

ABSTRACT

Title of Document: WORK-FAMILY EXPERIENCES AMONG EMPLOYED MOTHERS.

Heather Victoria Ganginis Del Pino, Doctor of Philosophy, 2011

Directed By: Dr. Karen O'Brien, Psychology Department

The purpose of this study was to extend knowledge regarding the predictors and outcomes associated with work-family conflict and work-family enrichment with a sample of employed mothers. Specifically, grounded in the work of Greenhaus and Powell (2006), this study examined the extent to which employed mothers' personality (neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness), styles of coping, and employer sensitivity were predictive of work-family conflict (work-to-family and family-to-work), and work-family enrichment (work-to-family and family-to-work), and how these constructs related to psychological functioning (i.e., well-being and depression), satisfaction with life/love (i.e., life and relationship satisfaction), and work satisfaction. Participants included 305 employed mothers. We tested the hypothesis that the indirect effects model would be a better fit to the data than the direct and indirect effects model, which was not supported. The direct and indirect effects model, after modifications (correlated uniqueness terms), was a better fit to the data. Directions for future research and the limitations of this study are discussed.

WORK-FAMILY EXPERIENCES AMONG EMPLOYED MOTHERS.

By

Heather Victoria Ganginis Del Pino

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
2011

Advisory Committee:
Professor: Dr. Karen O'Brien, Chair

Dr. Andrea Chronis-Tuscano
Dr. Matthew Miller
Dr. Mary Ann Hoffman
Dr. Susan Komives

© Copyright by
Heather Victoria Ganginis Del Pino
2011

Acknowledgements

I thank my committee members, Dr. Karen O'Brien, Dr. Andrea Chronis-Tuscano, Dr. Mary Ann Hoffman, Dr. Susan Komives, and Dr. Matthew Miller for their support and guidance. Their thoughtful comments improved this project on many levels. I would like to extend my appreciation to Dr. Matthew Miller who helped me understand, run, and interpret the results of my SEM analyses; SEM was made easier with your guidance.

The international collaborators, Dr. Gali Cinamon and Dr. Sung-Kyung Yoo who have made this project so much fun and provided so much guidance and support for both this project and for my managing graduate school and motherhood.

My research assistants Miriam Brand, Janice Castro, Samantha Lichbach, Aliya Mann, and Temima Rothmel contributed immensely to the successful completion of this study. Their dedicated efforts in data collection, entry, and management made this study possible.

Dr. Karen O'Brien is an inspiration to me as an "employed mom" and has inspired this project. Words cannot express how supported I feel by you and how appreciative I am of all of your efforts. You have inspired me as a future counseling psychologist and as a working mother. I appreciate all the support you have given me throughout the years.

I would like to thank my husband, Victor Del Pino, for all the love and support he has given me during my undergraduate and graduate career. You have been pivotal in helping me succeed. I would like to also thank my parents, Joanne and Pete Ganginis, and my sisters and brother, Sarah, Amanda, Melissa, and Evan; mi familia, Goya, Jorge, and

Jorge for their unconditional love and support in my undergraduate and graduate career. Your support and help with the baby made it possible for me to complete graduate school.

I would also like to thank my son Aurelio, who has taught me about what true work-family conflict and work-family enrichment is about. You bring me so much joy!

I thank immensely the employed mothers in this study, whose willing participation enabled me to better understand and appreciate their experiences. I hope this study contributes to a better understanding of women's career development.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgments	ii
Table of Contents	iv
List of Tables	vi
List of Figures	vii
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Background	2
Overview of Work-Family Conflict Theory	4
Overview of Work-Family Enrichment Theory	6
Personality	10
Coping	15
Employer Sensitivity	16
Psychological Functioning	18
Satisfaction with Life/Love	19
Work Satisfaction	21
Statement of the Problem	22
Chapter 2: Review of the Literature	26
Overview of Work-Family Conflict Theory	26
Overview of Work-Family Enrichment Theory	29
The Relationship Between Work-Family Conflict and Work-Family Enrichment	33
Personality	37
Coping	42
Employer Sensitivity	46
Psychological Functioning	48
Satisfaction with Life/Love	52
Work Satisfaction	57
Chapter 3: Method	60
Procedure	60
Participants	62
Measures	63
Chapter 4: Results	75
Purpose 1	76
Purpose 2	79
Purpose 3	82
Chapter 4: Discussion	84
Work-Family Conflict	89
Work-Family Enrichment	93
Psychological Functioning	99
Satisfaction with Life/Love	101
Work Satisfaction	103
Limitations	106
Future Research and Possible Interventions	110

Conclusion	118
APPENDIX A: Consent Form	136
APPENDIX B: Work-Family Conflict Scale	138
APPENDIX C: Work-Family Enrichment Scale	139
APPENDIX D: The Big Five Inventory	141
APPENDIX E: Problem-Focused Style of Coping Scale	144
APPENDIX F: The Employer Sensitivity Scale	146
APPENDIX G: The Perceived Wellness Survey	147
APPENDIX H: The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale	151
APPENDIX I: The Satisfaction with Life Scale	152
APPENDIX J: The Relationship Assessment Scale	153
APPENDIX K: Index of Job Satisfaction	155
APPENDIX L: The Spousal Support Scale	156
APPENDIX M: Demographic Questionnaire	157
APPENDIX N: Email Advertisement	160
APPENDIX O: Inclusion Questions	162
References	163

List of Tables

Table 1. Demographic Information for Total Final Sample	121
Table 2. Bivariate Correlations among Scales and Internal Consistency Estimates, Means, Standard Deviations, Actual Ranges, and Possible Ranges of Measured Variables (* $p < .01$)	124
Table 3. Goodness of Fit Indices for the Models	125
Table 4. Error Terms Values Allowed to Correlate	126
Table 5. Completely Standardized Factor Loadings for the Final Modified Direct and Indirect Effects Model	127
Table 6. Structural Parameters for Final Modified Direct and Indirect Effects Model (Beta and Gamma)	129
Table 7. Exogenous Factor Variances and Covariances Direct and Indirect Effects Model (Predictor variables-Phi)	130

List of Figures

Figure 1. Proposed Indirect Effects Model	131
Figure 2. Direct and Indirect Effects Model	132
Figure 3. Final Direct and Indirect Effects Model	133
Figure 4. Final Direct and Indirect Effects Model with Only Significant Structural Loadings Represented	135

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

“I have yet to hear a man ask for advice on how to combine marriage and career.”
- Gloria Steinem

For decades, researchers have produced an extensive body of literature on the interface between work and family (Barling & Sorensen, 1997; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The work-family interface literature has been dominated by a focus on work-family conflict (Barnett, 1998; Eby et al., 2005; Haas, 1999; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006), however recent scholars have challenged the notion that work and family are at odds with each other, citing strong support for work and family roles being mutually enhancing (Gilbert & Rader, 2008). In fact, Greenhaus and colleagues (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006) proposed a theoretical model of work-family enrichment to advance understanding of individuals who combine work and family roles.

In recent years, researchers have begun to examine the positive spillover effects of work and family roles (e.g., Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992a; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) when suggesting a more nuanced understanding of the work-family interface. Specifically, researchers are proposing that combining work and family roles may have *both* positive and negative effects on an individual’s relationship and psychological well-being (e.g., Byron, 2005; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Hammer, Allen, & Grigsby, 1997; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). In fact, many researchers stated that the simplistic belief that distress is found at the intersection of work and family should be discarded, and current research should focus on

the conditions that distinguish when multiple roles lead to distress and when they lead to fulfillment (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Byron, 2005; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999).

Thus, the current study extended knowledge regarding the predictors and outcomes associated with work-family conflict and work-family enrichment with a sample of employed mothers. Historically, researchers have examined constructs associated with conflict and enrichment, but no studies have empirically tested two theoretically derived models of constructs hypothesized to relate to work-family enrichment and conflict. Grounded in the work of Greenhaus and Powell (2006), this study examined the extent to which employed mothers' personality (neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness), styles of coping, and employer sensitivity were predictive of work-family conflict (work-to-family and family-to-work), and work-family enrichment (work-to-family and family-to-work), and how these constructs related to psychological functioning (i.e., well-being and depression), satisfaction with life/love (i.e., life and relationship satisfaction), and work satisfaction. Through testing models of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment and examining predictors and outcomes associated with these variables, we used sophisticated data analyses (e.g., structural equation modeling) to advance understanding of employed mother's experience of the work-family interface.

Background

By the year 2009 women represented 59.2% of the national labor force (U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). Since the 1990s, dual earner families, meaning both the wife and husband are employed, have become the model family form in the United States (Gilbert & Rader, 2008). The majority of U.S. families

with children under the age of 18 are headed by two working parents (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2010). In fact, the number of mothers with children under 18 who participate in the workforce has increased substantially (47 to 72%) over the past 35 years (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). In 2009, 57.6% of employed women had children under the age of six years old and 55.4% had children under the age of three years old (U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) stated that there continues to be an increasing representation of dual-earner partners in the workforce. Interestingly, across various ethnic groups and educational levels, both partners are employed full-time in the majority of married families in the United States (Bond, Galinsky, & Swanberg, 1998; Crosby & Sabattini, 2005). Such an increase in dual-earner partners called for a greater understanding of the work-family interface.

Gilbert and Rader (2008) argued that counseling psychologists can contribute much in assisting dual-earner partners to manage their roles. Although conflict between work and family roles has been related to a host of negative health related outcomes, including depression and poor physical health (Frone, Russell, Cooper, 1997), we know that having multiple roles can be beneficial in many ways (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). For example, multiple roles have been found to contribute to physical and psychological health (Betz, 2006). Whiston and Cinamon (under review) summarized literature indicating that work-family enrichment has been correlated positively with enhanced mental and physical well-being (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Also, Greenhaus and colleagues (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006) stressed the importance of understanding positive (work-family enrichment) and negative (work-family conflict) interdependencies between work and family roles. In sum, with

dual earner couples increasing in numbers and recent theorists suggesting a more balanced approach to examining the work-family interface, advancing knowledge regarding factors related to work-family conflict and work-family enrichment could help counseling psychologists enhance their understanding of the relational and psychological functioning of these families. Broadening our understanding in this area also improves our clinical work with individuals in dual-earner relationships.

Overview of Work-Family Conflict Theory

Powell and Greenhaus (2006) stated that the conflict perspective in the work-family interface literature asserts “experiences in either role lead to stress, time constraints, and/or dysfunctional behavior in the other role, thereby detracting from the quality of life” (p. 651). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined work-family conflict as an inter-role conflict in which pressures from family and work domains are incompatible in some aspects. Empirical evidence supports the notion that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict are two distinct constructs (Byron, 2005; Cinamon & Rich, 2008; Frone, 2003; Whiston & Cinamon, under review). Work-to-family conflict occurs when work interferes with family life (e.g., missing dinner with your family because of an important work meeting), while family-to-work conflict occurs when family interferes with work life (e.g., staying home from work to care for your child who is sick; Byron, 2005). In a meta-analysis, Byron (2005) found that work factors related more strongly to work-to-family conflict while non-work factors were more strongly related to family-to-work conflict.

Whiston and Cinamon (under review) wrote a brief review of the outcomes associated with work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. Work-to-family

conflict was found to be related negatively to both life satisfaction and job satisfaction (Allen, Herts, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Chui, 1998; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Lijun & Chunmaio, 2009). Work-to-family conflict also had been shown to relate to increased marital discord (Norrell & Norrell, 1996) and psychological distress (Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001). In addition, individuals experiencing work-to-family conflict were about three times more likely to have a mood disorder and about two times more likely to have an anxiety disorder and substance dependence disorder compared to individuals who indicated they did not experience work-to-family conflict (Frone, 2000). Frone (2000) found that family-to-work conflict also was related positively to mood disorders, anxiety disorders, and substance abuse. Moreover, family-to-work conflict had been found to predict work dissatisfaction and malfunction (e.g., Frone et al., 1992b; Frone et al., 1997), turnover intentions (e.g., Frone et al., 1992b), and low levels of job performance (e.g., Aryee, 1992; Wayne, Mussisca, & Fleeson, 2004). Frone et al. (1997) noted that family-to-work conflict was longitudinally related to elevated levels of depression as well as poor physical health (hypertension). The same study found the work-to-family conflict was related to elevated levels of heavy alcohol consumption. In the current study, work-family conflict was used as a general term that captures work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict, as the instrument used to examine work-family conflict measured both work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict.

Overall, much research has focused on the effects of work-family conflict (work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict) on various outcomes. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) called for researchers to examine the positive effects of combining work and family roles and have developed a theoretical model to examine those positive

effects. Additionally, Powell and Greenhaus (2006) asserted the need to examine both the conflict and enrichment perspectives and understand the relationship between work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. The current study examined both the conflict and enrichment perspectives by investigating the predictors and outcomes associated with work-family conflict and work-family enrichment for employed mothers. Researchers have examined each domain as either separate constructs or as one global construct. The current study conceptualized both work-family conflict and work-family enrichment as a global constructs to assess generally the predictors and outcomes associated with these constructs in a sample of employed mothers.

Overview of Work-Family Enrichment Theory

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) define work-family enrichment as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (p. 73). The authors considered work-family enrichment to be bidirectional, much like work-family conflict. For example, work-to-family enrichment occurs when work experiences improve the quality of one’s family life, while family-to-work enrichment occurs when family experiences improve the quality of one’s work life. Peronne, Ægisdottir, Webb, and Blalock (2006) added that work-family enrichment transpires when experiences in one role spill over in a positive way to other roles. For example, research on work-family facilitation (another term for enrichment) suggested that patience required in childrearing helps workers interact more effectively with coworkers or clients (Kirchmeyer, 1992), or that paid work provides a needed reprieve that helps workers be better parents (Hochschild, 1997). Whiston and Cinamon (under review) described the challenges associated with integrating research on work-family enrichment because of the various

definitions used across and within disciplines (e.g., enrichment, enhancement, facilitation, and positive spillover). In this study, we used Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) term, work-family enrichment, as an umbrella term to describe how different resources in one domain (family or work) can be used to improve role performance and enhance quality of life in the other domain. Also, the general term work-family enrichment was used to include both work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment.

Research also has shown that having multiple roles can be beneficial for both work and family domains, in contrast to what the work-family conflict literature has suggested. Individuals who have multiple roles have been shown to have greater control over their lives socially and financially, and have higher levels of self-esteem (Lennon & Rosenfield, 1992). Barnett and Hyde (2001) introduced a theory of work and family in which they examined several benefits of combining multiple roles; such as higher income, more social support, greater self-complexity, more shared experiences between couples, and success in one role buffering failure in another role.

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggested that there are three ways in which participation in multiple roles can produce positive outcomes for individuals. First, work and family experiences can have additive effects on well-being (e.g., Barnett & Hyde, 2001). Second, participation in work and family roles can buffer individuals from distress in one of the roles. Third, experiences in one role can produce positive effects in the other role. Many studies have shown that experiences in work and family domains have positive effects on each other. For example, supportive and flexible work environments have been associated with positive behaviors and outcomes in the family domain (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Frone et al., 1997; Haas, 1999; Voydanoff, 2001). Barnett

(1994) also noted that positive experiences in the role of parent or spouse moderated the relationship between psychological distress and job stress.

Other researchers also have contended that the work-family interface literature should include work-family enrichment (e.g., Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Parsuraman, 1999) and some have begun to examine the outcomes of work-family enrichment. Work-family enrichment has been associated with many positive outcomes. For example, work-family enrichment correlated positively with enhanced mental health and physical well-being (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), lower levels of problem drinking (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003), and lower levels of depression (Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shafiro, 2005). Harenstam and Bejerot (2001) found that individuals involved in their family as well as work roles had a strong sense of well-being. Work-family enrichment also has some positive effects at work. For example, Wayne et al. (2004) have shown that work-family enrichment leads to greater organizational satisfaction and effort.

Recently, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) developed a model of work-family enrichment. Their model proposed that five types of work and family resources have the capacity to promote work-family enrichment and they specified two paths by which work and family resources can promote work-family enrichment. These pathways are termed the “instrumental pathway,” because the application of a resource has an instrumental effect on performance in another role, and the “affective pathway,” because a resource generated in one role can promote positive affect within that role which produces a positive effect in another role. The current study included variables hypothesized to relate to work-family conflict and enrichment in Greenhaus and Powell’s theoretical model.

Specifically, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) stated that their theory goes beyond other enrichment theories by focusing on resources that may be generated in one role that can be applied to another role, therefore, having the capacity to explain work-family enrichment. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) defined a resource as “an asset that may be drawn on when needed to solve a problem or cope with a challenging situation” (p. 80). They specified five types of resources that may be generated in one role (e.g., family role) and used in another role (e.g., work role). They include skills and perspectives, psychological and physical resources, social capital resources, flexibility, and material resources.

In this study, an indirect effects model and a direct and indirect effects model were tested. Both the indirect effects and direct and indirect effects models included variables associated with several of the resources listed by Greenhaus and Powell. For example, the proposed indirect effects model contended that personality (psychological and physical resources) and coping (skills and perspectives) predicted work-family conflict and work-family enrichment, which in turn were predictive of the outcome variables (psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, and work satisfaction). The indirect effects model also posited that employer sensitivity (social capital resources and material resources) predicted work-family conflict and work-family enrichment and work-family-conflict, which in turn predicted work satisfaction. The direct and indirect effects model was equally plausible because personality (neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) and coping could affect directly psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, and work satisfaction, as well as indirectly through work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. This model also suggested that employer

sensitivity would directly affect work satisfaction and also have indirect effects through work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. Outcomes in the models were chosen based on their importance in the work-family interface literature. In this study, psychological functioning (i.e., well-being and depression), satisfaction with life/love (i.e., life and relationship satisfaction), and work satisfaction comprised the outcome variables. In addition, both work-family conflict and work-family enrichment were conceptualized as global constructs to examine the predictors and outcomes associated with these broad constructs in a sample of employed mothers.

Personality

In the work-family interface literature personality dimensions have been examined as possible risk, resource, vulnerability, or protective factors in the relation between work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and psychological distress (Michel & Clark, 2009; Rantanen, Pulkkinen, & Kinnunen, 2005). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggested that psychological resources are important to consider when examining work-family interface variables. In fact, in their seminal paper on work-family enrichment theory, they stated “it would be fruitful to examine the impact of an individual’s dispositional characteristics on several linkages in the work-family enrichment model” (p. 87). Personality has been hypothesized to have five orthogonal dimensions including extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience (McCrae & John, 1992). This five-factor model is called the Big Five and was used to capture a broad picture of an individual’s personality (Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004). For example, extraversion can describe someone who is assertive, active, outgoing, and talkative; agreeableness can be described as someone who

is cooperative, likable, sympathetic, and kind; conscientiousness describes someone who is achievement oriented, efficient, dependable, and likes to plan and be organized; neuroticism can be defined as someone who may be anxious, insecure, worried, tense, and defensive; and openness to experience can be characterized by intelligence, curiosity, creativity, and originality (McCrae & John, 1992; Wayne et al., 2004). Personality generally has been related to satisfaction with life and in relationships (e.g., Dyrenforth, Kashy, Donnellan, & Lucas, 2010), work satisfaction (e.g., Cohrs, Abele, & Dette, 2006; Heller, Watson, & Hies, 2004; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002; Steel, Schmidt, & Shultz, 2008), and psychological functioning (e.g., Booth-Kewley & Vickers, 1990; Grant, Langan-Fox, & Anglim 2009; Kotov, Gamez, Schmidt, & Watson, 2010; Steunenberg, Braam, Beekman, Deeg, & Kerkho, 2009).

Researchers have suggested that personality variables should be considered when examining the relationship between multiple roles and well-being (Michel & Clark, 2009; Chunmaio & Xingchang, 2009; Noor, 2003). Several studies have examined the relationship between personality, work-family conflict, and well-being (Noor, 2003; Rantanen et al., 2005). Neuroticism has consistently shown to be related to work family-conflict. Negative relationships between agreeableness and conscientiousness with work-family conflict also have been reported (Blanch & Aluja, 2009; Bruck & Allen, 2003; Wayne, et al., 2004). Blanch and Aluja (2009) found relationships between neuroticism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness with work-family conflict and well-being. Noor (2003) also found that neuroticism had a direct positive effect on well-being and an indirect relationship via work-family conflict. The same study showed that extraversion had a direct relationship with job satisfaction but also affected well-being indirectly

through work-family conflict. Additionally, personality variables accounted for a large proportion of the variance in the conflict measures, elucidating the importance of including personality variables when examining models of work-family conflict.

In a longitudinal study, neuroticism was related positively to work-family conflict and psychological distress (Rantanen et al., 2005). Neuroticism also moderated the relationship between work-family conflict and psychological distress for the women in the study. Rantanen et al. also found that agreeableness was negatively related to psychological distress for both men and women. The authors suggested that neuroticism had a role as both a risk factor for work-family conflict and a vulnerability factor as a moderating link between work-family conflict and psychological distress (Rantanen et al., 2005).

Fewer studies have examined the relationship between personality and work-family enrichment. Interestingly, the personality dimensions relevant to work-family conflict are distinct from those relevant to work-family enrichment, which further demonstrates that work-family enrichment is not merely the opposite of work-family conflict (Wayne et al., 2004). Wayne et al. found, as previous studies have, that neuroticism was related to work-family conflict; however, it was only weakly related to work-family facilitation. The authors found that extraversion was related to work-family facilitation but not to work-family conflict. Conscientiousness was found to relate to work-family conflict and agreeableness was related negatively only to work-to-family conflict but not family-to-work conflict. Both conscientiousness and agreeableness were related positively to both family-to-work facilitation, but not to work-to-family facilitation. Openness to experiences was related positively to work-to-family facilitation

but not to family-to-work facilitation. The authors suggested that because each of these dimensions were related to one direction of facilitation but not the other may reflect a difference in the nature of the facilitation originating in each domain (Wayne et al, 2004).

More recently, Michel and Clark (2009) examined how personality plays a role in work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and satisfaction outcomes. Michel and Clark (2009) examined positive affect and negative affect (personality variables) as predictors of work-family conflict and work family enrichment. The study found that individuals higher in negative affect had higher levels of work-family conflict and lower levels of family and job satisfaction. They also found that individuals higher in positive affect had higher levels of work-family enrichment and higher levels of family and job satisfaction. The authors concluded that perceptions of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment were influenced by dispositional affect (Michel & Clark, 2009). This study and others seemed to suggest a pattern between the more negative personality traits (i.e., neuroticism, negative affect) with work-family conflict and the more positive personality traits (i.e., extraversion, positive affect) with work-family enrichment (David et al., 1997; Michel & Clark, 2009).

A handful of studies have examined the relationship between personality and work-family conflict; however, researchers continued to note the lack of studies on individual differences in the work-family conflict literature (Blanch & Aluja, 2009; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). Fewer studies have examined personality and work-family enrichment. Michel and Clark (2009) urged work-family researchers to continue to study the role of personality in the work-family interface. Other researchers commented on the lack of research on individual differences in work-family

literature as an important gap that needs to be addressed (Blanch & Aluja, 2009, Eby et al., 2005). Many of the studies use the Big Five personality factors to examine the relationship between work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and various outcome variables like well-being and psychological distress (Noor, 2003; Rantanen et al., 2005; Wayne et al., 2004) but one recent study examining the relationship between work-family interface models defined personality in terms of dispositional affect (Michel & Clark, 2009).

The current study used the Big Five personality model because it seemed to capture a broader definition of personality. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggested that psychological resources are important for enrichment, which is why considering the role of personality could contribute to our knowledge in this area. This study investigated further how personality was related to work-family conflict and work-family enrichment, and considered personality, work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and other work-family interface variables as predictors of psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, and work satisfaction among employed mothers. Specifically, this study examined three of the Big Five personality factors as predictors. Neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness were chosen as separate latent variables to capture personality because they seem to be the most relevant in the work-family literature and women generally score higher on neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness than men generally (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001; Schmitt, Realo, Voracek, & McCrae, 2001).

Coping

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggested that coping is a resource (one of the skills and perspective resources) that can be drawn on when needed to solve a problem or deal with a challenging situation. Heppner and Krauskopf (1987) defined coping as any goal-directed sequence of cognitive operations, affective operations, and behavioral responses for the purpose of adapting to internal and external demands. Coping had been shown to have a relationship with psychological functioning (e.g., Heining & Gan, 2008) and many studies in the work-family interface literature examined the importance of coping and work-family conflict. For example, Lapierre and Allen (2006) suggested that the use of problem-focused coping, along with support from one's family and supervisor, seemed promising in terms of avoiding work-family conflict. In the work-family interface literature, coping had been shown to have a direct relationship with work-family conflict and served as a mediator between various predictors and work-family conflict.

Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007) found that gender and gender role ideology moderated the relationship between specific coping strategies and work-family conflict. In a meta-analysis, coping style and coping skills had relationships with both work interfering with family and family interfering with work, such that a positive coping style or having better coping skills seemed to provide some protection from work interfering with family and family interfering with work (Byron, 2005). The researcher added that employees who have better coping behaviors experience less work interfering with family and family interfering with work (Byron, 2005). Perrone and Worthington (2001) found that coping mediated the relationship between work-family conflict and marital quality such that marital quality increased when individuals were better able to cope with

work-family conflict. Voydanoff (2002) stated that coping strategies mediated the relationship between work-family interface and work and family satisfaction. In a more recent study, Perrone et al. (2006) established that coping partially mediated the relationship between work-family conflict and family satisfaction, but not related to work satisfaction. The authors proposed that individuals who experience work-family conflict and perceive themselves as coping well may have higher family satisfaction than those who experience work-family conflict and do not perceive themselves as coping adequately.

As demonstrated above, many studies have examined the role of coping on work-family conflict, yet few studies examined how coping was related to work-family enrichment. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggested that the ability to cope by generating resources was crucial in the enrichment process. The current study investigated further how coping was related to work-family conflict and work-family enrichment, and considered coping, work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and other salient work-family interface variables as predictors of psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, and work satisfaction among employed mothers.

Employer Sensitivity

In Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model, they identified social capital resources as "interpersonal relationships in work and family roles that may assist individuals in achieving their goals" (p. 80). The current study assessed supportiveness of one's organization or employers to be capture a part of social capital resources described by Greenhaus and Powell's theory.

Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, and Kacmar (2007) suggested that a supportive work environment, including supportive supervisors, coworkers, and culture, promoted gains that benefit family life. Research has shown a relationship between various forms of work support and work-family conflict. For example, Goff, Mount, and Jamison (1990) found that support from a supervisor around family-related problems lowered women's experience of role conflict. Warren and Johnson (1995) reported that supervisors' flexibility with family responsibilities contributed to a decrease in women's role strain. Similarly, Frye and Breugh (2004) found that supervisor support, family-friendly policies, and hours worked per week were predictive of work-family conflict and that supervisor support was related to family-work conflict. Additionally, Erdwins et al. (2001) found that supervisor support accounted for unique variance in work-family conflict with a sample of employed women. In a meta-analysis, Byron (2005) found that less supportive co-workers and supervisors contributed to women having more work-to-family conflict than family-to-work conflict.

More recently, Cinamon and Rich (2008) examined the role of spousal and managerial support in both work-family conflict and work-family facilitation. They found that only managerial support predicted both work-family conflict and work-family facilitation, suggesting the importance of manager support. Spousal support was found to predict only family-to-work facilitation. The current study sought to understand the role of organizational support, in work-family conflict and work-family enrichment by examining organizational support as a component of the latent construct employer sensitivity.

Psychological Functioning

Many studies have considered the effect of the work-family interface on psychological functioning (e.g., Erdwins et al., 2001; Frone, 2000). In the current study, the latent variable psychological functioning was assessed with measures of perceived wellness and depression. Perceived wellness is defined as a “manner of living that permits the experience of consistent, balanced growth in the physical, spiritual, psychological, social, emotional, and intellectual dimensions of human existence” (Adams, 1995, p. 15). These six dimensions are understood to be interrelated, interactive, and integrated within the entire system of functioning, conceptualizing perceived wellness as a broad, one factor construct (Harari, Waehler, & Rogers, 2005). Harari et al. asserted that Adams’ (1995) model assumes that when people perceive themselves as attending to all the wellness dimensions they are healthier because balance contributes positively to their overall perceived wellness. The current study used a measure of depression that examines level of depressive symptomatology with an emphasis on depressed mood, feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, feelings of guilt and worthlessness, loss of appetite, sleep disturbance, and psychomotor retardation.

In the work-family conflict literature, women’s role strain was related negatively to psychological functioning (Erdwins, et al., 2001). For example, Frone (2000) found that individuals who experienced work-family conflict were more likely than those not experiencing conflict to have a mood disorder, anxiety disorder, and substance dependence disorder. Additionally, work-family conflict was related to an individual’s physical health; work-family conflict was associated with obesity (Grzywacz, 2000) and family-work conflict predicted hypertension (Frone et al., 1997).

