

Employed Women's Well-Being: The Global and Daily Impact of Work

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Published online: 28 May 2008
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Abstract Although women derive satisfaction and self-efficacy from work, the potential for stress and the need for balance of multiple roles are of great concern. Utilizing a sample of women from the National Longitudinal Survey cohort Young Women in 1997, this study develops a model which delineates global well-being, measured as life satisfaction and daily well-being, measured as depression, and tests the impact of personal, family, and work variables specifically chosen for each well-being measure. Findings suggest that in addition to personal and family variables, union membership, supervisory capacity, recent promotion, and government employment are significant correlates of global life satisfaction and irregular shifts, paid leave, and telecommuting are significant correlates of daily depression.

Keywords Alternative work · Multiple roles · Well-being

Nearly 70% of all women in the U.S. are now employed, with the majority of middle-aged women having lifelong attachments to the workforce. Many of these women have made great strides into management and supervisory positions and in full-time positions earn nearly the equivalent of their male counterparts providing them with current and future financial and professional security. The potential for stress, however, engendered by the need to balance multiple roles, is of great concern to a wide array of researchers and employers (Damiano-Teixeira 2006). Balancing work and family has nearly become a cliché with individuals, families, employers, and governments attempting to create schedules, task sharing, family-friendly fringe benefits, and work-life policies and programs to ensure this balance. Determining whether these policies and programs effectively safeguard women's well-being and actually help them achieve balance in their lives is critically important to families, communities, and employers.

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Background

Work: A Source of Self-Efficacy and Resource Networks

Women hold a global view of their lives—a *big picture*. Satisfaction with life in general is associated with self, family, and work and the many roles women hold within and across their lives (Blau et al. 2006). Family and the roles of spouse, mother, daughter, and daughter-in-law and the connections to and accomplishments of family remain central in women's lives. In addition to family roles, the employment role represents a source of self-esteem and self-efficacy. Employment, professional career growth and development, and the achievement of positions of responsibility, authority, autonomy, and challenge can be direct sources of satisfaction in life. The resultant financial and professional security also contributes to well-being (Campione 2006).

In addition to the achievements and self-efficacy derived from job and work, women seek to achieve a certain quality of life; in this case, the ability to balance family and work role obligations. Family networks can be and are often sources of both instrumental and financial support. However, given the prevalence of dual-earner households, single parent households, and single person households, and the rising cost of living for many families, family networks may be strained and unable to provide support; indeed they may drain resources away from these women (Voydanoff 2005). Reliance on family networks alone may not be enough or even possible in today's world. Employment potentially provides access to such networks from which women may draw support and assistance. Evidence of the importance of such employer-provided support in terms of retention, recruitment, and job satisfaction has been well documented (Anderson et al. 2002; Roehling et al. 2001). Thus employment represents an important source of global satisfaction and self-efficacy; and rewarding work, with access to network support systems, enhances well-being.

Work: A Source of Daily Support and Stress

Although women have a global view of their lives and may indeed be generally satisfied overall with their lives, it is the day-to-day living of their lives that often takes center stage. Employed women continue to retain primary care-giving responsibility for children, parents and parents-in-law, residing disabled family members and perform the bulk of household chores (Milkie and Peltola 1997). Women often feel overworked and overwhelmed by multiple responsibilities especially given the growing numbers of dual-earner and single-parent households (Hochschild 1997).

In addition to their personal resources; such as their health, employed women can draw from familial networks. These inter-generational networks may provide time and financial support to women. However, it may be the case that familial networks lack resources to support women and they may serve instead to demand or drain resources from them. Thus, employed women must now turn to employment networks as a primary support system. Employers may offer fringe benefits; such as paid leave or alternative work arrangements (flex time and telecommuting) to assist employees in the management of their time and obligations (Anderson et al. 2002; Brett and Stroh 2003). Certain employment practices, however, can make it very difficult for employees to balance multiple roles and may add to stress and diminish well-being. Research has shown that commitment to the company and job is often measured by employers as the number of hours on the job; for non-managerial employees, commitment may be tested as a willingness to work odd hours or shifts

(Maume and Houston 2001). However, rising turnover rates, baby boomer retirements, global competition, and the need for increased productivity have moved even the most reluctant employer to provide some assistance to employees in the management of their multiple obligations.

