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How Does She Do It All? a Test of the Social Cognitive Career Theory Self-Management Model of Women's Multiple Role Management

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LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

HOW DOES SHE DO IT ALL?

A TEST OF THE SOCIAL COGNITIVE CAREER THEORY

SELF-MANAGEMENT MODEL OF

WOMEN'S MULTIPLE ROLE MANAGEMENT

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO

THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

PROGRAM IN COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

BY

MEGHAN ROCHE

CHICAGO, IL

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true source of self-efficacy information, from her example and through her encouragement, I consistently believed myself to be capable.

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For Nanny

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ABSTRACT

In 2013 Lent and Brown presented the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) Career Self-Management (CSM) model in order to understand the processes whereby people engage in adaptive career behaviors, as well as what factors may hinder or facilitate. The current study examined the CSM model in the context of women's multiple role balancing. Social support and access to economic resources, two variables which have garnered empirical attention in both the SCCT and multiple role literature, were tested as potentially meaningful contextual and person input variables within the model. Results indicated support for a CSM model of women's multiple role balancing. The relationship of social support to balancing actions was fully mediated by self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations. Whereas economic resources appeared to influence actions both directly and indirectly (e.g. partial mediation). Study results suggest that efforts to bolster social support may be especially crucial in fostering women's self-efficacy beliefs for balance, and actions enacted to do so. Suggestions for clinical and workplace interventions, as well as future avenues for research are offered.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The composition of the modern American workforce has become increasingly gender diverse. According to the U.S. Department of Labor in 2014, 57% of American women age 18 and above were participating in the labor force. Female workers aren't necessarily single and child-free; of women with children at home under the age of 18, 70% are employed either full-or-part-time; a 3% increase from 2012. Given the strong representation of women in the work force, coupled with the myriad of other life roles placing a demand on the modern woman (e.g., parent, spouse, community member etc.) many argue that one of the largest adaptive tasks confronted by contemporary women is navigating the complex process of balancing multiple life roles (Frone, 2003; Gambles, Lewis, & Rapoport, 2006; Halpern, 2005; Steinberg, True, Russo, 2004;).

To-date there is a wealth of literature on how the interplay of various life roles culminates in varying degrees of conflict for women. There is a well-established literature on work-family conflict, antecedents and outcomes, as well as the converse, work-family enrichment (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). However, although present, there is less focus on the adaptive processes many women may engage in by attempting to manage multiple life roles via balance. Either informing this lag in research, or perhaps compounding it, is the lack of a uniform and comprehensive theoretical perspective through which to ground research on how individuals engage in the complex process of balancing multiple life roles.

Efforts have been made to offer an organizational framework through which to study multiple role management. First, Goode (1960) offered the “role scarcity theory.” In sum, the theory poses that individuals (women) have a limited number of resources and various systems are constantly demanding them (e.g., work and family). Consequently, attempts to navigate this ultimately results in conflict, either from family to work or work to family (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, Kulik & Liberman, 2013). Conversely, “role expansion theory” (Marks, 1977) posits that involvement in both the work and family roles can be complementary and yield positive outcomes. A clear limitation to both these approaches is their narrow scope in capturing the multi-dimensionality of women’s roles by only speaking to the work and family role.

The aforementioned approaches draw only on the paradoxical outcomes of conflict and enrichment; ignoring the potential presence of an adaptive mechanism such as balance.

Specifically speaking to the phenomenon of balance, Marks and MacDermid (1996)’s “role balance theory,” asserts instead of hierarchically valuing roles, individuals experience the most benefits when they attempt to achieve equal participation across roles. Lastly, Frone (2003) proposed a four-fold taxonomy which conceptualized balance via a work to family dimension and a conflict to facilitation (e.g., enrichment) dimension. While useful and receiving some empirical attention (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005) this approach incorporates only work and family roles and is content-focused.

What appears to be missing from the extant literature is two-fold: (a) a comprehensive theoretical approach compatible with the process-orientated nature of balancing multiple roles and (b) room within the existing theoretical frameworks to account for the diversity in role participation beyond simply the work and family role. Consequently, the competing nature of

existing theoretical approaches, consequent empirical discrepancies, and the opportunities that exist to expand their explanatory power, there is a need for further investigation to arrive at a potentially more succinct theoretical framework.

A newer model of adaptive career behaviors and processes may offer a promising framework for continued scholarly inquiry. Social Cognitive Career Theory's Self-Management Model is a process-oriented model organized around how self-efficacy beliefs for engaging in a specific process (e.g., balancing multiple roles) and outcome expectations operate in facilitating career behaviors (Lent & Brown, 2013). Although not as frequently employed as its sister models (choice, interest, performance, and satisfaction), SCCT's self-management model offers promising utility when applied to common career behaviors such as multiple role management (Lent & Brown, 2013).

In conjunction with a pivotal reliance on core cognitive process, SCCT's self-management model also allows for incorporation of important contextual and person-input variables. Examples provided in the literature as particularly influencing women's role balance intentions and behaviors include social support and socio-economic status indicators such as access to economic resources (O'Brien, Ganginis, Del Pino, Yoo, Cinamon, & Han, 2013; Steinberg, True, & Russo, 2004). Thus, use of SCCT's self-management model permits for the current literature to expand beyond content and comprehensively address the rich process of how women participate in the adaptive career task of balancing multiple life roles. Consequently, this study aims to undertake a test of the self-management model as it applies to the process of women's multiple role management (via balance) with consideration of key contextual/person-input variables; social support and economic resources.

Social Cognitive Career Theory Career Self-Management Model

When originally introduced, SCCT was predominantly concerned with explaining how individuals develop interests, arrive at career and academic major decisions, and obtain performance (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994, 2000; Lent & Brown, 2006, 2008). The satisfaction model was introduced later; complementing the original three (choice, interest, and performance) models (Lent & Brown, 2006, 2008). Inquiry into the choice, performance, and interest models (and to some degree the satisfaction model), has been rich and dynamic, serving to inform the utility of the models, highlighting key contextual variables, providing insight into specific populations, and informing clinical work (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1999; Lent & Brown, 2013). Some have attempted to incorporate the SCCT models into understanding specific processes undertaken by individuals in navigating career development tasks; a deviation from the core content-related foundation underlying the models' original intention. To address this, and aid in making such process oriented empirical inquiries, the SCCT Career Self-Management(CSM) model was introduced.

The CSM model is a marked departure from existing SCCT models in that it aims to organize and explain how individuals navigate specific adaptive career tasks. Therefore, it is more accurately considered a process-oriented model as opposed to the more content-oriented choice, interests, and performance models. Congruent with the fundamental tenets of SCCT, domain specific self-efficacy beliefs (e.g. level of confidence in carrying out a specific career behavior, for example, self-efficacy for balancing multiple roles) and outcomes expectations (positive and negative anticipated consequences of engaging in specific career behaviors, such as outcome expectations for balancing multiple roles) are at the center of the self-management

model. As with prior SCCT models, in the self-management model, self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations are proposed to predict goals and actions for a given career behavior. Per the model, contextual variables (such as supports and barriers) and person input variables (such as sex, SES, and race/ethnicity) both directly and indirectly, via partial mediation by self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations, impact goals and actions.

Applied more specifically to the adaptive career behavior of women's multiple role balance, SCCT's self-management model would prescribe that a women's level of confidence in her ability to balance multiple roles (e.g. multiple role balance self-efficacy) and perception of the various positive and negative consequences of potentially doing so (outcome expectations), would in conjunction, and separately, predict balance-oriented goals and actions. Contextual factors as well as person and personality variables may serve to either hinder or facilitate a woman's ability to form goals toward balance and ability to engage in balance-oriented actions. Additionally, these same factors exert an impact indirectly by promoting or impeding the development of strong multiple role management self-efficacy beliefs and positive outcome expectations for balance.

Women's Multiple Role Balance

The robust presence of women in the contemporary workforce is no longer an anomaly. However, the typical American workplace has not grown at the same pace, and is still maintained in congruence with the male as sole bread-winner paradigm, which is long outdated (Halpern, 2005). Consequently, female workers are faced with the tremendous challenge of how to work towards and achieve suitable balance, given a system incompatible with success in doing so (Halpern, 2005; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). Female workers may be at more of a

disadvantage in successfully rising to this challenge given persistent societal endorsement of traditional gender roles where males are expected to invest more in the work role and women more in the parenting and spousal role (Halpern, 2005; Grzywacz & Carlson 2007). Research has indicated that women are certainly cognizant of this effect with young women endorsing lower self-efficacy in handling multiple roles, women reporting experiencing more negative impact from work on their families, and reporting more vulnerability to ill-effects from negative family demands (Cinamon, 2006; McElwain, Korabik, & Rosin, 2005).

Traditionally, empirical inquiry into role management has focused predominantly on the work and family interface (Kulik, Shilo-Levin, & Liberman, 2015). However, is it highly unlikely most would describe themselves merely in terms of two roles alone (e.g., work and family; Steinberg et al., 2004; Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). Congruent with the counseling psychology tenets of holistically conceptualizing the human experience; the multiple role interface may be better served by being understood as dynamic and multifaceted whereby individuals navigate myriad roles, including that of a community member, friend, child, self, and of course, as a worker, parent, and spouse. Additionally, many are committed to the pursuit of a fully-actualized life and are investing substantial time in community participation, hobbies, leisure activity, and personal growth opportunities (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). Women are no exception to this and in addition to the multiple demands of work, parenting, and marriage/partnership, they are intentionally attempting to (or perhaps only hoping to eventually) carve out time to enjoy personal pursuits, and build and cultivate extra-familial social networks. Thus, when conceptualizing the many roles which an individual may be managing at any given time, it is imperative to cast a broader net than the traditionally studied work and family roles

(Kulik et al., 2013).

Historically, the literature on multiple role management has focused on one interface: work-family conflict (or the converse, family-work conflict; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1986; Allen, Johnson, Sabue, Cho, & Dunmai, 2012). Again, this work has predominantly been limited to understanding the interplay of life roles simply via work and family. Work-to-family and family-to-work conflict has been found indicative of myriad mental-health, well-being, and satisfaction indices across diverse populations (Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 2006; Garcia, Milkovits, & Bordia, 2014). More strengths-based approaches to understanding this interplay have also been proposed and examined via work-family and family-work enrichment, whereby involvement in one facilitates benefits in the other (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006).

The idea of balance across multiple roles, independent of conflict or enrichment, is the third and last of the constructs used under the umbrella of multiple role management (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw (2003); Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007; Carlson et al., 2009). Operationalization of balance varies across the literature and certainly future empirical endeavors would be well served by exploring these issues in more depth. One possible avenue through which to conceptualize balance includes Marks and MacDermid's equi-weighted balance approach, where one strives for an equal work-family split. This definition stems from their work on *The Theory of Role Balance*, which argues individuals engage in an active, "non-hierarchical pattern of self-organization." They posit that positive role balance is achieved by becoming fully engaged in all roles within one's life ultimately leading to more positive outcomes; forming one of the few current theoretical perspectives on balance. Notable within Marks and MacDermid's (1997) approach is that they acknowledge this process does not happen in isolation, and that contextual

factors are consistently at play and serve to inform an individual's self-organization. However, Marks and MacDermid's approach considers mainly the work and family roles (Carlson et al., 2009). Furthermore, critics argue that a fifty/fifty type of self-organization is neither feasible nor desirable for many, and call for a more comprehensive balance framework (Greenhaus & Allen, 2006).

Goode's (1960) Role Scarcity Theory has also been widely used. Goode claimed that individuals have limited resources and that different social systems (e.g. the family, work) are demanding of these. Thus, conflict stems from the strain of meeting all systems demands (Kulik & Liberman, 2013).

More recently, in an attempt to consolidate the varied stances on balance, Grzywacz and Carlson's (2007) posed their approach to balance as such: "accomplishment of role related expectations that are negotiated and share between an individual and his/her role related partners in the work and family domains." Where Marks and MacDermid (1996) and Goode (1960) were lacking a holistic understanding of multiple roles, Grzywacz and Carlson attempt to fill this gap.

