

Adolescent Well-being Outcomes of Parental Perceptions of Work: Effects of Family Processes

Author: Sandee Tisdale

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BOSTON COLLEGE
Graduate School of Social Work

ADOLESCENT WELL-BEING OUTCOMES OF PARENTAL
PERCEPTIONS OF WORK:
EFFECTS OF FAMILY PROCESSES

A dissertation
by

SANDEE D. TISDALE, MSW

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ADOLESCENT WELL-BEING OUTCOMES OF PARENTAL PERCEPTION OF WORK: EFFECTS OF FAMILY PROCESSES

by

Sandee D. Tisdale

Dissertation Chair: Dr. Marcie Pitt-Catsouphes

Abstract

Dual-earner families are an increasing demographic in our society (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2006a, 2006b). Employers, policymakers, and academics have focused their attention on how to best alleviate the negative consequences of work on families, and enhance the benefits that work and family can bring to one another. One aspect of the connection between work and family is the relationship between parental employment and adolescent well-being. This dissertation seeks to identify the relationships between parental perceptions of their job family-friendliness, satisfaction, stress and burnout, and spillover, and adolescent perceptions of parental mood after work, parental acceptance, and adolescent well-being.

The current study uses data from a sample of 150 working families with adolescents from the Nurturing Families Study. This investigation examined parents' perceptions of their jobs and their middle school-aged children's assessments of parents' work and family processes as potential mediators or moderators. The relationships were analyzed using regression modeling techniques.

Findings determine the extent to which parental employment experiences explain variance in adolescents' well-being. The most compelling findings from this dissertation

suggest that parental assessments of their jobs and adolescent well-being are connected, though not directly. Connections between parent's jobs and adolescent well-being were seen only in relation to adolescent perceptions of mother's work and family contexts. Results indicate that adolescent perceptions of their mothers' level of acceptance moderated the relationship between mothers' reports of their job family-friendliness and their adolescents' reports of well-being. For mothers with low job family-friendliness, mother acceptance diminishes the negative association of this workplace characteristic on adolescent well-being. Additionally, when a mother's job satisfaction is low, adolescent perceptions of her mood after work diminishes the negative association of this workplace characteristic on their well-being more so than when job satisfaction is high.

Family practitioners and clinical social workers will be able to use the findings to enhance their clinical work with families with adolescents. The results of the study are also relevant to employers and social workers within organizations. Finally, macro social workers interested in enhancing the well-being of working families and adolescents will be informed by the results of this study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of Study

Labor market shifts

Recent shifts in the labor market present unique challenges and opportunities for working families. In 2005, working parents constituted 32.5 percent of the labor force; that is, close to 50 million employees (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2006a, 2006b; Barnett, Tisdale, Kopko & Gareis, 2008). In 2006, among parents of school-aged children, roughly two-thirds (66.5 percent) were employed full-time, and 61.3 percent were dual-earner families (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2006a, 2006b). In 2007, the percentage of dual-earner families with school-aged children increased to 68%.

In particular, there has been a notable increase in the labor force of participation by the mothers of adolescents. While in the 1970s, 60% of mothers with adolescents were in the labor force, this number increased to 70% in the 1980s and to 76% in the 1990s. By 2008, 78% of mothers with adolescent children were in the labor force (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008).

Christensen and Gomory (1999) observed that the fundamental arithmetic of the American middle-class family has been transformed. At the midpoint of the 20th century, the modal family included two adults responsible for a total of two jobs, one paid and one unpaid. Today, most two-parent families have assumed responsibility for an additional paid job, creating a challenging 3/2 ratio (Pitt-Catsouphes, MacDermid, Schwarz, & Matz, 2006) in which two parents were responsible for three jobs.

The jobs that are available to working families look different than they have in the past. Current job characteristics often impart more demands on working parents, or have a shifted focus in terms of the quality of skill sets required. As for hours required, dual-earner couples were working, on average, a combined 91 hours per week in 2002, an increase of 10 hours per week since 1977 (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2003). Estimates suggest that the largest number of new jobs in the future will be low-skill jobs requiring little formal education and using on-the-job training (Bernstein, 2004; U.S. Department of Labor, 1999); based upon current analyses of these jobs, it is unlikely that they will be "family friendly" in nature (Williams, 2006). Growth in these lower level jobs has raised important questions about possible effects on families and parents (Crouter & Booth, 2004). As the economy puts more fiscal pressure on families and dual-earner families become more common, researching the impacts, both negative and positive, that work has on families and children, is critical.

Spillover and crossover effects of work-family

Both distal (work) and proximal (familial) social environments can provide demands, resources, and risk and protective factors, all of which influence families' and adolescents' development and adjustment (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). As stated in the Ecological Systems Theory, social environments such as work and family interact with individuals reciprocally and dynamically. Examining the objective and subjective assessments of these social environments in adolescents' lives may elucidate the predictors of adolescents' self-reports of well-being and provide guidance in implementing interventions.

Taking all of the shifting demographics of the current labor force into consideration, the field of work-family scholarship has primarily been focused on the resultant stress of these work and family conditions. Most of the research to date has focused heavily on individual employee outcomes, rather than on the family. Consequently, although there is an abundance of research on the negative and positive impacts of work experiences and family dynamics on an employee's own well-being (Campion, 2008; Frone, 2008; Grzywacz, Carlson, & Shulkin, 2008; Swanberg & Simmons, 2008), we know less about the impact of these stressors and forces on their loved ones. A growing portion of the work-family literature, however, is beginning to recognize the importance of examining the interpersonal contexts and the consequences of work-family stressors (Doumas, 2008; Westman & Etzion, 1995).

Emotions such as stress have been shown to spread from one domain of an individual's life into another, as well as from one individual to another within the same domain. The concept of spillover, when stress experienced in one domain of life results in stress in another domain for the same individual (Davis, Goodman, Pirretti, & Almeida, 2009); and crossover, when stress experienced by an individual's family member or friend, for example, leads to stress being experienced by the individual (Bakker, Demerouti, & Dollard, 2008; Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Wethington, 1989), are often used in examinations of work and family interconnections. An example of spillover is that a parent experiences stress at work and this stress impacts his or her mood at home. An example of crossover is that a spouse experiences stress at work and this stress influences his or her spouse at home.

A more strengths-based approach has been used to operationalize work-family spillover, and is called work-family enrichment. Recently, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) proposed a theory of work-family enrichment, a concept synonymous with positive work-family spillover, which states that participation in one role, such as work, can enrich the quality of life in another role, such as parenting. Examples of enrichment include using skills (e.g., time management) learned at work in the home, bringing a positive mood and energy from one place to another, and using networks (social capital) from work to assist family members (Davis et al., 2009).

If spillover and crossover are to be considered real phenomena, one can presume that their effects will impact a wide variety of individuals, in a range of social contexts. The research literature on work-family would benefit from an increased emphasis on the outcomes of positive and negative job characteristics on the employees who are exposed, as well as including, as presented in the current dissertation, their adolescent children.

Importance of examining adolescent experiences in work-family research

Adolescents attending middle school are in a unique life stage often characterized as falling awkwardly between dependence and autonomy, therefore, gauging their well-being can be particularly complex. Erikson (1968) theorized that adolescence is a stage in the life cycle in which individuals begin to forge an adult identity, providing them with self-definition and personal boundaries. When children are in the adolescent stage of development, parents may notice a shift in their children's schedules and an increased need for autonomy and time with their peers.

Adolescence has been described as a vulnerable time when children are more apt to turn to risk-taking behaviors and experimentation if their psychological well-being has been compromised or is unsupported (Carter, McGee, Taylor, & Williams, 2007). Moreover, those adolescents who come from homes where all of the adults are in the workforce may face additional challenges. Adolescents' school schedules may differ from parents' working schedules, leaving children who are not engaged in extracurricular activities unsupervised after school, and more susceptible to deviant and risky behaviors (Smolensky & Gootman, 2003).

Developmental tasks in adolescence include academic achievement, rule-abiding conduct, and social competence among peers (Shiner, Masten, & Tellegen, 2002). These tasks may be enhanced by positive characteristics, or interrupted by negative characteristics within their environments. Ideally, adolescents' experiences at home, in particular their interactions with their parents, would help them master these developmental tasks. Positive parenting practices, like expressing warm emotions and enjoying quality time with adolescents tend to encourage healthy development. However, adolescent development may be negatively affected if adolescents spend too much time away from their parents or if their interactions with their parents are tense or stressful. Adolescent's psychological and physiological well-being, such as feeling self-confident and pleased with oneself, may be compromised if the familial and surrounding contexts are not supportive.

If developmental tasks such as academic achievement, social competence, and psychological health are hindered, an adolescent's self-evaluation of his or her overall well-being may be compromised. We know that adolescents are developing through a

vulnerable transition stage, and self-reports of well-being are one way for researchers and practitioners to gain insight into how an adolescent is achieving this transition. The work-family literature may be able to better address adolescent vulnerabilities, as impacted by parental work and family dynamics, with further exploration of the associations between work and adolescent well-being reports.

Rationale for Study

While there has been some investigation about the relationships between parental employment experiences and child well-being, there have been few studies that have gathered information about the adolescents' perceptions of the work-family experiences in their families. Therefore, it is not clear whether variation in reported adolescent well-being is better explained with information about parent perceptions, adolescent perceptions, or a combination.

The connections between work and family outcomes have been explored in part. Some researchers have suggested that enhancing work-family benefits at the workplace will lead to improved outcomes for the employee at home (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2003; Grzywacz, Casey, & Jones, 2007; Jones, 2006). However, other studies suggest that it is not merely the availability of work-family benefits at the workplace, but a composition of characteristics involving the employee's family dynamics that also play a valuable role in the family outcomes (Moen, Dempster-McClain, Altobelli, Wimonsate, Dahl, Roehling, & Sweet, 2004; Rogers & May, 2003). Unveiling how parental perceptions of work relate to adolescent perceptions of work and family dynamics may

shed light on whose perceptions have a greater chance of influencing adolescent well-being.

This study seeks to investigate the relationships between parental assessments of work, adolescent perceptions of the family environment, and adolescent well-being as defined by variations in adolescents' self-reports of physical health, and their general feelings of psychological well-being. This dissertation hones in on the work and family contexts of the three unique family members. Data were collected from mothers, fathers, and an adolescent child in the home. Currently, much of the research in the work-family area focuses on either parent data (Kinnunen & Pulkkinen, 2001; Perry-Jenkins & Gillman, 2000) or on child data (Galinsky, 2000; Sallinen et al., 2004). The current study entered data gathered from the three family members into a single dataset, thereby allowing the investigation of interactions and perceptions of the relationships between the different family members.

Collecting data from both parents and adolescents also alleviates a concerning trend in prior work-family research; the majority of studies continue to analyze connections between family dynamics and maternal employment, rather than focusing both on maternal and paternal employment or on paternal employment alone. For instance, a citation search in the literature database of the Sloan Work and Family Research Network found 76 articles focused on parental employment and the impact on adolescents. However, only 11 of these articles examined the work experiences of both fathers and mothers. A gender bias has motivated past research on maternal employment through the assumption that mothers who work outside of the home are at odds with having a high quality emotional relationship with their children, while fathers struggle

more to maintain these relationships when they are unemployed or underemployed (Sussman, Steinmetz, & Peterson, 1999). Demographic realities indicate that maternal and paternal participation in the labor force is closer than ever before, and it is time for more even-handed consideration of the implications for families with regard to the respective employment conditions of mothers and fathers (Perry-Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000).

The conceptual model for the present study focuses on several aspects of work, including perceptions of family-friendliness, stress and burnout, job satisfaction, and work-family spillover. Based on prior research and theory, the author hypothesizes that these work dynamics will impact not only the employee, but also impact the employee's family members, specifically adolescent children. Parents' feelings about their jobs are likely to spill over into their moods at home, thereby changing their adolescent's perception of his or her parent's job spillover and impacting the level and quality of connection between parent and adolescent. These perceptions, in turn, might affect the adolescent's well-being. Additionally, how parents perceive their jobs may impact their parenting styles as perceived by their adolescent children. Specifically, adolescents may notice a difference in how accepting their parents act of them, depending on the parent's attitudes toward and experiences of their job. A parent who does not view his or her workplace as family-friendly, or who is unsatisfied with his or her job, may act differently toward their adolescent, thereby affecting the adolescent's well-being.

An adolescent's perception of his or her parent's job or family dynamics might change the degree to which the parent's perception of his or her job impacts the adolescent's well-being. By investigating whether or not an adolescent's perceptions of

work and family can change the relationship between parental perceptions of work and family and adolescent well-being, further insight may be gained on these work-family dynamics and may contribute to improvements in adolescent outcomes. At this time, there is no consensus in the work-family literature about the nature of relationships between parental work and adolescent well-being. Therefore, the present study investigated both options through direct, mediation, and moderation models.

The research team on the current project, the Nurturing Families Study, collected information from dual-earner parents and an adolescent child in the family. Some families had more children, but the focus of the study was only to collect data from the adolescent. Sections of the interview focused on family members' home, work, community, and school lives. The data that were gathered included measures of parental perceptions of job family-friendliness, job stress and burnout, job satisfaction, and work-family spillover. Data also included measures of adolescent perceptions of parental mood after work, adolescent perceptions of parental acceptance and adolescent self-report of well-being, all of which were used in the current study.

Specifically, this dissertation aims to accomplish the following goals:

1. To examine how parental job perceptions and adolescent perceptions of parental work and family processes are related to adolescent self-reports of well-being.
2. To examine the potential mediating and moderating effects of adolescent perceptions of parental acceptance and parental mood after work on the relationships between parental job assessments and adolescent self-reports of well-being.

Potential Implications

By assessing strengths and challenges within the families of adolescents and their parents' workplaces, social workers can continue to improve their work on a micro and macro level. Clinical social workers who work with families and their individual members will be informed by the findings of the current dissertation. Often, social workers in clinical practice work on 'reframing' as a strategy for their clients to cope with certain situations. By enlightening parents on the importance of their job and its impact on their family, positive changes may occur within the home. This insight may be especially valuable in times of economic turmoil and work stress, such as we are in today. Parents may gain insight into the buffer that they are able to provide between workplace stressors and family outcomes, simply by altering their parenting practices and having a more acute awareness of the importance of such buffering.

Clinicians who deal directly with adolescents may use the findings of the current study to explore potential reasons for their client not reporting more positive health and well-being. They may find connections between their client's outcome and work and family dynamics that may be explored, processed, and improved upon in therapeutic settings. Adolescence, as stated previously, is a stage of the life course in which unique challenges are faced. Perhaps more focus on work and family dynamics may lessen the strains of this special stage.

Additionally, there is an emerging role for micro-level social workers in practice within workplaces and organizations. Employment assistance professionals often work with employees on workplace challenges, and having a better idea of the impact that these challenges can have on other areas of their lives may guide the development of

clinical strategies for this population. Employees who are able to seek out this workplace assistance may be able to resolve some struggles between work and family, thereby creating a more harmonious family life and enriching their attitudes about their job. Research has shown that employees who are more positive about their work-family relationship may prove to be more loyal and valuable employees (Bond, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002; Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005). Perhaps work-family challenges and struggles can be overcome and transitioned into work-family enhancement and enrichment.

Macro-level social workers have an important role here, too. Policies and programs within organizations can help working parents gain a better perception of their jobs. Creating options for the attainment of a culture of family-friendliness is another important goal for social workers at the organizational level. Allowing for and providing benefits such as flexible schedules and telework options help parents more easily attend to familial needs such as being present for mealtimes, children's health appointments, and school activities, thereby reducing parental levels of stress. Social workers who are employers in the public arena can design and implement model policies for government employees, thereby creating a model for private employers. Offering policies such as school leave, paid sick time for family members, and flexible work options may create positive outcomes not only in the workplace, but also for employees' family lives.

On a broader level, the work-family policy agenda is reaching new heights as a result of the First Lady's support for the importance of helping working families. This, as well as the advocacy of a number of national organizations striving to put this topic on the legislative agenda, offers new potential to macro social workers in shaping a new

horizon and better outcomes for working families. The current study will provide policy recommendations based on its findings that will be of use to macro social workers in policy settings and will identify additional areas of research that may be needed to better guide policy decisions.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Framework

Several related theoretical perspectives are used in the proposed study. First, adolescent development must be considered. In addition, this dissertation is informed by ecological systems theory, family systems and spillover and crossover theories, and Kohn's theory of socialization tradition.

Adolescent developmental theory

Erikson identified the psychosocial stage of adolescence as one dealing with identity versus role confusion (Erikson, 1968). Piaget (Kohlberg, 1976) focuses on the emergence of formal operational thinking in adolescence. At this developmental point, adolescents are acquiring the ability to reason through consequences and hypothetical challenges. Their current egocentric status may lead to a propensity for self-consciousness, feelings of invulnerability which lead to risk-taking behaviors, and the viewing of their thoughts, feelings, and experiences as unique. An adolescent's ability to emotionally process work and family variations may be taking shape, and the impact of those interpretations may relate to their sense of well-being. An adolescent who perceives their parents as arriving home in a bad mood, for example, may be able to associate this with parental workplace, but may not.