Conceptual Model

Empirical analyses of women's well-being often contain contradictory results for particular antecedents included in them. It is the contention here that if separate global and daily well-being measures are utilized and if appropriate antecedents are chosen for each particular measure of well-being, consistent results should occur (Bramston 2003). The purpose of this study is to develop and empirically test a model of women's psychological well-being focusing on employment-related variables. A well known model of mental health is the two factor model (Lawton et al. 1991). Two factor theory postulates that mental health must be represented by both positive and negative factors and that these factors are not two ends of the same spectrum, but rather distinct valences with distinct antecedents. While previous empirical investigations have found that each factor has a different set of antecedents, few studies have postulated a priori different variables for each factor within a conceptual model (Gullone and Cummings 2003).

The model proposed here will align the global and daily *planes* of a woman's life and her assessment of her well-being with the positive and negative factors of the two factor model and empirically test them as functions of distinct sets of antecedent variables. The global plane frames the setting within which daily life activities, the daily plane, occur. Given the framework of the two factor model, the global and daily planes are represented by Eqs. 1 and 2, respectively:

$$\text{Life Satisfaction} = f(a) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Depression} = f(b) \quad (2)$$

where the variables, life satisfaction and depression, are subjective (self-assessment) global and daily dependent variables; a is a vector of objective global antecedent variables; and b is a vector of objective daily antecedent variables. The dependent variables are subjective measures designed to uncover individual's self-assessments of their own well-being (Gullone and Cummings 2003). The antecedent variables, vectors a and b , are objectively measured to ensure consistent and reliable measurements across individuals (Diener et al. 1999) The use of the variables life satisfaction and depression to distinguish between the global and daily planes of life, positive and negative factors, is theoretically sound as well as empirically supported in the literature (Keefe and Medjuck 1997).

Data and Empirical Model

The data chosen for this study were derived from the National Longitudinal Survey, the Young Women Cohort (Center for Human Resource Research 1997; Center for Human Resource Research 1999). One thousand, six hundred and seventy employed (not self-employed) women age 43–53 were chosen for this study. This cohort and this particular year of the dataset were chosen for the following reasons: (a) data on key variables such as fringe benefits, work and workplace policies, health, work experiences, etc. were included

in this year; (b) the questions that reference well-being are incidental to the survey's primary purpose; this fact reduces the likelihood of negative and self-serving responses often found in employer and social service surveys on well-being; and (c) these particular women are members of the baby boomers, their birth years ranging from 1944 to 1954. Baby boomers represent the majority of the workforce today and employers need to engage and retain them.

To operationalize the conceptual model, Eqs. 3 and 4 were estimated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Life Satisfaction} = & a_0 + a_1 \text{ Race} + a_2 \text{ Global Health} + a_3 \text{ Marital Status} \\ & + a_4 \text{ Household Income} + a_5 \text{ Number Family Members} \\ & + a_6 \text{ Parents' Marital Status} + a_7 \text{ Financial Security} \\ & + a_8 \text{ Union Member} + a_9 \text{ Supervisor Capacity} \\ & + a_{10} \text{ Promotion} + a_{11} \text{ Government Employee} + e_1 \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Depression} = & b_0 + b_1 \text{ Years of Education} + b_2 \text{ Health Limitation} \\ & + b_3 \text{ Change in Marital Status} + b_4 \text{ Whether Smoke} \\ & + b_5 \text{ Help with Housework} + b_6 \text{ Disabled Family Member} \\ & + b_7 \text{ Support to Parents} + b_8 \text{ Support from Parents} \\ & + b_9 \text{ Work More 40 h} + b_{10} \text{ Irregular Shift} + b_{11} \text{ Paid leave} \\ & + b_{12} \text{ Flex Hours} + b_{13} \text{ Telecommutes} + e_2 \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Equation 3

The global dependent variable, life satisfaction, is a self-report single-item scale (1–4) where respondents were asked how they felt about their overall life. A single life satisfaction measure has been utilized to capture enduring feelings of well-being. A high convergence of self- and peer-related measures of subjective well-being and life satisfaction has been found, providing strong evidence that subjective well-being is a global and stable phenomena, not simply a momentary judgment based on fleeting influence (Bramston 2003).

