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I. Identifying Information

Phyllis Kernoff Mansfield, Ph.D.  
Assistant Professor  
Department of Health Education  
303 Health and Human Development East  
The Pennsylvania State University  
University Park, Pennsylvania 16802

Judith R. Vicary, Ph.D.  
Assistant Professor  
Department of Health Education  
304 Health and Human Development East  
The Pennsylvania State University  
University Park, Pennsylvania 16802

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II. Project Staff

|   |                                  |  |
|---|----------------------------------|--|
| Elaine W. Young, Ph.D.<br>(Co-Investigator)<br>1/1/87 - 12/31/88  | Assistant Professor              | Department of Nursing<br>The Pennsylvania State<br>University                                    |
| Patricia B. Koch, Ph.D.<br>(Co-Investigator)<br>1/1/87 - 12/31/88 | Assistant Professor              | Department of Health Ed.<br>The Pennsylvania State<br>University                                 |
| Margaret D. Cohn, Ph.D.<br>(Co-Investigator)<br>1/1/87 - 12/31/88 | Affiliate Assistant<br>Professor | Department of Human<br>Development and<br>Family Studies<br>The Pennsylvania State<br>University |

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Robert Killoren, Director  
Sponsored Programs and Contracts Office

TEL: (814) 865-1372  
FAX: (814) 865-3377  
248 Calder Way, Suite 300  
The Pennsylvania State University  
University Park, PA 16801

March 23, 1989

Ms. Rose Mary Stiltner  
Grants Assistant  
Procurement and Grants Office  
Centers for Disease Control  
255 East Paces Ferry Road, NE  
Atlanta, GA 30333

Dear Ms. Stiltner:

Subject: Grant No. 1 R01 OH02162-01A1

In response to your letter of February 21, 1989 requesting closeout documents for the subject grant, this is to advise that there is no equipment of any description to report.

This letter is a "negative" Inventory Report for the subject grant.

Sincerely,

Elizabeth S. Shultz  
Proposal Specialist

ESS:vb

cc: M. A. Smyer  
✓ P. K. Mansfield

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Any Abbreviations used are detailed in the text.

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## SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

### (Summary Form)

- \* Clerical workers reported more job security but fewer opportunities for promotion than did blue-collar workers.
  - \* Most blue-collar workers, but very few clericals, felt their earnings were comparable to those of men in like jobs.
  - \* Nearly half of the blue-collar workers reported sexual harassment incidents.
  - \* Forty-two percent of blue-collar workers reported sex discrimination at work.
  - \* Race discrimination was commonplace for blacks in both work settings.
  - \* Blue-collar workers consistently reported less satisfaction and more stress at work than their clerical counterparts.
  - \* Problems with their schedules, with child care, and with job safety were more problematic for blue-collar than clerical workers.
  - \* The most stressful aspect of clerical workers' jobs was their low salaries.
  - \* The most powerful predictor of job satisfaction for both employee groups was feeling valued at work and not experiencing unreasonable demands.
  - \* Having a good relationship with one's supervisor and co-workers was a significant contributor to job satisfaction, while a poor relationship contributed to greater stress.
  - \* Having a safe, clean and private work area contributed significantly to job satisfaction for both groups, while the absence of these characteristics predicted stress at work.
  - \* Having a satisfying home life contributed significantly to satisfaction at work for both employee groups, an unsatisfying home life "spilled over" to the workplace and predicted job stress.
- 
- \* There was a significant difference between the reported level of home/family satisfaction experienced by these employed women, with the most to least satisfied being: married without children, married with children, single without children, and single with children.
  - \* Health status of the woman was the only variable that was significantly related to both family satisfaction and stress experienced in all four family groups.

- \* Married women with children had the most number of significant home influences on their level of satisfaction, including: level of day-to-day physical demands, children's behavior, and number of household activities they were responsible for.
- \* The only home variable found to be significantly related to family satisfaction for single women without children was the number of family decisions they made.
- \* No home variables were found to be significantly related to family satisfaction for married women without children.
- \* For women in all four types of families, the satisfaction that they experienced at their jobs significantly influenced their level of satisfaction at home.
- \* The proportion of the variance in family satisfaction explained by the model (background characteristics, home environment, work environment, and psychological states) were as follows for each of the family configurations:

|                          |             |
|--------------------------|-------------|
| Married with children    | $R^2 = .52$ |
| Married without children | $R^2 = .47$ |
| Single with children     | $R^2 = .56$ |
| Single without children  | $R^2 = .40$ |

- \* For married women with children, the greatest proportion of their family satisfaction came from the home environment.
- \* For women living in the other types of families, the greatest proportion of family satisfaction came from background characteristics (particularly health status).
- \* For single women without children, equally influential upon their family satisfaction as background was their job satisfaction.
- \* Overall mean family stress was at a moderate to low level and there were not significant differences among the four family configurations as to the women's assessment of such stress.
- \* Day-to-day physical demands experienced in the home was a significant predictor of family stress for employed women in all the types of families except single women without children.
- \* Factors representing the type of relationship (supportive vs. nonsupportive) with partner were predictors of family stress for those women with partners.
- \* Factors representing children's behaviors (negative behaviors, drug abuse) were predictors of family stress for women with children.
- \* For single women without children, feeling isolated at home was predictive of their family stress.
- \* For women in all four types of families, the stress that they experienced at their jobs influenced their level of family stress.

- \* The proportions of the variance in family stress explained by the model (background characteristics, home environment, work environment, and psychological states) were as follows for each of the family configurations:

|                          |             |
|--------------------------|-------------|
| Married with children    | $R^2 = .51$ |
| Married without children | $R^2 = .33$ |
| Single with children     | $R^2 = .53$ |
| Single without children  | $R^2 = .40$ |

- \* The family stress experienced by employed women who are married with children was almost equally influenced by all four of the domain studied in this research model.
  - \* For women without children, the work environment (primarily stress experienced at work) was the best predictor of family stress.
- 
- \* An overwhelming majority of subjects missed no work days because of taking medicine, because of work-related injury, or because of a nonwork-related injury.
  - \* Eighty percent and 70% rarely or never felt they did not perform their jobs well due to physical health and mental health respectively.
  - \* These working women missed very few days for other reasons as well.
  - \* Nearly two-thirds of the sample visited health professionals two or fewer times in the previous year.
  - \* Overall, 83% considered themselves to be in good or excellent health.
  - \* Work impaired by physical health, work impaired by emotional health, and current health status were the health outcome variables that most consistently correlated with the hypothesized predictors.
  - \* Family stress and self-esteem variables had the highest correlation coefficients with the health variables.
  - \* The fewest and lowest significant correlations were found among the behavior-related health variables such as absence, left early, and use of medication.
  - \* For the traditional workers, role strain was positively related to illness related absences. → This finding was not true for nontraditional workers.
  - \* For the traditional group, the number of children under age six and job stress were positively related to use of medicine for work-related illness while for nontraditional workers role strain and coping were predictors of medicine usage.
  - \* For the nontraditional group, role strain and coping were positively related to absence due to work-related injury. The model was not predictive for the traditional group for this variable.

- \* For the nontraditional group, there was a positive relationship between role strain and absence due to any health reason. This finding was not true for the traditional group.
  - \* For the total sample, family stress and job stress were positively related to work impairment due to physical health.
  - \* For the total sample, family stress was positively related to work impairment by emotional health, and self-esteem and age were negatively related.
  - \* For the total sample, current health status was related to family stress and self-esteem.
  - \* For the total sample, visits to health professionals was related to family stress and sex-role orientation.
  - \* Nontraditional workers missed more days due to illness, work related injury and any health reasons. They also reported more frequent impairment of their work due to physical or emotional health reasons and reported taking medicine more frequently for work related health problems. They had more visits to health professionals than the traditional workers.
  - \* Single workers with children reported that most absences of all family groups.
  - \* Married workers with children reported the fewest absences due to illness, and absences for any reason than those in other family groups.
  - \* Married workers without children reported the fewest days missed because of work related injury than those in other family groups.
  - \* Single women with no children were the most frequent users of medicine for work-related illnesses while married workers without children reported the lowest use of medicine.
- 
- \* Self reported job performance was predicted by job satisfaction, role strain, family stress, and personal health; with poor performance negatively related to job satisfaction and personal health positively related to role strain and family stress.
  - \* For the traditionally employed women, these four predictors contribute equally to the variance accounted for. However, for the non-traditional job holders, family stress contributes the most to poor performance.
  - \* For clerical workers, illness was the primary cause of absence, while injuries, both job-related and off-work, accounted for absences of non-traditional employees.
- 
- \* In general, women in non-traditional jobs tend to be more likely to use drugs of any kind than women in traditional jobs. This is particularly true of alcohol ( $F = 5.0, p < .03$ ), tobacco ( $F = 36.1, p < .001$ ) and marijuana ( $F = 7.0, p < .008$ ).

- \* Women who were not married and had no children reported higher levels of use of alcohol ( $F = 5.8, p < .001$ ) and tobacco ( $F = 36.1, p < .001$ ) than women living in other family arrangements. Whites and nonwhites report similar usage patterns for all drugs surveyed.
  - \* Self-reported stress (work-related stress, family-related stress, role overload and role conflict) were found to be poor predictors of drug usage. Only weak relations were found between these indicators of stress and the level of drug use.
  - \* Most drug use represented social or recreational behaviors rather than use to deal with problems at work.
- 
- \* Traditional workers cope significantly less intensely than non-traditional workers (as measured by the strength of 21 coping behaviors).
  - \* Coping in work settings is significantly stronger than in home settings among both traditional and non-traditional workers.
  - \* The proportion of problem-solving to emotional-focused coping is significantly greater among non-traditional workers, at home only, not significantly different at work.
  - \* The theoretical model, including age, race, religion, education level, health status, own income, job stress, family stress, family composition, and role strain is significantly predictive of coping intensity at work and at home. This model is predictive for non-traditional workers at work and traditional workers at home only. The model is significantly predictive of the variety of strategies used by traditional workers only at work and at home.

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this investigation is to increase knowledge of the roles home and work factors play in working women's job performance, as evidenced by dysfunctional coping behaviors, such as accident rates, illness, or drug and alcohol abuse. The results will be useful for planning prevention efforts aimed at providing those women at risk with skills to adopt functional rather than dysfunctional coping behaviors. We propose a process model which suggests that work and home environments are related to stress and hence to certain repertoires of behaviors in a manner reflecting individual differences. We tested these relationships by measuring: 1) workplace stress and satisfaction factors, 2) home stress and satisfaction factors, 3) personal factors, and 4) dysfunctional coping behaviors, as a basis for possible prevention and intervention strategies. To do this, we recruited and surveyed a sample of 589 working women, including a 10% minority subsample, on a variety of scales measuring the four categories of variables. In addition, a subsample of 36 women was interviewed by project associates to validate the accuracy of the self-reports and the reliability of the instruments used. The subjects were union members in traditional and non-traditional jobs, that is, clerical workers, transit workers, and tradeswomen, in 2 major eastern metropolitan areas. Relationships were examined among the independent variables of work and home environments, work stress/satisfaction, home stress/satisfaction, coping behaviors and various indicators of job performance. Discriminant analyses were performed to help identify subgroupings of subjects according to their work and home environments and particular coping repertoires.

It was found that non-traditional workers experienced significantly less satisfaction and more stress at work than clerical workers. Most stressful for the blue-collar workers were the "actual work" they do, a lack of safety, their schedules, and child care needs; for clerical workers, "actual work", low pay, poor relationships with supervisors and coworkers, and a lack of opportunity for promotions were most stressful.

Multiple regression analyses were performed to predict both home and work stress and satisfaction, with both domains contributing significantly to each set of predictors. Intrinsic job factors (e.g. feeling valued) were the most powerful predictors of job satisfaction and stress. Substance use, as self-reported, was not extensive, nor was it found to be related to various types of self-reported stress. Analysis of job performance data showed that poor performance was negatively related to job satisfaction and health and positively related to role strain and family stress.

Overall, 83% of this sample considered themselves to be in good or excellent health; an overwhelming majority of subjects missed no work days. Multiple regression analyses were performed to predict health outcomes. Role strain and family stress were the predictors most frequently related to health dependent variables. Findings varied according to work status of traditional and nontraditional workers and family grouping.

Women in differing family configurations experienced significantly different levels of family satisfaction but not of family stress. Work environment was often as important as the home environment, and sometimes more important, in determining the levels of home/family satisfaction and stress experienced by these employed women.

## SPECIFIC AIMS

The study reported here was designed to establish a data-based description of the extent and pattern of dysfunctional work behaviors for a sample of women union members employed in two occupational groups, one a traditional occupation for women, the other, a non-traditional job. Clerical workers, tradeswomen, and transit workers were chosen. We examined the relationships between home and workplace stressors and supports and various outcomes such as coping behaviors, substance use and work outcomes, e.g. accident rates, absenteeism. We examined the variability in these outcome behaviors through differences in the subjects' home and work domains as well as through specific personal characteristics. We measured: 1) workplace factors, including process, e.g., positive interactions with fellow workers, non-supportive supervisor; structure, e.g., good physical environment, a closed mobility and pay increments system; perceived level of workplace stress, and perceived level of workplace satisfaction for each individual, representing how the particular factors are perceived to affect them; 2) home factors, including structure, e.g., school-age children at home, single parent; process attributes, e.g., quality of marital relationship, distribution of household responsibilities; and perceived level of home stress, and perceived level of home satisfaction for each individual, representing how she feels the particular factors affect her; 3) mediating personal factors, including structure, e.g., age, race, socioeconomic factors; and personal status, e.g., personality factors such as self esteem; and 4) selected work-related behaviors representing dysfunctional coping with stress, such as accident rates, absenteeism, lateness, and drug and alcohol use/abuse.

We examined the role of work and home characteristics which contribute to various dysfunctional coping patterns among women in the workplace. The issues addressed were whether: Certain adaptive and maladaptive behaviors, especially related to work outcomes, occur in relation to particular types and levels of home stress (including structure, process, and perceived stressfulness). Certain adaptive and maladaptive behaviors, especially related to work outcomes, occur in relation to particular types and levels of workplace stress (including structure, process, and perceived stressfulness).

This research is intended to be a first step in development of a) an understanding of the processes related to dysfunctional work-related coping behavior by women employed outside the home and, b) methodology for further research in the workplace. The results may be used as the basis for the design and implementation of appropriately targeted prevention and early intervention strategies.

## SIGNIFICANCE

### INTRODUCTION

Over the last decade, the number of women entering the paid labor force has risen sharply, with a record 39 million women, representing more than half of all American women, working outside the home (Stellman & Stellman, 1981). During the past twenty years the percentage of working mothers with children under three has doubled from sixteen to forty-four percent in 1981, and working mothers with school-age children grew from forty-three to sixty-six percent (Bronfenbrenner & Crouter, 1982).

Little research has actually been conducted on the general health and safety of women workers (Hricko with Blunt, 1976; Hunt, 1975), with concerns such as accident rates more likely to appear in research on men workers. For example, in the literature on work-related stress, there have been roughly six studies concerning men for every one concerning women (Haw, 1982). Likewise, research on dysfunctional drug and alcohol behaviors, traditionally viewed as more prevalent among men than women, has attempted to explain these abusive behaviors in terms of male rather than female patterns (Al-Issa, 1980). Recent studies focusing on women's alcohol use are often seen as poorly designed and biased, preventing an accurate assessment of the dimensions of the problem (Sandmaier, 1980). Unfortunately, little is actually known about the relationships of home and job stresses, and home and job supports to women's psychological functioning, and their work behaviors.

The paucity of current knowledge in this area is particularly striking with regard to how job and home stress and satisfaction are manifested on the job, information critically necessary for planning prevention efforts.

### ENVIRONMENTAL STRESSORS FOR EMPLOYEED WOMEN

Workplace. For an adult, one's job is of prime importance for both financial and personal status. Traditionally, "work is the social act around which each of us organizes most of his daily waking experience, and hopefully, establishes a meaningful and rewarding life routine" (Borow, 1964). Technological and social changes have significantly altered occupational settings, demands and rewards in the past two decades, but for each worker various basic human needs may be met by one's job. Menninger (1964) notes there are many psychological needs which can either be met, or unfulfilled, in occupational settings. Worksite-based problems, or perceived problems, can be of great importance, and can result from or be generated by factors at the job.

The majority (more than sixty percent) of employed women continue to work in traditional "women's jobs", e.g., clerical, teachers, hospital workers, sewers (Stellman & Stellman, 1981). Specific work characteristics have been documented (Ehrenreich, 1979; Hricko, 1976; Haynes & Feinleib, 1980; Love 1978; Mansfield, 1982; Stellman, 1977; Women's Occupational Health Resource Center, 1983) which are especially stress producing and common to these traditional women's jobs. These include boredom, lack of upward mobility, underutilization of skills, lack of control of physical environment, unequal pay, non-supportive boss, and being unable to express job-related hostility.

Previous studies have also investigated those aspects of work which mediate home variables. Kanter (1977) suggests five work dimensions that affect the family, including amount and schedule of time at work; rewards and resources; effect of job "culture" on worker's values, norms, interests, etc.; absorption or extent to which the job involves the worker; and the emotional climate of the worksetting, including stress, satisfaction, etc. Piotrkowski (1979) found that positive or negative carry-over from work influences the worker's home interactions with spouse and children. In a later study, Piotrkowski & Crits-Christoph (1982) found marital satisfaction, global satisfaction with family relations, and positive mood at home were all related to positive job mood for women in low-status jobs, as were family relations and positive home mood for high-status female job holders. However, for these high status employees, positive job mood is negatively associated with satisfaction with family relations.

The exact relationship of workplace stressors and dysfunctional work behaviors is not yet clearly documented. However, it appears that the work environment can either produce or exacerbate pre-existing pathology; it does not necessarily cause problems, although it can be the outlet for their manifestation. Parker (1979) reports the work factor of time pressure to be related to model quantity of alcohol consumed and frequency of consumption, as well as status inconsistency. Pearlin and Radabaugh (1976) add financial strain to the stressful conditions associated with alcohol use levels, and the 1973 Special Task Force on Work wrote:

Non-supportive jobs in which the worker gets little feedback on his performance appear to cause the kind of anxiety that may lead to or aggravate alcoholism. Work addition, occupational obsolescence, role stress and unstructured environments (for certain personality types) appear to be other important factors for both alcoholism and drug addition. (USHEW, 1973, p. 83)

The workplace may also provide support and positive reinforcement for an individual, even to the point of reducing, or ameliorating, individual and family risk factors which the employee brings with him/her to work. Support services included in employee assistance programs are one major source of help. In addition, satisfactory job experiences can offer the support of personal associations, a source of self-respect, or an opportunity for recognition and achievement. These positive factors can mitigate negative psychological pressures from both home and work, and thus may reduce poor work and personal performance behaviors such as accidents, absenteeism or substance abuse. It is also important to note that all workplace factors are seen uniquely by each individual worker, that is, as a perceived work stress of a certain magnitude.

Home. Home characteristics have also been found to be stressors, with both structure, e.g., demographic; and process, e.g., role demands, identified. Gore and Mangione (1983) found that gender and being a parent interact to influence level of symptomatology, supporting formulations regarding the stress of family roles for women. Cleary and Mechanic (1983) studied the influence of role responsibilities on depressive mood, and found that the strain of working and being responsible for the majority of child rearing significantly increased distress, with the strain greatest for working mothers with lower family incomes. The reciprocal can also occur, that is home characteristics can act as supportive factors as well. For example, a

spouse available and willing to share child care responsibilities and/or provide emotional support can moderate potential home stressors (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978). As noted in the discussion of workplace stressors, home factors are also uniquely viewed by an individual family member, that is, as a perceived home stress of a particular magnitude.

Certain problems occur in the case of married working women, particularly those with children. Haynes and Feinleib's (1980) findings for female clerical workers suggest that the combination of work, child-rearing, home-making, and financial responsibility all contributed to the high stress experienced by these women. Johnson and Johnson (1977) found that in dual career families with children, wives more than husbands report role strain, while in Gordon & Strober's (1978) and Haw's (1982) studies, wives again report more role strain than do husbands.

Mediating Factors. Obviously, not every working woman exposed to work and family stressors develops dysfunctional consequences. Important factors which influence the impact of such stressors on the individual may be grouped into two broad categories, following the coping model proposed by Pearlin & Schooler (1978): things that people are and things that people do. The individual's personal attributes (demographic, psychological) fall into the first group, and the individual's various coping strategies fall into the second.

Pearlin & Schooler's (1978) analysis of the structure of coping identifies three personality characteristics (personal attributes), self-esteem, self-denigration and mastery, as resources residing in the self that have been found to mediate the negative effects of stressors; assertiveness is an additional personality characteristic to be considered. Mastery, a characteristic labelled elsewhere as "internal locus of control" (Rotter, 1966), has been linked to an ability to be less demoralized in stressful situations (McFarlane, Norman, Steiner, Ray, & Scott, 1980). To a list of mediating personal attributes, demographic factors can be added, which help define who an individual is (rich/poor, white/nonwhite, etc.), and which influence the meaning of particular stressors on the individual.

Dysfunctional Work Behaviors. Specific coping strategies are behaviors which individuals use in order to manage the work and home stressors in their lives. Coping strategies may be thought of as two major types: those directly altering the environment so that stress is not experienced or is reduced at the source (e.g., renegotiating child care responsibilities) and those altering the personal experiences of stress once it has emerged (e.g., avoidance of stressful situations through absenteeism, or reliance on drugs and alcohol). When coping strategies fail to manage stress, other dysfunctional behaviors result, such as accidents or illness. Limited research has been conducted on the coping behaviors employed by women in the workplace, both those responses deliberately chosen and those entered into by a non-choice, or the dysfunctional responses to uncontrolled stress. The personal factors which govern these behaviors are not known, but are necessary information in order to deal with and/or prevent dysfunctional coping behaviors, e.g., accidents absenteeism or substance abuse. However, little effort has been made to identify specific strategies in relation to constellations of stressors.

## SUMMARY

It should be noted that although the home and the workplace are discussed as if they were two separate, distinct settings, there is ample evidence that events and experiences in one setting affect the other setting, and the individuals in each. Furthermore, these two settings are especially central in the lives of most employed women because they represent the two primary sources of mental health--to paraphrase Freud's words--"loving and working" (see Smelser & Erickson, 1980). Despite the importance of work and the home, however, little is actually known about the roles family and job stress and/or support play in working women's job performance. The paucity of current knowledge in this area is particularly striking with regard to the increased manifestation of dysfunctional work behaviors by women. If prevention efforts are to help reduce such risk behaviors, we must first be able to describe more clearly the relationships between certain work and home environments and certain coping behaviors, while controlling for important personal characteristics mediating these relationships. Specifically, by gathering data on workplace stress/support; home stress/support; personal variables; and job behaviors, we propose a model which suggests that work and home environments are related to certain repertoires of behavior in a manner which reflects particular individual differences of each woman worker. Once these relationships can be described, based on the proposed survey data, it will be possible to develop and implement strategies for those employed women seen as most at-risk.

### 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.

### 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.

## 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. Numerous scales and variables were used to measure these constructs. Each is fully described below.

### I. Work Characteristics

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 of 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 = .45): 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 harassment at their present job.

The major job variables of job satisfaction and stress were measured by two 16 item scales (one for Job Satisfaction, the other for Job Stress) 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).

### II. Home Characteristics

A parallel of the Work Environment Scale, the Home Environment Scale was developed for this study to assess various aspects of one's home environment. Subjects were asked to rate lists of adjectives and short phrases according to how well the items described various aspects of the respondents' home lives

MOST of the time. Items used for the scale were based upon concepts and findings in the work of Moos & Moos (1981), Spanier (1976), Gordon and Stellman (1981), and Braiker and Kelley (1979). Items were rated on a four-point Likert scale with scale responses ranging from (1) "not at all" to (4) "completely or nearly so", along with a "does not apply" option. Negative items were reverse-scored for analyses. The Home Environment Scale has four subscales which measure the nature of the day-to-day homelife, the relationship with one's spouse or partner, relationships with children, and relationships with others in the home. Since few respondents completed the last subscale, only the first three were used for analyses.

Day to Day Home Life (alpha = .92): 19 items measuring the general atmosphere, emotional and physical demands, and isolation experienced in the home.

Spouse-Partner Relationship (alpha = .93): 21 items measuring three dimensions of the relationship with a spouse or partner: Positive supportiveness, lack of support, and indifference.

Relationship with Children (alpha = .93): 22 items measuring general positive and negative characteristics displayed by "normal" children as well as a group of characteristics displayed by "troubled" children.

The Household Activity Index was developed for this study to provide measures of performance in ten domains of family or household work. These domains include: childcare and supervision; domestic chores, e.g. cooking and cleaning; car/home maintenance, organizing entertaining/leisure; managing finances; managing relationships with extended family; managing relationship with spouse/partner; health caregiving; and maintaining relationships with non-family members of the household. Five response categories enabled respondents to indicate what proportion of each activity they personally undertook, from (1) "almost none," to (5) "all or almost all." There was a "does not apply" option as well. The summed scores for participation in each of these tasks provided a variable called, the total household activity indicator, used to represent the respondent's total activity spent in accomplishing household tasks.

A single item representing input in household decision-making asked how many decisions the respondents made with respect to household matters. Response categories ranged from (1) "almost none" to (5) "all or almost all".

Whether the respondent contributed a major proportion to household income was assessed by dividing the total household income by the amount earned by the individual creating a provider variable. A dichotomous variable was thus constructed, where (1) a provider contributed more than 50% of household income, and an (2) non-provider contributed less than 50%.

The major home variables of home satisfaction and home stress were measured by the Home Satisfaction and Stress Scales developed for this study. These scales use the same format as the Job Satisfaction and Stress Scales and also have high internal consistency (alphas of .83 and .86, respectively). The 16 items on each of these scales measured household characteristics including: child care; finances; health status of family or close friends; housework; relationships 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.

Role strain experienced between job and family was measured using a modified version of Bohlen and Viveros-Long's Job-Family Role Strain Scale (1981). Factor analysis of the six items yielded two subscales of role conflict and role overload.

### III. Personal Characteristics

Health, was measured by a five-point Likert scale of perceived health, ranging from "very poor" to "very good;" Hostility, Anxiety, and Depression, were assessed 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, was measured by the ten-item Rosenberg What Am I Like Scale (1985), with reported test-retest reliability of .85 (Robinson & Shaver, 1973). Assertiveness, was determined by using McLachlan and Walderman's (1976) Assertiveness Scale with reliability reported in excess of .70. Sex Role Orientation (traditional vs. nontraditional) was assessed 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 (Dreyer, et al., 1981).

### IV. Demographic Characteristics

Numerous variables were used to measure the demographic characteristics of this sample. For the purposes of the statistical analyses, values may have been categorized. The variables include:

1. Age
2. Race (white, non-white)
3. Income (both own and total household)
4. Education (high school or less; more than high school)
5. Location (urban, nonurban)
6. Type of work (traditional clerical, nontraditional bluecollar)
7. Type of family (married with children, married without children, single with children, single without children).
8. Strength of religious belief (important, not important)
9. History of discrimination or abuse

### V. Ways of Coping at Home and Work

A modified set of items was selected for this study from scales suggested by Lazarus and Folkman (1980), focusing on the two domains of problem-management and emotional-management. We selected items from both scales as well as additional items suggested in an earlier study of nursing (Vicary, Mansfield et al. 1988) in order to generate a selection of options appropriate to experience in both home and work domains. Respondents considered the 21 options twice; first while considering their responses when feeling pressured, stressed or anxious at work, and then at home. In each domain, this provided two scales comparable to the Lazarus and Folkman as well as four subscales of emotion-management (religion, release, avoidance, and social support). In the family measure, problem-management included 5 items and emotion-management included 16 items ( $\alpha = .74$  and  $\alpha = .76$ , respectively) while in the work measure problem management included 4 items and the emotion management included 17 items ( $\alpha = .76$  and  $\alpha = .76$ , respectively).

## VI. Substance Use

Substance use was measured in a variety of ways using Swisher and Vicary's Business and Industry Needs Assessment (1983, revised 1985) ( $\alpha = .91$ ) Information was illicited concerning the use of 16 different types of drugs representing the broader categories of nicotine, alcohol, licit drugs, illicit drugs, and nonprescription drugs. Data collected on this assessment determined how often, how much, and when each day was used. The respondent was also questioned about how concerned she was about drug use of family members, coworkers, and self. Pilot studies using this assessment and other research (O'Malley, Bachman, & Johnson, 1983) have determined that the reliability and validity of self-reported drug use is comparable to other measures and indicators of drug behavior.

## VII. Health Outcomes

Women's health was measured by: a) number of work days missed due to illness, b) number of work days taking medicine prescribed by a doctor for a work-related health condition, c) number of work days missed because of injury received at work, d) number of work days missed because of injury received away from work, e) number of days left work early because of not feeling well, f) number of health professional visits made because of physical or mental health problems, g) how often job performance was impaired because of physical health problems, h) how often job performance was impaired because of emotional health problems, and i) self-rating of present health status.

## VIII. Job Performance

Two criteria are used to measure the respondent's job performance: self-reported performance ratings and self-reported absenteeism.

Four items were designed to measure the respondent's performance. Respondents were asked to indicate how often they performed poorly because of their emotional health, physical health, problems at work, and problems at home. These four items were summed to form a composite scale. The internal consistency for this scale was estimated at .88.

Six items were designed to measure absenteeism. Respondents were asked to indicate the number of days that they were absent because of illnesses, work related injuries, family problems, and off-work injuries. They were also asked to indicate the number of days that they started their work late and the number of days that they left work early. Because of the low inter-correlations among the six items, we were unable to form a composite scale. Thus, each single item was considered as a criterion variable.

## DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

The final sample of this project consisted of 589 working women. Of these women, 69 percent (N=405) were school secretaries and clerical workers (traditionalists) and 31 percent (N=184) were blue-collar skilled craftpersons and tradeswomen (nontraditionalists). While in general comparisons between these two groups cannot be properly interpreted without taking into consideration other factors such as race and age, it is nonetheless interesting and useful to examine some of the demographic similarities and differences between the clerical and blue-collar workers in this sample.

In this sample the clerical workers were predominantly white, with only 5 percent of the clerical being nonwhite as compared to 30 of the blue-collar women. The clerical workers were also considerably older than their blue-collar counterparts, with an average age of 49 years versus 38 years respectively. Sixty percent of the clerical workers had completed high school or the equivalent as compared to 42 percent of the blue-collar workers. Although more of the blue-collar workers than clerical workers did not obtain a high school degree (8 vs. 2 percent), more of the blue-collar workers also pursued their education beyond the high school level (50 vs. 38 percent).

Income levels for these two groups were strikingly different. Only 1 percent of the clerical workers had a yearly salary of \$31,000 or more, and 17 percent made under \$11,000. The comparable figures for the blue-collar workers were 18 percent who made over 31,000 and 15 percent who made under 11,000. When one looks at the total household income however the numbers change somewhat: 59 percent of the clericals and 50 percent of the blue-collar workers made 31,000 or over, and only 1 percent and 8 percent of the clericals made under 11,000.

The marital status of these women seems to coincide with the traditionality or nontraditionality of their jobs. Fully 73 percent of the clerical workers were married, compared to only 35 percent of the blue-collar workers. More of the blue-collar workers were both never-married (25 vs. 8 percent) and divorced (39 vs. 11 percent). The only nonmarried category in which clerical workers outnumbered the blue-collar workers was that of "widowed", which accounted for 9 percent of the clericals and only 1 percent of the blue-collar women. Slightly more than half of both groups of women have children living at home (58 and 55 percent respectively). Of these women, more blue-collar workers have at least one child under the age of six (16 percent) or between the ages of six and eighteen (34 percent) than do clerical workers (5 and 23 percent respectively). However, more clerical workers have children over eighteen years of age still living at home (39 vs. 20 percent).

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

|                          | <u>Traditional</u><br>(N=405) | <u>Nontraditional</u><br>(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

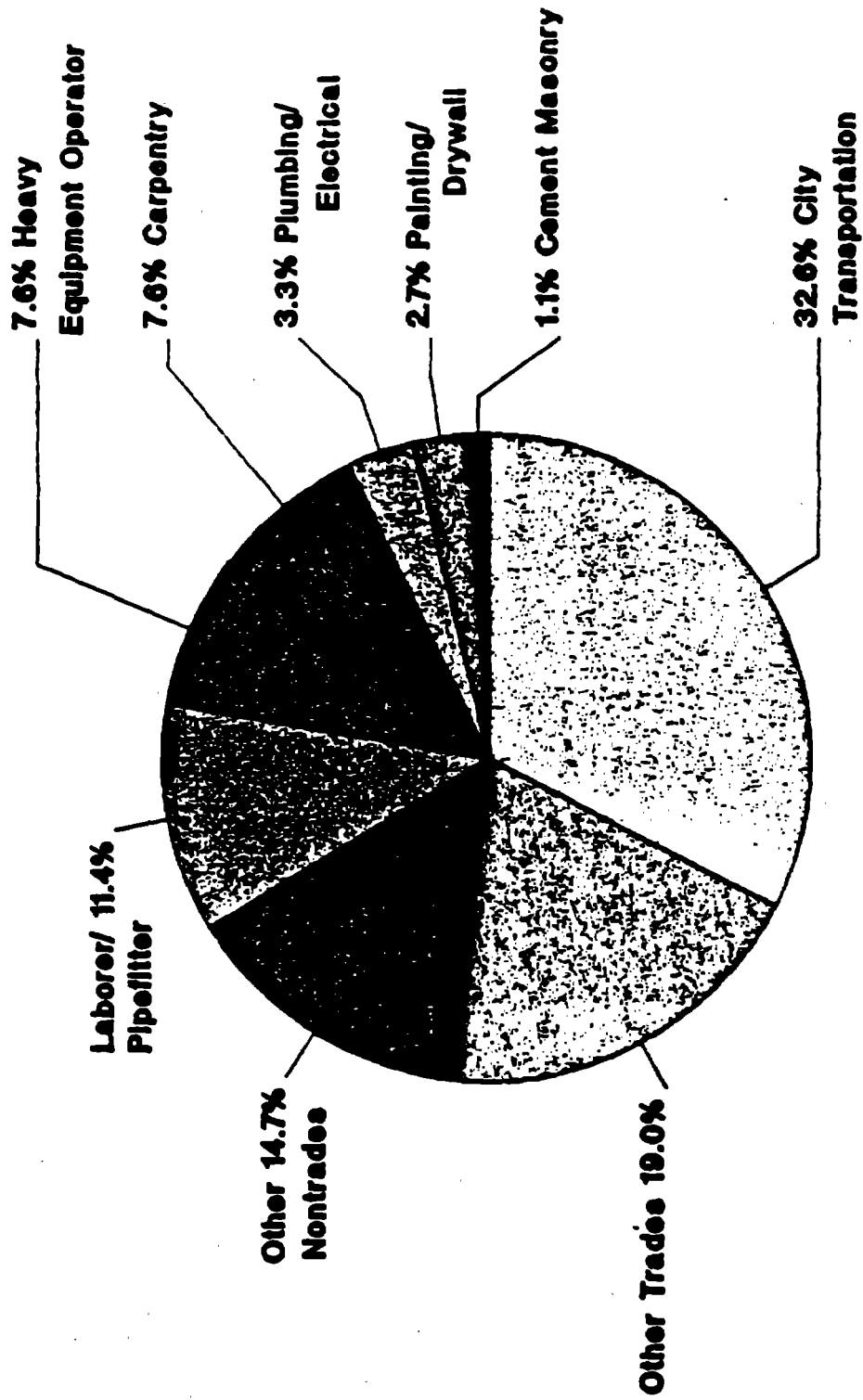
\*\*Difference significant at p<.01 level

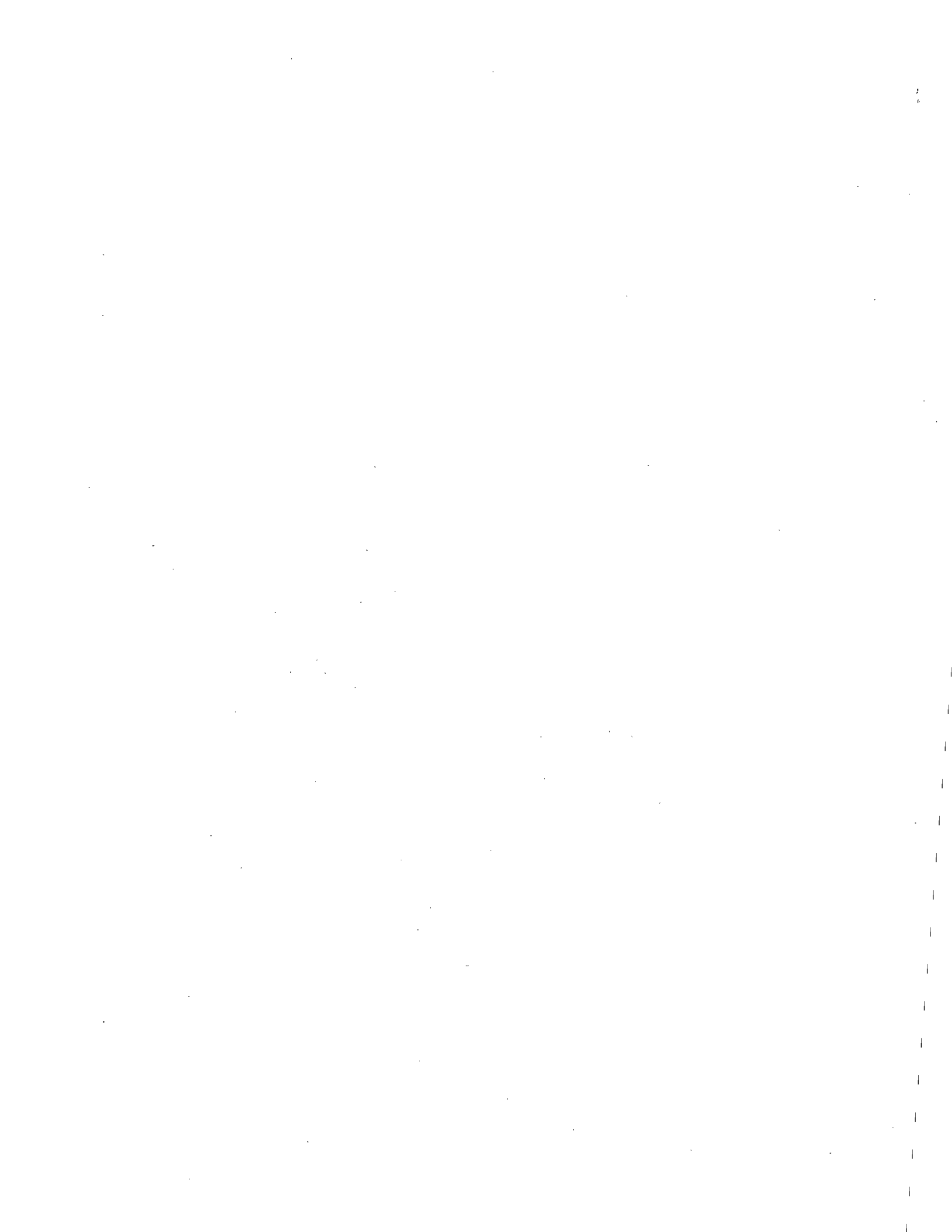
\*\*\*Difference significant at p<.001 level

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

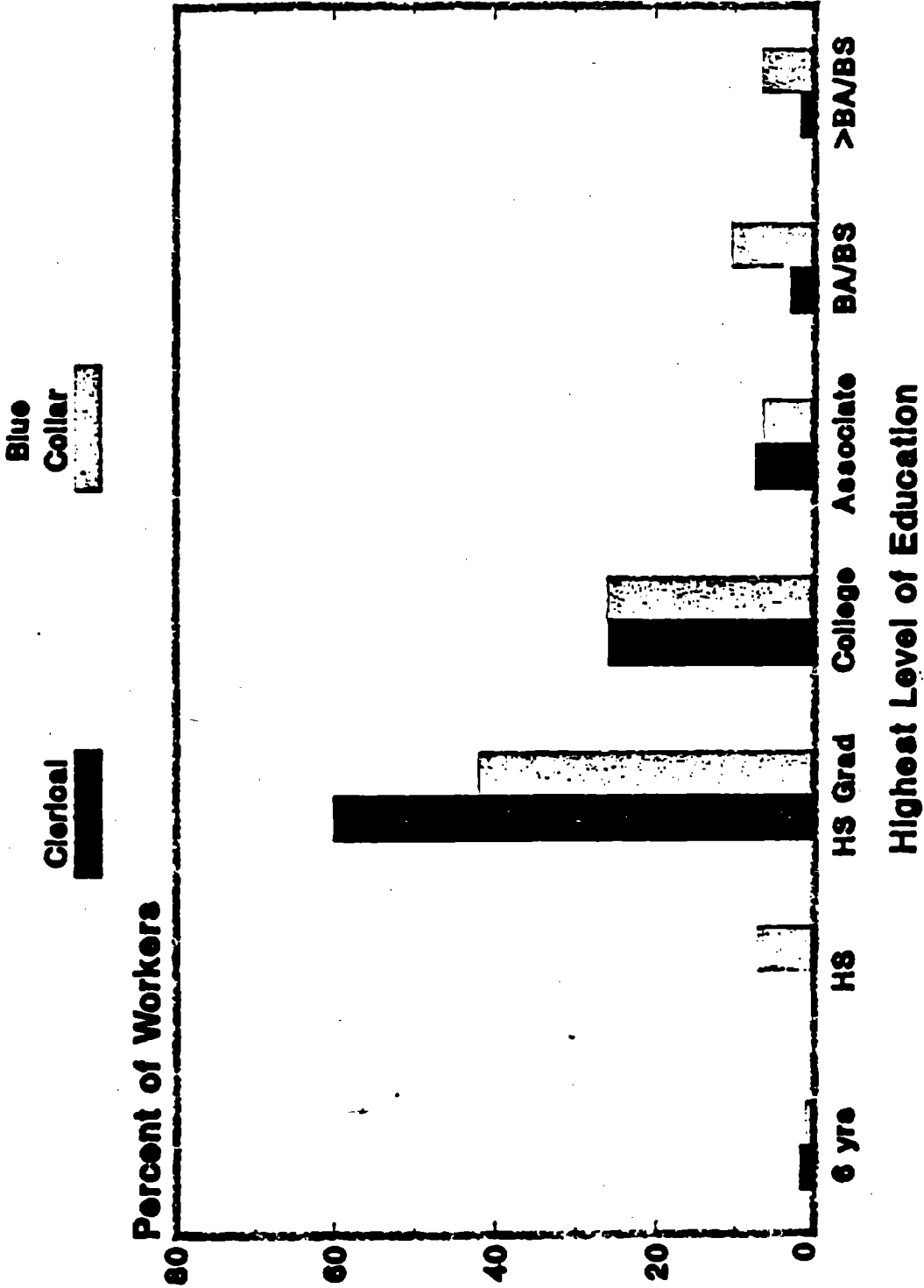
Note: All tests were chi-square analyses, except for a t-test to compare mean ages.

