relationship between job and life satisfaction may be stronger among women (Kossek et al., 1998). Despite the growth in number of women and men embracing atypical gender roles (Perrone et al., 2009), men may be able to segment or separate their lives, whereas women's work and family lives intersect more often.

Purpose 3: Preliminary Findings for Family Role Salience

The existence of family role salience as a moderating variable in the relationship between work, affect, and family functioning must be considered as alternative explanations for the paucity of partner findings, and the modest number of actor effects. Although moderated analyses were not conducted due to inadequate sample size for conducting multigroup path analysis in LISREL, preliminary analyses indicated a pattern of significant correlations between family role salience and family performance. Only two relations emerged between resources generated at work and family role salience. Specifically, among males, family role salience correlated negatively with income. Among females, self-efficacy in work domains correlated positively with family role salience. Other relations were found between family role salience, positive affect at work, and family functioning as measured by dyadic adjustment, positive parenting behavior among females, and family satisfaction. These findings, and other relations involving family role salience, should be interpreted with caution because effects were modest in size.

These patterns of preliminary findings were consistent with Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory which posited that individuals intentionally apply resources to roles which are highly salient to enhance their self-concept. Similarly, Thoits (1991) suggested that role identities reflect how people view themselves based on ongoing relationships with others. These roles are organized in hierarchies, with some roles being more central to one's identity than others. She emphasized that the relationships which most powerfully influence identity formation are ongoing, currently enacted, and imply rights and obligations to others. Additionally, she aptly stated, "The more salient the role

identity, the more meaning, purpose, and behavioral guidance the individual should derive from its enactment, and thus the more that identity should influence psychological well-being" (p. 105-106). She suggested that identity-relevant experiences are more powerful predictors of distress and well-being than identity-irrelevant experiences. Hence, among couples who prioritize family roles, the relationship between resources generated at work and family performance may be more prominent. Since the current study highlighted relations between family role salience and work and family variables, future studies may examine the extent to which family role salience influences the strength and magnitude of relationships between work and family.

Other Null and Unanticipated Findings

There were several null findings which were contrary to hypothesized relations between resources generated at work and family functioning. As discussed above, the negative directionality of the relationship between income and dyadic adjustment was unexpected among females. Moreover, the findings implied that women's positive affect at work was not influenced by income or family-supportive organization perceptions. Alternative explanations might be that women's positive affect at work may be more directly influenced by other variables like job satisfaction (Heller & Watson, 2005), interpretations of job circumstances (Brief & Weiss, 2002), or perceptions of organizational culture (O'Driscoll & colleagues, 2003; Thompson et al., 1999).

Also, family-friendly benefits offered and utilized were poor indicators of an overall latent factor in preliminary SEM and CFA analyses and thus were eliminated from path analyses to simplify the model. Although correlational analyses of these variables are less robust than path coefficients produced in a comprehensive model test,

Pearson's r correlations found no relations between these resources and family performance. Consistent with Allen's (2001) findings on family-supportive organization perceptions, employees' beliefs about the family-supportiveness of their organization may be more important for predicting family outcomes than the actual benefits offered or utilized. However, there may be a limit to this interpretation; specifically, if no benefits are offered, the relationship between benefit availability and family outcomes may be stronger. Additionally, flexible work schedules may influence control perceptions related to ability to manage family and work matters, which may in turn improve psychological functioning (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Thus, employers may be tasked with changing the culture and norms of the work environment, in addition to offering family-friendly benefits to increasing employees' control perceptions and psychological functioning.

Personality: An Alternative Explanation

There is reason to suspect that personality factors may enhance the enrichment process between work and family by way of contributing to positive affect at work. Personality traits like conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, openness to experience, and agreeableness consistently have been linked to self-rated emotional experience (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1991; Watson & Clark, 1997). As noted previously, Heller, Judge, and Watson (2002) found personality to be a confounding variable linking trait affectivity and job and life satisfaction. Judge and colleagues' (2006) research similarly indicated that dispositional traits among employed individuals were related to the relationship between work-family conflict, and marital satisfaction. This hypothesis also was supported by data suggesting that social-cognitive resources correlate with general personality strengths. Research has found that career self-efficacy has been

related positively to positive personality traits like trustworthiness, cooperation, positive productivity styles, and adaptive intrapersonal and interpersonal styles (Borgan & Betz, 2008). These dispositional qualities may also influence the extent to which participants in the current study reported feeling efficacious in their work. Thus, people who possess positive personality characteristics like positive trait affectivity may derive more benefits from resources offered at work. This hypothesis was consistent with recent findings that dispositional affect accounts for 24% of the variance in the work-family enrichment relationships (Michel & Clark, 2009). Consistent with the congruence mechanisms discussed above (Edwards & Rothbord, 2000), dispositional affect, and other personality traits may be driving the positive relationship between resources generated at work and family performance.

Other Moderating Variables and Alternative Explanations

In terms of moderation, it also is plausible that interface between work and family may be most salient among couples who are in distress or very dissatisfied with their work. This was consistent with findings that work-family conflict and facilitation were correlated with job and life satisfaction (Gordon et al., 2007; Hill, 2005). Although measures of job or life satisfaction were not included in the current study, participants on reported feeling efficacious in their jobs, and satisfied with their family lives. Hence, participants in the current study may have been less likely to experience enrichment effects because they were already functioning at a high level in work and family domains.

One must also consider directionality of effects in the work-family interface; findings have suggested that family-to-work enhancement may be more prominent than work-to-family enhancement (Gordon et al., 2007; Whiston & Cinamon, under review).

Likewise, others have suggested that the presence of different outcomes linking conflict and enrichment to mental health depend on the outcomes studied, and the directionality of influence (Gareis et al., 2009). In sum, future theory and research in work-family enrichment might elucidate possible third variable explanations, including confounding variables, moderating variables like level of job distress, and the directionality of work and family relations.

