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**SINGLE AND MARRIED WORKING PARENTS' DUAL ROLE MANAGEMENT:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF WORK VALUES, ROLE ORIENTATION, ROLE
PERFORMANCE AND WELL-BEING**

City University of New York

Ph.D. 1987

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF WORK VALUES, ROLE ORIENTATION,
ROLE PERFORMANCE AND WELL-BEING

by

SARA R. MAHLER

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in
Business in partial fulfillment of the requirement
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, The City
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1987

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

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Abstract

**SINGLE AND MARRIED WORKING PARENTS' DUAL ROLE MANAGEMENT:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF WORK VALUES, ROLE ORIENTATION,
ROLE PERFORMANCE AND WELL-BEING**

by

Sara R. Mahler

Advisor: Professor Abraham K. Korman

The purpose of this research was to investigate the manner in which single working parents fulfill their responsibility for both Provider and Nurturer roles. It was predicted that single parents would differ from married working parents on psychological gender and work values, and therefore be better able to fulfill their work responsibilities and achieve a more satisfactory sense of well-being.

A volunteer sample of 97 single and 148 married mothers and fathers completed an anonymous questionnaire. In addition, 68 of the immediate superiors at work of those assessed also returned work performance evaluations. Psychological gender was measured by the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich & Holahan, 1978), a measure of

self-perceptions, and by a behavioral self-report, the Task-Relationship Behaviors Scale, developed for this study.

These two measures yielded different patterns of results. Levels of self-reported agentic behavior, but not agentic self-perceptions, were higher for single as opposed to married parents. Agentic behavior was also positively associated with work role performance, well-being and interrole conflict. Self-perceived communality was higher for single fathers than married fathers, and both agentic self-perceptions and behaviors were positively associated with income, frequency of childrens' contact with absent fathers, and negatively associated with child support payments.

Single mothers valued extrinsic rewards from work more than married mothers, although the findings remained ambiguous regarding the moderating effects of income level, since the family income of married mothers reached a higher level. No differences were found between married and single parents of either sex regarding value for convenience facets of work. Comparisons of supervisors' work performance evaluations yielded no significant differences between single and married parents, nor were there differences in absenteeism or tardiness.

This research showed some support for the basic hypothesis while also indicating the strength of traditional sex-role norms and economic need in shaping attitudes and behaviors. The correlational design and a relatively affluent convenience sample preclude attributions of causality and generalizations to the single parent population at large.

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CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW	1
Work and Single Parenting	4
CHAPTER 2: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND MAJOR HYPOTHESES	15
Conceptual Development	15
Definitions of Constructs	23
Major Hypotheses	34
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	51
The Sample	51
The Variables and Their Measurement	60
Psychometric Properties of the Measures	81
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS	98
Differences Between Single and Married Parents' Agency and Communion	98
Effects of Support Systems on Single Parents' Agency and Communion	109
Effects of Sex and Marital Status on Work Values	115
Income and Work Values	123
Marital Status and Work Performance	130
Agency and Well-Being, Role Performance and Interrole Conflict	132
Initiator Status and Well-Being and Interrole Conflict	141

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	145
Summary of the Findings	146
Methodological Issues	151
Contribution to the Body of Knowledge	160
Implications	164
APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN THE STUDY	168
APPENDIX B: SCALE ITEMS AND SCALE DIMENSIONS	183
APPENDIX C: RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS WITH OBLIQUE ROTATION OF THE TASK-RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIORS SCALE	189
APPENDIX D: DEVELOPMENT OF THE TASK-RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIORS SCALE	193
APPENDIX E: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE VARIABLES	204
APPENDIX F: PEARSON CORRELATIONS BETWEEN AGENCY AND WELL-BEING, ROLE PERFORMANCE AND INTERROLE CONFLICT FOR MARRIED WORKING PARENTS	209
REFERENCES	216

LIST OF TABLES

1: Results of T-Tests on Demographic Variables	58
2: Task/Relationship Scale Original <u>A Priori</u> Dimensions	85
3: Task/Relationship Scale Results From Orthogonal Factor Analysis	86
4: Rotated Factor Matrix	87
5: Reliability (Internal Consistency) Analysis	89
6: Intercorrelations Between Variables	95
7: T-Tests Between Single and Married Parents' Agency	99
8: T-Tests Between Single and Married Fathers' Communion	103
9: Hierarchical Regressions on Agentic and Communal Characteristics	107
10: Stepwise Regression Analyses for Divorced and Separated Mothers and for Single Fathers	114
11: A - T-Tests Between Means of Work Values	120
B - Hierarchical Regression on Work Values	121
C - T-Tests Between Means of Value for Extrinsic Rewards Controlling for Level of Income	122
12: A - Pearson Correlations Between Income and Work Values of Single Working Parents	127
B - Comparison of Single and Married Parents at High and Low Levels of Income: Pearson Correlations Between Annual Reported Income and Work Values	129
13: T-Tests Between Single and Married Parents' Work Performance	131
14: Pearson Correlations With Agentic Characteristics	135
15: A - T-Tests on Interrole Conflict	143
B - T-Tests on Life Satisfaction	144

LIST OF FIGURES

1 - Role Responsibilities by Family Structure	18
2 - Overlaps in Role Responsibilities	19
3 - General Model	49
4 - Schematic of Major Hypotheses	50

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

A great deal of attention has been focused on the work/family relationship during the past two decades. With the increasing incidence of working wives and mothers, the "myth of separate worlds" (Kanter, 1977) regarding the work sphere and the family sphere has been critically examined. The general conclusion has been that these two "worlds" are not at all separate, but rather, strongly interacting. Regardless of whether men or women were studied, or whether single earner or dual-earner families, it was frequently found that the effects of one tended to "spill over" onto the other (Near, Rice & Hunt, 1980).

While the work and family interactions of husbands have been critically examined to some extent, the bulk of the literature in Organizational Behavior has focused on dual-career wives. With the exception of occasional national probability samples that "catch" a single parent sub-group, such as the Quality of Employment Survey (Quinn & Staines, 1977), or studies of working mothers that include a single mother sub-sample (e.g. Anderson-Kulman & Paludi, 1986), the families studied have been intact, leaving us quite in the dark as to that

sizable proportion of mothers and fathers who are single working parents.

As of the 1980 United States Census, of nearly 85 million ever-married persons between 15 and 54, over 19 million were known to have been divorced, and an additional 2 1/2 million to have been widowed (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980a). In 1983, of 31.2 million families with children under 18, 22% were single parent families, with 89% headed by women. In absolute numbers, that is approximately 6 million female headed households with children under 18, up from 2.9 million in 1970, and 747,000 male headed families, up from 345,000 in 1970 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983). Clearly, this is a large number of people, most of whom are in the labor force. According to a recent Bureau of Labor Statistics survey, the percentage of families headed by single mothers employed full time ranged from 38% for those with children under one year old, to 79% for those with children under three years old, to 84% of those whose youngest child was six to seventeen (Noble, 1986). Virtually all of the single fathers are also in the labor force (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980b).

There is a massive body of single parent literature in other disciplines. For the most part, it concentrates on the effects of the absence of a parent on the

children, or on public policy issues regarding child welfare payments. There is also ample documentation of the financial disruption and economic deprivation experienced by the single mother (Ross & Sawhill, 1976; Epstein, 1979; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1979; 1980b; Weiss, 1979; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981). However, there is extremely little on the occupational adjustments that are often required by the single parent. As interactions and conflicts between work and family have become a major area of interest in Organizational Behavior, it would seem that the question of "How does a single parent manage these two major roles?" should be asked.

Divorce and widowhood are prime examples of unexpected change in social context and role expectations. A central theme in the literature on socialization and personality revolves around the degree of consistency in social behavior and personality through various life changes (Mortimer & Simmons, 1978). Evidence has accumulated which indicates that psychological characteristics , such as self-concept, values, and attitudes, are affected by occupational experiences (Fogarty, Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971; Kohn & Schooler, 1973; Inkeles & Smith, 1974; Hoffman & Fidell, 1979; Kohn, 1980), education (Schein, 1967; Powell & Butterfield, 1979, Beckman & Hauser, 1979), and family

stage (Abrahams, Feldman & Nash, 1978; Wilensky, 1978). Therefore, it is logical to assume that the experience of single-parenthood would also affect an individual's psychological states, as well as overt behavior.

At the same time, however, the single parent may or may not have freely chosen this status, and may harbor strong negative feelings about it - as well as experiencing the difficulties of being both sole Provider and sole Nurturer. Adjustment, therefore, may be inhibited under such circumstances. Therefore, the two main questions to be examined in the proposed research are:

1. Do working single parents have different sex-role orientations and/or work values from the working parent population in general?
- and:
2. What psychological characteristics and/or behaviors differentiate "successful" single parents, in terms of well-being and role performance, from those who are less "successful"?

Work and Single Parenting

Research on single parents has generally focused on

child rearing problems, social and psychological adjustment problems, and government support policy issues. Career management and multiple role management issues with respect to career management have been a minor part of the literature. The following sections focus on two areas that serve to introduce the reader to work related issues confronting single parents. The first discusses effects of downward economic mobility, and the second, work and career choices.

Effects of Downward Economic Mobility

Single parent families have lower incomes than intact families, especially female headed families (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980b). Many poor female-headed families were not poor prior to marital dissolution (Kriesberg, 1970), and data from a national survey revealed that a sharp drop in income is experienced during the first year after marital dissolution (McLanahan, 1983). Although the highest divorce rates occur among lower income families (Norton & Glick, 1979), there is a substantial increase in marital disruption as the income of the female rises (Ross & Sawhill, 1975), and the non-custodial fathers' incomes have been found to parallel that of the population at large (Brandwein, Brown & Fox, 1974). Data

collected by the General Accounting Office in 1974 indicates that there is little relationship between a father's ability to pay and either the amount of child support and separate maintenance agreed upon, or his compliance with the law (Stencil, 1976).

Weiss (1979) states that, of women who's former family income was at or above the national median, 1/8 received Aid to Families with Dependent Children payments in the first year following marital dissolution. This drops to almost none in the third year. The drop in income of single mother families that occurs in the first year of single parenthood is followed by a marked rise in the second and third years, which is accompanied by a high level of employment related movement (McLanahan, 1983). According to an analysis of the sample of mature women (ages 30 to 44 at the start of the study) of the National Longitudinal Survey, focusing on women who's marriages were disrupted, it is the employment of the woman herself which is the major means of avoiding poverty (Shaw, 1978).

Single mothers and single fathers have been shown to differ on only three characteristics. The fathers have higher incomes and higher education, and more frequently remain in their former residences and communities than the mothers (DeFrain & Eirick, 1979). The explanation for

this last finding is that the fathers are continuing to work as before, and are financially able to maintain their former homes, whereas, even today, the mothers must first seek more lucrative work, or full time work, and, even then, are not financially able to maintain their former homes.

An early and often cited article by Glasser & Navarre (1964) states that the downward economic mobility characteristic of single parent families, particularly if the distance between current and former level is perceived as "great enough," is likely to cause the family as a whole to become anomic, and this would have "serious consequences" in the parent's perception of personal adequacy. This was echoed fifteen years later by Weiss (1979), who speaks of the feeling of inadequacy a single parent may develop concerning all of his/her roles.

Single mothers' perceived competence regarding self-support has been found to be the lowest of three major areas of perceived competence- as parent, and regarding social participation - and correlated at $r=.50$ with life satisfaction. Over time, however, perception of competence in this area increases (Kazak, 1980). In a study using the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, a relationship was found between the source of

income and a sense of personal fate control. Although the amount of variance explained was small, the results suggest that the woman who must rely on AFDC or child support payments, the former considered stigmatizing and the latter, unstable, feel less able to plan for their lives (Bould, 1977).

Glasser & Navarre (op.cit.) also refer to the likelihood of both physical and emotional exhaustion of the unsupported solitary parent, resulting from the unrelenting needs of the children. In a study of the social origins of personal stress, with a sample of over 2000 people, the incidence of depression was found to be greater among those without a spouse, and this vulnerability increases with economic hardships, isolation, and parenthood (Pearlin & Johnson, 1977).

In his analysis of the Quality of American Life survey data as pertains to single mothers, Weiss (1976) points out that having children in general raises the likelihood of money worries, but that divorced and separated women are almost three times as likely to worry about money all or most of the time as opposed to married women, and over two times as likely as widowed mothers. A much higher percentage of married mothers than single mothers felt they could carry out their plans and run their lives as they want to, although the widowed

mothers were more similar to the married mothers in their belief that life would work out. However, it was children that were most frequently mentioned as a source of worry, for both married and single mothers.

Work and Career Choices

Work increases a single mother's sense of independence and self-esteem, and is a way of having social contacts, even though the job may be low paying (Brandwein, 1977). As far back as 1948, when Goode (1956) actually conducted the field interviews for his seminal study, it was noted that while the economic expectations of divorced women were lower, they were satisfied with what they had if it was as a result of their own efforts and if they felt they could control it themselves by working. He concluded that holding a job was associated with "having enough" through both social role definition and amount of money.

A study of single fathers in England, many of whom were from lower socio-economic levels, found that 63% of the men who were receiving Supplementary Benefits from the government did not like having to do so. They stated that they felt degraded, inadequate and/or dependent. Widowers, however, were slightly more likely to feel

"entitled" due, it was suggested, to the different status of a widower in society. The highest percentage of men receiving Supplementary benefits was among those with children between ages five and eleven, because it is most difficult to find someone to mind the children after school and for holidays and illnesses. There was also a higher likelihood of receiving Supplementary Benefits if there were three or more children in the home (George & Wilding, 1972).

A New Zealand study of 319 single mothers concludes that "if some money, suitable hours and travelling were found, then, for many, the nature of the job was irrelevant" (Sears, 1975, p. 10). With regard to job satisfaction, 78.5% stated they were very satisfied or satisfied, a surprising finding that led the researchers to speculate that once the stringent requirements were met of finding work hours compatible with the available child care, the person was then relatively satisfied. Brown, Feldburg, Fox & Cohen (1976) state that such scheduling difficulties were considered to sometimes lead the mothers to make dubious arrangements, and even to work for less money. Despite these problems, the increased autonomy and sense of personal competence gained were considered by many to be worth the "price" of divorced status.

Single mothers have been reported as being more job involved than their married counterparts (Poloma, Pendleton & Garland, 1982). They are less likely to be willing to forgo pay for more time off (Quinn & Staines, 1977; Best, 1980), and also more likely to want more work time for more money than men. This, despite the child care difficulties discussed previously, may be indicative of their relatively low incomes and need for autonomy.

George & Wilding (1972) in their study of single fathers, found that men of higher socio-economic classes, because of shorter hours and more pay, expressed less need either to stay on a job or cut down their hours because of child care responsibilities. Of the entire sample, 58.3% remained in the same job as prior to the marital disruption. Even though there may be the potential to move to a higher paying job, they were discouraged from doing so by the possibility that the job may be more demanding.

Of those who changed jobs, 42% stated it was because of the family situation. The lower classes were more likely to be fired because they could not keep the regular hours, and manual workers were more likely to be docked pay for taking time off for domestic reasons. In the sample as a whole, 44% experienced a drop in income, which was more likely to occur in families that had

children four years old or younger, as well as in lower class families.

Regarding attitudes towards their work, one-fourth of the sample spoke of being less happy and less immersed in their work, whereas 10% stated they were more dedicated and found more comfort in it. The ease of combination of work and family responsibilities was a major factor that contributed to job satisfaction. Other factors were job involvement, attitude of employer and peers, and reason for single father status. Widowers were less satisfied with their work than divorced men.

In a study of 72 single fathers , who happened to be financially better off than the population at large, (Todres, 1975) 49% indicated their work was negatively affected, although this was not further specified. "Time" was the main concern of 31% of the sample. They reported "no great difficulty" in obtaining housekeepers or baby sitters, although 54% would have liked a housekeeper and only 13 of the fathers actually had one. Among a small sample of men with joint-custody, less flexibility at work and more pressure at work were associated with negative feelings towards child care (Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978).

Pleck's (1979) analysis of data gathered from a national probability sample of 1515 working adults found

that about 34% of the entire sample reported "a lot" or "somewhat" work-family conflict, with single mothers reporting less than their married counterparts. As there were only four single fathers, it was mentioned "just for the record" that they reported the highest rate of all. The single parents' most frequently stated source of interference was scheduling incompatibilities, whereas married men most often cited excessive work time. The single parent sample, unlike the rest of the sample, showed no correlation between work-family interference and measures of job satisfaction, family adjustment, or general well-being. Pleck speculated that the more vulnerable position of single parents makes them more strongly and negatively affected by other, more obvious factors, so that the independent effect of work-family interference is trivial by comparison.

Summary

While there is no one "type" of single parent, as the individuals so designated come from all socio-economic classes, there are a few general statements that can be made. That work is important for the single mother is very apparent in the literature. It is important not only from a financial point of view, but also for a

feeling of well-being and control over their lives. The single father, on the other hand, is placed in a position, in our society at this point in history, where he is required to add the nurturer, caretaker role to his repertoire. At the same time, our society remains organized for the distributive two-parent family, which carries additional elements of economic and emotional stress for the single parent beyond that which is experienced by the now majority two-paycheck family.

The working single parent, the adjustments required and the subjective components accompanying these adjustments, have hardly begun to be explored. There is also a need to link the working single parent population to the working parent population at large. It is with these general goals in mind that the following research has been conducted.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND MAJOR HYPOTHESES

Conceptual Development

Being a working parent places a person in two strongly interacting roles. Traditionally, these roles have been divided between the father, who was the Provider (worker), and the mother, who was the Nurturer (parent). The Provider role was the socially sanctioned male sex role, and believed to require agentic behaviors on the part of the actor. Agency refers to a cognitive focus on getting the problem solved or obtaining a goal. The Nurturer role was the socially sanctioned female sex role, and believed to require communal behavior. Communion refers to an affective concern for group harmony and the well-being of others. It was believed that effective performance of these roles demanded parallel agentic and communal qualities of personality (Parsons & Bales, 1955).

The working single parent has sole responsibility for both the Provider role and the Nurturer role. Therefore, he or she can be considered on the extreme high end of a continuum of parental (nurturing) responsibility, and also on the extreme high end of a continuum of provider

responsibility. This has implications for both the individual's time and energy management, and for the individual's self-image.

These two aforementioned continua of provider and nurturer responsibility represent what has been called the masculine/agentive role, and the feminine/communal role (Bakan, 1966; Spence & Helmreich, 1980). Thus, by definition, the working single parent violates conventional sex-role stereotypes and norms, as well as carrying the full burden of both roles solely on his or her shoulders. Thus, this dual role places extreme demands on the working single parent's time and energy, without offering the possibility of relief, as there is no other adult in the household to share the burden .
If we were to conceive of the situation in terms of manageability, the working single parent would have the least manageable of all family structures.

We can compare the working single parent family with the traditional family and with the dual paycheck family. Each of these family structures defines a range of

- * We exclude from our definition of single parent those persons who are cohabiting. However, single parents may be in joint-custody situations, or live with relatives, or in multi-single family households. Such situations provide support systems that are expected to mitigate some of the circumstances described and thus function as moderators which will be included in the analysis.

responsibilities and their attendant behaviors for its parent members. These behaviors may show great individual variations within each of their defined ranges, however, the general ranges of providing and parenting, which are defined by the structure, are characteristically different for each of the family types.

It should be clarified that the three categories presented here are highly simplified. In fact, the literature has presented many shades of difference within the dual paycheck family, ranging from the wife working intermittently, to "help out" , to the full-fledged "dual career" family, where both adults are committed to career pursuits, as opposed to just having jobs. The single parent family also is not a homogenous group, as there are variations in the degrees of assistance and support provided by the ex-spouse and/or other relatives and friends (Rosenfield & Rosenstein, 1973; Mendes, 1979; Gongla, 1982). These more subtle differences within each group shall be delineated more fully in a later section, and are included in the research design as moderator variables.

The table on the next page presents the "pure" categories, to be viewed as a highly simplified theoretical representation of roles by family structure.

FIGURE 1

ROLE RESPONSIBILITIES BY FAMILY STRUCTURE

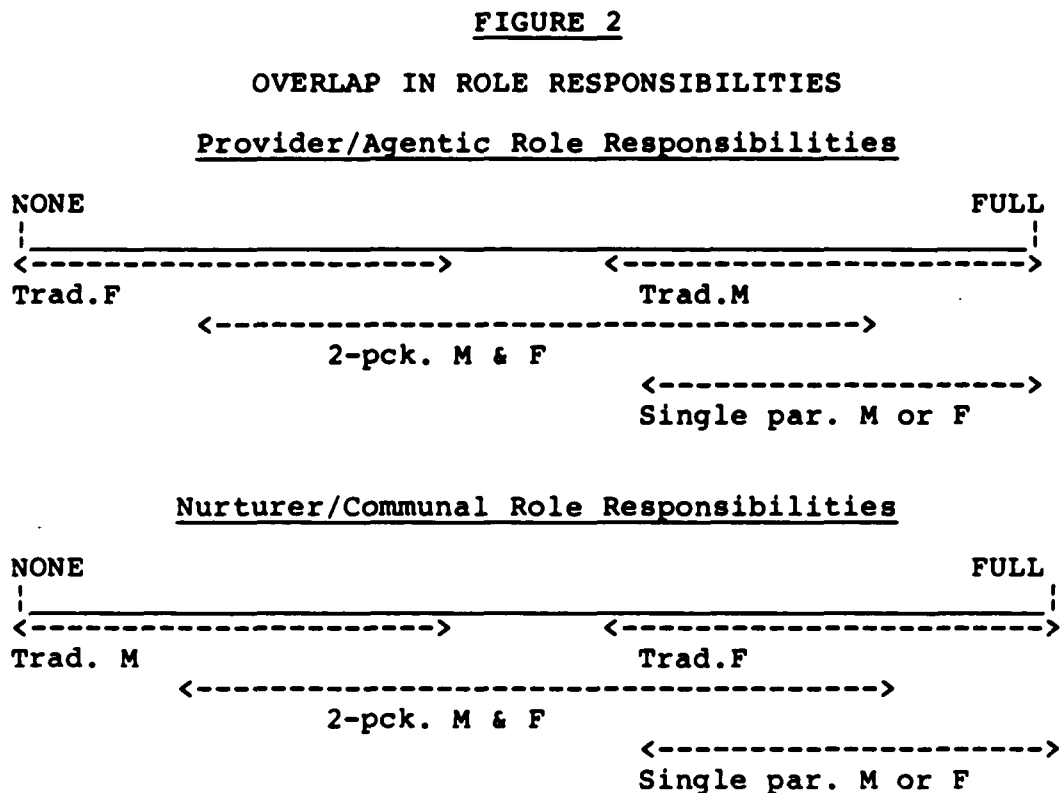
	<u>PROVIDER/ AGENTIC</u> (works away from home for pay)		<u>NURTURER/ COMMUNAL</u> (takes care of family members' needs)	
	<u>MAN</u>	<u>WOMAN</u>	<u>MAN</u>	<u>WOMAN</u>
TRADITIONAL	full	none	none	full
2-PAYCHECK	part	part	part	part
SINGLE	<--full-->		<---full---->	

The purpose of this simplified table is to demonstrate the theoretical differences in role assignments and responsibilities between three family structures. The "Traditional" structure clearly and sharply segregates Provider role responsibilities from Nurturer role responsibilities, assigning the former totally to the father, and the latter totally to the mother. Except during time of crisis, the mother has no responsibilities for providing, and the father is presumed free of nurturing duties.

Parents in a "Two-paycheck" family theoretically share each role. The mother is responsible for at least some of the providing, as well as for nurturing, and the father is responsible for at least some of the nurturing, as well as for providing. In the single parent family, however, by definition, there is only one parent, but the

two major roles of Provider and Nurturer. Consequently, full responsibility for each of these roles must fall on the one parent.

In fact, however, the categories, and consequent roles, are not that clear cut, and may show overlaps, based both on category sub-type and on individual differences. This is schematically shown below:



To restate the first premise: Family structure defines ranges of behavior which may be ordered on sex-role related dimensions. Thus, between family

structures, we expect to observe characteristic differences in sex-role orientations and sex-role related behaviors, based on the theoretical premise that adults change in response to situational demands.

The position that changes in social behavior and in personality do occur throughout the lifespan is congruent with the contemporary view of adult socialization. While there remains dissent in the literature regarding this issue, with positions ranging from the claim that personality is completely shaped during childhood to the notion that personality remains malleable throughout the lifespan, evidence has accumulated to support the view that at least some specific changes in personality do occur in response to the acquisition of new group memberships, new roles, and differently structured social situations (Mortimer & Simmons, 1978; Risman, 1983).

Generalization theory hypothesizes that attitudes, values and ways of thinking are abstracted and generalized from the modes of successful adaptation to daily life situations and pressures (Kohn, 1969; Schooler, 1972; Inkeles & Smith, 1974; Kanter, 1977). While assuming that previously developed cognitive orientations do influence the manner in which new roles are enacted, this view nevertheless sees the individual as relatively passive and reacting in response to the

demands of the environment.

Exchange theory (Homans, 1961) and expectancy theory (Lawler, 1973), on the other hand, argue that the individual approaches a new role more actively, and the socialization process consists of the individual learning to negotiate for rewards from role partners. If the expectation of rewards is insufficient, the individual will not be motivated to remain in the group.

Limited empirical evidence regarding divorced individuals has shown that divorced women tend to hold more liberal sex-role attitudes than their married counterparts (Schaffer, 1980), that they are more work involved (Paloma, Pendleton & Garland, 1980), and that they tend to value extrinsic rewards from work more than their married counterparts (Quinn & Staines, 1977; Best, 1980). Working wives in general have been found to hold more liberal sex-role attitudes than housewives (Gordon & Kammeyer, 1980; Schaffer, op. cit.) and to view themselves as more agentic than housewives (Hoffman & Fidell, 1979), and single fathers and dual-paycheck family fathers were found to give higher priority to the caretaker role than traditional-family fathers (Risman, 1983). With regard to divorced fathers, joint custody fathers were found more role flexible than weekend fathers (Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981), which may be

interpreted as indicating the importance of free choice and perceived rewards in adaptation to the single parent role. These findings indicate support for the view that adults change in response to situational demands.

As the full weight of both the Provider and Nurturer roles, for working single parents, are concentrated solely in one person, it is expected that both their sex-role self-concept and their work values will show characteristic differences from parents in intact families. At the same time, however, we expect to find wide variations within the working single parent group, as well as characteristic differences between single parents and parents from intact families.

It is proposed that agentic behaviors, being geared to self-protection and self-assertion by directly attempting to impact on the environment, are the essential behaviors for adjustment as a single parent. The within group variations, therefore, are expected to show a relationship between agency and relative "success," in terms of well-being and role performance.

Definitions of Constructs

Single Parent Families

A global definition of a single-parent family may be:
A family whose nuclear structure is maintained by one parent in the home, while the other is absent. Such a definition, however, fails to specify:

1. What has precipitated the absence.
2. Whether the absence is temporary or permanent.
3. The degree of contact the absent parent has with his or her family.

All of these serve to differentiate single-parent families in ways that are considered to bear on their functioning (Rosenfield & Rosenstein, 1973).

The precipitating event is generally a divorce, or death of a spouse (Gongla, 1983). By specifying the precipitating event, the definition is now narrowed to exclude those single-parent family units which are temporarily functioning as such, due to the spouse's work or illness, and where the spouse is still a member of the nuclear family and is expected to return. It is still necessary to define the term "spouse," and the frequency of contact and quality of the relationship the ex-spouse has with the nuclear family. Another area that requires specification is the existence of parent substitutes, who

may be relatives or non-relatives, and the current living arrangement of the single-parent family (Mendes, 1979).

Spouse. Following the classification system utilized by the United States Bureau of the Census (1980), a couple is considered as married if they are living together under a common law arrangement, as well as if they are legally married. Therefore, cohabiting couples are considered as "married" for the purposes of this study, and a former common-law spouse, if also a natural parent of the child(ren), is considered the "absent parent." This definition also conforms to the requirements for financial responsibility of the absent parent as specified under the current law.

Quality and Quantity of Relationship with Ex-spouse.

Quantity of relationship with ex-spouse has two major components - actual contact with the children, and financial support in the form of child support or maintenance payments to spouse. While these are often related to each other, they do not have to be. Each of these can be viewed in terms of amount and regularity (predictability), which, in turn, are often (but not always) related to the quality of the relationship in terms of friendliness to hostility.

Therefore, a definitional classification may be established, with the existence of the second and third components contingent on a non-zero condition of the first:

1. Quantity of Relationship
 - a. Frequency of contact of absent parent with children: 0 to 50%.
 - b. Amount of financial support: 0 to 100%.
2. Regularity of Relationship:
 - a. Regarding contact
 - b. Regarding financial support
3. Quality of Relationship: Very friendly to very hostile.

An absent parent who assumes responsibility for the children with a frequency of close to 50% (e.g. an average of three days a week), and who maintains this regularly, and with accord on financial support, is considered to have joint-custody.

Parental substitutes. These are persons, other than the spouse, who are willing and able to assume some degree of parental responsibility. They may live in a different household, or in the same household, as in the case of single-parents who move back with their families of origin, or who create multi-single family households.

A sub-category would include paid child care personnel, who function as parental substitutes on a contractual basis, as opposed to the non-contractual nature of assistance in this area from family and friends.

Intact Family

An intact family is one that contains a couple who are married, whether legally or by common law, at least one of whom is the natural (or adoptive) parent of children who live in the household, and who consider themselves as a nuclear family.

