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ROLE CONFLICT AND HARDINESS AS PREDICTORS OF ROLE AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR WOMEN OCCUPYING MULTIPLE ROLES

A Thesis

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Masters of Arts

in

Psychology

by
Cynthia Ann Fillpot
June 1994

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ABSTRACT

This thesis was conducted to examine the differences between hardy and nonhardy women with regard to role/life satisfaction and coping style. The researcher hypothesized that (1) hardy women would experience greater role satisfaction than nonhardy women; (2) hardy women would experience greater overall life satisfaction than nonhardy women; (3) hardy women would use significantly more problem-focused coping than nonhardy women; (4) nonhardy women would use significantly more emotion-focused coping than hardy women; (5) hardy women would use more problem-focused coping than emotion-focused coping; and (6) nonhardy women would use more emotion-focused coping than problem-focused coping. The researcher's first, second, third and fifth hypothesis was confirmed. No support was found for the fourth and sixth hypotheses.

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Introduction

Women are entering the labor force in record numbers, with 7 of 10 women working. Four decades ago it was only 3 of 10 women (Shank, 1988). It is projected that by the year 2000, 72% of the female population over the age of 16 will be working. More than half of all women will participate in the work force at some time in their lives (Smith, 1979). Women will continue to be the major source of influx over the next 13 years, accounting for more than 62% of the increase in the labor force since 1977 (U. S. Department of Labor, No. 88-1).

The complexion of women comprising the work force is changing, and will continue to change. In 1957, the female labor force was comprised of 80% of single women; 65% of widowed, divorced and separated women (combined), and 33% of married women between the ages of 25 to 54. However, the proportions have changed. Between 1957 and 1987, 68% of married women entered the work force, compared to 80% of the single and 79% of the widowed, divorced and separated women (combined).

Not only has the largest increase into the labor force been made by married women, but more specifically, married women with children. The rate for women with no children at home rose from 30 to 48%, while married women with children (6 to 17 years of age) rose from 28 to 68% between 1950 and 1985 (Bloom, 1986). The presence of children has, in the past, tended to

delay or modify the participation of women into the labor force. This pattern, too, is changing. Today more women are returning to work sooner after the birth of their children. In 1983, 44% of mothers with children 1 year or younger participated in the work force. It jumped to 50.8% by 1988. Over half of all mothers are working and 73% of those mothers are working full-time (U. S. Department of Labor, 89-3).

These statistics reveal that the complexity of women's "role-sets" is changing. A "role-set" is the collection of roles performed by an individual. The roles of women in this society are no longer confined to managing the home and family. The majority of women take on the work role over and beyond their family responsibilities. Despite the "added" role of work, women report little reduction in the amount of their responsibilities for managing the home and the family. They report that their husbands do not greatly share in the household activities (Berk & Berk, 1978; Bryson, Bryson, & Johnson, 1978; Pleck, 1977).

It is not surprising then that married, working women report experiencing a great deal of stress (role strain) as a result of trying to balance both career and family roles (Gutek, Nakamura, & Nieva, 1981; Hall & Gordon, 1973). The increased evidence that stress and strain lead to negative consequences on both physical and mental well-being emphasizes the importance and necessity for stress research (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend,

1974; Krantz, Glass, Contrada & Miller, 1981) in relation to role strain. To explain the implications of role stress for women, a brief discussion of the stress process follows.

Stress Process

The stress process is a confusing area in stress research. In the past, stress was conceptually viewed as a response. Stressors place demands (physical, psychological, or environmental) upon an individual to adjust or cope to regain balance or homeostasis. Homeostasis is the "maintenance of a normal, steady state in the body." (Selye, 1978, p. 46). In an attempt to add clarity and understanding to a vast area of stress, the stress process has been expanded to encompass four areas: (a) nature of the environment, (b) psychological interpretation of it, (c) coping resources, and (d) psychological and physiological outcomes (Payne et al., 1982). More recently there has been a consensus that stress is best viewed as an interaction between the person and his or her environment (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The nature of the environment can impinge upon the individual directly or The environment can pose threats, constraints, or opportunities. Stressors may take many different forms: job, family, friends, or internal demand; but all have the potential to be stressful if perceived as a demand that exceeds an individual's ability to adequately cope (Payne, Jick, & Burke, 1982). Psychological or physiological outcomes are contingent upon the

success or failure of the coping efforts.

Role Stress

Role stress is defined as incompatibility between role expectations (Biddle, 1979; Kahn et al., 1964). A role is generally defined as a set of specific behaviors or a set of expectations applied to a person occupying a particular position. Roles can produce strain in at least two ways: (a) too many role demands related to one's roles so that satisfactory performance is inadequate (role overload) and (b) expectations of one role interferes with adequately meeting the expectations of another role (role conflict). Role conflict is typically defined as "feeling pulled apart by conflicting demands" and role overload is typically defined as "having too much to do" (Baruch, Biener, Barnett, 1987, p. 131).

It is proposed that multiple roles place a demand on an individual's time, energy, and skill. As roles accumulate they exceed an individual's available resources. The individual is unable to do justice to all roles.

Goode (1960) refers to the resulting cognitive state as "role strain" (stress).

Some research suggests that there is an association between the number of roles and the experience of role conflict. Hall (1975) reported that 61% of women who occupy one to two roles, 81% of women who occupy three roles, and 91% of women who occupy four or more roles experience role conflict.

Role strain, if prolonged, can lead to such negative consequences as

decreased well-being (physical and mental). However, the notion that complex role sets are inherently dangerous to one's health is not generally agreed upon. There are those who believe no predictions can be made concerning the relationship between the number of roles and psychological well-being. If a role produces a net gain, with respect to costs and benefits, there will be an increase in psychological well-being no matter the number of roles (Marks, 1977, Sieber, 1974). Complex role sets can be positively related to psychologically well-being and better health (Thoits, 1983). Kandel, Davies, and Raveis (1985) offer three viable explanations: (a) multiple roles may provide some health benefits; (b) participation in one role may mitigate or buffer the negative effects of another role; and (c) women with higher levels of mental health may select more complex role sets. For example, there is growing evidence that the role of paid worker appears to be a source of selfesteem, purposefulness, and self-identity for women (Feree, 1976; Kessler & McRae, 1982; Weaver & Homes, 1975).

The literature supports the hypothesis that conflicts between work and family roles result in role strain for women (Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1981). Pleck, Staines and Lang (1980) conducted a Quality of Employment Survey for the U. S. Department of Labor. The survey results suggested that workers who had families experienced conflict between work and family. Parents reported more conflict than did childless couples. Being a parent increased

the incidence of conflict in women by 13%. Women with preschool children reported more conflict than women with school age children. These findings are supported by other research as well (Graddick & Farr, 1983). Johnson and Johnson (1977) found that every woman they studied reported experiencing major conflicts between their careers and their children.

Gray (1983) found that 77% of the women she interviewed experienced strains between their family and career. When asked to rank in order of importance their family or career, 46% felt that their family was more important, 46% reported that it was impossible to rank, and 8% felt that their career came first. Heckman, Bryson, and Bryson (1977) reported similar findings. Of 200 couples (both individuals being psychologists), 58% mentioned career and family conflicts.