Implications for Practitioners

Implications are discussed in terms of ways in which modifications can be made to person and environment variables (see Lewin 1954), with the intention of enriching the lives of dual-earner couples. The results of this study suggested that practitioners treating emotional or social presenting problems in dual-earner couples should not ignore clients' experiences at work, or intersection between work and family. Although recent calls have been made for applied psychologists to attend to the psychology of working (e.g., Blustein, 2008; Blustein, Kenna, Gill, & DeVoy, 2008; Juntunen, 2006), clinicians continue to neglect the role of work in peoples' lives. Notably, Juntunen (2006) highlighted that work correlates with well-being, depression, and anxiety, yet many practitioners fail to incorporate vocational issues in practice. For many working Americans, work is a means of survival and power, relatedness, and self-determination (Blustein, 2008; Blustein et al., 2008). Juntunen articulated barriers that clinicians encounter in integrating work and clinical issues, including the dichotomizing of work and personal issues, vocational overshadowing (i.e., paying greater attention to non-vocational issues in counseling), and unfamiliarity with vocational interventions. The results of the current study underscore the importance of clinicians overcoming such

barriers as applied to case conceptualization and clinical intervention with dual-earner couples.

One way of addressing salient work-family issues in therapy is for counselors and clients to collaborate in the creation of a space in counseling for discussing aspects of work (Blustein et al., 2008). As discussed above, the findings from the mediated model suggested that positive affect at work mediated the relationship between resources generated at work and family functioning. Additionally, for both females and males, confidence at work may relate to gains in family performance. Therapists treating dual-earner couples might ask about the ways in which couples derive confidence from their work experiences. The self-efficacy predictors were different for females and males. Tentatively, based on the findings in the current study, among females, clinicians may focus on perceptions of skills and abilities, while global report of confidence at work may be more salient for males. Clinicians may focus on the appraisals endorsed by working parents toward the family-friendliness of their organization, or their levels of self-efficacy at work. Furthermore, therapists may focus on the ways in which these beliefs enhance mood at work, and couples' ability to function at home. If clients do not report perceptions of confidence in their skills or abilities in work domains, clinicians may implement Bandura's (1977) methods of enhancing self-efficacy. For example, clinicians may encourage working couples to pursue mastery experiences (e.g., successfully completing a "doable" task), or engage in social modeling (e.g., observing a coworker model a difficult task). Therapists may also employ social persuasion, by positively reinforcing, or praising clients' report of desired behavior (e.g., successfully completing goals at work).

Family-friendliness of organization perceptions is another social-cognitive resource which may be targeted by clinical intervention among couples. The findings suggested that family-friendly organization perceptions related to positive affect at work among males, and dyadic adjustment among females. Practitioners might assess how clients' beliefs about the family-friendliness of their organization influence their positive affect at work or their functioning in family domains (e.g., relationship with their spouse). Although the partner effects were modest, clinicians also might attend to the interdependence of work and family among couples with respect to family-friendly organization perceptions. Specifically, the results of this study suggested that females' beliefs about the family-supportiveness of her organization influenced her partner's relationship adjustment. In treating dual-earner couples, a therapist might inquire about how partners' work experiences influence the marital relationship. In some cases, couples may feel dissatisfied with the family-friendliness of their work-place, and may benefit from changing their perceptions of this aspect of organizational culture. In these cases, clinicians may serve as advocates by encouraging couples to modify their family *unfriendly* work environments by seeking support from one another, or by attempting to modify their work environment. This might be accomplished by couples having a discussion about ways of enhancing the family-friendliness of each member's work environment. Alternatively in the work realm, couples may be encouraged to advocate for more family-supportiveness from managers, or by garnering support from co-workers who may be sympathetic to the work-family interface of dual-earner couples.

Lastly, practitioners should be attuned to the role of positive affect at work in the work-family interface. Alertness, excitement, and level of energy are components of

positive affect (Watson et al., 1988). Therapists may seek to elicit from clients ways in which they derive positive affect (e.g., joy, inspiration, pride, excitement) from their workplace. Therapists may help couples to capitalize on social-cognitive resources in work domains, and in turn bolster experiences of positive affect at work.

Implications for Policy: Employers and Public Policy

As discussed above, the predictor variables in the current study were selected with intention of intervention from a scientist-practitioner-advocate approach to research (see Fassinger & O'Brien, 2000). For work to family enrichment to occur, the work environment is one potential area of intervention. The results of the current study suggested that perception of the work-place as family-friendly, along with employee report of positive affect at work predicted family performance. To promote psychological health as measured by positive family performance among dual-earner parents, employers should consider ways in which to promote work-environments which engender positive affect at work, and a genuine culture of family-supportiveness. Although employers may find barriers to developing a work environment which is simultaneously family-friendly and efficiently results-driven, the benefits of doing so may produce healthier and happier employees who are more productive as a result of feeling in a better mood at work. From a policy perspective, the addition of family-friendly benefits, and modification of work-place policies are a step in the right direction. However, the results of the current study suggest that employers need to go beyond merely offering benefits to change in mood at work and to improve family performance.

The results of this study suggested that perceptions of skills and abilities at work, along with perceptions of family-supportive organization perceptions, influenced family

functioning. Based on this finding, employees may benefit from their employers implementing specific strategies to increase self-efficacy and enhance family-supportive organization perceptions. For instance, consistent with Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory, managers should be aware of ways in which to enhance efficacy expectations related to employees' ability to perform at work. Such techniques target some of the social-cognitive resources which were implicated as predictors of family performance in the current study. Managers may emphasize employees' performance accomplishments or successful mastery experiences at work when indicated. Other techniques may include implementing vicarious learning (e.g., live or symbolic modeling of employment-related tasks), verbal persuasion (e.g., encouragement that employees can cope with job demands), and attention to emotional arousal (e.g., understanding of employees' anxiety related to work-family demands). By targeting employees' self-efficacy in work domains, employers may affect change in employees' mood at work, and their performance in family domains.