Global independent (antecedent) variables are grouped as: (a) personal, (b) family, and (c) work. Personal global independent variables of this study are: race/ethnicity, global health, and marital status. Race/ethnicity is an ascribed status within the woman's global plane. Racial/ethnic identity has been shown to play a key role in women's psychological well-being and in particular life satisfaction especially for women of color (Amaro et al. 1987; Avis et al. 2004; Starks and Hughey 2003; Walters and Simoni 2002). In contrast, gender may be more important to Caucasian women than race or ethnicity as they tend to compare themselves to Caucasian men, rather than other women (Brett and Stroh 2003). It is therefore hypothesized that being non-Caucasian will be positively correlated with life satisfaction.

The global health measure is a self-report single-item scale where the woman was asked to compare herself to her midlife peers. Researchers have long known that evaluations are not derived from one's actual situation, but rather how one's situation compares to that of a reference group (Maume and Houston 2001). A self-rated health measure was used as a proxy for an objective measure on the grounds it has been shown to be a reliable indicator of objective physical health, is racially unbiased, and is predictive of mortality (Wasserman et al. 2005). It was hypothesized that global health will be positively correlated with life satisfaction.

Both marital status and household income were tested in Eq. 3. Marital status alone has been used as a proxy for financial resources available to women (Chipperfield and Havens 2001). However, given the changing structure and financial dynamics of households, marital status as a proxy for financial security may be less appropriate. In this model, being married is a test of the societal norm of marriage and a representation of spouse and spouse's family and friends network support, regardless of household income level (Elliot 2003). It was hypothesized that being married will be positively correlated with life satisfaction.

Family global independent variables chosen here for inclusion in Eq. 3 are: (a) household income, (b) number of family members within household, (c) parents' (parents'-in-law) marital status, and (d) financial security. Household income represents a primary source of monetary resources and potential financial security for women and their families (Kahn et al. 2000). It was measured as total net family household income from all sources of all family members residing in the household. It was hypothesized that greater household income will be positively correlated with life satisfaction. The number of family members within the woman's household may represent a source of emotional, physical, and/or financial support. However, greater numbers of family members or particular mixes of the members may represent sources of strain and lack of resource availability for women (Voydanoff 2005). Thus, a priori, the direction of correlation cannot be proposed. Parents' (parents'-in-law) marital status was used as a proxy for parents' (PIL) personal and financial security; married parents (PIL) have far greater economic resources than single parents and thus may provide a network of support to these women and their families (Cao 2006). It was hypothesized that having married parents (PIL) will be positively correlated with life satisfaction.

Although income may signal financial security, debt level is another important facet of financial security. Within the NLS data, respondents were asked whether they (and their husbands) would have some money left over, break even, or be in debt were they to sell all major possessions (including home), turn all investments and other assets into cash, and pay all debts. A binary variable was created which defines *secure* as the *money left over* response. It was hypothesized that the assessment of *secure* will be positively correlated with life satisfaction (Vitterso et al. 2003).

Work global independent variables included in this study are: (a) union membership, (b) supervisory capacity in job, (c) meaningful recent promotion, and (d) government employee status. Union membership may represent job continuity and security that is often lacking today in many jobs (Bluestone and Rose 1997). Membership also links women to work and social networks from which they derive a certain connectedness to others, as well as access to specific fringe benefits and workplace policies and protections.

Recent work has shown that women demand challenging work, autonomy, and authority to perform that work, and training and career development opportunities within their company (Campione 2006). Fulfillment of these demands has been shown to result in greater retention, engagement, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction of women. Inclusion of the variable, supervisory capacity, was based on the premise that women in supervisory or managerial positions have access to more powerful work networks, feel pride in their accomplishments, and perhaps have influence over workplace policy. Creation of the variable, supervisory capacity, utilized two survey questions for its construction: (a) do you supervise others in your job and (b) do you have a say on pay or promotion for the people you supervise. A *yes* response to both questions was used to create a binary variable that indicates broad supervisory capacity and a greater likelihood that the woman occupies a relatively high level position within her organization. This is consistent with studies that

have concluded that descriptive, objective job characteristics (such as, authority) are more clearly related to a person's health than are general characteristics (such as job title; Turner and Brown 2004). It was hypothesized that broader supervisory capacity will be positively correlated with life satisfaction.

