

**The Relationship between Optimism and Work-Family Enrichment and their
Influence on Psychological Well-Being**

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Dedications

To
Aunt Sharwyn,
Sunrise December 28, 1950- Sunset March 25, 2005

You are such an inspiration to me. I still hear your encouraging words and feel your unconditional support. Your love transcends time and space. I celebrate this achievement with you and for you.

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ABSTRACT**The Relationship between Optimism and Work-Family Enrichment and their Influence on Psychological Well-Being**

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Objectives: The majority of research examining the intersection of work and family has focused on work-family conflict. Based on the scarcity hypothesis, this line of research assumes that the responsibilities and demands of work and family are incompatible. Presently, research in this area has shifted from the scarcity hypothesis to the enhancement hypothesis. Subsequently, researchers are beginning to explore ways in which work and family domains enhance or enrich each other. In addition, researchers are exploring how individual differences can influence whether or not an individual experiences work-family enrichment. Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to add to the current work-family literature in three ways. First, the relationship between optimism and work-family enrichment was explored as well as the more frequently studied work-family conflict. Second, the relationship between optimism, work-family enrichment and various psychological well-being measures was explored (i.e., family satisfaction, job satisfaction and life satisfaction). Third, work-family enrichment was examined as a possible mediator between optimism and psychological well-being (i.e., family satisfaction, job satisfaction and life satisfaction).

Method: Participants consisted of 230 students, staff and faculty within Drexel University's College of Nursing and Health Professions. Participants were recruited through a mass email that invited participants to complete an anonymous survey and provided a link to the survey website.

Results: Findings suggest that optimism is positively associated with work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment. Optimism was also positively associated with job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction. On the other hand, work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment were not associated with the specific hypothesized satisfaction outcomes. Results also indicated that work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment partially mediated the relationship between optimism and satisfaction outcomes. Lastly, findings suggested that family-to-work enrichment was negatively associated with psychological strain.

Conclusions: The present study offers a contribution to the work-family literature by examining the often understudied concept of work-family enrichment. Furthermore, the current study was among the first studies to examine optimism as an individual difference related to the experience of work-family enrichment. Implications and future directions are explored.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Over the last 25 years there has been a proliferation of research examining the intersection of work and family (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Economic and social changes over the last 70-80 years have increased the number of women working outside the home, dual career families, divorce rates and the prevalence of single mothers (Bond, Galinsky & Swanberg, 1998; Ferber, O'Farrell, & Allen, 1991). As a result more families have to juggle the demands of caring for dependents with the demands of work (Frone, 2003). Therefore, this chapter will provide a brief historical introduction to the area of work-family research and the research trends within this area.

The influx of women into the workplace began in the late 1960s (Henwood, Rimmer & Wicks, 1987). Subsequently, researchers began to explore issues facing dual career couples and gender roles (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971). Societal concerns about the capacity of women to successfully fulfill dual roles seemed to shape the research agenda (Kanter, 1977; Pleck 1977). Researchers sought to answer questions surrounding the consequences of women's employment because working women were seen as deviating from their traditional gender roles. Consequently, research examined the effects of women working outside the home on their families' well-being and quality of life (Baruch & Barnett, 1986; Greenberger & O'Neil, 1993; Hoffman, 1979; Welch & Booth, 1977).

Research in the area of work and family originates from a variety of disciplines (i.e., sociology, psychology, occupational health, business management, and gender and family studies) (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). Traditionally work and family domains were considered separate and therefore analyzed separately, but research has

demonstrated that these two domains are actually highly interrelated. In the 1980's the stress and burnout literature emerged (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Lewis & Cooper, 1987). This represented a shift in the literature where studies not only examined the impact of multiple roles on women but acknowledged that men could also be affected by participating in multiple roles (e.g., Barling, 1986). Research examined negative aspects of multiple roles and there was an emergence of literature on work-family conflict. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) stated that work-family conflict occurs when "participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role."

Basically, the literature found that work-family conflict is not associated with well-being. As a result of this research the development of family friendly employment policies were developed. Research then shifted to examine how companies responded to work-family issues (for a review, see Lewis & Cooper, 1999). Lastly, research in this area began to explore the antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict (e.g., Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992a).

Presently a more contemporary view of the work and family interface is developing; one that is not limited to conflict, but allows for examination of how family and work domains can enhance or enrich one another (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Researchers have examined work-family conflict which is also referred to as negative work-family spillover, work-family interference and work-family tension. Researchers are now beginning to examine work-family enrichment which is also referred to as positive work-family spillover, work-family-enhancement, work-family balance and work-family facilitation (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Work-

enrichment is defined as “the extent to which participation at work (or home) is made easier by virtue of the experiences, skills, and opportunities gained or developed at home (or work)” (Frone, 2003). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) define it as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role.” Work-family conflict and work-family enrichment are bidirectional constructs. Therefore individuals can experience work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. Furthermore, individuals can also experience work-to-family enhancement or family-to-work enhancement.

As noted earlier different researchers use various terms in exploring work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. It should be noted that throughout the remainder of this paper “work-family conflict” will refer to work-family conflict in general while “work-to-family conflict” or “family-to work conflict” will refer to a specific type or direction of work-family conflict. For example, “work-to-family conflict” will refer to work demands interfering with family life and “family-to-work conflict” will refer to family demands interfering with work responsibilities. Likewise, “work-family enrichment” will refer to work-family enrichment in general while “work-to-family enrichment” and “family-to-work enrichment” will refer to a specific type or direction of work-family enrichment. More specifically, “work-to-family enrichment” will refer to work experiences improving family life and “family-to-work enrichment” will refer to family experiences improving work life.

Although work-family research has evolved over the years substantial gaps in the literature still exists. Few studies have acknowledged the possibility that work and family can have positive effects on one another (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999, p. 395).

Furthermore, few studies have examined individual differences as it pertains to an individual managing their work and family lives (Sumer & Knight, 2001; Wayne, Nicholas & Fleeson, 2004).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will focus on relevant background literature including role theory, the scarcity hypothesis and the enhancement hypothesis because they provide a theoretical framework for a large amount of the work-family research. Following this discussion, the work-family conflict and work-family enrichment literature will be reviewed. The limitations and gaps in work-family conflict and work-family enrichment literature will be also discussed. Lastly, optimism will be reviewed and this author will argue the necessity of examining optimism as an individual difference that is associated with work-family enrichment.

Role Theory

It has been argued that work-family research has not been based or housed in a particular theoretical framework (Hobfoll, 1989). However when it is based on a theory, it is largely conceptualized on role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Kahn et al. (1964) developed a theory of role dynamics. They proposed that each office or position in an organization is interconnected with other parts of the organization. The other parts of the organization create a role set for an individual. The other members of the organization become role senders for the focal person's behavior. The role senders are responsible for instructing the focal person about appropriate and inappropriate behavior. Role senders communicate role expectations to the focal person. Role expectations are beliefs and attitudes that the role senders develop about the focal person's behavior. It should be noted that the focal person can also be a "self-sender" of expectations. In other words, the focal person can have personal expectations of his or her behavior.

Role expectations do not directly influence the focal person's behavior but rather the focal person's perceptions of the expectations communicated by the role senders. Role expectations can produce role conflict for the focal person. Kahn et al. (1964) define role conflict as "the simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other (p.19)."

Kahn et al. (1964) proposed various types of conflict that organizational members experience: intra-sender conflict, inter-sender conflict and person role conflict. Intra-sender conflict is conflict stemming from a single member of a role set. Inter-sender conflict is conflict stemming from incompatible role expectations from multiple roles held by the focal person. Person role conflict is conflict stemming from the incompatibility of the needs of the focal person and the expectations of the role set. Kahn et al. (1964) also noted that a member of an organization can experience conflict between work and other life roles (e.g., family, school, and leisure). Interrole conflict is produced by incompatible expectations resulting from the participation in multiple roles.

In summary, role theory postulates that conflict within a role (intra-role) can result in an undesirable state. In addition, multiple roles can lead to inter-role conflict as it becomes difficult for an individual to succeed at performing various roles successfully due to possible "conflicting demands on time, lack of energy, or incompatible behaviors among roles" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn et al., 1964). For example, an individual can experience inter-role conflict when a role sender at work demands overtime which interferes with his or her spouse's request to engage in family activities in the evenings (Kahn et al., 1964). The study of inter-role conflict was the beginning of research on the

effects of multiple roles. The scarcity and enhancement hypotheses were developed to explain possible outcomes of inter-role conflict.

Scarcity Hypothesis

In today's society most individuals occupy multiple roles. Goode (1960) suggest that multiple roles lead to interrole conflict and role strain. He defines role strain as "the felt difficulty in performing role obligations" (Goode, 1960, p. 483). The scarcity theory postulates that individuals have a limited amount of time, energy and attention. Therefore multiple roles could easily and quickly deplete an individual's resources if not allocated appropriately (Goode, 1974). In other words, participation in one role leaves fewer resources for participation in another role. Goode (1960) argues that the more roles an individual has the more likely he or she is to deplete his or her resources. More specifically, he writes "the individual is likely to face a wide, distracting and sometimes conflicting array of role obligations. If he conforms fully or adequately in one direction, fulfillment will be difficult in another. In general, the individual's total role obligations are overdemanding and therefore, role strain is normal" (Goode, 1960, p. 485). Goode's definition of role strain is similar to Kahn et al.'s (1964) definition of interrole conflict. This depletion of resources can result in role conflict or psychological distress. Goode (1960) suggest that once an individual's role obligations become overwhelming, role strain will usually follow.

More specifically, multiple roles can result in role overload or role conflict (Goode, 1960). Role overload refers "to constraints imposed by time: as role obligations increase, sooner or later a time barrier is confronted that forces the actor to honor some

roles at the expense of honoring others” (Sieber, 1974, p. 567). Role conflict refers to discrepant expectancies irrespective of time pressures. Therefore an individual must choose between the expectations of separate roles because compliance with expectations of one role will violate the expectations of another role.

Role Enhancement/Expansion Hypothesis

Role enhancement theory was developed in response to the scarcity hypothesis. The theory suggests that multiple roles can produce positive outcomes. Sieber (1974) argues that multiple roles can be associated with various rewards: role privileges, status security, resources, personality enrichment and ego gratification. In other words, involvement in multiple roles can lead to privileges, resources, and personality enrichment that can then lead to better functioning in another role. More specifically, role privileges refer to rewards gained by participating in a particular role. For example, an individual can experience an increase in their self-esteem due to work performance. Status security refers to the idea that success in one role can compensate for failure in another. For example, success in a parenting or caregiver role can compensate for a failure at work. Status enhancement refers to resources gained from one role being used within another role. For instance, money earned at work can promote well-being in the family. Personality enrichment is the spillover of skills, attitudes or perspectives in one role being used to solve problems in another role. For example, organizational skills or collaborative decision making skills used at work can be transferred to family life. Sieber (1974) argues that these positive outcomes outweigh the negative aspects of multiple roles.

Furthermore, Marks (1977) developed an expansion theory in response to the scarcity hypothesis. He viewed human energy as a supply-demand phenomenon and argued that while individuals exert energy performing various roles, the body also creates energy to perform these roles. He proposed that multiple roles can actually increase resources and create energy and lead to well being. Marks (1977) also argued that role enhancement occurs when an individual has a balanced role system where each role is equally important to the individual. He suggested that role strain was not caused by incompatible demands of different roles but by role imbalance. Marks (1977) expansion approach examines an individual's degree of role commitment to various roles as a significant determinant of whether or not an individual experiences role strain. He argues that when all commitments have equally positive or negative values, role strain will not occur. Barnett and Hyde (2001) advocate a similar perspective and encourage researchers to look beyond the quantity of roles occupied and consider how particular roles, role combinations and role quality produce role strain. Thus, it is not simply holding multiple roles that can lead to positive or negative outcomes but the relationship and characteristics of the multiple roles.

The idea is that participation in multiple roles provides an individual with numerous learning opportunities that may generalize to other life roles/domains (Barnett, 1998). Research in this area examines positive aspects of work-family interface, positive spillover and enhancement of well being. The basis of this theory suggests that involvement in one role can produce better functioning in another role.

Scarcity and enhancement are two competing hypotheses in multiple role theory. These hypotheses examine the relationship between multiple social roles and individual

well-being. Research has demonstrated that the quality of experiences in a given role relates to an individual's well-being more than the mere number of roles occupied by an individual. Role quality correlates with better well-being. Quality experiences in one role may buffer the negatives effects of another role (Barnett, 1998).

In summary, traditional role strain research was based on the role scarcity hypothesis (Goode, 1974). The scarcity hypothesis purports that time and energy are predetermined and fixed. As a result, individuals who participate in multiple roles will undoubtedly experience conflict that will have adverse effects on well-being. Marks (1977) and Sieber (1974) challenged the scarcity hypothesis by arguing that time and energy can expand to meet the demands of multiple roles. The following discussion will highlight work-family conflict research which is based on the scarcity hypothesis. Following this, work-family enrichment research which is based on the expansion theory will be discussed.

Work-Family Conflict

Work-family conflict has been described as one particular type of interrole conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). As stated previously, inter-role conflict occurs when meeting the demands of a particular role is incompatible with full compliance with another role thereby producing strain. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined work-family conflict as "a form of inter role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect." That is, participation in work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role" (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985, p.77). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) proposed three

forms of work-family conflict; time-based conflict, strain-based conflict and behavior-based conflict. Time-based conflict has been described as pressures from one domain (e.g., work) prohibiting an individual from meeting the demands of the other domain (e.g., family). For example, long work hours conflicting with participation in family activities. Strain-based conflict refers to strain (i.e., tension, fatigue, depression, or irritability) created by the participation in one domain that makes it more difficult to function in the other domain. An example is stress from work causing an individual to be irritable at home. Behavior-based conflict refers to behaviors in one role that are incompatible with expectations regarding behavior in another role. An example is when an individual has difficulty combining an aggressive business like demeanor at work with a more sensitive, non-aggressive attitude at home.