# BREAKDOWN OF NONTRADITIONAL JOB TYPES



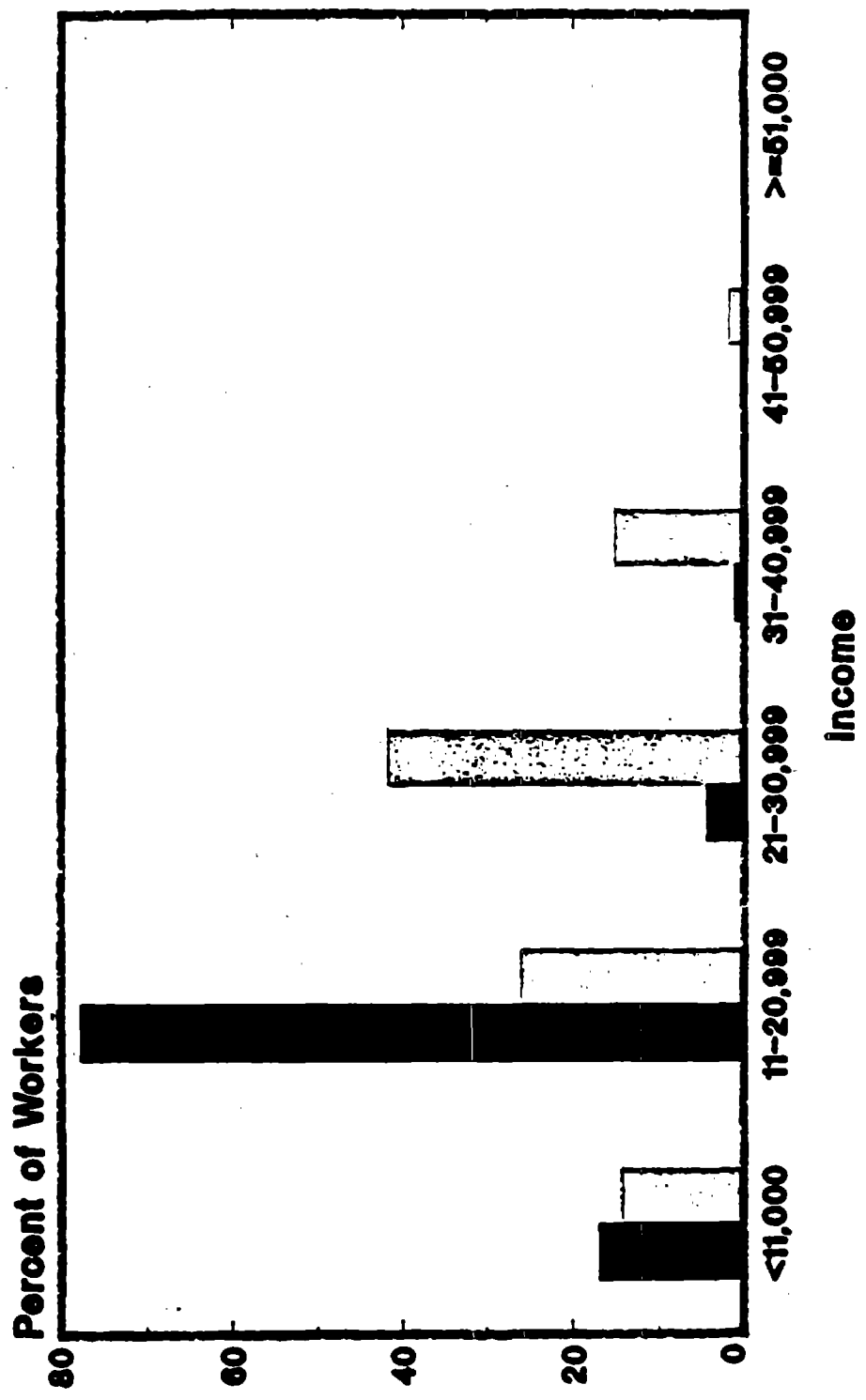


# Worker Educational Attainment Clerical vs. Blue Collar



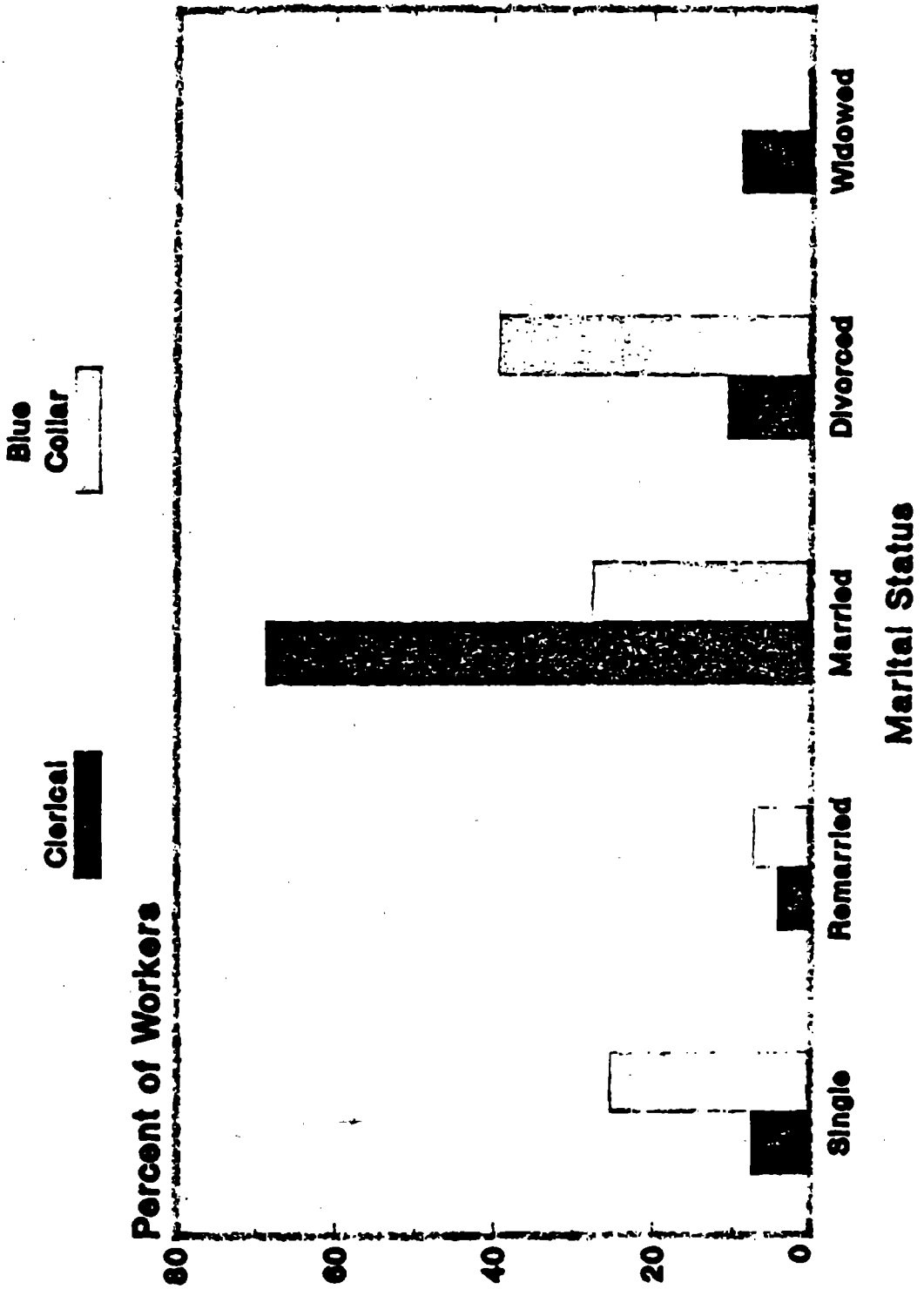
# Annual Personal Income (before taxes) Clerical vs. Blue Collar

Clerical  
Blue Collar



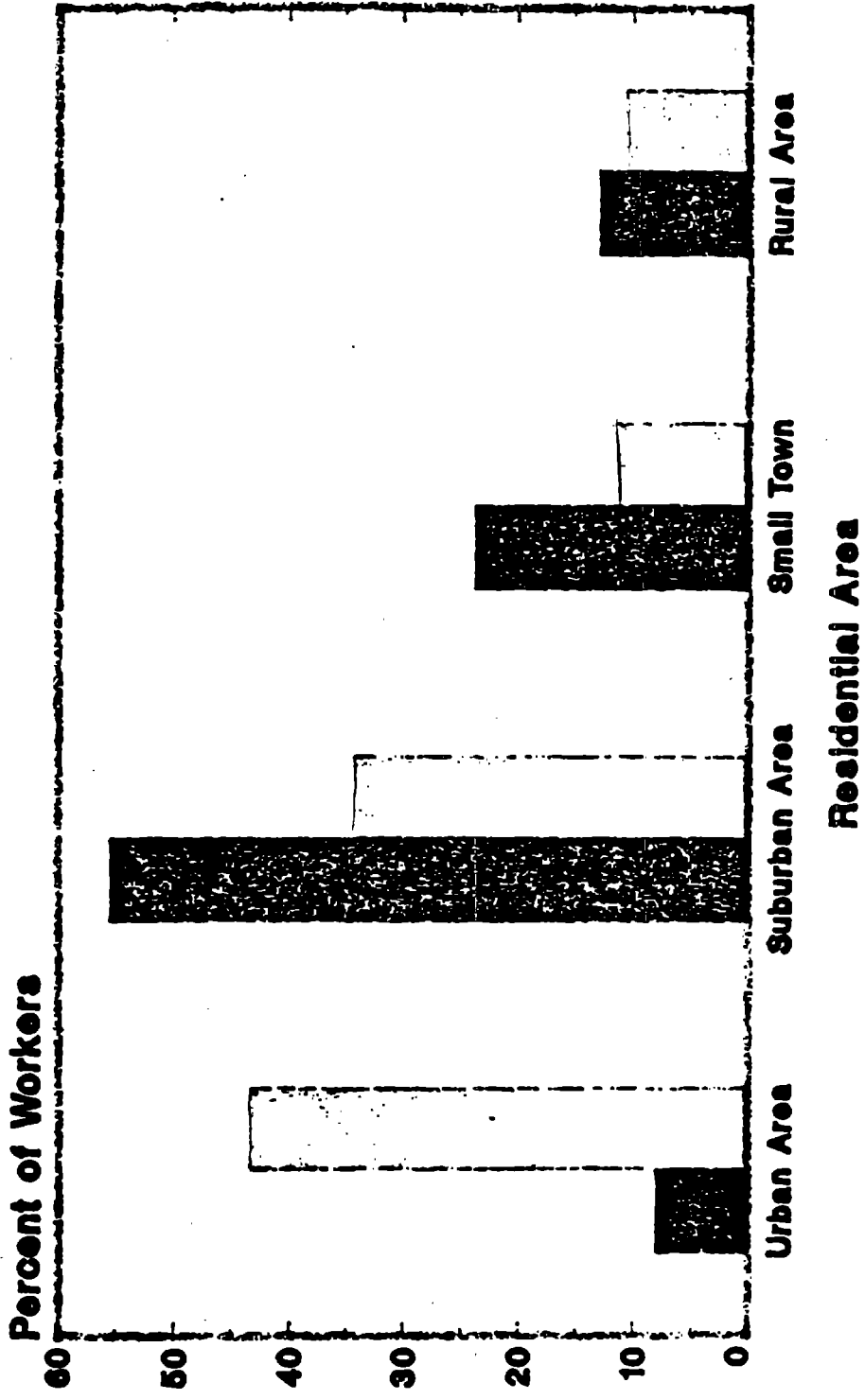
# Marital Status of Workers

## Clerical vs. Blue Collar

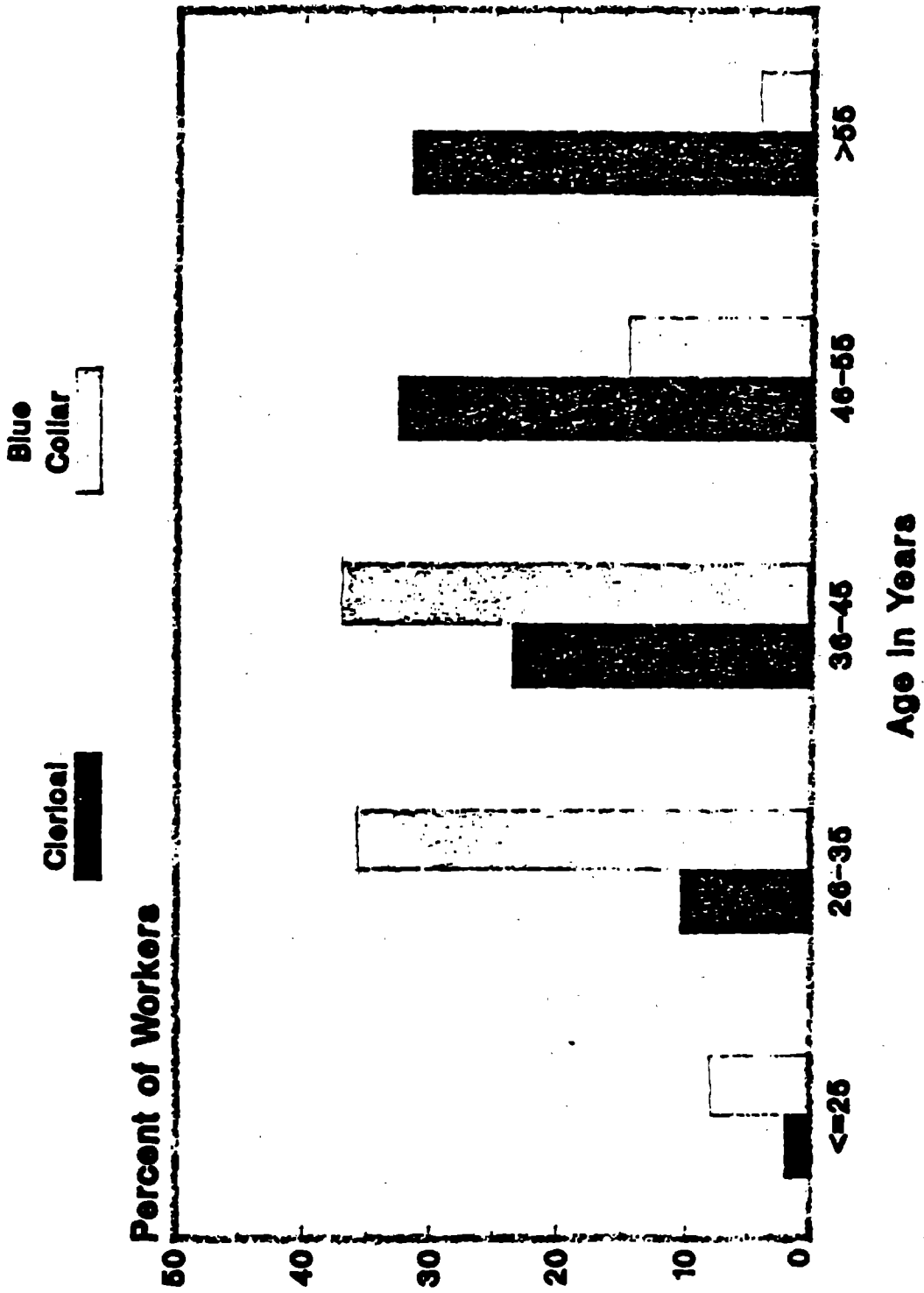


# Workers' Place of Residence Clerical vs. Blue Collar

Clerical  
 Blue Collar

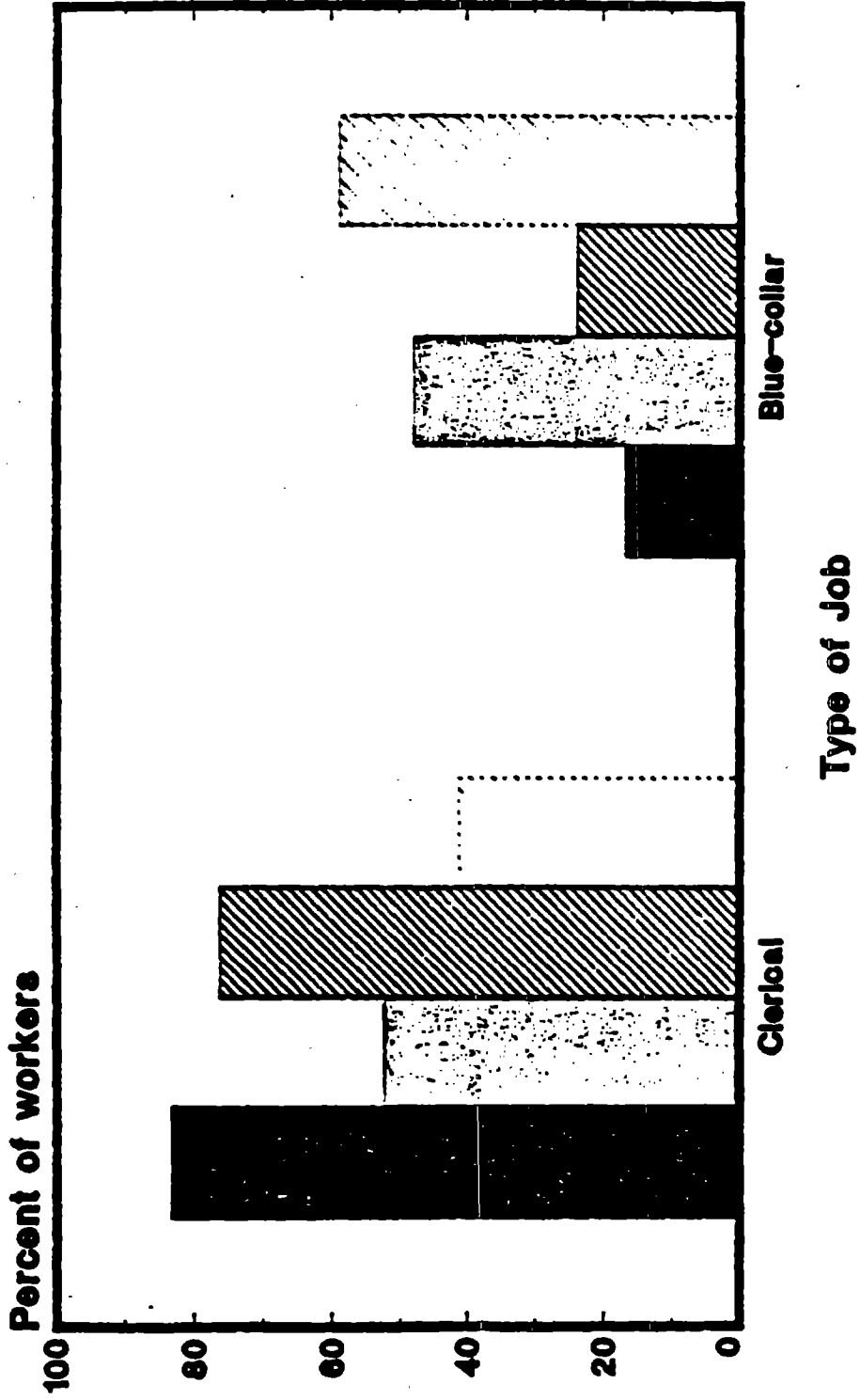


# Age of Workers Clerical vs. Blue Collar



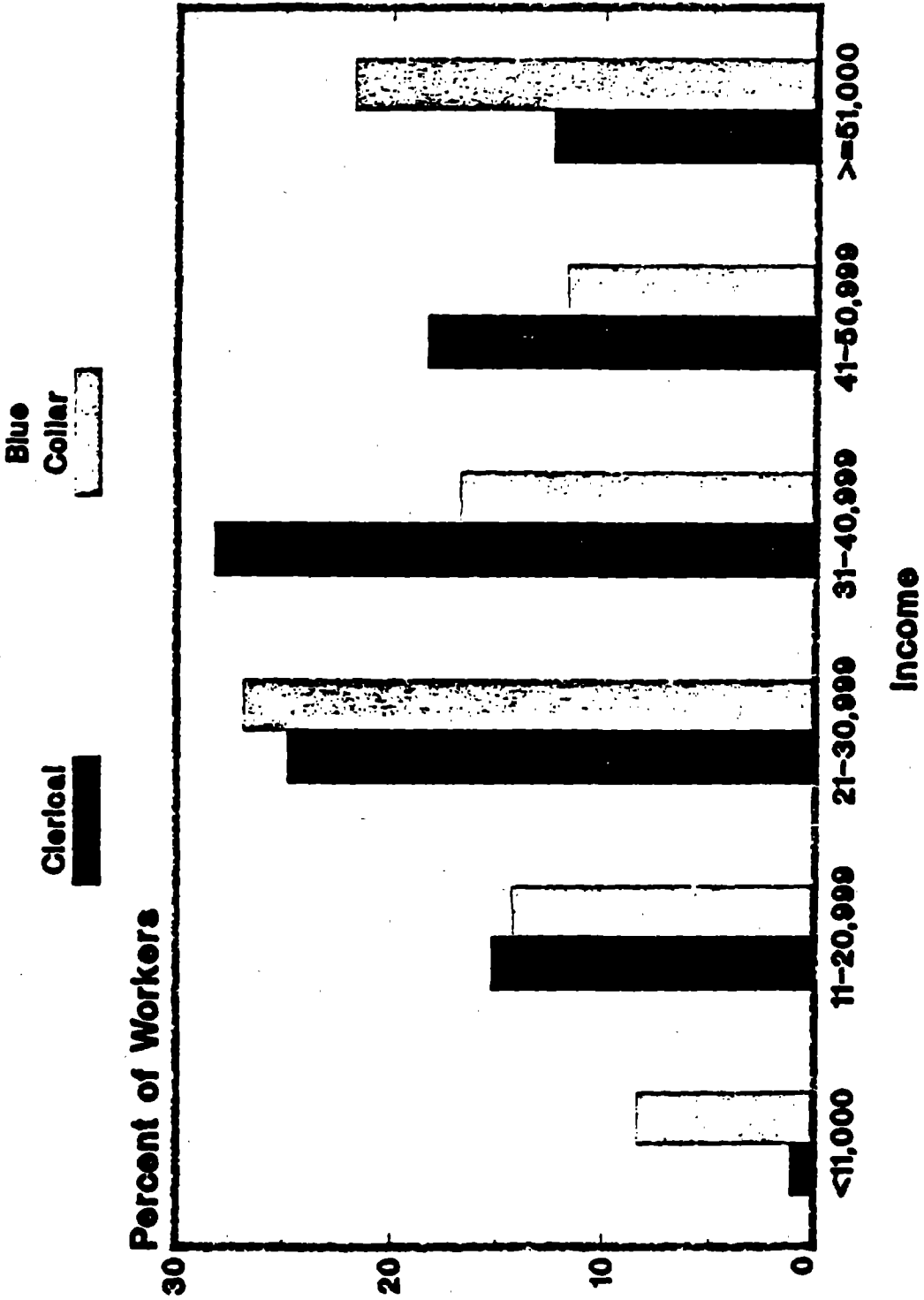
# Breakdown of Job Type by Family Unit

**Married & Kids** 
     
 **Unmarried & Kids** 
     
 **Married & No Kids** 
     
 **Unmarried & No Kids** 



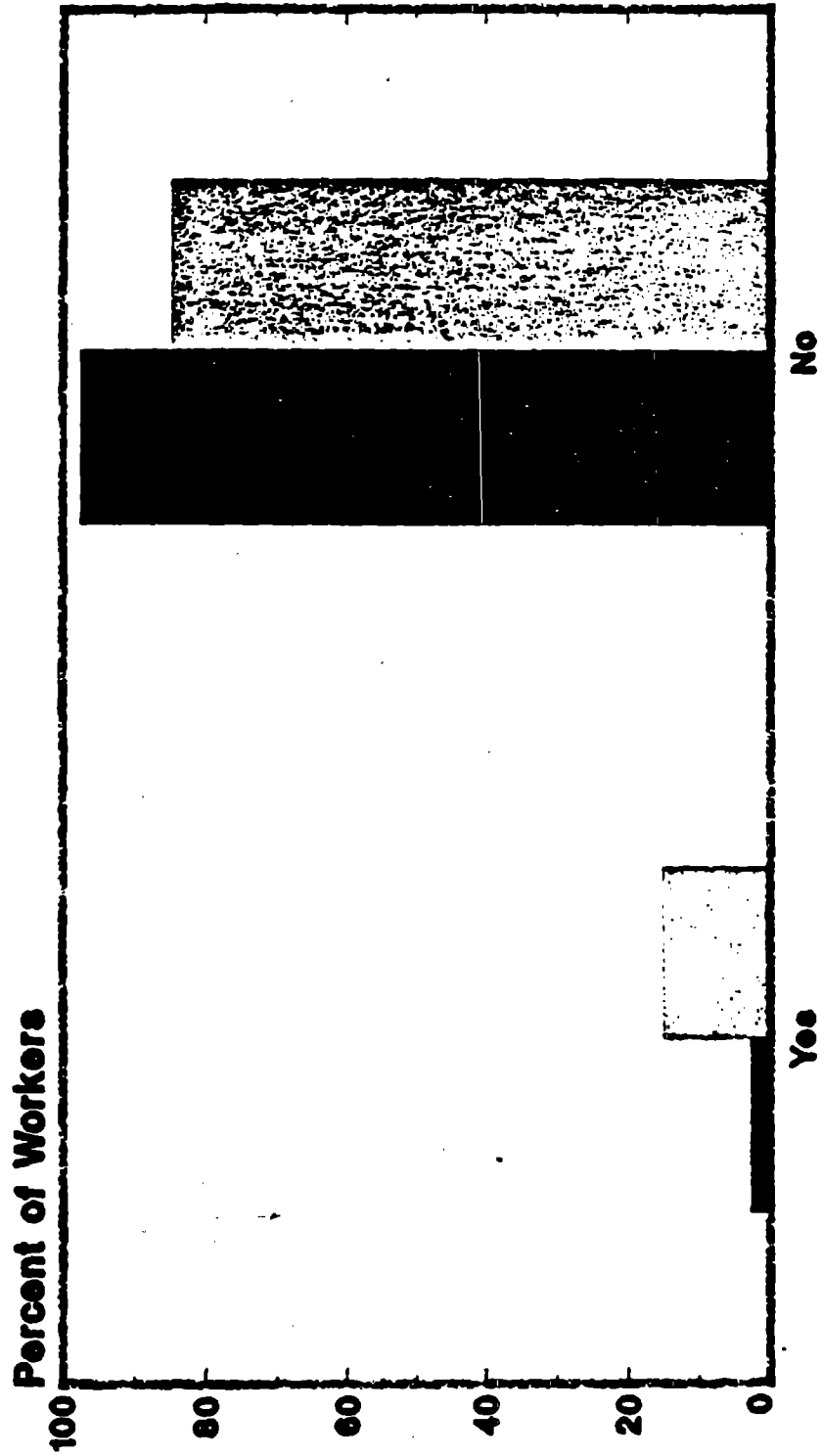
# Total Household Income (before taxes)

## Clerical vs. Blue Collar



# History of Rape Clerical vs. Blue Collar

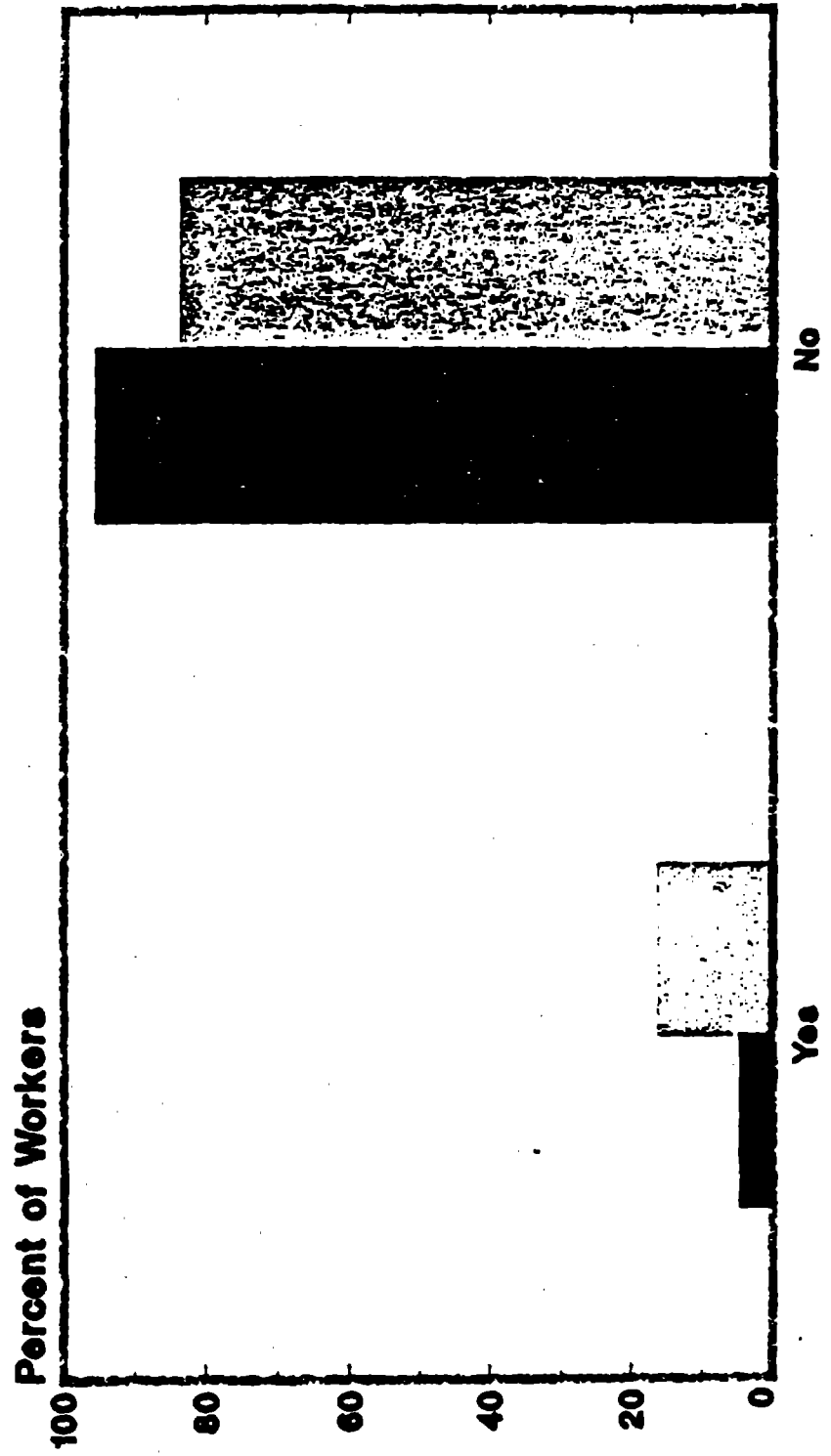
Clerical  
Blue Collar



Have You Ever Been Raped

# History of Sexual Abuse Clerical vs. Blue Collar

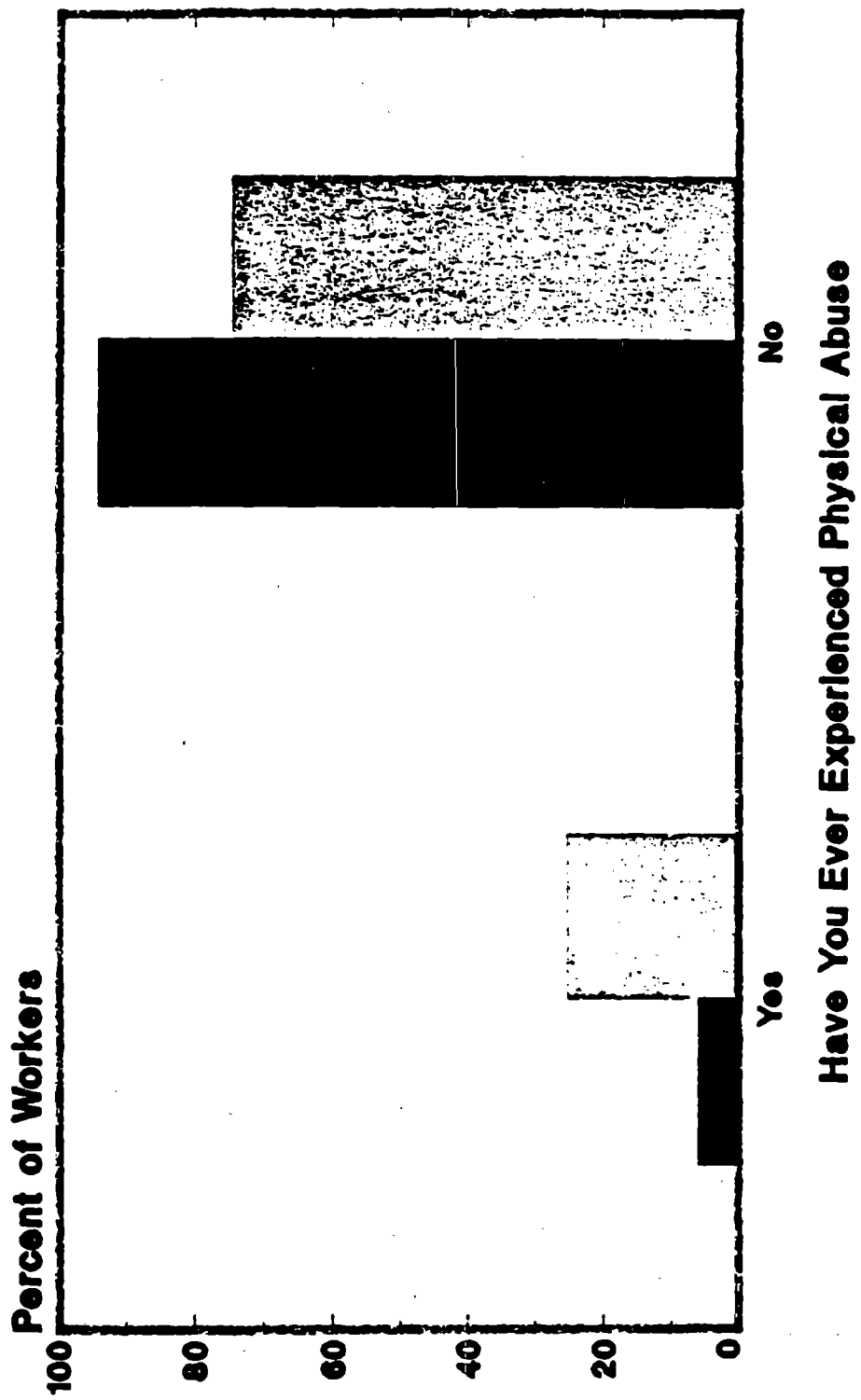
Clerical  
Blue Collar



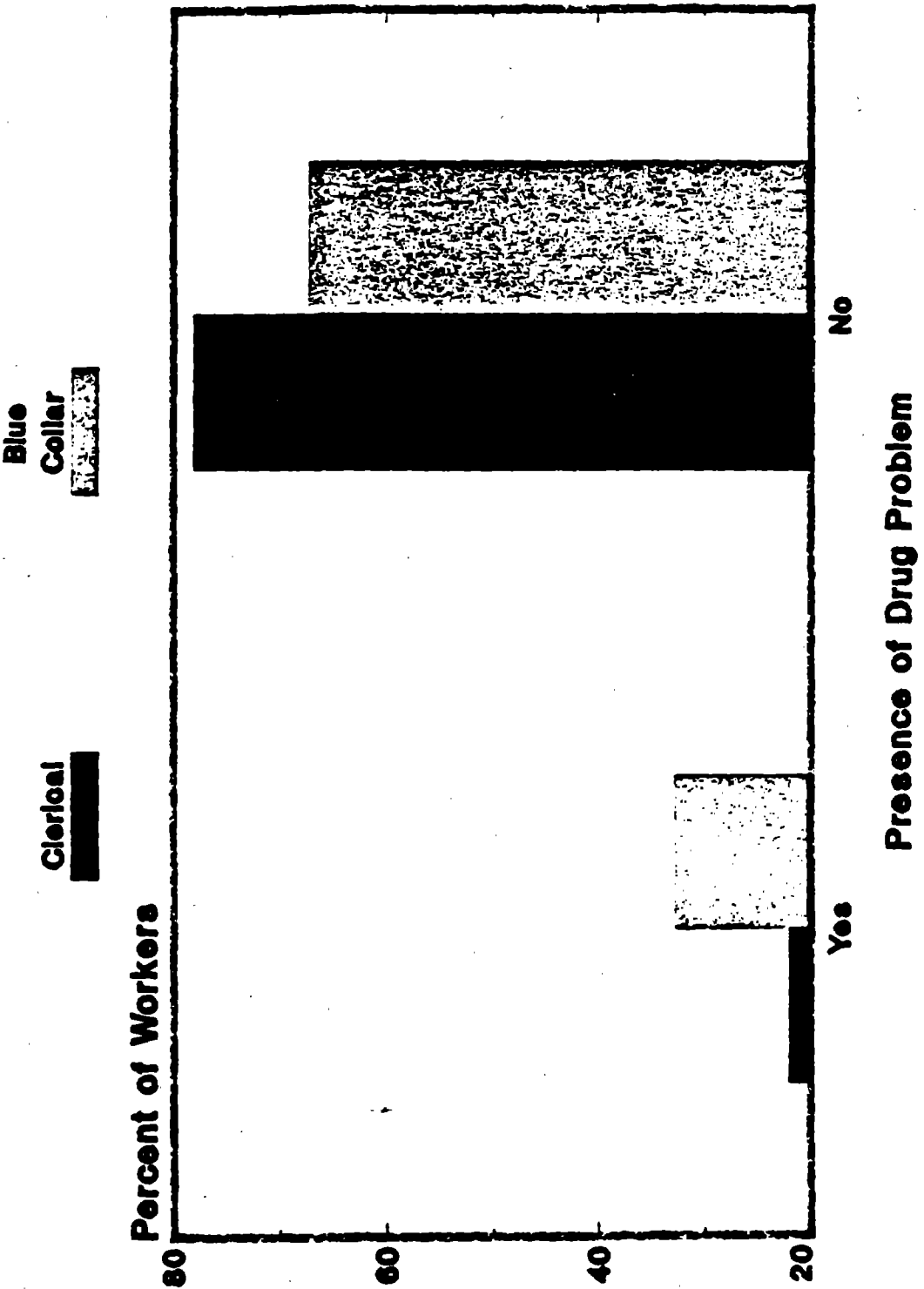
Have You Ever Experienced Sexual Abuse

# History of Physical Abuse Clerical vs. Blue Collar

Clerical  
Blue Collar



# Drug Problems Among Family Members During Childhood Clerical vs. Blue Collar



## RACE PROFILE

The recent literature has identified race as an important variable often neglected in studies of women workers. This study's design included sampling from black as well as white populations to avoid this flaw.

Within our white sample, three-quarters were clerical workers, while three-quarters of the nonwhite sample were blue-collar workers. The white women were also slightly older than the nonwhite women, with average ages of 46 versus 41 years respectively. The majority of the white women were married (60 percent) while the majority of the nonwhite women were divorced (48 percent). Most women in the white sample have children over the age of 18 living at home (33 percent), while most of the black women (54 percent) have school-aged children ages 6 to 18.