Several explanations have been offered to aid in the etiology of role strain. Role involvement, role commitment and simultaneous role occupancy are three viable explanations. It is the contention of this author that all three explanations are viable and may possibly interact with one another.

Role involvement. Involvement in the same number of roles may have different consequences for different people based upon their experience and the effort required for each particular role. For example, the role of parent may require more effort than the role of worker. Porter and Long

(1984) suggest that the nature of the roles is more important than the number of roles because the nature of roles differ in their privileges and obligations. Barnett and Baruch (1985) suggest that focusing on the number of roles, in an attempt to associate role accumulation with role strain and negative outcome (e.g., depression), appear to confound the number of roles with occupancy in particular roles (e.g., parent). In their study, they found that role conflict and role overload were significantly associated with role of parent, but not significantly related to role of paid worker or wife. In another study, the level of depression was found to be greater for married women who did not work than for those women who were not married (Cleary & Mechanic, 1983). Kandel et al. (1985) found that role strains and stress were lower for family roles than occupational or housework roles, but when strains did occur, the negative consequences for psychological well-being were much worse. This is in line with Barnett and Baruch's study (1985) that found that the role of parent explained more of the variance for role conflict. Role conflict may arise because a worker is mentally preoccupied with her role as a parent while physically attending to her role as worker. Barling and Van Bart (1984) suggest that interrole conflict experienced by employed mothers may be associated more with the fact that they must contend with the behavioral problems of their preschool children, than that of being employed. It may also be that women can more easily segregate their work and spouse roles

than their work and parent roles.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) contend that work-family conflict is the result of pressures from both job and family. Frone and Rice (1987) found partial support for this. They sent questionnaires to a sample of 141 male and female nonteaching professionals. Their results indicated that job-spouse conflict was positively related to job involvement for those individuals with high spouse involvement, but was unrelated to job involvement when the spouse involvement was low. In other words, spouse involvement is important to the understanding of the relationship between job involvement and job-spouse conflict. An interesting finding was that job involvement was highly related to job-parent conflict regardless of the level of parent involvement. A viable explanation for this may be that the role of parent is inherently stressful.

Role commitment. Gordon and Hall (1974) suggest that role commitment is a major contributing factor to role conflict. The more one is committed to a role the more likely one is to experience role conflict. Ducker (1980) reported that women physicians who had higher work commitment experienced more role strain then those with lower work commitments.

Other studies found that women with high role commitment in a multiple role system did not always result in role conflict (Bhagat & Chassie, 1981; Marks, 1977). Mannheim and Schiffrin (1984) conducted a study

involving 419 professional women with children. They focused on the relationships between family and work characteristics. No relationship was found between family and work variables. These women experienced no or little role conflict even though they had demanding jobs and were primarily responsible for maintaining the household.

<u>Simultaneous role occupancy</u>. Simultaneous roles or role segmentation has often been cited in the literature as a contributing factor to role strain between multiple roles. Hall (1972) stated that women occupy simultaneous roles while men occupy sequential roles. As a result, men are able to make smoother transitions between roles than women. Segmentation refers to the ability to separate spheres. It has been argued that cultural priorities for family versus work roles are different for women than men (Goldberg, 1984; Pleck, 1977). Women must devote more effort and time to their family roles than men. Feldberg and Glenn (1979) contend that women still hold the major responsibility for child care, household, and maintaining their relationships with men (Berk & Berk, 1978; Bryson et al., 1978; Gutek et al., 1981; Pleck, 1977; Staines, 1980; Walker, 1970). Only 6% of today's marriages function in a segmented way (Pifer, 1980). When interviewed, women mentioned that they had a difficult time leaving their family problems and responsibilities at home. Women still view themselves as the one primarily responsible for taking care of the family needs. And, the truth

of the matter is that women are typically the primary family caretaker (Bryson et al., 1978; Graddick & Farr, 1983; Johnson & Johnson, 1977).

Most women are unable to keep roles separate and must devote time to each role simultaneously. Hall and Hall (1980) reported that organizations treat their male workers as though family and work were sequential responsibilities while treating the female worker as though both were simultaneous responsibilities. Studies have demonstrated that sequential roles produced less conflict than simultaneous roles (Killian, 1952). It would seem logical to infer from the research that role conflict is inherent in simultaneous roles but not necessarily for sequential roles. It is not surprising then that working women with families report experiencing greater role conflict because they are forced to function in a segmented world.

Stress research has demonstrated that role strain is related to satisfaction (e.g., life and job) (Jones & Butler, 1980; Kahn et al., 1964; Kuiper, 1977; Sekaran, 1983). Deriving satisfaction from one's job as well as from one's life has been conceptualized as "The quality of life" (Payton-Miyzaki & Brayfield, 1976). Unfortunately, studies have reported inconsistent findings concerning the impact of conflicts between work and family on satisfaction. Some studies report that role conflict significantly lowered satisfaction for life and work (Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1981; Hall, 1975; Pleck et al., 1980). However, Cooke and Rousseau (1984) found a positive association between

role conflict and work overload with job and life satisfaction. Keller (1975) found no relationship between role conflict and satisfaction.

Sekaran (1983) studied the variance accounted for by work and non-work variables on life and job satisfaction. He found that non-work variables accounted for 42.9% of the variance for life satisfaction and 13% of the variance for job satisfaction. Work variables accounted for slightly more of the variance for job satisfaction than life satisfaction. When non-work and work-related variables were considered jointly, with regard to job satisfaction, both work and non-work variables equally accounted for the variance. For life satisfaction, however, non-work variables accounted for 42.9% and work variables accounted for only 11.4% of the variance. These results suggest that non-work variables are important considerations for both work and family roles.

Role of Personality as a Moderating Variable

Most of the literature has focused on the stressors (multiple roles) and the consequences of role stress, but little consideration has been given to moderating variables with a few exceptions (e.g., Macewen & Barling, 1988; Suchet & Barling, 1986). Until recently, the underlying assumption had been that individual variables had little moderating effect in the stress-outcome process. With exposure to stressors explaining only a modest amount of the variance among individuals, the focus of stress research switched from

stressors to individual differences (e.g., coping style and personality). The individual was no longer viewed as a passive observer, but rather an active participant in the stress process. For example, two individuals may experience the same stressors, but may have quite different experiences. As a result, moderator research with emphasis on transformational processes internal to the individual has surfaced as a promising area for stress research. However, the concept of transformational processes is not a new one. Woodworth's (1928) Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) model recognized that the organism actively intervenes between the stimulus and the response. The central idea of his model was that the effects of the stimuli on behavior is mediated by various processes internal to the organism.

Personality is defined as the "stable set of characteristics and traits that account for consistent patterns of behavior by a person in various situations" (Organizational Behavior, p. 531). Antonovsky describes personality as "the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment" (Luthans, p. 111).

Psychologists have long attempted to categorize people into specific personality types based on their cognitions, behaviors, and tendencies.