One of the initial studies to examine work-family conflict was the Michigan Quality of Employment Survey (Quinn & Staines, 1979). Quinn and Staines, (1979) reported that 38% of working men and 43% of working women that were married with children reported that job and family conflicted "somewhat" or "a lot." Bond, Galinsky and Swanberg (1998) conducted the National Study of the Changing Workplace and found that 30% of employees (N=2,877) reported experiencing a conflict between work responsibilities and family obligations. Work-family conflict was originally seen as a one-dimensional construct. Researchers have suggested that conflict between work and family can originate in either domain (Greenhaus and Beutel, 1985; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). Now the reciprocal nature of the work-family conflict has been recognized. In other words, conflict can arise from work interfering with family or family interfering with work. Various studies have noted that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work

conflict are two distinct constructs (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992a, 1992b; Frone, Yardley & Markel, 1997). Research has also demonstrated that work-to-family conflict is more likely to occur than family-to-work conflict. (Frone, Russell, & Cooper 1992b; Gutek, Searle & Klepa, 1991; Netemeyer et al., 1996). It has been suggested that this occurs because individuals may feel more pressure to meet the demands of work in order to reap monetary rewards that will benefit their families. In addition, individuals may have more flexibility to adjust family demands around work demands.

Work-Family Conflict Research

The majority of research examining the intersection of work and family has focused on work-family conflict (Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Various studies have used different terms to refer work-family conflict (i.e., negative work-family spillover, work-family interference, and work-family tension) (Frone, 2003). Based on the scarcity hypothesis, this line of research assumes that the responsibilities and demands of work and family are incompatible. Work-family conflict is a bi-directional construct; therefore conflict can arise from work interfering with family (work-to-family conflict) or family interfering with work (family-to-work conflict) (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Gutek, Searle & Klepa, 1991). However, in the following literature review bi-directionality should not be assumed unless indicated.

Antecedents of Work-Family Conflict

A large amount of research in the area of work and family has explored the antecedents to work-family conflict including personal characteristics (e.g., age, gender,

race income, and etc.) and various stressors (e.g., job stressors, family stressors, and psychological involvement at work and home). The following discussion will highlight some of the major findings in this area of research.

Age, Education, Income, Race

The research examining age as an antecedent to work-family conflict has been mixed. Frone et al. (1997a) did not find any significant associations between age and work-to family conflict or family-to work conflict. Grzywacz and Marks (2000) reported that younger men reported more work-to family conflict and family-to-work conflict than older men. They also reported that younger women reported more family-to work conflict than older women. Frone et al. (1997a) reported in their longitudinal study nonsignificant relationships between education and income with work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. Race has also been studied in relation to work-to-family conflict (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). They found that African-American women reported less family-to-work conflict than other women. However, Frone et al. (1997a) did not find a long-term significant relationship between race and work-to-family conflict or family-to-work conflict.

Gender

Pleck (1977) asserted that men may adhere to the socially defined role of a “provider” and therefore may be more likely to experience work-to-family conflict. Conversely, women may be more likely to juggle the primary responsibilities of home and family responsibilities along with work responsibilities. Therefore women may be

more likely to experience family-to work conflict. However, Pleck's assertions have not been confirmed with the research literature (Eagle, Miles, & Icenogle, 1997; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992b; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; Burke 1988; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1993).

Family Antecedents

The quality of one's relationship with a spouse has been found to be related to work-family conflict. Burke (1988) found that marriage difficulties were associated with work-to-family conflict. Parasuraman et al. (1996) found that entrepreneurs benefited from spousal support. More specifically, spousal support was negatively associated with family-to-work conflict. Similarly, Grzywacz and Marks (2000) found that a low level of spousal disagreement was associated with less work-to-family conflict.

Parental stressors have also been found to be related to work-to-family conflict (Frone et al., 1992a, 1997b). The number of children living at home is positively related to work-to-family conflict and family-to work conflict (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Additionally, it has been reported that working women with children younger than 12 years old experience more work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict than working women with older children (Higgins et al. 1994).

Carlson and Perrewé (1999) found that family support was negatively associated with work-family conflict. Conversely, Leiter and Durup (1996) found conflict with family members to be a predictor of work-to-family conflict over time. Also time spent on family activities has been found to be positively related to family-to-work conflict (Frone et al., 1997b; Gutek et al., 1991). Specifically, hours used for family and chores is

positively related to family-to-work conflict and hours spent at one's place of employment is positively related to work-to-family conflict (Frone, Yardley et al. 1997; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Gutek, Searle & Klepa, 1991; Netemeyer et al. 1996).

In summary, various demographic antecedents have been examined in relation to work-family conflict. Age, income, gender and race have not been consistent predictors of work-family conflict. However, the quality of an individual's marriage, spousal support, family support, family conflict, number of children in the home, and time spent on family chores are noted as being associated with work-family conflict.

Job Antecedents

Numerous studies have examined the relationship between the amount of time spent at work and work-to-family conflict. Specifically, it has been hypothesized that the more required hours at work, the more likely work-to-family conflict will occur (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Several studies have found that long work hours are associated with work-to-family conflict (Burke, Weir, & Duwors 1980; Frone et al., 1997b; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Gutek et al., 1991; Pleck, Staines & Lang 1980; Wallace 1997). However, Barnett (1998) found that working long hours was associated with positive mental health and cautioned researchers not to only measure number of hours worked but other related variables that may be confounding past results (e.g., work schedule flexibility, dedication to work, compensation). He argued that long work hours may not be directly related to work-family conflict but may only be an antecedent under specific conditions. In one study that utilized this approach,

Parasuraman et al. (1996) found that psychological job involvement and time commitment to work was related to work-to-family conflict.

Job stressors or job demands have also been studied in relation to work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Job stressors have been defined as role pressures that affect the amount of time that an individual devotes to work (Aryee, 1992). Work overload is commonly studied in relation to work-family conflict. It has been defined as “too much work to do in the time available” (Aryee, 1992; Frone et al. 1997b). Work overload has been found to predict work-to-family conflict (Frone et al., 1997b; Geurts et al., 1999; Wallace, 1997). However, autonomy at work (i.e., higher levels of decision making and perceived control over job) has been found to be related to lower levels of work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict (Frone et al., 1992a; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Parasuraman et al., 1996). Burke and Greenglass (1999) examined work-family conflict in a sample of nursing staff (N=686) during hospital restructuring and downsizing. Findings suggested that downsizing and restructuring variables predicted work-to family conflict. Kinnunen and Mauno (1998) showed that job insecurity was related to the experience of work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. Lastly, social support from co-workers has been found to be negatively associated with work-to-family conflict (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999). These researchers argue that social support be viewed as a antecedent to perceived stressors and suggest that individuals who acquire social support systems at work perceive less work-family conflict.

In summary, work hours, work overload, job insecurity and organizational restructuring have been found to be positively correlated with work-to- family conflict

(Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Frone et al., 1992a; Grzywacz & Marks , 2000; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998) while autonomy and social support at work have been found to be negatively associated with work-family conflict (Carlson & Perrewé; 1999; Frone et al., 1992a; Grzywacz & Marks , 2000).

Outcomes of Work-Family Conflict

In addition to exploring the antecedents of work-family conflict, researchers have also explored how conflict between work and family roles can be a source of stress that leads to psychological and physical outcomes (Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992a). The following discussion will highlight some of the major findings in this area of research.

Physical Outcomes

Work-family conflict has been generally associated with poor self-reported physical health (Burke, 1988; Frone et al., 1997a; Geurts et al., 1999; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). Several physical outcomes have been examined including poor appetite, headache, stomach upset, fatigue, backache, dizziness, insomnia and non-cardiac chest pain (Burke, 1988; Geurts et al., 1999; Netemeyer et al., 1996; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998). Frone, Russell and Cooper (1997a) conducted a four-year longitudinal study examining work-family conflict to self report measures and an objective health outcome measures. They found that family-to-work conflict was positively related to poorer self-reported physical health and incidence of hypertension at follow-up. In addition, Burke and Greenglass (1999) found that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict were positively related to medication use.

Psychological Outcomes

Work-family conflict has also been studied in relation to various psychological measures. Frone (2000) used data from the National Comorbidity Study (N=2,700) and found that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict were both positively related to mood, anxiety and substance abuse disorders. Likewise, Macwen and Barling (1994) sampled police department employees and their spouses (N=40) and found that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict were positively related to depression and anxiety. Work-family conflict has also been shown to be related to global measures of psychological distress. For example, Hughes and Galinsky (1994) found that employees (N=429) reported that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict were both positively related to a global measure of psychological distress. O'Driscoll, Ilgen & Hildreth (1992) reported similar results using a community sample (N=120).

Satisfaction Outcomes

Allen et al. (2000) and Kossek and Ozeki, (1998) meta-analyses generally found a negative relationship between job satisfaction and work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. However, some studies on work-family conflict and job satisfaction have yielded mixed results. For example, Wiley (1987) used a sample of university students (N=191) and did not find a significant relationship between work-to-family conflict and job satisfaction. Kossek and Ozeki (1998) suggest that this inconsistency could be due to the fact that different researchers use different measures of job satisfaction (e.g., global measures of job satisfaction versus specific measures of job satisfaction).

Work-to-family conflict has also generally been negatively associated with various satisfaction measures such as life satisfaction, marital satisfaction, family satisfaction and leisure satisfaction. Allen et al. (2000) and Kossek and Ozeki, (1998) meta-analyses found a negative relationship between work-family conflict and marital satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction. However other studies yielded insignificant results between work-family conflict and life satisfaction, marital satisfaction and family satisfaction (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983; Netemeyer et al. 1996; Parasuraman et al., 1996). Kossek and Ozeki (1998) suggest that inconsistencies could be due to the fact that researchers often operationalize life satisfaction, marital satisfaction, and family satisfaction in different ways.

Work Outcomes

Most have studies used self-report measures to assess people's intention with regard to turnover, absenteeism and performance. More specifically, family- to-work conflict is related to work- absenteeism, tardiness and poor work-related role performance (Frone, Yardley et al. 1997; Howson & O'Driscoll, 1996; MacEwen & Barling, 1994). Intentions to leave a job have been found to be positively related to work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Netemeyer et al., 1996). Greenhaus et al (1997) found work-to-family conflict to be positively correlated with actual turnover. Netemeyer et al. (1996) also found a negative correlation between family-to-work conflict and self-rated job performance.

In summary, work-family conflict has been is positively associated with psychological strain including mood, anxiety, and substance abuse disorders. Work-

family conflict has generally been found to be negatively associated with satisfaction measures including; life satisfaction, job satisfaction, and marital satisfaction. In addition, work-family conflict has been positively related to turnover intentions, absenteeism and tardiness.

In conclusion, the antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict have been thoroughly explored. Antecedents to work-family conflict consist of: 1.) Personal characteristics including but not limited to; age, gender and possibly race. 2.) Family characteristics including but not limited to; quality of marriage, number of children living at home and perceived family support. and 3.) Job characteristics including but not limited to; work-overload, autonomy at work, job insecurity, and social support.

Outcomes of work-family conflict consist of: 1.) Physical outcomes including poorer self-reported physical health. 2.) Psychological outcomes including; increased mood disorders and substance use. 3.) Satisfaction outcomes including; job satisfaction, marital satisfaction and life satisfaction. and 4.) Work outcomes including turnover intentions, absenteeism, job performance, and tardiness.

Work-Family Conflict Research Limitations and Gaps in Literature

There are several methodological issues that limit the conclusions that can be drawn from work-family conflict research (for a review see Allen, Herst, Bruck & Sutton, 2000). First, although work-family conflict has been found to be a bi-directional construct, bi-directionality is not explored in every study. Secondly, work-family conflict is operationalized differently across studies which can make it difficult to compare results across studies. For example, researchers have used single item measures, study developed

measures of unknown validity, and adapted measures of unknown validity. Thirdly, an issue involving the construct validity of work-family conflict measures has to do with the use of specific versus global measures. Some researchers examine specific aspects of work-family conflict (e.g., work vs. marital conflict) while others examine how work-family conflict affects overall home life. Furthermore, although three forms of work-family conflict have been identified (i.e., time-based, strain-based and behavior-based), most measures of work-family conflict only include content to examine time based and strain based conflict. Lastly, inconsistencies in the literature are partly due to the fact that validated measures were not yet developed to examine this bi-directional construct. Newly developed measures of work-family conflict are now emerging. For example, Carlson, Kacmar and Williams (2000) developed a measure that incorporates all three forms of inter-role conflict (i.e., time-based, strain-based and behavior-based) resulting in a six dimension measure.

Another limitation to the area of work-family conflict has to do with the use of homogenous samples. Research examining the relationship between age, race, education, income and work-family conflict has been limited. In fact, most of the research done in the area of work-family conflict has been done on white middle class, highly educated workers, which limits the ability to generalize results to the general population.

In addition, research examining the effects of gender on work-family conflict has been inconclusive. Some studies have found that women experience more work-family conflict than men (Hammer et al., 1997; Williams & Alliger, 1994) and they report similar levels of job and family satisfaction. Others find gender differences in the antecedents or consequences of work-family conflict, or both (Chen & Hebert, 1997;

Duxbury and Higgins, 1991; Gutek et al., 1991; MacEwen & Barling, 1994; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, Granrose, 1992; Voydanoff, 1980) and others report a weak or complete absence of a main effect for gender (Frone et al., 1992a, Frone et al., 1992b). It has been suggested that the mediational effects of gender also be examined (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). For example, research should not only examine gender differences related to role pressures but how gender in conjunction with other variables influences work and family outcomes (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Furthermore, dispositional characteristics and personality traits (e.g. neuroticism and extraversion) have also received limited attention within work-family conflict research (Costa & McRae, 1980).

Work-Family Enrichment

Presently, research in the work-family area has shifted from the scarcity hypothesis to the enhancement hypothesis. Based on the enhancement hypothesis, researchers are beginning to explore ways in which work and family domains enhance or enrich each other. As mentioned earlier, researchers have used various terms to explore this concept including; work-family enrichment, positive work-family spillover, work-family enhancement, and work-family facilitation (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Voydanoff, 2001). In contrast to work-family conflict, work-family enrichment refers to “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). It has also been defined as “the extent to which participation at work (or home) is made easier by virtue of the experiences, skills, and opportunities gained or developed at home (or work)” (Frone, 2003).

Work-Family Enrichment Research

Unlike work-family conflict, research in the area of work-family enrichment is in its formative years of development. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) identified only 19 studies to date that have used self-report scales to measure work-family enrichment. Work-family enrichment is noted as being bidirectional, in that work can enrich family life (work-to-family enrichment) and family can enrich work life (family-to-work enrichment) (Frone, 2003). The following discussion will highlight some of the major findings within this area of research and bi-directionality should not be assumed unless indicated.