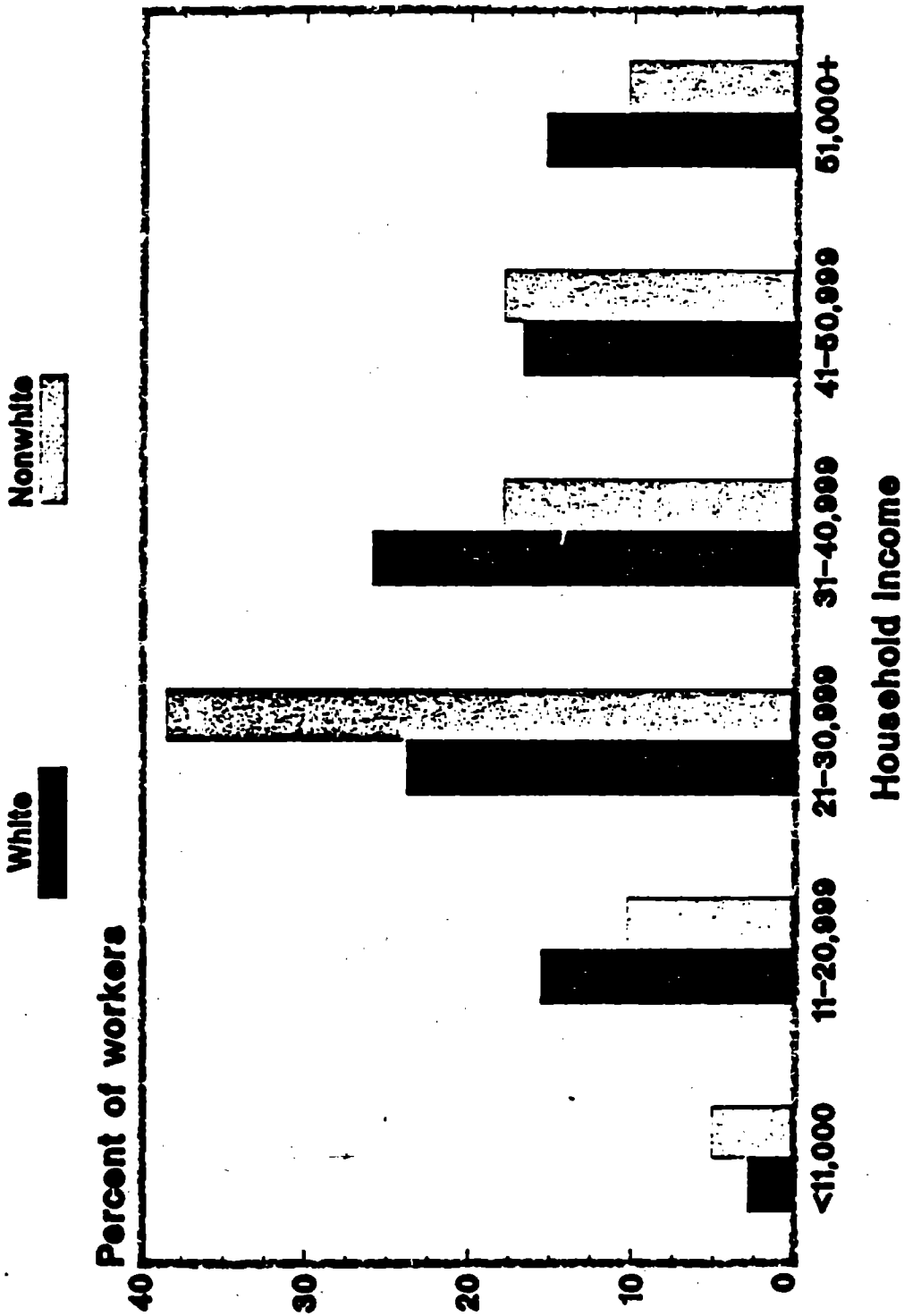
More nonwhite women lived in urban areas (71 versus 11 percent) while the majority of white women lived in suburban areas (53 versus 21 percent). More white women received a high school degree than did nonwhite women (56 versus 43 percent), although this is partially because more nonwhite women pursued their education beyond the high school level (49 versus 41 percent). While very few white and nonwhite women earned more than \$31,000 per year (6 and 8 percent respectively), most nonwhites earned \$21,000-30,999 per year (46 percent) while most whites earned \$11,000-20,999 per year (65 percent). Many more whites than nonwhites earned under \$11,000 per year (18 versus 6 percent), presumably because of the large percentage of nonwhite workers employed in the higher-paying blue-collar jobs.

One striking finding of this study concerns the degree of perceived racial and sexual discrimination and harassment in the workplace. Many more nonwhites reported experiencing sexual harassment (47 versus 16 percent) and sexual discrimination (38 versus 18 percent) than did whites. In addition, nearly one-half of the nonwhite sample perceived that they had been racially discriminated against. These findings point to the difficulties associated with the "double jeopardy" of being both female and black.

Further analyses will investigate the role of these racial differences in predicting the outcomes of interest to this study, with particular attention paid to the very different personal experiences of the two racial groups.

# Race and Total Household Income

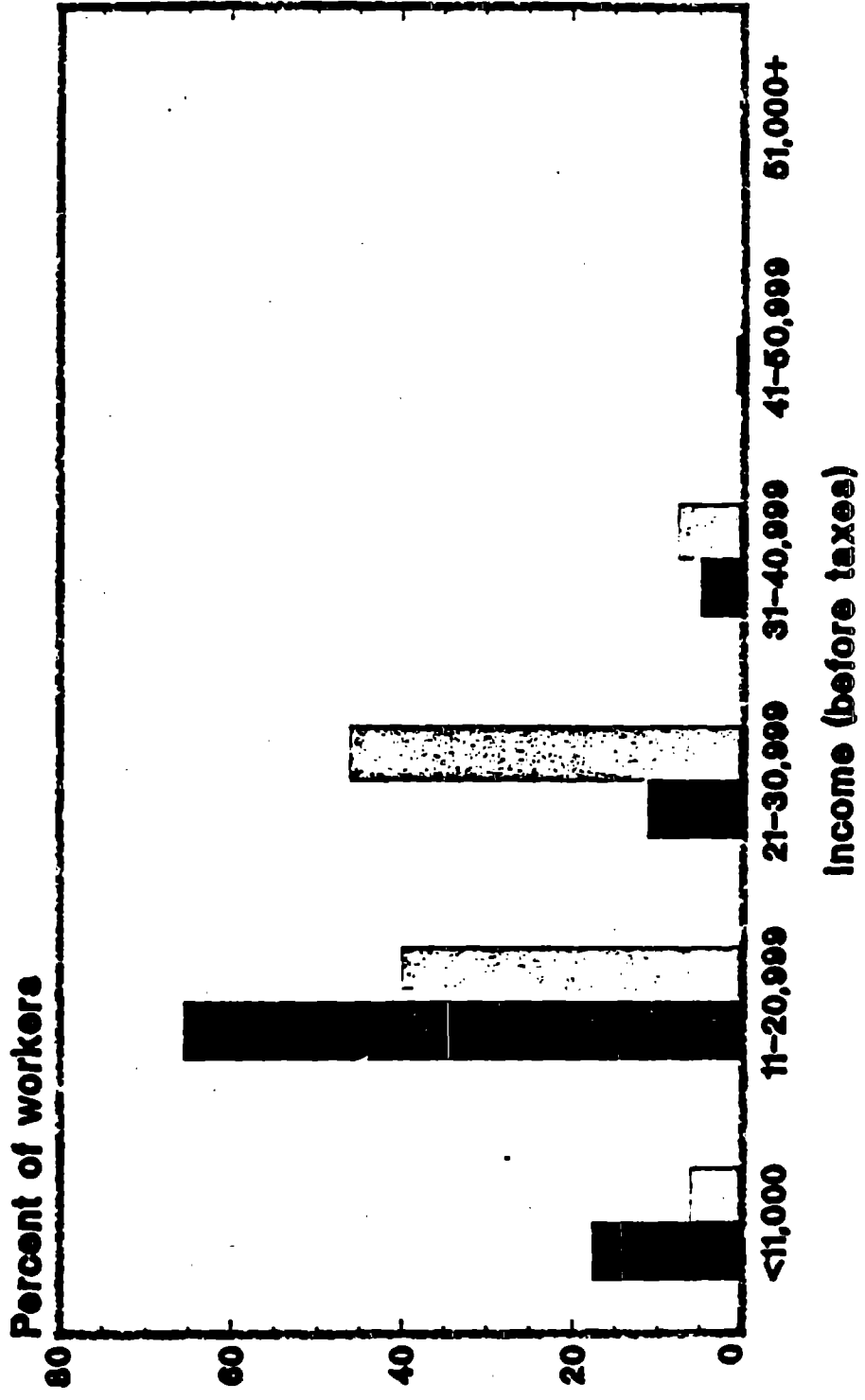
## White vs. Nonwhite



# Race and Annual Personal Income

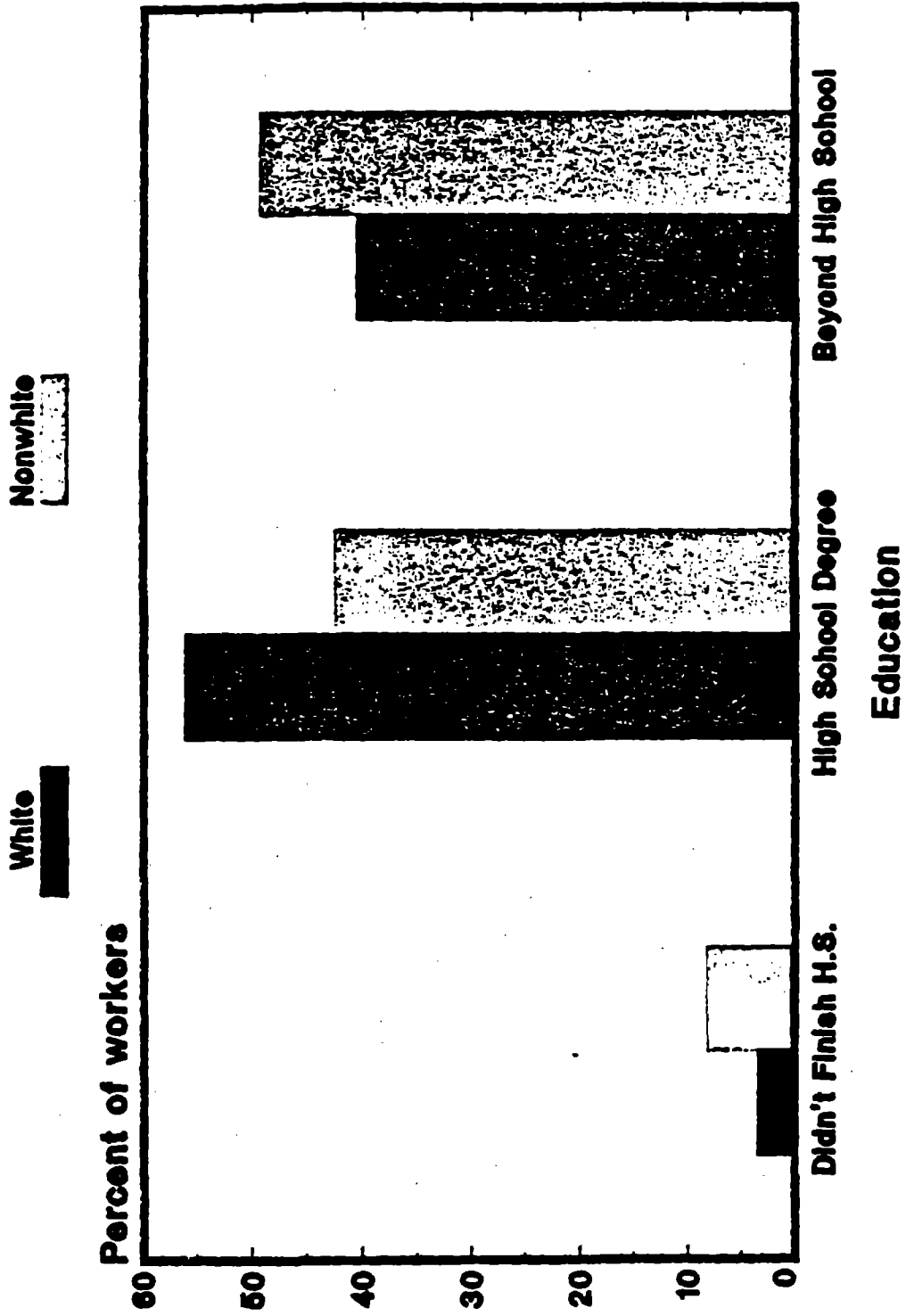
## White vs. Nonwhite

White  Nonwhite 



# Race and Level of Education

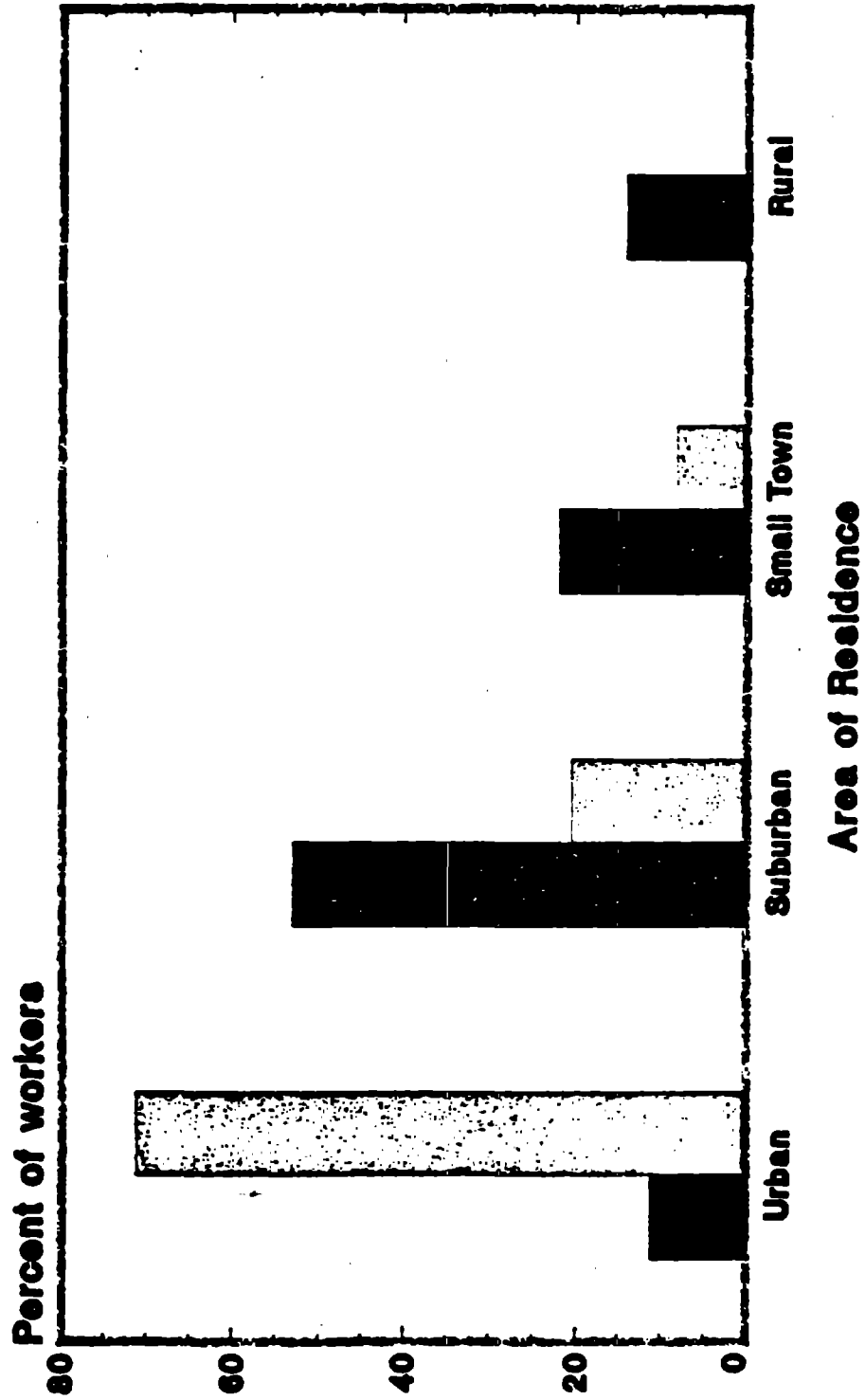
## White vs. Nonwhite



# Race and Area of Residence

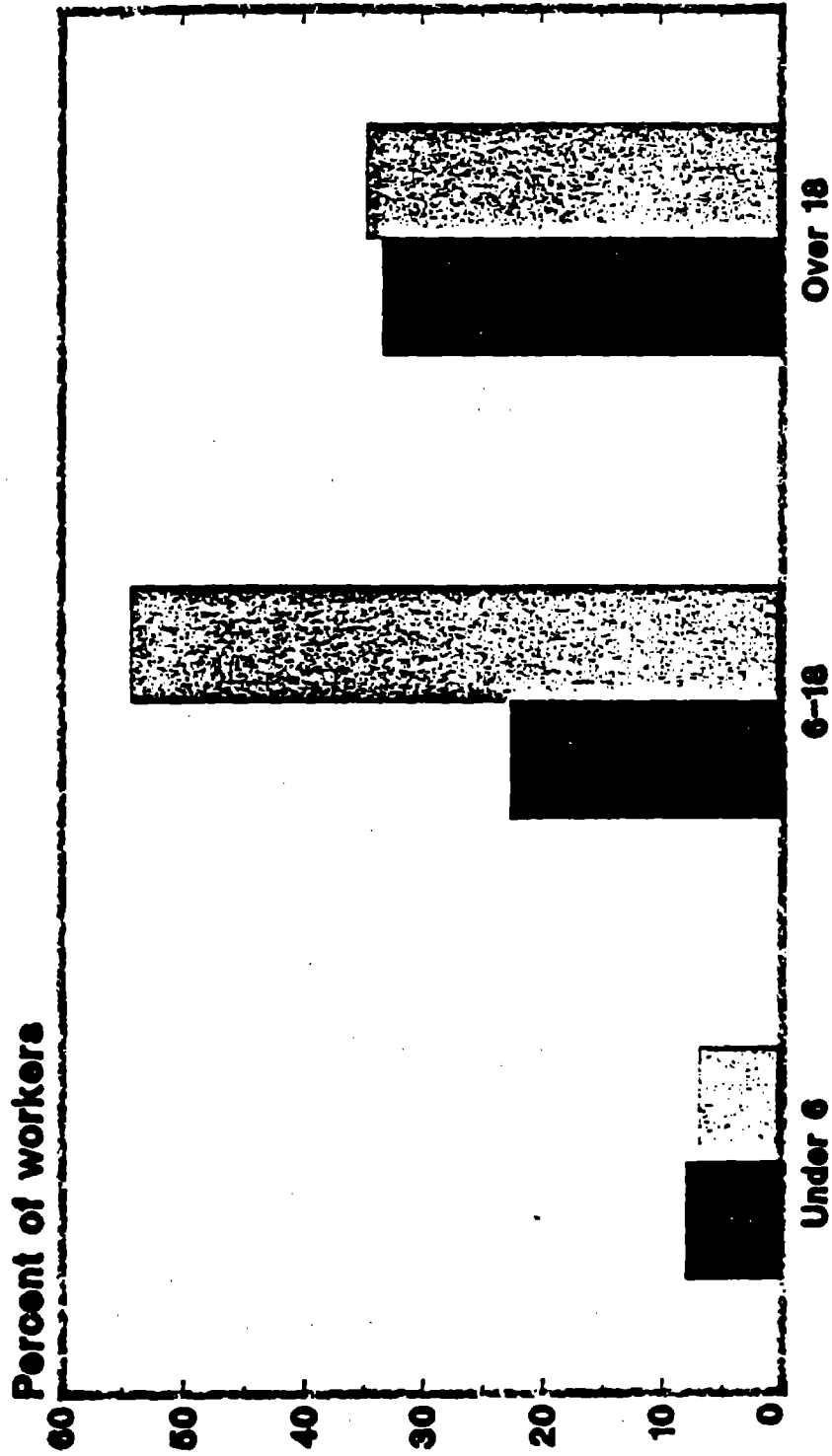
## White vs. Nonwhite

White  
Nonwhite



# Ages of Children Living at Home White vs. Nonwhite

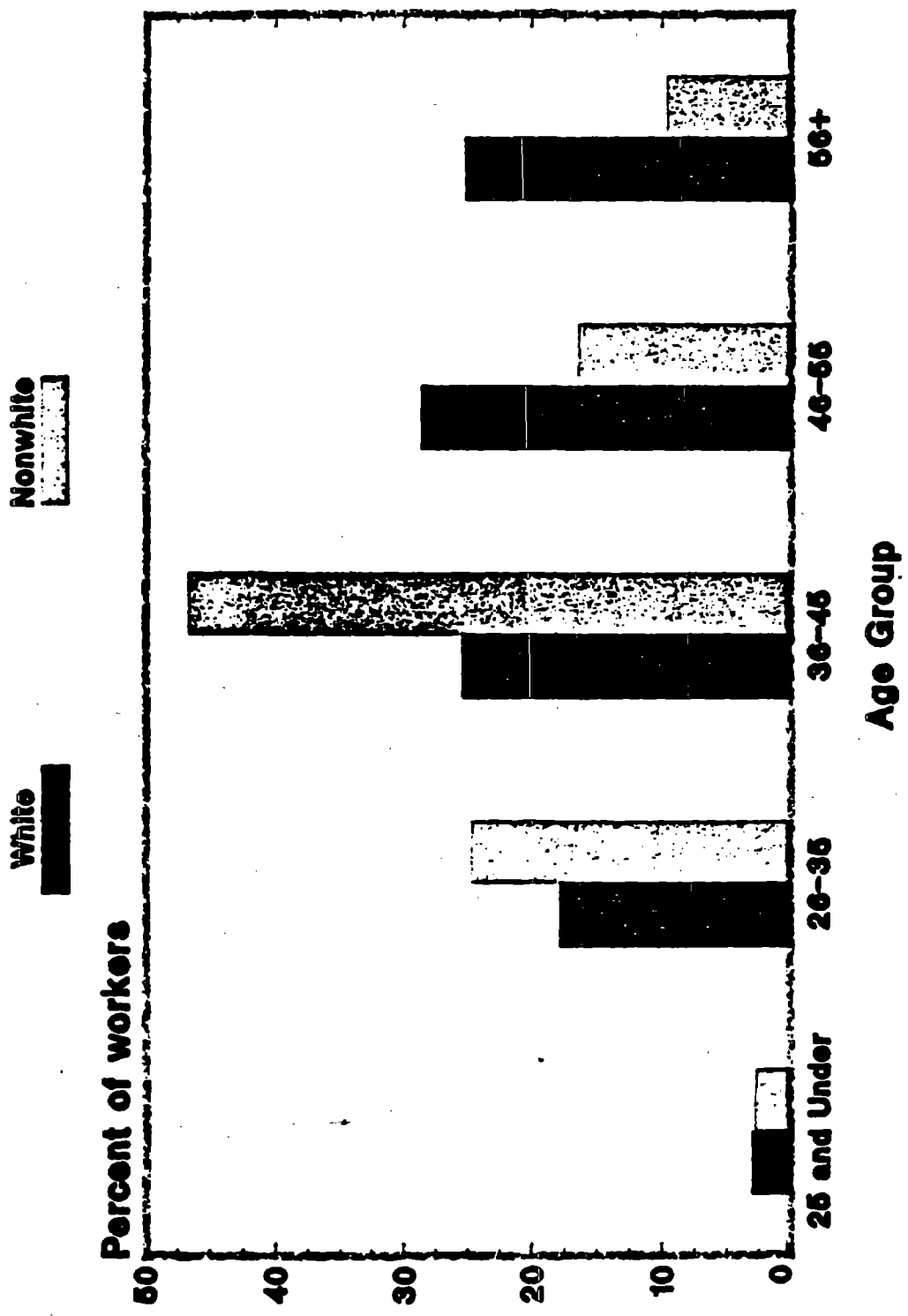
White  Nonwhite 



Ages of Children  
for women with a least one child

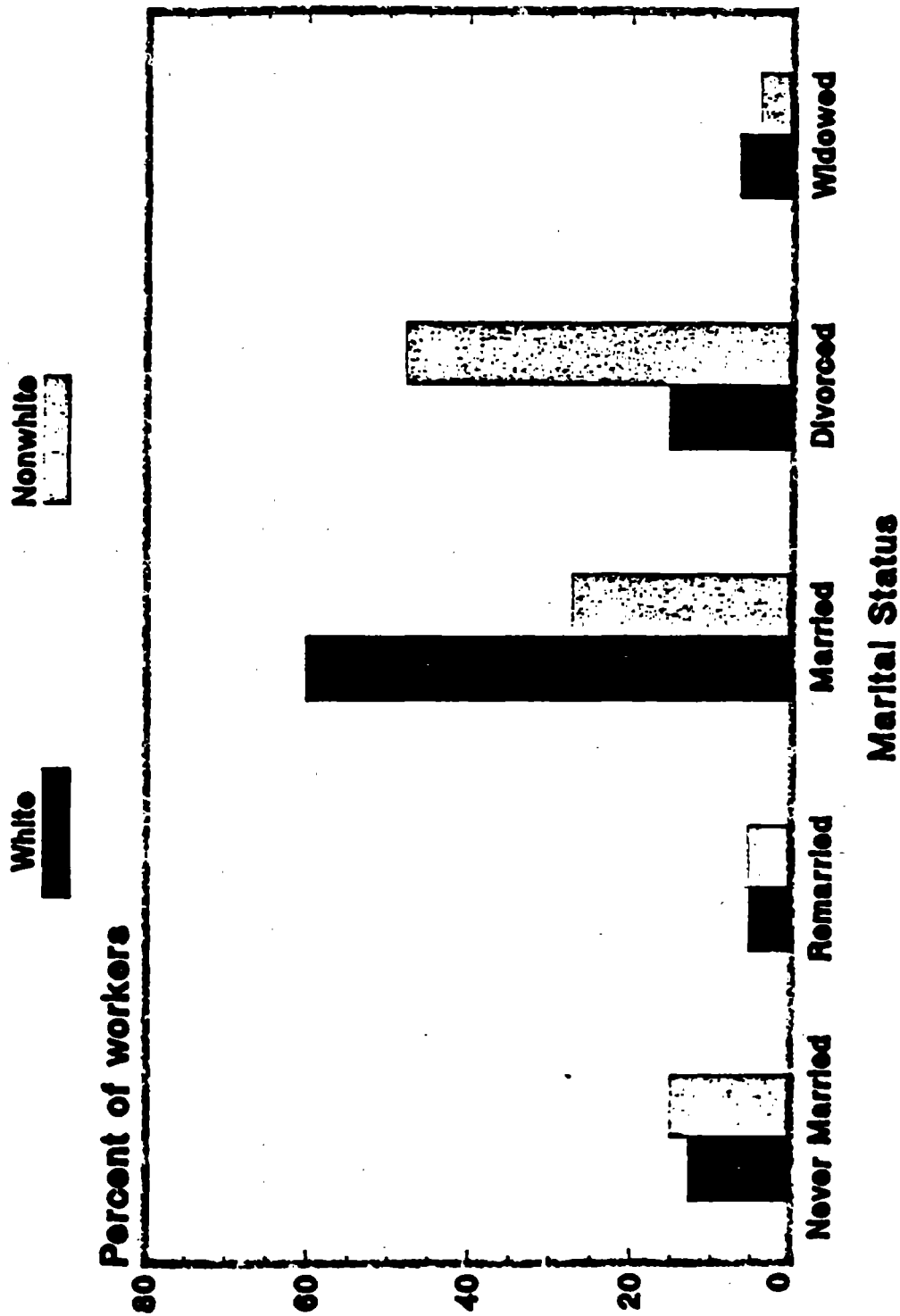
# Race and Age Distribution

## White vs. Nonwhite



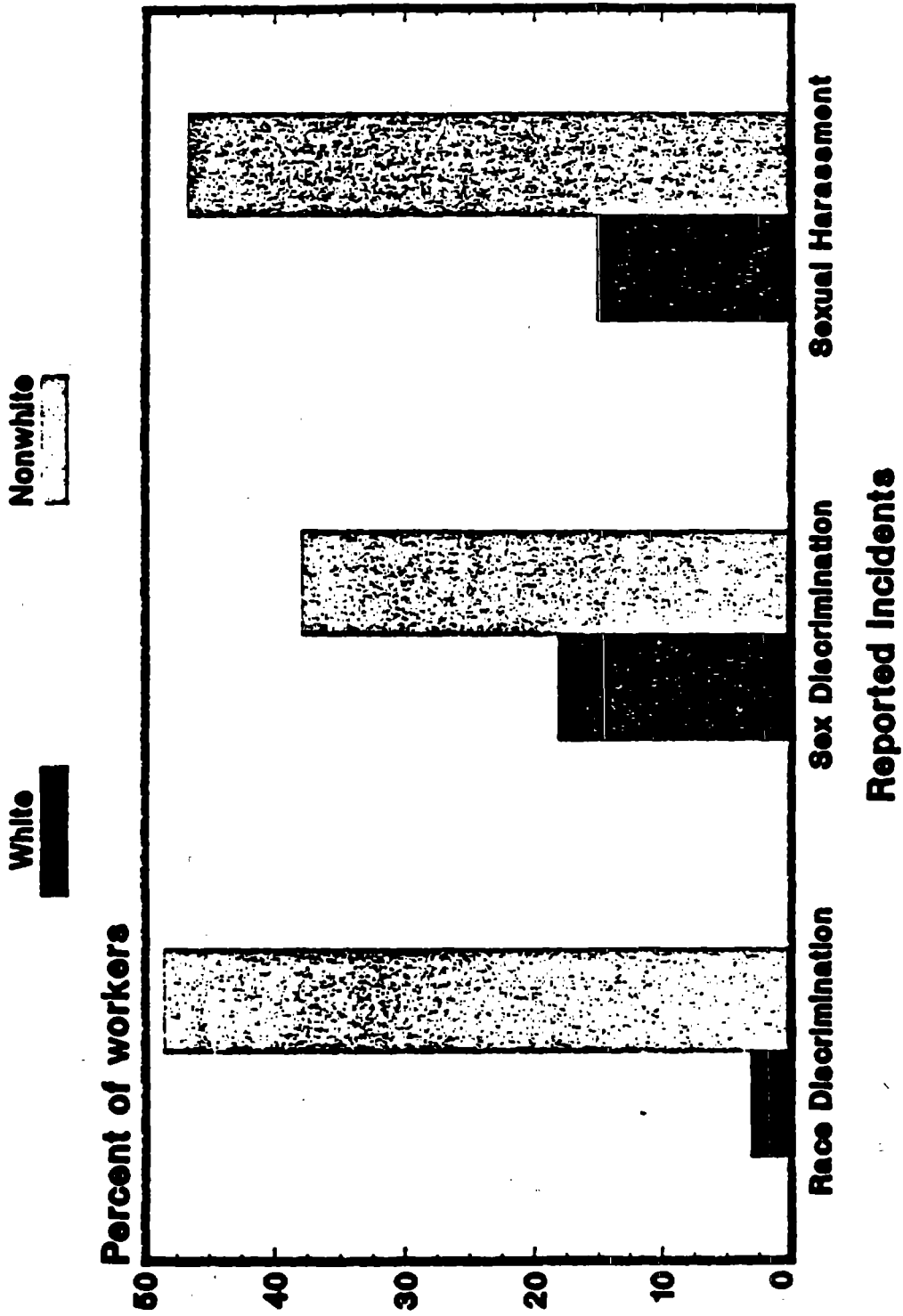
# Race and Marital Status

## White vs. Nonwhite



# Race: Discrimination, and Harassment

## White vs. Nonwhite



**EMPLOYMENT PROFILE:  
TRADITIONAL AND NONTRADITIONAL WOMEN WORKERS**

One of the assumptions of this study was that work environments were different for traditionally-employed clerical workers and nontraditionally-employed blue-collar workers. Assuming this difference, on purpose of this study was to assess the differential impact of these work environments on job and family stress and satisfaction. In comparing the work environments of these two samples of workers, some basic differences seem evident.

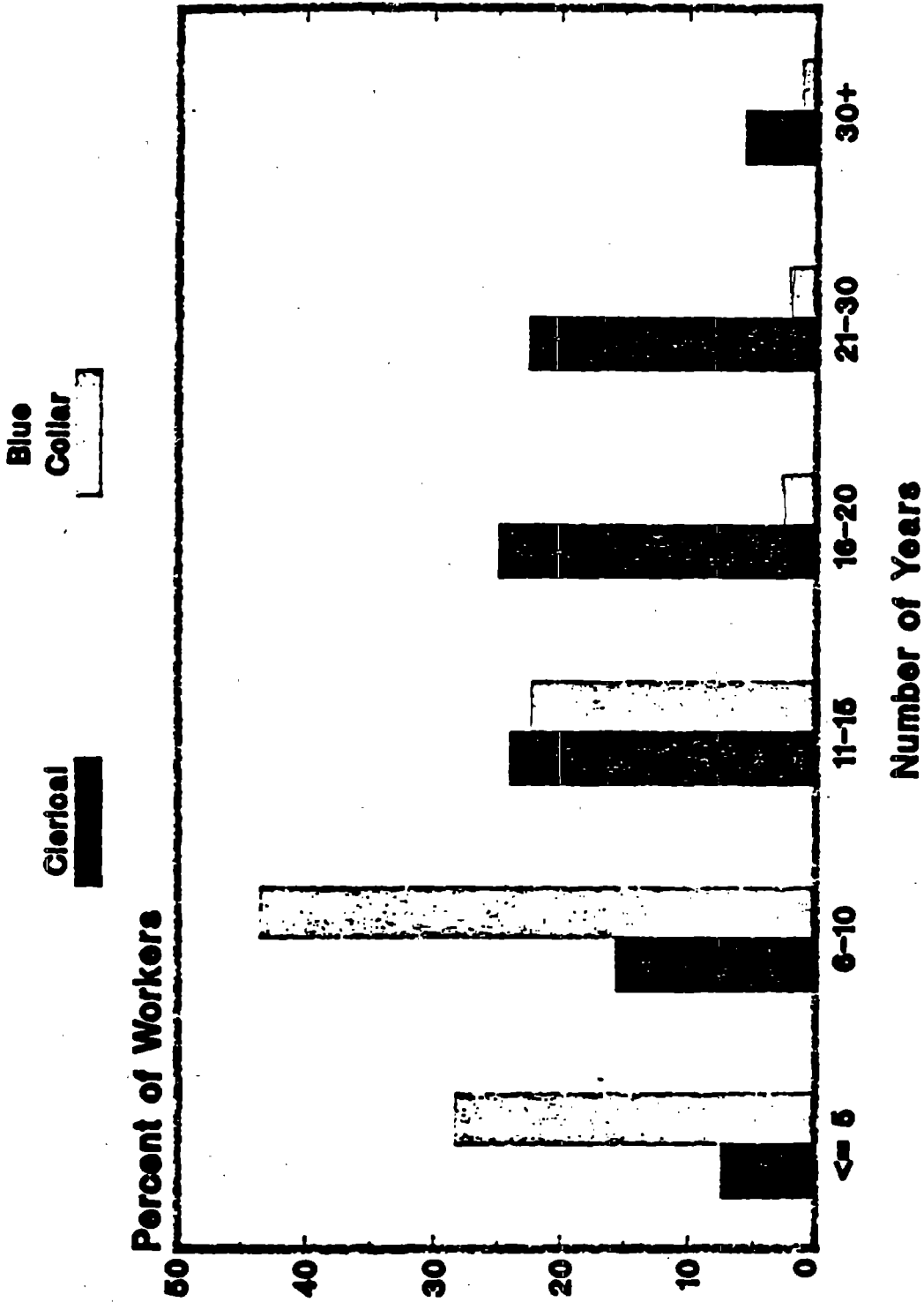
Regarding employment history, more clerical workers (95 percent) were full-time permanent employees than blue-collar workers (83 percent) and had been in their present position longer than the blue-collar workers (an average of 11.3 vs. 6.1 years). Clerical workers were also more likely to have contracts (80 percent) than were blue-collar workers, and more clericals reported having 'a great deal' of job security than did blue-collar women (59 versus 40 percent). However, more clericals also reported feeling they had no opportunities for promotion than did clerical workers (40 versus 23 percent).

One of the most striking differences between the two groups of workers concerned their perceptions of comparable earnings. Over 75 percent of the blue-collar workers felt their earnings were comparable to men's as compared to only 16 percent of the clerical workers. More blue-collar workers reported working overtime (87 percent) than did clerical workers (53 percent), and of these women more of the blue-collar women received compensation for their overtime hours than did clerical women (83 versus 59 percent). However, more of the blue-collar women also felt they had no choice about working overtime than did clerical workers (25 versus 14 percent).

In comparing the benefits these workers were eligible for receiving from either their employer or their union, it was found that more clerical workers than blue-collar workers were eligible for paid time off, health insurance, life insurance and retirement benefits. More blue-collar workers were eligible for child-care benefits than were clerical workers, although the numbers were extremely low for both groups of women.

One of the most startling and distressing findings of this study concerns the amount of discrimination and harassment reported by these women. Nearly half of the blue-collar women workers reported being sexually harassed at the workplace (46 percent), an 42 percent of these women reported incidents of sexual discrimination. While the numbers were lower for clerical workers, (8 and 11 percent respectively), the are no less disturbing. Twenty-one percent of the blue-collar workers also report having encountered racial discrimination, as did 4 percent of the clerical workers, although it should be remembered that only 5 percent of the clerical workers were nonwhite.