Alternatively, Barnett and Hyde (2001) and Greenhaus and Parsuraman (1999) argued that researchers should abandon the idea that the work family interface only produces stress, stating that multiple roles can lead to fulfillment. In fact, research has demonstrated that multiple roles can have beneficial effects on psychological and physical well-being (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). For example, Grzywacz (2000) found that family-work enrichment was associated with psychological functioning, independent of work-family conflict. Additionally, work-family enrichment was correlated positively with enhanced mental and physical well-being and lower levels of problem drinking (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Grzywacz and Bass (2003) suggested that mental health is optimized when work-family conflict is low and family-work enrichment is high. Examining the effect of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on psychological functioning corresponds to Powell and Greenhaus's (2006) call to understanding the relationship between these two constructs. To extend the research on the relationship between well-being and work-family conflict and work-family enrichment, the current study examined psychological functioning, as measured by perceived wellness and depression, as an outcome variable.

Satisfaction with Life/Love

In the current study, the latent construct satisfaction with life/love was operationalized as including both life satisfaction and relationship satisfaction.

Life Satisfaction. Life satisfaction was defined as the extent to which a person experienced general satisfaction with her life (Diener, 2000). Global life satisfaction has been correlated with specific aspects of life satisfaction in domains like marital satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999). Many studies in the work-family interface literature

have examined the effect of work and family on life satisfaction. For example, Perrone (1999) found that a combination of work roles, such as work, marital, and parental, leads to greater overall life satisfaction. In addition, satisfaction with work and family has an additive effect on life satisfaction, happiness, and quality of life (Rice, Frone, & McFarlin, 1992; Rice, McFarlin, Hunt, & Near, 1985). Kossek and Ozeki (1998) found that work-to-family conflict was more related to general life satisfaction than was family-to-work conflict. Some research has examined some aspects of work-family enrichment as well. For example, Sumer and Knight (2001) found that life satisfaction correlated negatively with negative spillover from work and negative spillover from family and positively with positive spillover from work and positive spillover from family. Overall, life satisfaction had been found to correlate negatively with work-family conflict (e.g., Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Sumer & Knight, 2001) and positively with work-family enrichment (e.g., Graves, Ohlott, & Ruderman, 2007; Sumer & Knight, 2001).

Relationship Satisfaction. Relationship satisfaction was defined, in this study, as the extent to which individuals generally are satisfied in their relationship (Hendrick, 1988). Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory suggested that an investigation of work-family conflict and enrichment processes should include measures of work and family functioning. Thus, the current study assessed relationship satisfaction, a component of family satisfaction. Research has revealed that work and work-family conflict influence family functioning (e.g., Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Frone et al., 1997; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Perrone et al., 2006; Whiston & Cinamom, 2008). For example, Carlson and Kacmar (2000) asserted that decreased family satisfaction results when an individual struggles to meet the

demands from one domain because of interference from the other domain, such as work and family. Other studies have shown that work-family conflict is related negatively to family satisfaction (e.g., Perrone et al., 2006). Less research considered the role of work-family enrichment in relationship satisfaction, although one study found a correlation between relationship satisfaction and work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. More specifically, negative spillover from work and negative spillover from home were related negatively to relationship satisfaction and positive spillover from work and positive spillover from home were related positively to relationship satisfaction (Sumer & Knight, 2001).

Work Satisfaction

Work satisfaction was defined in this study as satisfaction with one's job. Many studies in the work-family interface literature have shown that work-family conflict can affect satisfaction with work. Work-family conflict had been shown to be related negatively to job satisfaction and predictive of dissatisfaction with work and work malfunction (e.g., Allen et al. 2000; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Frone et al., 1992b). And, although some studies have found no relationship between work-family conflict and work satisfaction (e.g., Bedian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988) or found that work satisfaction correlated with work interfering with family but not family interfering with work (e.g., Adams, King, & King, 1996), Kossek and Ozeki's (1998) meta-analyses found a consistent negative relationship between all forms of work-family conflict (work interfering with family and family interfering with work) and work satisfaction. In addition, work-family conflict was linked to decreased satisfaction at work in a sample of Malaysian married professionals (Ahmad, 1996). The negative outcome of work-family

conflict on work satisfaction highlighted the need for further understanding and further need for interventions in assisting individuals in integrating these two domains (Whiston & Cinamon, under review).

In addition, research often failed to examine the relationship of work-family enrichment with work satisfaction with most studies focusing on the relationship between work-family conflict and work satisfaction (e.g., Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). However, work-family enrichment had been shown to be related to greater organizational satisfaction and effort; specifically, work-to-family (but not family-to-work) facilitation was related to job satisfaction (Wayne et al., 2004).

Statement of the Problem

The work-family interface literature has been dominated by studies on work-family conflict and few researchers have examined the positive aspects of having multiple roles. Powell and Greenhaus (2006) asserted that theories were needed to bridge the gap between conflict and enrichment perspectives of the work-family interface; they developed a theoretical model of work-family enrichment to guide studies of the work-family interface, and their theory was the foundation for this research. Consistent with counseling psychology's focus on assets and strengths (Gelso & Fretz, 2001), research should examine how managing work and family roles can lead to fulfillment in one's life and not just conflict. Many researchers stated that the simplistic belief that distress is found at the intersection of work and family should be discarded, and current research should focus on the conditions that distinguish when multiple roles leads to distress and when they lead to fulfillment (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Byron, 2005; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Thus, the current investigation examined the efficacy of a

theoretically derived model of the relationships among hypothesized predictors (i.e., neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, coping, employer sensitivity) and outcomes (i.e., psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, work satisfaction) associated with work-family enrichment and work-family conflict in a sample of employed mothers. Employer sensitivity was hypothesized to only predict the work-related variables, work satisfaction, work-family conflict and work-family enrichment (not psychological functioning or satisfaction with life/love).

This study informed the work of counseling psychologists in their roles as researchers, therapists, and advocates by broadening our understanding of the work-family interface for employed mothers. According to Gilbert and Radar (2008), counseling psychologists assist dual-earner families manage their roles and aid government and workplace policies in becoming more family-friendly. Moreover, expanding research on work-family conflict and work-family enrichment can lead professionals who design and implement career interventions to reduce conflict and facilitate positive work and family relations (Cinamon & Rich, 2008). Thus, the findings from this study could inform counseling psychologists' work in individual therapy, couples therapy, and vocational counseling. Additionally, this study corresponded to counseling psychologists' roles as advocates of social justice by advancing scientific understanding of the work-family interface among working women, informing career counseling interventions with women, and highlighting possible changes needed in the workplace to advance women's career development.

Since little is known about how work-family conflict and work-family enrichment and associated predictors and outcomes relate to one another, we tested two models (i.e.,

an indirect effects model and a direct and indirect effects model), both of which were grounded in theoretical propositions (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Specifically, the objective of the current study was to present and test conceptual models of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. The current study had three purposes. The first purpose was to examine the relationships among various predictors (neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, coping, and employer sensitivity), various outcomes (psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, and work satisfaction), and work-family conflict and work-family enrichment to broaden our understanding of the relationships among these constructs. The second purpose was to test an indirect effects model, the proposed model of predictors and outcomes of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment (Figure 1). Finally, the third purpose was to test an equally plausible theoretically derived model (Figure 2) to determine which of the two models (indirect effects model or direct and indirect effects model) best fit the data.

The models extended the literature in many ways. First, simultaneously including the negative effects of combining work and family roles (work-family conflict) and positive effects of work and family roles (work-family enrichment) responded to the need for a more comprehensive framework for examining the work-family interface (e.g., Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Second, specifying important predictors of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment (neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, coping, and employer sensitivity) and focusing on specific outcomes (psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, and work satisfaction) broadened our understanding of these constructs as well as contributes to the study of Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory of work-family enrichment. Finally, the current study used

advanced statistical analyses (e.g., structural equation modeling) to test a comprehensive model of work-family interface, advancing the way researchers have examined these constructs (i.e., studying work-family conflict and work-family enrichment together).

CHAPTER 2

Review of Literature

The review of the literature is organized into subsections. The first section includes an overview of work-family conflict theory. The second section provides an overview of the theoretical advances of work-family enrichment theory, while also examining the relationship between work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. The following sections review the research on work-family conflict and work-family enrichment and personality, coping, employer sensitivity, psychological functioning (perceived wellness and depression), satisfaction with life/love (life satisfaction and relationship satisfaction) and work satisfaction, respectively.

Overview of Work-Family Conflict Theory

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) define work-family conflict as “a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (p. 77). The authors identified three forms of work-family conflict: (1) time-based conflict, (2) strain-based conflict, and (3) behavior-based conflict. The model proposed that any role that affects a person's time involvement, strain, or behavior within a role can create conflict between that role and another role. Time-based conflict can take two forms: time pressures in one role can make it physically impossible to comply with expectations in another role and pressures also may generate a preoccupation with one role even when one is physically attempting to meet the demands of another role (Bartolome & Evans, 1979). Work or family role characteristics that require large amounts of time can produce work-family conflict. Additionally, married persons experienced more work-family conflict than non-married persons (Herman &

Gyllstrom, 1977) and Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) stated that parents would experience more work-family conflict than non-parents because of the time requirements in each role. More specifically, conflict is experienced when these time pressures from one role are incompatible with the demands of the other role.

Strain-based conflict can occur when strain from participation in one role makes it difficult to fulfill requirements of another role. Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) model proposed that any work or family role characteristic that produces strain can cause work-family conflict. Behavior-based conflict, on the other hand, occurs when specific behaviors required by one role make it difficult to fulfill the requirements of another. An example of behavior-based conflict is when a person at work is expected to be aggressive and self-reliant, but expected to be nurturing and warm at home (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

In their model of work-family conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) also proposed that when work and family roles are salient and central to the person's self-concept, work-family conflict is intensified. Cinamon and Rich (2002a) noted that women experience more work-family conflict than men because they typically have greater responsibilities in the home and attribute more importance to family roles (e.g., women reported higher parenting values than men, 2002a). They explored between and within group differences in women's and men's importance in life roles (work and family) and their implications for work-family conflict. An earlier study by the same authors found that three distinct profiles of workers exist who differ in their importance to life and family roles: the dual profile (high importance to work and family), the work profile (high importance to work roles and low importance to the family role), and the

family profile (high importance to family roles and low importance to work roles; Cinamon & Rich, 2002b). Participants in the more recent study were 126 married men and 87 married women who worked at computer or law firms in the Tel Aviv area. Most of the participants were parents (79.3%). The researchers used a cluster analysis to identify distinct groups of participants' assignment of importance to work and family roles. As expected, more women than men fit the family profile and more men than women fit the work profile, with no differences within genders across the dual profile. In addition, women's parenting values were higher than men's, women assigned more importance than men to family-to-work conflict, and women reported higher levels of work interfering with family life.

Work-family conflict often is seen as consisting as two distinct concepts, work interference with family and family interference with work (Byron, 2005). In their meta-analysis, Kossek and Ozeki (1998) found support for distinguishing between the two concepts. In a meta-analytic review of work-family conflict, it was found that factors related to an individual's job are expected to be more related to work interfering with family than family interfering with work (Byron, 2005). On the other hand, factors related to family are expected to relate more to family interfering with work than work interfering with family. Byron also pointed out that individual and demographic variables, such as income, might simultaneously influence both work and family. Indeed, all work variables (job involvement, hours spent at work, work support, schedule flexibility, and job stress) had a greater impact on work interfering with family than family interfering with work. Contrary to what Byron expected, the correlation between non-work variables (e.g., family involvement, family stress, number of children, etc.) and

family interfering with work did not have consistently stronger relationships. For the demographic and individual variables, only coping style and skills had a similar relationship to both work interfering with family and family interfering with work. Having a positive coping style or skills provided protection from work interfering with family and family interfering with work.

Also of note, the meta-analysis found that male employees tended to have more work interfering with family and females tended to have more family interfering with work (Byron, 2005). Overall, the results provided support for the differentiation between work interfering with family and family interfering with work. Moreover, research supported the idea that work interfering with family and family interfering with work are two distinct constructs with sometimes differing antecedents and outcomes (Whiston & Cinamon, in press). Byron concluded her article by calling researchers to

discard the overly simplistic notion that distress must be found at the intersection of work and family, and instead focus on determining the conditions that distinguish when multiple roles leads to distress and when multiple roles lead to fulfillment. (p. 193).

Overview of Work-Family Enrichment Theory

Researchers have argued that 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 attempted to explain the linkages between work and family, until recently, there was little theoretical attention to ways in which work and family roles are seen as “allies” rather than “enemies” (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Greenhaus &

Powell, 2006). Existing work-family theories and studies largely focus on ways in which work and family detract from one another with much of the research emphasizing stress, conflict, and impaired well-being for dual-earner couples (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Recently, researchers have called for a more balanced approach that recognizes the positive effects of combining work and family roles (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), which is consistent with emerging trends on psychology (Seligman, 2002).

Psychologists from various disciplines have examined the positive relationships between work and family roles by examining seemingly related constructs. For example, studies in this area have examined concepts 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), enhancement (e.g., Gordon, Whelan-Berry, & Hamilton, 2007), or enrichment (Kirchmeyer, 1992; Rothbard, 2001). It is challenging for researchers to integrate research on work-family enrichment because of the various constructs and definitions used across and within various disciplines (Whiston & Cinamon, under review). 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; Frone, 2003). Whiston and Cinimon (under review) note that it seems that work and family provide individuals with different resources that can improve role performance and quality of life in the other domain (e.g., Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) argue that there is an absence of a theoretical framework to examine the positive effects of

combining work and family roles. Next, I will briefly describe Greenhaus and Powell's theory of work-family enrichment, the theoretical basis of the proposed model.

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) start with examining three ways in which participation in multiple roles can produce positive outcomes. The first is that work and family experiences have additive effects on well-being, a relationship that has been consistently demonstrated (e.g., Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). The second is based on the premise that participation in work and family roles can "buffer individuals from distress in one of the roles" (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73). The third states that experiences in one role can produce positive experiences and positive outcomes in the other role, much like a transfer of positive experiences from one role to the other. Greenhaus and Powell argue that this third mechanism best captures work-family enrichment. The authors define work-family enrichment as "the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role" and consider the construct to be bi-directional (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73).

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) argue their model goes beyond prior research and theory by

(1) identifying five types of work and family resources that have the capacity to promote work-family-enrichment, (2) specifying two mechanisms or paths by which these resources can promote work-family-enrichment, and (3) proposing several moderator variables that determine the conditions under which resources in one role are most likely to enrich the quality of life in the other role (p. 79).

Additionally, the authors illustrate how experiences in one role (Role A) can improve the quality of life in the other role (Role B). Greenhaus and Powell identify the five types of

resources that can be generated in one role to produce high performance (the instrumental path) and positive affect (the affective path) in the other role. The authors define resource as “an asset that may be drawn on when needed to solve a problem or cope with a challenging situation” (p. 80). The five types of resources specified by the model include: skills and perspectives, psychological and physical resources, social-capital resources, flexibility, and material resources. The current study sought to expand the theory of work-family enrichment by examining variables associated with these resources. For example, the model considers personality (specifically, neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) a psychological and physical resource, coping a skill and perspective resource, and employer sensitivity a social capital resource. These predictor variables (neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and coping) were used in the current study, along with work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, to predict psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, and work satisfaction among employed mothers. The predictor variable, employer sensitivity, was used along with work-family conflict and work-family enrichment to predict work satisfaction.

Greenhaus and Powell’s (2006) theory proposed two pathways in which the resources can promote work-family enrichment. The first path is the instrumental path, where in this path different resources are directly transferred from one role to the other role, improving performance in the latter role. The authors note that self-esteem, or other related constructs like self-efficacy and self-confidence, can be seen as a resource (psychological resource) that enhance performance in another role because of its stimulation of motivation, effort, persistence, and goal setting (e.g., DiPaula & Campbell,

2002; Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge & Bono, 2001; Murray, Holmes, & Griffin, 2000; Murray, Holmes, MacDonald, & Ellsworth, 1998; Wood & Bandura, 1989).

The second pathway is the affective pathway and is described as “when individuals receive extensive resources from a role, their positive affect in that role is increased, which, in turn, facilitates their functioning in the other role” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 82). The affective path has two components: the effect of resources on positive affect in a role and the facilitating effect of positive affect in one role on the performance in the other role. Greenhaus and Powell use some of our chosen predictor variables to demonstrate the first component of the affective pathway. For example, they state that self-esteem derived from one role can trigger a positive mood or emotions with that role (Isen & Baron, 1991). The authors also point out that financial rewards, such as income, are related to positive feelings about one’s career (Judge et al., 1995) and that total family income promotes marital stability (Haas, 1999).

In their theory, Greenhaus and Powell also describe several moderator variables that determine the conditions under which resources in one role are most likely to enrich the quality of life in the other role. However, for the purposes of the current study further explanation of the moderator variables were not needed. Next, we will examine the relationship between work-family conflict and work-family enrichment.

The Relationship between Work-Family Conflict and Work-Family Enrichment

In their article, Powell and Greenhaus (2006) attempted to explain the complex relationship between work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. They noted how previous research has found a small, non-significant relationship between the two variables; some researchers had proposed that they think work-family conflict and work-

family enrichment were related negatively. However, the average correlation of work family conflict and work-family enrichment across 21 studies was $-.02$ (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). This finding suggests that conflict and enrichment are seemingly dissimilar and independent constructs. More recently, an investigation by Cinamon and Rich (2008) concluded that conflict and facilitation (another word for enrichment) were distinct constructs.

In their study, Cinamon and Rich (2008) examined 322 female teachers in Israel aged 23 to 63, 266 of whom were married and 281 of whom had children. Cinamon and Rich questioned whether conflict and facilitation were orthogonal or opposing constructs, if they had unique antecedents, and if they were related differentially to different work and family outcomes. Generally, they found there were complex relations between conflict and facilitation, with different patterns of association in the work and family domain. More specifically, it was found that managerial support predicted both conflict and facilitation relations while work-to-family and family-to-work conflict predicted burn-out.

The extent to which individuals may experience work-family enrichment should have no bearing on their level of work-family conflict (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). In other words, just because an individual is experiencing conflict between their work and family roles, it does not necessarily mean that same individual is with or without enrichment in those same roles.

Powell and Greenhaus (2006) examined the relationship between work-family conflict and enrichment along both the instrumental and affective pathways, as suggested in their work-family enrichment theory. They considered when work-family enrichment

may not take place along the instrumental path for a particular resource; which can happen when any of the following conditions are present: (1) the resource may not be generated in the first role (Role A), (2) the resource may be generated in Role A but not applied to the other role (Role B), and (3) the resource may be generated in Role A but unsuccessfully applied to Role B. An example of the first condition is when experiences in the family role may not generate material resources that are available for the work role, such as a no-interest loan that could be used to launch a new business (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). An example of the second condition is when a relative's advice about how to make use of information technology at work is ignored. Basically, the resource generated in one role may not be applied to the other role because the resource is seen as irrelevant to the other role (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). An example of the third condition is when a skill learned at home, such as team-based problem-solving, is applied inappropriately or unsuccessfully to one's role at work, maybe because the organization emphasizes individual responsibilities (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006).

When work-family enrichment does not occur because the first or second condition is present, it does not necessarily mean that work-family conflict occurs (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). Furthermore, when the third condition is present, it could be work-family conflict is likely to occur because the individual applied a skill from one role to the other role, making matters worse, not better. Work-family conflict and work-family enrichment are related negatively in the third condition, but unrelated constructs in the first and second conditions (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006).

Along the affective pathway, a resource in one role needs to be generated and then promote positive affect in that same role, which, in turn, promotes high performance

in the other role. Powell and Greenhaus (2006) suggested three conditions when work-family enrichment may not occur along this path. The first condition is when the resource has no influence on the affect in Role A (the first role). In this condition, work-family conflict and work-family enrichment are unrelated because a low level of work-family enrichment does not imply a high level of work-family conflict. The second condition is defined when “the resource may promote negative affect in Role A, either directly or indirectly, such that performance in Role B is reduced” (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006, p. 654). In other words, this condition is present when an experience in one role (Role A) generates fatigue and stress, detracting from their performance in the second role (Role B). The authors stated that in this condition a low level of work-family enrichment does imply a high level of work-family conflict. This statement suggested that work-family conflict and work-family enrichment were related negatively. The third, and last condition, is when the positive affect produced by a resource in one role (Role A) does not influence performance in the other role (Role B). For example, positive affect in one role may energize an individual but the energy may not be applied to the other role if the other role is not as salient to the individual’s self-concept (Thoits, 1991). In this condition, work-family conflict and work-family enrichment are seemingly unrelated constructs because a low level of work-family enrichment does not imply a high level of work-family conflict.

Powell and Greenhaus (2006) have demonstrated that work-family conflict and work-family enrichment can be related negatively under some conditions and unrelated in others. Additionally, results by Cinamon and Rich (2008) suggested that conflict and enrichment are distinct constructs. Therefore, it is important to examine work-family

conflict and work-family enrichment distinctly, observing how each contributes to the outcome variables.

Personality

In the literature, personality has been shown to have a relationship with various work-family interface variables. For example, several personality dimensions have been shown to have a direct relationship with work-family conflict (e.g., Noor, 2003), work-family enrichment (e.g., Wayne et al., 2004), and other outcomes in the work-family interface literature (e.g., Noor, 2003; Rantanen et al., 2005; Wayne et al., 2004).

Additionally, personality dimensions have been found to moderate relationships between several work and family interface variables (e.g., Noor, 2003; Rantanen et al., 2005).

Fewer studies have shown the relationship between work-family enrichment and personality; however, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggested that psychological resources, such as personality, can be a resource that individuals use to promote work-family enrichment.

Blanch and Aluja (2009) examined the interaction effects between work and family situational variables with individual personality dimensions in predicting work-family conflict with women (59%) and men (41%) employed in administration, management, technical, and education services at public and private companies (race not reported). Participants were married or co-habiting. Work variables examined in the study were job demand, job control, and work support. Family variables included the number of children at home, mean age of the children living at home, and family support.

Blanch and Aluja (2009) used a variation of the Big Five personality dimensions derived from several personality inventories (Aluja, García, & García, 2003). The

dimensions are impulsive sensation seeking, neuroticism-anxiety, aggression-hostility, activity, and sociability. Factor analysis examining the relationship between the Big Five dimensions and the alternative dimensions revealed that impulsive sensation seeking loaded negatively in the conscientiousness factor, neuroticism-anxiety loaded positively on the neuroticism factor, and aggression-hostility loaded negatively on the agreeableness factor (Zuckerman, Kuhlman, Joireman, Teta, & Kraft, 1993). Blanch and Aluja (2009) found that work demand, work and family support, and neuroticism were the most predictive variables of both work interfering with family and family interfering with work. Impulsive sensation seeking moderated the relationship of children age at home and family interfering with work. The researchers note that their findings are consistent with past research reporting significant relationships between neuroticism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness with work-family conflict and well-being (Wayne et al., 2004). The authors suggested that the continued study of personality variables in the work-family conflict literature is needed.

Noor (2003) tested an exploratory model of three sets of variables (demographic variables such as age, education, and marital status; personality, such as neuroticism and extraversion; and work and family related variables such as work hours, number of years in present job, total number of years worked, job demands, job control, work support, number of children, spouse support) in the prediction of well-being (distress and job satisfaction) and also included a test of the indirect effect of these variables on well-being, via perceptions of work-family conflict with a sample of 147 British women with children (race not reported). The majority were married (83.0%) and the remaining were separated, divorced or widowed (14.3%) or single (2.7%). Noor (2003) found that

neuroticism had a direct positive effect on well-being and an indirect relationship via work-family conflict. Extraversion had a direct relationship with job satisfaction but also affected well-being indirectly through work-family conflict. Additionally, personality variables accounted for a large proportion of the variance in the conflict measures, highlighting the importance of including personality variables when examining models of work-family conflict.

In a longitudinal study, Rantanen et al. (2005) examined the role of the Big Five personality dimensions in the relationship between work-family conflict and psychological distress with 80 women and 75 men from the Jyväskylä Longitudinal Study of Personality and Social Development (JYLS). In the study, the Big Five personality dimensions were assessed at age 33 and work-family conflict and psychological distress were assessed at age 36. At age 36, 90% of the participants were married or cohabitating and 90% reported having at least one child living at home. Race of the participants was not reported. Both direct and moderating effects of each of the Big Five personality dimensions in the link between work-family conflict and psychological distress were examined simultaneously in the study. They found that neuroticism was positively related to work-family conflict and psychological distress (Rantanen et al., 2005). Neuroticism also moderated the relationship between work-family conflict and psychological distress for the women in the study. Agreeableness was negatively related to psychological distress for both women and men. The authors proposed that neuroticism had a role as a risk factor for work-family conflict and a vulnerability factor as a moderating link between work-family conflict and psychological distress (Rantanen

et al., 2005). This study demonstrates the need to examine personality variables with work-family conflict variables, such as work-family conflict and psychological distress.

Studies have also shown a relationship between personality and work-family enrichment. Although there are fewer studies in this area, two studies found that personality dimensions related to work-family conflict were not the same as the personality dimensions related to work-family enrichment, suggesting the two constructs are not mere opposites of one another. Wayne et al. (2005) used a national, random sample (N=2,130) to examine the relationship between the Big Five personality dimensions with work-family conflict and work-family facilitation and with job and family effort and satisfaction. About 52% of the participants were male (remaining 48% female), 69% were married, and 80% were parents. Race of the participants was not reported. Wayne et al. found that neuroticism and conscientiousness was related to work-family conflict; however, neuroticism was only weakly related to work-family facilitation. Extraversion was related to work-family facilitation but not to work-family conflict.

Several personality dimensions were related in only one direction (work-to-family or family-to-work) to work-family conflict and work-family enrichment (Wayne et al., 2004). For example, agreeableness was related negatively only to work-to-family conflict but not family-to-work conflict. Both conscientiousness and agreeableness were related positively to family-to-work facilitation, but not to work-to-family facilitation. Openness to experiences was related positively to work-to-family facilitation but not to family-to-work facilitation. The authors suggest that because each of these dimensions were related to one direction of facilitation but not the other may reflect a difference in the nature of

the facilitation originating in each domain (Wayne et al, 2004). Several personality dimensions were related to the satisfaction and effort and job and family variables. Neuroticism was the only personality dimension significantly related to job satisfaction (individuals higher in neuroticism were less satisfied with their jobs). Additionally, conscientiousness predicted job effort, which is similar to other research showing the importance of conscientiousness to job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Agreeableness was positively related to family satisfaction while neuroticism was negatively related to family satisfaction.

More recently, Michel and Clark (2009) examined 187 U.S. residents (51.4%) and non-U.S. residents (49.6%) with diverse occupations. Participants were female (56.1%) and male (43.9%) and mostly White (70.6%) with 11.2% identifying as Asian/Pacific Islander, 2.1% Black, 1.1% Hispanic, and 15% other. Michel and Clark (2009) tested models of work and family that included dispositional affect (the individual differences/personality variable), work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and job and family satisfaction. The study found that individuals higher in negative affect had higher levels of work-family conflict and lower levels of family and job satisfaction. Additionally, they found that individuals higher in positive affect had higher levels of work-family enrichment and higher levels of family and job satisfaction. Based on these results it seems that work-family conflict and work-family enrichment are influenced by dispositional affect (Michel & Clark, 2009).

Combined, these studies elucidate the importance of examining the role of personality in both work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. The current study is responding to the need to bridge the gap between the individual differences and work-

family interface literature. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) theorized that psychological resources developed or fostered in one role can increase performance and positive affect in that same role and in another role. And, since personality has been seen as a possible resource, risk, vulnerability, or protective factor throughout the family interface literature it was included in this study. Specifically, neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness were used as separate latent variables in the study because they seemed to show up most consistently in the work-family literature.

Coping

Throughout the work-family interface literature, many studies have examined the importance of work-family-conflict and coping (e.g., Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983; Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Perrone et al., 2006; Somach & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Coping has a direct relationship with work-family conflict but also has been examined as a mediator between various predictors and work-family conflict. No studies were found by the researcher that examined coping and work-family enrichment.

Lapierre and Allen (2006) examined 230 employees from multiple organizations and assessed how work-family conflict avoidance methods stemming from the family domain, the work domain, and the individual domain (use of problem-focused coping) independently related to work-family conflict and to employees' affective and physical well-being. The sample comprised mostly of men (58%) who were married or cohabitating (84%) and had at least one live-in dependent (69%). Race was not reported. Lapierre and Allen found that problem-focused coping negatively related to strain-based family interfering with work. Problem-focused coping was not related to work interference with family. The researchers speculated that coping was not related to work

interference with family because problem-focused coping is more effective in situations that individuals perceive are under their control (Aryee, Luk, Leung, & Lo, 1999) and individuals have more control at home than they do at work. Those who use problem-focused coping also reported better affective well-being.

Powell and Greenhaus (2006) argued that if a resource, such as coping, is generated in one role but not applied to another role because it is irrelevant for the other role, then conflict or enrichment does not necessarily occur. For the Lapierre and Allen (2006) study, problem-focused coping may be a resource generated and used in the family domain but not particularly useful or relevant in the work domain.

Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007) conducted two studies related to the work-family interface. The first study's purpose was to develop a measure for coping strategies of work interfering with family and family interfering with work. The sample consisted of 137 employed mothers and 129 employed fathers from various organizations (race not reported). The second study applied the measure created in the first study to examine the effectiveness of coping strategies on decreasing work interfering with family and family interfering with work with respect to sex and gender role ideology (continuum from traditional to nontraditional). Participants in the second study were 679 employed mothers and fathers and were mostly female (59%) from various organizations in Israel. Results from the first study found eight coping strategies: super at home, good enough at home, delegation at home, priorities at home, super at work, good enough at work, delegation at work, and priorities at work.

The second study found sex and gender role ideology moderated the relationship between coping strategy and work-family conflict (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007).

Specifically, sex and gender role ideology moderated the relationships between coping strategies (i.e., good enough at home, good enough at work, and delegation at work) and work interference with family. The relationships between coping strategies (i.e., good enough at home and good enough at work, delegation at home and delegation at work, and priorities at home) and family interference with work also were moderated by sex and gender role ideology. This research provided support for the capacity of a certain coping strategies to be related negatively with work-family conflict varies across situations and people. These results highlight the importance of matching the person (attitudes, values) with the preferred coping strategy. Additionally, coping strategies were found to be negatively related to work-family conflict, demonstrating the importance of considering coping as a variable in this study.

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) identify coping as “skill” resource that could be an asset that may be drawn on when needed, highlighting the importance of examining how coping might contribute to work-family enrichment as well. Byron (2005), in a meta-analysis examining work-family conflict and its antecedents, found that having a positive coping style seemed to provide some protection of both work interfering with family and family interfering with work, further suggesting the need to examine coping with both work-family conflict and work-family enrichment.

Perrone and Worthington (2001) proposed and tested a model of marital quality among individuals in dual-earner marriages. The model included variables that would positively (i.e., perceived equity) and negatively (i.e., role strain) influence marital quality, as well as variables, like coping, that would mediate relationships between negative variables and marital coping. The authors considered role strain as a form of

interrole conflict, in which the role pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible (Kiecolt, 1994). Participants were 55 women and 52 men, most of which had children (69%). Most of the participants were White (89%) with 8% identifying as African American, 2% Asian American, and 1% Native American. Results show that job-family role strain was positively related to coping. The authors suggested that the more role strain individuals experienced, the more they exhibited coping behaviors. Additionally, coping mediated the relationship between role strain and marital quality. This study demonstrates the importance of studying coping and work-family conflict when examining individuals' marital quality or relationship satisfaction.

To better understand the interrelationships between work and family commitment, work-family conflict, coping, and satisfaction with work and family roles, Perrone et al. (2006) tested a path model of work-family interface against an alternative model on a sample of 154 (114 women and 40 men) employed, married college graduates. In the sample, most participants had children (77%). Race was not reported. The study found that coping was related positively to work-family conflict and family satisfaction. To better understand the relationship between work-family conflict and family satisfaction, coping was examined as a potential mediator. Coping partially mediated the relationship between work-family conflict and family satisfaction, where work-family conflict was related positively to coping and coping was related positively to family satisfaction. The authors suggested that individuals who experience work-family conflict but perceive themselves as coping well may have higher family satisfaction than individuals who experience work-family conflict and do not perceive themselves as coping adequately.

Voydanoff (2002) proposed a conceptual model that links the work-family interface to work, family, and individual outcomes through several mediating mechanisms (social categories and coping resources). She postulated that the work-family interface is related to a cognitive assessment of work-family conflict, role balance, or role enhancement and that the assessment of conflict, balance, or enhancement can result in either work-family role strain or work-family role ease. Then, according to the model, depending on the extent of strain or ease, individuals pursue various work-family adaptive strategies designed to facilitate adjustment to various aspects of the work-family interface. Voydanoff suggested that success of these strategies are indicated by the extent of perceived work-family fit, which is directly related to work, family, and individual outcomes. In her model, the author conceptualized that coping strategies mediate the relationship between work-family interface and work satisfaction and family satisfaction.

Employer Sensitivity

Employer sensitivity was used to capture employer support, and was examined in the current study. Specifically, the measure of employer sensitivity included items related to supervisor support of child care needs, employer support of child care needs, and job flexibility. Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model identified social support as a social capital resource, thus employer support was important to examine in our models. Overall, managerial supports have been shown to relate to work-family conflict. In fact, recent studies have shown a relationship between work-family enrichment and managerial support (e.g., Cinamon & Rich, 2008).

Byron (2005), in a meta-analysis, reviewed 61 studies that examined work-family conflict and its related antecedents. Byron examined specific relationships between work-

family conflict and social support. Specifically, 17 studies explored the relationship between work-family conflict and work support, resulting in a total of 4,165 subjects. The results suggest a negative relationship between work-family conflict and work support as well as between family-work conflict and work support. These results suggested that as support from an individual's work increases, their level of work-family conflict decreases.

Erdwins et al. (2001) examined the relationship between social support and role strain with a sample of 129 employed, married women with at least one pre-school aged child. Race was not reported. The researchers found that, along with job self-efficacy, spousal support, and supervisor support each accounted for unique variance in women's work-family conflict. The authors suggested that "women's level of conflict between work and family responsibilities decreases as self-efficacy in their work role increases and with greater perceived support from husbands and work supervisors" (p. 234). Job self-efficacy fully mediated the impact of organizational support on work-family conflict (Erdwins et al, 2001).

More recently, Cinamon and Rich (2008) examined the role of managerial support in both work-family conflict and work-family facilitation with a sample of 322 married women. The sample was comprised of teachers and most had children (87%). Most of the participants were born in Israel (80%), while the remaining participants immigrated from other countries. They found that managerial support predicted both work-family conflict and work-family facilitation. Cinamon and Rich highlighted the importance of having social support when an individual is managing work and family roles. For example, they stated

the results of the current study also emphasize the crucial role of manager support in conflict and facilitation relations, suggesting that occupational health interventions should target managers as key figures and assist them to develop practical skills in providing support for their employees (p. 19).

Overall, it seems that managerial support is an important resource that individuals may use to help manage work and family responsibilities. Cinamon and Rich (2008) advocated for counselors and employers to intervene and encourage family members and managers to provide social support. Examining a more comprehensive model of work-family interface that includes components of employer support will further knowledge and understanding of the role of employer support in work-family conflict and work-family enrichment, thereby informing occupational health and counseling interventions.

Psychological Functioning

Many studies have considered the effect work-family conflict and work-family enrichment have on psychological functioning. For example, work-family conflict has been shown to be related negatively to well-being (e.g., Lenaghan et al., 2007). Additionally, work-family conflict has been shown to affect psychological health, with individuals experiencing work-family conflict being more likely to have a mood disorder, anxiety disorder, and substance dependence disorder (Frone, 2000) and physical health, such as obesity (Grzywacz, 2000). On the other hand, work-family enrichment tends to have a positive effect on psychological functioning (e.g., Grzywacz & Bass, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

Frone (2000) examined the relationship between work-family conflict and mood disorder, anxiety disorder, substance dependence disorder, and substance abuse on a

national sample of 2,700 (54% men and 79% White) employed adults. Most participants were married (86%) or a parent (84%). Both work-to-family and family-to-work conflict were related positively to having a mood, anxiety, and substance dependence disorders. When Frone examined the main effects for work-family conflict, family-to-work conflict was more strongly related to the mood, anxiety, and substance dependence disorders than work-to-family conflict. The difference could be accounted for by individuals attributing work-to-family conflict to external factors (e.g., holding their employers responsible) and family-to-work conflict to internal factors (e.g., an individual's own ability to manage their family lives; Frone, 2000).

Frone and colleagues (1996) hypothesized that work interfering with family conflict and family interfering with work conflict would be uniquely related to depression, poor physical health, and heavy alcohol use. The study was longitudinal in nature. All of the 496 (59% women) participants had at least one child living at home and most were married (64%). More than half of the sample identified as African American (58%), 37% identified as White, 4% identified as Hispanic, and 1% identified as "other." The results supported the hypothesis, with both work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict positively relating to depression, poor physical health, and heavy alcohol use.

In a follow up study by Frone and colleagues (1997), they examined both psychological and physical effects of work-family conflict in a longitudinal study with data collected in 1989 and 1993. Two-hundred and sixty-seven employed parents (52% women and 67% married or cohabitating) participated. About half the sample identified as African American (51.7%), with 42.7% identifying as White, 4.8% identifying as

Hispanic, and 0.8% identifying as “other.” Family-to-work conflict was longitudinally related to higher levels of depression, poor physical health, and the incidence of hypertension. Work-to-family conflict was related to higher levels of heavy alcohol consumption. The authors argue that both work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict influence the health of employed parents and that a longitudinal study with a larger sample and more waves of data collection may reveal a robust impact on health.

Burke and Greenglass (2001) examined the effect of work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict on psychological well-being. They measured psychological well-being with a measure of psychosomatic symptoms. Participants were 686 hospital nurses, mostly women (97%) who were married or living with their partner (82%) and had children (75%). Race was not reported. Generally, work-family conflict was related positively to psychological well-being. The nursing staff that reported greater work-family conflict also reported greater family-work conflict and more psychosomatic symptoms. Respondents reporting greater family-to-work conflict and reported less family satisfaction also reported more psychosomatic symptoms.

Research also has shown a relationship between work-family enrichment and psychological functioning. For example, Grzywacz (2000) examined a national sample of 1,547 individuals and assessed negative spillover from work to family, negative spillover from family to work, positive spillover from work to family, and positive spillover from family to work. He examined several outcomes of the above mentioned variables, including: physical health, chronic conditions, obesity, mental health, negative psychological well-being, and positive psychological well-being. Grzywacz assigned sampling weights correcting for selection probabilities and nonresponse, which allowed

this sample to match the composition of the U.S. population on age, sex, and race. More positive spillover from work to family was associated with better physical health and mental health. Also, more positive spillover from family to work was associated with better mental health, less negative well-being, and less chronic conditions. Additionally, a higher level of negative spillover between work and family was associated with poorer physical and mental health. A higher level of negative spillover from work to family and a lower level of positive spillover from family to work were associated with a greater likelihood of reporting a high level of negative well-being.

Grzywacz and Bass (2003) examined several models of work family-conflict and work-family facilitation on mental health to gain a better understanding of work-family fit. The sample was collected from a national survey of individuals who were said to be representative of the general population (in age, sex, and race) of non-institutionalized persons that have a telephone and was between the ages of 25 and 74. The total sample included 1,986 individuals (1,038 men and 948 women). The authors examined several models of fit and the best fit indicated that more family to work facilitation was associated with a lower risk of depression and problem drinking. Specifically, each unit increase in family to work facilitation was linked with a 15% decrease in the odds of reporting depression and a 38% decrease of reporting problem drinking. This model suggested that work-family fit is more than just the absence of conflict. Grzywacz and Bass argued that their study demonstrated that the most optimal combination of work-family experiences, because it is associated with the most positive outcomes, is low levels of work-family conflict and high levels of work-family facilitation.

Satisfaction with Life/Love

Life Satisfaction

The literature has shown a relationship between life satisfaction and work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and variables often used in the work-family interface literature. For example, Perrone (1999) found that a combination of roles, including work, marital, and parental roles, leads to greater life satisfaction. Global life satisfaction is a subjective judgment of one's life which relates positively to well-being and negatively to psychopathology (Pavot, Diener, Colvin, & Sandvik, 1991). Pavot and colleagues speculated that satisfaction with life is a relatively stable and global phenomenon and a component of subjective well-being. Self-esteem, social support, and personality are just a few of the influences on reports of life satisfaction (Diener, 2000). Life satisfaction was related to income, and is considered very important in non-western countries (Diener, 2000). In this section, I will review a meta-analysis linking work-family conflict and life satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998) and some articles addressing how the additive affect of work and family contribute to an individual's life satisfaction, happiness, and quality of life (Rice et al., 1992; Rice et al., 1985). Lastly, the few articles that examined the relationship between life satisfaction and work-family enrichment will be summarized.

In a meta-analysis, Kossek and Ozeki (1998) examined the relationship among work-family conflict, policies, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction. They found the relationship between work-family conflict and life satisfaction to be related negatively. Also, the relationship between life satisfaction and work-family conflict may be stronger for women than men. When the researchers examined the bi-directionality of work-

family conflict (work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict) they found that work-to-family conflict was more related to general life satisfaction than family-to-work conflict. The authors speculated that these later findings may be partially due to the fact that only a third of their studies measured family-to-work conflict.

Rice et al. (1992), with a sample of 823 US workers (73% male, 94% White; no other race reported), examined the relationships among work-family conflict, work-leisure conflict, job satisfaction, family satisfaction, leisure satisfaction, and life satisfaction. They found that no direct relationship existed among work-family conflict and life satisfaction, but work-family conflict was a predictor of job and family satisfaction and that job, leisure, and family satisfaction all predicted life satisfaction. The indirect paths between work-family conflict and life satisfaction were mediated by job, family, and leisure satisfaction.

Other studies have shown negative relationships between work-family conflict and life satisfaction and positive relationships between work-family enrichment and life satisfaction. For example, Sumer and Knight (2001) explored different attachment styles and models of work-family relationships in a sample of 291 women and 190 men. Most participants identified as White (92%) while in 1% of the sample did not report their race and the remaining 7% belonged to other ethnic groups. Most of the sample was either married or in a serious relationship (85.4%). In studying attachment and work-family fit the authors examined variables such as, negative spillover from work, negative spillover from home, positive spillover from work, positive spillover from home, and life satisfaction. Sumer and Knight used two measures of life satisfaction, one measuring global life satisfaction and the other measuring the evaluative/affective component of

general life satisfaction. Both measures of life satisfaction correlated negatively with negative spillover from work and negative spillover from family, and positive correlations were found between both measures of life satisfaction and positive spillover from work and positive spillover from family.

Another study also demonstrated the relationship between life satisfaction and work-family enrichment. Graves, Ohlott, and Ruderman (2007) tested the idea that family role commitment had both positive and negative effects on life satisfaction, career satisfaction, and performance through family-to-work interference and enhancement with a group of 346 (233 men and 113 women) managers. The sample was mostly White (83%; no other race was reported), married/in committed relationship (91%), and had at least one child (64%). Family-to-work enrichment had a direct positive effect on life satisfaction and interference, another word for work-family conflict, had total effects on life satisfaction, although no direct relationship existed.

Relationship Satisfaction

When examining work-family conflict and work-family enrichment, it is important to consider how both affect work and family functioning (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). In this section I will review the literature on work-family conflict, work-family enrichment and relationship and family satisfaction. Work-family conflict influences family functioning (e.g., Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Ford et al., 2007; Perrone et al., 2006). Carlson and Kacmar asserted that decreased family satisfaction results when an individual struggles to meet the demands from one domain because of interference from the other domain, such as work and family. In their study of 314 (194 men and 116 women) state government employees who were mostly married

(85%) and had children living at home (75%), negative correlations were found between family satisfaction and both work interference with family and family interference with work. Another study found a similar relationship, with family satisfaction and work-family-conflict being related negatively with a sample of 154 (114 women and 40 men) employed, married college graduates (Perrone et al., 2006). Most of the participants in this study had at least one child (77%). Additionally, Perrone et al. examined the interrelationships between work-family conflict, coping, and work and family satisfaction and found that coping mediated the relationship between work-family conflict and family satisfaction, with work-family conflict relating positively to coping and coping relating positively to family satisfaction.

Frone and colleagues (1992b) developed and tested a model of the work-family interface, extending prior research by distinguishing between work interfering with family and family interfering with work. The sample included 631 (56% women) blue and white collar workers, most of who were married (73%) and had at least one child living at home (78%). About half the sample was white (42%) while the authors described the other half as non-White. The sample was almost equally divided into blue-collar workers (49%) and white-collar workers (51%). The researchers examined the relationship between work interfering with family conflict and family interfering with work conflict with a measure of family distress. Family distress assessed the strength of negative emotional reactions to daily experiences as a spouse or parent. Interestingly, Frone et al. found that for the overall sample work-family conflict did not relate to family distress, however, work-family conflict positively related to family distress for blue-collar workers. The difference between blue-collar workers and white-collar workers

might be explained by research that has shown a link between income and outcomes such as marital satisfaction and well-being (Rogers & DeBoer, 2001), and marital stability (Haas, 1999).

Bakker, Demerouti, and Burke (2009) examined relationship satisfaction and work-family conflict and their relationship to workaholism. More specifically, Bakker and colleagues hypothesized that workaholism would be related positively to work-family conflict. In addition, they predicted that workaholism was related to reduced support provided to the partner, through work-family conflict, and that individuals who receive considerable support from their partners would be more satisfied with their relationship. All of their hypotheses were supported with a sample of 168 dual-earner couples from the Netherlands. All of the couples had a least one child under the age of three living at home. The results supported the spillover hypothesis by showing that workaholism was positively related to work-family conflict. Specifically, the authors stated:

Thus, those employees with compulsive tendencies to spend an extremely high percentage of their time on work showed more interference of work with private life. They were more inclined to think and worry about their work when at home, gave priority to their work, and neglected their domestic obligations and the relationship with their partner. As a consequence, their partners were less supported, resulting in reduced relationship satisfaction. This supports our indirect crossover hypothesis stating that work-related behaviors and strain may crossover to the partner and intrude into family life (p. 29-30).

This study shows how work and work-family conflict can affect the relationship between dual-earner couples. The very definition of work-family conflict, which is when the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible, makes the participation in either of the roles more difficult (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Generally, sparse research exists when examining relationship satisfaction and work-family enrichment. In a study examining whether different models of work-family relationships were possible for individuals with different attachment styles, Sumer and Knight (2001) found a correlation between relationship satisfaction and both work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. More specifically, negative spillover from work and negative spillover from home were related negatively to relationship satisfaction, and positive spillover from work and positive spillover from home were related positively to relationship satisfaction.

Work Satisfaction

Many studies in the work-family interface literature have shown the relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction. In this section, I will highlight studies that describe the relationships among these variables.

Generally, work-family conflict has been found to relate negatively to job satisfaction and predicts dissatisfaction with work (e.g., Allen et al. 2000; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Frone et al., 1992; Lenaghan, Buda, & Eisner, 2007; Sumer & Knight, 2001). For example, Carlson and Kacmar, in a study of 314 state government employees, found that job satisfaction related negatively to both work interference with family conflict and family interference with work conflict, although their model indicated a relationship only between family interference with work and job satisfaction and not

work interfering with family and job satisfaction. Similarly, Frone et al. (1992b) tested a model on 631 blue and white collar workers that examined the relationship between work-family conflict and family-work conflict and expected that only family-work conflict would relate to job distress. However, consistent with Carlson and Kacmar's findings, job distress related positively to both work-family conflict and family-work conflict. These findings were consistent with Kossek and Ozeki's meta-analyses (1998) that found regardless of the type of measure used (bidirectional work-family conflict, work-to-family, family-to-work), a consistent negative relationship existed among all forms of work-family conflict and job satisfaction.

Ahmad (1996) investigated the relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction with a sample of 82 married women from Malaysia. Ahmad stressed the importance of examining work-family conflict in non-Western societies. Ahmad found similar results as Kossek and Ozeki (1998); work-family conflict was related negatively to job satisfaction.

Some studies also have shown a link between job satisfaction and measures of work-family enrichment. For example, Sumer and Knight (2001) examined whether different models of work-family relationship were possible for 481 employees with different attachment styles. Sumer and Knight reported that positive spillover from work and positive spillover from family were both related positively to job satisfaction. The authors also reported a negative relationship between negative spillover from work and negative spillover from home with job satisfaction, which is consistent with other findings (e.g., Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

Wayne and colleagues (2004) investigated the relationship between each of the Big Five personality traits and work-family conflict and facilitation. Additionally, they examined work-family conflict and facilitation with work-family outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction) with a random sample of 2,130 (52% were male, 69% were married, and 80% were parents). The authors noted that their sample was a diverse sample from all regions of the country with varying racial-ethnic groups and socio-economic levels. Work-to-family facilitation was related positively to job satisfaction and job effort; however family-to-work facilitation was only related to job effort. Similarly, work-to-family conflict was related negatively to job satisfaction, but family-to-work conflict was not.

Together, these studies demonstrated a need to continue studying the relationship between job satisfaction and both work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. Although most studies have shown a consistent relationship between job satisfaction and all forms of work-family conflict, the relationship was still unclear. Additionally, there was a lack of research examining the relationship between job satisfaction and work-family enrichment.

CHAPTER 3

Method

Procedure

The primary researcher recruited participants using a variety of online methods and participants were invited to complete the measures using Survey Monkey. Specifically, the primary researcher contacted various organizations by email to ask if the study could be sent to individuals on listserves, including company listserves and listserves used by employed mothers. Organizations contacted included law groups recognized for employing women (Arnold and Porter, LLP and Covington and Burling, LLP), Bristol-Meyers Squibb (a global biopharmaceutical company recognized for employing women), Accenture (global management consulting, technology services and outsourcing company recognized for employing women), women entrepreneurs through the Entrepreneurial Mother Associations, Corporate Counsel Women of Color, Sister Mentors (an organization for women of color), Graduate Center Women of Color Network, and Marriott Hotels. Additionally, support groups for mothers also were contacted via email messages. Those support groups included Working Moms Against Guilt, MommyTracked, The National Association of Mompreneurs, The Mommies Network, Mocha Moms, MotherWomen Inc., Moms Club of Wilmington-South, Mothers and More, Mother Support Group, Urban Mommies, SCI Woburn, Working Mothers Support Group of USC, Working Moms Support Group-George Mason, Breastfeeding India.org, Mothers Clubs Red Triangle, and Meetup Groups such as Urban Muslim Moms of DC, SuperFunMoms, TYMOMS, Columbia Moms, Real Moms of DMV, Baby

Talk, LoCo Mamas, Desi-Indian Moms, Indian/Desi Girls in their 20s and 30s, NW DC New Moms, NOVA Working Mom Network, and DC-MD-NoVa Working Moms.

Email invitations to participate also were sent to teachers, principals, professors, department contacts, and administrative personnel in Prince George's County Public Schools, Montgomery College, University of Maryland College Park, University of Maryland Baltimore County, and University of Maryland University College. The primary researcher provided these individuals and organizations with a description of the present research, and asked for their collaboration in advertising the study. Those individuals who agreed to participate in the study were given a brief description of the study along with a link to the website where the survey was accessed. In addition, participants were recruited via email invitations to participate through personal contacts of the researcher, advisor, and peers on a research team. All participants had the opportunity to enter a lottery to win one \$100 American Express gift card.

Participants who accessed the survey online first were asked to agree to the consent form if they wished to participate (see Appendix A). By clicking on the link that led the participants to the survey, the researcher assumed consent to participate. The participants were asked five questions to verify that they fit the criteria for participation (see Appendix O). Then, the participants accessed the instruments including a demographic questionnaire, the Work-Family Conflict Scale (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991), the Work-Family Enrichment Scale (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006), The Big Five Inventory (John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1991), the Problem-Focused Style of Coping Scale (Heppner, Cook, Wright, & Johnson, 1995), Employer Sensitivity Scale (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997), The Perceived Wellness Survey (Harari et al., 2005),

The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (Radloff, 1977), the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larson, & Griffin, 1985), The Relationship Satisfaction Scale (Hendrick, 1988), the Index of Job Satisfaction Scale (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951), and the Spousal Support Scale (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997). Once the measures were completed, the participants were thanked for their participation and received a description of the study. The lottery winner was selected randomly after data collection concluded and was sent the gift card.

Participants

All the participants in the final sample (n=305) reported they were female, married, had a child under the age of 16 years old who lived at home, and worked full-time outside of the home. Participants ranged in age from 26 to 56 years old with a mean age of 37.6 (SD=6.5). They reported 9 different racial backgrounds, including White-non Hispanic (76.7%), Black/African American (12.8%), Hispanic/Latina (3.9%), Biracial/Multiracial (3.0%), Asian/Asian-American (2.0%), Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander (0.7%), American Indian/Alaska Native (0.3%), Black/Caribbean decent (0.3%), and 0.7% of participants reported “other” and did not specify their race.

Various degrees of education were attained; 34.8% bachelor’s degree, 31.5% master’s degree, 17.7% doctoral degree, 8.2% some college, 3.6% associate’s degree, 0.7% high school/GED, 0.3% trade/vocational training, and 3.6% “other.” Over 290 occupations were represented with the top five being teacher (13.8%), lawyer (5.9%), professor (4.9%), counselor (4.9%), and marketing careers (3.3%). Some of the occupations provided by participants were not specific, such as “project manager” and “professional.” The top 25 occupations are listed in Table 1.

Data were collected nationally, with the highest percentages of participants reporting living in the Mideast (55.4%; DC, DE, MD, NJ, NY, PA), Southeast (19.0%; AL, AR, FL, GA, KY, LA, MS, NC, SC, TN, VA, WV), and New England (8.2%; CT, MA, ME, NH, RI, VT).

Most women reported having one child living at home (43%), 39.3% had two children living at home, 11.5% had three, 2% had four, and 0.3% had five. The majority of mothers did not have children with special needs (87.2%). With regard to childcare arrangements, daycare only was used by 28.9% of the sample, with day-care and school (24.6%), school only (17.7%), help from relatives/friends (8.2%), and other (19.3%) comprising the rest of the childcare arrangements. Most of the mothers reported they were extremely satisfied with their childcare arrangements (60.3%; 30.2% were moderately satisfied, 6.2% neutral, 1% moderately satisfied, and 0.3% extremely unsatisfied). A majority of the mothers had a partner who also worked full-time outside of the home (85.9%), while 4.9% of the partners worked full-time from home, 2% worked part-time outside the home, 2.3% worked part-time from home, and 4.3% were unemployed. The total household income varied from under \$10,000 (0.3%) to more than \$300,000 (5.6%). The highest frequencies were \$150,000-199,999 (17.7%) and \$100,000-109,999 (10.5%). See Table 1.

Measures

Work-Family Conflict. The Work-Family Conflict Scale is an eight item scale developed by Gutek et al. (1991) to assess work-family conflict on the following levels: Work interfering with family and family interfering with work (Gutek et al., 1991; see Appendix B). Four items were developed by Kopelman, Greenhaus, and Connolly (1983)

to assess work interfering with family, while the four additional items were developed by Burley (1989) to assess family interfering with work. Participants responded to items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly agree*) to 5 (*strongly disagree*). Items were reverse coded, then summed with a high score indicating a high degree of work-family conflict. Some sample items are “After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do” and “I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.” Two scales were hypothesized to comprise the scale: the Work Interfering with Family subscale (4 items) and the Family Interfering with Work subscale (4 items).

The Family Interfering with Work subscale relates to hours spent with the family, while the Work Interfering with Family subscale relates to hours spent in paid work. The Work-Family Conflict Scale also relates to coping and family satisfaction (Perrone et al., 2006). Internal consistency ranged from .79 to .83 (Gutek et al., 1991). The current study used a modified version of the scale that added six items (three items to each subscale) developed to enhance the likelihood of maintaining adequate reliability because of the small number of items (Cinamon & Rich, 2002). The additional six items were developed in Hebrew and were translated to English by the original author of the items and were then back translated for the purposes of this study. The Work Interfering with Family subscale (Gutek et. al., 1991) and the additional three items developed by Cinamon and Rich (2002) were correlated with work values, work commitment, and parenthood commitment. The Family Interfering with Work subscale (Gutek et al., 1991) and the additional 3 items developed by Cinamon and Rich were correlated with measures of spousal values and work interfering with family. Cronbach's alpha was .78 for the Work interfering with Family subscale and .81 for the Family Interfering with Work subscale

(Cinamon & Rich, 2002). In the current study, the Cronbach alpha was .83 for the Work interfering with Family subscale and .85 for the Family Interfering with work subscale.

Work-Family Enrichment. The Work-Family Enrichment Scale is an 18-item scale developed to measure multiple dimensions of work-family enrichment (Carlson, et al., 2006; see Appendix C). The Work-Family Enrichment Scale has two subscales: work-to-family and family-to-work. Under each subscale there are three similar dimensions. Under the work-to-family scale the dimensions are development, affect, and capital; while under the family-to-work scale the dimensions are development, affect, and efficiency. The items on each of the subscales are scored on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). High scores on the measure indicate more work-to-family and family-to-work enrichment. Items were summed across scales to obtain a total scale score (Carlson et al., 2006). Items also can be summed across the subscales to obtain subscale scores. A coefficient alpha for the total scale of .92 was found and has been related to other measures of positive spillover (Carlson et al., 2006).

The work-to-family subscale examines how work can provide resources that result in enhanced individual functioning in the family domain (Carlson et al., 2006). All statements for this scale start with “My involvement in my work...” Example items included “Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member” and “Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member.” The scale was correlated in the expected direction with measures of job satisfaction, family satisfaction, well-being, and job salience. A coefficient alpha of .92 was found (Carlson et al., 2006). A coefficient alpha of .91 was found in the current study.

The family-to-work subscale examines how family can provide resources that lead to enhanced individual functioning in the work domain (Carlson et al., 2006). All statements for this scale start with “My involvement in my family...” Example items included “Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker” and “Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker.” The scale was correlated in the expected direction with measures of family satisfaction, job satisfaction, well-being, and job salience. A coefficient alpha of .86 was found (Carlson et al., 2006). A coefficient alpha of .85 was calculated for this study.