Two broad categories of intact families have been designated in the previous section of this paper:

1. Traditional, where the man is the sole provider.
2. Dual-Paycheck, where both husband and wife work away from the home for pay. This category must be further specified, as the balance of provider responsibility between husband and wife has a wide range, as does the degree to which there is commitment to continuous pursuit of employment outside of the home on the part of each spouse.

The literature on this subject generally specifies a difference between a two-career family, where both

parties are highly committed to a career, implying training and some sort of temporal progression, and a dual-earner family, where the wife works primarily to supplement the family's income, and subordinates her career interests, if any, to those of her spouse. Generally absent from this body of literature, however, is the two-job family, where neither spouse has a "career" as such, but both work at "jobs." In such a case, the wife may be as fully occupied with work as her husband and might be, at least intermittently, the primary provider.

Specification along the dimensions of degree of provider responsibility of each spouse will partially serve to locate a specific family within the "dual-paycheck" category. The specification of "career" versus "job" is more difficult, as it is easily confounded with occupational classification, job and work involvement, and intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation to work.

Sex Role and Related Constructs

The term "sex role" is frequently utilized in the literature as an "all purpose label for all the ways men and women are presumed to differ" (Spence & Helmreich,

1978, p.14), and as such, the construct may be construed as lacking in clarity. It has been suggested that there are

four levels of sexual differentiation:

1. Contributions to the reproductive process
2. Secondary sex characteristics
3. Place in the social structure
4. Presumed psychological makeup

(Bakan, 1966)

The first and second levels refer to biological differentiation, and, in and of themselves, are not of interest for our purposes. The third, "place in the social structure", refers to the masculine and feminine "roles" in society, and correspond to Angrist's (1969) meanings of "position" in society, and "relationships" within groups. These are normatively based on essentially consensual expectations of the group and society at large. Such place/position meanings refer to the division of labor in society and in groups according to biological sex. "Presumed psychological makeup" refers to personality and behavior, that is, what men and women are "like" (Angrist,op.cit.), as opposed to which segments of society's work men and women are expected to perform.

Therefore, the term "sex role" encompasses:

1. Both personality and social role, and
2. Behaviors and characteristics viewed both as typical of men or women (stereotypes), and as desirable for men or women (norms). (Pleck, 1981)

However, it has repeatedly been pointed out that the biological, sociological and psychological aspects of sexual differentiation are far from perfectly correlated, and in fact, may correlate at no higher than moderate levels (c.f. Bakan, op.cit.; Spence & Helmreich, 1978). Consequently, when referring to "sex role," in its general or multi-leveled meaning, it is not necessarily assumed that there are any strong relationships or attachments to biological sex. The measurement of sex-role characteristics in any individual attempts to ascertain the characteristics of the individual along specified masculine and feminine dimensions, and is called sex typing.

Agency and Communality as Dimensions of Masculine and Feminine Sex Roles. Agency and communality are a subset of the loosely defined constructs of masculinity and femininity, respectively. Here again, these terms may refer to role in the social structure, as described by Parsons & Bales (op.cit.), and also as personality

characteristics.

As role within a family, agency focuses on establishing the desired relations to goal objects, and is analogous to the "task specialist" of small groups. Communality focuses on the maintenance of integrative relationships between family members, and is analogous to the "relationship specialist" (Parsons & Bales, op. cit.). Parsons & Bales go on to assert that adequate performance of these roles is enhanced by parallel specialization of personality, thereby bringing us to the definition of agency and communality as personality characteristics, which may be translated into agentic and communal behavior. It is this latter definition that is of primary interest for the purposes of this study, as working single parents, by definition, violate the stereotypical role expectations regarding division of labor within the family - and, not so incidentally, so do the dual-paycheck family parents that comprise part of the comparison group.

Definitions of Agency and Communality as Personality Characteristics. Agency is a cognitive focus on getting the problem solved or the job done, and encompasses a sense of the self as an individual - self-protective, self-assertive and an urge to master. Agency is

indicative of independence, rationality, and separation and/or individualtion of self from the larger group (Bakan, op. cit.). As such, agency can be construed as a "me" construct.

Communality refers to an affective concern for harmony of the group, and for the well-being of others, and encompasses a sense of self as part of a larger organism, selflessness and a desire to be at one with others, and non-contractual cooperation . Communality can be construed as a "we" construct, indicative of a desire to nurture others. In order to differentiate agency and communality as personality characteristics from the catch-all term "sex roles," the term "psychological gender," or "gender roles" will be used.

The extent to which agentic and communal characteristics are expressed as behaviors has been a subject of debate in the literature. The general consensus appears to be that, if specific situations are such that they are perceived to demand behavior not congruent with the individual's self-concept, and conformity to these demands is considered important (especially due to negative sanctions involved if one does not conform), individuals may behave in a manner not congruent with their self-concepts (Lenny, 1979; Pleck, 1981; Risman, 1983). However, such inconsistent

behavior, e.g. in the case of relatively sex-typed persons who perform a cross-sex behavior, has been found to produce discomfort (Bem & Lenny, 1976).

Therefore, it is not assumed that people always behave in a manner consistent with their self-concept. Nor is it assumed that self-perceptions of psychological gender will always be in harmony with perceived situational demands that an individual encounters over his or her adult life.

Work Values

Valued Job Characteristics. Any job is a complex, multi-dimensional structure of many interrelated elements. Locke (1976) suggested a three-category system for combining the various specific elements into broader categories:

1. The work itself - that is, its actual content, and valued for its own sake. Specific sub-categories include challenge, interest, variety, opportunity for learning, opportunities for using one's skills and abilities, self-control over work activities and pace. These are also known as the intrinsic rewards of a job.
2. Rewards - that which work makes possible, such as

money, security, promotions, recognition, status and life style. These are also called extrinsic rewards in the literature, although they have sometimes tended to be lumped together with the third category, to be defined below, under the one title.

3. Context - that which contributes to the ambience of working, and also to the ease or possibility of working. Included here are location, hours, conditions, management policies, co-workers and supervision. Subdivisions of context, for the purpose of examining the work/family relationship, would distinguish conditions that contribute to the possibility of working in the first place - convenience/flexibility - and those that contribute to the environment in which the work is to be done.

Work Involvement. Work involvement, for the purposes of this study, shall encompass both the meanings of:

- a) the importance of work in one's life, and
- b) the degree of daily absorption in work activity.

Although the first meaning is a normative definition, and the second one implies psychological identification or involvement, a frequently utilized measure that combines these dimensions (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) has demonstrated acceptable reliability as a unidimensional

measure (Morrow, 1983), as has the more recently developed measure by Lefkowitz & Somers (1982). This implies a strong relationship between a belief in the importance of work, and the degree to which one identifies with the work that one is engaged in, despite recent conceptualizations that distinguish between general importance of work and involvement in one's current job (c.f. Kanungo, 1982).

The importance of work is a similar concept to that of the Protestant Work Ethic, and to the concept of career salience, however the latter two are defined with somewhat different emphases. The Protestant Work Ethic is defined as the extent to which personal worth results only from self-sacrificing work or occupational achievement (Blood, 1969; Mirels & Garret, 1971). Career salience (Greenhaus, 1971) is defined with reference to "career," implying only those vocations that have a temporal progression and/or an extensive time period to achieve proficiency.

Major Hypotheses

Agentic behaviors are geared to self-protection, self-assertion and self-aggrandizement, via directly

attempting to impact on the environment. Therefore, these are capable of restructuring situational demands under conditions of heavy time and energy constraints, with pressures to perform, which is characteristic of the single working parent's situation. Based on the situational adaptation view of personality characteristics, it is reasoned that working single parents will adapt to their situation by being highly agentic in their behaviors, and thus, via attribution, their self-concept. It is also reasoned that single working parents will demonstrate different work values from their married counterparts, due to their unique status. The specific hypotheses to be tested in this study follow.

H-1. Working single parents, of both sexes, are significantly higher in agentic characteristics, relative to dual-paycheck family parents and traditional family parents.

Empirical work has demonstrated variations of "self-perceived psychological gender" congruent with theoretical predictions regarding family structure. Women who work outside the home are more agentic than women who are housewives (Hoffman & Fidell, 1979). Parent couples were shown to be more polarized in their psychological

gender than non-parent couples - that is, the fathers were more agentic, and the mothers more communal, than their childless counterparts (Abrahams, Feldman & Nash, 1978). Single mothers and fathers have been found to use more instrumental than expressive behaviors, with non-significant differences between men and women in the proportion of these (Rasmussen, 1975), and single working mothers were found to maintain more organization within their families than married working mothers (Anderson-Kulman, 1986). A small-sample study of single mothers and fathers showed a non-significant trend for single parents to be more androgynous than married parents (Kurdik & Siesky, 1980). Similar results have been demonstrated with career choice, in that persons who choose "masculine " professions, such as management or engineering, tend to be higher in agency (Berzins, Welling & Wetter, 1978; Powell & Butterfield, 1979; Waddell, 1983; Strange & Rea, 1983). These can be interpreted as reflecting the view that adults change as a result of situational demands, although the reverse may also be interpreted, due to lack of longitudinal data.

Agentic characteristics are hypothesized to be stronger among single working parents due to the particularly heavy dual-role pressures on them because they are alone in their adult responsibilities for both

providing for and caring for their families. However, this degree of "aloneness" may vary as a function of the availability of a support network:

H-1-A: Working single parents who have a support network will be lower in agentic characteristics than working single parents who do not.

Support networks may include the ex-spouse, as in joint-custody situations or particularly amicable relationships. Availability of reliable child-care, whether from friends or family, or for pay, may also be considered as part of a support network. Household composition is another indicator of availability of support, and may be indicated by friends or relatives who share the living quarters. Older, responsible children in the home may also be part of the support network.

Such support, which is primarily social, but which may also encompass financial support, relieves the working single parent of some of the sole burden of being both provider and nurturer, and therefore lowers the need for a highly agentic orientation.

H-2. Single fathers are significantly higher in communal characteristics, than are dual paycheck family fathers and traditional fathers.

The distributions generally found are that men tend to be more agentic, and women more communal (c.f. Bem, 1974; Spence & Helmreich, 1978; Berzins et al, 1978; Hoffman & Fidell, 1979). Therefore, for women, as a group, high agency is a major change, whereas for men as a group, it is not. The major change for men, as they take on the sole nurturer role, would be a rise in communality. However, it is asserted that in both sexes, high agency will be found because of its utility regarding management of the high pressure dual-roles of sole nurturer and sole provider.

Support networks also play a moderating role for single fathers, but in the opposite direction:

H-2-A: Single fathers who have a support network will be lower in communal characteristics than single fathers who do not.

The reasoning here is that, as men are generally more agentic than women, availability of support to the single father mitigates the situational demand of being sole nurturer. Therefore, he is more likely to remain in his previously established orientation.

- H-3. a. Working single mothers place significantly higher importance on extrinsic rewards than do either single fathers or working parents from intact families.
- b. Working single fathers place significantly higher importance on convenience facets than do either single mothers or married fathers.

The unique situation of the working single parent, as sole provider and as sole nurturer, is also expected to impact on the individual's work values. Here, however, economic factors must be considered, as well as sex differences, since, in general, women, and especially single mothers, earn far less than men (U.S.Census, 1980b).

As single mothers are generally poorer than the fathers, and also, in today's world, are more likely to be at the entry or establishment stages of their careers at an older age than the fathers, we would expect them to place more importance on extrinsic rewards (e.g. money and promotion) as national data has indicated (Quinn & Staines, 1977; Best, 1980). The fathers, on the other hand, are more likely to be under pressure to make more time for their parental and household duties, and

have less pressure to make money or gain job security.

- H-4. a. Working single mothers are significantly higher in work involvement than are single fathers or dual-paycheck parents.
- b. Working single fathers are significantly lower in work involvement than are single mothers and married fathers.

By similar reasoning as for the previous hypothesis, it is expected that single parent status would have an impact on work involvement. In the early stages of single-motherhood, self-perceived competence regarding self-support has been found to be the lowest of three major areas of perceived competence - as parent, and regarding social participation (Kazak, 1980). Single mothers have also reported being more job involved than their married counterparts (Paloma, Pendleton & Garland, 1982). For single mothers, the relative newness of full provider responsibility can be expected to focus her on this, and thus increase her level of work involvement, whereas the single fathers are focused on their parenting responsibilities, and therefore may show lessened work involvement.

H-5: Among single working parents, income is negatively associated with value for extrinsic rewards and work involvement, and positively associated with value for convenience.

Income, in national census data, has been shown to be associated with sex and with family structure. There is some empirical evidence, however, which demonstrates that when occupation is controlled, men and women do not significantly differ in their work values (Kaufman & Feters, 1980; Walker, Tausky & Oliver, 1982), levels of job involvement (Gould & Werbel, 1983; Graddick & Farr, 1983) or career salience (Sekaran, 1982). On the other hand, it has been noted that presence of children is associated with value for extrinsic rewards and with job involvement, both interpreted as supporting a financial need hypothesis (Walker et al, op. cit.; Gould & Werbel, op. cit.). Consequently, it seems likely that differences in work values and involvement are primarily a function of financial need among working single parents, rather than of biological sex and/or sex role, and if this variable were controlled, there would be no differences between single mothers and fathers.

Therefore, among high income single parents, we would expect to find lower work involvement and lower value for extrinsic rewards, whether the single parent is a mother

or father, and, among those single mothers and fathers whose incomes are equal, we would not expect to find the previously hypothesized differences according to sex.

The above examines differences between working single parents and parents in intact families, via exploration of differences in sex role related issues and in work values. In addition, some differences between fathers and mothers are examined. The question regarding "success", that is, outcomes in terms of psychological well being, and of role performance, will now be addressed.

H-6. Work performance evaluations of single parents are significantly lower than work performance evaluations of married parents.

An often cited early article by Glasser & Navarre (1964) refers to the likelihood of physical and emotional exhaustion of the solitary single parent, which can lead to decreased effectiveness. A review by Brown, Feldberg, Fox & Kohen (1976) observed that there had been an assumption throughout the literature that the female-headed family is deviant and pathological. The single-parent literature has been concerned with the potential for negative effects on the children of these

families, and it seems reasonable that there may be some belief that the hypothesized decreased effectiveness would also occur at work.

Single parents also have expressed feelings of inadequacy about the performance of all their roles (Glasser & Navarre, op. cit.; Weiss, 1979) and single mothers' self-perceived competence regarding self-support has been reported as the lowest of the major areas of perceived competence (Kazak, 1980). As a working single parent is required to take on roles that are usually enacted by two people, one may well ask: How effective can he or she be? This question disregards quality of life issues and solely addresses their ability to hold down jobs and perform well. Their parental effectiveness has been amply examined in the family literature, addressing the possible existence of a structural barrier to effective child-rearing. Given the economic imperative of having to provide, is there a structural barrier to effective work performance?

Single parents are highly motivated to be providers. Furthermore, new single parents often tend to go through a period of job changes (c.f. Todres, 1975; McLanahan, 1983), in order to accomodate their new status. If we assume random distribution of ability throughout the working population, there appears no reason to expect

that single parents would be evaluated any less favorably than other groups, with respect to their current jobs. Rather than test this statement of "no difference", which is the Null hypothesis of chance expectation, this research tests the specific prediction that single parents are poorer performers at work than married parents with the expectation that it will not be supported.

H-7. For single working parents, agentic characteristics are positively associated with life-satisfaction and role performance, and negatively associated with perceived interrole conflict.

Regarding differences within the working single parent population, it is hypothesized that agency is high among single parents because of the severe demands placed on their time and energy from competing spheres of work and family. In order to bring these under control, the adaptive response is believed to be via an agentic orientation. This is not to say that communality is necessarily dysfunctional, but rather less important, or even irrelevant, to the well-being and role performance of individuals attempting to survive under conditions of high pressure, such as working single parents.

In essence, this is an extension of the masculinity hypothesis that has been proposed in the literature on sex roles and gender roles. The masculinity hypothesis arose from analysis of research testing the proposition that androgynous persons (that is, persons high on both masculine and feminine characteristics) are more behaviorally flexible, and therefore achieve the best psychological adjustment. Reviews of the literature, including meta-analysis, have concluded that it is the masculinity dimension, alone, that accounts for the results (Kelly & Worrell, 1977; Bassoff & Glass, 1980; Taylor & Hall, 1982; Whitley, 1983). Taylor & Hall have suggested that masculine characteristics are more valued by society, and so elicit positive reinforcements for the individual. which may account for the generally reported higher adjustment of these individuals (measured by self-reports of self-esteem, neuroticism, well-being, depression, etc.).

It can be argued that such favorable self-reports may simply be due to the repression that is a concomitant of the masculine role (Harrison, 1978), and, by transcendence over biological sex, also in women high on these characteristics. However, it is posited here that, whether or not supression is involved, the pressures of being a working parent, particlarly a single working

parent, require, for survival, a high degree of masculinity (agency). Therefore, such characteristics are necessary (if not entirely sufficient) for such individuals, simply because such characteristics aid in obtaining their basic material, time and energy needs. High levels of agency are therefore expected to be positively associated with measures of role performance, life satisfaction and conflict perception (which has implications for conflict management).

H-8. Single parents who have attained this status by their own choice, or by mutual agreement, are more life satisfied and perceive less interrole conflict than those on whom this status was forced.

The premise underlying the situational adaptation view is that there are congruent configurations between person and situation, and that people are capable of changing, in order to achieve situational congruence. However, people will, at least some of the time, find themselves in situations which were not anticipated, and which may not coincide with certain deeply rooted values or self-concept, which resist alteration. Yet, people do engage in behaviors that are inconsistent with their values or self-concepts (Bem & Lenny, 1976; Baylin, 1970;

1978; Pleck, 1981). Single parents may be particularly vulnerable to this kind of incongruity, as divorce and/or child custody may have been thrust on them essentially without their consent (Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981).

Additional antecedent factors include the person's educational attainments, and occupational experiences. Education has been shown to be associated with liberalization of sex role attitudes and with androgyny (Beckman & Hauser, 1979). Occupational experiences have been shown to impact on work values and involvement (Fogarty, Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977; Kohn, 1980), and, for women especially, on sex role related factors (Schaffer, 1980; Gordon & Kammeyer, 1980).

In addition to such antecedent factors , concurrent factors in the individual's life situation are expected to moderate the previously proposed relationships. These would include current socio-economic status (Aldous, 1978; Estes & Wilensky, 1978; Gordon & Kammeyer, op.cit.; Wilensky, 1981), availability of a support system (Mendes, 1979; George & Wilding, 1972), compatibility of current job with the individual's family situation (George & Wilding, 1972; Sears, 1975; Pleck, 1979, Bohen & Viveros-Long, 1981), and both family size and children's

ages (Keith & Schaffer, 1980; Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1980; Graddick & Farr, 1983) .

The sex of the individual has already been introduced as an attribute that has an important impact on the proposed relationships. Race is another attribute that must be factored into the equation.

These relationships may be represented in a general model of the relationship of family structure to sex-roles and work values, as shown below in Figure 3. The major hypotheses regarding working single parents are schematically represented in Figure 4, following.

FIGURE 3
GENERAL MODEL

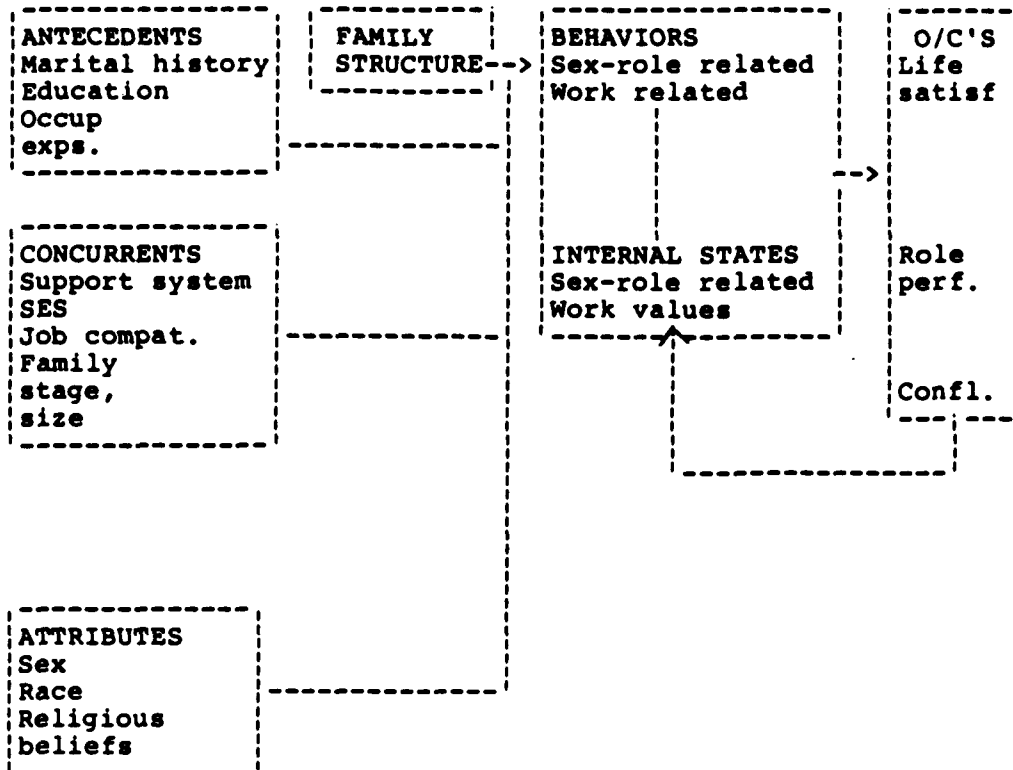
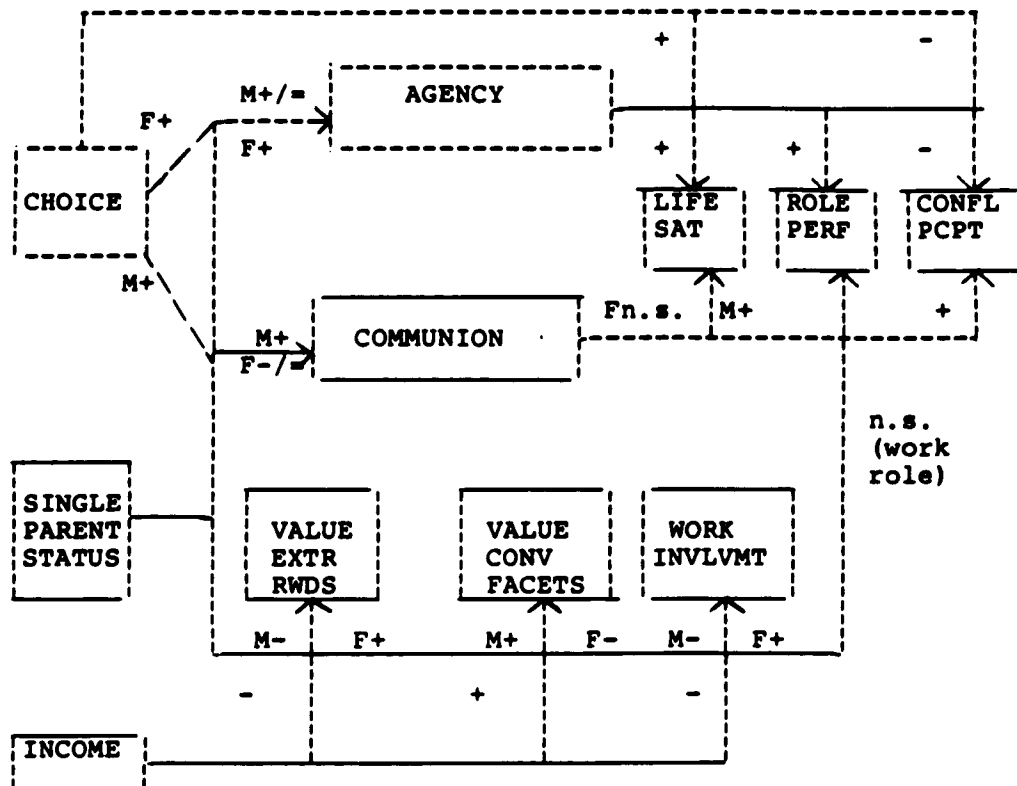


FIGURE 4
SCHEMATIC OF MAJOR HYPOTHESES



CHOICE: Refers to having attained single parent status by one's own choice or mutual agreement.

EXTR. RWDS: Extrinsic rewards from work

CONV. FACETS: Convenience facets of one's job

CONFL. PCPT.: Perception of interrole conflict

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will discuss the methodology of the research in terms of the sample, the variables and their measurement, and the psychometric properties of the measures. For reference, a copy of the questionnaire is included in Appendix A, and copies of the scale items and dimensions are included in Appendix B.

The Sample

Sampling Procedure

Obtaining a sample of single mothers and fathers, especially the fathers, presented problems as these are relatively rare individuals in the population at large. There are no comprehensive lists from which to select a random sample.

The problem for this study was compounded by the requirement of a comparison group of married working parents. This latter group, because of their ubiquity, could be found in sufficient numbers from nearly any type of list - a firm, professional association, alumni lists, the telephone book, etc. It would not have been a

formidable task to cull a sample of working parents from intact families who are relatively homogenous on some other variables, such as age range, or occupational status.

Comparative studies have been done as part of large sample surveys utilizing probability samples, but even in those instances, insufficient numbers of single fathers have been drawn. All single-father samples (including joint-custody arrangements) have been painstakingly sought, usually by some combination of advertising and public service announcements, culling through records from divorce courts, word of mouth, community and social service agencies and institutions (including day care centers), and through "singles" organizations, mostly Parents Without Partners.

There are demographic differences between single and married parents, in addition to the differences in family income which have been included in the major hypotheses. There are also educational differences in the population at large between single and married parents, the latter having a higher frequency of college education (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983). This variable has been repeatedly shown to be associated with income, values and attitudes, and occupational status.

A much higher proportion of Black families are headed

by one parent than are White families (52% versus 17%). The educational accomplishments of Black single parents is generally lower than that of the White single parents, and Black families have lower incomes than White families (ibid). Awareness of all of these above factors are necessary in order to appropriately evaluate the obtained sample.

The method of obtaining a sample of single and married working parents for this study was multi-pronged. This resulted in a heterogeneous sample, which has the advantage of reducing the likelihood of idiosyncratic results that reflect conditions within only one setting. The disadvantage is that the sample is comprised only of volunteers, a systematic bias of unknown properties, which inhibits the generalizability of the findings.

Respondents were asked to complete anonymously a twelve page questionnaire, which was to be mailed back in the stamped envelope provided. Included in the packet was a short questionnaire intended for the respondent's supervisor at work, with its own return envelope.

Single working parents were solicited directly via contacts with "Singles" organizations. Parents Without Partners is a national group with many local chapters and monthly meetings, and three chapters within the area agreed to receive questionnaires. Other contacts were

local community centers, churches and synagogues that sponsor singles events.

Single parents who attend such meetings are but a segment of the single parent population, often those who are not currently involved in a romantic relationship and who have the time, the freedom and the personality that permits them to seek companionship in this manner. Therefore, it is believed that to have solicited the single parent group solely through such organizations would have resulted in a severely biased sample on important variables. Single parents who are in stable romantic relationships, who neither have time, freedom, nor inclination to attend meetings, for whatever reasons, were also sought.

In order to find these "hidden" single working parents, both personal contacts and contacts through the married working sample were utilized. Day care centers, which were one of the sources for married working parents as well, were requested to check their registration for any single parents as well. Students in evening university classes in management distributed questionnaires to friends and coworkers, again with an eye on any single parents in addition to married working parents. PTA groups, community centers and personal and professional acquaintances were similarly employed.

As insufficient numbers of fathers, and of single fathers in particular, were successfully contacted by these means, a classified ad was placed in a major area newspaper, which elicited 29 usable questionnaires from both single and married fathers. This brought the sample of single fathers to 25 respondents, a minimum necessary for statistical analysis. Because of both time and cost constraints, analysis of the data commenced at this point.

Characteristics of the Sample

The number of usable questionnaires returned resulted in a sample of 245 single and married working parents, as follows:

	Mothers		Fathers	
	Single	Married	Single	Married
N	72	95	25	53

The mean age of the respondents was 36.7, with a range of 22 to 57 years old. The mean number of children living with the respondents was 1.56, with 57.1% having only one child at home, and 32.2% having two at home. The respondents were 85% White.

Total family income ranged from under \$10,000 to over \$100,000, with 52.9% reporting total family incomes of \$40,000 or more and 7.1% reporting incomes of at least \$100,000. Only 3.4% reported total family incomes of less than \$15,000. Educational levels were also relatively high. The majority of the sample (78.6%) had attended at least some college, with 20.6% having attained college degrees and 22% holding graduate or professional degrees. The type of work performed by the respondents reflected the educational attainments; 56.7% of the sample were in managerial or professional positions. Sample statistics for the four subgroups separately may be found in Table I.

There are differences in the United States population between single and married working parents on several demographic and socio-economic variables. In 1982, the median income of White married couple families was \$23,460 for one-income, husband-earner families, and \$29,650 for two-earner families. For White female-headed families, the median income was \$13,145, and for single-male headed households, \$21,379. A much larger proportion of single-parent families than intact families are below the poverty level, which is defined as having an income of \$9,862 for a family of four, as of 1982. Among intact White families, the percent below the

poverty level was 9.0% and 2.9% for single-earner and dual-earner families respectively. White single-parent families had 28.9% and 12.6% below the poverty level, for female-headed and male-headed families, respectively. Among working women, 23% of single mothers had not completed high school, whereas only 15% of working wives had not completed high school (U.S. Department of Labor, 1984).