Limitations

There are several limitations in the current study. First, the sample size may have affected the ability to detect effects. Initial power analyses indicated that the sample size was adequate for detecting medium effects if the analyses were conducted within a simple regression framework. However, determining effect size and power among nonindependent data is based on the degree of hypothesized nonindependence in the data, and the degree of multicollinearity (Kenny et al., 2006). Such calculations are estimations, and were not computed in the current study for reasons discussed above (e.g., power estimations are theoretical). Because a large number of paths were examined,

it is possible that the sample size was not adequate for detecting effects reliably. Thus, sample size may have obscured the ability to detect relations among the variables. Additionally, lower sample size may lead to lower stability of findings, and a wider range of standard errors. These factors must be considered when interpreting the current findings.

Another noteworthy limitation in the study is demographic homogeneity among participants. The sample included many economically privileged couples who likely had more material resources at work on average than the average full-time worker in the United States. Since participants originated from a constricted demographic group, they likely represent a sub-sample of all dual-earner couples in the United States. Additionally, the referral sources and online self-report survey methodology may have biased the demographic composition of the sample. Participants were largely recruited by personal contacts from the members of the research team, and internet avenues of data collection including advertisements on parenting listservs. As discussed above, these participants may have been particularly resourced and attuned to their work and family experiences, and likely represented a subset of all dual-earner couples.

Although the online availability of the current study enabled a broad geographical dissemination the casting of a wide recruitment net, this cross-sectional survey methodology was not without measurement shortcomings. There is the possibility that the online survey methodology failed to adequately capture the true nature of the actor and partner relations. In particular, some constructs like positive affect at work may have been difficult to measure accurately using online survey methodology. One notable measurement problem in the current study included the lack of control over the physical

environment in which participants completed the study. To facilitate participation among this sample of very busy couples with young children, participants were permitted to complete the study at their convenience. Participants were asked to recall retrospectively their positive affect at work over the past week along with self-report of resources generated at work, and family performance.

Moreover, since the study was online, there was no way of controlling for the environment in which the participants completed the measures. Ostensibly, the time of day (e.g., early morning versus late at night), location (e.g., work versus home), level of physiological arousal (e.g., lethargic versus alert), life circumstances (e.g., fear of losing job versus excitement over new or promotion), and physical environment (e.g., calm and quiet versus loud and distracting) in which participants completed the study may have influenced reporting recalled positive affect at work over the past week, along with self-report variables. For example, pleasantness dimensions of positive affect have been shown to peak on weekends (Elgoff, Tausch, Kohlmann, & Krohne, 1995). Additionally, while pleasantness may be higher in evenings, activation may be highest in the afternoons (Elgoff et al., 1995). The ability to detect the true nature of the constructs given the potential amount of measurement error must be questioned as potentially obscuring the detection of true relational effects among the variables.

Last, the examination of gender effects is methodologically and conceptually complicated (e.g., West et al., 2008). According to West and colleagues (2008), research on close-relationships typically focuses on the gender of the respondent, without examining the gender of the respondent's partner, or the interaction between the gender of the respondent and the gender of the respondent's partner. These researchers noted that

partner-gender and sexual orientation may confound gender effects in the APIM. Without controlling for sexual orientation in study design, ability to detect gender effects is limited to detecting effects in heterosexual couples. For example, in the current study females' perception of a family-friendly organization was related to males' dyadic satisfaction. It is unclear in the current study if this finding is due to the gender of the participants (female and male) or to the sexual orientation of participants (heterosexual). Since sexual orientation minorities were not included in the study, it remains unclear if effects observed between work and family variables were due to gender or sexual orientation. As discussed above, accounting for effects due to sexual orientation are important because the work-family interface may differ among sexual orientation minorities.

Future directions

Theory. Future studies should continue to examine a balance of positive and negative predictors and outcomes when studying the work-family interface. There are a number of constructs which fall under the umbrella of resources generated at work and family performance which were not included in the current study. Future studies may examine the extent to which other resources generated at work (e.g., social capital, supervisor support, health benefits) influence other measures of family performance (e.g., family connectedness, relationship closeness). Performance at work may also be a predictor of positive affect at work and performance in family domains, (See Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) and should be considered in future studies. Other social-cognitive career variables like positive outcome expectations and work-family self-efficacy (See Butler et al., 2004) may be examined as other resources generated at work. Also, there is reason to

continue exploring interdependence of observations when conceptualizing the family interface. Future studies may also examine the level of similarity, or dissimilarity of couples' work and family experiences rather than their individual scores. Future studies of the work-family interface may also seek to include other informants from work (e.g., supervisors) or at home (e.g., children or their care takers) to examine the relationship between work and family domains among working couples. As discussed above, research may clarify the role of personality and dispositional affect in the work-family interface. Because of the important role emotion occupies in the context of close relationships (Berscheid & Regan, 2005), the role of positive affect among working couples should be an area of future attention.

Lastly, future studies should examine the extent to which these findings apply to marginalized samples, including people of color, sexual minorities, and people with disabilities. There is reason to suspect that workforce participation patterns differ among diverse groups; moreover, workers from marginalized groups may encounter unique challenges and barriers in the workplace including institutionalized racism (See Fassinger, 2008). This work-family enrichment model may operate differently or not at all among certain groups who experience work as a means of survival. Future research may continue this line of research by examining the work-family interface from a diversity perspective.

Methodology. Research on the work-family interface would also benefit from the inclusion of more varied methodological approaches. Although there are challenges with conducting experimental designs, and longitudinal research, these methodologies would help clarify the ways in which work and family are mutually independent, and bolster

existing research which is largely cross-sectional and self-report. Also, other within-subjects methodologies like daily-diaries may provide a more nuanced view of couples' moment-to-moment experiences in work and family domains. Research has indicated the fluctuations in self-rated affect which occur over the course of the day (Watson, 2000). Thus, more nuanced within-subjects methodology is especially important for future research given that research in affective science has shown that people have limited insight into their mood fluctuations (Watson, 2000).