Although a job promotion is normally seen as a good career move, the consequences of a promotion may vary considerably. The following questions asked respondents about the consequences of their most recent promotion: Did your promotion give you more pay? More challenging work? More authority? More responsibility? Given recent research findings cited above, a *meaningful* promotion is here defined as one that gives women more pay, challenge and/or authority, with or without more responsibility. An *empty* promotion is therefore one that gives more responsibility without more pay, challenge, and/or authority. Recent promotion can be linked to life satisfaction both directly through characteristics of the resultant job and indirectly through access to network resources of the employer. Receipt of a recent promotion has been shown to be associated with acquisition of training, career development, and future promotions (Smucker et al. 2003). It was hypothesized that a recent meaningful job promotion will be positively correlated with life satisfaction.

The variable, government employment status, is defined as an employee of the federal, state, county, city or other government. Although government jobs are also becoming less secure and may be associated with declining health benefits and more limited pension plans, it may be that *relative to* the private sector, government jobs continue to be perceived as more secure. It was hypothesized that government employment status will be positively correlated with life satisfaction.

Equation 4

The daily dependent variable, depression, was measured using the CES-D (Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression) scale. The scale was designed as a self-report measure and was imbedded within the NLS survey. Since the scale was designed to measure *current* level of depressive symptoms in the general population and since it is sensitive to possible depressive reactions to events in a person's life, its structure fits with the daily portion of the conceptual model (Radloff 1977). The 20-item scale measures feelings and frequency (1–4) of these feelings during the past week. A cumulative total score (1–80) provides a continuous variable as a measure of depression.

Daily independent (antecedent) variables are grouped as personal, family, and work variables. Daily personal independent variables included in this study are: (a) years of formal education, (b) whether the woman has a health limitation which affects work, (c) a recent change in marital status, and (d) whether the woman smokes. Education has been found to be a significant contributor to differences in depression levels (McKenry and McKelvey 2003; Stice and Moore 2005). Higher levels of education may lead to the acquisition of personal management skills that allow for more control in life and the development of problem-solving strategies to cope with stress (Duran et al. 2004). It is here hypothesized that a higher level of formal education will be negatively correlated with depression (hence enhance well-being).

A global comparative measure of health was the appropriate approach to the measurement of health in Eq. 3. The variable, health limitation, was used to proxy the woman's perception of her functional disability as it impacts her ability to work (Nelson 2000). It was hypothesized that health limitation will be positively correlated with depression (hence

diminish well-being). In terms of major life events, it is the act of becoming separated, divorced, widowed, or married that is most stressful and potentially disruptive to women's lives (McKenry and McKelvey 2003). It was hypothesized that a change in marital status will be positively correlated with depression (hence diminish well-being). The binary variable, smoke, was used to proxy suboptimal levels of preventative health behavior, as well as the use of a negative coping strategy (Lightsey 1996). It was hypothesized that smoking will be positively correlated with depression (hence diminish well-being).

Family daily independent variables include: (a) help with housework, (b) care giving for a disabled family household member, (c) support to parents (PIL), and (d) support from parents (PIL). The NLS survey asks women whether they receive any help with nine daily household tasks; this help can derive from other family members or from outside purchased services. Hochschild (1997) argues that employed women could convert their power at work to power at home by engaging other family members' help, and Maume and Houston (2001) argue that by purchasing services, women reduce their burden at home and have less job-to-home spillover. It was hypothesized that receipt of help with housework (scale 0–9) will be negatively correlated with depression (hence enhance well-being). Care giving for a resident disabled family member may be stressful for the employed woman due to time constraints or a potential isolation inherent in care giving (Kolodinsky and Shirey 2000). It was hypothesized that this care giving will be positively correlated with depression (hence diminish well-being).

The final two family daily independent variables are support to parents (PIL) and support from parents (PIL). The NLS data allows the construction of variables to capture inter-generational transfers of time and/or money in both directions. Although support to parents and parents-in-law may be rewarding, it was hypothesized that, given time and/or financial constraints of many employed women, support provided to parents (PIL) will be positively correlated with depression (hence diminish well-being) and that support received will relieve those pressures and be negatively correlated with depression (hence enhance well-being; Stephens et al. 1997).