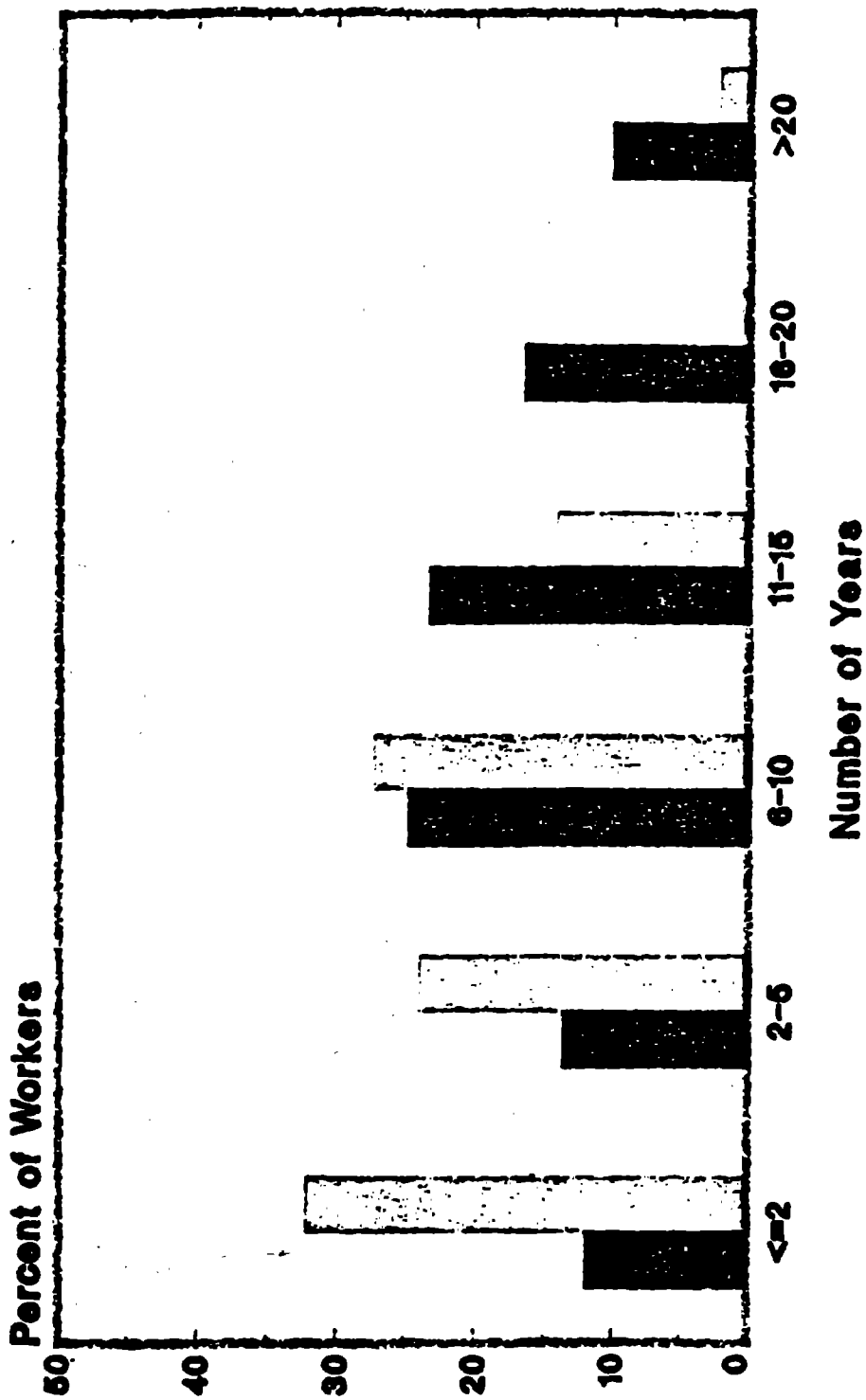
# Years Performing Present Type of Work Clerical vs. Blue Collar



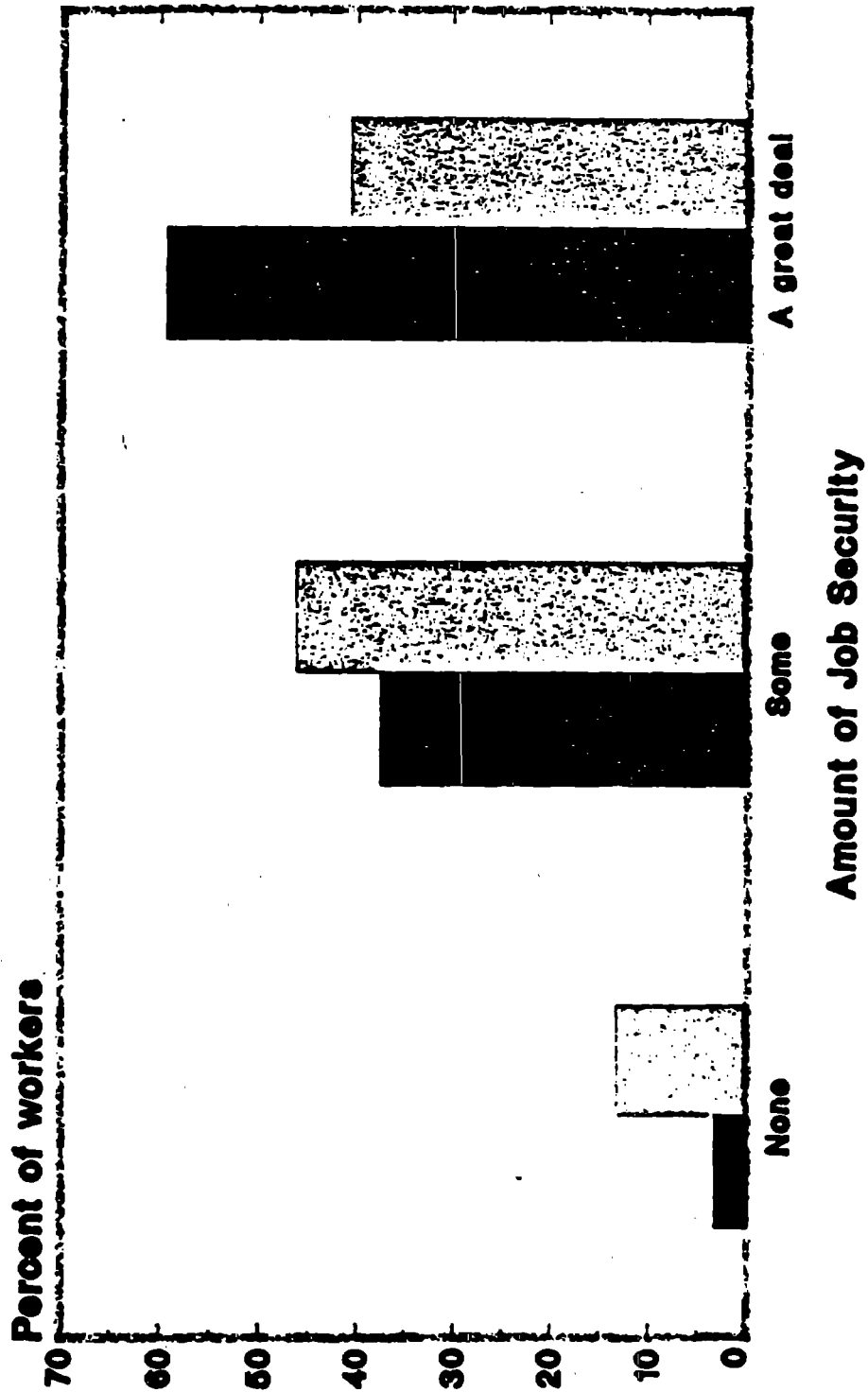
# Years On Present Job Clerical vs. Blue Collar

Blue Collar

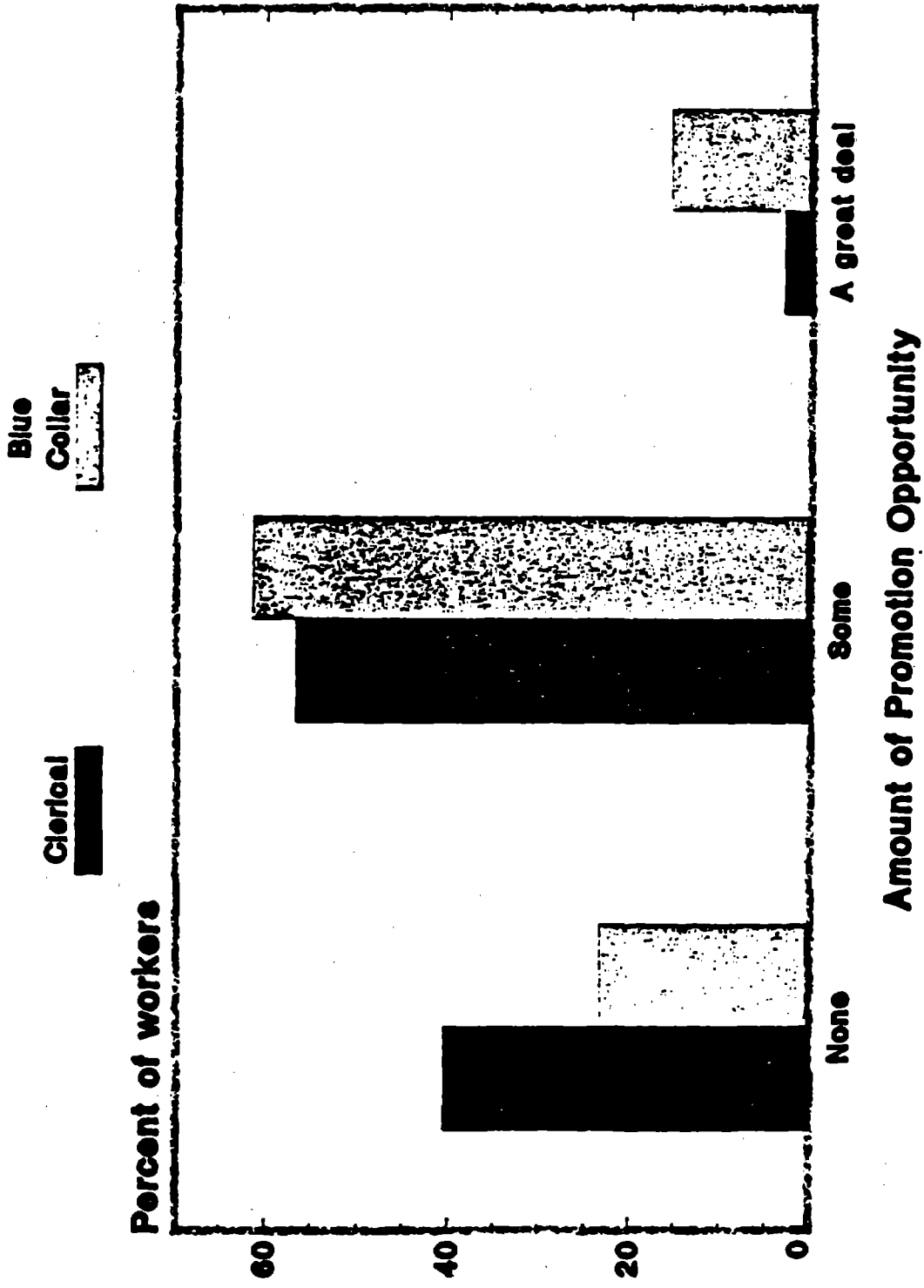
Clerical



# Perceptions of Job Security Clerical vs. Blue Collar

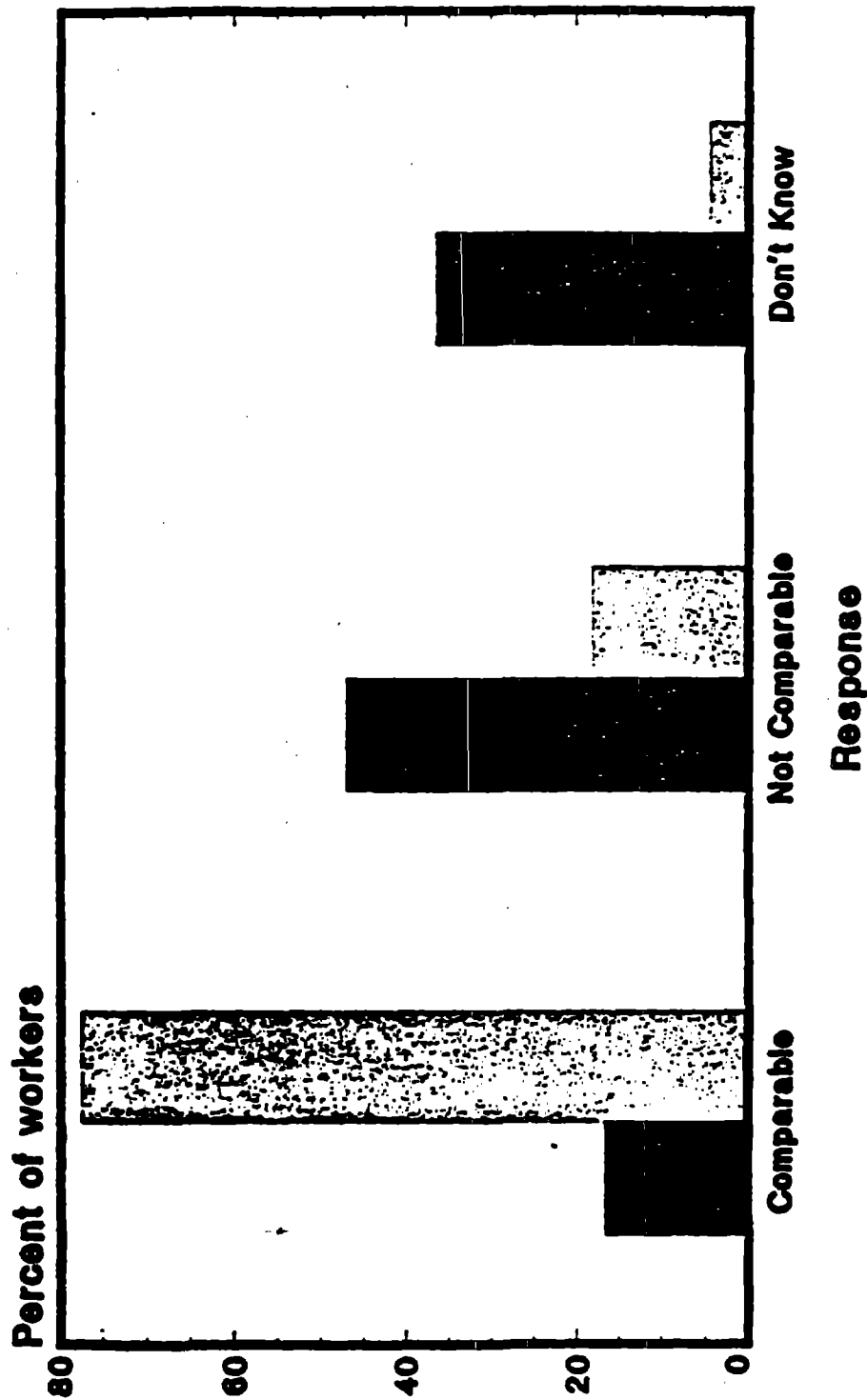


# Perceptions of Promotion Opportunity Clerical vs. Blue Collar



# Perceptions of Comparable Earnings Clerical vs. Blue Collar

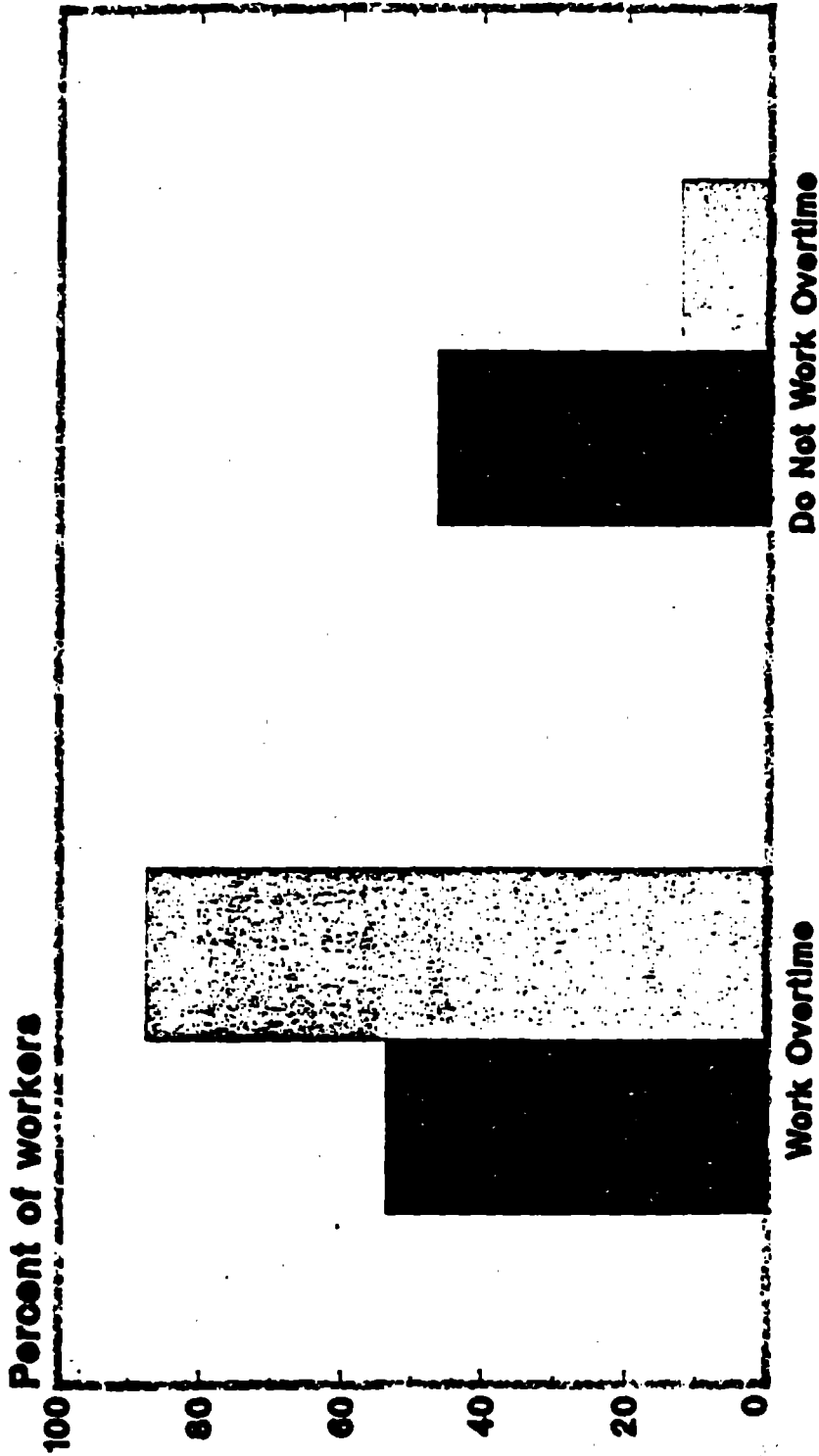
Clerical  
 Blue Collar  
 Don't Know



# Overtime Clerical vs. Blue Collar

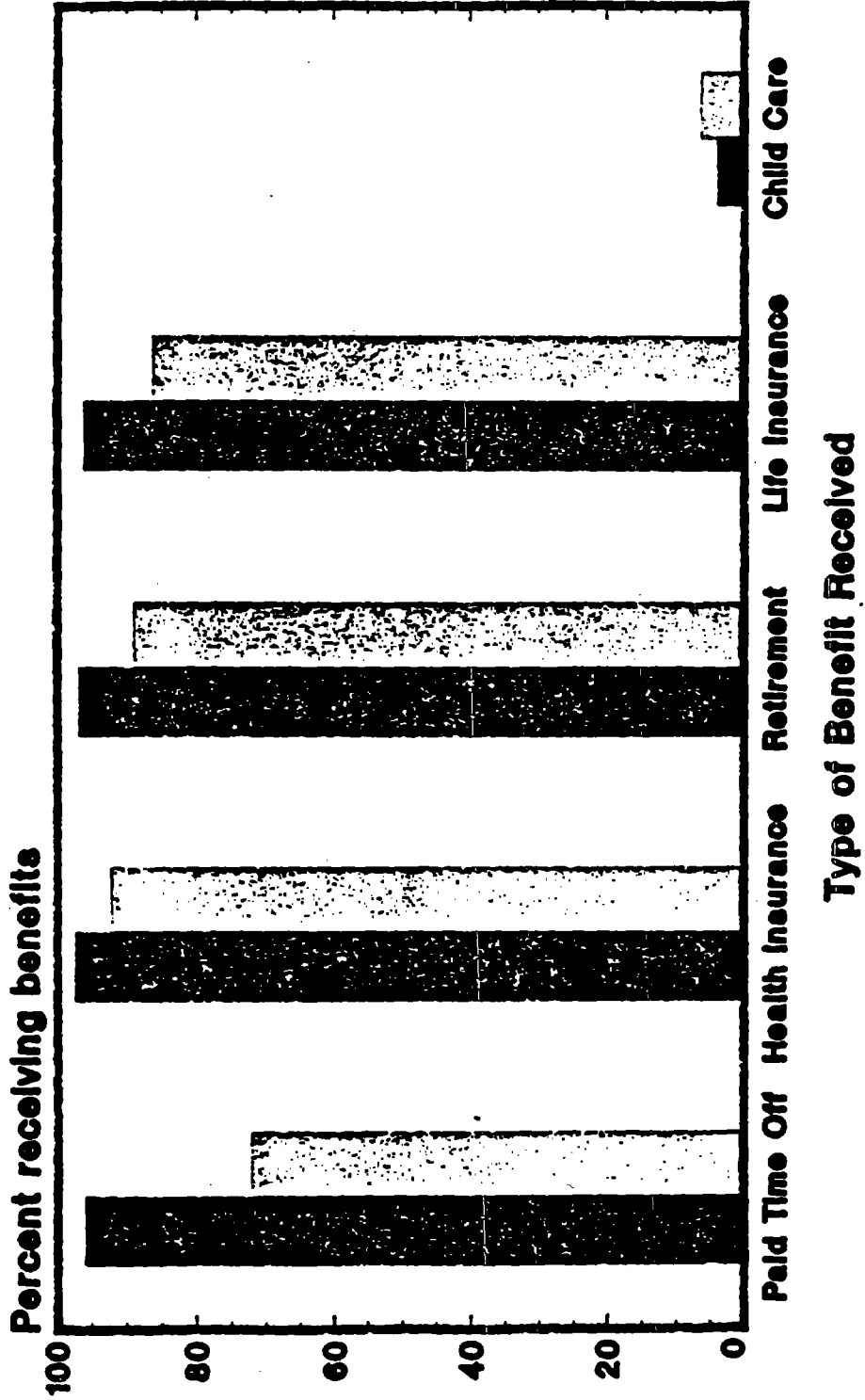
Blue  
Collar

Clerical



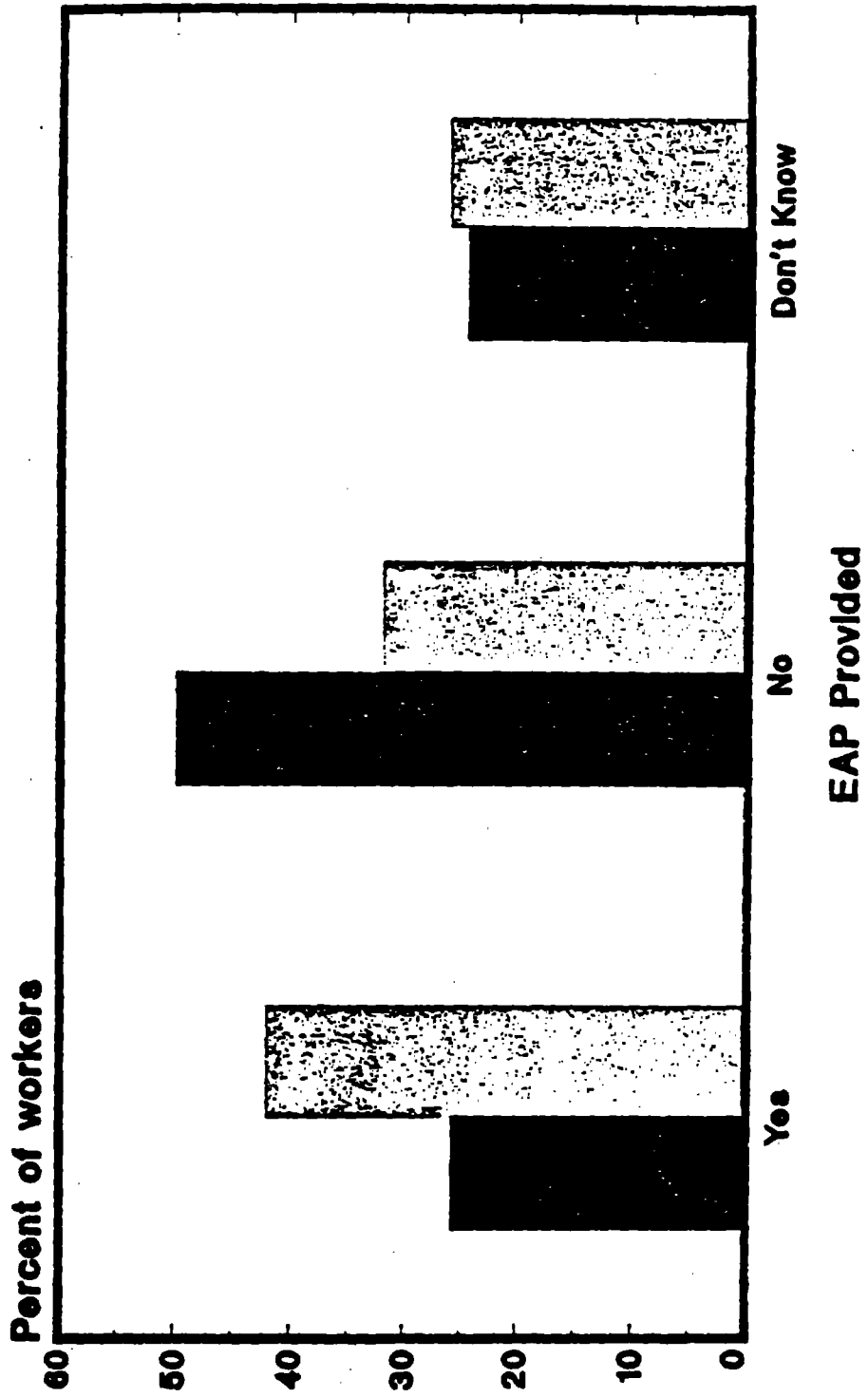
Response

# Benefits Clerical vs. Blue Collar

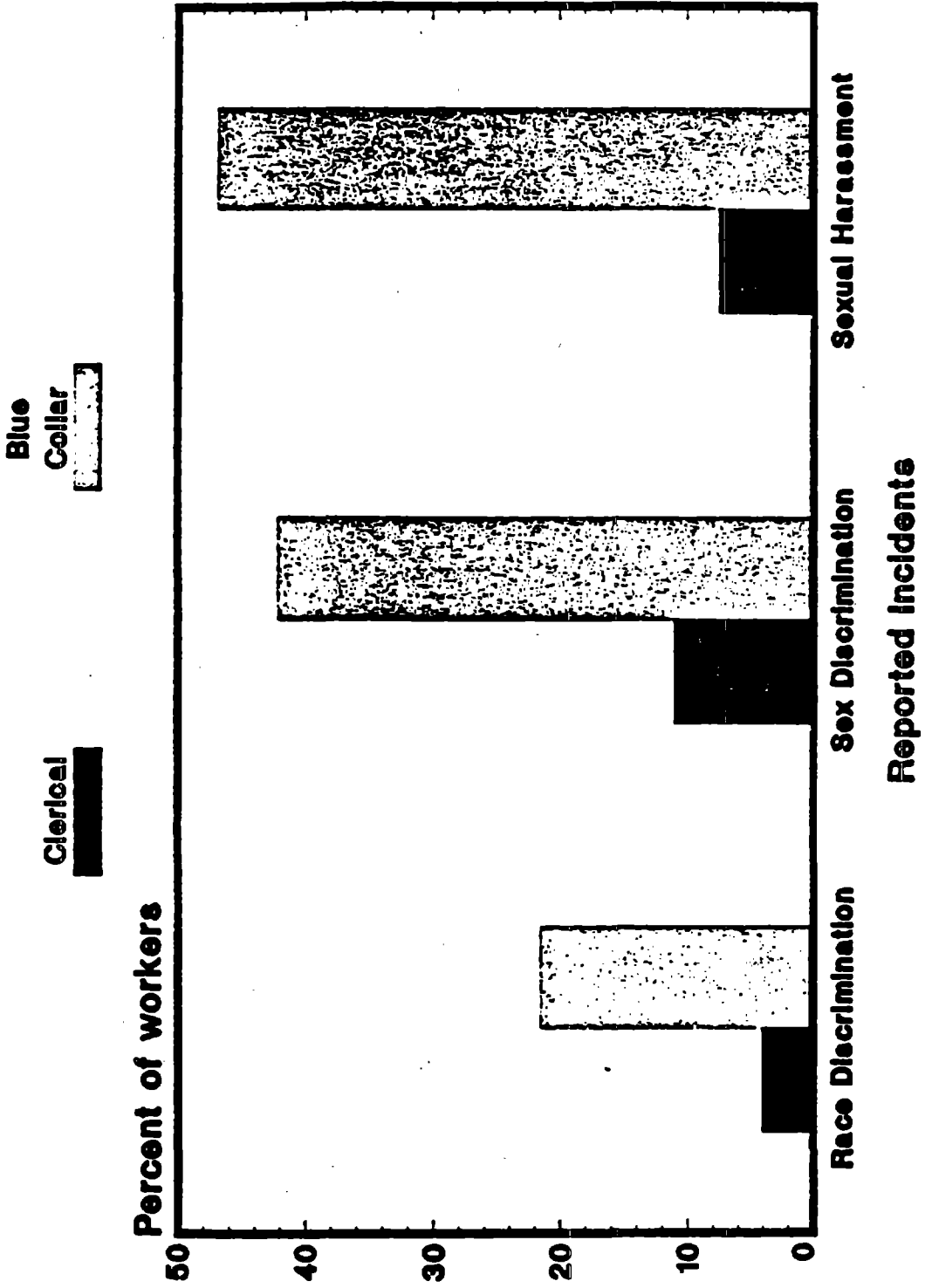


# Employee Assistance Programs Clerical vs. Blue Collar

Clerical  
 Blue Collar



# Discrimination and Harassment Clerical vs. Blue Collar



## **YEARS OF TENURE AND JOB SATISFACTION AND STRESS:**

### **TRADITIONAL AND NONTRADITIONAL WOMEN WORKERS**

It was thought that the number of years a woman worked at a particular job might influence her level of satisfaction with the work. This prediction was based largely on the work literature suggesting a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction; perhaps age was a proxy variable for number of years working, and women who stayed at their job were the self-selected workers who were content.

We divided our samples into two TENURE groups, those who had worked at their current job for less than or equal to 5 years, and those who had been at the same job for over 5 years. When levels of satisfaction and stress on the job were compared between these two groups, surprisingly few differences were found. For traditional workers, only one statistically significant finding emerged: clerical workers with longer tenure reported more satisfaction with their benefits. It is notable that this group did not report greater satisfaction with other related work features, such as promotions or security. Stress on the job did not vary at all according to years on the job, although it did vary significantly by age, suggesting that the age variable represents more than just years working.

For nontraditional (blue collar) workers, there were no tenure-related differences in job satisfaction at all, and only one difference in job stress: those with longer tenure reported more stress from the physical setting in which they worked.

Further analyses will examine the personal characteristics of workers who have long tenure at their jobs in an attempt to uncover patterns that may predict long term employment patterns. If satisfaction with the work environment and job stress do not predict tenure, then what variables do account for this pattern?

## AGE AND JOB SATISFACTION:

### TRADITIONAL AND NONTRADITIONAL WORKERS

The literature suggests that age may be an important factor in predicting job satisfaction for women workers. Recognizing that many factors may be embedded in the age variable, researchers studying the influence of age still find repeatedly that older workers seem more satisfied with their jobs than do their younger counterparts.

Findings from this study replicate this result. We divided respondents into two age groups, using age 45, when most women are likely to be shifting away from a primary parenting role as children grow older and leave home, as the demarcation between 'younger' and 'older'. Findings indicated that for both traditional (clerical) and nontraditional (blue collar) workers, the over-45 age group was statistically significantly more satisfied with their jobs ( $t = -2.89$ ,  $p = .0042$ ,  $t = -2.11$ ,  $p = .0365$ , respectively).

Older workers also were more satisfied than their younger counterparts with specific aspects of their jobs. For example, older clerical workers were statistically significantly more satisfied with their salary, the way they were treated at work, their accomplishments and contributions, and the amount of independence they had at work, compared to younger clericals. Older blue collar workers were significantly more satisfied than younger ones with the people with whom they dealt at work (aside from co-workers), their schedules, how they were treated by others, and the amount of independence granted to them.

Further analyses will begin to delineate the reasons for these differences, exploring the objective characteristics of the work, as well as differing family characteristics of the two age groups.

**AGE AND JOB STRESS:  
TRADITIONAL AND NONTRADITIONAL WOMEN WORKERS**

The degree of stress experienced by workers is important to ascertain not only as an indicator of the overall well-being of employees but also because of the long term consequences of stress related to the development of illness. This study measured the overall amount of job stress experienced by traditional (clerical) and nontraditional (blue collar) workers, along with their reported levels of stress related to 16 aspects of their work and family lives. The results described here compare these measures of stress between younger (age 45 or younger) and older (over 45) women workers. Since recent literature suggests that job stress is not merely the absence of satisfaction, stress and satisfaction at the workplace are examined separately in this study.

For both clerical and blue collar workers, there were no significant differences in overall job stress between younger and older workers; stressfulness on the job did not seem to be influenced by age to any significant degree.

However, feelings of stress related to particular aspects of one's work or home environment did vary according to age group, and in every case, the younger women reported higher levels of stress than did their older counterparts. Among clerical workers, younger women reported more stress related to their boss or supervisor, to job security, to child care (although hardly any stress was reported at all from this source), and to the amount of independence they had. In addition, although the experience of discrimination was reported infrequently by clerical workers, there were significantly more such reports by younger workers.

For blue collar workers, similar age differences were found in two instances: like the clericals, younger blue collar women reported more stress related to feelings of discrimination and to child care arrangements regarding work. In addition, this group of younger workers reported more stress than their older colleagues related to their work schedule.

Some of these findings can be explained by the differing family circumstances of younger and older working women, e.g., the greater likelihood that younger women will have young children and therefore more problems with child care and with work schedules. The fact that the nontraditional workers in the younger group reported more stress related to child care than did the younger clerical group (school secretaries) suggests that working at a job whose hours coincide with the school day might alleviate some of the stress related to child care.

Finally, although stress related to race and/or sexual discrimination was reported infrequently by clericals and only somewhat more so by blue collar workers, it was the younger workers in both groups who reported the higher levels; the work stress literature documents that younger women workers are one group who are more vulnerable to experiences of discrimination and harassment.

EXPERIENCES OF SEXUAL HARRASSMENT AND DISCRIMINATION  
AMONG CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

In the last decade or so, considerably more attention has been paid to the problem of sexual harrassment in the workplace. The term "sexual harrassment" is defined as any unwelcome verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature that 1) is made as an implicit or explicit condition of employment; 2) creates an intimidating, hostile or offensive work environment; 3) creates a situation whereby employment decisions, such as promotions, depend on the response; or 4) that interferes with the employee's work performance (Feldman, 1987; Pennsylvania State Civil Service Commission, 1984).

Because of this study's focus on characteristics of the work environment that are predictive of stress and job performance, we asked respondents three questions to determine the extent of sexual harrassment as well as experiences with either sex or racial discrimination in their present position.

Results indicate a high degree of sexual harrassment and gender-related discrimination among the nontraditional workers; nearly half of this group (47% and 42%, respectively) reported these experiences. In addition, one-fifth (21%) of the blue-collar group reported discrimination based on race. While considerably less harrassment and discrimination was reported by the clerical group, 11% of them did report sex discrimination, 8%, sexual harrassment, and 4%, racial discrimination. The race discrimination results are all the more striking when one considers the racial composition of the two groups of employees: 29% of the nontraditional workers, but only 4% of the clerical group, were black or hispanic.

It is important to note that highly statistically significant relationships exist between the total number of experiences of harrassment/discrimination of respondents and their overall rating of their supervisor and coworkers, a finding suggesting a strong negative relationship between the presence of harrassment or discrimination in the workplace and one's satisfaction with professional and/or social relationships at work. Since these relationships have emerged as significant predictors of job satisfaction and job stress for both groups of workers, our results provide empirical support for the importance of eliminating sexual harrassment and sex/race discrimination from the workplace.

Based on the extent and importance of these adverse experiences for women workers, especially blacks, in this study, future research efforts should concentrate on delineating the settings most conducive to the emergence of these events as well as on strategies for their elimination.

PREDICTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB STRESS  
FOR CLERICAL AND BLUE COLLAR WOMEN WORKERS

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). 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. In addition, research that has studied working women usually neglects women in blue-collar jobs, focusing instead on women in traditionally female occupations of women in high-status positions.

The research described here begins to fill this gap by asking the following research questions: First, how do work characteristics differ for women in two very different employment settings, e.g., clerical work and blue-collar work? 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? Our 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. It also investigates the impact of a number of home variables (structural and relational) on job stress and satisfaction.

A number of work variables have been identified 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. 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).

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. 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).

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 and by low pay and few opportunities for promotion. Research of nontraditionally-employed women points to the problem of segregation in a male-dominated workplace and to the occurrence of sexual harassment and discrimination directed at women in these settings. Unlike the regular and predictable schedules of the clerical workers, blue-collar workers often experience 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 traditional 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.

Results\* of this study indicate several important differences in the work environments of clerical workers and blue-collar workers. Compared to blue-collar workers, clerical workers earned less, were more likely to be full-time employees, to have longer tenure, to report more job security, and to feel their earnings were not comparable to men's. Blue-collar workers experienced significantly more harassment and discrimination on the job.

Job satisfaction was rather high and job stress low for both groups of employees. However, significantly higher levels of satisfaction and lower levels of stress were reported by the clerical workers for most work items. Clerical workers reported the most stress with the "actual work they do", with their salary

\* see accompanying tables immediately following this text

and with the lack of promotion opportunities, while blue collar workers were most stressed by safety issues, their schedule, child care problems, and "the actual work they do."

Predictors of work satisfaction and stress were identified in a two-stage process. First, a series of stepwise regression analyses were performed, with job satisfaction and job stress as the dependent variables, to identify the most important predictor variables in each of six conceptual categories. These variables subsequently were entered as six blocks in each of two hierarchical block designs, one for job satisfaction, the other for job stress. Results showed that for both occupational categories, intrinsic job characteristics accounted for the most variance in the predictions of both job satisfaction and job stress. Thus, feeling valued and escaping unreasonable demands were the two most important factors in feeling satisfied at work, both for clerical workers and blue collar workers (not feeling valued and experiencing high demands predicted job stress). Extrinsic factors also were significant as predictors for both groups.

An important finding of this study is that home factors (feeling satisfied with home life and feeling stress at home) added to the prediction of job stress and job satisfaction above and beyond the work factors for both groups of employees. This result suggests a "spillover effect" - home satisfaction predicted work satisfaction, home stress predicted work stress- and reinforces the findings of others that the traditional home/work demarcation reflects an incorrect model of working women's lives. We recommend

that future research cross traditional academic boundaries and assume an interdisciplinary approach to the study of job satisfaction and stress.

TABLE 1: 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) <sup>1****2</sup> | 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) |
| <hr/>                       |                          |                             |        |
| Benefits                    | (3.42)***                | Pay                         | (3.11) |
| Actual work                 | (3.33) <sup>ns</sup>     | Treatment                   | (3.09) |
| Treatment                   | (3.33)**                 | Coworkers                   | (3.08) |
| Security                    | (3.27)****               | Supervisor                  | (3.02) |
| Supervisor                  | (3.19)*                  | Security                    | (2.93) |
| Coworkers                   | (3.18) <sup>ns</sup>     | Others at work              | (2.88) |
| <hr/>                       |                          |                             |        |
| Others at work              | (3.04)*                  | Physical setting            | (2.85) |
| Physical setting            | (3.03)*                  | Work schedule               | (2.75) |
| Child care                  | (3.20) <sup>ns</sup>     | Child care                  | (2.68) |
| Pay                         | (2.40)****               | Safety                      | (2.65) |
| Opportunities for promotion | (2.24)*                  | Opportunities for promotion | (2.45) |
| <hr/>                       |                          |                             |        |
| Overall                     | (3.22)****               | Overall                     | (3.03) |

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

<sup>2</sup> 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 2: MOST TO LEAST STRESSFUL ASPECTS OF JOB, FOR CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

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

<sup>1</sup> 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)

<sup>2</sup> 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 3: STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSES PREDICTING JOB SATISFACTION FOR CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

Clerical Workers

Blue-Collar Workers

| <u>Independent Variables</u>      | <u>F</u> | <u>R<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>P</u> | <u>Independent Variables</u>      | <u>F</u> | <u>R<sup>2</sup></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 3: STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSES PREDICTING JOB SATISFACTION FOR CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS (Continued)

Clerical Workers

Blue-Collar Workers

| <u>Independent Variables</u>    | <u>F</u> | <u>R<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>P</u> | <u>Independent Variables</u>    | <u>F</u> | <u>R<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>P</u> |
|---------------------------------|----------|----------------------|----------|---------------------------------|----------|----------------------|----------|
| <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       |

Home

Home

|                   |       |       |       |                   |       |       |       |
|-------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Home satisfaction | 43.92 | .1069 | .0001 | Home satisfaction | 33.98 | .1788 | .0001 |
| Home stress       | 6.57  | .1226 | .0108 | Home stress       | 24.15 | .2895 | .0001 |
| Family types      |       |       | NS    | Family types      |       |       | NS    |

TABLE 4: 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>R<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>P</u> | <u>Independent Variables</u>      | <u>F</u> | <u>R<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>P</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>                   |          |                      |          |                                   |          |                      |          |
| 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>              |          |                      |          |                                   |          |                      |          |
| Pressure                          | 177.32   | .3014                | .0000    | Pressure                          | 84.70    | .3176                | .0000    |
| Value                             | 94.13    | .3147                | .0000    | Value                             | 48.67    | .3497                | .0000    |
| <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 4: 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>R<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>P</u> | <u>Independent Variables</u>    | <u>F</u> | <u>R<sup>2</sup></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 for promotion     | 10.70    | .1513                | .0000    |
| Comparable earnings             | 23.84    | .1895                | .0000    | Comparable earnings             |          |                      | NS       |
| Work Station                    | 20.60    | .2019                | .0000    | Benefits                        |          |                      | NS       |
| Opportunities for promotion     |          |                      | NS       | Control overtime                |          |                      | NS       |
| Benefits                        |          |                      | NS       | Atmosphere                      |          |                      | NS       |
| Control overtime                |          |                      | 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 5: HIERARCHICAL\_BLOCK REGRESSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB STRESS FOR CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

| <u>Block</u>                 | <u>F</u> | <u>R<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>P</u> |
|------------------------------|----------|----------------------|----------|
| <b>CLERICAL WORKERS</b>      |          |                      |          |
| <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    |
| <b>BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS</b>   |          |                      |          |
| <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    |

## FAMILY PROFILE

A major focus of this study was to explore the interaction of work and family. In order to better understand the impact of work environment on home environment and vice versa, our sample was divided into four family configurations: married women with children, married women without children, single women with children, and single women without children.

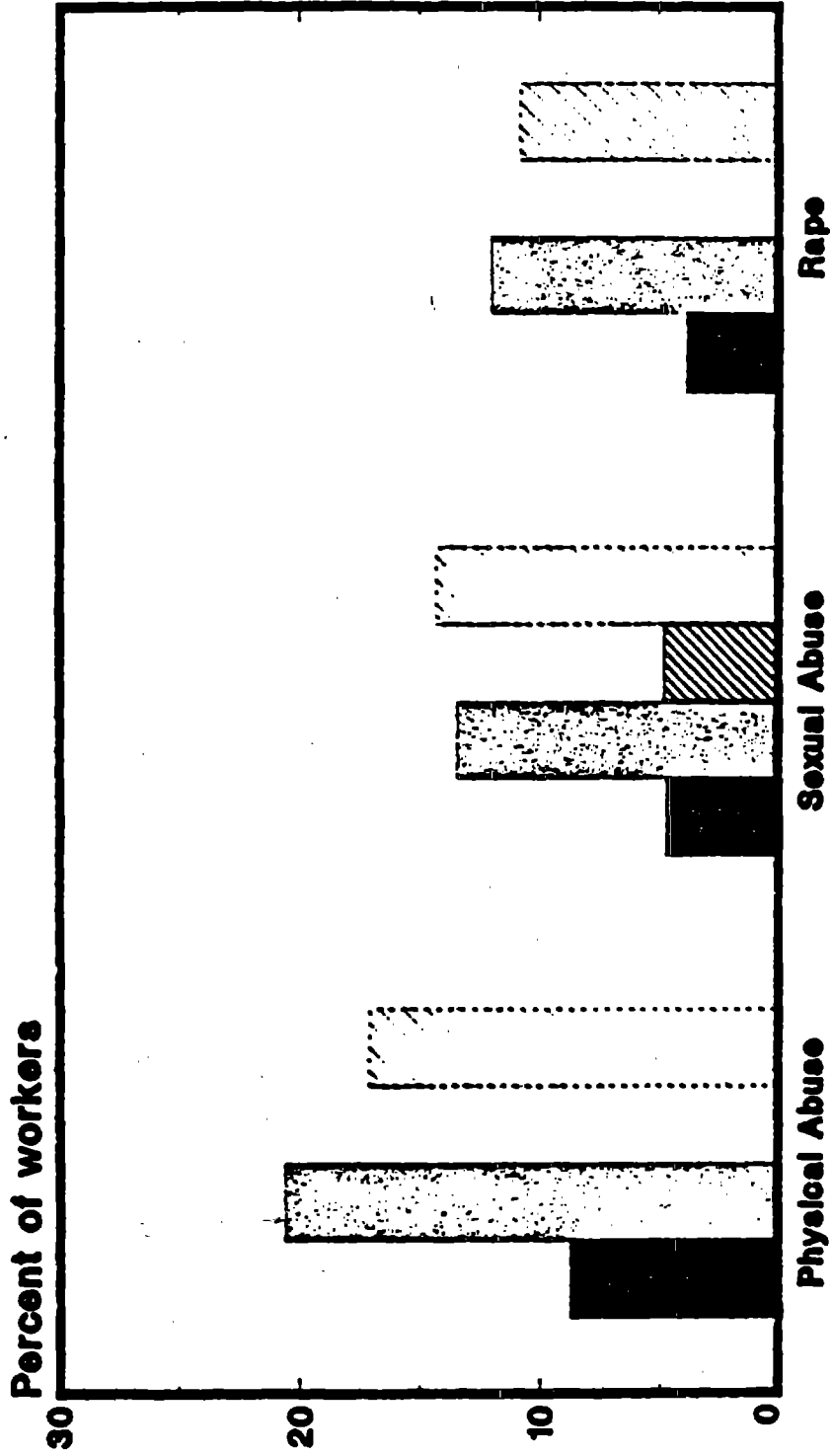
In both groups of married women, the vast majority are employed as clerical workers (with children 83 percent, without children 76 percent). Of the unmarried women, 48 percent of those with children and 59 percent of those without children are employed as blue-collar workers. The married women with children were the oldest with an average age of 48, followed by the single women with children (45 years), the married women without children (43 years) and the single women without children (38 years). All four groups of women were predominantly white, with the single women having the highest percentage of nonwhite women (29 percent).

