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**An exploration of the relationships among work/family conflict,
relevant personality variables, and well-being**

Block, Belinda Lee, Ph.D.

City University of New York, 1995

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AN EXPLORATION OF THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG WORK/FAMILY
CONFLICT, RELEVANT PERSONALITY VARIABLES, AND WELL-BEING

by

BELINDA LEE BLOCK

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Psychology in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York.

1995

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This manuscript has been read and accepted for the Graduate Faculty in Psychology in satisfaction of the dissertation requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Dec. 22, 1994
Date

Steven P. Hollander
Chair of Examining Committee

Jan. 25, 1995
Date

[Signature]
Executive Officer

Roger E. Millsap
Cynthia A. Thompson
Nita Lutwak
Richard E. Kopelman
Supervisory Committee

THE CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

Abstract

AN EXPLORATION OF THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG WORK/FAMILY
CONFLICT, RELEVANT PERSONALITY VARIABLES, AND WELL-BEING

by

Belinda Lee Block

Advisor: Professor Edwin P. Hollander

This research was pursued in an attempt to apply the variables of self-monitoring, Type A behavior, self-regulation and self-efficacy to the work/family conflict setting. It was posited that the personality and self-regulatory processes of the woman would affect stress reactions that emanate from work/family conflict.

To investigate the relationships among various personality variables, work/family conflict, and well being, surveys were collected from 104 working mothers largely residing in the New York Metropolitan area. These surveys assessed the extent to which working mothers encountered family demands, job demands, conflict due to work interfering with their family (work → family conflict), family interfering with their work (family → work conflict), the extent to which they engaged in self-regulation (i.e., self-observation, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement), their personality type (i.e., Type A or Type B), their self-monitoring, their self-efficacy, and the extent of their well being (as operationalized by depression and somatization).

The results indicated that self-monitoring was related neither to family → work nor to work → family conflict. Hypotheses investigating the relationship between personality variables, work/family conflict, and well being were partially supported. Type A behavior was strongly and significantly related to work → family conflict but not to family → work conflict. Furthermore, self-efficacy moderated the relationship between work →

family conflict and depression. None of the components of self-regulation moderated the relationship between work → family conflict and well being. Job demands were related to work → family conflict. Post-hoc analyses revealed that self-evaluation and self-reinforcement moderated the relationship between work → family conflict and well-being. Future research should be directed at more closely examining the role of the individual's characteristics on the relationship between work/family conflict and well being.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to all of those in my social support system. Without their undying help, this project would not have been possible.

Table of Contents

CHAPTER I	1
Introduction	1
An Exploration of Work/Family Conflict	4
Exogenous Antecedents of Work/family Conflict	5
Endogenous Antecedents of Work/Family Conflict	8
Consequences of Work/Family Conflict	12
Conclusions on Work/Family Conflict	14
A New Model of Work/Family Conflict	14
Self Monitoring	15
Type A Behavior	19
Self Regulation	24
Self-observation	26
Self-evaluation	30
Self-reinforcement	33
Self-Efficacy	35
A Synthesis	37
CHAPTER II	39
Problem Statement and Hypotheses	39
CHAPTER III	43
Method	43
Sample	43
Sample Demographics	43
Procedure	44
Measures	45
Type A Behavior	45
Self-Monitoring	46
Demographic Variables	48
Job Demands	48
Work/Family Conflict	50
Self-Observation	50
Self-Evaluation	51
Self-Efficacy	51
Self-Reinforcement	52
Depression	52
Psychosomatic Symptoms of Stress	53
CHAPTER IV	54
Results	54

	viii
Post-Hoc Analyses	58
CHAPTER V	63
Discussion	63
TABLES	70
FIGURES	88
APPENDICES	90
REFERENCES	139

List of Tables

Table 1	70
Age Ranges	70
Table 2	71
Marital Status	71
Table 3	72
Number of Children	72
Table 4	73
Age of youngest child at home	73
Table 5	74
Job Level	74
Table 6	75
Number of hours worked per week	75
Table 7	76
Intercorrelations of Study Variables	76
Table 8	77
Correlations among Lack of Autonomy, Role Ambiguity, Work Stress, Work → Family Conflict and Family → Work Conflict	77
Table 9	78
Items measuring work → family conflict	78
Table 10	79
Items measuring family → work conflict	79
Table 11	80
Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and Depression	
• Self-Observation as Moderator	80
Table 12	81
Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and Somatization	
Self-Observation as Moderator	81
Table 13	82
Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and Depression	
Self-Evaluation as Moderator	82

	x
Table 14	83
Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and Somatization Self-Evaluation as Moderator	83
Table 15	84
Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and Depression Self-Reinforcement as Moderator	84
Table 16	85
Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and Somatization Self-Reinforcement as Moderator	85
Table 17	86
Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and Depression Self-Efficacy as Moderator	86
Table 18	87
Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and Somatization Self-Efficacy as Moderator	87

List of Figures

Figure 1 88

Figure 2 89

List of Appendices

APPENDIX A	90
APPENDIX B	91
APPENDIX C	92
APPENDIX D	94
APPENDIX E	95
APPENDIX F	96
APPENDIX G	97
APPENDIX H	98
APPENDIX I	99
APPENDIX J	101
APPENDIX K	102
APPENDIX L	103
APPENDIX M	104

CHAPTER I Introduction

The composition of the American workforce is changing; women now comprise 55% of it (Higgins, Duxbury, & Irving, 1992). The impact of this change has been widespread and has had some effect on all family members as well as organizations. However, the greatest impact may be on American women. Because of the tradition of the primary care-taker role falling on women, the demands of child care still are made on them. At the same time, more mothers are now working outside of the home.

There are numerous advantages to entering the workforce for women with children. Baruch and Barnett (1986) posit that the role of paid worker for women can enhance self esteem and help to ease the negative effects of stressors. Furthermore, in a review of several longitudinal studies, Repetti, Matthews, and Waldron (1989) argue that employment can have beneficial effects on women because of, for example, increased income and social support.

There are, however, disadvantages for working mothers as well. These women must now contend with the sometimes conflictual demands of their jobs and their families. Wortman, Biernat, and Lang (1991) reported that 75% of their sample of college professors and business women experienced role conflict every day. As the number of women with children in the workforce continues to increase, this problem will also increase. Because women comprise such a large percentage of the workforce, this conflict between work and family demands has not gone unnoticed (Greenhaus, 1988).

An early definition of this conflict, termed "work/family conflict" was provided by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), who defined it as

a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the

work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p.77).

The importance of this definition is that it takes into account two of the multiple roles that employed women have in their lives. It suggests that measurement of work/family conflict should be based on an investigation of the impact of work interfering with the family role (work → family conflict) as well as family conflicting with the work role (family → work conflict).

Early researchers assumed that work/family conflict was a unidimensional construct, but more recent research (e.g, Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994) has investigated the differential impact of each type of conflict. These investigations have indicated that work → family conflict is, in fact, a different construct than family → work conflict. O'Driscoll, Ilgen, and Hildreth (1992) confirmed that work → family conflict was distinct from family → work conflict.

Researchers have used various names for work/family conflict including, but not limited to, role strain (Kelly & Voydanoff, 1985); role conflict (Greenglass, 1990), spillover (Barnett & Marshall, 1992; Thompson, Kopelman, & Schriesheim, 1992), multiple role stress (Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Wethington, 1989; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, & Granrose, 1992), and work/family conflict (Burke, 1988; Frone & Rice, 1987; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Higgins, Duxbury, and Irving, 1992; Rice, Frone, & McFarlin, 1992; Parasuraman et al., 1992; Thompson & Lounsbury, unpublished manuscript). There is a great deal of concordance in that all of the operationalizations imply that the occupancy of multiple roles affect each other. Furthermore, the numerous variations all suggest some type of struggle emanating from conflict between demands from the home and work roles.

Despite a considerable amount of attention to work/family conflict, there are several problems that have plagued the literature. There has been a lack of a strong theoretical base for the study of this area (Higgins et al., 1992). Moreover, the early literature was heavily focused on identifying the situational causes of work/family conflict in an attempt to ameliorate this problem through organizational intervention. This reflects a tendency in the literature of the 1980's to focus on the environment (i.e., the work place) rather than on the individual. In addition, there has been an assumption that simply experiencing work/family conflict is, in and of itself, stressful (Thompson & Lounsbury, unpublished manuscript), which, in effect, disregards the impact of the individual on the relationship between work/family conflict and stress.

As a result, the research in the area has tended to neglect important individual difference, cognitive, and motivational variables that may affect the relationship between multiple roles, work/family conflict, and well being. These limitations have resulted in a body of literature that, while attempting to provide comprehensive models, involving antecedents and consequences of work/family conflict, fails to fully appreciate the complexity of an individual's reactions to the antecedents and consequences of work/family conflict and to the conflict itself.

• The present study is an attempt to present a conceptual framework that incorporates several individual-difference and motivational variables that have been heretofore neglected or inadequately explored in the work/family conflict literature. First, the work/family literature will be reviewed in an attempt to delineate the various approaches to the area. Second, a new model will be proposed that examines the impact of the individual on the relationship between work/family conflict and well being. This model integrates the research in work/family conflict with research in self-regulation and

several individual-difference variables. Specifically, this model proposes relationships among self-monitoring, Type A behavior, the three components of self-regulation, self-efficacy, work/family conflict, and well being. Whereas the complete model will not be tested empirically, the hypothesized relationships among the variables in the model will be examined. Although this study is not intended to be a comprehensive portrait of all of the variables involved in work/family conflict, it is intended to provide a fresh, theoretically-based approach to its study.

An Exploration of Work/Family Conflict

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), in a well-cited review of the literature, suggested that there are three major types of work/family conflict: (a) time-based conflict, (b) behavior-based conflict, and (c) strain-based conflict.

Time-based conflict refers to the fact that time spent in one role detracts from the time that one can spend in another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Furthermore, conflict can occur when the time that one physically spends at work can be occupied by thoughts of family obligations. This can occur when a woman must go to work even though her child is sick at home.

The second type of work/family conflict is behavior-based conflict, which occurs when patterns of behavior prescribed for one role make it impossible to behave in the expected manner in the other role (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1985). Beutell and Greenhaus (1985) report that there is no empirical evidence that assesses the occurrence of behavior-based conflict. They suggest that the behaviors required for a successful male manager (e.g., aggressiveness, objectivity) may conflict with those required by the parental role (e.g., nurturance).

The third form of work/family conflict, strain-based conflict, occurs when strain in one role makes performance in the second role difficult (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This can occur due to pressures in the workplace, the family, or within the individual. The more stressful one's work role is, the more likely it is that one will experience work/family conflict (Voydanoff, 1988).

Exogenous Antecedents of Work/family Conflict

The typical approach to the study of work/family conflict has been to identify antecedents of work/family conflict. These variables are generally exogenous to the individual and would logically seem to affect work and nonwork roles thereby leading to conflict. These antecedents can be organized into two basic categories: job-related and demographic (i.e., usually involving the individual and the family).

Job-related antecedents of work/family conflict are usually focused on variables that augment the spillover from work to family life thereby resulting in work → family conflict. Using a work stress perspective, Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1987) categorized job-related variables into stressors resulting from occupying a particular role in the organization (e.g., role ambiguity); job characteristics (e.g., heavy job demands); relationships among organizational members (e.g., peers, supervisors); organizational structure (e.g., lack of participation); career development, or the physical environment (e.g., noise, climate). Researchers in the work/family area, however, have focused on stress related to organizational roles and job characteristics. These variables would be expected, therefore, to be related to work → family conflict, or conflict that results from work interfering with the family life.

Work-related role stress that affects work → family conflict has been operationalized

to include role ambiguity (Bedian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988; Frone et al., 1992; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, & Granrose, 1992), role conflict (Bedian et al., 1988; Parasuraman et al., 1992); work pressure, work expectations, or role overload (Burke, 1988; Frone et al., 1992; Higgins et al., 1992; Parasuraman et al., 1992; Voydanoff, 1988), lack of autonomy (Burke, 1988; Frone et al., 1992), lack of control (Repetti et al, 1989), heavy job demands (Repetti et al, 1989; Voydanoff, 1988), supervision (Burke, 1988), work stressors (i.e., doubts about confidence, problems with clients, and lack of stimulation and fulfillment) (Burke, 1988), and job stress (Judge et al., 1994). All of these variables have been reported to be significantly correlated with work → family conflict.

Work → family conflict can also be exacerbated by the number of hours worked per week, the time spent in commuting to and from work, and amount of overtime (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Gutek et al., 1991; Judge et al., 1994; O'Driscoll et al., 1992; Voydanoff, 1988). Flexibility in terms of scheduling work hours (e.g., flextime) can help to alleviate the conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Demographic variables have often been examined as antecedents of family → work conflict. However, many studies that examined these variables did not use the separate constructs of work → family and family → work conflict. The term work/family conflict will be used in these cases. One variable that is consistently related to family → work conflict is the woman's number of children (Judge et al., 1994; Thompson & Blau, 1993). Barnett and Baruch (1985) found that, whether they were working or not, mothers experienced more role conflict than women without children. Furthermore, Voydanoff (1988) found that the having children of all ages was significantly related to work/family conflict. In addition, the age of youngest child is important to consider because the parental demands of a child under six are far greater than those of an older child (Bedian et al., 1988;

Greenglass, 1990). Therefore, this variable is often included in work/family conflict research and is related to work → family and family → work conflict (Voydanoff, 1988; Judge, 1994).

Income level and family demands are often studied (e.g., Higgins et al., 1992; Judge et al, 1994; Parasuraman et al, 1988) and considered to be related to work/family conflict. It is assumed that family demands spillover into the workplace thereby leading to family → work conflict. Family demands and income level are conceptually related because it is also assumed that those with higher income levels can afford support that alleviates family demands, including acceptable day care and housecleaning, thereby reducing levels of family → work conflict (Repetti et al., 1989).

These assumptions, however, have not necessarily shown to be true. Judge (1994) found that income was related only to work → family conflict not to family → work conflict in a sample of executive men, and Parasuraman et al. (1992) found that income was not related to work/family conflict in a sample of men and women.

The findings on family demands are inconsistent. Neither Bedian et al. (1988) nor Voydanoff (1988) found a direct relationship between parental demands, including family chores, and work/family conflict. Higgins et al. (1992) did find that family expectations, operationalized by combining responsibilities for household chores and child care, family size, and hours spent in chores per week, were directly related to work/family conflict. Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992), in a model testing the antecedents and consequences of the interface between work and family, investigated the impact of family stressors on family → work conflict. They operationalized family stressors to include parental workload, children's misbehavior, and marital distress. A test of the model indicated a direct, significant path from family stressors to family/work

conflict.

The inconsistency of the research findings with the hypothesized outcomes may be due to different operationalizations of family demands. Some researchers (e.g., Bedian et al. 1988, Higgins et al., 1992; Voydanoff 1988) focus almost exclusively on variables such as amount of time devoted to chores. Others (e.g., Frone, Russell, and Cooper, 1992) target variables that are more difficult to measure and subject to response biases (i.e., extent to which a child misbehaves and marital distress).

It may or may not be true that actual family demands are related to work/family conflict. However, the investigations of the impact of these variables has heretofore been inconsistent and therefore inadequate with respect to clarifying the relationship between family demands and family → work conflict. It has been necessary, therefore, to introduce other variables that impact the relationships among family demands, other variables, and work/family conflict.

Recently, there has been more attention to endogenous variables that affect the relationship between work/family conflict and various outcomes. These variables are more cognitive or motivational in nature (e.g., role involvement, role quality). In addition, the use of structural equation modeling has led to an increase in viewing the variables related to work/family conflict in a more process-oriented approach. This line of research has proved to be more fruitful in illuminating the relationships between work/family conflict and other variables. It has also enabled the application of theory-based research to the work/family conflict literature.

Endogenous Antecedents of Work/Family Conflict

One of the most important findings in work/family conflict research has emerged from investigations of the impact of role quality on work/family conflict. Barnett and

Baruch (1985) found that occupying the roles of parent and worker, per se, did not lead to role conflict. Rather, beyond the effects of income, age, and educational attainment, role quality was found to be a major independent predictor of role overload, role conflict, and anxiety. These results were replicated by Barnett and Marshall (1992) who found that employed mothers with positive parental experiences reported lower levels of psychological distress than employed mothers with troubled mother-child relationships. Furthermore, Barnett and Marshall (1992) found that negative role experiences did not spill over from one role to another, but positive role experiences seemed to palliate the relationship between other poor role experiences and mental health. Therefore, it is not simply the possession of multiple roles that leads to work/family conflict. Enjoyment of the multiple roles can actually decrease the amount of conflict that one experiences.

Rice, Frone, and McFarlin (1992) presented a model of work/family conflict that investigated the effect of role quality on the relationship between work/family conflict and overall quality of life. They found indirect relationships between work-nonwork conflict and global life satisfaction. Work-nonwork conflict affected global life satisfaction through the mediating variables of family satisfaction, job satisfaction, and leisure satisfaction.

Another cognitive variable that has been investigated is role involvement. Role involvement is the extent to which one can be identified psychologically with a particular role and has been shown to have an impact on work/family conflict. Role involvement can lead to work/family conflict because mental preoccupation with one role can lead to an inability to fulfill the demands of the other role (Frone & Rice, 1987; Frone et al., 1992). In addition, role involvement can increase the amount of time one

spends in a particular role (Frone et al., 1992). In the work/family conflict literature, role involvement has been included as a global entity and has also been separated into involvement in different, more specific roles.

In a test of their model, Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992) found that family involvement had a direct, significant path to family → work conflict. The path between job involvement and work/family conflict was not significant. In their matrix of intercorrelations, family involvement was related neither to work → family conflict nor to family → work conflict. Job involvement was related only to family → work conflict.

Higgins, Duxbury, and Irving (1992) presented a model of work/family conflict that incorporated various types of role involvement, expectations, and conflict. Specifically, they proposed that job involvement and family involvement would have direct and indirect effects on work/family conflict. Their hypotheses were partially supported. Job involvement, not family involvement, was directly related to work/family conflict.

Frone and Rice (1987) investigated the effects of role involvement on various types of conflict for individuals high and low in family involvement and job involvement. They found that job-spouse conflict was unrelated to job involvement for individuals who were low-spouse involved and was positively related for individuals who were highly involved with their spouses. Job involvement was related to job-parent conflict regardless of the amount of parental involvement.

One reason for job involvement's effect on work/family conflict is the lack of control employees have over their jobs (Higgins et al., 1992). The majority of workers are expected to appear in the workplace during a specified period of time. However, family activities, such as playing with children or cleaning house, can be more easily

postponed. Therefore, family activities tend to conform to the demands of the workplace (Higgins et al., 1992).

Similarity among partners can also affect the relationship between job involvement and work/family conflict. Beutell and Greenhaus (1982) found that couples who had a similar career orientation experienced less conflict than if one spouse was more involved in his/her career than the other. Work/family conflict was heightened when spouses differed in their work/role salience. If both partners were highly involved or uninvolved in their jobs, there was less conflict than if one partner was highly involved and the other had low work role salience (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982).

Individual perceptions are also important to consider in the study of work/family conflict (Greenhaus, 1988). For example, Voydanoff (1988) found that perceived control over work role characteristics buffered the effects of work/role characteristics on work/family conflict. Along this line, a stress perspective of work/family conflict, which takes into account the effects of personal appraisal of and reactions to the situation, was presented by Greenhaus & Parasuraman (1987). They posited that the personal characteristics of high self-esteem, internal locus of control, and personal hardiness "influence the perception and interpretation of environmental stressors and moderate their effects on perceived stress and strain..." (pp.47-48).