Certain individuals experience stimuli in a particular way and give it particular meaning (e.g., as a constraint, a demand, or an opportunity). For

example, a Type A may view a situation as passive while a Type B may tend to view the same situation as an opportunity. Research has demonstrated that specific personality types seem to be more susceptible to maladaptive stress reactions than others (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1974) or put another way, 'stress resistant' personalities (e.g., Type A personality, Hardiness) handle stress better than nonresistant personalities.

An exciting new concept in personality research was introduced by Kobasa (1979). In her original study, Kobasa (1979) divided white male executives into two separate groups: (a) high stress/high illness and (b) high stress/low illness. These groups were then differentiated on the basis of a battery of personality scales. Kobasa (1979) found that individuals experiencing high stress who became ill possessed a different personality structure than those individuals who experienced high stress but did not become ill. She characterized this personality difference as "hardiness". The hardy personality constellation is represented by three interrelated variables: (a) commitment (i.e., a generalized sense of purpose and meaningfulness that is expressed as a tendency to become involved); (b) control (i.e., belief that life events may be influenced rather than feeling helpless when confronted with adversity); and (c) challenge (i.e., life events are perceived not as an onerous burden, but instead a normal part of life that provides an opportunity for development) (Kobasa, 1979; Kobasa & Puccetti, 1983). Kobasa conducted and

replicated a number of studies demonstrating that, indeed, there is a personality type more resistant to stress. "Hardy" individuals are more resistant to the debilitating effects of stress on health than those individuals who are not hardy. The hardiness theory is based on the premise that hardy individuals are able to reduce and/or alleviate the effects of stress by their cognitive appraisal. Cognitive appraisal is the subjective interpretation of an event.

Though the concept of hardiness is appealing, the hardiness research is plagued with inconsistent findings. While those studies that have used male subjects have demonstrated a buffering effect for hardiness (Kobasa, Maddi & Kahn, 1982; Kobasa, Maddi & Puccetti, 1982; Kobasa, Maddi & Zola, 1983), other studies that have used female subjects found no buffering effects for hardiness (Ganellan & Blaney, 1984; Macewen & Barling, 1988; Schmeid & Lawler, 1986). Another inconsistent finding has been that hardiness has been correlated with illness in some studies and with levels of stress in others (Schmeid & Lawler, 1986; Wiebe & McCallum, 1986). A third inconsistency in the literature was whether demographic variables correlated with hardiness. Kobasa and her colleagues have found no correlation between demographic variables and hardiness. However, Schmeid and Lawler (1986) found that the hardier female secretaries in their study were significantly older and more educated than the less hardy individuals. Despite the inconsistencies, it

would be a grievous error to totally discount the hardiness theory. Though hardiness hasn't proven to consistently serve as a buffer, consistent differences have been found between hardy and nonhardy individuals in self-reported psychological and physical status. The focus of hardiness research may be better served by investigating the differences that exist between hardy and nonhardy individuals instead of hardiness as a buffer against stress related illness.

One major difference between hardy and nonhardy individuals reported in the literature is the appraisal process. Rhodewalt and Agustsdottir (1984) examined the appraisal processes of hardy and nonhardy individuals with regard to recent life events. They attempted to investigate whether hardy individuals encountered different life events by their choices and behavior than nonhardy individuals. They found no association between hardiness and the likelihood of reporting an event, but they did find significant differences in the way hardy and nonhardy individuals viewed (appraised) an event. Hardy individuals reported a higher percentage of life events as positive and completely under their control. There was no difference in the percentage of events appraised as uncontrollable between both groups although hardy individuals were impaired psychologically to a much lesser degree by situations they perceived as uncontrollable or undesirable.

Rhodewalt and Zone (1989) found similar findings when they surveyed 212 female subjects. They found no association between the level of hardiness and the likelihood of reporting any particular life event. They did find a dramatic difference in the number of events perceived as negative and the amount of necessary adjustment between hardy and nonhardy individuals. Nonhardy individuals reported that 40% of their life experiences were undesirable, whereas hardy individuals report 27% of their life expenses as undesirable.

Schlosser and Sheeley (1985) suggested that the hardy individual possessed a sort of "polly-anna" view of the world. Hope or optimism reduced the amount of stress experienced by the individual, thus aiding in the adjustment and effective coping. Hardy individuals actively sought to interact with the environment and felt that changes were natural. As a result, hardy individuals may be more optimistic in their appraisal of negative situations. Through appraisal, an individual has the ability to render a life event as non-threatening (Lazarus, 1966).

Kobasa et al. (1981) suggested that hardy individuals, through "transformational coping", were able to reduce or alleviate maladaptive effects of stressful life events. Transformational coping is the dual process of cognition (appraisal between stressor-individual) and action (between individual-adaptational outcomes) (Kobasa et al., 1983). Once the situation

has been appraised, then action is taken, if needed. Studies have demonstrated that hardy individuals tend to be more problem-oriented in their approach to stressful life events (Kobasa, 1979; Kobasa, Maddi, & Kahn, 1982; Schlosser & Sheeley, 1985). Problem-oriented people used more problem solving in their reaction to stressful situations than emotionally-oriented people. Hardy individuals believed they had the necessary resources to cope adequately. They interpreted the situation, actively sought information as what could be done, and acted accordingly. Those individuals who were less hardy reacted more emotionally (Kobasa, 1979; Schlosser & Sheeley, 1985). Emotions are believed to impede rational coping styles. The hardy individual was more successful in reducing and/or alleviating stress by finding an appropriate solution to the situation. Hardy individuals felt in control of their lives. They expected to make a difference and as a result, they did.

Hardiness may prove to be a predictor for individual differences with regard to coping and appraisal. The key to the resiliency of the hardy individual may lie in transformational coping of the individual as opposed to the personality constellation.

The Role of Coping

A synthesis of the literature suggests that personality and coping research is predominantly rooted in three conceptual frameworks:

(a) personality variables ("who a person is") (Kobasa, 1979; Kobasa, Maddi, Courington, 1981); (b) action ("what an individual does") (e.g., coping response) (Pearlin & Schooler, 1984); and (c) a combination of the two (Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The main difference between these three conceptual frameworks is not whether personality plays a vital moderating role or not, or whether action plays a vital moderating role or not, but to what degree personality and action play moderating roles.

Coping has often been considered to be the major factor in the relationship between stressful events and adaptational outcomes (Baum, Fleming, & Singer, 1983; Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schatter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978). Coping has typically been defined as a person's constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the person's resources (Folkman et al., 1986). Pearlin and Schooler (1978) defined coping as "things people do to avoid being harmed by life strains" (p. 2). Lazarus (1966) divided coping into two aspects: (a) cognitive appraisal and (b) action. Cognitive appraisal consists of primary and secondary appraisal. During primary appraisal, the person judges an encounter as a threat, challenge, or harm. Then, during secondary appraisal, the person evaluates the available coping resources. People often see multiple possibilities and meanings in their relationships to the

environment. After the encounter has been assessed, a strategy to reduce or alleviate the stress is employed. Variability in coping is partially a function of a person's judgement about what is at stake (i.e., primary appraisal) and what they view as their options (i.e., secondary appraisal) (Folkman et al., 1986).