Daily work independent variables included in this study are: (a) working more than 40 h, (b) irregular shifts, (c) paid leave, (d) flex time, and (e) telecommuting. Specific characteristics of women's jobs and work environment may affect their daily well-being (Pomaki et al. 2004). The two variables chosen for this investigation are working more than 40 h and working an irregular shift. Workers report that they feel overworked (Milkie and Peltola 1997) and both men and women report that they often prefer to work shorter hours (Maume and Houston 2001). Commitment to the company is often measured by employers as the number of hours on the job (Brett and Stroh 2003). Given these findings, it was hypothesized that working more than 40 h will be positively correlated with depression (hence diminish well-being).

Working an irregular shift (regular evening shift, regular night shift, split shift, and variable hours) has been associated with problems of sleep deprivation, marital stress, difficulty interfacing with family, and difficulty shopping (Tausig and Fenwick 2001). Employees' willingness to work odd hours or shifts may be a test of their *commitment*. Often this willingness becomes a condition for continuation in their job or for qualification for promotion. Given the above evidence, it was hypothesized that working irregular shifts will be positively correlated with depression (hence diminish well-being).

In response to employee's needs, many companies provide fringe benefits and work options (Roehling et al. 2001). Included in this study are the fringe benefit paid leave (availability of), and two alternative work arrangements, flex time (availability of) and telecommuting (actual use). Paid leave is the sum of paid personal leave and paid sick

leave. Paid leave has been found to be a stress moderator for employed care givers (Keefe and Medjuck 1997). Therefore, it was hypothesized that its availability will be negatively correlated with depression (hence enhance well-being).

Flex time has been found to be the most effective option to boost productivity and morale, and reduce absenteeism (Bond et al. 2004) and to be of greater interest to employed women than men. In documenting the adaptive strategies of dual-earner couples, Haddock et al. (2006) report flexible work scheduling as a significant supportive workplace practice. However, Kossek et al. (1999) found that men's attitudes toward work–family separation negatively influence women's use of flex time work schedules and Campione (2006) found no correlation between flex time and job satisfaction associated with voluntary job change.

Advocates of telecommuting cite several benefits: the improvement of employee retention, morale, job satisfaction and expanded flexibility (Blau et al. 2006; Hooks and Higgs 2002). However, recent research by Frank and Lowe (2003) found that employees ranked telecommuting's detrimental effects on career development higher than any other alternative work arrangement. Employees report significant costs in terms of professional isolation and potential resentment among colleagues (Fitzgerald and Winter 2001; Lim and Teo 2000). Thus, it is difficult a priori to sort out the expected impact of alternative work arrangements, either flex time or telecommuting.

Method of Analysis

Given that the dependent variable, life satisfaction, represents polytomous ordinal outcome responses, the generalized linear model is used to predict cumulative probabilities for the outcome response categories. The basic form of a generalized linear model utilized in SPSS's ordinal regression program PLUM is: $\text{Link}(ij) = 0_j - [B_1X_{i1} + \dots + B_pX_{ip}]$. Rather than predicting the actual cumulative probabilities, the model predicts a function of these values, called a link function. The logit function is chosen here as the link. Thresholds (0_j) or constants in the model correspond to the intercept in linear regression models. These thresholds depend only on the j th category's probability that is being predicted. The prediction part of the model $[B_1X_{i1} \dots B_pX_{ip}]$ depends only on the predictors and is independent of the outcome category. These two properties imply that the result will be a set of parallel lines (or planes-one) for each category of the outcome variable, meaning that the estimated model has one set of coefficients for all outcome categories.

Equation 4 is estimated using ordinary least squares (OLS) regression. Given that the outcome (dependent) variable, depression, is measured on an interval scale and the sample size is large, linear regression is appropriate to estimate Eq. 4.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 lists the descriptive statistics for all global variables of Eq. 3. For the dependent variable, life satisfaction (scale 1–3), 49% of the sample reported that they are *very happy* with their lives (1) while 51% reported various degrees of less happiness. Thirty-one percent of the women were non-Caucasian. The mean value for the global health variable (scale 1–4) was 1.71. Sixty-seven percent of women were married and mean household income was \$50,967. The mean number of family members within women's households was 3. Fifty-four percent of parents (or PIL) were married. Seventy-four percent of women

Table 1 Descriptive statistics for dependent and independent variables, Eq. 3, ($n = 1,670$)