In light of this stage of vulnerability, a sense of security in the home may be of particular importance. Researchers building upon this theory often illustrate the added

importance of positive social skills and peer groups, which can help adolescents realize that their experiences are shared (Ryan, 2001). A supportive family unit can enhance the adolescent's ability to form strong peer relationships.

Based on such theories of adolescent development, the present study aims to explore the importance of adolescent perceptions of parental work and family processes and how they might relate to his or her well-being. Given the importance of autonomy, yet the inherent desire for family closeness at this stage of development, it will prove interesting for work-family scholarship to investigate whether an adolescent's perception of parental acceptance or parental mood after work has any impact on his or her sense of well-being, or whether they have 'aged out' of the impact of these relationship effects.

Ecological systems theory

It is important that the present dissertation explore theories which identify the processes by which adolescent's social environments are interactive. Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory (1986) posits that an individual and his/her environment will influence each other. Three systems identified in ecological systems theory, from most proximate to most distant from an individual, include: the microsystem, the mesosystem, and the exosystem.¹ One aim of the present study was to investigate the link between the middle-schoolers' social environments of family and parental workplace and their reports of well-being, guided by the distal and proximal systems outlined by ecological systems theory.

¹ The ecological systems theory also recognizes a fourth system: the macrosystem. This setting is characterized by general and global customs, laws, and opinions that affect an individual. The data in the present study do not contain measures of the macrosystem; therefore, we have omitted this system from the discussion.

Given that a child directly experiences events and relationships in the microsystem, it is this environment through which their view of the world and their beliefs of self can be most shaped (Garbarino, 1992). In turn, the microsystem is the environment in which the child has the most influence. The mesosystem provides connections between available structures within the child's microsystem (such as family), and encompasses a child's relationships and interactions with his or her immediate surroundings. An example of an interaction within an adolescent's mesosystem is how a parent interacts with an adolescent. Parental acceptance, including parental warmth and attention, is one type of interaction that may impact an adolescent's experience within their family environment. As further defined by Berk (2000), the exosystem is the layer that defines the larger social system in which the child does not function directly, but by which he or she is affected. Parental job schedules or demands are an example of a structure within a child's exosystem.

Empirical evidence supports the contextual component of ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) by finding that contextual factors in both work and family microsystems are associated with work-family conflict (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997). Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1977) first called attention to the linkages between work and family life. She argued for the abandonment of the "separate spheres" concept that had emerged during the early- to mid-1900s. Separation between work and family was lessening, and researchers and practitioners began to pay more attention to influences between and among the two arenas.

Ecological systems theory has been used in prior work-family studies as an overarching framework for considering how factors within the work and family

environments are associated with conflict or balance in the work and family domains (Davis, Crouter, & McHale, 2006; Ransford, Crouter, & McHale, 2008). Work-family studies by default examine at least two social environments, and sometimes more. As such, it is not uncommon to find that this theory grounds research which looks at various working conditions and their impact on families, and even adolescent children (Coley, Bachman, Votruba-Drzal, Lohman, & Li-Grining, 2007).

Based on this ecological theory of interactive social contexts, one can presume that the parental job would impact family dynamics and, in turn, family dynamics would impact the well-being of an adolescent family member. Negative interactions between an individual and another person of his or her environment such as a spouse, child, or employer, might be seen as potential barriers to development in different domains (Lawton & Nahemow, 1973). This dissertation posits that adolescent perceptions of a parent's mood after work as well as parental acceptance will impact adolescent well-being directly, as well as serve as a mediator and/or moderator between parental job assessment and adolescent self-report of well-being.

Spillover and crossover

The processes by which the influence of one environment spills over into another environment has been further explored, and in more detail, than in the ecological systems theory. Two theories which have delved into these processes of interdependence between family members are spillover and crossover theories. Bolger et al. (1989) suggest that there are two ways to conceptualize the “contagion of stress” across multiple domains. One way is spillover, which happens when stress experienced in one domain of life

results in stress in another domain for the same individual. Another is crossover, which happens when stress experienced by one person is transmitted to another person.

Spillover and crossover theories also draw from family systems theory, which states that families are systems of interconnected and interdependent individuals, none of whom can be understood in isolation from the family system (Bowen, 1985). Families are constantly adapting, changing, or responding to daily events as well as more long term developmental challenges and changes in order to strive for a sense of balance or homeostasis. When such balance is not found, the rules or dynamics of the family may need to be adjusted to restore it. Parental workplace, family functioning, and family members' perceptions of such are examples of environments and dynamics that families must recognize and optimize in order to maintain harmony.

The concept of interdependence is implicit in the discussion of the organizational nature of family systems. What happens to one family member, or what one family member does is likely to influence the other family members. This is one of the primary concepts embedded in clinical models emerging from a systems perspective, and one that is embedded in the current study. Based on this broad theory of family systems, the current study focuses on the parental subsystem by looking at how an adolescent's perception of characteristics of his or her parental relationships impacts adolescent outcomes.

Spillover is a process by which attitudes and behaviors carry over from one domain to another. Where spillover is an intraindividual, inter-domain contagion of emotions such as stress, crossover is a dyadic, interindividual, inter-domain contagion (Westman, 2001). Westman, who has written several articles on crossover (Westman,

2005, Westman, 2001, Westman, & Etzion, 1995, Westman, Etzion, & Danon, 2001, Westman, & Vinokur, 1998, Westman, Vinokur, Hamilton, & Roziner, 2004), argues that crossover is “based upon the propositions of the spillover model, i.e., the recognition of the fluid boundaries between work and family life,” and that “spillover is a necessary, but not sufficient condition for crossover (Westman, 2005, p.1).” Crossover takes spillover to an interindividual level. Spillover affects only the individual, but crossover can affect the dyad and the family.

Spillover theory takes into account the circumstances under which the spillover between the work microsystem and the family microsystem is positive or negative. Research documents that if work-family interactions are rigidly structured in time and space, then spillover in terms of time, energy and behavior is generally negative. The exception to this rule is the rarer example of when the rigid time structures are in synchrony with the family’s needs. Research also supports the notion that work flexibility, which enables individuals to integrate and coordinate work and family responsibilities in time and space, leads to positive spillover and is instrumental in achieving healthy work and family balance (Hill, Ferris, & Martinson, 2003).

Grzywacz and Marks (1999), using a subsample of employed adults from the National Survey of Midlife Development in the United States (n=1,986), found that there were four distinct dimensions of work-family spillover: negative spillover from work to family, positive spillover from work to family, negative spillover from family to work, and positive spillover from family to work. Additionally, the study uncovered resources that facilitate development in work or family settings (e.g., more latitude for decision-making at work, support from co-workers and supervisors, emotionally close spouse and

family relations) and were associated with less negative and more positive spillover between work and family. By contrast, more barriers arising from person-environment interactions at work and in the family (e.g., more pressure at work, spousal disagreement, and perception of family burden) were associated with more negative spillover and less positive spillover between work and family (Grzywacz & Marks, 1999).

Negative work-family spillover has been evidenced as a dynamic in a broad range of research studies (Crouter, 1984; MacEwen & Barling, 1994; Marshall, Chadwick, & Marshall, 1991; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk, & Beutell, 1996; Stevens, Minnotte, Mannon, & Kiger, 2007; Williams & Alliger, 1994). When one parent is struggling with a perception of a negative workplace situation, this may affect his or her participation in the family unit and interactions with other family members, including a partner and/or adolescent, for example (Bronfenbrenner & Crouter, 1982; Perry-Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000).

Negative work-family crossover between family members may occur as a result of negative work-family spillover, as well. While the current study focuses on the associations between parental work and adolescent outcomes, research thus far has primarily focused on the impact of spousal and intimate partner crossover effects (Gareis, Barnett, & Brennan, 2004; Westman, Etzion, & Danon, 2001; Westman & Etzion, 2005; Westman & Vinokur, 1998). However, it is important to consider crossover with other family members. One example can be seen in the study by Hart and Kelley (2006), who recently found a positive association between mothers' perceptions of work-family conflict and internalizing behavior problems of their children ages 1½ to 4 years. Another study by MacEwen and Barling (1991), found that mothers with more conflict

about work and family roles were less alert and then, in turn, exhibited more rejecting parenting behavior. The rejecting behavior was then related to mothers describing their children, ages 4-12, as more anxious and withdrawn. They also found that low job satisfaction was linked to more negative mood, which was linked to more punishment on behalf of mothers. Punishing parenting behavior was linked to more anxiety, immaturity, and conduct disorder in these children. Based on these studies of younger children, it is plausible that effects of spillover and crossover from work to home will also be found to influence adolescents.

Negative work-family spillover experiences by the parent may cross over to an adolescent in several ways, thereby affecting the adolescent's well-being. If adolescents perceive that their parents are not satisfied with their workplace environments they may mirror this negative affect and face undesirable consequences to their well-being. Moreover, when adolescents experience variations in parenting behaviors due to parental crossover and spillover, variations in their well-being can result. It is important that the work-family body of research not only investigates parental spillover and crossover, but their impact on adolescents. Neglecting this may leave a gap in the body of knowledge.

Socialization tradition

Socialization tradition adds depth to the concept of spillover and crossover by highlighting the specific ways in which work-family influences can occur. Given the trends in research on spillover and crossover effects, it is not surprising that theories have been developed that take a closer look at the intraindividual, inter-domain contagion known as spillover. Kohn and associates (1977) developed the theory of socialization

tradition through their early research on the links between workplace characteristics, parenting practices, and children's outcomes (Kohn, 1977; Kohn & Schooler, 1982). Kohn demonstrated that workplace characteristics, such as autonomy and job complexity, affect parental values and, in turn, influence how working parents socialize children. This pattern of family dynamics is commonly referred to as the socialization tradition, as it emphasizes the socialization of employees at work, and how this work experience influences parenting practices and the socialization of their children. According to socialization tradition, parents who work under certain work conditions may internalize their work practices and carry them over into their parenting behaviors.

Researchers continued along these theoretical bases, further investigating the relationships between workplace characteristics, parenting behaviors, and child outcomes (Parcel & Menaghan, 1994). Parcel and Menaghan's studies of socialization tradition used the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY) and laid important groundwork for understanding how experiences on the job shaped the lives of workers and their children. This study found that paternal work hours in the early years have significant effects on children's behavior problems. Additionally, a mother's occupational complexity interacts with her resources and job characteristics to influence both cognitive and social outcomes. The conclusion is that adequate parental resources contribute to the forms of family social capital useful in facilitating positive child outcomes (Parcel & Menaghan, 1994). However, because of constraints of the NLSY sample, the authors were unable to examine parenting behavior. Grimm-Thomas and Perry-Jenkins (1994) improved upon these sample issues, and examined the relationships between parents' job complexity and their autonomy, self-esteem, and parenting style. Through path analysis,

the authors found that the more positive fathers' work experiences were, the higher their self-esteem was, which predicted a more accepting parenting style.

The current dissertation furthers the preceding research on the socialization tradition by investigating parental job perceptions for both mothers and fathers, and investigating relationships to adolescent perceptions of parental mood at home and parental acceptance, and consequently, adolescent health and well-being.

Family systems theory encapsulates the idea that members within a family system operate interdependently. Ecological systems theory highlights how family members are additionally influenced by external environments and contexts. Spillover and crossover theory focus attention on the processes by which family members carry emotion from one domain to another, and transmit emotions to one another. Socialization tradition concentrates these ideas of emotional transmission by looking into the workplace and family domains, specifically. These theories, taken together, reflect the potential for parental workplaces to impact adolescent children – whether directly or through family processes such as parental mood after work or parental acceptance of their adolescents.

Literature Review

Theories of adolescent development and empirical evidence both focus attention on the influential role that parents play in the lives of early adolescents (Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Smolensky & Gootman, 2003). It is clear that adolescents fare better when they have a closer relationship with their parents (Bowen & Chapman, 1996; Vandewater & Lansford, 2005), and that variations in parental workplaces have been shown to influence parent and child relationships (Crouter et al., 2006; Ransford, Crouter,

& McHale, 2008). This literature review begins by defining the construct of well-being and reviewing empirical literature that has explored its various antecedents. Then, the review will examine the impact of parental work on parental mood after work, parental acceptance in dual-earner families with adolescents, and the impact of both on adolescent well-being. Lastly, by drawing on the theoretical perspectives mentioned previously, this study will ground the current body of literature on these issues and suggest ways in which the current dissertation will enhance existing knowledge.

Adolescent well-being

Adolescent well-being is an outcome that has been defined in various ways and previously investigated, relative to a variety of influences. Several studies measure adolescent well-being by using indicators of academic and scholastic achievement (Manning and Lamb, 2003; Sun, 2003). Other studies include psychological factors in their operationalization of well-being (Coley, Bachman, Votruba-Drzal, Lohman, & Li-Grining, 2007; Crouter, Bumpus, Maguire, & McHale, 1999; Sun, 2003; Tisdale & Pitt-Catsouphes, 2012; Wierda-Boer & Ronka, 2004). Rarely will a study use physical characteristics in the definition of well-being.

Sun (2003), using data from the National Education Longitudinal Study, used a psychological well-being measure which asked students to respond to seven statements regarding their self-esteem (e.g., I feel good about myself; I am able to do things as well as most other people). Another six statements measured the levels of students' generalized locus of control (e.g., I don't have control over the direction my life is taking;

in my life, good luck is more important than hard work for success). This measure did not include any physical symptoms of well-being.

In looking at familial stress as another condition that might influence adolescent physical health symptoms, a recent study (Afifi & McManus, 2010) investigated the potential connection between adolescent physical health and parents' negative disclosures about the other parent. Findings revealed that negative disclosures from one parent about the other parent were associated with increased physical health symptoms for the adolescent, including headache and stomachache.

The construct of well-being aligns well with the basic tenets of work-family studies. Work-family studies often seek to determine the outcomes of varied work and family conditions on well-being measures. Viewing adolescents and their parents' work experiences through the ecological system's theory lens, it is logical that the context of parental workplace, or the adolescents' exosystem, will have an impact on the family environment, the mesosystem, as well as on the individuals within the family context, the microsystem. Using family systems theory, and ideas of family interconnectedness, it can be extrapolated that if parents are not feeling optimistic about their work or family lives, it will affect the way that their children feel, too.

The present study advances this literature by attempting to link yet another social context - the context of the parental workplace - with adolescent physical health symptoms. Even though the adolescents are not at their parents' workplace, perhaps the parental experience at work manifests similar outcomes in the family and home environment by way of spillover and crossover, thereby affecting the adolescents at home. This dissertation defines well-being using both physical and psychological

indicators, hoping to garner information toward a more holistic understanding of adolescents' subjective assessments of their own physical and psychological well-being. The present study also includes several job characteristics which are yet to be researched as potentially and directly related to adolescent well-being; for example, job satisfaction and stress and burnout.

Parents' jobs affect families

Parental jobs have the potential to negatively or positively impact their family's functionality. Once thought to be separate spheres (Kanter, 1977), researchers have now come to see work and family as connected domains (Davis, 2008). Socialization tradition has been used as a theoretical framework in which to root studies that examine how work experiences might alter parenting behaviors (Grimm-Thomas & Perry-Jenkins, 1994; Kohn, 1977; Kohn & Schooler, 1982; Parcel & Menaghan, 1994). This theory illustrates how workplaces may impact the ways in which parents interact with their children, thereby influencing child outcomes.

When parents perceive their workplace to be family-friendly, there may be more positive family outcomes than for parents who do not. Using survey data from 276 managers and professionals, Thompson, Beauvais, and Lyness (1999) found that perceptions of a supportive work-family culture were related to greater use of family-friendly benefits, higher affective commitment to the organization, and lower work to family conflict. A supportive workplace is a contributing factor to the general satisfaction and well-being of employees (Galinsky, Bond, and Friedman, 1996; Thompson et al., 1999).

Job satisfaction is another workplace assessment which has been explored as potentially associated with family dynamics. MacEwen and Barling (1991) found that mothers who were unsatisfied with their jobs were more likely to be in negative moods at home. Further, job satisfaction has been linked with warmer, more positive parenting behaviors (Hoffman, 1986) and lower levels of family conflict (Voydanoff, 1987).