Two main functions of coping are: (a) management of the personenvironment interaction that is the source of stress (problem-focused) and (b) regulation of stressful emotions (emotion-focused). Folkman and Lazarus (1980) analyzed the way 100 respondents (both men and women) coped with stressful events of daily living for a 12-month period. The respondents reported on a monthly basis how they coped with stressful events. Between interviews, they filled out self-reported questionnaires. At the end of each interview and questionnaire, the respondent indicated on a 68-item "Ways of Coping" checklist those responses used to deal with the stressful event. The items on the checklist were classified into two primary categories: problem and emotion-focused coping. Problem-focused coping includes cognitive problem-solving efforts and behavioral strategies (e.g., "Made a plan of action"). Emotion-focused coping includes cognitive and behavioral efforts directed at reducing emotional distress (e.g., "Tried to forget the whole thing."). Ninety-eight percent (98%) of the respondents used both types of coping. Less that 2% of the respondents reported using only one type of coping.

The coping episodes were coded for: (a) the context (e.g., health, work, family matters, other), (b) person (s) involved (e.g., self, person at work, family member, others), and (c) how the episode was appraised. The two factors that had the most influence on coping were context and appraisal. They found that individuals used more problem-focused coping in the work context. Stressful encounters in the family context did not have a clear impact on problem or emotion focused coping. In other words, neither type of coping was likely to be used in the family context.

The amount of problem and emotion-focused coping depended on how an event was appraised. Individuals favored problem-solving coping strategies when they perceived that something could be done or that more information was required. On the other hand, individuals preferred emotion-focused coping when they perceived that nothing could be done (Lazarus, 1966). Other times both coping techniques were used. Folkman and Lazarus (1985) conducted an experiment to examine how undergraduate psychology students would cope with the stress of mid-terms. The students were asked to fill out a Stress Questionnaire at three different times: two days before the midterm, two days before the grades were announced, and five days after the grades were announced. They found that students coped in complex ways; using problem-focused coping combined with emotion-coping.

Most coping research has investigated coping strategies used after major stressful events (e.g., death of a loved one, surgery, natural disaster). Unlike stress caused by a major life event, role stress is chronic in nature. Chronic stress is stress that frequently reoccurs. Folkman et al. (1980) suggested that a true reflection of coping is measured from a longitudinal viewpoint in situations that individuals experience everyday. Pearlin and Schooler (1978) conducted such a study in which they interviewed 2300 people living in the urban area of Chicago. Volunteers were asked about the types of coping strategies they employed in dealing with the strains they experienced from their social roles (i.e., parents, job holders and breadwinners, husbands and wives). The roles were selected as a result of themes that surfaced repeatedly in unstructured interviews with 100 people. They identified 17 coping factors comprised of three major strategies: (a) modification of the stressor (problem-focused), (b) alteration of one's perception or evaluation of threat (appraisal-focused), and (c) management of emotional reactions (emotion-focused). They found that individuals used a broad range of strategies in coping with demands associated with roles. Certain coping responses were used for all four roles (i.e., parents, job holders and breadwinners, husbands and wives) suggesting that certain coping strategies may be used universally. An important implication for this finding is that coping strategies may be both consistent, yet varied across situations

(Folkman & Lazarus, 1980).

Lazarus and his colleagues made no judgement value as to whether problem-focused or emotion-focused coping was better. They suggested that when both are used, they may facilitate one another. An example of this might be that an individual must first control his/her emotions (e.g., anger) before engaging in problem-solving techniques. Both forms of coping may also have the potential to impede one another. For example, the use of denial may inhibit problem-focused activity.

The premise behind much of the personality research is that personality characteristics influence aspects of coping (e.g., cognitive appraisal and action). Lazarus et al. (1980) have criticized 'trait' oriented research because it focuses on stable personality dispositions from which coping processes are usually inferred. They suggested that trait oriented research is based on the assumption that people are behaviorally consistent across all situations. They believed that a stressful encounter should be viewed as a dynamic, unfolding process with appraisal and coping changing over time and situations. Isolating whether coping efficacy is a product of who a person is or what a person does is too limited. It is the contention of this author that more may be learned by combining situational coping processes with personality traits. Important information can be learned from assessing how different personality types successfully cope over a period of time and

situations.

Role Conflict, Quality of Life, and Hardiness

In summation, working women experience role stress in an attempt to integrate work and family roles. Roles can produce strain when expectations of one role interfere with adequately meeting the expectations of another role. If role strain is prolonged, it can lead to negative consequences such as decreased role and life satisfaction.

Until recently, the scientific community had focused on the stressors (multiple roles) and their consequences (decreased role and life satisfaction) with little consideration to the moderating variables between the two.

Fortunately this has changed. Not all women who experienced role conflict were unhappy with their lives. Why? Moderating variables may be the key. A moderator variable can be a condition, behavior, or a characteristic that qualifies the relationship between a stressor and its consequence.

Personality as a moderating variable deserves further research in the stress process. According to Kobasa (1979) and Schuler (1980), the longer one experiences life, the greater the accumulated skills and resources to deal with stress. Hardy individuals are better able to adequately cope, thus stress never reaches the exhaustive stage.

The combination of personality type and coping styles (problem and emotion focused) has rarely been addressed within the same analysis in role strain research. Although hardiness has been studied in conjunction with other variables (Ganellan & Blaney, 1984; Kobasa et al., 1981; Kobasa et al., 1982), research concerning hardy individuals using specific coping strategies has rarely been addressed. Additionally, hardiness has usually been used in the context of major life events research. Chronic role strain may, by nature, require different coping strategies than major life events.

If the function of coping includes modification of the stress or regulation of ones' emotions and if hardy individuals are more problem-oriented, then do they use more problem-focused coping than emotion-focused coping? According to Lazarus, one coping style is not inherently better than another. If hardy individuals are more satisfied with their roles, is it because they use more problem-focused coping, or is it because they don't appraise multiple roles as a negative? The purpose of this thesis is to answer these questions.

Hypothesis

Based on previous research, several hypotheses were proposed: (a) hardy women would experience greater role satisfaction than nonhardy women; (b) hardy women would experience greater overall life satisfaction than nonhardy women; (c) hardy women would use significantly more problem-focused coping than nonhardy women; (d) nonhardy women would use significantly more emotion-focused coping than hardy women; (e) hardy

women would use more problem-focused coping than emotion-focused coping; and (f) nonhardy women would use more emotion-focused coping than problem-focused coping.

Method

<u>Sample</u>

The sample consisted of 127 women who occupied two or more of the following roles: (a) spouse, (b) parent, or (c) worker. Eighty-seven (87) women occupied all three roles, while the remaining 40 women occupied either spouse/worker roles or parent/worker roles. All but one of the 127 women occupied the role as worker. The mean age of the respondents was 35 years; the mean number of years with spouse or significant other was 11 years; the mean number of children at home was 3; the mean age for the children was slightly more than 10 years; the mean number of hours worked outside the home was 42 hours; and the median household salary was over \$50,000.

Procedure

Day-care centers, parenting classes and the National Association of Female Executives (N.A.F.E.) members were targeted as potential sources for volunteers. Five hundred questionnaires (see Appendix B) were mailed to N.A.F.E. members. A cover letter (see Appendix A), along with a self-addressed, stamped envelope, was included. The cover letter explained that the focus of the study was to investigate how women who attempt to

combine a career and a family cope with heavy demands made by multiple roles.