Oullette (1987) is well-known for her work concerning the variable of hardiness, which is comprised of control, commitment, and challenge. Control refers to the belief that one can influence events in one's life. Commitment represents a sense of meaningfulness about one's life with regard to personal goals and community involvement. Finally, a belief that change is positive and leads to personal growth

comprises the challenge dimension of hardiness.

Oullette (1987) posited that the more women have high internal locus of control, high self-esteem and low-self denigration, are Type B rather than Type A and show hardiness, the less likely they will be to suffer the ill effects of stress. However, hardiness may not produce a buffering effect on stress. Schmied and Lawler (1986) failed to find support for the buffering effects of hardiness on illness in a sample of female secretaries.

An individual-difference variable that has been shown to have an impact on work/family conflict is Type A behavior. Greenglass (1990) investigated the relationships among Type A behavior, career aspirations, and role conflict in a sample of faculty women. She found that Type A scores were significantly related to career aspirations and role conflict scores. She found that higher levels of Type A behavior were found among women who occupied higher-status positions (Greenglass, 1990). Furthermore, variance in Type A scores was predicted by the number of hours worked, which included child care, home-maintenance activities, and professional work (Greenglass, 1990). The findings of this study clearly dictate the further investigation of the relationship between work/family conflict and Type A behavior.

Consequences of Work/Family Conflict

While there are many antecedents of work/family conflict, researchers have investigated relatively few outcomes. Work/family conflict is negatively related to job satisfaction (Bedian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988; Burke, 1988; Greenglass et al., 1988), quality of work life (Higgins et al., 1992), marital satisfaction (Bedian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988; Greenglass et al., 1988), quality of family life (Higgins et al., 1992) and life

satisfaction (Bedian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988). Work/family conflict has been found to be positively related to job distress (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992), intention to turnover (Burke 1988), work alienation and burnout (Burke, 1988), family distress (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992), psychosomatic symptoms (Burke, 1988; Davidson & Cooper, 1983; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1991; Greenglass et al., 1988; Nelson, Quick, Hitt, & Moesel, 1990) negative feeling states (Burke, 1988), anxiety (Greenglass et al., 1988), and depression (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1991; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Greenglass et al., 1988).

While these consequences can be quite extensive and troublesome, most of these investigations have neglected the influence of the individual in the examination of the relationship between work/family conflict and its outcomes. These researchers failed to consider whether the people who experienced the dysfunctional effects of work/family conflict may have been predisposed to experience them. Furthermore, researchers have neglected to investigate the woman's reactions to the stress caused by work/family conflict. Finally, researchers have neglected to study the process that intervenes between work/family conflict and various outcomes. The literature does not clarify why, for example, negative psychological states occur as a consequence of work/family conflict.

There are few exceptions to the neglect of the effect of the individual's personality on the relationship between work/family conflict and various outcome variables. One example is Greenglass's (1990) work, described earlier, in which she investigated the impact of Type A behavior on role conflict. Another is Barnett and Marshall's (1991) work. They found that the presence of positive affect, anxiety and depression affected the relationship between work/family conflict and women's health.

Conclusions on Work/Family Conflict

The literature, in general, can be best summarized by a list of various antecedents and consequences of work/family conflict. It fails to fully explain why certain antecedents are affecting work/family conflict and others are not. It also fails to fully explain why work/family conflict leads to certain outcomes.

The lack of a theoretical base for its study may be one explanation for the deficiency in the understanding of all of the mechanisms involved in work/family conflict and its outcomes. Differing operationalizations (e.g., family stressors) and a lack of consistency in the study of work/family conflict (e.g., combining work/family conflict versus separating the two distinct constructs) has also contributed to a failure of researchers to truly explore and explain the mechanisms involved in work/family conflict.

A New Model of Work/Family Conflict

Because of the gaps in the literature, a new model of work/family conflict is presented in Figure 1. This model incorporates some of the previous research in the work/family conflict area and also incorporates heretofore unexplored variables that may well explain the link between work/family conflict and various outcomes.

Several hypothesized links in the model emerge from previous research (e.g., Bedian et al., 1988; Burke, 1988; Frone, et al., 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Gutek et al., 1991; Higgins et al., 1992; Judge et al., 1994; O'Driscoll et al., 1992; Parasuraman et al., 1992; Repetti et al., 1989; Voydanoff, 1988). For example, the model posits that job demands will be related to work → family conflict. In addition, the

model presents a link between family demands (e.g., number of children, age of youngest child) and family → work conflict. Finally, based on past research (e.g., Frone et al., 1992; Greenglass et al., 1988) the model presents well-being (as operationalized by depression and somatization) as an outcome of work → family and family → work conflict.

Self Monitoring

The model also presents self-monitoring as an antecedent of work → family and family → work conflict. Snyder (1974) first posited that self-monitoring is a personality variable that describes the way in which people observe and control their own expressive behavior in social situations. He believes that self-monitoring discriminates between those who attend to situational cues for appropriate behavior and those who attend to internal cues for appropriate expressive behavior.

Work/family conflict is defined in a behavioral sense (i.e., participation in one role makes it difficult to participate in another role). Self-monitoring is therefore offered as one way to measure individual tendencies to act in a prescribed role (e.g., employee) even when one is conflicted by the demands of a different role (e.g., parent). A woman may be in the middle of a difficult meeting and acting in an assertive, even aggressive manner, which is appropriate in this situation. However, in the middle of this meeting, she may receive a phone call from her sick child. The behaviors required in this situation, (e.g., nurturance, empathy) are different. This may lead to behavior-based conflict, during which the behaviors required in the meeting conflict with the behaviors expected of a parent.

Those who are high in self-monitoring are concerned with the social cues given

for one's behavior and will alter their behavior depending on the demands of the situation. Those who are low in self-monitoring attend to internal cues to guide their behavior. They exhibit little cross-situational variability in their behavior (Hamid, 1989). Snyder & Gangestad (1986) later refined the self-monitoring construct and identified high self-monitors as those who

are thought to regulate their expressive self-presentation for the sake of desired public appearances, and thus be highly responsive to social and interpersonal cues of situationally appropriate performance (p. 125).

Snyder (1974) suggested that there are several reasons for self-monitoring of one's own behavior: (a) to show one's actual emotional state; (b) to show an emotional state that isn't the same as the emotional experience; (c) to hide a true emotion that is not appropriate either by showing a different emotion or by not responding; (d) to show an emotion when one feels nothing at all (Snyder, 1974). Snyder (1974) posits that self-monitoring can occur because of situational expectancies (e.g., a social comparison process) or because of some internal cue that dictates what type of behavior is appropriate. High self-monitors tend to be situation-focused and are highly responsive to situational circumstances (Snyder & Cantor, 1980). Women who are high self-monitors may alter their behavior according to the demands of the work (or family) role. For example, if a woman has an important project, she may have to work overtime in order to meet the demands of the situation in spite of the fact that her children may be waiting at home for her.

It is this author's contention that high self-monitors would experience more anxiety and stress because they tend to alter their behavior in order to suit the situational demands. This proposition is borne out by data presented by Furnham

(1989). She found a positive and significant relationship between neuroticism and self-monitoring.

There are several studies that are of particular relevance for the purpose of this investigation, because of the relationships among several important variables in this study - self-monitoring, work/family conflict, and well-being. Eichenhofer, Gerstein, Valutis, and Jankowski (1987) studied the effects of anxiety on self-monitoring. They failed to support the hypotheses that high self-monitors would show decreased self-monitoring when in an anxiety-producing situation and that low self-monitors would maintain their self-monitoring when in this situation. However, the variable of self-monitoring was poorly operationalized.

Eichenhofer et al. (1987) contend that self-monitoring represents social self-confidence. This does not conform to the commonly-held notion that self-monitoring has to do with altering one's behavior according to the situational demands. Furthermore, to manipulate the variable of anxiety, participants were told that they would have to give a 10-minute talk to a gay group on gay lifestyles. The "control group" went through a relaxation seminar. This should not have been a control group as the anxiety was manipulated in this group in the opposite manner as in the experimental condition. While participants in the experimental group felt more anxiety than participants in the relaxation group, this variable may not have been salient or strong enough to affect self-monitoring. It is also possible that the direction of causality is wrong. Perhaps it is because individuals are high self-monitors that they experience anxiety.

Baron (1989) investigated the relationship between organizational conflict, the Type A behavior pattern, and self-monitoring. A self-report measure was used to

measure organizational conflict. This measure is not ideal because it is highly dependent upon the memory of the individual and can be affected by social desirability. However, he found main effects for Type A personality, sex and job level on frequency of conflict. He also found an interaction between self-monitoring and sex. Females who were high or moderate self-monitors reported a higher frequency of conflict with their subordinates than low self-monitors.

Baron suggests that it may be possible that high self-monitors recognize conflict more easily than low self-monitors. An alternative hypothesis for this finding may be that high self-monitors experience more stress simply by being a high self-monitor and always having to behave according to the dictates of the situation rather than internal motives. High self-monitors may experience more work/family conflict than low self-monitors, because the role demands (either work or family) on behavior will conflict with the behavior required in the other role.

This may be functional for working mothers who occupy multiple roles. They may have to change their behavior according to the demands of the role. However, if a working mother is constantly attending to the demands of the situation - a demanding boss and family - and not to her own internal demands or behavior (i.e., a high self-monitor according to Snyder & Gangestad (1986)), it could lead to a feeling of no control over one's life, which is related to anxiety and a decrease in mental and physical health or possible stress symptoms (Deffenbacher & Suinn, 1982; Weiner, 1990). This could be an antecedent to behavior-based conflict, one form of work/family conflict.

It is noteworthy that Baron (1989) found an insignificant correlation between Type A behavior and self-monitoring. These results are contradictory to Furnham's

(1989) results whereby correlations between self-monitoring and Type A behavior were strongly and significantly correlated. It is impossible to determine with certainty why the results differ, for the same measures were used in both studies. The best explanation is that the results must have been due to differences in the samples. However, additional research should be conducted to fully explicate the relationships.

Type A Behavior

The model also proposes a direct path between Type A behavior and both types of work/family conflict. Friedman and Ulmer (1984) describe Type A behavior as above all a continuous struggle, an unremitting attempt to accomplish or achieve more and more things or participate in more and more events in less and less time, frequently in the face of opposition - real or imagined - from other persons. The Type A personality is dominated by covert insecurity of status or hyperaggressiveness, or both (p. 31).

People who exhibit Type A behavior tend to perceive situations to be more taxing than they would objectively be seen (Smith & Anderson, 1986). Therefore, it is possible that a woman's perceptions of the demands of multiple roles could be affected by her personality type. For example, the struggle between the demands of work and family could be considered demanding by a Type A personality and therefore result in work → family and family → work conflict, but the same situation could be interpreted differently by a Type B.

There has been a great deal of investigation into the Type A personality as it is associated with Coronary Heart Disease (e.g., Friedman & Ulmer, 1984; Matthews, 1982). Friedman and Ulmer (1984) argue that the Type A personality can be modified,

thereby resulting in a large decrease in the risk of subsequent heart attacks.

There are many hypotheses as to why Type As behave the way in which they do. Friedman and Ulmer (1984) believe that the aggressive striving of Type As is an attempt to overcome a low sense of self-esteem. O'Keefe and Smith (1988) posit that a large discrepancy between self and standard along with a harsh judgment leads to the aggressive striving that is characteristic of Type As. They believe that it is this striving that leads to increased physiological arousal that is associated with Coronary Heart Disease. Matthews (1982), in a review of the literature, described the various conceptualizations of Type As. Three of the four approaches implicate the self-evaluative process as eliciting the Type A response. Glass (1977) proposed that Type A behavior is a coping mechanism for dealing with environmental stress; it is a method for maintaining some feeling of control over one's environment (as cited in Matthews, 1982).

Smith and Anderson (1986) proposed an interactional approach to Type A behavior and cardiovascular risk, which, like the stress-perspective of work/family conflict (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1987), takes into account the influence of the person on the environment. Smith and Anderson (1986) believe that not only do certain situations elicit Type A behaviors, but that Type As tend to seek out more challenging situations than their Type B counterparts. This is congruent with Snyder's (1974) account of high self-monitors, who choose to enter into situations that are consistent with their personalities. It would also seem to be related to working mothers. Despite the fact that the demands of the work and family roles may be incompatible at times, they still continue to strive to accomplish all of their role demands. This striving probably leads to strain-based conflict. Furthermore, Type As

tend to think that a situation is more challenging than it would seem to an objective party (Smith & Anderson, 1986).

Type A individuals also tend to prolong their exposure to challenging situations, and the expression of Type A behaviors may, in itself, lead to conflict (Smith & Anderson, 1986). The role demands of the work place (i.e., assertiveness, ambition) could be in conflict with parental demands, which high self-monitors attempt to fulfill. As explored earlier, this could be an antecedent to behavior-based conflict. Therefore, Type A behavior should not be overlooked in the exploration of work/family conflict. Finally, Type As tend to evaluate themselves harshly, attribute failure internally, and attend to negative feedback, thereby increasing the need for the aggressive striving that is so characteristic of Type As (Smith & Anderson, 1986).

A newer model of Type A behavior, the self-appraisal model (Strube, Boland, Manfredo, and Al-Falaj, 1987), extends the uncontrollability model and also coincides with the self-evaluation process in self-regulation. These authors suggest that control is not an end unto itself, rather Type As seek control because it provides information about their abilities, which seems to be the essence of the self-evaluative process. Because Type As tend to seek out situations that are challenging, information about their abilities may be unclear. This ambiguity about performance feedback should further exaggerate the typical Type A behavior.

Strube et al. (1987) tested the model first by varying the clarity of performance feedback while holding performance constant. They found that Type As were more satisfied when feedback was clear than when it was ambiguous. In study 2, subjects received failure feedback after having completed a cognitive abilities task. It was hypothesized that if Type As believed that a second task tested the same abilities as

the first task, Type As would restrain their effort, and their performance would drop. If, however, Type As believed that a new ability was being tested, Type As would exert effort, and there would be no drop in performance. These hypotheses were supported.

When the second task replicated the first, it was of no use for Type As to continue their effort as it would add no new information about their abilities. A third test of the model looked at the type of diagnostic information desired by Type As. According to the self-appraisal model, the desire for social comparison should increase when uncertainty increases. This portion of the model was supported.

This portion of the model also provides support for a self-monitoring/Type A connection. When a Type A is unsure of his or her abilities, he or she may look to others to help monitor himself or herself. Apparently, the same process may occur during the self-evaluative stage. This may be due to the fact that Type As do not have internal standards with which to evaluate themselves (Matthews, 1982). Type As tend to be high self-monitors; they tend to let the situation dictate their behavior (Furnham, 1989), and their standards may be, as a result, ambiguous (Matthews, 1982; Ward & Eisler, 1987b) thereby magnifying the Type A behavior.

Furthermore, Type As tend to be set goals that are extremely high, unrealistic, and rigid and impossible to attain. As a result, they are often dissatisfied with their performance (O'Keefe & Smith, 1988; Ward & Eisler, 1987b). Type As tend to base their self-esteem on how much they can produce (Friedman & Ulmer, 1984). Therefore, their goals tend to be excessive. Once they fail to achieve their goals, however, Type As tend to set a second goal that clearly exceeds their performance (Ward & Eisler, 1987a). This exaggerates the prototypical achievement-striving

tendencies of the Type A personality, and the extreme goals that have been set lead to failure.

For working mothers, the demands of the parental and work roles are difficult enough. The addition of a Type A personality would probably lead to the setting of goals that would insure failure. Ward and Eisler (1987b) hypothesized that these failure experiences would lead to negative psychological states. They found that anger and anxiety were found to be related to the failure of Type As to attain their goals.

O'Keefe and Smith (1988), in an investigation of the relationship between self-regulation and Type A behavior, hypothesized that Type As would have high standards for success, positive expectancies for success, and exhibit harsh levels of self-evaluation in the form of self-criticism. Their hypothesis was confirmed. Type A behavior was significantly correlated with high self-standards for success, high levels of self-criticism, positive expectancies, and low levels of self-reinforcement. Consistent with the fact that Type A behavior is highly correlated with self-monitoring and Type As tend to dislike ambiguity in their performance standards, O'Keefe and Smith also found that Type As were less satisfied with their performance than Type Bs when situational standards were missing.

It seems that Type As tend to perpetuate for themselves a vicious circle of high performance goals, failure, harsh self-evaluation, higher goals, more failure then psychological distress. For working mothers, the demands of the multiple roles may be extremely difficult and incompatible leading to work/family conflict. This conflict has been found to be related to psychological distress such as psychosomatic symptoms and depression (Frone et al., 1991).

It is hypothesized that the working mother with a Type A personality, who

usually has high performance goals, high parental goals, and harsh self-evaluation, and also has to manage the potentially conflictual demands of work and family would probably be one who would also experience psychological distress. Therefore, a direct path between Type A Behavior and well-being is presented in the model.

Self Regulation

While the relationship between work/family conflict and various outcome measures related to psychological distress has been well substantiated, the intervening process has never been explored. It seems that researchers have simply assumed that a high level of work/family conflict, in and of itself, is supposed to be stressful and therefore highly related to psychological distress (Thompson & Lounsbury, unpublished manuscript). The current model proposes that the self-regulation, an individual-difference variable with a strong theoretical base, provides an explanation of the process that intervenes between work/family conflict and various outcome variables. It is posited that self-regulation moderates the relationship between both types of work/family conflict and well being.

Self-regulation is the ability to regulate one's own thoughts, feelings, actions, and motivation (Bandura, 1991; Binswanger, 1991). It is a naturally occurring phenomenon that can be either unconscious or conscious (Bandura, 1991; Scheier & Carver, 1988). Self-reactive or self-regulatory processes determine how well individuals are able to control and focus their own behavior (Markus & Wurf, 1987). It gives people a sense of control, because they can navigate their own route through difficult times at work and home. R. Kanfer and Ackerman (1989) posit that self-regulatory activities are activated when an individual believes that a task facing him or

her will be difficult and that he or she has the capabilities to execute the task. They also argue that "self-regulation is an essential mechanism for bringing about changes in allocation policy toward a task or total proportion of resource capacity actually engaged" (R. Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989, p.664).

There are several theoretical frameworks that attempt to explain the process of self-regulation. Carver and Scheier (1982a) and Scheier and Carver (1988), in their model of Control Theory, posit that people consistently shift attention to particular behaviors that are salient. This self-focus leads to self-evaluation and promotes enhanced self-regulation (Carver & Scheier, 1982b). When there is a discrepancy between the desired behavior and the actual behavior, the self-regulatory mechanisms are engaged such that the discrepancy is reduced. This Control Theory explanation for self-regulation is useful, especially because it accounts for the appearance of simultaneous goals, but it fails to explain people's attempting to surpass previously-set goals (Locke & Latham, 1990a).

Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (1986) provides a more meaningful theoretical framework for the study of self-regulation. This theory explains that there are two types of motivation: biologically based and cognitively based. Biologically-based motivators result from physiological conditions. In cognitively-based motivation, people's cognitions (e.g., plans, expectations, goals) guide their actions. According to the social-cognitive framework, self-regulation is developed during childhood and its development is dependent on the inner abilities of the individual (e.g., cognitive abilities), environmental effects, and the effects of the situation (Karoly, 1982).

Social-Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986) posits that one method of cognitively motivating people is through incentives. The other method of cognitively motivating

people operates through internal standards and self-reactive influences. The effects of the situation and the individual's personality type on self-regulation can affect people's internal standards.