Although differing slightly, across these attempts to define balance is the theme of engaging in a careful process of allocating time and psychological resources to multiple life roles. It is this thread, the split of resources (equally or not) across multiple demands, which may serve as the most fruitful ground from which to launch empirical inquiry. More generally, a balance orientation to understanding multiple role management behaviors seems a natural complement to the myriad inquiries already present around role conflict. Thus, for the purpose of the present inquiry, conceptualizing management behaviors via balance (as opposed to work-family conflict) resonates more strongly with the process of adaptive career behaviors SCCT's

self-management model seeks to inform. Furthermore, accordingly to some, the construct of balance is a more feminist approach, which honors the agency and empowerment of individual women (Williams, Berdahl, & Vandello, 2016). Thus, as this inquiry is deeply rooted in a counseling psychology tradition, honoring feminist and social justice principles in research design, the construct of balance is most congruent with this agenda.

Contextual and Person-Input Variables

A number of contextual and person variables have been explored in the work-family literature, some of these lend themselves toward potential utility within an SCCT framework. Social support, for example, is a contextual variable frequently associated with multiple role management. In the literature, social support has demonstrated inverse relationships with role distress, strain, and stress, as well as has been found to mediate the relationship of work-family conflict and depression (Home, 1997; Kulik & Liberman, 2006; Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, & O'Brien, 2007; O'Brien, Ganginis, Del Pino, Yoo, Cinamon, & Han, 2014). Social support has also been a key variable of interest across inquiry into SCCT (Lent & Brown, 2013), and thus, inherently fits nicely into the self-management model.

The assumption that all women are able to exert total autonomy in balancing multiple roles is one ignorant to the stark socio-cultural realities many women face. Factors associated with socio-economic status, such as income and access to economic resources, may have profound implications for women's role-balance self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and actions (Steinberg et al., 2004). Myriad research has found a link between economic status and well-being for diverse groups of women (Baruch & Barnett, 1987; Steinberg et al., 2004). This effect has profound implications for multiple role management as well. For example, women from

higher SES backgrounds may experience less stress via having access to additional resources, possibly with additional income (Cleary & Mechanic, 1983). Also, of note, in heterosexual marriages, women's well-being outcomes have been found to relate linearly to amount of participation in household responsibilities by her husband (Ross, Mirowsky, & Huber, 1983). Hence, women with little independent financial resources may be at a disadvantage in negotiating role responsibilities with their partner or within broader systems (Steinberg et al., 2004, Thoits 1987).

Heeding the caution issued by some in studying women's role management without considering socio-cultural variables; it seems imperative that facets of socio-economic experience be examined with the SCCT self-management framework. The interplay between access to economic resources and social support makes the study of the two in conjunction all the more compelling. For example, social support has long been maintained to shield against the myriad ill-effects of stress (e.g. financial strain) and facilitate coping (Cassel, 1976; Hodnett, Gates, Hofmeyr, & Sakala, 2007). However, some have contested that social support may be more protective the more affluent one is (Elliot, 2000). It may be that increased financial stress impedes the development and quality of support, by contributing to social discord and eroding the development of high-quality social networks (Heaney & Israel, 2002). In general, social support is clearly associated with economic indicators and related outcomes; however, exactly how, and under what conditions the relationship is weakened or magnified, is inconsistent across findings. Further inquiry on the interplay, such as proposed here, can help flesh-out this nuanced association.

Current Study

While research integrating aspects of multiple role management focusing on balance is plentiful, it is also disparate, and in need of a unifying theoretical framework through which to organize future investigation. Thus, the aims of the current study are to test an SCCT self-management model of multiple role management via balance, and as such, to explore the following questions: (a) does self-efficacy for balancing multiple roles (balance SE) relate to actions taken (indirectly or directly), (b) do outcome expectations for balancing multiple roles (balance OE) relate to actions (indirectly or directly), (c) do contextual variables (social support and access to economic resources) relate to actions directly or are these relations only mediated by self-efficacy and outcome expectations, and (d) are balance SE and balance OE related. Incorporating both social support and access to economic resources is intended to help us better understand the conditions under which balancing may be promoted or hindered for women. Congruent with the CSM model, the following represent hypotheses that were generated prior to executing this study (Figure 1 depicts the structural model):

Hypothesis A: Self-efficacy for balancing multiple roles will relate positively to actions (either indirectly via paths *h* and *i*) or directly (path *g*).

Hypothesis B: Outcome expectations for balancing multiple roles will relate positively to actions (either indirectly via paths *g* and *h*) or directly (path *i*).

Hypothesis C: Self-efficacy for balancing multiple roles and outcome expectations for balancing multiple roles will be positively related (path *h*).

Hypothesis D: The relationships between each contextual variable and actions will all be mediated by SE (paths *c* and *e*) and/or OE (paths *d* and *f*).

Given the preliminary nature of this study, there was no formal hypothesis as to whether the hypothesized mediation effects would be full-mediation or partial. However, strictly adhering to SCCT would hypothesize these mediations as partial. That being said, there is evidence to suggest that the influence of support (Sheu, Lent, Brown, Miller, Hennessy, & Duffy, 2010) on SCCT outcome variables may be primarily indirect.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will first provide a synopsis of Social Cognitive Career Theory and notable findings to-date within women's psychology. Particular attention will be paid to Social Cognitive Career Theory's most recent iteration, the Career Self-Management (CSM) model. Next, women's multiple role balancing, as an adaptive career behavior, will be reviewed within the context of the extant multiple role literature, limitations thereof, opportunities for richer inquiry, and place within the SCCT Self-Management Model. This chapter will also summarize social support research in both the SCCT and multiple role literature as a key contextual factor, and as such, how it fits into the current study. Similarly, this chapter will discuss the role of access to economic resources in the broader psychological literature, as well as review SES variables' (such as access to economic resources) role in both SCCT and the multiple role research. Lastly, this chapter will end with a statement substantiating the need met by the present inquiry.

Social Cognitive Career Theory

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) was introduced in 1994 by Robert Lent, Steven Brown, and Gail Hackett, to predict and explain how people develop career and academic interests, reach career choices, and attain satisfactory performance. In its development, SCCT sought to unify existing developmental theories, such as Holland's (1997) interest model, by providing an explanation of antecedents and allowing for inclusion of broader individual and social

mechanisms (Lent & Brown, 2013). The theory relies on the role of core cognitive variables (self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations, and goals) as well as contextual (supports and barriers) and other person factors (SES, gender). More specifically, SCCT prescribes that it is the level of confidence one has in their abilities to be successful within a specific domain (self-efficacy beliefs), in conjunction with positive beliefs regarding the outcomes of engaging in specific behaviors within that domain (outcome expectations), that inform the development of goals (intentions) and actions. Key contextual and person-input variables influence goals and actions directly, but also indirectly via their relationships with self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations.

The work of Albert Bandura (1996, 1997) heavily informed the inception of SCCT. Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory draws heavily on the notion that effort, persistence, and performance all operate as a functioning of how we see ourselves and the world around us. Self-efficacy beliefs, or our perceived level of confidence to perform successfully within a specific domain, according to Bandura, are one of the core cognitive variables driving human behavior. In other words, it is not necessarily whether or not we can objectively do something that will entirely predict whether we do, but it is if we *perceive* we can. SCCT adapts a similar understanding as to how self-efficacy beliefs shape people's career interests, choices, and performance. One's outcome expectations, per Bandura (and later per SCCT), is the other crucial piece of the puzzle, adding that individuals must also perceive positive outcomes associated with engaging in certain behaviors for them to manifest.

Within SCCT how self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectation develop is an integral component to the development of interests, choices, and achieving performance. SCCT posits

that person input variables, such as sex identification or SES, and context variables (e.g. support and barriers) provide access (or lack thereof) to different *learning experiences*. Learning experiences, such as a relatable social model, provide valuable information about one's own potential that is translated into the development of strong self-efficacy beliefs and positive outcome expectations. For this process to occur, there must be some degree of existing domain specific abilities (Lent et al., 1994).

Taken together, SCCT theorizes that people develop interest in fields/college majors that they have strong self-efficacy beliefs in and believe they will benefit from (interest model); people next make career and academic choices based on fields they are interested in. Lastly, the performance model, dictates that high ability correspondence, plus strong self-efficacy beliefs, will result in creating challenging goals, and achieving greater performance.

SCCT's choice, interest, and performance models have amassed a substantial amount of empirical inquiry. Examinations across diverse samples, such as women (Lent, Miller, Smith, Watford, Lim, Hui, K., . . . Williams, 2013; Ceci, Ginther, Kahn, & Williams, 2015; Novakovic & Fouad, 2012), sexual minorities (Morrow, Gore, & Cambell, 1996), and adults and youth of color (Lent, Brown, Sheu, Schmidt, Brenner, Gloster, C. S., . . . Treistman, 2005; Navarro, Flores, & Worthington, 2007) have suggested that SCCT is appropriate for understanding and predicting occupational and academic interests and choices across diverse populations. Notably, women's career development especially has long been a focus of SCCT scholars, and their processors.

Nancy Betz and Gail Hackett's initial interest in self-efficacy to understand women's career development, particularly why women were so grossly underrepresented in STEM

careers, birthed Career Self-Efficacy theory (Hackett & Betz, 1981; Hackett & Betz, 1995; Hackett & Betz, 2006). The introduction of self-efficacy and Career Self-Efficacy Theory sparked vast interest in empirical and clinical uses, in particular with women (Betz, 2008). Thirty-plus years later, their work, with the extension thereof allowed by the more robust explanatory and predictive power of SCCT, has vastly expanded our understanding of women's career development.

In examining the available literature on women and SCCT, it seems the bulk continues to be with regards to women and STEM (Fouad & Santana, 2017). For example, Ceci et al., (2015) and Blake-Beard, Bayne, Crosby, & Muller (2011) found the role of relatable female models to be important to women in selecting STEM careers. Though others have expanded SCCT to look at empowering battered women to make career choices (Chronister & McWhirter, 2003) and to better understanding the career development of Mexican American women (Flores & O'Brien, 2002).

Study of Supports within SCCT

Contextual barriers have long received vast empirical attention in women's career development, largely due in part to the crucial role they play in explaining the observed gaps between women's aspirations and abilities and their achievements (Lent et al., 2000). Nevertheless, it may in fact be supports for women that dictate the academic and occupational tide. Examining supports, as opposed to remaining narrowed in on contextual barriers, also allows scholars to adapt a strengths-based approach honoring the agency and assets women navigate their vocational journey with.

There is an amassing body of data to suggest the crucial role contextual supports play in

empowering and encouraging women's career development. A bulk has been with young and emerging adult women, likely given the importance of this period to career and identity developmental alike. In adolescence, parent support, especially mother's support, can be indicative of stronger self-efficacy beliefs in girls (Turner and Lapan, 2002). Father's support for Mexican American adolescent girls, was found to positively related to career plans and expectations, suggesting a potential cultural layer to the contextual impact (McWhirter, Hackett, et al., 1998). Lastly, Chaudhary, Coups, Husdon, and Tomilson-Clark (2015) suggest that family support is especially important to young women's academic choices later in during the emerging adult years.

A recent meta-analysis of supports and barriers to educational and occupational outcomes collapsed data from 276 independent samples to organize and ameliorate the findings to-date (Brown, Roche, ...Massengale, et. al., in press). Contextual supports were found to account for more variance in self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations than barriers did. Taken together, contextual supports encourage persistence, cultivate stronger self-efficacy beliefs and more positive outcome expectations, and inspire aspirations (Brown et al., in press; Chaudhary et al., 2015; McWhirter et al., 1998; Turner & Lapan, 2002). For women, many of whom may be navigating the vocational world amid sexism and ill-fitting messages about their potential, supports appear a crucial source empowerment.

However, continued scholarly pursuits to understand how contextual supports operate for women, especially beyond STEM applications, is necessary. Work concentrated on the adult experience will also aid the field. Doing so will allow for a broader picture of how contextual considerations shape myriad processes as part of the female experience. Extending inquiry to

newer SCCT models, such as the process-oriented Career Self-Management Model may be a meaningful start.