Personality. The Big Five Inventory (John et al., 1991; BFI) is a 44 item scale that assesses personality using the Big Five dimensions (see Appendix D) on 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*disagree strongly*) to 5 (*agree strongly*). Participants were instructed to read the characteristics described and decide whether they apply to them. The BFI is divided into five subscales, including: Extraversion (8 items), Agreeableness (9 items), Conscientiousness (9 items), Neuroticism (8 items), and Openness (10 items). Scores were summed after reverse coding. The total scale is related to other measures of personality, such as the NEO Five Factor Inventory and the Trait Descriptive Adjectives (John & Srivastava, 2001). Coefficient alphas for the subscales range from .79 to .88 (John & Srivastava, 2001).

The Extraversion scale measured the Big Five dimension, extraversion (John et al., 1991). Example items included “Is talkative” and “Has an assertive personality.” The scale was correlated with measures of extraversion (i.e., the NEO Five Factor Inventory and the Trait Descriptive Adjectives) and an internal consistency of .88 was found (John & Srivastava, 2001). A coefficient alpha of .85 was found in the current study.

The Agreeableness scale measured the Big Five dimension, agreeableness (John et al., 1991). Example items included “Is helpful and unselfish with others” and “Likes to cooperate with others.” The scale was correlated with measures of agreeableness (i.e., the NEO Five Factor Inventory and the Trait Descriptive Adjectives) and an internal consistency of .79 was found (John & Srivastava, 2001). In the current study, a coefficient alpha of .77 was found.

The Conscientious scale measured the Big Five dimension, conscientiousness (John et al., 1991). Example items included “Does a thorough job” and “Perseveres until the task is finished.” The scale was correlated with measures of conscientiousness (i.e., the NEO Five Factor Inventory and the Trait Descriptive Adjectives) and an internal consistency of .82 was found (John & Srivastava, 2001). An internal consistency of .84 was found in the current study.

The Neuroticism scale measured the Big Five dimension, neuroticism (John et al., 1991). Example items included “Is depressed, blue” and “Worries a lot.” The scale was correlated with measures of neuroticism (i.e., the NEO Five Factor Inventory and the Trait Descriptive Adjectives) and an internal consistency of .84 was reported (John & Srivastava, 2001). A coefficient alpha of .79 was found in this study.

The Openness scale measured the Big Five dimension, openness (John et al., 1991). Example items included “Is original, comes up with new ideas” and “Is curious about many different things.” The scale was correlated with measures of openness (i.e., the NEO Five Factor Inventory and the Trait Descriptive Adjectives) and an internal consistency of .81 was found (John & Srivastava, 2001). In the current study, a coefficient alpha of .75 was found.

Coping. The Problem-Focused Style of Coping Scale assessed individuals' general style of coping with stressful events and the extent to which they perceive themselves as coping well (Heppner, et al., 1995; see Appendix E). The Problem-Focused Style of Coping Scale (PF-SOC) is an 18 item scale divided into three subscales, including: Reflective (7 items), Suppressive (6 items), and Reactive (5 items). The items on each of the scales were scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*almost never*) to 5 (*almost all the time*). Scores were summed after reverse coding to yield a general index of coping. High scores indicated the use of problem-focused coping. The total scale was related to other measures of coping (Heppner et al., 1985). A coefficient alpha for the total scale of .76 was reported (Perrone et al., 2006).

The Reflective Style scale is defined as the tendency to examine causal relationships, plan, and be systematic in one's coping (Heppner et al., 1995). Example items included "I consider the short-term and long-term consequences of each possible solution to my problems" and "I think my problems through in a systematic way." The scale was correlated with a measure of task-orientation and an internal consistency of .80 was found (Heppner et al., 1995). The coefficient alpha for this measure in this study was .84.

The Suppressive Style scale is defined as a tendency to deny problems and avoid coping activities (Heppner et al., 1995). Example items included "I am not really sure what I think or believe about my problems" and "I don't sustain my actions long enough to really solve my problems." The scale was correlated with measures of conscientiousness, emotional stability, and task and emotion orientation and an internal

consistency of .77 (Heppner et al., 1995). An internal reliability estimate of .83 was calculated for this scale in this study.

The Reactive Style scale is defined as a tendency to have cognitive and emotional responses that deplete the individual or distort coping activities (Heppner et al., 1995). Example items included “I continue to feel uneasy about my problems, which tells me I need to do some more work” and “My old feelings get in the way of solving current problems.” The scale was correlated with a measure of emotional stability and an internal consistency of .67 (Heppner et al., 1995). A coefficient alpha of .79 was found in this investigation.

Employer Sensitivity. Employer sensitivity was assessed with a measure of employer sensitivity. The Employer Sensitivity Scale (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997; see Appendix F) has 7 items and assesses employer sensitivity to family related issues in general and child-care issues in particular (i.e., flexible work hours). Example items included “Your supervisor’s willingness to let you leave early from or arrive late to work due to child care needs” and “The degree of flexibility in your hours at work.” Scores on all the items were summed with high scores indicating strong levels of satisfaction with their employer’s sensitivity to family issues. The Employer Sensitivity Scale was correlated with measures of job satisfaction, interrole conflict, and child-care satisfaction (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997). A coefficient alpha of .90 was found (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997). A coefficient alpha of .86 was calculated in the current study.

Psychological Functioning. Psychological health was assessed using measures of perceived wellness and depression. The Perceived Wellness Survey is a 36 item scale that measured perceived wellness (Harari et al., 2005; see Appendix G). The scale used a 6-

point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*very strongly disagree*) to 6 (*very strongly agree*). Example items included “In general, I feel confident about my abilities” and “I will always seek out activities that challenge me to think and reason.” Items were reverse scored, and scores on all the items were summed with high scores indicating greater well-being. The Perceived Wellness Survey was correlated in the expected direction with several standardized measures of mental health (e.g., the Beck Depression Inventory-Second Edition) and an internal consistency of .91 was found (Harari et al., 2005). A coefficient alpha of .90 was found in the current study.

The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D Scale) is a 20 item scale that measured depressive symptomatology (Radloff, 1977; see Appendix H). The scale used a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*rarely or none of the time [less than 1 day]*) to 4 (*most or all of the time [5-7 days]*). Example items included “I did not feel like eating; my appetite was poor” and “I felt sad.” Items were reversed scored, and scores on all items were summed with high scores indicating many symptoms of depression. The CES-D Scale was correlated with other self-report measures and clinical measures of depression and poor physical health (Frone et al., 1997; Radloff, 1977). The internal consistency estimates ranged from .88 to .89 (Frone, 2000; Frone et al., 1997). In the current study, a coefficient alpha of .89 was found.

Life Satisfaction. The Satisfaction with Life Scale is a 5 item scale that measures global life satisfaction (Diener, Emmons, Larson, & Griffin, 1985; see Appendix I) using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Example items included “In most ways my life is close to my ideal” and “I am satisfied with my life.” Scores on all the items were summed with higher scores indicating high levels of

life satisfaction. The Satisfaction with Life Scale was correlated with other measures of life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1985). A coefficient alpha of .87 was found (Diener et al., 1985). A coefficient alpha of .82 was found in this study.

Relationship Satisfaction. The Relationship Assessment Scale is a 7 item scale that assessed global relationship satisfaction (Hendrick, 1988; see Appendix J) on 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (may indicate *poorly, unsatisfied, poor, never, hardly at all, not much, very few* depending on the item) to 5 (may indicate *extremely well, extremely satisfied, excellent, very often, completely, very much, very many* depending on the item). Example items included “How well does your partner meet your needs” and “How good is your relationship compared to most.” After reverse coding two items, scores on all the items were summed with high scores indicating high relationship satisfaction. The Relationship Assessment Scale was correlated with measures of love, sexual attitudes, commitment, and investment in a relationship and a Cronbach’s alpha of .86 was found (Hendrick, 1988). In the current investigation, a coefficient alpha of .93 was found.

Work Satisfaction. The Index of Job Satisfaction is a 5 item scale that measures satisfaction at work (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; see Appendix K). The scale had a 7 point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Example items included “I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job” and “I find real enjoyment in my work.” After reverse scoring two items, scores on all the items were summed with high scores indicating job satisfaction. The Index of Job Satisfaction was correlated with observer ratings of job satisfaction and life satisfaction and the coefficient alpha ranged from .88 to .95 (Ilies & Judge, 2003; Judge & Ilies, 2004; Judge, Locke, Durham, &

Kluger, 1998). A coefficient alpha of .87 was calculated for this scale in the current study.

Spousal Support. The Spousal Support Scale (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997; see Appendix L) has 4 items and assessed an individual's degree of satisfaction with their partner's emotional supportiveness and instrumental supportiveness (child care, finance, and housekeeping tasks) using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*extremely dissatisfied*) to 5 (*extremely satisfied*). Example items included "The degree of support from your spouse with regard to child care" and "The degree of help from your spouse in with regard to housekeeping tasks." Scores on all the items were summed with high scores indicating strong levels of satisfaction with spousal support. The Spousal Support Scale was correlated with measures of work-family conflict, supervisor support, organizational support, parental self-efficacy, job-self-efficacy, and maternal separation anxiety (Erdwins et al., 2001). The coefficient alpha ranged from .82 to .86 in previous investigations (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997; Erdwins et al., 2001). Spousal support was not examined in the proposed models but was used for exploratory purposes because the reliability coefficient was low in the current study ($\alpha=.70$).

Demographic Questionnaire. The demographic questionnaire was developed by the researcher and asked participants to indicate their age, race, gender, relationship status, occupation, income, number of work hours per week, number of housework hours per week, income, child care arrangements, as well as the number of children, whether any children have special needs, and ages of children living with the respondent (see Appendix M).

Hypotheses

Prior to testing the hypotheses in this study, descriptive statistics on all measured variables were calculated.

Purpose 1

The first purpose of the study was to examine the relationships among the predictor variables (neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, coping, and employer sensitivity), the outcome variables (psychological functioning, satisfaction with life, and work satisfaction), and work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. The relationships among the variables were assessed using Pearson r correlations, where a p value of .01 was chosen to determine significant relationships. A correlation matrix was computed and can be found in Table 2.

Purpose 2

The second purpose of this study was to test an indirect effects model of the predictors and outcomes hypothesized to relate to work-family conflict and work-family enrichment with a sample of employed mothers. See Figure 1.

Hypothesis 1. The first hypothesis indicated that the proposed model would evidence adequate fit as assessed by multiple fit indices (i.e., Satorra-Bentler scales chi-square, SB χ^2 ; standardized root-mean-square residual, SRMR; comparative fit index, CFI; and root mean squared error of approximation, RMSEA). A p value of .05 was chosen to determine significant relationships. Structural equation modeling using LISREL 8.54 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996) was employed to test the above hypothesis.

Purpose 3

The third purpose of this study was to test the fit of an equally plausible theoretically derived model (described in Figure 2 and titled the “direct and indirect effects model”) to determine which of the two proposed models evidenced the best fit with this sample.

Hypothesis 2. The second model would provide adequate fit to the data (i.e., Satorra-Bentler scales chi-square, SB χ^2 ; standardized root-mean-square residual, SRMR; comparative fit index, CFI; and root mean squared error of approximation, RMSEA), but the first model would be found to be superior to this model. The scaled chi-square difference test (Satorra & Bentler, 2001) was used to compare the indirect effects model and direct and indirect effects model. A p value of .05 was chosen to determine significant relationships.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Prior to testing the hypotheses in this study, missing data were analyzed using SPSS 18.0. Upon examination of the data, 102 of the 407 women who started the survey were deleted because 15% or more data were missing from their survey. Thus, the final sample included 305 employed mothers. The expectation maximization (EM) method was used to account for the remaining missing data (used when less than 15% of the data was missing). Of the final sample, 119 employed mothers had missing data (less than 15% missing), while 186 of the final sample had no missing data. Descriptive statistics on all measured variables were calculated.

On average, participants reported moderate amounts of work-to-family conflict (mean scores were in the middle of item endorsements of no conflict versus high conflict) and high family-to-work conflict (participants reported “agree” most often on family-to-work conflict). Participants indicated moderate amounts of work-to-family enrichment (scoring mostly in the middle of “agree” and “disagree”) and high levels of family-to-work enrichment (reporting generally “agree”). Moreover, participants typically scored in the low range on neuroticism (mean scores were in the low to middle of item endorsements of neuroticism), high on agreeableness and conscientiousness (mean scores were on higher item endorsements for both agreeableness and conscientiousness), and moderate on extraversion and openness (mean scores were in the middle range for extraversion and openness). Participants reported moderately engaging in all three styles of coping: reflective, reactive, and suppressive (mean scores were on middle to middle-high of item endorsements for all three styles of coping). Generally, participants reported

they were moderately satisfied with their employers' degree of sensitivity to family-related issues (endorsing "moderately satisfied" most often on the items). Participants considered themselves happy (mean scores were high on perceived wellness and low on depression) and were moderately satisfied with life, work, and romantic relationships (mean scores were on middle item endorsements). Additionally, participants were moderately satisfied with the amount of spousal support provided to them (generally endorsing "moderately satisfied" on the items). See Table 2 for means and standard deviations.

Purpose 1

The first purpose of the study was to examine the relationships among the predictor variables (neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, coping, and employer sensitivity), the outcome variables (psychological functioning, satisfaction with life, and work satisfaction), and work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. The relationships among the variables were assessed using Pearson r correlations, where a p value of .01 was chosen to determine significant relationships. A correlation matrix was computed and can be found in Table 2. Significant correlations are described below.

Work-to-family conflict demonstrated a robust positive relationship with family-to-work conflict and a moderate negative relationship with life satisfaction. Work-to-family conflict had a small positive relationship with neuroticism and small negative relationships with work-to-family enrichment, agreeableness, conscientiousness, suppressive coping, employer sensitivity, perceived wellness, depression, relationship satisfaction, and work satisfaction.

Family-to-work conflict had a moderate negative correlation with life satisfaction and a moderate positive correlation with neuroticism. In addition, family-to-work conflict had small negative relationships with agreeableness, conscientiousness, reactive coping, suppressive coping, employer sensitivity, perceived wellness, and relationship satisfaction. Family-to-work conflict had a small positive association with depression.

Work-to-family enrichment demonstrated a robust positive relationship with work satisfaction and moderate positive relationships with family-to-work enrichment and life satisfaction. Also, work-to-family enrichment had small positive correlations with agreeableness, suppressive coping, reflective coping, employer sensitivity, perceived wellness, and relationship satisfaction. Work-to-family enrichment had small negative relationships with neuroticism and depression.

Family-to-work enrichment demonstrated a moderate positive relationship with perceived wellness. Family-to-work enrichment had small positive relationships with agreeableness, conscientiousness, reactive coping, suppressive coping, reflective coping, life satisfaction, and relationship satisfaction. Additionally, family-to-work enrichment had small negative correlations with neuroticism and depression.

Neuroticism demonstrated robust negative relationships with reactive coping and perceived wellness. Neuroticism had moderate negative relationships with agreeableness, conscientiousness, suppressive coping, and life satisfaction. In addition, neuroticism had a moderate positive association with depression. Neuroticism had small negative association with reflective coping, relationship satisfaction, and work satisfaction.

Agreeableness demonstrated moderate positive correlations with reactive coping and perceived wellness. Agreeableness also had small positive correlations with

conscientiousness, suppressive coping, reflective coping, life satisfaction, relationship satisfaction, and work satisfaction and a small negative association with depression.

Conscientiousness demonstrated moderate positive relationships with reactive coping, suppressive coping, reflective coping and perceived wellness, and small positive relationships with life satisfaction, relationship satisfaction, and work satisfaction. Conscientiousness also had a small negative association with depression.

Reactive coping had a robust positive correlation with suppressive coping, moderate positive correlations with perceived wellness and life satisfaction, and a moderate negative relationship with depression. In addition, reactive coping had small positive correlations with reflective coping, relationship satisfaction, and work satisfaction.

Suppressive coping had a robust positive relationship with perceived wellness. Suppressive coping also had moderate positive associations with reflective coping and life satisfaction. In addition, suppressive coping had a moderate negative relationship with depression and small positive correlations with relationship satisfaction and work satisfaction.

Reflective coping had a moderate positive relationship with perceived wellness and a small positive association with life satisfaction and relationship satisfaction. Reflective coping also had a small negative relationship with depression.

Employer sensitivity had a small negative relationship with depression and small positive relationships with perceived wellness, life satisfaction, and work satisfaction.

Perceived wellness had a robust negative correlation with depression and a robust positive relationship with life satisfaction. In addition, perceived wellness has a moderate

positive correlation with relationship satisfaction and a small positive relationship with work satisfaction.

Depression has moderate negative relationships with life satisfaction and relationship satisfaction and a small negative relationship with work satisfaction.

Life satisfaction has a robust positive correlation with relationship satisfaction and a moderate positive correlation with work satisfaction.

Although spousal support was not used in the model, correlations with this variable were assessed for exploratory purposes. Spousal support demonstrated robust positive correlations with relationship satisfaction and life satisfaction. Also, spousal support had a moderate positive relationship with perceived wellness and a moderate negative relationship with depression. In addition, spousal support had small negative associations with family-to-work conflict, work-to-family conflict, and neuroticism. Spousal support also had small positive relationships with family-to-work enrichment, work-to-family enrichment, reactive coping, suppressive coping, reflective coping, and agreeableness.

Purpose 2

The second purpose of this study was to test an indirect effects model of the predictors and outcomes hypothesized to relate to work-family conflict and work-family enrichment with a sample of employed mothers. See Figure 1.

Hypothesis 1. The first hypothesis indicated that the proposed model would evidence adequate fit as assessed by multiple fit indices (i.e., Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square, SB χ^2 ; standardized root-mean-square residual, SRMR; comparative fit index, CFI; and root mean squared error of approximation, RMSEA).

Structural equation modeling using LISREL 8.54 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996) was employed to test the above hypothesis. First, as noted previously, the proposed model was developed based on a review of the literature and careful reading of theoretical propositions related to the work-family interface. Second, factor analyses were used to develop item parcels for some of scales representing latent variables (neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, employer sensitivity, work-to-family conflict, family-to-work conflict, work-to-family enrichment, family-to-work enrichment, perceived wellness, depression, life satisfaction, and relationship satisfaction). Russell, Kahn, Spoth, and Altmaier (1998) reported that common practice in SEM analyses was to create item parcels for latent variables. The authors suggested using factor analysis and then rank ordering the items on the basis of their loadings to assign them to groups so that the average loadings of each group of items equate. Russell et al. (1998) also stated that when this method was used, the resulting item parcels should reflect the underlying construct of the latent variable to an equal degree. In this study, we followed the recommended procedures for creating item parcels outlined by Russell et al. (1998). For work satisfaction, individual items were used instead of item parcels because of the low number of items on the scale. Third, a series of equation and parameter matrices that described the measurement and path models were generated.

The sample size was consistent with Bollen's (1989) recommendation of having at least 300 participants when using structural equation modeling. With regard to the fit indices used in this study, the chi-square fit index is an absolute measure of fit indicating the extent to which the model fit the actual data and a significant chi-square statistic indicates a lack of fit. The chi-square is influenced by model complexity and sample size

(Cudeck & Henly, 1991; Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). The current study used the Santorra-Bentler scaled chi-square (Satorra & Bentler, 1994) to adjust for the presence of non-normal data. The standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) is the standardized difference between the observed covariance and predicted covariance (Hu & Bentler, 1999) where a value of zero indicates perfect fit. This SRMR tends to be smaller as parameters in the model and sample size increases. A value less than .08 is considered a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) adjusts for the models complexity and will equal zero when there is a perfect fit to the data. RMSEA values less than .05 indicate a close fit, values between .05 and .08 indicate a good fit, values between .08 and .10 indicate a mediocre fit, and values over .10 indicate a poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). The comparative fit index (CFI; values of .95 or greater are desirable) avoids the underestimation of fit and was also used as an indicator of fit in this study (Bentler, 1990).

The results of our structural equation modeling indicated that the proposed indirect effects model (as noted in Figure 1) exhibited a poor fit to the data, $SB \chi^2 (714, N = 305) = 2839.549, p < .001, RMSEA = .099 (90\% CI [.095, .10]), SRMR = .124, CFI = .868$ (see Table 3 for summary of fit indices for all models). Therefore, modification indices in LISREL (cf. Byrne, 1998) were reviewed to identify areas of model misspecification. Modification indices revealed five correlated uniqueness terms whose inclusion would improve model fit (i.e., a reduction in chi-square; see Table 4). The modified (correlated uniqueness terms) indirect effects model exhibited mixed fit to the data, $SB \chi^2 (709, N = 305) = 1722.648, p < .001, RMSEA = .069 (CI [.065, .073]),$

SRMR = .120, CFI = .934; the RMSEA and CFI suggested adequate to good fit whereas the SRMR suggested model misspecification.

Purpose 3

The third purpose of this study was to test the fit of an equally plausible theoretically derived model (described in Figure 2 and titled the “direct and indirect effects model”) to determine which of the two proposed models evidenced the best fit with this sample.

Hypothesis 2. The second model would provide adequate fit to the data, but the first model would be found to be superior to this model.

Structural equation modeling using LISREL8.54 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996) was employed to test the above hypothesis. The direct and indirect effects model also exhibited poor fit to the data, $SD \chi^2 (701, N = 305) = 2622.215, p < .001, RMSEA = .095$ (CI [.091, .099]), SRMR = .097, CFI = .879. Again, modification indices in LISREL (cf. Byrne, 1998) were reviewed to identify areas of model misspecification. Modification indices revealed five correlated uniqueness terms whose inclusion would improve model fit (i.e., a reduction in chi-square; see Table 4).

The modified (correlated uniqueness terms) direct and indirect effects model exhibited adequate to good model fit, $SB \chi^2 (696, N = 305) = 1528.727, p < .001, RMSEA = .063$ (CI [.059, .067]), SRMR = .090, CFI = .944.

To determine which model best fit the data, parameter estimates and fit indices were examined. Specifically, the scaled chi-square difference test (Satorra & Bentler, 2001) was used to compare the indirect effects model and direct and indirect effects model. Likelihood ratio testing using the scaled chi-square difference test showed that the

direct and indirect effects model exhibited a statistically significant improvement in model fit when compared to the indirect effects model, $Td(13) 215.3557, p = .00$.

Therefore, the second model, the direct and indirect effects model, was retained.

For the final direct and indirect effects model, all the factor loadings and uniqueness terms were significant (see Table 5 for factor loadings). Of the 29 structural parameters, eleven were significant (see Table 6, Figure 3 and Figure 4). Among the exogenous latent factors, 8 out of 10 were significant (see Table 7). The variance accounted for in latent factors was approximately 23% for work-family conflict, 10% for work-family enrichment, 63% for psychological functioning, 25% for satisfaction with life/love, and 48% for work satisfaction. The variance accounted for in observed indicators was 53% for work-family conflict, 52% for work-family enrichment, 59% for psychological functioning, 63% for satisfaction with life/love, 60% for work satisfaction, 57% for neuroticism, 48% for agreeableness, 67% for conscientiousness, 45% for coping, and 65% for employer sensitivity.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

The current study sought to extend knowledge regarding the predictors and outcomes associated with work-family conflict and work-family enrichment with a sample of employed mothers. Specifically, grounded in the work of Greenhaus and Powell (2006), this study examined the extent to which employed mothers' personality (neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness), styles of coping, and employer sensitivity were predictive of work-family conflict (work-to-family and family-to-work), and work-family enrichment (work-to-family and family-to-work), and how these constructs related to psychological functioning (i.e., well-being and depression), satisfaction with life/love (i.e., life and relationship satisfaction), and work satisfaction. Through testing two models of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment and examining the predictors and outcomes associated with these variables, we hoped to advance understanding of employed mother's experience of the work-family interface.

Overall, the results of this study provide some support for Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory of work-family enrichment which explains how resources, such as personality (a psychological and physical resource), and employer sensitivity (a social capital resource), relate to work-family conflict and work-family enrichment which then were hypothesized to be associated with outcome variables (psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, and satisfaction with work), although alternative models need to be tested. Specifically, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) argued that their model goes beyond prior research and theory by identifying types of work and family resources that have may enhance work-family-enrichment.

In this study, we tested the hypothesis that the indirect effects model would be a better fit to the data than the direct and indirect effects model, which was not supported. The direct and indirect effects model, after modifications (i.e., correlated uniqueness terms), was a better fit to the data. The modifications to the models were made after running the analyses and finding that both models exhibited poor fit. After noticing that several item parcels had greater than the recommended amount of error, the models were modified so that five sets of item parcels with the greatest amount of shared variance (the error terms) were allowed to correlate.

One way to describe error correlation would be to say that the item parcels were sharing something other than what we were measuring, or that they were sharing something unknown. Having a common method of measurement, at times, can result in this problem. In the current study, we used only self-report measures to contribute to the latent factors which could mean that the item parcels shared variance due to the method we chose to collect the data. Thus, a decision was made to allow five error terms to correlate. Although six error terms in our model had greater amounts of error than recommended, researchers have cautioned that allowing error terms to correlate will nearly always improve model fit (e.g., Gerbing & Anderson, 1984). Allowing the sixth error term to correlate did not improve model fit, so we allowed only five error terms to correlate.

The final model, the modified direct and indirect effects model, demonstrated adequate to good fit and accounted for substantial variance in psychological functioning (63%) with the other endogenous factors not accounting for much of the variance in the latent factors. The indicators accounted for a substantial amount of variance in work-

family conflict, work-family enrichment, psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, work satisfaction, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and employer sensitivity. The indicators accounted for a moderate amount of variance for agreeableness and coping. Additionally, among the exogenous latent factors, effects emerged between neuroticism with agreeableness, conscientiousness, coping, and employer sensitivity; between agreeableness with conscientiousness, coping, and employer support; and between conscientiousness with coping. These findings also provided support for the final direct and indirect effects model.

There were several important findings in the model that extended our knowledge of the work-family interface, in particular. For example, neuroticism had a moderate positive direct effect on work-family conflict (explaining about 12% of the variance), such that neurotic characteristics were associated with work-family conflict. Another important finding was that work-family enrichment had a robust positive direct effect on work satisfaction (explaining about 35% of the variance), suggesting that as work-family enrichment increases, satisfaction at work is enhanced for this sample. This finding supports Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory that work-family enrichment can produce positive effects. Other important findings included coping having robust positive direct effects on both psychological functioning (explaining about 48% of the variance) and satisfaction with life/love (explaining about 26% of the variance). Last, agreeableness had a moderate positive direct effect on psychological functioning (explaining about 10% of the variance) for this sample of employed mothers. It should be noted that these relationships were based on the modified direct and indirect effects model, but other

models should be tested to rule out potentially better fitting models. The relationships will be explored more fully below.

In the modified direct and indirect effects model, it is important to note that only small direct effects emerged for employer sensitivity and the work-family variables (explaining about 5% of the variance in work-family conflict and about 2% of the variance in work-family enrichment). Although employer sensitivity accounted for little variance in the work-family variables there are times when it might be important to consider this variable because it related to work satisfaction indirectly (and directly) through work-family enrichment, further elucidating importance of examining employer sensitivity with work-family enrichment and work satisfaction. Moreover, employer sensitivity had a small positive direct effect on work-family enrichment and work-family enrichment had a robust positive relationship with work satisfaction. Mallinckrodt, Abraham, Wei, and Russell (2006) stated that through the Test of Joint Significance only the path from the predictor to the mediator and from the mediator to the outcome must be statistically significant to assume an overall indirect effect. The direct relationship between employer sensitivity and work satisfaction was small and positive, so work-family enrichment seemed to add to our understanding of the relationship between employer sensitivity and work satisfaction.

Additionally, employer sensitivity was related to satisfaction with life/love indirectly through work-family conflict and work-family enrichment, although all the relationships were small (variance explained between the variables ranged from 2%-5%). Again, this indirect effect should be interpreted with caution because of the small relationship but should be considered in future research and for possible interventions

with employed mothers as employer sensitivity may be a resource that could be used to promote work-family enrichment, as suggested by Greenhaus and Powell (2006). Also, the findings for this model should be interpreted with caution because other models (that have yet to be explored) could provide similar or better fit indices.

In addition, neuroticism was related to satisfaction with life/love indirectly through work-family conflict, highlighting the importance of examining personality in the work-family interface. The direct effect of neuroticism on work-family conflict was moderate and positive while the direct effect of work-family conflict on satisfaction with life/love was small and negative (accounting for about 2% of the variance). The indirect effect is assumed based on the Test of Joint Significance (see Mallinckrodt et al., 2006). Again, the indirect effects should be interpreted with caution because some of the direct effects were small (direct effects will be discussed below), but arguably potentially important to consider for this sample of women. It could be that a relatively healthy and happy sample, with low scores on neuroticism, affected the strength of these relationships. The direct effects will be discussed further below.

Taken together, the overall model fit, individual parameter fit, and variance accounted for by the endogenous variables provided some support for Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory of work-family enrichment to explain how the use of resources can affect work-family variables and psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, and work satisfaction. Future research should examine additional variables that would account for variance in work-family conflict and work-family enrichment as well as psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, and work satisfaction. Some variables of interest that might account for additional variance in the model could be

other resources suggested by Greenhaus and Powell (2006), such as spousal support, social support, self-esteem/self-confidence, and total household income. Below, each endogenous variable, along with their predictors, will be discussed.