When faced with a stressor, if an individual does not have adequate self-regulatory skills or perceives the stressor as beyond his or her control, the stressful event becomes even more threatening (Deffenbacher & Suinn, 1982). Self-regulatory skills enable an individual to perceive some sense of control over his or her actions (Deffenbacher & Suinn, 1982). Self-regulation theory is complemented well by Glass's (1977) work, in which he proposed that Type A behavior is a coping mechanism for maintaining a perception of control over a situation. This link between control and stress has been seen in women who experience role conflict (Repetti et al., 1989). That is, if women feel as if they have some control over their situation (either the work or parental role), it could result in their well being.

Researchers (Bandura, 1991; Gross & Drabman, 1982; Harter, 1982; Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989; Kanfer & Gaelick, 1986; Markus & Wurf, 1987) have categorized these cognitive motivators that operate through internal standards and comprise self-regulation into three interdependent self-regulatory mechanisms: self-observation, self evaluation, and self-reinforcement.

Self-observation

Self-observation has been defined in the self-regulation literature as attending to one's behavior and the consequences of that behavior (F.H. Kanfer & Gaelick, 1986; R. Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989; Markus & Wurf, 1987). It may occur as a result of stimuli from an internal or external source (R. Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). Success in self-observation requires that the behavior to which one is attending corresponds to the

behavior required for the attainment of one's goals (R. Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989).

Researchers in the area of self-regulation have rarely agreed on the exact operationalization and definition of self-observation in self-regulation. In fact, different terms have been used to identify this variable, including self-monitoring (F. H. Kanfer & Gaelick, 1986; R. Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989; Thomas, Petry, & Goldman, 1987) self-focus (Binswanger, 1991; Duval, et al., 1992; McCombs, 1986; Wicklund, 1975)), self-assessment (Frayne & Latham, 1987), self-recording (Gross & Drabman, 1982), self-directed attention (Carver & Scheier, 1982a), self-focused attention (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992), self-awareness (Wicklund, 1975), and self-observation (Bandura, 1991; Kopp, 1989).

Despite the differences in nomenclature, researchers seem to agree that self-observation is the first step in the self-regulation process and involves focusing in on the self. In fact, Bandura (1991) posits that "success in self-regulation partly depends on the fidelity, consistency, and temporal proximity of self-observation" (p.250). As a result, a great deal of the self-observation literature in self-regulation integrates other aspects of self-regulation (e.g., Bandura, 1991; Gross & Drabman, 1982); the processes really are interdependent.

• Self-observation provides several important functions within the realm of self-regulation (Bandura, 1991; Gross & Drabman, 1982). First, self-observation provides a diagnostic function in that people can observe stimuli in the environment that elicit certain behaviors. This information can be used to help determine a discrepancy between an actual and desired state, which, in itself, can be a motivating force (Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Duval et al., 1992; R. Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). This awareness of a discrepancy begins the self-regulatory process that enables people to

make changes in their detrimental behaviors (Carver & Scheier, 1982a; Wicklund, 1975). Bandura (1991) also states that self-observation serves a self-motivating function.

The information gained from self-observation can help one to set appropriate goals for oneself, a process that occurs in the self-evaluative stage. Finally, self-observation can empower an individual by enabling him/her to understand and select his/her problem behavior (rather than a researcher or social worker) and decide what needs to be changed (Kopp, 1989). Women may need to self-observe in order to succeed in the organization. Focusing in on one's behavior may lead women to perceive a reduction in anxiety, which is often defined as a feeling of loss of control (Deffenbacher & Suinn, 1982).

There are several factors that are thought to influence the effectiveness of self-observation, which can be defined by how much information is obtained, the duration of self-observation, and whether or not self-observation leads to other self-regulatory behaviors (Bandura, 1991; Gross & Drabman, 1980). Self-observation of present behavior will be more effective than self-observation of future behaviors (Bandura, 1991). This is similar to the effectiveness of the process of setting proximal (versus distal) goals during the self-evaluative phase. Goal setting and performance feedback, which informs an individual of his or her progress, also influence the effectiveness of self-observation (Bandura, 1991; Gross & Drabman, 1982). These processes occur during the self-evaluative phase, but one cannot self-evaluate if one is not sure of how one is doing. This is supported by the well-established finding that performance enhancement by setting goals does not occur without receipt of feedback (Erez, 1977). In addition, the motivation to change a behavior must accompany self-observation or

self-observation will cease and self-regulation will not occur (Bandura, 1991; Gross & Drabman, 1982). Furthermore, the valence of the targeted behavior will affect how well someone self-observes (Bandura, 1991; Gross & Drabman, 1982).

The severity of the stress symptoms that a woman experiences due to work/family conflict could affect the desirability of continuing the self-observation process. Finally, a focus on performance successes rather than failures also enhances self-observation (Bandura, 1991). This focus can be augmented by self-reinforcement, the third stage of self-regulation, which can also help maintain self-observation (Gross & Drabman, 1982).

In accordance with the fact that researchers rarely use the same name for the construct of self-observation in self-regulation, researchers rarely operationalize the variable in the exact same way. Gross & Drabman (1982) taught self-regulatory techniques to children and adolescents. They suggest having individuals use behavioral diaries, frequency counts, or duration and time sampling measures to self-monitor. Bandura (1991) suggests that several dimensions of performance can be used as target variables for self-observation, including quality, productivity, originality, sociability, morality, and/or deviancy. Kopp (1989) defines self-observation as a two-step process: (1) recognizing the event occur and (2) recording the observation.

Because the self-regulation process has never been investigated in the work/family conflict literature, there is little empirical research relevant to the topic. In one germane study, Duval, Hensley Duval, and Mulilis (1992) attempted to manipulate self-observation by using a camera focused on the research participant. This type of self-observation is imposed externally and different from many of the other studies in the self-regulation literature. It is based on a theory of objective self-awareness (Duval

& Wicklund, 1972; Wicklund, 1985) in which a person takes himself or herself to be the object of his or her attention. The theory originally posited that an individual can either be focused on the environment or the self. Self-focused attention was said to lead to an evaluation process in which an individual would find a discrepancy between self-and standard. This discrepancy would lead to negative or positive affect depending on the whether the discrepancy was positive or negative.

The use of a mirror to initiate self-focus in research based on objective self-awareness theory is analogous to a situationally-determined constraint on behavior. This could be comparable to the need that women feel to focus on their behavior due to the demands of the situation (e.g., a demanding supervisor). Duval found that with a camera focused on them, subjects increased their motivation to decrease a discrepancy between an actual state (self) and a desired one (standard). This shows that the process of self-observation leads to self-evaluation, the second component of self-regulation.

Self-evaluation

Self-evaluation refers to the way in which people make judgments about their performance (Rehm, 1982). McCombs (1986) considers this process to be the most important in the self system. This step involves a comparison of the individual's current state (i.e., that information obtained during self-monitoring) with some desired state (F. H. Kanfer & Gaelick, 1986; R. Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). Self-evaluation is dependent upon self-observation in that the information gained during self-monitoring is often used by individuals to establish a discrepancy between one's actual state and one's desired state. This discrepancy is used by the individual to set goals for himself

or herself and can be a motivating force (R. Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). Self-regulatory processes are enacted in order to reduce the discrepancy between the actual and the desired state (O'Keefe & Smith, 1988).

Some researchers (Locke & Latham, 1990a) believe that goal setting is the primary process that occurs during the self-evaluative phase. Unlike self-regulatory processes, goal-setting is a widely researched area in the literature of Industrial/Organizational Psychology. An individual's goals are an extremely influential determinant of his or her behavior (Locke & Latham, 1990a). They focus attention, mobilize effort, encourage persistence on tasks and facilitate the development of task strategies and plans (Locke & Latham, 1990a, 1990b). Goals and their accomplishment can help people to achieve the feeling of control that is implicit in the behavioral approaches of self-regulation. However, while the goals that one sets for oneself are extremely important and can influence performance, goal setting is not the most crucial aspect of the self-evaluative process. Rather, it seems that the way in which one evaluates oneself and establishes the discrepancy between self and standard could lead to some negative psychological consequences, such as depression or anxiety (Strauman & Higgins, 1988; Carver & Ganellen, 1983; Carver, Ganellen, & Behar-Mitrani, 1983; Ward & Eisler, 1987b).

Furthermore, the self-evaluation process is often cited in connection with the Type A literature (e.g., Strube et al., 1987) and should be also included in research concerning work/family conflict. Frone and Rice (1987) cited self-evaluation when they discussed the outcomes of their research. They suggest that self-evaluation processes and standard-setting may be responsible for job-parent conflict at all levels of parental involvement. Even at low levels of involvement, individuals may be setting high

enough standards to result in a perception of conflict.

Research in the area of depression is consistent with the literature on self-evaluation. Therefore, a direct path between self-evaluation and well-being is also shown in the model. Carver and Ganellen (1983) developed an instrument to measure aspects of self-punitiveness, which is related to depression. Two of the three factors, maintaining high standards and harshly judging oneself, are clearly related to the self-evaluative process of the Type A personality. The strongest predictor of depression was a third factor, overgeneralization, which is the tendency to globally attribute failure. The three factors together had a multiple correlation of .48 with depression. It may be that setting high goals, failing to achieve them, then criticizing oneself may lead to overgeneralization, which, in turn, then leads to depression.

Rehm (1982) described his self-control model of depression. A review of the literature showed that depressed people tend to have a breakdown in their self-regulatory activities; they tend to have deficiencies in self-observation, self-evaluation, self-reward, and an overabundance of self-punishment in the form of self-criticism (Rehm, 1982). Rehm (1982) posits that depressed people set high, rigid standards for themselves. This tends to lead to negative, harsh self-evaluations and self-criticism.

Ahrens (1987) also described self-observing and self-evaluative processes of depressed individuals. Festinger (1954) argued that all people have a need to evaluate themselves. A major tenet of his theory is that people strive to self-evaluate themselves accurately. However, a breakdown in self-regulation may lead to inaccurate self-evaluations that result in adverse psychological effects. For working mothers, this could occur due to work/family conflict. The harsh demands of the situation could lead one to evaluate oneself according to standards that are not

realistic (e.g., "supermom").

Ahrens (1987) argued that depressed people tend to engage in negative social comparisons when they evaluate themselves, which results in negative affect. He offered three possibilities as to why depressed people have deficits in self-evaluative processes. They may tend to recall more negative information about themselves; they may choose more successful others with whom to compare themselves; they may choose negative self-comparisons when a situation is ambiguous and feedback about performance is ambiguous (Ahrens, 1987). All of these hypotheses are consistent with research already reviewed. Ahrens' (1987) hypotheses also incorporate Snyder's (1974) concept of self-monitoring (in that the individual looks to others for information about how to behave) as well as the difficulties that Type As have with ambiguous circumstances.

More recent research, however, has not supported Rehm's (1982) position that depressed individuals set higher standards for themselves than non-depressed persons. Rokke and Kozak (1989) investigated the self-evaluation and self-reward processes of dysphoric and non-dysphoric college students. They found no differences in standard setting of the two groups, but they did see that dysphoric students evaluated themselves more harshly than non-dysphoric college students. This harsh self-evaluation often leads to a deficit in self-reinforcement, the third aspect of self-regulation. If one fails to achieve one's goals, one probably feels undeserving of self-reinforcement.

Self-reinforcement

Self-reinforcement refers to an individual's reactions to his or her performance

(F. H. Kanfer & Gaelick, 1986) or when an individual self-delivers praise, reward, or some positive consequence (Gross & Drabman, 1982; Heiby, 1983). Self-reinforcement promotes motivation and behavior change (Kanfer, 1977). F. H. Kanfer & Gaelick (1986) posit that an individual's reactions are usually internal feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction rather than externally imposed stimuli. However, self-reinforcement can occur when reinforcers that are originally externally imposed begin to be controlled by the self (Harter, 1982). This implies that self-observation is a crucial aspect of the self-reinforcement process. Only if one is observing one's behavior and realizes that a goal has been attained can one self-reinforce. Similarly, self-evaluation is extremely important. If the discrepancy between the actual and the ideal state is never determined, one would never be able to know when goals are attained, and self-reinforcement is impossible.

The attributional process is also an important variable in self-reinforcement (Rehm, 1982). If one attributes failure to lack of ability or effort rather than to an unattainable goal, one is less likely to self-reinforce. This would probably occur with the Type A personality whose goals are excessive, and self-evaluation is harsh.

In an investigation of the self-defeating personality disorder, Schill and Kramer, (1991) found that self-criticism and failure to finish tasks were related to failure to self-reinforce and depression. While working mothers may not possess self-defeating personalities, the potentially-harsh situational demands may lead to a lack of goal attainment. In accordance with previous research, this probably leads to a low frequency of self-reinforcement and depression. Heiby (1983b, as cited in Wagner et al., 1988) also found that a low frequency of self-reinforcement was significantly associated with depression. Oullette (1987) stated that low self-denigration is an

important personality variable that moderates the effects of environmental stressors. Self-reinforcement can offer someone the opportunity to praise oneself when one's goals are accomplished.

Females tend to be more self-critical than males (Miller & Kirsch, 1987), and the ability to self-reward when one accomplishes goals is an important aspect of feeling in control, maintaining high self-esteem or self-efficacy, and fighting off the effects of stress. Type A women facing work/family conflict who self-evaluate harshly and set unattainable goals probably do not self-evaluate accurately or self-reinforce frequently.

Self-Efficacy

The model also proposes that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between both types of work/family conflict and well being. In the discussion of their study of dysphoric college students, Rokke and Kozak (1989) argued that it is not the absolute standard (i.e., the goal) per se that is the critical aspect of depressive self-regulatory processes. Rather, it is the individual's expectancies for success or self-efficacy that affect whether or not the individual exhibits harsh self-evaluation (Rokke & Kozak, 1989). If an individual believes that he or she can achieve the goals that he or she sets (i.e., he or she has high self-efficacy) and then does not achieve them, this will lead to negative self-evaluation. Ahrens's (1987) review of the literature supported this argument. He contended that depressed people tend to set goals in excess of their self-efficacy expectations. Therefore, the model presents self-efficacy as another variable that moderates the relationship between work/family conflict and well being.

Self-efficacy is a judgment of one's feelings of competence in a particular

situation (McCombs, 1986). It is "one's beliefs in one's capabilities to execute the competencies needed to exercise control over events that affect one's welfare" (Bandura, 1986, p.1). It represents a dynamic judgment of one's performance capabilities (Gist et al., 1991). Bandura (1986) considers self-efficacy to be the mechanism by which people's energy and resources are mobilized into action.

Bandura (1977, 1982, 1990) and Wood and Bandura (1989) have described four factors that can affect one's self-efficacy: performance accomplishments or enactive mastery; vicarious experience obtained through modeling; verbal persuasion; and emotional arousal or one's own physiological or psychological state. Of the four factors, enactive mastery leads to the greatest increases in self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1990; Gist & Mitchell, 1989); people's self-efficacy expectations are enhanced after they experience success in performance accomplishments. However, externally-determined information, such as vicarious experience, can also affect self-efficacy and performance.

One's perceptions of one's abilities may provide diagnostic information that individuals, particularly Type As, desire. This information can be used to determine whether an individual continues to exert effort on a task or whether he or she should withhold effort. That is, self-efficacy has strong motivational effects. It has also been shown to be a stronger predictor of future performance than past performance (Gist, Stevens, & Bavetta, 1991). Furthermore, people's self-efficacy expectations can affect the way they visualize success and failure. For example, those with high self-efficacy expectations will persevere even under difficult or adverse conditions; they increase their effort in the face of difficulties (Bandura, 1990). Perhaps they even increase their self-regulatory activities when the discrepancy between the desired and the actual

state appears to be large. However, if one is a Type A personality, high self-efficacy may cause one to exaggerate his or her achievement striving even when one's goals are unattainable. A working mother with high self-efficacy could attempt to achieve all her work deadlines and still attend all of her children's activities in and out of school. This is nearly impossible and could lead to self-criticism, overgeneralization, and depression (Carver & Ganellen, 1983).

On the other hand, one's level of self-efficacy can affect the level of stress one feels after experiencing difficult situations and also one's vulnerability to depression (Bandura, 1991). Taylor (1991) states, "the importance of self-efficacy beliefs in the practice of health behaviors (Bandura, 1986) and the health benefits of control (e.g., Langer and Rodin 1976; Rodin 1986) are well established" (p. 68). High self-efficacy expectations can lead one to feel a sense of control over one's situation (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Hardiness, which includes a perception of control, was found to be related to decreased stress in working women (Schmied & Lawler, 1986).

Unrealistic expectations, however, as exhibited by an extremely high level of self-efficacy, could lead to some negative outcomes. A high level of self-efficacy could magnify the prototypical striving of the individual and the associated negative psychological states. More reasonable efficacy expectations, as exhibited by a moderate level of self-efficacy, could help one to alleviate the effects of stressful work/family conflict.

A Synthesis

In the present study, a model is proposed that addresses the impact of the individual on the relationship between work/family conflict and well being. It examines

the antecedent effects of job demands, family demands, self-monitoring and Type A behavior on work/family conflict. Because of the lack of theory in the work/family conflict literature, the model also examines the process that occurs between the experience of work/family conflict and well being. It investigates the moderating effects of self-regulation and self efficacy on the relationship between work/family conflict and well being.

Specifically, it is posited that if women feel as if they have some control over their situation, which is accomplished through the self-regulatory process, the resulting outcome would be a state of well being. It is also posited that while self-regulation enables one to perceive a sense of control, it is also possible that, as a reaction to work/family conflict, a woman may increase her self-regulation to such an extent that it is maladaptive. That is, harsh self-regulation could lead to a perception of control at the expense of a woman's well being.

Because the work/family conflict situation is so ambiguous, and feedback is unclear, research has shown that the Type A woman may set excessive goals for herself. If the situation no longer provides information about her abilities, she may then exhibit the helpless orientation in accordance with Strube et al.'s (1987) research. Both of these types of behavior will lead to harsh self-evaluation. This type of behavior often leads to self-criticism and overgeneralization, which then leads to depression. The process of self-criticism and overgeneralization is more likely especially when one's self-efficacy is extremely high and one expects a great deal for oneself.

CHAPTER II

Problem Statement and Hypotheses

In the present study, an investigation of the impact of various individual and situational variables on the relationship between work/family conflict and well-being is proposed. Specifically, this study examines the relationships among job demands, family demands, self-monitoring, Type A behavior, self-regulation, self-efficacy, work/family conflict, and well being. Figure 1 presents the conceptual model with the corresponding hypotheses. Specifically, it is hypothesized that:

- 1) Job demands will be positively related to work → family conflict. This hypothesis is based on prior research (e.g., Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1991) demonstrating these effects.
 - 1a) Work pressure, lack of autonomy, and role ambiguity, will be positively related to work → family conflict.
 - 1b) Number of hours worked will be positively related to work → family conflict.
 - 1c) Job level will be positively related to work → family conflict.
- 2) Family demands will be related to family → work conflict.
 - 2a) Number of children will be positively related to family → work conflict.
 - 2b) Age of youngest child will be negatively related to family → work conflict.
 - 2c) Income level will be negatively related to family → conflict.
- 3) Self-monitoring will be positively related to work/family conflict.
 - 3a) Self-monitoring will be positively related to work → family conflict.
 - 3b) Self-monitoring will be positively related to family → work conflict.

These hypotheses are based on a review of the literature suggesting that self-monitoring may be related to behavior-based conflict. That is, if a woman is a high self-monitor and constantly attending to the demands of conflicting situations (i.e., the work and family roles), it will lead to work/family conflict.