Variable	Definition	Mean	Standard error
Personal			
Race/ethnicity	1 = Non-Caucasian	0.31	0.01138
Global health	1 = Excellent (scale 1–4)	1.71	0.01600
Marital status	1 = Married	0.67	0.01087
Family			
Income	Total net family household income	50,967	909.238
Family	Number of household family members	3.09	0.03300
Parents	1 = At least one parent/PIL married	0.54	0.00900
Secure	1 = Financially secure (<i>ahead</i>)	0.74	0.01014
Work			
Union	1 = Union member	0.23	0.01014
Supervisory	1 = Supervisory capacity	0.22	0.00959
Promotion	1 = Meaningful promotion	0.27	0.01029
Government	1 = Government employee status	0.32	0.01073
Dependent			
Life satisfaction	1 = Very happy (scale 1–3)	1.60	0.01500

report feeling financially secure. Twenty-three percent of women were union members; 22% of women in the sample had broad supervisory capacity; 27% received a meaningful recent promotion and 32% of women were government employees.

Table 2 lists the descriptive statistics for the daily variables of Eq. 4. The mean of the dependent variable, depression (CES-D scale 1–80, 1 = not depressed), was 36.3. The mean number of years of education was 13.5 years. Twelve percent of women had a health limitation that limited the amount and/or kind of work they could do; 9% experienced some change in marital status within the last 2 years, and 23% currently smoked. The mean number of housework tasks that women receive help (1–9) with was 3.29. Six percent of women helped a disabled family household member; 87% provided support to their parents and parents-in-law; and 16% received support from their parents (PIL). Thirty-three percent of women worked more than 40 h per week; 13% worked irregular shifts; 82% had paid leave available to them; 40% had the option of flex time available to them; and 29% telecommuted in their current jobs.

Findings

Equation 3 Life Satisfaction

To determine the appropriateness of the estimation technique, PLUM presents the results of its test of parallel lines. The test compares the estimated model with one set of coefficients for all categories to a model with a separate set of coefficients for each category. The test demonstrates that we cannot reject the null hypothesis, that is, slope coefficients are the same across response categories. The results from the estimation of Eq. 3 are in Table 3. The global chi-square statistic (analogous to the global F statistic in linear regression) $\chi^2 = 174.03$ is highly significant and signifies the overall significance of the

Table 2 Descriptive statistics for dependent and independent variables, Eq. 4, ($n = 1,670$)

Variable	Definition	Mean	Standard error
Personal			
Education	Number of years	13.50	0.05800
Health limit	1 = Health limitation	0.12	0.00700
Change MS	1 = Change in marital status	0.09	0.00600
Smoke	1 = Current smoker	0.23	0.01000
Family			
Help with housework	0 = No help (scale 0–9)	3.29	0.05840
Disabled family	1 = Help disabled household family member	0.06	0.00600
Support to parents (PIL)	1 = Support to parents (PIL)	0.87	0.01180
Support from parents (PIL)	1 = Support from parents (PIL)	0.16	0.00230
Work			
More than 40 h	1 = Hours worked > 40	0.33	0.01088
Shift	1 = Irregular shift	0.13	0.00784
Paid leave	1 = Paid leave available	0.82	0.00595
Flex time	1 = Flex hours available	0.40	0.01200
Telecommute	1 = Telecommutes in current job	0.29	0.01000
Dependent			
Depression (CES-D scale)	1 = Little depression (scale 1–80)	36.3	0.14376

global equation. For the interpretation of the coefficients for Eq. 3, a positive coefficient indicates that an increase in the independent variable will *decrease* life satisfaction and a negative coefficient indicates that an increase in the independent variable will *increase* life satisfaction. This almost counterintuitive interpretation of the coefficients is due to the construction of the life satisfaction variable where 1 is *very happy* and 3 is *unhappy*. For clarity across studies using this and comparable measures, the original form of the scale is used here.

Global Personal and Family Variables

All of the global personal variables (race/ethnicity, global health, and marital status) were found to be significant. The variable race/ethnicity, coded with non-Caucasian women as the reference group, was significant and positively correlated with life satisfaction. This finding suggests that for middle-aged women of color, racial/ethnic identity plays a key role in their psychological well-being. Global health was highly significant and, as hypothesized, was positively correlated with life satisfaction. Its significance reinforces previous findings that a single subjective health measure captures the quality of life as the individual compares herself to her peers (Maume and Houston 2001). Marital status was found highly significant and, as hypothesized, positively correlated with life satisfaction. Tested separately from household income, this suggests that the societal norm of marriage and its representation of linkages to spousal networks contribute to women's overall life satisfaction.