Therefore, t-tests were performed between the means of the single and married sub-groups in the sample to determine if they reflected this, as well as to determine the necessity for controlling these variables when testing the hypotheses. Results of the t-tests are in Table 1.

As expected, significant differences were found on total family income. The mean income of the married mothers was between \$50,000 and \$60,000, whereas for the single mothers, it was \$20,000 to \$25,000 ($t=11.48$, $p<.001$). The differences between the married and single fathers was smaller, although significant; near \$49,000 for the married fathers, and just over \$35,000 for the single fathers ($t=2.53$, $p<.05$).

Education levels also differed in the expected direction, although significance was attained only for the mothers. At least some college education was

TABLE 1

RESULTS OF T-TESTS ON DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

MOTHERS					
	<u>Married (95)</u>		<u>Single (72)</u>		<u>t</u>
	<u>x</u>	<u>md</u>	<u>x</u>	<u>md</u>	
Type of Work ^a	2.9	2.2	3.6	4.5	-2.45*
Education	4.1	3.9	3.4	3.2	2.94**
Age	35.7	35.3	36.8	37.3	-1.05
Total Family Income	10.3	10.1	5.6	5.3	11.48***
Extended Family	.24	.09	.55	.29	-2.33*
Number of Children					
Age 5 or less	.82	.85	.51	.38	3.16**
Between 6 and 12	.37	.20	.56	.38	-1.72
Between 13 and 18	.37	.18	.49	.27	-1.03
Total children	1.59	1.36	1.55	1.36	.27
FATHERS					
	<u>Married (53)</u>		<u>Single (25)</u>		<u>t</u>
	<u>x</u>	<u>md</u>	<u>x</u>	<u>md</u>	
Type of Work ^a	2.8	1.9	4.4	3.7	-2.18*
Education	4.2	3.8	3.5	3.3	1.71
Age	37	36.5	39.6	39.9	-1.55
Total Family Income	9.8	9.8	8.1	8.2	2.53*
Extended Family	.21	.09	.76	.39	-2.33*
Number of Children					
Age 5 or less	.83	.83	.44	.25	2.23*
Between 6 and 12	.38	.26	.52	.24	-.72
Between 13 and 18	.30	.18	.60	.62	-2.23*
Total children	1.53	1.45	1.56	1.33	-.17

a the lower the number, the higher the level job (see p. 180 for description of scale of job level)

* p < .05

** p < .01

*** p < .001

reported by 81.9% of the married mothers, 65.3% of the single mothers, 86.8% of the married fathers, and 76% of the single fathers. Graduate degrees were held by 27.6% of the married mothers, 11.3% of the single mothers, 30.2% of the married fathers, and 16% of the single fathers.

Occupational level also differed significantly between the married and single mothers and fathers (Mothers: $t=-2.45$, $p<.01$; Fathers: $t=-2.18$, $p<.05$). A higher proportion of the married parents held managerial and professional positions, as opposed to the single parents:

Mothers		Fathers	
Single	Married	Single	Married
42.9%	61.3%	48%	71.2%

The sample, gleaned from a metropolitan suburban area near a major East coast city, is of higher socio-economic status than the United States population in general. The sample is overwhelmingly White, and does not reflect the fact that a higher proportion of non-White women are single mothers, relative to the proportion of White women who are single mothers.

In addition to the limitations of interpretation

imposed by the fact that this is an entirely voluntary sample, other factors must be considered. The fact that the questionnaire was quite lengthy may have resulted in self-selection of respondents who differed from the working parent population at-large in several respects. Education level is relatively high, reflecting not only the general character of the communities from which respondents were solicited, but perhaps also having discouraged persons of limited literacy. The length of the questionnaire may have also discouraged the busier and/or more "overwhelmed" working parents from participation. At the same time, this type of research may tend to attract individuals who are especially involved with issues regarding the problems of single parents and working mothers, and therefore more willing to take the time to participate.

The Variables and Their Measurement

Psychological Gender

There are four existing measures of psychological gender: The Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich & Holahan, 1979), the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974), the PRF(ANDRO), derived from items

on the Personality Research Form (Berzins et al, 1978), and the masculinity and femininity subscales from the Adjective Check List (Heilbrun, 1976).

The Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (EPAQ) is unique in that it contains subscales that measure socially undesirable Masculine and Feminine traits, as well as those that are considered to be socially desirable. These negative scales were added to the original scale, the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1974), which contains unipolar M+ and F+ scales, as well as a bipolar M/F scale. While the names of the subscales refer to "Masculinity" and "Femininity," the theoretical dimensions are in fact a sub-set of these: Agency and Communion, respectively, as defined in an earlier chapter of this dissertation (Spence & Helmreich, 1980), and the authors have repeatedly stressed that they should not be interpreted to refer to some global notion of Masculinity and Femininity. Therefore, although the subscales are named as "masculine" or "feminine", they solely contain the items that measure the agentic or communal aspects of masculinity and femininity respectively.

The EPAQ is a forty item measure containing six subscales. Four are eight-item subscales:

1. Unipolar and socially desirable masculinity: M+
2. Unipolar and socially desirable femininity: F+
3. Bipolar and socially desirable

Masculinity/Femininity, scored in the masculine direction: M/F

4. Unipolar and socially undesirable Masculinity: M-

The remaining two subscales, comprising negatively evaluated feminine traits, are four-item scales:

5. Feminine verbal aggressiveness: F-VA
6. Feminine unmitigated communion: F-C

The coefficient alpha reported by Spence & Helmreich (1978) was M=.85, F=.82, and M/F=.78. A later independent assesment of internal consistency of the M and F subscales found coefficient alpha for M around the mid-seventies and for F around .70, on men and women separately (Yoder et al, 1982). The negative scales were found to have internal consistencies as follows:

	MALES	FEMALES
	(N=854)	(N=1465)
M-	.69	.70
F-VA	.60	.63
F-C	.46	.41

Previous evidence of temporal stability has been insufficient, as the only test-retest reliabilities had been on military cadets before and after basic training,

and at 6 to 8 month intervals thereafter while in the military academy (Yoder et al, op. cit.). The coefficients may be seen as reflecting changes in self-concept as a result of military training, as well as, perhaps, of some stability of sex-role self-concept over time. This author has, therefore, conducted a two-and-a-half week temporal stability test on college students. These results, which demonstrate acceptable short-term test-retest reliability, are shown below, along with the Yoder et al longer-term results:

	<u>Mahler, 1984</u>		<u>Yoder et al, 1982</u>			
	<u>2 1/2 wk</u>		<u>2 1/2 months</u>		<u>8 months</u>	
	MALES	FEMALES	MALES	FEMALES	MALES	FEMALES
	(N=29)	(N=41)	(N=1006)	(N=77)	(not reported)	
M	.87	.75	.58	.62	.48	.52
F	.78	.73	.54	.67	.51	.48
M/F	.90	.71				
M-	.84	.87				
F-C	.66	.76				
F-VA	.74	.64				

Factor analysis of the EPAQ was able to reproduce all of the subscales for women. In the case of men, however, the M- and F-VA items produced a single factor. Discriminant analysis achieved 79% correct classification of subjects by gender, and 39 of the 40 trait

descriptions yielded univariate F's beyond the .01 significance level (Helmreich et al, op. cit.).

Validation studies of the EPAQ have found significant differences on the means of all subscales between men and women. Correlations among the subscales tend to be quite low and positive between the M and F scales, and between the M and M- scales. Substantial and positive correlations are found between M and M/F (.40 to fifties), and between M- and F-VA (.37 for women and .42 for men). Low and negative correlations are found between F and F-VA, F and F-C, and M- and F-C (Spence & Helmreich, 1978, Spence, Helmreich & Holahan, 1979). These intercorrelations between the scales reflect both independence between the masculine and feminine dimensions, and also some degree of bipolarity. Significant differences on the means between clinical and non-clinical samples have been found on the negative subscales (Holahan & Spence, 1979).

The Spence, Helmreich & Holahan (1979) study showed the positive scales (M+, F+, and M/F) to have positive correlations with self-esteem, and M+ and M/F were also found to have substantial negative correlations with measures of neuroticism. The negative scales showed a different pattern: M- was insignificantly associated with self-esteem, and the two negative F scales were both

negatively associated with self-esteem, with correlations of $-.40$ and above for the men. M- was associated at moderate levels with acting out behavior, and 4 of 6 correlations between the negative scales and neuroticism were significant and positive.

Research by Davis (1983) found personal distress to have substantial negative correlations with M/F (which is scored in the masculine direction), and moderate positive correlations with F-c and F-va. Empathy was negatively associated (r 's in the $-.30$'s) with M-, positively associated (r 's in the $.50$'s) with F+, and modestly negatively correlated with M/F. The M+ scale was not utilized at all in this particular study.

Several studies and reviews have examined PAQ dimensions and the corresponding BSRI dimensions with regard to self-esteem and well-being. Positive and substantial relationships of M+ with self-esteem and related well-being measures have been consistently found, with both the PAQ and the BSRI, whereas there are usually positive but more modest relationships of F+ with these variables (c.f. Lubinski, Tellegen & Butcher, 1983; Whitley, 1983). Lubinski et al also found substantial relationships of M+ with achievement, and negative relationships with stress reaction. F+ was found to have a negative relationship with aggression, whereas M-

showed no significant relationship with aggression.

While fairly high correlations between the M and F scales of the four measures of psychological gender - the EPAQ, BSRI, PRF(ANDRO) and ACL M and F subscales - have been found (Gayton, Havu, Ozman & Tavoramina, 1977; Kelly, Furman & Young, 1978; Gaa, Lieberman & Edwards, 1979; O'Grady, Freda & Mikulka, 1979), mean correlations between the four scales have been found to be .67 for Masculinity, and .46 for Femininity (Herron, Goodman & Herron, 1983). Furthermore, when classifying subjects with the four measures by the usual four-way median split, Kelly et al found that 61% of the subjects were categorized discrepantly by any pair of measures, and when the comparison was made among all four, only 30% of subjects were classified the same. The four-way median split places subjects in one of four cells, according to their scores on both the masculine and feminine subscales. Subjects high on both masculinity and femininity are considered androgenous. The remaining three classifications are low on both, low on masculinity but high on femininity, and low on femininity but high on masculinity. Typically, the sample medians are used as the cut-points.

Kelly et al found the highest Pearson correlation between the PAQ and the BSRI: $M=.85$, and $F=.73$. Herron

et al determined that, in addition, the PRF(ANDRO) was more similar to these above than to the ACL. The BSRI is the most "popular" of these scales, and the PAQ also has a sizeable literature. Both of these have been utilized and examined considerably more than the other two scales.

The derivations of these two scales are somewhat different. The BSRI was intended to explore the hypothesis that non-androgynous individuals restrict their behavior in accordance with cultural definitions of desirable behavior for men and women more than androgynous individuals. Masculinity and femininity were not conceptually defined, but rather empirically derived, and the items are an amalgam of traits, attitudes and behaviors. The PAQ and EPAQ, on the other hand, are conceptually confined to the properties of the behaving organism. Furthermore, as previously stated, neither the M or the F dimensions should be considered as necessarily indicating all masculine and feminine properties, but rather an important subset of these, called agency (M), and communion (F) (Spence & Helmreich, 1980).

Assignment of items to either the M or F scales was also done by different criteria. Bem assigned items judged to be significantly more desirable for one sex than the other - e.g. if an item was considered as more desirable for a man than for a woman, it was placed on

the M scale. The EPAQ asked for the typical member of each sex for M or F assignment. Their third subscale, the M/F, was derived from the ideal ratings, which were also solicited. Items where the ideal male and female fell on opposite sides of an item's midpoint were placed on the bipolar M/F scale. This indicates that what was socially desirable for one sex was not socially desirable for the other, whereas on the two unipolar M and F scales, the items were rated as socially desirable for both sexes, but more typical for one than the other.

The problem in using the EPAQ seems to lie in the M/F scale. Frequently, this scale is omitted, I believe because it is too complicated to integrate it into the findings. This may also have contributed to its less frequent use than the Bem instrument, which clearly has only two relatively independent subscales, which makes it both conceptually and methodologically easier to use. However, the more subtle and complicated PAQ may better reflect the complexity and multi-dimensionality of psychological gender.

The most frequently used scale is the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974), which contains twenty items each for masculinity and femininity, and a "neutral" scale which purports to check for socially desirable responding. Unfortunately, it has been determined that:

a) The femininity scale contains three items that have subsequently been judged to be undesirable. These items are "shy", "gullible", and "childlike" (Pedhazur & Totenbaum, op.cit.). In fact, "gullible" has been incorporated into the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire's socially undesirable feminine trait subscale (Spence & Helmreich, 1979). Psychological gender scales have been developed so that they contain only socially valued characteristics considered to differentiate between the sexes, unless, as in the Spence & Helmreich EPAQ, they specifically contain additional subscales to measure traits not valued but still considered to differentiate the sexes.

b) The masculinity subscale contains the item "masculinity", and the femininity subscale contains the item "femininity". These two items, alone, were found to account for 87% of the correct classification in a discriminant function, versus only 2% more when all 60 items were included (Pedhazur & Totenbaum, op. cit.).

A short form of the BSRI has been developed in which Bem (1979) has eliminated the offending items. However,

only the EPAQ contains both desirable and undesirable traits, and has demonstrated acceptable psychometric properties as well. Therefore, the EPAQ was utilized in this study.

Task Oriented and Relationship Oriented Day-To-Day Behaviors Scale

Although a great amount of research has been done on agentic and communal self-perceptions, little research has been attempted in order to ascertain whether, in fact, such self-perceptions are implemented in actual day-to-day behavior, at work or at home. It has been theorized that perceived situational constraints and demands may inhibit such behavioral implementation of sex-role self-concept (Pleck, 1981; Spence & Helmreich, 1980; Lenny, 1979), and research in the laboratory has indicated that enacted behaviors not congruent with sex-role self-concept may cause psychological distress (Bem & Lenny, 1975). Furthermore, research in Organizational Behavior has demonstrated that personality controls less variation in behavior than do situational variables (Mitchell, 1979). Therefore, a new instrument has been developed for this study that measures self-reported behaviors consistent with the theoretical

dimensions of agency and communion.

Agency and Communion, despite the factorial simplicity demonstrated by analysis of the EPAQ, are complex constructs. Central to each, however, are core dimensions of task orientation for agency, and relationship orientation for communion. Each of these orientations, again, analogous to the EPAQ, have a desirable and an undesirable side.

Task orientation is defined as a focus on the job to be done, or the problem to be solved, and may be considered as analogous to the "task specialist" in work groups. A behavior may be task oriented whether or not it appears to be effective for accomplishing the task at hand. That is, a task oriented behavior may avoid, or in some way sabotage the task at hand, as well as get it done effectively. Dictatorial behavior, or too much attention to trivial details are examples of dysfunctional task orientation.

Relationship orientation is defined as a concern for harmony of the group and a desire to nurture others, and may be considered as analogous to the "relationship specialist" in work groups. A behavior may be relationship oriented whether or not it actually does nurture or promote harmony. That is, a relationship oriented behavior may actually sabotage the relationship

in some way - such as cause guilt or anger - as well as promote a better relationship and/or nurture the other.

The initial problem was to develop an item pool of day-to-day behaviors that would be meaningful to working parents. In order to do this, previous research on working parents was examined, and interviews with a small number of working parents were conducted. The interviewees were asked to describe how they managed the tensions and stresses of their daily lives, how they interacted with their families and what they did to manage the demands of both their work and their families. This item pool of over 200 items was submitted to three persons for an initial judgement of content, after which it was reduced by 1/3 to approximately 150 items. This reduced item pool was submitted to two groups of judges, of 6 persons each. One group was asked to categorize the items with respect to task or relationship orientation, or neither. The other group of judges, all of whom were working parents, was asked to categorize the items with respect to social desirability.

The results were assessed in accordance with the technique for determining content validity developed by Lawsche (1975) and utilized by Parasuruman & Cleek (1984). Items which had unanimous agreement among the judges as to content - that is, task or relationship

orientation - or had majority agreement, were retained. In addition, items which had unanimous or majority agreement on the evaluatory dimension of desirability were also retained. Therefore, six initial dimensions were retained: Task/Desirable (TASK+); Task/Undesirable (TASK-); Relationship/Desirable (REL+); Relationship/Undesirable (REL-); Neutral/Desirable (NEUT+); and Neutral/Undesirable (NEUT-).

As this initial list contained over 60 items, it was further reduced by eliminating those which appeared duplicative of other items, and retaining the items that showed the strongest agreement among the judges within the dimensions in order to achieve similar numbers of items in each. This procedure resulted in an initial instrument of 45 items. The number of items was further reduced to 33 following the pretest, when items having poor inter-item and item-total correlations were deleted. (See Appendix D)

In retrospect, it is determined that the method of determining the relative desirability of the behaviors for working parents was insufficient. Far too few judges were used, and inadequate attention had been given to the sensitivity of such ratings to the exact wording of the instructions. Therefore, these initial dimensions and scale items were considered tentative, and were submitted

to factor analysis with the main sample (see p. 81). Despite this shortcoming in the initial scale development, the behavioral items and dimensions do appear to reflect parallel dimensions of the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire trait descriptions.

Work Values (Importance of Job Characteristics)

A nine item scale, based on Locke's (1976) three categories of intrinsic, extrinsic and contextual job characteristics (see "Definitions") has been developed for this study. The items themselves have been adapted from the Quality of Employment Survey Importance of Job Characteristics Scale (Quinn & Shepard, 1974; Quinn & Staines, 1977).

These items were utilized in two ways:

1. To inquire as to the relative importance of various job characteristics to the respondent in general.
2. To determine, among that portion of the sample that has voluntarily changed jobs recently, or are contemplating a job change, why the particular job change has been made or is contemplated.

This dual approach was used because an underlying premise of this research is that changes in social context and role expectations affect an individual's

personality, values, and behavior. The "values" issue with regard to job characteristics is addressed by examining importance of various job characteristics in general. The "behavior" issue is addressed by inquiring as to actual voluntary turnover.

In order to minimize the possibility of rating all job characteristics as "important", because of perceptions of social desirability, the ratings of desired job characteristics in general was done by a ranking procedure. Lefkowitz, Somers & Weinberg (1984) have pointed out that, unless each category within the ranking contains an equal number of items, the probability of an item from any one category being ranked first is not equal. Therefore, each of the three categories in the scale utilized contains the same number of items in order that the probability of being ranked first is equal.

The same items, with minimal changes in wording, were used for the turnover questions, but in a Likert-type format, as comments from the pretest sample on the ranking format indicated that this is difficult for respondents. When rating reasons for an actual, specific job change, uniform ratings of "important" across all categories are less likely.

The dimensions of this scale are:

Intrinsic:	Interesting work
	Freedom to decide how to do the work
	Opportunity to learn and develop abilities
Extrinsic:	Good pay
	Job security
	Good chance for promotion
Convenience:	Enough time left for family activities
	Reasonably close to home
	Convenient work schedule

Work Involvement

The Lefkowitz & Somers measure of work involvement - alienation is a recently developed instrument to measure this construct. It is a fifteen item measure, based on Kanungo's (1979) conceptualization of work involvement and work alienation as opposite poles of a single bipolar dimension. Work involvement is defined as a cognitive (belief) state of psychological identification with work, and the scale has been developed to reflect this cognitive state "uncontaminated by references to either its antecedent conditions...or possible consequences..." (Lefkowitz, Somers & Weinberg, 1984). Its unidimensionality is demonstrated by an internal

consistency coefficient of .87, and factor analysis shows one factor to account for 76.6% of the common variation in item scores (Lefkowitz & Somers, 1982).

Evidence of its construct validity include significant correlation with overall level of need gratification from one's job ($r=.35, p<.001$), and significantly higher correlation with gratification of "higher order growth needs" than with lower order needs ($r=.41$ vs. $r=.27, p<.001$). Correlation with Blood's PWE (1969) is .42, with SES, .29, and with ethnic group, .01. These relationships are consistent with previous accumulated research on job involvement (c.f. Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977; Morrow, 1983).

Interrole Conflict

This may be viewed as directional:

- a) Work interference on family life, often studied in the organizational behavior literature (Evans & Bartolome, 1981).
- b) Family interference on work life, often studied in the working-women literature (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

A short scale has been developed by Kopelman, Greenhaus & Connolly (1983) that measures work interference on family. Internal consistency of the

eight item measure for two samples was reported at .70 and .89. The latter figure represents a somewhat revised scale. The items were reworded for this research so that the scale can be extended to also measure perceptions of interference in the opposite direction. Pretest internal consistency analysis of the reversed subscale showed two items to have poor inter-item and item-total correlations, and they were deleted from the final version. The two subscales are able to give a balanced measurement of perceptions of interrole conflict that can be interpreted within the gender role framework of this study.

Life Satisfaction

The two-item measure used by the Quality of Employment Survey (Quinn & Staines, 1977) were utilized:

1. Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days. Would you say you're very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy these days?
2. In general, how satisfying do you find the way you're spending your life these days? Would you call it completely satisfying, pretty satisfying, or not very satisfying?

Occupational Classification

The United States Bureau of the Census (1980c) has classified occupations into six summary categories, which can further be sub-categorized into thirteen major categories. The heterogeneity of the sample with respect to occupation permits the 13 category classification to be adequate for the purposes of this research.

Income

Both an objective measure of income and a subjective measure of income sufficiency are called for. Objective income asked for respondents' total family income from all sources. Subjective income sufficiency inquires as to perceived sufficiency to meet current expenses, and perceived sufficiency regarding preferred standard of living.

Role Performance

Two approaches were be used in an attempt to measure this variable.

1. Self-reported role performance via three items regarding work - overall performance with respect to

persons in similar jobs, attendance, and tardiness - and parental role performance by two items regarding childrens' happiness and quality of relationship with children.

2. Work role performance as perceived by the respondent's supervisor. This measure has seven items. Five of the items refer to quality of performance, and are summed to provide a total score. The other two items refer to number of times absent and late over the past six months. Respondents were requested to submit this form, with its own return envelope, to their immediate superior. It was expected that at least some respondents would not wish to do this, and the cover letter explained its importance, while at the same time assuring respondents who do not want to involve their supervisors that the information that they alone give is very valuable. In fact, only 68 of these supervisor's forms were returned. Another shortcoming of this procedure is that it is not applicable to self-employed persons.

Performance ratings have been justifiably criticized for bias and error in raters' judgement of others, whether inadvertant or intentional (Nathan & Alexander, 1985), and therefore do not succeed in measuring

"performance" per se. Furthermore, each organization may have different ideas as to what may be important for assesment, thus making comparability between organizations and jobs highly problematic (Landy & Farr, 1980). However, obtaining supervisors' perceptions of performance is considered to be useful in this research because, in fact, it is precisely such biased and inadequate methods that are ubiquitous and actually used in real organizations to determine the occupational fate of its employees. The interpretation of the supervisors' data may therefore best be made in terms of discrimination in appraisals, a topic that has received considerable attention in laboratory experiments, and with hypothetical ratees, but extremely little attention in actual field settings (Dipboye, 1985).

Psychometric Properties of the Measures

Factor Analysis of the Task-Relationship Behavior Scale

The original six dimensions of the Task-Relationship Behaviors Scale were developed via ratings of a large item pool by a panel of 12 judges. These a priori dimensions were subjected to a factor analysis using principle components analysis with iterations, rotated

orthogonally.

Orthogonal rotation was chosen because the Task and Relationship dimensions are conceptually related to the "Masculinity" and "Femininity" dimensions, respectively, of the Extended Personanl Attributes Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich & Holahan, 1979). This, in turn, was developed as an instrument to test the theory of androgyny, which posits that masculinity and femininity are independent dimensions, in contrast to the earlier notion that they were one bipolar dimension. Thus, the Task-Relationship Scale developed for this study is conceptually related to the concept of androgyny, and so orthogonal rotation, which presumes independence of factors, is the appropriate method, and analysis of the Task-Relationship sub-scales, and of the substantive hypotheses, were carried out utilizing the orthogonally derived factors.

Some of the dimensions of the PAQ have been found to be intercorrelated (e.g. Spence & Helmreich, 1978), and oblique rotation on the EPAQ produced factors identical to the a priori dimensions of that scale (Helmreich, Spence & Wilhelm, 1981). With this in mind, a factor analysis with oblique rotation was also performed on the Task-Relationship Behaviors Scale, the results of which were similar, although not identical to, the orthogonal

rotation. Results of the oblique rotation may be found in Appendix C.

Unfortunately, the accepted ratio of ten subjects to each variable was not met by the sample size of N=245. When cases with any missing values were deleted, this was reduced further to N=210, resulting in a ratio of approximately 6.3:1. Therefore, the results of this factor analysis must be viewed with caution, as failure to meet this 10:1 ratio results in artificially inflated factor loadings. Further, the empirically derived dimensions were developed on the sample that was also used for testing the substantive hypotheses. Therefore, the results involving the Task-Relationship Behaviors Scale must be viewed as a preliminary exploratory study, only.

The items comprising the original a priori dimensions of the scale are shown in Table 2. The dimensions derived from the factor analysis with orthogonal rotation are shown in Table 3, and the results of the factor analysis are shown in Table 4. Twenty-seven items loaded significantly on the first five factors.

Factor 1, REL+FAC (Warm and Open Relationship Orientation), is composed of most of the items that made up the a priori dimension Relationship Orientation-Positive (REL+). Factor 4, REL-FAC

(Anxiously Compliant Relationship Orientation), is composed of most of the items from the a priori dimension Relationship Orientation-Negative (REL-). The remaining factors contain items from more than one a priori dimension.

Factor 3, TASK+FAC (Independent-Active Task Orientation), contains four positively valued task oriented items and one that was negatively valued. Overall, however, this factor indicates positive task oriented behavior. Factor 2, TASK-FAC (Compulsive Aggressive Task Orientation), contains negatively valued items from the task, relationship, and neutral a priori dimensions. The content of this factor appears to parallel both negative agency (task orientation), and what Spence, Helmreich & Holahan (1980) called "verbal-aggressive" communality. These two subscales of their Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire have, in factor analysis, formed a single factor (Helmreich, Spence & Wilhelm, 1981), a result which appears in this instance as well, where behaviors based on these trait-constructs have been the subject of investigation. Factor 5, NEUT+FAC (Analytic and Help Seeking Orientation), is composed of positively valued items from the task and neutral a priori dimensions. This factor is the weakest of all, both conceptually and statistically (see reliability analysis, below).

TABLE 2

TASK-RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR SCALE
ORIGINAL A PRIORI DIMENSIONS

ITEM #

RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION-POSITIVE (REL+)

- 8. Make sure my children can reach me anytime when I am at work.
- 11. Make time to listen to members of my family when they have a problem.
- 16. When worried about something, ask my family to help me.
- 17. Find ways to build up the egos of my children.
- 20. Be very honest with my family about how I feel.
- 22. When one of my children seems troubled, try to get him or her to talk to me about it.
- 29. If one of my co-workers seems upset, ask if there is something I can do to help.
- 32. When something is important to my child - like going to see him or her perform in a school play - I do it, no matter how busy or tired I might be.

RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION-NEGATIVE (REL-)

- 3. Avoid any discussion that may lead to an argument with my family.
- 14. Panic when I find out one of my children is running a fever when I am at work.
- 15. Don't go out much because I feel my children need to be with me.
- 18. Always do things that my children want me to do for them.
- 21. Lose sleep worrying about my children.
- 27. At home, get talked into doing things that I don't want to do.

TASK ORIENTATION-POSITIVE (TASK+)

- 1. Keep working on a problem until it's solved.
- 6. Look ahead, in order to avoid a potential crisis.
- 9. Periodically re-assess my areas of strength and areas needing improvement.
- 12. Seek advice from others when faced with a problem I can't solve.
- 24. When my schedule gets out of hand, establish a new routine that I can handle.
- 26. Won't hesitate to do something unusual to solve a problem if I believe it will work.

TASK ORIENTATION-NEGATIVE (TASK-)

- 2. Keep to my routine, no matter what.
- 7. Do things myself, without help, as much as possible.
- 10. Repeat an order to my children until they obey.
- 30. Run from early morning until I'm ready to drop in order to take care of everything that needs to be done.

NEUTRAL-POSITIVE

- 4. When tired at home, take time out to relax and get some rest.
- 19. At work, compliment others for a job well done.
- 25. If some family situation occurs that may make me late for work, handle it calmly and get to work as soon as I can.
- 28. "Roll with the punches" at work.
- 31. Join a self-help group.

NEUTRAL-NEGATIVE

- 5. Nag my children about doing their chores.
- 13. Scream at my children.
- 23. When I come home tired from work, fight with my family.
- 33. When I feel tense, especially when I come home from work, take a drink to help me relax.

TABLE 3

TASK-RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR SCALE
RESULTS FROM ORTHOGONAL FACTOR ANALYSIS

A PRIORI
SCALE

FACTOR 1: WARM AND OPEN RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION (REL+FAC)

- r+ 8. Make sure my children can reach me anytime when I am at work.
- r+ 11. Make time to listen to members of my family when they have a problem.
- r+ 16. When worried about something, ask my family to help me.
- r+ 17. Find ways to build up the egos of my children.
- n+ 19. At work, compliment others for a job well done.
- r+ 20. Be very honest with my family about how I feel.
- r+ 22. When one of my children seems troubled, try to get him or her to talk to me about it.
- r+ 29. If one of my co-workers seems upset, ask if there is something I can do to help.

