



ABSTRACT

As record numbers of women enter the paid labor force, more research attention is being directed at the factors predicting working women's satisfaction and stress at work. Still, little is known about women workers in skilled or semi-skilled blue-collar jobs. The present study examines the work and home characteristics of working women in clerical and blue-collar jobs, compares their levels of job satisfaction and job stress, and asks what elements of the work and home lives of these workers predict their satisfaction and stress at work.

Mail surveys were received from 405 clerical and 184 blue-collar (transit and construction) workers. More of the blue-collar workers were young, had received some college education, were single parents, and were non-white than were the clerical workers. Blue-collar workers were less satisfied and experienced more stress at work than did their clerical counterparts. However, for both groups, the most important predictor of job satisfaction was intrinsic job characteristics, e.g., feeling valued and not facing unreasonable demands. Good relationships with coworkers and extrinsic job factors also were important. An important finding was that the degree of satisfaction or stress these women experienced at home had an influence on their work well-being.

Findings are discussed in the context of the growing literature on working women's well-being and on the need for researchers to cross traditional work-home boundaries in studying occupational issues.

INTRODUCTION

In the past 30 years or so, women have entered the paid labor force in record numbers, with the number of working women doubling in that time (Haw, 1982). By 1985, 71% of all women between the ages of 20 and 44 were working outside the home. Women with children under 18 were no exception; 20 million or 62% also work outside the home (Women's Occupational Health Resource Center, 1988).

Until very recently, however, the growth in women's labor force participation was not reflected by the types of research studies conducted of job stress and satisfaction. Although this research has long been a popular topic in the social sciences (McIlwee, 1982; Mottaz, 1985), it has usually excluded women or failed to examine gender differences (Baruch, Biener, & Barnett, 1985; Haw, 1982). In 1982, for example, Haw counted six studies concerning men and work-related stress for every one such study concerning women.

This orientation appears to be changing, and women now are increasingly the subjects of work satisfaction and stress studies (McBride, 1988). One obvious reason for this shift is that women's presence in the workforce can no longer be ignored. Other compelling reasons for including women in research include the increasing evidence that prolonged stress can lead to permanent emotional or physical impairment, and the growing problems with worker dissatisfaction and consequent absenteeism, substance abuse, and reduced productivity (Haw, 1982; McIlwee, 1982).

Traditional and Nontraditional Workers

The majority of the existing research on women and work, however, still focuses either on professions traditionally occupied by women (e.g., nursing, teaching, social work) or on high-status professions recently entered by women (e.g., medicine, law, management). Substantially less research has been focused on nontraditional women workers in skilled or semi-skilled blue-collar jobs (Gruber & Bjorn, 1982; Walshok, 1981), even though the numbers of women in these jobs has increased significantly over the past 20 years (U.S. Department of Labor, 1983). (Nontraditional jobs are defined as those in which women comprise 25% or less of the total number of workers (U.S. Department of Labor, 1983)). As a result, very little is known about their working lives, much less about how their work and home lives interact (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

The research described here begins to fill this gap by addressing several questions about the work and home lives of two very different groups of women workers, nontraditional workers such as tradewomen (e.g., carpenters, construction workers, and plumbers), and transit workers (e.g., bus and truck drivers), and traditional workers (school secretaries). First, how do work characteristics differ in these two employment settings? Second, do women in these two occupational groups report similar or dissimilar levels of job satisfaction and job stress? Third, what elements of the work and home environments of these two groups of workers predict their satisfaction and stress at work - and are there differences between the groups on these factors?

Additional ways in which the present study takes us beyond

past research of job satisfaction and stress include the following:

First, previous studies of working women, but not men, have tended to lack specificity about the job environment. The single variable of interest in studies of women often has been simply whether they worked or not (Haw, 1982), usually in terms of the effects of such employment on their children (Bronfenbrenner & Crouter, 1982). This study examines in detail a wide variety of work characteristics, including the intrinsic value to the respondent of her work and its organizational characteristics, social and professional relationships, and physical setting.

Secondly, historically, studies of women's work have not examined home variables as well, so that work satisfaction and stress rarely included the influence of important home factors (Baruch, Biener, & Barnett, 1985; Rudd & McKenry, 1986). This serious omission may be a vestige of traditional thinking that sees the home as a stress-free setting, and, therefore of limited value in terms of understanding job stress. No doubt the conceptual work-home division has also been reinforced by the fact that different academic disciplines have claimed responsibility for each area. Work behaviors have been the domain of industrial and occupational psychologists and sociologists, whereas family behaviors have been studied within the domains of developmental psychology or marriage and family sociology (Nieva, 1985; Nieva & Gutek, 1981). With the influx of women into the workplace and the blurring of gender role boundaries, the interrelation between work and home life has become an important issue in both academic and

social realms. The present research investigates the impact of a number of home variables (structural and relational) on job stress and satisfaction.

Thirdly, important personal characteristics of women workers that may condition the relationship between the work environment and perceptions of satisfaction and stress are often neglected by researchers (Gruneberg, 1979; Haw, 1982). The present study examines the effect of important demographic (e.g., race, age, education, marital status) and personality (e.g., anxiety, hostility, depression, self-esteem) factors on work-related satisfaction and stress. Another limitation of past research is that single-item indicators of key dependent variables are all too common in studies of worker stress and satisfaction. The authors uncovered numerous recent studies in which the major variable, Job Satisfaction or Job Stress, was measured by one rather simple question, usually whether the respondent was satisfied or dissatisfied with the work she does. The present study employs multi-item scales for the measurement of these two variables.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Women in Clerical and Blue-Collar Jobs

Although dramatic changes have occurred in women's employment, the greatest number of women, 35%, are still employed in clerical jobs, where they are relegated commonly to "feminine" tasks such as typing, while male clerks assume supervisory positions (Fox & Hesse-Biber, 1984). This difference is evidenced in the pay structure, with women clerical workers earning only 60% of their

male counterparts' salaries (U.S. Department of Labor, 1983). Women comprise 81% of all clerical workers, and 99% of all secretaries (U.S. Department of Labor, 1983).