Measures of stress and burnout have been associated with negative outcomes in adolescents from dual-earner families. In a study of dual-earner families with adolescent children, Ransford, Crouter, and McHale (2008) found that mothers in a high pressure/low support work group reported lower levels of marital love and lower marital satisfaction. When either parent had high pressure and low support at work, they also reported less intimacy in their relationships with their adolescent children (Ransford, Crouter, McHale, 2008). Feelings of job stress have also been related to self-reports of distress, such as depression, which have in turn been linked to poorer marital relations (Barling & MacEwen, 1992; Sears & Galambos, 1992). A host of studies have argued that parental job stress relates to lower functioning among adolescents, for example, diminished socioemotional well-being and less positive adjustment (Crouter, Helms-Erikson, Updegraff, & McHale, 1999; Estes, 2004; Stewart & Barling, 1996; Voydanoff, 2004).

Crouter, Bumpus, Maguire, and McHale (1999) found that mothers and fathers who described more pressure at work also reported greater role overload and a feeling of being overwhelmed by multiple commitments. Higher levels of role overload were, in turn, associated with increased conflict with adolescent offspring. Studies to date have

yet to reach a consensus on the crossover effects of parental stress from work and adolescent self-reports of well-being.

Studies have found that work experiences, both positive and negative, can spill over into parents' home experiences. For some women, stressful or poor quality work conditions are linked to greater depressive symptoms (Lennon, 1994), lower self-esteem (Schwartzberg & Dytell, 1996), and greater role overload (Crouter, Bumpus, Maguire, & McHale, 1999). Repetti (1989) found that a stressful day at work can spill over to the family by the parent being more angry or withdrawn at home. Repetti (1994) also found, with her sample of air traffic controllers, that fathers tended to withdraw from interactions with their children on heavy workload days and to use more discipline on days characterized by stressful interactions with coworkers and/or supervisors. Through the process of spillover, by which emotions and behaviors in one sphere transfer to another sphere (Staines, 1980), distress caused by work events or conditions is brought home and displayed in the family setting by the parent being fatigued, anxious, depressed, or otherwise emotionally unavailable (Eckenrode & Gore, 1990). Matjasko and Feldman (2006) found that mothers' happiness, anger, and anxiety at work were positively associated with the same emotions at home on the same days. This study provided evidence of both positive and negative spillover and demonstrated the utility of investigating specific emotions. Alternatively, as found by Matjasko and Feldman (2006) and others, parental report of mood after work can be enriched by positive work experiences (Grzywacz & Marks, 1999; Repetti et al., 1999).

Parental work experiences may have an effect on some aspects of the parent-child relationship, including perceived parental acceptance. A concept termed the "long arm"

of the job (Crouter & McHale, 2005; Menaghan, 1991) illustrates how the workplace can “reach” children via its effects on the parent-child relationship (Barling, 1990; Bronfenbrenner & Crouter, 1982; Davis, 2008; Hoffman & Youngblade, 1999; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). Grimm-Thomas and Perry-Jenkins (1994) examined the relationships between job characteristics and parenting style. The authors found that the more positive fathers’ work experiences were, the higher the fathers’ self-esteem was, which predicted a more accepting parenting style. MacEwen and Barling (1991) showed that mothers who felt conflict between their work and family roles had difficulty concentrating on everyday activities and were, in turn, more rejecting of their children aged 16 and younger.

From this research, one can conclude that the family environment is impacted by variations in parental work environments. Work characteristics such as family-friendliness, stress, and satisfaction have been shown to influence family functioning and parental acceptance. The present dissertation contributes analysis from a unique perspective – the adolescent’s. While many of the studies mentioned above use parental report of mood after work, the current study gathers this information from the perspective of the adolescent in the home. The present dissertation seeks to uncover even more detail in this relationship by assessing parental reports of his or her job, as well as adolescent reports of work-family spillover and parental acceptance and investigating the relationship between these constructs and adolescent reports of well-being.

Parental jobs affect adolescent well-being

Parental jobs affect not only family functioning, as mentioned above, but can also impact individual outcomes on adolescents. Adolescent perceptions of parental jobs may have implications for preparation for adulthood (Neblett & Cortina, 2006). The more positive an adolescent's perceptions of his or her parents' jobs are, the better the adolescent's academic competence (Moorehouse & Sanders, 1992), socioemotional functioning (Barling, Zacharatos, & Hepburn, 1999), and the stronger their work ethic (Barling, Dupre, & Hepburn, 1998). The more positive adolescents perceive their parents' jobs to be, the more optimistic the adolescents may be. Conversely, negative perceptions may relate to greater pessimism (Neblett & Cortina, 2006).

The present study asks adolescents to report on their parents' mood after work as a gauge of how they perceive their parents' attitudes when they arrive home from work. Parental mood after work has implications for adolescent well-being. A recent dissertation by Davis (2008) posits that parental mood transfers to adolescent mood. Along similar lines, Matjasko and Feldman (2005) investigated the importance of work characteristics and relationship quality at home. Parental mood after work was used to measure work-family crossover, and links to adolescent outcomes were examined. Findings suggested that mothers' moods were transmitted to adolescent children when mothers returned home from work (Matjasko & Feldman, 2005). Maternal reports of being happy or angry after work corresponded to reports of adolescent happiness and anger. There was no evidence of direct transmission of mood after work between fathers and adolescents.

A separate study found that negative adolescent perceptions of parental mood after work were associated with depression and negative school attitude (Wierda-Boer & Ronka, 2004). In a similar use of the parental mood after work measure, Kinnunen et al. (2001) found that adolescents who reported that a parent arrived home from work in a bad mood were more likely to also report a negative attitude toward school and to exhibit lower levels of constructive behavior. Sallinen, Kinnunen & Ronka (2004) examined whether the relationship between parental work and adolescent well-being would be direct or mediated through parenting behavior. The authors asked adolescents to rate the mood of their parents when they arrived home from work as a measure of adolescent perception of parental work. While the authors did not detect a direct relationship between this measure of perception of parental work and adolescent well-being, they did find that the mothers' positive work experiences were directly linked to the adolescents' positive attitude towards school. Tisdale and Pitt-Catsouphes (2012), using these same data, found that parental mood after work, particularly fathers' moods after work, directly related to improved self-reports of well-being among adolescents in dual-earner families.

Family processes affect adolescent well-being

Developmental risks for adolescents have often been assessed within the family context. It has been hypothesized that adolescents learn about emotion regulation through observational learning within their family context (Morris, Silk, Steinberg, Myers, & Robinson, 2007). Additionally, parenting practices related to emotion as well as the emotional climate of the family have been shown to affect emotional regulation

(Morris et. al., 2007). While these findings are compelling, emotional regulation is merely one aspect of adolescent well-being.

Adolescent perceptions of family functioning and cohesion have also been correlated with depression (Unger, Brown, Tressell, & Ellis McLeod, 2000) and other maladaptive behaviors such as externalizing (Olson & Gorall, 2003; Vandewater & Lansford, 2005). Using the National Survey of Families and Households, Vandewater and Lansford (2005) examined the impacts of family processes on adolescents' internalizing and externalizing behaviors. Findings suggested that the internalizing and externalizing behaviors of an adolescent were strongly related to family conflicts (Vandewater & Lansford, 2005). One longitudinal study found that adolescents from mother-child allied families were less academically competent, more aggressive, and more anxious, depressed, and withdrawn at school than their peers from more cohesive families (Johnson, 2010). Results from the Johnson (2010) study indicate that harmony between both parents and their adolescent child is pertinent to more positive well-being outcomes.

Alternatively, in looking at protective factors within the family environment, the role of a nurturing and supportive parent-child relationship is consistently found to be a critical component in fostering children's development and adaptation (Bowen & Chapman, 1996). The family has played the most prominent role in understanding and improving child welfare and development; in both normative and high-risk situations, the quality of the parent-child relationship has been correlated with positive adolescent development (Masten & Shaffer, 2006).

Parental acceptance has been shown to be an important predictor of adolescent well-being. Substantial evidence supports the conclusion that father love, as measured by acceptance and rejection, is often as strongly implicated as mother love in the development of behavioral and psychological problems as well as in the development of the child's health and well-being (Rohner & Veneziano, 2001; Veneziano, 2000, 2003). Another study using an adolescent sample found similar outcomes for psychological health and well-being (Amato, 1994). In looking at parental acceptance as a potential mediator, Garber, Ciesla, McCauley, Diamond, and Schloedt (2011) found that parental acceptance partially mediated the relationship between parental and children's depression. Acceptance has been linked to improved psychological adjustment (Kausar & Kazmi, 2011), emotional communication (Hare, Marston, & Allen, 2011), self-efficacy (Kausar & Kazmi, 2011), and mental health (Rohner, 1998).

Parents' jobs affect adolescent well-being through family processes

Parenting and parental well-being are key mechanisms linking parental work to adolescent well-being (Bronfenbrenner & Crouter, 1982; Crouter & McHale, 2005; Menaghan, 1991; Piotrkowski, 1979; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). One study which defined well-being using psychological factors (Crouter et al., 1999) focused on the connections between mothers' and fathers' work pressure and the psychological adjustment of their adolescent offspring. These authors found that the effects of work pressure on adolescent well-being were mediated by parental role overload and parent-adolescent conflict. Their study looked at measures of role strain, yet did not include measures of job characteristics such as family-friendliness and job satisfaction. They

also did not measure adolescent perceptions of parental mood after work as a potential mediator.

These results indicate that outcomes of the parental work environment, such as parental work stress at home and time away from home for work, may be sociocultural risks that influence adolescent developmental tasks and well-being. These results also support the concepts of spillover and crossover, and family systems models which argue that a family member's experiences and stresses from one domain can enter into another domain of their life. Specifically, parental stress at work may lead to stress at home, which may impact adolescent well-being. Another body of research has sought to further explore this relationship by exploring how the link occurs. To do so, some studies have proposed that parental work stress may inhibit parental ability to be supportive or to engage in a positive and consistent manner with their adolescent, which in turn could relate to adolescent negative psychosocial functioning. For example, studies have suggested that in dual-earner families, the relationship between parental work pressure and adolescent well-being can be mediated by parental role overload and parent-adolescent conflict (Crouter, Helms-Erikson, Updegraff, & McHale, 1999), parents' work-related affect and parenting (Stewart & Barling, 1996), or by adolescent perception of maternal acceptance or warmth (Estes, 2004). Specifically, in dual-earner families, parental negative work spillover predicts an increase in adolescents' internalizing and externalizing problems (Voydanoff, 2004).

The present study is particularly focused on parental acceptance as a link between parental workplace and adolescent well-being. Given the previously mentioned associations between parental work and parenting behaviors, as well as the link between

parental acceptance and adolescent well-being measures, it is possible that acceptance may serve as a link between adolescent perceptions of parental workplace and self-report of well-being. Prior research has explored the linkages between parental work, parental acceptance as a mediator, and adolescent outcomes such as parental monitoring (Bumpus, Crouter, & McHale, 2006) and adolescent problem behavior (Galambos, Sears, Almeida, & Kolaric, 1995). Findings from these studies illustrate that acceptance can serve as a mediator between parental work and adolescent outcomes, but that the gender of the parent and child may alter those relationships. Studies have yet to explore the potential of parental acceptance as a mediator between the workplace measures in the present dissertation and adolescent well-being.

Advancing the literature

The above findings are illustrative of the importance of the work and family environments on well-being outcomes of adolescents. Informed by this literature, the current dissertation seeks to examine the extent to which adolescent perceptions, positive and negative, of parental mood after work and perception of parental acceptance, have on variations in the well-being of adolescents in dual-earner families. While we understand that there are relationships between the two social environments of work and family and adolescent well-being, it is yet to be consistently determined in the current literature whether or not these relationships are direct. Furthermore, it is yet to be determined whether any mediating or moderating effects of such constructs on the relationship between parental perceptions of work and adolescent well-being exist. It is also unclear how these relationships differ for adolescents in dual-earner families rather than for

adolescents in general, and how maternal characteristics may differ from paternal ones in terms of impacting adolescent well-being.

This exploratory study builds upon prior research, but also forges new territory. Although there are some similarities between the aforementioned studies, differences remain. While there have been studies looking at the impact of work on families, there are elements to this area of study that have not been uncovered. The present dissertation addresses some of the gaps in the current work-family literature.

First, most prior studies suggest that parental work experiences may indirectly impact adolescent well-being. Very few studies have tested direct crossover between parents and children, specifically looking at the association between parents' work-related emotions or stress and the well-being of their children. There is a much larger body of literature today on crossover between spouses than what exists in regards to parent to child crossover.

A second difference exists in the fact that the family member who is reporting the potential mediating or moderating force may not be fully capturing the family picture as a whole. There are gaps in the literature related to studying mother, father, and adolescents all together in one sample. Studies suffer from potential bias when relying on the same person to report on his or her behavior at work and at home and on the well-being and behavior of other family members (Miller, Rollins, & Thomas, 1982). Children may have different perceptions than their parents, and it's valuable to get the opinions of all family members before forming conclusions about relationships. For example, Galinsky (1999) found that a majority of children stated that their parents spent enough time with them, whereas half of the parents interviewed felt they did not spend enough time with

their children. Few of the studies mentioned above have looked at these work and family dynamics as reported by multiple family members. The majority of studies connecting parental work and children's well-being have relied solely on parental reports, whereas the present study includes measures from the adolescent perspective. In addition, focusing on both mothers and fathers is a significant contribution to the literature.

Third, the current study is unique in its evaluation of adolescent perceptions of parental work and parental acceptance and which of these are more strongly related to adolescent well-being. It is our hope that this study will help to identify and explain any direct, mediating, or moderating effects so that interventions and efforts can be tailored and implemented in the most effective ways.

Fourth, the present definition of adolescent well-being, which includes both physical health and psychological well-being, offers a broader range of potential implications for adolescents. The current dissertation focuses not only on emotional and psychological outcomes for adolescents, but on the physical components of well-being as well.

Finally, the current study is unique in its attempt to investigate both the mediating and moderating power of family processes such as parental mood after work and parental acceptance of adolescent children. In examining the relationships between work and family, prior studies have uncovered mediating and moderating links, but no studies to date have examined both within one sample. In doing so, the present study may offer additional insight into whether family processes change the relationship between work and family, or if the relationships between work and family are truly because of the family processes involved.

Conceptual Framework

The work-family literature to date clearly indicates that there are relationships between parental assessments of jobs, adolescent perceptions of work and family, and adolescent well-being. Prior theoretical models provide justification for linking the work and family environments in order to find positive or negative adolescent outcomes. Based on the unique data available, the author suggests the following conceptual framework to guide the present study, hopes of furthering the body of literature on this topic.

Figure 1 is a representation of the hypothesized direct effects between parental job assessment and adolescent self-reports of well-being. Separate models were run for mothers and fathers. Adolescent gender and age were used as control variables.

FIGURE 1: Direct effects

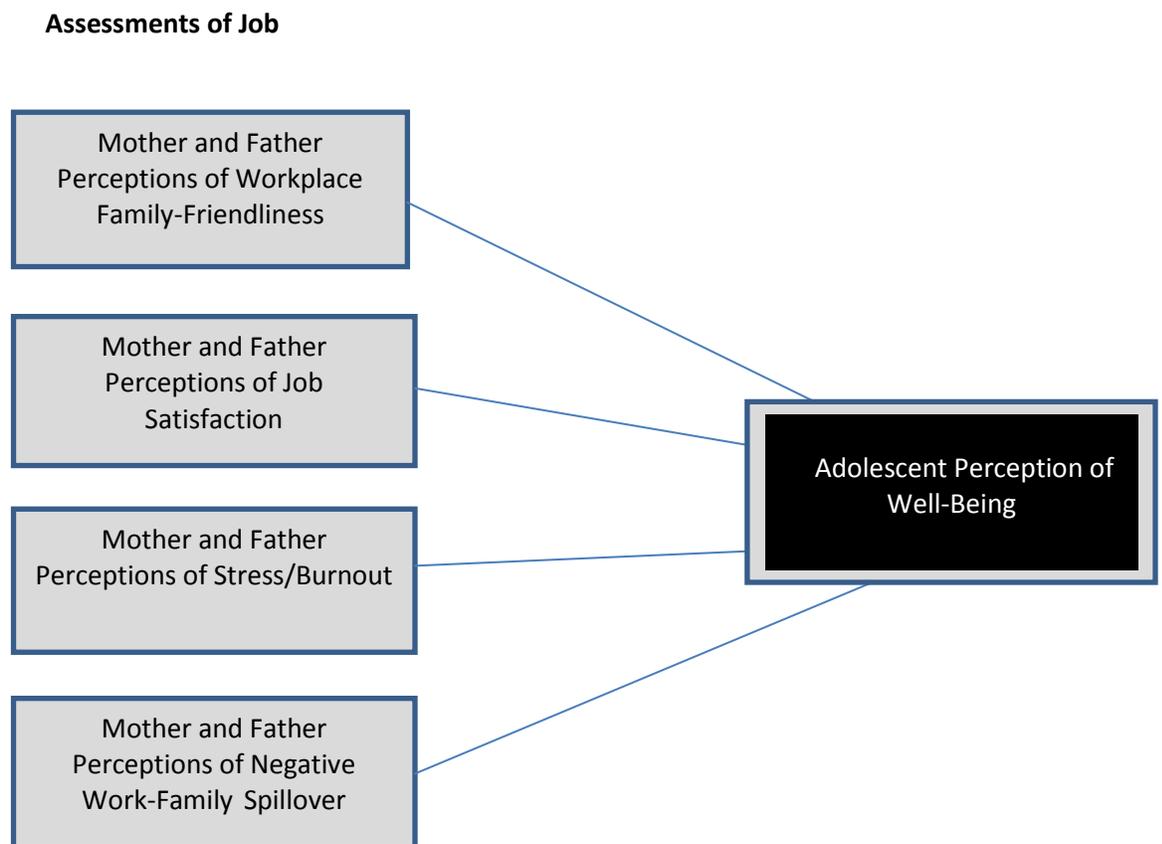


Figure 2 is a representation of the hypothesized mediating effect of adolescent perceptions of parental mood after work and adolescent perceptions of parental acceptance on the relationship between parental job assessments and adolescent self-reports of well-being.