4) Type A behavior will be positively related to work/family conflict and negatively related to well being. Specifically,

4a) Type A behavior will be positively related to work → family conflict.

4b) Type A behavior will be positively related to family → work conflict.

4c) Type A behavior will be positively related to harsh self-evaluation.

4d) Type A behavior will be positively related to depression.

4e) Type A behavior will be positively related to somatization.

Type As tend to set extremely high goals for themselves that are rarely possible to meet and therefore interfere with role demands in both the work and family arenas (Greenglass, 1990; O'Keefe & Smith, 1988; Ward & Eisler, 1987b). Furthermore, this failure to achieve one's goals has been shown to lead to harsh self-evaluative processes (O'Keefe & Smith, 1988).

5) Work/family conflict will be negatively related to well being. Specifically,

5a) Work → family conflict will be positively related to depression.

5b) Family → work conflict will be positively related to depression.

5c) Work → family conflict will be positively related to somatization.

5d) Family → work conflict will be positively related to somatization.

6) The model posits that harsh self-evaluation will be negatively related to several variables. Specifically,

6a) Harsh self-evaluation will be negatively related to self-reinforcement.

- 6b) Harsh self-evaluation will be positively related to depression.
- 6c) Harsh self-evaluation will be positively related to psychosomatic symptoms of stress.

These hypotheses stem from research (e.g., O'Keefe & Smith, 1988) showing that individuals who judged themselves harshly exhibited low levels of self reinforcement. Furthermore, Carver and Ganellen (1983) found that harsh self-evaluation was shown to be related to depression, which is one operationalization of well being in this study.

7) Self-regulation will moderate the relationship between work/family conflict and well being. It is proposed that negative psychological states (i.e., depression and psychosomatic symptoms of stress) related to work/family conflict will be exacerbated by a high level of self-observation, harsh self-evaluation, and low levels of self-reinforcement. Specifically, it is proposed that

- 7a) Self-regulation will moderate the relationship between work → family conflict and depression.
- 7b) Self-regulation will moderate the relationship between family → work conflict and depression.
- 7c) Self-regulation will moderate the relationship between work → family conflict and somatization.
- 7d) Self-regulation will moderate the relationship between family → work conflict and somatization.

8) For Type A women and high self monitors, self-efficacy will moderate the relationships between both types of work/family conflict and well being. Specifically,

- 8a) Self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between work → family

conflict and depression.

- 8b) Self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between family → work conflict and depression.
- 8c) Self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between work → family conflict and somatization.
- 8d) Self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between family → work conflict and somatization.

Those individuals who are Type A or high self-monitors who also have high self-efficacy will experience less well being than those with low self-efficacy. It is proposed that high expectations of oneself (i.e., high self-efficacy) will magnify the prototypical striving of these individuals and the associated negative psychological states.

CHAPTER III

Method

Sample

Surveys were collected from working mothers largely residing in the New York Metropolitan area. Two hundred fifty surveys were distributed; 119 usable surveys were returned, resulting in a response rate of 47.6%. Data were collected from working mothers in a diversity of organizations, occupations, and occupational levels. Of the 119 surveys collected, 15 were removed because the youngest child at home was over 18. These women were removed from the study because the work/family conflict issues of working mothers with younger children differ from women with children over 18 (Bedian et al., 1988). The final sample consisted of 104 participants.

Sample Demographics

Table 1 reports the ages of the women in the sample. The majority of the sample (79.8%) ranged in age from 31 - 45, with the age range of 36 - 40 occurring most frequently (32.7%). Table 2 provides information about the marital status of women in the sample. The overwhelming majority of women in the sample were married (85.6%). Almost 10% of the sample were divorced, and almost 5% were single (never married) or living with a non-spouse significant other. Table 3 presents the frequencies and percentages of the number of children women in the sample had. The largest percentage (47.1%) of the sample had two children, and the majority of the sample (56.7%) had a child less than six years. Table 4 presents the data for the age category of the youngest child at home.

Almost one-half (49%) of the sample indicated that their job level was professional. The next largest grouping (16.3%) were clerical workers. Approximately 13% of the sample worked as managers, and almost 11% were semi-professional. The majority of the sample (55.8%) worked 31 - 40 hours per week. Tables 5 and 6 present the frequencies for job level and number of hours worked each week. The average total family income was \$86,209, and the median income was \$75,000. The total family income level ranged from \$17,000 to \$300,000.

Procedure

Participants constituted a non-student, convenience sample. These subjects were contacted by the researcher either in person or by mail and were provided with an anonymous postage paid mailer package. Each package contained an introductory cover letter describing the research and the questionnaire containing the measures. A copy of the cover letter is shown in Appendix A. Participation was voluntary and anonymous.

All subjects were administered 10 survey instruments regarding life satisfaction, Type A Behavior, self-observation, self-evaluation, self-reinforcement, self-efficacy, job satisfaction, well being (one depression survey and one somatization survey), job demands, self-monitoring, and work/family conflict. These materials were administered as one package in one of three orders to insure that the placement of an instrument did not affect overall results. These surveys and their orders are presented in Appendix M.

Measures

Type A Behavior

There are several popular methods of measuring Type A Behavior, including the Jenkins Activity Survey (JAS), the Structured Interview (SI), and the Framingham Type A Scale (FTAS). Although these measures are supposed to measure the same construct (i.e., Type A Behavior), they do not (Matthews, 1982; O'Keefe & Smith, 1988). As Matthews (1982) stated,

these measures assess different behavioral characteristics, share little common method variance, and have been used in different kinds of studies.

Nonetheless, all are related to incidence of coronary heart disease and assess some of the behaviors collectively called the Type A behavior pattern (p.305).

Ward and Eisler (1987) found that FTAS-defined Type As displayed similar self-evaluative processes (i.e., high performance standards and personal goals) to JAS-defined Type As. O'Keefe and Smith (1988) investigated the relationship between self-regulatory processes and Type A Behavior as assessed by the JAS, SI, and FTAS. They found that the JAS was consistently related to self-regulatory processes, including high standards and self-criticism. Structured Interview-defined Type As were significantly, though weakly, related to self-regulatory processes. FTAS-defined Type As displayed a behavior pattern that combined typical Type A characteristics (e.g., high standards and high levels of self-criticism) and some unique emotional, motivational, and environmental correlates (e.g., negative expectancies, greater overgeneralization, and low levels of self-reinforcement) (O'Keefe & Smith, 1988).

Because the current research investigates the effects of motivational (i.e., self-regulation), emotional (i.e., well being), and environmental variables (i.e., organizational

characteristics, demographics), Type A Behavior was measured by the FTAS (Haynes, Levine, Scotch, Feinleib, & Kannel, 1978). The FTAS is a 10-item self-report measure. Five items assess the extent to which certain traits and qualities describe the respondent (on a four-point Likert-type scale). Five additional items ask the respondent to describe feelings at the end of an average day at work (on a True/False scale) (Haynes, Levine, Scotch, Feinleib, & Kannel, 1978). The internal consistency reliability of this original 10-item measure has been estimated to be .70 for women (Haynes, Levine, Scotch, Feinleib, & Kannel, 1978).

The second part of the scale was revised to incorporate a 5-point Likert response scale. A copy of this measure is shown in Appendix B. For data analysis, the first five responses (which used a 4-point Likert scale) were weighted so that each item in the 10-item scale had an equal weight when an overall Type A Behavior mean was calculated. In the current study, the alpha reliability coefficient for this scale using the revised format was found to be .74. During analyses, the first five questions were recoded so that all responses were in the same direction; a higher mean score indicated a higher Type A score.

Self-Monitoring

Self-monitoring was assessed by 18 items developed by Snyder and Gangestad (1986) shown in Appendix C. This scale measures the extent to which an individual behaves according to situational constraints (i.e., she is a high self-monitor) or according to internal demands (i.e., she is a low self-monitor). Various research studies described in the literature review provided evidence for its convergent and discriminant validity, and the scale had an internal consistency reliability of .70 (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986).

Typically, this scale uses a True/False response format. For purposes of this research, a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree was used. In the present sample, the alpha reliability was .75. Items 1, 2, 3, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, and 16 were recoded so that all items were scored in the same direction. A higher score indicated that a participant was a higher self-monitor.

The original, 25-item true/false scale was developed by Snyder (1974). This scale had a Kuder-Richardson reliability of .70 and test-retest reliability of .83. Numerous construct validations were performed. The first set of validations attempted to provide evidence of discriminant validity. Snyder (1974) found small, negative relationships between self-monitoring and social desirability ($r = -.14$, $p < .01$) and self-monitoring and psychopathic deviance ($r = -.2002$, $p < .01$). The social-monitoring scale was unrelated to the *c* scale of the Performance Style Test, which is designed to measure the extent to which one is knowledgeable about the type of performance required in various situations and who behaves according to the dictates of the situation. Furthermore, the self-monitoring scale was unrelated to scores on Christie and Geis's (1970) Machiavellian scale ($r = -.0931$, ns), Alpert-Haber's (1960) Achievement Anxiety Test ($r = .1437$, ns), and Kassarian's (1962) inner-other directedness scale ($r = -.1944$, ns) (Snyder, 1974).

Numerous studies have attempted to establish the construct validity of the self-monitoring scale. Factor analyses were performed and revealed three factors underlying the 25-item self-monitoring scale: Expressive self-control; Social stage presence; Other-directed self presentation (Briggs & Cheek, 1980 as cited in Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). Snyder and Gangestad (1986), however, argued that there is one genetic component (General Factor A) that measures social surgency, extraversion,

social self-confidence, and instrumentality (Briggs & Cheek, 1988). General Factor A is a causal influence and common to the majority of items in the scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). Snyder and Gangestad (1986) did concede, however, that further investigation should be performed in an attempt to delineate the relationship between self-monitoring and cross-situational variability/consistency.

Snyder and Gangestad (1986) revised the 25-item scale to an 18-item scale. The 18-item scale has a correlation of .93 with the 25-item scale (Briggs & Cheek, 1988; Snyder, 1987). This revised scale has an internal consistency reliability of .70 (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). In addition, this refinement resulted in a reduction of extraneous sources of variance and therefore a purer factor structure (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). Snyder & Gangestad (1986) found three factors underlying the 18-item self-monitoring scale, with the first factor accounting for 62% of the common factor variance. Miller & Thayer (1989) concurred that the 18-item scale is psychometrically superior to the 25-item scale.

Demographic Variables. The following demographic information was collected: age category, income, marital status, number of children, and age category of youngest child. The age category of the youngest child corresponds to decreasing levels of parental demands (Bedian et al., 1988). A copy of this measure is shown in Appendix D.

Job Demands The review of the literature indicated that there are several job demands that can affect work → family conflict. Several job demands were assessed by asking participants the number of hours worked each week and their job level.

Additional job demands were assessed by a 20-item scale that measures work pressure, autonomy, and role ambiguity (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992) shown in

Appendix E. This Job Stressor Index is based on items taken from previous measures and uses a four-point Likert-type response format ranging from almost always to almost never/never (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). The internal consistency reliability of these items was estimated to be .72 (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). In the current sample, the alpha reliability coefficient was .78.

Previous research (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1991; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992) used this scale as a unidimensional measure. Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992), however, factor analyzed this scale and found that items related to ambiguity and lack of autonomy loaded on one factor and work pressure items loaded highly on a second factor. In their path analysis, the results indicated that each factor was positively related to work/family conflict. In addition, parameters in their model were identical using the Job Stressor Index as a whole and using the two-factor solution. In order to simplify presentation of results, these researchers used the Job Stressor Index as a unidimensional index.

In the current study, a principal components analysis of the 20 job stressor items revealed five components with eigenvalues greater than or equal to one. A three-factor solution indicated that, with the exception of item 10, work pressure items loaded highly on the first factor (factor loadings = .43 to .72); role ambiguity items loaded highly on the second factor (.58 to .81); autonomy items loaded highly on the third factor (factor loadings = .37 to .78). A two-factor solution indicated that the autonomy and role ambiguity items loaded highly on the first factor (factor loadings = .39 to .65); with the exception of item 10, the work pressure items loaded highly on the second factor (factor loadings = .41 to .72). Because of these results, three separate analyses involving organizational characteristics were conducted using different

numbers of factors each time; analyses using this measure were conducted using a one factor, two factor, and three factor solution.

Work/Family Conflict

Eight items were used to measure work/family conflict; they are displayed in Appendix F. Four of these items were developed by Kopelman, Greenhaus, and Connolly (1983) and assess the extent of work → family conflict. The alphas for this scale were reported to be .81 and .83 in two studies (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). Four additional items were developed by Gutek, Searle, and Klepa (1991) to measure the extent of family → work conflict. Respondents rate both sets of items on a five-point Likert scale. The alphas for these items were reported to be .79 and .83 in two studies (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). In the present research, the alphas were .63 for work → family conflict and .72 for family → work conflict.

Gutek, Searle, and Klepa (1991) reported a correlation between these two sets of items of .26. In the present research, the correlation between these two sets of items was .27. Therefore, these items were treated as two separate scales.

Self-Observation

A self-observation measure, shown in Appendix G, was developed to determine the extent to which women self-observe. This scale is based on the Private Self Consciousness subscale of the Self-Consciousness Scale (Fenigstein, Scheier, & Buss, 1975). The self-observation scale originally consisted of 13 items designed to measure the extent to which people are aware of their behavior related to work and home. The scale used in this research, however, was revised to reflect a more behavioral view of self-awareness.

A focus group was conducted to determine if the items in the revised measure

were easily understandable. Results of the focus group indicated that three items were difficult to interpret, and these were therefore dropped from the scale. Once the scale was revised, it was pilot tested using 26 adults working full time. The revised measure was not related significantly to the Marlowe Crowne Social Desirability scale.

Statistical analysis of the data in the current sample revealed an internal consistency reliability of .74.

Self-Evaluation

The Attitudes Toward Self Scale (ATS) (Carver & Ganellen, 1983) was used to assess an individual's self-evaluation and is shown in Appendix H. The ATS is an 18-item measure that has three subscales, the High Standards subscale, the Overgeneralization subscale, and the Self-Criticism subscale. Only the High Standards subscale was used in this study. The High Standards subscale consists of seven items that measure the tendency to maintain high standards for self-evaluation (e.g., "The standards I set for myself are higher than those that other people seem to set for themselves"). It had a test-retest reliability of .67 (Carver & Ganellen, 1983). In the present research, the alpha reliability coefficient was .85.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy was measured by the Generalized Expectancy for Success Scale (Fibell & Hale, 1978), shown in Appendix I. The GESS is a 30-item Likert-type scale that assesses the extent to which an individual expects to attain desired goals across a broad sphere of areas, including the work role and the family role. Test-retest reliability was estimated to be .80 for women, and the Spearman-Brown split-half reliability (odd-even) was reported to be .90 for women (Fibell & Hale, 1978). The GESS had a correlation of $-.54$ ($p < .01$) with depression for women, demonstrating that

low levels of self-efficacy were significantly related to depression (Fibel & Hale, 1978). Discriminant validity was demonstrated by a small correlation between the GESS and scores on the Social Desirability Scale ($r = .26, p < .05$) for women (Fibel & Hale, 1978). Also, high scores on the GESS were significantly related to an internal locus of control for women ($r = .26, p < .01$). Coefficient alpha reliability was estimated to be .83 in this research.

Self-Reinforcement

The Frequency of Self-Reinforcement Questionnaire (Heiby, 1983), shown in Appendix J, is a 12-item true/false instrument used to assess the extent to which an individual self-reinforces. The test-retest reliability of the entire measure has been estimated to be .92, and the split-half reliability has been estimated at .87 (Heiby, 1983). Furthermore, this measure had a correlation with a self-praise task of .69, thereby demonstrating convergent validity (Heiby, 1983). Factor analysis yielded five factors (Wagner, Holden, & Jannarone, 1988), and items loading on two factors, self-reinforcement/self-reward and don't self-praise, were used to measure the extent to which one self-reinforces. The response format was revised to a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Internal consistency reliability of this revised scale was .73.

Depression

To assess depression, the depression subscale of the SCL-90-R (Derogatis, 1992), a frequency of symptoms scale, was used. A copy of this measure appears as Appendix K. Respondents indicate the extent to which they have experienced each of the 10 symptoms of depression during the previous seven days. The SCL-90-R has been used frequently in work/family research. Barnett and Marshall (1992) reported

coefficient alpha to be .88. In the present research, coefficient alpha was .90. A test-retest correlation of .82 has been reported (Derogatis, 1983, as cited in Barnett & Marshall, 1992).

Psychosomatic Symptoms of Stress

To assess psychosomatic symptoms of stress, the somatization subscale of the SCL-90-R (Derogatis, 1992) was used and is displayed in Appendix L. This measure is often used in work/family conflict research (e.g., Barnett & Marshall, 1992; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1991; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Respondents indicate the extent to which they have experienced each of the 10 somatic symptoms during the previous seven days. Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992) reported an internal consistency reliability coefficient of .87; the current research also had an alpha of .87.

CHAPTER IV

Results

Table 7 presents the intercorrelations of the variables involved in this study.

The first hypothesis explored the relationships between job demands and work → conflict. Specifically, it was proposed that work pressure, lack of autonomy, and role ambiguity, number of hours worked per week and job level would be positively related to work → family conflict. Table 8 presents the partially supportive results of these analyses using the job stressor index as a unidimensional measure of job stressors and also using the two-factor and three-factor solutions.

All three factors, role ambiguity, lack of autonomy, and work pressure are related to work → family conflict ($r=.40$, $p<.000$, $r=.27$, $p<.005$, and $r=.47$, $p<.000$, respectively). As a unidimensional and a two-factor index, the job stressor index is also related to work → conflict ($r=.47$, $p<.000$ and $r=.42$, $p<.000$, respectively). Number of hours worked per week and job level are not related to work → conflict.

Hypothesis 2 explored the relationships among family demands and family → work conflict. Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Number of children, age of youngest child, and income level are not related to family → work conflict.

The third hypothesis explored the relationships among self-monitoring, work → family conflict, and family → work conflict and was not supported. The results indicated that self-monitoring is related neither to work → family conflict ($r=.01$, ns) nor to family → work conflict ($r=.14$, ns).

Hypothesis 4, which examined the relationships among Type A behavior, self-evaluation, work → family conflict, and family → work conflict, and well being was

partially supported. Type A behavior is strongly and significantly related to both harsh self-evaluation ($r=.48, p<.000$) and work \rightarrow family conflict ($r=.62, p<.000$) but not to family \rightarrow work conflict ($r=.11, ns$). Type A behavior is also related to well being. Specifically, Type A behavior correlated strongly and significantly with depression ($r=.31, p<.002$) and somatization ($r=.24, p<.02$).

Hypothesis 5 proposed that work/family conflict would be directly related to well being. Specifically, it was proposed that both types of work/family conflict would be related to both depression and somatization. This hypothesis was partially supported. Work \rightarrow family conflict is related to depression ($r=.30, p<.002$) but not to somatization ($r=.16, ns$). Family \rightarrow work conflict is also related to depression ($r=.33, p<.001$), but not to somatization ($r=.19, ns$).

Hypothesis 6 investigated the relationships among self-evaluation, self-reinforcement, and well being. It was posited that individuals who judged themselves harshly would exhibit low levels of self-reinforcement and be more likely to be depressed (Carver & Ganellen, 1983). The results partially affirmed the hypothesis by indicating that harsh self-evaluation is related to low levels of self-reinforcement ($r=-.19, p<.05$) and depression ($r=.21, p<.03$), one operationalization of well being. However, self-evaluation is not related to somatization ($r=.09, ns$), the other operationalization of well being.