FACTOR 2: COMPULSIVE AGGRESSIVE TASK ORIENTATION (TASK-FAC)

- n- 5. Nag my children about doing their chores.
- t- 10. Repeat an order to my children until they obey.
- n- 13. Scream at my children.
- r- 21. Lose sleep worrying about my children.
- n- 23. When I come home tired from work, fight with my family.
- t- 30. Run from early morning until I'm ready to drop in order to take care of everything that needs to be done.

FACTOR 3: INDEPENDENT-ACTIVE TASK ORIENTATION (TASK+FAC)

- t+ 1. Keep working on a problem until it's solved.
- t+ 6. Look ahead, in order to avoid a potential crisis.
- t- 7. Do things myself, without help, as much as possible.
- t+ 9. Periodically re-assess my areas of strength and areas needing improvement.
- t+ 26. Won't hesitate to do something unusual to solve a problem if I believe it will work.

FACTOR 4: ANXIOUSLY COMPLIANT RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION (REL-FAC)

- r- 3. Avoid any discussion that may lead to an argument with my family
- r- 14. Panic when I find out one of my children is running a fever when I am at work.
- r- 15. Don't go out much because I feel my children need to be with me
- r- 18. Always do things that my children want me to do for them.

FACTOR 5: ANALYTIC AND HELP-SEEKING ORIENTATION (NEUT+FAC)

- n+ 4. When tired at home, take time out to relax and get some rest.
- t+ 12. Seek advice from others when faced with a problem I can't solve
- t+ 24. When my schedule gets out of hand, establish a new routine that I can handle.
- n+ 31. Join a self-help group.

TABLE 4
ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	FACTOR 5	FACTOR 6
TR1	0.24669	-0.10322	<u>0.49345</u>	-0.02457	0.06812	-0.20254
TR2	-0.10453	0.27869	0.19483	0.07335	0.02167	-0.05214
TR3	-0.32913	-0.08607	0.03387	<u>0.46289</u>	0.01070	0.16795
TR4	-0.04095	-0.14548	-0.02369	-0.08182	<u>0.52343</u>	0.11664
TR5	-0.03105	<u>0.57040</u>	0.00689	-0.12785	-0.06939	0.02810
TR6	0.23206	0.07039	<u>0.51364</u>	0.14309	0.17367	0.13265
TR7	0.02009	0.07861	<u>0.47150</u>	0.01465	-0.15910	-0.04776
TR8	<u>0.38522</u>	-0.00311	0.09635	0.02771	-0.09332	-0.01365
TR9	0.24707	0.01943	<u>0.49097</u>	0.02966	0.27633	0.00056
TR10	0.07468	<u>0.47346</u>	0.10273	0.06115	0.04780	0.06990
TR11	<u>0.64596</u>	-0.11586	0.06668	0.02047	0.20410	0.08743
TR12	0.15776	0.26952	0.04250	-0.00306	<u>0.35451</u>	0.02217
TR13	-0.11533	<u>0.62625</u>	-0.09637	0.05352	0.02471	-0.10632
TR14	0.15322	0.31412	-0.09231	<u>0.44953</u>	0.18895	-0.26368
TR15	0.12990	0.12171	-0.01107	<u>0.43900</u>	-0.13230	-0.03310
TR16	<u>0.29878</u>	0.17760	-0.09083	0.08087	0.25433	0.16421
TR17	<u>0.50682</u>	-0.09122	0.13775	0.26961	0.07219	-0.07394
TR18	0.07214	0.00163	0.07960	<u>0.49749</u>	-0.03793	-0.00895
TR19	<u>0.29573</u>	0.07571	0.21152	0.06203	-0.05844	0.06316
TR20	<u>0.50633</u>	0.06832	0.10032	-0.06851	0.06456	0.09921
TR21	0.09071	<u>0.40732</u>	0.05581	0.27648	-0.00785	-0.01260
TR22	<u>0.64844</u>	-0.08230	0.08635	0.02323	-0.10870	0.22084
TR23	-0.02375	<u>0.41547</u>	-0.08120	0.04198	-0.07128	-0.14690
TR24	0.28301	-0.28366	0.26580	0.07219	<u>0.30006</u>	0.13897
TR25	0.12891	-0.14339	0.14933	-0.09700	0.12994	0.46091
TR26	0.24620	-0.13496	<u>0.50551</u>	-0.12585	-0.01640	0.21882
TR27	-0.18990	0.18992	-0.19362	0.22075	-0.03569	0.08214
TR28	0.12665	-0.02753	-0.06744	0.05980	-0.4348	0.59292
TR29	<u>0.39804</u>	-0.01100	0.30526	0.00478	-0.10779	0.00978
TR30	0.06568	<u>0.40807</u>	0.39290	0.19105	-0.45381	-0.07780
TR31	-0.05332	0.06577	0.10396	0.02654	<u>-0.29757</u>	0.20606
TR32	0.16394	0.03323	0.01760	0.08430	-0.20090	0.09716
TR33	-0.18085	0.13305	0.20840	0.02080	-0.01371	0.13667

Reliability (Internal Consistency) Analysis

This research inquires about possible differences due to sex and marital status, and utilizes, among its measures, instruments that purport to elicit different responses based on sex-roles, which, traditionally, are tied to biological sex. Therefore, reliability analysis was conducted on the men and women separately, as well as on the total sample, in order to determine if reliabilities were essentially the same for each sex.

Table 5 shows that, for the most part, internal consistency coefficients achieved acceptable levels. It should be noted that most of the scales are quite short, being comprised of three to six items. It is well known that reliability will be lower for a scale containing few items, and can be increased by lengthening the scale. However, the overall length of the questionnaire is also a consideration, as one that is very long may discourage respondents. If many variables are required, it becomes necessary to limit the length of the individual instruments in order to keep the questionnaire from becoming too cumbersome.

Reliability coefficients were below acceptable levels for the two Neutral scales of the Task-Relationship Behaviors a priori dimensions, and for NEUT+FAC scale

TABLE 5
RELIABILITY (INTERNAL CONSISTENCY) ANALYSIS

SCALE	#	ALL SS.		MEN		WOMEN	
	ITEMS	N	ALPHA	N	ALPHA	N	ALPHA
<u>Interrole Conflict</u>							
Work Onto Family	8	230	.84	73	.87	157	.84
Family Onto Work	6	"	.80	"	.78	"	.80
<u>Work Involvement</u>	15	230	.85	73	.88	157	.84
<u>Job Characteristics</u>							
<u>A. Thinking to Leave Job For:</u>							
Extrinsic Rewards	3	76 ^a	.66				
Intrinsic Rewards	3	"	.64				
Convenience	3	"	.67				
<u>B. Have Recently Left Job For:</u>							
Extrinsic Rewards	3	73	.38				
Intrinsic Rewards	3	"	.77				
Convenience	3	"	.67				

^a The sample size is considerably smaller for Work Values in Action because these items were only answered by those respondents who had answered affirmatively regarding
1. likelihood of leaving current job within one year, and/or
2. actually left a job voluntarily within the past two years.

(cont'd.)

TABLE 5 (cont'd.)
RELIABILITY (INTERNAL CONSISTENCY) ANALYSIS

SCALE	#	ALL SS.		MEN		WOMEN	
	ITEMS	N	ALPHA	N	ALPHA	N	ALPHA
<u>Task-Relationship Behaviors</u>							
<u>A. A Priori Dimensions</u>							
Task+	6	210	.62	65	.58	145	.64
Task-	4	"	.46	"	.48	"	.43
Rel+	8	"	.65	"	.69	"	.61
Rel-	6	"	.53	"	.55	"	.52
Neutral +	5	"	.16	"	-.48	"	.31
Neutral -	4	"	.41	"	.20	"	.45
<u>B. Factors</u>							
Task+fac	5	218	.66	66	.55	152	.69
Task-fac	6	"	.64	"	.60	"	.64
Rel+fac	8	"	.69	"	.71	"	.66
Rel-fac	4	"	.45	"	.62	"	.35
Neut+fac	4	"	.35	"	.15	"	.43
<u>Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire</u>							
M-F	8	212	.58	72	.57	140	.58
M	8	"	.68	"	.68	"	.68
F	8	"	.78	"	.80	"	.76
M -	8	"	.75	"	.77	"	.72
Fc -	4	"	.44	"	.45	"	.41
Fva -	4	"	.58	"	.61	"	.54

from the factor analysis of the Task-Relationship items. Therefore, these sub-scales were dropped from further analysis. The REL-FAC subscale had marginally acceptable reliability. All other scales showed acceptable reliability.

Intercorrelations Between the EPAQ and T-R Scale

Hypotheses 1 and 2 utilized two distinct instruments:

1. The Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (EPAQ), designed to measure self-perceptions of agency and communion.
2. The Task-Relationship Oriented Day-to-Day Behavior Scale (T-R Scale), designed to measure self-reported behavior along similar dimensions, here called task-oriented behavior and relationship-oriented behavior.

It was expected that, while the two sets of scales would show some relationships to each other along the corresponding dimensions, they would not necessarily show similar results. General self-perceptions about the "type" of person one "is" do not predict specific behaviors that might be performed during a designated time period (Argyris, 1976; Harrison, 1978; Lenny, 1979; Pleck, 1981).

It was expected that positive correlations would be found between the positively valued M and M/F subscales of the EPAQ and the positive TASK subscales of the T/R scale, between the positively valued F of the EPAQ and the positive REL subscales, and between the negatively valued M-, F-c and F-va of the EPAQ with the corresponding negatively valued subscales of the T/R scale. F-va, of the EPAQ, being a measure of verbal aggressiveness, was also expected to be positively correlated with the negative TASK subscales. Inverse associations or no associations were expected between M and M/F and negative REL, M- and positive REL, F and negative TASK, and the negative F subscales with positive TASK.

Examination of the intercorrelations in Table 6 part B shows that the above relationships were obtained in this sample, with only one exception: M- and the negative TASK subscales show no significant relationships. Furthermore, in no case are the correlations of particularly high magnitude. Therefore, while related to their corresponding dimensions, the subscales of the EPAQ and T-R Scale clearly do not measure the same things. It should be pointed out that TASK-FAC, while originally meant to be the behavioral aspect of M-(dictatorial), relates to Fva-

(verbal-aggressive) instead. As Table 6, Part A shows, Fva- and M- show a significant positive relationship to each other; the aggressive component of the Fva- scale strongly parallels the dictatorial component of the M- scale.

The above paragraph refers to convergent validity; that is, measuring the same construct in different ways. The TASK subscales were meant to measure behavioral aspects of agency, whereas the M subscales measure a person's self-concept of agentic qualities. Similarly, the REL subscales measure behavioral aspects of communality, and the F subscales measure self-concepts of communality. The Extended Personality Questionnaire, as discussed previously, has been used and examined extensively in the literature as measures of self-concepts of agency and communality, and the relationships of the Task/Relationship Behaviors Scale to the corresponding dimensions of the EPAQ were as expected.

Discriminant validity refers to different variables measured in the same way. Absence of associations between variables not expected to covary provides evidence of discriminant validity, as well as presence of associations which are expected to covary. A generally high level of associations would be indicative of common

method variance, and one way of examining this is to compute the median intercorrelation between subscales (variables) of a scale.

There are four subscales in the Task/Relationship Behavior Scale, each having two versions at this time: the a priori dimensions, and the dimensions derived from the factor analysis. The median intercorrelation of the a priori subscales was .165, and that of the factored subscales was .075. The Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire has six subscales. The median intercorrelation was .27. Based on these figures, it would seem that the T/R scales have less common method variance than the EPAQ scales, and are less subject to halo effects.

Part C of Table 6, which presents intercorrelations between the subscales of the Task-Relationship Oriented Day-to-Day Behavior Scale, shows intercorrelations between positive and negative aspects of task orientation and relationship orientation, respectively, to be mostly non-significant. This is evidence for their independence, which is congruent with the findings regarding their counterparts in the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich & Holahan, 1978). Therefore, the substantive hypotheses will be analyzed by each of the four subscales.

TABLE 6
INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN VARIABLES

a. Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (N=245)

	<u>M-F</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M-</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Fc-</u>	<u>Fva-</u>
MF		.58**	.27**	-.27**	-.42**	-.18**
M			.38**	.04	-.44**	-.06
M-				-.46**	-.04	.35**
F					-.01	-.16**
Fc-						.29**

b. Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire with
Task-Relationship Behavior Scale (N=245)

	<u>A Priori Dimensions</u>				<u>Factors</u>			
	<u>TASK+</u>	<u>TASK-</u>	<u>REL+</u>	<u>REL-</u>	<u>T+FAC</u>	<u>T-FAC</u>	<u>R+FAC</u>	<u>R-FAC</u>
M-F	.21**	.01	-.08	-.25**	.27**	-.16**	-.07	-.22**
M	.34**	.19**	.09	-.20**	.47**	.04	.10	-.16**
M-	-.05	.04	-.27**	-.10	.03	.05	-.24**	-.08
F	.21**	.06	.43**	.07	.17	.05	.44**	.04
Fc-	-.11	.07	-.03	.28**	-.13*	.22**	-.05	.22**
Fva-	-.15**	.17**	-.14	.11	-.14	.34**	-.06	.06

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

(cont'd.)

TABLE 6 (cont'd.)

INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN VARIABLES

c. Task-Relationship Behavior Scale (N=245)

	<u>A Priori Dimensions</u>						<u>Factors</u>
	<u>TASK-</u>	<u>REL+</u>	<u>REL-</u>	<u>T+FAC</u>	<u>T-FAC</u>	<u>R+FAC</u>	<u>R-FAC</u>
TASK+	.22**	.47**	-.02	.86**	.00	.51**	.04
TASK-		.11*	.23**	.41**	.68**	.11*	.21**
REL+			.05	.38**	.00	.95**	.09
REL-				-.01	.42**	.03	.90**
T+FAC					.09	.34**	.03
T-FAC						.03	.26**
R+FAC							.06

d. Interrole Conflicts and Work Involvement (N=245)

	Work	Fam->Wk
	<u>Invlvt</u>	<u>Conflict</u>
Wk->Fam.Confl	.11*	.46**
Work Invlvt.		.06

* p<.05

** p<.01

(cont'd.)

TABLE 6 (cont'd.)
INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN VARIABLES

e. Job Characteristics

	<u>N=245</u>			<u>N=79</u>			<u>N=75</u>		
	<u>Ext.</u>	<u>Int.</u>	<u>Con.</u>	<u>Plvext</u>	<u>Plvint</u>	<u>Plvcon</u>	<u>Lftext</u>	<u>Lftint</u>	<u>Lftcon</u>
Ext		-.40**	-.50**	.39**	-.01	-.08	.58**	.04	.00
Int			-.48**	-.11	.36**	-.03	-.24*	.27*	-.34**
Conv				-.37**	-.35**	.10	-.25*	-.23*	.35**
Plvext					.43**	.17	.55*	-.01	-.09
Plvint						.35**	.13	.19	.08
Plvcon							.20	-.14	.25
Lftext								.50**	.21*
Lftint									.13

* p<.05

** p<.01

Ext=value for extrinsic rewards from a job

Int=value for intrinsic rewards from a job

Conv=value for the convenience facets of a job

Plvext=probability of leaving current job for more extrinsic rewards

Plvint=probability of leaving current job for more intrinsic rewards

Plvcon=probability of leaving current job for a more convenient job

Lftext=have voluntarily left job for one with more extrinsic rewards

Lftint=have voluntarily left job for one with more intrinsic rewards

Lftcon=have voluntarily left job for one that is more convenient

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Differences Between Single and Married Parents'

Agency and Communion

Hypothesis 1, which predicted that single parents are higher in agency than married parents, was analyzed by performing t-tests between the means of the pertinent single and married sub-groups. As Table 7 shows, results from the EPAQ were, in the main, not significant when tested between same-sex means. Between men and women, the t-test results were significant, but in the traditional direction. That is, married fathers perceived themselves higher in agency than single mothers, and single fathers perceived themselves higher in agency than married mothers. This last result, while in the hypothesized direction, is not surprising from the traditional point of view that believes men in general to possess more of this characteristic than women.

The T-R Behavior Scales, however, present an entirely different picture, as the second part of Table 7 shows. The positively valued Task-Oriented scales show 14 significant t values in the hypothesized direction, out of a possible 18. Further, the between-sex comparisons

TABLE 7

T-TESTS BETWEEN SINGLE AND MARRIED PARENTS' AGENCY

H-1: Working single parents, of both sexes, are significantly higher in agentic characteristics relative to dual-paycheck family parents and traditional family parents.

a. Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire: Self-perceived agentic characteristics.

<u>GROUPS</u>	<u>EPAQ</u>		
	<u>M-F</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M-</u>
Single v. Married -All	ns	ns	-1.57 ^{ab} (95,148)
Single Mothers v. Married Mothers	1.57 ^b (72,95)	ns	ns
Single Fathers v. Married Fathers	ns	ns	ns
Single Mothers v. Married Fathers	-1.87* (72,53)	-1.70* (71,53)	-2.91** (70,53)
Single Fathers v. Married Mothers	2.16* (25,95)	1.76* (25,95)	ns
Single fathers v. Dual Fathers	ns	ns	ns
Single Fathers v. Trad. Fathers	ns	ns	ns
Single Mothers v. Dual Fathers	ns (71,37)	-1.95* (70,37)	-2.48** (37,70)
Single Mothers v. Trad. Fathers	-2.13* (72,16)	ns	-2.11* (70,16)

a The one-tailed test of significance is used. A positive t indicates results in the hypothesized direction.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p <.05

** p <.01

(cont'd.)

TABLE 7(cont'd.)

b. Task-Relationship Behaviors Scale: Self-reported task oriented (agentic) behaviors.

<u>GROUPS</u>	<u>TASK+</u>	<u>TASK-</u>	<u>TASK+FAC</u>	<u>TASK-FAC</u>
	^a			
Single v. Married All	2.55 ** (96,147)	ns	2.68** (97,147)	ns
Single Mothers v. Mar. Mothers	1.71* (72,95)	ns	1.71* (72,95)	ns
Single Fathers v. Mar.Fathers	1.88* (24,52)	ns	2.42** (25,52)	ns
Single Mothers v. Mar.Fathers	2.56** (72,52)	2.11* (72,53)	1.92* (72,51)	2.1* (72,51)
Single Fathers v. Mar.Mothers	ns	ns	2.02* (25,95)	ns
Single Fathers v. Dual Fathers	ns	ns	-1.88* (25,37)	ns
	^b			
Single Fathers v. Trad. Fathers	2.31** (24,15)	1.65 (25,16)	2.76** (25,14)	1.94* (25,16)
	^b			
Single Mothers v. Dual Fathers	1.72* (72,37)	1.58 (72,37)	ns	ns
Single Mothers v. Trad. Fathers	2.63** (72,15)	2.00* (72,16)	2.01* (72,14)	2.29* (72,16)

a The one-tailed test of significance is used. A positive t indicates results in the hypothesized direction.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p <.05

** p <.01

show single mothers to report more task-oriented behavior than both dual-paycheck and traditional-family fathers as well. This is a finding that is contrary to the traditional view that men are more task oriented than women

The negatively valued Task-Oriented subscales (TASK- and TASK-FAC) showed about 11 non-significant relationships and 7 significant relationships in the hypothesized direction. Closer examination shows that, among within-men comparisons, single fathers are higher in negatively valued task-oriented behavior primarily with respect to traditional fathers. Single mothers show more consistently higher negative task-oriented behaviors with respect to all married fathers.

In interpreting these results, it is well to be reminded that the items in these scales inquire as to behaviors with respect to the family, or life-in-general, and not with respect to the provider role. Therefore, the finding of lower task-oriented behavior on the part of married fathers may be indicating a relative lack of involvement in the non-work sphere.

Hypothesis 2, which predicts that single fathers are higher in communion than married fathers, was also tested by performing t-tests between the means, but confines its inquiry to fathers only. The results show quite a

different picture from Hypothesis 1 in that here, significant differences are found between single and married fathers in five of nine comparisons on the EPAQ sub-scales, but only on two of 12 comparisons on the T-R behavior sub-scales.

As Table 8 shows, significant differences, to $p < .01$, in the hypothesized direction, are found between single and married fathers on positively valued communion (F). No differences were found on negative communion (Fc-), and significant differences in the opposite direction from that hypothesized were found on Fva- (Feminine verbal-aggressiveness), that is, the married fathers reported higher levels of this negatively valued communal characteristic than single fathers.

The sample of single and married parents was shown, in the previous chapter, to differ on several socio-economic variables. The issue arises as to whether we can consider the differences in levels of the dependent variables as at least partly due to marital status and sex combinations, rather than due to socio-economic or other factors. Hierarchical regressions were performed in order to examine this issue.

This is not a direct examination of the hypotheses, however. Regression analysis shows associations between independent and dependent variables, whereas t-tests show

TABLE 8

T-TESTS BETWEEN SINGLE AND MARRIED FATHERS' COMMUNION

H-2: Single fathers are significantly higher in communal characteristics than are dual paycheck family fathers and traditional fathers.

a. Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire: Self-perceived agentic characteristics.

GROUPS	EPAQ		
	<u>F a</u>	<u>Fc-</u>	<u>Fva-</u>
Single Fathers v. Married Fathers	2.61 ** (25,53)	ns	-2.03* (25,53)
Single Fathers v. Dual Fathers	2.20** (25,37)	ns	-2.83** (25,37)
Single Fathers v. Trad. Fathers	2.54** (25,10)	ns	ns

b. Task-Relationship Behaviors Scale: Self-reported relationship oriented (communal) behaviors.

GROUPS	<u>REL+</u>	<u>REL-</u>	<u>REL+FAC</u>	<u>REL-FAC</u>
Single Fathers v. Married Fathers	ns	ns	ns	ns
Single Fathers v. Dual Fathers	ns	ns	ns	ns
Single Fathers v. Trad. Fathers	1.94* (23,16)	ns	1.71* (23,16)	ns

a The one-tailed test of significance is used. A positive t indicates results in the hypothesized direction.

* p <.05

** p <.01

differences in the mean levels of the dependent variables. As several control variables are in question, sub-group analysis using t-tests was impractical, given the sample size and nature of the differences (see Table 6 in the previous chapter). That is, controlling on one variable at a time would result in an overwhelming number of tables, without clearly focusing on the question at hand. A t-test which controlled all of the variables at one time would result in some extremely small cells, and in some empty cells, which would render the test meaningless.

Hierarchical regression was chosen because of its capability to control on several variables, and its ability to indicate whether the marital status/sex variables do significantly contribute to variations in the dependent variables over and above any contributions by the controls. Dummy variables were created for the marital status/sex combinations, yielding three dummy variables for the four categories. The control variables were age, education, total family income, type of work, and a dichotomous variable indicating the presence of older children. These were entered into the multiple regression as the first block of independent variables. The marital status/sex variables were entered second, in

order to determine if their presence resulted in a significant increase in R^2 . Table 9 shows that the marital status/sex block does significantly increase the R^2 in several of the equations, thus indicating that single parenthood does affect the dependent variables over and above any affects from the control variables.

The remaining issue, that higher levels of agentic behaviors found in single parents pre-existed their current marital status, can only be addressed indirectly because of the correlational nature of this study. It was reasoned that, if the situational demands of single parenthood cause increased agentic behavior, levels of this characteristic would increase over time spent in single parent status. Therefore, Pearson correlations were computed for all single parents, and for single mothers and fathers separately. A second set of Pearson correlations were computed for the sub-group of single parents who did not initiate the marital dissolution. It had been found that initiators reported less life-satisfaction and more interrole conflict than non-initiators (see Hypothesis 8), thereby presenting themselves as a distinct sub-group within the single parent sample.

Virtually no significant correlation coefficients were obtained for the non-initiator sub-group, however,

significant negative correlations were obtained on half of the agency measures for single parents as a whole, and for single mothers. The single parents' coefficients were: TASK+, $r = -.21$ ($p < .05$); TASK-, $r = -.19$ ($p < .05$); TASK+FAC, $r = -.18$ ($p = .055$); $n = 80$. Single mothers' coefficients were: M, $r = -.26$ ($p < .05$); TASK+, $r = -.25$ ($p < .05$); TASK-, $r = -.24$ ($p < .05$); TASK+FAC, $r = -.26$ ($p < .05$); $n = 57$.

One might consider that initiators temporarily increased their agentic behaviors at the outset of single parenthood. Unfortunately, the sample sizes of these subgroups became quite small (non-initiator sample sizes ranged from 15 to 34), and it may be that we are seeing the effects of Type II error, as the non-significant trend among non-initiators was positive.

TABLE 9
HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ON AGENTIC AND
COMMUNAL CHARACTERISTICS

(N=224)

Independent variables

BLOCK 1=CH1318,TFAMINC,ED,AGE,TYPWK

BLOCK 2=dummy variables for sex-marital status combinations

Dependent	Independent	R	R^2	F	chR^2	chF
M	Block 1	.20	.04	1.9		
	Block 2	.30	.09	2.7**	.05	3.84*
MF	Block 1	.15	.02	1.04		
	Block 2	.32	.10	2.97**	.08	6.05***
MNEG	Block 1	.29	.09	4.13**		
	Block 2	.34	.12	3.50***	.03	2.29
TASK+	Block 1	.19	.03	1.6		
	Block 2	.28	.08	2.37*	.05	3.58*
TASK-	Block 1	.16	.03	1.2		
	Block 2	.25	.06	1.7	.03	2.60
TASK+FAC	Block 1	.14	.02	.89		
	Block 2	.25	.06	1.8	.04	3.36*
TASK-FAC	Block 1	.19	.04	1.6		
	Block2	.26	.07	1.9	.03	2.28

* p <.05
 ** p <.01
 *** p <.001

(cont'd.)

TABLE 9 (cont'd.)

Independent variables

BLOCK 1=CH1318,TFAMINC,ED,AGE,TYPWK

BLOCK 2=dummy variables for sex-marital status combinations

<u>Dependent Independent</u>		<u>R</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>chR²</u>	<u>chF</u>
F	Block 1	.17	.03	1.3		
	Block 2	.26	.067	1.9	.04	3.0*
FC	Block 1	.18	.03	1.5		
	Block 2	.27	.074	2.2*	.04	3.1*
FVA	Block 1	.27	.075	3.5**		
	Block 2	.36	.13	4.0***	.05	4.5**
REL+	Block 1	.15	.02	1.05		
	Block 2	.26	.07	1.96*	.05	3.4*
REL-	Block 1	.31	.10	4.89***		
	Block 2	.35	.12	3.82***	.02	1.9
REL+FAC	Block 1	.16	.02	1.18		
	Block 2	.25	.06	1.77	.04	2.7*
REL-FAC	Block 1	.35	.12	6.06***		
	Block 2	.37	.14	4.3***	.02	1.33

* p <.05
 ** p <.01
 *** p <.001

Effects of Support Systems on Single Parents'

Agency and Communion

Hypotheses 1-A and 2-A inquire into the effects of support systems on single parents' reports of agentic and communal characteristics and behaviors. It was hypothesized that having support systems to help alleviate the dual responsibilities of providing and nurturing would result in lowered levels of agency, and, for fathers, in lowered levels of communion.

Initial bivariate correlations using data from single mothers and single fathers, separately, demonstrated the importance of child support payments for women, but not for men, which is not surprising. This indicated the necessity of analyzing the mothers and fathers separately for Hypothesis 1-A, and the desirability of separating the divorced and separated mothers from the widows. Additionally, the small sample size of single fathers ($n=25$) severely limited the number of independent variables that could be submitted for analysis. Consequently, Hypothesis 1-A was analyzed with two distinct regression equations, one for the mothers, and a different one for the fathers. Stepwise regression analysis was utilized in order to eliminate all variables

that did not make significant contributions to the results.

The independent variables used for the mothers were:

Children over age 13 in the home (CH1318)

Extended family living in the home (DEXTFAM)

Child support as percent of total income (CHSUP)

Amount of time ex-spouse spends with children

(EXTMCH)

Sharing of household tasks (TSHR)

Total family income (TFAMINC)

For single fathers, the following set were submitted:

Children over age 13 in the home (CH1318)

Extended family living in the home (DEXTFAM)

Sharing of household tasks (TSHR)

CH1318 and DEXTFAM were entered as dichotomous dummy variables because the distributions on these variables were markedly skewed. Presence of CH1318 was coded "1", as was presence of extended family.

Although the resulting equations are able to explain substantial amounts of variance in the dependent variables, the hypotheses were only partially supported. With regard to the mothers, Table 10 shows multiple Rs, significant to $<.001$, for all three dependent variables from the agentic subscales of the EPAQ, and R^2 s ranging

from .27 for M- up to .52 for M. Amount of child support appears as the most significant contributor to both M-F and to M, and was also included as the second variable in the M- equation.

In all three equations, the relationship between child support and agency was inverse, as hypothesized. Amount of time that ex-spouse spends with the children contributed significantly to M and M-, as did total family income, but in the opposite direction from that hypothesized. Perhaps the original conceptualization of these two variables as support failed to take into consideration the activity required to have a relatively high income and to develop and maintain the ex-spouses' relationships with the children. Both of these outcomes may require active, assertive and goal-oriented behavior.

The results for the T-R Behavior subscales were weaker although significant. Only EXTMCH met criteria for entry into the equations for TASK+ and TASK+FAC, and only CH1318² for TASK- and TASK-FAC. R s ranged from .09 to .16..