Antecedents of Work-Family Enrichment

A small amount research in the area of work and family has explored the antecedents of work-family enrichment including personal characteristics (e.g., education income, gender, and race,) and various stressors (e.g., job stressors, family stressors, and psychological involvement at work and home). The following discussion will highlight some of the major findings in this developing area of research.

Personal Characteristics

Grzywacz and Marks (2000) conducted a study that used data from the National Survey of Midlife Development (N=1,986) and assessed work-family conflict and work-family enrichment in both directions. They found that a low level of education and income was negatively associated with work-to-family enrichment for women, but not men. Their findings also suggested some age and gender specific findings with younger

men reporting less family-to work enrichment than older men and younger women reporting more work-to family enrichment than older women. In a second study, Grzywacz , Almedia and McDonald (2002) used data from the National Study of Daily Experiences (N=741) and the National Study of Midlife Development (N=2,130). Using scales that measured work-to family enrichment and work-to-family conflict (in both directions), Grywacz et al. (2002) reported that as individuals aged work-family enrichment increased. They also found that African Americans reported lower level of work-to-family conflict and more family-to-workenrichment than Caucasians. They suggested this difference could be due to childcare provided by extended family members.

Grzywacz and Marks (2000) also found that certain personality characteristics were associated with work-family enrichment. More specifically, high levels of neuroticism were associated negatively associated with work-family enrichment for women. However, a high level of extraversion was positively associated with work-to family enrichment. Likewise, Sumer and Knight (2001) conducted a mail survey using employees at a Midwestern university (N=481) to examine the relationship between work-family conflict and work-family enrichment and different attachment styles. Their findings suggested that individuals with a secure attachment style reported more work-to family-enrichment and family-to-work enrichment than people with preoccupied, dismissing or fearful attachment styles.

Family Characteristics

Grzywacz et al. (2002) found that married couples experience more work-family enrichment than unmarried individuals. In addition, Grzywacz and Marks (2000) reported that married individuals who report higher spousal conflict report less family-to-work enrichment than individuals with low spousal conflict. Grzywacz and Marks (2000) also reported that less affectual support from the family was associated with less family-to-work enrichment. Grzywacz et al. (2002) reported that individuals without children experienced more work-family enrichment than individuals with children. Kirchmeyer (1992) examined work-family enrichment in a sample of 110 business men and women. She reported that business professionals that indicated higher psychological involvement in their role as a parent experienced more family-to-work enrichment than individual who reported a lower level of psychological involvement in their role as parent.

Work Characteristics

Autonomy at work (e.g., higher levels of decision making and perceived control over job) has been found to be related to and to higher levels of work-to family enrichment and family-to work enrichment (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Lastly, Grzywacz et al. (2002) found that certain occupations (e.g., farming, fishing, and forestry) were associated with more work-family enrichment than other occupations (e.g., sales, and administrative occupations.)

Outcomes of Work-Family Enrichment

Physical and Psychological Outcomes

Grzywacz (2000) also examined the effect of work-family enrichment on a variety of well-being outcomes. He found that higher work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment were positively associated with better mental health; work-to-family enrichment was positively associated with self-reported physical health; and family-to-work enrichment was negatively associated with chronic health problems, and positively associated with well-being. Stephens, Franks and Atienza (1997) also found that work-to-family enrichment was associated with psychological well-being. Grzywacz and Marks (2000) found that higher family-to-work enrichment was associated with less problem drinking. Grzywacz (2000) suggested that work-family enrichment may help to strengthen social relationships, thereby providing a buffer against negative events and leading to improved health outcomes.

In summary, the antecedents and outcomes of work-family enrichment are in the initial stages of examination. Preliminary findings suggest that antecedents to work-family enrichment include personal characteristics such as age, gender, education, income, race and personality characteristics. Family characteristics that are associated with work-family enrichment include marriage status, parental status and psychological involvement in parental role. Lastly work characteristics that are associated with work-family enrichment include high level of decision making at work and perceived control over job. Furthermore, preliminary findings suggest that outcomes of work-family enrichment include improved mental and physical health.

Relationship Between Work-Related Variables and Family-Related Variables

Given the fact that there is limited research within the area of work-family enrichment, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) advocate examining research that has explored the relationships between “work-related variables” and “family-related variables” as a means to learn more about this developing area of research. The following discussion of studies that have also found positive relationships between experiences or outcomes in one role (e.g., work) and outcomes in the other role (e.g., family).

Income has been found to be positively associated with marital quality and stability, parental time with children, children’s health and satisfaction with childcare (Barnett & Hyde; 2001; Friedman & Greenhaus; 2000; Haas; 1999). In addition, men’s income and work satisfaction are positively associated with having children (Friedman & Greenhaus; 2000; Landau & Arthur, 1992). Furthermore, employed married women with children have been found to have better physical and psychological well-being when compared to unemployed women with children (Thoits, 1983; Waldron, Weiss, & Hughes, 1998). Spousal support has been found to be a buffer for job-related stress, particularly for men (Gattiker & Larwood, 1990; O’Neil & Greenberger, 1994).

A supportive and flexible work environment has been positively related to time spent on home activities and with children, quality of interaction with infants for men and family satisfaction (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Frone et al. 1997a; Voydanoff; 2001). For women, networking in an organization and acceptance by peers has been positively associated with children’s physical health and school performance, satisfaction with child care and family satisfaction (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Rothbard (2001) found that

psychological involvement at work was related to positive affect at work which was related to psychological involvement in family life for men.

In conclusion, since work-family enrichment is in its beginning stages of development it is helpful to examine research that has explored work-related variables and family-related variables as they relate to positive outcomes in the other role.

Work-Family Enrichment Research Limitations and Gaps in Literature

Work-family enrichment is a new area of interest within the work-family research literature therefore small amount of research has examined age, race, and gender. Thus, few studies have acknowledged the possibility that work and family can have positive effects on one another (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999, p. 395). Some of the research in this area has explored how work variables relate to family variables instead of operationally defining work-family enrichment. Furthermore, similar to work-family conflict research, different researchers use various instruments to measure work-family enrichment (Kirchmeyer, 1992; Grzywacz, 2000). Lastly, individual differences have not been thoroughly explored as they are related to work-family enrichment.

Work-Family Literature and Individual Differences

Although work-family research has evolved over the years substantial gaps in the literature still exists. As noted earlier, few studies have examined individual differences as it pertains to an individual managing their work and family lives (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). In one of the few studies to look at this phenomenon, Sumer and Knight (2001) conducted a mail survey with employees (N=481) of a United States Midwestern

university examining whether different attachment styles (i.e., secure, preoccupied, dismissing and fearful) are related to an individual's experience of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment in both directions. The results suggest that individuals with a preoccupied attachment pattern (i.e., individuals with a negative image of themselves and positive image of others) were more likely to experience family-to-work conflict than individuals with secure attachment (i.e., individuals that have a positive image for themselves and others) or dismissing attachment styles (i.e., individuals that have a positive image of themselves but distrust and reject others). Securely attached individuals experienced more family-to-work enrichment than individuals who had a dismissing attachment style.

In another study, Wayne et al. (2004) examined personality as a factor contributing to the occurrence of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. In their study, they examined the relationship between the Big Five personality traits (i.e., extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness to experience) and work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. Results indicated extraversion predicted work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment but was not related to work-to-family conflict or family-to-work conflict. Conscientiousness and agreeableness were positively correlated with family-to-work enrichment but uncorrelated with work-to family enrichment. Neuroticism predicted work-family conflict in both directions but was not correlated with work-family enrichment in either direction. Higher conscientiousness was negatively related to work-to-family and family-to-work conflict.

Furthermore, Watson and Clark (1984) conducted a study and found that individuals high in negative affectivity (as measured by the Beck Depression Inventory, Eysenck Personality Inventory and the Multiple Affect Adjective Check List) were more likely to experience discomfort across a variety of situations even in the absence of a stressor. It was suggested that individuals high in negative affectivity probably tend to focus on negative views of themselves and the world. Likewise Carlson (1999) examined whether or not Type A personality and negative affectivity account for any variance in work-family conflict. She reported that individuals with Type A personality (i.e., “individuals who are ambitious, persistent, impatient and involved in their work”) and individuals high in negative affectivity (i.e., individuals who have a tendency to experience aversive emotional states) are more likely to report work-family conflict than individuals without these dispositions (Carlson, p. 240).

In summary, examining individual differences and personality characteristics as a factor that may contribute to the occurrence of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment has yielded some insight into what types of individuals are more likely to experience conflict or enrichment between work and family domains. This is a promising area of research that may help to identify individuals who are at risk for experiencing work-to family conflict and individuals who may have an advantage in experiencing work-family enrichment. Consistent with the rising attention to positive psychology, which broadly studies human strengths and well-being, the present study proposed that optimism, a general expectation to expect good outcomes, be studied in relation to work-family enrichment. A thorough discussion of optimism and relevant literature follows.

Optimism

In the 1960's and 1970's, research began to demonstrate that individuals are not accurate or realistic in how they think. Beck (1976) developed his pivotal research on depression and characterized it as a disorder of negative views about the self, others and the future, in other words hopelessness and pessimism. Lazarus (1983) explained that many individuals have a positive denial that is associated with well-being in the face of adversity. Taylor and Brown (1988) have done research on positive illusions and discovered that individuals are biased toward the positive with the exceptions of those individuals that are anxious or depressed. These studies were a precursor to the development of the concept of optimism. Subsequently, optimism has been explored in personality, social and clinical health psychology.

Explanatory Optimism

Buchanan and Seligman (1995) describe optimistic explanatory style as a predisposition to view good outcomes as internally caused and bad outcomes as externally caused. An optimistic explanatory style has been found to be associated with good outcomes in health and achievement. A pessimistic explanatory style is a predisposition to view bad outcomes as being caused by internal, stable and global characteristics and good outcomes as being caused by external forces. A pessimistic explanatory style has been linked to increased risk for physical and mental disorders (Peterson & Seligman, 1984; Peterson, Seligman & Valliant, 1988; Peterson, Seligman, Yurko, Martin & Friedman, 1998). Seligman (1991) regards optimism as a learned

reaction and believes that people can be trained in behavioral techniques in order to substitute optimistic responses for pessimistic responses to stressful events.

Dispositional Optimism

Scheier and Carver (1992) wrote that optimism “confers benefits on what people do and what people are able to achieve in times of adversity.” They believe that “people are greatly influenced by their expectations about certain actions.” They explain that people who view desirable outcomes as possible seek to obtain those outcomes even when pursuit of those outcomes difficult. On the other hand, people who view desirable outcomes as impossible or unattainable tend to cease from trying to obtain those outcomes. Based on prior theorists (i.e., Bandura, 1977; Seligman, 1975) Scheier and Carver (1992) advocate that expectancies are major factor in whether or not an individual will continue to strive toward a desired outcome or simply give up.

Their work began by looking at situation-specific expectancies (for a review, see Scheier & Carver, 1988). Then they shifted to examining general or global expectancies (e.g., Scheier & Carver, 1985). They define global expectancies “as being relatively stable across time and context and forming the basis of an important characteristic of personality.” Scheier and Carver (1985) call this specific type of global expectancy dispositional optimism and defined it as “the tendency to believe that one will generally experience good vs. bad outcomes in life.” Dispositional optimism is often measured using the Life Orientation Test (LOT; Scheier & Carver, 1985) which is a measure of expectation. An optimistic expectation leads to the belief that goals can be attained however it does not specify how these goals will be attained.

Optimism and Psychological and Physical Outcomes

Dispositional optimism has been found to account for individual differences in adjustment. In a longitudinal study, Peterson et al. (1988) found that pessimism at age 25 was significantly associated with poor psychological and physical health some 25 years later. This relationship was significant even after controlling for initial levels of psychological and physical adjustment.

Aspinwall and Taylor (1992) examined adjustment in a group of freshman college students. Personality factors were assessed including optimism, self-esteem, locus of control and desires for control. Baseline measures of mood and student's preferred method of coping were assessed. Measures of psychological and physical well-being were obtained 3 months later. Higher optimism was associated with lower levels of psychological distress three months later. This association was independent of any effects due to self-esteem, locus of control, desire for control, and baseline level of mood.

Scheier and Carver (1991) conducted a similar study to Aspinwall and Taylor (1992) examining adaptation to college life. Participants completed outcome measures at intake and at the end of the study in order to examine how optimism was associated with changes in outcome measures over time. Results indicated that optimism was a significant predictor of changes in "perceived stress, depression, loneliness, and social support over time." More specifically, during their first semester of college "optimists became significantly less stressed, less depressed, less lonely, and more socially supported" than did pessimists.

Carver and Gaines (1987) conducted a study on pregnant women. Participants completed the Life Orientation Test (LOT; Scheier and Carver, 1985) and the Beck

Depression Inventory (BDI; Beck, 1967) in their third trimester and the BDI again at 3 weeks postpartum. While controlling for level of depression at intake, there was a negative relationship between optimism measured in the third trimester and the depression measured 3 weeks postpartum.

Scheier et al., (1989) conducted a study examining the beneficial effects of dispositional optimism on the physical and psychological well-being of men recovering from coronary artery bypass surgery (CABS). Participants were interviewed one day prior to surgery, 6 to 8 days prior to post-surgery and 6 months post-surgery. The study yielded several findings. Optimists reported lower levels of hostility and depression than pessimists. In the week following surgery optimists “reported greater relief and happiness.” Individuals higher in optimism also reported increased satisfaction with medical care, and emotional support from friends.

Furthermore, Scheier et al. (1989) reported that optimists were less likely to have developed new Q waves on their EKGs as a result of surgery. In addition, optimists were also found less likely to release an enzyme called AST. It should be noted that both of these measures are indicators of Myocardial infarction (MI).” The study suggested that optimists have several significant advantages over pessimists at 6 month follow-up including resumed physical exercise and they reported returning to recreational activities faster than pessimists. Results also suggested that optimists were less likely to have suffered an MI during the previous 6 months.