Work-Family Conflict

Neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, coping, and employer sensitivity were expected to predict work-family conflict. The structural parameters suggested that neuroticism was the only personality factor that had a direct effect on work-family conflict, and as would be expected, it had a moderate positive relation. Researchers often have found a relationship between work-family conflict and neuroticism (e.g., Rantanen et al., 2005) and previous studies have reported a direct relationship between personality and work-family conflict (e.g., Noor, 2003). The current study indicated that neuroticism has a direct effect on work-family conflict further elucidating the importance of examining personality factors when studying work-family conflict with a sample of employed mothers. This finding makes sense because women who are worried and anxious, for example, might have more difficulty managing time at work to attend to family responsibilities, thus contributing to increased work-family conflict.

The next personality factor expected to have a direct effect on work-family conflict was agreeableness. Agreeableness did not have a direct effect on work-family conflict. Some researchers suggested that when it comes to personality, a pattern exists between the more negative personality traits (i.e., neuroticism, negative affect) with work-family conflict; the more positive personality traits (i.e., agreeableness, extraversion, positive affect) have been hypothesized to relate to work-family enrichment

(David et al., 1997; Michel & Clark, 2009). This might explain why agreeableness did not have a direct relationship with work-family conflict in this study.

Similarly, conscientiousness did not have an effect on work-family conflict as expected. Conscientiousness had been shown to protect individuals from family-to-work conflict (Bruck & Allen, 2003) and was found to be related to work-family conflict (a negative relationship; e.g., Blanch & Aluja, 2009; Bruck & Allen, 2003). One possible reason why conscientiousness did not have a direct effect on work-family conflict could be because people who tend to be conscientious (i.e., achievement oriented, efficient, dependable, and likes to plan and be organized) might plan more regarding how to combine work and family roles. Some of the items on the work-family conflict scale addressed personal responsibilities, like children, that take time from work and the effort needed to complete work tasks, making it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities. Someone who is conscientious may be more inclined to organize their day to make time for family and work tasks and/or are efficient at both home and work.

Examining personality factors was relatively recent in the work-family literature however, coping has been examined frequently. It is less clear is why coping did not have a direct relationship with work-family conflict as we hypothesized. After all, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) cited coping as a skills and perspectives resource that can be drawn on when needed to solve a problem or deal with a challenge and research has certainly focused on the role of coping in work-family conflict (e.g., Byron, 2005; Somach & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Researchers speculated that problem-focused coping was more effective in situations that individuals perceive are under their control (Aryee, et al., 1999; Lapierre & Allen, 2006) and perhaps this sample of employed mothers who have

moderate work-family conflict did not feel like their work or home was in their control, and thus did not engage in problem-focused coping. Additionally, the sample reported moderate use of problem-focused coping and moderate levels of work-family conflict, which might make it hard to have enough variance to detect a relationship in this sample. Other studies have examined the role of coping as a mediator between work-family conflict and family satisfaction (e.g., Perrone et al., 2006), which might be a better fit for the role of coping in work-family conflict.

Employer sensitivity had a small negative direct effect on work-family conflict. The measure of employer sensitivity included items related to supervisor support of child care needs, employer support of child care needs, and job flexibility, which suggested that these types of support could be important for women. If employed mothers have a flexible work environment and support from both supervisors and employers, the experience of work-family conflict could be diminished. Byron's (2005) study also found that support from an individual's work increases relates to low levels of work-family conflict. Next, I will examine the effect of work-family conflict on the outcome variables.

In our study, work-family conflict did not have a direct effect on psychological functioning. The research shows that work-family conflict relates to psychological health, with individuals experiencing work-family conflict being more likely to have a mood disorder, anxiety disorder, and substance dependence disorder (Frone, 2000). Work-family conflict also has been found to affect physical health, such as obesity (Grzywacz, 2000). It is possible that because our sample had moderate levels of work-family conflict and appeared to be psychologically healthy, there was not enough variance in scores on the measures to detect a relationship. Alternatively, perhaps the relationship between

these variables occurred when individuals experienced high levels of conflict or mental health difficulties.

In examining the structural parameters of the final direct and indirect effects model, work-family conflict had a small negative direct effect on satisfaction with life/love, such that as work-family conflict increases, satisfaction with life/love decreases. This finding was consistent with other research that found that work-family conflict was related negatively to life satisfaction and marital discord (e.g., Allen et al, 2000; Chui, 1998; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Norell & Norell, 1996). For this sample of employed mothers, the presence of work-family conflict (i.e., work interferes with family and family interferes with work), could cause women to be less satisfied in their relationships and with their lives. Not having enough time for each of these roles or feeling like you are sacrificing one role for the other could lead to dissatisfaction in life and in your relationship. Alternatively, low levels of work-family conflict might lead to more satisfaction in life and in relationships because of having adequate balance between work and family roles. In other words, women may not feel negative affect because they are able to manage both roles, thus leading to more satisfaction with life/love.

Work-family conflict did not have a direct effect on work satisfaction as predicted. Research had shown inconsistent findings regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and work-to-family conflict. Some researchers found that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict consistently had a relationship with job satisfaction (e.g., Ahmad, 1996; Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki's; 1998), some suggested only work-to-family conflict (not family-to-work conflict) was related to work satisfaction (e.g., Wayne et al., 2004), and others proposed that there was no relationship between

work-family conflict and job satisfaction (e.g., Bedian et al., 1988; Lijun & Chunmaio, 2009; Perrone et al., 2006). The current results mirrored Bedian et al.'s (1988) and Perrone et al.' (2006) studies showing no relationship between work-family conflict and work satisfaction with a sample of women in professional careers. In the current sample, almost half of the women had master's degree or doctoral degree, with more than a third having a bachelor's degree. Our sample may find more enjoyment and fulfillment in their work because they have continued education, thus affecting the relationship between work-family conflict and satisfaction at work. Also, in a study with all professionals, one might argue, as suggested by Perrone et al., that there was greater opportunity for the implementation of the self-concept, which Super's (1982) theory links with higher work satisfaction. Furthermore, this sample reported they were moderately satisfied at work and with their employers (e.g., providing a flexible schedule and child-care needs), which may have contributed to the lack of a direct relationship between work-family conflict and work satisfaction. Next, we will examine the predictors and outcomes of work-family enrichment.

Work-Family Enrichment

Neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, coping, and employer sensitivity were expected to predict work-family enrichment, just as we expected them to predict work-family conflict. In the current study, none of the personality factors expected to have a direct effect on work-family enrichment did have an effect, which is worth exploring further. One study, found that extroversion was related to both work-to-family facilitation and family-to-work facilitation (Wayne et al., 2004), so extraversion might have been a better choice as a predictor of work-family enrichment. In the current study,

extraversion was correlated with work-family enrichment, as previous research suggested, but not to work-family conflict which is consistent with previous research and why extraversion was not included in the study. The finding that neuroticism had a direct effect on work-family conflict but not on work-family enrichment is important because it supported Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory that work-family conflict and work-family enrichment are distinct constructs that are not merely the opposite of each other. Moreover, neuroticism may not have had a direct effect on work-family enrichment because some speculate that it is the more positive personality traits that have an effect on work-family enrichment (e.g., David et al., 1997; Michel & Clark, 2009). Additionally, participants reported moderate levels of work-family enrichment and were low on neuroticism and high on agreeableness and conscientiousness. It is possible there was not enough variance to detect a relationship between each personality factor and work-family enrichment.

Coping, another predictor in the current study, did not have a direct effect on work-family enrichment as expected. Few studies focused on the role of coping in work-family enrichment. In the current study, the more one engaged in reactive coping (defined as a tendency to have cognitive and emotional responses that deplete the individual or distort coping activities; Heppner et al., 1995), the less family-to-work enrichment. Similarly, the more one engages in suppressive coping, defined as a tendency to deny problems and avoid coping activities (Heppner et al., 1995), the less work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment one experiences. The reflective style was defined as the tendency to examine causal relationships, plan, and be systematic in one's coping (Heppner et al., 1995), and therefore the more individuals engaged in the

reflective style, the more work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment. The current sample moderately engaged in all three styles of coping, leading us to wonder if women who were more extreme in their use of these coping styles might have yielded different results in the effect on work-family enrichment. Based on the relationships between the styles of coping and work-family enrichment stated above, we might expect that lower reactive and suppressive coping styles and higher reflective coping styles might contribute to higher levels of work-family enrichment.

Employer sensitivity had a small positive direct effect on work-family enrichment, which was consistent with the literature (e.g., Byron, 2005). In fact, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggested that resources, such as employer sensitivity (a social capital resource) can explain work-family enrichment. The authors explained that a resource is “an asset that may be drawn on when needed to solve a problem or cope with a challenging situation” (p. 80). One might argue that employer sensitivity is a resource that contributes to more work-family enrichment because having the support of your employer around family might enable you to feel happier and more productive at work, contributing to being a better family member at home, as some of the items on the instrument used to examine work-family enrichment measure. Moreover, when employers send the message to women that they care about their family needs, women might feel more accepted and empowered in their dual roles as career women and mothers, thus increasing the likelihood that work enriches family and family enriches work. Next, I will examine the direct relationships between work-family enrichment and the outcome variables.

Work-family enrichment did not have a direct effect on psychological functioning, as predicted by the direct and indirect effects model, despite research that has shown that family-to-work facilitation was associated with a lower risk of depression and problem drinking (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). In this sample, the combination of moderate work-family conflict and work-family enrichment could have affected how work-family enrichment was related to depression. Grzywacz and Bass (2003) argued that the most optimal combination of work-family experiences, because it is associated with the most positive outcomes, is low levels of work-family conflict and high levels of work-family facilitation; however, in our study participants were moderate on both work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. Also, our sample was generally healthy, thus possibly limiting our ability to detect relationships that exist between work-family enrichment and psychological functioning among less healthy samples.

On the other hand, work-family enrichment had a small positive direct effect on satisfaction with life/love, such that higher levels of work-family enrichment were associated with satisfaction with life/love. Thus, women who were enriched by their work or their family felt satisfied with their lives and their partners. Alternatively, women who were pleased with their lives and relationships may have brought positive energy to work and to their families. Finding that one area of your life enriches another and vice versa should increase your level of satisfaction with life/love because you would be able to transfer your feelings of happiness, sense of success, and skills learned in those areas to other areas of your life; thus, improving the quality of those other areas. This finding added to the literature because work-family enrichment had not been studied as often as

work-family conflict, especially the direct effect of work-family enrichment on satisfaction with life/love.

Work-family enrichment also had a direct effect on work satisfaction and the relationship was robust and positive. Consistent with previous research, the more enrichment in your family or work roles, the more satisfied you will be at work (e.g., Wayne et al., 2004). This finding was important as researchers have proposed that combining work and family roles have both positive and negative effects (e.g., Byron, 2005; Ford et al., 2007; Hammer et al., 1997; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). This finding, along with the finding previously mentioned, supported Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) theory that multiple roles can be beneficial and produce positive outcomes, a useful finding in providing a broader picture of the work-family interface for research and clinical purposes. Moreover, work-family enrichment's direct effect on work satisfaction might occur because women may be able to transfer your positive feelings and experiences in one role (e.g., family role) to the work role, thus enhancing satisfaction.

One notable finding of the structural equation modeling analyses was that the work-to-family item parcels accounted for a substantial amount of variance (90% for parcel 1, 78% for parcel 2, and 89% for parcel 3) with the observed indicator, work-family enrichment, however, the family-to-work enrichment item parcels did not relate as well to the latent construct (16% for parcel 1, 17% for parcel 2, and 20% for parcel 3). These findings could explain some of the lack of relationships between the work-family enrichment and the predictor and outcome variables as well as the overall fit of the model.

Future research might select alternate measures of family-to-work enrichment. Interestingly, the measure we used for work-family enrichment had many items that mirrored each other in assessing work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment. For example, an item on the work-to-family enrichment scale read “my involvement in my work puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member,” while a family-to-work enrichment item reads “my involvement in my family puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker.” The participants completed the work-to-family items first, followed by the family-to-work items, which may have attributed to the family-to-work items parcels not attributing to as much variance in work-family enrichment because they might have felt like they already answered those questions before (i.e., the questions felt familiar, thus not explaining anything additional). Additionally, the items on family-to-work enrichment do not seem to capture how family enriches work generally but more how family enrichment might contribute to being a “better worker,” which does not necessarily have to be interpreted as enriching ones’ work.

Diverse items that focus on the different ways work enriches family and family enriches work might have better captured the family-to-work enrichment. For example, one item that was different and did not have a mirror item was “my involvement in my family encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and helps me be a better worker.” Additionally, fewer items that focus on being a “better worker” might capture the broader construct of family-to-work enrichment. In the next section, the outcome variables, psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, and work satisfaction will be discussed.

Psychological Functioning

Psychological functioning was thought to be an outcome of work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and coping. The relationships between psychological functioning with work-family conflict and work-family enrichment were discussed previously so the focus will be on the predictor variables. In the direct and indirect effects model, neuroticism was expected to have a direct effect on psychological functioning as suggested by previous research (e.g., Kotov, et al., 2010; Steunenberg, et al., 2009); surprisingly, it did not. In the studies examined (e.g., Kotov, et al., 2010; Steunenberg, et al., 2009), samples with diagnosable mental disorders were used (i.e., reoccurrence of depression; diagnostic groups). In a relatively healthy sample of employed mothers, like the current one, neuroticism did not have a direct effect on psychological functioning.

On the other hand, agreeableness had a moderate positive direct effect on psychological functioning as expected. Blanch and Aluja (2009) found that agreeableness was one of the Big Five factors that was related to work-family conflict and well-being. The current study provided support for agreeableness relating to psychological functioning such that the more agreeable type personalities experience healthier psychological functioning. Those who see themselves as having a tendency to forgive others, are warm and friendly, or like to be helpful and cooperative seem to experience fewer symptoms of depression and were psychologically and physically healthy (as measured on the perceived wellness instrument).

Conscientiousness did not have a direct effect on psychological functioning. The current sample was relatively high in their degree of conscientiousness. It might be that

lower levels of conscientiousness have more of an effect on psychological functioning. For example, Booth-Kewley and Vickers (1990) found that persons low in conscientiousness tended to have poorer personal health habits.

Another possible reason for the lack of relationship between neuroticism, conscientiousness, and psychological wellness could relate to the scale used to examine psychological wellness (the Perceived Wellness Scale; Harari et al., 2005). The Perceived Wellness Scale asked participants to evaluate their own wellness, as opposed to the depression scale used that evaluates symptoms occurring over a period of time. The self-evaluative nature of this measure might not represent the accuracy of their actual wellness. Reports from family members and friends might have added to the assessment of psychological functioning, thus providing a more accurate picture of psychological functioning.

On the other hand, coping, specifically problem-focused coping, had a robust positive effect on psychological functioning, as noted in previous research (e.g., Heining & Gan, 2008; Heppner et al., 1995). One might expect that the more women engage in problem-focused coping, the healthier they will be because they are not suppressing or reacting when problems are encountered. The current study extended the literature on the relationship between coping and psychological functioning because the latent variable, psychological functioning, included a measure of psychological strength. Additionally, the current study further supported the effect of problem-focused coping, specifically, on psychological functioning. In the next section, satisfaction with life/love will be discussed.

Satisfaction with Life/Love

Generally, the effects of personality on relationship and life satisfaction have been well established (Dyrenforth et al., 2010). In a meta-analytic review of the Big Five personality factors, emotional stability, agreeableness, and conscientiousness were the personality traits with the most robust associations with relationship satisfaction (where individuals who are higher in each of these attributes report higher levels of relationship satisfaction; Heller et al., 2004). In the current study, agreeableness was the only personality latent factor that had a direct effect (small positive) on satisfaction with life/love (neuroticism or conscientiousness did not have direct effects on satisfaction with love/life). Overall, research had shown that agreeableness was related to life and relationship satisfaction (e.g., Heller et al., 2004; Steel et al., 2008). Women who have a “forgiving nature” and “[are] helpful and unselfish with others” (example agreeableness items on the Big Five Inventory; John et al., 1991) likely would be more satisfied in their lives and in relationships. Thus, the current study provides further support for and importance of examining the relationship between agreeableness and satisfaction with life/love with a population of employed mothers.

It is less clear why neuroticism and conscientiousness did not have an effect on satisfaction with life/love. Conceptualizing satisfaction with life/love as one construct may have limited the ability to find a direct effect because of different relationships between personality and satisfaction with life and satisfaction in relationships. For example, Heller et al. (2004) found that agreeableness, conscientiousness, and emotional stability had the most robust effects on relationship satisfaction and Steel et al. (2008) found that emotional stability and extraversion were the most related to life satisfaction,

with conscientiousness and agreeableness having a small to medium correlation. These meta-analyses suggested that the factors have differing relationships with satisfaction with life and with satisfaction with love; thus leading to a possible lack of a direct effect between conscientiousness and satisfaction with life/love.

Recent personality researchers have examined variables that might add to our understanding of how personality affects relationship and life satisfaction, possibly adding to our understanding of the lack of a direct relationship for neuroticism and conscientiousness. For example, Dyrenforth et al. (2010) suggested that personality attributes, spouse's attributes, and the similarity between the couples personality combine to predict life and relationship satisfaction. The current study only examined the participant's personality and the possible direct effect on satisfaction with life/love. Reports of the couples' personalities and the similarity of the couple's personality could have had a direct effect on satisfaction with life/love.

It seems clear, based on the particular personality factors chosen for the current study, that we would have expected the relationship between all of the personality factors and relationship with life/love to be significant. As previously mentioned, collecting data on partner and similarity effects may have been helpful in assessing the relationship between personality and satisfaction with life/love. Alternatively, personality factors could be examined as a moderator in studies examining work-family conflict, as in previous studies (e.g., Chunmaio and Xingchang, 2009; Lijun and Chunmaio, 2009).

Although the direct effect between neuroticism and satisfaction with life/love was not found, the current study found that neuroticism was related to satisfaction with life/love indirectly through work-family conflict. The direct effect between work-family

conflict and satisfaction with life/love was small, but the direct effect that neuroticism has on work-family conflict was moderate, suggesting it might be useful to examine this relationship in future research.

Coping had a large positive direct effect on satisfaction with life/love. Individuals who are engaged in problem solving instead of denying problems may be able to resolve negative issues and thus, feel more satisfied with their lives. Alternatively, those who have meaningful lives and relationships may feel efficacious with regard to coping with problems. Additionally, previous research noted the relationship between coping and satisfaction with life and relationship (e.g., Heppner et al., 1995; Rantatan et al., 2011).

Although the current study did not predict that employer sensitivity would have a direct effect on satisfaction with life/love, employer sensitivity did have a small relationship with satisfaction with life/love through work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. Work-family variables seem to contribute a small amount to our understanding of how employer support around child-care needs might affect satisfaction with life/love. Again, the parameter estimates were small and accounted for a small amount of variance (between 2% and 5%), but might be worth examining further in future studies with a sample of employed mothers. In the next section, the relationship between the predictor variables and work satisfaction will be discussed.

Work Satisfaction

Neuroticism, agreeableness, nor conscientiousness had a direct effect on work satisfaction, to our surprise based on previous research. For example, Cohrs et al. (2006) explored the predictive power of dispositional characteristics (Big 5 Factors, occupational self-efficacy, work centrality, mastery goals) on work satisfaction and found the

dispositional characteristics uniquely explained 8-12% of the variance, with neuroticism, in particular, an important determinant of work satisfaction (Cohrs et al., 2006).

Many studies examining personality and work satisfaction find a consistent relationship between neuroticism and work satisfaction (e.g., Cohrs et al., 2006; Judge et al., 2002), so the lack of a direct effect in the current study is challenging to interpret. Again, the professional and educated nature of the sample could have contributed to the lack of effect between neuroticism and work satisfaction.

As previously mentioned, agreeableness and conscientiousness also did not have a direct effect as expected. In Cohrs et al.'s (2006) study, agreeableness was a predictor of job satisfaction only in one of the three samples, which is inconsistent with previous meta-analyses (e.g., Judge et al., 2002). Also, inconsistent with the meta-analyses, conscientiousness had no impact on job satisfaction in any of the three samples, just as the current study found. However, Cohrs et al. (2006), suggested that "the meta-analysis revealed a large confidence interval for this relationship, suggesting it may be worthwhile to look for moderators in future research" (p. 384).

Another suggestion when examining the relationship between personality and work satisfaction might be to integrate similar facets across the different typologies of personality (e.g., negative affectivity, neuroticism, and core self evaluations as one cluster), as suggested by Judge et al. (2008). In other words, it could be that a broader conceptualization of personality or dispositional characteristics might have added to the current study.

Coping did not have a direct effect on work satisfaction as predicted by the direct and indirect effects model. Previous research examined coping as a mediator between the

work family variables and outcomes like work satisfaction (e.g., Perrone et al., 2006; Voydanoff, 2002) suggesting that coping mediated the relationship between work-family conflict and work-family satisfaction such that healthy coping related to greater work and family satisfaction. However, Perrone et al. found that work-family conflict did have an effect on coping, but that coping did not have a direct effect on work satisfaction. In this study, it could be harder to detect a direct effect because the employed mothers were moderate on all coping styles and were moderately satisfied with work. Additionally, the problem might be that coping as related to managing work and family specifically was not measured. Perhaps the coping measure should have been tied more closely to work-life management.

Employer sensitivity was the only predictor variable that had a direct effect on work satisfaction (small positive effect); such that support at work related positively to satisfaction at work. As an employed mother, in an employment environment that is sensitive to childcare needs, satisfaction with work could be enhanced by support for the challenges associated with being a career person and a mother. Alternatively, if employers are not sensitive to childcare needs, women might be less satisfied and even feel guilty when work interferes with family. Additionally, the literature supports the finding employer support would relate to work-related variables (e.g., Byron, 2005).

Interestingly, employer sensitivity also related to work satisfaction indirectly through work-family enrichment, suggesting work-family enrichment can play a role in the relationship between employer sensitivity and work satisfaction. Work-family enrichment had a robust positive relationship on work satisfaction, suggesting we might continue to examine employer sensitivity to child-care needs with work-family

enrichment. Overall, the current study advanced knowledge regarding the effects of the predictor variables on work-family conflict and work-family enrichment and how these variables relate to the outcome variables for a sample of educated, mostly professional women. This study further elucidated that work-family conflict and work-family enrichment were distinct constructs that were not merely the opposite of each other. However, the results should be interpreted cautiously as additional plausible models should be tested in future research.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. As previously mentioned, most of the sample surveyed were White, married women, therefore, generalizability to samples other than predominantly White married women is problematic.

Moreover, most women had completed higher education (bachelor's degree and above), so the models may not be generalized to women who did not acquire higher education. Perrone et al. (2006) suggested that people with professional careers may have more opportunities for the implementation of the self-concept, noting Super's (1982) theory. Women with higher education may have a more developed self-concept which could affect some of the variables in the current study, such as coping, the work-family variables, work satisfaction, satisfaction with life/love, and psychological functioning. With a more developed self-concept, employed mothers may be more confident in their ability to "manage" work and family roles. Additionally, because a large portion of the women in the sample were educated, they may have chosen career paths which could differ from occupations selected by women who did not have as many choices. Educated

women who have selected their careers may have more autonomy and flexibility than women who are less educated and have jobs (as opposed to careers/professions).

Most women reported that they were “extremely satisfied” with their childcare arrangements, which could affect the results because it could be that women who are not as satisfied may experience more work-family conflict, as found in the literature (e.g., Poms, Botsford, Kaplan, Buffardi, & O’Brien, 2009).

Overall, the sample reported they were moderately satisfied in their life, with work, in their relationships, and with their job’s degree of employer sensitivity. They also reported they are generally happy and healthy. This limits the generalizability to less healthy employed mothers. One might argue that the populations of employed mothers we need to consider most are mothers who are not psychologically healthy. And, although there is value to studying healthier populations as many counseling psychologists would posit, there is a need to examine less healthy populations as well.

In examining the limitations of the sample, it is important to note that the results emerged with a sample of educated, well-adjusted women, who were satisfied with their childcare, and may not be applicable to women who are less educated and less satisfied with their lives. Alternatively, the participants may have presented more positively than they actually felt, thus skewing their responses on the measures.

There also were several methodological limitations, including that the study was an online study. There are many limitations to online studies, including not knowing the environment the participant was taking the study in, not knowing exactly who is taking the survey, self-selection, and not knowing the return rate, to name a few. Not knowing the environment the sample was taking the survey in leads to less control of the study.

Women could have been taking the survey at work, taking the survey at home by herself, with her partner next to her, or with her children, all of which could have affected the results of the study. For example, answering questions about work satisfaction and employer sensitivity while at work might have affected how the participant chose to answer the questions.

Another problem with online studies is that the researcher does not know exactly who is taking the survey. Part of our advertising included a lottery for a gift card. Although participants answered inclusion questions to be sure they fit the parameters of the study, people could have falsified their responses to obtain the information about how to obtain the gift card. The entire sample was assumed to be employed mothers, but this may not be factual.

Yet another limitation to this investigation was self-selection. Employed mothers who cared about their work and family roles, or women who experienced work-family conflict may have been more interested in participating in the study than women who were not as concerned about combining work and family roles. Also, part of the data gathering process involved contacting mother's groups, again selecting from a certain group of women. Convenience sampling also was used, making the study less generalizable to a broader group of women. One limitation of convenience sampling is obtaining a sample within a certain network of people, without reaching a more representative group of women.

Lack of a true return rate also is a limitation of online studies. Although we are able to see how many people tried to take the survey, we do not know how many women might have glanced at the online advertisement and just deleted it, for example. So, we

are unable to know the return rate of the study. Although an online study was presumed to be the most convenient way to reach this busy population, future research should try other data collection methods.

Another limitation of the study has to do with structural equation modeling. There were parcels in the model whose unique variance was shared, and we chose to allow some error terms to correlate with each other. There are many reasons unique variance occurs. When unique variance is shared, the unique variances of the observed indicators overlap, or measure something in common other than the latent constructs presented (Jöreskog, 1993). This is a limitation because we did not predict what could be shared among the variables. In other words, the modifications to the correlated error terms were done post hoc, which some SEM theorist advise against when not predicted a priori (because they improve model fit. e.g., Martens, 2005). Three variables that shared unique variance in this study and thus, should continue to be examined are work-family enrichment, depression, and satisfaction with life.

Last, the instruments used to measure the constructs were limited and likely impacted negatively the results of the study. For example, after examining the variance accounted for in the latent constructs, family-to-work enrichment did not account for much variance in the work-family enrichment latent construct (i.e., 16 to 20%). The family-to-work enrichment items did not capture family-to-work enrichment as well as they reflected work-to-family enrichment. Specifically, items like “My involvement in my family makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker” and “My involvement in my family makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker” may not have captured the intended construct. Perhaps being happy with your family

related to feeling happy at work, however being happy does not necessarily result in increased productivity at work.

Future Research and Possible Interventions

Clearly, the results of this study need to be replicated. To address some of the limitations mentioned previously, future studies should examine the models with other populations. Specifically, future research could examine the final direct and indirect effects model with employed mothers in other countries, with different socioeconomic status, and varying levels of education. Also, the construct of work-family enrichment may not apply to other populations or at the very least, may look different or mean something different for other populations. For example, many of the studies cited in the literature that examine work-family enrichment are comprised of mostly White samples or did not report ethnicity in their article. Future research must examine other plausible models to rule out better fitting models.

Additionally, although many studies on work-family enrichment have been studied internationally, the construct “work-family enrichment” is relatively new, with past studies examining work-family facilitation or positive spillover, for example. In fact, Whiston and Cinamon (under review) commented on how difficult it was to examine the ways in which work and family roles facilitate one another because researchers use various labels and definitions across disciplines (e.g., facilitation, enrichment, enhancement, and positive spillover). Work-family enrichment seemed to be an appropriate umbrella term to encompass other constructs that seem similar to work-family enrichment however, the theory of work-family enrichment has not been studied in other countries and with diverse populations. It would be interesting to examine the

theory of work-family enrichment, and the model presented in the current study in other countries and with diverse populations to learn more about women's career development for people of color and international employed mothers.

Additionally, with the national unemployment rate on the rise (8.9%; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011), the model should be studied over time to understand how the model might change in different economic times. For example, with companies going through a period of lay-offs and individuals in fear of losing their jobs, total household income could serve as a predictor of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. Also, job security might be a predictor of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. Mothers who feel their job is secure might be more able to take off work when their child is sick, or leave work on-time to make a family dinner. Those who are in fear of losing their jobs might feel less inclined to take off work or be more likely to work late to get their work done or make a good impression. In fact, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) hypothesized that material resources earned at work, such as income, enrich family functioning and contributed to work-family enrichment.