Hypothesis 7, which was not supported, proposed that self-regulation would moderate the relationship between both types of work/family conflict and well being. The relationships among the elements comprising self-regulation (i.e., self-observation, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement) dictated that the moderating effects of each variable be analyzed separately.

The intercorrelation between self-observation and self-evaluation was $-.43$ ($p < .000$); the intercorrelation between self-observation and self-reinforcement was $-.02$ (ns); the intercorrelation between self-evaluation and self-reinforcement was $-.19$ ($p < .05$). Therefore, the data were analyzed as if self-regulation were comprised of three, separate entities. The model presented in Figure 2 reflects this analysis of the data. In addition, each element of well being (i.e., depression and somatization) was used as a separate outcome variable.

The results indicated that none of the components of self-regulation moderate the relationship between work \rightarrow family conflict and well being or family work \rightarrow conflict and well being. A working mother's levels of self-observation, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement do not exacerbate depressive or somatic symptoms of stress due to the work/family conflict that she faces. Only one of the moderator effects approaches significance; it appears that harsh self-evaluation tends to moderate the relationship between work \rightarrow family conflict and somatization ($t = 1.687$, $p < .09$). Although this finding is not statistically significant at the generally accepted levels, it is meaningful because none of the other hypotheses involving somatization even approach significance.

Hypothesis 8 examined the effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between the two types of conflict and well being. Specifically, it was proposed that, for Type A women and high self-monitors, self-efficacy would moderate the relationship between both types of work/family conflict and well being. Since the well-being variables of depression and somatization are distinct, analyses were conducted separately for each outcome variable. This hypothesis was not supported.

Analyses for this hypothesis were conducted several ways. First, only subjects

scoring above the mean on Type A behavior (2.914) were analyzed. Using depression and somatization as outcome variables resulted in insignificant moderator effects.

For the second set of analyses, only subjects scoring above the mean on self-monitoring (3.204) were analyzed. None of these moderator effects are significant. Third, subjects who were either Type A or high self-monitors were included in the analysis. None of these analyses show significant moderator effects.

While the means on the work/family conflict measure were similar to previous research (i.e., Gutek, Searle, and Klepa, 1991), and responses varied across the range of scores (i.e., 1 through 5), most women in the sample reported that they experienced very little work/family conflict. Tables 9 and 10 display the response percentages for the two work/family conflict scales. The mean score for work → family conflict was 2.935, and the mean family → work conflict score was 2.238 on a scale of 1 to 5 from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. (Items were reverse coded for these tables and analyses; a higher score indicates a higher level of conflict.) Women surveyed in this research tended to disagree with the statements that reflect feelings of conflict.

Furthermore, the reliability of the two conflict scales was lower than in previous studies. Gutek et al. (1991) reported alpha reliabilities of .81 and .83 for work → family conflict and family → work conflict, respectively. In the current research, alpha reliabilities were .63 and .72 for work → family conflict and family → work conflict, respectively. While the variance in this particular sample was not significantly different from a sample in previous research (Gutek et al., 1991), it is possible that because of the lowered reliability and lack of variance, hypotheses involving moderating effects on the relationship between work/family conflict and well being were not supported or were only partially supported.

In addition, quite a bit of research (e.g., Lubinski and Humphreys, 1990; Russell and Bobko, 1992) has debated the proper method of data analysis to demonstrate a moderator effect. In fact, the discussion between researchers seems to fluctuate between one article describing a new and different method and the next article criticizing the former. After a review of the various methods, it was determined that hierarchical multiple regression would be used in the current study to detect moderator effects. However, moderator effects require large samples for adequate power. In the current study, the sample may not have been large enough to detect differences.

Post-Hoc Analyses

Because of the limited variance in the work/family conflict measures and the limitations inherent using hierarchical multiple regression, several post-hoc analyses were conducted to further investigate the moderator effects proposed. First, a nonlinear transformation of the work/family conflict measures was conducted. The two work/family conflict items (work → family conflict and family → conflict) were multiplied to create a squared term thereby to examine non-linear effects in the relationship between work/family conflict and well being. Hypotheses 7 and 8 were then reanalyzed to explore any non-linear effects in the relationship between work/family conflict and well being.

For hypothesis 7, it was proposed that the three components of self-regulation (i.e., self-observation, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement) would moderate the relationship between the squared work/family conflict term and well being (i.e., depression and somatization). Only one of the moderator effects was significant. Self-evaluation moderates the relationship between the squared work/family conflict term

and somatization ($t=2.214$, $p<.02$).

Hypothesis 8 proposed that for high self-monitors and Type A personalities, self-efficacy would moderate the relationship between the two work/family conflict terms and well being. The original analyses did not provide support for the hypothesis. Several post-hoc analyses were conducted.

The first post-hoc analysis was conducted using the entire sample. The results indicate that self-efficacy does moderate the relationship between work → family conflict and depression for the entire sample ($t=2.697$, $p<.008$). The moderating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between family → work conflict and depression approach significance ($t=1.823$, $p<.07$). However, this direction was contrary to the proposed direction. High self-efficacy seems to act as a buffer between work → family conflict and depression. That is, women with work → family conflict who also have high self-efficacy are less likely to experience depression. None of the moderator effects using somatization as an outcome measure in the whole sample are significant.

Another post-hoc analysis for Hypothesis 8 investigated the moderating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between the squared work/family conflict term and well being. The results indicate that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between the squared work/family conflict term and depression ($t=2.932$, $p<.005$). This result is, again, contrary to the predicted direction. Self-efficacy does not moderate the relationship between the squared work/family conflict term and somatization ($t=.704$, ns).

Several additional post-hoc analyses for hypotheses 7 and 8 were conducted. Subgroup analyses were also used to investigate the moderator effects. In subgroup analysis, the sample is partitioned into a number of subgroups based on scores on a

moderator variable, and the correlations are compared across subgroups (Bamundo & Kopelman, 1980). Subgroup analyses are appropriate when differential prediction or validity is expected (Bamundo & Kopelman, 1980). In this case, it was expected that women with low levels of, for example, self-evaluation would have different levels of well being. Therefore, subgroup analyses are also appropriate in this research.

Hypotheses 7 and 8 were reanalyzed using the work → family and family → work conflict variables and the squared work/family conflict term in the subgroup analyses. The sample was partitioned into two groups based on a median split or partitioned into three even groups based on scores on the proposed moderator term. Then, the correlations between each of the three work/family conflict variables and each of the well being indices was computed. Pearson correlations were used for the work → family and family → work conflict terms; Spearman correlations were used for the squared work/family conflict term. Statistical significance of differences between correlations was determined by transforming the correlation coefficients to Fisher's Z (Guilford & Fruchter, 1978). The difference between the two Z scores is then divided by the standard error of the difference between two independent Z coefficients resulting in a z score (Guilford & Fruchter, 1978). Tables 11 - 18 present the results of these analyses.

Many of the correlations differentiated the groups. However, only a few differences between the high and low groups or the high, medium, and low groups were statistically significant. An interesting finding is that, contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 8, the relationship between work → family and family → work conflict and depression is much stronger for those with low self-efficacy than for those with high self-efficacy. High self-efficacy does not exacerbate the relationship between

work/family conflict and well being. It appears that self-efficacy has a buffering effect on depression for those with work/family conflict.

For hypothesis 7, subgroup analyses revealed a moderator effect for self-evaluation on the relationship between the squared work/family conflict term and depression. The correlation between the squared work/family conflict term and depression for the group with mild self-evaluation is $-.239$; the correlation for the group with harsh self-evaluation is $-.537$. This difference was statistically significant ($F=1.772$). This means that for women who reported harsh self-evaluation, as the level of work/family conflict increases, there is a stronger likelihood of also experiencing depression than for women who mildly self-evaluated.

There were also some moderator effects of self-reinforcement on the relationship between family \rightarrow work conflict and somatization and the squared work/family term and somatization. It seems that for those women who self-reinforce themselves infrequently, there was a very strong, significant correlation between family \rightarrow work conflict and somatization. For those women who self-reinforced at a moderate or high level, the relationship was negative; family \rightarrow work conflict was not related to somatization ($r=.14$, ns and $r=-.18$, ns). For women who self-reinforced at a moderate level, the correlation between the squared work/family conflict term and somatization was $.1206$, indicating for those women who a moderate level of self-reinforcement, there was a moderate relationship between work/family conflict and somatization. For those women with a high level of self-reinforcement, there was a strong correlation between work/family conflict and somatization in the opposite direction ($r=-.2806$). The squared work/family conflict term had a negative relationship to somatization. Women with work/family conflict who self-reinforced frequently tended to experience low levels

of somatization.

CHAPTER V

Discussion

This research was pursued in an attempt to illuminate possible effects of the working mother's personality on the relationship between types of work/family conflict (work interfering with family and family interfering with work) and well being. Furthermore, an attempt was made to investigate women's reactions to work/family conflict and how their reactions affect well being. More specifically, this exploratory study was an attempt to apply self-monitoring, Type A behavior, self-regulation, and self-efficacy to the work/family conflict setting. It was believed that the personality and self-regulatory processes of the woman would affect responses to stress caused by work/family conflict.

The original hypotheses in this study were either not supported or only partially supported. There are several explanations that can be offered. First, a high percentage of the convenience sample used were civil service workers or teachers. These types of jobs do not ordinarily require the number of hours that would seem to result in high levels of work/family conflict; teachers typically work about 10 months per year and, as a result, have more time than those in other organizational settings. In addition, only 4.8% of respondents worked 51-60 hours per week; no respondents worked over 60 hours per week. Furthermore, 97.1% of the sample had three or fewer children. These data resulted in a rather homogeneous sample with a lack of variability in responses, particularly on the work/family conflict scales. However, a comparison of sample variances revealed that the sample used in this research was not significantly different from previous research. Therefore, it may have been the

work/family conflict measures used in the research that resulted in a limited range of responses. Future research should be conducted to develop measures that more fully delineate work → family and family → work conflict

Hypothesis 7, which investigated the moderating effects of self-regulation on the relationship between the two types of work/family conflict and well being, was not supported in the original analyses. One explanation, discussed earlier, is the lack of variability in the work/family conflict scales. In addition, there tended to be little variation in the self-observation scale. It seems that there was a ceiling effect with the self-observation scale. Most women attended a great deal to their behavior, and the scale, as written, was unable to differentiate among the high levels of self-observation.

There were several original findings that are worthy of discussion. First, self-monitoring was not related to work → family conflict nor to family → work conflict. The relationships, however, trended in the right direction for both analyses, and the correlation between work → family conflict and self-monitoring approached significance ($p < .16$). This low correlation was affected by two factors: the lack of variability in the work/family conflict scales, which has already been discussed, as well as low variance in the self-monitoring scale. Future research with more heterogeneous samples should investigate this relationship to illustrate the effect of changing one's behavior according to situational demands on the relationship between work/family conflict and well being.

There was no support for Hypothesis 3, which investigated the relationship between family demand variables and the work/family conflict measures. Previous research has also demonstrated inconsistent results with regard to these variables. Range restriction was evident for the number of children; 47.1% of the women had two children. In addition, providing discrete response categories for the age of the

youngest child at home may have decreased variability such that there was no correlation between number of children and the work/family conflict measures.

Because of limited variance in the work/family conflict measures and limited power using hierarchical multiple regression, several post-hoc analyses were conducted. These analyses revealed that two components of self-regulation, self-evaluation and self-reinforcement, moderated the relationship between work/family conflict and well being. Using hierarchical multiple regression, self-evaluation was found to moderate the relationship between the squared work/family conflict term and somatization. Subgroup analyses revealed a moderator effect for self-evaluation on the relationship between the squared work/family conflict term and depression. For women who reported harsh self-evaluation, as the level of work/family conflict increases, there was a stronger likelihood of also experiencing depression or somatization than for women who mildly self-evaluated.

There were also some moderator effects for self-reinforcement on the relationship between family → work conflict and somatization and the squared work/family term and somatization. It seems that for those women who self-reinforce themselves infrequently, there was a very strong, significant correlation between family → work conflict and somatization. For those women who self-reinforced moderately or frequently, there was no relationship between work/family conflict and somatization.

During post-hoc analyses, self-efficacy was also revealed to be an important variable in the relationship between work/family conflict and well being. Using hierarchical multiple regression and subgroup analysis, self-efficacy moderated the relationship between work → family conflict and depression. These results were contrary to those predicted and provide support for the beneficial effects of self-

efficacy. Those with high self-efficacy do not seem to suffer the dramatic negative outcomes of work/family conflict.

This study has several implications for future research. Although Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) provided a useful typology of the three types of work/family conflict, their explanations of the conflict were purely based on situational variables (i.e., work and family demands). Several models have recently been developed that more fully examine the antecedents and consequences of work → family and family → work conflict. Furthermore, researchers are paying closer attention to the effect of the individual on the relationship between work/family conflict and its consequences.

Illustrative of this was the attempt in this research to determine whether self-monitoring could have been related to behavior-based conflict. While the results of this study did not support the hypothesis that self-monitoring is related to work/family conflict, other researchers should expand this line of investigation into the work/family conflict area.

Additionally, the effects of self-efficacy on the individual and in the self-regulation process need to be clearly delineated. Self-efficacy began as an extremely useful construct in determining why some people can overcome obstacles and others stop at the sight (or thought) of the first hurdle. This study lent support for this view of self-efficacy.

There is, however, another school of thought concerning self-efficacy. This conviction is that when high self-efficacy is combined with, for example, Type A behavior, the results are not beneficial. While this was not the case in this study, future research should investigate both the helpful and harmful aspects of self-efficacy. For example, there may be a point at which one's self-efficacy becomes a detrimental

part of the achievement striving process leading to harsh self-evaluation. Additionally, the effect of self-efficacy on Type A behavior should be investigated with respect to an individual's well being. Last, the differing effects of high self-efficacy for men and women has not been reported. It could be that high self-efficacy is a protective mechanism for men while exacerbating the burdens of working mothers.

With regard to the self-regulatory process, Bandura has claimed that self-efficacy is an overarching construct guiding the self-regulation process. In the current research, self-efficacy was included as separate entity from self-regulation. The results showed that it moderated the relationship between work/family conflict and symptoms of depression. It remains to be seen whether self-efficacy is a construct separate from self-regulation or a process guiding the three components of self-regulation.

Because this study was an initial attempt to apply the theoretical literature of self-regulation, it was incumbent upon this researcher to develop an instrument to measure self-observation. Previously, most of the applied research in self-regulation has used behavioral diaries and checklists. This new scale, however, was unable to overcome ceiling effects and differentiate among the extremely high levels of self-observation. It may also be that the scales were unable to capture the true essence of people's behavior in that they were self-report measures. Research should be devoted to the development of instruments to capture how individuals self-regulate on a daily basis.

The importance of this study is that it is the first to apply the theoretical work of self-regulation and self-efficacy to the work/family conflict area to more fully explore the process between work/family conflict and well being. The application of this theory has provided some explanation of why work/family conflict is related to such negative

outcomes. In this study, it was discovered that work/family conflict is highly related to depression or somatization when women severely evaluate themselves or self-reinforce infrequently. Depression was less likely to occur when a woman had high self-efficacy. Future research should incorporate the findings of this investigation in their studies. In addition, future research should be conducted to test the entire model used in this study.

In conclusion, this study has demonstrated that the personality of the woman can indeed have an effect on the relationship between work/family conflict and well being. It was shown that Type A behavior was strongly and significantly related to work/family conflict and to harsh self-evaluation. It has also shown that self-evaluation and self-reinforcement moderated the relationship between work/family conflict and well being. Typical organizational interventions that focus on reducing barriers to work/family balance should certainly be continued. However, this research provided evidence suggesting that it is not simply work nor the family that affects the relationship between work/family conflict and well being.

In responding to the questionnaire, some women expressed interest in having the opportunity to express the difficulties involved in being a working mother. One woman stated that, in spite of the trouble, she relished maintaining the roles of both parent and worker. Furthermore, the women in this sample seemed relieved to know that others felt as burdened as they did with the stresses of work and family. Simply having a way to express their frustrations seemed to alleviate some of the encumbrance.

Proactive organizations interested in improving productivity while maintaining a focus on the well-being of their employees could adapt the results of this research.

For example, managers could be trained to insure that performance-related goals are not too excessive in an attempt to reduce harsh self-evaluation. Furthermore, seminars could be implemented to educate employees about Type A behavior so as to mitigate its harmful effects.

In addition, providing a forum for working mothers to voice the difficulties inherent in occupying the sometimes conflictual roles of worker and parent in the form of seminars or "support groups" could ease the burden of working mothers by allowing them a form of social support. It could also reduce the harsh self-evaluation that some women seem to have. These groups could be a place where women would engage in discussion that enables them to contrast their situation with others. By participating in this open forum, women would be able to see that the discrepancy between the actual, the ideal, and the other is not as great as imagined. As a result, harmful self-evaluative processes could be reduced.

Finally, women could be trained to self-regulate in a more helpful way. Goals could be set at more realistic, attainable levels. Women could learn to recognize goal attainment. Then, women could be taught to self-reinforce themselves more frequently. By doing so, the likelihood of somatization would be decreased.

By introducing these interventions, employees could perceive the organization as providing socioemotional support. This is an important aspect of organizational climate, which has been linked to performance (Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990). Expanding the organization's socioemotional support of the working mother could have salutary results in enhancing important organizational and employee outcomes, such as motivation, productivity, and well being.

Table 1

Age Ranges

AGE RANGE	PERCENTAGE (N)
25 - 30	12.5% (13)
31 - 35	22.1% (23)
36 - 40	32.7% (34)
41 - 45	25.0% (26)
46 - 50	5.8% (6)
over 50	1.9% (2)

•

Table 2

Marital Status

Marital Status	PERCENTAGE (N)
Single (Never Married)	2.9% (3)
Living with Non-Spouse Significant Other	1.9% (2)
Married	85.6% (89)
Divorced or Separated	9.6% (10)

Table 3

Number of Children

NUMBER OF CHILDREN	PERCENTAGE (N)
1	35.6% (37)
2	47.1% (49)
3	14.4% (15)
4	1.0% (1)
5	1.0% (1)
over 5	1.0% (1)

Table 4

Age of youngest child at home

AGE	PERCENTAGE (N)
Less than 6 years	56.7% (59)
6 - 12 years	26.0% (27)
13 - 18 years	17.3% (18)

Table 5

Job Level

JOB LEVEL	PERCENTAGE (N)
Professional	49.0% (51)
Managerial	12.5% (13)
Administrative	6.7% (7)
Semi-professional	10.6% (11)
Clerical	16.3% (17)
Sales	1.0% (1)
Technician	1.0% (1)
Skilled worker	1.9% (2)
Semi-skilled worker	1.0% (1)

Table 6

Number of hours worked per week

NUMBER OF HOURS	PERCENTAGE (N)
10 - 20	2.9% (3)
21 - 30	14.4% (15)
31 - 40	55.8% (58)
41 - 50	21.2% (22)
51 - 60	4.8% (5)

Table 7

Intercorrelations of Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1. Autonomy		32																	
2. Role Ambiguity			-05	05	-17	-08	-06	22	-27	06	08	-03	-03	03	16	04	-12	-03	
3. Work Pressure			24	-06	16	03	-05	07	-40	-14	13	-16	02	06	06	27	-15	-17	
4. Number of hours worked per week				-35	20	04	-05	-30	-44	-03	10	-52	-27	21	02	12	-08	-16	
5. Job level					-10	04	07	12	19	-28	04	22	17	-08	06	02	-11	-10	
6. Number of Children						21	11	-19	08	19	11	-08	-10	14	01	-02	22	05	
7. Age of Youngest Child							21	-32	-02	-17	05	-09	00	14	-10	-12	12	13	
8. Total family income								-13	-19	-07	-06	-14	06	-09	-06	10	08	08	
9. Work → family conflict								06	13	-00	17	02	02	05	04	-17	-17	-17	
10. Family → work conflict									27	-08	27	62	19	-24	16	-20	-30	-16	
11. Self-Monitoring										-14	-14	11	-09	-04	04	13	-33	-19	
12. Type A											-09	-09	-05	13	29	00	-05	04	
13. Self-Observation												25	25	-48	24	-22	31	24	
14. Self-Evaluation														-43	-02	11	31	24	
15. Self-Reinforcement															-19	06	-21	-09	
16. Self-Efficacy																-30	21	24	
17. Depression																	-37	-28	
18. Somatization																		57	

Decimal points have been omitted.