The results for single fathers, seen in the second part of Table 10, include only two equations, each with the single independent variable of having children in the home over the age of 13. A positive relationship between

having older children and F was obtained, which is opposite to the direction hypothesized. This may indicate that having had the experience of raising a child for many years has impact on self-perception. However, an inverse relationship with REL-FAC (T-R Scale) was found. Essentially, for fathers, the hypothesis was not confirmed.

TABLE 10

**STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR DIVORCED AND
SEPARATED MOTHERS**

**H-1-A: Working single parents who have a support network
are lower in agentic characteristics than working
single parents who do not.**

Independent variables entered into analysis:

Children over age 13 in the home (FTCH1318)
Extended family living in the home (ALEXTFAM)
Child support as percent of total income (CHSUP)
Amount of time ex-spouse spends with children (EXTMCH)
Sharing of household tasks (TSHR)
Total family income (TFAMINC)

<u>A. EPAQ Subscales as Dependent Variables</u>		<u>R</u>	<u>2</u>	
		<u>R</u>	<u>R</u>	
1.	M-F			^a
	CHSUP	.55***	.31	(-)
	TFAMINC	.63***	.40	
2.	M			
	CHSUP	.52***	.27	(-)
	EXTMCH	.67***	.45	
	TFAMINC	.72***	.52	
3.	M-			
	EXTMCH	.42**	.17	
	CHSUP	.52***	.27	(-)
<u>B. T-R Behavior Subscales as Dependent Variables</u>		<u>R</u>	<u>2</u>	
		<u>R</u>	<u>R</u>	
1.	TASK+			
	EXTMCH	.40**	.16	
2.	TASK-			
	CH1318	.30*	.09	(-)
3.	TASK+FAC			
	EXTMCH	.31*	.10	
4.	TASK-FAC			
	CH1318	.33*	.11	(-)

^a

A negative beta value is indicated by (-) after the
corresponding R².

* significant at p<.05

** significant at p<.01

*** significant at p<.001

(cont'd.)

TABLE 10 (cont'd.)

STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR SINGLE FATHERS

H-2-A: Working single fathers who have a support network will be lower in communal characteristics than working single fathers who do not.

Independent variables entered into the analysis:
 Children over age 13 in the home (CH1318)
 Extended family living in the home (DEXTFAM)
 Sharing of household tasks (TSHR)

	<u>R</u>	<u>R²</u>
1. F (EPAQ)		
CH1318	.69***	.47
2. REL-FAC		
CH1318	.51*	.26 (-) ^a

No variables reached the .05 criterion for entry for any of the other subscales.

^a A negative beta value is indicated by (-) after the corresponding R².

* significant at p<.05
 ** significant at p<.01

Effects of Sex and Marital Status on Work Values

Hypotheses 3 and 4 were analyzed by performing t-tests between the means. Hypothesis 3-a posits that working single mothers place more importance on extrinsic rewards than either single fathers or married parents. Hypothesis 3-b states that single fathers place more importance on convenience facets than single mothers or married fathers.

Value for these work characteristics was measured three ways. The variables "EXTCHR" and "CONVCHR" measured value for extrinsic rewards and convenience facets, respectively, by asking respondents to rank these in the order in which they are important to them in "a job." Three items for each variable were included, and in addition, three items for intrinsic job characteristics were also included in this scale. Recoding of the rankings so that the most important had the highest score allowed the three items for each variable to be summed. These variables attempted to measure the respondents' general value for the work characteristics in question.

In addition to the above, this research attempted to elicit reports of actual behaviors, and behavioral intentions, regarding choice of job, with respect to

these concepts. Those respondents who answered affirmatively to the question: "What is the likelihood that you will leave your current job within the next year?" were asked to indicate why they planned to do so in terms of the job characteristics of interest, in a 5 point Likert-type format. These variables are indicated as "PLVEXT" and "PLVCONV" , for extrinsic and convenience characteristics, respectively. Similarly, those who answered affirmatively to the question: "Have you voluntarily changed jobs within the last two years?", were asked why, in terms of the job characteristics of interest. "LFTEXT" and "LFTCONV" indicate the summed scores for extrinsic and convenience characteristics' importance in having left a job. This procedure clearly had the effect of diminishing the size of the sample on these measures. Sufficient numbers of single mothers, and of married parents of each sex were obtained to permit analysis. Unfortunately, the single father subsample was far too small, and therefore, no data is presented for this sub-group on these two sub-sets of job characteristics variables.

Single mothers, as hypothesized, place more importance on extrinsic rewards than married mothers, for all three indicators. However, as Table 11 Part A shows, the results with respect to married fathers are mixed:

When attitude towards a job was measured, the married fathers placed more importance on extrinsic rewards. However, with respect to intentions to leave the specific job that is currently held, the single mothers placed more importance on extrinsic rewards, and no differences were found as to why they had left a previous job. In comparison to single fathers, the resulting significant T was in the opposite direction from that hypothesized.

Hypothesis 3-b was not confirmed; the one significant T was in the opposite direction, indicating that single mothers placed more importance on convenience than single fathers. Non-significant results were also obtained for hypothesis 4, regarding levels of work involvement, on all comparisons (no table presented).

As with Hypotheses 1 and 2, hierarchical regressions were performed in order to determine if marital status and sex combinations did, in fact, contribute to variations in work values. Results of the analysis are in Table 11 Part B, which shows highly significant contributions ($p < .001$) for marital status/sex combinations to both EXTCHR and CONVCHR.

It is also possible, as single and married parents differ on levels of income (see Table 6), that the results for hypotheses 3 and 4 reflect this factor rather than the hypothesized variables. The rationale behind

this is based on subjective utility theory, which predicts that there would be little value in an additional dollar of income if one already has a high income, whereas if money were short, an additional dollar of income would be highly desired. Therefore, single mothers may be more interested in extrinsic rewards than married mothers simply because they are in relatively low income brackets, as a group. One might also consider the possibility that subjective concepts of "enough" differ between single parent and intact families at the same income levels.

In order to control for this possibility, analysis was performed separately for high and low income parents. The sample was split on the sample median for total family income, which created one group of parents whose total family income was less than \$40,000 per year, and a second group of those who's income was \$40,000 or more. This resulted in markedly unequal cell sizes, due to the fact of the considerable income disparity between different sex/marital status groups. Attempts to split the sample on the U.S. population median resulted in a less satisfactory distribution of cell sizes.

Part C of Table 11 shows the results of the analysis for extrinsic rewards. No tables are presented for this analysis on either convenience facets or work

involvement, as the results were not statistically significant. Part C shows that single mothers have more value for extrinsic rewards than married mothers only at higher income levels, whereas married fathers value extrinsic rewards more than single mothers only at the lower income levels. This may indicate that single mothers are more insecure in their provider roles, since married women have their husbands' income to fall back upon, whereas single mothers must bear this role alone. At higher levels of income, the married mother may feel sufficiently financially secure to focus more on her nurturer role, whereas the single mother does not. The fact that a single mother is also the sole nurturer may account for the finding that, at lower income levels, her value for extrinsic rewards is lower than that of married fathers. Married parents' incomes reach higher levels than the single mothers in this sample, however, and therefore this test remains inconclusive.

TABLE 11

PART A

T-TESTS BETWEEN MEANS OF WORK VALUES

H-3:

- a. Working single mothers place significantly more importance on extrinsic rewards than do either single fathers or working parents from intact families.

<u>GROUPS</u>	<u>EXTCHR</u> a	<u>PLVEXT</u>	<u>LFTEXT</u>
Single mothers v. Single fathers	-2.42 ** (62,20)		
Single mothers v. Married Mothers	3.72** (62,90)	3.27** (26,29)	3.05** (29,24)
Single Mothers v. Married Fathers	-1.85* (62,51)	2.95** (26,14)	ns

- b. Working single fathers place significantly higher importance on convenience facets than do either single mothers or married fathers.

<u>GROUPS</u>	<u>CONVCHR</u>	<u>PLVCONV</u>	<u>LFTEXT</u>
Single Fathers v. Single Mothers	-1.81* (21,62)		
Married fathers v. Single fathers	ns		

a The one-tailed test of significance is used. A positive t indicates results in the hypothesized direction.

* p <.05

** p <.01

(cont'd.)

TABLE 11

PART B

HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ON WORK VALUES

(N=224)

Independent variables

BLOCK 1=CH1318,TFAMINC,ED,AGE,TYPWK

BLOCK 2=dummy variables for sex-marital status combinations

<u>Dependent</u> <u>Independent</u>	<u>R</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>chR²</u>	<u>chF</u>
EXTCHR					
Block 1	.28	.08	3.5**		
Block 2	.47	.22	7.1***	.14	12.1***
CONVCHR					
Block 1	.19	.035	1.5		
Block 2	.45	.21	6.3***	.17	14.09***

** p <.01
*** p <.001

TABLE 11 (cont'd.)

PART C

T-TESTS BETWEEN MEANS OF VALUE FOR EXTRINSIC REWARDS
CONTROLLING FOR LEVEL OF INCOME

	<u>ALL</u>	<u>INC < 40K</u>	<u>INC > 40K</u>
		b	
Single mothers v. Single fathers	-2.42** (62,20)	-1.61 (48,12)	-1.77* (14,8)
Single mothers v. Married Mothers	3.72** (62,90)	ns	2.62** (14,70)
Single Mothers v. Married Fathers	-1.85* (62,51)	-1.84* (48,20)	ns

a The one-tailed test of significance is used. A positive t indicates results in the hypothesized direction.

* p < .05
** p < .01

Income and Work Values

Hypothesis 5, which is limited to single parents only, predicts that income is negatively associated with value for extrinsic rewards and work involvement, but positively associated with value for convenience. Three measures of income were used to test this hypothesis, as actual dollar income and self-perceptions of income sufficiency are not perfectly correlated. In addition to total family income, in dollars, respondents were asked the degree to which their income was sufficient to meet their monthly bills, and the degree to which they were satisfied with their lifestyle. Pearson correlations were utilized for the test of this hypothesis.

Table 12 shows some support on specific variables for this hypothesis. All measures of income showed a negative relationship with intention to leave current job for more extrinsic rewards when all single parents were tested as a group. Among single mothers, however, the only significant negative relationship found was between lifestyle satisfaction and intention to leave, whereas among single fathers, value for extrinsic rewards, in general, was significantly negatively related to the two subjective measures of income.

The hypothesized relationship between income and work

involvement was not supported, nor the hypothesized relationship between income and value for convenience. The few significant relationships obtained were in the opposite direction from that hypothesized, and congruent with associations found in the working population-at-large, where high income is associated with more involving jobs.

As in the case of hypothesis 3, it may be that level of income moderates the relationship between income and work values, such that low income parents would show the hypothesized negative relationship between income and extrinsic rewards and income and work involvement, but high income parents would not. Furthermore, there is no reason to assume that any relationships found are unique to single parents. Therefore, Pearson correlation coefficients were computed for married parents as well as single parents, and for married and single parents at high and low income levels split at the sample median.

These results are presented in Part B of Table 12. The hypothesized negative relationship between income and value for extrinsic rewards is supported in the case of the married parents, in contrast to the single parents, for the sample as a whole, and for the high income group. For work involvement the relationships are more complex, with a significant negative relationship only

for high income single mothers. All other significant relationships are positive. Among the single mothers, the low income single mothers show a positive relationship, in contrast to the high income single mothers, where there is a negative relationship; when taken as a whole, these relationships cancel each other out.

The correlation coefficients were tested for significance of differences between corresponding single and married pairs, and between corresponding high and low income pairs. Although many of the observed differences appear to be substantial, only four were statistically significant: Between married and single parents and married and single mothers, on extrinsic rewards, and between high and low income single mothers on work involvement, and between low income single and married parents on work involvement. The results for extrinsic rewards support utility theory, as the differences between single and married respondents disappear when the sample is split into high and low income groups. On the other hand, the results for single mothers on work involvement are quite the opposite from that expected, as well as opposite the trends found within the other sex/marital status groups, in that low income mothers were more work involved at higher income levels, whereas

high income mothers were less work involved at higher income levels. The unequal, and sometimes quite small cell sizes limit the confidence that can be place in these tests, however, and the limited findings of significant differences may be partly attributable to these factors.

TABLE 12
PART A

H-5: Among single working parents, income is negatively associated with value for extrinsic rewards and work involvement, and positively associated with value for convenience.

PEARSON CORRELATIONS BETWEEN INCOME AND WORK VALUES
OF SINGLE WORKING PARENTS

<u>EXTRINSIC REWARDS</u>	<u>TOTAL FAM INC</u>	<u>ENOUGH INCOME</u>	<u>LIFESTYLE SATISFACT</u>
	<u>ALL SINGLE PARENTS</u>		
Extchr	.11 (78)	-.06 (82)	-.07 (82)
	a		
Plvext	-.33 * (30)	-.22 (33)	-.48** (33)
	b		
Lftext	-.27 (34)	-.15 (37)	-.17 (37)
	<u>SINGLE MOTHERS</u>		
Extchr	.05 (59)	.01 (62)	-.04 (62)
Plvext	-.11 (25)	-.03 (26)	-.36* (26)
Lftext	-.25 (25)	-.13 (29)	-.22 (29)
	<u>SINGLE FATHERS</u>		
Extchr	-.04 (19)	-.45* (20)	-.34 ^b (20)

N too small on Plvext and Lftext to permit meaningful statistical analysis.

a The one-tailed test of significance is used.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p < .05

** p < .01

(cont'd.)

TABLE 12 (cont'd.)

<u>WORK INVOLVEMENT</u>	<u>TOTAL FAM INC</u> <u>ab</u>	<u>ENOUGH INCOME</u>	<u>LIFESTYLE SATISFACT</u>
All Single Parents	.16 (91)	.09 (96)	.15 (96)
Single mothers	.14 (68)	.03 (71)	.10 (71)
Single Fathers	.25 (23)	.25 (25)	.34* (25)

<u>CONVENIENCE REWARDS</u>	<u>TOTAL FAM INC</u>	<u>ENOUGH INCOME</u>	<u>LIFESTYLE SATISFACT</u>
	<u>ALL SINGLE PARENTS</u>		

Convchr	-.13 (79)	.04 (83)	.03 (83)
Plvconv	-.05 (31)	.00 (34)	.14 (34)
Lftconv	-.42** (34)	-.27* (37)	-.02 (37)

SINGLE MOTHERS

Convchr	-.09 (59)	.04 (62)	.01 (62)
Plvconv	-.11 (29)	-.03 (26)	.07 (26)
Lftconv	-.31 (27)	-.15 (29)	.04 (29)

SINGLE FATHERS

Convchr	.01 (20)	.15 (21)	.22 (21)
---------	-------------	-------------	-------------

N too small on Plvext and Lftext to permit meaningful statistical analysis.

- a The one-tailed test of significance is used.
b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p <.05

** p <.01

(cont'd.)

TABLE 12 (cont'd.)
PART B

COMPARISON OF SINGLE AND MARRIED PARENTS AT HIGH AND LOW
LEVELS OF INCOME: PEARSON CORRELATIONS BETWEEN REPORTED
ANNUAL INCOME AND WORK VALUES

<u>VALUE FOR EXTRINSIC REWARDS</u>	<u>ALL</u>	<u>INC < 40K</u>	<u>INC > 40K</u>
Married parents	-.29** (139)	-.10 (40)	-.20* (99)
	***a		
Single parents	.11 (78)	.09 (60)	.11 (18)
Married mothers	-.32** (88)	-.09 (20)	-.28* (68)
	*		
Single mothers	.05 (59)	.10 (48)	-.30 (11)
	b		
Married fathers	-.22 (51)	-.30 (20)	-.18 (31)
Single fathers	-.04 (19)	-.25 (12)	.12 (7)
<u>WORK INVOLVEMENT</u>			
Married parents	.19* (145)	-.17 (42)	.15 (103)
			b
Single parents	.16 (91)	.13 (70)	.01 (21)
Married mothers	.09 (92)	-.32 (21)	.01 (71)
		*	
Single mothers	.14 (68)	.27* (57)	-.58* (11)
		*	
Married fathers	.35** (53)	-.15 (21)	.46** (32)
Single fathers	.25 (23)	-.30 (13)	.41 (10)

a The two-tailed test for differences is used.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p < .05

** p < .01

Marital Status and Work Performance

Hypothesis 6, which predicts less favorable work performance evaluations for single parents than married parents, measured work performance by two sets of indicators. A subsample of respondents obtained performance ratings from their immediate superiors at work. All respondents gave self-ratings of work performance.

T-Tests were performed comparing single parents, as a whole, and the mothers and fathers separately (where sample size allowed) to married parents as a whole and sub-groups of married parents. Among the 30 comparisons in Table 13, only one approached significance in the direction detrimental to single parents, and two others showed differences detrimental to married parents. Thus, this hypothesis was not supported by the data.

TABLE 13

T-TESTS BETWEEN SINGLE AND MARRIED PARENTS'
WORK PERFORMANCE

H-6: Work performance evaluations of single parents are significantly lower than work performance evaluations of married parents.

<u>GROUPS</u>	<u>PERF RATING</u>	<u>DAYS ABSENT</u>	<u>DAYS LATE</u>
---------------	------------------------	------------------------	----------------------

SUPERVISORS' REPORTS

(N=68;single mothers:N=24;married mothers:N=29;
married fathers:N=12;single fathers:N=3-too small for analysis)

Married v. single-all	ns	ns	ns
Married v. single mothers	ns	ns	ns
Married fathers v. single mothers	ns	ns	ns

SELF REPORTS

Married v. single-all	ns	ns	ns
Married v. single mothers	ns	ns	ns
Married v. single fathers	ns	ns	ns
Married fathers v. single mothers	ns	ns	ns
Married mothers v. single fathers	ns	2.55 ^a ** (91,29)	ns
Dual fathers v. single fathers	ns	ns	1.50 ^b (35,24)
Dual fathers v. single mothers	ns	-1.51 ^b (37,72)	ns

a The one-tailed test of significance is used.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p <.05

** p <.01

Agency and Well-being, Role Performance
and Interrole Conflict

Hypothesis 7, that agency is positively associated with well-being and role performance, and negatively associated with interrole conflict, was analysed by means of Pearson correlations, for all single parents, and single mothers and fathers separately. Positively and negatively valued measures of agency are presented separately, as they are very differently associated with the dependent variables.

Positively valued measures. The sub-scales from the T-R Behavior Scale show, in general, a significant positive relationship with life satisfaction and life happiness, as indicated in Table 14 Part 1. The weaker findings for single fathers may, in part, be explained by the small sample size. The EPAQ measures, however, do not support the hypothesis with regard to these two independent variables.

T-R measures of agency are strongly related to supervisors' work performance evaluations, although, the EPAQ measures are not. However, when self-ratings of work performance are the dependent variables, both sets of agency measures are able to obtain significance.

Role performance at home was indirectly measured by

inquiries about the perceived happiness of the respondents' children, and about the quality of the respondents' relationships with their children. While correlations with childrens' happiness were essentially not significant, T-R measures did, across the board, correlate significantly ($p < .01$) with quality of relationship. These results, too, indicated the importance of agentic behaviors over general self-perceptions of agency.

On the other hand, none of the measures of positively valued agency significantly related to either measure of interrole conflict.

Negatively Valued Measures. Part 2 of Table 14 shows essentially no significant results for relationships with well-being, or role performance. The only exception to this is that single fathers, on the EPAQ M- sub-scale, show positive relationships with life happiness, and regarding their role performance at home. This may indicate a defensive posture, intentional or not, on their part.

T-R Behavior subscale measures do, however, show a significant positive relationship with both measures of interrole conflict. All but one of a possible 12 correlations were significant, or approached significance.

Correlations were also computed for married parents, since this hypothesis is an extension of the masculinity hypothesis that has been developed in the personality literature which states that agentic characteristics have a positive effect on well-being. The findings for married parents are similar to those for single parents, although somewhat weaker for the married fathers and generally slightly stronger on the self-perceptions, and are shown in Appendix F.

TABLE 14

PEARSON CORRELATIONS WITH AGENTIC CHARACTERISTICS

H-7: For single working parents, agentic characteristics are positively associated with life-satisfaction and role performance, and negatively associated with perceived interrole conflict.

PART 1

PEARSON CORRELATIONS WITH POSITIVELY VALUED MEASURES OF AGENCY

A. ALL SINGLE PARENTS

	<u>MF</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>TASK+</u>	<u>TASK+FAC</u>
<u>Life satisfaction</u>	ns	ns	.18 ^{a*} (94)	.15 ^b (95)
Life happiness	.23* (95)	ns	.27** (96)	.25** (97)
Supervisor rating of work performance	ns	.39* (27)	.64** (27)	.55** (27)
Self rating of work performance	.39** (86) ^b	.22* (85)	.27* (85) ^b	.23* (86) ^b
Children's happiness	.17 (87)	ns ^b	.17 (86)	.18 (87)
Relationship with children	ns	.16 (87)	.33** (87)	.31** (88)
Interrole conflict:				
Work onto family	ns	ns	ns	ns
Family onto work	ns	ns	ns	ns

a The one-tailed test of significance is used.
b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p < .05

** p < .01

(cont'd.)

TABLE 14 (cont'd.)

B. SINGLE MOTHERS

	<u>MF</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>TASK+</u>	<u>TASK+FAC</u>
Life satisfaction	ns	ns	.20a* (71)	.20* (71)
Life happiness	.30** (72)	ns	.20* (72)	.24* (72)
Supervisor rating of work performance	ns	ns	.56** (24)	.46* (24)
Self rating of work performance	.31** (64)	.25* (63)	.23* (64)	.18 (64) ^b
Children's happiness	ns	ns	ns	ns
Relationship with children	ns	ns	.23* (65)	.28* (65)
Interrole conflict:				
Work onto family	ns	ns	ns	ns
Family onto work	ns	ns	ns	ns

a The one-tailed test of significance is used.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p <.05

** p <.01

(cont'd.)

TABLE 14 (cont'd.)

C. SINGLE FATHERS

	<u>MF</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>TASK+</u>	<u>TASK+FAC</u>
Life satisfaction	ns	ns	ns	ns
Life happiness	ns	ns	^a .49 ** (24)	^b .32 (24)
Supervisor rating of work performance	N too small for analysis			
Self rating of work performance	.62** (22)	ns	^b .36 (21)	.43* (22)
Children's happiness	ns	ns	.63** (21)	.36* (22)
Relationship with children	ns	ns	.58** (22)	.45* (23)
Interrole conflict:				
Work onto family	ns	ns	ns	ns
Family onto work	ns	ns	ns	ns

a The one-tailed test of significance is used.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p <.05

** p <.01

(cont'd.)

TABLE 14 (cont'd.)

PART 2

PEARSON CORRELATIONS WITH NEGATIVELY VALUED MEASURES OF AGENCY

A. ALL SINGLE PARENTS

	<u>M-</u> ns	<u>TASK-</u> ns	<u>TASK-FAC</u> ns
Life satisfaction			
Life happiness	ns	ns	ns
Supervisor rating of work performance	ns	ns	ns
Self rating of work performance	.39a** (86)	ns	ns
Children's happiness	ns	ns	ns
Relationship with children	ns	ns	-.21* (87)
Interrole conflict:			
Work onto family	ns	.21* (96)	.32** (95)
Family onto work	ns	.19* (97)	.30** (96)

a The one-tailed test of significance is used.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p < .05

** p < .01

(cont'd.)

TABLE 14 (cont'd.)

B. SINGLE MOTHERS

	<u>M-</u> <u>ns</u>	<u>TASK-</u> <u>ns</u>	<u>TASK-FAC</u> <u>ns</u>
Life satisfaction			
Life happiness	ns	ns	-.20a* (72)
Supervisor rating of work performance	ns	ns	ns
Self rating of work performance	ns	ns	ns
Children's happiness	ns	ns	ns
Relationship with children	ns	ns	-.22* (65)
Interrole conflict:			
Work onto family	ns	^b .18 (71)	.30** (71)
Family onto work	ns	.21* (72)	.27** (72)

a The one-tailed test of significance is used.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p <.05

** p <.01

TABLE 14 (cont'd.)

C. SINGLE FATHERS

	<u>M-</u> <u>ns</u>	<u>TASK-</u> <u>ns</u>	<u>TASK-FAC</u> <u>ns</u>
Life satisfaction			
Life happiness	.43a* (25)	ns	ns
Supervisor rating of work performance	N too small for analysis		
Self rating of work performance	ns	ns	ns
Children's happiness	.51** (22)	ns	ns
Relationship with children	.35* (23)	ns	
Interrole conflict:			
Work onto family	ns	^b .31 (25)	.38* (24)
Family onto work	ns	ns	.39* (24)

a The one-tailed test of significance is used.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p <.05

** p <.01

Initiator Status and Well-Being and Interrole Conflict

Hypothesis 8 posits that having attained single parent status by ones own choice, or by mutual agreement, results in higher levels of well-being, and lower levels of interrole conflict than if this status was forced by the ex-spouse. T-Tests were performed, comparing initiators with non-initiators. Although many comparisons were not significant, those that were, indicated higher levels of work-onto-family conflict for initiators, which was opposite the prediction (see Table 15, Part A).

Examination of the means revealed the interesting finding that, for single mothers and fathers, taken together, the mean levels of work onto family conflict is higher for those who initiated marital dissolution, and for those who's spouse initiated the dissolution, whereas if the decision was mutual, the level of conflict is lower. Examination of the means also revealed that levels of reported conflict were higher for the single mothers than for the single fathers. Mean levels of work onto family conflict are shown below:

	ALL SINGLE PARENTS	SINGLE MOTHERS	SINGLE FATHERS
OWN DECISION	2.58	2.62	2.35
	=	=	*
SPOUSE'S DECISION	2.45	2.72	1.86
	*	=	=
MUTUAL DECISION	1.95	2.42	1.50

Table 15, Part B shows the results for life satisfaction measures. Here again the few significant comparisons are opposite from what was predicted. Those who's spouse had initiated the marital dissolution claimed the highest levels of happiness and of life style satisfaction (a subjective measure of income sufficiency).

Although this hypothesis was essentially not supported by the data, the findings warrant consideration in that they are counterintuitive. It may be that, in the case of work-family conflict, the self-reports indicate guilt at having left the marriage and depriving the children of an intact family. In the case of well-being, the self-reports may be indicating a psychological ego-defense mechanism.

TABLE 15
PART A

H-8: Single parents who have attained this status by their own choice, or by mutual agreement, are more life satisfied and perceive less interrole conflict than those on whom this status was forced.

Results of T-Tests on Interrole Conflict

(Sample size is smaller-N=79- due to the fact that four fathers and eight mothers are widowed, and six mothers were never married)

ALL SINGLE PARENTS				
	<u>OWN V.</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>	<u>OWN V.</u> <u>MUTUAL</u>	<u>MUTUAL V.</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>	<u>OWN AND</u> <u>MUTUAL V</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>
Interrole conflict:				
Work onto family	ns	2.50a** (59,12)	-1.61b (12,23)	ns
Family onto work	ns	ns	ns	ns
SINGLE FATHERS				
	<u>OWN V.</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>	<u>OWN V.</u> <u>MUTUAL</u>	<u>MUTUAL V.</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>	<u>OWN AND</u> <u>MUTUAL V</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>
Interrole conflict:				
Work onto family	1.77* (10,7)	3.07** (10,6)	N too small	ns
Family onto work	ns	ns	ns	ns
SINGLE MOTHERS				
	<u>OWN V.</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>	<u>OWN V.</u> <u>MUTUAL</u>	<u>MUTUAL V.</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>	<u>OWN AND</u> <u>MUTUAL V</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>
Interrole conflict:				
Work onto family	ns	ns	ns	ns
Family onto work	ns	ns	ns	ns

a The one-tailed test of significance is used.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p < .05

** p < .01

(cont'd.)

TABLE 15 (cont'd.)
PART B

Results of T-Tests on Life Satisfaction

ALL SINGLE PARENTS				
	<u>OWN V.</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>	<u>OWN V.</u> <u>MUTUAL</u>	<u>MUTUAL V.</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>	<u>OWN AND</u> <u>MUTUAL V</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>
Life satisfaction	ns	ns	ns	ns
Life happiness	ns	ns	-1.86a* (12,23)	ns
Life style satisf.	ns	ns	ns	-1.80* (21,58)
SINGLE FATHERS				
	<u>OWN V.</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>	<u>OWN V.</u> <u>MUTUAL</u>	<u>MUTUAL V.</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>	<u>OWN AND</u> <u>MUTUAL V</u> <u>SPOUSE</u>
Life satisfaction	ns	ns	ns	ns
Life happiness	ns	ns	ns	-1.68b (7,13)
Life style satisf.	ns	ns	ns	-1.63b (7,13)

SINGLE MOTHERS

No comparisons were statistically significant.

- a The one-tailed test of significance is used.
 b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* $p < .05$

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The basic premise underlying this research is that adults change in response to situational demands. Therefore, single working parents, because of their unique situation, requiring full and sole responsibility for both the Provider and the Nurturer role, were expected to differ from married working parents on psychological gender and work values, and by so being, would be able to fulfill their responsibilities and achieve a sense of well-being. To some extent, this premise was supported by the results, which were complex, and which also showed the strength of traditional sex-role norms and of economic need in shaping attitudes and behaviors, both of which are also part and parcel of the single parent's situation.