FIGURE 2: Conceptual model - Mediation

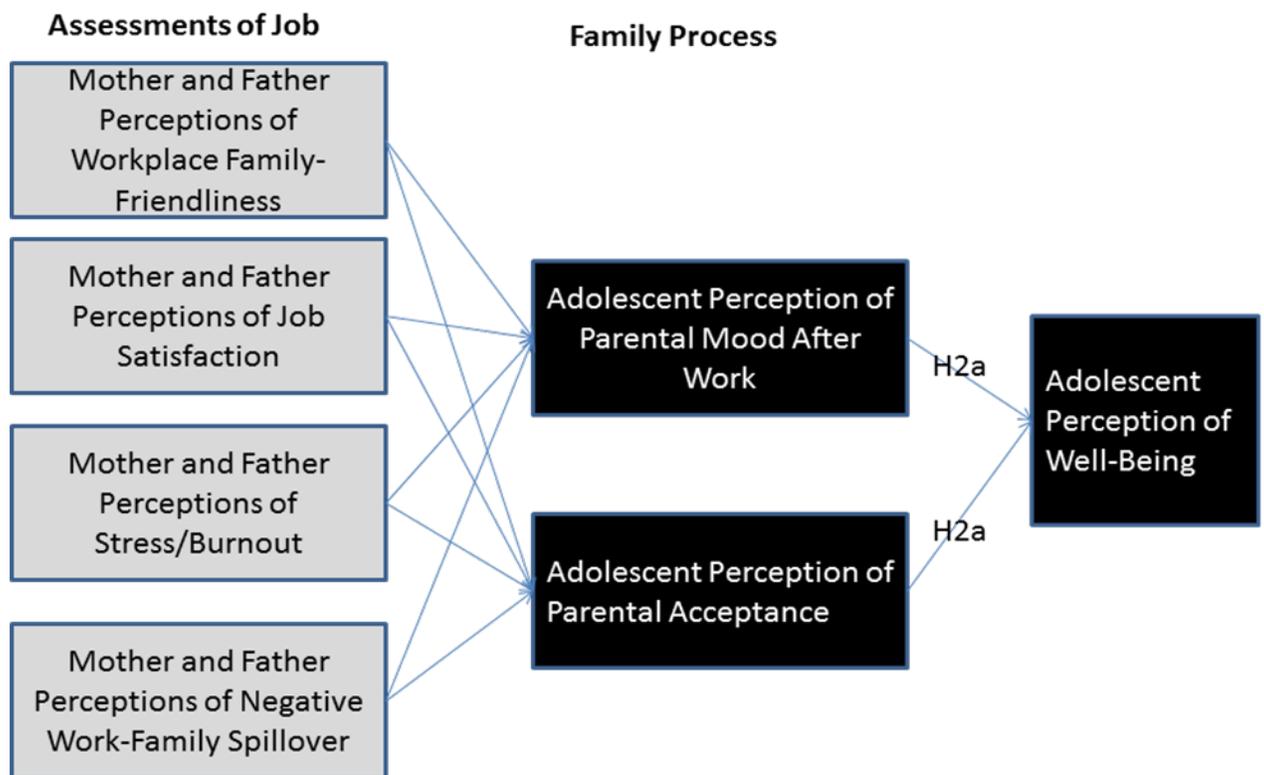
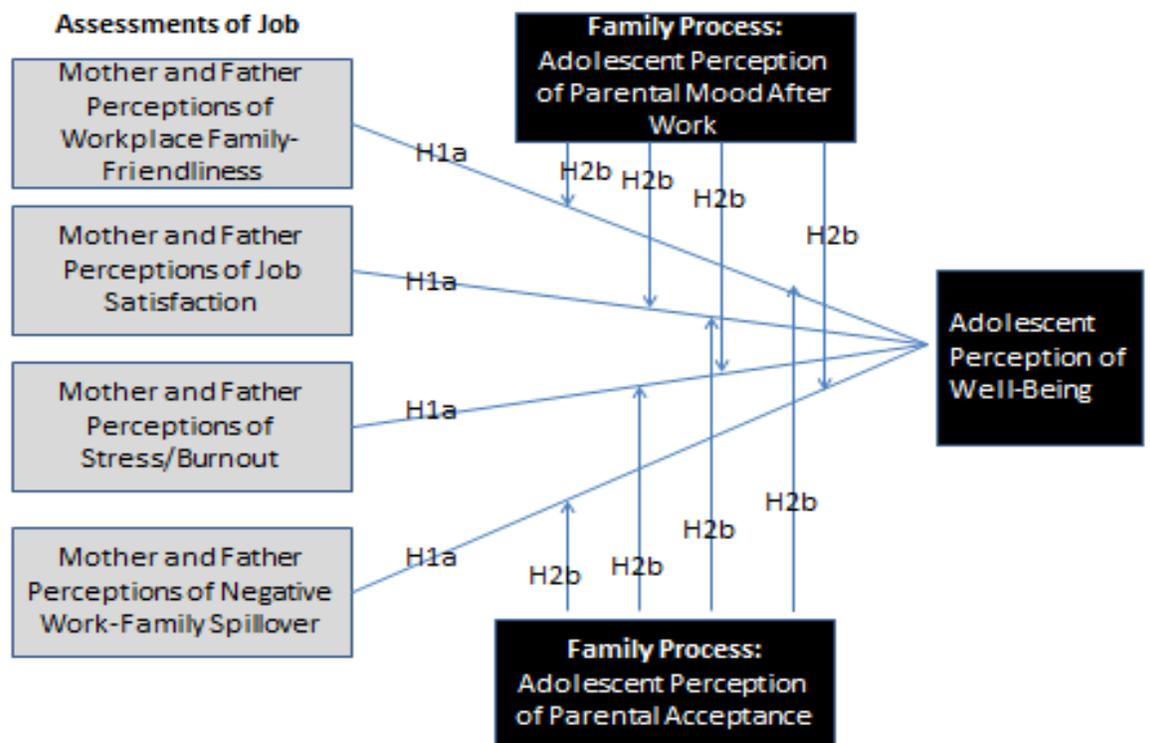


Figure 3 is a representation of the hypothesized moderating effect of adolescent perceptions of parental mood after work and adolescent perceptions of parental acceptance on the relationship between parental job assessments and adolescent self-reports of well-being.

FIGURE 3: Conceptual model - Moderation



The current study will explore the following research questions and hypotheses.

Research Question 1: Are parental job assessments related to their adolescents' self-reports of well-being?

The current study will analyze data to test the following hypotheses related to Figure 1 above.

H1a: Parental job assessments will be associated with adolescent well-being, with more family-friendly workplaces, greater job satisfaction, lower work stress, and lower spillover associated with higher adolescent well-being.

Research Question 2: As depicted in Figures 2 and 3 above, do adolescent perceptions of parental mood after work and parental acceptance mediate or moderate the relationships between parental job assessments and adolescent well-being?

The current study will analyze data to test the following hypothesis related to Figure 2 above.

H2a: Adolescent report of parental mood after work and parental acceptance will mediate the relationships between parental job assessments and adolescent well-being, such that any direct associations between parental job assessment and adolescent well-being will be reduced upon introducing family process variables.

The current study will analyze data to test the following hypothesis related to Figure 3 above.

H2b: Family processes, such as parental mood after work and parental acceptance, will moderate these links such that parental job assessments will be more strongly or weakly associated with adolescent well-being when combined with more positive or negative parental mood after work and parental acceptance.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Study Design

Researchers at Boston College and Purdue University conducted the Nurturing Families Study in 2000 to examine the experiences of dual-earner families and single, working parent families with at least one adolescent child in middle school. The study, funded by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, was designed to assess parent and adolescent perceptions of environment and relationships including community, school, work, and social supports. The present study is a cross-sectional analysis of data collected in the Nurturing Families Study. The Nurturing Families Study gathered data from 199 working families with at least one child in middle school (158 couples and 41 single-parent families).

Sample

The Nurturing Families Study used a two-stage cluster sampling approach to first identify communities appropriate for the research design, and to recruit families that lived in those communities (see Babbie, 1992; Henry, 1990). Initially using professional connections, members of the research team contacted school district leaders in several communities, from different geographic regions of the country (Northeast, Midwest, South, and West). The researchers attempted to gather data from families residing in communities with different profiles with regard to income, race/ethnicity, and population size. The resultant convenience sample included two communities located in the Northeast region of the United States, three in the Midwest, and one in the South. Two of

the communities (one in the Northeast and one in the South) had characteristics of new urbanist neighborhoods (for example, residences within walking distance of a village center). The communities ranged in size from slightly less than 20,000 to slightly more than 50,000 inhabitants. If US communities are divided into thirds according to population size, 1/3 have populations with fewer than 50,000 people; 1/3 have populations with 50,000 to 75,000 people, and 1/3 have populations with greater than 75,000 people (US Census, 1999). Although all of the communities were moderately sized, they were diverse in terms of socioeconomic characteristics. In 2001, the median family income in the United States was \$51,407; the median incomes for families in four of the towns were below this level, and two were above. The range of median family incomes in the communities was \$42,686 - \$91,049. The percentage of non-white residents ranged from 6% to 30%.

After developing collaborative relationships with school administrators in the selected communities, the researchers sent recruitment materials to the middle schools. Recruitment materials were distributed to the student classrooms to be sent home for parents to review. Parents then contacted the researchers if they were interested in participating in the study. After a brief phone screen and interview, each participating family was sent a welcome packet containing a pre-interview written questionnaire and a document for demographic information to be returned to the researchers. Upon receipt of the pre-interview questionnaire, the researchers scheduled face-to-face interviews with the family.

While the full sample included both two-parent and single-parent families, the current study was specifically interested in two-parent families. Thus, 41 single-parent

families were dropped from the analytic sample. Further, the present dissertation aimed to focus specifically on couples who were married and where both parents were currently working. Therefore, one couple was dropped from the analytic sample because they were a mother/daughter dyad caring for the daughter's middle school-aged child, and seven other families were dropped because they reported that only one of the parents was currently working (although the families considered this temporary or short-term unemployment status, thus for the larger study they were still considered dual-earner families). This resulted in a final N of 150 married, dual-earner families (that is, 150 mothers, 150 fathers, and 150 middle-school aged children).

Data Collection

In total, there were four data-collection points for each family that participated in the Nurturing Families Study. The data points included the pre-interview written questionnaire (sent to both parents), in-person face-to-face interviews (one with each of the three family members), an experience sampling study (data gathered from each parent over the period of one week post-interview), and a post-experience sampling phone interview. The present investigation uses selected data from the pre-interview written questionnaire and the face-to-face interviews.

Pre-interview written questionnaire

The pre-interview written questionnaires were distributed to parents only. See Appendix A for the pre-interview written questionnaire. The parent questionnaires consisted of sections entitled, How I Feel, How I see Myself, My Health, My Outlook on

Life, My Roles and Responsibilities, My Job, Managing My Life, Work and Family, and Demographics. The information gathered from these sections provided data about several important facets of the family's work-family experiences, including parental perceptions of self, parental work and family experiences, and parental functioning.

Face-to-face interview

See Appendix B for the face-to-face interview measures. The interview protocols used for parents and middle school aged children were pilot tested before data collection began. The principal investigators of the Nurturing Family Studies formally trained field staff on the interview implementation to ensure that the face-to-face interview process was consistent across families. In addition to formal training sessions, the research teams at Purdue University and Boston College held weekly phone calls for de-briefing and refreshers on interview skills and procedures.

The researchers interviewed adolescents, mothers, and fathers. To ensure that face-to-face interviews were not influenced by the presence of another family member, participants were interviewed in separate rooms. The researchers wanted to interview adolescents separate from parents so that the adolescents would trust that researchers would keep information in confidence (unless the child shared information indicating that someone was at risk or in danger).

Sections of the parent interview included: Family and Personal Demographics, Where You Live, Roles & Identity, Employment, Parenting, Marriage & Family, Strategies & Tactics, Work and Family Interface, and Social Supports. Information gathered from these sections consisted of family demographics that were not included in

the pre-interview survey, and covered topics such as household membership and ages of children, the community context, family relationships and functioning, managing work and family, and information about social networks such as connections to peers and religious organizations.

Often times, the adolescent interview was done in the adolescent's own room, after the interviewer had time to establish a positive rapport. Some of the questions in the adolescent interview were asked using dynamic 'card sorts' to more fully engage the adolescent in the process. Questions ranged from open-ended ("What do you know about the kind of work your mother does?") to itemized scales. Sections of the interview included: Where You Live, School Environment, My Parents, Health and Well-Being, Your Activities, and Civic Commitment. Most of the interview protocol centered around adolescent perceptions of environments and relationships.

Each interview lasted approximately one hour and families received a \$50 honorarium for their participation. Data for the current study are drawn from the pre-interview written questionnaires and face-to-face interviews. Typically, the time between pre-interview questionnaire and face-to-face interview was less than two months.

The current study uses data from a sample of 150 dual-earner couples and their adolescent children. Selected respondent background information is presented in Table 1. The families participating in the current study had an average of 2 children in the household, and the average age for the target child was 13 years. Half of the adolescent sample was male and half female. Average age for fathers was 44 and average age for mothers was 41. Families were mostly middle- to upper-middle class, with an average household income of approximately \$89,860.

Table 1. Sample Characteristics (unimputed data)

| | N | M | SD | Range |
|-------------------------------------|-----|----------|----------|--------------------|
| <i>Gender of Target Child</i> | | | | |
| Female | 148 | 0.50 | 0.50 | 0-1 |
| Male | 148 | 0.50 | 0.50 | 0-1 |
| <i>Age (in years)</i> | | | | |
| Mothers | 139 | 41.31 | 5.35 | 26-55 |
| Fathers | 120 | 43.98 | 5.45 | 29-58 |
| Children | 144 | 13.02 | 1.03 | 11-15 |
| <i>Education</i> | | | | |
| Mothers | | | | |
| Less than high school | 144 | 0.02 | 0.14 | 0-1 |
| High school | 144 | 0.22 | 0.41 | 0-1 |
| Post high school | 144 | 0.22 | 0.41 | 0-1 |
| College degree | 144 | 0.31 | 0.46 | 0-1 |
| Graduate degree | 144 | 0.24 | 0.43 | 0-1 |
| Fathers | | | | |
| Less than high school | 144 | 0.03 | 0.18 | 0-1 |
| High school | 144 | 0.23 | 0.42 | 0-1 |
| Post high school | 144 | 0.19 | 0.40 | 0-1 |
| College degree | 144 | 0.35 | 0.48 | 0-1 |
| Graduate degree | 144 | 0.19 | 0.40 | 0-1 |
| <i>Work Hours</i> | | | | |
| Mothers | 150 | 33.91 | 13.48 | 2-76 |
| Fathers | 150 | 46.82 | 10.01 | 15-100 |
| <i>Annual Income</i> | | | | |
| Mothers ^a | 144 | \$33,333 | \$23,467 | \$12,500-\$137,500 |
| Fathers ^a | 147 | \$56,037 | \$30,978 | \$12,500-\$137,500 |
| Total Household ^b | 143 | \$89,860 | \$41,137 | \$25,000-\$275,000 |
| <i>Household Size</i> | 149 | 4.49 | 0.89 | 3-8 |
| <i>Marriage Duration (in years)</i> | 140 | 15.87 | 6.83 | .84-28.33 |

^aCoded at midpoint of following income ranges: (1) \$0-\$25,000, (2) \$25,001-\$50,000, (3) \$50,001-\$75,000, (4) \$75,001-\$100,000, (5) \$100,001-\$125,000, and (6) \$125,001 or more (coded at \$137,500). ^bHusband and wife income from all sources, coded as shown in note ^a, added together.