Questionnaires were given to volunteers of an evening parenting class at Cerritos College. A brief explanation of the study was presented before volunteers were given the questionnaire. In addition to the parenting class, questionnaires (along with a cover letter and self-addressed envelope) were left at various day-care centers in the Bellflower, California area.

Assessment

Role conflict. Parry and Warr's (1980) 12-item Interaction Strain

Questionnaire was used to assess role conflict. This scale was used because it is internally consistent (alpha = 0.75), with full-time employed mothers reporting significantly more interrole conflict than part-time employed mothers. A five-point Likert scale (1 = never to 5 = very often) response format was used. The alpha of this scale for this study was .77.

Hardiness. Hardiness is defined as a composite of commitment (approaching life with curiosity and a sense of meaningfulness), challenge (expectation that change is normal and stimulates growth), and control (one's belief that they have the ability to change the course of one's life) (Kobasa, 1979). Kobasa's 50-item Hardiness Scales was used to measure Hardiness. She reported an alpha of .81 (cited in Rhodewalt & Zone, 1989). For this study, an alpha of .82 was obtained. The hardiness scale was sent to the Hardiness

Institute where it was scored. They determined that scores above 74.0 represent "hardy" individuals; those below are labeled "not hardy" (Skip Dane, personal communication, September 5, 1992). There were 73 hardy and 54 nonhardy women in this study. The total scale mean was 74.04; for hardy women the mean was 79.69; and for nonhardy the mean was 66.39.

Role satisfaction. An overall measure of role satisfaction was derived by summing the responses to the following three questions: "How happy are you with your role as a wife?", "How happy are you with your role as a parent?" and "How happy are you with your role as a worker?" Responses to these questions were based upon a 5-point Likert scale (1 = very dissatisfied to 5 = very satisfied) was used as the rating system. The alpha for the overall measure of role satisfaction was .33. Due to the low intercorrelations of the 3 items, subsequent analyses treated these roles as individual entities. An individual satisfied with one role may not be equally satisfied with all other roles. A woman may be highly satisfied with her role as a parent but very unsatisfied with her role as a worker or wife. This also is in line with the literature that studies role conflict in the context of work and family.

<u>Coping strategies</u>. Participants were asked to list the most prevalent conflicts between work and family that they had experienced within the last 2 to 6 months. They were asked to rate how often they used different coping strategies in an attempt to cope with role conflict.

For the purpose of this study, coping was defined as the cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage (i.e., master, tolerate, or reduce) specific stressful events (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) developed a coping inventory they called the COPE scale. Their instrument consists of 60 items on which subjects rate how often they used each coping strategy. Five scales measure conceptually distinct aspects of problem-focused coping (i.e., active coping, planning, suppression of competing activities, restraint coping, seeking of instrumental social support); five scales measuring conceptually distinct aspects of emotion-focused coping (i.e., seeking of emotional social support, positive reinterpretation, acceptance, denial, turning to religion) and three scales measure coping responses that are considered to be less useful (i.e., focus on and venting of emotions, behavioral engagement, mental disengagement). Since problem and emotion focused coping are the focus of this thesis, an abridged version containing only those two scales measuring problem and emotion-focused coping were included. Each scale consists of 20 items. The alpha for the emotion-focused questions was equal to .76 and the alpha for the problem-focused coping questions was equal to .80.

The response format used was changed from "I usually don't do this at all", "I usually do this a little bit", "I usually do this a medium amount", and "I usually do this a lot" to "never", "seldom", "sometimes" and "often".

The format was changed to offer the respondent a continuum for her responses and add clarity and simplicity.

Results

The first hypothesis stated that hardy women would experience greater role satisfaction than nonhardy women. The three items that made up role satisfaction were treated separately as three dependent variables in an analysis of variance. Hotelling's T^2 was conducted to determine whether a difference existed between hardy and nonhardy women on the three role satisfaction items. The value of Hotelling's T^2 was .192 (F = 5.30, df = 3.83, p = .002). Subsequent univariate tests indicated that hardy and nonhardy women differed on work role satisfaction but not on parent or wife role satisfaction. Parent and wife role satisfaction were found to be significantly correlated (r = .36, $p \le .01$). This might be expected because parent and wife roles are family-oriented. Mean scores and F values are displayed in Table 1 and means are graphed in Figure 1, providing support for the first hypothesis.

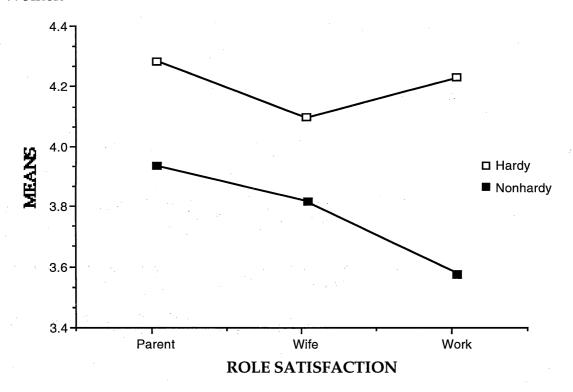
A t-test was used to test the second hypothesis that hardy women would experience greater overall life satisfaction than nonhardy women. Mean scores of 4.26 and 3.74 were obtained for hardy and nonhardy women respectively. Hardy women reported statistically significant higher levels of overall life satisfaction than nonhardy women (t = 3.71, p < .000), supporting the second hypothesis.

Table 1

A Comparison of Role Satisfaction Means for Hardy and Nonhardy Women

Role Satisfaction:	Parent	Wife	Work
	(N=95)	(N=106)	(N=126)
Hardy (N=73)	4.29	4.10	4.21
	(N=54)	(N=60)	(N=73)
Nonhardy (N=54)	3.90	3.80	3.66
	(N=41)	(N=46)	(N=53)
F value	3.00	1.89	12.34
F prob.	.08	.21	.00

<u>Figure 1</u>. A Comparison of Role Satisfaction Means for Hardy and Nonhardy Women



To test the third through sixth hypotheses, a mixed analysis of variance was conducted. Briefly, hypothesis three stated that hardy women would use significantly more problem-focused coping than nonhardy women; hypothesis four stated that nonhardy women would use significantly more emotion-focused coping than hardy women; hypothesis five stated that hardy women would use more problem-focused coping than emotion-focused coping; and hypothesis six stated that nonhardy women would use more emotion-focused coping than problem-focused coping. Type of coping style employed (emotion-focused/problem-focused) was used as the within subject variable with the dichotomized hardiness scale score (hardy/nonhardy) as the between subject variable.