Correlations greater than .20 are significant at the .05 level.

Correlations greater than .24 are significant at the .01 level

Table 8

Correlations among Lack of Autonomy, Role Ambiguity, WorkStress, Work → Family Conflict and Family → Work Conflict

	AUTONOMY	ROLE AMBIGUITY	WORK PRESSURE	WORK → FAMILY CONFLICT	FAMILY → WORK CONFLICT
Autonomy	1.0				
Role Ambiguity	.33***	1.0			
Work Pressure	-.05	.24*	1.0		
Work → Family Conflict	.27**	.40***	.44***	1.0	
Family → Work Conflict	-.05	.14	.03	.27**	1.0
Autonomy & Role Ambiguity				.42***	.13
Job Stressor Index				.47***	.12

* p<.05

** p<.01

*** P<.001

Table 9

Items measuring work → family conflict

ITEM	RESPONSE	%
1. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.	1	1.0%
	2	18.3%
	3	6.7%
	4	45.2%
	5	28.8%
2. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.	1	1.0%
	2	59.6%
	3	14.4%
	4	17.3%
	5	7.7%
3. My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.	1	19.2%
	2	47.1%
	3	19.2%
	4	10.6%
	5	3.8%
4. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends.	1	11.5%
	2	34.6%
	3	17.3%
	4	27.9%
	5	8.7%

Responses:

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Neither Agree nor Disagree
- 4 Agree
- 5 Strongly Agree

Table 10

Items measuring family → work conflict

ITEM	RESPONSE	%
1. I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.	1	5.8%
	2	45.2%
	3	18.3%
	4	22.1%
	5	8.7%
2. My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work.	1	14.4%
	2	51.9%
	3	19.2%
	4	12.5%
	5	1.9%
3. My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while I am at work.	1	33.7%
	2	51.0%
	3	12.5%
	4	1.9%
	5	1.0%
4. My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.	1	36.5%
	2	43.3%
	3	13.5%
	4	5.8%
	5	1.0%

Responses:

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Neither Agree nor Disagree
- 4 Agree
- 5 Strongly Agree

Table 11

Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and DepressionSelf-Observation as Moderator

Median Splits

	Low Self-Observation	High Self-Observation
Work → Family Conflict	-.29	-.31
Family → Work Conflict	-.31	-.37
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-.35	-.47

Sample split into low, medium, and high subgroups

	Low Self-Observation	Medium Self-Observation	High Self-Observation
Work → Family Conflict	-.20	-.29	-.37
Family → Work Conflict	-.39	-.31	-.29
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-.31	-.48	-.44

Table 12

Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and SomatizationSelf-Observation as Moderator

Median Splits

	Low Self-Observation	High Self-Observation
Work → Family Conflict	-.18	-.16
Family → Work Conflict	-.22	-.14
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-.08	-.21

Sample split into low, medium, and high subgroups

	Low Self-Observation	Medium Self-Observation	High Self-Observation
Work → Family Conflict	-.13	-.08	-.23
Family → Work Conflict	-.21	-.44	-.02
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-.06	-.35	-.16

Table 13

Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and DepressionSelf-Evaluation as Moderator

Median Splits

	Low Self-Evaluation	High Self-Evaluation
Work → Family Conflict	-.19	-.35
Family → Work Conflict	-.34	-.33
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term**	-.24	-.54

** The difference between the correlations is significant

Sample split into low, medium, and high subgroups

	Low Self-Evaluation	Medium Self-Evaluation	High Self-Evaluation
Work → Family Conflict	-.19	-.18	-.29
Family → Work Conflict	-.37	-.23	-.28
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-.24	-.30	-.48

Table 14

Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and Somatization
Self-Evaluation as Moderator

Median Splits

	Low Self-Evaluation	High Self-Evaluation
Work → Family Conflict	-.03	-.23
Family → Work Conflict	-.07	-.30
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-.01	-.29

Sample split into low, medium, and high subgroups

	Low Self-Evaluation	Medium Self-Evaluation	High Self-Evaluation
Work → Family Conflict	.01	-.18	-.21
Family → Work Conflict	-.03	-.23	-.29
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-.09	-.30	-.31

Table 15

Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and DepressionSelf-Reinforcement as Moderator

Median Splits

	Low Self-Reinforcement	High Self-Reinforcement
Work → Family Conflict	-.31	-.27
Family → Work Conflict	-.41	-.24
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-.34	-.41

Sample split into low, medium, and high subgroups

	Low Self-Reinforcement	Medium Self-Reinforcement	High Self-Reinforcement
Work → Family Conflict	-.26	-.41	-.21
Family → Work Conflict	-.29	-.42	-.24
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-.31	-.33	-.40

Table 16

Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and SomatizationSelf-Reinforcement as Moderator

Median Splits

	Low Self-Reinforcement	High Self-Reinforcement
Work → Family Conflict	-.17	-.14
Family → Work Conflict	-.21	-.17
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-.05	-.22

Sample split into low, medium, and high subgroups

	Low Self-Reinforcement	Medium Self-Reinforcement	High Self-Reinforcement
Work → Family Conflict	-.27	-.07	-.13
Family → Work Conflict	-.43	.14	-.18
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-.11	.12	-.28

Table 17

Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and DepressionSelf-Efficacy as Moderator

Median Splits

	Low Self-Efficacy	High Self-Efficacy
Work → Family Conflict**	-.37	-.09
Family → Work Conflict**	-.38	.00
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term**	-.52	-.17

** The difference between the correlations is significant

Sample split into low, medium, and high subgroups

	Low Self-Efficacy	Medium Self-Efficacy	High Self-Efficacy
Work → Family Conflict	-.30	-.26	-.18
Family → Work Conflict	-.45	-.07	-.01
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-.52	-.26	-.23

Table 18

Subgroup analyses of Correlations between Work/Family Conflict and SomatizationSelf-Efficacy as Moderator

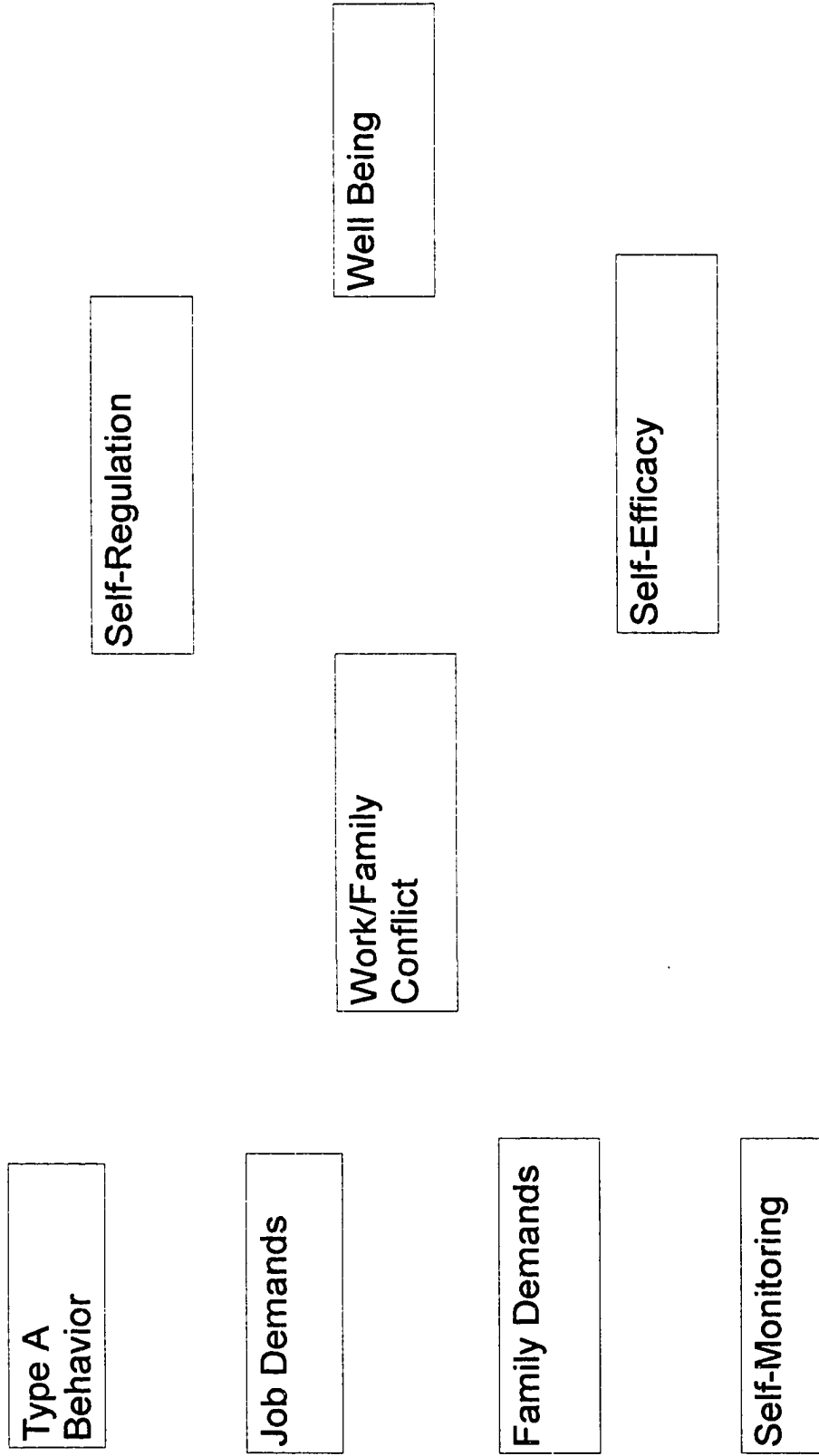
Median Splits

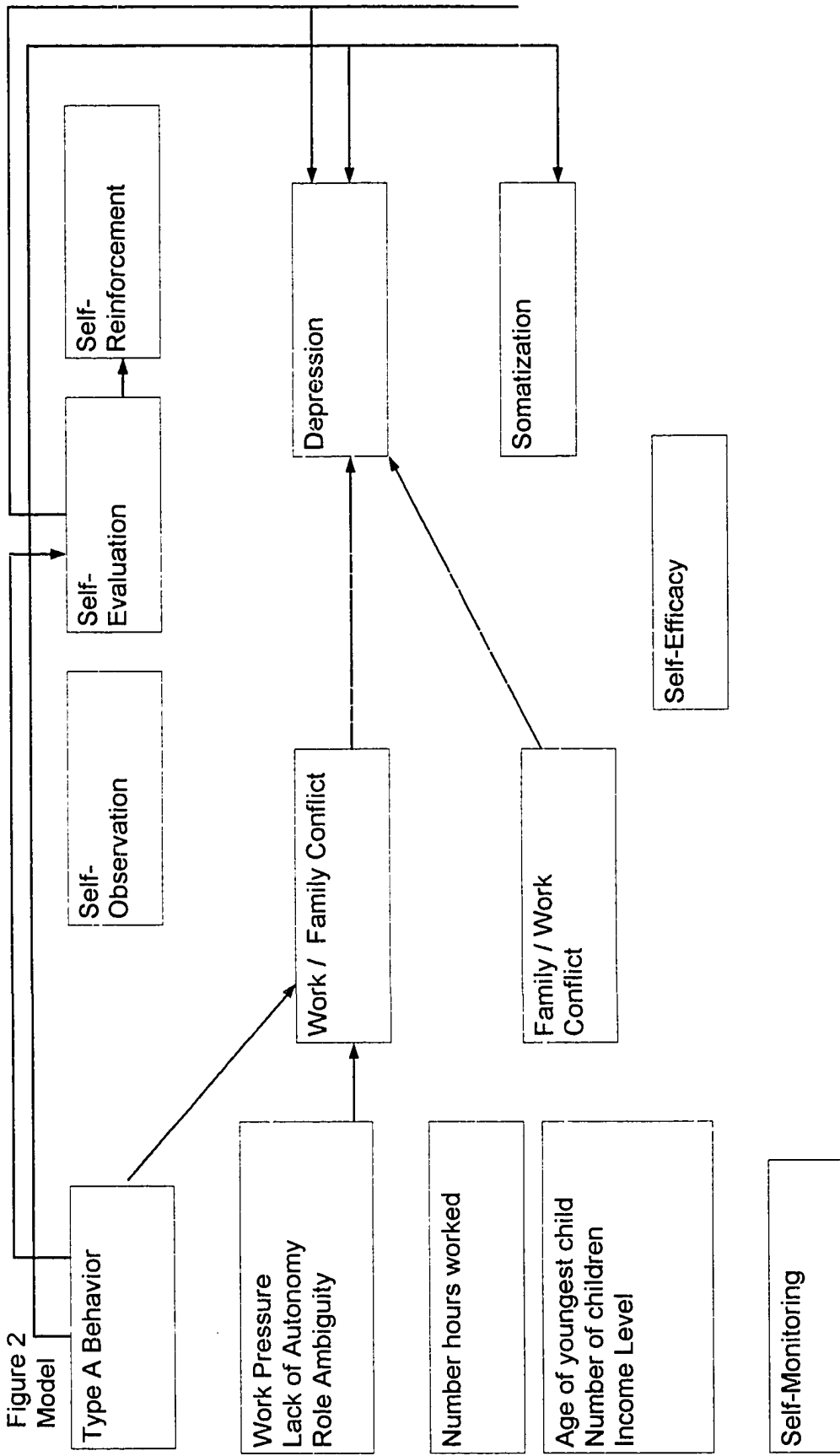
	Low Self-Efficacy	Hi Self-Efficacy
Work → Family Conflict	-0.23	.09
Family → Work Conflict	-0.20	.09
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-0.27	.07

Sample split into low, medium, and high subgroups

	Low Self-Efficacy	Medium Self-Efficacy	High Self-Efficacy
Work → Family Conflict	-0.08	-0.34	.05
Family → Work Conflict	-0.28	-0.04	.09
Family/Work Conflict Squared Term	-0.19	-0.19	-0.04

Figure 1
Variables in Proposed Model





Black lines represent significant relationships; gray lines are insignificant.

**APPENDIX A
BARUCH COLLEGE
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
FALL 1993**

Dear Participant:

The following research study is part of a doctoral dissertation being conducted at the Baruch College Department of Psychology by Belinda Block under the supervision of Edwin P. Hollander, Ph.D.

As a participant, you will be asked to complete several survey questionnaires that ask about your attitudes concerning work, your family and yourself. There are also a few questions about your background, such as how many children you have. The results of this study will add to our general knowledge of how women manage their work and family and may ultimately enhance the quality of work life for working mothers.

All of your answers are anonymous, and none of the information you provide will be released to anyone. Your participation is completely voluntary, and you may choose to stop your participation at any point in the process. The surveys take approximately 30 minutes to complete.

I greatly appreciate your help and will be glad to answer any questions you have. In addition, upon your request, I will be happy to share the final research findings. A self-addressed stamped envelope is attached for your convenience.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION AND HELP!

Sincerely,

Belinda Block
200 E. 30th Street #2L
New York, NY 10016
(212) 447-6438

APPENDIX B
Framingham Type A Scale

Please describe the extent to which the following traits or qualities describe you.

1. Being hard-driving and competitive.
2. Usually pressed for time.
3. Being bossy or dominating.
4. Having a strong need to excel in most things.
5. Eating too quickly.

Responses: 1 Very Well; 2 Fairly Well; 3 Somewhat; 4 Not At All.

Please describe whether the following items describe how you feel at the end of an average day at work.

6. Often very pressed for time.
7. Work stayed with you so you were thinking about it after working hours.
8. Work often stretched you to the very limits of your energy and capacity.
9. Often felt uncertain, uncomfortable, or dissatisfied with how well you were doing.

Responses: 1 Not At All; 2 A Little Bit; 3 Moderately; 4 Quite a Bit; 5 Extremely.

Do you get upset when you have to wait for anything?

Responses: 1 Not At All; 2 A Little Bit; 3 Moderately; 4 Quite a Bit; 5 Extremely.

Haynes, S. G., Levine, S., Scotch, N., Feinleib, and Kannel, W. B. (1978). The relationship of psychosocial factors to coronary heart disease in the Framingham Study: I. Methods and risk factors. American Journal of Epidemiology, 107(5), 362-383.

APPENDIX C
Self-Monitoring Scale

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.
2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.
4. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
5. I guess I put on show to impress or entertain others.
6. I would probably make a good actor.
7. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.
8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
10. I'm not always the person I appear to be.
11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things in order to please someone or win their favor.
12. I have considered being an entertainer.
13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
14. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
15. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
16. I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should.
17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).
18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

Responses: 1 Strongly Agree; 2 Agree; 3 Neither Agree Nor Disagree; 4 Disagree; 5 Strongly Disagree.

Snyder, M. & Gangestad, S. (1986). On the nature of self-monitoring: Matters of assessment, matters of validity. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51, 125-139.

APPENDIX D
Demographic Variables

For each of the following questions, please check the ONE response that most applies to you:

1. Your age: _____ 25-30
 _____ 31-35
 _____ 36-40
 _____ 41-45
 _____ 46-50
 _____ over 50
2. Your present marital status: _____ Single (never married)
 _____ Married
 _____ Divorced or separated
 _____ Widowed
3. Number of children: _____
- _____ 1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5 _____ More than 5
4. Age of youngest child at home: _____ Less than 6 years
 _____ 6-12 years
 _____ 13-18 years
 _____ over 18 years
5. Number of hours worked per week: _____ 10-20
 _____ 21-30
 _____ 31-40
 _____ 41-50
 _____ 51-60
 _____ over 60
6. Job level _____ Professional
 _____ Managerial
 _____ Administrative
 _____ Semi-professional
 _____ Clerical
 _____ Sales
 _____ Technician
 _____ Skilled Worker
 _____ Semi-skilled worker
 _____ Unskilled worker
7. Total family income: \$ _____

APPENDIX E
Job Demands
Job Stressor Index

Work Pressure Items

1. Do you have too much work to do?
4. Do you feel that you have a lot of responsibility for the work of others?
5. Do you work very hard – either physically or mentally?
7. Are you under pressure to keep up with new ways of doing things?
8. Do you have to decide things where mistakes could be quite costly?
9. Do you work many hours?
10. Do you have too little help or equipment to get the job done well?
12. Do you have important responsibilities?

Lack of Autonomy Items

3. Do you feel that you are unable to influence your supervisor's decisions?
6. Can you use your own initiative to do things?
11. Does your supervisor keep a close watch on you?
14. Are you given a lot of freedom to decide how to do your work?
16. Do you have the freedom to do as you like on your job?
18. Are you encouraged to make your own decisions?