The Social Cognitive Model of Career Self-Management

Previous SCCT models (interest, choice, and performance) focused on addressing content-related questions, such as the types of occupations people choose (Lent & Brown, 2013). The Career Self-Management Model (CSM), however, speaks to the process of *how* individuals navigate adaptive career behaviors (Lent & Brown, 2013). Lent and Brown's (2013) goal was to present a unifying theory designed to address expanding attempts to use SCCT to understand the mechanisms people use to negotiate expected (e.g. school to work transition) and unexpected (e.g. job loss) career tasks across the life span.

Lent and Brown (2013) presented adaptive career behaviors organized by Super et al.'s (1996) developmental framework. Examples during early developmental periods (e.g. the Growth Stage) include developing positive work habits and attitudes. Into adolescence, the Exploration stage, some crucial career tasks include exploring possible career paths and managing transitions. An establishment worker (e.g. establishment stage), is tasked with managing their many life roles (e.g. work, family, etc) and navigating averse work events, such as harassment. A maintenance worker may be concerned with securing a leadership role, while a worker in the final stage of development may be adapting to the transition from work to retirement. Consistent with existing models, and across each of the adaptive career tasks mentioned above, CSM acknowledges the dual impact of individual agency and social and/or contextual forces on how people approach and traverse different career tasks—or, as Lent and Brown put it, “hence the *S* in SCCT (Lent & Brown, 2013 pp. 558.)”

More specifically, according to the CSM model, self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations promote intentions to engage in particular adaptive career behaviors (goals), as well as the actual enactment of these behaviors (actions). Regarding the former, self-efficacy beliefs in the context of the CSM model is referring to process self-efficacy, as opposed to content-or-task-self-efficacy as is the focus of prior SCCT models (Lent & Brown, 2013). Process self-efficacy reflects a person's beliefs about their abilities to handle the numerous tasks associated with specific career behaviors—or to engage in the process. Outcome expectations within the CSM essentially ask, “what happens if I do ____.” One's perceived answer to that question, whether it be positive or negative, in relation to themselves (e.g. “I will become really successful”) or to others (“I will upset my partner),” work in conjunction with self-efficacy beliefs to direct behavior. For example, per the CSM model, a college senior approaching graduation and entry into the work force must believe in their ability to manage what is required for a successful school-to-work transition, and believe that doing so will be worthwhile, in order to develop goals towards making the transition and engaging in actions to do so. Self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations are expected to influence actions directly, and indirectly via their relationship with goal-setting.

Additionally, akin to the original SCCT models, the CSM model allows for the consideration of how various person-input and contextual factors serve, both directly and indirectly, to hinder or facilitate processes within the model. Factors such as socio-economic status, sex and gender-identification, workplace climate, support received, and/or barriers encountered all exert a unique impact that may either obstruct or promote the process of realizing any adaptive career behavior. For example, it may be easier to navigate career processes when

receiving support institutionally and from important others, and when barriers faced are minimal (Lent and Brown, 2013). As with core SCCT models, the proposed effect of contextual variables is both direct and indirect, whereby they bolster self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations, which in turn facilitate goals and actions taken (Lent & Brown, 2013; Sheu et al., 2010).

Given the CSM model's relative newness, the body of empirical support is in the early stages, and anticipated to grow rapidly. For example, Tatum, Formica, and Brown (2017) applied the Self-Management model to sexual minority workers sexual identity management in the work place, with concealment motivation and workplace climate as potential contextual and person-input variables. Their path analysis with Robust Maximum Likelihood estimation found all core CSM paths to hold. In other words, the path between sexual identity management self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations was significant, as were the paths from self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations (respectively) to actions. They also found, consistent with the CSM model, that concealment motivation and workplace climate, influenced sexual minority worker's sexual identity disclosure directly, and indirectly via self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations.

Roche, Daskalova, and Brown (2017) tested the CSM within the context of emerging adult's anticipated multiple role balance, with the consideration of trait-conscientiousness and gender. Roche et al. (2017) found support for the CSM as applied to how young people anticipate balancing their multiple life roles in the future. Interestingly, results indicated a direct effect of gender on intentions to balance; gender did not influence self-efficacy beliefs or outcome expectations. Emerging adult men were found to have fewer intentions to balance than did their female counterparts. Conscientiousness was fully mediated by self-efficacy beliefs and

outcome expectations, this is similar to other initial explorations of the CSM model which have likewise found an indirect effect of trait-conscientiousness (Lent, Ezeofer, Morrison, Penn, & Ireland, 2016; Lim, Lent, & Penn, 2016).

Additional preliminary support for the CSM model by Lent, Ezeofer, Morrison, Penn, & Ireland (2016) examined a CSM model of career decision-making. Again, all paths between core SCCT variables emerged as significant. Important person-input variables, such as conscientiousness, indirectly influenced career decision-making behaviors. Lastly, in their study testing a CSM model of job search intentions and behaviors, Lim, Lent, & Penn (2016) again found the CSM model supported and useful in explaining the studied adaptive career behavior. The framework proved applicable for both unemployed adult job seekers and graduating college seniors. Hence, initial findings provide support for the CSM model's use in understanding various career processes. Furthermore, routes for additional exploration, particularly with diverse populations and within a wider range of adaptive career behaviors, are plentiful.

The Multiple Role Interface

Dating back to studies from the 1970's, women have endorsed their intentions to fully engage in a multiple role life style, marked by participation in work, family, and beyond (Weitzman, 1994). When Diane Halpern (2005) formed an APA Presidential Task Force in 2004 to review social science literature on the work-family interface in order to make recommendations, 66% of women with a child age two or older worked. These women's parents were also aging, yet due to medical advances, living longer than any other previous generation. Thus, working-age women were tasked with a unique phenomenon not faced by prior generations: balancing a multitude of life roles, from employee and parent, to daughter and care-taker.

Flash forward to today. Women continue to pour into the workforce. According to 2015 Census Bureau Data, approximately 70% of women with children under the age of 18 are employed, this marks an almost 25% increase over data from 1975 (U.S. Census, 2015). The paradigm of working father and care-taker mother is antiquated. Women are increasingly taking their place at the table, so to speak, within the world of work, and are renegotiating what a successful woman looks like. Further informing this phenomenon, generations of women are progressively focused on living more self-actualized lives (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). They are allocating time to focus on self-growth, community engagement, social connectedness, and advocacy, expanding their role set further to incorporate that of volunteer, friend, and leisurite (Kulik, Shilo-Levin, & Liberman, 2015; Steinberg, True, & Russo, 2004).

Despite this, progress in some roles has still been slow, women still provide most child-care and are responsible for more household duties than their male partners (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Protas, 2002). Less seems clear about the division of household duties and child-care in other family arrangements (e.g. same-sex households). Regardless, persistent traditional gender roles, the changing landscape of women's occupational lives, involvement in an expanding role set, and places of persistent inequity make balancing multiple roles on the forefront of many women's mind (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007; Halpern, 2005). Social science, organizational and managerial, and human resources literature has been quick to head calls to explore the multiple role interface. That being said, there is plenty more yet to do, such as probing further to wonder how exactly do women balance their role participation, and under what conditions is the process encouraged, or hindered.

Historical Context: The Legacy of Work-Family Conflict

Within the multiple role literature, work-family conflict as a construct has received what appears to be the most empirical attention (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). A quick Google Scholar search of “work family conflict” yields an astounding three-million plus “applicable” references. Most simply put, work-family conflict can be understood as conflict experienced within the family role as a result of work participation (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000). The converse, family-work conflict, has been studied in conjunction with work-family conflict, whereby participation in the family role leads to conflict at work (Carlson et al., 2000). The effect has hence been considered bi-directional (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Carlson et al., 2000).

The findings imply a slew of mental health, health, and occupational outcomes for women because of work to family and/or family to work conflict. Women have been found to experience more work to family conflict than men, as well as more family to work conflict when family demands are increased (McElwain, Korabik, & Rosin, 2005). Working mothers appear particularly susceptible to experiencing distress in their family role when work-family conflict occurs (Kulik & Liberman, 2013). Experiencing work-family or family-work conflict is associated with feelings of guilt and hostility, depression, and diminished subjective well-being (Allen et al., 2000; Garcia et al., 2014; Judge et al., 2005; O’Brien et al., 2014).

Most work regarding multiple role conflict has been guided by Goode’s (1960) Role Scarcity Theory. Scarcity Theory asserts that people have limited time and resources. The excessive and incompatible demands of multiple life roles deplete time and resources, resulting in strain and ultimately conflict. Goode (1960) implies that strain is experienced when multiple

roles collide and that individuals are inherently unable to allocate time and resources in a fashion capable of preventing negative outcomes. According to a role scarcity position, the more roles one is involved in, the more opportunity for strain to occur. The perspective has been widely criticized for being constricted in its conflict orientation; support for the model's applicability and usefulness in understanding the multiple role interface has also been inconsistent (Marks, 1977).

Role Enrichment

Many have come around to also understanding that a multiple role lifestyle has benefits (Marcussen & Piatt, 2005; Voyandoff, 2004). For example, Helson, Elliot, and Leigh's (1990) pivotal work found those endorsing involvement in only one role to be less happy than those endorsing two or three. Work-family (or family-work) enrichment (facilitation, enhancement, spill-over) was thus introduced as an attempt to challenge the primarily conflict oriented work-family discourse to-date (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Frone, 2003; Grzywacz, 2000). The construct reflects the ways in which participation in one role can have positive implications for one's experience in the other. Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) review of over 20-existing role enrichment studies found enrichment scores to be equal to, if not greater than, participants endorsement of conflict. Therefore, they suggested that employees did perceive an enrichment effect, not just an absence of conflict. They additionally found reports of family to work enrichment to be greater than the converse. Correlations between conflict and enrichment are small, indicating they can be seen as unique constructs and do not merely represent the opposite of one another (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Frone, 2003).

Greenhaus and Powel (2006) introduced a Theory of Role Enrichment intended to

organize disparate findings and direct future enrichment investigations. As part of the aforementioned literature review, Greenhaus and Powell proposed a number of linked pathways, substantiated by previous research, in an effort to comprehensively explain how work and family roles positively impact one another. They theorized that involvement in one role generates resources (e.g. skills, psychological and physical, social capital, flexibility, and material), which directly impact performance in another role. Resources accumulated in one role, according to Work-Family Enrichment Theory, also indirectly influence performance in another role, by increasing performance and positive affect in the respective role they were first attained.

A Work-Enrichment scale has been developed to provide a measure for study of theory constructs (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grywacz, 2016). The theory appears to have generated a good degree of theoretical and conceptual discourse, but little empirical support as to fit in sample populations. Perhaps this is reflective of measurement issues. Or, perhaps it speaks to the abstract nature of the theory's core constructs and their inaccessibility to research design. Additionally, the theory fails to explain individual or societal level differences which may account for variations in experiencing or accessing enrichment.

Multiple Role Balance

Multiple role balance is also used within the extant literature to understand the complicated interplay between multiple life roles. Many have offered ways to operationalize balance as construct. Some have merely defaulted to viewing balance as the absence or opposite of conflict (Frone, 2003; Frone, Russel, & Cooper, 1997; Grzywacz & Bassm 2003; Major, Klein, & Ehrhart, 2002). Consequently, an unfortunate tendency seems to be treating it as such empirically (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2006), and thereby minimizing the extent attributions about

balance can truly be made. Still, there are those that have remained true to this definition.

Others have sought to develop more comprehensive and meaningful definitions. Frone (2003) proposed a four-fold taxonomy stating that balance is low work-family and family-work conflict in conjunction with high work-family and family-work facilitation. Per Grzywacz and Carlson (2006), balance is: “An accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his/her role related partners.” While Greenhaus and Allen (2006) state balance is: “the extent to which an individual’s effectiveness and satisfaction in work and family roles are compatible with the individuals’ life role priorities at a given point in time (p.10).” Fleetwood (2007) contends that balance revolves around perceived control of when and how one works. After reviewing different definitions of balance, Kalliath and Brough (2008) attempted to offer a succinct and unifying notion of balance. They maintain: “Work–life balance is the individual perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual’s current life priorities (325).”