Spousal support also may play a role in affecting the work-family variables and psychological functioning and satisfaction with life/love and satisfaction with work. Although we collected data on spousal support, it was eliminated from the study so we could examine more dispositional variables in the model, such as personality. Additional participants would have been needed to examine an additional predictor. Also, in the current study, spousal support had the lowest reliability among all of the variables ($\alpha=.70$). In Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model, they identified social capital resources as "interpersonal relationships in work and family roles that may assist

individuals in achieving their goals” (p. 80) and spousal support seemed to fit this definition well. Future research might examine spousal support as a predictor of work-family-conflict and work-family enrichment. Along similar lines, being married might be a protective factor for these women, possibly explaining the healthy sample in the current study. Future research might examine how being in a committed relationship might protect individuals from work-family conflict and contribute to healthier psychological functioning and satisfaction with life/love.

A possible area of future research also is examining the model with employed mothers who differ on their level of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. It would be interesting to examine the direct effects of the predictors and outcomes with differing levels of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment (e.g., high level of work-family conflict and low level of work-family enrichment, low level of work-family conflict and high level of family-to-work enrichment). This would give researchers and clinicians a better understanding of the work-family interface and ability to focus on when multiple roles lead to distress and when they lead to fulfillment.

Thus, several main findings extend our knowledge about the work-family interface for employed mothers (although the results should be interpreted cautiously). Specifically, work-family enrichment had a robust positive direct effect on work satisfaction. This finding provided support for women who feel that work and family mutually enhance one another, and may lead to satisfaction and happiness with one’s work. Future research might examine mediators and moderators of the relationship, such as the effect of managerial support or job self-efficacy. Clinicians might assess levels of work-family enrichment and satisfaction with work among mothers who feel dissatisfied

at work, as a lack of enrichment could relate to lack of productivity, motivations problems or turnover. In other words, clinicians should assess whether employed mothers feel positively toward the degree to which work and family are mutually enhancing. This finding has possible implications for college counseling centers as well. Counseling centers might have workshops for mothers in college and graduate school that aim at providing information about the relationship between work-family enrichment and satisfaction at work but also help women explore ways to obtain more enrichment from their work-family roles. A workshop like this could be beneficial for women who will be in the job market soon or women who are in the process of changing jobs.

A second important finding was that coping had a robust positive direct effect on both psychological functioning and satisfaction with life/love for this sample of employed mothers, with coping explaining 48% of the variance in psychological functioning and coping explaining 26% of the variance in satisfaction with life/love. In other words, these findings suggest how important problem-focused coping is for positive psychological functioning and satisfaction in life and love for employed mothers. Future research might attempt to replicate these findings, considering the current study examined psychological functioning as a latent variable representing perceived wellness and depression. Additionally, coping related to the latent construct, satisfaction with life/love, expanding our knowledge of the effect of coping on a broader domain of satisfaction. Future research also might consider what variables might mediate the relationship between coping and psychological functioning and satisfaction with life/love, such as engaging in therapy that establishes healthy ways to cope, or engaging in coping skills workshops. Additionally, it might be interesting to examine how partner coping styles

moderate the relationship between coping and satisfaction with life/love. These findings have clinical implications as well. For example, clinicians might assess problem-focused coping, in general, with employed mothers since this specific way of coping had a robust direct effect on psychological functioning and satisfaction with life/love. Even more so, clinicians might teach employed mothers how to engage in more problem-focused coping to improve psychological functioning and satisfaction with life/love.

A third finding was that neuroticism had a moderate positive direct effect on work-family conflict, suggesting the more neurotic features one has the more work-family conflict they might experience. Future research is needed to replicate this finding and to extend the literature by examining other measures of anxiety on work-family conflict. Additionally, it might be interesting to examine coping as moderator of neuroticism and work-family conflict in future studies examining employed mothers. Counselors should assess personality factors when working with employed mothers, especially when the women show characteristics of neuroticism. Personality often is seen as a stable characteristic that cannot be changed, so therapists should attend more to eliminating work-family conflict. Additionally, an area further research might be to continue to examine the possible indirect effect neuroticism has on satisfaction with life/love indirectly through work-family conflict. In the current study, neuroticism related to satisfaction with life/love indirectly through work-family conflict, although the relationship between work-family conflict and satisfaction with life/love was small (and negative; accounting for about 2% of the variance). Clinicians might consider exploring satisfaction with life/love when clients who tend to have “anxious personalities” and report having a hard time maintaining balance in their work and family roles.

Last, agreeableness had a moderate positive direct effect on psychological functioning, suggesting that people who tend to be cooperative, likable, sympathetic, and kind have healthier psychological functioning. Future research might continue to examine this relationship for employed mothers. This finding also might suggest that mothers with agreeable-type personalities may have no need for clinical interventions. Or, a person's agreeable nature might be used in therapy as a source of resilience and strength. This finding, and the one mentioned previously, reflects the importance of examining dispositional factors for samples with employed mothers.

If the results of this study were replicated, counselors could have a more complex picture of employed mothers. Counselors would learn not to focus only on the conflict that is found between work and family roles, but the enrichment that is associated with combining these roles. For example, in the current study, we found that work-family conflict and work-family enrichment had small direct effects on satisfaction with life/love. Although variance accounted for the effect is small (about 2% for both), it might still be important to consider what implications these findings might have for therapy interventions for this sample. In therapy, when employed mothers express dissatisfaction in their life and/or with their partners, we might assess and build their level of work-family enrichment and explore areas of work-family conflict.

Additionally, although having small direct effects and only accounting for between 2-5% of variance (see Figure 4), the relationship between employer sensitivity and the work-family variables was important to consider and may still provide some room for interventions. The current study also found that employer sensitivity was related to satisfaction with life/love indirectly through work-family conflict and work-family

enrichment, suggesting that it might be important to gather information on child care arrangements when working with employed mothers who report dissatisfaction with life and in their relationships. Additionally, employer sensitivity was related to work satisfaction both directly and indirectly through work-family enrichment, suggesting again, that employer sensitivity is important for this population of women. Of course these findings should be interpreted cautiously, but the role of employer support and its relationship to the outcomes might be useful for clinicians in understanding the work-family interface but also might be used for psychoeducational purposes and serve as the impetus for future research.

Additionally, clinicians might consider asking the degree of employer support around child-care issues and for those that do not have employer support, find ways to obtain assistance. For example, role-playing with clients about how they might ask a supervisor for flex-time. Moreover, the results of the current study suggested that work-family enrichment plays a role in the relationship between employer sensitivity and both satisfaction with life/love and work satisfaction. Clinicians might consider not only assessing work-family enrichment with your clients who are employed mothers but also attending to exploring ways in which the client experiences enrichment in their work and family roles. After all, a focus on strengths is consistent with the field of counseling psychology and this study demonstrated that work-family enrichment has a robust positive direct effect on work satisfaction and a significant, although small, direct effect on satisfaction with life/love. Future research might try to replicate these findings but also examine how other employer supports, such as income, supervisor support, and/or

supervisor relationship might contribute to satisfaction with life/love and work satisfaction indirectly through the work-family variables.

Furthermore, the current study has possible implications for public policy if the results are replicated. For example, work-family enrichment had a robust positive direct effect on work satisfaction, highlighting the benefits of enhancing employed mothers enrichment. Organizations might be required to provide workshops for mothers educating them about how important work-family enrichment is for work satisfaction. The workshops might even challenge employed mothers to think about how their families enrich their work and their work enriches their family to provide support for mothers in the workforce. Additionally, although small effects, employer support had a direct effect on work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and satisfaction with work. Satisfaction with work and managerial support related to greater levels of productivity (e.g., Freed, 2004; Sawang, 2010). Family-friendly policies, hours worked per week, and supervisor support was predictive of work-family conflict and supervisor support was related to family-work conflict in one study (Frye & Breugh, 2004), suggesting that employer sensitivity can impact organizations in a positive way (e.g., Sawang, 2010). Also, employer sensitivity can benefit employed mothers in a positive way, as evidenced by the small positive direct effect on work-family enrichment and work satisfaction and negative direct effect on work-family conflict in this study. Organizations might provide support for employed mothers including flexible schedules, providing policies around childcare concerns (such as leave for caring for your child who is sick), providing benefit options for children, and providing access to day-care through the organization or information about day-care facilities in the surrounding area because this study has

shown that employer sensitivity around child-care concerns is related to satisfaction with work and in life/love both directly (to work satisfaction) and indirectly through the work-family variables. If the study was replicated, standard policies around these issues should not be implemented at just the organizational level but nationally.

Moreover, workshops on the direct effect of employer sensitivity on work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and satisfaction at work could be designed and presented to employed mothers and organizations, benefiting the company and the employees. Workshops on the importance of employer support for this population might also benefit new mothers already in the workforce or new mothers about to enter the workforce. Future research might focus on what other variables might strengthen the relationship between employer sensitivity and the work-family variables, such as managerial support, and how implementing policies around flexible schedules, for example, affect work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and satisfaction with work. Another idea for future research would be to examine how work-family conflict and work-family enrichment relates to turnover in organizations.

Conclusion

In conclusion, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) called for researchers to examine the positive effects of combining work and family roles and developed a theoretical model to stimulate such research. Counseling psychologists historically have studied the career development of women with a focus on strength-based models. This study addressed the need to examine both the conflict and enrichment perspectives in the work-family interface, highlighting the importance of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment as distinct concepts. In addition, the findings of this investigation advanced

our knowledge of how personality, coping, and employer sensitivity relates to work-family conflict and work-family enrichment, and how those variables are associated with psychological functioning, satisfaction with life/love, and work satisfaction. One strength of the current sample was the myriad careers reported by the women. Psychologists, social workers, and policy makers can use this research to develop interventions to assist women in managing their work and family roles. Future research should examine other models and investigate the complexity of the work-family interface with diverse and international women to ensure that all people have equal access to professional and personal success and fulfillment.

To conclude, several important direct effects were found that extended our knowledge of the experience of employed mothers. Neuroticism had a moderate positive direct effect on work-family conflict, highlighting the continued importance of examining the effect of personality, in particular neuroticism, on work-family conflict. Work-family enrichment had a robust positive direct effect on work satisfaction. In other words, for a sample of employed mothers, when work-family enrichment increased so did work satisfaction. Coping was directly related to both psychological functioning and satisfaction with life/love, enhancing our knowledge of the impact of coping on happiness and satisfaction for a sample of employed mothers. Last, agreeableness had a moderate positive direct effect on psychological functioning for this sample of educated and healthy employed mothers. No other study, to our knowledge, has examined the paths that were examined in this study. Additionally, much of the work-family interface literature is composed of samples comprising of men and women, therefore not capturing the different experience of mothers.

These findings elucidate our understanding of the work-family interface for a sample of employed mothers, and provide the impetus for future research and possible interventions for this population of women who face multiple challenges (and rewards) from managing both family and work.

Table 1

Demographic Information for Total Final Sample

	N	%
Total Sample	305	
Gender (Total)	305	
Female	305	100
Marital Status (Total)	305	
Married	305	100
Children Under 16 Years Old at Home	305	100
Work Full-Time Outside of Home	305	100
Age	271	$M=37.6$ $(SD=6.5)$
Race (Total)	305	
White	234	76.7
Black/African-American	39	12.8
Hispanic/Latina	12	3.9
Biracial/Multiracial	8	2.6
Asian/Asian-American	6	2.0
American Indian/Alaska Native	1	0.3
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	2	0.7
Black/Caribbean decent	1	0.3
“Other”	2	0.7
Degree of Education (Total)	303	
Bachelor’s Degree	103	33.8
Master’s Degree	96	31.5
Doctoral Degree	54	17.7
Some College	25	8.2
Associate’s Degree	11	3.6
High School/GED	2	0.7
Trade/Vocational Training	1	0.3
‘Other”	11	3.6
Occupations (Top 25)	293	
Teacher	42	13.8
Lawyer	18	5.9
Professor	15	4.9
Counselor	15	4.9
Marketing	10	3.3
Administrator Support	9	3.0
Non-Profit Workers	7	2.3
Human Resources	6	2.0
Social Worker	6	2.0
Researcher	6	2.0
Consultant	6	2.0
Insurance Workers	6	2.0
Editor	6	2.0
University Administrator	6	2.0
Analyst	5	1.6
Nurse	5	1.6
Manager	5	1.6
Physical Therapist	4	1.3
Artist	4	1.3

Office Administrator	4	1.3
Clerical Workers	3	1.0
Physician	3	1.0
Engineer	3	1.0
Accountant	3	1.0
Project Manager	3	1.0
Demographic Region (Total)	304	
Mideast	169	55.4
Southeast	58	19.0
New England	25	8.2
Southwest	9	3.0
Great Lakes	19	6.2
Plains	5	1.6
Rocky Mountain	2	0.7
Far West	14	4.6
“Other”	3	1.0
How Many Children Living at Home (Total)	293	
One	131	43.0
Two	120	39.3
Three	35	11.5
Four	6	2.0
Five	1	0.3
Children with Special Needs (Total)	304	
Yes	38	12.5
No	266	87.2
Child Care Arrangements (Total)	301	
Day-Care Only	88	28.9
Help from Relative/Friends	25	8.2
School Only	54	17.7
Day-Care and School	75	24.6
“Other”	59	19.3
Satisfaction with Childcare (Total)	299	
Extremely Satisfied	184	60.3
Moderately Satisfied	92	30.2
Neutral	19	6.2
Moderately Unsatisfied	3	1.0
Extremely Unsatisfied	1	0.3
Partner’s Employment Status (Total)	303	
Full-Time Outside the Home	262	85.9
Full-Time From Home	15	4.9
Part-Time Outside of Home	6	2.0
Part-Time From Home	7	2.3
Unemployed	13	4.3
Income (\$; Total)	301	
Under 10,000	1	0.3
10,000-19,999	0	0
20,000-29,999	0	0
30,000-39,999	6	2.0

40,000-49,999	7	2.3
50,000-59,999	9	3.0
60,000-69,999	7	2.3
70,000-79,999	17	5.6
80,000-89,999	21	6.9
90,000-99,999	18	5.9
100,000-109,999	32	10.5
110,000-119,999	14	4.6
120,000-129,999	13	4.3
130,000-139,999	20	6.6
140,000-149,999	25	8.2
150,000-199,999	54	17.7
200,000-249,999	25	8.2
250,000-299,999	15	4.9
More than 300,000	17	5.6

Table 2

Bivariate Correlations among Scales and Internal Consistency Estimates, Means, Standard Deviations, Actual Ranges, and Possible Ranges of Measured Variables ($p < .01$).*

Measures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Neuroticism	1															
2. Agreeableness	-.46*	1														
3. Conscientiousness	-.33*	.30*	1													
4. Reactive Coping	-.58*	.38*	.34*	1												
5. Suppressing Coping	-.42*	.24*	.49*	.60*	1											
6. Reflective Coping	-.28*	.15*	.33*	.21*	.41*	1										
7. Employer Sensitivity	-.12	.12	.09	.08	.04	.11	1									
8. WIF Conflict	.30*	-.19*	-.22*	-.17*	-.29*	-.12	-.24*	1								
9. FIW Conflict	.31*	-.25*	-.22*	-.20*	-.20*	-.05	-.13*	.62*	1							
10. WIF Enrichment	-.21*	.16*	.14	.13	.20*	.16*	.18*	-.18*	-.08	1						
11. FIW Enrichment	-.17*	.21*	.26*	.15*	.21*	.27*	-.05	-.00	-.09	.39*	1					
12. Perceived Wellness	-.50*	.45*	.37*	.47*	.51*	.40*	.15*	-.23*	-.28*	.27*	.36*	1				
13. Depression	.44*	-.24*	-.27*	-.45*	-.48*	-.25*	-.17*	.30*	.30*	-.21*	-.16*	-.56*	1			
14. Life Satisfaction	-.33*	.20*	.22*	.32*	.38*	.29*	.15*	-.39*	-.35*	.39*	.28*	.53*	-.48*	1		
15. Relationship Satisfaction	-.25*	.21*	.16*	.24*	.27*	.25*	.04	-.22*	-.18*	.23*	.27*	.37*	-.38*	.61*	1	
16. Work Satisfaction	-.24*	.20*	.18*	.24*	.26*	.15	.28*	-.20*	-.04	.60*	.12	.29*	-.28*	.36*	.13	1
Mean	22.39	35.64	35.76	17.08	23.34	25.55	26.90	23.43	19.37	32.70	35.32	169.51	30.39	23.13	27.18	27.22
Standard Deviation	5.64	5.00	5.91	4.21	4.67	5.02	5.96	5.34	5.38	6.04	5.54	20.93	8.18	5.33	6.32	5.87
Actual Range	8-38	17-45	13-45	6-25	9-30	10-35	8-37	9-36	7-34	12-45	18-45	116-214	20-73	6-33	7-35	6-35
Possible Range	8-40	9-45	9-45	5-25	6-30	7-35	7-35	7-35	7-35	9-45	9-45	36-216	20-80	5-35	7-35	5-35
Alpha	.79	.77	.84	.79	.83	.84	.86	.83	.85	.91	.85	.90	.89	.82	.93	.87

Table 3

Goodness of Fit Indices for the Models

	SB χ^2 (df)	P	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Proposed Indirect Effects Model	2839.549 (714)	<.001	.868	.099	.124
Proposed Direct and Indirect Effects Model	2622.215 (701)	<.001	.879	.095	.097
Modified Indirect Effects Model	1722.648 (709)	<.001	.934	.069	.120
Modified Direct and Indirect Effects Model	1528.727 (696)	<.001	.944	.063	.090

Note: SB χ^2 = Santorra-Bentler scales chi-square, CFI= comparative fit index, RMSEA= root mean square error of approximation, SRMR=standardized root-mean-square residual

Table 4

Error Terms Values Allowed to Correlate

		Modification Indices (Theta-EPS)
Family-to-Work Enrichment Parcel 1	Family-to-Work Enrichment Parcel 2	219.462
Family-to-Work Enrichment Parcel 1	Family-to-Work Enrichment Parcel 3	213.013
Family-to-Work Enrichment Parcel 2	Family-to-Work Enrichment Parcel 3	212.714
Depression Parcel 1	Depression Parcel 2	168.317
Satisfaction with Life Parcel 1	Satisfaction with Life Parcel 2	130.218

Table 5

Completely Standardized Factor Loadings for the Final Modified Direct and Indirect Effects Model

Construct and observed indicators	Completely Standardized Factor Loadings
Work-to-Family Conflict Parcel 1	.859*
Work-to-Family Conflict Parcel 2	.676*
Work-to-Family Conflict Parcel 3	.835*
Family-to-Work Conflict Parcel 1	.713*
Family-to-Work Conflict Parcel 2	.673*
Family-to-Work Conflict Parcel 3	.596*
Work-to-Family Enrichment Parcel 1	.951*
Work-to-Family Enrichment Parcel 2	.882*
Work-to-Family Enrichment Parcel 3	.944*
Family-to-Work Enrichment Parcel 1	.397*
Family-to-Work Enrichment Parcel 2	.408*
Family-to-Work Enrichment Parcel 3	.452*
Perceived Wellness Parcel 1	.954*
Perceived Wellness Parcel 2	.900*
Depression Parcel 1	-.641*
Depression Parcel 2	-.495*
Relationship Satisfaction Parcel 1	.937*
Relationship Satisfaction Parcel 2	.954*
Satisfaction with Life Parcel 1	.563*
Satisfaction with Life Parcel 2	.635*
Work Satisfaction Item 1	.791*
Work Satisfaction Item 2	.900*
Work Satisfaction Item 3	.466*
Work Satisfaction Item 4	.894*

Work Satisfaction Item 5	.733*
Neuroticism Parcel 1	.751*
Neuroticism Parcel 2	.777*
Neuroticism Parcel 3	.744*
Agreeableness Parcel 1	.760*
Agreeableness Parcel 2	.556*
Agreeableness Parcel 3	.744*
Conscientiousness Parcel 1	.806*
Conscientiousness Parcel 2	.832*
Conscientiousness Parcel 3	.809*
Reflective Coping	.476*
Suppressive Coping	.780*
Reactive Coping	.710*
Employer Sensitivity Parcel 1	.892*
Employer Sensitivity Parcel 2	.812*
Employer Sensitivity Parcel 3	.693*

*p < .05

Table 6

Structural Parameters for Final Modified Direct and Indirect Effects Model (Beta and Gamma)

	WFC	WFE	N	A	C	Coping	ES
WFC	--	--	.436*	.035	-.132	-.002	-.173*
WFE	--	--	-.110	.144	.035	.027	.101*
Psych Functioning	-.005	.076	.040	.416*	-.131	.172*	--
Satisfaction with Life/Love	-.178*	.219*	.276	.348*	-.300	.195*	--
Work Satisfaction	.105	1.085*	-.123	-.008	-.053	.069	.232*

* p < .05

Note: WFC= Work-Family Conflict, WFE=Work-Family Enrichment, Psych Functioning=Psychological Functioning, N=Neuroticism, A=Agreeableness, C=Conscientiousness, ES=Employer Sensitivity

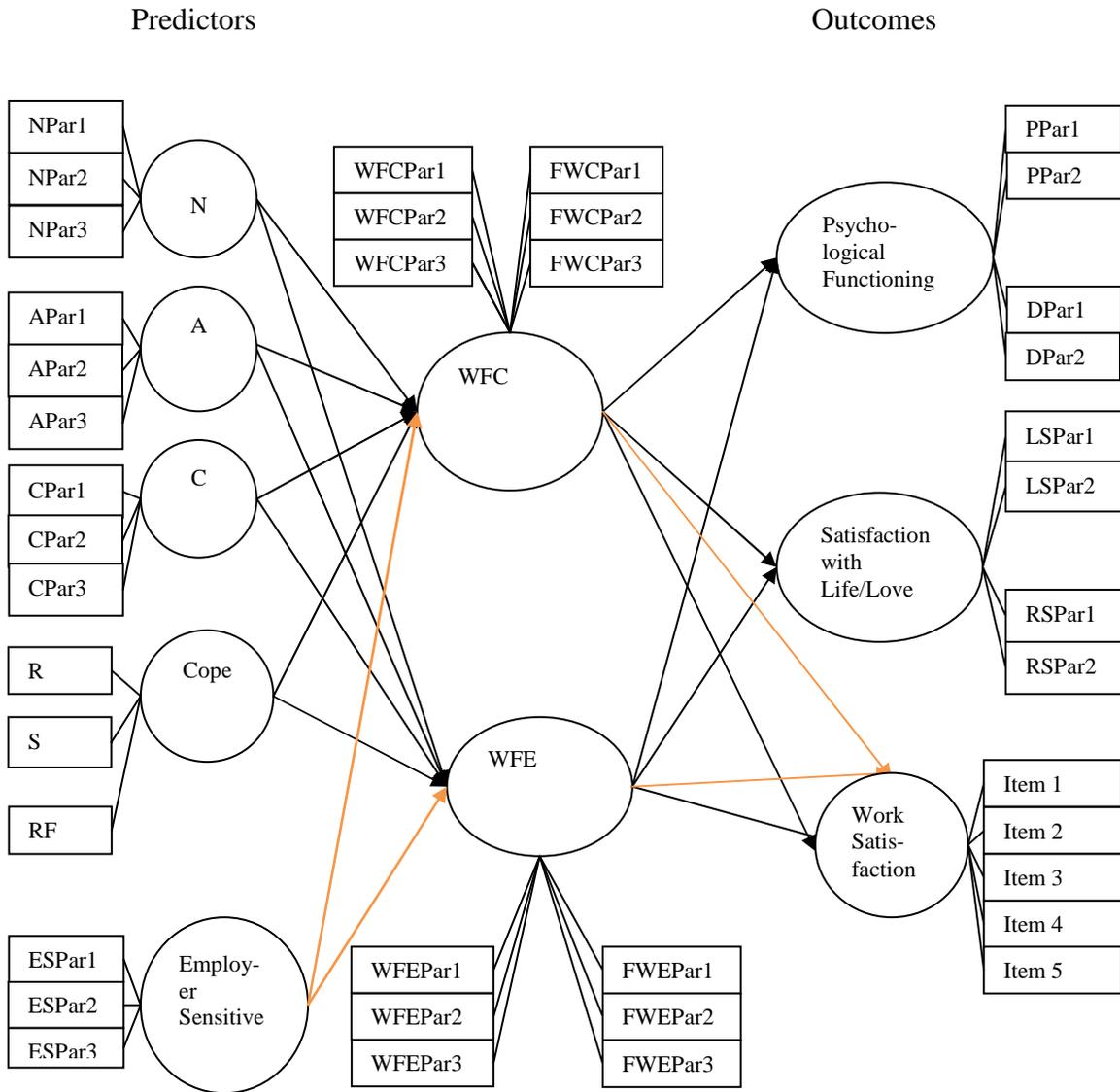
Table 7

Exogenous Factor Variances and Covariances Direct and Indirect Effects Model (Predictor variables-Phi)

	Neuroticism	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Coping	Employer Sensitivity
Neuroticism	.320*	--	--	--	--
Agreeableness	-.135*	.208*	--	--	--
Conscientiousness	-.134*	.098*	.347*	--	--
Coping	-.989*	.424*	.898*	5.710*	--
Employer Sensitivity	-.069*	.060*	.054	.215	.759*