More women with children, both married and not married, earn less than \$11,000 (18 percent for both groups) than do the two groups of women without children (12 percent and 10 percent respectively). More of the single women earn over \$31,000 (12 percent with children, 13 percent without children) than do married women (2 and 8 percent respectively). More single women without children pursued their education beyond high school (49 percent) than did any of the other groups, although this group also had the highest percentage of women who did complete high school (8 percent).

Clearly there are some interesting demographic differences between these different family configurations. Further analyses will explore the impact of these differences on aspects of the job as well as the impact of jobs on these different family units.

# Incidents of Abuse and Rape By Family Unit

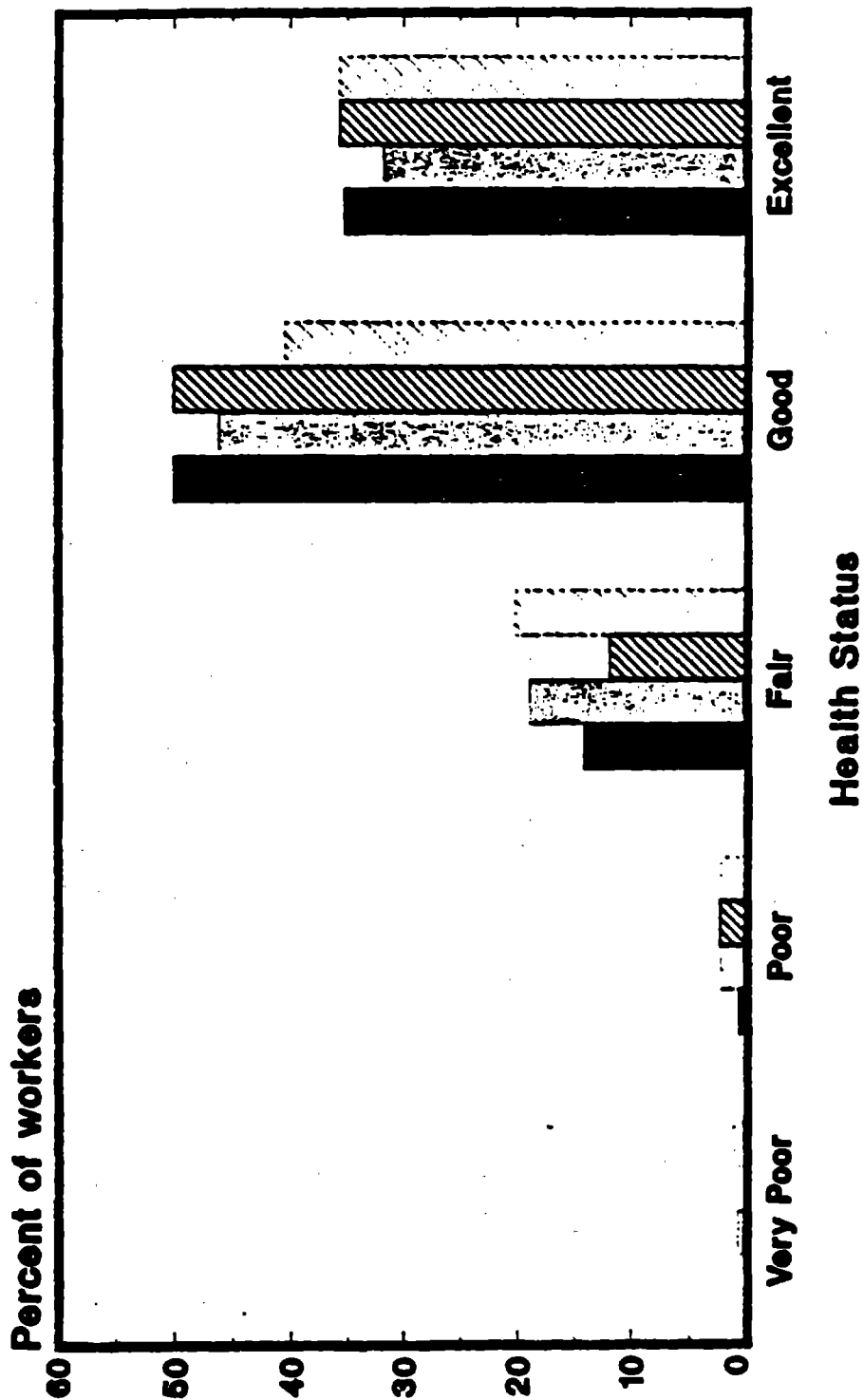
**Married with kids** (Solid black)  
**Unmarried with kids** (Dotted)  
**Married, no kids** (Diagonal lines)  
**Unmarried, no kids** (Dashed)



# Self-reported Health Status

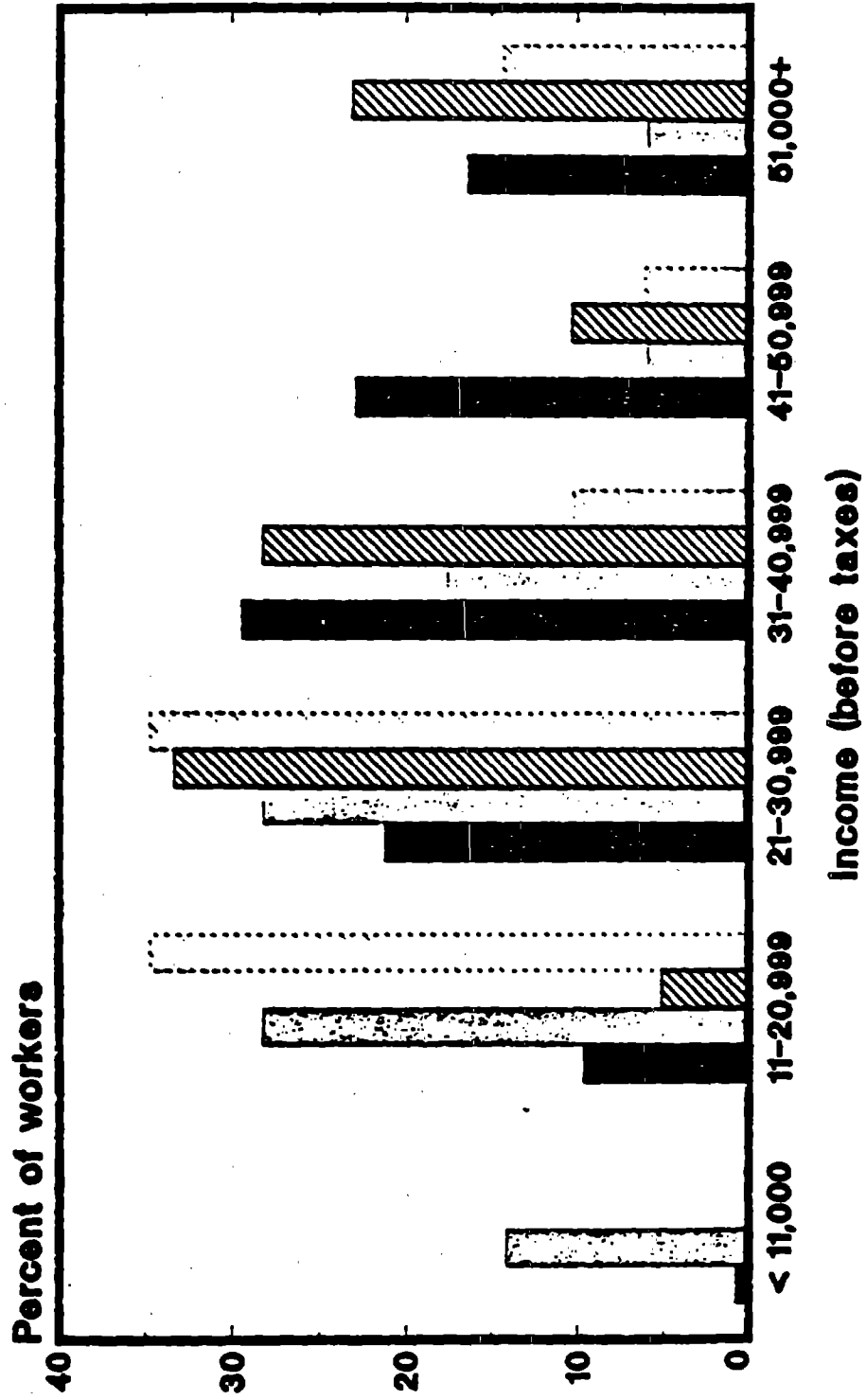
## By Family Unit

- Married with kids [Solid Black]
- Unmarried with kids [White]
- Married, no kids [Diagonal Lines]
- Unmarried, no kids [Dotted]



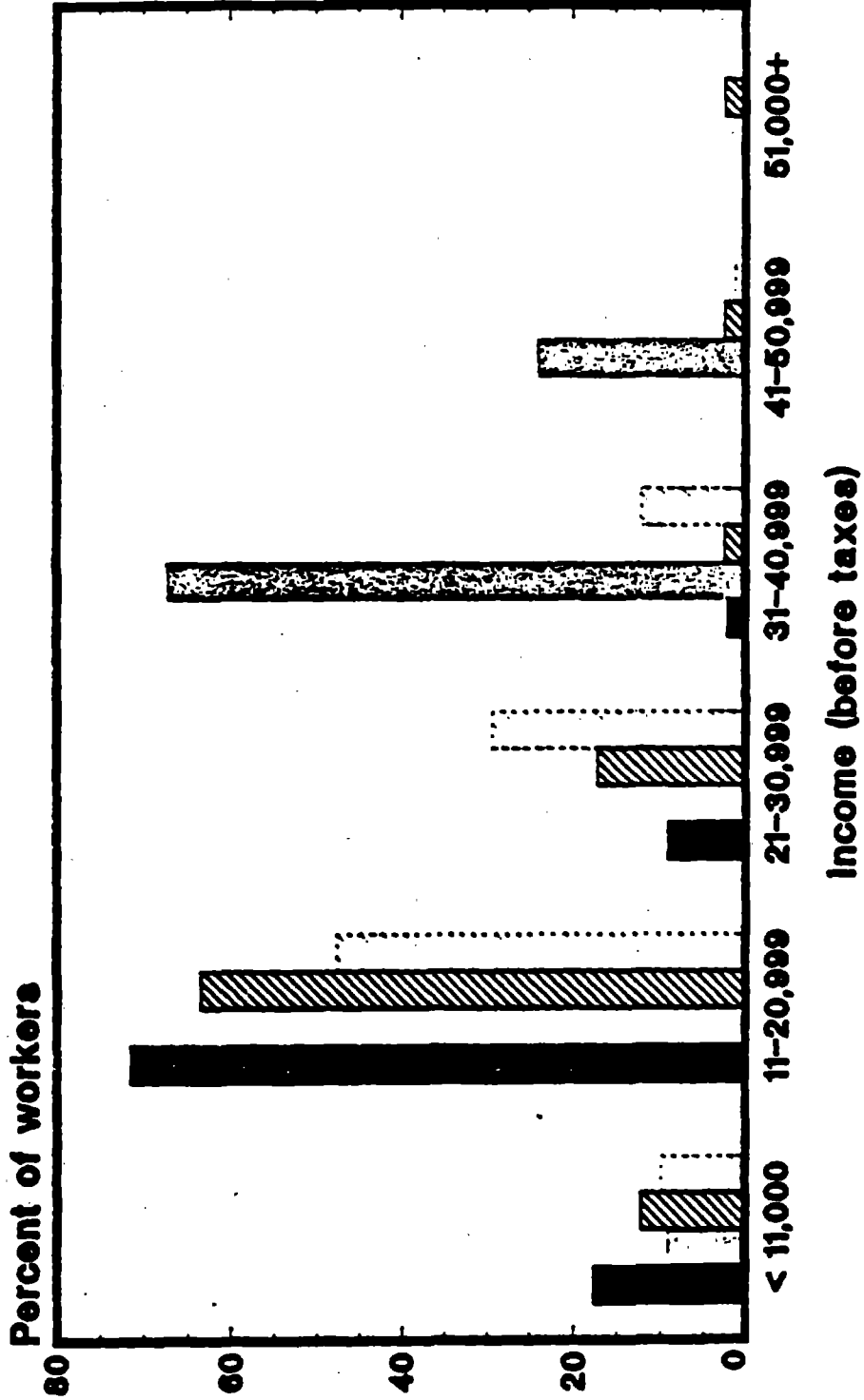
# Total Household Income By Family Unit

**Married with kids** (solid black)  
**Unmarried with kids** (stippled)  
**Married, no kids** (diagonal lines)  
**Unmarried, no kids** (dotted)



# Annual Personal Income By Family Unit

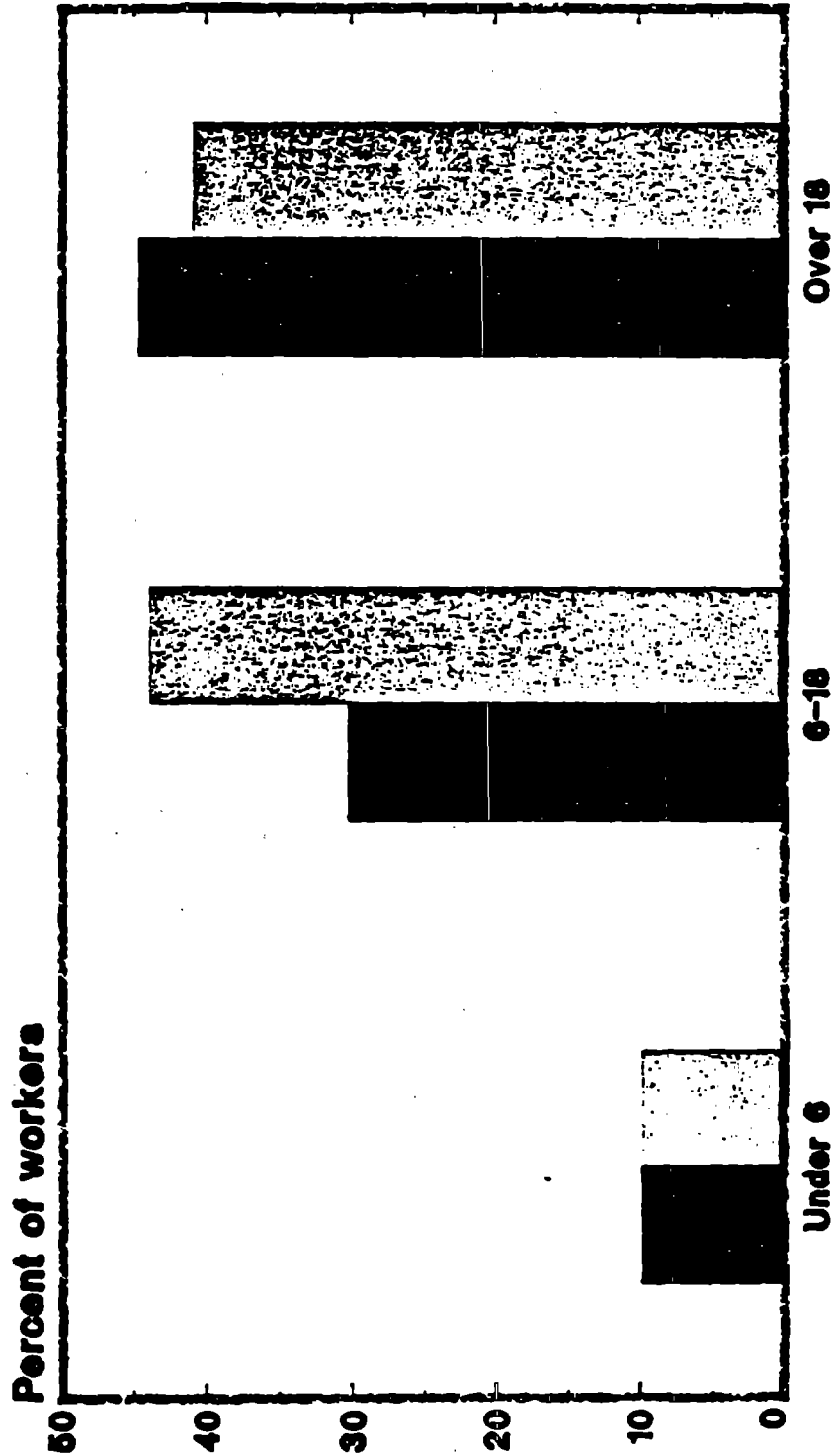
**Married with kids** (solid black)  
**Unmarried with kids** (dotted)  
**Married, no kids** (diagonal lines)  
**Unmarried, no kids** (dashed)



# Ages Of Children Living at Home By Family Unit

Married  
with kids

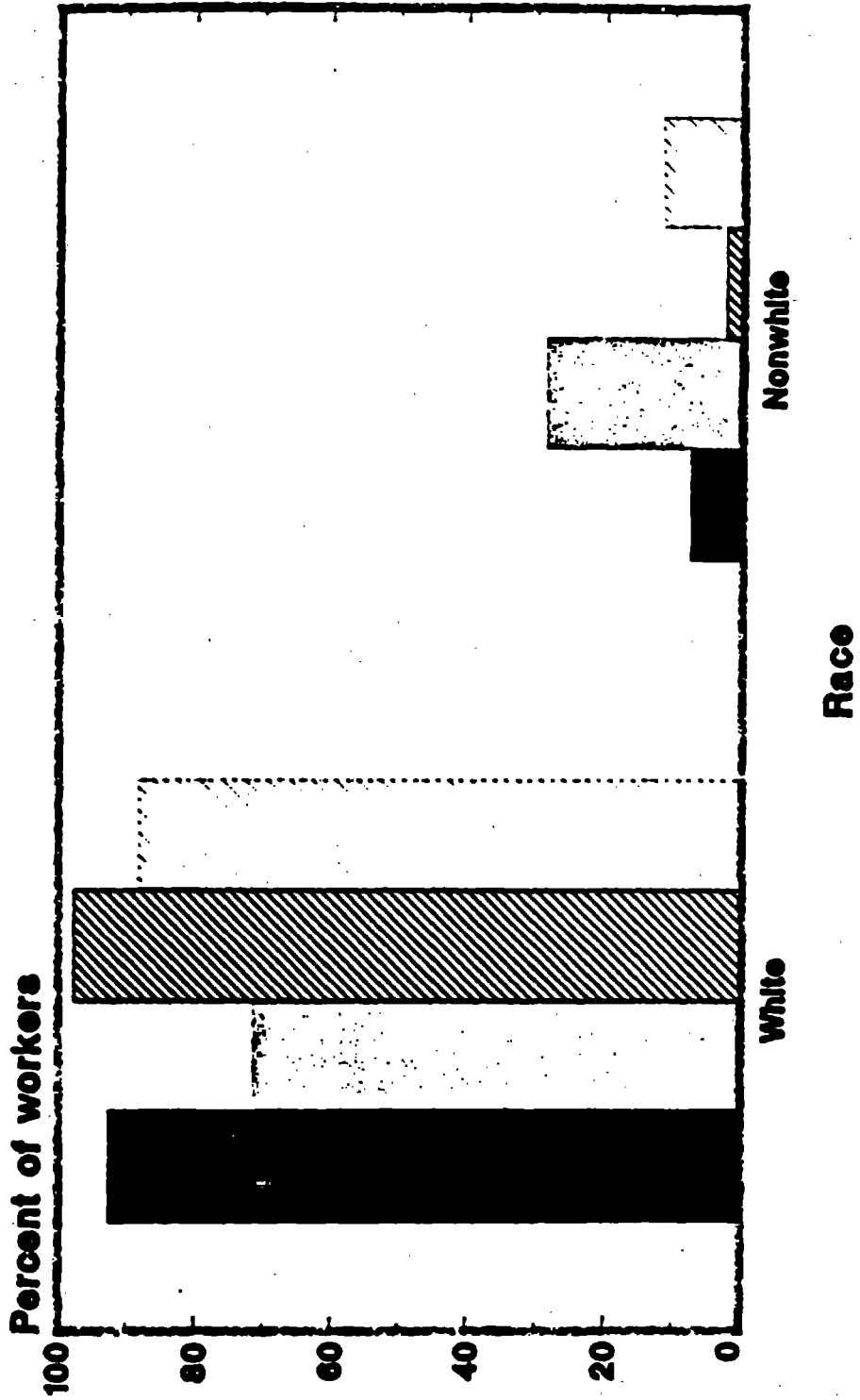
Unmarried  
with kids



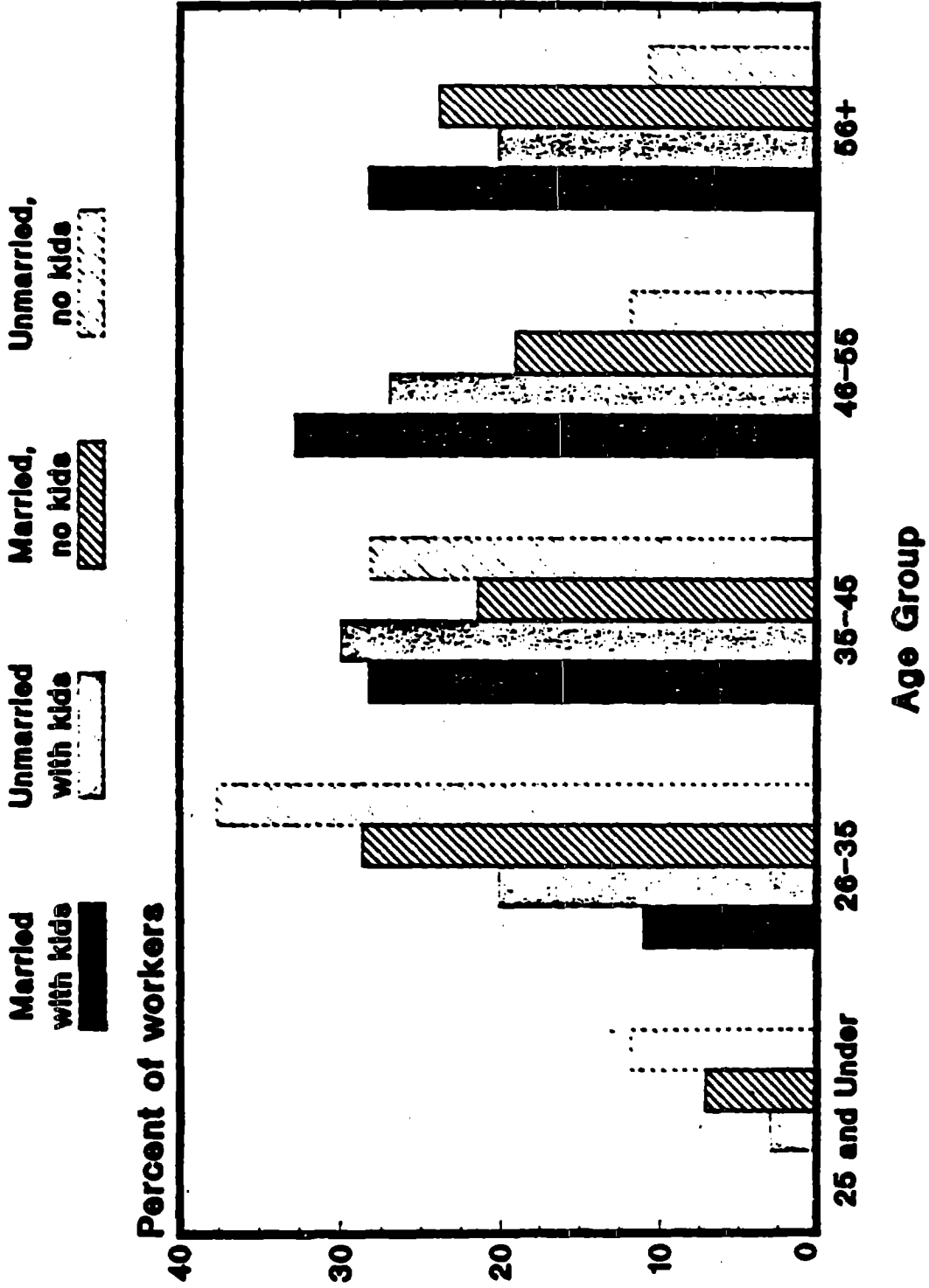
Ages of Children  
(for women with at least one child)

# Racial Composition of Family Units

**Married with kids** (Solid black)  
**Unmarried with kids** (Dotted)  
**Married, no kids** (Diagonal lines)  
**Unmarried, no kids** (Cross-hatched)



# Breakdown of Age Groups by Family Unit



## ISSUES OF CHILD CARE FOR TRADITIONAL AND NONTRADITIONAL WORKING WOMEN

There are more than 47.8 million working women in this country, two-thirds of whom must work to support their children. Half of all mothers must return to work before their babies are one year old. It is estimated that by 1995, two-thirds of all preschool and three-fourths of all school-age children will have working mothers. Thus, child care issues are demanding attention from all corners of our society, including the scientific, political, and work communities.

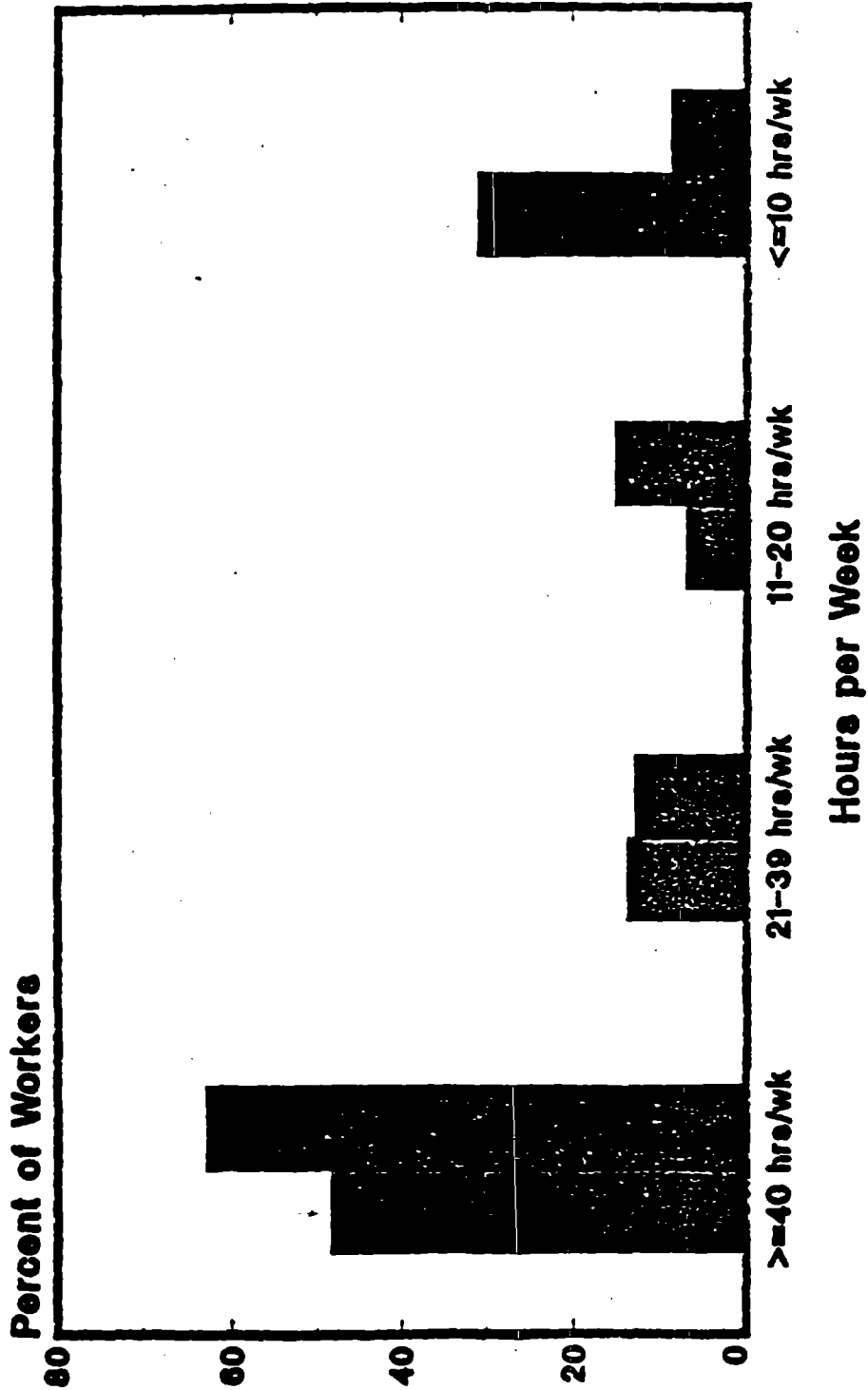
Unlike the national trend, only 34 (8.5%) of the clerical and 47 (26.4%) of the blue-collar women in our sample needed child care. This was probably a function of the sample being somewhat older. However, for those women who needed it, child care posed difficulties for many of them.

Almost one-half of the clericals (48.3%) and two-thirds of the blue-collar workers (63.0%) needing child-care used it for forty hours or more per week. However, only a minority of these child-care arrangements (18.5% - clericals, 19.5% - blue-collar workers) were with licensed, organized day-care facilities. The vast majority of child care was being handled by family members or other "sitters" (62.9% - clericals, 73.2% - blue-collar workers). Some children were left to care for themselves (11.1% - clericals, 2.4% - blue-collar workers). The reasons for the types of child care arrangements used were not elicited. Therefore, it cannot be determined if current arrangements were the result of choices preferred by the mothers or what they had to "settle for". Nearly one-half of the mothers (41.4% - clericals, 51.2% blue-collar workers) did indicate, though, that it was difficult to arrange child care. Child care was also identified as a financial burden by 48.2% of clericals and 57.8% of the blue-collar working mothers.

Indeed these limited findings emphasize the importance of further, detailed examination of the impact of child-care issues upon women's family and work lives. A larger sample of parents employed outside of the home who have preschool or school-aged children would be necessary in order to adequately study this impact.

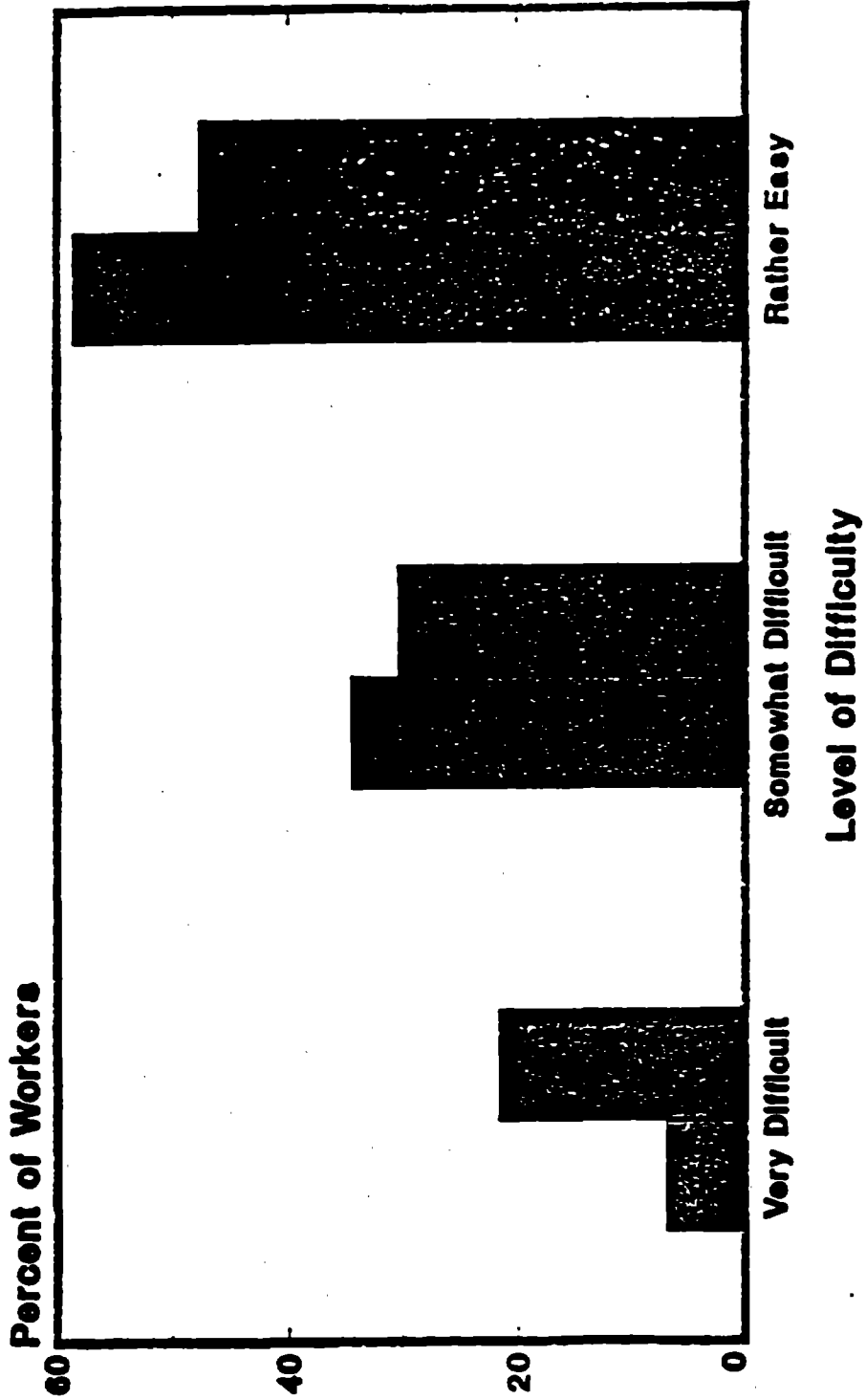
# Weekly Child Care Requirements Clerical vs. Blue Collar

Clerical   
 Blue Collar 



# Difficulty in Arranging Child Care Clerical vs. Blue Collar

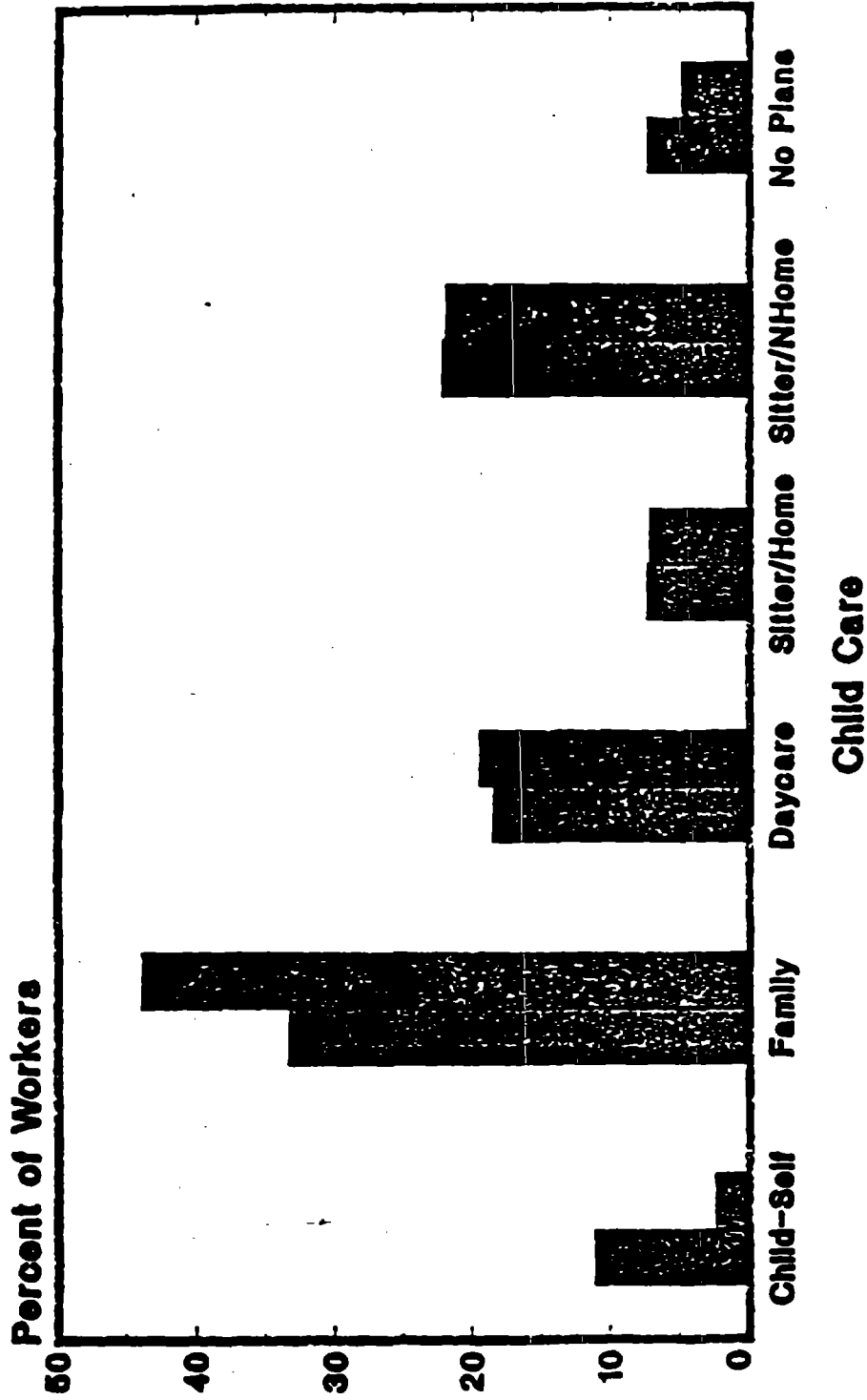
Clerical  
Blue Collar



# Major Type of Child Care Clerical vs. Blue Collar

Blue Collar

Clerical



Child Care

## PREDICTORS OF FAMILY SATISFACTION AND STRESS FOR EMPLOYED WOMEN IN FOUR DIFFERENT FAMILY CONFIGURATIONS

Work and family can no longer be viewed as separate worlds (Kanter, 1977). Events and experiences in one setting are likely to influence events, experiences, and relationships in the other (Bronfenbrenner & Crouter, 1982). Women's experiences of stress appear to be related to changing societal trends and expectations (Griffith, 1983). The widespread entry of women, including wives and mothers into the paid labor force is a trend characteristic of the past decade.

Women comprise an increasing proportion of the paid labor force, primarily owing to the growing involvement of married women (McLaughlin & Melber, 1986). In one-half of all married couples, both partners are employed (Lein, 1984), and in 12% of families, married women are the primary wage-earners (Keane, 1985). Parenthood can no longer be viewed as a culturally sanctioned deterrent to working outside the home. In 1984, two of every three married women with children between 6 and 17, and over one-half of all married women with children under 6 were employed. Unmarried women with children are even more likely to be employed (McLaughlin & Melber, 1986).

The majority of research on employed women has focused primarily on the effects of the number of roles occupied by a woman (spouse, parent, paid worker) on her well-being and performance (Marks, 1977; Pietromonaco, Manis, & Frohardt-Lane, 1984; Sieber, 1974; Thoits, 1983; Verbrugge, 1982). However, more recent studies have found that role quality variables were much stronger predictors of stress outcomes than role occupancy variables (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Baruch & Barnett, 1986). Thus, it is imperative that research examines the nature and quality of various roles and their effect on women's lives (Baruch & Barnett, 1986). The importance of research into stress processes has been made clear by increasing evidence about the negative effects of psychological and social stressors on physical and mental health (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1974; Goldberg & Breznitz, 1982; Krantz, Glass, Contrada, & Miller, 1981).

Research into women's family lives has focused more often on the stress they may experience rather than the pleasure or satisfaction (Woods, 1987); although married women's satisfaction with their lives and mental well-being are increased when they have supportive spouses (Woods, 1985). Yet, satisfaction and stress are not opposites, as evidenced by the research indicating that becoming a mother simultaneously increases a woman's satisfaction with life and also her stress (Woods & Hulka, 1979).

The intent of this analysis was to examine the nature and quality of four domains (personal background, home and work environment, and psychological states, in relationship to the level of satisfaction and stress experienced in the home by women in four different family configurations and thus, occupying different numbers and types of roles. The sample for this analysis were all employed, including: married women with children (n = 313); married women without children (n = 42); single women with children (n = 135); and single women without children (n = 85).

### Home/Family Satisfaction

Satisfaction with home and family was measured in these data by a Likert-type scale composed of 10 items, scored from 1 (extremely dissatisfied) to 4 (extremely satisfied). There was a significant difference between the level of family satisfaction experienced by employed women living in different types of families. The mean values for satisfaction for each of the groups were: married with children (3.00); married without children (3.24); single with children (2.89); and single without children (2.98).

Four sets of simultaneous regression analyses were conducted separately to determine the significant contribution to the family satisfaction experienced by women in each of the family groups. These revealed some similar predictors and some unique predictors for each. Health status was the only variable that was significantly related to the level of satisfaction reported by employed women in all four types of families. Other background variables which were significantly related to family satisfaction were: education and race for married women with children; age for married women without children; and number of people living in the household for single women with children.