Conclusion

This study has presented a novel examination of work-family enrichment using a dyadic analytic framework among a sample of working parents with young children. The current study contributed to the counseling psychology literature by focusing on how couples' relationships and psychological and parental functioning may benefit from their work experiences. Consistent with previous research and theory in work-family enrichment (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), these results suggested that several components of work and family do not operate in independent or segmented spheres. Based on the results of the current study, psychologists should continue to investigate and unravel the dynamic and powerful intersection between work and family to enhance and enrich the lives of working couples.

Appendix A: Fliers, Scripts, and Data Collection Materials



Do you and your partner both work full-time?
 Do you have two or more children age 16 or under?
**IF SO, YOU ARE INVITED TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS
 STUDY!**

****TO PARTICIPATE - ALL YOU NEED IS YOUR "SPECIAL CODE"!**

EMAIL: UMDCouplesStudy@gmail.com TO RECEIVE YOUR CODE TODAY!

Please include your email address and your partner's email address

What? My dissertation study: several questionnaires about work, family, parenting, and psychological functioning.

Who? Marianne Dunn and Dr. Karen O'Brien from the Department of Psychology at the University of Maryland.

Why? Help advance the understanding of dual-earner parents with young children.

As a "Thank you", you and your partner will have the chance to enter a lottery for prizes (e.g., \$50 American Express Gift Card)!

Study Website: <http://www.hostedsurvey.com/takesurvey.asp?c=Dual-E16557>

	Questions?	
Marianne Dunn	Dr. Karen O'Brien	Institutional Review Board
University of Maryland, College Park	University of Maryland, College Park	University of Maryland, College Park
Department of Psychology	Department of Psychology	College Park, Maryland 20742
College Park, Maryland 20742	College Park, Maryland 20742	Email- irb@deans.umd.edu
umdcouplesstudy@gmail.com	301-405-5812	301-405-0678

Verbal and Written Scripts for Study

Recruitment Verbal Script with Lottery Option

My name is X and I am (a student, doctoral student, faculty member) from the Department of Psychology at University of Maryland, College Park. I am conducting a study on the work and family experiences of working parents. We hope this study will advance understanding of working parents and families.

We would like to invite you to participate in this study if you and your partner ***both*** work full-time, and have ***1 or more children under the age of 16 living in your home***. Also both members of the couple in your family would need to participate. This is a one-time online study that is expected to take about 30 minutes.

If both you and your partner participate, you will receive the opportunity to enter into a lottery to win gift certificate to a franchised restaurant or an American Express gift card. Are you interested in hearing more about this study?

If participants express interest: “Thank you for your interest. I have two envelopes that contain secret codes which will enable you and your partner to access this study online. [Give participants envelopes with codes at this point]. Please follow the link inside, and enter the secret code. You will learn more about the study when you logon to our website. At the end of the study, you will have the opportunity to enter into the lottery by emailing us at umdcouplesstudy@gmail.com. I will need your email and your partner’s email just for follow up.” [Write down both partners’ names and email addresses].

Thank you very much for your interest! We will be contacting you to follow up.

If participants do not express interest: If participants in person decline participation, you may say, “Thank you.”

Recruitment Email Script with Lottery Option

“Hello. My name is X and I am (a student, doctoral student, faculty member) from the Department of Psychology at University of Maryland, College Park. I am conducting a study on the work and family experiences of working parents. We hope this study will advance understanding of working parents and families.

We would like to invite you to participate in this study if you and your partner **both** work full-time, and have **1 or more children under the age of 10 living in your home**. Also both members of the couple in your family would need to participate. This is a one-time online study that is expected to take about 30 minutes.

If both you and your partner participate, you will receive the opportunity to enter into a lottery to win a gift certificate to a franchised restaurant or an American Express gift card.

Please email me back at umdcouplesstudy@gmail.com if you are interested in participating. **Please include your email and your partner’s email.** We will email you both separate confidential codes with links to the study.

Thank you,

[Insert name here]

Email Invitation to Interested Participant

Dear X,

Thank you for your interest in this study!

To participate in this study about the work and family experiences of dual-earner couples, we ask that you follow a link to a secure web page where you will find a series of questionnaires.

(insert link here)

You and your partner will be asked to enter your secret code to participate. **We ask that you complete this online study independently, not in consultation with your partner.** You will be reminded at the end of the study to close your web browser to protect your confidentiality.

Your code is: XXXX. Please enter this code after clicking the survey link.

Please contact us if you have any questions or comments about the study.

Thank you very much for your interest and participation!

Marianne G. Dunn, MA
Karen M. O'Brien, PhD
Department of Psychology

Email Invitation to Partner of Interested Participant

Dear X,

Hello. My name is X and I am (a student, doctoral student, faculty member) from the Department of Psychology at University of Maryland, College Park. I am conducting a study on the work and family experiences of working parents. We hope this study will advance understanding of working parents and families.

Your partner expressed interest in participating in a study of dual-earner couples.

To participate in this study about the work and family experiences of dual-earner couples, we ask that you follow a link to a secure web page where you will find a series of questionnaires.

(insert link here)

You and your partner are both asked to enter your secret code to participate. **We ask that you complete this online study independently, not in consultation with your partner.** You will be reminded at the end of the study to close your web browser to protect your confidentiality.

Your code is: XXXX. Please enter this code after clicking the survey link.

Please contact us if you have any questions or comments about the study.

Thank you very much for your interest and participation!