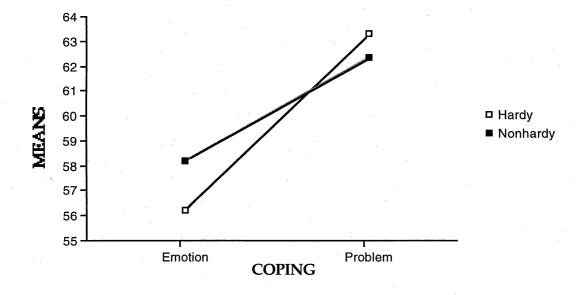
Obtained means are displayed in Table 2 and graphed in Figure 2, illustrating a difference in type of coping strategy by hardiness level. An examination of between-subjects effects (hardiness level) revealed no main effect difference for hardiness (F = .23, df = 1,116, p = .629); however, there was a statistically significant within-subjects difference in coping style scale scores (F = 74.39, df = 1,116, p < .001). All women used more problem-focused coping (F = 5.04, df = 1,116, p = .027). Simple main effects were conducted, providing additional information. Nonhardy women did not use more emotion-focused coping than hardy women (F = 2.43, df = 1,116, p = .122) and hardy women did not use more problem-focused coping than nonhardy

Table 2

<u>Type of Coping Strategies Selected by Hardiness Groups</u>

	n	X	SD	
Emotion:		***************************************	÷	
Nonhardy	52	57.98	6.88	
Hardy	66	56.03	6.64	
Problem:				
Nonhardy	52	62.12	6.44	
Hardy	66	63.08	6.20	

Figure 2. Type of Coping Strategies Selected by Hardiness Groups



women (F = 0.67, df = 1,116, p = .413). Thus, the data do not support the third and fourth hypotheses. Hardy individuals used significantly more problem-focused coping strategies than emotion-focused coping strategies (t = 8.05, df = 1,65, p < .001) supporting the fifth hypothesis. Contrary to the sixth hypothesis, results indicated that nonhardy individuals employed more problem-focused than emotion-focused coping strategies (t = 4.36, df = 1,51, p < .001). Once again, these women tended to use more problem-focused coping strategies in general.

If one accepts the premise put forth in the introduction that role conflict is negatively correlated with role satisfaction, then the influence of role conflict as a possible extraneous variable must be addressed. A correlational analysis indicates that role conflict is significantly negatively correlated with role satisfaction and hardiness (see Table 3).

In order to address the impact of role conflict on coping style by hardiness level, a second mixed analysis of variance was conducted controlling for role conflict as a covariate. Obtained means are displayed in Table 4 and graphed in Figure 3, illustrating a difference in type of coping strategy by hardiness level. An examination of between subject effects (hardiness level) revealed no main effect difference for hardiness (F = 1.06, f = 1.71, f = 0.306); however, there was a statistically significant within-subjects difference in coping style scale scores (F = 48.14, f = 1.72, f = 0.001). Not all

Table 3

Correlations of Role Conflict With Role Satisfaction, Coping Styles and Hardiness

	SATISFACTION		
	Work Parent	Wife	
Role Conflict:	336**275*	285*	

COPING STYLES AND HARDINESS SCALE

	Emotion-	Problem-		
	Focused	Focused	Hardiness	3
Role Conflict:	097	180	389**	

^{* .05} level

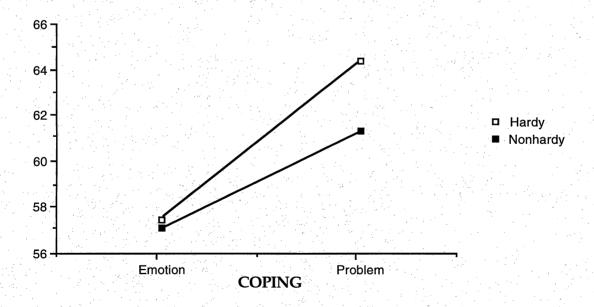
^{** .01} level

Table 4

Controlling for Role Conflict as a Covariate

			•
<u>n</u>	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	SD	_
35	56.86	6.95	
39	57.23	6.43	
35	61.09	6.17	
39	64.15	5.55	
	35 39 35	35 56.86 39 57.23 35 61.09	35 56.86 6.95 39 57.23 6.43 35 61.09 6.17

<u>Figure 3</u>. Type of Coping Strategies Selected by Hardiness Group Controlling for Role Conflict as a Covariate



women used more problem-focused coping (F= 2.81, df = 1,72, p = .098). Simple main effects were conducted, providing additional information. Nonhardy women did not use more emotion-focused coping than hardy women (F = .06, df = 1,71, p = .806) but hardy women did use more problem-focused coping than nonhardy women (F = 4.48, df = 1,71, p = .038). Thus, data does support the third, but does not support the fourth hypotheses. Hardy individuals used significantly more problem-focused coping strategies than emotion-focused coping strategies (F = 39.23, df = 1,72, p < .001) supporting the fifth hypothesis. Contrary to the sixth hypothesis, results indicated that nonhardy individuals employed more problem-focused than emotion-focused coping strategies (F = 13.13, df = 1,72, p = .001).

Discussion

The literature is filled with inconsistencies when it comes to the effects of multiple roles for women. Some studies find that women occupying multiple roles experience role conflict, while others find that multiple roles do not result in role conflict. Some studies report that role conflict is negatively correlated with role satisfaction while other studies report that role conflict is either positively correlated with satisfaction or has no effect on satisfaction.

Accepting the premise put forth in the literature that multiple roles can be a precursor to role conflict and role conflict can be negatively correlated

with role satisfaction, the purpose of this study was to add clarity to the relationship between multiple roles and satisfaction by studying the hardiness personality as a moderator variable.

The findings of this study suggests that personality does have a moderating effect between multiple roles and role conflict. Even though all women in this study occupied multiple roles only nonhardy women reported experiencing high levels of role conflict. This result comes as no surprise, however. Rhodewalt and Agustsdottir (1984) found no association between hardiness and the likelihood of reporting an event, but did find a significant difference in the way hardy and nonhardy individuals appraised an event. Hardy individuals reported a higher percentage of life events as positive. Rhodewalt and Zone (1989) found similar findings. They found no association between the level of hardiness and the likelihood of reporting a particular event, but they did find that nonhardy women reported a higher percentage of life events as negative. In general, hardy and nonhardy women differed on the way they appraised an event.

The hardy personality also had a moderating effect between multiple roles and satisfaction. Kobasa conducted a number of studies that demonstrated that hardy individuals were more resistant to the debilitating effects of stress. This result was also demonstrated in this thesis. Hardiness was found to be positively correlated with role (specifically work role) and life

satisfaction. Hardy women were significantly more satisfied with their work role and life than nonhardy women. It may be that significant differences on satisfaction between hardiness groups were found for only work role and not wife or parent role because all participants occupied the work role, but not all participants occupied the role of spouse and/or parent. Perhaps if more women had occupied all three roles, significant differences for satisfaction between hardiness groups would have been found for parent and/or spouse roles as well. The notion that complex role sets are inherently dangerous was not supported.

Lazarus (1966) and Kobasa (1979) believed that an individual is able to render an event as non-threatening through cognitive appraisal. The hardiness theory is based on the premise that hardy individuals are able to reduce or alleviate the effects of stress by transformational coping. As stated in the introduction, transformational coping is the dual process of cognition and action. Hardiness may prove to predict individual differences with regard to appraisal (cognition) and coping (action).

Another issue addressed, with regard to hardiness, was coping.