When home environment variables were considered, differing patterns of influence on family satisfaction for the four different types of families emerged. Employed women who are married with children had the most number of significant home influences on their level of satisfaction, including: the level of day-to-day physical demands experienced in the home, the type of relationship with partner (supportive versus nonsupportive), the children's behavior, and the number of family decisions they made. For single women with children, significant influences on their satisfaction included: day-to-day physical demands, children's behavior, and number of household activities they were responsible for. The number of family decisions they made was the only home variable found to be significantly related to level of family satisfaction for single employed women without children; whereas no home variables were found for married women without children.

For women in all four types of families, the satisfaction that they experienced at their jobs significantly influenced their level of family satisfaction.

Various psychological states were significantly related to the women's family satisfaction. Differing patterns could be seen in different family groupings. Self-esteem and level of hostility and depression were significantly related to level of family satisfaction reported by married women with children; whereas self-esteem and hostility were related to family satisfaction in single women with children. Assertiveness and level of hostility and depression were significantly related to the family satisfaction reported by single women without children, whereas only level of depression was related to family satisfaction for married women without children.

Significant interactions between variables influencing family satisfaction were uncovered only for those women with children. For married women, these included: AGE x SELF-ESTEEM; SUPPORTIVE PARTNER X HOSTILITY; and WORK STATUS X PROVIDER ROLE. For single women these included NO. OF PEOPLE IN HOUSEHOLD X NO. OF HOUSEHOLD ACTIVITIES RESPONSIBLE FOR, and POOR CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOR X HOSTILITY.

Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in order to determine what proportion of family satisfaction experienced by employed women was predicted by the model. For each separate family group, the proportion of satisfaction accounted for by the domains of background characteristics, home environment, work environment, and psychological states was also determined. Blocks of variables representing these domains were placed into the analysis in the order described above, with a final block representing any significant interactions between variables. For each of the family configurations, each domain contributed varying proportions of prediction to the entire model explaining family satisfaction.

For married women with children, the  $R^2$  for the model equaled .52. The proportion contributed by each domain was as follows: background characteristics = .12; home environment = .22; work environment = .08; psychological states = .07; and interactions between variables = .02. Thus,

the family satisfaction experienced by employed married women with children was influenced more by the domain of home environment than any other of the domains.

For married women without children, the model explained 47% of the variance in family satisfaction. The explanatory power of each of the domains were as follows: background characteristics = .44; home environment = .01; work environment = .02; and psychological states = .04. Therefore, for employed married women without children, background characteristics (e.g. health and age) had the greatest influence on the level of family satisfaction they experienced.

For single women with children, the model explained 56% of the variance in their reported family satisfaction. The explanatory power of each of the domains were as follows: background characteristics = .26; home environment = .09; work environment = .08; psychological states = .07; and interactions between variables = .06. For this group of women, background characteristics were the most influential in explaining their satisfaction with family life.

For single women without children, the  $R^2$  for the model predicting family satisfaction was .65. The predictive power of each of the domains was as follows: background characteristics = .21; home environment = .14; work environment = .21; and psychological states = .09. Thus, their background characteristics and work environment had the greatest influence on the level of family satisfaction experienced by these unmarried, childless women.

In summary, the model of the four domains developed for this research accounted for similar percentages of family satisfaction experienced in the four types of families; however, the patterns of influence were very different within these family groups. For married women with children, the greatest proportion of their family satisfaction came from the home environment. However, for women living in the other types of families, the greatest proportion of family satisfaction came from background characteristics (particularly health status). For single women without children, equally influential upon their home/family satisfaction was their satisfaction with their jobs. Therefore, it would seem that ways to increase home/family satisfaction would need to include strategies for improving health, work satisfaction, day-to-day life at home, and relationships with family members.

#### HOME/FAMILY STRESS

Family or home stress was measured in these data on a Likert-type scale composed of 10 items, scored from 1 (no stress) to 4 (almost too much stress to handle). The overall mean family stress was at a moderate to low level (1.92), and there were no significant differences between the four family forms as to the women's assessment of such stress.

Four separate sets of simultaneous regression analyses were conducted to determine the significant contributors to the stress experienced by women in each family configuration. These revealed some similar predictors and some unique predictors for each. For all four types of families, health status was a significant predictor of family stress for employed women. Other background variables which significantly predicted family stress for women in differing types of families were: education for married women with children; age and provider status for married women without children; and race for single women with children.

Regarding variables from the home environment, the factor representing the level of day-to-day physical demands experienced in the home was a significant predictor of family stress for women in all the types of families except single women without children. Factors representing the type of relationship (supportive vs. nonsupportive) partner were predictors of family stress for those women with partners; whereas factors representing the

children's behavior (negative behaviors, drug abuse) were predictors of family stress for women with children. For single women without children, a factor from the Home Environment Index representing isolation was predictive of their family stress.

For women in all four types of families, the stress that they experienced at their jobs significantly influenced their level of family stress.

Various psychological states were predictive of the women's family stress. Anxiety, depression, and self-esteem were all predictive of family stress for married women with children; whereas anxiety was predictive for married women without children and depression for single women with children.

Many interactions between variables significantly predicted family stress for the married women with children. These included: TYPE OF WORK X PROVIDER ROLE; PROVIDER ROLE X DEPRESSION; SUPPORTIVE PARTNER X SELF-ESTEEM; POSITIVE ROLE X DEPRESSION; SUPPORTIVE PARTNER X SELF-ESTEEM; POSITIVE CHILDREN X DEPRESSION; AND PROVIDER ROLE X SELF-ESTEEM. No significant interactions were predictive of family stress in any of the other family configurations.

Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in order to determine the proportion of family stress predicted by the model and what proportion of this stress was accounted for by the domains of background characteristics, home environment, work environment, and psychological states. Blocks of variables representing these domains were placed into the analysis in the order described above, with a final block representing any significant interactions between variables. For each of the family configurations, each domain contributed varying proportions of prediction to the entire model explaining family stress.

For married women with children, the  $R^2$  for the model equalled .51. The proportion contributed by each domain was as follows: background characteristics = .13; home environment = .11; work environment = .11; psychological states = .13; and interactions between variables = .03. Thus, the family stress experienced by employed women who are married with children was almost equally influenced by all four of the domains studied in this research model.

For married women without children, the model explained 33% of the variance in family stress. The explanatory power of each of the domains were as follows: background characteristics = .04; home environment = .04; work environment = .16; and psychological states = .09. Therefore, work environment had the greatest influence on the level of family stress experienced by these unmarried, childless women.

In summary, the model of the four domains developed for this research was more predictive of family stress experienced by women with children than it was of women without children. Overall trends can be discerned from these analyses. The work environment (primarily stress experienced at work) was more, or as influential than the home environment on the family stress experienced by women in every type of family. In fact, for women without children, the work environment was the best predictor of family stress. Therefore, it would seem that strategies that would alleviate work stress would also be simultaneously successful in alleviating stress experienced at home.

#### CONCLUSION

Overall, the model proposed in this research was more successful in predicting home/family satisfaction than stress for women in four different family configurations. Health status was a significant variable for predicting satisfaction and stress in all four family groups. The work environment was equally as important (and in many cases, of greater importance) in influencing family satisfaction and stress as was the home

environment. Thus, ways to improve the quality of life in the employed women's interrelated (not separate) worlds of both home and work must be implemented in order to improve family life.

## PREDICTORS OF FAMILY SATISFACTION AND STRESS FOR TRADITIONALLY AND NONTRADITIONALLY-EMPLOYED WOMEN

The impact of paid employment on women and their children, marriages, and families has been the focus of a great deal of recent research (Anderson-Kulman & Bahr, 1972; Eiswirth-Neems & Handal, 1978; Hoffman, 1977; Paludi, 1986; Levitan & Belous, 1981). Yet, the majority of this research focused on the number of roles the women occupied (employee, spouse, parent) rather than the types and characteristics of these roles (Baruch & Barnett, 1986; Froberg, Gjerdingen, & Preston, 1986). It has also focused more often on the family stress experienced by employed women than family satisfaction (Woods, 1987). Yet, satisfaction and stress are not opposites, as evidenced by the research indicating that becoming a mother simultaneously increases a woman's satisfaction with life and also her stress (Woods & Hulka, 1979).

It has been proposed that: "The interrelationships among the life spheres of the working mother [woman], such as the interface between factors associated with the mother's work and the quality of family life, have typically been neglected. A more holistic view of the working mother [woman] is needed which simultaneously maintains a broad perspective and attends to the complexity of factors involved" (Anderson-Kulman & Paludi, 1986, p. 243).

To date, there has been no research that looks at the effects that being employed in different types of jobs has on the home lives of women. Thus, the intent of this analysis was to examine the nature and quality of four domains (personal background, home and work environment, and psychological states) in relationship to the level of satisfaction and stress experienced in the home by the traditionally-employed and nontraditionally-employed women. The sample for this analysis were 353 clerical workers (traditionally-employed) and 145 blue-collar workers (nontraditionally-employed).

### HOME/FAMILY SATISFACTION

Satisfaction with home and family was measured in these data by a Likert-type scale composed of 10 items, scored from 1 (extremely dissatisfied) to 4 (extremely satisfied). The mean score for the traditional female workers was 3.02 and the nontraditional female workers was 2.95. There was no statistically significant difference between the two groups with both indicating they were somewhat satisfied.

Two sets of simultaneous regression analyses were conducted separately to determine the significant contribution to the family satisfaction experienced by traditionally and nontraditionally-employed women. These revealed some similar predictors and some unique predictors for each. Health status and parental status were the two background variables significantly related to the level of satisfaction reported by these two groups of employed women. Some other background variables were also significantly related to family satisfaction for the blue-collar women, including: marital status; provider status; and number of people in the household.

The day-to-day environment in the home (including general atmosphere and physical and emotional demands) was significantly related to home satisfaction for both groups of women. Satisfaction level of clerical workers was also influenced by concerns over drug usage of children and/or partners.

Satisfaction with job was also significantly related to the satisfaction with homelife felt by both the clerical and blue-collar workers.

Finally, level of depression was significantly related to both group's family satisfaction. Level of anxiety was also related to the family satisfaction of the blue-collar workers; whereas feelings of self-esteem and hostility were associated with satisfaction in the clerical group.

Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in order to determine what proportion of family satisfaction for each group of employed women was predicted by the model. The proportion of satisfaction accounted for by the domains of background characteristics, home environment, work environment, and psychological states was also determined. A sizable, proportion of family satisfaction for both groups of employed women was predicted by the model used in this research.

For the clerical workers, the  $R^2$  for the model equaled .54. The proportion contributed by each domain was as follows: background variables = .14; home environment = .34; work environment = .08; and psychosocial states = .01. Thus, the family satisfaction experienced by school clerical workers was influenced the most by their home environment.

For the blue-collar workers, the model explained 68% of the variance in their reported family satisfaction. The explanatory power of each of the domains was as follows: background characteristics = .28; home environment = .32; work environment = .04; and psychological states = .04. Therefore for this group of employed women, their background characteristics and home environment were almost equally influential on their family satisfaction.

In summary, the model of the four domains developed for this research was slightly more successful in predicting the level of family satisfaction reported by the blue-collar women workers than by the clericals. However for both groups, factors from the home environment were the most influential in predicting home satisfaction levels.

### HOME/FAMILY STRESS

Family or home stress was measured in these data on a Likert type scale composed of 10 items, scored from 1 (no stress) to 4 (almost too much stress to handle). The mean score for the traditionally-employed women was 1.91 and for the nontraditionally-employed women was 1.97. There was not a statistically significant difference between their levels of family stress with both groups reporting being "a bit stressed."

Two separate sets of simultaneous regression analyses were conducted to determine the significant contributors to the stress experienced by clerical and blue-collar workers. Many similar predictors were found for both. For example, health status was a background variable that was related to family stress for both groups. Number of people in the household also predicted family stress for clerical workers; whereas marital and provider status predicted family stress for blue-collar workers.

Regarding variables from the home environment, the factor representing the day-to-day atmosphere in the home was a significant predictor of family stress for both groups of employed women. In addition, the number of family decisions made by the clerical workers was related to their level of family stress.

For both groups of women, the stress that they experienced at their job significantly influenced their level of family stress.

Finally, level of depression was significantly related to level of family stress in both groups of employed women.

Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in order to determine the proportion of family stress predicted by the model and what proportion of this stress was accounted for by the domains of background characteristics, home and work environments, and psychological states. Blocks of variables representing these domains were placed into the analysis in the order described above.

For the clerical workers, the  $R^2$  for the model equalled .56. The proportion contributed by each domain was as follows: background characteristics = .13; home environment = .38; work environment = .05; and psychological states = .02. Therefore, factors from the home environment had the most influence on the family stress experienced by the female clerical workers.

For the blue-collar workers, the model explained 70% of the variance in family stress. The explanatory power of each of the domains was as follows: background characteristics = .30; home environment = .31; work environment = .05; and psychological states = .04. Therefore, factors from both the blue-collar workers background (particularly marital, provider, and health status) and their home environment were equally influential on their family stress level.

### CONCLUSION

The model proposed in this research was very successful in determining the predictors of family satisfaction and stress for both traditionally and nontraditionally-employed women workers. The model explained more of the variance of these levels for nontraditionals than for traditionals, however. While day-to-day life at home was the most influential factor in determining both family satisfaction and stress, health status and work environment were also significantly related for both groups of workers. Thus, strategies to improve all areas of an employed woman's life should be investigated and implemented in order to improve her family life.

## HEALTH OUTCOMES

### Health Criteria

Women's health was measured by: a) number of work days missed due to illness, b) number of work days taking medicine prescribed by a doctor for a work-related health condition, c) number of work days missed because of injury received at work, d) number of work days missed because of injury received away from work, e) number of days left work early because not feeling well, f) number of health professional visits made because of physical or mental health problems, g) how often job performance was impaired because of physical health problems, h) how often job performance was impaired because of emotional health problems, i) self-rating of present health status, and j) the combined variable of health related absences which included missed work due to illness, missed work due to injury received at work, and missed work due to injury received away from work. See Table 1 for means of these health measures. These health outcomes were examined for differences between traditional and nontraditional work status as well as family group membership of a) married with children, b) single with children, c) married with no children, and d) single with no children.

As shown on Table 2, an overwhelming majority of subjects missed no work days because of taking medicine, because of work-related injury, or because of a nonwork-related injury. Eighty percent and 70% rarely or never felt they did not perform their jobs well due to physical health and mental health respectively. This sample of women missed very few days for other reasons as well. Nearly two-thirds of the sample visited health professionals two or fewer times in the previous year. Overall, 83% of this sample of working women considered themselves to be in good or excellent health.

#### Health Dependent Variable Intercorrelations

As shown in Table 3, among the nine original health items addressed in the survey, absolute values of the correlations ranged from 0 to .53. Strongest correlations were found between work impaired by emotional health and work impaired by physical health ( $r = .51$ ,  $p < .0001$ ), work impaired by physical health and current health status ( $r = -.42$ ,  $p < .0001$ ), absence due to illness and absence due to work related injury ( $r = .53$ ,  $p < .0001$ ), and absence due to work related injury and days using medicine for work related illness ( $r = .46$ ,  $p < .0001$ ). The tenth variable, the combined absence due to any health reason was consequently correlated with each of those individual variables. Current health status was not strongly related to the health related behavior variables (for example absences or doctor

visits). The highest correlation was  $-.20$ . This low correlation was at least partially due to the large proportion of the sample that reported few, if any, instances of these variables.

### Predictors of Health

A review of the literature on working women identified 22 variables which were hypothesized to be factors influencing the health of working women. These variables are listed as follows:

1. Family stress
2. Family satisfaction
3. Job stress
4. Job satisfaction
5. Job pressure
6. Role strain
7. Role overload
8. Ability to predict overtime
9. Number of people in household
10. Income
11. Number of children under six years
12. Number of children between 6 and 18 years
13. Number of children older than 18
14. Number of household decisions
15. Intrinsic job value

16. Sex role orientation
17. Depression
18. Experience of discrimination/harassment
19. Age
20. Self-esteem
21. Social support
22. Coping

In order to increase the interpretability and reduce multicollinearity on the regression model, a conceptual and statistical strategy was used to trim the number of variables investigated as predictors of health variables. This strategy included:

- (1) Exclusion of potential predictors which did not have significant zero-order correlations with the health variables.
- (2) In cases where two variables were correlated with the dependent variable, but were highly correlated with each other, the variable most consistent with the major hypotheses of the study were given preference for inclusion.

The set of variables chosen for inclusion in the regression analyses for health outcomes on the basis of the above steps one (1) and two (2) were:

1. Family stress
2. Number of children under six
3. Role strain
4. Experience of discrimination/harassment
5. Job stress
6. Sex role orientation
7. Self-esteem
8. Coping
9. Age

Significance tests of the model, R-Squares, and the regression coefficient of each predictor were calculated.

#### Correlations Between Predictors and Dependent Variables

Health variables most consistently correlated with the hypothesized predictors were (a) work impaired by physical health, (b) work impaired by emotional health, and (c) current health status. All of which were correlated with four of the hypothesized predictors ( $p < .01$ ). See Table 4. The family stress and self-esteem variables had the highest correlation coefficients with the health variables. The fewest and lowest significant correlations were found among the behavior related to health variables (for example, absence, left early, and medicine use). This finding was due, at least in part, to the non-normal distributions of these variables.

Table 5 shows the means of the Outcome Variables and Table 6 shows the intercorrelations of these variables in the model.

### Regression Analyses

Multiple regression analysis was used to investigate the extent to which the nine independent variables were predictive of each health outcome. Predictor status (traditional or nontraditional worker) interaction terms were added to the model and examined to determine whether the relationships between the predictors and health outcomes might differ for the two groups. Significant interaction effects were found for four health variables: (a) absence due to illness, (b) use of medicine for work related health conditions, (c) absence due to work injury, and (d) absence for any health reason. For these variables, separate regression equations were computed and tested as follows:

#### Absence due to illness

The adjusted R-Square for the regression equation was statistically significant, but low ( $R^2 = .06$ ,  $F = 4.3$ ,  $p < .0001$ ). Separate regression equations for the two status groups indicate that the model was not predictive of absence due to illness for the traditional group, but the model  $R^2$  for the nontraditional group was  $.16$  ( $F = 22.83$ ,  $p < .01$ ). A significant

regression coefficient ( $B = .29, p < .01$ ) indicates that role strain is positively related to illness related absences.

#### Used Medicine for Work-Related Illness

Seperate tests of the model were also conducted for the traditional and nontraditional groups for this variable. Adjusted model R2's were significant for both groups (traditional: Adj. R2 = .13,  $F = 5.9, p < .0001$ ; Nontraditional: Adj. R2 = .15,  $F = 3.6, p < .001$ ). However, in the traditional group, the significant regression coefficients were for the number of children under six ( $B = .16, p < .01$ ) and job stress ( $B = .25, p < .0001$ ) variables, while in the nontraditional group the predictors significantly related to the dependent variables were role strain ( $B = .35, p < .001$ ) and coping ( $B = .31, p < .001$ ).

#### Absence Due to Work-Related Injury

The model was not predictive of work-injury related absences for the traditional group, but was predictive of this health outcome for the nontraditional group (Adj. R2 = .15,  $F = 3.6, p < .001$ ). Role strain ( $B = .40, p < .0001$ ) and coping ( $B = .27, p < .01$ ) were positively related to absences due to work related injury.

#### Absence Due to Any Health Reason

The model adjusted R2 was significant for the nontraditional group (Adj. R2 = .14, F = 3.6,  $p < .001$ ) but was not significant for the traditional group. In the nontraditional group, the positive relationship between role strain and absence due to any health reason (B = .37,  $p < .0001$ ) was the only significant relationship between the predictors and dependent variable.

#### Regression Results for Health Variables with Model Computed for Total Sample

#### Work Impaired by Physical Health

The model accounted for 16% of the variance in the work impaired by physical health variable (Adj. R2 = .16, F = 11.01,  $p < .0001$ ). Tests of the regression coefficients indicated that family stress (B = .18,  $p < .001$ ) and job stress (B = .13,  $p < .01$ ) were positively related to work impairment due to physical health, while self-esteem (B = 1.16,  $p < .001$ ) was negatively related to this health variable.

### Work Impaired by Emotional Health

The proportion of variance accounted for by the model was higher for this variable than any other health outcome (Adj. R2 = .26, F = 20.4,  $p < .0001$ ). Family stress (B = .24,  $p < .0001$ ) was positively related to work impairment by emotional health, while self-esteem (B = -.22,  $p < .0001$ ) and age (B = -.16,  $p < .001$ ) were negatively related.

### Current Health Status

Adjusted R2 for the model as a predictor of current health status was .19 (F = 13.5,  $p < .0001$ ). As was the case with the work impairment variables, significant regression coefficients were found for family stress and self-esteem. Family stress (B = -.27,  $p < .0001$ ) was negatively related to health status and self-esteem (B = .19,  $p < .0001$ ) was positively related to health status.

### Visits to Health Professionals

The proportion of variance in visits to health professionals accounted for by the model was low, but statistically significant (Adj. R2 = .07, F = 5.02,  $p < .001$ ). Family stress (B = .15,  $p < .01$ ) and sex role orientation (B = .15,  $p < .01$ ) had a positive relationship with visits to health professionals.

### Absence Due to Non-Work Injury

The model was not predictive of absence due to non-work injuries.

### Left Work Early Due to Illness

The model was not predictive of number of days worker left work early due to illness.

### Status and Family Group Differences

One-way ANOVA's were used to examine group differences on the 10 health dependent variables. An alpha of .01 was used in assessing the statistical significance of mean differences.

For the work status variables, nontraditional workers missed more days due to illness, work related injury, and any health reason (see Table 7). Women in nontraditional jobs also reported more frequent impairment of their work due to physical or emotional health reasons. Nontraditional workers also reported taking medicine more frequently for work related health problems and more visits to health professionals than traditional workers.

Mean differences by family group were found on four of the ten health variables, missed days due to illness, missed days due to work injury, missed days for any health reason, and days used medicine for a work related injury. On each of the absence variables above, single workers with children reported the most

absences. Married workers with children reported the fewest absences due to illness, and absences for any reason, while married workers without children reported the fewest days missed because of work related injury. Single women with no children were the most frequent users of medicine for work related illness while married workers without children reported the lowest use of medicine.

### Summary

In general, the model consistently accounted for small but statistically significant proportion of the variance in the health variables. The variables for which the model was not significant were absence due to a non-work injury and leaving work early due to illness. The incidence of both of these behaviors was very low (nonwork injury absence  $\bar{X} = .08$ ; left work early  $\bar{X} = .92$ ). The health variables for which the model had the most predictive power were work impaired by emotional health (Adj. R2 = .26), work impaired by physical health (Adj. R2 = .16), and current health status (Adj. R2 = .19).

For almost all of the health related absence variables, the model accounted for significant amounts of variance in the nontraditional group, but not in the traditional group. This again is at least partially accounted for by the very limited number of absences of any sort by traditional workers (illness absences  $\bar{X} = 3.7$ ; work injury absences  $\bar{X} = .17$ ; any health

related absence  $X = 4.3$ ) as compared to nontraditional workers (illness absences  $\bar{X} = 6.5$ ; work injury absence  $X = 3.4$ ; any health related absence  $X = 10.8$ ).

Role strain and family stress were the predictors most frequently related to health dependent variables. Greater role strain was associated with greater absences for health reasons and greater medicine use for work related instances. Higher family stress was associated with greater work impairment due to physical or emotional health, more visits to health professionals, and poorer current health status.

The intercorrelation among some of the predictors makes it impossible to identify one as the most important variable. However, the consistent significant relationship of these variables to health outcomes suggest that the home environment and the stresses generated by the competing demands of home and work environments are important factors in understanding the health of working women.

**TABLE 1**  
**MEANS FOR HEALTH VARIABLES**

| <b>Variables</b>             | <b>Means</b> |
|------------------------------|--------------|
| Missed days - illness        | 4.52         |
| Missed days - medicine       | 2.00         |
| Missed days - work injury    | 1.20         |
| Missed days - nonwork injury | .84          |
| Left early - not well        | .93          |
| Health professional visits   | 3.53         |
| Job impaired - physical      | 1.88         |
| Job impaired - emotional     | 1.93         |
| Health status                | 4.15         |
| Total health absences        | 6.27         |

TABLE 2

## FREQUENCIES AND MEANS OF HEALTH OUTCOME VARIABLES

| <u>Dependent Variable</u>            | <u>Mean</u> | <u>SD</u> | <u>Summary</u>            | <u>N</u> |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|-----------|---------------------------|----------|
| Absence due to illness               | 4.51        | 7.18      | 80% of sample<br>≤ 5 days | 579      |
| Medicine use                         | 1.99        | 7.06      | 85% of sample<br>= 0      | 509      |
| Absence due to work<br>injury        | 1.15        | 5.51      | 92% of sample<br>= 0      | 517      |
| Absence due to non-<br>work injury   | .84         | 4.99      | 89% of sample<br>= 0      | 530      |
| Left early due to<br>illness         | .93         | 2.72      | 80% of sample<br>≤ 1      | 551      |
| Work impaired by<br>physical health  | 1.88        | .81       | 80% rarely or<br>never    | 585      |
| Work impaired by<br>emotional health | 1.93        | .85       | 75% rarely or<br>never    | 585      |
| Current health status                | 4.15        | .75       | 83% good or<br>excellent  | 583      |
| Absence for any health<br>reason     | 6.27        | 11.78     | 73% ≤ 5 days              | 586      |
| Visits to health<br>professionals    | 3.53        | 6.25      | 64% ≤ 2 days              | 582      |



**TABLE 4**  
**CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PREDICTORS AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES**

| Dependent Variables            | Predictors of Health Outcomes |                  |             |            |                 |                 |             |      |        |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|-------------|------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------|------|--------|
|                                | Family Stress                 | Children Under 6 | Role Strain | Job Stress | Discrim/ Harass | Sex Role Orient | Self Esteem | Age  | Coping |
| 1. Miss day - illness          |                               |                  | .18         |            |                 |                 |             |      | .13    |
| 2. Used medicines              |                               |                  | .24         | .17        |                 | -.18            |             |      | .20    |
| 3. Miss day - work injury      |                               |                  | .29         |            | .16             |                 |             |      | .17    |
| 4. Miss day - nonwork injury   |                               |                  |             |            |                 |                 |             |      |        |
| 5. Left Early                  |                               | .19              |             |            |                 | .15             |             |      |        |
| 6. Health professionals visits | .22                           |                  |             | .21        | .16             | .18             |             |      | .13    |
| 7. Job impaired/ physical      | .31                           | .16              | -.24        | .23        | .21             |                 | -.23        | -.16 |        |
| 8. Job impaired/ emotional     | .38                           |                  | .25         | .29        |                 |                 | -.30        | -.26 | .13    |
| 9. Health                      | -.38                          |                  | -.20        | -.26       | .19             | -.35            | .30         |      | .18    |
| 10. Absence due to health      | -.16                          |                  | .24         |            |                 | .15             |             |      |        |

**TABLE 5**  
**MEANS OF OUTCOME VARIABLES**

| <b>Outcome Variables</b>  | <b>Means</b> |
|---------------------------|--------------|
| Family stress             | 1.93         |
| Children under 6          | .12          |
| Role strain               | 1.55         |
| Job stress                | 1.81         |
| Discrimination/harassment | .44          |
| Sex role orientation      | 36.03        |
| Coping                    | 5.23         |
| Self-esteem               | 31.47        |
| Age                       | 45.51        |

TABLE 6

INTERCORRELATIONS OF VARIABLES IN MODEL

|                               | 1    | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5    | 6     | 7     | 8     | 9     |
|-------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. Family stress              | 1.00 | 0.09 | 0.31 | 0.50 | 0.15 | -0.03 | 0.10  | -0.35 | -0.13 |
| 2. Children under 6           |      | 1.00 | 0.29 | 0.15 | 0.01 | 0.06  | -0.08 | -0.10 | -0.22 |
| 3. Role strain                |      |      | 1.00 | 0.29 | 0.17 | 0.05  | 0.02  | -0.26 | -0.36 |
| 4. Job stress                 |      |      |      | 1.00 | 0.26 | 0.03  | 0.05  | -0.18 | -0.13 |
| 5. Experienced discrimination |      |      |      |      | 1.00 | 0.20  | 0.11  | 0.04  | -0.26 |
| 6. Sex role orientation       |      |      |      |      |      | 1.00  | 0.10  | 0.23  | -0.33 |
| 7. Coping                     |      |      |      |      |      |       | 1.00  | 0.12  | -0.13 |
| 8. Self-esteem                |      |      |      |      |      |       |       | 1.00  | 0.08  |
| 9. Age                        |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       | 1.00  |

TABLE 7

SUMMARY OF HEALTH OUTCOME DIFFERENCES BY WORK STATUS AND FAMILY GROUPS

| Health Outcomes             | Work Status |         | Family Groups |        |           |           |
|-----------------------------|-------------|---------|---------------|--------|-----------|-----------|
|                             | Trad        | Nontrad | M Kids        | S Kids | M No Kids | S No Kids |
| Missed day - illness        | 3.67        | 6.5***  | 3.7*          | 6.3    | 4.5       | 4.6*      |
| Used medicine               | 1.12        | 4.0***  | 1.3*          | 2.6    | .08       | 4.5*      |
| Missed day - work injury    | .17         | 3.4***  | .55*          | 2.6    | .43       | 1.5*      |
| Missed day - nonwork injury | .48         | 1.5     |               |        |           |           |
| Left early - sick           | .78         | 1.18    |               |        |           |           |
| Health professional visits  | 2.94        | 4.81*** | 3.3           | 3.6    | 2.6       | 5.01      |
| Physical health work impair | 1.81        | 2.0*    |               |        |           |           |
| Mental health work impair   | 1.87        | 2.1*    |               |        |           |           |
| Health status               | 4.20        | 4.04    |               |        |           |           |
| Total health absences       | 4.25        | 10.8*** | 5.0*          | 9.4    | 5.05      | 6.65*     |

\* = .01  
 \*\* = .001  
 \*\*\* = .0001

## PREDICTORS OF JOB PERFORMANCE

### Performance Criteria

Two criteria are used to measure the respondent's job performance, self-supported performance ratings and self reported absenteeism.

### Performance Ratings

Four items were designed to measure the respondents' performance. Respondents were asked to indicate how often they performed poorly because of their emotional health, physical health, problems at work, and problems at home. The responses ranged from never (1) to always (5). These four items were summed to form a composite scale. The internal consistency for this scale was estimated at .88.

### Results

Based on the extensive job performance literature, a number of variables were selected to examine with this sample. They included demographic, personality, job and home factors.

### The Relationships Between Performance and Demographic Variables

The job performance mean score was compared for traditional and nontraditional employees. The results indicated that non-traditional employees reported slightly more frequent poor performance than their traditional counterparts. The mean difference reached statistical significance,  $F(1, N=580) = 5.10, p < .02$ . Since the traditional and non-traditional groups differ in terms of some demographic variables, such as age, race, family type, place of residence, it is important to see whether these demographic variables contribute to the status difference of the performance.

First, the performance means for various age-group were estimated. For this part of the study age was classified into four categories: (1) under 30; (2) 30-39; (3) 40-49; and (4) 50 and over. The job performance means were significantly different for the age groups,  $F(3, N=581) = 17.96, p < .0001$ . A Scheffe follow-up revealed that performance by individuals in one age category, 30-39, is the only contributing source of the mean difference. Individuals in the 30-39 age category indicated more frequent poor performance than the other three groups.

Age is the only statistically significant demographic variable. The results indicted no significant mean differences between performance of the white and non-white (i.e., Black, Hispanic, others) respondents,  $F(1, N=580) = 0.02, p > 0.90$ . Similarly, we found no significant mean differences across the four categories of places of residence (classified as rural, small town, suburban, and urban),  $F(3, N=577) = 1.30, p > .27$ . Furthermore, there was no significant difference in the performance means across the four family types (single with kids, married with kids, married without kids, and single without kids),  $F(3, N=568) = 0.97, p > 0.41$ . These three non-significant demographic variables of race, place of residence, and family types will be excluded from

further analyses. Table 1 presents the means and tests of significance for the demographic variables.

Aside from the variables central to this study, interesting results were obtained for the performance and the degree of discrimination on the job. The results indicated that there is a significant mean differences of job performance across the three categories of discrimination,  $F(3, N=581) = 8.63, p < .0001$ . A Scheffe follow-up disclosed that the difference lies only between experiencing no discrimination and experiencing all three forms, e.g. racial and sexual discrimination and sexual harassment.

### Job Performance and Personality Variables

Table 2 shows the zero-order correlations between job performance and personality variables such as self-esteem, assertiveness, sex-role orientation, anxiety scale, depression, and hostility. According to these correlations, reported poor performance is negatively related to high self-esteem, and positively related to anxiety, depression, and hostility. Despite their moderate correlations, these personality variables are excluded from the main analysis based on theoretical and methodological considerations. It is difficult to establish whether these personality variables are predictors, or outcomes of the job performance. It may be both. At any rate, the design of the present study (cross-sectional) does not allow for establishing such directions.

### Job-Related Variables

Five job-related variables were proposed to predict the employee's job performance. These variables included: job satisfaction, job stress, extrinsic reward (organization), extrinsic reward (social), and intrinsic reward. The intercorrelations of these five measures are given in Table 3. There is a high correlation (.81) between intrinsic reward and job stress. To avoid multicollinearity problems, the variable "intrinsic reward" was excluded from the analysis.

### Home-Related Variables

This section included four scales measuring family stress, family satisfaction, home characteristics day-to-day, and hassles. The intercorrelations of these four scales are given in Table 4. There are two high correlations: the correlation between home characteristics and family stress (-.71), and the correlation between family stress and family satisfaction (-.68). Here again, it was decided to exclude home characteristics and family satisfaction to avoid multicollinearity problems.

### Other Variables

Two other variables, current health status and role strain, were proposed to predict job performance. In total, the proposed variables to predict job performance included job stress, job satisfaction, extrinsic reward (organization), extrinsic regard (social), family stress, hassles, current health, and role strain.

### The Main Model

A multiple regression was the method of analysis used to predict job performance. The order by which the predictors entered the regression model is: job stress, job satisfaction, extrinsic reward (social), extrinsic reward (organizational), role strain, family strain, and current health status. The full equation model is significant,  $F(12, 641) = 29.22, p < .0001$ . Table 5 presents the standardized regression coefficient, adjusted  $R^2$ , and F test. The results indicate that reported poor performance is significantly and negatively related to job satisfaction ( $B = .14, p < .0009$ ) and one's health ( $B = -.19, p < .0001$ ), but positively related to the role strain ( $B = .19, p < .0001$ ), and family stress ( $B = .26, p < .0001$ ). Family stress has the highest beta weight. The data failed to support the relationships between job performance and job stress ( $B = .08, p > .17$ ), extrinsic reward - social ( $B = -.04, p > .37$ ), extrinsic reward - organizational ( $B = .04, p > .33$ ), and hassles ( $B = -.01, p > .77$ ). A multiple regression equation with only those four significant predictor variables was performed (restricted model). The pattern of the relationships between job performance and its predictors remained unchanged for this restricted model (Table 5).

It was mentioned previously that age seemed to be related to job performance. The restricted regression model was extended to include age in the prediction of job performance. The results indicated that age of the respondents does not add significantly to the variance for job performance ( $B = -.07, p > .32$ ). Table 5 presents the results of the regression equation model with an addition of age as another predictor of performance.

It was mentioned before that non-traditional employees reported poor performance more frequently than did the traditional group. This part of the study tested to see whether a similar pattern of predictors exists for the two groups. Therefore, the model with the four significant predictors (i.e., job satisfaction, role strain, family stress, and health status) was separately tested for the traditional and non-traditional groups. For the traditional group, the four predictors have almost identical beta weights. This means that the four predictors contribute equally to the prediction of job performance. This pattern does not, however, hold for the non-traditional group. In the non-traditional group, like the total sample, family stress has the highest beta weight ( $B = .34, p < .0001$ ). Table 6 presents the results of the multiple regression for the traditional and non-traditional groups.

## Absence

Measure

Six items were designed to measure absenteeism. Respondents were asked to indicate the number of days that they were absent because of illnesses, work-related injuries, family problems, and off-work injuries. They were also asked to indicate the number of days that they started work late and the number of days that they left work early. Because of the low intercorrelations among the six items, we were unable to form a composite scale. Thus, each single item was considered as a criterion variable. Table 7 presents the intercorrelations among the absenteeism items.

## Absenteeism Criteria and Some Demographic Variables

Respondents were classified into two categories: those who reported no absence, and those who reported some degree of absence. The frequencies of absence/no-absence were studied for the traditional and non-traditional groups (Table 8). Traditional and non-traditional groups show an interesting pattern across various absenteeism criteria. While significantly more individuals in the traditional group reported absence because of illnesses ( $X^2 = 23.08$ ,  $p < .0001$ ), significantly more individuals in the non-traditional reported absence because of injuries at work ( $X^2 = 24.78$ ,  $p < .0001$ ) and off-work injuries ( $X^2 = 3.16$ ,  $p < .0001$ ). The two groups of employees were not significantly different in terms of absenteeism because of family problems. Furthermore, traditional and non-traditional groups were compared in terms of "late" and "early" frequencies. Here again, individuals in the non-traditional group reported "leaving early" significantly more than the traditional group ( $X^2 = 5.18$ ,  $p < .02$ ). But employees in the traditional group reported "coming late" significantly more often than those in the non-traditional group ( $X^2 = 5.85$ ,  $p < .02$ ).

This group difference may be explained by the characteristics of the respondents in each group. Individuals in the traditional jobs in this study are older than those holding non-traditional jobs. Thus, employees of the traditional group may in fact take more time off from their work due to illnesses. By the same token, injuries on the job may be characteristic of the non-traditional jobs included in this study. It is also possible that each group gives reasons for their absences according to what is a more acceptable reason in their respective organizations, e.g., norms of the organization.

It is interesting that although more individuals from traditional groups were absent due to illnesses, the duration of absence due to illnesses were longer for the non-traditional group. Table 9 shows the duration of absences for each group.

The lengthier period of absence due to illnesses in the case of the non-traditional group is indicated in the mean difference statistics given in Table 10. The mean of absence for the non-traditional group ( $M = 6.49$ ) is significantly higher than that for the traditional group ( $M = 3.67$ ).

Since the non-traditional group was characteristically different (younger, more urban, non-white) than those in the traditional group, the mean difference of the absenteeism criteria were compared according to such demographic variables as race, place of residence, and family type. The results show that absenteeism due to physical health and injuries at work was significantly higher for the single mothers with kids (Table 10). In addition, absenteeism due to family problems was significantly less for the single without kids. The results of the absenteeism mean comparison showed that non-white respondents reported more absences due to illnesses, injuries at work, and family problems (Table 10). Furthermore, individuals living in the urban areas reported more absences due to illness and injuries at work. In contrast, residents of the rural areas reported more absence due to off-work injuries. Finally, the age difference was observed for all the items of absenteeism criterion except for the category of absence due to off-work injuries and absence due to family problems (Table 10).

The relationships between the absence criterion and other variables in the study (job-related, home-related, and personality variables) were mostly low and insignificant. Only three variables had a moderate relationships with some of the criterion variables. The variable "Daily Hassles" was significantly related to the criterion variables of "Coming Late" ( $r=.21$ ), and of "Leaving Early" ( $r=.38$ ). In addition, the variable "Role Strain" was related to absence due to work injuries.

### Summary

In summary, self-reported job performance was predicted by job satisfaction, role strain, family stress and personal health, with poor performance negatively related to job satisfaction and personal health and positively related to role strain and family stress. For the traditionally employed women these four predictors contribute equally to the variance accounted for. However, for the non-traditional job holders, family stress contributes the most to poor performance. For clerical workers, illness was the primary cause of absence, while injuries, both job-related and off-work, accounted for absences of non-traditional employees. The latter group also had longer absences, probably representing the cause of absence. These results are an important step in understanding the factors associated with work outcomes for women employed in clerical, transit and trades positions.