While clerical work is the most common job among working women, these workers have not been the subject of a comparable amount of research. Although they have been studied extensively in the occupational health and safety literature, with their work environment described adequately, the interrelationships between their home and work lives in predicting worker satisfaction have been a neglected area of research.

The numbers of women in blue-collar jobs have increased significantly over the past 20 years. Especially rapid growth has occurred in the skilled craft and kindred worker category, e.g., carpenters, plumbers, construction workers. For example, from 1972 to 1981, the number of women employed as carpenters grew 300%, with a corresponding figure of only 10% for men. It is important to note, however, that the actual proportion of women who were carpenters rose only slightly, from 0.5% to almost 2% (U.S. Department of Labor, 1983); skilled crafts workers are still overwhelmingly male.

Another blue-collar job which has seen dramatic growth for women is that of transportation operatives, e.g., fork-lift operators, bus drivers, truck drivers. The greatest increase has occurred among women bus drivers, some of whom are part-time, poorly-paid school bus drivers, while others are part of the higher paid city transit systems (U.S. Department of Labor, 1983).

Despite these recent gains in numbers, women still comprise less than nine percent of transportation operatives.

As more women enter nontraditional jobs, and more attention is paid to gender as an important focus of occupational research, there has been an increase in research interest in blue-collar women. With few exceptions, e.g., Walshok's (1981) in depth study of nearly 100 women in nontraditional jobs, this research neglected the important interrelationships of home and work roles in understanding worker satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction and Job Stress

A number of work variables have been identified generally as predictors of job satisfaction. These have been grouped by researchers into two domains, extrinsic and intrinsic, based on the nature of the value to the worker (Andrisani, 1978; Janson & Martin, 1982; Mottaz, 1985, 1986; Murray & Atkinson, 1981). In an extrinsic value orientation, work possesses little value in and of itself, but serves as a means to certain ends that may not be work-related, e.g., access to leisure activities. In an intrinsic value orientation, however, work is viewed as a central source of enrichment in which the worker may encounter challenges, engage in create decisions, and express various talents (Andrisani, 1978; Mottaz, 1985, 1986). Examples of extrinsic rewards are support from a supervisor or colleagues (social type) or adequate benefits and opportunities for promotion (organizational type). Intrinsic rewards include task autonomy, feeling valued, and feeling involved.

While past research has suggested that women place the most emphasis on social aspects of the job, and men on autonomy and achievement, more recent literature does not support these gender-specific contentions (Murray & Atkinson, 1981). Moore (1985) found that the predictors of job satisfaction were similar for women in predominantly female sectors of the labor market and males in predominantly male sectors, but that these differed from both females in predominantly male sectors and males in predominantly female sectors. Mottaz (1985) found that intrinsic rewards, followed by extrinsic social rewards, were both powerful determinants of job satisfaction across occupational groups; extrinsic organizational rewards were important only for workers in "lower-level" occupations (blue collar). Earlier work by Andrisani (1978) reached similar conclusions, that is, the major difference between the high and low satisfaction groups was the degree to which they mentioned intrinsic aspects of their jobs. Apparently, the importance of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards also depends on the age of the worker, with intrinsic values more prominent among younger workers (Janson & Martin, 1982).

Researchers who have looked beyond the workplace have found that other factors also influence job satisfaction. For example, Blau, Light, & Chamlin (1986) found that stress (defined as anxiety and tension) detracted from job satisfaction. Personality variables have not been consistently implicated; King, Murray and Atkinson (1982) found that personal alienation and internal-external control predicted job satisfaction, while Mottaz (1985)

found little evidence that personal factors influenced job satisfaction.

As studies become more sensitive to the importance of including the home in studies of work satisfaction, more information is emerging about the salient household features that influence job satisfaction. For women, it is not simply the duality of roles (work and family) that predicts feelings of role conflict, but rather the quality of those roles (Barnett, Biener, & Baruch, 1987). A 'spillover' effect may be operating, by which satisfaction in one domain (e.g., the home) may spill over into another (e.g., work) (Pleck, 1977; Schmitt & Mellon, 1980). Thus, support from spouse and children have been identified as very powerful determinants of women's overall work satisfaction in several studies (Andrisani & Shapiro, 1978; Rudd & McHenry, 1986).

Studies of job satisfaction and stress among clerical workers in particular have found that the quality of work life is a problem resulting from increased automation of office equipment with subsequent boredom, social isolation, and routinization of tasks (Fox & Hesse-Biber, 1984; Glenn & Feldberg, 1977; McNally, 1979). In addition, clerical work is characterized by low pay and few opportunities for promotion (Fox & Hesse-Biber, 1984; Mansfield, 1984). On the other hand, a study of Detroit clerical workers by Verbrugge (1979) found that they tended to have regular work hours and little overtime, both presumably positive work characteristics.

Research of nontraditionally-employed women points to the problem of segregation in a male-dominated workplace (DeFleur,

1985; Hill, 1986; Roby, 1981; Shaeffer & Lynton, 1979). Women are accommodated but not assimilated, and often find themselves the outsider. Related to this issue is the occurrence of sexual harassment and discrimination directed at women in these settings. In a study of women working in the auto industry, Gruber and Bjorn (1982) found the most likely targets were women with the least amount of power, those who were young, had low status, were single or were minorities. Additionally, the opportunity structures and power systems favored male employees. Unlike the regular and predictable schedules of the clerical workers, blue-collar workers often experienced long shifts and odd hours that created difficulties in managing a home life.

In the few studies that have compared job satisfaction and stress between traditional and nontraditional workers, two (Moore, 1985; O'Farrell & Harlan, 1982) found no differences in overall job satisfaction, although the correlates of satisfaction did differ. Blue-collar women were more satisfied with pay and work content, while clericals were more satisfied with their relationship with a supervisor. It is interesting to note that in O'Farrell and Harlan's (1982) study, the most important features of a satisfying job reported by both groups were job security, pay and work content. Thus, only the blue collar women reported high satisfaction with the actual features listed by all subjects to be the most important determinants of job satisfaction.

McIllwee's (1982) study, on the other hand, found higher job satisfaction among nontraditional women workers, but also higher

levels of stress, the latter related to increased pressure to perform, to isolation and to coworker hostility. And, in two large, representative samples, Verbrugge (1984) found that women clerical workers had the lowest job satisfaction of all job categories.