An additional study was done 5 years postsurgery with the same patients (Scheier, Matthews, Owens, Magovern & Carver, 1990). Optimists were more likely to report feeling rested after sleep and less likely to report sleep disturbances (e.g., early morning

awakenings). Optimists were more likely to report that their lives were “more interesting and diverse, and free from pressures and annoyances.” Optimists also reported greater satisfaction from friendships and from their jobs. Lastly, optimists reported greater quality of life than did pessimists. These findings remained significant even after controlling for severity of heart disease and major risk factors for coronary heart disease.

Furthermore, one study examined the relationship between dispositional optimism and “distress among gay and bisexual men who were at risk for developing acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS; Taylor, Kemeny, Aspinwall, Schneider, Rodriguez, & Herbert, 1992.” Participants were tested to see whether or not they were positive for human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) antibody status. Participants were notified of the test results and divided into groups based on their HIV status (i.e., HIV seropositive (+) or HIV seronegative (-). The study measured mood with several measures including the Hopelessness Scale (Beck et al. 1974) and subscales of the Profile of Mood States (e.g., tension-anxiety, depression-dejection, and anger-hostility subscales). Also participants were asked to what extent they were distressed by AIDS related concerns. Optimists were less distressed than pessimists on both distress variables and it was true for both HIV + and HIV- men. The researchers suggested that this study is an example of how optimism is associated with decreased feelings of distress even in difficult times.

In summary, Scheier and Carver (1985) define optimism as a general disposition to expect good outcomes. Several studies have suggested that optimism is associated with and leads to positive psychological and physical outcomes. Research done within the area of optimism has examined how people pursue goals in the face of difficulties. It has been suggested that optimism leads to sustained efforts to achieve a goal. Studies have

established that optimists tend to report fewer physical symptoms, better health habits and better coping strategies. In addition, optimism has also been associated with less mood disturbance in response to a variety of health issues including breast cancer and coronary bypass surgery (Carver et al., 1993; Scheier et al., 1989) and greater life satisfaction (Chang, Maydeu-Olivares & D’Zurilla, 1997). Because previous research suggests that optimism accounts for individual differences in adjustment, this study proposes that optimism be studied in relation to the likelihood that an individual will experience work-family enrichment.

Purpose of the Present Study

As stated previously, there has been a proliferation of research on work-family conflict. Recently the research in this area has begun to shift paradigms in order to explore how work and family domains enhance or enrich each other. Few researchers have examined the concept of work-family enrichment and its relationship to psychological well-being (Grzywacz & Marks 2000; Grzywacz, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1992,1993; Sumer & Knight, 2001). In addition, Wayne, Musisca, and Fleeson (2004) suggest that work-family research has almost entirely focused on the content or situation that an individual finds him or herself in, as opposed to an individual’s personality characteristics. Only a few researchers have argued that personality characteristics, dispositional factors, and individual differences may be related to whether an individual experiences work-family conflict or work-family enrichment (Sumer & Knight 2001; Wayne, Musisca & Fleeson, 2004). Furthermore, when individual differences have been explored they seem to focus on maladaptive rather than adaptive individual differences.

Seligman (1998) emphasizes that psychology should not only be focused on disease, illness, and weakness to the exclusion of wellness, resilience, and strengths. Consistent with the rising interest in positive psychology (Seligman, 2002), emphasis on the positive connections between work and family is necessary to fully understand the relationship between these two domains. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggested a model for examining work-family enrichment that purports that “the generation of resources is a crucial driver of the enrichment process.” Greenhaus and Powell (2006) define a resource as “an asset that may be drawn upon when needed to solve a problem or cope with a challenging situation.” They explain that individuals can acquire psychological resources that are likely to promote work-family enrichment. The authors suggested that optimism, hope and hardiness are possible examples of psychological resources that may increase an individual’s ability to use experiences and skills in one role (e.g., work role) to enhance performance in another role (e.g., family role). However, the relationship between optimism and work-family conflict or work-family enrichment has not been explored.

As previously reviewed, optimism has been found to be associated with physical and psychological adjustment. For example, Chang and Sanna (2003) found that greater optimism was associated with less depressive symptoms, physical symptoms, and less vulnerability to illness. In addition greater optimism has been found to be associated with greater life satisfaction (Chang et al., 1997). Lastly, optimism has been found to moderate the relationship between stress and psychological well-being (Chang, 1998). However, optimism has yet to be considered as a relevant individual difference that may influence the experience of work-family enrichment or work-family conflict. Optimism is

a plausible individual difference to be explored in relation to work-family enrichment because it is likely that optimism affects the likelihood that an individual will experience work-family enrichment. In other words, optimism likely affects the extent to which experiences, skills, and opportunities gained or developed in one role (e.g., work) will improve the quality of life in the other role (e.g., family)(Frone, 2003).

To this author's knowledge, this study will be among the first attempts to understand optimism as it relates to work-family enrichment. Therefore this study will merge and integrate work-family and optimism literature by exploring the relationship between optimism, work-family enrichment, and satisfaction. More specifically, the purpose of the current study was to advance or add to the current work-family literature in three ways. First, the relationship between optimism and work-family enrichment was explored as well as the more frequently studied work-family conflict. Second, the relationship between optimism, work-family enrichment and various psychological well-being measures was explored (i.e., family satisfaction, job satisfaction and life satisfaction). Third, work-family enrichment was examined as a possible mediator between optimism and psychological well-being (i.e., family satisfaction, job satisfaction and life satisfaction).

More specifically the current study will investigate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis I. The relationship between optimism, work-family enrichment (work-to-family and family-to-work) and work-family conflict (work-to-family and family-to-work) was examined in the first hypothesis.

Hypothesis Ia. It was predicted that optimism would be positively associated with work-family enrichment. More specifically, individuals with higher optimism were predicted to be more likely to report work-family enrichment (work-to-family and family-to-work).

Hypothesis Ib. It was predicted that optimism would be negatively associated with work-family conflict. More specifically, individuals with lower optimism were predicted to be more likely to report work-family conflict (work-to-family and family-to-work).

Hypothesis II. Optimism was predicted to be positively associated with satisfaction. More specifically, individuals with higher optimism were predicted to be more likely to report high levels of family satisfaction, job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis III. For hypothesis III, the relationship between work-family enrichment, work-family conflict and satisfaction was examined. Based on Frone, Yardley and Markel's (1997) conceptual model that suggest that the outcomes of work-to-family enrichment or conflict exist in the family domain and outcomes of family-to-work enrichment or conflict exist in the work domain the following hypotheses were made.

Hypothesis IIIa. It was predicted that work-to-family enrichment would be positively associated with family satisfaction and family-to-work enrichment would be positively associated with job satisfaction. It was also predicted that work-to-family enrichment and family-to work enrichment would be positively associated with life satisfaction.

Hypothesis IIIb. It was predicted that work-to-family conflict would be negatively associated with family satisfaction and family-to-work conflict would be negatively

associated with job satisfaction. It was also predicted that work-to-family conflict and family-to work conflict would be negatively associated with life satisfaction.

Hypothesis IV. It was predicted that work-family enrichment (work-to-family and family-to-work) would mediate the relationship between optimism and satisfaction (family, job and life).

Hypothesis V. The relationship between work-family enrichment, work-family conflict and psychological and physical strain were examined in hypothesis V.

Hypothesis Va. It was hypothesized that work-family enrichment (work-to-family and family-to-work) would negatively predict physical symptoms and psychological strain.

Hypothesis Vb. It was predicted that work-family conflict (work-to-family and family-to-work) would positively predict physical symptoms and psychological strain.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

Participants

All participants were recruited from Drexel University after receiving approval of an expedited protocol by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). A mass email was sent to students and staff that either attended or worked within the College of Nursing and Health Professions. Participants worked at least 20 hours per week excluding academic requirements or work-study positions. The study operationally defined “family” broadly. Family members could include a spouse, children and extended family (grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins, etc.). All participants indicated that they currently resided with a family member. Proficiency in reading English was assumed based on an individual’s ability to respond to recruitment email and complete the survey.

There were a total of 3012 students, staff and faculty emailed with the request to participate in the study. There were 308 participants that agreed to take the survey. Out of the 308 participants, 230 participants completed the entire survey and 34 participants started the survey but did not complete the entire survey. Incomplete surveys were not included in the data analyses.

Procedure

A mass email was sent from the Dean of the College of Nursing and Health Professions to individuals who were students, staff or faculty within the College of Nursing and Health Professions. The email invited participants to complete an anonymous survey and provided a link to the survey website. The survey was posted and maintained by psychdata.com. An ad was placed in the Triangle, the newspaper of Drexel

University. In addition, flyers were posted around Drexel University-Center City campus in order to solicit participation. The flyers and newspaper listed the inclusion criteria and the address for the survey website. Participants were instructed to go to the website if they were interested in completing the survey and entering into a lottery to receive a \$50.00 credit to a bookstore.

At the beginning of the survey participants were asked 3 eligibility questions: 1.) Are you a current Drexel student or employee? 2.) Do you work outside the home at least 20 hours a week excluding academic requirements and work study positions? and 3.) Do you currently reside with a family member (e.g., spouse, child or extended family)? If participants answered yes to all three eligibility questions they could proceed to answer the survey questions. If a participant did not meet the eligibility requirements they were sent to a page that informed them that they were not eligible to participate in the study. Participants were able to stop responding to the survey at anytime before submitting responses. The survey took approximately 5-10 minutes to complete. Appendix A contains the survey questions sent to participants.

Once a participant completed a survey they were invited to participate in a lottery drawing for a \$50.00 credit to Barnes and Nobles Bookstore. If a participant desired to enter the lottery, once they completed the survey, they were linked to a separate webpage where they were instructed to enter their first and last name and preferred method of contact (e.g., email, address or telephone number). The lottery information was stored completely separate from the anonymous survey data therefore there was no way to connect lottery names with the survey data. At the completion of data collection ten

winners were randomly selected to receive \$50.00 gift certificates. Those ten winners were contacted by their indicated preferred method of contact.

Measures

Survey

The survey contained items that measured the study variables listed in Appendix A and discussed below. All items were self-report.

Demographics

Questions pertaining to demographic information were included in the demographics section of the survey. Demographic variables included: gender, age range, race, United States citizenship, education level, marital status, length of time in marriage/relationship, number and age of children, number of family members in household, student status, year in school, major/concentration in school, degree status, highest degree completed, employment status, years employed, years in present position, and annual gross income.

Optimism

Optimism was assessed using Scheier and Carver's (1985) Life Orientation Test (LOT). The LOT is a brief 12 item self-report scale that measures generalized expectancies to obtain positive outcomes. The LOT includes 4 items that are worded in a positive direction (e.g., I always look on the bright side of things), four items that are worded in a negative direction (e.g., I hardly ever expect things to go my way) and four filler items (e.g., I enjoy my friends a lot). Respondents indicated their degree of

agreement/disagreement on a 5-point scale ranging from (0) “strongly disagree” to (4) “strongly agree.” The negative items were reversed scored to yield an overall optimism score with higher scores indicating greater optimism. Scheier and Carver (1985) report the internal consistency reliability to be .76. The Chronbach alpha for the current sample was .85.

Work-Family Enrichment

Work-to-family enrichment was measured with 7 items (e.g., I have developed skills in my job that are useful at home). Family-to-work enrichment was measured with 7 items (e.g., Feeling good about my family life puts me in a good mood at work). Greenhaus (2006) adapted these 14 items from existing scales in the literature (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Stephens, Franks, Atienza, 1997; and Sumner & Knight, 2001). Respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement/disagreement on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) “strongly disagree” to (5) “strongly agree.” The Chronbach alpha for this sample was .78 for work-to-family enrichment and .73 for family-to-work enrichment.

Work-Family Conflict

Work-family conflict was measured using Carlson, Kacmar and Williams’ (2000) work-family conflict measure. Their measure is a multidimensional 18 item scale that measures three forms of work-family conflict (i.e., time, strain and behavior) and both directions of work-to-family conflict (i.e., work-to-family and family-to-work). Work-to-family conflict was measured with 9 items (e.g., My work keeps me from family

activities more than I would like) and family-to-work conflict was measured with 9 items (e.g., Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job). Respondents indicated their degree of agreement-disagreement on a 5-point scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree. Higher scores indicate greater conflict. The authors report adequate reliability (.78-.87) and validity (.24-.83). The Chronbach alpha for this scale in this sample was .85 for work-to family conflict and .86 for family-to-work conflict.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured by using items developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990) based on Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh, (1979). The scale contains 4 items (e.g., I am satisfied with my present job situation). Respondents indicated their degree of agreement on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) “strongly disagree” to (5) “strongly agree.” Higher scores indicate greater job satisfaction. The Chronbach alpha for this scale in this sample was .91

Family Satisfaction

Family satisfaction was measured using items developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990) originally adapted from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh, (1979). The scale contains 4 items (e.g., I am happy with the progress toward the goals I have for my family). Respondents indicated their degree of agreement on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) “strongly disagree” to (5) “strongly agree.” Higher scores

indicated greater family satisfaction. The Chronbach alpha for this scale in this sample was .92.

Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction was measured using the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985). The scale was developed to assess an individual's overall satisfaction with life. The SWLS contains 5 items including: (1) In most ways, my life is close to my ideal; (2) The conditions of my life are excellent; (3) I am satisfied with life; (4) So far I have gotten the important things I want in life; and (5) If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing. Respondents indicated their degree of agreement on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (5) "strongly agree." Higher scores indicate greater life satisfaction. Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin (1985) report an internal consistency reliability of .87. Lucas and his colleagues (1996) conducted several studies to examine the discriminate validity of several measures of well-being; they report alphas for the SWLS ranging from .82-.88. The Chronbach alpha for this scale in this sample was .90.

Psychological Strain

Psychological strain was measured using Quinn and Shepard's (1974) Depressed Mood Scale. This scale contains 10 items (e.g., I feel downhearted and blue). Respondents indicated their degree of agreement/disagreement on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (5) "strongly agree." Higher scores indicate more psychological strain. The Chronbach alpha for this scale in this sample was .86.

Physical Symptoms

Physical symptoms were measured by the Physical Symptoms Inventory (PSI) (Spector & Jex, 1998). This scale includes 11 items designed to assess an individual's somatic complaints associated with psychological distress (e.g., upset stomach, backache, trouble sleeping, headache, acid indigestion or heartburn, eye strain, tiredness or fatigue, diarrhea, stomach cramps, loss of appetite and dizziness). Participants were asked to indicate how many times they had experienced 11 symptoms in the past thirty days (e.g., 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 or more). A physical symptoms score was created by adding each symptom that a participant indicated that had experienced within the last month. Scores ranged from 0-11. The PSI is a causal indicator scale therefore the items on the scale cause the construct and coefficient alpha is irrelevant.