Measurement

Dependent variable

Adolescent well-being

See Appendix C for the adolescent interview protocol measures. Data for the dependent variable, adolescent well-being (part of the face-to-face interview), were gathered using 13 items slightly adapted from two sub-scales of the School Success Profile (SSP) package of measurement instruments (Bowen & Richman, 2005). Items focused on two aspects of adolescent well-being that are central to healthy functioning during adolescence and are also key predictors of a successful transition to adulthood: physical health, and psychological well-being. After pilot testing, the researchers decided to re-frame a few items which suggested a negative perspective of the children's experiences (for example, 'tired or sleepy most of the day') to a more positive perspective ('wake up full of energy'). In addition, three of the original items were not included in the current measure: feel like running away from home, wonder whether anyone cares about me, and worry about my future. Finally, in response to some of the difficulties that the adolescents experienced with the original response scale, ranging from 1 (Not like Me) to 3 (A Lot like Me), the response options were changed to 1 (Never) and 3 (Often).

These new measures asked middle-school respondents how often, in the past seven days, they had experienced various positive and negative indicators of physical health and psychological well-being. Sample items measuring physical well-being included, "upset stomach," "trouble with your nerves," and "waking up full of energy." Sample items measuring psychological well-being included, "lonely," "confident," and

“pleased with yourself.” Items for both were measured on a 3-point response continuum (1=Never, 2=Sometimes, 3=Often).

A factor analysis of all of the individual items from both subscales revealed that all items loaded onto one new factor which showed a higher reliability than when the subscales were factored individually. Negatively worded items were reverse-coded. A mean score was calculated to create an overall well-being score that could range from 1 to 3, with higher numbers indicating greater well-being. The validity and reliability of the SSP has been supported in previous work (Bowen & Richman, 2001, 2005; Bowen, Rose, & Bowen, 2005). In the present study, the Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .73.

Independent variables

Mothers’ and fathers’ assessments of their jobs

Mothers and fathers individually reported assessments of their own jobs using the same measures within the face-to-face interview. Parental perception of workplace family-friendliness was measured using a single item, “Overall, how ‘family-friendly’ would you say your employer is?” Response options ranged from 1 (Not at All) to 4 (Very).

Parental report of job satisfaction was measured using two items. First, parents were asked to grade their jobs on a report card. In the face-to-face interview, parents could assign grades from 1 (A) to 5 (F). These items were reverse-coded so that a high score correlated with a better grade. In the pre-interview questionnaire, parents were asked a single item question, “Overall, how satisfied are you with your job?” Response options ranged from 1 (Not at All) to 4 (Very). The two items for mothers showed a

correlation for .58 for mothers and .56 for fathers (both $p < .000$). The two items were standardized so that they were both on the same scale and then averaged to form an overall score for mother's job satisfaction ($\alpha = .74$) and father's job satisfaction ($\alpha = .73$). Due to negative skew, job satisfaction was bottom-coded to -2.50 for mothers and -2.09 for fathers.

Parental report of job stress and burnout was measured with a three-item scale from the pre-interview questionnaire. Work-family literature has used a single measure to measure stress and burnout (Hill, Jacob, Shannon, Brennan, Blanchard, Martinengo, & Giuseppe, 2008) and the present study does so as well. The measure asked the following questions related to job stress, "During the past 3 months, how often have you felt: emotionally drained from your work, used up at the end of the workday, and burned out or stressed by your work?" Responses ranged from 0 (Never) to 4 (Nearly Always). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .81 for fathers and .91 for mothers.

Parental report of work-family spillover was measured using a single item from the pre-interview questionnaire. The question asked mothers and fathers, "How often does your work interfere with your family life?" Response options 1 (Not at All) to 4 (To a Very Great Extent).

Adolescent assessments of parental work and family

Adolescents reported on their perceptions of their interactions with their parents in two arenas, reporting separately on their mothers and fathers. Both reports were obtained during the face-to-face interview. First, adolescent perception of their parents' mood after work was measured. Adolescent perception of parents' mood after work was

assessed by asking the question, “How often does your mother/father come home from work in a good mood?” Response options range from 1 (Never) to 3 (Always). Because of the skewed responses, the three categories were dummy-coded such that 1 = always and 0 = never or sometimes.

Adolescent report of parental acceptance was measured using 10 items adapted from the acceptance subscale of the Children’s Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI), developed by Schaefer (1965). See Appendix C for a copy of this measure. Sample items include, “My mother/father makes me feel better after talking over my worries,” “My mother/father gives me a lot of care and attention,” and “My mother/father enjoys doing things with me.” Responses ranged from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 4 (Strongly Agree). Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .92 for fathers and .87 for mothers. In multivariate analyses, extreme values on scale scores were bottom coded to a value of 2.6 for both mother acceptance and father acceptance to bring these variables’ distribution closer to normal. Bottom-coding is for any outlying values that are contributing to a non-normal distribution (Osborne & Overbay, 2004).

Control variables

Two adolescent characteristics that have been shown in prior research to be associated with adolescent functioning were controlled for in the models to reduce the concern of spurious findings due to omitted variables. Adolescents’ gender was coded as female=1 and male=0 and age at the time of the interview was coded in years.

Some past studies have shown gender differences linking parents’ employment to child outcomes (Hoffman & Youngblade, 1999; Lerner & Galambos, 1991), in parent-

child relationships in general (for a review, see McHale, Crouter, & Whiteman, 2003), in youth reports of stressors (Flook & Fuligni, 2008; Larson & Ham, 1993), and in adolescent mood and psychological well-being (Larson & Richards, 1994; Millstein & Litt, 1990). There is some evidence suggesting that boys are particularly vulnerable when their mothers employed (e.g., lower academic achievement) but that maternal employment can be beneficial for girls by having a positive role model (Bronfenbrenner & Crouter, 1982). Second, mother daughter dyads experience more conflict and closeness than mother-son dyads (Savin-Williams & Small, 1986). Third, despite evidence that boys are particularly vulnerable for a host of behavioral and psychological problems (Rutter, 1983), girls tend to report more stressors (Compas & Wagner 1991; Larson & Ham, 1993). Adolescent gender was included in the face-to-face interview.

As for age, Bronfenbrenner and Crouter (1982) highlighted the importance of child's age as an important determinant of the optimal level of parent-child interaction. The average age of the adolescents included in the present dissertation is 13, with the youngest being 11 and the oldest being 15. Age of adolescent was included in the face-to-face interview.

In light of this evidence, both age and gender were controlled for in the present study. Measures of socioeconomic status were considered for controls, however, due to lack of significance and low power, were not included in the multivariate models.

The descriptive statistics for the individual items utilized in the study are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics

| | N | Mother | | |
|--|-----|--------|------|------------|
| | | M | SD | Range |
| Adolescent's well-being | 150 | 2.47 | 0.29 | 1.69-3.00 |
| Adolescent's gender ^a | 148 | 0.50 | 0.50 | 0-1 |
| Adolescent's age | 144 | 13.02 | 1.03 | 11-15 |
| Mother job family-friendliness | 144 | 3.42 | 0.81 | 1-4 |
| Father job family-friendliness | 148 | 3.26 | 0.82 | 1-4 |
| Mother stress/burnout | 147 | 1.94 | 0.94 | 0-4 |
| Father stress/burnout | 145 | 1.81 | 0.76 | 0-4 |
| Mother job satisfaction | 143 | -0.02 | 0.90 | -2.50-0.87 |
| Father job satisfaction | 144 | 0.04 | 0.89 | -3.33-1.33 |
| Mother work-family spillover | 145 | 2.10 | 0.86 | 1-4 |
| Father work-family spillover | 140 | 2.20 | 0.84 | 1-4 |
| Adolescent's report of mother mood after work ^b | 147 | 0.60 | 0.49 | 0-1 |
| Adolescent's report of father mood after work | 148 | 0.57 | 0.50 | 0-1 |
| Adolescent's report of mother acceptance | 147 | 3.47 | 0.38 | 1.90-4.00 |
| Adolescent's report of father acceptance | 145 | 3.33 | 0.52 | 1-4 |

^a 1=female, 0=male; ^b 1= mother/father always comes home from work in a good mood, 0= mother/father sometimes/never comes home from work in a good mood

Missing data

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), missing data are one of the most pervasive problems in data analysis. Missing data can have serious effects on the reliability, validity and generalizability of the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Efforts

were made to use data from as many family members as possible and to preserve as much data as possible.

There were no missing data for the dependent variable, adolescent well-being. Missing data ranged from a low of 1% to a high of 7% for the independent variables. The results of the missing value analysis are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Missing Values Analysis

| | Mother | | Father | |
|---|--------|----|--------|----|
| | Count | % | Count | % |
| Adolescent's well-being | 0 | 0% | 0 | 0% |
| Adolescent's gender | 2 | 1% | 2 | 1% |
| Adolescent's age | 6 | 4% | 6 | 4% |
| Parent's job family-friendliness | 6 | 4% | 2 | 1% |
| Parent's stress/burnout | 3 | 2% | 5 | 3% |
| Parent's job satisfaction | 7 | 5% | 6 | 4% |
| Parent's work-family spillover | 5 | 3% | 10 | 7% |
| Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | 3 | 2% | 2 | 1% |
| Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | 3 | 2% | 5 | 3% |

The type of missing data is more important than the amount of missing data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The three types of missing data are Missing Completely at Random (MCAR), Missing at Random (MAR), and Not Missing at Random (NMAR). When missing values are randomly distributed across all cases, the data are MCAR. When cases with missing data differ from cases with complete data, but the pattern of

data missingness on any given variable can be predicted from other variables in the dataset, the data are MAR. When the given variable is the only explanation for data missingness on the given variable, the data are NMAR. NMAR data are more problematic than are MCAR or MAR data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Missing data analysis in the present study found that the missing values were MCAR. However, due to the small sample size, efforts were made to preserve each case possible.

One strategy to handle missing data is to estimate missing values. Several estimation strategies exist (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Multiple imputation is one highly regarded estimation strategy (Graham, Olchowski, & Gilreath, 2007). Multiple imputation by chained equations (MICE) was used to handle missing data in the present study. MICE runs regression models to generate plausible values for missing data with information from available data. Variables with missing data are regressed on other variables in the dataset and missing values are simulated. An important feature of MICE is its ability to handle different variable types (continuous, binary, etc.) because each variable is imputed using its own imputation model (White, Royston, & Wood, 2010). The process is repeated multiple times for each imputed dataset. Each time, variables with simulated values are used to predict missing values again. Simulations are updated with each iteration until the model converges. Multiple datasets are imputed. MICE was used to impute twenty datasets in the current study so that medium and large effects could be identified in final analyses. Fewer imputations might result in lower levels of power and higher standard errors (Graham, Olchowski, & Gilreath, 2007).

Statistical Analysis

The data utilized in the current dissertation were managed and analyzed using SPSS 18.0 (SPSS Inc., 2011) and STATA 11 SE (Stata Corp., 2011). Because mothers, fathers, and adolescents came from the same household, it was important to account for possible statistical dependency between predictors and child wellbeing. Multilevel modeling or hierarchical linear modeling is typically used when respondents are nested within households on the dependent variable. For example, if the dependent variable was made up of well-being scores for multiple members of a household, then individual well-being would be nested within households. However, in this case, the dependent variable is child well-being, as predicted by mother, father and child reports of different factors. In situations such as this, it is important to explore whether the correlation between the independent variables is too high to include mother and father variables in the same model. There was a high correlation between adolescent reports of mother acceptance and of father acceptance ($r=.69$). Therefore, it was decided to have separate models for mothers and fathers. Thus, following Strazdins, Shipley, Clements, Obrien, & Broom (2010), the current analysis employed the seemingly unrelated regression (SUR) procedure (suest) available in Stata 11. This technique estimates multiple regression equations (one for mothers and one for fathers) simultaneously, allowing both equations' error terms to be correlated.

An important objective of the present study was to determine whether or not adolescent perception of mother's and father's mood after work and parental acceptance moderated or mediated the relationship between parental workplace characteristics and

adolescent self-report of well-being. Analyses methods recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986) and Sobel (1982) were employed to investigate these relationships.

Initially, main effects models were run to examine the relationships between the independent variables and the outcome variable, adolescent well-being. Following these main effects models, modifications were made to the main effects models in order to test for moderation and mediation. Mediation was run using four steps: 1) examine if the independent variable was significantly associated with the mediator, 2) examine if the independent variable was significantly associated with the dependent variable in the absence of the mediator, 3) examine whether the mediator has a significant unique effect on the dependent variable, and 4) examine whether the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable was reduced upon the addition of the mediator to the model. For the first step, it is important to note that because the mediator variable, parent's mood after work, was dichotomous, logistic regression was employed in this case. Following these analyses, Sobel tests were conducted to test for statistical significance of any mediated relationships. Moderation was tested by running a main effects model and then adding in the interaction effects in a subsequent step. Variance inflation factors were run after each model to examine multicollinearity. Mean VIF values were under 3, indicating no problem with multicollinearity.

Preliminary analyses were performed to assess whether the assumptions of regression analysis were met. Skewness and kurtosis values were examined, normal distribution was met, and reliability statistics were calculated. Significant deviations from normality were dealt with using bottom coding, as described above. Measures were considered adequate and internally consistent, therefore regression analyses were

conducted. All continuous variables were grand mean centered in analyses to reduce potential collinearity problems.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Bivariate Analysis

Correlations and t-tests were run to examine the relationships between the variables included in the models. See Table 4 for the details of the correlation findings.

Table 4. Correlations among study variables (unimputed variables)

| | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. | 10. | 11. | 12. | 13. | 14. |
|--|--------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|-------|--------|-------|-------|--------|-------|---------|
| 1. Adolescent's health and happiness | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Adolescent's sex (1=girl, 0=boy) | -0.16* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Adolescent's age | 0.07 | -0.14 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Mother's job family-friendliness | -0.07 | 0.15 | -0.13 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Father's job family-friendliness | 0.07 | 0.00 | -0.21* | 0.18* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Mother's stress/burnout | -0.02 | -0.06 | 0.05 | -0.27* | -0.05 | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Father's stress/burnout | 0.09 | -0.13 | -0.04 | 0.05 | -0.16* | 0.10 | | | | | | | | |
| 8. Mother's job satisfaction | -0.05 | 0.10 | -0.10 | 0.52** | 0.02 | -0.29* | -0.06 | | | | | | | |
| 9. Father's job satisfaction | -0.08 | 0.16 | 0.01 | 0.08 | 0.35** | -0.01 | -0.43** | 0.08 | | | | | | |
| 10. Mother's work-family spillover | 0.02 | 0.00 | 0.06 | -0.19* | -0.12 | 0.42** | 0.13 | -0.11 | -0.12 | | | | | |
| 11. Father's work-family spillover | -0.04 | 0.08 | 0.11 | 0.06 | -0.19 | -0.01 | 0.27* | 0.04 | -0.29* | 0.20 | | | | |
| 12. Adolescent's report of mother's mood after work ^a | 0.27* | 0.03 | 0.01 | 0.20* | -0.06 | -0.06 | -0.02 | 0.15 | 0.00 | -0.06 | -0.01 | | | |
| 13. Adolescent's report of father's mood after work | 0.24* | 0.06 | 0.02 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.00 | -0.26* | -0.03 | 0.05 | 0.01 | -0.10 | 0.34** | | |
| 14. Adolescent's report of mother parental acceptance | 0.30** | 0.10 | 0.08 | 0.08 | -0.05 | 0.00 | 0.02 | 0.16* | 0.01 | -0.01 | -0.02 | 0.23* | 0.09 | |
| 15. Adolescent's report of father parental acceptance | 0.31** | 0.06 | 0.12 | 0.08 | 0.06 | 0.00 | -0.03 | 0.10 | 0.08 | -0.03 | 0.00 | 0.17* | 0.25* | 0.69*** |

Note: Correlations $>|.15|$ are statistically significant at $p<.05$. ^a 1= mother/father ALWAYS comes home from work in a good mood, 0= mother/father sometimes/never comes home from work in a good mood

* = weak ($<.30$), ** = moderate ($.30-.60$), *** = strong ($>.60$)

Results from the correlations indicate that there were several weak correlations. As for more moderate strength correlations, findings suggest that parental job satisfaction was related to perceptions of job family-friendliness, and fathers' job satisfaction was also negatively related to stress and burnout. For mothers, stress and burnout was moderately related to their perception of the extent to which work interferes with family. Adolescent perception of mother's and father's mood after work were moderately correlated, and adolescent perceptions of mothers' and fathers' parental acceptance was strongly correlated. Lastly, adolescent reports of mothers' and fathers' levels of parental acceptance were both moderately correlated with adolescent well-being.