It is important, therefore, to recognize the full range of factors associated with job stress and satisfaction in today's workforce as women will continue to play an increasing role in the employment market while still having the major responsibilities for home and family management. Employers, as well as society, could benefit from job conditions better designed to meet these unique needs. The present study attempts to provide data as a foundation for such understanding and planning.

METHODS

Procedure

Data for this study were collected from surveys mailed in mid-1987 to women working in three occupational groups. Mailing lists were obtained through the cooperation of local unions and trade organizations in two large metropolitan areas in an Eastern state; additional blue collar participants were solicited through newspaper advertisements in these cities.

Each woman was mailed a questionnaire concerning various aspects of her work and home life, her health and other personal characteristics, and her use of various substances. Participants were offered a ten dollar incentive for their anonymous participation. Two follow up reminder postcards were sent to all

participants at three and five week intervals.

Sample

Women working as school secretaries (traditional workers), or city transit workers and blue collar trade and skilled craft workers (two groups of nontraditional workers) comprised the subject pool for this study. A total of 1211 surveys were mailed, consisting of 700 surveys to clerical workers, 391 to transit workers, and 120 to the tradeswomen. The overall return rate was 50.5 percent; the highest returns were from the tradeswomen (60 percent), followed by the clericals with 56 percent; the transit workers' return rate of 39 percent was lowest. Thus, the final sample size of 611 women consisted of 391 clerical workers, 148 transit workers, and 72 skilled craftpersons.

Measures

The instrument used was a 16-page questionnaire assessing work, home, personality, and demographic characteristics of working women as well as coping behaviors, substance use, health and job performance outcomes. For the results presented here, the following measures were used:

1) the Work Environment Scale, developed for this study, is based in part on the Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) and on the Office Workers' Survey of Gordon and Stellman (1981). Subjects rated items on eight subscales according to how well each described aspects of their jobs MOST of the time, using a four-point Likert scale ranging from 'not at all' to 'completely or nearly so', along with a 'does not apply' option. Reliability

of the overall scale is rather high, with Cronbach's alpha of .86. The eight subscales were: 1) Job Pressure (alpha=.82): nine items assessing the extent of pressures and demands, e.g., 'pressure to improve,' 'tense'; 2) Intrinsic Job Gratification (alpha=.70): five items measuring the value and status of the job, e.g., 'challenging'; 3) Relationship with Supervisor (alpha=.90): 13 items which are potential descriptors of the supervisor, e.g., 'supportive,' 'sexist'; 4) Relationships with Coworkers (alpha=.89): 11 items describing the relationship with coworkers, e.g., 'supportive,' 'care about you'; 5) Isolation (alpha=.77): two items, 'lonely' and 'isolated'; 6) Work Atmosphere (alpha=.75): four items describing the work space, e.g., 'noisy'; 7) Relationship with the Public (alpha=.86): eight items measuring the relationship with people at work other than coworkers, e.g., 'critical,' 'patient'; and 8) Work Station (alpha=.69): five items describing the work station, e.g., 'well-equipped.'

Measures of other work characteristics included: 1) Overtime: a dichotomous variable; 2) Job security: a single item asking the respondent to indicate her perception of job security on a three-point scale; 3) Opportunities for promotion: a single three-point Likert item; 4) Discrimination: the number of 'yes' replies to incidents of racial or sexual discrimination or sexual harrassment at their present job.

The major dependent variables of job satisfaction and stress were measured by two 16 item scales (a Job Satisfaction Index and a Job Stress Index) developed for this study. Respondents rated

each item on a four-point Likert scale of satisfaction (or stress) ranging from 'extremely dissatisfied' (or 'too much stress to handle') to 'extremely satisfied' (or 'no stress'). The 16 aspects of the job for which satisfaction and stress were measured were: supervisor/boss; coworkers; public; physical setting; actual work; pay; opportunities for promotion; benefits; job security; safety; work schedule; child care; treatment on the job; transportation; accomplishments; and amount of independence. Both scales have high internal consistency, with Cronbach's alphas of .87 (Job Stress) and .86 (Job Satisfaction).

The major home variables were home satisfaction and home stress, measured by the Home Satisfaction and Stress Indexes developed for this study. These scales use the same format as the Job Satisfaction and Stress Indexes and also have high internal consistency (alphas of .83 and .86, respectively). The 16 items measuring household characteristics included: child care; finances; health status of family or close friends; housework; relationship with partner; relationship with children; recreation; balance of home and job; own health; relationship with people living with you; day to day life at home.

Finally, personal factors were assessed by the following scales and items: Health, by a five-point Likert scale of perceived health, ranging from 'very poor' to 'very good'; Hostility, Anxiety, and Depression, by the Zuckerman and Lubin (1965) Multiple Adjective Checklist, found in earlier research to have high internal consistency ratings of .70 to .81 (Motowidlo,

Packard, & Manning, 1986); Self-esteem, by the ten-item Rosenberg What Am I Like Scale (1985), with reported test-retest reliability of .85 (Robinson & Shaver, 1973); Assertiveness, using McLachlan and Walderman's (1976) assertiveness scale with reliability reported in excess of .70; and Sex Role Orientation (traditional vs. feminist) by a modified version of the Index of Sex Role Orientation (ISRO) (Dreyer, Woods, & James, 1981), which has a reported split-half reliability of .92 and good validity (Dreyer, et al., 1981).

RESULTS

Demographic profile of respondents

A demographic profile of subjects, differentiated by their classification as traditional or nontraditional workers, appears in Table 1. In this sample, the clerical (traditional) workers were overwhelmingly white, while a third of the blue collar (nontraditional) workers was black. The clerical workers differed from the blue collar workers in these additional ways: they were significantly older, far more likely to be married (and far less likely to be divorced), more likely to live in suburbia or small towns, less likely to be college educated, and likely to earn considerably less.

As Table 1 demonstrates, family structure differed considerably between the groups. Most of the clerical workers were married with children (a pattern driven by the large white sample), while the largest group of nontraditional workers were single parents, followed by married women with children and nonmarried

women without children. Among blacks in this group, single parenthood was the most common status (57%). Not surprisingly, the younger blue collar group had far more young children living at home than did the clerical group.