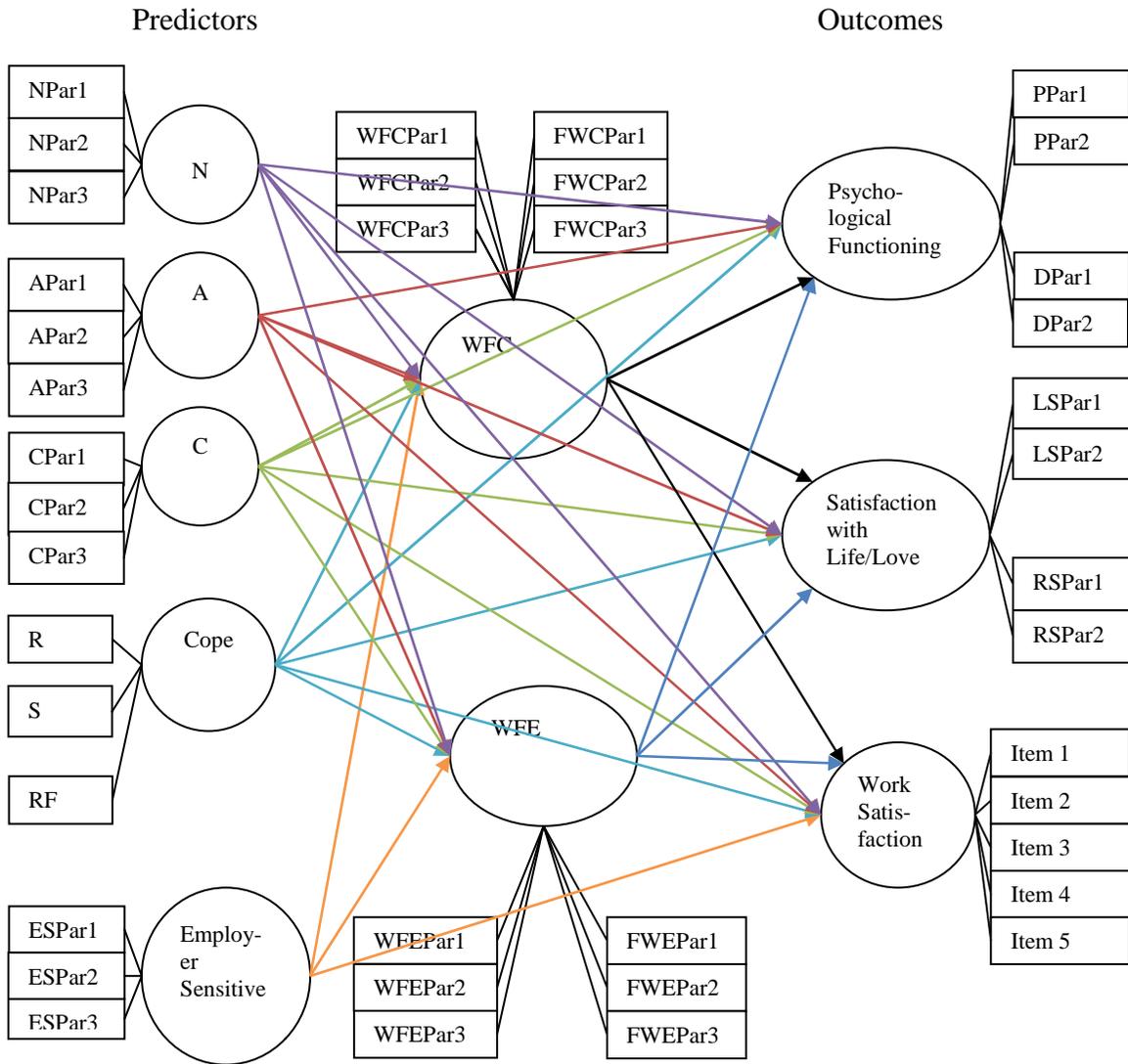
p < .05

Figure 1. Proposed Indirect Effects Model



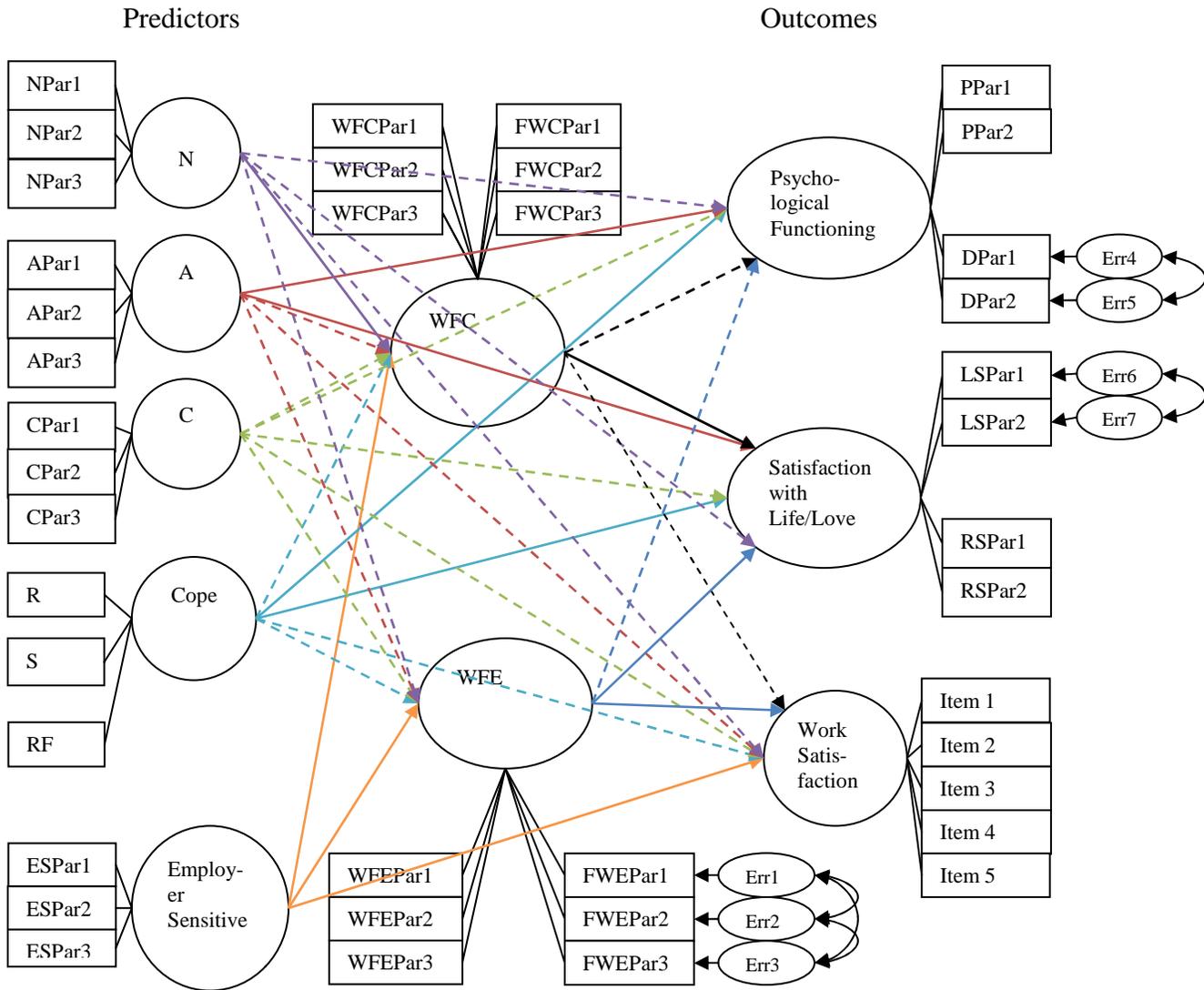
Note. A=Agreeableness, APar (1,2,3)=Agreeableness Parcels, C=Conscientiousness, CPar (1,2,3)=Conscientiousness Parcels, N=Neuroticism, NPar (1,2,3)=Neuroticism Parcels, Cope=Coping, RF=Reflective Style Scale, S=Suppressive Style Scale, R=Reactive Style Scale, Employer Sensitive=Employer Sensitivity, ESPar (1,2,3)=Employer Sensitivity Parcels, WFC=Work-Family Conflict, WFCPar (1,2,3)=Work-to-Family Conflict Parcels, FWCPAr (1,2,3)=Family-to-Work Conflict Parcels, WFE=Work-Family Enrichment, WFEPAr (1,2,3)=Work-to-Family Enrichment Parcels, FWEPar (1,2,3)=Family-to-Work Enrichment Parcels, PPar (1,2)= Perceived Wellness Parcels, DPar (1,2)= The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Parcels, LSPar (1,2)= Satisfaction with Life Parcels, RSPar (1,2)=Relationship Satisfaction Parcels, Work Satisfaction=Index of Job Satisfaction Scale (Items)

Figure 2. Direct and Indirect Effects Model.



Note. A=Agreeableness, APar (1,2,3)=Agreeableness Parcels, C=Conscientiousness, CPar (1,2,3)=Conscientiousness Parcels, N=Neuroticism, NPar (1,2,3)=Neuroticism Parcels, Cope=Coping, RF=Reflective Style Scale, S=Suppressive Style Scale, R=Reactive Style Scale, Employer Sensitive=Employer Sensitivity, ESPar (1,2,3)=Employer Sensitivity Parcels, WFC=Work-Family Conflict, WFCPar (1,2,3)=Work-to-Family Conflict Parcels, FWCPar (1,2,3)=Family-to-Work Conflict Parcels, WFE=Work-Family Enrichment, WFEPar (1,2,3)=Work-to-Family Enrichment Parcels, FWEPar (1,2,3)=Family-to-Work Enrichment Parcels, PPar (1,2)= Perceived Wellness Parcels, DPar (1,2)= The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Parcels, LSPar (1,2)= Satisfaction with Life Parcels, RSPar (1,2)=Relationship Satisfaction Parcels, Work Satisfaction=Index of Job Satisfaction Scale (Items)

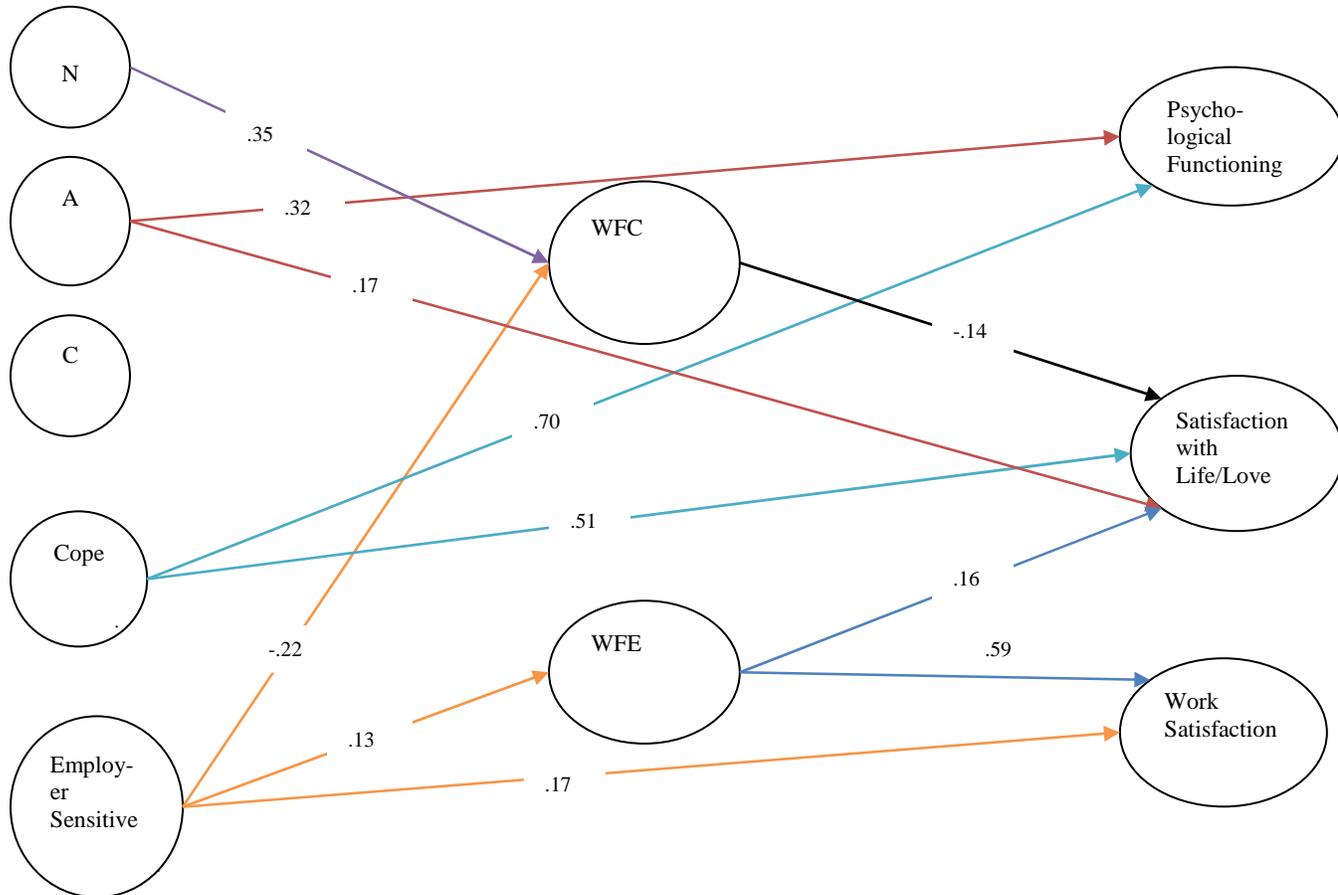
Figure 3. Final Direct and Indirect Effects Model.



Note. Circles represent latent constructs. Rectangle boxes represent item parcels and/or measured variables. Solid arrow-headed connecting latent factors to other latent factors represent significant structural loadings. Dotted arrow-headed straight lines represent hypothesized structural loadings that were not significant in the final model. Small circles with the letters “Err” with curved arrows represent error term values allowed to correlate (model modification). A=Agreeableness, APar (1,2,3)=Agreeableness Parcels, C=Conscientiousness, CPar (1,2,3)= Conscientiousness Parcels, N=Neuroticism, NPar (1,2,3)=Neuroticism Parcels, Cope=Coping, RF=Reflective Style Scale, S=Suppressive Style Scale, R=Reactive Style Scale, Employer Sensitive=Employer Sensitivity, ESPar (1,2,3)=Employer Sensitivity Parcels, WFC=Work-Family Conflict, WFCPar (1,2,3)=Work-to-Family Conflict Parcels, FWCPAr (1,2,3)=Family-to-Work Conflict Parcels, WFE=Work-Family Enrichment, WFEPAr (1,2,3)=Work-to-Family Enrichment Parcels, FWEPAr (1,2,3)=Family-to-Work Enrichment Parcels, PPar (1,2)= Perceived

Wellness Parcels, DPar (1,2)= The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Parcels,
LSPar (1,2)= Satisfaction with Life Parcels, RSPar (1,2)=Relationship Satisfaction
Parcels, Work Satisfaction=Index of Job Satisfaction Scale (Items)

Figure 4. Final Direct and Indirect Model with Only Significant Structural Loadings Represented.



Note. Circles represent latent constructs. Solid arrow-headed connecting latent factors to other latent factors represent significant structural loadings. A=Agreeableness, C=Conscientiousness, N=Neuroticism, Cope=Coping, Employer Sensitive=Employer Sensitivity, WFC=Work-Family Conflict, WFE=Work-Family Enrichment. All of the reported parameter estimates were statistically significant.

Appendix A

Consent Form

Page 1 of 2

Initials _____ Date _____

CONSENT FORM

Project Title	Work-family experiences among employed mothers.
Why is this research being done?	This is a research project being conducted by Heather Ganginis and Dr. Karen O'Brien from the University of Maryland, College Park. We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you are at least 18 years old, you are employed, and you are a mother of at least one child who is less than 18 years old. The purpose of this research project is to advance knowledge about work-family experiences. This study is important because it will advance knowledge regarding the lives of employed mothers and inform counseling interventions for those working with employed mothers.
What will I be asked to do?	Your participation will involve completing a survey. The survey takes most people approximately 35 minutes to complete. The survey will ask questions about your experiences and attitudes relating to career, family, and yourself. You are free to end your participation in this study at any time.
What about confidentiality?	We will do our best to keep your personal information confidential. To help protect your confidentiality, (1) your name will not be included on the surveys and other collected data; (2) a code will be placed on the survey and other collected data; (3) through the use of an identification key, the researcher will be able to link your survey to your identity; and (4) only the researcher will have access to the identification key. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected to the maximum extent possible.
What are the risks of this research?	There are no known risks associated with participating in this research project. However, feelings may come up for you while filling out some of the measures. If you have any questions or concerns, you can find a therapist in your area at www.psychologytoday.com . Also, if you would like to talk to someone staffing a crisis line, you can call 1-800-273-TALK (8255).
What are the benefits of this research?	This research is not designed to help you personally, but the results may help the investigators learn more about women's career development. We hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study through improved understanding of employed mothers' experiences.

Appendix A cont.
Consent Form

Page 2 of 2
Initials _____ Date _____

Project Title	Work-family experiences among employed mothers.
Do I have to be in this research? May I stop participating at any time?	Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.
What if I have questions?	<p>This research is being conducted by Heather Ganginis and Dr. Karen O'Brien, Department of Psychology, at the University of Maryland, College Park. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Heather Ganginis at: hganginis@psyc.umd.edu or Dr. O'Brien at kobrien@psyc.umd.edu.</p> <p>If you have questions about your rights as a research subject or wish to report a research-related injury, please contact: Institutional Review Board Office, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, 20742; (e-mail) irb@deans.umd.edu; (telephone) 301-405-0678</p> <p>This research has been reviewed according to the University of Maryland, College Park IRB procedures for research involving human subjects.</p>
Statement of Age of Subject and Consent	<p>Clicking on the link below indicates that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> You are at least 18 years of age; The research has been explained to you; Your questions have been fully answered; and You freely and voluntarily choose to participate in this research project.

Website link inserted here

Appendix B

Work-Family Conflict Scale (Guteck et al., 1991)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I need to do at home.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. My personal responsibilities take time that I could have invested in work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I am so busy at work that I do not have time for my personal responsibilities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. My family and personal responsibilities interfere with my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. I'm concerned about my work even when I'm at home.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I'm usually too tired when I arrive at work because of my responsibilities at home.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. My work takes time that I would prefer to spend with my family.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. I'm concerned about my family life when I'm at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. The time I invest in my work makes it difficult to fulfill my family obligations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. The time I invest in my family makes it difficult to fulfill my work obligations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. My work interferes with my family life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. The effort needed to fulfill my family responsibilities makes it difficult for me to complete my work tasks.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. The effort needed to complete my work tasks makes it difficult for me to fulfill my family responsibilities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. My family life interferes with my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix C

Work-Family Enrichment Scale (Carlson et al., 2006)

Instructions:

To respond to the items that follow, mentally insert each item into the sentence where indicated. Then indicate your agreement with the entire statement using the scale provided below.

Please note that in order for you to strongly agree (4 or 5) with an item you must agree with the full statement. Take for example the first statement:

My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.

To strongly agree, you would need to agree that (1) your work involvement helps you to understand different viewpoints AND (2) that these different viewpoints transfer to home making you a better family member.

	(1) Strongly Disagree	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5) Strongly Agree
MY INVOLVEMENT IN MY WORK...	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1. Helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
MY INVOLVEMENT IN MY FAMILY...	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Strongly Disagree (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Strongly Agree (5)
13. Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
14. Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
15. Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
16. Requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
17. Encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
18. Causes me to be more focused at work and this helps me be a better worker.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Appendix D

The Big Five Inventory (BFI; John et al., 1991)

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please check a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

	Disagree Strongly (1)	Disagree a Little (2)	Neither Agree not Disagree (3)	Agree a Little (4)	Agree Strongly (5)
1. Is talkative	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Tends to find fault with others	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Does a thorough job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Is depressed, blue	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Is original, comes up with new ideas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Is reserved	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Is helpful and unselfish with others	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Can be somewhat careless	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Is relaxed, handles stress well	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Is curious about many different things	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Is full of energy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Starts quarrels with others	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Is a reliable worker	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Can be tense	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Is ingenious, a deep thinker	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Generates a lot of enthusiasm	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Has a forgiving nature	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Tends to be disorganized	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. Worries a lot	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Has an active imagination	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Disagree Strongly (1)	Disagree a Little (2)	Neither Agree not Disagree (3)	Agree a Little (4)	Agree Strongly (5)
21. Tends to be quiet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Is generally trusting	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. Tends to be lazy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Is emotionally stable	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Is inventive	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. Has an assertive personality	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. Can be cold and aloof	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. Perseveres until the task is finished	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. Can be moody	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. Values artistic, aesthetic experiences	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. Is sometimes shy, inhibited	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. Is considerate and kind to almost everyone	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. Does things efficiently	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. Remains calm in tense situations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. Prefers work that is routine	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36. Is outgoing, sociable	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. Is sometimes rude to others	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. Makes plans and follows through with them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. Gets nervous easily	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40. Likes to reflect, play with others	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Disagree Strongly (1)	Disagree a Little (2)	Neither Agree not Disagree (3)	Agree a Little (4)	Agree Strongly (5)
41. Has few artistic interests	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42. Likes to cooperate with others	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43. Is easily distracted	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44. Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix E

Problem-Focused Style of Coping Scale (PF-SOC; Heppner et al., 1995)

This measure contains statements about how people think, feel, or behave as they attempt to solve personal difficulties ...like feeling depressed, getting along with friends, choosing a vocation. . . In considering how you deal with such problems, think about successful and unsuccessful outcomes, and what hinders or helps you in solving these problems.

Respond in a way that most accurately reflects how you actually think, feel, and behave when solving personal problems rather than how you think you should respond.

Indicate how frequently you do what is described in each item.

	Almost Never (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Almost All the Time (5)
1. I am not really sure what I think or believe about my problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
2. I don't sustain my actions long enough to really solve my problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
3. I think about ways that I solved similar problems in the past.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
4. I identify the causes of my emotions, which helps me identify and solve my problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
5. I feel so frustrated that I just give up doing any work on my problems at all.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
6. I consider the short-term and long-term consequences of each possible solution to my problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
7. I get preoccupied thinking about my problems and overemphasize some parts of them.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
8. I continue to feel uneasy about my problems, which tells me I need to do some more work.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	Almost	(2)	(3)	(4)	Almost

	Never (1)				All the Time (5)
9. My old feelings get in the way of solving current problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
10. I spend my time doing unrelated chores and activities instead of acting on my problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
11. I think ahead, which enables me to anticipate and prepare for problems before they rise.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
12. I think my problems through in a systematic way.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
13. I misread another person's motives and feelings without checking with the person to see if my conclusions are correct.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
14. I get in touch with my feelings to identify and work on problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
15. I act too quickly, which makes my problems worse.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
16. I have a difficult time concentrating on my problems (i.e., my mind wanders).	<input type="checkbox"/>				
17. I have alternate plans for solving my problems in case my first attempt does not work.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
18. I avoid even thinking about my problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Appendix F

The Employer Sensitivity Scale (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997)

How satisfied do you feel with each of the aspects described below?

- 1=Extremely dissatisfied
- 2=Moderately dissatisfied
- 3=Can't decide
- 4=Moderately satisfied
- 5=Extremely satisfied

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Your supervisor's willingness to let you leave early from or arrive late to work due to child care needs.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
2. Your organization's benefits and formal policies with regard to child care.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
3. Your supervisor's attitude toward your missing work due to your child's illness.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
4. Your organization's overall attitude toward your child care needs.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
5. The degree of flexibility in your hours at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
6. Your organization's child care benefits.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
7. Your supervisor's attitude toward phone calls relating specifically to child care needs.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Appendix G

The Perceived Wellness Survey (Harari et al., 2005)

Instructions: The following statements are designed to provide information about your wellness perceptions. Please carefully and thoughtfully consider each statement, then select *one* response option with which you most agree.

	(1) Very Strongly Disagree	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6) Very Strongly Agree
1. I am always optimistic about my future.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. There have been times when I felt inferior to most of the people I knew.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Members of my family come to me for support.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. My physical health has restricted me in the past.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. I believe there is a real purpose in life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I will always seek out activities that challenge me to think and reason.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I rarely count on good things happening to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. In general, I feel confident about my abilities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Sometimes I wonder if my family will really be there for me when I am in need.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. My body seems to resist physical illness very well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Very Strongly Disagree (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	Very Strongly Agree (6)
11. Life does not hold much future promise for me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. I avoid activities which require me to concentrate.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. I always look on the bright side of things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. I sometimes think I am a worthless individual.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. My friends know they can always confide in me and ask for advice.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. My physical health is excellent.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Sometimes I don't understand what life is all about.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Generally, I feel pleased with the amount of intellectual stimulation I receive in my daily life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. In the past, I have expected the best.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. I am uncertain about my ability to do things well in the future.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	(1) Very Strongly Disagree	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6) Very Strongly Agree
21. My family has	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

been available to support me in the past.						
22. Compared to people I know, my past physical health has been excellent.	<input type="checkbox"/>					
23. I feel a sense of mission about my future.	<input type="checkbox"/>					
24. The amount of information that I process in a typical day is just about right for me (i.e., not [too much, not too little]).	<input type="checkbox"/>					
25. In the past, I hardly ever expected things to go my way.	<input type="checkbox"/>					
26. I will always be secure with who I am.	<input type="checkbox"/>					
27. In the past, I have not always had friends with whom I can share my joy and sorrows.	<input type="checkbox"/>					
28. I expect always to be physically healthy.	<input type="checkbox"/>					
29. I felt in the past that my life was meaningless.	<input type="checkbox"/>					
30. In the past, I have generally found intellectual challenges to be vital to my overall well-being.	<input type="checkbox"/>					

	(1) Very Strongly Disagree	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6) Very Strongly Agree
31. Things will not work out the way I want them to in the future.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. In the past, I have felt sure of myself among strangers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. My friends will be there for me when I need help.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. I expect my physical health to get worse.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. It seems that my life has always had purpose.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36. My life has often seemed devoid of positive mental stimulation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix H

The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D Scale; Radloff, 1977)

Instructions for Questions: Below is a list of the ways you might have felt or behaved. Please tell me how often you have felt this way during the past week.

During the past week:	Rarely or None of the Time (Less than 1 day)	Some or a Little of the Time (1-2 days)	Occasionally or a Moderate Amount of Time (3-4 days)	Most or All of the Time (5-7 days)
1. I was bothered by things that usually don't bother me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I did not feel like eating; my appetite was poor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I felt that I could not shake off the blues even with the help from my family or friends.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I felt that I was just as good as other people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. I had trouble keeping my mind on what I was doing.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I felt depressed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I felt that everything I did was an effort.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. I felt hopeful about the future.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I thought my life had been a failure.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I felt fearful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. My sleep was restless.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. I was happy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. I talked less than usual.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. I felt lonely.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. People were unfriendly.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. I enjoyed life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. I had crying spells.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. I felt sad.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. I felt that people dislike me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. I could not get "going."	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix I

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

Below are 5 statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the 1 to 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Slightly Disagree (3)	Neither Agree or Disagree (4)	Slightly Agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I am satisfied with my life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix J

The Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS; Hendrick, 1988)

Please mark in the box for each item which best answers that item for you. Use the scale above the item for the rating.

	Poorly (1)	(2)	Average (3)	(4)	Extremely Well (5)
1. How well does your partner meet your needs?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	Unsatisfied (1)	(2)	Average (3)	(4)	Extremely Satisfied (5)
2. In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	Poor (1)	(2)	Average (3)	(4)	Excellent (5)
3. How good is your relationship compared to most?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	Never (1)	(2)	Average (3)	(4)	Very Often (5)
4. How often do you wish you hadn't gotten into this relationship?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	Hardly at All (1)	(2)	Average (3)	(4)	Completely (5)
5. To what extent has your relationship met your original expectations?	<input type="checkbox"/>				

	Not Much (1)	(2)	Average (3)	(4)	Very Much (5)
6. How much do you love your partner?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	Very Few (1)	(2)	Average (3)	(4)	Very Many (5)
7. How many problems are there in your relationship?	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Appendix K

Index of Job Satisfaction (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951)

Index of Job Satisfaction

Please check one answer to each of the following statements based on this scale:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Slightly Disagree (3)	Unsure (4)	Slightly Agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
1. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
2. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
3. Each day of work seems like it will never end.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
4. I find real enjoyment in my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
5. I consider my job rather unpleasant.	<input type="checkbox"/>						

Appendix L

The Spousal Support Scale (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997)

How satisfied do you feel with each of the aspects described below?

- 1=Extremely dissatisfied
- 2=Moderately dissatisfied
- 3=Can't decide
- 4=Moderately satisfied
- 5=Extremely satisfied

	1	2	3	4	5
1. The degree of emotional support from your spouse with regard to your role as mother/employee.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
2. The degree of financial support from your child's father.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
3. The degree of support from your spouse with regard to child care.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
4. The degree of help from your spouse in with regard to housekeeping tasks.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Appendix M

Demographic Questionnaire

Demographics

1) Age ____

2) 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
- Biracial/Multiracial
- Other _____

3) Please select the box that corresponds to your total (before tax) household income (*you and your partner combined*).

- Below 10,000
- 10,000-19,999
- 20,000-29,999
- 30,000-39,999
- 40,000-49,999
- 50,000-59,999
- 60,000-69,999
- 70,000-79,999
- 80,000-89,999
- 90,000-99,999
- 100,000-109,999
- 110,000-119,999
- 120,000-129,999
- 130,000-139,999
- 140,000-149,999
- 150,000-199,999
- 200,000-249,999
- 250,000-299,999
- More than 300,000

4) Highest level of education that you completed

- Middle School
- Some High School
- High School/ GED
- Trade/ Vocational

- Some College
- Associates
- Bachelors
- Masters
- Doctorate
- Other (if applicable)_____

5) 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)

If you live outside the U.S., which country?

6) Number of children living in household _____

7) How many children do you have? _____

Please fill in the table below:

	Gender (M/F)	Age	Special Needs (Check if applies)	Please Specify Special Needs if Applicable
Child 1				
Child 2				
Child 3				
Child 4				

8) What is your current occupation? _____

9) Partner's 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

10) What are your child care arrangements?

- Day-care only
- Help from relatives/friends
- School only
- Day care and School
- Other

If other, what are your childcare arrangements? _____

11) What is the level of satisfaction with your childcare?

- Extremely Satisfied
- Moderately Satisfied
- Neutral
- Moderately Unsatisfied
- Extremely Unsatisfied

Appendix N

Email Advertisement

WORKING MOTHERS, WE WANT TO HEAR YOUR VOICE!



Are you a married, working mother with at least one child under the age of 16 living at home?

Would you be willing to complete a survey about work, family, parenting, and well being?

If yes, click on the link below to take a survey (conducted by researchers at the University of Maryland). There will be a raffle to win an American Express Gift Card.

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=3RRYoYHDKnODfBJ4u3nvBQ_3d_3d

Please forward this email to other working moms you know!

THANK YOU!

Questions?

Heather Ganginis, M.S. University of Maryland, College Park
Biology-Psychology Building, College Park, Maryland 20742
301-537-5346; hganginis@psyc.umd.edu

Dr. Karen O'Brien, University of Maryland, College Park
Biology-Psychology Building, Department of Psychology, College Park, Maryland
20742
301-405-5812; kobrien@psyc.umd.edu

Institutional Review Board Office, University of Maryland, College Park
Department of Psychology, College Park, Maryland 20742
301-405-0678; irb@deans.umd.edu

Appendix O
Inclusion Questions

1). Gender

- Female
- Male

2). What is your relationship status?

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

3). I have at least one child under the age of 16 years old living at home.

- yes
- no

4). What is your current employment status?

- Full-time (working from outside home more than 32 hours/week)
- Full-time (working from home more than 32 hours/week)
- Part-time (working outside home less than 32 hours/week)
- Part-time (working from home less than 32 hours/week)
- Currently unemployed

References

- Adams, T. (1995). The conceptualization and measurement of wellness (Doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin, 1995). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 56, 06B.
- Adams, G. A., King, L. A., & King, D. W. (1996). Relationships of job and family involvement, family social support, and work-family conflict with job and life satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 411-420.
- Ahmad, A. (1996). Work-family conflict among married professional women in Malaysia. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 136, 663-665.
- Allen, T. D., Herst, D. E., Bruck, C. S., & Sutton, M. (2000). Consequences associate with work-to-family conflict: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 278-308.
- Aluja, A., García, Ó., García, L. F. (2003). Psychometric properties of the Zuckerman Kuhlman Personality Questionnaire (ZKPQ-III-R): A study of a shortened form. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 34(7), 1083-1097
- Aryee, S. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict among married professional women: Evidence from Singapore. *Human Relations*, 45, 813-837.
- Aryee, S., & Luk, V. (1996). Work and nonwork influences on the career satisfaction of dual-earner couples. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49(1), 38-52.