Two-sample t-tests with equal variances were conducted to compare the differences in means in adolescent well-being between males and females, parents coming home from work in a good mood, and high and low values of our independent variables. For the t-tests, continuous independent variables were split by their mean value such that low values are those that are less than the mean and high values are those that are greater than or equal to the mean. See Table 5 for the results from the t-tests.

Table 5. Mean adolescent well-being for high and low values of study independent variables

| | Mean Well-Being for High Value on IV (SD) | Mean Well-Being for Low Value on IV (SD) | <i>t</i> |
|--|---|--|----------|
| Adolescent's sex ^a | 2.42 (.31) | 2.52 (.27) | 2.02* |
| Adolescent's age | 2.48 (.28) | 2.45 (.31) | -0.69 |
| Mother's job family-friendliness | 2.45 (.30) | 2.51 (.28) | 1.30 |
| Father's job family-friendliness | 2.47 (.31) | 2.47 (.28) | 0.05 |
| Mother's stress/burnout | 2.48 (.30) | 2.46 (.29) | -0.46 |
| Father's stress/burnout | 2.50 (.30) | 2.43 (.29) | -1.39 |
| Mother's job satisfaction | 2.46 (.32) | 2.50 (.25) | 0.94 |
| Father's job satisfaction | 2.44 (.30) | 2.49 (.29) | 1.05 |
| Mother's work-family spillover | 2.51 (.28) | 2.45 (.30) | -1.17 |
| Father's work-family spillover | 2.44 (.28) | 2.49 (.30) | 0.86 |
| Adolescent's report of mother's mood after work ^b | 2.53 (.28) | 2.37 (.30) | -3.31*** |
| Adolescent's report of father's mood after work ^b | 2.54 (.29) | 2.39 (.31) | -3.04** |
| Adolescent's report of mother parental acceptance | 2.55 (.26) | 2.39 (.31) | -3.45*** |
| Adolescent's report of father parental acceptance | 2.54 (.29) | 2.39 (.27) | -2.98** |

Note. Continuous independent variables were split by their mean value such that low values are those that are less than the mean and high values are those that are greater than or equal to the mean.

^a High value= girl, low value= boy; ^b High value = always comes home from work in a good mood, low value = sometimes/ never comes home from work in a good mood)

* = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$

The t-test results suggest that gender, parental mood after work, and parental acceptance are related to adolescent well-being. Specifically, the results suggest that boys, adolescents whose parents come home from work in a good mood, and adolescents whose parents are more accepting have better reports of well-being.

Multivariate Analyses

Controls

In Table 6, Model A, the control variables were tested by themselves to examine their significance. The present study finds that being female was significantly and negatively associated with adolescent's report of well-being. Adolescent age was not significant in these models.

Main effects

Research question 1 asked, "Are parental job assessments related to their adolescents' reports of well-being?" In order to examine this question, a direct effects model was run to illustrate the relationships between parent perceptions of a family-friendly workplace, job satisfaction, stress and burnout, and work to family spillover, and adolescent report of well-being.

Workplace characteristics were tested individually to examine their impact on adolescent well-being. As can be seen in Tables 6 and 7, Models B-E, the main effects of parents' workplace characteristics were added to the model individually. For fathers, as seen in Table 7, there was no significant relationship between parental report of

workplace characteristics and adolescent report of well-being. Therefore, hypothesis H1a, which stated that parental workplace characteristics would be related to well-being, was unsupported. For mothers, as seen in Table 6, very similar results were revealed. There were no significant relationships between the mother's perceptions of her workplace characteristics and her adolescent's well-being, therefore, hypothesis H1a remained unsupported. When the workplace variables were entered simultaneously, as seen in Model F, results were substantively identical to when they were entered individually.

Table 6: Mother Direct Effects

| | Model A - Controls only | | Model B - FF | | Model C - BURN | | Model D - JOBSAT | | Model E – SPILL | | Model F - All job variables simultaneously | |
|---|----------------------------|-------|--------------|-------|----------------|-------|---------------------|-------|-----------------|-------|--|-------|
| Mother | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE |
| Intercept | 2.519*** | 0.032 | 2.518*** | 0.032 | 2.520*** | 0.032 | 2.518*** | 0.032 | 2.519*** | 0.032 | 2.519*** | 0.032 |
| Adolescent's sex (1=girl, 0=boy) | -0.093* | 0.048 | -0.090 | 0.048 | -0.094 | 0.049 | -0.091 | 0.049 | -0.094 | 0.048 | -0.091 | 0.048 |
| Adolescent's age | 0.014 | 0.024 | 0.013 | 0.024 | 0.014 | 0.024 | 0.013 | 0.024 | 0.013 | 0.024 | 0.012 | 0.024 |
| Parent's job family- friendliness | | | -0.014 | 0.033 | | | | | | | -0.006 | 0.038 |
| Parent's stress/ burnout | | | | | -0.010 | 0.026 | | | | | -0.025 | 0.029 |
| Parent's job satisfaction | | | | | | | -0.019 | 0.030 | | | -0.022 | 0.033 |
| Parent's work- family spillover | | | | | | | | | 0.014 | 0.026 | 0.023 | 0.027 |

* = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$

Table 7: Father Direct Effects

| | Model A - Controls only | | Model B - FF | | Model C - BURN | | Model D - JOBSAT | | Model E – SPILL | | Model F - All job variables simultaneously | |
|---|----------------------------|-------|--------------|-------|-------------------|-------|---------------------|-------|-----------------|-------|--|-------|
| Father | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE |
| Intercept | 2.519*** | 0.032 | 2.519*** | 0.032 | 2.517*** | 0.032 | 2.517*** | 0.032 | 2.519*** | 0.032 | 2.511*** | 0.032 |
| Adolescent's sex (1=girl, 0=boy) | -0.093 | 0.048 | -0.092 | 0.048 | -0.088 | 0.049 | -0.088 | 0.048 | -0.092 | 0.049 | -0.074 | 0.049 |
| Adolescent's age | 0.014 | 0.024 | 0.018 | 0.025 | 0.015 | 0.024 | 0.014 | 0.024 | 0.015 | 0.025 | 0.024 | 0.026 |
| Parent's job family- friendliness | | | 0.031 | 0.032 | | | | | | | 0.043 | 0.036 |
| Parent's stress/burnout | | | | | 0.021 | 0.031 | | | | | 0.022 | 0.033 |
| Parent's job satisfaction | | | | | | | -0.021 | 0.027 | | | -0.034 | 0.030 |
| Parent's work- family spillover | | | | | | | | | -0.011 | 0.032 | -0.022 | 0.034 |

* = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$

Mediated effects

Research question 2 asked, “Do adolescent perceptions of parental mood after work and parental acceptance mediate the relationships between parental job assessments and adolescent well-being?” Hypothesis H2a stated, “Adolescent report of parental mood after work and parental acceptance will mediate the relationships between parental job assessments and adolescent well-being, such that any negative impact of parental job assessment on adolescent well-being will be reduced upon introducing family process variables.” As stated previously, mediation was tested using four steps.

First, tests were run to see if the independent variable was significantly associated with the mediator. Independent variables were entered individually and them simultaneously. In an unreported model, regression and logistic regression results revealed that two of the independent variables were associated with the mediators. For fathers, their perception of their level of job stress and burnout significantly and negatively predicted whether or not their adolescent reported that their father came home from work in a good mood ($b = -.76, p < .01$). For mothers, family friendliness of their workplace positively and significantly predicted whether or not their adolescent reported that they came home from work in a good mood ($b = .510, p < .05$).

Second, tests were run to see if the independent variable significantly affected the dependent variable in the absence of the mediator. As mentioned previously in regards to the main effects model, the findings were insignificant.

Thirdly, tests were run to determine whether the mediator had a significant unique effect on the dependent variable. To test this, and as can be seen in Tables 8 and 9, Model G, the main effects of parental mood was added to the models. Findings suggest

that there was a significant and positive relationship between adolescent report of father coming home from work in a good mood and adolescent well-being ($b = .17, p < .001$). For mothers, there was also a significant and positive relationship between adolescent report of mother coming home from work in a good mood and adolescent well-being ($b = .17, p < .001$).

Next, as can be seen in Tables 8 and 9, Model H, parental acceptance was added in lieu of parental mood after work. There was a significant and positive relationship between adolescent report of father acceptance and adolescent well-being ($b = .23, p < .001$). Additionally, there was a significant and positive relationship between adolescent report of mother acceptance and adolescent well-being ($b = .27, p < .001$).

When both family process variables were entered simultaneously, as seen in Tables 8 and 9, Model I, results remained fairly consistent. For fathers, as seen in Table 9, parental mood after work ($b = .12, p < .01$) and parental acceptance ($b = .20, p < .001$) remained significant. For mothers, as seen in Table 8, parental mood after work ($b = .13, p < .01$) and acceptance ($b = .23, p < .001$) also remained significant.

Fourth and finally, it was examined whether the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable was reduced upon the addition of the mediator to the model. There was little to no change in the coefficient as a result of the addition of the mediators. Further, due to the insignificance of the independent variables in step 2, it is concluded that there is no mediation effect.

Table 8: Mother Mediated Effects

| | Model G - Good mood without acceptance | | Model H - Acceptance without good mood | | Model I - Both moderators together | |
|---|--|-------|--|-------|------------------------------------|-------|
| Mother | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE |
| Intercept | 2.414*** | 0.043 | 2.532*** | 0.030 | 2.452*** | 0.043 |
| Adolescent's sex (1=girl, 0=boy) | -0.092* | 0.046 | -0.115* | 0.046 | -0.112* | 0.044 |
| Adolescent's age | 0.007 | 0.023 | -0.004 | 0.024 | -0.005 | 0.023 |
| Parent's job family-friendliness | -0.026 | 0.038 | -0.006 | 0.033 | -0.020 | 0.034 |
| Parent's stress/burnout | -0.026 | 0.027 | -0.032 | 0.027 | -0.031 | 0.026 |
| Parent's job satisfaction | -0.025 | 0.030 | -0.038 | 0.030 | -0.038 | 0.028 |
| Parent's work-family spillover | 0.023 | 0.025 | 0.025 | 0.025 | 0.025 | 0.024 |
| Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | 0.174*** | 0.047 | | | 0.131** | 0.049 |
| Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | | | 0.270*** | 0.057 | 0.227*** | 0.059 |

* = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$

Table 9: Father Mediated Effects

| | Model G - Good mood without acceptance | | Model H - Acceptance without good mood | | Model I - Both moderators together | |
|---|--|-------|--|-------|------------------------------------|-------|
| Father | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE |
| Intercept | 2.419*** | 0.043 | 2.518*** | 0.032 | 2.451*** | 0.040 |
| Adolescent's sex (1=girl, 0=boy) | -0.077 | 0.047 | -0.085 | 0.048 | -0.086 | 0.046 |
| Adolescent's age | 0.023 | 0.025 | 0.006 | 0.026 | 0.008 | 0.026 |
| Parent's job family-friendliness | 0.043 | 0.035 | 0.033 | 0.035 | 0.034 | 0.035 |
| Parent's stress/burnout | 0.054 | 0.031 | 0.022 | 0.030 | 0.045 | 0.029 |
| Parent's job satisfaction | -0.024 | 0.028 | -0.037 | 0.030 | -0.029 | 0.028 |
| Parent's work-family spillover | -0.019 | 0.034 | -0.017 | 0.033 | -0.015 | 0.033 |
| Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | 0.167** | 0.049 | | | 0.120** | 0.045 |
| Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | | | 0.234*** | 0.052 | 0.199*** | 0.049 |

* = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$

Sobel tests found similar results; none of the paths between the workplace variables and either mediator were statistically significant for mothers or fathers.

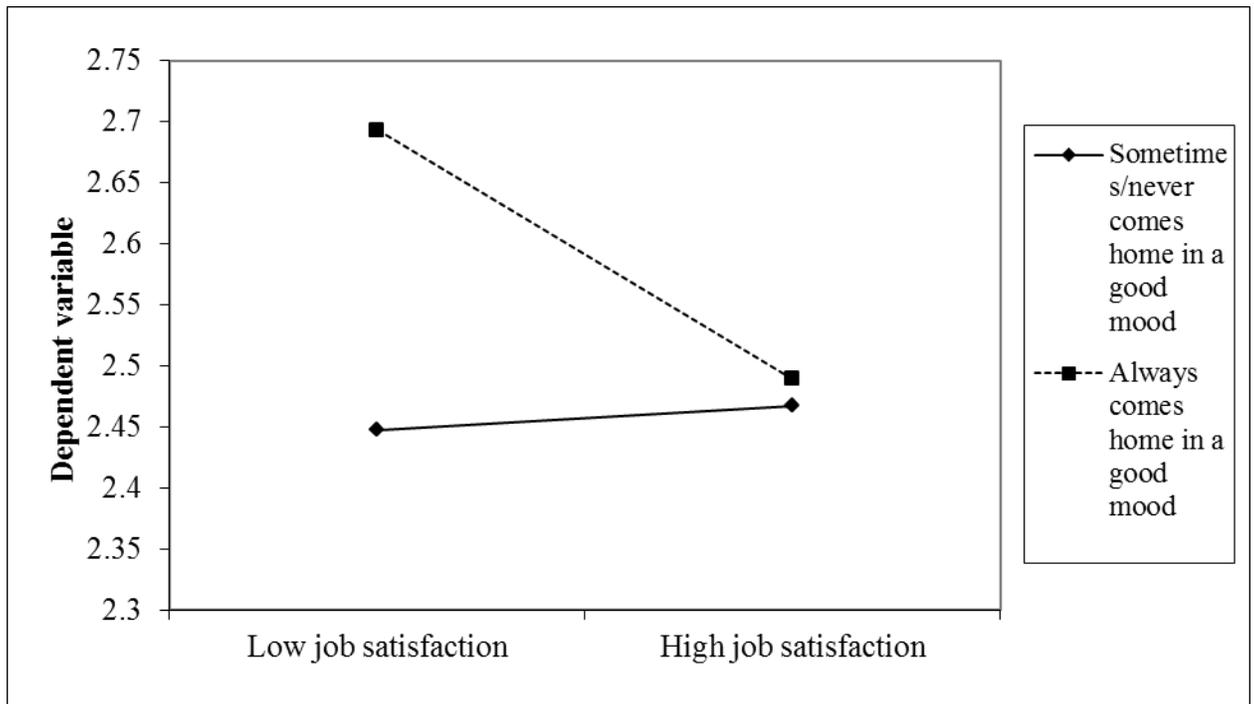
Moderated effects

Hypothesis H2b stated, “Family processes, such as parental mood after work and parental acceptance, will moderate these links such that more positive parental job assessments will be more strongly associated with adolescent well-being when combined with more positive parental mood after work and parental acceptance.” To test the presence of any moderated effects between the variables, models were run with direct effects and interaction effects included. First, as can be seen in Tables 10 and 11, Model J, this model included parental mood after work as a potential moderator. Then, as seen in Tables 10 and 11, Model K, parental acceptance was substituted for parental mood after work. For fathers, as seen in Table 11, none of the interaction effects in either model resulted in significant findings.

A different and noteworthy pattern of moderation emerged when the model was run for mothers. With mood after work as the moderator, there was a negative and significant interaction between mother’s perception of job satisfaction and adolescent report of mother coming home from work in a good mood predicting adolescent report of well-being ($b = -.12, p < .05$). Results were graphed to aid interpretation. Therefore, mothers’ after-work mood moderated the relationship between mother’s job satisfaction and adolescent well-being such that when mother’s job satisfaction was low, adolescent perceptions of whether or not she came home from work in a good mood made a

difference in adolescent reports of well-being more so than when job satisfaction was high. See Figure 4 for a graphical representation of this moderation effect.