Job Characteristics

The job characteristics of clerical work and blue-collar work differed in many important ways. Compared to blue-collar workers, clerical workers were more likely to be full-time employees; to have longer tenure at their present position (11.3 vs. 6.1 years) to have contracts; and to report having a "great deal" of job security (but not opportunities for promotion). More blue collar workers reported overtime work (87 vs. 53 percent) and more of them than the clerical workers received compensation for their overtime work; however, more blue collar women felt they had no choice about working overtime.

A striking difference between the groups concerned their perceptions of comparable earnings. Over 75 percent of the blue collar workers, but only 16 percent of the clericals, felt their earnings were comparable to men's. More clerical workers than blue collar workers were entitled to paid time off, health insurance, life insurance, and retirement, while more blue collar workers were eligible for child care benefits.

A startling finding of this study concerns the amount of discrimination and harassment reported (see Table 1). Nearly half of the blue collar women workers reported being sexually harrassed at the workplace and 42 percent of these women reported incidents

of sexual discrimination; one in five also reported encounters with racial discrimination. While the figures were lower for clerical workers, they were still considerable, e.g., 11% reported sex discrimination.

Job Satisfaction and Stress Among Clerical and Blue Collar Workers

Immediately apparent from Table 2 are the generally high levels of job satisfaction reported by both groups in this study. The mean satisfaction score (averaged over the 16 items on the Job Satisfaction Index) for both groups fell in the "somewhat satisfied" to "extremely satisfied" range. However, when mean overall scores on the Job Satisfaction Index were compared between the two types of employees, a consistent finding resulted, showing less satisfaction among blue collar workers with 14 of the 16 items on the list; the only job characteristics found more satisfying for the blue collar group were their salaries and their opportunities for promotion (see Table 2).

More similarities between the groups than differences emerged, however, when the 16 job satisfaction items were rank ordered for each worker group according to their mean scores (see Table 2). Six of the eight top-ranked items in the clerical worker list also appeared among the top eight items in the blue-collar list, while four of the six lowest-ranked items were shared by both groups. In other words, the same types of work characteristics were experienced as either highly satisfying or less satisfying by both types of workers. Notable exceptions were satisfaction with one's work schedule and with job safety, both of which ranked in the top

third for clerical workers but the bottom third for blue-collar workers, and with salary, ranked second from bottom for clericals but sixth from the top for the blue-collar group. Despite the significantly greater satisfaction with promotion opportunities among blue-collar workers, this aspect of the job ranked last for both groups in terms of satisfaction.

Similar patterns were found when the 16 job items were rated for their stressfulness (see Table 3). Consistent with the relatively high levels of satisfaction seen in Table 2 are the low levels of stress demonstrated in Table 3. Most items fell into the "no stress" to "a little stress" range, and none averaged even close to "3" ("quite a bit of stress").

In comparing the groups, the blue collar workers, the more satisfied group, also reported significantly greater stress than the clerical group with 10 aspects of their job (the work setting, benefits, security, safety, work schedule, child care, treatment at work, transportation, sense of accomplishment, and independence) and felt less stress only with their salary.

However, as with job satisfaction, when the items were ranked according to their mean perceived stress levels, many similarities emerged between groups (see Table 3). The most stressful aspect of work for both groups was what we called "the actual work you do"; stress scores for this item did not differ between the groups. Among the seven most stressful items in the rankings, four (actual work, others at work, the physical setting, and opportunities for promotion) overlapped groups; the same was true among the seven

lowest ranked items (accomplishments, independence, benefits, and transportation to work).

Nonetheless, there were certain concerns that were not shared by both groups. Table 3 shows that "pay" ranked high on the stressfulness list for clerical workers, but low for blue-collar workers, while the inverse was true for child care and job safety.

Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Stress

Identifying the predictors of clerical and blue-collar workers' job satisfaction (JOBSAT) and job stress (JOBSTRS) was accomplished in two steps. First, a series of multiple regression analyses were performed, each regressing JOBSAT or JOBSTRS onto one conceptual group of independent variables suggested by the literature and our theoretical framework as potential predictors of job satisfaction or job stress. These are shown in Tables 4 and 5.

Results of these analyses point to a number of factors that influence working women's job satisfaction and job stress. As expected, the work environment was important. For both groups of workers, feeling valued, not feeling unreasonable pressure or demands, having a good working relationship with one's supervisor and coworkers, job security, and having control over a clean, well-equipped, private, quiet and safe work station were statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction. Among clerical workers, good benefits were an additional source of satisfaction, while for blue-collar workers, promotional opportunities and a good relationship with the working public also predicted satisfaction.

Personal factors that predicted job satisfaction for all workers included good health, older age, and low levels of depression. For the clerical workers, other significant predictors of satisfaction included a low hostility score and expressing little concern over personally abusing substances, and for the blue-collar workers, a traditional as opposed to a feminist gender role orientation, and being white.

Home variables that predicted job satisfaction were high levels of home satisfaction and concomitant low levels of home stress. In general, married women without children reported higher levels of job satisfaction than either married women with children or unmarried women with or without children. The lowest job satisfaction was reported by women workers who were single parents.

Job stress, on the other hand, was predicted by these working conditions, for both groups of employees: feeling devalued, feeling pressured, having a poor relationship with one's supervisor, coworkers, and the public, feeling little job security, and working in an inadequate space without control over that space. Additional factors predicting job stress for clerical workers included an undesirable workplace, feeling isolated, and earnings not comparable to men's, and for nontraditional workers, a lack of opportunities for promotion.

Job stress was predicted by numerous personal factors, including, for the nontraditional workers, poor health, marital status and race (blacks reported higher stress), and for the clerical workers, poor health and younger age. Psychological

depression predicted job stress for both groups; in addition, hostility and assertiveness were predictors for the clerical group, and anxiety and a nontraditional gender role orientation, for the nontraditional group.

Finally, job stress also was predicted by a number of home variables. High stress and low satisfaction at home predicted stress at work for both clerical and blue collar workers. Women who were single parents reported the highest levels of job stress, while married women without children reported the lowest stress levels.