Marianne G. Dunn, MA
Karen M. O'Brien, PhD
Department of Psychology

Other advertising and introductory statements on web-forums and listservs:

- Click here for new study on dual-earner parents! We are very interested in hearing your perspectives and experiences as a member of a dual-earner couple.
- Are you a full-time parent with a parent who also works full-time? Do you have two children under the age of 16? Please email umdcouplesstudy@gmail.com to learn more about this research opportunity. Both you and your partner are asked to participate in this research. This study will increase knowledge about the experiences of dual-earner couples. Your participation is greatly appreciated, and will contribute in a positive way by documenting the experiences of dual-earner couples.

To receive a copy of the results:

Thank you very much for participating in this study! Would you like a copy of the results? If so, please send an email to umdcouplesstudy@gmail.com. You will be sent an email upon completion of the study with a brief summary of the results. Your email will NOT be used in connection with any of your responses nor distributed for any other purpose.

Lottery option:

If you would like to enter into the lottery to win a gift certificate to a franchised restaurant or an American Express gift card, please email umdcouplesstudy@gmail.com with the confirmation code below, your address, and your phone number. You will only be contacted in the event that you win the lottery. Both you and your partner are required to participate to be eligible for the lottery. Thank you!

Appendix B

Flexibility: Benefits and Usage (Parker & Allen, 2001)

	Is this benefit available?		Do you currently USE this benefit?	
	YES	NO	YES	NO
Flextime	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Compressed work week	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Telecommunicating	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Part-time work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Job sharing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
On-site child care center	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Subsidized local child care	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Child-care information/referral services	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Paid maternity leave	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Paid paternity leave	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Elder care	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

1-5 = flexible work arrangements (FWA); 6-10 = dependent care supports (DCS)

Appendix C

Family-supportive Organization Perceptions (Allen, 2001)

To what extent do you agree that each of the following statements represent the philosophy or beliefs of your organization?

Remember, these are not your own personal beliefs- but pertain to what you believe is the philosophy of your organization).

	My organization would Strongly Disagree	My organization would Disagree	My organization would Neither Agree nor Disagree	My organization would Agree	My organization would Strongly Agree
Work should be the priority in a person's life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Long hours inside the office are a way to achieve advancement. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is best to keep family matters separate from work. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is considered taboo to talk about life outside of work. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Expressing involvement and interest in nonwork matters is viewed as healthy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employees who are highly committed to their personal lives cannot also be highly committed to their work. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children is frowned upon. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employees should keep their personal problems at home. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The way to advance in this company is to keep nonwork matters out of the workplace. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

family life. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Employees are given ample opportunity to perform both their job and their personal responsibilities as well.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Offering employees flexibility in completing their work is viewed as a strategic way of doing business.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
The ideal employee is one who is available 24 hours a day. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Appendix D

Self-Efficacy in Work Domains (Dunn & O'Brien, in development)

Scale ranges from 0 = not at all confident to 9 = extremely confident

Personal Beliefs Efficacy Scale (Riggs et al., 1994)

Think about your ability to do the tasks required by your job. When answering the following questions, answer in reference to your own personal work skills and ability to perform your job.

Appendix E

Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)

Below are a number of feelings and emotions people sometimes experience AT WORK. Read each item and then indicate to what extent you have felt this way IN GENERAL AT WORK.

	IN GENERAL AT WORK I have felt very slightly or not at all	IN GENERAL AT WORK I have felt a little	IN GENERAL AT WORK I have felt moderately	IN GENREAL AT WORK I have felt quite a bit	IN GENERAL AT WORK I have felt extremely
Interested	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Distressed	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Excited	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Upset	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strong	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Guilty	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Scared	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hostile	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enthusiastic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Proud	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Irritable	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Alert	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ashamed	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Inspired	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nervous	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Determined	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Attentive	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Jittery	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Active	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Afraid	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix F

Life Role Salience Scales (LRSS; Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986)

Please respond to the following items.

Parental Role Reward Value (items 1-5); Parental Role Commitment (items 6-10)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Although parenthood requires many sacrifices, the love and enjoyment of children of one's are worth it all.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If I chose not to have children, I would regret it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is important to feel like I am (will be) an effective parent.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The whole idea of having children is not attractive to me. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My life would be empty if I never had children.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is important to me to have some time for myself and my own development rather than have children and be responsible for their care.(R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I expect to devote a significant amount of time to the rearing of children of my own.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I expect to be involved in the day-to-day matters of rearing children of my own.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Becoming involved in the day-to-day details of rearing children involves costs in other areas of my life which I am unwilling to make. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I do not expect to be very involved in childrearing. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Marital Role Reward Value (items 1-5); Marital Role Commitment (items 6-10)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My life would seem empty if I never married.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Having a successful marriage is the most important thing in life to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I expect marriage to give me more real personal satisfaction than anything else in which I am involved.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Being married to a person I love is more important to me than anything else.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I expect the major satisfactions I have in my life to come from my marriage relationship.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I expect to commit whatever time is necessary to make my marriage partner feel loved, supported, and cared for.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Devoting a significant amount of my time to being with or doing things with a marriage partner is not something I expect to do. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I expect to put a lot of time into building and maintaining a marital relationship.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Really involving myself in a marriage relationship involves costs in other areas of my life which I am unwilling to accept. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I expect to work hard to build a good marriage relationship even if it means limiting my exposure to pursue other personal goals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix G

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener et al., 1985)

Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the scale below, indicate your agreement with each item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

SWLS Modified for Family Satisfaction.

Appendix H

Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976)

Most people have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement between you and your partner for each item on the following list.

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occasionally Disagree	Frequently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree
Handling family finances	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Matters of recreation	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Religious matters	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Demonstrations of affection	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Friends	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Sex relations						
Conventionality (correct or proper behavior)	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Philosophy of life	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Ways of dealing with parents/ in-laws	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Aims, goals, and things believed important	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Amount of time spent together	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Making major decisions	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Household tasks	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Leisure time and interests	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Career decisions	<input type="checkbox"/>					

Almost always agree = 5; Almost always disagree = 0.