Data Analysis

Creation of Scales and Coding

Separate scale scores were created for optimism, work-to-family enrichment, family-to-work enrichment, work-to-family conflict, family-to-work conflict, job satisfaction, family satisfaction, life satisfaction and psychological strain. Higher scores indicated that a participant experienced more of the particular outcome being measured. Gender was coded as (1) for male and (2) for female. Marital status was coded as either (1) married or unmarried and living with partner and (2) married or unmarried and not living with partner. Parental status was coded as (0) no children (1) 1-3 children and (2) 4 or more children. Education was coded as (1) high school diploma (2) some college (3)

bachelor's degree (4) master's degree (5) doctorate (6) professional degree. Hours worked was coded (1) part-time (at least 20 hours a week) and (2) full-time.

Preliminary analyses were conducted to examine the sampling distribution for study variables. Correlations were run to determine the relationship between demographic variables, optimism, work-family enrichment, work-family conflict and satisfaction measures.

Data Analysis Plan

To test Hypothesis Ia and Ib, that optimism would be associated with work-family enrichment and work-family conflict a General Linear Model (GLM)-multivariate analysis was performed. Optimism was then entered into the model as an independent variable. Work-to-family enrichment (WFE), family-to-work enrichment (FWE), work-to-family conflict (WFC) and family-to-work conflict (FWC) were the dependent variables.

To test Hypothesis II, IIIa and IIIb, that optimism, WFE, FWE, WFC, and FWC would be associated with job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction, a GLM-multivariate analysis was used. Optimism, WFE, FWE, WFC, and FWC were the predictor variables and job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction were the dependent variables.

To test Hypothesis IV, that WFE and FWE would mediate the relationship between optimism and satisfaction (family, job and life) a series of linear regressions were used. Based on the guidelines outlined in Baron & Kenny (1986) and Holmbeck (1997) optimism, WFE and FWE were the predictor variables and job satisfaction, family

satisfaction and life satisfaction were the dependent variables. For the first set of regression equations, the independent variable was optimism; and the dependent mediator variable was WFE or FWE. For the second set of regression equations, the independent variable was either WFE or FWE and the dependent variables were job satisfaction, family satisfaction, life satisfaction. For the third set of regression equations, the independent variable optimism was simultaneously entered with the mediator variables WFE or FWE; and the dependent variables were job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Sobel's post hoc tests were performed to test for mediation.

To test Hypothesis V, that WFE, FWE, WFC, and FWC would predict physical symptoms and psychological strain, a GLM-multivariate analysis was used. WFE, FWE, WFC, and FWC were the predictor variables and physical symptoms and psychological strain were the dependent variables.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Participants

Preliminary power analysis revealed that a sample size of 103 was necessary for a medium effect size power of .80. The current study exceeded that requirement by enlisting 230 participants. Demographic data presented in Table 1 indicates that of the 230 participants, 32 (13.9%) were male and 198 (86.1%) were female. One hundred and eighty-five participants (80.4%) indicated that they were Caucasian; 27 participants (11.7%) indicated that they were African American; 7 participants (3.0%) indicated that they were Asian; 6 participants (2.6%) indicated that they were Hispanic; 5 participants (2.2%) identified their race as "Other". Twenty-three participants (10%) were in the 18-25 age range; 26 participants (11.3%) were in the 26-30 age range; 57 participants (24.8%) were in the 31-40 age range; 81 participants (35.2%) were in the 41-50 age range; 38 participants (16.5%) were in the 51-60 age range; and 5 (2.2%) participants were in the 61 or older age range. One hundred and eighty-seven participants (81.3%) indicated that they were either married or unmarried and presently living with their partner. Forty-three participants (18.7%) indicated that they were married or unmarried and not presently living with a partner. Sixty-eight participants (29.6%) indicated that they did not have children; 141 participants (61.3%) had 1-3 children, and 21 participants (9.1%) had 4 or more children.

Twenty-eight participants (12.2%) indicated that their highest degree completed was a high school diploma; 51 participants (22.2%) indicated that their highest degree completed was some college; 100 participants (43.5%) indicated that their highest degree

completed was a bachelor's degree; 35 participants (15.2%) indicated that their highest degree completed was a master's degree; 13 participants (5.7%) indicated that their highest degree completed was a doctorate degree; and 3 participants (1.3%) indicated that their highest degree completed was a professional degree (e.g., law or medicine). One hundred and ninety-eight participants (86.1) reported that they were currently a student and 32 participants (13.9%) indicate that they were not a student.

One hundred and seventy-five participants (76.1%) indicated that they worked full-time and 55 participants (23.9%) indicated that they worked part-time. Participant personal income varied with 6 participants (2.6%) reporting income less than \$5,000, 31 participants (13.5%) reporting income in the 5,000-24,999 range; 49 participants (21.3%) reporting income in the 25,000-49,999 range; 124 participants (53.9%) reporting income in the 50,000-99,999 range; 18 participants (7.8%) reporting income in the 100,000-199,999 range; and 1 participant (.4%) reporting income 200,000 or more.

Preliminary Analyses

Sampling Distribution

The sampling distribution was examined for the following dependent variables: work-to-family enrichment (WFE), family-to-work enrichment (FWE), work-to-family conflict (WFC), family-to-work conflict (FWC), job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Statistical tests of normality and examination of histograms and normal probability plots revealed that all variables met the assumption of normality.

Correlations

Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to identify relationships between the demographic variable, independent variables and the outcomes measures. Table 2 presents the correlations among the demographic variables and optimism, WFE, FWE, WFC, FWC, job satisfaction, family satisfaction, life satisfaction, psychological strain, and physical symptoms. Means and standard deviations for all outcome measures are presented in Table 3. Several demographic variables and dependent variables were significantly correlated with one another. Gender was positively correlated with family satisfaction ($r = .13, p = .050$) and negatively correlated with psychological strain ($r = -.14, p = .040$). Thus, women were more likely to report family satisfaction and less likely to report psychological strain than men. Age range was positively correlated with optimism ($r = .24, p < .001$), WFE ($r = .20, p = .002$), job satisfaction ($r = .26, p < .001$), family satisfaction ($r = .22, p = .001$), and life satisfaction ($r = .20, p = .003$), and negatively correlated with psychological strain ($r = -.17, p = .011$), and physical symptoms ($r = -.16, p = .013$). Thus, the older the individual the more likely they were to report job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. In addition, the older the individual the less likely they were to report psychological strain and physical symptoms.

Marital status was positively correlated with optimism ($r = .15, p = .022$), WFE ($r = .15, p = .025$), family satisfaction ($r = .23, p < .001$), and life satisfaction ($r = .25, p < .001$) and negatively correlated with FWC ($r = -.17, p = .010$). Thus, if an individual was married or living with a partner they were more likely to report optimism, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction than individuals who were not married or living with a partner. In addition, if an individual was married or living with a partner they were less

likely to report FWC than individuals who were not married or living with a partner. Number of children was positively correlated with optimism ($r = .14, p = .034$), WFE ($r = .16, p = .015$), and family satisfaction ($r = .18, p = .006$). Thus, individuals with more children were more likely to report family satisfaction than individuals with fewer children. Hours worked was negatively correlated with FWE ($r = -.19, p = .003$). Thus, if an individual worked full-time they were less likely to report FWE than an individual who worked part-time. Education was positively correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .18, p = .005$), family satisfaction ($r = .16, p = .014$), life satisfaction ($r = .19, p = .004$), and negatively correlated with psychological strain ($r = -.13, p = .047$) and physical symptoms ($r = -.17, p = .008$). Thus, the higher an individual's level of education the more likely they were to report job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction than individuals with a lower level of education. In addition, the higher an individual's level of education the less likely they were to report psychological strain and physical symptoms. Income was positively correlated with optimism ($r = .20, p = .003$), WFE ($r = .19, p = .005$), job satisfaction ($r = .16, p = .019$), family satisfaction ($r = .20, p = .003$), and life satisfaction ($r = .21, p = .001$), and negatively correlated with FWC ($r = -.13, p = .046$), psychological strain ($r = -.15, p = .020$), and physical symptoms ($r = -.17, p = .010$). Thus, the higher an individual's income the more likely they were to report optimism, job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction. In addition, the higher an individual's income the less likely they were to report FWC, psychological strain and physical symptoms.

Analyses

Hypothesis Ia & Ib-Optimism, Enrichment, and Conflict

Hypothesis Ia & Ib stated that optimism would be positively associated with WFE, FWE, and negatively associated with WFC, and FWC. A General Linear Model (GLM)-multivariate analysis was used to test these hypotheses. Optimism was entered into the model as the independent variable and WFE, FWE, WFC and FWC were the dependent variables. Findings presented in Table 4 suggest that optimism was significantly associated with at least one dependent variable $F(4,225) = 19.64, p < .001$. More specifically, results indicated that optimism was positively associated with WFE and FWE and negatively associated with WFC and FWC; WFE ($\beta = .405, p < .001$), FWE ($\beta = .247, p < .001$), WFC ($\beta = -.477, p < .001$), FWC ($\beta = -.380, p < .001$). These findings fully support hypotheses Ia & Ib.

Hypothesis II, IIIa & IIIb-Optimism, Enrichment, Conflict and Satisfaction

Hypothesis II stated that optimism would be positively associated with job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction. Hypothesis IIIa stated that WFE would be positively associated with family satisfaction and FWE would be positively associated with job satisfaction. It was also stated that WFE and FWE would be positively associated with life satisfaction. Hypothesis IIIb stated that WFC would be negatively associated with family satisfaction and FWC would be negatively associated with job satisfaction. It was also stated that WFC and FWC would be negatively associated with life satisfaction. A General Linear Model (GLM)-multivariate analysis was used to test these hypotheses. Optimism, WFE, FWE, WFC and FWC were entered

into the model as the independent variables and the satisfaction measures were the dependent variables.

Findings presented in Table 5 suggest that all four independent variables were significantly associated with at least one dependent variable; optimism $F(3,222) = 12.61$, $p < .001$, WFE $F(3,222) = 9.27$, $p < .001$, FWE $F(3,222) = 5.68$, $p = .001$, WFC $F(3,222) = 4.41$, $p = .005$, and FWC $F(3,222) = 4.10$, $p = .007$. More specifically, results suggested that optimism was positively associated with all three dependent variables; job satisfaction ($\beta = .241$, $p = .010$), family satisfaction ($\beta = .347$, $p < .001$), and life satisfaction ($\beta = .434$, $p < .001$), which fully supports hypothesis II. WFE was also positively associated with all three dependent variables; job satisfaction ($\beta = .427$, $p < .001$), family satisfaction ($\beta = .374$, $p < .001$), and life satisfaction ($\beta = .309$, $p < .001$), which supports hypothesis IIIa. FWE was positively associated with two dependent variables; family satisfaction ($\beta = .275$, $p = .004$), and life satisfaction ($\beta = .312$, $p < .001$), which partially supports hypothesis IIIa. WFC was negatively associated with only one dependent variable; job satisfaction ($\beta = -.278$, $p = .005$), which does not support hypothesis IIIb. FWC was negatively associated with two dependent variables; family satisfaction ($\beta = -.255$, $p = .019$), and life satisfaction ($\beta = -.214$, $p = .019$), which partially supports hypothesis IIIb.

Hypothesis IV- Optimism, Enrichment, and Satisfaction

Hypothesis IV stated that WFE and FWE would mediate the relationship between optimism and satisfaction (job, family and life). A series of linear regressions were performed to test these hypotheses. To test mediation “1) the predictor must be

significantly associated with the mediator, 2) the predictor must be significantly associated with the dependent variable, and 3) the mediator must be significantly associated with the dependent variable, and the impact of the predictor on the dependent measure must be less after controlling for the mediator” (Holmbeck, 1997, p. 602). Furthermore, Sobel’s post hoc test for mediation were performed because as Holmbeck (2002) explains, even when all three mediation conditions have been met, post hoc probing of the mediated effects is often necessary to determine actual significance and type of mediation (i.e., full or partial).

Mediation Analyses for Optimism, WFE and Job Satisfaction. As per Holmbeck (1997), Table 6 includes a series of regressions analyses that were conducted to test if WFE mediates the relationship between optimism and job satisfaction. In the first regression analysis including optimism as the independent variable and WFE as the dependent (mediator) variable, optimism significantly accounted for a portion of the variance in WFE ($\beta = .405, p < .001$); therefore criterion 1 was met. In the second regression analysis with optimism as the independent variable and the job satisfaction as the dependent variable, optimism was positively associated with a significant portion of the variance in job satisfaction ($\beta = .503, p < .001$); resulting in criterion 2 being met. In the third regression analysis, with optimism and WFE entered simultaneously as predictor variables and job satisfaction as the criterion variable, the β coefficient for optimism was reduced to .280, but remained significantly associated with job satisfaction ($t = 3.12, p = .002$) suggesting that full mediation may not be the mechanism through which optimism and job satisfaction are related. WFE was also positively associated with a significant

portion of the variance in job satisfaction ($t = 5.91, p < .001$), suggesting that mediation may be the mechanism through which optimism and job satisfaction are related. Since condition 3 was met for mediation, Sobel's post hoc test was performed to identify the specific type of mediation. Sobel's post hoc test yielded significant results ($z = 4.52, p < .001$) suggesting that WFE acts as a partial mediator between optimism and job satisfaction, thus providing support for hypothesis IV.

Mediation Analyses for Optimism, FWE and Job Satisfaction. Table 6 includes a series of regressions analyses that were conducted to test mediation whether FWE is a mediator between optimism and job satisfaction. In the first regression analysis including optimism as the independent variable and FWE as the dependent (mediator) variable, optimism was positively associated with a significant portion of the variance in FWE ($\beta = .247, p < .001$); therefore criterion 1 was met. As reported earlier optimism was positively associated with a significant portion of the variance in job satisfaction ($\beta = .503, p < .001$); resulting in criterion 2 being met. In the third regression, with optimism and FWE entered simultaneously as predictor variables and job satisfaction as the criterion variable, the β coefficient for optimism was reduced to .418, but remained significantly associated with job satisfaction ($t = 4.76, p < .001$). FWE was also associated with a significant portion of the variance in job satisfaction ($t = 3.79, p < .001$), suggesting that mediation may be the mechanism through which optimism and job satisfaction are related. Since condition 3 was met for mediation, Sobel's post hoc test was performed to identify the specific type of mediation. Sobel's post hoc test yielded significant results ($z = 2.76, p <$

.001) suggesting that WFE acts as a partial mediator between optimism and job satisfaction, thus providing support for hypothesis IV.