Once the significant predictors of job satisfaction and job stress in each conceptual group were identified, these variables were entered in blocks in a series of four hierarchical regression analyses (one each for JOBSAT and JOBSTRS, for the two worker groups). These analyses tested whether family factors added to the explanatory power of our model beyond the effect of work factors. The six blocks, in order of entry, were: 1) demographic variables; 2) personality measures (both entered as background variables); 3) intrinsic job characteristics; 4) extrinsic social job characteristics; 5) extrinsic organizational job characteristics; and 6) home variables.

As Table 6 shows, all blocks were significant predictors, in each of the four analyses, with the total R² higher for the models predicting job satisfaction and stress for nontraditional than for traditional workers. Intrinsic job variables were the most powerful predictors of both clerical and blue collar employees' job

satisfaction and job stress. However, demographic and personality factors also made important contributions to the prediction of these outcomes.

The fact that the "Home" block was statistically significant is important evidence that family variables added significantly to the prediction of work satisfaction and work stress for both worker groups in this study, beyond the effects of work and other "background" variables.

DISCUSSION

The findings of this study provide a rich picture of the various factors in women's lives that influence their satisfaction and stress at work. The reciprocal nature of home and work variables has recently been suggested as being of major importance for working women. However, this interaction has not been studied at any length, particularly for women in blue-collar, nontraditional employment. An important finding of our study is the influence of home factors in predicting how these women feel about their work. For both clerical and blue collar workers, family factors added significantly to the prediction of job satisfaction and job stress scores, beyond the effects of personal factors and work conditions. Satisfaction with conditions at home predicted job satisfaction, while stress at home predicted stress at work, suggesting the operation of a significant 'spillover effect' (Schmitt & Mellon, 1980). In related work by the authors (unpublished) of the effects of work factors on home satisfaction and stress, the spillover effect was again found.

Thus, we find important evidence for the intertwining of women's work and family roles. As a result, we join with other researchers (e.g., Baruch, Biener, & Barnett, 1985; Rudd & McKenry, 1986) in calling for a more holistic approach to the study of working women that acknowledges the mutually interactive effects of home and work factors on women's well-being. Not only does work affects one's home life (the traditional approach to the study of working women); the reverse is true also. To succeed in this approach requires the abandonment of traditional professional boundaries (e.g., industrial psychology, family sociology, gender studies) in favor of a richer, interdisciplinary research.

It is important to note that our multi-item, multidimensional home satisfaction and home stress measures take us beyond research that asks merely if being a wife or mother affects well-being at the workplace. Our Home Satisfaction and Home Stress Indexes allowed us to measure the quality of home life in 16 domains, including relationships with a partner and/or children, child care, finances, housework, and role balance. We agree with Barnett, Biener, & Baruch (1987) that role quality, not just role occupancy, must be a key variable in predicting well-being. However, rather than the creation of a 'balance score' to measure role quality (Baruch & Barnett, 1986), our approach was to ask respondents directly for satisfaction and stress ratings of their home and work domains. Our results show that the overall quality of home life measured this way does indeed influence women's well-being at work. The most salient home characteristics included levels of autonomous

decision making, household activity, physical exhaustion, and whether the respondent had concerns about substance abuse by a child (in the case of traditional workers) or a spouse/partner (for nontraditional workers).

Intrinsic rewards at work, specifically feeling valued, stimulated, and challenged, but not pressured or frustrated, were the most significant predictors of both clerical and blue collar workers' satisfaction and stress at work. Previous stereotypes of working women finding contentment at work from their social relationships are unsupported by our findings; we join other investigators (e.g., Andrisani, 1978; Moore, 1985; Mottaz, 1985; Murray & Atkinson, 1981) in pointing out that women, like men, need work that is challenging and interesting while free of unreasonable demands and pressures, and need to feel that their contributions are valued.

It is important to note the same beneficial effect of intrinsic rewards for both our worker groups. Once again, we are confronted with the universality of the fundamental need to feel valued but not pressured at the workplace.

While intrinsic job rewards played the major role in determining worker satisfaction and stress in this study, it is true that one type of relationship, the work-related one between supervisor and worker, emerged as a statistically important predictor of both job satisfaction and job stress for each employment category, that is, a poor relationship predicted job stress. This is an important result, but perhaps not a surprising

one, since many of the intrinsic rewards mentioned above would be forthcoming in a good worker-supervisor relationship, measured in our study by such characteristics as seeking the employee's ideas, not being demanding, showing respect, and not being sexist.

Identifying these factors which affect job satisfaction and job stress, as well as their interaction, is also important to developing an understanding of job performance. Further analyses of the data in this study (in progress) have shown that poor job performance is positively related to family stress and role strain, and negatively related to job satisfaction. Thus, this study of work and home predictors of job satisfaction and stress provides an important foundation too for understanding and predicting job performance among women employed in clerical and blue-collar jobs.

REFERENCES

- Andrisani, P. (1978). Job satisfaction among working women. Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society, 3, 588-607.
- Andrisani, P. & Shapiro, M. (1978). Women's attitudes toward their jobs: some longitudinal data on a national sample. Personnel Psychology, 31, 15-34.
- Barnett, R., Biener, L., & Baruch, G. (1987). Gender and stress.
- Baruch, G. & Barnett, R. (1986). Role quality, multiple role involvement, and psychological well-being in midlife women. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51, 578-585.
- Baruch, G., Biener, L., & Barnett, R. (1985). Women and gender in research on stress (Working Paper No. 152). Massachusetts: Willesley College, Center for Research on Women.
- Baruch, G., Biener, L., & Barnett, R. (1987). Women and gender in research on work and family stress. American Psychologist, 42, 130-136.
- Blau, J., Light, S., & Chamlin, M. (1986). Individual and contextual effects on stress and job satisfaction. Work and Occupations, 13, 131-156.
- Bronfenbrenner, U., & Crouter, A. (1982). Work and family through time and space. In S. Kamerman & C. Hayes (Eds.), Families that work: Children in a changing world. Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences.
- DeFleur, L. (1985). Organizational and ideological barriers to sex integration in military groups. Work and Occupations, 12, 206-228.
- Dreyer, N., Woods, N., & James, S. (1981). ISRO: A scale to measure sex-role orientation. Sex Roles, 7, 173-182.
- Fox, M., & Hesse-Biber, S. (1984). Women at Work. Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield Publishing Co.
- Glenn, E.N., & Feldberg, R. (1977). Degraded and deskilled: The proletarianization of clerical work. Social Problems, 25, 52-64.
- Gordon, G., & Stellman, J. (1981). The office workers health and well-being survey. New York: Columbia University Division of Environmental Stress, School of Public Health.
- Gruber, J., & Bjorn, L. (1982). Blue-collar blues: the sexual harassment of women auto workers. Work and Occupations, 9, 271-298.
- Gruneberg, S. (1979). Understanding job satisfaction. New York: John Wiley.
- Haw, M.A. (1982). Women, work and stress: a review and agenda for the future. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 23 132-144.
- Hill, R. (1986). Dimensions of work. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