Folkman and Lazarus (1980) classified coping into two primary categories: problem and emotion-focused. The amount of problem and emotion-focused coping depended on how an event was appraised. Individuals favored problem-focused coping when they perceived something could be

done and emotion-focused coping when they perceived that nothing could be done (Lazarus, 1966).

Coping has often been treated as a separate moderator variable in the literature. Rarely had personality and coping been addressed within the same analysis. Based upon the coping and hardiness research, the following hypotheses were postulated: hardy women would use significantly more problem-focused coping than nonhardy women; nonhardy women would use significantly more emotion-focused coping than hardy women; hardy women would use significantly more problem-focused coping than emotion-focused and nonhardy women would use significantly more emotion-focused coping than problem-emotion.

Initial results supported the hypothesis that hardy women would use significantly more problem-focused coping than emotion-focused coping.

After controlling for role conflict, results also supported the hypothesis that hardy women would use more problem-focused coping than nonhardy women.

Although the data did not support the hypothesis that nonhardy women would used more emotion-focused coping than problem-focused coping, interesting effects were noted after controlling for role conflict. Prior to controlling for role conflict, nonhardy women employed more emotion-focused coping that problem-focused coping. However, after controlling for

role conflict, nonhardy women used more problem-focused coping than emotion-focused coping.

Research suggests that nonhardy women are more emotion-oriented and hardy women are more problem-oriented in their approach to problem-solving. The results of this thesis did not support this predicted outcome. Nonhardy women did not use significantly more emotion-focused coping than hardy women and nonhardy women did not use significantly more emotion-focused coping than problem-focused coping.

One possible explanation why nonhardy women did not use more emotion-focused coping than problem-focused may be that some subscales identified as problem-focused and that some subscales identified as emotion-focused were not truly reflective of problem or emotion-focused coping. In other words, some strategies identified as emotion-focused may be considered as problem-oriented by hardy and nonhardy women as vice versa for some problem-focused strategies.

Are hardy women more satisfied because they are more positive in their approach to life or because they are more successful in their coping strategy than nonhardy women? Based upon the findings of this study, this question cannot be answered. Hardy individuals were more positive in their approach to life than nonhardy women and hardy women used more problem-focused coping than nonhardy women. Maybe cognition facilitates

action which in turn facilitates cognition.

It is the contention of this author that the answer to the previous question lies in the differences that exist between hardy and nonhardy women on cognition and action (coping strategies). This study examined differences in the way hardy and nonhardy cope.

Since positive appraisal is a distinguishing factor between hardy and nonhardy women, an interesting follow-up study may be to include appraisal-focused coping strategies along with emotion and problem-focused coping. Appraisal-focused coping is the alteration of one's perception or evaluation of the stressor to reduce the perception of threat (Pearlin et al., 1981). Positive reinterpretation, similar in theory, was included as emotion-focused in this thesis. This concept fits nicely within the transformational coping paradigm. Instead of measuring differences between hardy and nonhardy women on combined scales identified as either problem, emotion, or appraisal-focused coping, a more accurate assessment may be to present subscales from these three scales to both hardiness groups. Then look for patterns of differences for coping between hardy and nonhardy women.

It is important that research continues in the area of hardiness and coping style. A good foundation has been laid in the literature and hopefully the findings of this thesis can add to that foundation.

Appendix A

Cover Letter and Demographics Page

Dear Participant:

I am currently a student, at Cal State San Bernardino, working on my Master's Thesis dealing with role conflict experienced by women. Role conflict is defined as the stress women experience when trying to juggle multiple roles (e.g., mother, wife, worker). More specifically, my thesis is designed to study the different ways women cope with the role conflict they experience.

If you feel that you are experiencing role conflict or even if you feel that you're not, the fact is that you must cope with occupying multiple roles. Therefore, your input and experience is an invaluable source of information for my thesis.

I realize that your time is valuable. However, the length of time required to complete this questionnaire takes an average of fifteen to twenty minutes. Please take as much time as you need. I would appreciate your support. For your convenience, I have enclosed a self-addressed stamped envelope.

Often times, when asked to complete a questionnaire, one never sees the fruit of their labor. Not this time. If you are interested, a summary of both your scores and the overall findings of this research will be sent to you. A place for your name (or pseudonym) and address has been provided at the end of the DEMOGRAPHICS PAGE (located on the reverse side of this page). Please be assured that the information you provide will be kept confidential and will only be used for the purpose of this thesis.

If you have any questions, I will be happy to discuss them with you. You may call me collect at 213-925-0212. If I am not home, please leave a message and I will return your phone call.

Thank you for your time and participation.

Sincerely,

Cynthia A. Fillpot

DEMOGRAPHICS PAGE On Back

PLEASE ATTACH THIS PAGE AND RETURN WITH YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHICS PAGE

Please answer the	following questions.	
Marital Status (please	circle appropriate number)	Your Age
2. Married and separate3. Single and living alo	ne	nave you been living together?
Please list the age of	your children still living at	home
What is your CURRI	ENT employment status? (plea	ase circle appropriate number)
 Full - time job (40 Part - time job (les 		
Approximately how	many hours do you <u>actually</u>	spend on the job?
What is your annual	salary? (please circle appropria	ate letter)
	f. \$30,000 - \$34,999 g. \$35,0	,000 - \$19,999 d. \$20,000 - \$24,999 00 - \$39,999 h. \$40,000 - \$44,999
What is your husban (please circle appropriate	nd's, or significant other's a letter)	annual salary?
	f. \$30,000 - \$34,999 g. \$35,0	,000 - \$19,999 d. \$20,000 - \$24,999 00 - \$39,999 h. \$40,000 - \$44,999
following:		the findings. Please send them to the
Name (or Pseudonym)	The same of the sa	
Mailing Address		
	and the second s	

Have You Answered All Of The Questions?

PLEASE ATTACH THIS PAGE AND RETURN WITH YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE.
Thank You.

Appendix B

Questionnaire

Please read items carefully. Circle the appropriate responses on the basis of the way you feel now. Do not spend too much time on any one item.