Mediation Analyses for Optimism, WFE and Family Satisfaction. Table 7 includes a series of regressions analyses that were conducted to test if WFE is a mediator between optimism and family satisfaction. As reported earlier optimism is positively associated with a significant portion of the variance in WFE ($\beta = .405, p < .001$); therefore criterion 1 was met. In the second regression analysis with optimism as the independent variable and the family satisfaction as the dependent variable, optimism was positively associated with a significant portion of the variance in family satisfaction ($\beta = .596, p < .001$); resulting in criterion 2 being met. In the third regression analysis, with optimism and WFE entered simultaneously as predictor variables and family satisfaction as the criterion variable, the β coefficient for optimism was reduced to .388, but remained a significant predictor of family satisfaction ($t = 4.49, p < .001$). WFE was also positively associated with a significant portion of the variance in family satisfaction ($t = 5.68, p < .001$), suggesting that mediation may be the mechanism through which optimism and family satisfaction are related. Since condition 3 was met for mediation, Sobel's post hoc test was performed to identify the specific type of mediation. The Sobel's post hoc test yielded significant results ($z = 4.40, p < .001$) suggesting that WFE acts as a partial mediator between optimism and job satisfaction, thus providing support for hypothesis IV.

Mediation Analyses for Optimism, FWE and Family Satisfaction. Table 7 includes a series of regressions analyses that were conducted to test if FWE functions as a mediator between optimism and family satisfaction. In the first regression analysis including optimism as the independent variable and FWE as the dependent (mediator) variable, optimism was positively associated with a significant portion of the variance in FWE ($\beta = .247, p < .001$); therefore criterion 1 was met. As reported earlier optimism is significant associated with a portion of the variance in family satisfaction ($\beta = .596, p < .001$); resulting in criterion 2 being met. In the third regression analysis, with optimism and FWE entered simultaneously as predictor variables and family satisfaction as the criterion variable, the β coefficient for optimism was reduced to .487, but remained a significant predictor of family satisfaction ($t = 5.92, p < .001$). FWE was also positively associated with a significant portion of the variance in family satisfaction ($t = 5.08, p < .001$), suggesting that mediation may be the mechanism through which optimism and family satisfaction are related. Since condition 3 was met for mediation, Sobel's post hoc test was performed to identify the specific type of mediation. The Sobel's post hoc test yielded significant results ($z = 3.17, p < .05$) suggesting that WFE acts as a partial mediator between optimism and job satisfaction, thus providing support for hypothesis IV.

Mediation Analyses for Optimism, WFE and Life Satisfaction. Table 8 includes a series of regressions analyses that were conducted to test if WFE was a mediator between optimism and life satisfaction. As reported earlier optimism was positively associated with a significant portion of the variance in WFE ($\beta = .405, p < .001$); therefore criterion

1 was met. In the second regression analysis with optimism as the independent variable and the life satisfaction as the dependent variable, optimism was positively associated with a significant portion of the variance in life satisfaction ($\beta = .741, p < .001$); resulting in criterion 2 being met. In the third regression analysis, with optimism and WFE entered simultaneously as predictor variables and life satisfaction as the criterion variable, the β coefficient for optimism was reduced to .527, but remained a significant predictor of life satisfaction ($t = 7.09, p < .001$). WFE was also positively associated with a significant portion of the variance in life satisfaction ($t = 6.84, p < .001$), suggesting that mediation may be the mechanism through which optimism and life satisfaction are related. Since condition 3 was met for full mediation, Sobel's post hoc test was performed to identify the specific type of mediation. The Sobel's post hoc test yielded significant results ($z = 4.90, p < .001$) suggesting that WFE acts as a partial mediator between optimism and job satisfaction, thus supporting hypothesis IV.

Mediation Analyses for Optimism, FWE and Life Satisfaction. Table 8 includes a series of regressions analyses that were conducted to test if FWE was a mediator between optimism and life satisfaction. In the first regression analysis including optimism as the independent variable and FWE as the dependent (mediator) variable, optimism was associated with a significant portion of the variance in FWE ($\beta = .247, p < .001$); therefore criterion 1 was met. As reported earlier optimism is associated with a significant portion of the variance in life satisfaction ($\beta = .741, p < .001$); resulting in criterion 2 being met. In the third regression analysis, with optimism and FWE entered simultaneously as predictor variables and life satisfaction as the criterion variable, the β

coefficient for optimism was reduced to .623, but remained a significant predictor of life satisfaction ($t = 8.85, p < .001$). FWE was positively associated with a significant portion of the variance in life satisfaction ($t = 6.51, p < .001$), suggesting that mediation may be the mechanism through which optimism and life satisfaction are related. Since condition 3 was met for mediation, Sobel's post hoc test was performed to identify the specific type of mediation. The Sobel's post hoc test yielded significant results ($z = 3.43, p < .001$) suggesting that WFE acts as a partial mediator between optimism and job satisfaction, thus providing support for hypothesis IV.

Hypothesis Va & Vb-Enrichment, Conflict, Psychological Strain and Physical Symptoms

Hypothesis Va stated that WFE and FWE would be negatively associated with psychological strain and physical symptoms. Hypothesis Vb stated that WFC and FWC would be positively associated with WFC, and FWC psychological strain and physical symptoms. A General Linear Model (GLM)-multivariate analysis was used to test these hypotheses. WFE, FWE, WFC and FWC were entered into the model as the independent variables and psychological strain and physical symptoms were the dependent variables. Findings presented in Table 9 suggest that only 2 independent variables significantly predicted at least one dependent variable; FWE $F(2,224) = 6.03, p = .003$, WFC $F(2,224) = 6.87, p = .001$. More specifically, results suggested that FWE was negatively associated with psychological strain ($\beta = -.214, p = .001$). WFC was positively associated with psychological strain ($\beta = .236, p < .001$) therefore hypotheses Va & Vb were partially supported.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The primary goal of this study was to examine the relationship between optimism and work-family enrichment and their influence on psychological well-being. Contrary to the plethora of research on how an individual's work and family lives can conflict, research in the area of work and family has recently begun to explore how an individual's work and family lives may enrich each other. Furthermore, work-family research is beginning to examine how individual differences may affect an individual's subjective experience of their work and family lives. The current study explored optimism in relation to work-family enrichment because optimism has been shown to account for individual differences in adjustment (e.g., Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992) and may therefore affect the likelihood of an individual experiencing work-family enrichment. In other words, the likelihood that an individual will experience work-family enrichment may be based on an individual's perception of a given situation. For example, when a highly optimistic person is faced with conflict between work and family they may be more likely to search for a feasible solution to their problem than someone lower in optimism.

In brief, this study provided some insights into the relationship between optimism and work-family enrichment. As was hypothesized, results indicated that optimism was associated with work-family enrichment and work-family conflict as well as job, family and life satisfaction measures. Findings also indicated that WFE and WFC were also associated with some forms of satisfaction. In addition, the results of this study indicated that WFE and FWE partially mediated the relationship between optimism and satisfaction, as discussed below. Furthermore, it was predicted that WFE and WFC would

predict psychological strain and physical symptoms; however this hypothesis was only partially supported.

Major Findings

Hypotheses Ia and Ib examined the relationships among optimism, work-family enrichment and work-family conflict. Hypotheses Ia postulated that optimism would be positively associated with WFE and FWE. In support of this hypothesis, the results indicated that optimism was positively related to WFE and FWE. Thus, those individuals that generally expected good outcomes were more likely to report having experiences in one role (e.g., work role) improve the quality of life in the other role (e.g., family role). Research in the area of optimism has repeatedly demonstrated that the more optimistic an individual is the better their coping strategies (e.g., Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992). Therefore one explanation for this finding could be that highly optimistic individuals are more likely to cope in their everyday lives by utilizing skills, perspectives, and confidence developed in one domain (e.g., work) to enrich their experience in another domain (e.g., family).

Hypothesis Ib suggested that optimism would be negatively associated with WFC and FWC. In support of this hypothesis, results indicated that optimism was negatively related to WFC and FWC. Thus, those individuals that were more optimistic were less likely to experience one role (e.g., work role) interfering with or causing difficulty in the other role (e.g., family role). This finding is consistent with previous research that suggests that individuals high in optimism are less likely to experience negative psychological outcomes (e.g., Chang & Sanna, 2003). Thus individuals high in optimism

may be less likely to have stressors or experiences in one role (e.g., work) negatively impact their performance in the other role (e.g., family).

These findings are important on a fundamental level because they confirm past research that suggest individuals not only experience work-family conflict but also work-family enrichment. In addition, individual differences such as optimism can affect the subjective experience of work and family situations. For example, individuals high in optimism may be more likely to look for opportunities to use skills or perspectives gained in one role (e.g., family role) to benefit another role (e.g., work role). It is also possible that individuals high in optimism may be better at problem solving and therefore less likely to experience conflict between work and family domains.

Hypothesis II suggested that optimism would be positively associated with job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. In full support of this hypothesis, the results suggested that individuals higher in optimism were more likely to experience job, family and life satisfaction. These findings are consistent with previous research that has noted the positive relationship between optimism and life satisfaction (Chang, Maydeu-Olivares & D'Zurilla, 1997). However, these findings add to the previous literature by suggesting that optimism is not only positively associated with life satisfaction but also job and family satisfaction. One explanation for this finding may be that individuals that are high in optimism generally expect good outcomes in various areas of their lives and therefore are more likely to report feeling pleased with their family and work lives.

Hypothesis IIIa suggested that WFE would be positively associated with family satisfaction and FWE would be positively associated with job satisfaction. It was also

predicted that WFE and FWE would both be positively associated with life satisfaction. In support of the hypothesized relationships, WFE was positively associated with family satisfaction and life satisfaction. In addition, WFE was positively associated with job satisfaction, which was not hypothesized. The latter finding is not supportive of Frone, Yardley and Markel's (1997) conceptual model that proposes that the outcomes of WFE exist in the domain that is receiving the enrichment. In other words, FWE should only be related to job satisfaction and WFE should only be related to family satisfaction. Also contrary to the hypothesized relationship, FWE was positively associated with family satisfaction and life satisfaction but not job satisfaction.

These findings are similar to Wayne et al. (2002) that also reported findings that were not confirmatory of Frone et al.'s (1997b) conceptual model. Wayne et al. (2002) reported that WFE was associated with job satisfaction but not family satisfaction. They also reported that FWE was related to family satisfaction and not job satisfaction. One explanation for the findings in the current study could be that individuals that experience WFE are not only more satisfied with their family lives but are also more satisfied with their jobs because of the experiences and skills from work that improve the quality of their lives at home. If one assumes this line of thinking, then individuals that experience FWE should be more satisfied with their family lives and with their jobs because of their ability to use skills and experiences from the home domain to enrich their jobs. However, in the present study FWE was not associated with job satisfaction. Wayne et al. (2002) noted further theoretical development is necessary to fully understand how work-family enrichment is related to various outcomes. However these preliminary findings suggest

that WFE and FWE are not related to specific outcomes and that both could lead to job satisfaction and/or family satisfaction.

Hypothesis IIIb suggested that WFC would be negatively associated with family satisfaction and FWC would be negatively associated with job satisfaction. It was also predicted that WFC and FWC would both be negatively associated with life satisfaction. Contrary to the hypothesized relationship, WFC was negatively associated with only job satisfaction and not significantly associated family or life satisfaction. Likewise, FWC was negatively associated with only family satisfaction and not significantly associated with job or life satisfaction. Similar to the results of hypothesis IIIa, the results of the hypothesis IIIb did not support Frone et al.'s (1997b) conceptual model that suggest that when involvement in one role interferes with the participation in another role the quality of life in the second role is diminished. In other words, according to Frone et al.'s (1997b) conceptual model WFC should have been significantly associated with family satisfaction and FWC should have been associated with job satisfaction. However the current study's findings are partially consistent with Wayne et al.'s (2002) study that also found that FWC was negatively related to family satisfaction.

The general findings for Hypotheses IIIa and IIIb suggest that enrichment and conflict are associated with satisfaction outcomes in the originating role. For example, FWE was positively associated with family satisfaction and FWC was negatively associated with family satisfaction. One explanation for these findings could be that when individuals experience interference from one role (e.g., family) to another role (e.g., work) it affects how they feel about the role from which the interference originates. For example, when an individual has a strenuous work schedule that interferes with his or her

ability to spend time quality time with his or her family they may experience a decrease in job satisfaction.

Hypothesis IV suggested that WFE and FWE would mediate the relationship between optimism and job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction. In order for complete mediation to be indicated, the relationship between optimism and satisfaction (i.e., job, family, life) would have to be nonsignificant after controlling for enrichment. In all the mediation analyses, optimism became a less significant predictor of satisfaction but remained significant. As Holmbeck (2002) suggests, Sobel's post hoc analyses were used to see if the drop in the beta score of optimism was evidence that enrichment was serving as a partial mediator between optimism and satisfaction outcomes.

Findings of the current study suggest that WFE and FWE partially mediated the relationships between optimism and job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction. In other words, higher optimism was found to be directly associated with greater satisfaction and indirectly associated through its link with enrichment. Hence, optimism has direct links with job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction. In addition, optimism has indirect links (through WFE and FWE) with job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction. Thus beyond the relations with WFE and FWE optimism appears to be an important predictor of job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction. These findings suggest that optimism is an important variable in relation to psychological well-being as evidenced by job, family and life satisfaction measures which is consistent with Scheier and Carver's (1985) assertion that optimism is an important variable in relation to healthy psychological adjustment in adults. In addition,

these findings add to previous research by suggesting that optimism also has indirect links with job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction through its relationship with WFE and FWE.