Before discussing the implications of the findings, however, it is necessary to evaluate the study in terms of both its content and methodology. This chapter will first present a brief review of the findings. Next, the methodological issues will be discussed, followed by an evaluation of its contribution to the body of knowledge in Organizational Behavior on the work/family relationship. The concluding segment will discuss

implications for both work organizations and for working single parents.

Summary of the Findings

Comparisons Between Single Parents and Married Parents

Agency/Task Orientation and Communion/Relationship Orientation

Agency/task orientation. Hypothesis 1, that working single parents are higher in agentic characteristics than married parents, was supported with respect to positively valued agentic behaviors, but not with self-perceptions. Single mothers reported more agentic behaviors than all categories of fathers, as well as more than married mothers. Single mothers also reported more negatively valued agentic behaviors than did married fathers.

Communion/relationship orientation. Hypothesis 2, that single fathers are higher in communal characteristics than married fathers, was supported with respect to self-perceptions, but not with reported behaviors.

Work Values and Work Role Performance

Value for Extrinsic Rewards from Work. Hypothesis 3-A predicted that single mothers place more importance on extrinsic rewards than any other group. This was confirmed with respect to married mothers on both the attitudinal and behavioral indicators, but only on the "intention to leave current job" indicator with respect to married fathers. It was also found that single fathers valued extrinsic rewards more than did single mothers. This hypothesis was also tested for high and low income groups separately, with the finding that single mothers have more value for extrinsic rewards than married mothers only at the higher income levels.

Hypothesis 5 predicted a negative association between income and value for extrinsic rewards. Partial support was found for single parents on the associations between subjective measures of income and intention to leave current job for more extrinsic rewards. When income was measured objectively, the hypothesized negative relationship was found only for married parents, and the difference between the correlation coefficients of the married and single parents was statistically significant. When high and low income groups were tested separately, only the high income married parents as a whole, and the high income married mothers showed

significant negative relationships with value for extrinsic rewards.

Value for Convenience Facets of Work. Hypothesis 3-B predicted that single fathers place more importance on convenience facets of work than any other group. This was not supported.

Hypothesis 5 predicted a positive association between value for convenience facets and income. This was not supported.

Work Involvement. Hypothesis 4, which predicted higher work involvement for single mothers, and lower work involvement for single fathers, both with respect to married parents, was not supported.

Hypothesis 5 predicted a negative association between work involvement and income. The only significant negative relationship with work involvement was obtained for high income single mothers. Low income single mothers had positive significant relationships, and single fathers obtained non-significant relationships, in contrast to married fathers' positive significant relationships.

Work Performance. Hypothesis 6 predicted less favorable work performance evaluations for single parents than for married parents. This was not supported.

Hypotheses Regarding Single Parents Only

Agency/Task Orientation

Support systems. Hypothesis 1-A posited that having support networks would lower levels of agency for working single parents. This hypothesis was tested for divorced mothers only, as initial bivariate correlations demonstrated the importance of support payments for divorced mothers, but not for fathers. This hypothesis was partially supported as, although the equations were able to explain substantial amounts of variance, the only inverse relationships found were with amount of child support payments and the EPAQ measures of agency, and with having children over 13 years of age and the T/R measure of agentic behavior. Amount of time ex-spouse spends with children and family income both showed positive relationships with the dependent variables.

Well-being and role performance. Hypothesis 7 predicted positive associations between agency and well-being and role performance. This was supported for positive behavioral measures of agency and well-being and role performance, but not for the self-perceptions. The negatively valued behavioral measures of agency obtained significant positive relationships only for the self perceptions of single fathers regarding well being and

parental-role performance.

Interrole conflict. Hypothesis 7 predicted that there would be negative associations between agency and interrole conflict. This was not supported. Significant positive associations were found with the negatively valued behavioral measures of agency, and all other associations were non-significant.

Communion/Relationship Orientation

Support systems. Hypothesis 2-A predicted an inverse relationship between support networks and communality for single fathers. This was not supported, as only one equation was significant in the predicted direction.

Initiator Status

Hypothesis 8 predicted higher levels of well-being and lower levels of interrole conflict for single parents who attained this status by their own choice, as opposed to those onto whom this status was forced. Results showed higher levels of work-onto-family conflict for initiators, contrary to prediction. Also contrary to prediction was the finding that those whose spouses were the initiators claimed higher levels of happiness and life-style satisfaction. Single mothers reported higher work-onto-family conflict levels than single fathers.

Methodological Issues

The Sample

The sample is an entirely voluntary, "convenience sample" so the results obtained cannot be generalized to the working parent population at large. The problems of reaching single parents, and especially single custodial fathers, resulted in a smaller number of single working parents than of married working parents. The sample of single fathers obtained was minimally sufficient for statistical analysis, and, for hypotheses requiring sub-group analysis, was too small to test.

Married fathers' cooperation was also difficult to obtain. Perhaps the length of the questionnaire, combined with the notion that "working parent" research refers to mothers only - despite clear introductory statements to the contrary - discouraged fathers from responding in as large numbers and percentage as the mothers. The result was a mix of dual and single paycheck family fathers, with a relatively small number of the latter. This, too, limited the ability to analyze the hypotheses with respect to different intact-family structures.

The fact that single parents, especially mothers, have lower incomes than intact families was reflected in

this sample. However, this created a problem in separating income effects from family structure or sex effects in the analysis of work values, despite the sub-group analysis. The reason is that the top of the range of the married mothers' family incomes exceeded \$100,000, whereas the single mothers' highest income category was below \$80,000. In an affluent and expensive region, which is where this sample was drawn, this difference at the top of the range may well be significant. The differences between married and single fathers' incomes at the top of their range was smaller, and therefore more comparable. This, unfortunately, was mitigated by the relatively small numbers of the men obtained.

It is well to be reminded that this sample is better educated and more affluent than the working parent population at large, and have fewer children per family. These factors may have contributed to their ability and willingness to complete a lengthy and complicated questionnaire. It is also a near totally White sample, and consequently there is no examination of possible racial and/or ethnic effects.

Third party data was elicited from a subset of respondents, by having their immediate superiors at work complete a short questionnaire. This subset of

respondents was again voluntary. All respondents had been asked to do so, and it is very likely that those who complied were particularly confident in their work roles, or possessed other characteristics that may have set them apart from the other respondents. This also, clearly, left out the self-employed respondents.

All of these factors must be considered as limitations on the generalizability of the findings, and also may be considered as threats to statistical conclusion validity (Cook & Campbell, 1975) due to non-randomized selection and possible Type II error from insufficient power due to the small sample size of the single fathers. Nevertheless, as there are no lists of single parents available, voluntary samples present one of the few means by which this substantial segment of the working parent population can be studied. Complex and meaningful issues are often beset by methodological problems (Argyris, 1973) and in order not to neglect areas of importance it may be necessary to proceed with a less than ideal research design such as utilized in this research.

The Method and the Measures

The conceptual framework posits a causal sequence but the research design was correlational, which does not

permit inferences of causality. Therefore it is only possible to state that certain associations were found. It is possible, for example, that there are certain types of individuals who are predisposed to become single parents, and not that the state of single parenthood causes higher or lower levels of a characteristic. It is likely that both possibilities are correct. There may be qualities and/or circumstances that increase an individual's likelihood of becoming a single parent, and, once having become a single parent, that situation adds its impact to the individual's characteristics. For example, it was found that levels of agency went down over time for single parents who had initiated marital dissolution, but remained stable for those who did not. This raises new and more specific questions regarding the true genesis of differences in agency levels between single and married parents, rather than resolves the initial general question of causality. Examination of these questions is well beyond the scope of the present research, and would be extremely difficult to study within any one research project.

Obtaining data on the same group of single parents over a period of time would indicate whether length of time as a single parent was associated with increased amounts of specified characteristics. However,

longitudinal follow-up of a single parent sample is likely to find a substantial proportion remarried at the time of follow-up. One might also attempt to correlate levels of a specified characteristic with number of years as a single parent in order to ascertain if there is a positive relationship. These two suggestions, however, do not address the predisposition question, for which one would require starting with a group of married parents, and following them for a number of years. Such a research design depends on the probability that enough of the subjects will become single parents during the course of the study (or, that enough will remain married) in order to make the necessary comparisons on sufficiently large samples. Subject attrition would also present difficulties for the research.

Self-reports are subject to possible distortion, either intended or unintended. What a person says may not be the same as what that person actually thinks or does. Furthermore, any research instrument should be relatively free from random error and also be able to be shown to actually measure what it purports to measure. The study attempted as much as possible to utilize measures that have been shown to have acceptable psychometric properties along these dimensions of reliability and construct validity. Because the

questionnaire became quite long, however, the work values measure was altered and shortened from its previous form.

The Extended Personality Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich & Holahan, 1979) did not perform as expected, despite its long history in the personality psychology literature. The patterns of associations obtained in this study, when compared to the patterns obtained with the newly developed behavioral measure of agency and communion - the Task/Relationship Behavior Scale - arouse some questions. The EPAQ measures of agency obtained cross-sex differences in the traditional direction; that is, men reported themselves as having higher levels of this characteristic than women. Generally non-significant differences were found in the same-sex comparisons across different family structures. The behavioral reports, on the other hand, obtained significant differences virtually across the board between single and married parents, on the positively valued agency variable (TASK+ and TASK+FAC), with single parents reporting higher incidences of these behaviors, as hypothesized.

Intercorrelations between the two measures' conceptually related subscales ranged from $r=.47$ to a low of $r=.04$, with a mean correlation of only $r=.27$. This, in addition to the differences obtained in the results of

the substantive hypotheses, seems to demonstrate that what people actually do is not the same as what they think they are like, or think they ought to be like. In this instance, the results of the comparisons using the EPAQ measures could be interpreted as tapping socially desirable, or ego-protective, characteristics, and not the actual trait purported.

This conjecture receives further support when one examines two other sets of comparisons reported in this study. Comparisons among men on the communal traits obtained significant differences between single and married fathers on F+ and on Fva-, the latter variable showing higher levels for married fathers. The first is a positively valued self-perceptual measure of communality, the second is negatively valued verbal-aggressiveness. On the other hand, the behavioral measures only obtained significant differences on positively valued relationship oriented behavior between single fathers and traditional family fathers, in the hypothesized direction that single fathers would demonstrate more of this behavior than married fathers. Single custodial fathers, being very rare in our society, are likely quite self-conscious of their unique status. They are objects of sympathy and awe, because it is a relatively new phenomenon for a man to be in this

position. The sole nurturer role of a single father has received much publicity in the popular press, and it may be that these men are viewing themselves with a somewhat saintly aura. On the behavioral measures the fact that single fathers and dual-paycheck fathers obtained no differences, however, seems reasonable in the light of the presumed shared nurturing responsibilities of the dual-paycheck fathers.

The personality literature has consistently reported significant associations between EPAQ measures of agency and self-esteem and well-being. It seems reasonable to extend this to expect that agency would correlate with measures of role performance and interrole conflict. In this study, however, the EPAQ measures made a very weak showing with respect to all of these variables, whereas the behavioral measures generally performed as expected. These results, again, cast some doubt onto the construct validity of the EPAQ.

In order to have a behavioral measure of agency and communion it was necessary to develop a measure especially for this study. This measure, the Task/Relationship Behavior Scale, must be considered as in the early stage of development. Except for the initial trial on a small pilot sample, after which items that correlated poorly with their a priori scales were

deleted, subsequent examination of its psychometric properties was done on this same sample who were the subjects of the substantive research.

Reliability was good, intercorrelations with the EPAQ were essentially as predicted, and intercorrelations among the scales of the instrument itself were also essentially as predicted. The median intercorrelation of the Task-Relationship Behaviors Scale subscales was lower than the median intercorrelation of the Extended Personality Attributes Questionnaire subscales, indicating that the behavioral measure is less subject to common method variance than the EPAQ and demonstrating evidence of discriminant validity. The pattern of associations obtained with the behavioral self-report measure were different from those obtained with the self-perception measure along the same dimensions, as expected. However, the factor analysis, which yielded dimensions that were not exactly the same as the a priori dimensions, and which was performed on this same sample, requires repetition at a future date on another sample of larger size.

Another possible problem with this measure is that some of the items refer specifically to behavior vis-a-vis children of school age. This renders those items inapplicable to those parents who have only

pre-schoolers or infants. Scale scores were calculated by dividing the sum of the items on each subscale by the number of items, and compensation had to be made in the scoring by deleting the inapplicable items for the affected parents and changing the divisor for these cases accordingly. Perhaps some alternate subset of items can be developed for future studies.

Contribution to the Body of Knowledge

A primary goal of this research was to introduce a focus on the single working parent into the Organizational Behavior literature on the work-family relationship by examining hypothesized differences between single and married working parents. Comparisons between the family structures was necessary in order to place the single working parent within the general framework of the work-family literature. Given that there is such a large number of single parents in the labor force, the omission of this group from research consideration within our discipline is glaring, and this study has responded to that lack.

The general pattern of associations revealed differences between the behavioral self-reports and the attitudinal and self-perception measures. While

traditional sex differences were shown to prevail regarding agentic self-concept, value for extrinsic rewards from work and on value for job convenience, behavioral self-reports indicate a different pattern. The use of behavioral self-reports, even though the measures are still in the developmental stage, in contrast to the self-perception and attitudinal measures, has contributed an additional dimension to the study. Granted that a behavioral self-report may be subject to distortions of memory, nevertheless the patterns of associations indicate that these behavioral measures may more accurately tap crucial associations, as discussed in the previous section with regard to the EPAQ versus the Task/Relationship Scale. It is suggested that future research efforts make more use of behavioral reports, in addition to and/or in place of the more commonly used attitudinal measures.

Regarding the substantive knowledge gained, the results indicate that there are some differences between married and single working parents in their attitudes and behaviors, but that there are also no reported differences in work performance at their current jobs. There are also indications that single parents do differ from married parents on their value for extrinsic rewards, as single parents continue to value these highly

even at higher levels of income, whereas married parents' levels decline. This may indicate that single parents are more insecure in their provider roles, and perhaps for good reasons, as there is no partner to act as a backstop as well as the fact that they generally have lower incomes than married parent families.

The results regarding impacts on well being and work-family conflict among single parents indicate the importance of agentic behaviors. Higher levels of positively valued task oriented behavior was clearly associated with life satisfaction, and home and work role performance, as self-reported. The data from the subset of respondents whose supervisors returned completed questionnaires show a clear relationship between supervisors' evaluations of the respondents' work performance and agentic behaviors. Negatively valued agentic behaviors, on the other hand, were associated with both work-onto-family and family-onto-work interrole conflict, for both mothers and fathers.

Previous literature on work-family conflict has demonstrated that the experience of this phenomenon is not limited to working mothers (e.g. Pleck, 1979). Examination of the mean levels of work-family conflict among single parents in this sample, however, indicates that the mothers experience higher levels than the

fathers. This may indicate the influence of traditional sex-role expectations, even among single parents. An alternate explanation may be that single fathers in fact have fewer problems in this area - although this, too, may arise from the ability to obtain more assistance than the mothers, because of traditional sex-role expectations. Another explanation could be that the single fathers are employing the psychological defense mechanism of suppression that is a concomitant of the masculine role (Harrison, 1978).

In summary, despite the methodological shortcomings discussed earlier, the general pattern of associations found are consistent with existing knowledge in pertinent areas. Therefore, this study can be considered to have added to the body of knowledge on the work-family relationship with its findings on single working parents, even though the hypotheses were only partly supported by the results. Refinement of the new instrument herein introduced, and replication with other samples, are needed, in order to increase confidence in the findings. Reconceptualization of the construct of "support systems" is indicated, since, even though the associations here were highly significant, they only partially supported the hypothesis. It may be that the current conceptualization failed to take into account the

activity required to obtain certain advantages, and that this activity required agentic behaviors, whereas it was presumed that having supports, whether personal or financial, would mitigate the need for agentic characteristics.

Implications

The newly single parent, whether by divorce or by death of a spouse, undergoes a period of adjustment marked frequently by disorientation, grief, anger, and depression. Such turmoil may often have the effect of lowering the individual's capacity to function effectively, at least in some areas of life. This period passes, however, at least for the overwhelming majority of single parents, and they go on with their lives, as single working parents, for as long a time as they remain in this family structure (Goode, 1956; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978; McLanahan, 1983). This study has concerned itself with the ongoing life of the single working parent, and not that relatively brief period of turmoil, which, like an acute illness, typically passes in a relatively short period of time.

The dual-role responsibilities of a single parent, in a society that is geared to couples, has been shown to

require some alterations in values and behaviors, in order to continue to function effectively in both the Provider and Nurturer roles. One finding of this research has been that single parents are as effective in their work roles as married parents. This should not be surprising, since work provides, at the very least, the money needed for the necessities of life.

Employing organizations should take note of the finding that there were no differences between single and married parents on work involvement, as well as no differences on work performance on their current jobs. Single mothers are more interested in the extrinsic rewards of work than the married mothers, but do not show decreased work involvement at higher income levels as the married mothers do. This is probably because they are poorer and less secure in their provider role. On all other facets of work values either there are no differences between single and married parents, or the traditional sex-role based differences prevail.

There are several possible explanations for the results regarding single parents' work performance. Single parents may have altered their career goals to accomodate their situation, as originally hypothesized. The mothers appear to be seeking higher paying and/or more secure jobs, which likely raises their career

aspirations. Regarding the fathers, who generally receive little or no child support in our society today, their need for income security is no less than that of the single mothers. Therefore their attachment to the labor force and to career goals can be presumed to remain firm.

We can assume that there are varying levels of competence at work among both married and single parents. The results indicate that single parents who are relatively high in agentic behaviors are as effective as the more competent married parents. The more effective married parents may also be high on these behaviors; a hypothesis that remains to be tested in future research.

A key finding of this research has been that agentic behaviors are associated with measures of well-being, role-performance, and with interrole conflict. It is possible to learn new behaviors, whether by oneself or with the aid of a therapist or peer group. It may be interpreted that agentic behaviors, which directly affect on the environment, have the ability to alter it to the benefit of the initiator. Therefore, a situation which may seem to be extremely difficult can be satisfactorily resolved. If this is so, then the single parent has been presented with a means by which his or her situation can

be improved. Employers, civic associations, community agencies and other organizations might do well to take note of this as well, as training for increased agentic behavior can be provided through work and other organizations, as well as by single parent peer groups.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN THE STUDY

WORKING PARENT'S QUESTIONNAIRE

DO NOT SIGN THIS FORM.

THE INFORMATION YOU GIVE IS STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL AND WILL ONLY BE USED FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES

| ENTER YOUR PRIVATE 6-DIGIT CODE NUMBER HERE _ _ _ _ _ |

Because we use the words "family" and "spouse" throughout the questionnaire, it is important to provide our definitions. A "family" is a group of two or more persons living together who are related by blood, marriage, or adoption. We also include step-children who live with you at least 40% of the time, regardless of who has legal custody. The U.S. Census Bureau, in its 1980 census, has defined persons living in common-law arrangements as "married", and so we refer to partners in either official or common-law arrangements as "spouses".

TO ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS, PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBERS OF THE ANSWERS WHICH APPLY TO YOU, OR FILL IN THE INFORMATION REQUESTED.

- (1) Sex
1. Male
2. Female
- (2) Present marital status:
1. First marriage
2. Remarried
3. Separated
4. Divorced
5. Widowed
6. Never married
7. Other _____
- (3) 1. If currently married, (by the definition given above), how long have you been married?
_____ years, _____ months
2. a. If formerly married but now single, how long have you been separated from your spouse?
_____ years, _____ months
b. What was the length of your previous marriage?
_____ years, _____ months
- (4) How many children do you have?
(Include children not living with you)
_____ children

- (5) How many people live with you at least 3 days a week? Please list by relationship and age, and check whether this person lives with you full-time (an average of 5 days a week or more), or part-time (an average of 3 to 4 days a week).

Examples			
Relationship	Age	Full-time	Part-time
son	4	X	
step-daughter	16		X
son	14		X
spouse	45	X	
friend	35	X	
mother-in-law	75	X	

Relationship	Age	Full-time	Part-time
-----	---	-----	-----
-----	---	-----	-----
-----	---	-----	-----
-----	---	-----	-----
-----	---	-----	-----
-----	---	-----	-----
-----	---	-----	-----
-----	---	-----	-----
-----	---	-----	-----
-----	---	-----	-----

- (6) About how many hours do you work at your job each week?
_____ hours
- (7) How long, on the average, does it take you to go to and from work each day, door to door? (Total time each day spent travelling to and from work.)
_____ hours, _____ minutes

- (8) What kind of work do you do? (for example - typist, elementary school teacher, physician, foreman, mechanic, administrator in a state agency, sales manager, taxi dispatcher, retail sales, etc.)

Are you self-employed? ___ Yes ___ No

- (9) When you are at work, how are the children who are living with you (including any step-children) usually looked after? Circle all that apply - for example, if your children go to public school, and then, after school, look after themselves for a few hours, circle both "school" and "look after themselves".

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| 1. Day care center or nursery school | 7. School |
| 2. At a paid sitter's home | 8. Spouse |
| 3. Paid sitter in my home | 9. A neighbor or friend's home |
| 4. My older child minds the younger one(s) | 10. Live-in relative |
| 5. A neighbor or friend looks in on them | 11. They look after themselves |
| 6. Relative who does not live with me | 12. Other _____ |

(10)

The following statements are about how working parents go about their daily lives. People have different ways of dealing with issues and problems that come up. We would like to know what you do to manage your day-to-day responsibilities. Each statement below describes something a person might do in their day-to-day life. For each of these statements, please indicate how well it describes you.

If the description is not at all characteristic of you, circle "0".
 If the description is only sometimes characteristic of you, circle "1".
 If the description is pretty much characteristic of you, circle "2".
 If the description is very much characteristic of you, circle "3".

For example:

Watch a lot of television in the evening. 0 1 2 3

If you almost always watch TV for most of the evening, you would circle "3". If you watch TV only on occasion, for certain special programs, you would circle "1". If you like to watch TV and do so for a few hours several nights each week, you would circle "2". If you just about never watch TV, you would circle "0".

	NOT ME	SOMETIMES ME	PRETTY MUCH ME	VERY MUCH ME
1. Keep working on a problem until it's solved.	0	1	2	3
2. Keep to my routine, no matter what.	0	1	2	3
3. Avoid any discussion that may lead to an argument with my family.	0	1	2	3
4. When tired at home, take time out to relax and get some rest.	0	1	2	3
5. Nag my children about doing their chores.	0	1	2	3
6. Look ahead, in order to avoid a potential crisis.	0	1	2	3
7. Do things myself, without help, as much as possible.	0	1	2	3
8. Make sure my children can reach me anytime when I am at work.	0	1	2	3
9. Periodically re-assess my areas of strength and areas needing improvement.	0	1	2	3
10. Repeat an order to my children until they obey.	0	1	2	3

	NOT HE	SOMETIMES HE	PRETTY MUCH HE	VERY MUCH HE
11. Make time to listen to members of my family when they have a problem	0	1	2	3
12. Seek advice from others when faced with a problem I can't solve.	0	1	2	3
13. Scream at my children.	0	1	2	3
14. Panic when I find out one of my children is running a fever when I am at work.	0	1	2	3
15. Don't go out much because I feel my children need to be with me	0	1	2	3
16. When worried about something, ask my family to help me.	0	1	2	3
17. Find ways to build up the egos of my children.	0	1	2	3
18. Always do things that my children want me to do for them.	0	1	2	3
19. At work, complement others for a job well done.	0	1	2	3
20. Be very honest with my family about how I feel.	0	1	2	3
21. Lose sleep worrying about my children.	0	1	2	3
22. When one of my children seems troubled, try to get him or her to talk to me about it.	0	1	2	3
23. When I come home tired from work, fight with my family.	0	1	2	3
24. When my schedule gets out of hand, establish a new routine that I can handle.	0	1	2	3
25. If some family situation occurs that may make me late for work, handle it calmly and get to work as soon as I can.	0	1	2	3
26. Won't hesitate to do something unusual to solve a problem if I believe it will work.	0	1	2	3
27. At home, get talked into doing things that I don't want to do.	0	1	2	3
28. "Roll with the punches" at work.	0	1	2	3
29. If one of my co-workers seems upset, ask if there is something I can do to help.	0	1	2	3
30. Run from early morning until I'm ready to drop in order to take care of everything that needs to be done.	0	1	2	3
31. Join a self-help group.	0	1	2	3
32. When something is important to my child - like going to see him or her perform in a school play - I do it, no matter how busy or tired I might be.	0	1	2	3
33. When I feel tense, especially when I come home from work, take a drink to help me relax.	0	1	2	3

(11) Please rank the following 9 job factors in the order in which they are important to you in a job. The most important factor should be ranked "1", down to the least important with a rank of "9".

Your job
ranking factor

- good chance for promotion
- enough time left for family activities
- interesting work
- job security
- freedom to decide how to do the work
- reasonably close to home
- opportunity to learn and to develop abilities
- a convenient work schedule
- good pay

(12) In general, how satisfying do you find the way you are spending your life these days? Would you call it (circle one):

- 1. Unsatisfactory
- 2. Not very satisfying
- 3. pretty satisfying
- 4. Very satisfying
- 5. Completely satisfying

(13) Do you feel discriminated against in your job because of any of the following?(circle all that apply)

- 1. Age
- 2. Sex
- 3. Race
- 4. Marital status
- 5. National origin
- 6. Religion
- 7. I do not feel discriminated against

(14)

The items below inquire about what kind of a person you think you are. Each item consist of a pair of characteristics, with the letters A -E in between. For example:

Not at all artistic A....B....C....D....E Very artistic

Each pair describes contradictory characteristics - that is, you cannot be both at the same time, such as artistic and not at all artistic.

The letters form a scale between the two extremes. You are asked to choose a letter which describes where you fall on the scale. For example, if you think you have no artistic ability, you would circle A. If you think you are pretty good, you might circle D. If you are only medium, you might circle C, and so forth.

- 1. Not at all aggressive A....B....C....D....E Very aggressive
- 2. Not at all independent A....B....C....D....E Very independent
- 3. Not at all emotional A....B....C....D....E Very emotional
- 4. Not at all arrogant A....B....C....D....E Very arrogant
- 5. Very submissive A....B....C....D....E Very dominant
- 6. Not at all excitable in a MAJOR crisis A....B....C....D....E Very excitable in a MAJOR crisis
- 7. Very passive A....B....C....D....E Very active
- 8. Not at all able to devote self completely to others A....B....C....D....E Able to devote self completely to others

9. Very rough	A....B....C....D....E	Very gentle
10. Not at all spineless	A....B....C....D....E	Very spineless
11. Not at all helpful to others	A....B....C....D....E	Very helpful to others
12. Not at all gullible	A....B....C....D....E	Very gullible
13. Never fussy	A....B....C....D....E	Always fussy
14. Not at all competitive	A....B....C....D....E	Very competitive
15. Very home oriented	A....B....C....D....E	Very worldly
16. Not at all boastful	A....B....C....D....E	Very boastful
17. Not at all kind	A....B....C....D....E	Very kind
18. Indifferent to others' approval	A....B....C....D....E	Highly needful of others' approval
19. Not at all complaining	A....B....C....D....E	Very complaining
20. Never looks out for self	A....B....C....D....E	Looks out only for self
21. Feelings not easily hurt	A....B....C....D....E	Feelings easily hurt
22. Not at all hostile	A....B....C....D....E	Very hostile
23. Not at all aware of feelings of others	A....B....C....D....E	Very aware of feelings of others
24. Not at all servile	A....B....C....D....E	Very servile
25. Can make decisions easily	A....B....C....D....E	Has difficulty making decisions
26. Gives up very easily	A....B....C....D....E	Never gives up easily
27. Not at all greedy	A....B....C....D....E	Very greedy
28. Not at all cynical	A....B....C....D....E	Very cynical
29. Never cries	A....B....C....D....E	Cries very easily
30. Not at all self-confident	A....B....C....D....E	Very self-confident
31. Feels very inferior	A....B....C....D....E	Feels very superior
32. Never subordinates self to others	A....B....C....D....E	Always subordinates self to others
33. Not at all understanding of others	A....B....C....D....E	Very understanding of others
34. Not at all whiney	A....B....C....D....E	Very whiney
35. Very cold in relations with others	A....B....C....D....E	Very warm in relations with others

36. Not at all egotistical A....B....C....D....E Very egotistical
37. Very little need for security A....B....C....D....E Very strong need for security
38. Not at all dictatorial A....B....C....D....E Very dictatorial
39. Goes to pieces under pressure A....B....C....D....E Stands up well under pressure
40. Not at all nagging A....B....C....D....E Very nagging

IF YOU ARE CURRENTLY SEPARATED OR DIVORCED, OR REMARRIED AFTER DIVORCE, ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS. OTHERWISE, SKIP TO QUESTION (23).

- (15) Who made the decision to separate?
1. It was completely my decision
 2. It was mostly my decision
 3. It was a mutual decision
 4. It was mostly my spouse's decision
 5. It was completely my spouse's decision
- (16) How would you describe your relationship with your ex-spouse?
1. Definitely hostile
 2. Somewhat hostile
 3. Neutral - neither friendly nor hostile
 4. Somewhat friendly
 5. Definitely friendly
- (17) On the average, how much time does your ex-spouse spend with your children?(circle all that are applicable to your situation)
0. None
 1. Once a month or less
 2. Less than one day a week but more than one day a month
 3. One day a week
 4. Two days a week
 5. Has part-time custody of at least one child
 6. Other (please explain) _____
- (18) Would you like to see your ex-spouse spend:
1. More time with the children
 2. Less time with the children
 3. No change in his/her time with the children is desired.