Prior to any of the aforementioned, Marks and MacDermaid (1996)’s work operationalizing balance was the gold-standard. They posed an equi-weighted balance orientation in which individuals who work to achieve equal attention to both the work and the family role fair the best. More specifically they state it’s, “a tendency to become fully engaged in the performance of every role in one’s total role system, to approach every typical role and role partner with an attitude of attentiveness and care (Marks & MacDermid, 1996, p. 421).” Put differently, it is the practice of “that evenhanded alertness known sometimes as mindfulness” (Marks & MacDermid, 1996, p. 421). The Theory of Role Balance further hypothesizes that individuals engage in an active, “non-heirarchical pattern of self-organization.” For most,

organization typically first occurs when a problem surfaces within the existing structure requiring maintenance. Role organization is non-hierarchical for Marks and MacDermid because they attest that no one role is thought to be placed as more important than another; equal positive commitment to roles is a crucial facet of the theory. Positive outcomes are ultimately experienced when equal balance, with fully engaged participation, is achieved in all roles. Thus, when done well, positive role balance occurs. In juxtaposition, negative balance, when equal disengagement occurs, is also possible.

What Marks and MacDermid's approach does well is allow for the consideration of how systemic and societal forces shape the ability to balance. The authors recognize that while an autonomously driven balance is ideal, it is not always feasible. Forces such as gender roles and social class influence how, and to what extent, organizing one's roles can occur. That being said, Marks and MacDermid's Role Balance Theory leaves many theoretical stones unturned. Some have argued that the theory is too simple and is in need of refinement (Greenhaus & Allen, 2006; Greenhaus et al., 2003). In addition, the theory does not lend to formal tests of as to the how external forces contribute to achieving balance, nor does it recognize role participation outside of work and family, directly circumscribing potential use for today's dynamic role participation (Carlson et al., 2009).

Some have sought to expand the theory. For example, Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw (2003), sought to expand Role Balance Theory to offer a more complex understanding, with balance defined by three components: time balance (equal devotion of time), involvement balance (equal psychological engagement), and satisfaction balance (experience equal satisfaction). Interestingly they found that work-family balance was associated with positive

outcomes, such as quality of life, when there is substantial amount of time, involvement, and satisfaction. Within those indicating high levels of the three components, it was those skewed towards family engagement over work that fared the best and experienced the least conflict. Those leaning toward greater work involvement experienced the most conflict, and those reporting a true balance between the two were in the middle.

Taken together, Greenhaus et al's (2003) results suggest that "equal" balance may not necessary be optimal. It is likely that working for an equity between the work and family roles is not how many would define or desire their balanced life to be. Hence, allowing for individual flexibility in how balance is operationalized, as is uniform across many of the recent definitions (Greenhaus & Allen, 2006; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2006; Kalliath & Brough, 2008), with attention to life roles beyond work and family, may more truly capture the diverse balance experience. Balance in this capacity, as a dynamic, fluid and autonomous process, operating within and as a function of multiple social and institutional systems speaks to the Counseling Psychology and feminist underpinnings of the current work. Thus, this is how balance will be understood and approached within this investigation.

Balance has largely been explored within business, management, and human resource realms, though it is increasingly take a space within Counseling Psychology. Accordingly perhaps Counseling Psychology's concentrated and unique attention to multiple role balance may usher in new understandings and aid in the development of a uniformly agreed upon definition. To date, this is still a work in progress.

Social Support and the Multiple Role Interface

Social support has been studied extensively in the work-family literature. It has been examined

widely in relationship to work-family conflict and balance (Kulik & Liberman, 2013). Increased social support has been associated with lower distress in both the family and work role (Dubow, Tisak, Cavsey, Hryskho, and Reid, 1992). With regards to studies examining social support for women specifically, support from the family was reported as the greatest source of social support (Ayman & Antani, 2004; Ayman & Antani, 2008). Regardless the level of endorsed independence or dependence women have been found to respond positively to social support, indicating no potential confounding effect of collectivist versus individualistic cultural orientations (Ayman & Antani, 2008).

There appear to be two current models of social support within the literature, but they both focus on the interplay with work-family conflict. One suggests that the impact of work family conflict on maladaptive outcomes is mediated by social support (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997). The other, that social support is used once conflict is experienced (Ayman & Antani, 2008). Regardless, balance is widely thought to be sustained, in part, due to support received from important others, and the more sources from which support is experienced, the better the outcomes (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005). Further empirical tests exploring this assertion are needed.

Application of the Career Self-Management Model

Work-family conflict, in either direction, is predominantly content related and most research has been focused on identifying antecedents and outcomes. Similarly, enrichment seems to be largely conceptualized as an achievement, not an active process. Balance however, across multiple existing definitions, can be and often is thought, of as a verb (Greenhaus et al., 2003), as a *process*. Given that, balancing multiple life roles is an adaptive career behavior particularly

well suited for examination via the CSM model. The lack of a comprehensive and uniform theoretical framework guiding research on role balance further positions CSM as a potential contender to fill this crucial existing gap.

In sum, interest pertaining to multiple role issues, mostly with regards to antecedents and outcomes of conflict, is widely present in scholarly literature from multiple disciplines. Current research has investigated multiple roles within the context of health, well-being, occupational, and relational outcomes. However, there are inconsistencies, and organizational gaps to be addressed. How to approach and operationalize constructs within research designs is a particularly prominent topic of debate. For example, many have posed definitions of balance, across which there are many commonalities, yet a definitive universal definition remains elusive. Furthermore, there is a notable absence of one unifying framework guiding current inquiry. The absence therefore likely contributes to disparate construct definitions and difficulty solidly organizing research designs.

Moreover, many have noted that the field has failed to attend to a number of pertinent multicultural, systemic, and contextual factors potentially meaningful in truly understanding how multiple roles are experienced by diverse populations. For instance, the literature has narrowly focused on work and family roles, neglecting the number of life roles individuals define themselves by, and has not thoroughly investigated factors that may empower or impede one's multiple role experience (Steinberg et al., 2004).

Economic Resources

According to the 2015 US Census Bureau 13.5% of the American population lives in poverty. That translates to 43.1 million people. There are more women living below the poverty line than

men (16% versus 13% respectively; US Census, 2015). Thus, approximately one-sixth of American women are navigating love, life, and work in poverty. A man working full-time earned in 2015, on average, \$63,887; a woman working full-time earned \$47,211. That equates to a difference of \$16,676 every year that a male worker can expect to make over a female. The disparities by race are more dramatic; in 2015 the median income for a White, non-Hispanic family was \$62,950, while the median income for an African American household was \$36,898. The data collected by the U.S. Census Bureau gives the picture of American poverty in dollars. It tells us in numbers the economic situation, by myriad demographic indicators, of the American people. What it is unable to do is give a glimpse into the lived experience of poverty; living in poverty can impact physical health, academic performance and intelligence, and increase hostility and anger (APA, 2007). Reason would lend itself toward believing this to be especially true for those living at the intersection of economic disadvantage and other underserved identities, such as women.

Socio-Economic Status in Psychological Literature

Social-economic status and social class have, and continue to be, topics of considerable interest within the existing psychological literature (APA, 2007; Hacker, 2013; Liu 2001; Liu et al., 2004a). That being said, the last two or so decades have seen increased criticism from scholars scrutinizing both the ways in which SES is approached and conceptualized in research, and the tools used to measure it. According to the American Psychological Association Task Force on Socio-Economic Status, SES is typically captured via objective indicators (APA TFSS, 2007). The most common of which are income, educational attainment, and occupation/occupational prestige (Diemer & Ali, 2009; Liu & Ali, 2008). As well, some combination of the

aforementioned can be used to assess SES (Oakes & Rossi, 2003). In general, SES within psychological literature essentially captures a designated place within the economic hierarchy based on an objective report of one's access to resources and material and/or educational attainment (Diemer, Mistry, Wadsworth, Lopez, & Reimers, 2012; Hacker, 2008). That is, when it is not merely being treated as a demographic variable controlled by statistical analysis to avoid any confounding effect (Liu et al., 2004a).

The cost, per many, of relying on these simplistic material SES variables, or of ignoring and controlling for any influence, is striking. First, doing so neglects to acknowledge, capture, and operationalize what so many in our field aim to: a phenomenon's subjective and psychological influence. Second, how poverty is experienced may vary from person to person and be heavily influenced by the subjective sense of one's place within the wider social and economic systems (Liu et al., 2004a; Liu et al., 2004b). Differences in income, education, occupation, access to resources, and privilege can inform the way individuals understand and interact with their worlds, with myriad implications (Liu et al., 2004a). Ultimately, attempting to explain outcome differences via the hierarchical use of income, education, or occupation may not necessarily be able to account for differences in psychological phenomenon as much as the subjective may (APA, 2007; Fouad & Brown, 2000). For example, Adler and colleagues (2000) found in a sample of women that subjective SES reports were more strongly related to perceptions of psychological health than objective indicators.

There are a number of measurement and methodological issues as well with over-relying on traditional SES and social class variables (Hacker 2008; Liu et al., 2004a; Oakes & Rossi, 2003). Historically these variables have been analyzed as categorical, which forces respondents

into group membership, and thus does not allow for the fluidity a continuous variable would (APA, 2007; Hacker, 2008). Doing so may also limit any inferences drawn from results due to an inability to account for myriad within group differences which may vary based on a number of intersecting factors.

There are crucial content and operationalize flaws as well, with some asserting notable inaccuracies. For example, income does not take into account systemic factors, such as how familial wealth can significantly influence one's monetary resources (Fouad & Brown, 2000). The same can be said for educational attainment. Consistently since the 1970's parental income has been one of the biggest predictors of child educational attainment (Duncan & Magnuson, 2011; Reardon, 2011). More recently, parental educational attainment has been found equally predictive (Reardon, 2011).

The relationship between income and education is a well-established one (DeGregorio & Lee, 2002; Reardon, 2011). With more education, at times dictated by contextual factors beyond the reach of individual agency, comes higher earning potential (U.S. Census Bureau, 2015). Thus, simply asking a respondent to indicate their level of education or income may fail to capture dynamic social, familial, and developmental processes. While collecting data on parent's level of education or income may alleviate some of these concerns, in doing so we are again left to contend with the many potential subjective confounds not accounted for. Lastly, SES data based on reported occupation or occupational prestige is subject to the same criticisms, as well as poor available tools for measuring and quantifying occupational prestige (Oakes & Rossi, 2003).

Differential Status Identity Theory

Perceived social class (PSC) emerged in the mid-2000's as a potential answer to critics' warnings regarding continued wide-spread measure via objective standards. Taking a perceived social class approach to understanding the SES/Social class phenomenon respects that each individual's experience of "class" is different. Liu (2001) suggested a Social Class World View Model, whereby people function within economic *cultures*, not classes (e.g. middle class cultures versus a middle class; APA, 2017). Different cultures have different expectations, which people adapt their behavior to be consistent with, such as spending and lifestyle habits. How the person makes meaning of and fulfills perceived expectations based on their economic culture constitutes their world view (Liu 2001; Liu et al., 2004).

Unfortunately however, it is fairly common that perceived social class is assessed via a single self-report item, which has been found to be problematic as people seem to over-whelming report middle class membership despite objective indicators suggesting otherwise (Scott & Leonhardt, 2005; Rossides, 1997). Hence it seems perceived social class is more complicated than it appears, and may be comprised of related and interconnected subjective and objective factors (Fouad & Brown, 2003; Hacker, 2008).

Differential Status Identity (DSI; Fouad & Brown, 2000) was offered as a possible means through which to understand how individuals internalize and experience social group and SES membership, and the psychological implications thereof (Thompson & Subich, 2006; Thompson & Subich, 2007). DSIT defines social status as a subjective understanding of one's position in society in comparison to others. Or, as Fouad and Brown said: "one's relation to levels and types of economic resources, in addition to social valuation and access to societal control and

influence” (p. 382). They further asserted that those occupying marginalized statuses will incur greater psychological harms than others (Thompson & Subich, 2007).