- Janson, P. & Martin, J. (1982). Job satisfaction and age: A test of two views. Social Forces, 60, 1089-1102.
- King, M., Murray, M., & Atkinson, T. (1982). Background, personality, job characteristics, and satisfaction with work in a national sample. Human Relations, 35, 119-133.
- Mansfield, P. K. (1984). Women and work: A proposal for women's occupational health education. Health Education, 5-8.
- McBride, A. (1988). Mental health effects of women's multiple roles. Image: Journal of Nursing Scholarships, 20, 41-47.
- McIlwee, J. (1982). Work satisfaction among women in nontraditional occupations. Work and Occupations, 9, 209-333.
- McLachlan, F.C., & Walderman, R.L. (1976). Brief scales for evaluating assertiveness, marital communication and work satisfaction. Journal of Community Psychology, 4, 303-305.
- McNally, R. (1979). Women for hire: A study of the female office worker. New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Moore, H. (1985). Job satisfaction and women's spheres of work. Sex roles, 13, 663-678.
- Motowidlo, S., Packard, J., & Manning, M. (1986). Occupational stress: Its causes and consequences for job performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71, 618-629.
- Mottaz, C. (1985). The relative importance of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards as determinants of work satisfaction. The Sociological Quarterly, 26, 365-385.
- Mottaz, C. (1986). Gender differences in work satisfaction, work-related rewards and values, and the determinants of work satisfaction. Human Relations, 39, 359-378.
- Murray, M & Atkinson, T. (1981). Gender differences in correlates of job satisfaction. Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science, 13, 44-52.
- Nieva, V. (1985). Work and Family Linkages. In L. Larwood, A. Stromberg, & B. Gutek (Eds.), Women and work: An annual review, Vol. 1 (pp. 162-190). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Nieva, V. & Gutek, B. (1981). Women and work: A psychological perspective. New York: Praeger.
- O'Farrell, B., & Harlan, S. (1982). Craftworkers and clerks: The effect of male coworker hostility on women's satisfaction with nontraditional jobs. Social Problems, 29, 252-265.
- Pleck, J. (1977). The work-family role system. Social Problems, 24, 417-427.

- Robinson J. & Shaver, P. (1973). Measures of social attitudes. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Roby, P. (1981). Women in the workplace. Cambridge, MA: Schenkman Publishing Co., Inc.
- Rosenberg, M. (1985). Society and the adolescent self-image. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Rudd, N. & McKenry, P. (1986). Family influences on the job satisfaction of employed mothers. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 10, 363-372.
- Schmitt, N. & Mellon, P. (1980). Life and job satisfaction: is the job central? Journal of Vocational Behavior, 16, 51-58.
- Shaeffer, R., and Lynton, E. (1979). Corporate experiences in improving women's job opportunities. New York: The Conference Board, Inc.
- Smith, P., Kendall, L., & Hulin, C. (1969). The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau. (1983). Times of Change: 1983 handbook on women workers. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Verbrugge, L.M. (1979). Female illness rates and illness behavior: Testing hypotheses about sex differences in health. Women and Health, 4, 61-79.
- Verbrugge, L. (1984). Physical health of clerical workers in the U.S., Framingham and Detroit. Women and Health, 9, 17-41.
- Walshok, M.L. (1978). Occupational values and family roles: A descriptive study of women working in blue-collar and service occupations. Urban and Social Change Review, 11, 12-20.
- Women's Occupational Health and Resource Center. (1988). Highlights of women at work, (WOHRC News, Vol. 9, No. 2). Brooklyn, New York.
- Zuckerman, M., Lubin, B. & Robins, B. (1965). Validation of the multiple affect adjective checklist in clinical situations. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 29, 594.

TABLE 1: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF SUBJECTS BY TRADITIONAL/NONTRADITIONAL
WORK CLASSIFICATIONS

	<u>Traditional</u> (N=405)	<u>Nontraditional</u> (N=184)
RACE		
White	95	70****
Black	5	28
MEAN AGE	48.8	37.9****
MARITAL STATUS		
Married	73	35****
Not Married	27	65
RESIDENCE		
Urban	8	43****
Suburban	55	34
Small Town	24	12
Rural	13	11
EDUCATION		
High School	62	50**
College	38	50
INCOME		
< \$10,999	17	15****
\$11,000 - \$20,999	78	26
\$21,000 - \$30,999	4	42
\$31,000 +	1	17
FAMILY STRUCTURE		
Married, children	65	30****
Not married, children	18	36
Married, no children	8	6
Not married, no children	9	28
HAVE CHILDREN AT HOME		
Under Age 6	5	16****
Ages 6 - 18	23	34****
Over Age 18	30	5****
PERCEIVED DISCRIMINATION		
Racial	4	21****
Sexual	11	42****
Sexual harassment	8	47****

*Difference significant at $p < .05$ level

**Difference significant at $p < .01$ level

***Difference significant at $p < .001$ level

****Difference significant at $p < .0001$ level

Note: All tests were chi-square analyses, except for a t-test to compare mean ages.