Of the global family variables tested, household income, number of family members and financial security were significant correlates of life satisfaction. Household income was found as expected to be positively correlated with life satisfaction (Diener and Biswas-

Table 3 Results from ordinal regression of Eq. 3, life satisfaction and from linear regression of Eq. 4, depression ($n = 1,670$)

Equation 3		Equation 4	
Variable	Coefficient	Variable	Coefficient
Personal		Personal	
Race	-0.197 [†]	Education	-0.171*
Global health	-0.657***	Health limit	2.147***
Marital status	-0.378**	Change MS	0.449
		Smoker	0.723*
Family		Family	
Income	-4.222E-06**	Help housework	0.577
Family members	0.086*	Disabled family	2.381***
Parents MS	-0.026	Support to parents (PIL)	1.065**
Secure	-0.294*	Support from parents (PIL)	-1.138**
Work		Work	
Union	0.268*	More 40 h	-0.104
Supervisory	-0.202 [†]	Irregular shift	1.266**
Promotion	-0.266*	Paid leave	1.776**
Government	-0.428***	Flex time	0.180
		Telecommutes	0.984**
Global chi-square statistic	174.036**	Global <i>F</i> statistic	6.695**

[†] $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Diener 2002). Recall that a priori, no expectation as to the direction of correlation could be posited for the variable number of family members within household. It is found that the number of family members is significant and negatively correlated with life satisfaction. This would suggest that at least for this group of women, larger family networks *within their households* may be sources of strain and drain on their own resources or that a simple count variable is not sufficient to capture complex family dynamics. Women's overall underlying financial position assessed as secure was significant and, as hypothesized, positively correlated with life satisfaction. This overarching assessment fits well with the global measurement of well-being.

Global Work Variables

All global work variables (union membership, supervisory capacity, recent meaningful promotion, and government employment status) were found to be significant.

Contrary to expectations, union membership was negatively correlated with life satisfaction. There are several plausible reasons for this finding. The rapid growth of the largely non-union service sector means that many jobs held by women (including highly paid tech jobs) are non-union. Declining union membership may be perceived by women as signaling less job security, opportunity, and connectedness, than in the past. And, historically, unions have discriminated against women and excluded them from certain occupations (Blau et al. 2006).

Both variables, supervisory capacity and recent meaningful promotion, were found to be significant and positively correlated as hypothesized with life satisfaction. This reinforces

recent research findings that fulfillment of women's demands for challenging work, autonomy, and authority in their jobs as well as career development opportunities results in greater retention, engagement, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction of women. Government employment status was found to be highly significant and positively correlated as hypothesized with life satisfaction. Perhaps in today's churning labor markets, government employment is still perceived to represent greater job security, access to fringe benefits, and job flexibility for women. This finding may also reflect expanded access to government jobs for women that resulted from governments' affirmative action and equal opportunity policies (Blau et al. 2006).

Equation 4 Depression

The results from the estimation of Eq. 4 are in Table 3. The global F statistic, $F = 6.695$, is highly significant and signifies the overall significance of the daily equation.

Daily Personal and Family Variables

Of the daily personal variables tested, the variables education, health limitation, and smoking were found to be significant. The education variable, used as a proxy for the ability to problem-solve and adapt to change, was found to be significant and negatively correlated as hypothesized with depression (hence enhances well-being). The variable, health limitation, used to proxy functional disability in work, was found to be highly significant and positively correlated as hypothesized with depression (hence diminishes well-being). The variable, whether a woman smokes or not, used to proxy sub-optimal levels of preventive health behavior, as well as a negative coping strategy, was found to be significant and positively correlated as hypothesized with depression (hence diminishes well-being).

Of the daily family variables tested, care giving of a disabled household family member, giving support to parents (or parents-in-law), and receiving support from parents (or parents-in-law) were highly significant. Care giving of a disabled household family member was highly significant and positively correlated as hypothesized with depression (hence diminishes well-being). Support to parents (PIL) and support from parents (PIL), representing inter-generational transfers of time and/or money between women and their parents and parents-in-law were found to be highly significant. Support provided to parents (PIL) was positively correlated with depression (hence diminishes well-being) and support received from their parents (PIL) was negatively correlated with depression (hence enhances well-being).