Constituting the foundation of DSI is Rossides’ earlier work (1990, 1997). Rossides’ posited social status is comprised of three interconnected facets: economic resources, social prestige, and social power. Economic resources include income, education, access to health insurance, and family income (among others; Fouad & Brown, 2000; Rossides 1990, 1997). Social prestige takes into account one’s perceived occupational prestige, their participation and engagement in social groups, level of consumerism and sense of personal value (Thompson & Subich, 1997). Lastly, social power refers to the extent to which one perceives their ability to enact or influence social or political change, access to government benefits, and activity in politics. For example, someone low in social power will be less likely to vote than someone high in social power (Rossides, 1990, 1997; Thompson & Subich, 2006, 2007).

DSI incorporates traditional objective indicators, such as income and education. Yet, it also considers extensively how two people of the same income bracket and/or educational level may be treated quite differently and thus perceive their place in the social strata differently; *the subjective* (Thompson & Subich, 2007). Moreover, DSI emphasizes the internal experience of a status membership, and asserts that while objective factors may place a person within a certain category, that person may not feel psychologically or emotionally attuned with that class (Fouad & Brown, 2000; Rossides, 1990, 1997). It is one’s subjective appraisals that are more salient than objective placement.

Oppression and prejudice, according to DSI, whether it be based on race, gender identification, or other factors may inform one’s sense of status membership, as well. These

forces can act to inhibit social prestige and power, regardless of objective SES or economic resources (Thompson & Subich, 2007). That is, how someone experiences, perceives, and determines their social status is dynamically influenced by individual, social, and systemic forces, by the subjective and objective alike. DSI's introduction marked an opportunity for psychological researchers to study the multifaceted nature of social statuses, while simultaneously accounting for the psychological impact of varying identity statuses.

In order to prevent the methodological and measurement issues traditional SES variables have faced and to ground inquiry in a DSI framework, Fouad and Brown (2002) created the Differential Status Identity Scale (DSIS). The original DSIS (Fouad & Brown, 2002) was comprised of 60-items designed to tap into each of the three facets of DSI (perceived access to economic resources, social power, and social prestige). Items asked participants to respond by comparing themselves to the "average U.S. citizen." Later research to provide validity evidence for the study found, via exploratory factor analysis, the economic resources subscale actually split into two (Thompson & Subich, 2007). Items seeming to tap into people's perceived ability to access resources in order to meet their basic needs (e.g. groceries, education) loaded on one factor, called Economic Resources-Basic Needs. Separately, items assessing an individual's perceived access to luxuries and material possessions (e.g. vacations, shopping) comprised the new Economic Resources-Amenities. However, Thompson and Subich (2007) found in an investigation of Caucasian and African American college students that the two economic resources factors were highly inter-correlated. They maintained that further research is needed to more definitively support using a three-or-four-factor structure. Furthermore, Thompson and Subich (2007) suggested researchers be mindful in future work as to whether individual factors

are differentially related and predictive of unique outcomes, or whether are more useful when considered together.

For the purposes of the current study, and with a small secondary aim to explore Thompson and Subich's suggestions, just access to economic resources will be used. This will be done because it may be that economic resources, above and beyond social power or prestige is a crucial link in the balancing phenomenon. Cleary and Mechanic (1983) and Thoits (1987) suggested increased access to resources accounts for more assistance with and power to negotiate and balance multiple roles. Thus, the decision to use these two facets of DSI, and to combine them, is ground in a history of speculation around the issue in the extant multiple role literature.

SES and Economic Resources in Context

SES and/or social class as person-input variables within studies of SCCT appear frequently. Flores, Navarro, and Ali (2016) present a summary of major findings in their review of 47-studies using either SES or social class variables within SCCT research. Most samples came from high-school or college students. Across studies, participants were predominantly White, however there was diverse representation from individuals identifying as African American, Hispanic, Latina/o, Asian American, and Native American (Flores et al., 2016).

In their review, objective indicators of SES (e.g. income, education) were found to have small positive relationships with college self-efficacy (Aguayo, Herman, Ojeda, & Flores, 2011), college grade-point average (Aguayo et al.; DeFreitas, 2011), and educational and occupational goals (Ali & McWhirter, 2006; Ali & Saunders, 2009). With regards to studies examining subjective social class as the person-input variable, Thompson (2012) found a small positive relationship between perceived social class (PSC) and high-school outcome expectations.

Thompson (2012) also found that efficacy for coping with barriers fully mediated the relationship between PSC and outcome expectations.

Flores et al. (2016) indicate that only one study, to-date, looked at both objective and subjective SES' relationships with SCCT variables. Metheny and McWhirther (2013) found that family of origin SES had a small indirect relationship with career-decision making self-efficacy via its relationship with PSC and perceived family support. Family of origin SES also had a small indirect impact on career-decision making outcome expectations via relationships with PSC and career decision-making SE.

Despite the number of studies finding that objective and subjective SES variables alike have some relationship within SCCT models, some studies found no meaningful connections (Flores et al., 2016). Flores and colleagues posit this may be due to range restriction found in the number of studies with primarily low-income samples. They also assert that measurement and construct issues with objective indicators (see discussion above) may have muddied the water. For example, only PSC was significantly and directly related to self-efficacy beliefs. Hence, subjective social status appraisals may inform self-efficacy beliefs in a stronger capacity than objective. Objective SES may exert an indirect effect on SCCT outcomes via a relationship with PSC (Flores et al., 2013; Metheny & McWhirther, 2013).

Nevertheless, SES and social class are likely key components in the social cognitive framework of educational and occupational development deserving of further inquiry. Specifically, Flores et al. (2013) suggest researchers extend current inquiry to be more encompassing of intersecting identities, increase consistency in how social class is measured, treated, and understood, and pay greater attention to subjective social class as the person-input

variable of concern. Of note, there appear no studies of SES or social class within the CSM model to-date. This is not surprising given the model's recent introduction.

Within the multiple role literature, SES and social class have been a focus as well, albeit it appears more in discourse than study. As Williams, Berdahl, and Vandello asserted in their 2016 review of work-family research, a failure to genuinely attend to class and SES has had potentially ill-effects for the field. Given women are more likely to hold lower paying jobs, often make less for similar work, and do not experience an equitable share of institutional rewards, such as pensions, it is crucial to understand multiple roles in a socio-economic context (Steinberg et al., 2004).

Williams and colleagues (2016) highlight that workplace practices and occupational realities faced by more disadvantaged workers may have implications for a multiple role lifestyle we do not yet fully understand. Yet, there has been some promising findings beginning to shed light on how SES, class, and resources may relate to multiple roles. Lower earning workers are more likely to work with "just-in-time" schedules that are often dictated week-by-week and can change unpredictably and without notice (Lambert, Fugiel, & Henly, 2014). Such a schedule, especially for working mothers, may pose a number of threats to successful balancing efforts, informed by demands or absence of resources, such as having to find last-minute child-care. Hamilton and Russo (2006) found a lack of access to resources for working mothers to be related to rates of fatigue and tiredness. Jacobs and Gerson (2004) time-divide position asserts that high-earning workers often work excessive hours, while low-income and hourly workers often find themselves receiving too few scheduled hours to make financial ends meet. This discrepancy, from a balance perspective, may have number of implications for women.

Due to lack of attention to socio-culturally informed research designs in the multiple role literature, we do not yet thoroughly understand how the experience of lower income workers may color their multiple role balancing experience. We are also sorely lacking in our understanding of the cognitive and emotional implications stemming from navigating multiple life roles with few resources to do so. Scholars from industrial/organizational psychology, counseling psychology, and human resources alike have echoed a call for the field to attend to class, and intersections thereof, within more complicated designs to broaden discourse (Steinberg et al., 2004; Williams et al., 2016).

The Current Problem

The literature on multiple life roles is vast. Historically, however, it has been defined by a work-family conflict orientation, emphasizing how multiple roles work together to create conflict. This view has been questioned by many given increasing evidence that engagement in multiple roles can promote positive outcomes, especially for women (Helson et al., 1990; Voydandoff, 2004; Marcussen & Piatt, 2005). Given this, there has been a more recent focus on using a strengths and feminist based balance perspective to understanding women's multiple role experience. That is, recognizing that women can be active agents able to organize and perform in multiple roles positively (Steinberg et al., 2004).

Currently, despite a plethora of active research, there appears no unifying theoretical foundation through which to ground and organization research on women's balancing. SCCT's Career Self-Management model, a process model developed to aid in understanding how and under what conditions people engage in a variety of adaptive career behaviors, may be particularly suited to filling this gap. The CSM model focuses on how cognitive elements, such

as self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations serve to influence goal-making and actions. Furthermore, the CSM model explicitly acknowledges and accounts for how societal, individual, and context factors shape individuals beliefs about themselves, and thus engagement in career processes.

This study will address a notable gap in the multiple role literature by testing a SCCT Career Self-Management Model of women's multiple role balancing. The hope is that the CSM model may offer a meaningful and comprehensive theoretical framework from which to direct future inquiry. The study will also offer a more complex understanding of how the balancing process may be facilitated or hindered for women. Two key contextual and person-input variables present in both the extant SCCT and multiple role literature will be tested: social support and access to economic resources. Testing a model including the aforementioned will also be consistent with calls by feminist and multiple role scholars to better understand unique conditions under which women navigate their multiple roles, and the intersections thereof. The SCCT CSM model is fairly new. And, as such, is beginning to mass empirical attention. Thus, this study will also contribute to the growing body of research testing the CSM model's applications.

Secondarily, this study will offer insight into role dynamics beyond work and family. The study will incorporate the full diversity of women's multiple roles, including leisurite, volunteer, child/family member, parent, spouse/partner, and friend. By doing so, this study has the potential to answer Julia Steinberg and colleague's assertion that there has been too limited a focus on only work and family.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Participants and Procedure

Data was collected from 206 participants. However, data from 50 respondents was omitted for having in excess of 20% missing responses for any given scale. For the few missing responses in the remaining data, mean imputation was employed (e.g. when fewer than 20% of item-responses for a given measure were missing, the mean of indicated responses was used).

The final sample for analysis was 156 adult women ages 25 and above. Sample size was determined based on recommendations from Kline (2011) that appropriate sample sizes for complex model testing following a 10:1 ratio of participants to freed parameters to be estimated. The most complex model to be tested in this study (e.g. model with the most freed parameters to be estimated) was testing partial mediation effects of both social support and access to economic resources (ER) through self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations. This model has 15 paths to be estimated, thus a 10:1 would indicate a minimum of 150 necessary to detect significant effects. Subsequently, while small, this sample size was sufficient for the study's primary analysis.

Participants were women ranging in age from 25-years to 70-years-old (mean=38, SD=12.12). Women reported their racial or ethnic identity background to be primarily European American, Caucasian (N=123; 78.8%). The remaining sample reported their racial or ethnic

identity as follows: African American, Black (N=8; 5.1%), Asian American, Pacific Islander (N=8; 5%), Mexican American, Chicano (N=5; 3.1%), other Latina/Hispanic origin (N= 4; 2.6%), Multi-racial (N=5; 3.2%) and other (Indian, Middle Eastern; N=3; 1.9%). Nearly half of the sample reported they were married (N=73; 46.8%), 26.9% were single (N=42), 14.7% partnered (N=23), 7.1% divorced (N=11), 1.9% widowed (N=3), and four women did not indicate a marital status. Over half of the sample reported they did not have children (57.1%; N=89), of those who did, most reported they had one (N=19; 12.2%) or two children (N=27; 17.3%).

Regarding indicators of socio-economic status, 5.1% described their social class as lower class (N=8), 28.2% as lower middle class (N=44), 48.7% as middle class (N=76), 16.7% as upper middle class (N=26) and 0.6% as upper class (N=1), one participant declined to answer. Most participants reported their annual income as \$40,000 to less than \$60,000 per a year (N=42; 26.9%), \$20,000 to \$40,000 per a year (N=31; 19.9%), or less than \$20,000 per a year (N=26; 16.7%). One third of participants indicated they held a Bachelor's degree (N=52; 33.3%), 31.4% a Master's degree (N=49), 15.4% a Doctoral degree (N=24), 9.6% an Associate's degree (N=15), 8.3% held a high school diploma (N=13), and two participants indicated their highest education was a GED (1.3%; one participant did not answer). Approximately 58% of the sample reported being employed full-time (N=91), 20.5% reported they were employed part-time (N=32), 16.7% were not employed (N=26), and seven participants declined to answer. The sample reflected women in careers ranging from engineering to protective service occupations to business and financial occupations. The most commonly represented careers were as follows: education, training, and library (e.g. a teacher; N=25; 16.0%), life, physical, and social sciences (e.g.

psychologist; N=25; 16.0%), healthcare (e.g. physician; N=23; 14.7%), office and administrative support (e.g. billing; N=14; 9.0%), and business and financial occupations (e.g. accountant; N=9; 5.8%).