TABLE 2: MOST TO LEAST SATISFYING ASPECTS OF JOB, FOR CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

<u>Clerical</u>		<u>Blue-Collar</u>	
Transportation to work	(3.67) ^{1****2}	Independence	(3.31)
Independence	(3.50)**	Transportation to work	(3.30)
Work Schedule	(3.49)****	Accomplishments	(3.27)
Safety	(3.49)****	Actual work	(3.23)
Accomplishments	(3.49)**	Benefits	(3.17)
Benefits	(3.42)***	Pay	(3.11)
Actual work	(3.33) ^{ns}	Treatment	(3.09)
Treatment	(3.33)**	Coworkers	(3.08)
Security	(3.27)****	Supervisor	(3.02)
Supervisor	(3.19)*	Security	(2.93)
Coworkers	(3.18) ^{ns}	Others at work	(2.88)
Others at work	(3.04)*	Physical setting	(2.85)
Physical setting	(3.03)*	Work schedule	(2.75)
Child care	(3.20) ^{ns}	Child care	(2.68)
Pay	(2.40)****	Safety	(2.65)
Opportunities for promotion	(2.24)*	Opportunities for promotion	(2.45)
Overall	(3.22)****	Overall	(3.03)

¹ Score on 4 pt. Likert scale: (4 = extremely satisfied, 3 = somewhat satisfied, 2 = somewhat dissatisfied, 1 = extremely dissatisfied)

² Significant differences in levels of satisfaction of clerical and blue-collar workers with each aspect of job.

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

****p<.0001

TABLE 3: MOST TO LEAST STRESSFUL ASPECTS OF JOB, FOR CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

<u>Clerical</u>		<u>Blue-Collar</u>	
Actual work	(2.30) ^{1ns}	Actual work	(2.43)
Pay	(2.05) ^{****2}	Safety	(2.16)
Supervisor	(2.04) ^{ns}	Work Schedule	(2.13)
Others at work	(1.99) ^{ns}	Child care	(2.04)
Opportunities for promotion	(1.95) ^{ns}	Others at work	(2.01)
Coworkers	(1.87) ^{ns}	Physical setting	(2.01)
Physical setting	(1.82) [*]	Opportunities for promotion	(1.96)
Treatment	(1.66) [*]	Security	(1.96)
Child care	(1.62) ^{****}	Supervisor	(1.96)
Accomplishments	(1.60) ^{**}	Coworkers	(1.88)
Security	(1.52) ^{****}	Treatment	(1.84)
Work schedule	(1.51) ^{****}	Accomplishments	(1.80)
Independence	(1.49) [*]	Pay	(1.69)
Safety	(1.36) ^{****}	Benefits	(1.66)
Benefits	(1.32) ^{****}	Independence	(1.65)
Transportation to work	(1.28) ^{****}	Transportation to work	(1.63)
Overall	(1.72) ^{****}	Overall	(1.92)

¹ Score on 4 pt. Likert scale: (4 = almost too much stress to handle, 3 = quite a bit of stress, 2 = a little stress, 1 = no stress)

² Significant differences in stress levels of clerical and blue-collar workers for each aspect of job.

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

****p<.0001

TABLE 4: STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSES PREDICTING JOB SATISFACTION FOR CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

<u>Clerical Workers</u>				<u>Blue-Collar Workers</u>			
<u>Independent Variables</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>P</u>	<u>Independent Variables</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>P</u>
<u>Demographics</u>				<u>Demographics</u>			
Health	8.94	.0213	.003	Health	14.13	.0720	.0002
Age	8.25	.0387	.0003	Race	13.16	.1269	.0000
Race			NS	Age	10.27	.1462	.0000
Urban-Rural			NS	Urban-Rural			NS
Marital Status			NS	Marital Status			NS
Education			NS	Education			NS
<u>Personal</u>				<u>Personal</u>			
Hostility	23.00	.0591	.0001	Depression	44.14	.2239	.0001
Depression	7.78	.0787	.0056	ISRO	2.30	.2355	.1314
Concerns about abusing substances	4.55	.0901	.0336	Hostility			NS
Anxiety			NS	Assertiveness			NS
Self-esteem			NS	Anxiety			NS
ISRO			NS	Self-esteem			NS
Assertiveness			NS	Concerns about abusing substances			NS
<u>Intrinsic Job</u>				<u>Intrinsic Job</u>			
Value	95.88	.1892	.0000	Value	51.58	.2208	.0000
Pressure	68.80	.2513	.0000	Pressure	47.12	.3424	.0000
<u>Extrinsic Social</u>				<u>Extrinsic Social</u>			
Supervisor	102.39	.1994	.0000	Supervisor	52.02	.2223	.0000
Coworker	61.31	.2302	.0000	Public	37.23	.2915	.0000
Public			NS	Coworker	28.85	.3247	.0000
Discrimination			NS	Discrimination			NS

TABLE 4: STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSES PREDICTING JOB SATISFACTION FOR CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS (Continued)

Clerical Workers				Blue-Collar Workers			
Independent Variables	F	R ²	P	Independent Variables	F	R ²	P
<u>Extrinsic Organizational</u>				<u>Extrinsic Organizational</u>			
Work Station	52.60	.1135	.0000	Security	50.75	.2180	.0000
Security	44.32	.1778	.0000	Work Station	38.42	.2980	.0000
Atmosphere	38.70	.2211	.0000	Opportunities for promotion	32.24	.3496	.0000
Isolation	32.82	.2435	.0000	Atmosphere	27.27	.3787	.0000
Benefits	27.55	.2528	.0000	Comparable earnings			NS
Opportunities for promotion			NS	Benefits			NS
Comparable earnings			NS	Control Overtime			NS
Control Overtime			NS	Isolation			NS
<u>Home</u>				<u>Home</u>			
Home	43.92	.1069	.0001	Home	33.98	.1788	.0001
satisfaction				satisfaction			
Home stress	6.57	.1226	.0108	Home stress	24.15	.2895	.0001
Family types			NS	Family types			NS

TABLE 5: STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSES PREDICTING JOB STRESS FOR CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