Hypothesis Va stated that WFE and FWE would be negatively associated with psychological strain and physical symptoms. Conversely, Hypothesis Vb stated that WFC and FWC would be positively associated with WFC, and FWC psychological strain and physical symptoms. In partial support of the hypothesized relationship, FWE was negatively associated with psychological strain and WFC conflict was positively associated with psychological strain. It is not clear why WFE was not significantly negatively associated with psychological strain. These findings support past research that has demonstrated that work-family enrichment is positively associated with better mental health and work-family conflict is related to poorer mental health. Findings indicated that neither work-family enrichment nor work-family conflict predicted physical symptoms. However, the physical symptoms scale used in the present study was created by adding together types of symptoms experienced within a given month without controlling for prior health conditions or present illnesses which could have inflated an individual's score. These findings should be replicated in future studies to further explore relationships among these variables.

In summary, the findings of the current study fully support the hypothesis that optimism and work-family enrichment are positively related. The hypothesized relationship between optimism and the satisfaction measures was also fully supported. On the other hand, the hypothesis that suggested WFE and FWE are linked to specific satisfaction outcomes was not supported. The hypothesis that suggested that WFE and

FWE were mediators between optimism and satisfaction outcomes was partially supported. Lastly the hypotheses that suggested that WFE and FWE would be negatively associated with psychological strain and physical symptoms were partially supported.

Limitations

Some general limitations in the area of work-family enrichment have been discussed within earlier sections, some specific limitations to the present study are noted below.

Study Design

The current study was based on cross-sectional data and therefore issues of causality cannot be entertained. It should also be noted that though the current study design proposed specific mediation paths. It is also possible that the hypothesized mediators (work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment) could have effects on the development of optimism. For example, individuals that are able to use skills and experiences from work (e.g., time management skills and social support) to improve their family lives may in turn become more optimistic. Therefore experimental and longitudinal designs are necessary to help clarify any causal relationships that may exist among the variables examined in the current study. Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1999) advocate longitudinal research that uses daily assessments to examine work and family variables across time. Furthermore, they encourage the use of vignette studies as a means of exploring casual relationship because independent variables can be manipulated in these studies and participants can be randomly assigned to specific treatment

conditions. For example, work and family scenarios can be developed and participants can be asked to indicate their reactions.

Sample

The current study utilized broad inclusion criteria in order to include a diverse sample of study participants. Since past research has tended to examine work-family enrichment exclusively among married couples the present study examined work-family enrichment among individuals that were married, living with a partner or another family member. However, demographic information indicated that the current sample was predominately Caucasian, female and married or living with a partner. The current sample was also largely students (86.1%) within the College of Nursing and Health Professions at Drexel University in Philadelphia, PA. A more broadly representative sample could allow for generalization of findings across diverse individuals and occupations.

It has been hypothesized that women may be more likely to use resources or skills gained from work (e.g., social support and time management skills) to benefit their families (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Furthermore, it has been suggested that African American women may be more likely to experience work-family enrichment than Caucasian women (Grywacz et al., 2002). Future studies should strive to obtain a more diverse sample to examine the latter hypotheses.

Correlations

Previous studies (i.e., Grzywacz & Marks, 2000 and Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson) have reported WFE, FWE, WFC and FWC to be independent constructs indicating that individuals can experience WFC, FWC, WFE and FWE at the same time. The present study found the latter measures to be significantly correlated with one another however the correlations were small thereby suggesting that individuals can experience enrichment and conflict at the same time. In order to confirm that the latter findings, research in this area should continue to examine enrichment and conflict together within the same sample.

As noted earlier, some demographic variables were significantly correlated with optimism. For example, age range, marital status, number of children and income were positively correlated with optimism. More specifically in the current sample, older, married/partnered individuals with children and higher incomes were more likely to report being optimistic. The present study suggests that optimism is positively associated with WFE and FWE. However it is also plausible that the latter mentioned demographic variables may moderate the relationship between optimism and enrichment. In other words, the likelihood that a highly optimistic person will experience work-family enrichment may depend on an individual's age, marital status, number of children and income. On the other hand, it is also possible that optimism is so robust that its relationship with work-family enrichment is not affected by age, marital status, number of children or income. The current study did not assess for the possibility of these moderating variables however future research should explore possible moderating

variables in an attempt to more broadly understand the relationship between optimism and enrichment.

Lastly, it should also be noted that gender was not correlated with optimism, WFE, FWE, WFC or FWC. These findings suggest that men and women are equally likely to be optimistic and experience WFE, FWE, WFC and FWC. However these findings should be interpreted with caution given the fact that this was a unique sample consisting of men and women that were students studying to be health professionals. For example, students studying to be health professionals may in general be more optimistic because of their tendency to believe that they can help people. It is also possible that men entering traditionally female occupations (e.g., nursing) may be more optimistic than men entering more male dominated occupations. It is plausible that given a different sample (e.g., men and women in a corporate setting) gender differences may emerge.

Measures

As noted earlier, within the area of work-family research there has been an absence of empirically validated instruments. Various researchers tend to use different measure when examining work-family issues. Since the examination of work-family enrichment is an emerging area of interest with the area of work-family research, scales to assess work-family enrichment are newly developed and therefore lack extensive psychometric data. Though factor and reliability analyses done within the current study provide some initial evidence of reliability and validity, further validation methods are needed for work-family enrichment scales.

It should also be noted that the physical symptoms and psychological strain measures given in the current study were answered at one time point; therefore already existing psychological or physical health conditions could not be controlled for in the analyses. In addition, although the majority of the sample was students, no measure was used or created to assess for the possibility of “school-to-family conflict” or “family-to-school conflict.” For example, it is possible that for students “school-to-family conflict” or “family-to-school conflict” are more salient than WFC or FWC and therefore could be more predictive of job, family and life satisfaction with a student population.

Lastly, all measures used in the present study were self-report, further research in this area should strive to use a variety of subjective and objective measurements to assess work-family enrichment. For example, gathering data from spouses or other family members to assess an individual’s level of enrichment. In addition, using a combination of qualitative and quantitative analyses may yield more information.

Clinical Implications

The positive psychology movement is dedicated to researching how people can have more fulfilling lives (for a review see Seligman, 2000). More specifically, positive psychology is committed to examining how normal people flourish and succeed in various life endeavors. The field of positive psychology values the exploration of subjective experiences including: optimism, happiness, and well-being. Individual characteristics are also being explored including: courage, interpersonal skills, forgiveness, spirituality and wisdom. The recent shift within work-family research to

examine enrichment nicely compliments some of the major objectives of positive psychology. Similar to work-family conflict research, traditional psychology has adhered to a disease model that tends to solely focus on human weaknesses to the exclusion of examining human strengths.

The current study demonstrates that combining work-family research with positive psychology research may provide insight into how individuals are able to flourish at managing their family work roles. Seligman (1998b) suggest that optimism is a thinking style that can be learned by teaching individuals how to identify, evaluate and change habitual negative thoughts. Furthermore, Seligman, Reivich, Jaycox, and Gillham (1995) implemented a longitudinal depression prevention project, known as the University of Pennsylvania Optimism Program (POP) that taught children how to be more optimistic. The curriculum designed for the study was comprised of 12 group sessions that taught children how to be more optimistic through the use of cognitive behavioral strategies and problem solving skills. Seligman and colleagues are also developing a parent component to this program in order to teach parents similar skills with the intent that parents will be able to model these skills at home after the intervention has ended.

This line of research looks promising in that it demonstrates that optimism can be taught and therefore these findings could generalize to a working adult population. More specifically, psychologists and other mental health professionals could work with adults in a group or individual setting in order to teach them how to use cognitive techniques to increase their optimism. For example, individuals can learn to identify and restructure

their pessimistic thoughts into more realistic thoughts as a means to increase their optimism.

In the past, research on the antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict has led to researchers advocating for organizations to change various work stressors and implementation of family friendly policies (e.g., flex-time, parental leave, and working from home). While organizational changes may be necessary to reduce work-family conflict and to increase work-family enrichment, the current study suggests that individual differences may also play a part in the amount of work-family enrichment or work-family conflict that an individual experiences. Subsequently new programs might be developed to aid employees in increasing their experience of work-family enrichment. For example, Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) could be developed to help individuals develop skills and perspectives that they use to increase their work-family enrichment. Psychologists and qualified mental health professional could also offer consultation to organizations in order to assist with the development of workshops and curriculum to facilitate this process.

Future Directions

Research done within the area of work and family is often cross-sectional in nature. There is a need for more longitudinal studies so that issues of causality can be explored within work-family research. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) have developed a theoretical framework for work-family enrichment. The model encourages researchers to examine personal characteristics along with the characteristics of a particular role to determine if resources will be generated within that particular role. The model also

identifies paths that explain how these resources link to work-family enrichment and suggests moderator variables that may explain the likelihood of one role enriching the quality of life in the other role.

Researchers can use the latter framework to begin to thoroughly and systematically explore antecedents, outcomes, and mediating and moderating variables related to the enrichment process. Also as mentioned earlier, research should continue to explore other positive psychology concepts such as resiliency, hope, creativity and talent that may also be related to work-family enrichment. In addition, one of the major findings of this study suggests that optimism is positively associated with work-family enrichment and negatively associated with work-family conflict. Therefore, it would be helpful to further examine this relationship by investigating what other variables may moderate or mediate the relationship between optimism and work-family-enrichment. For example, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) advocate a stress and coping model that suggest that dispositional characteristics such as optimism are often associated with various coping strategies. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) define coping as the cognitive and behavioral strategies an individual uses to handle the demands of a stressful situation.

Past research has indicated that optimists use different coping strategies than do pessimists. For example, Chang (1998a) found that optimists often coped by problems solving, expressing emotions and eliciting social support and pessimists coped by using wishful thinking, self-criticism, and social withdrawal. Therefore it is plausible that these same coping strategies could mediate the relationship between optimism and work-family enrichment and work-family conflict. For example, optimists could have superior coping

or problem solving skills that may allow them to have better success at managing conflict or facilitating enrichment.

Conclusion

The current study offers a contribution to the work-family literature by exploring the often neglected side of the work-family interface; work-family enrichment. Furthermore, the current study is among the first to examine optimism as an individual difference related to the experience of work-family enrichment. Past research has examined various individual differences in relation to the development of work-family conflict, but researchers within the field have not yet thoroughly explored more adaptive individual differences or personality characteristics that may be positively associated with the experience or development of work-family enrichment. Current findings support past research that suggests that optimism is often associated with psychological adjustment, and in this particular study optimism was found to be positively associated with WFE and FWE. It should also be noted that work-family enrichment partially mediates the relationship between optimism and satisfaction. In other words, optimism has a direct influence on satisfaction and an indirect influence on satisfaction through its relationship with work-family enrichment. Although optimism was found to be positively associated with work-family enrichment, it is highly probable that it is not the only adaptive individual difference that is related to work-family enhancement. This is a new and exciting area of research that will undoubtedly flourish and expand as researchers continue to develop and test theoretical models in order to understand how individuals use experiences in one role to improve the quality of life in another role.

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Table 1. Demographic Variables

Variable	N	%
<u>Participants</u>		
Female	198	86.1%
Male	32	13.9%
<u>Ethnicity</u>		
Caucasian	185	80.4%
African-American	27	11.7%
Asian	7	3.0 %
Hispanic	6	2.6%
Other	5	2.2%
<u>Age Range</u>		
18-25	23	10%
26-30	26	11.4%
31-40	57	24.8%
41-50	81	35.2%
51-60	38	16.5%
61-or older	5	2.2%
<u>Relationship Status</u>		
Married living w/ partner	165	71.7%
Married not living w/ spouse	2	0.9%
Unmarried living w/ partner	22	9.6%
Unmarried not living w/partner	41	17.8%

Table 1. Demographic Variables (continued)

Variable	N	%
<u>Children</u>		
No children	68	29.6%
1-3 children	141	61.3%
4 or more children	21	9.1%
<u>Education</u>		
High school diploma	28	12.2%
Some college	51	22.2%
Bachelor's degree	100	43.5%
Master's degree	35	15.2%
Doctorate	13	5.7%
Professional	3	1.3%
<u>Student Status</u>		
Students	198	86.1%
Non-students	32	13.9%
<u>Employment Status</u>		
Full-time	175	76.1%
Part-time	55	23.9%
<u>Personal Income</u>		
< \$5,000	6	2.6%
\$ 5,000-24,999	31	13.5%
\$ 25,000- 49,999	49	21.3%
\$ 50,000-99,999	124	53.9%
\$ 100,000-199,999	18	7.8%
\$ 200,000 or >	1	0.4%

Table 2. Correlations for all Study Variables and Demographics

	OPT	WFE	FWE	WFC	FWC	JobSat	FamSat	LifeSat	Strain	Phy Sx
OPT	---	.42***	.26***	-.40***	-.39***	.36***	.43***	.55***	-.65***	-.27***
WFE	---	---	.53***	-.42***	-.36***	.46***	.47***	.55***	-.40***	-.05
FWE	---	---	---	-.25***	-.18**	.31***	.39***	.46***	-.37***	-.05
WFC	---	---	---	---	.68***	-.35***	-.26***	-.43***	.50***	.18**
FWC	---	---	---	---	---	-.20**	-.31***	-.42***	.44***	.15**
JobSat	---	---	---	---	---	---	.36***	.44***	-.44***	.12
FamSat	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	.67***	-.53***	-.20**
LifeSat	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-.66***	-.26***
Strain	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	.42**
Phy Sx	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Note. *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). ***Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

	Gender	Marriage	Children	Hours	Educ.	Age	Income
OPT	.07	.15*	.14*	.06	.06	.24***	.20**
WFE	.11	.15*	.16*	-.04	.11	.20**	.19**
FWE	-.01	.06	.00	-.19**	.01	.08	-.08
WFC	-.11	-.02	-.07	.08	.06	-.12	.00
FWC	-.11	-.17**	-.04	-.05	-.01	-.12	-.13*
JobSat	.09	.03	.10	.02	.18**	.26***	.16*
FamSat	.13*	.23***	.18**	-.07	.16*	.26**	.20**
LifeSat	.03	.25***	.10	.01	.19**	.20**	.21**
Strain	-.14*	-.08	-.03	.04	-.13*	-.17*	-.15*
Phy. Sx	.06	-.08	.08	.05	-.17**	-.16*	-.17*

Note. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). ***Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed). For gender, marriage and children, higher numbers mean female, married and at least 1-3 children respectively. OPT=optimism, WFE= work-to-family enrichment, FWE= family-to-work enrichment, WFC= work-to-family conflict, FWC= family-to-work conflict, Jobsat= job satisfaction, FamSat= family satisfaction, LifeSat= life satisfaction, Strain= psychological strain, and Phy. Sx= physical symptoms.

Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations of Outcome Measures

<u>Measures</u>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Optimism ^a	3.74	.65	230
WFE ^b	3.80	.62	230
FWE ^c	3.41	.62	230
WFC ^d	2.66	.77	230
FWC ^e	2.15	.64	230
Job Satisfaction ^f	3.80	.91	230
Family Satisfaction ^g	4.11	.91	230
Life Satisfaction ^h	3.63	.87	230
Psychological Strain ⁱ	2.34	.63	230
Physical Symptoms ^j	5.32	2.60	230

Note. WFE= work-to-family enrichment, FWE= family-to-work enrichment, WFC= work-to-family conflict, FWC= family-to-work conflict.

- a) Higher scores indicate higher optimism
- b) Higher scores indicate higher work-to-family enrichment
- c) Higher scores indicate higher family-to-work enrichment
- d) Higher scores indicate higher work-to-family conflict
- e) Higher scores indicate higher family-to-work conflict
- f) Higher scores indicate higher job satisfaction
- g) Higher scores indicate higher family satisfaction
- h) Higher scores indicate higher life satisfaction
- i) Higher scores indicate higher psychological strain
- j) Higher scores indicate higher physical symptoms

Table 4. Multivariate Analysis for Optimism, WFE, FWE, WFC, and FWC

Predictor	<u>Dependent Variables</u>			
	WFE	FWE	WFC	FWC
Optimism (β , <i>SE</i>)	.41*** (.01)	.25 *** (.06)	-.48*** (.07)	-.38*** (.06)

Note: WFE= work-to-family enrichment, FWE= family-to-work enrichment, WFC= work-to-family conflict, FWC= family-to-work conflict. ***p < .001

Table 5. Multivariate Analysis for Optimism, WFE, FWE, WFC, and FWC and Satisfaction Outcomes

Predictor	<u>Dependent Variable</u>		
	Job Satisfaction	Family Satisfaction	Life Satisfaction
Optimism β , (<i>SE</i>)	.24* (.09)	.35*** (.09)	.43*** (.07)
WFE β , (<i>SE</i>)	.43*** (.11)	.37*** (.10)	.31*** (.09)
FWE β , (<i>SE</i>)	.17 (.10)	.28** (.10)	.31*** (.08)
WFC β , (<i>SE</i>)	-.28** (.10)	.14 (.09)	-.05 (.08)
FWC β , (<i>SE</i>)	.19 (.11)	-.26* (.11)	-.21* (.09)

Note: WFE= work-to-family enrichment, FWE= family-to-work enrichment, WFC= work-to-family conflict, FWC= family-to-work conflict.

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

Table 6. Mediation Regression Analyses for Optimism, Enrichment and Job Satisfaction

	<i>df</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<u>Criterion Met?</u>
Optimism (OPT), WFE and Job Satisfaction (JOBSAT)					
<u>Criterion 1:</u>					
OPT → WFE	(1, 228)	.405	7.02	.000***	Yes
<u>Criterion 2:</u>					
OPT → JOBSAT	(1, 228)	.503	5.77	.000***	Yes
<u>Criterion 3:</u>					
OPT →	(2, 227)	.280	3.12	.002**	Partial
WFE → JOBSAT	(2, 227)	.551	5.91	.000***	
$Z = 4.52, p < .001$					
Optimism (OPT), FWE and Job Satisfaction (JOBSAT)					
<u>Criterion 1:</u>					
OPT → FWE	(1, 228)	.247	4.04	.000***	Yes
<u>Criterion 2:</u>					
OPT → JOBSAT	(1, 228)	.503	5.77	.000***	Yes
<u>Criterion 3:</u>					
OPT →	(2, 227)	.418	4.76	.000***	Partial
FWE → JOBSAT	(2, 227)	.347	3.79	.000***	
$Z = 2.76, p < .001$					
** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$					

Note: OPT=optimism, WFE= work-to-family enrichment, FWE= family-to-work enrichment, JOBSAT= job satisfaction.

Table 7. Mediation Regression Analyses for Optimism, Enrichment and Family Satisfaction

	<i>df</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<u>Criterion</u> <u>Met?</u>
Optimism (OPT), WFE and Family Satisfaction (FAMSAT)					
<u>Criterion 1:</u>					
OPT → WFE	(1, 228)	.405	7.02	.000***	Yes
<u>Criterion 2:</u>					
OPT → FAMSAT	(1, 228)	.596	7.11	.000***	Yes
<u>Criterion 3:</u>					
OPT →	(2, 227)	.388	4.49	.000***	Partial
WFE → FAMSAT	(2, 227)	.511	5.68	.000***	
<i>Z = 4.40, p < .001</i>					
Optimism (OPT), FWE and Family Satisfaction (FAMSAT)					
<u>Criterion 1:</u>					
OPT → FWE	(1, 228)	.247	4.04	.000***	Yes
<u>Criterion 2:</u>					
OPT → FAMSAT	(1, 228)	.596	7.11	.000***	Yes
<u>Criterion 3:</u>					
OPT →	(2, 227)	.487	5.92	.000***	Partial
FWE → FAMSAT	(2, 227)	.437	5.08	.000***	
<i>Z = 3.17, p < .05</i>					
*** <i>p < .001</i>					

Note: OPT=optimism, WFE= work-to-family enrichment, FWE= family-to-work enrichment, FAMSAT= family satisfaction.

Table 8. Mediation Regression Analyses for Optimism, Enrichment and Life Satisfaction

	<i>df</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<u>Criterion</u> <u>Met?</u>
Optimism (OPT), WFE and Life Satisfaction (LIFESAT)					
<u>Criterion 1:</u>					
OPT → WFE	(1, 228)	.405	7.02	.000***	Yes
<u>Criterion 2:</u>					
OPT → LIFESAT	(1, 228)	.741	10.03	.000***	Yes
<u>Criterion 3:</u>					
OPT →	(2, 227)	.527	4.49	.000***	Partial
WFE → LIFESAT	(2, 227)	.529	6.84	.000***	
$Z = 4.90, p < .001$					
Optimism (OPT), FWE and Life Satisfaction (LIFESAT)					
<u>Criterion 1:</u>					
OPT → FWE	(1, 228)	.247	4.04	.000***	Yes
<u>Criterion 2:</u>					
OPT → LIFESAT	(1, 228)	.741	10.03	.000***	Yes
<u>Criterion 3:</u>					
OPT →	(2, 227)	.623	8.85	.000***	Partial
FWE → LIFESAT	(2, 227)	.479	6.51	.000***	
$Z = 3.43., p < .001$					
*** $p < .001$					

Note: OPT=optimism, WFE= work-to-family enrichment, FWE= family-to-work enrichment, LIFESAT= life satisfaction.

Table 9. Multivariate Analysis for WFE, FWE, WFC, FWC and Psychological Strain and Physical Symptoms

Predictor	Dependent Variable	
	Psychological Strain	Physical Symptoms
WFE β , (SE)	-.12 (.07)	.19 (.34)
FWE β , (SE)	-.21** (.07)	-.10 (.32)
WFC β , (SE)	.24*** (.06)	.50 (.32)
FWC β , (SE)	.17* (.07)	-.25 (.37)

Note: WFE= work-to-family enrichment, FWE= family-to-work enrichment, WFC= work-to-family conflict, FWC= family-to-work conflict.

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

Appendix A. Survey Items

Eligibility Requirements

Are you a current Drexel Student or employee?

- Yes
- No

Do you work outside your home at least 20 hours a week (excluding academic requirements or work-study positions)?

- Yes
- No

Do you currently reside with a family member on a regular basis (e.g., spouse, child or extended family member)?

- Yes
- No

Demographics

Please answer the following questions about yourself. Remember that this survey is completely confidential.

Please indicate your gender:

- Male
- Female

Please indicate your age range:

- 18-25
- 26-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 50-60
- 61 or older

Please indicate your race/ethnicity:

- African-American
- Asian
- Caucasian
- Hispanic
- Native American
- Other (please specify)

Are you a United States Citizen?

- Yes
- No

Please indicate your current marital status:

- Married and living with your spouse.
- Married and not living with your spouse.
- Unmarried and living with a partner.
- Unmarried and not living with a partner.

If you have a spouse or partner, please indicate the length of time in present marriage or relationship:

- less than 6 months-1 year
- 1-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 10-24 years
- 25-49 years
- 50 years or more

How many children do you have?

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7
- 8
- 9
- 10
- more than 10

Please indicate the number of family members that live with you other than your spouse or partner.

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- more than 5

How many non-related adults or children with you?

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- more than 5

Education and Employment

Are you a student?

- Yes
- No

If you are a student please indicate your year in your program.

- 1st
- 2nd
- 3rd
- 4th
- 5th
- other (please specify)

If you are a student please indicate your major or area of concentration:

What is the present degree you are working towards?

- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Professional degree (e.g., Law, Medicine)
- Doctorate (e.g. Ph.D., Ed. D. etc.)
- Other (please specify)

Please indicate your "paid" employment status (excluding school-related work e.g., work-study positions and paid practicums):

- Employed full-time
- Employed part-time (i.e., at least 20 hours./week)

How many years have you worked at your current organization?

How many years have you worked in your present position?

Please indicate your annual gross income range:

- Less than \$5000
- \$5000-\$14,999
- \$15,000-\$24,999
- \$25,000-\$34,999
- \$35,000-\$49,999
- \$50,000-\$74,999
- \$75,000-\$99,999
- \$100,000-\$124,999
- \$125,000-\$149,999
- \$150,000-\$174,999
- \$175,000-\$199,000
- \$200,000 or more

Please answer the following questions about your family.

- 1) I am happy with my progress toward the goals I have for my family.
- 2) I am satisfied with my present family situation.
- 3) Overall, I am pleased with the state of my family life.
- 4) In general, I like my family life.

Answer Key

- Strongly Agree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Please answer the following questions about your employment.

- 1) I am happy with my progress toward the goals I have for my career.
- 2) I am satisfied with my present career situation.

3) Overall, I am pleased with the state of my career.

4) In general, I like my career.

Answer Key

- Strongly Agree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Please answer the following questions about your work and family conflicts.

- 1) My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.
- 2) The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.
- 3) I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.
- 4) The time I spend on family responsibilities often interfere with my work responsibilities.
- 5) The time I spend with my family often causes me to not spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.
- 6) I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities.
- 7) When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.
- 8) I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.
- 9) Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.
- 10) Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work.
- 11) Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.
- 12) Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job.

- 13) The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.
- 14) Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counter-productive at home.
- 15) The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.
- 16) The behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.
- 17) Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counter-productive at work.
- 18) The problem solving behavior that works for me at home does not seem to be as useful at work.

Answer Key

- Strongly Agree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Please answer the following questions about your work and family life.

Work-to-Family Enrichment:

1. I have developed skills in my job that are useful at home.
2. My job has given me access to facts and information that are useful at home.
3. The self-confidence I have developed on my job makes me more effective in my family life.
4. Feeling good about my job puts me in a good mood with my family.
5. The flexibility of my work schedule allows me to spend more time with my family.
6. My income from work enables me to make purchases that meet my family's needs.
7. My job provides me with contacts that help my family.

Family-to-Work Enrichment:

1. I have developed skills in my family life that are useful at work.
2. My family has given me access to facts and information that are useful in my job.
3. The self-confidence I have developed in my family life makes me more effective on my job.
4. Feeling good about my family life puts me in a good mood at work.
5. The flexibility of my schedule at home allows me to spend more time at work.
6. I have invested money received from my family—spouse’s income, family gift, or inheritance—in my career or business.
7. My family life provides me with contacts that help my career.

Answer Key

- Strongly Agree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Please answer the following questions about your life satisfaction.

1. In most ways, my life is close to my ideal
2. The conditions of my life are excellent
3. I am satisfied with my life
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Answer Key

- Strongly Agree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Please answer the following questions about your life orientation.

In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.

It's easy for me to relax.

If something can go wrong for me it will.

I always look on the bright side of things.

I'm always optimistic about my future

I enjoy my friends a lot.

It's important for me to keep busy.

I hardly ever expect things to go my way.

Things never work out the way I want them to.

I don't get upset too easily.

I'm a believer in the idea that "every cloud has a silver lining."

I rarely count on good things happening to me.

Answer Key

- Strongly Agree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Please answer the following questions about your mental and physical states.

1. I feel downhearted and blue.
2. I get tired for no reason.
3. I find myself restless and can't keep still.
4. My mind is as clear as it used to be. (r)
5. I find it easy to do the things I used to do. (r)

6. I feel hopeful about the future. (r)
7. I find it easy to make decisions. (r)
8. I am more irritable than usual.
9. I still enjoy the things I used to. (r)
10. I feel that I am useful and needed. (r)

Answer Key

- Strongly Agree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Please select the number of times you have experienced each symptom listed below in the past 30 days.

Physical symptoms

Upset stomach or nausea
Backache
Trouble sleeping
Headache
Acid indigestion or heartburn
Eye strain
Tiredness or fatigue
Diarrhea
Stomach cramps (Not menstrual)
Loss of appetite

Answer Key

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5 or more

VITA

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Education

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M.Ed., Counseling Psychology, May 1997

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Clinical Practica and Internship Experience

Psychology Intern, 2004-2005

University of Delaware

Center for Counseling and Student Development, APA-accredited program

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Drexel University

Student Counseling Center, Center City Hahnemann Campus

Behavior Specialist Consultant, 2001-2002

Wordsworth Human Services

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Professional Presentations

Dyson-Washington, F., Geller, P. A., O'Donnell, L., & Stueve, A. (2002, November). An examination of alcohol use, depressive symptoms and sexual intercourse among African American and Latino adolescents. Poster presented at the 36th Annual Convention of the Association for the Advancement of Behavior Therapy, Reno, NV

Publications

Geller, P. A., Graf, M. C., **Dyson-Washington, F.** (2003). Issues in women's health psychology. In A.M. Nezu, C. M. Nezu & P. A. Geller (Eds.), *Health Psychology* (pp. 513-544). Volume 9 In I. B. Weiner (Editor-in-Chief), *Handbook of Psychology*, New York: Wiley.