0= Not at all true 1= A little true 2= Quite a bit true 3= Completely true

1. I often wake up eager to take up my life where it left off the day before.	0 1 23
2. I like a lot of variety in my work.	0 1 23
3. Most of the time, my bosses or superiors will listen to what I have to say.	0 1 23
4. Planning ahead can help avoid most future problems.	0 23
5. I usually feel that I can change what might happen tomorrow, by what I do today.	0 1 23
6. I feel comfortable if I have to make any changes in my everyday schedule.	0 1 23
7. No matter how hard I try, my efforts will accomplish nothing.	0 1 23
8. I find it difficult to imagine getting excited about working.	0 1 23
9. No matter what you do, the "tried and true" ways are always the best.	0 23
10. I feel that it's almost impossible to change my spouse's mind about something.	0 1 23
11. Those who work for a living are manipulated by the bosses.	0 23
12. New laws shouldn't be made if they hurt a person's income.	0 1 23
13. When you marry and have children you have lost your freedom of choice.	0 23
14. No matter how hard you work, you never really seem to reach your goals.	0 1 23
15. A person whose mind seldom changes can usually be depended on to have reliable judgment.	0 1 23
16. I believe most of what happens in life is just meant to happen.	0 1 23
17. It doesn't matter if you work hard at your job, since only the bosses profit by it anyway.	0 1 23
18. I don't like conversations when others are confused about what they mean to say.	0 1 23
19. Most of the time it just doesn't pay to try hard, since things never turn out right anyway.	0 1 23
20. The most exciting thing for me is my own fantasies.	0 1 23
21. I won't answer a person's questions until I am very clear as to what he is asking.	0 1 23
22. When I make plans I'm certain I can make them work.	0 1 23
23. I really look forward to my work.	0 1 23
24. It doesn't bother me to step aside for a while from something I'm involved in, if I'm asked	
to do something else.	0 23
25. When performing a difficult task at work, I know when I need to ask for help.	0 1 23
26. It's exciting for me to learn something about myself.	0 1 23
27. I enjoy being with people who are unpredictable.	0 1 23
28. I find it usually very hard to change a friend's mind about something.	0 1 23
29. Thinking of yourself as a free person just makes you feel frustrated and unhappy.	0 1 23
30. It bothers me when something unexpected interrupts my daily routine.	0 23
31. When I make a mistake, there's very little I can do to make things right again.	0 23
32. I feel no need to try my best at work, since it makes no difference anyway.	0 1 23
33. I respect rules because they guide me.	0 1 23

U=Not At All True 1=A Little True 2=Quite a bit True	3=Completely 1 rue
34. One of the best ways to handle most problems is just not to think about them.	0 1 23
35. I believe that most athletes are just born good at sports.	0 1 23
36. I don't like things to be uncertain or unpredictable.	0 1 23
37. People who do their best should get full financial support from society.	0 1 23
38. Most of my life gets wasted doing things that don't mean anything.	0 1 23
39. Lot of times I don't really know my own mind.	0 1 23
40. I have no use for theories that are not closely tied to the facts.41. Ordinary work is just too boring to be worth doing.	0 1 23
	0 1 23 0 1 23
42. When other people get angry at me, it's usually for no good reason.43. Changes in routine bother me.	0 1 23
44. I find it hard to believe people who tell me that the work they do is of value to s	
45. I feel that if someone tries to hurt me, there's usually not much I can do to try and	
46. Most days, life just isn't very exciting for me.	0 1 23
47. I think most people believe in individuality only to impress others.	0 1 23
48. When I'm reprimanded at work, it usually seems to be unjustified.	0 1 23
49. I want to be sure someone will take care of me when I get old.	0 1 23
50. Politicians run our lives.	0 1 23
Briefly describe work - family (spouse, children) conflicts that you may have experi	enced within the last
2 - 6 months (e.g., child care).	
	
dia despera de la como de la compresa forma de la proposition de la compresión de la compresión de la compresión La compresión de la compre	
For the following items, please circle the appropriate response on the basis of the way	you feel now. Do not spend too
much time on any one item.	
1 = never $2 = seldom$ $3 = sometimes$ $4 = often$ $5 = al$	ways
51. The house I work make it were difficult to look offer the children	12345
51. The hours I work make it very difficult to look after the children.	1966年 1967年 - 1968年 -
52. My job leaves me enough time to spend with my family and friends.	12345

1 = never 2 = seldom 3 = sometimes 4 = often 5 = always

53. My husband listens to me if I want to talk about what's been happening.	12345
54. I feel guilty about leaving my children when I go out to work.	12345
55. When I am at work, I often worry about things to do with my home or children.	12345
56. I get so involved with my job that I feel a conflict of loyalty between my	
home and work responsibilities.	12345
57. I find it hard to get my children looked after when I am at work.	12345
58. My job gives me a welcome break from housework and children.	12345
59. My husband thinks it's a good idea for me to go out to work.	12345
60. My working related hours fit in well with those of my husband and this makes	
it easier to arrange for the children to be looked after.	12345
61. Going to work makes me too tired to enjoy family life properly.	12345
62. The amount of travel needed to go to work interferes with family life.	12345

Conflicts between work, and family may require different resolutions. Listed below are several possible responses to stressful situations. Please respond to each item by circling how often you use that particular resolution to work-family (spouse, children) conflicts. Choose your answers carefully. Select the answers that are true for YOU, not what you think "most people" would say or do.

1 =Never 2 =Seldom 3 =Sometimes 4 =Often

	63. I try to grow as a person as a result of the experience.	1234
	64. I turn to work or other substitute activities to take my mind off things.	1234
	65. I try to get advice from someone about what to do.	1234
	66. I concentrate my efforts on doing something about it.	134
	67. I say to myself "This isn't real."	1234
	68. I put my trust in God.	134
٠	69. I restrain myself from doing anything too quickly.	134
	70. I discuss my feelings with someone.	134
	71. I get used to the idea that it happened.	1234
	72. I talk to someone to find out more about the situation.	1234
	73. I keep myself from getting distracted by other thoughts and activities.	1234
	74. I daydream about things other than this.	14
	75. I seek God's help.76. I make a plan of action.	1234 1234
	77. I accept that this has happened and that it can't be changed.	1234
		134
	79. I try to get emotional support from my friends or relatives.	134
	80. I take additional action to try to get rid of the problem.	134
	81. I refuse to believe that it has happened.	134

1 = Never 2 = Seldom 3 = Sometimes 1.....4 I try to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive. I talk to someone who could do something concrete about the situation. 1......2......3......4 83. I sleep more than usual. 1......2......3......4 84. 1......3......4 I try to come up with a strategy about what to do. I focus on dealing with this problem, and if necessary let other things 86. slide a little. 1......3......4 1......3......4 87. I get sympathy and understanding from someone. 1......2......3......4 I look for something good in what is happening. 88. 1.....2.....3.....4 I think about how I might best handle the problem. 89. 1.....2.....3.....4 I pretend that it hasn't really happened. 90. 91. I make sure not to make matters worse by acting too soon. 1......2......3......4 I try hard to prevent other things from interfering with my efforts at 1......2......3......4 dealing with this. 1......2......3......4 93. I go to movies or watch TV, to think about it less. I accept the reality of the fact that it happened. 1.....2......3......4 94. 1......4 95. I ask people who have had similar experiences what they did. 1......2......3......4 96. I take direct action to get around the problem. 1......2......3......4 I try to find comfort in my religion. 97. 1......2......3......4 98. I force myself to wait for the right time to do something. 99. I talk to someone about how I feel. 1......3......4 1......2......3......4 I learn to live with it. 100. 1.....2.....3.....4 101. I put aside other activities in order to concentrate on this. 102. I think hard about what steps to take. 1.....4 103. I act as though it hasn't even happened. 1.....4 1......3......4 104. I do what has to be done, one step at a time. 1......2......3......4 105. I learn something from the experience. 106. I pray more than usual. 1......2......3......4 Please answer the following questions as accurately as possible. 2 = dissatisfied

	- y -			
How happy are you with your role as wife?	1	2 .3	34	5
How happy are you with your role as parent?	1	2 3	34	5
How happy are you with your role as worker?	1	23	34	5
How happy are you with the quality of your life overall?	1	23	34	5

3 = neutral

4 = satisfied

5 = very satisfied

1 = very dissatisfied

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