**** note this will be reversed to correspond to previous response sets.**

	Almost Always	Most of the Time	More often than not	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	<input type="checkbox"/>					
How often do you and your mate leave the house after a fight?	<input type="checkbox"/>					
In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Do you confide in your mate?	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Do you ever regret that you married (or lived together)?	<input type="checkbox"/>					
How often do you and your partner quarrel?						
How often do you and your partner “get on each other’s nerves”?	<input type="checkbox"/>					

Almost Always = 5; Never = 0; #3 and 4 reverse scored.

	Every day	Almost every day	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
Do you kiss your mate?	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Every day = 4; Never = 0

	All of them	Most of them	Some of them	Very few of them	None of them
Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	<input type="checkbox"/>				

How often would you say the following events occur between you and your mate?

	Never	Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	Once a day	More often
Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Laugh together	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Calmly discuss something	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Work together on a project	<input type="checkbox"/>					

These are some things which cause couples to agree and sometimes disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks. (Check yes or no).

Yes No

- Being too tired for sex.
 Not showing love.

The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy," represents the degree of happiness in most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Extremely Unhappy	Fairly Unhappy	A Little Unhappy	Happy	Very Happy	Extremely Happy	Perfect

Which of the following statements best describes the future of your relationship?

- I want very desperately for my relationship to succeed, and *would go to almost any length* to see that it does.
- I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and *will do all I can* to see that it does.
- I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and *will do my fair share* to see that it does.
- It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but *I can't do much more than I'm doing now* to help it succeed.
- It would be nice if it succeeded, but *I refuse to do any more than I am doing now* to keep the relationship going.
- My relationship can never succeed, and *there is no more that I can do* to keep the relationship going.

Appendix I

Parent Behavior Inventory (Lovejoy et al., 1999)

Read each statement carefully. Think about how you and your child generally get along. Tell us how well the statement describes the way you generally interact with your child.

If you have more than one child. Please indicate select one pre-school or elementary age child for this questionnaire.

Age ____ Gender ____

0 *not at all true (I do not do this)*

1 *a little true*

2 *somewhat true*

3 *moderately true*

4 *quite a bit true*

5 *very true (I often do this)*

Example: I quarrel with my child. If you spend a great deal quarreling with your child, you would mark a 5 in the space. If you never quarrel with your child, you would mark a 0 in the space. If you quarrel sometimes, but not much, you would mark a 1 or a 2. If you quarrel often you would mark a 3 or a 4.

Appendix J

Demographics

1) Age ____

2) Gender

- Female
 Male

3) Race/ Ethnicity (check all that apply)

- Black or African-American
 White
 Hispanic/ Latina/Latino
 American Indian or Alaska Native
 Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
 Asian
 Other _____

4) Please select the box that corresponds to your total (before tax) household income
(*you and your partner combined*) and write in the exact number below

- Below 13,500 (0)
 13,500-19,999 (1)
 20,000-29,999 (2)
 30,000-39,999 (3)
 40,000-49,999 (4)
 50,000-59,999 (5)
 60,000-69,999 (6)
 70,000-79,999 (7)
 80,000-89,999 (8)
 90,000-99,999 (9)
 100,000-109,999
(10)
 More than 110,000
(11)

Total annual household income: _____

Your total (before-tax) annual earnings from your job: _____

Your partner's (before-tax) annual income from their job: _____

5) Highest level of education that you completed

- Middle School
- Some High School
- High School/ GED 1
- Trade/ Vocational 2
- Some College 3
- Associates 4
- Bachelors 5
- Masters 6
- Other (if applicable) _____ 7

6) In which geographic region do you live?

- Far West ((AK, CA, HI, NV, OR, WA)
- Rocky Mountain (CO, ID, MT, UT, WY)
- Plains (IA, KS, MN, MO, ND, NE, SD)
- Great Lakes (IL, IN, MI, OH, WI)
- Southwest (AZ, NM, OR, TX)
- Southeast (AL, AR, FL, GA, KY, LA, MS, C, SC, TN, VA, WV)
- Mideast (DC, DE, MD, NJ, NY, PA)
- New England (CT, MA, ME, NH, RI, VT)

7) How would you describe your town/ city?

- Rural
- Suburba
- n
- Urban

8) What's the estimated population of your town/city?

- Less than 15,000
- 15,000- 49,999
- 50,000- 99,999
- 100,000-249,999
- 250,000-499,999
- 500,000 to 1 million
- Over 1 million

9) Do you consider yourself a dual-earner parent?

- Yes

No

10) Relationship Status

- Single (never-married)
- Single (divorced)
- Single (widowed)
- Living with partner
- Married
- Married (separated)

Dependent Information:

Please tell us about your children:

Child Gender?		Child Age?		Living at Home?	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>	Male	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>	Male	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>	Male	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>	Male	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>	Male	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>	Male	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>	Male	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No

Does your family pay for child care?

- Yes
- No

Is there a grandparent or nanny who helps take care of your children?

- Yes
- No

Are you directly responsible for the care of an aging parent?

- Yes
- No

11) Current employment status

- Part-time (working from home)
- Part-time (working outside home)
- Full-time (working from home)
- Full-time (working from outside home)
- Currently unemployed

12) What is your current occupation? _____

13) On average, how many hours do you work per week? _____

14) How long have you been working at your current job? _____

15) How long have you been romantically involved with your current partner? _____ years

16) How likely is it that you will be in a romantic relationship with _____ three years from now?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all likely		somewhat likely			very likely	

19) To what degree is your life better or worse as a result of being in a relationship with _____?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
much worse		no difference			much better	

20) How committed are you to your romantic relationship with _____?