IF YOU ARE CURRENTLY SEPARATED, DIVORCED OR WIDOWED, ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS. OTHERWISE, SKIP TO QUESTION (21).

- (19) During the last year of your previous marriage, what was your total family income from all sources, to the best of your recollection?
- Approximately \$ _____ per year
- ____ Cannot recall at all
- (20) Would you like to remarry?
1. Yes, it's most important to me
 2. Yes, it's very important to me
 3. Yes, it's fairly important to me
 4. Yes, but it is not very important to me
 5. Maybe
 6. Probably not
 7. Definitely not
- (21) What percent of your family's income comes from child support and/or maintenance payments? (circle)
- 0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%
- Not applicable _____
- (22) How satisfied are you with the financial contributions of your ex-spouse?
0. Not applicable
 1. Very dissatisfied
 2. Somewhat dissatisfied
 3. Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
 4. Somewhat satisfied
 5. Very satisfied

IF YOU ARE CURRENTLY MARRIED, ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS. OTHERWISE, SKIP TO QUESTION (28).

(23) Is your spouse currently employed? ___Yes ___No (Skip to Question (26))

(24) What type of work does your spouse do?

(25) On the average, how many hours a week does your spouse work? _____ hrs/p/wk

(26) All in all, how happy are you with your marriage these days?
Would you say you are:

1. Unhappy 4. Very happy
2. Not too happy 5. Extremely happy
3. Pretty happy

(27) Your spouse's educational background:

1. Some high school 4. College degree
2. High school graduate 5. Some graduate work
3. Some college 6. Advanced degree
Which? _____

(28)

Listed below are statements that may or may not describe how you feel about your work. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the letter that best describes your feelings:

SD=Strongly disagree D=Disagree N=Not sure, or "so-so" A=Agree SA=Strongly agree

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NOT SURE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1. My work schedule often conflicts with my family life.	SD	D	N	A	SA
2. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.	SD	D	N	A	SA
3. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.	SD	D	N	A	SA
4. My family dislikes how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.	SD	D	N	A	SA
5. Because my work is demanding, at times I am irritable at home.	SD	D	N	A	SA
6. The demands of my job make it difficult to be relaxed all the time at home.	SD	D	N	A	SA
7. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with my family.	SD	D	N	A	SA
8. My job makes it difficult to be the kind of parent I'd like to be.	SD	D	N	A	SA
9. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.	SD	D	N	A	SA
10. I have other activities more important than my work.	SD	D	N	A	SA
11. Most of my real interests are centered outside of my job.	SD	D	N	A	SA
12. I am very much involved personally in my work.	SD	D	N	A	SA
13. Most things in life are more important than work.	SD	D	N	A	SA

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NOT SURE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
14. I used to care more about my work, but now other things are more important to me.	SD	D	N	A	SA
15. I work because I have to, not because I really want to.	SD	D	N	A	SA
16. I would probably keep on working even if I didn't need the money.	SD	D	N	A	SA
17. My work is one of the most important aspects of my life.	SD	D	N	A	SA
18. I would be "lost" without my work.	SD	D	N	A	SA
19. I used to be more concerned with other activities, but now my work is more important to me.	SD	D	N	A	SA
20. Most of my time and energy is willingly devoted to my work.	SD	D	N	A	SA
21. My job is merely a means to other more important ends.	SD	D	N	A	SA
22. The best description of who I am would be based on the job I have.	SD	D	N	A	SA
23. Non-work activities occupy a great deal of my time and energy.	SD	D	N	A	SA

(29) How many days have you been absent from work during the past 6 months?

_____ days

(30) How many days have you been late to work during the past 6 months?

_____ days

(31) Do you think your superiors at work consider you as:

- | | |
|------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Below average | 3. Somewhat above average |
| 2. About average | 4. Much above average |

(32) Have any of your children been diagnosed as being in need of special care or attention due to a physical, emotional or educational handicap or illness?

1. No
2. Yes (briefly explain) _____

(33) How happy do you believe your child(ren) to be, on the average?

- | | |
|------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Unhappy | 4. Very happy |
| 2. Not too happy | 5. Extremely happy |
| 3. Pretty happy | |

(34) On the average, compared to other families you know, how good a relationship do you and your child(ren) have with each other?

- | | |
|---------|--------------|
| 1. Poor | 4. Very good |
| 2. Fair | 5. Excellent |
| 3. Good | |

(35) If you had to do it all over again, would you be a parent?

- | | |
|-----------------|--------------------|
| 1. No | 4. Probably yes |
| 2. Probably not | 5. Yes, definitely |
| 3. Not sure | |

(36) What is the likelihood that you will leave your current job within the next year?

1. Very likely 2. Somewhat likely 3. Not very likely

IF YOU CIRCLED "NOT VERY LIKELY", SKIP TO QUESTION (39). OTHERWISE, PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTION.

(37) People plan to leave their jobs for many different reasons. Below are nine possible reasons a person might have for changing jobs. Please indicate how important each is to you at this time.

	NOT IMPORTANT	SLIGHTLY IMPORTANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT	MOST IMPORTANT
1. To do more interesting work	0	1	2	3	4
2. To have a better chance of promotion	0	1	2	3	4
3. To have a more convenient work schedule	0	1	2	3	4
4. To make more money	0	1	2	3	4
5. To be closer to home	0	1	2	3	4
6. To have more job security	0	1	2	3	4
7. To have more freedom to decide how to do the work.	0	1	2	3	4
8. To have more time for family activities	0	1	2	3	4
9. To have more opportunity to learn and develop my abilities.	0	1	2	3	4

(38) Have you voluntarily changed jobs within the last two years? ____yes ____no

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTION ONLY IF YOU CHECKED "YES" TO THE PREVIOUS QUESTION. OTHERWISE, GO TO QUESTION (40)

(39) People have changed jobs for many different reasons. Below are nine possible reasons a person might have for changing jobs. Please indicate how important each was to you.

	NOT IMPORTANT	SLIGHTLY IMPORTANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT	MOST IMPORTANT
1. To do more interesting work	0	1	2	3	4
2. To have a better chance of promotion	0	1	2	3	4
3. To have a more convenient work schedule	0	1	2	3	4
4. To make more money	0	1	2	3	4
5. To be closer to home	0	1	2	3	4
6. To have more job security	0	1	2	3	4
7. To have more freedom to decide how to do the work.	0	1	2	3	4
8. To have more time for family activities	0	1	2	3	4
9. To have more opportunity to learn and develop my abilities.	0	1	2	3	4

(40) Is your total family income enough for you to meet your usual monthly expenses and bills?

1. Yes, I always have enough to meet monthly expenses
2. I usually have enough to meet monthly expenses
3. It's a bit difficult, but we somehow manage
4. It's usually very difficult to meet my monthly bills and expenses
5. I cannot meet my monthly expenses with any regularity

(41) Is your total family income enough so that you are generally satisfied with your life style?

1. I am very satisfied with my life style
2. I am satisfied with my life style
3. I am not too satisfied with my life style
4. I am a bit dissatisfied with my life style
5. I am totally dissatisfied with my life style

(42) Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days. Would you say you are:

- | | |
|------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Unhappy | 4. Very happy |
| 2. Not too happy | 5. Extremely happy |
| 3. Pretty happy | |

(43) Educational background

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Some high school | 4. College degree |
| 2. High school graduate | 5. Some graduate work |
| 3. Some college | 6. Graduate degree |
| Which? _____ | |

(44) What is your age?

_____ years

(45) What do you consider to be your ethnic or racial heritage?

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------------|
| 1. Black | 3. Oriental |
| 2. White | 4. Hispanic |
| 5. Other (specify) _____ | |

(46) What is your family's total before tax annual income from all sources? Include income from your work, from any other family member's work, from any assets owned, from child support and alimony payments, from government benefits, etc.

- | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Less than \$5,000 | 5. \$20,000 to \$24,999 | 9. \$40,000 to \$49,999 | 13. \$80,000 to \$89,999 |
| 2. \$5,000 to \$9,999 | 6. \$25,000 to 29,999 | 10. \$50,000 to \$59,999 | 14. \$90,000 to \$99,999 |
| 3. \$10,000 to \$14,999 | 7. \$30,000 to \$34,999 | 11. \$60,000 to \$69,999 | 15. \$100,000 or more |
| 4. \$15,000 to \$19,999 | 8. \$35,000 to \$39,999 | 12. \$70,000 to \$79,999 | |

(47) What percent of your family's income comes from your paid work? (circle)

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

(48)

How does the work that needs to be done at home get carried out? Below is a list of household tasks. For each one, please tell us who, of the persons listed BELOW each task, usually takes care of it. Please check only ONE of the possible answers for each task, UNLESS THAT TASK IS USUALLY SHARED EQUALLY BY TWO OR MORE PEOPLE. If the task IS SHARED EQUALLY, CHECK ALL ANSWERS THAT APPLY.

1. Preparing meals

___ Myself	___ Relative or friend who lives with me
___ Spouse	___ Relative, not living with me
___ Child	___ Neighbor or friend
___ Hired help	___ Not applicable

2. Laundry

___ Myself	___ Relative or friend who lives with me
___ Spouse	___ Relative, not living with me
___ Child	___ Neighbor or friend
___ Hired help	___ Not applicable

3. Minor household repairs

___ Myself ___ Relative or friend who lives with me
 ___ Spouse ___ Relative, not living with me
 ___ Child ___ Neighbor or friend
 ___ Hired help ___ Not applicable

4. Drive children to lessons and social events

___ Myself ___ Relative or friend who lives with me
 ___ Spouse ___ Relative, not living with me
 ___ Child ___ Neighbor or friend
 ___ Hired help ___ Not applicable

5. Clean up after meals

___ Myself ___ Relative or friend who lives with me
 ___ Spouse ___ Relative, not living with me
 ___ Child ___ Neighbor or friend
 ___ Hired help ___ Not applicable

6. Take care of sick child on work days

___ Myself ___ Relative or friend who lives with me
 ___ Spouse ___ Relative, not living with me
 ___ Child ___ Neighbor or friend
 ___ Hired help ___ Not applicable

7. Grocery shopping

___ Myself ___ Relative or friend who lives with me
 ___ Spouse ___ Relative, not living with me
 ___ Child ___ Neighbor or friend
 ___ Hired help ___ Not applicable

8. General housecleaning chores

___ Myself ___ Relative or friend who lives with me
 ___ Spouse ___ Relative, not living with me
 ___ Child ___ Neighbor or friend
 ___ Hired help ___ Not applicable

(49)

Listed below are statements that say or say not describe how you feel about your life. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the letter that best describes your feelings:

SD=Strongly disagree D=Disagree N=Not sure, or "noise" A=Agree SA=Strongly agree

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NOT SURE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1. Because of my family responsibilities, I come to work too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.	SD	D	N	A	SA
2. At home I have so much to take care of that it takes away from my work interests.	SD	D	N	A	SA
3. My employer dislikes how often I am preoccupied with my family when I am at work.	SD	D	N	A	SA
4. Because my family responsibilities are demanding, at times I am irritable at work.	SD	D	N	A	SA
5. The demands of my family make it difficult for me to be attentive all the time I am at work.	SD	D	N	A	SA
6. My family takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.	SD	D	N	A	SA

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP

ENTER PRIVATE 6-DIGIT CODE HERE _ _ _ _ _

SUPERVISOR'S PERCEPTIONS FORM

The person who submitted this form to you is participating in a study of the effects of different life and work situations on individuals in the work force. It is useful, in this kind of research, to obtain some perceptions from others in the respondent's life. Therefore, as the respondent's immediate supervisor, I would like your perceptions of the respondent's current work performance.

In answering the following questions, please think of the respondent's work over the past six months only. The information you give us will be used only for research purposes, and it is important that your answers are completely honest.

Please be assured that your answers will remain totally confidential. The code number at the top of the page was entered by the respondent to protect his or her anonymity, and is solely for use by the researchers in order to pair your form with that of the respondent's. The researchers are the only persons who will see this completed form. A stamped return-addressed envelope is attached, in order to insure this confidentiality.

Please complete and return this form within 10 days.

Thank you very much.

Sara R. Mahler

- 1) During the past 6 months at work, has the respondent done something particularly well at his/her job, &/or performed above and beyond what is generally expected?
 - a. No, never.
 - b. Once or twice only.
 - c. Sometimes - say, once a month, or has had a particularly successful few days.
 - d. Frequently - to the point where most of the time I expect superior performance from the respondent.

- 2) During the past 6 months at work, has the respondent done something particularly poorly at his/her job? (For example, failed to live up to a commitment or a deadline, or made some fairly serious mistake.)
 - a. No, never.
 - b. Once or twice only.
 - c. A few times - say, once every month or two, or had a few bad days.
 - d. Periodically - seems to be having (or recently had) a particularly bad period at work.

- 3) If you had a promotion to offer that the respondent was administratively qualified for, how high on your list of preferred candidates would he or she be?
- a. First on list (very top of list).
 - b. Second on list.
 - c. Lower than second choice but not near bottom.
 - d. Near bottom of list.
- 4) During the past 6 months, how many days has the respondent been absent from work? _____ days
- 5) During the past 6 months, how many days has the respondent been late for work? _____ days
- 6) If you had a training program for promising employees, so that they could be developed for more responsible positions, and could choose only one employee to attend, would the respondent be your:
- a. First choice
 - b. Second choice
 - c. Lower than second choice.
 - d. Wouldn't consider respondent for this program.
- 7) Would you re-hire this person?
- a. Yes, definitely.
 - b. Probably yes.
 - c. Can't decide, or maybe.
 - d. Probably no.

APPENDIX B

SCALE ITEMS AND SCALE DIMENSIONS

LISTING OF TRAITS CONTAINED IN THE EXTENDED PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES
QUESTIONNAIRE (Spence, Helmreich & Holahan, 1979)

AGENCY

COMMUNION

SOCIALLY DESIRABLE TRAITS

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| 1. Independent | 1. Emotional |
| 2. Active | 2. Able to devote self completely to others |
| 3. Competitive | 3. Gentle |
| 4. Can make decisions easily | 4. Very helpful to others |
| 5. Never gives up easily | 5. Kind |
| 6. Self-confident | 6. Aware of the feelings of others |
| 7. Feels very superior | 7. Understanding of others |
| 8. Stands up well under pressure | 8. Warm in relations with others |

(Bi-polar traits)

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 9. Aggressive | 9. Not aggressive |
| 10. Dominant | 10. Submissive |
| 11. Not excitable in MAJOR crisis | 11. Excitable in MAJOR crisis |
| 12. Worldly | 12. Home oriented |
| 13. Indifferent to others' approval | 13. Needful of others' approval |
| 14. Feelings not easily hurt | 14. Feelings easily hurt |
| 15. Never cries | 15. Cries easily |
| 16. Little need for security | 16. Strong need for security |

SOCIALLY UNDESIRABLE TRAITS

(Unmitigated Agency)

(Unmitigated Communion)

- | | |
|-----------------|---------------------------------|
| 17. Arrogant | 17. Spineless |
| 18. Boastful | 18. Servile |
| 19. Egotistical | 19. Gullible |
| 20. Greedy | 20. Subordinates self to others |

(Verbal Passive-Aggressiveness)

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|
| 21. Dictatorial | 21. Whiney |
| 22. Cynical | 22. Complaining |
| 23. Looks out only for self | 23. Fussy |
| 24. Hostile | 24. Nagging |

DIMENSIONS OF VALUED JOB CHARACTERISTICS SCALES

Intrinsic: Interesting work

Freedom to decide how to do the work

Opportunity to learn and develop abilities

Extrinsic: Good pay

Job security

Good chance for promotion

Convenience: Enough time left for family activities

Reasonably close to home

Convenient work schedule

WORK INVOLVEMENT-ALIENATION SCALE
(Lefkowitz & Somers, 1982)

1. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.
2. I have other activities more important than my work.
3. Most of my real interests are centered outside of my job.
4. I am very much involved personally in my work.
5. Most things in life are more important than work.
6. I used to care more about my work, but now other things are more important to me.
7. I work because I have to, not because I really want to.
8. I would probably keep on working even if I didn't need the money.
9. My work is one of the most important aspects of my life.
10. I would be "lost" without my work.
11. I used to be more concerned with other activities, but now my work is more important to me.
12. Most of my time and energy is willingly devoted to my work.
13. My job is merely a means to other more important ends.
14. The best description of who I am would be based on the job I have.
15. Non-work activities occupy a great deal of my time and energy.

INTERROLE CONFLICT SCALE

A. WORK INTERFERENCE ON FAMILY LIFE (Kopelman, Greenhaus & Connolly, 1983)

1. My work schedule often conflicts with my family life.
2. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.
3. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.
4. My family dislikes how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.
5. Because my work is demanding, at times I am irritable at home.
6. The demands of my job make it difficult to be relaxed all the time at home.
7. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with my family.
8. My job makes it difficult to be the kind of spouse or parent I'd like to be.

B. FAMILY INTERFERENCE ON WORK (suggested extension)

1. Because of my family responsibilities, I come to work too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.
2. At home I have so much to take care of that it takes away from my work interests.
3. My employer dislikes how often I am preoccupied with my family when I am at work.
4. Because my family responsibilities are demanding, at times I am irritable at work.
5. The demands of my family make it difficult for me to be attentive all the time I am at work.
6. My family takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.

OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION (U.S. Bureau of the
Census, 1980c)

- I. MANAGERIAL AND PROFESSIONAL SPECIALTY OCCUPATIONS
 - 1. Executive, administrative and managerial
 - 2. Professional specialty
- II. TECHNICAL, SALES AND ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT
 - 3. Technicians and related support
 - 4. Sales
 - 5. Administrative support, including clerical
- III. SERVICE OCCUPATIONS
 - 6. Private household
 - 7. Protective service
 - 8. Other service
- IV. FARMING, FORESTRY AND FISHING (9)
- V. PRECISION PRODUCTION, CRAFT AND REPAIR (10)
- VI. OPERATORS, FABRICATORS AND LABORERS
 - 11. Machine operators, assemblers, inspectors
 - 12. Transportation and material moving
 - 13. Handlers, equipment cleaners, helpers, laborers

APPENDIX C

RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS WITH OBLIQUE ROTATION OF THE TASK RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIORS SCALE

**TASK-RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR SCALE
RESULTS FROM FACTOR ANALYSIS WITH OBLIQUE ROTATION**

FACTOR 1: WARM AND OPEN RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION (REL+OB)

- r+ 8. Make sure my children can reach me anytime when I am at work.
- r+ 11. Make time to listen to members of my family when they have a problem.
- r+ 16. When worried about something, ask my family to help me.
- r+ 17. Find ways to build up the egos of my children.
- r+ 20. Be very honest with my family about how I feel.
- r+ 22. When one of my children seems troubled, try to get him or her to talk to me about it.

FACTOR 2: COMPULSIVE AGGRESSIVE TASK ORIENTATION (TASK-OB)

- n- 5. Nag my children about doing their chores.
- t- 10. Repeat an order to my children until they obey.
- n- 13. Scream at my children.
- r- 21. Lose sleep worrying about my children.
- n- 23. When I come home tired from work, fight with my family.
- t- 30. Run from early morning until I'm ready to drop in order to take care of everything that needs to be done.

FACTOR 3: INDEPENDENT-ACTIVE TASK ORIENTATION (TASK+OB)

- t+ 1. Keep working on a problem until it's solved.
- t+ 6. Look ahead, in order to avoid a potential crisis.
- t- 7. Do things myself, without help, as much as possible.
- t+ 26. Won't hesitate to do something unusual to solve a problem if I believe it will work.

FACTOR 4: ANXIOUSLY COMPLIANT RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION (REL-OB)

- r- 3. Avoid any discussion that may lead to an argument with my family
- r- 14. Panic when I find out one of my children is running a fever when I am at work.
- r- 15. Don't go out much because I feel my children need to be with me.
- r- 18. Always do things that my children want me to do for them.

FACTOR 5: ANALYTIC AND HELP-SEEKING ORIENTATION (NEUT+OB)

- n+ 4. When tired at home, take time out to relax and get some rest.
- t+ 9. Periodically re-assess my areas of strength and areas needing improvement.
- t+ 12. Seek advice from others when faced with a problem I can't solve.
- n+ 31. Join a self-help group.

ROTATED FACTOR MATRICES OBLIQUE ROTATION

	FACTOR	EIGENVALUE
DELTA =	0.0	
AFTER ROTATION		
FACTOR PATTERN		
	1	3.30753
	2	2.34642
	3	1.25590
	4	1.02649
	5	1.01422
	6	0.63737
	7	0.62976
	8	0.53534
	9	0.44671

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	FACTOR 5	FACTOR 6	FACTOR 7	FACTOR 8	FACTOR 9
T00	0.35721	-0.00461	-0.01940	-0.02321	-0.02022	-0.04206	0.02804	0.13270	0.07320
T01	0.61249	-0.09700	0.01107	0.01304	0.04400	0.10707	-0.03121	-0.00049	-0.10679
T016	0.30421	0.11033	0.32992	-0.02003	0.13797	0.13742	0.10160	0.02613	-0.00012
T017	0.51018	-0.00077	-0.04040	-0.22497	0.12063	-0.06720	0.00000	0.00000	0.00160
T019	0.02379	-0.03049	-0.04303	-0.01929	0.02749	0.03114	-0.01750	0.54342	0.01700
T020	0.57164	0.01053	-0.04321	-0.01929	-0.11353	0.00337	-0.10206	0.15940	-0.21160
T022	0.61253	0.00623	-0.05672	-0.00931	-0.15062	0.16659	0.06220	0.00001	0.02279
T029	0.07157	-0.10419	-0.12707	0.07705	0.01479	0.01150	0.00811	0.59973	-0.00046
T02	-0.15329	0.00044	-0.05703	-0.00734	-0.00970	-0.16633	-0.03340	-0.02372	-0.04331
T05	0.04496	0.03921	0.00797	0.13005	0.07534	0.07330	-0.10340	-0.00736	0.23136
T010	-0.02000	0.46322	-0.03714	-0.04000	0.04404	0.00000	-0.10346	-0.00740	0.01932
T013	-0.10977	0.66950	0.00307	-0.02720	-0.09706	-0.01643	-0.12111	-0.06433	-0.10370
T021	-0.09031	0.33012	-0.03170	-0.02996	-0.02006	0.02437	-0.09795	0.14339	-0.24003
T023	-0.05635	0.01690	-0.00732	0.02996	-0.00033	-0.10664	0.09719	0.00691	-0.16076
T01	0.26179	-0.00190	-0.09304	0.00629	0.16020	-0.00902	-0.03909	0.00060	0.02293
T06	0.13710	0.09114	-0.05401	-0.12043	0.09795	0.25016	-0.17062	-0.00745	-0.15700
T07	-0.03942	0.10207	-0.06824	-0.02372	-0.02079	0.00569	-0.09405	0.66200	0.02002
T09	0.15392	-0.11022	-0.17009	-0.02074	0.20303	0.01336	0.34310	0.15970	0.00111
T026	-0.01432	-0.06761	-0.45744	0.16479	0.00040	0.30033	0.09746	-0.29531	-0.19160
T04	0.02073	-0.13043	0.03017	0.09740	0.31516	0.10749	-0.12115	-0.17050	0.00745
T012	-0.13355	0.34070	0.11600	0.02901	-0.12152	-0.18240	0.28422	-0.05776	0.15031
T024	0.04064	0.32006	0.10901	-0.22996	-0.17163	-0.19145	-0.16534	0.32440	0.40917
T030	-0.04901	0.32006	-0.10901	-0.02042	0.04405	-0.09307	0.10440	0.01290	-0.06130
T031	-0.00970	0.04007	-0.10200	-0.02042	0.04405	-0.09307	0.10440	-0.03449	-0.17379
T016	0.05361	0.20740	0.06913	-0.32340	0.13979	-0.22492	-0.00476	0.00145	-0.05060
T018	0.14025	0.10614	-0.00340	-0.41020	-0.13000	-0.06340	-0.00405	-0.01040	-0.07061
T010	0.09076	-0.01957	-0.02373	-0.43900	-0.02339	-0.02033	0.02021	0.01993	-0.04513
T025	0.04095	0.01939	-0.10716	0.02346	0.02633	0.59704	0.09719	-0.03121	0.00331
T020	0.00169	0.01994	0.13963	-0.04571	-0.22049	0.52659	0.00670	0.10096	-0.09047

(CONT'G)

FACTOR CORRELATION

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	FACTOR 5	FACTOR 6	FACTOR 7	FACTOR 8	FACTOR 9
FACTOR 1	1.00000	-0.05901	-0.13126	-0.04768	0.11499	0.22195	-0.17962	0.37960	-0.11851
FACTOR 2	-0.05901	1.00000	0.05344	-0.12060	-0.04195	-0.21877	-0.13096	0.11980	-0.04563
FACTOR 3	-0.13126	0.05344	1.00000	0.03025	-0.09778	0.00099	0.07663	-0.22440	-0.02356
FACTOR 4	-0.04768	-0.12060	0.03025	1.00000	0.02964	0.07666	0.09924	-0.10769	0.04407
FACTOR 5	0.11499	-0.04195	-0.09778	0.02964	1.00000	0.06491	-0.13382	-0.00060	-0.10136
FACTOR 6	0.22195	-0.21877	0.00099	0.07666	0.06491	1.00000	-0.13241	0.06660	-0.10451
FACTOR 7	-0.17962	-0.13096	0.07663	0.09924	-0.13382	-0.13241	1.00000	-0.12774	-0.00336
FACTOR 8	0.37960	0.11980	-0.22440	-0.10769	-0.00060	0.06660	-0.12774	1.00000	-0.02253
FACTOR 9	-0.11851	-0.04563	-0.02356	0.04407	-0.10136	-0.10451	-0.00336	-0.02253	1.00000

FACTOR STRUCTURE

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	FACTOR 5	FACTOR 6	FACTOR 7	FACTOR 8	FACTOR 9
T00	0.30339	-0.00993	-0.09536	-0.04958	-0.00000	0.03901	-0.04622	0.26337	0.03321
T01	0.04407	-0.10263	-0.07699	-0.00464	0.14082	0.24992	-0.14679	0.22672	-0.10097
T06	0.34437	0.11326	0.26330	-0.07966	0.10704	0.20433	-0.23775	0.12391	-0.07680
T07	0.35005	-0.07910	-0.16370	-0.27183	0.16787	0.06720	-0.06663	0.26996	-0.06634
T09	0.24043	0.02251	-0.07009	-0.04607	0.07508	0.10874	-0.09920	0.54137	-0.00460
T20	0.07676	0.02773	-0.00307	0.12539	-0.01645	0.16110	-0.24376	0.30632	-0.23218
T22	0.04601	-0.04632	-0.13723	-0.01217	-0.07812	0.20029	-0.06213	0.29069	-0.03731
T29	0.31181	-0.05322	-0.26385	0.01615	0.04456	0.09576	-0.06067	0.59634	-0.09409
T32	-0.09186	0.23397	-0.07115	-0.00792	-0.04253	-0.13710	-0.00867	0.01331	0.02409
T35	-0.02534	0.30772	0.04308	0.00137	0.00344	-0.06291	-0.20507	-0.00070	0.19973
T010	0.10137	0.05319	-0.03304	-0.10070	0.04053	0.01713	-0.21609	0.10099	-0.02072
T013	-0.10000	0.06780	0.01197	-0.09288	0.05971	-0.19281	-0.03659	-0.04671	-0.10370
T021	0.03471	0.02636	-0.04163	-0.26967	-0.04504	-0.05796	-0.17122	0.21136	-0.27750
T023	-0.10997	0.10040	0.01969	-0.03770	-0.02131	-0.22026	0.05713	0.00340	-0.17335
T04	0.31045	0.05062	-0.06076	-0.16436	0.21362	-0.01235	-0.11634	0.19604	-0.00308
T07	0.04066	0.10096	-0.09996	-0.06382	-0.03621	-0.01630	-0.14547	0.10208	0.06326
T09	0.23275	-0.07322	-0.20062	-0.05569	0.12500	0.14156	-0.43022	0.20078	0.04119
T026	0.33275	-0.15008	-0.52161	0.11600	0.12197	0.40729	-0.02276	0.40176	0.02633
T04	0.03239	-0.20600	0.06921	0.10097	0.37110	0.24506	-0.12115	-0.20082	-0.20534
T012	0.10034	0.10007	0.17009	0.03111	0.49360	0.06760	-0.24036	0.10455	-0.01754
T026	-0.30978	0.34609	-0.10776	-0.02572	-0.21657	-0.33230	0.20719	-0.14371	0.16369
T031	-0.05252	0.05725	-0.10424	-0.01609	0.44696	-0.11492	0.04931	-0.00630	-0.10106
T03	-0.27021	-0.09030	0.09932	-0.54401	0.01190	0.11300	-0.10711	-0.10991	0.16306
T014	0.09991	0.33110	0.04708	-0.40979	0.15015	-0.26237	-0.07634	0.10124	-0.52030
T015	0.13376	0.16005	-0.01953	-0.44578	-0.14992	-0.00030	-0.06005	0.09904	-0.12337
T018	0.12207	0.03160	-0.00115	-0.40003	0.02306	-0.03700	-0.03709	0.10232	-0.09276
T025	0.14066	-0.15004	-0.10477	0.00106	0.06191	0.59737	-0.00491	0.04479	0.06336
T020	0.12150	-0.05537	0.13070	-0.02611	-0.20360	0.51333	-0.14130	0.11460	-0.00330

APPENDIX D
DEVELOPMENT OF THE TASK AND RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION
DAY-TO-DAY BEHAVIORS SCALE

INITIAL ITEM POOL FOR TASK AND RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION
DAY-TO-DAY BEHAVIOR SCALE

1. In setting up household routines, I usually have the final say with members of my family.
2. When I am asked to stay later at work than usual, I do as I am asked.
3. Upon coming home from work, I usually take at least 20 minutes for myself to be alone and unwind.
4. If my child is supposed to make his or her own lunch and doesn't, I usually step in and make it for him or her.
5. I limit my household responsibilities to those that were previously agreed upon.
6. When my child disobeys me about something very important, I blow my stack.
7. At work, if I am irritated, I have a friend who I usually talk to who helps calm me down.
8. If something upsets me at work, I work harder to get the problem out of my system.
9. When I am upset at work, I find a way to "hide out" for a while until I feel better.
10. If I believe too many demands are being made on me at work, I discuss this with my boss.
11. At work, in order to lower tension, I do as little as I can get away with.
12. I have found that, at my job, the more I demand things for myself, the more I get for myself.
13. At work, if I am told to do something that I disagree with, I do as I am told.
14. I have found that it pays off to go to my boss with ideas for improving working conditions for myself.
15. If I am frustrated or irritable at work, I find a way to give myself some kind of "treat".
16. I generally keep my problems to myself.
17. My coworkers talk to me about their problems.
18. When I am angry with someone at work, I manage to find an appropriate way to discuss the problem with the other person.
19. At work, I know how far I can push another person without getting into trouble, and I push to just before that point in order to get what I want.
20. I generally look ahead, in order to avoid a potential crisis.
21. At work, if I am reprimanded, I feel like crying.
22. At work, I just "roll with the punches".
23. At home, I put my oldest child "in charge" when I am at work.
24. I consciously look for ways to build up the egos of my children.
25. I tend to be very honest with my family about how I feel.
26. I show a lot of physical affection to my family.