## TABLE ONE

### Job Performance and Demographic Variables

#### JOB STATUS

|                 |      |
|-----------------|------|
| Traditional     | 7.53 |
| Non-Traditional | 8.06 |
| F               | 5.10 |
| P               | .02  |

#### AGE-GROUP

|             |       |
|-------------|-------|
| Under 30    | 7.84  |
| 30-39       | 8.92  |
| 40-49       | 7.78  |
| 50 and over | 6.90  |
| F           | 17.96 |
| P           | .0001 |

#### RACE

|           |      |
|-----------|------|
| White     | 7.71 |
| Non-White | 7.67 |
| F         | .02  |
| P         | .90  |

#### RESIDENCE

|            |      |
|------------|------|
| Urban      | 8.13 |
| Suburban   | 7.62 |
| Small Town | 7.59 |
| Rural      | 7.46 |
| F          | 1.30 |
| P          | .27  |

#### FAMILY TYPE

|                  |      |
|------------------|------|
| Married w/ kids  | 7.69 |
| Single w/ kids   | 7.80 |
| Married no Kids  | 7.05 |
| Non-marr no Kids | 7.81 |
| F                | .97  |
| P                | .41  |

TABLE TWO

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN JOB PERFORMANCE  
AND PERSONALITY VARIABLES

|                      |      |         |
|----------------------|------|---------|
| Self-Esteem          | -.33 | P .0001 |
| Assertiveness        | .10  | p .02   |
| Sex Role Orientation | .07  | p .02   |
| Anxiety Scale        | .46  | p .0001 |
| Depression Scale     | .46  | p .0001 |
| Hostility Scale      | .28  | p .0001 |

TABLE THREE

Intercorrelations Among Job-Related Variables

|                    | 1 | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5    |
|--------------------|---|------|------|------|------|
| Job Satisfaction   | - | -.55 | .45  | .46  | .81  |
| Job Stress         |   | -    | -.34 | -.38 | -.58 |
| Extrinsic (Org.)   |   |      | -    | .45  | .38  |
| Extrinsic (Social) |   |      |      | -    | .42  |
| Intrinsic          |   |      |      |      | -    |

TABLE FOUR

Intercorrelations Among Home-Related Variables

|                      | 1 | 2    | 3    | 4    |
|----------------------|---|------|------|------|
| Family Stress        | - | -.68 | .21  | -.71 |
| Family Satisfaction  |   | -    | -.16 | .69  |
| Hassles              |   |      | -    | -.11 |
| Home Characteristics |   |      |      | -    |

**TABLE 5**  
**Three Regression Models**

|                         | Standardized<br>Regression<br>Weight (p) | Standardized<br>Regression<br>Weight (p) | Standardized<br>Regression<br>Weight (p) |
|-------------------------|--|--|--|
|                         | (Full Model)                             | (Restricted)                             | (With Age)                               |
| Job Stress              | .08 (.17)                                | -  | -  |
| Job Satisfaction        | -.14 (.009)                              | -.18 (.0001)                             | -.17 (.0001)                             |
| Ext-Social              | -.04 (.37)                               | -  | -  |
| Ext-Organizational      | .04 (.33)                                | -  | -  |
| Role Strain             | .19 (.0001)                              | .19 (.0001)                              | .17 (.0001)                              |
| Family Stress           | .26 (.0001)                              | .26 (.0001)                              | .26 (.0001)                              |
| Health                  | -.19 (.0001)                             | -.20 (.0001)                             | -.20 (.0001)                             |
| Hassles                 | -.01 (.73)                               | -  | -  |
| Age                     | -  | -  | -.07 (.10)                               |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | .34                                      | .32                                      | .32                                      |
| F                       | 29.22 (.0001)                            | 58.95 (.0001)                            | 47.87 (.0001)                            |

**TABLE 6**

Regression Model for Traditional and Non-Traditional Groups

|                         | Standardized<br>Regression<br>Weight (p) | Standardized<br>Regression<br>Weight (p) |
|-------------------------|--|--|
|                         | <u>Traditional</u>                       | <u>Non-Traditional</u>                   |
| Job Satisfaction        | -.21 (.0001)                             | -.14 (.0001)                             |
| Role Strain             | .22 (.0001)                              | .15 (.0001)                              |
| Family Stress           | .23 (.0001)                              | .34 (.0001)                              |
| Health                  | -.22 (.0001)                             | -.16 (.0001)                             |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> | .32                                      | .35                                      |
| F                       | 40.52 (.0001)                            | 19.64 (.0001)                            |

**TABLE 7**

**Intercorrelations among Absenteeism Items**

|                    | Illness | Injury<br>Work | Family | Non-Work<br>Injury | Late<br>for Work | Leave<br>Early |
|--------------------|---------|----------------|--------|--------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Illness            | 1.00    | .53            | .27    | .07                | .13              | .11            |
| Injury<br>at Work  |         | 1.00           | .17    | .04                | .06              | -.01           |
| Family             |         |                | 1.00   | .03                | .02              | .08            |
| Non-Work<br>Injury |         |                |        | 1.00               | .002             | .02            |
| Late<br>for Work   |         |                |        |                    | 1.00             | .36            |
| Leave Early        |         |                |        |                    |                  | 1.00           |

**TABLE 8**

THE PERCENTAGES OF ABSENCES IN THE TWO WORK GROUPS

|                 | Illness | Injury<br>Work | Family | Non-Work<br>Injury | Late | Leave<br>Early |
|-----------------|---------|----------------|--------|--------------------|------|----------------|
| <b>STATUS</b>   |         |                |        |                    |      |                |
| Traditional     | 82      | 4              | 36     | 8                  | 29   | 44             |
| Non-Traditional | 64      | 15             | 30     | 13                 | 38   | 33             |
| $\chi^2$        | 23.08   | 24.73          | 1.70   | 3.61               | 5.18 | 5.85           |
| p               | .0001   | .0001          | .35    | .08                | .02  | .02            |

**TABLE 9**

The Duration of Absence in each Category (Percentages)

|                        | One<br>Week | Two<br>Weeks | Three<br>Weeks | One<br>Month | More than<br>a Month |
|------------------------|-------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|----------------------|
| <b>ILLNESS</b>         |             |              |                |              |                      |
| Traditional            | 72          | 8            | 1              | 1            | .25                  |
| Non-Trad.              | 49          | 8            | 4              | 4            | 4                    |
| <b>WORK INJURY</b>     |             |              |                |              |                      |
| Traditional            | 3           | .28          | .28            | 0            | 0                    |
| Non-Trad.              | 3           | 6            | 3              | 4            | 2                    |
| <b>FAMILY</b>          |             |              |                |              |                      |
| Traditional            | 35          | 3            | 1              | 0            | .27                  |
| Non-Trad.              | 31          | 2            | 0              | 0            | 1                    |
| <b>NON-WORK INJURY</b> |             |              |                |              |                      |
| Traditional            | 8           | 0            | .3             | .3           | .3                   |
| Non-Trad.              | 10          | .6           | 0              | 2            | .6                   |
| <b>LATE</b>            |             |              |                |              |                      |
| Traditional            | 27          | 2            | .5             | .8           | .3                   |
| Non-Trad.              | 38          | 3            | .6             | 1            | 0                    |
| <b>EARLY</b>           |             |              |                |              |                      |
| Traditional            | 46          | 1            | 0              | 0            | 0                    |
| Non-Trad.              | 36          | 0            | 0              | 0            | 1                    |

TABLE 10

## THE ABSENCE MEANS ACROSS DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

|                    | Illness | Injury<br>Work | Family | Non-Work<br>Injury | Late | Leave<br>Early |
|--------------------|---------|----------------|--------|--------------------|------|----------------|
| <b>STATUS</b>      |         |                |        |                    |      |                |
| Traditional        | 3.67    | .17            | 1.44   | .49                | 1.43 | .78            |
| Non-Trad.          | 6.49    | 3.40           | 1.37   | 1.49               | 1.75 | 1.18           |
| F                  | 19.00   | 40.00          | .03    | 4.73               | .67  | 2.66           |
| P                  | .0001   | .0001          | .86    | .03                | .41  | .10            |
| <b>FAMILY TYPE</b> |         |                |        |                    |      |                |
| Married w/         | 3.71    | .55            | 1.46   | .91                | 1.59 | .87            |
| NO Mar. w/         | 6.33    | 2.62           | 1.79   | .93                | 1.59 | .96            |
| Marr. No Kid       | 4.52    | .43            | 1.95   | .13                | 1.37 | .80            |
| No Marr. No        | 4.62    | 1.45           | .41    | .84                | 1.18 | .73            |
| F                  | 4.05    | 4.19           | 2.15   | .30                | .21  | .13            |
| P                  | .007    | .006           | .09    | .83                | .89  | .94            |
| <b>RACE</b>        |         |                |        |                    |      |                |
| White              | 3.69    | .70            | 1.32   | .78                | 1.48 | .96            |
| Non-White          | 10.88   | 4.69           | 2.23   | 1.30               | 1.91 | .59            |
| F                  | 66.96   | 28.70          | 2.86   | .64                | .61  | 1.10           |
| P                  | .0001   | .0001          | .09    | .42                | .44  | .30            |
| <b>RESIDENCE</b>   |         |                |        |                    |      |                |
| Urban              | 8.39    | 4.19           | 2.08   | .61                | 2.35 | 1.14           |
| Suburban           | 3.75    | .39            | 1.35   | .54                | 1.32 | .91            |
| Small Town         | 3.88    | 1.03           | 1.34   | .48                | 1.44 | .75            |
| Rural              | 2.69    | .000           | .88    | 2.88               | 1.19 | .68            |
| F                  | 14.15   | 12.89          | 1.28   | 4.29               | 1.60 | .55            |
| P                  | .0001   | .0001          | .28    | .005               | .19  | .65            |
| <b>AGE-GROUP</b>   |         |                |        |                    |      |                |
| Under 30           | 3.26    | 1.02           | .83    | .04                | 2.27 | 1.14           |
| 30-39              | 5.98    | 2.73           | 1.73   | .82                | 2.40 | 1.70           |
| 40-49              | 4.65    | .98            | 1.48   | 1.25               | 1.66 | .80            |
| 50 and over        | 3.86    | .33            | 1.32   | .70                | .69  | .52            |
| F                  | 3.01    | 5.01           | .62    | .81                | 5.11 | 5.31           |
| P                  | .03     | .02            | .59    | .49                | .002 | .001           |

### Coping Responses Among Traditionally and Nontraditionally Employed Women.

Coping has been viewed as both a moderating variable in stress research (Chiriboga, & Dean, 1978; Aldwin and Revenson, 1988) and a part of the stress process of interest in and of itself (Billings and Moos, 1981; Folkman and Lazarus, 1978; Lazarus, 1966; Pearlin and Schooler, 1978). Coping continues to be a controversially defined and measured construct (Kaus, 1987) which can be examined in terms of variety, intensity, focus or process, as well as efficacy. This literature directed our attention not only to job performance and substance use outcomes, but to workers' coping behaviors.

Consistent with Hall's work with role conflict (1972), which identified coping intensity as the most useful variable in predicting efficacy, we constructed a mean coping intensity score which tapped both problem and emotion focused coping. Mean intensity scores reflect average frequency with which all strategies are employed. (Total score/21). Mean scores ranged from 1 to 5, with 1 indicating never and 5 indicating always. Mean scores for problem and emotion focused coping were similarly devised. While mean coping intensity scores are modest (the average score being less than "occasional"), respondents employ more strategies at home than at work, and traditionally employed women use significantly less than nontraditionally employed women. Differences in the coping intensity across setting and employment groups are as noted below.

#### MEAN COPING INTENSITY SCORES BY EMPLOYMENT AND SETTING

| Employment     | Setting |       |
|----------------|---------|-------|
|                | Home*   | Work* |
| Traditional    | 1.76    | 1.46  |
| Nontraditional | 1.85    | 1.54  |
| Total          | 1.79    | 1.48  |

\*  $p > .05$  across employee groups within each setting

The ratio of problem focused to emotion focused scores across settings suggests fewer personally focused strategies are employed on the job than at home, but that this is particularly true for traditional women whereas nontraditional women continue to focus on practical solutions in both settings. See table below.

RATIO OF PROBLEM TO EMOTION FOCUSED COPING  
ACROSS SETTINGS AND EMPLOYMENT GROUPS

| Employment     | Setting        |                 |
|----------------|----------------|-----------------|
|                | Home *         | Work            |
| Traditional    | .9718          | 1.4467          |
| Nontraditional | 1.0445         | 1.5270          |
| -----<br>Total | -----<br>.9938 | -----<br>1.4708 |

\*  $p > .008$

In an effort to characterize the coping strategies used in different settings we tallied the use of each of 21 strategies only when they were selected frequently (often or always). Initial examination of the resulting coping patterns of these working women revealed some striking differences between the types of strategies preferred in each setting, (see Tables C1, C2 and C3 attached.) The most commonly selected strategy in both settings is "planning solutions" followed next by talking with friends and family, working harder, or "standing my ground and fighting for what I want." However, women respond by watching TV, getting angry and blowing up, and spending more time with their families more often when facing problems at home than stresses at work. Traditional women in particular frequently resort to prayer to manage stress at home. In contrast, in dealing with problems at work rather than at home, women "work harder at their job". More nontraditionally employed women than traditional women frequently avoid the situation, stand their ground and fight, and/or plan a solution.

Simultaneous regression was used to test our model of situational and personal variables predicting coping intensity. Entering the variables of age, race, religiosity, educational level, income level, current health status, job and family stresses, family group and role strain, this model predicted little more than five percent of coping intensity over all in the work setting and nine percent in the home. The model somewhat more effectively predicted coping among nontraditionally employed women ( $R^2 = .1656$ ,  $p > .0001$ ) at work and traditional women at home ( $R^2 = .1143$ ,  $p > .0001$ ); but was not significantly predictive of traditional women's coping intensity at work, or non-traditional women's coping at home. Within these analyses religiosity and family composition contribute significantly to the model across setting and group. In addition age, family stress and job stress contribute significantly to coping among traditional women facing stress at home; while educational level and high role strain contribute to coping among non-traditional women at work.

The difference between coping strategy preferences between work and home reinforces the notion that coping is highly situation specific (Kraus, 1985). The poor performance of our model in predicting coping for traditional women outside the home and nontraditional women at home suggests that personality or other learned characteristics are playing a significant role in coping intensity. Additional analyses exploring alternative models will be undertaken.

C1: Frequency of Coping Behaviors  
Indicated Often or Always

| Behaviors                           | At work |     | Reporting |   | At home |     |
|-------------------------------------|---------|-----|-----------|---|---------|-----|
|                                     | %       | N   | %         | N | %       | N   |
| Meditate                            | 12%     | 71  |           |   | 20%     | 114 |
| Talk with friends or family         | 48%     | 304 |           |   | 54%     | 310 |
| Exercise                            | 16%     | 94  |           |   | 19%     | 111 |
| Smoke, Drink, Drugs                 | 9%      | 53  |           |   | 11%     | 61  |
| Cry                                 | 3%      | 20  |           |   | 13%     | 72  |
| Religion, pray                      | 30%     | 170 |           |   | 44%     | 253 |
| Go out to pleasurable events        | 23%     | 129 |           |   | 30%     | 173 |
| Watch TV                            | 17%     | 98  |           |   | 32%     | 180 |
| Eat more or less                    | 27%     | 158 |           |   | 31%     | 178 |
| Sleep more or less                  | 19%     | 109 |           |   | 25%     | 143 |
| Get angry, even blow up             | 9%      | 50  |           |   | 30%     | 120 |
| Seek Professional help              | 2%      | 12  |           |   | 3%      | 17  |
| Work harder at my job               | 45%     | 257 |           |   | 30%     | 169 |
| Spend more time with family         | 17%     | 89  |           |   | 33%     | 185 |
| Seek solitude and worry             | 10%     | 57  |           |   | 14%     | 78  |
| Buy something new                   | 15%     | 84  |           |   | 21%     | 120 |
| Take time off from work             | 2%      | 14  |           |   | 4%      | 22  |
| Avoid stressful situation           | 28%     | 157 |           |   | 28%     | 157 |
| Make plan to solve situation        | 57%     | 326 |           |   | 59%     | 336 |
| Stand ground and fight for own ends | 41%     | 234 |           |   | 49%     | 275 |
| Participate in supportive group     | 14%     | 81  |           |   | 12%     | 67  |

C2: Traditionally vs non traditionally employed  
Proportion Indicating Behavior frequently at work

|                                     | Traditional |     | Non Traditional |     |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|-----|-----------------|-----|
|                                     | %           | N   | %               | N   |
| Meditate                            | 11%         | 43  | 16%             | 28  |
| Talk with friends or family         | 49%         | 193 | 48%             | 85  |
| Exercise                            | 14%         | 55  | 21%             | 38  |
| Smoke, Drink, Drugs                 | 6%          | 24  | 16%             | 28  |
| Cry                                 | 4%          | 15  | 3%              | 5   |
| Religion, pray                      | 29%         | 116 | 30%             | 52  |
| Go out to pleasurable events        | 21%         | 84  | 26%             | 45  |
| Watch TV                            | 18%         | 69  | 17%             | 25  |
| Eat more or less                    | 27%         | 109 | 27%             | 48  |
| Sleep more or less                  | 18%         | 70  | 22%             | 38  |
| Get angry, even blow up             | 7%          | 26  | 13%             | 23  |
| Seek Professional help              | 1%          | 5   | 4%              | 7   |
| Work harder at my job               | 44%         | 173 | 46%             | 81  |
| Spend more time with family         | 17%         | 62  | 15%             | 25  |
| Seek solitude and worry             | 10%         | 39  | 11%             | 18  |
| Buy something new                   | 14%         | 55  | 17%             | 29  |
| Take time off from work             | 2%          | 6   | 5%              | 8   |
| Avoid stressful situation           | 26%         | 102 | 30%             | 53  |
| Make plan to solve situation        | 55%         | 214 | 64%             | 112 |
| Stand ground and fight for own ends | 35%         | 139 | 53%             | 93  |

C3: Traditionally vs non traditionally employed women  
Proportion Indicating Behavior frequently at home

|                                     | Traditional |     | Non traditional |     |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|-----|-----------------|-----|
|                                     | %           | N   | %               | N   |
| Participate in supportive group     | 13%         | 49  | 18%             | 32  |
| Meditate                            | 20%         | 79  | 21%             | 36  |
| Talk with friends or family         | 53%         | 208 | 57%             | 100 |
| Exercise                            | 18%         | 71  | 22%             | 39  |
| Smoke, Drink, Drugs                 | 8%          | 29  | 18%             | 31  |
| Cry                                 | 13%         | 49  | 13%             | 23  |
| Religion, pray                      | 57%         | 184 | 37%             | 66  |
| Go out to pleasurable events        | 28%         | 110 | 36%             | 63  |
| Watch TV                            | 32%         | 125 | 32%             | 55  |
| Eat more or less                    | 32%         | 126 | 29%             | 51  |
| Sleep more or less                  | 24%         | 93  | 28%             | 50  |
| Get angry, even blow up             | 20%         | 79  | 23%             | 41  |
| Seek Professional help              | 2%          | 8   | 5%              | 9   |
| Work harder at my job               | 29%         | 113 | 31%             | 53  |
| Spend more time with family         | 34%         | 132 | 30%             | 51  |
| Seek solitude and worry             | 15%         | 58  | 12%             | 20  |
| Buy something new                   | 19%         | 74  | 27%             | 46  |
| Take time off from work             | 3%          | 10  | 7%              | 12  |
| Avoid stressful situation           | 24%         | 93  | 37%             | 62  |
| Make plan to solve situation        | 56%         | 217 | 67%             | 119 |
| Stand ground and fight for own ends | 45%         | 173 | 58%             | 101 |
| Participate in supportive group     | 10%         | 38  | 17%             | 29  |

## SELF REPORTED SUBSTANCE USE

Analysis of self-report drug use data indicate that most of the women in this study are not using drugs, or are using them infrequently. The usage distributions are skewed, indicating that large numbers of workers are not using drugs at all, or only occasionally. Therefore, it is important to keep in mind that the mean or average level of use represents a pattern of many non-users and relatively few heavy users. The findings are summarized below.

Alcohol and tobacco are the most heavily used substance groups, as in the general population, distantly followed by depressants and marijuana. The use of cocaine, crack and other illicit substances among the women in this study is very limited.

In general, women in non-traditional jobs tend to be more likely to use drugs of any kind than women in traditional jobs. This is particularly true of alcohol ( $F=5.0$ ,  $p .03$ ), tobacco ( $F=36.1$ ,  $p .001$ ) and marijuana ( $F=7.0$ ,  $p .008$ ). Women who were not married and had no children reported higher levels of use of alcohol ( $F=5$ ,  $p .001$ ) and tobacco ( $F=36.1$ ,  $p .001$ ) than women living in other family arrangements. Whites and non-whites report similar usage patterns for all drugs surveyed.

Frequent beer drinkers (those that drink several times a week or daily) do not drink heavily. They report between one and four drinks each time. However, respondents who report drinking heavily also indicate they are more infrequent or occasional drinkers. It should be noted that the actual number of people involved in this pattern of drinking is small, so this may not be a generalizable finding. Wine is a drink occasionally used, and then, only one or two glasses at a time. Liquor use is similar, that is, less frequent and in small amounts.

Self reported stress (work related stress, family related stress, role overload and role conflict) were found to be poor predictors of drug usage. Only weak relations were found between these indicators of stress and the level of drug use. Over half of the respondents report that they do not use drugs in response to family stress but many of those who drink almost daily indicate that they sometimes or often drink to cope with family problems. In contrast, nearly two-thirds of the respondents who drink only occasionally (a few times per year to a few times per month) report that they never or rarely turn to alcohol as a coping mechanism.

Most respondents report that they do not use substances of any kind as a coping mechanism to deal with stress at work. However, a large proportion of those who do drink heavily do

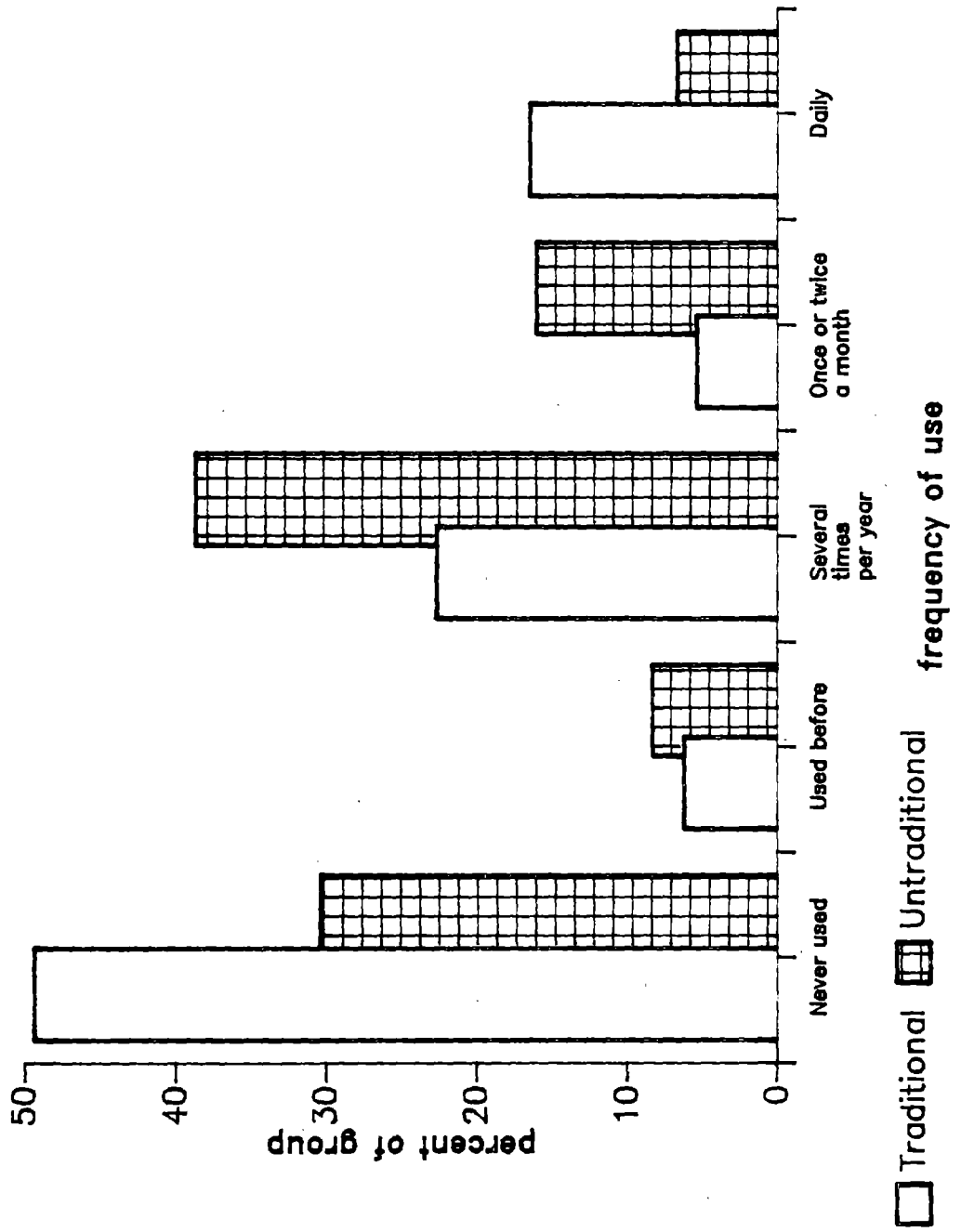
so sometimes or often in response to work. Use of drugs is lower for work stress, however, than for family stress.

Most of the subjects report little or no concern about drug use by their supervisor. While traditional workers tend to have few concerns about coworkers substance use, nontraditional workers see coworkers' drug use as more of a problem. Among nontraditionals, 14% expressed concern about one substance group and 16% about two substance groups.

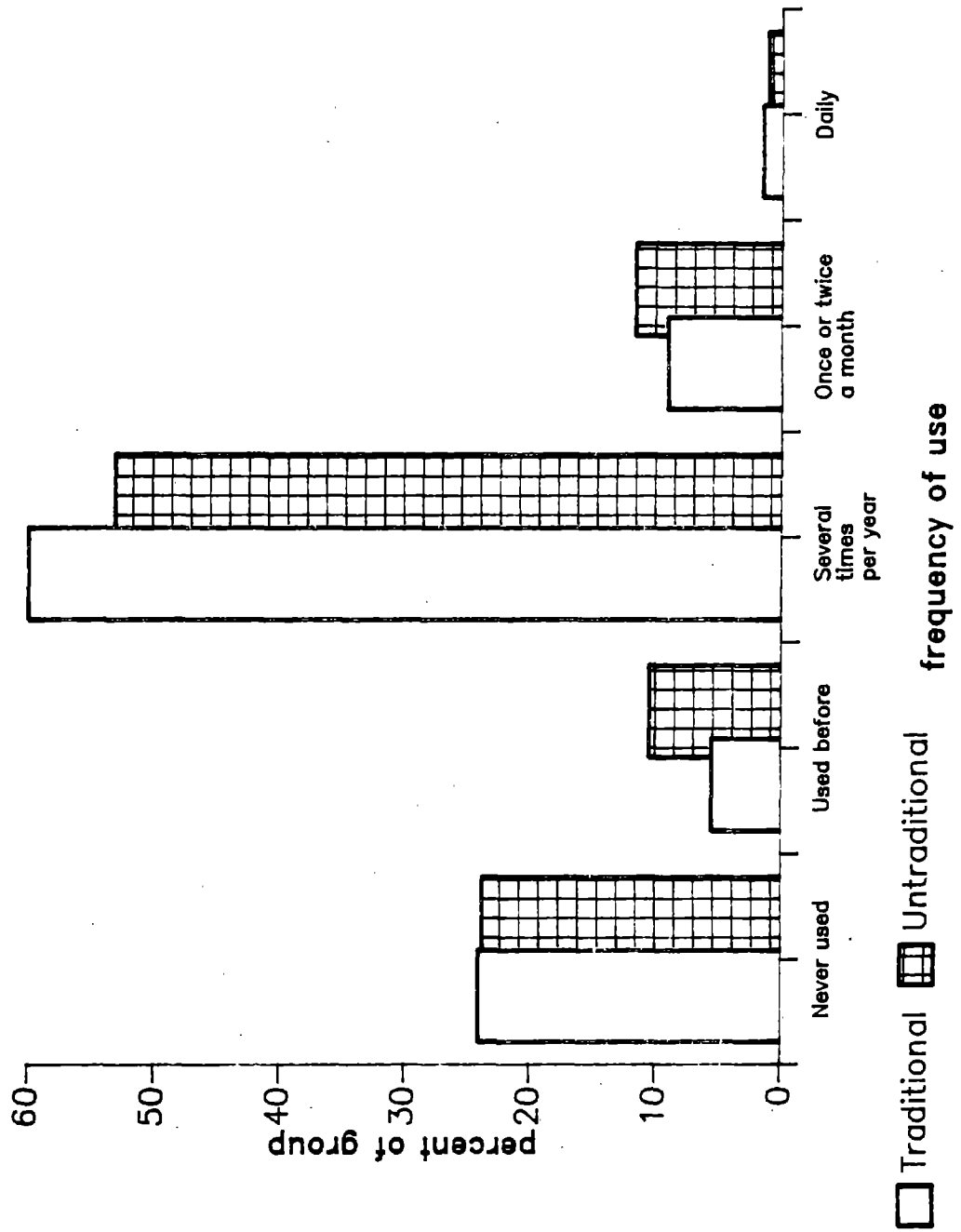
Women employed in both work settings showed concern about their spouse or partner's use of substances. Nearly 75% expressed concern over the use of two substance groups. A similar pattern is found in concern for children's use; nontraditionals reported concern with two substance groups to a greater degree than did traditionals (83% v. 75%). While both groups expressed some concern about their personal use of various substances, the traditional group sees this as more of a problem. There does not seem to be a relation between the self-reported tendency to use substances as a way of coping with either work or family stress and the number of concerns expressed about substance use, personally or by others, either at home or on the job.

Various personal, home and work factors were not found to be strong predictors of substance use patterns in regression analysis with this sample. The low n for users may, in fact, be masking some of these results. Therefore, discriminant function analysis was used in order to develop a model of frequency of drug use. The following section details these models. In summary, the results did not satisfactorily classify the subjects into their "real" frequency groups.