<u>Clerical Workers</u>				<u>Blue-Collar Workers</u>			
<u>Independent Variables</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>P</u>	<u>Independent Variables</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>P</u>
<u>Demographics</u>				<u>Demographics</u>			
Health	17.32	.0409	.0000	Health	25.98	.1249	.0000
Age	10.77	.0499	.0000	Race	17.26	.1602	.0000
Race			NS	Marital status	13.91	.1883	.0000
Urban-Rural			NS	Age			NS
Marital Status			NS	Urban-rural			NS
Education			NS	Education			NS
<u>Personal</u>				<u>Personal</u>			
Depression	27.84	.0683	.0001	Anxiety	28.11	.1448	.0001
Hostility	7.10	.0854	.0081	ISRO	4.03	.1652	.0464
Assertiveness	7.26	.1026	.0073	Depression	2.20	.1763	.1395
Self-esteem	3.03	.1098	.0828	Hostility			NS
Anxiety			NS	Assertiveness			NS
ISRO			NS	Self-esteem			NS
Concerns about abusing substances			NS	Concerns about abusing substances			NS
<u>Intrinsic Job</u>				<u>Intrinsic Job</u>			
Pressure	177.32	.3014	.0000	Pressure	84.70	.3176	.0000
Value	94.13	.3147	.0000	Value	48.67	.3497	.0000
<u>Extrinsic Social</u>				<u>Extrinsic Social</u>			
Supervisor	66.93	.1400	.0000	Public	41.12	.1843	.0000
Public	43.19	.1740	.0000	Supervisor	31.07	.2556	.0000
Coworkers	32.40	.1920	.0000	Coworkers	23.69	.2831	.0000
Discrimination			NS	Discrimination			NS

TABLE 5: STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSES PREDICTING JOB STRESS FOR CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS (Continued)

<u>Clerical Workers</u>				<u>Blue-Collar Workers</u>			
<u>Independent Variables</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>P</u>	<u>Independent Variables</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>P</u>
<u>Extrinsic Organizational</u>				<u>Extrinsic Organizational</u>			
Atmosphere	38.11	.0848	.0000	Security	19.61	.0973	.0000
Security	34.08	.1426	.0000	Work Station	12.73	.1234	.0000
Isolation	27.72	.1690	.0000	Opportunities	10.70	.1513	.0000
Comparable earnings	23.84	.1895	.0000	for promotion			
Work Station	20.60	.2019	.0000	Comparable earnings			NS
Opportunities for promotion			NS	Benefits			NS
Benefits			NS	Control overtime			NS
Control overtime			NS	Atmosphere			NS
				Isolation			NS
<u>Home</u>				<u>Home</u>			
Home stress	52.35	.1202	.0001	Home stress	58.59	.2574	.0001
Home satisfaction	19.79	.1636	.0001	Home satisfaction	19.75	.3355	.0001
Family types			NS	Family types			NS

TABLE 6: HIERARCHICAL BLOCK REGRESSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB STRESS FOR CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

<u>Block</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>P</u>
CLERICAL WORKERS			
<u>Mean Job Satisfaction</u>			
N = 287			
Demographics	10.085	.066	.0001
Personality	7.447	.117	.0001
Intrinsic	18.740	.319	.0001
Extrinsic Social	19.336	.385	.0001
Extrinsic Organization	14.234	.422	.0001
Home	14.819	.483	.0001
<u>Mean Job Stress</u>			
N = 268			
Demographics	5.573	.040	.0043
Personality	5.642	.114	.0001
Intrinsic	17.443	.349	.0001
Extrinsic Social	13.565	.367	.0001
Extrinsic Organization	10.507	.400	.0001
Home	10.131	.436	.0001
BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS			
<u>Mean Job Satisfaction</u>			
N = 83			
Demographics	7.161	.212	.0003
Personality	8.373	.349	.0001
Intrinsic	15.554	.589	.0001
Extrinsic Social	13.368	.647	.0001
Extrinsic Organization	10.869	.688	.0001
Home	8.998	.699	.0001
<u>Mean Job Stress</u>			
N = 87			
Demographics	7.712	.216	.0002
Personality	6.010	.308	.0001
Intrinsic	12.423	.557	.0001
Extrinsic Social	10.078	.593	.0001
Extrinsic Organization	8.293	.614	.0001
Home	8.447	.672	.0001

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE	1. REPORT NO.	2.	3. Recipient's Accession No. 2130 105070 IAS
4. Title and Subtitle Work and Home Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Stress for Women in Traditional and Nontraditional Work Settings			5. Report Date 00/00/00
7. Author(s) Mansfield, P. K., J. R. Vicary, J. Henderson, M. Cohn, P. B. Koch, and E. W. Young			8. Performing Organization Rept. No.
8. Performing Organization Name and Address Department of Health Education, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania			10. Project/Task/Work Unit No. 11. Contract (C) or Grant(G) No. (C) (G) R01-OH-02162
12. Sponsoring Organization Name and Address			13. Type of Report & Period Covered 14.
15. Supplementary Notes			
16. Abstract (Limit: 200 words) This study examined the work and home characteristics of working women in clerical and blue collar jobs, compared their levels of job satisfaction and job stress, and inquired into what elements of the work and home lives of these workers predicted their satisfaction and stress at work. Mail surveys were received from 405 clerical and 184 blue collar (transit and construction) workers. The findings indicate that various factors in women's lives influence their satisfaction and stress at work. One important finding was the influence of home factors in predicting how these women feel about their work. For both clerical and blue collar workers, family factors added significantly to the prediction of job satisfaction and job stress scores, beyond the effects of personal factors and work conditions. Satisfaction with conditions at home predicted job satisfaction, while stress at home predicted stress at work, suggesting the operation of a significant spillover effect. The Home Satisfaction and Home Stress Indexes used allowed measurements to be made of the quality of home life in 16 domains including relationships with partner and/or children, child care, finances, housework and role balance. The most salient home characteristics included levels of autonomous decision making, household activity, physical exhaustion, and whether the respondent had concerns about substance abuse by a child or a spouse/partner.			
17. Document Analysis a. Descriptors b. Identifiers/Open-Ended Terms NIOSH-Publication, NIOSH-Grant, Grant-Number-R01-OH-02162, End-Date-12-31-1988, Psychological-disorders, Job-stress, Mental-stress, Psychological-factors, Sex-factors c. COSATI Field/Group			
18. Availability Statement	19. Security Class (This Report)	21. No. of Pages	
	22. Security Class (This Page)	22. Price	