27. When I give an instruction to my child, I always like to explain why.
28. I give my children freedom to learn from their own mistakes
29. During the time I am at work, I call home several times to make sure everything is alright.
30. I make sure that my children can reach me at any time when I am at work.
31. I do regular exercise to relieve tension and to keep myself in good physical shape.
32. I have other important activities besides my work and my family, such as going to school or a hobby I regularly pursue.
33. I generally take as much personal time off from work to tend to important family matters as I need.
34. At home, if things are not running smoothly, I usually initiate a discussion about it.
35. At home, if things are not going well, I take it as my responsibility to smooth things out.
36. At home, we seem to have just naturally fallen into a division of household responsibilities without any real setting up of chores.
37. If I find out that my child is running a high fever when I am at work, I panic.
38. I have a clear set of priorities about which family situations would require me to leave my work, and which I can safely ignore until I normally get home.
39. I normally take charge of establishing family routines.
40. If my child doesn't like a rule I have laid down, I discuss it with him or her and try to negotiate something acceptable to both of us.
41. On days when I come home tired from work, I find myself fighting with my family.
42. If I become angry with someone at home, that person is sure to know about it.
43. At home, I avoid arguments as much as possible.
44. I always try to do things that my children want me to do for them.
45. When some small task comes up at home that I didn't expect - like filling out a permission slip for my child's school - I take care of it with annoyance.
46. If some family situation occurs in the morning that may make me late for work, I usually handle it calmly and simply get to work as soon as I can.
47. I have given my children clear responsibilities for household tasks.
48. If one of my children has not fulfilled an assigned responsibility, he or she suffers the consequences of it.
49. If I am worried about something, I usually ask my family to help me.
50. If my child repeatedly does not obey a certain rule, I tend to change the rule.

51. We hold regular family meetings to discuss conflicts regarding household duties.
52. I usually take on the responsibility for those household chores that no one else wants to do.
53. I actively negotiate my vacation time from work so that it corresponds to my children's school vacations as much as possible.
54. In emergencies, I have been known to take my child to work with me.
55. I rarely go into my child's room because it is such a disaster area
56. I usually find myself running from early morning till I'm ready to drop in order to take care of everything that needs to be done.
57. When I am tired at home, I usually manage to take some time out to do something to relax or get some rest.
58. Especially when I am tense, I pray for guidance and strength.
59. I have lowered some standards around the home.
60. When there is a lot to do, and not enough time to do it, I try to do at least a little bit on everything.
61. When faced with a problem that I can't solve, I seek advice from others.
62. I have lowered some standards about what I expect from myself at work.
63. If I have a lot to do at home, but am very tired, I request help
64. At home, when I am troubled, I keep my feelings to myself and go on as usual.
65. At home, I solicit agreement from my family on plans that I make for myself.
66. I ignore many conflicts that occur at home.
67. When something is important to my child - like going to see him or her perform in a school play - I always do it, no matter how busy I am or how tired I may be.
68. When there is a conflict at home, I wait for someone else to open discussion about it.
69. I prefer to avoid any discussion that may lead to an argument with my family.
70. I prefer to avoid any discussion that may lead to an argument at work.
71. When I have a problem, I usually prefer to figure out what to do on my own.
72. If one of my children seems troubled, I try to get him or her to talk about it with me.
73. If my schedule starts to get out of hand, I establish a new routine that I can handle, and stick to it.
74. If one of my coworkers seems upset, I ask if there is something I can do to help.

75. On days when my boss is being particularly difficult, I try to be extra nice.
76. When my boss puts a lot of pressure on me, I figure he or she is under pressure too, and I work extra hard.
77. When I feel tense, especially when I come home from work, I take a drink to help me relax.
78. If I have a problem, and it's been a long day, I give myself a good night's sleep before I try to tackle it.
79. I have lost a lot of sleep worrying about my children.
80. If I've had a bad day at work, I am usually irritable at home.
81. I am always seeking advice on how to manage my life better.
82. I try to do special things for my family to make up for the time I spend at work.
83. We use paper plates and call in for food a lot, so that there will be less housework in the evening.
84. I make sure to take my kids out to dinner once a week, so that we have a chance to talk in a place where we will be reluctant to start yelling at each other.
85. At work, I try to show the people that I work with that I care about them.
86. At work, I speak out if something is strongly against my beliefs and ethics.
87. I am very careful to not be critical of anyone that I work with.
88. At home, if I feel I have been treated unfairly, I complain.
89. If someone in my family is in a bad mood, I try to be as understanding as possible.
90. If my child is acting badly, I usually give him or her some extra attention.
91. At home, I always watch for others' reactions to what I do.
92. At work, when I have completed some task, I usually ask if it was O.K.
93. At home, when I complete some activity, like cooking dinner, or fixing something that was broken, I ask if my family liked what I did.
94. At home, I explain what I am doing for others' benefit.
95. I meditate to relax.
96. When I feel tired and overworked, I complain to my family that I have too much to do.
97. I spend time griping with my coworkers.
98. I keep to my routine, no matter what.
99. If I am criticized at work, I get defensive.
100. I don't let my children tell me what to do.
101. I scream at my children a lot.
102. At the end of a bad day, I usually go to my room and cry.
103. If I am upset, I usually talk about it with someone I can trust.
104. I make a point of going out with friends fairly frequently.
105. I have gotten involved in activities for self improvement.

106. I don't go out much because I feel my children need to be with me.
107. Every spare minute that I have is devoted to either my job or to doing things for my family.
108. I will repeat an order to my children until they obey.
109. I listen patiently to my family when they are talking about their day.
110. I always ask my family how their day went as soon as I get home.
111. If my boss looks like he or she is having a bad day, I ask if I can help out in any way at work.
112. If someone I work with is in a bad mood, I do my best to avoid that person for the time being.
113. If someone in my family is in a bad mood, I leave him or her alone.
114. I have joined a self-help group.
115. I threaten my children with punishment if they don't do what I say.
116. I impulsively tell people what I feel at work.
117. I don't hide my feelings from my family.
118. I get upset when I think I've made a mistake in anything.
119. I have asked someone at work to cover for me when I am feeling particularly tense.
120. When my children have disobeyed, I spank them.
121. I enlist the support of my family and friends to help me through rough spots.
122. At work, when I am asked to do more than I think I can handle, I try my best to do it .
123. I try to live up to the expectations that my employer has of me.
124. I try to live up to the expectations that my family has of me.
125. When I am angry at my boss, I sneakily do something that I know is wrong, to get back at him or her.
126. I give my children a lot of responsibility .
127. I put off making decisions for as long as possible.
128. When a decision has to be made that affects others in my family, I tend to take charge.
129. I do my best not to make decisions that will make others in my family unhappy.
130. At work, I do what I believe needs to be done, regardless of how my coworkers or subordinates might feel.
131. I encourage my subordinates to give me suggestions.
132. I do not take on extra jobs at work.
133. When it is my turn to do the car pool for my child, I complain about it but do it anyway.
134. I don't have any set schedule at home, but rather take care of things as they come up.
135. Every so often, I take a "sick day" off from work just to catch up with household chores.

- 136. I get as much help with the household and childcare as I can afford, or can beg.
- 137. I help my children with their homework, even if I have work to do.
- 138. I work hard in order to get promoted.
- 139. I try to impress influential people at work.
- 140. I feel guilty because I am out of the house so much, so I tend to give in to my children.
- 141. I make sure to be on good terms with my neighbors so I can ask them to mind my children in a pinch.
- 142. My neighbors know that they can count on me to help them out should they be in need.
- 143. I make time to listen to members of my family when they have a problem.
- 144. I make myself available to a friend who is in trouble.
- 145. I make sure that no one else in the house does less housework than I do.
- 146. I am a sucker for a child who is crying.
- 147. I get angry if someone in my family misplaces anything of mine.
- 148. I check up on my children to make sure they are where they said they would be.
- 149. I periodically re-assess my areas of strength and areas needing improvement.
- 150. I am open with my family about conflicting demands on my time.
- 151. I tend to brag about my accomplishments.
- 152. I talk a lot about myself.
- 153. I'm willing to admit it when I make a mistake.
- 154. I don't hesitate to do something unusual to solve a problem if I believe it will work.
- 155. At work, I openly take a stand for what I believe.
- 156. I'm able to say "no" to my boss.
- 157. I act on instinct.
- 158. I don't like to admit when I've made a mistake.
- 159. I don't hesitate to put out on a limb for something I want.
- 160. At home, I openly take a stand for what I believe.
- 161. I'm able to say "no" to my family.
- 162. I don't act friendly to people I don't like.
- 163. I tell a "white lie" to get what I want.
- 164. I don't interrupt when someone is speaking.
- 165. If someone at work insults me, I insult back.
- 166. I tend to put off making decisions.
- 167. I tell a "white lie" to avoid hurting someone's feelings.
- 168. I am openly critical of my co-workers.
- 169. I prefer to do things myself, without help, as much as possible.
- 170. I nag my children a lot about doing their chores.
- 171. I spend a lot of time "picking up" after my family.

- 172 I am openly critical of others in my family.
- 173 I make a commitment to do something just to please my family.
- 174 When I'm involved in something interesting, I don't let my family interrupt me.
- 175 At work, I set limits on the interruptions that I will tolerate.
- 176 On weekends, I agree to what my family would like to do.
- 177 I am very open with expressions of verbal affection for members of my family.
- 178 At work, I make sure to compliment others for a job well done.
- 179 At home, I make sure to compliment my children when they have done something well.
- 180 If I don't get my way, I get angry.
- 181 I don't lose my temper, no matter what, when I'm at work.
- 182 In a disagreement, I am able to see the other person's point of view, and let them know this.
- 183 I do my best not to lose an argument at work.
- 184 I do my best not to lose an argument at home.
- 185 I rarely lose my temper at home, no matter what.
- 186 I ask my children if they love me.
- 187 I keep working on a problem until it is solved.
- 188 When things get tough, I just "roll with the punches".
- 189 If my boss asks me to take on extra work, it is very difficult for me to refuse.
- 190 I get upset if things are out of place in my home.
- 191 It is very difficult for me to refuse to do someone a favor when asked.
- 192 At work, if I am criticized, it just rolls off my back.
- 193 I tend to change my mind about decisions I make.
- 194 I stick up for my kids.
- 195 Once I make up my mind about something, that decision stands.
- 196 At work, I keep up a pleasant front, no matter how I feel.
- 197 At home, I keep up a pleasant front, no matter how I feel.
- 198 At home, I seem to get talked into things I don't want to.
- 199 I'll buy something for my children before I'll buy something for myself.
- 200 At work, I point out when one of my coworkers has made a mistake.
- 201 I tend to be critical of my children.

PRE-TEST OF THE TASK AND RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION
DAY-TO-DAY BEHAVIORS SCALE:
RELIABILITIES OF THE SUBSCALES

TASK+

Alpha=.287

CORRELATION MATRIX

	TR2	TR7	TR11	TR15	TR19	TR21	TR34	TR38
TR2	1.00000							
TR7	0.57338	1.00000						
TR11	0.67374	0.45667	1.00000					
TR15	-0.12383	0.08639	0.31560	1.00000				
TR19	-0.37336	-0.37637	-0.32729	-0.68946	1.00000			
TR21	0.19481	-0.20988	0.24949	0.17159	0.04429	1.00000		
TR34	0.44364	0.37743	0.60048	-0.03869	0.08172	-0.10653	1.00000	
TR38	-0.02685	0.28098	0.33113	0.30745	-0.04489	-0.16156	0.25451	1.00000

TASK-

Alpha=-.28

CORRELATION MATRIX

	TR3	TR9	TR12	TR25	TR35	TR42
TR3	1.00000					
TR9	0.23986	1.00000				
TR12	-0.04505	0.00000	1.00000			
TR25	0.17978	-0.38659	-0.43120	1.00000		
TR35	-0.23288	-0.39977	-0.11262	0.35010	1.00000	
TR42	0.29661	0.61101	0.34427	-0.61466	-0.29661	1.00000

REL+

Alpha=.60
CORRELATION MATRIX

	TR1	TR8	TR10	TR13	TR23	TR24	TR26	TR29	TR32	TR36	TR41
TR1	1.00000										
TR8	0.43344	1.00000									
TR10	-0.16150	0.02329	1.00000								
TR13	0.54998	0.78314	0.22833	1.00000							
TR23	-0.11900	0.04456	0.30415	0.21935	1.00000						
TR24	0.04120	0.24183	0.17199	0.45360	0.40136	1.00000					
TR26	0.24723	-0.24183	-0.02831	-0.05696	-0.03000	-0.35326	1.00000				
TR29	-0.03322	-0.01378	0.30582	0.29215	0.54065	0.29995	0.63492	1.00000			
TR32	-0.30291	-0.27407	0.91000	-0.13376	0.37250	-0.01612	-0.26601	0.20672	1.00000		
TR36	0.04078	0.55351	0.03238	0.22478	-0.61908	-0.12462	-0.31155	-0.22490	-0.10016	1.00000	
TR41	0.25400	0.44721	0.00482	0.59521	0.0	0.32444	-0.16222	0.27735	-0.14907	0.30411	1.00000
TR44	-0.33314	-0.45663	0.78701	-0.20893	0.22660	-0.06214	-0.27618	0.14953	0.93058	-0.13075	-0.25338
TR41		TR44									
TR41	1.00000										
TR44	-0.25338	1.00000									

REL-

Alpha=.69

CORRELATION MATRIX

	TR4	TR16	TR18	TR20	TR27	TR30	TR39
TR4	1.00000						
TR16	0.41009	1.00000					
TR18	0.45495	0.17171	1.00000				
TR20	0.39026	-0.19553	0.32965	1.00000			
TR27	0.19110	0.63530	0.16162	0.20219	1.00000		
TR30	0.11452	0.19365	0.05441	0.12779	0.42274	1.00000	
TR39	0.60901	0.29311	0.42825	0.46422	0.67484	0.29515	1.00000

NEUT+

Alpha=.62

CORRELATION MATRIX

	TR5	TR14	TR20	TR37	TR40	TR43
TR5	1.00000					
TR14	0.29129	1.00000				
TR20	0.39686	-0.04129	1.00000			
TR37	0.47986	0.21965	0.30833	1.00000		
TR40	0.09366	0.01999	0.10847	0.06357	1.00000	
TR43	0.65479	-0.11677	0.35395	0.42322	0.39627	1.00000

NEUT-

Alpha=.33

CORRELATION MATRIX

	TR6	TR17	TR22	TR31	TR33	TR45
TR6	1.00000					
TR17	0.45453	1.00000				
TR22	-0.46956	0.42484	1.00000			
TR31	-0.15481	-0.46217	-0.37115	1.00000		
TR33	0.07001	0.33813	0.42448	-0.45227	1.00000	
TR45	0.36997	0.19492	-0.11215	-0.19312	0.38830	1.00000

APPENDIX E
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE VARIABLES
BY SEX AND MARITAL STATUS

SINGLE MOTHERS

VARIABLE	MEAN	SD	N
Number of children under 6	.51	.65	72
Number of children age 6 to 12	.56	.72	72
Number of children age 13 to 18	.49	.77	72
Total number of children home	1.56	.75	72
Work onto family conflict	2.59	.89	71
Work involvement	2.65	.68	71
Family onto work conflict	1.99	.63	72
Value for extrinsic rewards	14.98	4.71	62
Value for intrinsic rewards	14.4	4.3	62
Value for convenience facets	15.76	4.9	62
M-F	1.82	.53	72
M	2.56	.57	71
F	3.1	.52	71
M-	1.3	.59	70
F-c	1.5	.71	71
F-va	1.4	.61	72
Task+	2.08	.49	72
Task-	1.87	.53	72
Rel+	2.28	.37	72
Rel-	1.14	.48	72
Task+fac	2.23	.56	72
Task-fac	1.29	.56	72
Rel+fac	2.24	.42	72
Rel-fac	1.17	.51	72
Extended family	.54	.84	71
All children, including grown	2.19	1.58	72
Weekly hours of work	38.49	9.01	72
Daily commute, in minutes	47.29	38.48	72
Type of work	3.76	2.31	72
Self-reported work absence	5.58	14.51	72
Self-reported tardiness to work	3.87	15.17	70
Self evaluation of work performance	3.28	.63	64
Perceived happiness of children	3.46	.73	65
Quality relationship with children	3.85	.80	65
Would you marry again	4.42	.99	66
Self-perceived income sufficiency	3.29	1.11	72
Life style satisfaction	3.04	1.12	72
Life happiness	2.91	.66	72
Education	3.39	1.38	72
Age	36.80	6.82	69
Total family income	5.6	2.5	71
Percent from own paid employment	72.32	28.85	70
Sharing of household tasks	.49	.40	72
How long since marriage ended	3.90	3.23	65
Length of last marriage	10.32	6.89	65
% of income from child support	24.95	31.14	62
Performance evaluation-supervisor	3.64	.40	24
Times absent-supervisor	5.56	19.38	25
Times tardy-supervisor	.79	1.47	24

SINGLE FATHERS

VARIABLE	MEAN	SD	N
Number of children under 6	.44	.77	25
Number of children age 6 to 12	.52	.87	25
Number of children age 13 to 18	.60	.58	25
Total number of children home	1.56	.82	25
Work onto family conflict	2.16	.80	25
Work involvement	2.59	.71	25
Family onto work conflict	1.89	.51	25
Value for extrinsic rewards	17.95	4.94	20
Value for intrinsic rewards	15.33	4.79	21
Value for convenience facets	13.48	5.27	21
M-F	1.95	.55	25
M	2.76	.60	25
F	3.13	.51	25
M-	1.47	.67	25
F-c	1.33	.48	25
F-va	1.1	.55	25
Task+	2.07	.46	24
Task-	1.85	.50	25
Rel+	2.19	.37	23
Rel-	1.01	.44	24
Task+fac	2.40	.39	25
Task-fac	1.20	.40	24
Rel+fac	2.06	.52	24
Rel-fac	1.01	.52	24
Extended family	.76	1.13	25
All children, including grown	2.96	2.24	24
Weekly hours of work	43.92	5.82	25
Daily commute, in minutes	66.40	47.86	25
Type of work	4.36	3.41	25
Self-reported work absence	1.84	2.23	25
Self-reported tardiness to work	3.33	5.50	24
Self evaluation of work performance	3.27	.77	22
Perceived happiness of children	3.59	1.01	22
Quality relationship with children	3.91	1.04	23
Would you marry again	3.35	1.30	23
Self-perceived income sufficiency	3.76	1.27	25
Life style satisfaction	3.44	1.00	25
Life happiness	2.88	.73	25
Education	3.48	1.58	25
Age	39.58	6.50	24
Total family income	8.09	2.7	25
Percent from own paid employment	87.17	19.95	23
Sharing of household tasks	.62	.49	24
How long since marriage ended	3.91	2.97	23
Length of last marriage	9.39	5.12	25
Performance evaluation-supervisor	3.33	.61	3
Times absent-supervisor	5.33	4.16	3
Times tardy-supervisor	2.33	3.22	3

MARRIED MOTHERS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>
Number of children under 6	.82	.60	95
Number of children age 6 to 12	.37	.67	95
Number of children age 13 to 18	.37	.70	95
Total number of children home	1.59	.84	95
Work onto family conflict	2.62	.80	94
Work involvement	2.65	.59	94
Family onto work conflict	2.05	.74	95
Value for extrinsic rewards	12.19	4.43	90
Value for intrinsic rewards	15.62	4.86	89
Value for convenience facets	17.18	4.70	90
M-F	1.70	.52	95
M	2.54	.55	95
F	3.02	.53	95
M-	1.40	.59	95
F-c	1.59	.59	95
F-va	1.67	.659	95
Task+	1.95	.51	95
Task-	1.84	.52	95
Rel+	2.32	.39	91
Rel-	1.25	.47	94
Task+fac	2.16	.55	95
Task-fac	1.32	.43	93
Rel+fac	2.26	.46	94
Rel-fac	1.29	.52	94
Extended family	.27	.79	95
All children, including grown	1.99	1.49	95
Weekly hours of work	32.92	10.47	95
Daily commute, in minutes	54.99	40.77	95
Type of work	2.94	1.84	95
Self-reported work absence	3.56	4.82	95
Self-reported tardiness to work	6.90	21.51	88
Self evaluation of work performance	3.22	.70	85
Perceived happiness of children	3.74	.70	88
Quality relationship with children	4.16	.72	86
Would you marry again		N/A	
Self-perceived income sufficiency	4.22	1.03	95
Life style satisfaction	3.71	.99	94
Life happiness	3.24	.70	95
Education	4.11	1.64	95
Age	35.73	6.20	95
Total family income	10.30	2.62	95
Percent from own paid employment	35.55	19.08	95
Sharing of household tasks	.69	.33	94
Length of time married	10.97	6.32	95
Performance evaluation-supervisor	3.52	.64	29
Times absent-supervisor	4.03	4.15	29
Times tardy-supervisor	1.3	3.63	27

MARRIED FATHERS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>
Number of children under 6	.83	.70	53
Number of children age 6 to 12	.38	.56	53
Number of children age 13 to 18	.30	.54	53
Total number of children home	1.53	.61	53
Work onto family conflict	2.63	.93	53
Work involvement	2.72	.71	53
Family onto work conflict	1.71	.55	53
Value for extrinsic rewards	16.61	4.57	51
Value for intrinsic rewards	16.77	4.48	51
Value for convenience facets	11.96	3.92	51
M-F	2.00	.51	53
M	2.72	.50	53
F	2.78	.55	53
M-	1.62	.58	53
F-c	1.33	.59	53
F-va	1.41	.65	53
Task+	1.85	.47	53
Task-	1.65	.60	53
Rel+	2.09	.50	50
Rel-	1.12	.45	53
Task+fac	2.16	.49	53
Task-fac	1.09	.52	51
Rel+fac	2.03	.54	53
Rel-fac	1.15	.58	53
Extended family	.21	.53	53
All children, including grown	1.79	.95	53
Weekly hours of work	44.85	9.01	53
Daily commute, in minutes	71.50	45.22	53
Type of work	2.81	2.67	53
Self-reported work absence	3.08	5.22	52
Self-reported tardiness to work	7.69	21.66	49
Self evaluation of work performance	3.33	.63	48
Perceived happiness of children	3.90	.94	49
Quality relationship with children	4.27	.81	49
Would you marry again		N/A	
Self-perceived income sufficiency	4.36	.86	53
Life style satisfaction	3.58	.92	52
Life happiness	3.30	.80	53
Education	4.17	1.70	53
Age	36.98	6.83	52
Total family income	9.81	2.73	53
Percent from own paid employment	76.91	18.94	53
Sharing of household tasks	1.35	.36	53
Length of time married	11.57	6.79	53
Performance evaluation-supervisor	3.58	.59	12
Times absent-supervisor	3.29	2.49	14
Times tardy-supervisor	7.5	26.09	14

APPENDIX F
PEARSON CORRELATIONS BETWEEN AGENCY AND WELL-BEING,
ROLE PERFORMANCE AND INTERROLE CONFLICT FOR
MARRIED WORKING PARENTS

PART 1

PEARSON CORRELATIONS WITH POSITIVELY VALUED MEASURES OF AGENCY

A. ALL MARRIED PARENTS

	<u>MF</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>TASK+</u>	<u>TASK+FAC</u>
Life satisfaction	ns	ns	.22 a ** (146)	.16 b * (147)
Life happiness	ns	.18* (148) b	.28*** (147)	.24** (148)
Supervisor rating of work performance	ns	.26 (41)	.41** (41)	.44** (41)
Self rating of work performance	ns	.27** (133)	.38*** (133)	.33*** (133) b
Children's happiness	ns	ns	.18* (137)	.13 (137)
Relationship with children	.16* (135)	.27** (135)	.38*** (135)	.33*** (135)
Interrole conflict:				
Work onto family	.14* (147)	.18* (147)	ns	ns
Family onto work	ns	ns	ns	ns

a The one-tailed test of significance is used.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p <.05

** p <.01

B. MARRIED MOTHERS

	<u>MF</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>TASK+</u>	<u>TASK+FAC</u>
	<u>ns</u>	<u>ns</u>	<u>ns</u>	<u>ns</u>
Life satisfaction				
Life happiness	ns	ns	.27** (95)	.21* (95)
Supervisor rating of work performance	ns	b .28 (29)	.46** (29)	.52** (29)
Self rating of work performance		.25** (85)	.29** (85)	.32** (85)
Children's happiness	ns	ns	.34** (88)	.28** (88)
Relationship with children	.24* (86)	.38*** (86)	.38*** (86)	.36*** (86)
Interrole conflict:				
Work onto family	ns	ns	ns	ns
Family onto work	ns	ns	ns	ns

a The one-tailed test of significance is used.

b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p < .05

** p < .01

C. MARRIED FATHERS

	<u>MF</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>TASK+</u>	<u>TASK+FAC</u>
Life satisfaction	ns	ns	ns	ns
Life happiness	ns	.29* (53)	.30* (52)	.28* (53)
Supervisor rating of work performance	ns	ns	ns	ns
Self rating of work performance	ns	.26* (48)	ns	ns
Children's happiness	ns	ns	ns	ns
Relationship with children	ns	ns	.41** (49)	.30* (49)
Interrole conflict:				
Work onto family	ns	ns	ns	ns
Family onto work	ns	ns	ns	ns

- a The one-tailed test of significance is used.
b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

* p < .05
** p < .01

PEARSON CORRELATIONS WITH NEGATIVELY VALUED MEASURES OF AGENCY

A. ALL MARRIED PARENTS

	<u>M-</u>	<u>TASK-</u>	<u>TASK-FAC</u>
Life satisfaction	-.17* (147)	ns	ns
Life happiness	ns	.16* (148)	ns
Supervisor rating of work performance	ns	.24 ^b (41)	ns
Self rating of work performance	ns	ns	ns
Children's happiness	ns	ns	-.12 ^b (135)
Relationship with children	-.17* (135)	ns	-.24** (133)
Interrole conflict:			
Work onto family	.19* (147)	ns	.34*** (143)
Family onto work	.13 ^b (148)		.21** (144)

- a The one-tailed test of significance is used.
b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are significant at between .05 and .07.

- * p < .05
** p < .01

B. MARRIED MOTHERS

	<u>M-</u> <u>ns</u>	<u>TASK-</u> <u>ns</u>	<u>TASK-FAC</u> <u>ns</u>
Life satisfaction			
Life happiness	ns	ns	ns
Supervisor rating of work performance	ns	.35* (29)	ns
Self rating of work performance	ns	.20* (85)	ns
Children's happiness	ns	ns	ns
Relationship with children	ns	ns	-.26** (85)
Interrole conflict:			
Work onto family	ns	ns	.33** (92)
Family onto work	ns	ns	.24** (93)

- a The one-tailed test of significance is used.
b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are
significant at between .05 and .07.

* p <.05

** p <.01

C. MARRIED FATHERS

	<u>M-</u> ns	<u>TASK-</u> ns	<u>TASK-FAC</u> ns
Life satisfaction			
Life happiness	.43* (25)	ns	^b .22 (51)
Supervisor rating of work performance	ns	ns	ns
Self rating of work performance	ns	ns	ns
Children's happiness		ns	ns
Relationship with children	-.38** (49)	ns	
Interrole conflict:			
Work onto family	.30* (53)	ns	.38** (51)
Family onto work	.40** (53)	ns	ns

- a The one-tailed test of significance is used.
b Results "approach" significance; that is, they are
 significant at between .05 and .07.

- * p <.05
** p <.01

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