Figure 4: Moderation of mother's job satisfaction and adolescent well-being

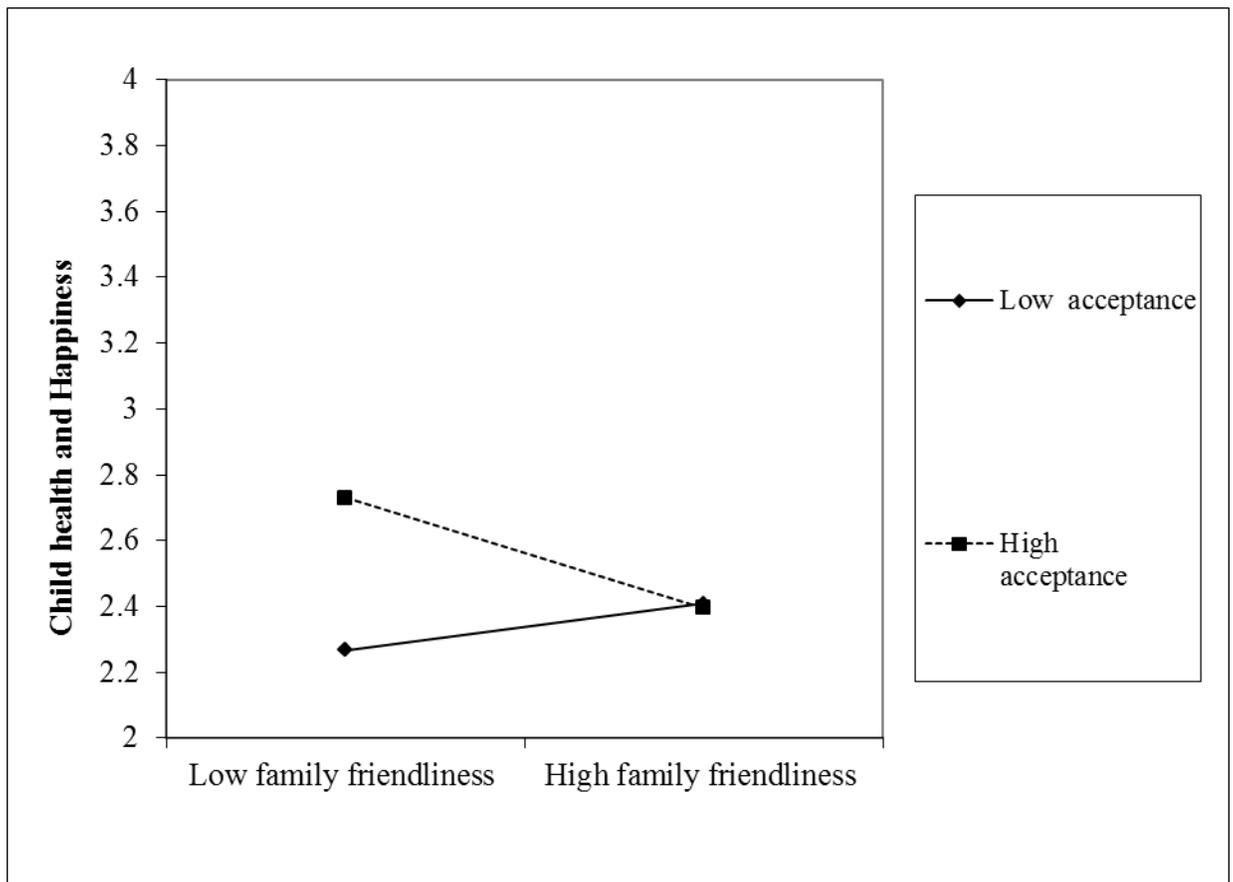


This finding also supports hypothesis H2b which states that adolescent report of parental mood after work will moderate the relationship between parental perception of job satisfaction and adolescent report of well-being.

Additional findings were revealed with acceptance as the moderator. In addition to the reported direct effects, there was a negative and significant interaction between mother's perception of job family-friendliness and adolescent report of mother's acceptance predicting adolescent report of well-being ($b = -.17, p < .05$). See Figure 5 for a graphical representation of this moderation effect. Therefore, mothers' acceptance of her adolescent moderated the relationship between mother's job family-friendliness

and adolescent well-being. For mothers with high family-friendliness, their level of acceptance was not associated with adolescent well-being. However, among mothers with low family-friendliness, mother acceptance can make a difference in adolescent well-being.

Figure 5: Moderation of mother's family-friendliness and adolescent well-being



This finding supports hypothesis H2b which states that adolescent report of parent's acceptance will moderate the relationship between parental perception of job family-friendliness and adolescent report of well-being.

When parental mood after work and parental acceptance were entered simultaneously, as seen in Tables 10 and 11, Model L, results indicate that the findings

were substantively the same when the moderators were tested individually or simultaneously in models.

Table 10: Mother Moderated Effects

| Mother | Model J - All interactions with good mood without acceptance | | Model K - All interactions with acceptance without good mood | | Model L - Full model | |
|--|--|-------|--|-------|----------------------|-------|
| | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE |
| Intercept | 2.425*** | 0.044 | 2.536*** | 0.029 | 2.459*** | 0.042 |
| Adolescent's sex (1=girl, 0=boy) | -0.099* | 0.047 | -0.120** | 0.045 | -0.125** | 0.045 |
| Adolescent's age | 0.015 | 0.023 | -0.002 | 0.025 | 0.003 | 0.024 |
| Parent's job family-friendliness | -0.042 | 0.054 | 0.001 | 0.033 | -0.050 | 0.042 |
| Parent's stress/burnout | -0.049 | 0.064 | -0.038 | 0.028 | -0.087 | 0.063 |
| Parent's job satisfaction | 0.039 | 0.038 | -0.061 | 0.034 | 0.011 | 0.040 |
| Parent's work-family spillover | 0.041 | 0.046 | 0.025 | 0.025 | 0.052 | 0.046 |
| Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | 0.170*** | 0.047 | | | 0.130** | 0.047 |
| Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | | | 0.271*** | 0.056 | 0.217*** | 0.056 |
| Parent's job family-friendliness X Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | 0.021 | 0.074 | | | 0.070 | 0.065 |
| Parent's stress/burnout X Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | 0.037 | 0.070 | | | 0.068 | 0.068 |
| Parent's job satisfaction X Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | -0.120* | 0.056 | | | -0.119* | 0.052 |
| Parent's work-family spillover X Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | -0.020 | 0.055 | | | -0.034 | 0.056 |
| Parent's job family-friendliness X Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | | | -0.167* | 0.069 | -0.190** | 0.073 |
| Parent's stress/burnout X Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | | | 0.005 | 0.072 | -0.032 | 0.068 |
| Parent's job satisfaction X Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | | | 0.017 | 0.071 | 0.089 | 0.068 |
| Parent's work-family spillover X Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | | | 0.038 | 0.072 | 0.043 | 0.067 |

* = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$

Table 11: Father Moderated Effects

| Father | Model J - All interactions with good mood without acceptance | | Model K - All interactions with acceptance without good mood | | Model L - Full model | |
|--|--|-------|--|-------|----------------------|-------|
| | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE | Coef. | SE |
| Intercept | 2.409*** | 0.044 | 2.517*** | 0.032 | 2.440*** | 0.041 |
| Adolescent's sex (1=girl, 0=boy) | -0.080 | 0.048 | -0.085 | 0.048 | -0.085 | 0.047 |
| Adolescent's age | 0.023 | 0.025 | 0.005 | 0.026 | 0.008 | 0.025 |
| Parent's job family-friendliness | 0.075 | 0.046 | 0.036 | 0.037 | 0.046 | 0.047 |
| Parent's stress/burnout | 0.124** | 0.052 | 0.020 | 0.032 | 0.067 | 0.054 |
| Parent's job satisfaction | -0.032 | 0.043 | -0.045 | 0.030 | -0.042 | 0.047 |
| Parent's work-family spillover | -0.056 | 0.049 | -0.025 | 0.033 | -0.034 | 0.047 |
| Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | 0.173*** | 0.048 | | | 0.127*** | 0.043 |
| Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | | | 0.233*** | 0.052 | 0.195*** | 0.048 |
| Parent's job family-friendliness X Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | -0.046 | 0.069 | | | -0.013 | 0.064 |
| Parent's stress/burnout X Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | -0.102 | 0.063 | | | -0.038 | 0.066 |
| Parent's job satisfaction X Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | 0.022 | 0.056 | | | 0.016 | 0.055 |
| Parent's work-family spillover X Adolescent's report of parent's mood after work | 0.062 | 0.065 | | | 0.025 | 0.058 |
| Parent's job family-friendliness X Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | | | -0.071 | 0.079 | -0.055 | 0.077 |
| Parent's stress/burnout X Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | | | -0.103 | 0.070 | -0.065 | 0.072 |
| Parent's job satisfaction X Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | | | 0.041 | 0.065 | 0.032 | 0.066 |
| Parent's work-family spillover X Adolescent's report of parental acceptance | | | 0.002 | 0.071 | -0.033 | 0.068 |

* = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this dissertation was to further explore the connections between parental perceptions of their workplaces and adolescent self-reports of well-being, and to better understand if family processes such as parental mood after work and parental acceptance play an important role in the way adolescents perceive themselves. Kanter (1977) articulated the importance of individual experiences and their impact on the family, and how individuals and family members do not lead separate lives at work and at home. This study builds upon that notion.

For dual-earner families, there are multiple challenges to balancing work and home domains. These challenges are exacerbated when there are adolescents present. As the number of dual-earner families increases, gaining a fuller understanding about the impact of work on families is essential to offering support for well-being.

Workplaces and families can both benefit from insights into how work can enhance the family domain and how family can enhance the work domain. In order to maintain loyal and productive employees, it behooves employers to understand the personal dynamics that may be at play for workers. Additionally, if children are expected to maintain a sense of well-being and become productive citizens, it is critical to understand what relationships, and, if necessary, what interventions might be helpful to support those children.

To date, most work-family research has focused on families with young children, not families with adolescents. Given their unique developmental needs and challenges,

and simultaneous desires for familial support and autonomy, it is important that the work-family field bridge this gap. Researchers, practitioners, and families should have an understanding of the pivotal time of life that is adolescence, and why it is necessary to garner as much knowledge as possible about adolescent well-being and development. The present dissertation builds on the small body of research examining workplace impacts on adolescent children in dual-earner homes.

While adolescents spread their wings and explore critical peer relationships, they must also remain solidly grounded in their familial environments. For working parents, this can present a challenge with conflicting schedules, negative parental attitudes toward work, and family outcomes of work stress such as fewer positive parent-child interactions. Adolescent children of working parents should be understood and supported in order to enhance their potential.

A concept termed the “long arm” of the job (Crouter & McHale, 2005; Menaghan, 1991) explains how the workplace can “reach” children via the effects of the parent’s job on the parent-child relationship (Barling, 1990; Bronfenbrenner & Crouter, 1982; Davis, 2008; Hoffman & Youngblade, 1999; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). The challenge of the present study was to illuminate the potential of both direct and indirect effects between the workplace, the family, and adolescent outcomes.

Work-family dynamics are about shared experiences, not simply employer to employee, but also in familial relationships. Positive and negative work experiences are not just personal for an employee; rather, they can be contagious resources or stressors which may lead to outcomes for members of the employee’s family, including, and importantly, adolescent children.

The first section of the current chapter is dedicated to an overview and interpretation of findings related to parental assessments of their jobs and potential direct linkages with adolescent well-being. The second section provides an overview and interpretation of findings related to adolescent perceptions of parental mood after work and parental acceptance, and the possible mediating and moderating effects on relationships between parental job assessment and adolescent well-being. The third section is a discussion of the relevant implications of the study for policy, research, and social work practice. Finally, the chapter concludes with a discussion of the strengths and potential limitations of this study, and recommends areas of future research.

Findings

Control variables

The present dissertation examined the effect of two control variables on adolescent well-being: gender and age. Gender had a direct and significant relationship with adolescent well-being. Bivariate analyses revealed that males and females have significantly different average well-being scores. Further, being female was weakly yet significantly and negatively associated with adolescent well-being in multivariate analyses which regressed mothers' assessments of their jobs with the adolescents' well-being scores. Each result indicated that female adolescents reported lower well-being scores than male.

The impact of gender on adolescent reports of well-being has attracted much attention in recent years. A large body of research has dealt with a sharp increase in the prevalence of depression in female adolescents, which seems to result from a

combination of biological and environmental factors (Nolen-Hoeksema, 2001; Rutter, 2007; Wichstrom, 1999; Zahn-Waxler, Shirtcliff & Marceau, 2008). However, no similar body of research addresses depression in adolescent males. Prior research has substantiated that females tend to report lower self-assessments of well-being than males (McLean & Breen, 2009). Consistent with prior research, the present findings suggest that being female is negatively associated with adolescent perceptions and self-reports of well-being. Female adolescents have lower subjective assessments of their own well-being than do their male counterparts.

The second control variable, age, was not significant in any of the analyses.

Parental jobs and adolescent well-being

Given the prior research and literature on adolescent perceptions of parental work environments (Barling, Dupre, & Hepburn, 1998; Barling, Zacharatos, & Hepburn, 1999; Kinnunen et al., 2001; Moorehouse & Sanders, 1992; Neblett & Cortina, 2006; Tisdale & Pitt-Catsouphes, 2012; Wierda-Boer & Ronka, 2004), it was hypothesized that parental job assessments would be associated with adolescent well-being, with more family-friendly workplaces, greater job satisfaction, lower work stress, and lower negative spillover associated with higher adolescent self-reports of well-being. In the end, all of the variables in the direct effects model between job and well-being were unexpectedly not identified as important predictors. Similar to findings by Davis (2008), the present study found that there was no direct link between parental job assessments and adolescent self-reports of well-being.

Existing theory and research indicates that parents' tangible, objective workplace characteristics such as excessive work hours can be negatively related to the well-being of their children (Parcel & Menaghan, 1994). It is plausible, however, that parental subjective job assessments about such characteristics as family-friendliness and satisfaction are not as easily transferred to adolescent perceptions and outcomes. Perhaps parents are better equipped to overcome such subjective assessments and perceptions than they are to control for the consequences of negative workplace characteristics.

It is also a possibility that parental job assessments are directly related to younger children's well-being, but less so for adolescents. Given their stage of development, and their increasing autonomy (Erikson, 1968), perhaps adolescent children are less likely to feel the effects of parental perceptions of negative job characteristics than a child who is younger. Younger children have an increased dependency on their parents, and less opportunities for and investment in peer interaction, companionship, and support. This increase in adolescent peer interaction may remediate any ill effects of negative parental job assessments.

Parental jobs, family processes, and adolescent well-being

In addition to exploring the direct relationships between parental job and adolescent well-being, the present dissertation sought to understand the impact of family processes on work-family dynamics. First, it was hypothesized that family processes, as defined as parental mood after-work and parental acceptance, would mediate the relationship between parental job assessment and adolescent well-being. It was believed that positive family processes would reduce any negative impact that poorer parental job

assessments might have on adolescent well-being. Due to lack of findings in direct relationships between parental assessment of job and adolescent well-being, it can be determined that there was no relationship to mediate.

Through the process of testing for mediation, significant relationships were found between the family process measures and adolescent self-reports of well-being. Unlike findings by Kinnunen et al. (2001) but replicating Tisdale and Pitt-Catsouphes (2012), adolescents' perceptions of their fathers' moods after work and of fathers' acceptance were both significantly and positively related to adolescents' reports of well-being. As for fathers' acceptance, substantial evidence supports the conclusion that lower reports of father acceptance and love is often as essential as lower reports of mother love in the development of children's behavioral and psychological problems, as well as in the development of children's sense of health and well-being (Amato, 1994; Rohner, 1998; Rohner & Veneziano, 2001; Veneziano, 2000, 2003). For mothers, findings were the same; maternal mood after work and acceptance were each positively related to adolescent well-being. The present study strongly supports prior evidence that family processes directly impact adolescent well-being (Morris et. al., 2007; Olson & Gorall, 2003; Unger, Brown, Tressell, & Ellis McLeod, 2000; Vandewater & Lansford, 2005).

Next, the study aimed to test any moderating effects that family processes might have on the relationship between parental job assessments and adolescent well-being. It was hypothesized that more positive parental job assessments would be more strongly associated with adolescent well-being when combined with more positive parental after-work mood and higher levels of parental acceptance. The hypothesis was supported for mothers, but not for fathers.

In regards to whether the mother's acceptance of her adolescent impacted the relationship between her work and her adolescent's outcome, findings suggest that it does. In situations where mothers report low family-friendliness at work, the well-being of adolescents was augmented when adolescents' perceptions of maternal acceptance is high. Similar to prior research on the moderating effect of mother-adolescent relationships (Cooper & McLoyd, 2011), our study found this relationship to be critical in the linkages between mother's work and her adolescent's well-being. Cooper and McLoyd (2011) found the mother-adolescent relationship acted as a moderator in the relationship between barriers to socialization and female adolescent adjustment. The present dissertation enhances this finding and supports the concept that the parent-adolescent relationship can act as a buffer between external forces and adolescent well-being outcomes.

The current finding also supports ideas posited in socialization tradition theory (Kohn, 1977). Socialization tradition, which references the linkages between job characteristics, parenting behaviors, and child outcomes, suggests that job characteristics play a role in approaches to parenting. The findings of the current study support this notion by illustrating that maternal acceptance is particularly consequential to adolescent well-being when mothers are in less family-friendly workplaces.

Our finding takes the prior research one level further by linking parenting practices with adolescent well-being. Thus, in families where the mother has a less family-friendly job, it is even more critical that she make an extra effort to act in an accepting way in order to avoid the socialization tradition and the negative crossover effects, and so benefit her adolescent's well-being. In addition, findings revealed that

when a mother's job satisfaction is low, the relationship with well-being is improved when mood after work is positive. This finding also supports these theoretical tenets from socialization tradition and crossover theory; that parental job assessments, family processes, and adolescent well-being are connected.