Role Ambiguity Items

2. Are you unsure about what people expect of you?
13. Are you confused about exactly what you are supposed to do?
15. Do clear, planned goals and objectives exist for your job?
17. Are you clear about what needs to be done on your job?
19. Do you know exactly what is expected of you?
20. Do you feel certain about how much or how little authority you have?

Responses: 1 Almost Always; 2 Often; 3 Sometimes; 4 Almost Never/Never.

Frone, M. R., Russell, M., and Cooper, M. L. (1992).

Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict: Testing a model of the work-family interface. Journal of Applied Psychology, 77(1), 65-78.

APPENDIX F
Work/Family Conflict Scale

Work → Family Conflict

1. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.
2. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.
3. My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.
4. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends.

Family → Work Conflict

1. I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.
2. My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work.
3. My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work.
4. My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.

Responses: 1 Strongly Agree; 2 Agree; 3 Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 Disagree; 5 Strongly Disagree.

Gutek, B. A., Searle, S., & Klepa, L. (1991). Rational versus gender role explanations for work-family conflict. Journal of Applied Psychology, 76(4), 560-568.

APPENDIX G
Self-Observation Measure

1. Ordinarily, I try to plan my activities in advance.
2. I reflect about my actions a lot.
3. I rarely scrutinize myself.
4. I'm generally attentive to my conduct.
5. I'm constantly examining my endeavors.
6. I'm aware of the way my mind works when I deal with a problem.
7. I rarely think about what I have to accomplish.
8. I frequently make written or mental lists describing what needs to be done.
9. I often think about and make adjustments to my life's goals.
10. Generally, I don't pay much attention to my behavior.

Responses: 0 Extremely Unlike me; 1 Unlike me;
 2 Sort of unlike me; 3 Sort of like me;
 4 Like me; 5 Extremely like me.

Based on the Private Self-Conscious scale originally developed by Fenigstein, A., Scheier, M. F., & Buss, A. H. (1975). Public and private self-consciousness: Assessment and theory. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 43(4), 522-527.

APPENDIX H
Self-Evaluation Measure

Attitudes Toward Self Scale (ATS)

High Standards Subscale

1. It would be hard for anyone to do as well as I want myself to do.
2. Other people think I expect a lot from myself.
3. The standards I set for myself are higher than those that other people seem to set for themselves.
4. I expect a lot from myself.
5. I am a perfectionist in setting my goals.
6. I seem to judge myself more strictly than others judge themselves.
7. Other people are satisfied with themselves more easily than I am satisfied with myself.

Responses: 1 Extremely Untrue; 2 Untrue; 3 Neither Untrue nor True; 4 True; 5 Extremely True.

Carver, C. S. & Ganellen, R. J. (1983). Depression and components of self-punitiveness: High standards, self-criticism, and overgeneralization. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 92(3), 330-337.

APPENDIX I
Self-Efficacy Measure

Generalized Expectancy for Success Scale

In the future I expect that I will

1. find that people don't seem to understand what I am trying to say.
2. be discouraged about my ability to gain the respect of others.
3. be a good parent.
4. be unable to accomplish my goals.
5. have a successful marital relationship.
6. deal poorly with emergency situations.
7. find my efforts to change situations I don't like are ineffective.
8. not be very good at learning new skills.
9. carry through my responsibilities successfully.
10. discover that the good in life outweighs the bad.
11. handle unexpected problems successfully.
12. get the promotions I deserve.
13. succeed in the projects I undertake.
14. not make any significant contributions to society.
15. discover that my life is not getting much better.
16. be listened to when I speak.
17. discover that my plans don't work out too well.
18. find that no matter how hard I try, things just don't turn out the way I would like.
19. handle myself well in whatever situation I'm in.

20. be able to solve my own problems.
21. succeed at most things I try.
22. be successful in my endeavors in the long run.
23. be very successful working out my personal life.
24. experience many failures in my life.
25. make a good impression on people I meet for the first time.
26. attain the career goals I have set for myself.
27. have difficulty dealing with my superiors.
28. have problems working with others.
29. be a good judge of what it takes to get ahead.
30. achieve recognition in my profession.

Responses: 1 Highly Improbable; 2 Improbable; 3 Neither Improbable nor Probable; 4 Probable; 5 Highly Probable.

Fibrel, B. and Hale, W. D. (1978). The Generalized Expectancy for Success Scale - A new measure. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 46(3), 924-931.

APPENDIX J
Self-Reinforcement Measure

1. I get myself through hard times mostly by planning to enjoy myself afterwards.
2. I encourage myself to improve by feeling good about myself or giving myself something special whenever I make some progress.
3. I find I feel better and do better when I silently praise myself for even small achievements.
4. I can keep trying at something when I stop to think of what I've accomplished.
5. The way I keep up my confidence is by acknowledging any success I have.
6. The way I achieve my goals is by rewarding myself every step along the way.
7. I silently praise myself even when others do not praise me.

Don't Self-Praise Items

1. When I do something right, I take time to enjoy the feeling.
2. Unless I do something absolutely perfectly, it gives me little satisfaction.
3. I think talking about what you've done right is being too boastful.
4. Praising yourself is being selfish and egotistical.
5. People who talk about their own better points are just bragging.

Responses: 1 Strongly Agree; 2 Agree; 3 Neither Agree Nor Disagree; 4 Disagree; 5 Strongly Disagree.

Heiby, E. M. (1983). Assessment of Frequency of Self-Reinforcement. Journal Of Personality and Social Psychology, 44(6), 1304-1307.

APPENDIX K
Depression Scale

Below is a list of problems people sometimes have. Please read each one carefully, and indicate the response that best describes HOW MUCH THAT PROBLEM HAS DISTRESSED OR BOTHERED YOU DURING THE PAST 7 DAYS INCLUDING TODAY using the response format listed below.

1. Loss of sexual interest or pleasure.
2. Feeling low in energy or slowed down.
3. Thoughts of ending your life.
4. Crying easily.
5. Feeling of being trapped or caught.
6. Blaming yourself for things.
7. Feeling lonely.
8. Feeling blue.
9. Worrying too much about things.
10. Feeling no interest in things.
11. Feeling hopeless about the future.
12. Feeling everything is an effort.
13. Feelings of worthlessness.
14. Feeling lonely even when you are with people.

Responses: 0 Not At All; 1 A Little Bit; 2 Moderately;
3 Quite A Bit; 4 Extremely.

Derogatis, L. R. (1992). SCL-90-R: Administration, Scoring, & Procedures Manual.
Towson, MD: Clinical Psychometric Research.

APPENDIX L
Somatization Measure

Below is a list of problems people sometimes have. Please read each one carefully, and indicate the response that best describes HOW MUCH THAT PROBLEM HAS DISTRESSED OR BOTHERED YOU DURING THE PAST 7 DAYS INCLUDING TODAY using the response format listed below.

1. Headaches.
2. Faintness or dizziness.
3. Pains in heart or chest.
4. Nausea or upset stomach.
5. Soreness of your muscles.
6. Trouble getting your breath.
7. Hot or cold spells.
8. Numbness or tingling in parts of your body.
9. A lump in your throat.
10. Feeling weak in parts of your body.
11. Heavy feelings in your arms or legs.
12. Pains in your lower back.

Responses: 0 Not At All; 1 A Little Bit; 2 Moderately;
3 Quite A Bit; 4 Extremely.

Derogatis, L. R. (1992). SCL-90-R: Administration, Scoring, & Procedures Manual.
Towson, MD: Clinical Psychometric Research.

APPENDIX M
Survey 1

Please indicate how satisfied you are with the following aspects of your life using the scale shown below:

- 1 - Terrible
- 2 - Unhappy
- 3 - Mostly dissatisfied
- 4 - Mixed
- 5 - Mostly satisfied
- 6 - Pleased
- 7 - Happy
- N/A - Not Applicable

- _____ 1. Your relationship with your children.
- _____ 2. Your marriage or relationship with "significant other".
- _____ 3. Your own family life.
- _____ 4. The amount of fun and enjoyment you have.
- _____ 5. The way you spend your spare time.
- _____ 6. The amount of free time you have.
- _____ 7. The amount of relaxation in your life.
- _____ 8. The amount of pep and energy you have.
- _____ 9. The number of good, close friends you have.
- _____ 10. The way you cope with everyday problems.
- _____ 11. The way you balance your job and spouse/family responsibilities.
- _____ 12. All things considered, your life as a whole.

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following statements is true or untrue by using the responses listed below.

- 1 = Extremely True
- 2 = True
- 3 = Neither True Nor Untrue
- 4 = Untrue
- 5 = Extremely Untrue

- _____ 1. It would be hard for anyone to do as well as I want myself to do.
- _____ 2. Other people think I expect a lot from myself.
- _____ 3. The standards I set for myself are higher than those that other people seem to set for themselves.
- _____ 4. I expect a lot from myself.
- _____ 5. I am a perfectionist in setting my goals.
- _____ 6. I seem to judge myself more strictly than others judge themselves.
- _____ 7. Other people are satisfied with themselves more easily than I am satisfied with myself.

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following statements is characteristic of you at work and at home using the scale listed below:

- 0 - Extremely unlike me
- 1 - Unlike me
- 2 - Sort of unlike me
- 3 - Sort of like me
- 4 - Like me
- 5 - Extremely like me

- 1. Ordinarily, I try to plan my activities in advance. _____
- 2. I reflect about my actions a lot. _____
- 3. I **rarely** scrutinize myself. _____
- 4. I'm generally attentive to my conduct. _____
- 5. I'm constantly examining my endeavors. _____
- 6. I'm aware of the way my mind works when I deal with a problem. _____
- 7. I **rarely** think about what I have to accomplish each day. _____
- 8. I frequently make written or mental lists describing what I need to do. _____
- 9. I often think about and make adjustments to my life's goals. _____
- 10. Generally, I **don't** pay much attention to my behavior. _____

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by using the response scale listed below.

1 = Strongly Agree

2 = Agree

3 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree

4 = Disagree

5 = Strongly Disagree

- ___ 1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.
- ___ 2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
- ___ 3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.
- ___ 4. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
- ___ 5. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.
- ___ 6. I would probably make a good actor.
- ___ 7. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.
- ___ 8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
- ___ 9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
- ___ 10. I'm not always the person I appear to be.
- ___ 11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.
- ___ 12. I have considered being an entertainer.
- ___ 13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
- ___ 14. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
- ___ 15. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
- ___ 16. I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should.
- ___ 17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).
- ___ 18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

1. All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?

- Very Satisfied Not too satisfied
 Somewhat satisfied Not at all satisfied

2. If you were free to go into any type of job you wanted, what would your choice be?

- Would want the job you have now
 Would want to retire and not work at all
 Would prefer some other job to the job you have now

3. Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?

- Decide without hesitation to take the same job
 Have some second thoughts
 Decide definitely not to take the same job

4. In general, how well would you say that your job measures up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it?

- Very much like the job you wanted
 Somewhat like the job you wanted
 Not very much like the job you wanted

5. If a good friend of yours told you he or she was interested in working in a job like yours for your employer (or yourself, if self-employed), what would you tell him or her?

- Would strongly recommend it
 Would have doubts about recommending it
 Would advise the friend against it

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following questions applies to you at work by using the rating scale listed below.

1 - Almost Always

2 - Often

3 - Sometimes

4 - Almost Never/Never

- ___ 1. Do you have too much work to do?
- ___ 2. Are you unsure about what people expect of you?
- ___ 3. Do you feel that you are unable to influence your supervisor's decisions?
- ___ 4. Do you feel that you have a lot of responsibility for the work of others?
- ___ 5. Do you work very hard – either physically or mentally?
- ___ 6. Can you use your own initiative to do things?
- ___ 7. Are you under pressure to keep up with new ways of doing things?
- ___ 8. Do you have to decide things where mistakes could be quite costly?
- ___ 9. Do you work many hours?
- ___ 10. Do you have too little help or equipment to get the job done well?
- ___ 11. Does your supervisor keep a close watch on you?
- ___ 12. Do you have important responsibilities?
- ___ 13. Are you confused about exactly what you are supposed to do?
- ___ 14. Are you given a lot of freedom to decide how to do your work?
- ___ 15. Do clear, planned goals and objectives exist for your job?
- ___ 16. Do you have the freedom to do as you like on your job?
- ___ 17. Are you clear about what needs to be done on your job?
- ___ 18. Are you encouraged to make your own decisions?
- ___ 19. Do you know exactly what is expected of you?
- ___ 20. Do you feel certain about how much or how little authority you have?

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement to the following statements.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.I get myself through hard times mostly by planning to enjoy myself afterwards.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.I encourage myself to improve by feeling good about myself or giving myself something special whenever I make some progress.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3.I find I feel better and do better when I silently praise myself for even small achievements.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4.I can keep trying at something when I stop to think of what I've accomplished.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5.The way I keep up my confidence is by acknowledging any success I have.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6.The way I achieve my goals is by rewarding myself every step along the way.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7.I silently praise myself even when others do not praise me.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8.When I do something right, I take time to enjoy the feeling.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9.Unless I do something absolutely perfectly, it gives me little satisfaction.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10.I think talking about what you've done right is being too boastful.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
11.Praising yourself is being selfish and egotistical.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
12.People who talk about their own better points are just bragging.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please respond with the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please indicate the extent to which the following traits or qualities describe you.

	Very Well	Fairly Well	Somewhat	Not At All
1. Being hard-driving and competitive.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Usually pressed for time.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Being bossy or dominating.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Having a strong need to excel in most things.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Eating too quickly.	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please indicate the extent to which the following items describe how you feel at the end of an average day at work.

	Not At All	A Little Bit	Moderately	Quite A Bit	Extremely
6. Often very pressed for time.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. Work stayed with you so you were thinking about it after working hours	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Work often stretched you to the very limits of your energy and capacity.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. Often felt uncertain, uncomfortable, or dissatisfied with how well you were doing.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Do you get upset when you have to wait for anything?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following statements is probable or improbable using the rating scale shown below:

- 1 - Highly Improbable
- 2 - Improbable
- 3 - Neither Improbable nor Probable
- 4 - Probable
- 5 - Highly Probable

In the future I expect that I will

- ___ 1. find that people don't seem to understand what I am trying to say.
- ___ 2. be discouraged about my ability to gain the respect of others.
- ___ 3. be a good parent.
- ___ 4. be unable to accomplish my goals.
- ___ 5. have a successful marital relationship.
- ___ 6. deal poorly with emergency situations.
- ___ 7. find my efforts to change situations I don't like are ineffective.
- ___ 8. not be very good at learning new skills.
- ___ 9. carry through my responsibilities successfully.
- ___ 10. discover that the good in life outweighs the bad.
- ___ 11. handle unexpected problems successfully.
- ___ 12. get the promotions I deserve.
- ___ 13. succeed in the projects I undertake.
- ___ 14. not make any significant contributions to society.
- ___ 15. discover that my life is not getting much better.
- ___ 16. be listened to when I speak.
- ___ 17. discover that my plans don't work out too well.
- ___ 18. find that no matter how hard I try, things just don't turn out the way I would like.
- ___ 19. handle myself well in whatever situation I'm in.
- ___ 20. be able to solve my own problems.
- ___ 21. succeed at most things I try.
- ___ 22. be successful in my endeavors in the long run.
- ___ 23. be very successful working out my personal life.

- ___ 24. experience many failures in my life.
- ___ 25. make a good impression on people I meet for the first time.
- ___ 26. attain the career goals I have set for myself.
- ___ 27. have difficulty dealing with my superiors.
- ___ 28. have problems working with others.
- ___ 29. be a good judge of what it takes to get ahead.
- ___ 30. achieve recognition in my profession.

Below is a list of problems people sometimes have. Please read each one carefully, and indicate the response that best describes HOW MUCH THAT PROBLEM HAS DISTRESSED OR BOTHERED YOU DURING THE PAST 7 DAYS INCLUDING TODAY using the response format listed below.

- 1 Not At All**
- 2 A Little Bit**
- 3 Moderately**
- 4 Quite A Bit**
- 5 Extremely**

- _____ 1. Loss of sexual interest or pleasure.
- _____ 2. Feeling low in energy or slowed down.
- _____ 3. Thoughts of ending your life.
- _____ 4. Crying easily.
- _____ 5. Feeling of being trapped or caught.
- _____ 6. Blaming yourself for things.
- _____ 7. Feeling lonely.
- _____ 8. Feeling blue.
- _____ 9. Worrying too much about things.
- _____ 10. Feeling no interest in things.
- _____ 11. Feeling hopeless about the future.
- _____ 12. Feeling everything is an effort.
- _____ 13. Feelings of worthlessness.
- _____ 14. Feeling lonely even when you are with people.
- _____ 15. Headaches.
- _____ 16. Faintness or dizziness.
- _____ 17. Pains in heart or chest.
- _____ 18. Nausea or upset stomach.
- _____ 19. Soreness of your muscles.
- _____ 20. Trouble getting your breath.
- _____ 21. Hot or cold spells.
- _____ 22. Numbness or tingling in parts of your body.
- _____ 23. A lump in your throat.
- _____ 24. Feeling weak in parts of your body.
- _____ 25. Heavy feelings in your arms or legs.
- _____ 26. Pains in your lower back.

For each of the following questions, please check the ONE response that most applies to you:

1. Your age: _____ 25-30
 _____ 31-35
 _____ 36-40
 _____ 41-45
 _____ 46-50
 _____ over 50
2. Your present marital status: _____ Single (never married)
 _____ Living with Non-Spouse Significant Other
 _____ Married
 _____ Divorced or separated
 _____ Widowed
3. Number of children:
- | | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------------|
| _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | More than 5 |
4. Age of youngest child at home: _____ Less than 6 years
 _____ 6-12 years
 _____ 13-18 years
 _____ over 18 years
5. Number of hours worked per week: _____ 10-20
 _____ 21-30
 _____ 31-40
 _____ 41-50
 _____ 51-60
 _____ over 60
6. Job level: _____ Professional
 _____ Managerial
 _____ Administrative
 _____ Semi-professional
 _____ Clerical
 _____ Sales
 _____ Technician
 _____ Skilled Worker
 _____ Semi-skilled worker
 _____ Unskilled worker
7. Total family income level: \$ _____

Survey 2

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by using the response scale listed below.

1 = Strongly Agree

2 = Agree

3 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree

4 = Disagree

5 = Strongly Disagree

- _____ 1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.
- _____ 2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
- _____ 3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.
- _____ 4. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
- _____ 5. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.
- _____ 6. I would probably make a good actor.
- _____ 7. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.
- _____ 8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
- _____ 9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
- _____ 10. I'm not always the person I appear to be.
- _____ 11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.
- _____ 12. I have considered being an entertainer.
- _____ 13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
- _____ 14. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
- _____ 15. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
- _____ 16. I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should.
- _____ 17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).
- _____ 18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following questions applies to you at work by using the rating scale listed below.