Daily Work Variables

Working an irregular shift was found to be highly significant and, as hypothesized, positively correlated with depression (hence diminishes well-being). As stated earlier, working an irregular shift has been associated with problems of sleep deprivation, marital stress, difficulty interfacing with family, and difficulty shopping. If an employee's willingness to work these shifts is used as a measure of commitment to the job and as the basis for future retention and promotion, this could only add to the difficulties already noted.

The fringe benefit, paid leave, was found to be highly significant but, contrary to hypothesized expectations, its availability was *positively* correlated with depression. There

are several plausible explanations for this finding. Paid leave could be used as a *quick fix* solution (and even a very effective one), but its use may signal deeper feelings of imbalance and a need for a more permanent solution. Women themselves may view its use as a *copout* and may resent having to use it for family–work emergencies. Employers may view paid leave, especially sick leave, as a privilege, not a right, and communicate to employees that it should be sparingly used. Co-workers may resent picking up the slack for the missing person (Anderson et al. 2002). And perhaps reflective of the impact of the Family Medical Leave Act (FMLA), employers may be signaling (either directly or indirectly) that unpaid leave of FLMA is the preferred mechanism to deal with at least some contingencies (Blau et al. 2006).

Of the two alternative work arrangements tested, telecommuting was highly significant but contrary to hypothesized expectations it was *positively* correlated with depression (hence diminishes well-being). This finding supports earlier findings that employees worry about loss of face time and the potential for fewer professional career development opportunities as well as the appearance of lack of commitment to their company. It is somewhat disappointing that the second alternative work arrangement variable, flex time, was not found to be significant. This finding, however, was consistent with Roehling et al. (2001) who found the significance of flex time policy to be sensitive to the life stage of respondents.

Conclusion

Overall, the findings of this study lend support for the primary focus of the conceptual model that distinct sets of antecedent variables are correlated with distinct measures of well-being. The alignment of the positive and negative factors of the two-factor model with global and daily measures presented here allows for a careful analysis of well-being. The division of antecedents into personal, family, and work allows for the investigation of the importance of personal resources, and family and work resources and networks, and the support or strain derived from them. The dependent variable, life satisfaction, was chosen to represent enduring feelings of well-being and the antecedents were carefully documented and chosen to capture global enduring feelings of women's well-being. The dependent variable, depression, was chosen to represent daily feelings of depression, and the antecedents also were carefully documented and chosen to capture daily depressive symptoms.

The significance of the global personal variables demonstrates that a woman's relative position among her peers is directly correlated with her satisfaction with life. Employed women's family resources and networks capture the continuing importance of family to a women's overall well-being. All of the global work variables, union membership, government employment and the constructed variables, supervisory capacity and recent meaningful promotion, were found to be significant correlates of life satisfaction. This is consistent with previous research evidence that demonstrates that women demand work, jobs, and careers that develop and challenge them, and that when attained, they contribute to women's global well-being.

In the daily performance of their roles, women rely on their own coping strategies (both positive and negative) and are both positively and negatively influenced by inter-generational family transfers of instrumental help, time, and money. The evidence here that employer network support systems are significant positive correlates of depression casts doubt on the efficacy of this support. This is, however, consistent with previous research

which has indicated that women perceive the use of these benefits and alternative work options, such as paid leave, flex time, and telecommuting, as negatively impacting their career development.

Given multiple roles held by women today, this study demonstrates the tremendous impact of employment on women's well-being. Globally, women derive satisfaction from their work, jobs, and careers. Rewarding and challenging work, opportunities to develop their careers, and professional and financial security obtained for themselves and their families enhance their well-being. The obtainment of these requires women to put in their time and demonstrate their commitment. Whether that time and commitment is described as required face time, a culture of overtime, the company person, or choices freely made by ambitious persons, women engender stress in their attempts to fulfill all of their role obligations and often report feeling overworked and overwhelmed.

Companies, whatever their motivations, have provided fringe benefits and alternative work arrangements. However, evidence here and elsewhere suggests the use of these does not improve the quality of women's lives. Whether corporate culture needs to change or whether women can change corporate culture, global competition and a changing worldwide workforce compel resolution of these issues. Perhaps most importantly the stress engendered by women on a daily basis should not obscure their tremendous accomplishments. Neither should these successes obscure the daily problems many women and their families encounter. It is important to acknowledge both.

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