1	2	3	4	5	6
not committed		somewhat		very committed	

Appendix K

Lottery Forms

Name	
Telephone number	
Address	
E-mail	

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of sample

Variable	Females N	Females %	Males N	Males %	
Race/Ethnicity					166
White	85	79.4	87	81.3	
African-American	2	1.9	4	3.7	
Hispanic/Latino	5	4.7	5	4.7	
Asian	9	8.4	6	5.6	
Multi-racial	3	2.8	0	0	
Individual's Income					
Below \$13, 500	1	.9	0	0	
\$13,500-\$19,999	0	0	0	0	
\$20,000-29,999	3	2.8	3	2.8	
\$30,000-39,999	4	3.7	1	.9	
\$40,000-49,999	11	10.3	9	8.4	
\$50,000-59,999	11	10.3	9	8.4	
\$60,000-69,999	12	11.2	10	9.3	
\$70,000-79,999	13	12.1	12	11.2	
\$80,000-89,999	7	12.1	6	5.6	
\$90,000-99,999	10	6.5	13	12.1	
\$100,000-109,000	4	9.3	7	6.5	
More than \$110,000 per year	28	26.2	33	30.8	
Educational Level					
High School/ GED	0	0	2	1.9	
Trade School	2	1.9	1	.9	
Some College	8	7.5	8	7.5	
Associates	3	2.8	5	4.7	
Bachelor's Degree	27	25.2	36	33.6	
Masters Degree	44	41.1	31	29.0	
Doctoral Degree	18	16.8	18	16.8	
Employment status					
Full time (work outside home)	87	81.3	93	86.9	
Full time (work from home)	4	3.7	3	2.8	
Part time (work outside home)	6	5.6	2	1.9	
Part time (work from home)	3	2.8	1	.9	
Town/City					
Urban	6	5.6	6	5.6	
Suburban	76	71.0	76	71.0	
Rural	24	22.4	24	22.4	

Variable	Female N	Female %	Male N	Male %
Geographic Location in the U.S.A.				
West Coast	24	22.4	24	22.4
Rocky Mountain	2	1.9	2	1.9
Plains	1	.9	1	.9
Great Lakes	12	11.2	11	10.3
Southwest	3	2.8	1	.9
Southeast	22	20.6	23	21.5
Mideast	38	35.5	39	36.4
New England	1	.9	1	.9
Number of Children at Home				
One	16	15	16	15

Table 2. Demographic characteristics of sample continued

Measure	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Female age	27	55	37.93	5.69
Male age	28	67	39.56	6.79
Female years at current job	.02	25	6.53	4.79
Male years at current job	.10	25	6.45	4.91
Female hours per week at current job	30	72	42.51	6.91
Male hours per week at current job	30	70	44.98	7.79
Female length of time in relationship	1	26	12.15	5.34
Male length of time in relationship	1	28	12.20	5.51
Female number of girls	0	4	1.18	.82
Female number of boys	0	4	.91	.77
Male number of girls	0	4	1.14	.79
Male number of boys	0	3	.92	.73
Female age of child	0	23	5.81	4.55
Male age of child	0	18	6.32	4.38

Table 3. Occupational categories of the sample

Occupational Category	Females	Females	Males	Males
	N	%	N	%
Education, Training, and Library	38	34.9	14	12.8
Management	20	18.3	17	15.6
Business and Financial Operations	8	7.3	18	16.5
Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media	4	3.7	8	7.3
Computer and Mathematical	6	5.5	9	8.3
Healthcare Practitioners and Technical	8	7.3	7	6.4
Sales and Related Occupations	6	5.5	6	5.5
Life, Physical, and Social Science	5	4.6	4	3.7
Office and Administrative Support	7	6.4	0	0
Legal	1	.9	5	4.6
Architecture and Engineering	1	.9	4	3.7
Protective Service	0	0	4	3.7
Personal Care and Service	2	1.8	1	.9
Construction and Extraction	0	0	2	1.8
Healthcare Support Occupations	0	0	1	.9
Community and Social Services	0	0	1	.9
Production	0	0	1	.9
Transportation and Material Moving	1	.9	0	0
Military Specific	0	0	1	.9
Installation, Maintenance, and Repair	1	.9	0	0
Food Preparation and Serving Related	0	0	0	0
Building and Grounds Cleaning and Maintenance	0	0	0	0
Farming, Fishing, and Forestry	0	0	0	0

Table 4. Means, Standard Deviations, and Internal Consistencies for Measures Used

Measure	Female Mean	Female SD	Female Alpha	Male Mean	Male SD	Male Alpha	Possible range
Flexible Benefits Offered	3.26	2.31	.68	2.58	1.79	.55	1-11
Flexible Benefits Utilized	1.32	1.31	.46	1.03	1.16	.45	1-11
Family-Friendly Organization Perceptions	34.05	7.00	.79	32.40	8.13	.84	0-56
Self-Efficacy in Work Domains	85.45	10.57	.92	86.09	10.28	.89	0-99
Perceived Efficacy Beliefs	30.90	4.68	.78	30.89	5.00	.79	0-40
Income**	7.44	2.88	**	8.08	2.71	**	0-11
Positive Affect	29.37	6.09	.89	28.54	7.14	.92	0-40
Family Satisfaction	15.21	4.01	.92	14.89	3.87	.91	0-20
Dyadic Adjustment	112.64	14.03	.91	112.56	14.05	.91	0-151
Parenting Behavior	45.25	5.44	.89	44.66	6.29	.92	0-50
Family Role Salience	63.14	9.28	.83	63.13	9.02	.86	0-80

** Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for income not reported because single item indicator

Table 5. Correlations among key variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Benefits offered: F	1														
2. Benefits offered : M	.12	1													
3. Benefits utilized: F	.45*	.06	1												
4. Benefits utilized: M	-.01	.64*	.06	1											
5. FSOP: F	.25	.04	-.04	-.05	1										
6. FSOP: M	-.09	.18	-.08	.30*	.12	1									
7. SEWD: F	.13	.24	-.09	.11	.29*	.04	1								
8. SEWD: M	-.14	.03	-.05	.01	-.04	.23*	.12	1							
9. PEBS: F	.07	.12	.03	.13	.07	.08	.63*	.04	1						
10. PEBS:M	-.14	-.02	.04	.04	-.06	.05	.18	.53*	.14	1					
11. Income: F	.11	.08	.06	.08	.16	.20*	.10	-.14	.07	-.07	1				
12. Income: M	-.11	.06	.07	.11	.01	.09	-.18	.05	-.17	.00	.38*	1			
13. PosAff: F	.18	-.05	.04	-.03	.23	.05	.42*	.03	.39*	.03	.08	-.01	1		
14. PosAff:M	-.08	.11	-.06	.23	.12	.36*	.15	.52*	.14	.33*	-.04	.19	.15	1	
15. FSS: F	.00	.00	.03	.08	.22	.09	.18	.10	.29*	.01	.11	-.04	.40*	.09	1
16. FSS:M	.02	-.04	.14	.00	.18	.09	.09	.11	.17	.12	-.08	-.06	.21	.08	.47*
17. PBI: F	-.01	.12	-.07	.09	.08	-.08	.17	-.03	.19	.11	-.08	-.08	.17	.12	.22*
18. PBI: M	-.03	-.02	.07	-.07	.00	.00	.09	.18	.05	.17	-.08	-.13	.14	.17	.09
19. DAS: F	-.03	-.10	.05	-.03	.19	.02	.10	-.10	.23	.05	-.23	-.15	.17	-.07	.52*
20. DAS: M	.04	-.13	.11	-.08	.13	-.08	.03	.09	.13	.13	-.25	-.19	.19	.03	.49*
21. Fam Rol Sal: F	-.01	-.01	.03	.01	.07	.03	.27*	.11	.24	.17	-.11	-.23	.24	.04	.47*
22. Fam Rol Sal: M	.14	.04	.02	-.02	.11	-.02	.16	.25	.20	.22	-.17	-.27*	.38*	.21	.28*

Correlation Matrix Continued

* p<.01

Table 6. Actor effects in Mediated Model: Path coefficients of model predicted work to family enrichment for dual-earner couples (n

Variable	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	= 107)
1. Benefits offered: F								
2. Benefits offered : M								
3. Benefits utilized: F								
Path	4. Benefits utilized: M	Untandardized estimate	SE Unstandardized	t score	Unstandardized Estimate	SE Unstandardized	t score	
Inc to Positive Affect	.07	.19	.38	.31	.21	.21	1.44	
SEWD: F								
FSOP to Positive Affect	.12	.08	.14	.22	.07	.07	2.94*	
PEBS to Positive Affect	.29	.15	1.96*	.16	.14	.14	1.18	
SEWD to Positive Affect	.13	.07	1.86	.28	.07	.07	4.05*	
Inc to Dyadic Adjustment	-1.43	.51	-2.84*	-.67	.54	.54	-1.23	
FSOP to Dyadic Adjustment	.51	.20	2.56*	-.14	.18	.18	-.80	
PEBS to Dyadic Adjustment	.93	.37	2.54*	.34	.31	.31	1.08	
SEWD to Dyadic Adjustment	-.23	.17	-1.37	.10	.17	.17	.57	
Income to Parent Behavior	-.13	.12	-.63	-.33	.53	.53	-.04	
FSOP to Parent Behavior	1	.08	.15	.85	-.04	.08	-.43	
PEBS to Parent Behavior	.13	.13	.13	1.05	.12	.15	.83	
SEWD to Parent Behavior	.24	.034*	1	.07	.18	.04	.08	.55
Inc to Family Satisfaction	.45*	.13	-.07	1	.92	-.05	.15	-.31
DAS: F								
FSOP to Family Satisfaction	.61*	.14	.13	.14	1	1.79	.03	.64
PEBS to Family Satisfaction	.39*	.10	.18	.06	.42*	1	.05	
Fam Rof Sal: F								
SEWD to Family Satisfaction	.50*	.15	.22	.10	.35*	.36*	2.15*	.85
Positive Affect to Dyadic Adjustment	.23		.24		.95	-.08	.23	-.35
Positive Affect to Parent Behavior	.08		.10		.83	.11	.11	1.06
Positive Affect to Family Satisfaction	.22		.07		3.28*	-.03	.06	-.51

Table 7. Partner effects in Mediated Model: Path coefficients of model predicted work to family enrichment for dual-earner couples (n = 107)

Path	Partner Effect: Female predictor → Male outcome			Partner Effect: Male predictor → Female outcome		
	Unstandardized estimate	SE Unstandardized	t score	Unstandardized Estimate	SE Unstandardized	t score
Inc to Dyadic Satisfaction	-.87	.52	-.168	-.02	.53	-.04
FSOP to Dyadic Adjustment	.41	.20	2.00**	.11	.17	.64
PEBS to Dyadic Adjustment	.54	.31	1.08	.21	.31	.67
SEWD to Dyadic Adjustment	-.33	.17	-1.36	-.04	.17	-.21
Income to Parent Behavior	.02	.24	.10	-.05	.22	-.22
FSOP to Parent Behavior	-.03	.10	-.30	-.08	.07	-1.05
PEBS to Parent Behavior	-.09	.17	-.51	.13	.13	1.05
SEWD to Parent Behavior	.01	.08	.06	-.09	.07	-1.68
Inc to Family Satisfaction	-.14	.15	-.49	-.07	.14	-.49
FSOP to Family Satisfaction	.11	.06	1.92	.00	.05	.02
PEBS to Family Satisfaction	.15	.11	1.41	-.05	.09	-.58
SEWD to Family Satisfaction	-.33	.17	-1.91	.07	.05	1.49
Positive Affect to Dyadic Adjustment	.44	.24	1.80	-.24	.22	-1.06
Positive Affect to Parent Behavior	.14	.11	1.26	.13	.09	1.44
Positive Affect to Family Satisfaction	.11	.07	1.60	-.03	.06	-.44

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