1 - Almost Always

2 - Often

3 - Sometimes

4 - Almost Never/Never

- _____ 1. Do you have too much work to do?
- _____ 2. Are you unsure about what people expect of you?
- _____ 3. Do you feel that you are unable to influence your supervisor's decisions?
- _____ 4. Do you feel that you have a lot of responsibility for the work of others?
- _____ 5. Do you work very hard – either physically or mentally?
- _____ 6. Can you use your own initiative to do things?
- _____ 7. Are you under pressure to keep up with new ways of doing things?
- _____ 8. Do you have to decide things where mistakes could be quite costly?
- _____ 9. Do you work many hours?
- _____ 10. Do you have too little help or equipment to get the job done well?
- _____ 11. Does your supervisor keep a close watch on you?
- _____ 12. Do you have important responsibilities?
- _____ 13. Are you confused about exactly what you are supposed to do?
- _____ 14. Are you given a lot of freedom to decide how to do your work?
- _____ 15. Do clear, planned goals and objectives exist for your job?
- _____ 16. Do you have the freedom to do as you like on your job?
- _____ 17. Are you clear about what needs to be done on your job?
- _____ 18. Are you encouraged to make your own decisions?
- _____ 19. Do you know exactly what is expected of you?
- _____ 20. Do you feel certain about how much or how little authority you have?

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following statements is true or untrue by using the responses listed below.

1 = Extremely True

2 = True

3 = Neither True Nor Untrue

4 = Untrue

5 = Extremely Untrue

- _____ 1. It would be hard for anyone to do as well as I want myself to do.
- _____ 2. Other people think I expect a lot from myself.
- _____ 3. The standards I set for myself are higher than those that other people seem to set for themselves.
- _____ 4. I expect a lot from myself.
- _____ 5. I am a perfectionist in setting my goals.
- _____ 6. I seem to judge myself more strictly than others judge themselves.
- _____ 7. Other people are satisfied with themselves more easily than I am satisfied with myself.

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following statements is characteristic of you at work and at home using the scale listed below:

0 - Extremely unlike me

1 - Unlike me

2 - Sort of unlike me

3 - Sort of like me

4 - Like me

5 - Extremely like me

1. Ordinarily, I try to plan my activities in advance. _____
2. I reflect about my actions a lot. _____
3. I rarely scrutinize myself. _____
4. I'm generally attentive to my conduct. _____
5. I'm constantly examining my endeavors. _____
6. I'm aware of the way my mind works when I deal with a problem. _____
7. I rarely think about what I have to accomplish each day. _____
8. I frequently make written or mental lists describing what I need to do. _____
9. I often think about and make adjustments to my life's goals. _____
10. Generally, I don't pay much attention to my behavior. _____

Below is a list of problems people sometimes have. Please read each one carefully, and indicate the response that best describes HOW MUCH THAT PROBLEM HAS DISTRESSED OR BOTHERED YOU DURING THE PAST 7 DAYS INCLUDING TODAY using the response format listed below.

- 1 Not At All**
- 2 A Little Bit**
- 3 Moderately**
- 4 Quite A Bit**
- 5 Extremely**

- _____ 1. Loss of sexual interest or pleasure.
- _____ 2. Feeling low in energy or slowed down.
- _____ 3. Thoughts of ending your life.
- _____ 4. Crying easily.
- _____ 5. Feeling of being trapped or caught.
- _____ 6. Blaming yourself for things.
- _____ 7. Feeling lonely.
- _____ 8. Feeling blue.
- _____ 9. Worrying too much about things.
- _____ 10. Feeling no interest in things.
- _____ 11. Feeling hopeless about the future.
- _____ 12. Feeling everything is an effort.
- _____ 13. Feelings of worthlessness.
- _____ 14. Feeling lonely even when you are with people.
- _____ 15. Headaches.
- _____ 16. Faintness or dizziness.
- _____ 17. Pains in heart or chest.
- _____ 18. Nausea or upset stomach.
- _____ 19. Soreness of your muscles.
- _____ 20. Trouble getting your breath.
- _____ 21. Hot or cold spells.
- _____ 22. Numbness or tingling in parts of your body.
- _____ 23. A lump in your throat.
- _____ 24. Feeling weak in parts of your body.
- _____ 25. Heavy feelings in your arms or legs.
- _____ 26. Pains in your lower back.

Please respond with the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement to the following statements.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.I get myself through hard times mostly by planning to enjoy myself afterwards.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.I encourage myself to improve by feeling good about myself or giving myself something special whenever I make some progress.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3.I find I feel better and do better when I silently praise myself for even small achievements.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4.I can keep trying at something when I stop to think of what I've accomplished.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5.The way I keep up my confidence is by acknowledging any success I have.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6.The way I achieve my goals is by rewarding myself every step along the way.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7.I silently praise myself even when others do not praise me.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8.When I do something right, I take time to enjoy the feeling.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9.Unless I do something absolutely perfectly, it gives me little satisfaction.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10.I think talking about what you've done right is being too boastful.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
11.Praising yourself is being selfish and egotistical.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
12.People who talk about their own better points are just bragging.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following statements is probable or improbable using the rating scale shown below:

- 1 - Highly Improbable
- 2 - Improbable
- 3 - Neither Improbable nor Probable
- 4 - Probable
- 5 - Highly Probable

In the future I expect that I will

- ___ 1. find that people don't seem to understand what I am trying to say.
- ___ 2. be discouraged about my ability to gain the respect of others.
- ___ 3. be a good parent.
- ___ 4. be unable to accomplish my goals.
- ___ 5. have a successful marital relationship.
- ___ 6. deal poorly with emergency situations.
- ___ 7. find my efforts to change situations I don't like are ineffective.
- ___ 8. not be very good at learning new skills.
- ___ 9. carry through my responsibilities successfully.
- ___ 10. discover that the good in life outweighs the bad.
- ___ 11. handle unexpected problems successfully.
- ___ 12. get the promotions I deserve.
- ___ 13. succeed in the projects I undertake.
- ___ 14. not make any significant contributions to society.
- ___ 15. discover that my life is not getting much better.
- ___ 16. be listened to when I speak.
- ___ 17. discover that my plans don't work out too well.
- ___ 18. find that no matter how hard I try, things just don't turn out the way I would like.
- ___ 19. handle myself well in whatever situation I'm in.
- ___ 20. be able to solve my own problems.
- ___ 21. succeed at most things I try.
- ___ 22. be successful in my endeavors in the long run.
- ___ 23. be very successful working out my personal life.
- ___ 24. experience many failures in my life.
- ___ 25. make a good impression on people I meet for the first time.
- ___ 26. attain the career goals I have set for myself.
- ___ 27. have difficulty dealing with my superiors.
- ___ 28. have problems working with others.
- ___ 29. be a good judge of what it takes to get ahead.
- ___ 30. achieve recognition in my profession.

1. All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?

- Very Satisfied Not too satisfied
 Somewhat satisfied Not at all satisfied

2. If you were free to go into any type of job you wanted, what would your choice be?

- Would want the job you have now
 Would want to retire and not work at all
 Would prefer some other job to the job you have now

3. Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?

- Decide without hesitation to take the same job
 Have some second thoughts
 Decide definitely not to take the same job

4. In general, how well would you say that your job measures up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it?

- Very much like the job you wanted
 Somewhat like the job you wanted
 Not very much like the job you wanted

5. If a good friend of yours told you he or she was interested in working in a job like yours for your employer (or yourself, if self-employed), what would you tell him or her?

- Would strongly recommend it
 Would have doubts about recommending it
 Would advise the friend against it

Please indicate the extent to which the following traits or qualities describe you.

	Very Well	Fairly Well	Somewhat	Not At All
1. Being hard-driving and competitive.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Usually pressed for time.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Being bossy or dominating.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Having a strong need to excel in most things.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Eating too quickly.	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please indicate the extent to which the following items describe how you feel at the end of an average day at work.

	Not At All	A Little Bit	Moderately	Quite A Bit	Extremely
6. Often very pressed for time.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. Work stayed with you so you were thinking about it after working hours	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Work often stretched you to the very limits of your energy and capacity.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. Often felt uncertain, uncomfortable, or dissatisfied with how well you were doing.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Do you get upset when you have to wait for anything?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please indicate how satisfied you are with the following aspects of your life using the scale shown below:

- 1 - Terrible
- 2 - Unhappy
- 3 - Mostly dissatisfied
- 4 - Mixed
- 5 - Mostly satisfied
- 6 - Pleased
- 7 - Happy
- N/A - Not Applicable

- _____ 1. Your relationship with your children.
- _____ 2. Your marriage or relationship with "significant other".
- _____ 3. Your own family life.
- _____ 4. The amount of fun and enjoyment you have.
- _____ 5. The way you spend your spare time.
- _____ 6. The amount of free time you have.
- _____ 7. The amount of relaxation in your life.
- _____ 8. The amount of pep and energy you have.
- _____ 9. The number of good, close friends you have.
- _____ 10. The way you cope with everyday problems.
- _____ 11. The way you balance your job and spouse/family responsibilities.
- _____ 12. All things considered, your life as a whole.

For each of the following questions, please check the ONE response that most applies to you:

1. Your age: 25-30
 31-35
 36-40
 41-45
 46-50
 over 50

2. Your present marital status: Single (never married)
 Living with Non-Spouse Significant Other
 Married
 Divorced or separated
 Widowed

3. Number of children:

4. Age of youngest child at home: 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5
 Less than 6 years
 6-12 years
 13-18 years
 over 18 years

5. Number of hours worked per week: 10-20
 21-30
 31-40
 41-50
 51-60
 over 60

6. Job level: Professional
 Managerial
 Administrative
 Semi-professional
 Clerical
 Sales
 Technician
 Skilled Worker
 Semi-skilled worker
 Unskilled worker

7. Total family income level: \$ _____

Survey 3

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by using the response scale listed below.

1 = Strongly Agree

2 = Agree

3 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree

4 = Disagree

5 = Strongly Disagree

- _____ 1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.
- _____ 2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
- _____ 3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.
- _____ 4. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
- _____ 5. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.
- _____ 6. I would probably make a good actor.
- _____ 7. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.
- _____ 8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
- _____ 9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
- _____ 10. I'm not always the person I appear to be.
- _____ 11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.
- _____ 12. I have considered being an entertainer.
- _____ 13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
- _____ 14. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
- _____ 15. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
- _____ 16. I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should.
- _____ 17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).
- _____ 18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following questions applies to you at work by using the rating scale listed below.

1 - Almost Always

2 - Often

3 - Sometimes

4 - Almost Never/Never

- _____ 1. Do you have too much work to do?
- _____ 2. Are you unsure about what people expect of you?
- _____ 3. Do you feel that you are unable to influence your supervisor's decisions?
- _____ 4. Do you feel that you have a lot of responsibility for the work of others?
- _____ 5. Do you work very hard – either physically or mentally?
- _____ 6. Can you use your own initiative to do things?
- _____ 7. Are you under pressure to keep up with new ways of doing things?
- _____ 8. Do you have to decide things where mistakes could be quite costly?
- _____ 9. Do you work many hours?
- _____ 10. Do you have too little help or equipment to get the job done well?
- _____ 11. Does your supervisor keep a close watch on you?
- _____ 12. Do you have important responsibilities?
- _____ 13. Are you confused about exactly what you are supposed to do?
- _____ 14. Are you given a lot of freedom to decide how to do your work?
- _____ 15. Do clear, planned goals and objectives exist for your job?
- _____ 16. Do you have the freedom to do as you like on your job?
- _____ 17. Are you clear about what needs to be done on your job?
- _____ 18. Are you encouraged to make your own decisions?
- _____ 19. Do you know exactly what is expected of you?
- _____ 20. Do you feel certain about how much or how little authority you have?

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following statements is true or untrue by using the responses listed below.

- 1 = Extremely True
 2 = True
 3 = Neither True Nor Untrue
 4 = Untrue
 5 = Extremely Untrue

- _____ 1. It would be hard for anyone to do as well as I want myself to do.
 _____ 2. Other people think I expect a lot from myself.
 _____ 3. The standards I set for myself are higher than those that other people seem to set for themselves.
 _____ 4. I expect a lot from myself.
 _____ 5. I am a perfectionist in setting my goals.
 _____ 6. I seem to judge myself more strictly than others judge themselves.
 _____ 7. Other people are satisfied with themselves more easily than I am satisfied with myself.

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following statements is characteristic of you at work and at home using the scale listed below:

- 0 - Extremely unlike me
 1 - Unlike me
 2 - Sort of unlike me
 3 - Sort of like me
 4 - Like me
 5 - Extremely like me

1. Ordinarily, I try to plan my activities in advance. _____
 2. I reflect about my actions a lot. _____
 3. I rarely scrutinize myself. _____
 4. I'm generally attentive to my conduct. _____
 5. I'm constantly examining my endeavors. _____
 6. I'm aware of the way my mind works when I deal with a problem. _____
 7. I rarely think about what I have to accomplish each day. _____
 8. I frequently make written or mental lists describing what I need to do. _____
 9. I often think about and make adjustments to my life's goals. _____
 10. Generally, I don't pay much attention to my behavior. _____

Below is a list of problems people sometimes have. Please read each one carefully, and indicate the response that best describes HOW MUCH THAT PROBLEM HAS DISTRESSED OR BOTHERED YOU DURING THE PAST 7 DAYS INCLUDING TODAY using the response format listed below.

- 1 Not At All
- 2 A Little Bit
- 3 Moderately
- 4 Quite A Bit
- 5 Extremely

- _____ 1. Loss of sexual interest or pleasure.
- _____ 2. Feeling low in energy or slowed down.
- _____ 3. Thoughts of ending your life.
- _____ 4. Crying easily.
- _____ 5. Feeling of being trapped or caught.
- _____ 6. Blaming yourself for things.
- _____ 7. Feeling lonely.
- _____ 8. Feeling blue.
- _____ 9. Worrying too much about things.
- _____ 10. Feeling no interest in things.
- _____ 11. Feeling hopeless about the future.
- _____ 12. Feeling everything is an effort.
- _____ 13. Feelings of worthlessness.
- _____ 14. Feeling lonely even when you are with people.
- _____ 15. Headaches.
- _____ 16. Faintness or dizziness.
- _____ 17. Pains in heart or chest.
- _____ 18. Nausea or upset stomach.
- _____ 19. Soreness of your muscles.
- _____ 20. Trouble getting your breath.
- _____ 21. Hot or cold spells.
- _____ 22. Numbness or tingling in parts of your body.
- _____ 23. A lump in your throat.
- _____ 24. Feeling weak in parts of your body.
- _____ 25. Heavy feelings in your arms or legs.
- _____ 26. Pains in your lower back.

Please respond with the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement to the following statements.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.I get myself through hard times mostly by planning to enjoy myself afterwards.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.I encourage myself to improve by feeling good about myself or giving myself something special whenever I make some progress.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3.I find I feel better and do better when I silently praise myself for even small achievements.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4.I can keep trying at something when I stop to think of what I've accomplished.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5.The way I keep up my confidence is by acknowledging any success I have.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6.The way I achieve my goals is by rewarding myself every step along the way.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7.I silently praise myself even when others do not praise me.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8.When I do something right, I take time to enjoy the feeling.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9.Unless I do something absolutely perfectly, it gives me little satisfaction.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10.I think talking about what you've done right is being too boastful.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
11.Praising yourself is being selfish and egotistical.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
12.People who talk about their own better points are just bragging.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please indicate the extent to which the following traits or qualities describe you.

	Very Well	Fairly Well	Somewhat	Not At All
1. Being hard-driving and competitive.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Usually pressed for time.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Being bossy or dominating.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Having a strong need to excel in most things.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Eating too quickly.	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please indicate the extent to which the following items describe how you feel at the end of an average day at work.

	Not At All	A Little Bit	Moderately	Quite A Bit	Extremely
6. Often very pressed for time.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. Work stayed with you so you were thinking about it after working hours	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Work often stretched you to the very limits of your energy and capacity.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. Often felt uncertain, uncomfortable, or dissatisfied with how well you were doing.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Do you get upset when you have to wait for anything?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following statements is probable or improbable using the rating scale shown below:

- 1 - Highly Improbable**
- 2 - Improbable**
- 3 - Neither Improbable nor Probable**
- 4 - Probable**
- 5 - Highly Probable**

In the future I expect that I will

- ___ 1. find that people don't seem to understand what I am trying to say.
- ___ 2. be discouraged about my ability to gain the respect of others.
- ___ 3. be a good parent.
- ___ 4. be unable to accomplish my goals.
- ___ 5. have a successful marital relationship.
- ___ 6. deal poorly with emergency situations.
- ___ 7. find my efforts to change situations I don't like are ineffective.
- ___ 8. not be very good at learning new skills.
- ___ 9. carry through my responsibilities successfully.
- ___ 10. discover that the good in life outweighs the bad.
- ___ 11. handle unexpected problems successfully.
- ___ 12. get the promotions I deserve.
- ___ 13. succeed in the projects I undertake.
- ___ 14. not make any significant contributions to society.
- ___ 15. discover that my life is not getting much better.
- ___ 16. be listened to when I speak.
- ___ 17. discover that my plans don't work out too well.
- ___ 18. find that no matter how hard I try, things just don't turn out the way I would like.
- ___ 19. handle myself well in whatever situation I'm in.
- ___ 20. be able to solve my own problems.
- ___ 21. succeed at most things I try.
- ___ 22. be successful in my endeavors in the long run.
- ___ 23. be very successful working out my personal life.
- ___ 24. experience many failures in my life.
- ___ 25. make a good impression on people I meet for the first time.

- ___ 26. attain the career goals I have set for myself.
- ___ 27. have difficulty dealing with my superiors.
- ___ 28. have problems working with others.
- ___ 29. be a good judge of what it takes to get ahead.
- ___ 30. achieve recognition in my profession.

1. All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?

- Very Satisfied Not too satisfied
 Somewhat satisfied Not at all satisfied

2. If you were free to go into any type of job you wanted, what would your choice be?

- Would want the job you have now
 Would want to retire and not work at all
 Would prefer some other job to the job you have now

3. Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?

- Decide without hesitation to take the same job
 Have some second thoughts
 Decide definitely not to take the same job

4. In general, how well would you say that your job measures up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it?

- Very much like the job you wanted
 Somewhat like the job you wanted
 Not very much like the job you wanted

5. If a good friend of yours told you he or she was interested in working in a job like yours for your employer (or yourself, if self-employed), what would you tell him or he

- Would strongly recommend it
 Would have doubts about recommending it
 • Would advise the friend against it

Please indicate how satisfied you are with the following aspects of your life using the scale shown below:

- 1 - Terrible**
- 2 - Unhappy**
- 3 - Mostly dissatisfied**
- 4 - Mixed**
- 5 - Mostly satisfied**
- 6 - Pleased**
- 7 - Happy**
- N/A - Not Applicable**

- _____ 1. Your relationship with your children.
- _____ 2. Your marriage or relationship with "significant other".
- _____ 3. Your own family life.
- _____ 4. The amount of fun and enjoyment you have.
- _____ 5. The way you spend your spare time.
- _____ 6. The amount of free time you have.
- _____ 7. The amount of relaxation in your life.
- _____ 8. The amount of pep and energy you have.
- _____ 9. The number of good, close friends you have.
- _____ 10. The way you cope with everyday problems.
- _____ 11. The way you balance your job and spouse/family responsibilities.
- _____ 12. All things considered, your life as a whole.

For each of the following questions, please check the ONE response that most applies to you:

1. Your age: 25-30
 31-35
 36-40
 41-45
 46-50
 over 50

2. Your present marital status: Single (never married)
 Living with Non-Spouse Significant Other
 Married
 Divorced or separated
 Widowed

3. Number of children:

4. Age of youngest child at home: 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5
 Less than 6 years
 6-12 years
 13-18 years
 over 18 years

5. Number of hours worked per week: 10-20
 21-30
 31-40
 41-50
 51-60
 over 60

6. Job level: Professional
 Managerial
 Administrative
 Semi-professional
 Clerical
 Sales
 Technician
 Skilled Worker
 Semi-skilled worker
 Unskilled worker

7. Total family income level: \$ _____

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