Table 1. Sample Demographic Characteristics

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age		
25 to 34	86	55.1
35 to 44	23	14.7
45 to 54	21	13.7
55 to 64	18	11.5
65 and older	4	2.5
Missing	4	2.5
Race/Ethnicity		
European American, Caucasian	123	78.8
African American, Black	8	5.1
Asian American, Pacific Islander	3	5.1
Mexican American, Chicano	5	3.2
Other Latina/o, Hispanic	4	2.6
Multiracial	5	2.6
Other (Indian, Middle Eastern)	3	1.9
Missing	--	--
Marital Status		
Single	42	26.9
Partnered	23	14.7
Married	73	46.8
Divorced	11	7.1
Widowed	3	1.9
Missing	4	2.5
Number of Children		
One	19	12.2
Two	27	17.3
Three	13	8.3
Four	3	1.9
Five or more	5	3.2
None	89	57.1
Missing		

Work Status		
Employed full-time	91	58.3
Employee part-time	32	20.5
Not-employed	26	16.7
Missing	7	4.5
Income (in thousands)		
\$0-20	26	16.7
\$20-40	31	19.9
\$40-60	42	26.9
\$60-80	13	8.3
\$80-100	14	9.0
\$100-120	6	3.8
\$120-140	4	2.6
\$140-160	3	1.9
\$160-180	4	2.6
\$180-200	1	0.6
\$200+	9	5.8
Missing	3	1.9
Social Class (self-report)		
Lower Class	8	5.1
Lower Middle Class	44	28.2
Middle Class	76	48.7
Upper Middle Class	26	16.7
Upper Class	1	0.6
Missing	1	0.6
Level of Education		
GED	2	1.3
High School Diploma	13	8.3
Associate's Degree	15	9.6
Bachelor's Degree	52	33.3
Master's Degree	49	31.4
Doctoral Degree	24	15.4
Missing	1	0.6
Type of Work		
Management Occupations	9	5.8
Business and Financial Operations	9	5.8
Computer and Mathematical Occupations	--	--
Architecture and Engineering Occupations	5	3.2
Life, Physical, and Social Sciences	25	16.0
Community and Social Service Occupations	19	12.2

Education, Training, and Library Occupations	25	16.0
Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media	8	5.1
Healthcare Practitioners	23	14.7
Protective Service Occupations	2	2.6
Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations	1	0.6
Building and Grounds Cleaning Maintenance	--	--
Personal Care and Service Occupations	4	2.6
Sales and Related Occupations	6	3.8
Office and Administration Support Occupations	14	9.0
Farming, Fishing, and Forestry Occupations	1	0.6
Construction and Extraction Occupations	--	--
Installation, Maintenance, and Repair Occupations	--	--
Production Occupations	--	--
Transportation and Material Moving Occupations	1	0.6
Military Specific Operations	--	--

Note. Total sample = 156.

Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained through Loyola University Chicago. Women were recruited (Appendix A) electronically via online listservs, Craig’s List, email blasts to professional colleagues, and word-of-mouth within the United States. From either the listserv page or email, women who were interested were instructed to click on a link which directed them to a consent form (Appendix B) explaining the purposes of the study, the voluntary nature of participation, and any potential harm a participant may experience by continuing to complete the survey. The form also provided details for eligibility to win a \$25 American Express gift card after completing the survey, and how information provided to identify a winner will be used and protected. At the end of the consent form was a box in which participated were instructed to indicated “yes” they understood the consent form and agreed to voluntarily participate or “no.” Upon indicating their consent participants were directed to the online survey.

Instruments

Demographic Questionnaire

Participants first completed a demographic questionnaire as part of the survey material (see Appendix C). This demographic questionnaire was developed for the study and consisted of questions asking participants to specify the following: age, race/ethnic background, partnership status (married, in a long term partnership, dating, or single), parenthood status and number of children, perceived socio-economic status (upper class, upper middle class, middle class, lower middle class, and lower class), and employment status (full-time, part-time, temporary, or employed recently).

Social Support

The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support developed by Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, and Farley (1988) was used to assess for perceived social support (see Appendix D). The scale consisted of 12 items created to reflect three facets of social support: significant other, family, and friends. Example items include: “There is a special person who is around when I am in need,” “My family really tries to help me,” and “I can talk about my problems with my friends.” The scale is administered on a seven-point scale; 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) and a mean score was calculated by averaging confidence ratings across the 12 items. Psychometrics for the measure are sound. Initial development testing with a college student sample found the internal consistencies to range from .85 to .91 for the three factor scores and .88 for the total score. A recent study of employed mothers, a sample similar to the present one, found internal consistency for the total score to be .94. Cronbach’s alpha for total scores obtained from the present sample was similar ($\alpha = .93$).

Economic Resources

Perception of access to resources was assessed via two subscales from the Differential Status Identity Scale (DSIS; Brown et al., 2002; see Appendix E). The scale was developed to reflect major tenets of Differential Status Identity Theory (DSIT; Fouad & Brown, 2000). DSIT defines social status as a subjective understanding of one's position in society in comparison to others. Four subscales comprise the full measure. However, only two were used in this inquiry because they most aptly reflected this study's aim of tapping into access to economic resources. The two subscales designed to measure economic resources were: Economic Resources-Amenities (ER-A) and Economic Resources-Basic Needs (ER-B). The former assesses individuals' perception of their ability to access desired material possessions and participate in desired leisure activities, whereas the latter measures perceptions of abilities to secure basic needs such as medical care. Each subscale contains 15 items. Examples of items on the ER-A subscale are, "ability to travel recreationally," and "ability to shop comfortably in upscale department stores." The ER-B subscale contains items such as, "ability to afford prescription medication," and "ability to join a health club." Participants answer items based on their perceived status compared to the "average citizen/family in the United States" on a 5-point scale from -2 (very much below average or much less) to +2 (very much above average or much more). Scores were converted to a 1 to 5 scale for ease of data analysis. A mean score was calculated by averaging ratings across the 30 items in the ER-A and ER-B subscales.

Given the bulk of research to date using the DSIS has been with college students there appears to be a lack of psychometric data on samples similar to that used for this study. However, some work with undergraduate college students used samples reflecting a wide range

of students, some in a similar developmental bracket to the study sample (e.g. age range 18-55-years in one study; Thompson & Subich, 2007). Internal consistency estimates for scores in the Thompson and Subich (2007) study on the combined Economic Resources subscales was strong ($\alpha=.97$ combined). Internal consistency estimates for scores of the combined ER-scales in the present study were identical ($\alpha=.97$).

Independent researchers have examined the construct validity evidence for the DSIS. First, Thompson and Subich (2006, 2007) explored and later confirmed the underlying factor structure of the DSIS. A four-factor solution emerged as both statistically meaningful and interpretable. Results suggested that items tapping one's perceived material possessions, leisure activities, and connection to rich and powerful persons loaded on factors, named economic resources-amenities. Items reflecting a person's perceived ability to access education, medical care, insurance, and everyday possessions loaded on a separate factor called economic resources-basic needs.

Additional work has provided construct validity evidence for the measure. Related constructs, such as self-reported income and self-reported social class standing were found to moderately correlate with ER-B (.32 and .46 respectively), and yielded moderate to large correlations for ER-A (.38 and .52). None of these correlations were sufficiently large as to suggest construct redundancy between perceived access to Economic Resources and other more traditional indicators of SES and social class. Instead, the moderate to large effect sizes suggest that conventional indicators of social status and perceptions of access to economic resources are distinct, yet complementary, constructs.

Self-Efficacy for Balancing Multiple Roles (SEBMR)

Self-efficacy, by definition, is domain specific (Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 1994). Thus, measures of self-efficacy must be equally specific. Given this, there was no established measure of multiple role management self-efficacy in the extant literature available. Items to assess self-efficacy for managing multiple roles were therefore written and piloted in a previous study, using an emerging adult population to inquire about anticipated multiple role management (Roche, Daskalova, & Brown, 2017). Initially two separate sets of items were written. First, was a set of items asking about level of confidence in balancing multiple roles (parent, romantic partner, friend, child/family member, worker, and volunteer), one role by role at a time. For example, one item asked participants to indicate their anticipated level of confidence to, “Balance my parent role and my role as a spouse/partner,” on a one to five scale where one indicated “no confidence” and five indicated “complete confidence.” A second set of items, using the same role pairings and same one to five-point scale, asked about level of anticipated confidence to manage conflict across multiple roles (e.g. “manage conflict between my parent role and my role as a spouse/partner,” and “manage conflict between my parenting role and my work role).”

The intention behind creating these two separate measures was to determine whether balance simply reflects the absence of conflict or vice versa as some literature has posited, or whether the two can be assessed as two, related yet distinct constructs (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007). Data were collected for this study from men and women ages 18-25 across the country via electronic recruitment. Results of an exploratory factor analysis (N=94) suggested that participants could not distinguish balancing multiple roles and managing inter-role conflict—items from both scales loaded together. Thus, only the balance items were used in this study.

Additional items were added to the scale for this study to more comprehensively cover possible life roles experienced by the individual (volunteer, leisurite, and child/family member). Thus, the self-efficacy for balancing multiple roles measure administered constituted a total of 21-items (see Appendix F). Results of further exploratory factor analysis supported a clear one-factor solution. Because not all participants had experienced all roles (e.g., parent) and could not answer all items, mean score was obtained for each participant by averaging the total score by the number of items answered. Internal consistency of scores for the new 21-item SEBMR was $\alpha=.96$. Results from Roche et al. (2017) provides some preliminary validity evidence for the measure. For example, as hypothesized by SCCT, anticipated self-efficacy beliefs for balancing multiple roles and anticipated outcome expectations were moderately and significantly related ($r=0.39$).

Outcome Expectations for Balancing Multiple Roles (OEBMR)

As with self-efficacy for balancing multiple roles, the domain specific nature of outcome expectations prevents there from being many established and widely used measures. For this reason, items were also developed via previous inquiry to assess anticipated outcome expectations of engaging in balancing multiple roles (Roche et al., 2017). Seventeen items were written asking young people to indicate how likely they thought a number of negative or positive outcomes were to happen should they manage multiple roles (see Appendix G). Examples items are: “I would become exhausted,” “I would feel proud of my efforts,” and “I would experience conflict with important others in my life.”

Examination of individual items from the initial pool written and used by Roche et al., (2017) suggested four potentially superfluous items. They were removed for this inquiry, which

resulted in the 13-item scale used for this study. Instructions for this study were also changed from the original OEBMR to reflect current perceptions of outcome expectations as opposed to anticipated (e.g. indicate how likely you think each of are to happen as a result of balancing multiple roles in your life). Negatively worded items were reversed scored and mean score was calculated by averaging confidence ratings across the 13 items for each participant. The internal consistency estimate for these scores on the OEMBR for this study's sample of women was acceptable ($\alpha=.81$)

Actions to Balance Multiple Roles (ABMR)

Ten items were written previously to assess young people's intentions for balancing actions. These items were also piloted on the same Roche et al. (2017) sample of emerging adults. For the purposes of this study, instructions for the items, which were originally written as, "to what degree do you intend to do the following," were altered to instruct participants to "indicate to what degree you are currently doing (or have recently done) the following." Items were answered on a 1(not at all) to 5(very actively) scale (see Appendix H). Example items include: "Track your success in balancing multiple role," and "Seek out others to serve as role models." A mean score was obtained for each participant. Internal consistency estimates for total scores in this sample was acceptable ($\alpha=.90$).