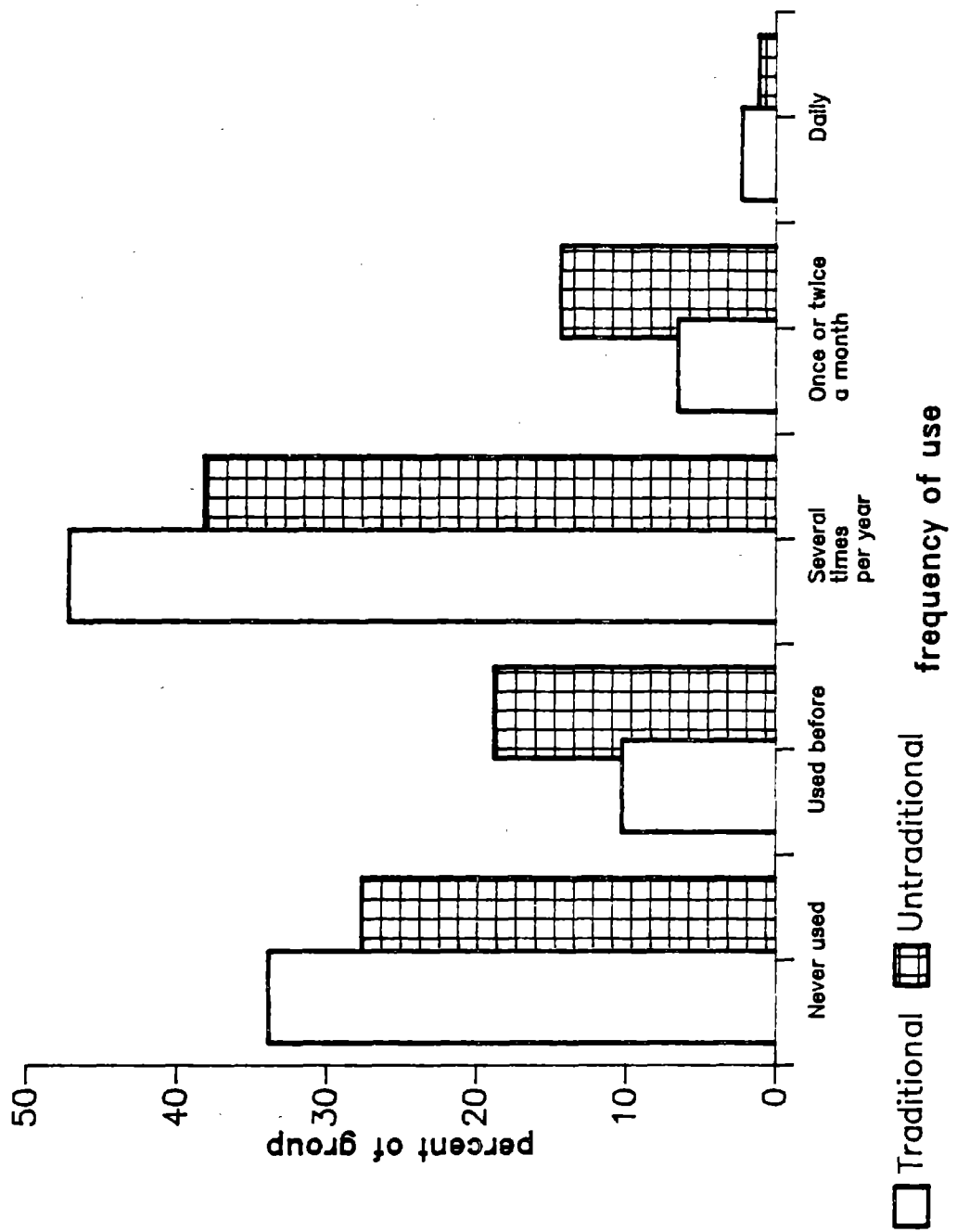
# Beer Drinking



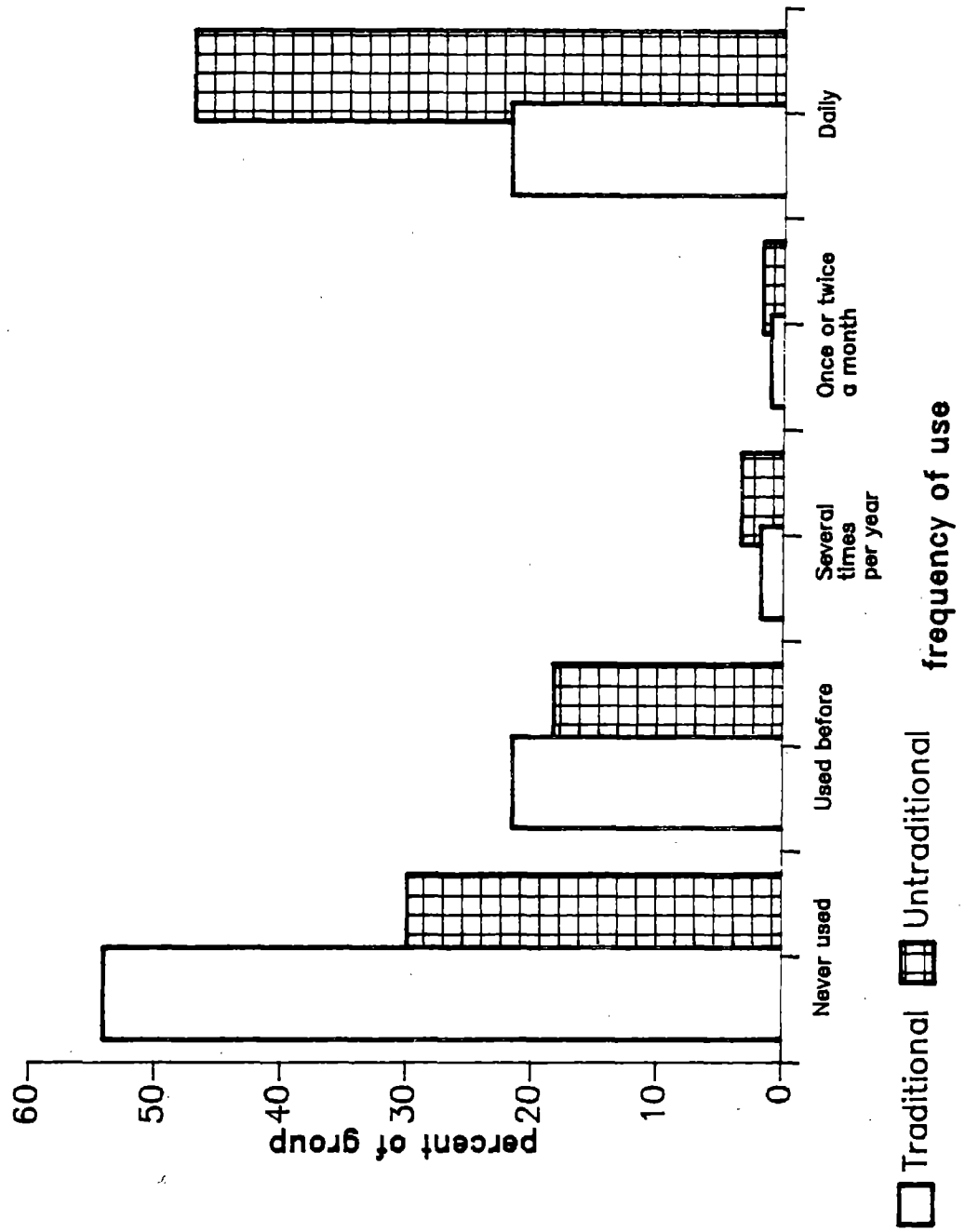
# Wine Drinking



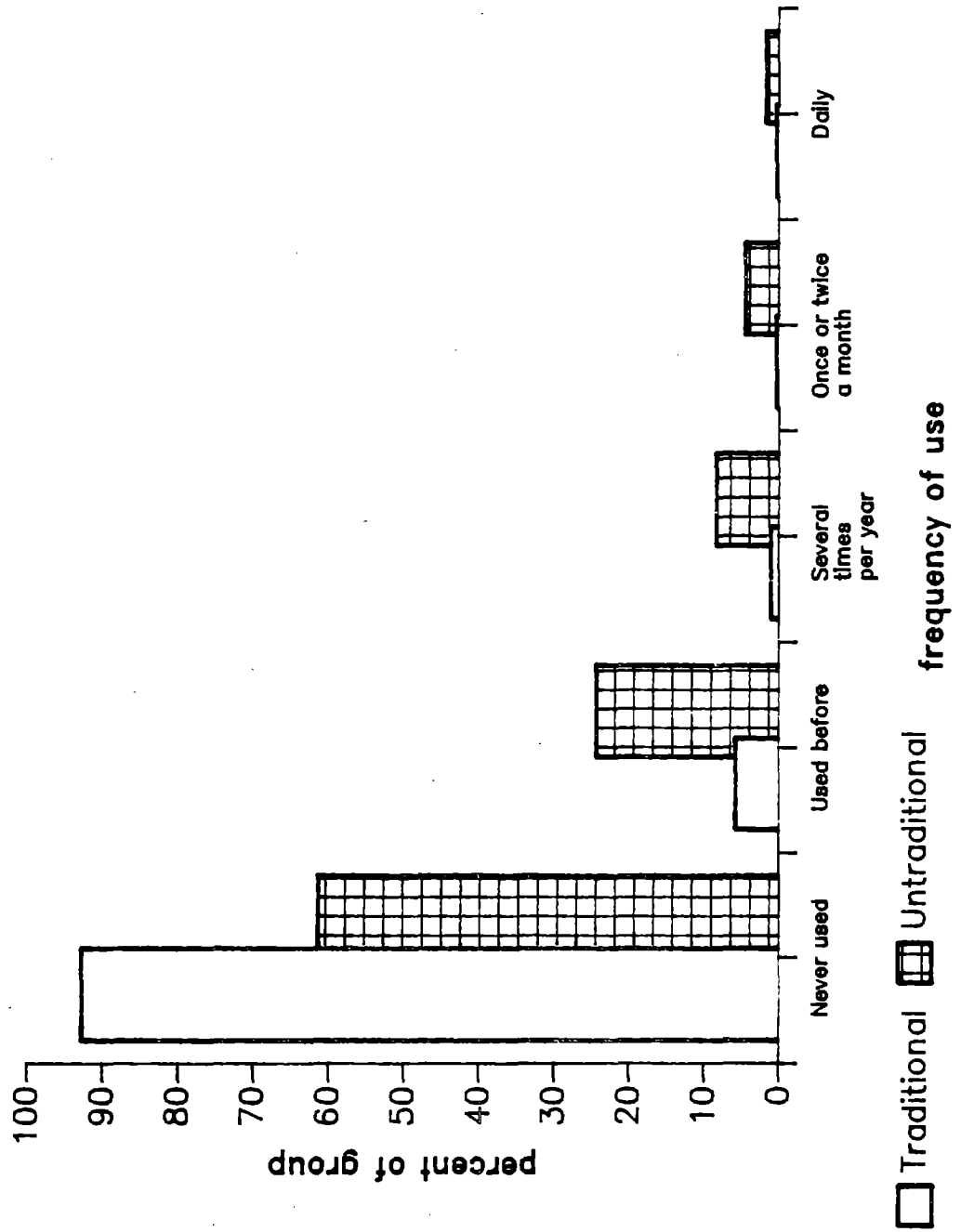
# Liquor Drinking



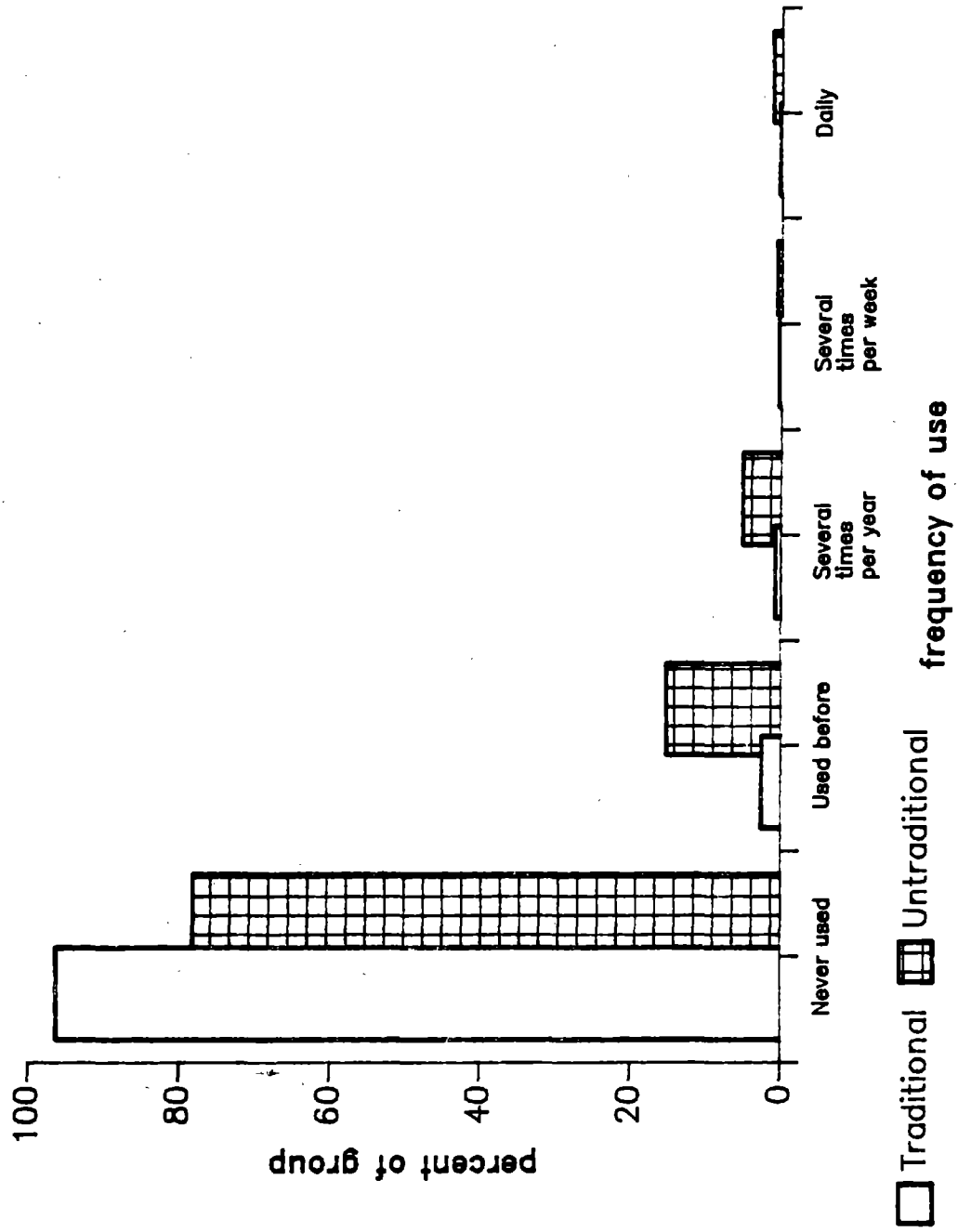
# Cigarette Smoking



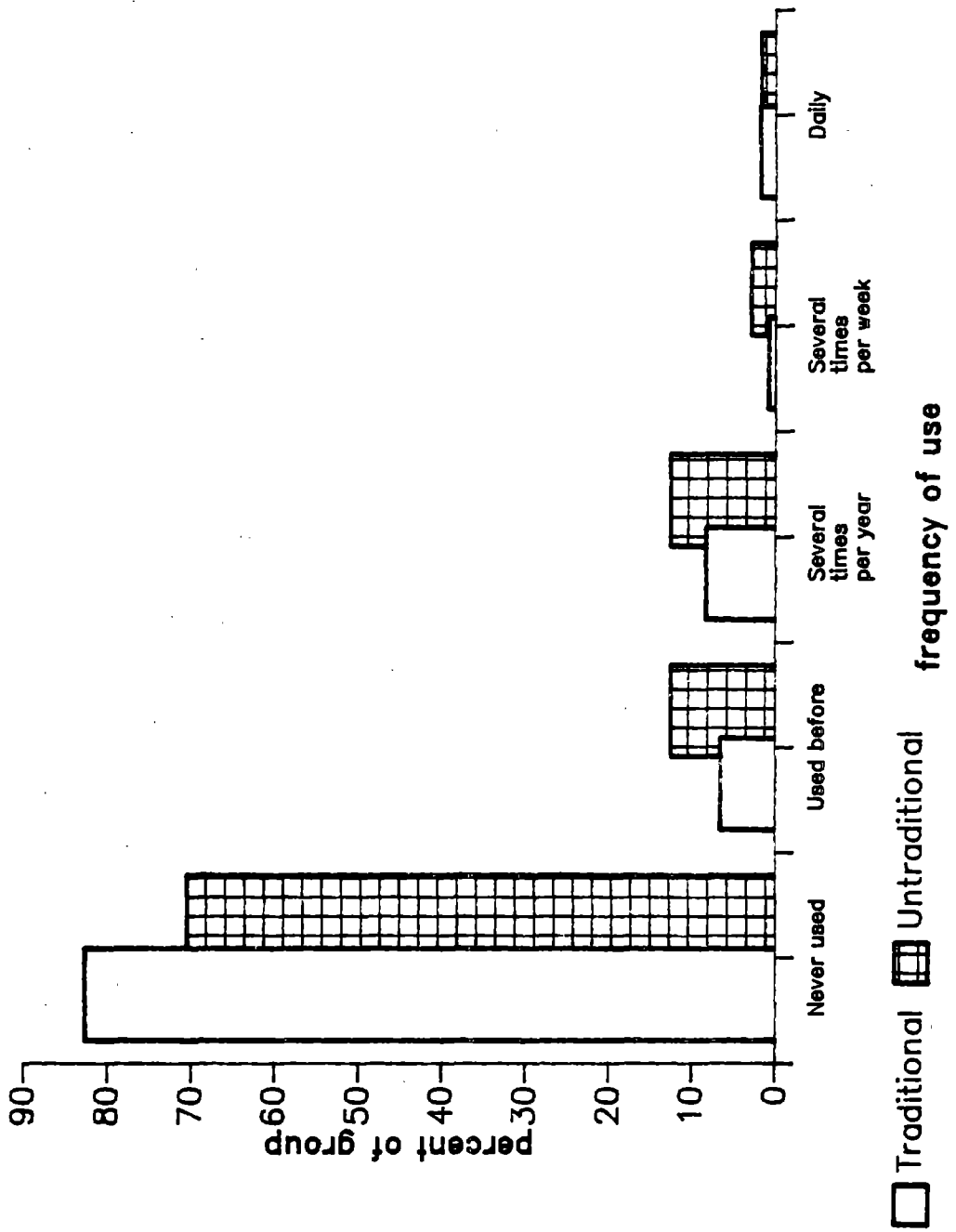
# Marijuana Use



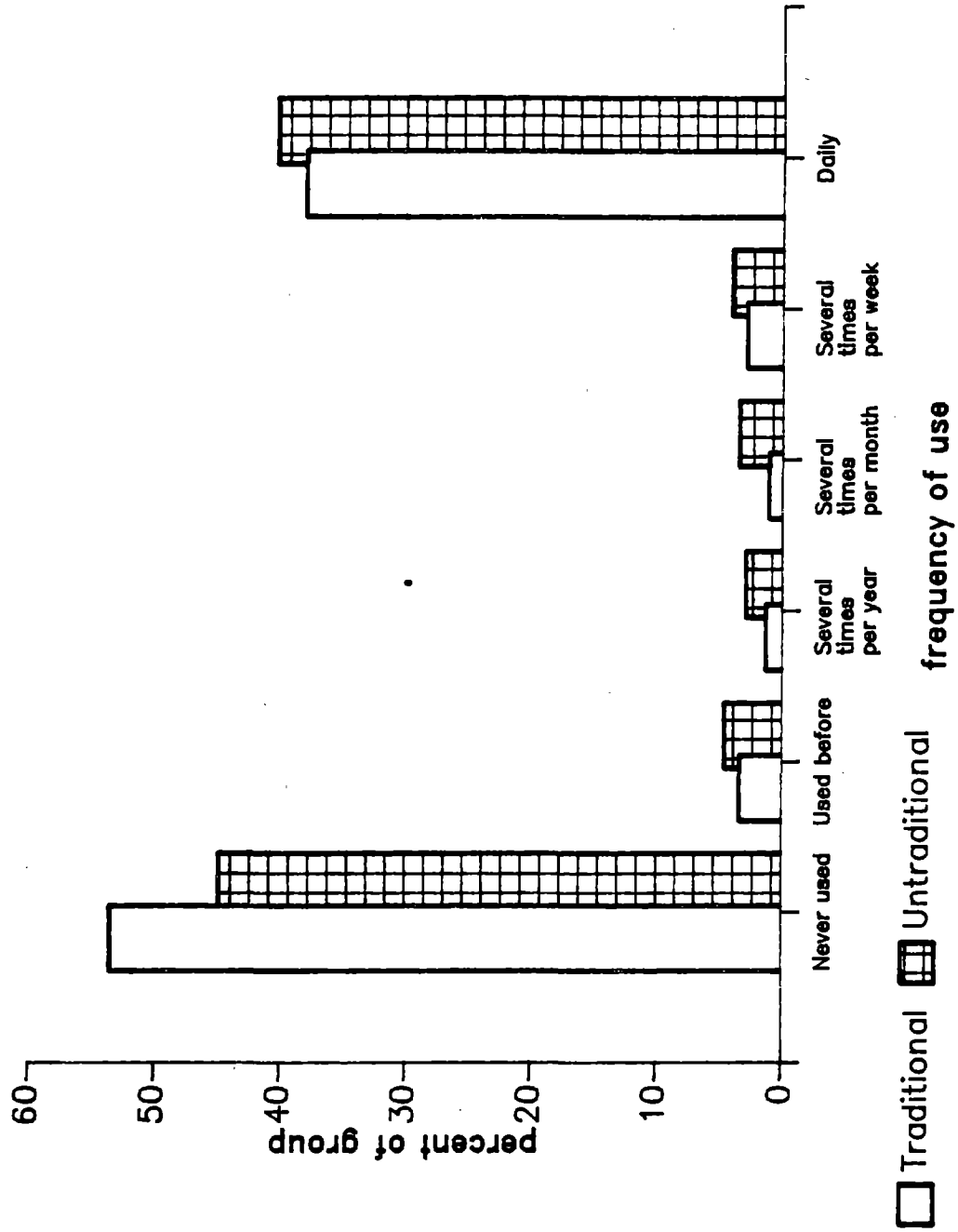
# Stimulant Use



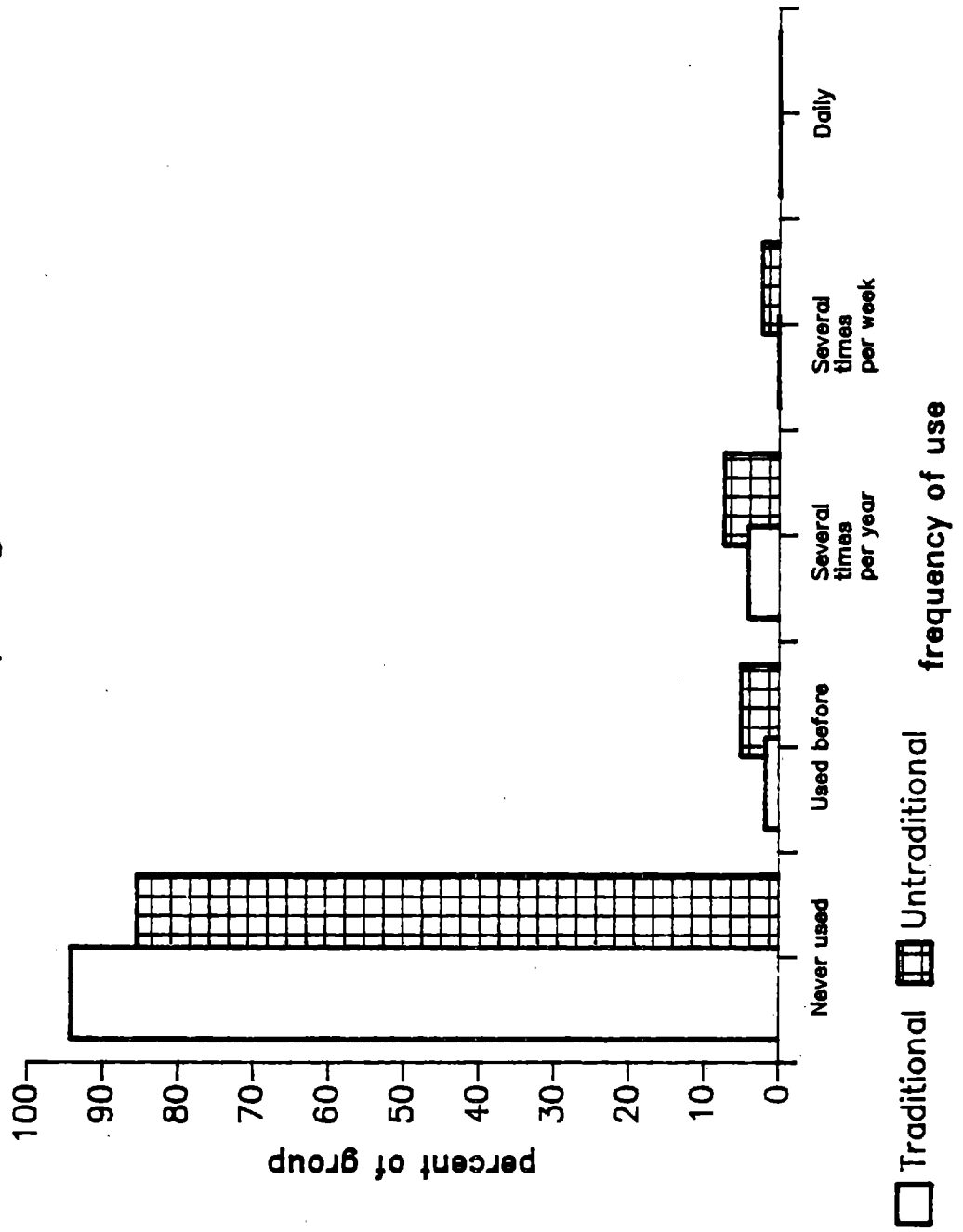
# Depressant Use



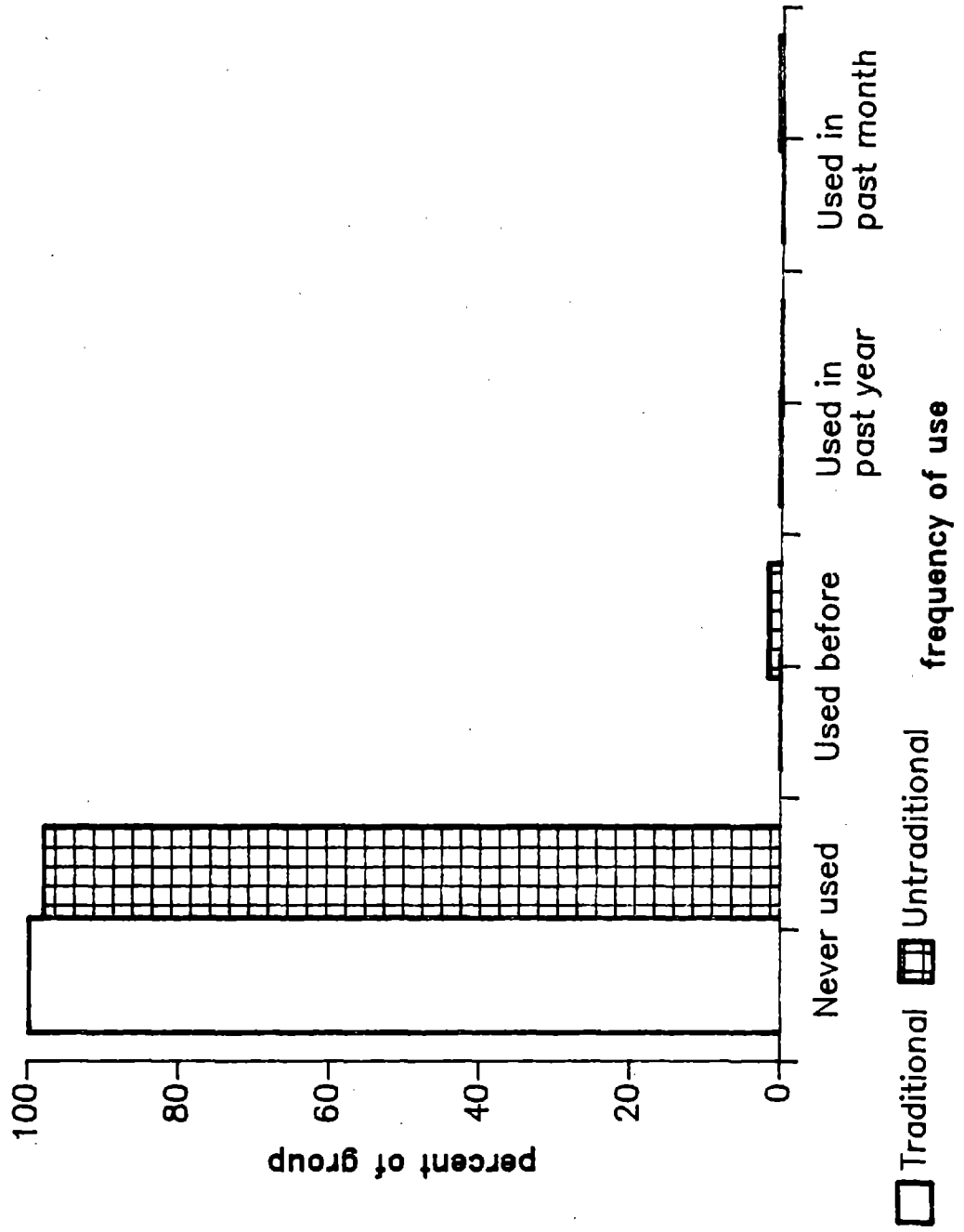
# Nonprescription Stimulant Use



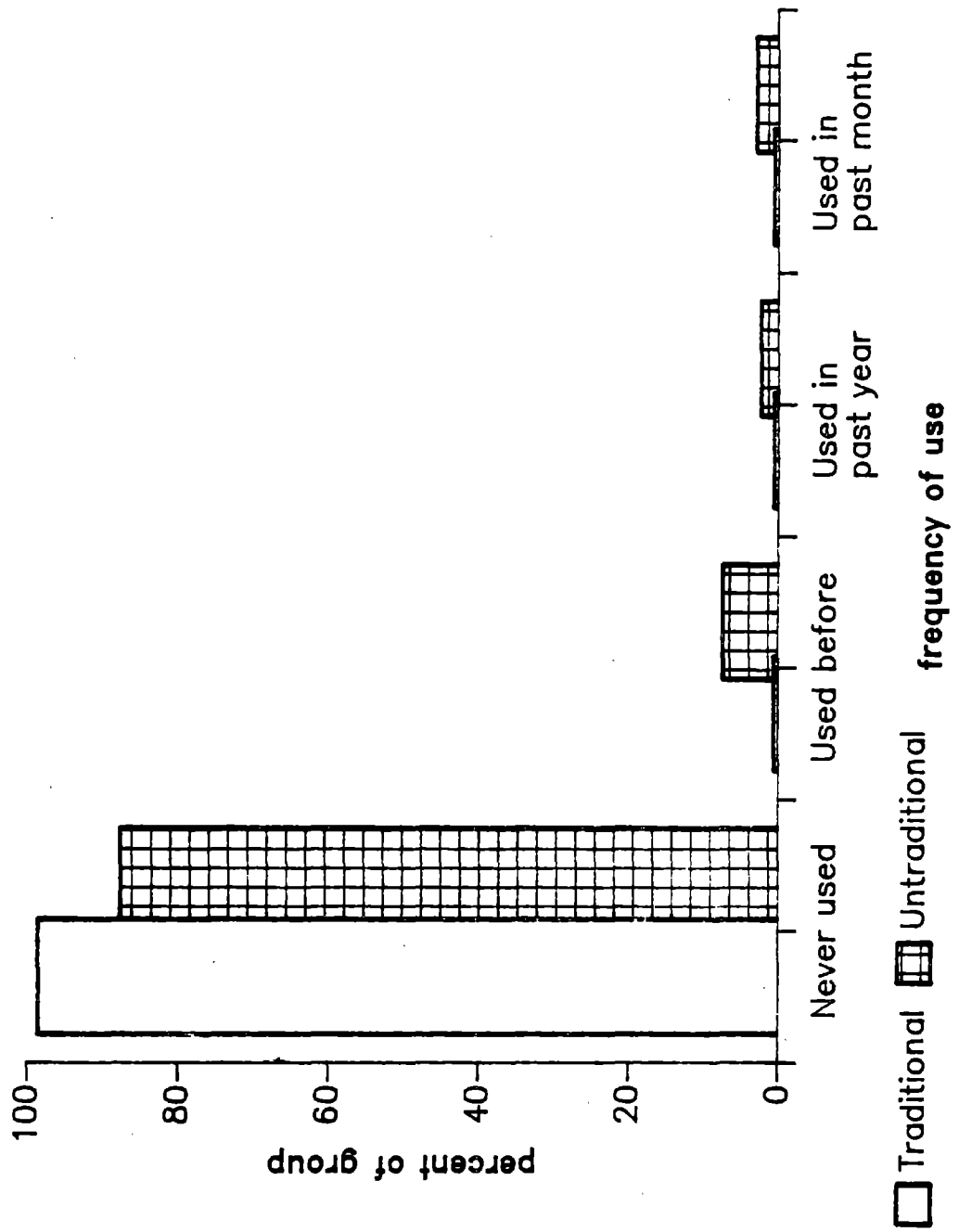
# Nonprescription Sleeping Pill Use



# Crack Use



# Cocaine Use



## Discriminant Function Analysis of the Frequency of Alcohol and Tobacco Use

### Step 1: Selection of variables

There were 30 variables in the initial pool of predictors (Table 1). Five were dropped from consideration because the pattern of missing values in combination with other predictors resulted in the loss of over 60% of the sample. The remaining 25 variables resulted in a useable sample of 373 individuals (65%).

### Step 2: Large model

Previous analyses done for this project have attempted to model frequency of use of drugs by using data from all available subjects. This approach identifies DF models with the greatest discriminatory power, but capitalizes on random error variance in the data. Thus, models based on all available subjects may overestimate the DF coefficients. For the analyses described in this report the sample was randomly divided into two groups, with each observation having a probability of .66 of being in the first (calibration) group and of .34 of being in the second (test) group. The logic behind the following analyses was to develop DF models based on the calibration group, then test the resulting model on the second sample. The use of calibration and test data allows for the cross-validation of the DF model: the performance of a model with the test data is a good indicator of the model's utility because capitalization on random error is not a factor in the validation analyses. Table 2 presents the percentage of observations correctly classified by the various models using 25 predictor variables.

### Step 3: Small model

In an attempt to find a useful yet parsimonious model, stepwise discriminant function analysis was used. Starting with the pool of 25 predictors the stepwise procedures identified models in which the predictors made significant contributions to the discriminatory power of the model. The predictors involved in these models are listed in Table 3. The average squared canonical correlations for these models indicate that there is substantial overlap between clusters of people (identified by their self report) belonging to different frequency-of-use levels. That is, based on the variables identified by the stepwise procedures, it is difficult to accurately classify people into their "real" frequency group. The groups overlap substantially in the multivariate space described by the predictor variables.

As with the large model analyses, the performance of the discriminant functions using the calibration and test samples was compared. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 4.

Table 1. Predictor variables

Variables not included due to missing data problems

|          |  |
|----------|--|
| HHC_SP   | household characteristics spouse scale |
| HHC_SUM  | household characteristics scale (sum)  |
| HHC_KIDS | household characteristics kids scale   |
| MJC_PUB  | job characteristics public scale       |
| MISOLATE | job characteristics isolation scale    |

Variable Pool

|               |   |
|---------------|---|
| DEGABUSE      | degree of abuse experienced                         |
| CSU_ALL       | concern about substance use (all types, all people) |
| MJF_STR       | job-family role strain                              |
| ZUCKERA, D, H | Zuckerman scales                                    |
| ROSENBRG      | Rosenberg scale                                     |
| ISRO          | Index of sex role orientation                       |
| MWASSERT      | Assertiveness scale                                 |
| MFAMSTRS      | family stress                                       |
| MFAMSAT       | family satisfaction                                 |
| MJOBSTRS      | job stress  |
| MJOBSAT       | job satisfaction                                    |
| MSTATION      | job characteristics/work station scale              |
| MATMSPHR      | job characteristics/work atmosphere scale           |
| MVALUE        | job characteristics/ valuing scale                  |
| MPRESS        | job characteristics/pressure scale                  |
| MSUPER        | job characteristics/supervisor scale                |
| MCOWRK        | job characteristics/coworker scale                  |
| MJF_OVER      | job and family overload scale                       |
| EXTR_ORG      | extrinsic rewards (organization) scale              |
| EXTR_SOC      | extrinsic rewards (social) scale                    |
| INTRINS       | intrinsic rewards                                   |
| HHC_DTD       | household characteristics day-to-day scale          |
| E1            | age   |

**Table 2. Percentage of observations correctly classified by 25-predictor discriminant function models**

| <b>Behavior</b> | <b>Calibration</b> | <b>Test</b> |
|-----------------|--------------------|-------------|
| Beer            | 51.24              | 33.83       |
| Wine            | 53.89              | 36.84       |
| Liquor          | 47.11              | 39.10       |
| Smoking         | 63.37              | 43.61       |

Table 3. Predictors identified by stepwise discriminant function analysis.

| <b>Behavior</b> | <b>Variables significant at the 0.15 level</b>      | <b>Average squared canonical correlation</b> |
|-----------------|---|--|
| Beer            | AGE, ROSENBRG, MCOWRK, ZUCKERH                      | 0.03   |
| Wine            | HHC_DTD, EXTR_ORG, ISRO, MJF_OVER                   | 0.04   |
| Liquor          | ISRO, MATMSPHR, MWASSERT                            | 0.02   |
| Cigarettes      | CSU_ALL, AGE, MWASSERT, MATMSPHR, MFAMSAT, MSTATION | 0.06   |

Table 4. Percentage of observations correctly classified by parsimonious discriminant function models

| <b>Behavior</b> | <b>Callbration</b> | <b>Test</b> |
|-----------------|--------------------|-------------|
| Beer            | 37.28              | 33.70       |
| Wine            | 36.53              | 30.72       |
| Liquor          | 34.96              | 27.93       |
| Smoking         | 51.65              | 45.98       |

ADDITIONAL STUDIES CONDUCTED ON PROJECT DATA

Women in Clerical and Blue-Collar Jobs:  
Work Characteristics and the Home Environment

Julie A. Henderson

Working Women's Coping with Role Strain, and Health

Ann Briskey

The Use of Substances in Reaction to Stress at Home and at Work

Cathy Edmonds

Number of Children, Job-Family Role Strain & Self Esteem

Elizabeth M. Witting

The Pennsylvania State University  
The Graduate School  
College of Human Development and Family Studies

WOMEN IN CLERICAL AND BLUE-COLLAR JOBS:  
WORK CHARACTERISTICS AND THE HOME ENVIRONMENT

A Thesis in  
Human Development and Family Studies

by  
Julie A. Henderson

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements  
for the Degree of

Master of Science

May 1989

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## ABSTRACT

Although there has been an increase in recent years in the amount of research concerning working women, much of this research has suffered from methodological and conceptual flaws. The result has been a body of literature which is rooted in sexist assumptions and fails to address the role of work in the lives of many working women. Single women and women in working class jobs have largely been excluded from studies of the interplay between work and home life.

This thesis was an attempt to go beyond the limitations inherent in the traditional paradigm within which most of our current knowledge is based. The sample consisted of 274 women employed either as school clerical workers or nontraditional blue-collar workers, who returned surveys which provided information on aspects of their work and home lives. Of interest to this study were the ways in which clerical and blue-collar workers differ in their perceptions of the nature of their work and home environments. Also explored were the ways in which characteristics of the work environments of both clerical and blue-collar workers were related to the perceptions of home stress, home satisfactions, and role overload for these women.

The findings indicated that the work environments of these women were different. Clerical workers reported more supportive work environments, less harassment, and greater job satisfaction than did blue-collar workers. Blue-collar workers, on the other hand, reported greater job pressure and less job security than clerical workers, along with higher levels of intrinsic job gratification and higher levels of income. No differences were found between the two groups in their levels of perceived home stress, home satisfaction and role overload. Some work characteristics were found to be predictive of the various home environment variables, and the models differed slightly for each group.

Findings of this study indicated that the relationship between work and home life is quite complex for working women. This study was able to shed light on the nature of these relationships for two groups of women who have previously received little attention in the literature. It was recommended that additional work be done which further explores these issues for both men and women in various family and work situations so that a literature base can be accumulated which is not limited by the biases inherent in much of the previous research.

**The Pennsylvania State University**

**The Graduate School**

**College of Health and Human Development**

**WORKING WOMEN'S COPING WITH ROLE STRAIN,  
AND HEALTH**

**A Thesis in**

**Nursing**

**by**

**Ann Briskey**

**Submitted in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements  
for the Degree of**

**Master of Science**

**1989**

## ABSTRACT

The number of women involved in the labor force has increased 34 percent from 1950 to 1985 and the trend toward increasing numbers of women in the labor force is expected to continue. It is estimated that by 1990, 70 to 80 percent of all women will be employed outside the home. As increasing numbers of women work, increasing numbers of women will be called upon to balance the demands of multiple roles and will be at risk for developing role strain and negative effects upon their health.

This study examined the types of strategies working women used to cope with role strain and the relationship of the use of those strategies to their health. Specifically, it examined first, the relationship between working women's use of problem-focused coping strategies and health and second, the relationship between working women's use of emotion-focused coping strategies and health.

Results of this study are pending data analysis which is currently in progress.

The Pennsylvania State University  
The Graduate School  
College of Health and Human Development

THE USE OF SUBSTANCES IN REACTION  
TO STRESS AT HOME AND AT WORK

A Thesis in  
Nursing

by

Cathy Edmonds

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements  
for the Degree

Master of Science

December 1988

## THE USE OF SUBSTANCES IN REACTION TO STRESS AT HOME AND AT WORK

Analyses were performed on the white women workers between the ages of 18 and 45 years old to determine the patterns of substance use as a coping strategy for stress which occurred at home and at work. This group comprised of 234 working women; 134 traditional working women and 100 nontraditional working women. Overall, 78 subjects (35.1%) reported they used substances to cope with stress at home and/or at work.

Using the paired difference t-test analysis, of those women who did use substance to cope with stress, more were likely to use substances to cope with stress that occurred in the home than at work. Nontraditional working women reported they were more likely to use substances to cope with stress that occurred at home than at work, while traditional workers reported no differences in their substance use in reaction to stress at home or at work.

When using Configural Frequency Analysis, it was found that nontraditional workers who were substance users to cope with stress used both alcohol and tobacco at higher levels of consumption than did traditional workers.

These findings suggest that although, overall, this group of workers rarely used alcohol or tobacco in relation to stress, the nontraditional women workers were more apt to deal with their home stress by using these substances than were traditional workers. Although other demographical variables may account for this difference in substance use (for example, the nontraditional women were younger, less apt to be married, and more likely to have young children living with them) it may be important to be alert to the possible consequences such substance use may have on these women as individuals and as workers in nontraditional settings.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN, JOB-FAMILY ROLE STRAIN & SELF ESTEEM

AMONG EMPLOYED WOMEN

HONORS THESIS - PENN STATE UNIVERSITY

Elizabeth M. Witting, B.S.N. - May, 1988

## ABSTRACT

The relationships between number of children living at home, self-esteem, and job-family role strain were examined in a study of 577 employed women. Job-family role strain was viewed as a combination of role conflict (interference of one role with another) and role overload (having too much to do in too little time). The sample consisted of some women who were mothers and others who were not, since number of children included zero. Pearson's correlation coefficients indicated no significant relationship between number of children and self-esteem. However, there was a significant positive correlation between number of children and job-family role strain. In addition, there was a negative correlation between self-esteem and job-family role strain.

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**APPENDIX A**

**Work and Home Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Stress for Women in  
Traditional and Nontraditional Work Settings**

**Submitted for Publication**

Work and Home Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Stress  
for Women in Traditional and Nontraditional Work Settings

Phyllis Kernoff Mansfield, Ph.D.  
Department of Health Education

Judith R. Vicary, Ph.D.  
Department of Health Education

Julie Henderson, M.S.  
Department of Human Development and Family Studies

Margaret Cohn, Ph.D.  
Department of Human Development and Family Studies

Patricia B. Koch, Ph.D.  
Department of Health Education

Elaine W. Young, Ph.D.  
Department of Nursing

all of the College of Health and Human Development, The  
Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA 16802

Submitted for publication

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 traditional 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 R<sup>2</sup> 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 affect 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.

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

|                                 | <u>Traditional</u><br>(N=405) | <u>Nontraditional</u><br>(N=184) |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <b>RACE</b>                     |                               |                                  |
| White                           | 95                            | 70****                           |
| Black                           | 5                             | 28                               |
| <b>MEAN AGE</b>                 |                               |                                  |
|                                 | 48.8                          | 37.9****                         |
| <b>MARITAL STATUS</b>           |                               |                                  |
| Married                         | 73                            | 35****                           |
| Not Married                     | 27                            | 65                               |
| <b>RESIDENCE</b>                |                               |                                  |
| Urban                           | 8                             | 43****                           |
| Suburban                        | 55                            | 34                               |
| Small Town                      | 24                            | 12                               |
| Rural                           | 13                            | 11                               |
| <b>EDUCATION</b>                |                               |                                  |
| High School                     | 62                            | 50**                             |
| College                         | 38                            | 50                               |
| <b>INCOME</b>                   |                               |                                  |
| < \$10,999                      | 17                            | 15****                           |
| \$11,000 - \$20,999             | 78                            | 26                               |
| \$21,000 - \$30,999             | 4                             | 42                               |
| \$31,000 +                      | 1                             | 17                               |
| <b>FAMILY STRUCTURE</b>         |                               |                                  |
| Married, children               | 65                            | 30****                           |
| Not married, children           | 18                            | 36                               |
| Married, no children            | 8                             | 6                                |
| Not married, no children        | 9                             | 28                               |
| <b>HAVE CHILDREN AT HOME</b>    |                               |                                  |
| Under Age 6                     | 5                             | 16****                           |
| Ages 6 - 18                     | 23                            | 34****                           |
| Over Age 18                     | 30                            | 5****                            |
| <b>PERCEIVED DISCRIMINATION</b> |                               |                                  |
| 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) <sup>1****2</sup> | 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) |
| <hr/>                       |                          |                             |        |
| Benefits                    | (3.42)***                | Pay                         | (3.11) |
| Actual work                 | (3.33) <sup>ns</sup>     | Treatment                   | (3.09) |
| Treatment                   | (3.33)**                 | Coworkers                   | (3.08) |
| Security                    | (3.27)****               | Supervisor                  | (3.02) |
| Supervisor                  | (3.19)*                  | Security                    | (2.93) |
| Coworkers                   | (3.18) <sup>ns</sup>     | Others at work              | (2.88) |
| <hr/>                       |                          |                             |        |
| Others at work              | (3.04)*                  | Physical setting            | (2.85) |
| Physical setting            | (3.03)*                  | Work schedule               | (2.75) |
| Child care                  | (3.20) <sup>ns</sup>     | Child care                  | (2.68) |
| Pay                         | (2.40)****               | Safety                      | (2.65) |
| Opportunities for promotion | (2.24)*                  | Opportunities for promotion | (2.45) |
| <hr/>                       |                          |                             |        |
| Overall                     | (3.22)****               | Overall                     | (3.03) |

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

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

<sup>1</sup> 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)

<sup>2</sup> 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

Blue-Collar Workers

Clerical Workers

| Independent Variables | F    | R <sup>2</sup> | P     | Independent Variables | F     | R <sup>2</sup> | P     |
|-----------------------|------|----------------|-------|-----------------------|-------|----------------|-------|
| <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    |

| Personal                          | F     | R <sup>2</sup> | P     | Personal                          | F     | R <sup>2</sup> | P     |
|-----------------------------------|-------|----------------|-------|-----------------------------------|-------|----------------|-------|
| 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    |

| Intrinsic Job | F     | R <sup>2</sup> | P     | Intrinsic Job | F     | R <sup>2</sup> | P     |
|---------------|-------|----------------|-------|---------------|-------|----------------|-------|
| Value         | 95.88 | .1892          | .0000 | Value         | 51.58 | .2208          | .0000 |
| Pressure      | 68.80 | .2513          | .0000 | Pressure      | 47.12 | .3424          | .0000 |

| Extrinsic Social | F      | R <sup>2</sup> | P     | Extrinsic Social | F     | R <sup>2</sup> | P     |
|------------------|--------|----------------|-------|------------------|-------|----------------|-------|
| 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

| <u>Independent Variables</u>    | <u>F</u> | <u>R<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>P</u> |
|---------------------------------|----------|----------------------|----------|
| <u>Extrinsic Organizational</u> |          |                      |          |
| Work Station                    | 52.60    | .1135                | .0000    |
| Security                        | 44.32    | .1778                | .0000    |
| Atmosphere                      | 38.70    | .2211                | .0000    |
| Isolation                       | 32.82    | .2435                | .0000    |
| Benefits                        | 27.55    | .2528                | .0000    |
| Opportunities for promotion     |          |                      | NS       |
| Comparable earnings             |          |                      | NS       |
| Control Overtime                |          |                      | NS       |

Blue-Collar Workers

| <u>Independent Variables</u>    | <u>F</u> | <u>R<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>P</u> |
|---------------------------------|----------|----------------------|----------|
| <u>Extrinsic Organizational</u> |          |                      |          |
| Security                        | 50.75    | .2180                | .0000    |
| Work Station                    | 38.42    | .2980                | .0000    |
| Opportunities for promotion     | 32.24    | .3496                | .0000    |
| Atmosphere                      |          |                      | .0000    |
| Comparable earnings             | 27.27    | .3787                | NS       |
| Benefits                        |          |                      | NS       |
| Control Overtime                |          |                      | NS       |
| Isolation                       |          |                      | NS       |

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

| Independent Variables             | Clerical Workers |                |       | Blue-Collar Workers |                |       |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|----------------|-------|---------------------|----------------|-------|
|                                   | F                | R <sup>2</sup> | P     | F                   | R <sup>2</sup> | P     |
| <u>Demographics</u>               |                  |                |       |                     |                |       |
| Health                            | 17.32            | .0409          | .0000 | 25.98               | .1249          | .0000 |
| Age                               | 10.77            | .0499          | .0000 | 17.26               | .1602          | .0000 |
| Race                              |                  |                | NS    | 13.91               | .1883          | .0000 |
| Urban-Rural                       |                  |                | NS    |                     |                | NS    |
| Marital Status                    |                  |                | NS    |                     |                | NS    |
| Education                         |                  |                | NS    |                     |                | NS    |
| <hr/>                             |                  |                |       |                     |                |       |
| <u>Personal</u>                   |                  |                |       |                     |                |       |
| Depression                        | 27.84            | .0683          | .0001 | 28.11               | .1448          | .0001 |
| Hostility                         | 7.10             | .0854          | .0081 | 4.03                | .1652          | .0464 |
| Assertiveness                     | 7.26             | .1026          | .0073 | 2.20                | .1763          | .1395 |
| Self-esteem                       | 3.03             | .1098          | .0828 |                     |                | NS    |
| Anxiety                           |                  |                | NS    |                     |                | NS    |
| ISRO                              |                  |                | NS    |                     |                | NS    |
| Concerns about abusing substances |                  |                | NS    |                     |                | NS    |
| <hr/>                             |                  |                |       |                     |                |       |
| <u>Intrinsic Job</u>              |                  |                |       |                     |                |       |
| Pressure                          | 177.32           | .3014          | .0000 | 84.70               | .3176          | .0000 |
| Value                             | 94.13            | .3147          | .0000 | 48.67               | .3497          | .0000 |
| <hr/>                             |                  |                |       |                     |                |       |
| <u>Extrinsic Social</u>           |                  |                |       |                     |                |       |
| Supervisor                        | 66.93            | .1400          | .0000 | 41.12               | .1843          | .0000 |
| Public                            | 43.19            | .1740          | .0000 | 31.07               | .2556          | .0000 |
| Coworkers                         | 32.40            | .1920          | .0000 | 23.69               | .2831          | .0000 |
| Discrimination                    |                  |                | NS    |                     |                | 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>R<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>P</u> | <u>Independent Variables</u>    | <u>F</u> | <u>R<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>P</u> |
| <u>Intrinsic Organizational</u> |          |                      |          | <u>Intrinsic 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 for promotion     | 10.70    | .1513                | .0000    |
| Comparable earnings             | 23.84    | .1895                | .0000    | Comparable earnings             |          |                      | NS       |
| Work Station                    | 20.60    | .2019                | .0000    | Benefits                        |          |                      | NS       |
| Opportunities for promotion     |          |                      | NS       | Control overtime                |          |                      | NS       |
| Benefits                        |          |                      | NS       | Atmosphere                      |          |                      | NS       |
| Control overtime                |          |                      | 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       |

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

| <u>Block</u>                 | <u>F</u> | <u>R<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>P</u> |
|------------------------------|----------|----------------------|----------|
| <b>CLERICAL WORKERS</b>      |          |                      |          |
| <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    |
| <b>BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS</b>   |          |                      |          |
| <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    |

|   |  |   |    |   |  |
|---|--|---|----|---|--|
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| 16. Abstract (Limit: 200 words) Data were gathered concerning coping behaviors as indicated by accident rates, illness, or drug and alcohol abuse in an effort to determine more completely the roles played by home and work factors in working women's job performance. A process model was proposed which suggested that work and home environments were related to stress and therefore to certain repertoires of behaviors in a manner which reflected individual differences. These relationships were tested by measuring workplace stress and satisfaction factors, home stress and satisfaction factors, personal factors, and dysfunctional coping behaviors. A cohort of 589 working women was recruited and 36 women from a subsample were interviewed to validate the accuracy of self reports and the reliability of the instruments used. The study participants were union members in traditional and nontraditional jobs including clerical workers, transit workers and tradeswomen. Discriminant analyses were used to identify subgroupings of subjects according to their work and home environments and particular coping repertoires. The results indicated that 83 percent of the sample considered themselves in good or excellent health. Role strain and family stress were the predictors most frequently related to health dependent variables. Women in different family configurations experienced significantly different levels of family satisfaction but not of family stress. Work environment was often as important as home environment in determining the levels of home and family satisfaction and stress experienced by employed women. |  |   |    |   |  |
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