Surprisingly, the investigation of any moderating effect of fathers' family processes on the relationship between fathers' job assessments and adolescent well-being yielded nonsignificant findings. Based on findings by Grimm-Thomas and Perry-Jenkins (1994) who found that the more positive fathers' work experiences, the higher their self-esteem, which predicted a more accepting parenting style, it was hypothesized that the paternal jobs in the present study would have an impact on adolescent well-being, too. However, as noted above, we did not find this pattern for fathers, only mothers. Despite the lack of significant findings, future studies should not neglect the examination of family processes as potential moderators for fathers' work and adolescent outcomes. Implications of family processes on father and adolescent outcomes should be considered possibilities and explored further, given the prevalence of working fathers and increased job stressors.

It is curious why this moderation effect was present for mothers and not for fathers. This finding requires additional consideration in future research. One might reason that, for many mothers, their presence at home is more 'expected' by their adolescent children, because women take on the lion's share of the family care responsibilities at home (Hochschild, 1997). Therefore, her parenting behaviors, such as mood after work and acceptance, have a more critical impact, as she is looked upon as the available emotional caretaker. Building upon this idea is the possibility that, because of

the maternal caretaking role, her negative perception of her workplace is more harmful because it is ‘one more notch on the belt’ of her additional expectations at home. One could speculate that stress related to these multiple expectations could potentially exacerbate the relationship between negative workplace characteristics and family outcomes, thereby increasing the moderating effect of her mood after work and parental acceptance. Lastly, there is the possibility that fathers are better able to separate work and family domains, thereby creating less of a connection for their adolescents between workplace and family processes.

Based on prior literature (Crouter et al., 2006; Eccles & Gootman; Ransford, Crouter, & McHale, 2008; Smolensky & Gootman, 2003), it is clear that parental closeness with their adolescent has implications for adolescent well-being; therefore, it may be that parental attitudes toward work pale in comparison with parental attitudes toward maintaining closeness with adolescent children. Additionally, despite negative perceptions of workplace family-friendliness, and perceptions of stress and burnout, parents may be making an explicit effort to overcome institutional barriers to family cohesion, and finding other ways to maintain closeness with their families.

Implications

Implications for research

The results of this study add to the research in several ways. First, the results suggest that there are differences in the ways that maternal and paternal work-family dynamics are associated with variations in well-being of adolescents. As such, significant attention should be paid to including both parents in future research designs

and data collection on work-family dynamics. Modeling both mothers and fathers in future studies that examine work-family experiences and outcomes will continue to elucidate the relationships and distinctions between parents, gender and work-family effects.

The results of the present study also suggest that some measure of adolescent gender should be incorporated into future assessments of parental work and adolescent well-being. Given the gender effects that emerged in the present analyses, it can be presumed that such gender differences may affect variations in family processes, as well as the impact of family processes on the relationships between parental work and adolescent well-being.

Second, the results of this study point to the importance of including adolescent perceptions of parental work experiences and family processes. It is evident that adolescent perceptions of family processes strongly relate to how the adolescents feel physically and psychologically. By including only parent data, the literature is missing the critical reporter – the adolescent. The inclusion of both adolescent and parent data into research models reveals much about how the adolescent interpretation and experience of parents' work can affect adolescent outcomes. Parents may not be fully cognizant of adolescent perceptions and experiences, and parental survey responses may not be reliable for reports of adolescent circumstances. Future studies should also explore any triangulation between family members, and this is possible when each reporter is represented in the data. Including parallel measures from parents and adolescents on adolescent well-being and/or parental workplace, for example, would provide insight into whether or not the parent and adolescent perceptions are in sync.

Further, this methodological design would allow for the investigation of whose opinion is most strongly related to adolescent outcomes, regardless of whether they are congruent.

Third, results from the present study offer interesting points of discussion and thought for researchers grounding their work in ecological systems theory and, more specifically, spillover and crossover theories. Even if workplace stressors are likely to carry over into family processes, the present findings suggest that a parent has the power to reduce the impact of this transference through his or her parenting behaviors, or their adolescents' perceptions of such.

An important insight from the present study is that no matter how porous our contextual boundaries may be, individual agency may prevail in terms of protecting the impact of cross-context influences. Future research should pay particular attention to this concept of agency, as well as explore ideas rooted in work-family border theory (Clark, 2000) and boundary theory (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000), which both address the integration and blurring of boundaries in work and family life. There is evidence in the current study that creating a more structured transition between work and home may allow for parents to arrive home more emotionally available, leaving the stressors of work 'at work,' and arriving home in a better mood.

Finally, the current study made a contribution by focusing on the adolescent population and outcomes for adolescent children of working parents. While most of the prior literature has been centralized around the impact of work-family dynamics upon domestic couples, there is room to further investigate the impact on businesses, communities, and other family members as well.

Implications for social work practice

The findings from the present study will be beneficial for clinical and macro-level social workers alike. For clinical social workers who work with adolescents and families, these findings are important for empowering clients with whom they work. Clinical work often unveils stressors in parents' lives such as work, the juggling act that is required to attend personal and family events, and the challenging family dynamics of having an adolescent at home. Clinicians can use the results of and knowledge gained from the present dissertation to introduce two concepts to their clients: human agency (Bandura, 1989) and the power of adolescent perceptions. Findings from this study suggest that positive family processes are vital to the well-being of adolescents with working parents. Therefore, implications are geared to social workers who may have the means to influence and improve family processes such as parental mood after work and parental acceptance.

The idea of human agency is that each person holds the power and freedom to make changes and act for him or herself (Bandura, 1989). In this study, it is clear that parents can make the deliberate decision to enhance parenting practices in order to impede potential negative crossover effects from work.

Clinicians can help parents to understand how to be key players in co-constructing a new reality for their adolescent – one that includes communications with their adolescent about work that are healthy and positive. Adolescents can hear from their parents about the benefits and challenges of working, and possibly come away with a more honest, mature, and positive perception of workplace roles and parental experiences, rather than reacting simply to parental mood after work. By having these

conversations, parents can model a healthier attitude toward stress and attempt to move through the negative emotions with their adolescents. The adolescent is no longer a bystander to stress, which potentially has a more severe negative result.

By learning the importance of adolescent perceptions of family processes, parents may come to realize that even if they are not in a good mood when they leave the office, or if they feel their employer is not family-friendly or they feel unsatisfied by their employer, for example, they still have the choice to actively manage their emotions, presenting a more positive mood upon arriving home and exhibiting more accepting behaviors toward their adolescent. There is also the possibility enhanced communication between parents and their adolescent children.

School-based clinical social workers have an opportunity, based on the findings of this dissertation, to offer discussions and activities within the school environment to assist adolescents in their understanding of their parents' work. Many middle- and high schools offer career fairs and personality assessments to encourage students' thinking about future occupations. Based on the present study, it may also prove useful for the adolescents' well-being to have groups based around conversations dealing with work stress, work-family balance, and the realities of working life. School-based social workers can also work with students to become their own agents and ask parents questions about parental work experiences, rather than trying to ascertain the causes of their parents' moods, for example. Given the illustrated importance of gender, there could be room for discussion with adolescents about their expectations for their own work-family experiences and expectations, particularly based around social norms and familial gender roles.

For social workers working within organizations and workplaces as employee assistance professionals, the present findings will be useful as well. Human resource practices such as work-family programs should be offered in ways that allow employees to have greater control over managing their work-family boundaries. This may be especially important for telecommuters and other employees who bring at least some of their work home. Workplace lunches and/or group discussions can be focused around the importance of work-family balance and well-being for employees and employers alike. By having these activities at the workplace, organizations have the opportunity to impart knowledge that has been shown to benefit productivity as well as the overall workplace culture. Disseminating parenting strategies to parents of adolescent children for improved parental acceptance and mood after work (given the developmental needs and challenges at this stage), and managing work-family boundaries, will enhance workplace outcomes as employees foster healthier relationships at home, thereby increasing family-work enrichment.

Findings from the current study highlight the importance of a positive transition from home to work, so that a parent arrives at home emotionally available. Research has begun to explore the potential for commute times to be used constructively as a buffer between the work and home domains. Average commute times are on the rise (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007), and while this is generally seen as a demand (Moen, 2003), researchers are beginning to wonder if this time might prove useful for transitioning between work and family. Perhaps commute times have not been used to their potential, which is as structured time during which parents can manage and transition their moods. Commute time can improve parental moods upon returning home by allowing parents to

gradually cross the boundary between work and home. They can be taught how to develop skills and competencies to use their commute times productively. Commutes can be stressful to parents, as they are perceived as a time-demand that cannot be avoided. However, if reframed, parents may see that when used wisely, the commute can offer benefits. Clinicians working with parents may want to explore these opportunities and ideas. Additionally, research and hypotheses on this topic should be further explored.

For social workers interested in public policy and policymaking for working families, the findings of the current dissertation can offer support for initiatives intended to provide more resources for working families. As the findings of the present study illustrate the importance of parental mood after work and parental acceptance at home, it is critical that parents have external resources to support them in coming home from work and being emotionally present. Social workers at the macro-level can pay particular attention to policies aimed at creating more family-friendly workplaces and allowing employees to craft schedules to their needs, in hopes that parental job assessments will improve, and translate into more positive family processes at home.

Limitations and future research

While the present study offers several important findings, limitations are inherent. One limitation to the study is the restricted sample size. Although the present sample size was sufficient, it was relatively small. Due to the small number of families included in the sample, the number of variables measuring workplace characteristics and family processes that were examined had to be limited in order to maintain sufficient statistical

power. Researchers with larger sample sizes would have more freedom to include numerous workplace characteristics that the present study had to eliminate. While parental perceptions of workplaces are important, it would prove interesting to investigate if tangible and objective job characteristics such as work hours, benefits, and commute time play a role in these hypothesized relationships.

Another benefit that a larger sample size would offer is the ability to combine mothers and fathers into one regression model. In that case, researchers could determine if mothers' jobs impact the relationships between fathers' jobs and adolescent well-being, and vice-versa. The effect of spouse and/or partner may be an important part of the family dynamics that the current study was unable to capture, and should be replicated with a larger sample that is sufficiently powered to examine such effects.

A second limitation is that the data analyzed were cross-sectional in design. While it is useful to garner parental and adolescent assessments of workplace and family processes, we cannot be sure if these perceptions reflect the current mood of the parent or adolescent, or if these patterns would be consistent over time. Work and family experiences, particularly for adolescents, may change from day to day. More importantly, adolescents' moods and attitudes toward their parents may vary from day to day. Researchers should aim to investigate the potential relationships between work, family, and adolescent outcomes over time.

Third, the current dissertation utilized several single-item measures in the analyses. Parental reporting of work-family spillover and job family-friendliness, and adolescent reporting of parental mood after work were all single-item measures. While future research should attempt to utilize multiple-item scales for these constructs, there

has been evidence of the usefulness of single-items measures as well (Robins, Hendin, & Trzesniewski, 2001; Nagy, 2002).

Fourth, while the adolescent is reporting on parental mood upon arrival at home, it is not entirely clear whether the adolescents are picking up on a workplace residual or a family dynamic. This measure could represent a mood resulting from work, mood in the moment (which could have nothing to do with work), or a mood when entering the family environment due to a family or parenting role characteristic.

Fifth, these data were self-reported. It is important for additional replication and extension to consider whether self-reports of stress and burnout and work-family spillover are accurate. Some evidence suggests that men may under-report negative spillover from work to family, and over-report positive spillover from work to family since traditional gender role socialization encourages men to protect their wives and families from the burdens of their work (Weiss, 1990).

Conclusion

The cross-sectional Nurturing Families Study dataset consists of 150 dual-earner couples and their adolescent children (N = 150). The present study analyzes several aspects of parental job assessments (family-friendliness, job satisfaction, stress and burnout, and negative spillover), two adolescent assessments of family processes (parental mood after work and parental acceptance), and adolescent self-reports of well-being.

Even though the findings did not reveal direct relationships between workplace characteristics and adolescent well-being, there is evidence that considering family

processes such as mood after work and parental acceptance can help the understanding of work-family relationships. Results suggest that female adolescents indicate more negative reports of well-being. In addition, the present study found that parental mood after work and parental acceptance were both related to adolescent self-reports of well-being. The present study then explored whether or not these family processes influenced the relationships between parental work and adolescent well-being. Findings suggest that when maternal job satisfaction is low, adolescent perceptions of whether or not she comes home from work in a good mood can make a difference in adolescent reports of well-being more so than when maternal job satisfaction is high. Findings also suggest that, for mothers with low job family-friendliness, their level of parental acceptance can make a difference in adolescent self-reports of well-being.

In spite of its limitations, implications of the findings in the present study make some noteworthy contributions. First, the present study highlights the importance of including mothers and adolescents in datasets which examine work-family processes. Second, the concept of human agency is brought to light relative to parenting behaviors. Parents have the agency to act in a way which can influence the effects of their perceptions of their jobs on their adolescents. Acknowledging ways in which boundary-crossing from work to family may become more productive for parents might prove useful in helping parents come home from work more emotionally available. Third, clinicians working with employees, parents, and families should be informed by the results of the study. Social workers have the ability to impress upon parents and adolescents the importance of family processes as a buffer between work and adolescent outcomes. Further, by creating a more harmonious work-family exchange in the

employee's life, the workplace may gain benefits as well (Bond, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002; Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005). Macro-level social workers can use the findings of the present study to inform legislation and lobby efforts for policies related to workplace family-friendliness as well as to implement such policies in their own organizations. Lastly, based on the results of the present study, future research should continue to explore work-family dynamics and additional potential outcomes for adolescent children and other family members.

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APPENDIX A
PRE-INTERVIEW WRITTEN QUESTIONNAIRE MEASURES

Parent Job Stress/Burnout

| During the past three months, how often have you felt:¹⁹ | | Never | Rarely | Some-times | Often | Nearly always |
|--|---|--------------|---------------|-------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| a | ...emotionally drained from your work? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| b | ...used up at the end of the workday? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| c | ...burned out or stressed by your work? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

APPENDIX B
PARENT FACE-TO-FACE INTERVIEW MEASURES

Parent Job Family-friendliness

Overall, how "family-friendly" would you say your employer is?

| | | | |
|-----------------|---------------|---------------|-----------|
| Not at all 1 | A little 2 | Somewhat 3 | Very 4 |
|-----------------|---------------|---------------|-----------|

Parent Job Satisfaction

Overall, if you were assigning a grade, what grade would you give your job? (*circle one*)

1. A
2. B
3. C
4. D
5. F

Parental Work Spillover

| | | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Not at all 1 | To a limited extent 2 | To a moderate extent 3 | To a very great extent 4 |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|

To what extent has your work life **interfered** with your personal life during the past month?

1 2 3 4

APPENDIX C

ADOLESCENT FACE-TO-FACE INTERVIEW MEASURES

Parental Mood after Work

| | 1 never | 2 sometimes | 3 always |
|--|------------|----------------|-------------|
| How often does your mother come home from work in a good mood? | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| How often does your father come home from work in a good mood? | 1 | 2 | 3 |

Parental Acceptance

My mother ...

| | 1 Strongly Disagree | 2 Disagree | 3 Agree | 4 Strongly Agree |
|---|------------------------|---------------|------------|---------------------|
| Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with her | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Smiles at me very often | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Is able to make me feel better when I am upset | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Enjoys doing things with me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Cheers me up when I am sad | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Gives me a lot of care and attention | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Makes me feel like the most important person in her life | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Believes in showing her love for me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Often praises me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Is easy to talk to | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Now I want to ask you the same questions about your your father.

My father ...

| | 1 Strongly Disagree | 2 Disagree | 3 Agree | 4 Strongly Agree |
|---|------------------------|---------------|------------|---------------------|
| Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with him | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Smiles at me very often | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Is able to make me feel better when I am upset | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| Enjoys doing things with me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Cheers me up when I am sad | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Gives me a lot of care and attention | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Makes me feel like the most important person in his life | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Believes in showing his love for me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Often praises me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Is easy to talk to | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Adolescent Well-Being

| | | |
|------------|----------------|------------|
| 1 never | 2 sometimes | 3 often |
|------------|----------------|------------|

During the past week, (that is, over the last 7 days), how often did you experience any of the following?

| | | | |
|----------------------------|---|---|---|
| Waking up full of energy | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Loss of appetite | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Trouble going to sleep | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Upset stomach, stomachache | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Headache | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Dizziness or fainting | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Other aches and pains | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Trouble with your nerves | 1 | 2 | 3 |

Happiness

Now I want to ask about your feelings in the last week. (Use the same card with “never”, “sometimes”, “often”.)

| | | |
|------------|----------------|------------|
| 1 never | 2 sometimes | 3 often |
|------------|----------------|------------|

Over the last 7 days, how often did you experience any of the following?

| | | | |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|
| Lonely | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Pleased with yourself | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Sad | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Confident | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Feel like crying | 1 | 2 | 3 |