Table 2. Study Measure Descriptive Statistics

	Economic Resources	Social Support	Self-Efficacy	Outcome Expectations	Actions
Cronbach's alpha	0.97	0.93	0.96	0.81	0.90
Mean(SD)	2.95(0.81)	5.35(1.37)	3.32(0.83)	3.65(0.57)	3.21(0.83)
Potential Range	1 to 5	1 to 7	1 to 5	1 to 5	1 to 5
Obtained Range	1 to 5	1 to 7	1 to 5	2 to 5	1 to 5

Data Analysis

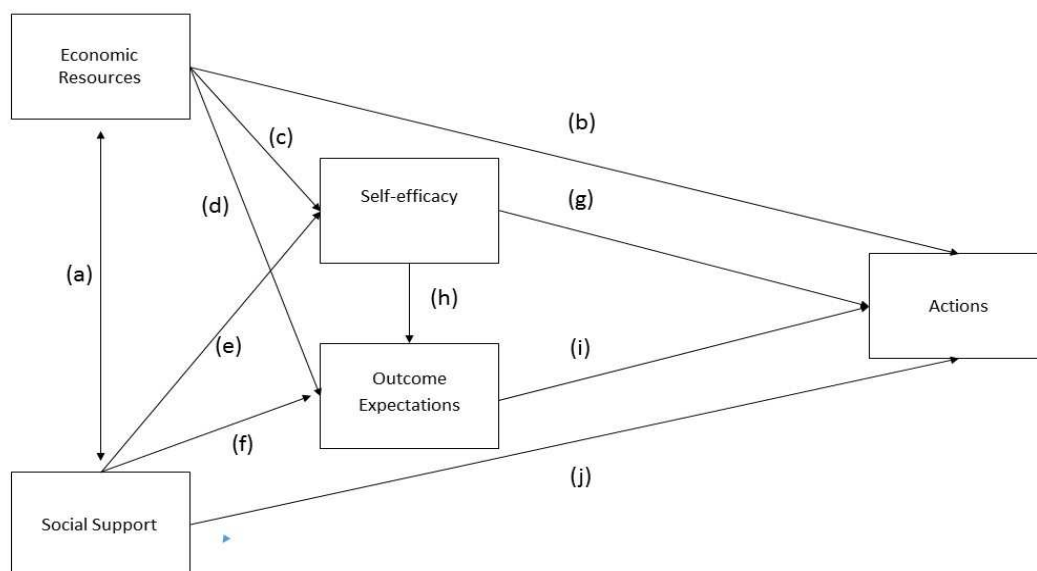
Path analysis using Robust Maximum Likelihood estimation was used to control for bias associated with multivariate non-normality (Bryant & Satorra, 2012). Robust Maximum Likelihood estimation was conducted using LISREL 8.0 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 2001). To test the study's hypotheses, four separate models were specified, identified, estimated, and then evaluated for fit per path analysis best practices (Weston & Gore, 2006).

Model one, the simplest model (e.g. the least parameters freed to be estimated) assessed for full mediation of social support (SS) and economic resources (ER) via self-efficacy (SE) and outcome expectations (OE). In other words, the direct paths from SS to actions and ER to actions were fixed to zero (as depicted by paths *j* and *b* in Figure 1)

Next, Model two, reflecting a partial mediation effect of ER and full mediation of SS was estimated. This model freed the direct path from ER to actions (path *b*) while the direct path from SS to action remained fixed to zero (path *j*). Third, model three was tested, which proposed a partial mediation effect for SS, allowing the path from SS to action to be freed (path *j*). However, the path from ER to action was fixed to zero (path *b*), to reflect a full mediation effect

for ER. Lastly, model four, a complete partial mediation model was tested. This model allowed both the paths from ER to actions and from SS to actions to be freed (see paths *b* and *j* in Figure 1). Across all four model tests, the path from SS to ER (path *a*) remained freed to be estimated.

Figure 1. Model Four: Partial Mediation Model



Upon identification of the best fitting model, bootstrapping analysis using INDIRECT, a macro-add-on to SPSS (Preacher & Hayers, 2008) using 5,000 bootstrapped samples, was conducted. Bootstrapping analysis allows for determination of the statistical significance of observed indirect effects by calculating 95% confidence intervals for each effect. Significance ($p < 0.05$) is indicated for those effects which exclude zero.

Fit of the models was evaluated via widely used thresholds for determining adequacy of model-data fit (Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Model fit was determined to be acceptable if absolute fit indices (RMSEA and SRMR) were under .08 and relative fit indices (NNFI and CFI) exceeded .90 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Whereas model fit was determined to be good if the absolute fit indices fell at .05 and below, and the relative fit indices exceed .95 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Hu & Bentler, 1999). To determine whether or not freeing the additional paths in the partial mediation models adds significantly to the explanatory power of the model, a difference in χ^2 test was conducted. Additionally, individual standardized path coefficients for the respective path within each model was examined for magnitude, direction, and significance.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

At the correlational level, results were largely congruent SCCT's Self-Management model (see Table 2). Self-efficacy beliefs and outcomes expectations for balancing multiple roles were moderately, positively correlated ($r = 0.32, p < .05$). Both self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations for balancing multiple roles produced small yet significant correlations with actions to balance multiple roles ($r = .27, p < .05$ and $r = .19, p < .05$ respectively). Social support related positively to self-efficacy beliefs ($r = 0.35, p < .05$) and outcome expectations ($r = .25, p < .05$), but the correlation with actions was small and non-significant ($r = .12, p < .14$). Economic resources produced a moderate, significant relationship with self-efficacy beliefs ($r = .27, p < .05$), a small, non-significant relationship with outcome expectations ($r = .11, p < .17$), and a significant, though small, correlation with actions ($r = .21, p < .05$). Social support and economic resources showed a moderate positive relationship ($r = .35, p < .05$).

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

	Economic Resources	Social Support	Balance Self-Efficacy	Outcome Expectations
Eco. Resources				
Social Support	0.35*			
SE for balancing	0.27*	0.35*		
Out. Expectations	0.11	0.25*	0.32*	
Actions	0.21*	0.12	0.27*	0.19*

*denotes significance at $p < 0.05$

Table 4. Correlation for Demographic Variables

	Reported Income	Reported Social Class	Education	Age
Eco. Resources	0.50*	0.64*	0.30*	0.07
Social Support	0.10	0.19*	0.14	-0.14
SE for balancing	0.11	0.11	-0.09	0.07
Out. Expectations	0.05	0.11	0.02	0.09
Actions	0.13	0.23*	0.18*	-0.11

*denotes significance at $p < 0.05$

Path Analysis

Results of the four model tests (see Table 5) via Robust Maximum Likelihood path analysis using LISREL 8.8 suggested that two models fit the data equally well—the partially mediated model (Model Four) and the model that hypothesized a partial mediation effect for economic resources and full mediation for social support (Model Two). Given the former model (Model Four) was just-identified, interpreting the results of the perfect fit indices was meaningless. Fit indices for Model Two indicated a good fit to the data (RMSEA=0.00, SRMR=0.01, CFI=1.00, and NNFI=1.00). Further, the chi square difference test between these two models was not significant ($\Delta X^2_{(1)} = .18, p = .67$) and change in CFI values (0.00) suggested no notable change in fit across the two models.

Table 5. Fit indices

Model	df	χ^2 (sig)	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	NNFI	Δdf	$\Delta \chi^2$ (sig)	ΔCFI
One: full mediation	2	3.71 (0.16)	0.08	0.04	0.98	0.91			
Two: partial mediation of economic resources only	1	0.18 (0.67)	0.00	0.01	1.00	1.00	1	3.53 (0.06)	0.02
Three: partial mediation of social support only	1	3.79 (0.05)	0.14	0.04	0.97	0.70	1	0.08 (0.78)	0.01
Four: partial mediation of economic resources and social support	0	0	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	2	3.71 (0.16)	0.01

Inspection of the standardized path coefficients in Model Two indicated that the paths from self-efficacy to outcome expectations ($\beta = .26, p < 0.05$) and actions ($\beta = .20, p < 0.05$) were each significant ($p < .05$), though the path from outcome expectations to actions was not significant ($\beta = .11, p < .08$). Given this core SCCT path emerged as non-significant, the standardized path coefficients for the equally well-fitting, but more complicated Model Four were examined. For Model Four, the paths from self-efficacy to outcome expectations ($\beta = .26, p < 0.05$) and to actions ($\beta = .21, p < 0.05$) were significant, as was the path from outcome expectations to actions ($\beta = .12, p < 0.05$), thus fully supporting core tenets of the proposed SCCT self-management model. Hence, inspection of the standardized path coefficients of both Model Two and Model Four suggested that Model Four, the partially mediated model, though slightly more complicated, was both well-fitting and theoretically meaningful (See Figure 2).

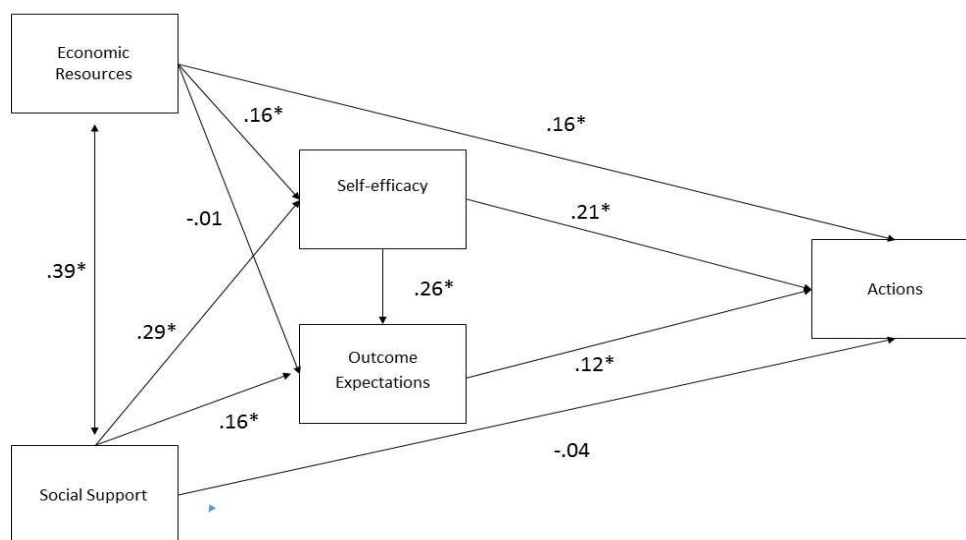
Regarding the person-input and contextual variables tested, inspection of the path

coefficients from Model Four indicated that the paths from economic resources to self-efficacy and to actions were significant ($\beta = .16, p < 0.05$ and $\beta = .16, p < 0.05$ respectively). The path from economic resources to outcomes expectations emerged as near-zero and non-significant ($\beta = -.01$). The paths from social support to self-efficacy and to outcome expectations were both significant ($\beta = .29, p < 0.05$ and $\beta = .16, p < 0.05$ respectively). However, the path from social support to actions emerged as non-significant ($\beta = -.04, p < 0.05$), suggesting that the impact of social support on actions to balance multiple roles is largely via its relationships with self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Self-efficacy beliefs accounted for approximately 4% of the variance in actions. Outcome expectations accounted for approximately 1.5% of the variance in actions.

Bootstrapping analysis using 5,000 bias corrected samples was conducted to obtain more conservative path coefficient estimates and standard errors. In general, results were consistent with the Robust Maximum Likelihood results. Results of the bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect path of economic resources to actions through self-efficacy was significant ($\beta = 0.07, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.02, 0.14]$), while the indirect path through outcome expectations was not ($\beta = 0.02, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.01, 0.08]$). However, the path from economic resources to outcome expectations via self-efficacy was significant ($\beta = 0.09, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.02, 0.17]$), supporting the primary influence of economic resources is via its relationship with self-efficacy beliefs. The indirect path from social support to actions via self-efficacy was significant ($\beta = 0.06, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.02, 0.12]$), as was the indirect path via outcome expectations ($\beta = 0.03, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.02, 0.11]$). The indirect effect of social support on outcome expectations, via self-efficacy, was likewise significant ($\beta = 0.04, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.02, .14]$). Self-efficacy's indirect effect on actions via outcome expectations just

barely did not reach significance ($\beta = 0.04$, 95% CI [0.00, 0.11]).