- Aryee, S., Luk, V., Leung, A., & Lo, S. (1999). Role stressors, interrole conflict, and well-being: The moderating influence of spousal support and coping behaviors among employed parents in Hong Kong. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 54*, 259–278.
- Aycan, Z., & Eskin, M. (2005). Relative contributions of childcare, spousal support, and organizational support in reducing work-family conflict for men and women: The case of Turkey. *Sex Roles, 53* (7-8), 453-471.
- Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Burke, R. (2009). Workaholism and relationship quality: A spillover-crossover perspective. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 14*(1), 23-33.
- Banyard, V. L., & Graham-Bermann, S. A. (1993). Can women cope? A gender analysis of theories of coping with stress. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 17*, 303-318.
- Barling, J., & Sorensen, D. (1997). Work and family: In search of a relevant research agenda. In C.L. Cooper & S.E. Jackson (Eds.), *Creating tomorrow's organizations*: 157-169. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Barnett, R. C. (1994). Home-to-work spillover revisited: A study of full-time employed women in dual-earner couples. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 56*, 647-656.
- Barnett, R. C. (1998). Toward a review and reconceptualization of the work/family literature. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs, 124*, 125-182.

- Barnett, R., & Hyde, J. (2001). Women, men, work, and family. *American Psychologist, 56*, 781-796.
- Barnett, R., Marshall, N., Raudenbush, S., & Brennan, R. (1993). Gender and the relationship between job experiences and psychological distress: A study of dual-earner couples. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 64*, 794-806.
- Barnett, R., Marshall, N., & Sayer, A. (1992). Positive spillover effects from job to home: A closer look. *Women and Health, 19*, 13-41.
- Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The Big Five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 44*, 1-26.
- Bartolome, F., & Evans, P. A. L. (1979). Professional lives versus private lives
Shifting patterns of managerial commitment. *Organizational Dynamics, 7(4)*, 3-29.
- Bedian, A. G., Burke, B. G., & Moffett, R. G. (1988). Outcomes of work-family conflict among married male and female professionals. *Journal of Management, 14*, 475-491.
- Bentler, P. M. (1990). Qualitative Methods in Psychology: Comparative fit indexes in structural modeling. *Psychological Bulletin, 107 (2)*, 238-246.
- Betz, N. (2006). Basic issues and concepts in the career development and counseling of women. In W. B. Walsh, & S. H. Osipow (Eds.), *Handbook of Career Counseling for Women* (pp. 45-74). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Beutell, N. J., & Greenhaus, J. H. (1983). Integration of home and nonhome roles: Women's conflict and coping behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68(1)*, 43-48.

- Beutell, N. J., & Greenhaus, J. H. (1982). Interrole conflict among married women: The influence of husband and wife characteristics on conflict and coping behavior. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 21*(1), 99-110.
- Brayfield, A. H., & Rothe, H. F. (1951). An index of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 35*, 307–311.
- Bianchi, S. M., Robinson, J. P., & Milkie, M. A. (2006). *Changing rhythms of American family life*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Blanch, A., & Aluja, A. (2009). Work, family, and personality: A study of work family conflict. *Personality and Individual Differences, 46*, 520-524.
- Bollen, K. A. (1998). *Structural equations with latent variables*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Booth-Kewley, S., & Vickers Jr., R. R. (1994). Associations between major domains of personality and health behavior. *Journal of Personality, 62* (3), 281–298.
- Borgen, F. H., & Barnett, D. C. (1987). Applying cluster analysis in counseling psychology research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 34*, 456-468.
- Bond, J. T., Galinsky, E., & Swanberg, J. E. (1998). *The 1997 national study of the changing workforce*. New York: Families and Work Institute.
- Boyer S. C., & Mosley, Jr., D. C. (2007). The relationship between core self evaluations and work and family satisfaction: The mediating role of work-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 71*(2), 265-281.
- Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. A. Bollen & J. S. Long (Eds.), *Testing structural equation models* (pp. 136–162). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

- Brownson, C. & Gilbert, L. A. (2002). The development of the Discourses about Fathers Inventory: Measuring fathers' perceptions of their exposure to discourses. *Psychology of Men and Masculinity, 3*(2), 97-106.
- Bruck, C. S., & Allen, T. D. (2003). The relationship between big five personality traits, negative affectivity, type A behavior, and work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 63*, 457-472.
- Buffardi, L. C., & Erdwins, C. J. (1997). Child-care satisfaction: Linkages to work attitudes, interrole conflict, and maternal separation anxiety. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 2*(1), 84-96.
- Burke, R. J., & Greenglass, E. R. (2001). Hospital restructuring stressors, work family concerns and psychological well-being among nursing staff. *Community, Work, and Family, 4* (1), 49-62.
- Burley, K. (1989). *Work-family conflict and marital adjustment in dual career couples: A comparison of three time models*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Claremont Graduate School, Claremont, CA.
- Byrne, B. M. (1996). *Measuring self-concept across the life span: Issues and instrumentation*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Byron, K. (2005). A meta-analytic review of work-family conflict and its antecedents. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 67*, 169-198.
- Carlson, D. S., & Kacmar, K. M. (2000). Work-family conflict in the organization: Do life role values make a difference? *Journal of Management, 26*(5), 1031-1054.

- Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., Wayne, J. H., & Grzywacz, J. G. (2006). Measuring the positive side of the work-family interface: Development and validation of work-family enrichment scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68*, 131-164.
- Chiu, R. K. (1998). Relationships among role conflict, role satisfactions and life satisfaction: Evidence from Hong-Kong. *Social Behavior and Personality, 26*, 409-414.
- Chunmiao, Z., & Xingchang, H. (2009). The relationship between work-family conflict and life satisfaction: Big five personality as a mediator variable. *Psychological Science (China), 32 (5)*, 1057-1060.
- Cinamon, R. G., & Rich, Y. (2008). *Work family relations: Antecedents and outcomes*. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Cinamon, R. G., & Rich, Y. (2002a). Gender differences in the importance of work and family roles: Implications for work-family conflict. *Sex Roles, 47 (11/12)*, 531-541.
- Cinamon, R. G., & Rich, Y. (2002b). Profiles of attribution of importance to life roles and their implications for the work-family conflict. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 49 (2)*, 212-220.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S., & Aiken, L. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (3rd edition). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers: Mahwah, NJ.

- Cohrs, J. C., Abele, A. E., & Dette, D. E. (2006). Integrating situational and dispositional determinants of job satisfaction: Findings from three samples of professionals. *Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied*, 140 (4), 363-395.
- Cooley, C. H. (1902). *Human nature and the social order*. New York, NY: Charles Scribner's Sons.
- Coopersmith, S. (1967). *The antecedents of self-esteem*. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman.
- Costa Jr., P.T., Terracciano, A., & McCrae, R.R. (2001). Gender differences in personality traits across cultures: Robust and surprising findings. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81 (2), 322-331.
- Crosby, F. J., & Sabattini, L. (2005). Family and work balance. In J. Worell & C. Goodheart (Eds.), *Handbook of girls' and women's psychological health* (pp. 350-358). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Cudeck, R., & Henly, S. J. (1991). Model selection in covariance structures analysis and the "problem" of sample size: A clarification. *Psychological Bulletin*, 109, 512-519.
- David, J. P., Green, P. J., Martin, R., & Suls, J. (1997). Differential roles of neuroticism, extraversion, and event desirability for mood in daily life: An integrative model of top-down and bottom-up influences. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73 (1), 149-159.
- DiPaula, A., & Campbell, J. D. (2002). Self-esteem and persistence in the face of failure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83, 711-724.

- Diener, E. (2000). Subjective well-being: The science of happiness and a proposal for a national index. *American Psychologist*, 55, 34-43.
- Diener, E., Suh, E., Lucas, R., & Smith, H. (1999). Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125, 276-302.
- Dyrenforth, P. S., Kashy, D. A., Donnellan, M. B., & Lucas, R. E. (2010). Predicting relationship and life satisfaction from personality in nationally representative samples from three countries: The relative importance of actor, partner, and similarity effects. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 99(4), 690-702.
- Eby, L., Casper, W., Lockwood, A., Bordeaux, C., Brinley, A. (2005). Work and family research in IO/OB: Content analysis and review of the literature (1980-2002). *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66, 124-197.
- Edwards, J., & Rothbard, N. (2000). Mechanisms linking work and family: Clarifying the relationship between work and family constructs. *Academy of Management Review*, 25, 178-199.
- Elman, M. R., & Gilbert, L. A. (1984). Coping strategies for role conflict in married professional women with children. *Family Relations*, 33, 317-327.
- Erdwins, C. J., Buffardi, L. C., Casper, W. J., & O'Brien, A. S. (2001). The relationship of women's role strain to social support, role satisfaction, and self-efficacy. *Family Relations*, 50, 230-238.
- Erez, A., & Judge, T. A. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluations to goal-setting, motivation, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 1270-1279.

- Freed, D. E. (2004). Material benefits, advancement, or fulfillment: A study into the causes and predictors of job satisfaction based on how people view their work. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A: Humanities and Social Sciences*, 64 (7-A), 2557.
- Ford, M., Heinen, B., & Langkamer, K. (2007). Work and family satisfaction and conflict: A meta-analysis of cross-domain relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 57-80.
- Friedman, S. D., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2000). *Allies or enemies? What happens when business professionals confront life choices*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Frone, M. R. (2000). Work-family conflict and employee psychiatric disorders: The national comorbidity survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 888-895.
- Frone, M. (2003). Work-family balance. In J.C. Quick & L.E. Tetrick. (Eds.) *Handbook of Occupational Health Psychology* (pp. 143-162). Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.
- Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1992a). Prevalence of work-family conflict: Are work and family boundaries asymmetrically permeable? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13, 723-729.
- Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1992b). Antecedent and outcomes of work-family conflict: Testing a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 65-78.

- Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Barnes, G. M. (1996). Work-family conflict, gender, and health-related outcomes: A study of employed parents in two community samples. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 1* (1), 57-69.
- Frone, M., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. (1997). Relation of work-family conflict to health outcomes: A four-year longitudinal study of employed parents.
- Frone, M. R., Yardley, J. K., & Markel, K. S. (1997). Developing and testing an integrative model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 50*, 145-167.
- Frye, N. K. & Breugh, J. A. (2004). Family-friendly policies, supervisor support, work-family conflict, family-work conflict, and satisfaction: A test of a conceptual model. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 19* (2), 197-220.
- Ganster, D. C., & Schaubroeck, J. (1991). Role stress and worker health: An extension of the plasticity hypothesis of self-esteem. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 6*(7), 349–360.
- Gerbing, D. W., & Anderson, J.C. (1984). On the meaning of within-factor correlated measurement errors. *Journal of Consumer Research, 11*, 572-580.
- Gilbert, L. A., & Rader, J. (2008). Work, family, and dual-earner couples: Implications for research and practice. In S.D. Brown and R.W. Lent (Eds) *Handbook of Counseling Psychology, 4th ed.* (pp 426-443). New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- Glass, J., & Finley, A. (2002). Coverage and effectiveness of family-responsive workplace policies. *Human Resources Management Review, 12*, 313-337.

- Goff, S. J., Mount, M. K., & Jamison, R. L. (1990). Employer supported child care, work/family conflict, and absenteeism: A field study. *Personnel Psychology*, *43*, 793-809.
- Grandey, A. A., & Cropanzano, R. (1999). The Conservation of Resources model applied to work-family conflict and strain. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *54*(2), 350-370.
- Grant, S., Langan-Fox, J., & Anglim, J. (2009). The Big Five traits as predictors of subjective and psychological well-being. *Psychological Reports*, *105* (1), 205-231.
- Grant-Vallone, E. J., & Donaldson, S. I. (2001). Consequences of work-family conflict on employee well-being over time. *Work and Stress*, *15*, 214-226.
- Graves, L., Ohlott, P., & Ruderman, M. (2007). Commitment to family roles: Effects on managers' attitudes and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*, 44-56.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Source of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, *10*, 76-88.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Parasuraman, S. (1999). Research on work, family, and gender: Current status and future directions. In G.N. Powell (Ed.), *Handbook of gender and work* (pp. 391-412). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2006). When work and family are allies: A theory of work-family enrichment. *Academy of Management Review*, *31*(1), 72-92.

- Grimm-Thomas, K., & Perry-Jenkins, M. 1994. All in a day's work: Job experiences, self-esteem, and fathering in working-class families. *Family Relations*, 43, 174-181.
- Grzywacz, J. G. (2000). Work-family spillover and health during midlife: Is managing conflict everything? *American Journal of Health Promotion*, 14, 236-243.
- Grzywacz, J. G. (2003). Work, family, and mental health: Testing different models of work-family fit. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 65(1), 248-262.
- Grzywacz, J., & Marks, N. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work-family interface: An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 111-126.
- Gutek, B. A., Searles, S., & Klepa, L. (1991). Rational versus gender role expectations for work-family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 566-568.
- Haas, L. (1999). Families and work. In M.B. Sussman, S.K. Steinmetz, and G.W. Peterson (Eds) *Handbook of Marriage and the Family*, 2nd ed. (pp 571-612). Plenum, New York, NY.
- Haase, R. F., & Ellis, M. V. (1987). Multivariate analyses of variance. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 34, 404-413.
- Hammer, L., Allen, E., & Grigsby, T. (1997). Work-family conflict in dual-earner couples: Within-individual and crossover effects of work and family. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 50, 185-203.

- Hammer, L. B., Cullen, J. C., Neal, M. B., Sinclair, R. R., & Shafiro, M. V. (2005). The longitudinal effects of work-family conflict and positive spillover on depressive symptoms among dual-earner couples. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10*, 138-154.
- Hanson, L. S. (2001). Integrating work, family, and community through holistic life planning. *The Career Development Quarterly, 49*, 261-274.
- Hanson, G. C., Hammer, L. B., & Colton, C. L. (2006). Development and validation of a multidimensional scale of perceived work-family positive spillover. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11*(3), 249-265.
- Harari, M. J., Waehler, C. A., & Rogers, J. R. (2005). An empirical investigation of a theoretically based measure of perceived wellness. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52* (1), 93-103.
- Harenstam, A., & Bejerot, E. (2001). Combining professional work with family responsibility-A burden or a blessing? *Social Welfare, 10*, 202-214.
- Hendrick, S. S. (1988). A generic measure of relationship satisfaction. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 50*, 93-98.
- Heining, C. Gan, Y.Q. (2008). Reliability and validity of the problem-focused style of coping inventory and its relation to psychological distress. *Chinese Mental Health Journal, 22*(3), 193-197.
- Heller, D., Watson, D., & Hies, R. (2004). The role of person versus situation in life satisfaction: A critical examination. *Psychological Bulletin, 130* (4), 574-600.

- Heppner, P. P., Cook, S. W., Wright, D. M., & Johnson, W. C. (1995). Progress in resolving problems: A problem focused style of coping. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 42*, 279-293.
- Heppner, P. P., & Krauskopf, C. J. (1987). An information-processing approach to personal problem solving. *The Counseling Psychologist, 15*, 371-447.
- Herman, J. B. & Gyllstrom, K. K. (1977). Working men and women: Inter- and intra-role conflict. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 1*, 319-333.
- Hill, E. (2005). Work-family facilitation and conflict, working fathers and working mothers, work-family stressors and support. *Journal of Family Issues, 26*, 793-819.
- Hochschild, A.R. (1997). *The time bind: When work becomes home and home becomes work*. New York, NY: Metropolitan Books.
- Hu, L.T., & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling, 6*, 1-55.
- Ilies, R., & Judge, T.A. (2003). On the heritability of job satisfaction: The mediating role of personality. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88(4)*, 750-759.
- Isen, A. M., & Baron, R. A. (1991). Positive affect as a factor in organizational behavior. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 13*, 1-53.
- Jacobs, J. A., & Gerson, K. (2001). Overworked individuals or overwhelmed families? Explaining trends in work, leisure, and family time. *Work and Occupations, 28*, 40-63.

- John, O. P., Donahue, E. M., & Kentle, R. L. (1991). The Big Five Inventory-
Versions 4a and 54. Berkeley, CA: University of California, Berkeley, Institute of
Personality and Social Research.
- John, O. P., & Srivastava, S. (2001). History, measurement, and theoretical
perspectives. In L. Pervin & O. P. John's (Ed.), *Handbook of personality, theory,
and research (2nd ed.)* (pp. 102-138). New York, NY: Guilford.
- Jöreskog, K. G (1993). Testing structural equation models. In K. A. Bollen & J. S.
Long (Ed.), *Testing structural equation models* (pp. 294-310). Newbury: Sage
Publication.
- Jöreskog, K. G., & Sörbom, D. (2004). *LISREL 8*. Chicago: Scientific Software.
- Jöreskog, K., & Sörbom, D. (1996). *LISREL 8: User's reference guide*. Chicago:
Scientific Software International.
- Judge, T., & Bono, J. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluation traits-self esteem,
generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability- with job
satisfaction and performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied
Psychology, 86*, 80-92.
- Judge, T. A., Cable, D. M., Boudreau, J. W., & Bretz, R. D. (1995). An empirical
investigation of the predictors of executive career success. *Personnel
Psychology, 48*, 485–519.
- Judge, T.A., Heller, D., Mount, M. K. (2002). Five-factor model of personality and
job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology
87, (3)*, 530–541.

- Judge, T. A., & Ilies, R. (2004). Affect and job satisfaction: A study of their relationship at work and at home. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(4), 661-673.
- Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C., & Kluger, A. N. (1998). Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(1), 17-34.
- Kiecolt, J. K. (1994). Stress and the decision to change oneself: A theoretical model. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 57*, 49-63.
- Kirchmeyer, C. (1992). Perceptions of nonwork-to-work spillover: Challenging the common view of conflict-ridden domain relationships. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 13*, 231-249.
- Kline, R. B. (1998). *Principles and practices of structural equation modeling*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Kopelman, R. E., Greenhaus, J. J., & Connolly, T. F. (1983). A model of work, family, and interrole conflict: A construct validation study. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 32*, 198-215.
- Kossek, E., & Ozeki, C. (1998). Work-family conflict, policies, and the job-life satisfaction relationship: A review and directions for organizational behavior-human resources approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*, 139-149.
- Kotov, R., Gamez, W., Schmidt, F. & Watson, D. (2010). Linking “big” personality traits to anxiety, depressive, and substance use disorders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 136* (5), 768-821.

- Lapierre, L. M., & Allen, T. D. (2006). Work-supportive family, family-supportive supervision, use of organizational benefits, and problem-focused coping: Implications for work-family conflict and employee well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11*(2), 169-181.
- Lenaghan, J. A., Buda, R., & Eisner, A. B. (2007). An examination of the role of emotional intelligence in work and family conflict. *Journal of Managerial Support, 19* (1), 76-94.
- Lennon, M. C., & Rosenfield, S. (1992). Women and mental health: The interaction of job and family conditions. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 33*, 316-327.
- Lijun, T., & Chunmiao, Z. (2009). The influence of work-family conflict on job satisfaction and life satisfaction of employees: Big five personality as a moderator. *Psychological Science (China), 32* (3), 604-606.
- Lobel, S. A. (1999). Impacts of diversity and work-life initiatives in organizations. In G. N. Powell (Ed.), *Handbook of gender and work* (pp. 453-476). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Lunneborg, C. E., & Abbott, R. D. (1983). *Elementary multivariate analysis for the behavioral sciences*. New York: North-Holland.
- Lutz, J. G., & Eckert, T. L. (1994). The relationship between canonical correlation analysis and multivariate multiple regression. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 54*, 666-675.
- MacCallum, R. C., Browne, M. W., & Sugawara, H. M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological Methods, 1*, 130-149.

- MacEwen, K. E., & Barling, J. (1988). Interrole conflict, family support and marital adjustment of employed mothers: A short term, longitudinal study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 9*(3), 241-250.
- Mallinckrodt, B., Abraham, W. T., Wei, M., & Russell, D. W. (2006). Advances in testing the statistical significance of mediation effects. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 53* (3), 372-378.
- Marsh, H. W., & Hocevar, D. (1985). Application of confirmatory factor analysis to the study of self-concept: First and higher order factor models and their invariance across groups. *Psychological Bulletin, 97*, 562–582.
- Martens, M. P. (2005). The use of structural equation modeling in counseling psychology research. *The Counseling Psychologist, 33* (3), 269-298.
- Mauno, S., Kinnunen, U., & Ruokolainen, M. (2006). Exploring work- and organization based resources as moderators between work-family conflict, well-being, and job attitudes. *Work & Stress, 20*(3), 210-233.
- McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1992). An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of Personality, 60*, 175–215.
- Michel, J. S., & Clark, M. A. (2009). Has it been affect all along? A test of work-to family and family-to-work models of conflict, enrichment, and satisfaction. *Personality and Individual Differences, 43* (3), 163-168.
- Mossholder, K. W., Bedeian, A. G., & Armenakis, A. A. (1981). Group process-work outcome relationships: A note on the moderating impact of self-esteem. *Academy of Management Journal, 25*(3), 575–585.

- Murray, S. L., Holmes, J. G., & Griffin, D. W. (2000). Self-esteem and the quest for felt security: How perceived regard regulates attachment processes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 78*, 478-498.
- Murray, S. L., Holmes, J. G., MacDonald, G., & Ellsworth, P. C. (1998). Through the looking glass darkly? When self-doubts turn into relationship insecurities. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*, 1459-1480.
- Noor, N. M. (2003). Work-and family-related variables, work-family conflict and women's wellbeing: Some observations. *Community, Work & Family, 6* (3), 297-319.
- Norrell, J. E., & Norrell, T. H. (1996). Faculty and family policies in higher education. *Journal of Family Issues, 17*, 204-226.
- O'Brien, K.M, Friedman, S.M., Tipton, L.C., & Linn, S.G. (2000). Attachment, separation, and women's vocational development: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 47*, 301-315.
- Parasuraman, S., Greenhaus, J. H., & Granose, C. S. (1992). Role stressors, social support, and well-being among two-career couples. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*, 339-356.
- Pavot, W., Diener, E., Colvin, R., & Sandvik, E. (1991). Further validation of the Satisfaction With Life Scale: Evidence for the cross-method convergence of well-being measures. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 57*, 149-161.
- Perrone, K. M. (1999). Balancing life roles to achieve career happiness and life satisfaction. *Career Planning and Adult Development Journal, 15*, 49-58.

- Perrone, K. M., Ægisdottir, S., Webb, L. K., & Blalock, R. H. (2006). Work-family interface: Commitment, conflict, coping, and satisfaction. *Journal of Career Development, 32* (3), 286-300.
- Perrone, K. M., & Worthington, E. L., Jr. (2001). Factors influencing rating of marital quality by individuals within dual earner marriages: A conceptual model. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 48*, 3-9.
- Perry-Jenkins, M., Repetti, R., & Crouter, A. (2000). Work and family in the 1990s. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 62*, 981-998.
- Poms, L. W., Botsford, W. E., Kaplan, S. A., Buffardi, L. C., O'Brien, A. S. (2009). The economic impact of work and family issues: Child care satisfaction and financial considerations of employed mothers. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 14* (4), 402-413.
- Powell, G. N., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2006). Is the opposite of positive negative? Untangling the complex relationship between work-family enrichment and conflict. *Career Development International, 11*(7), 650-659.
- Radloff, L.S. (1977). The CES-D Scale: A self-report depression scale for research in the general population. *Applied Psychological Measurement, 1*(3), 385-401.
- Raley, S., Mattingly, M., & Bianchi, S. (2006). How dual are dual-income couples? Documenting changes from 1970-2001. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 68*, 11-28.
- Rantanen, J., Pulkkinen, L., & Kinnunen, U. (2005). The Big Five personality dimensions, work-family conflict, and psychological distress: A longitudinal view. *Journal of Individual Differences, 26*(3), 155-166.

- Reifman, A., Biernat, M., & Lang, E. L. (1991). Stress, social support, and health in married professional women with small children. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 15*, 431-445.
- Rice, R. W., Frone, M. R., & McFarlin, D. B. (1992). Work-nonwork conflict and the perceived quality of life. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*, 155-168.
- Rice, R. W., McFarlin, D. B., Hunt, R. G., & Near, J. P. (1985). Organizational work and the perceived quality of life: Toward a conceptual model. *Academy of Management Review, 10*, 296-310.
- Rogers, S., & DeBoer, D. (2001). Change in wives' income: Effects on marital happiness, psychological well-being, and risk for divorce. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 63*, 458-272.
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Rosenberg, M. (1989). *Society and the adolescent self-image. Revised edition*. Middletown, CT: Wesleyan University Press.
- Russell, D. W., Kahn, J. H., Spoth, R., & Altmaier, E. M. (1998). Analyzing data from experimental studies: A latent variable structural equation modeling approach. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 45* (1), 18-29.
- Sattora, A., & Bentler, P.M. (1994). Corrections to test statistics and standard errors on covariance structure analysis. In A. von Eye & C. C. Clogg (Eds.), *Latent variables analysis* (pp. 399-419). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Satorra, A., & Bentler, P. M. (1988). Scaling corrections for chi-square statistics in covariance structure analysis. In American Statistical Association Proceedings of the Business and Economic Section (pp. 308–313). Alexandria, VA: American Statistical Association.
- Sawang, S. (2010). Moderation or mediation? An examination of the role perceived managerial support has on job satisfaction and psychological strain. *A Journal for Diverse Perspectives on Diverse Psychological Issues*, 29 (3), 247-256.
- Schmitt, D.P., Realo, A., Voracek, M., & Allik, J. (2008). Why can't a man be more like a woman? Sex differences in Big Five Personality Traits across 55 cultures. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 94 (1), 168-182.
- Seligman, M. E. P. (2002). Authentic happiness: Using the new positive psychology to realize your potential for lasting fulfillment. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Somech, A., & Drach-Zahavy, A. (2007). Strategies for coping with work-family conflict: The distinctive relationships of gender role ideology. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12, 1-19.
- Stebbins, L. F. (2001). *Work and family in America: A reference handbook*. Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO.
- Steel, P. Schmidt, J. & Shultz, J. (2008). Refining the relationship between personality and subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin*, 134(1), 138-161.
- Steunenberg, B., Braam, A.W., Beekman, A. T. F., Deeg, D. J. H., & Kerkho, Ad J. F. M. (2009). Evidence for an association of the big five personality factors with recurrence of depressive symptoms in later life. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry*, 24 (12), 1470-1477.

- Suchet, M., & Barling, J. (1986). Employed mothers: Interrole conflict, spouse support and marital functioning. *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, 7, 167-178.
- Sumer, H. C., & Knight, P. A. (2001). How do people with different attachment styles balance work and family? A personality perspective on work-family linkage. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(4), 653-663.
- Super, D. E. (1982). The relative importance of work: Models and measures for meaningful data. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 10, 95-103.
- Thoits, P. A. (1992). Identity structures and psychological well-being: Gender and marital status comparisons. *Social Psychological Quarterly*, 55, 236-256.
- Thoits, P. A. (1991). On merging identity theory and stress research. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 54, 101-112.
- U.S. Bureau of the Census. (2002). *U.S. Census Bureau married couples by labor force status of spouses: 1986-present*. Washington, DC: Author
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2010). *Women in the Labor Force: A Databook*. Washington, DC: Author..
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2011). *Employment Situation Summary*. Washington, DC: Author.
- van Steenbergen, E., Ellemers, N., & Mooijjaart, A. (2007). How work and family can facilitate each other: Distinct types of work-family facilitation and outcomes for women and men. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12, 279-300.
- Voyandoff, P. (2005). Social integration, work-family conflict and facilitation, and job and marital quality. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 67, 666-679.

- Voydanoff, P. (2001). Incorporating community into work and family research: A review of basic relationships. *Human Relations, 54*, 1609-1637.
- Voydanoff, P. (2002). Linkages between the work-family interface and work, family, and individual outcomes: An integrative model. *Journal of Family Issues, 23*, 138-164.
- Walsh, W.B., & Heppner, M.J. (Eds.). (2006). *Handbook of career counseling for women* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ward, J. H. (1963). Hierarchical grouping to optimize an objective function. *Journal of the American Statistical Association, 58*, 236-244.
- Warren, J. A., & Johnson, P. J. (1995). The impact of workplace support on work family role strain. *Family Relations, 44*, 163-169.
- Wayne, J. H., Grzywacz, J. G., Carlson, D. S., & Kacmar, K. M. (2007). Work family facilitation: A theoretical explanation and model of primary antecedents and consequences. *Human Resource Management Review, 17*, 63-76
- Wayne, J. H., Musisca, N., & Fleeson, W. (2004). Considering the role of personality in the work-family experience: Relationships of the big five to work-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 64*, 108-130.
- Weiss, D., Dawis, R., England, G., & Lofquist, L. (1967). *Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire*. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota, Industrial Relations Center.
- Whiston, S. C., & Cinamon, R. G. (under review). *Work/family interface: A vocational psychological perspective*. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Wood, R. & Bandura, A. (1989). Social cognitive theory of organizational management. *Academy of Management Review*, 14, 361-384.

Zuckerman, M., Kuhlman, D. M., Joireman, J., Teta, P., Kraft, M. (1993). A comparison of three structural models for personality: The Big Three, the Big Five, and the Alternative Five. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65(4), 757-768.