Figure 2. Model Four Results



In sum, although the model hypothesizing partial mediation of economic resources and full mediation for social support (Model Two) fit the data well according to standard fit indices, initial parameter estimates suggested that the meaningful path from outcome expectations to actions purposed by the self-management model did not reach significance. However, the path did emerge as significant in the model hypothesizing a partial mediation effect of both economic resources and social support (Model Four), indicating this slightly more complicated model to be more theoretically meaningful. The small and ultimately non-significant impact of social support on actions in Model Four suggested that the primary influence of social support is via its relationships with self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations. In other words, social support appears to not directly facilitate actions towards balancing roles, but it does meaningfully cultivate greater beliefs in one's own ability to do so and more positive appraisal of outcomes.

In turn, the latter cognitive variables inform greater actions taken to balance multiple roles.

Post-hoc Analysis

To explore for potential group differences in study variables, MANOVAs were conducted using demographic indicators as the independent variables, and outcomes as the dependent. Given the different sample sizes across groups, the more robust Pillai's Trace criterion was used to gauge significance. Leven's test for all analyses indicated the assumption of homogeneity of variances to have been met. It was not possible to conduct analyses by income or social class because two groups (upper class for social class and \$180,000-200,000 income bracket respectively) only had one case, violating a necessary assumption for MANOVA. Analysis of differences by reported level of education yielded significant results at the multivariate level, ($F(5,149)=2.03, p<0.00, \rho^2=0.06$). At the univariate level, group differences, by education, had a significant relationship with access to economic resources ($F(5,149)=3.68, p<0.00, \rho^2=0.11$). Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests were conducted to further identify between where group differences existed. A significant difference in access to economic resources was found between women indicating they held a doctorate and those who reported a GED ($p<0.45$) or high school diploma ($p<0.28$).

A MANOVA was conducted using marital status (e.g., single, married, partnered, divorced, and widowed,) as the independent variable to determine any differences across outcomes. Leven's test for equality of error variances yielded non-significant results across all dependent variances, indicating that the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated. Results of the multivariate test were non-significant ($F(4,156)=1.55, p<0.06$), indicating no significant differences in outcome variables due to marital status.

Similarly, to test for potential group differences across occupations, a MANOVA was conducted with occupation as the independent variable and study variables as the dependent variables. A new occupation variable was created to indicate type of work with the most reported occupations receiving their own category (life sciences, healthcare, education, arts, business operations, management, community/social service, and office administration), while the remaining occupations were combined to represent an “other” category. Again, the Leven’s test was non-significant. At the multivariate level, results suggested no significant group differences based on occupation ($F(8,144)=1.37, p<0.07$). Findings from this MANOVA indicate that there were not significant differences, by reported occupation, across study variables.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to test the SCCT Self-Management Model as it applies to women's multiple role balance as an adaptive career behavior. Given the influence of key person input and contextual factors in the Self-Management Model, access to economic resources and social support were integrated into tested models. This was done to ascertain the nature of their potential role in the process of women's multiple role balancing. While few in numbers, previous inquires have found the SCCT self-management model supported within the contexts of anticipated multiple role management of emerging adults and the sexual identity management of sexual minority workers (Roche et al., 2017; Tatum et al., 2017).

The multiple role and work/life literature is rife with competing theoretical models, all of which seem to leave major facets unaccounted for, or a fall short of a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. This inquiry, is also an initial attempt to contextualize how women, varying in social support and access to resources, balance multiple life roles, within the context of SCCT's self-management model to offer an additional theoretical framework for inquiry. In doing so, hopefully a new more dynamic and rich means through which to examine the multiple role interface will be opened.

Bivariate correlations between study variables supported basic SCCT hypotheses. Self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations were positively and moderately correlated. The relationship between self-efficacy beliefs for balancing multiple roles and actions was positive

and significant, as was the relationship between outcome expectations and actions. The two exogenous variables, economic resources and social support, were moderately and positively related to one another.

Results from the path analysis, with Robust Maximum Likelihood estimation to account for multivariate non-normality, likewise supported the core tenets of the SCCT self-management model. The path between self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations was significant, as were the paths from self-efficacy and outcome expectations to actions. However, the indirect effect of self-efficacy on actions via outcome expectations, as posited by the SCCT self-management model, was non-significant. This may likely be explained by the limited power in the bootstrapping analysis caused by sample size.

Path analysis results suggested that the influence of economic resources on role balancing actions was partially mediated by self-efficacy beliefs. Given the non-significant path from economic resources to outcome expectations, any effect of economic resources on outcome expectations is likely via its relationship with self-efficacy beliefs. Bootstrapping analysis further supported this assertion as the indirect path from economic resources to outcome expectations via self-efficacy was significant.

These findings concerning the significant direct effect of resources on actions are complementary to existing assertions that higher financial resources allow for the purchase of assistance and greater ease with balancing actions (e.g., securing child-care, Cleary & Mechanic, 1983). In other words, more access to economic resources may simply allow women to more easily pursue and complete balancing tasks, without necessarily feeling confident in their ability to do so or not (although those with more resources also feel more confident in their role-balance

abilities). Another means through which access to economic resources may directly facilitate actions is via the power it may afford to negotiate and organize life roles with greater agency (Thoits, 1987). Both of the aforementioned may also serve to facilitate exposure to successful balancing experiences and models who are taking similar actions, thereby simultaneously promoting the development of strong self-efficacy beliefs.

Robust Maximum Likelihood estimates yielded from the path analysis suggested that the influence of social support on role balancing actions is fully mediated by self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations. The path coefficients for the paths between social support and self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations were both significant. Bootstrapping results further substantiated the presence of a full mediation effect: the indirect paths from social support to actions through both self-efficacy and through outcome expectations were significant.

Prior studies examining the role of contextual variables in SCCT, such as Sheu, et al., found the relationship of self-efficacy beliefs to be indirect. Some suggest social support may increase access to new contacts and facilitate gathering information and resources (Heanly & Isreal, 2002), thus potentially facilitating greater ease in accomplishing balance related actions. However, results from this study, suggest that quality social support does not necessarily promote increased action-taking, but instead mainly operates by cultivating greater confidence in women's perceived ability to take action and more positive expectations of outcomes. Hence, in synthesizing these results, it seems that perceiving greater social support does not translate to women directly doing more to balance. Instead, it likely empowers women to believe they can do what they need to balance their many life roles (e.g. feel more confident) and believe that doing so will be worthwhile.

Post-hoc Analysis

In order to determine whether or not there were any differences in study variable mean scores by demographic variables, a series of MANOVAS. Presence of group differences may have yielded interesting routes for further inquiry. Because a bulk of the sample identified as European American it would not have been meaningful to analyze group differences by race/ethnic identification. Regarding SES indicators, only education level could be examined. Multivariate results were significant. Further analysis indicated that education level and access to economic resources were related. Significant differences emerged between women holding a doctorate and those holding a GED or high school diploma. These group differences are largely as expected given the broadly established nature of how educational attainment often dictates income and access to resources (Barro & Lee, 2001).

Multivariate results indicated non-significant results for group differences by both marital status and occupation. Further inquiries should examine these group differences with larger sample sizes, as well as test for group differences that the current inquiry was unable to, such as race/ethnicity. In general, posthoc analyses suggest no major group differences across the study variables for women in this sample by either marital status or occupation. Yet, women's reported access to economic resources does appear to differ based on educational attainment, in particular between groups with the most attainment and those with the least.

Clinical and Work Place Implications

Findings from this initial examination of women's multiple role balancing may have a number of meaningful implications for clinical practice. It appears that satisfactory social support from friends, family, and partners is particularly important to the development of positive beliefs

about one's abilities to balance their multiple life roles. Thus, clinicians may want to be work collaboratively with women to cultivate greater social support. Social support may serve to buffer the ill-effects of stress and contribute to more positive perceptions (Thoits, 1995). Hence, working with women to facilitate stronger social support will likely improve their sense of confidence in their own ability to balance life roles and consequently the actions they undertake to do so. Improving women's social support may also facilitate more positive perceptions of their efforts to balance multiple life roles. Furthermore, encouraging clients to strengthen their social support networks may also help garner greater access to resources and assistance (Hodnett, Gates, Hofmeyr, & Sakala, 2007). Given the link between social support and access to economic resources, women with limited resources may particularly benefit from interventions aimed at amassing stronger support.

All too often women may not be in a position to carve out time to seek greater social support, be geographically isolated from their core support networks, or not be in the financial position to do so (e.g. have dinner with friends, afford child-care). These conditions call for clinicians, and clients alike, to lean-in to alternative sources of support. For example, today's social media landscape may provide access to social support previously not available, via forums, blogs, chatrooms, and online associations. Although traditionally exclusive to more urban areas, professional networks, clubs, and meet-up groups may offer women a unique opportunity to receive social support.

Study results also indicate women's self-efficacy beliefs, their confidence, around balancing multiple life roles directly impacts the actions they take to do so. Hence, fostering strong balance self-efficacy beliefs in women will likely result women engaging in more

balancing actions. Clinicians working with women endorsing balancing concerns may work with their respective clients to cultivate greater access to learning experiences, crucial sources of self-efficacy beliefs according to SCCT. For example, SCCT prescribes that the more an individual has contact with a meaningful and relatable model, enjoys experiences related to their success in a specific domain, can cognitively attribute experiences to themselves and their efforts, and receive positive feedback from important others regarding their efforts, the stronger their self-efficacy beliefs will become.

Applied to multiple role balancing, clinicians should invest in working collaborative with their client to gain access and engagement with a model of positive balancing. Clinicians may also want to consider incorporating cognitive and strengths-based approaches to identify past and current balance related success experience. In the event a client is struggling to identify any or seems quick to discredit their efficacy in a particular event, clinicians should work to mindfully counter and challenge these negative self-appraisals. That being said, there may be times women have genuinely not had access to any performance accomplishments, for myriad institutional and systemic reasons. Drawing from these results, clinicians may seek, from a feminist perspective, to acknowledge the social and system constructions limiting women's access to success in balancing and empower clients to disavow and challenge these systems.

Moreover, given the direct link between access to economic resources and actions to balance multiple roles, clinicians working with clients reporting few resources may need to broaden the scope of services. For example, clinicians should consider providing referrals, access to non-profit and social service resources in their communities, and engage in advocacy for their clients to increase exposure to beneficial resources. Doing so, according to these

initials results, may serve beneficial in both increasing self-efficacy beliefs for balancing multiple roles, as well as impact actions taken to balance.

Beyond therapy, many such as, Kelly, Moen, Kossek, and Hammer (2011) and Bloom and Roberts (2015), have begun examining how work-place interventions can facilitate better employee role balance. Studied interventions include predictable time off, enhancing cultural flexibility, and diversifying scheduling procedures (Kelly et al., 2011, 2014; Perlow, 2012). Findings from this inquiry lend further support to existing innovation in workplace interventions, as well as suggest additional avenues. For example, workers seemed to positively benefit from organizational wide predictable time off, guaranteeing a set time-off, including responding to phone and emails, to workers on a set schedule (Perlow 2012; Williams et al., 2016). Flexible work arrangement models, such as those employed at Best Buy's corporate headquarters, designed to destigmatize unconventional work arrangements, such as working remotely, have been shown to promote positive outcomes for employees (Kelly et al., 2011; Moen, Kelly, & Hill, 2011). Hence, there is evidence to suggest organizations may be in a unique position to support women in achieving greater balancing success by designing, implementing, and adhering to balance-friendly policies. And, by no means should innovation remain stagnant, it is imperative organizational policy keep pace with women's dynamically evolving multiple role development. Newer initiatives such as mandated vacation time, subsidized child-care, and expanded maternity and paternity leave are in dire need of wider implementation, and study to examine and support their merit.

Given the direct connection between economic resources and actions, workplaces may consider providing supplemental services to promote action taking for employees with

historically lower access to resources (e.g. part-time or hourly employees). Examples of such services are: consistent schedules for hourly workers and child-care vouchers. While not examined directly here, cultivating a strong sense of workplace community and a supportive environment within organizations may help promote greater self-efficacy beliefs in employees. This may be particularly impactful given the strong connection between social support and self-efficacy beliefs. Future empirical investigations could better substantiate this recommendation by examining the specific role of workplace social support.

Limitations and Future Directions

Despite the promising results of this study, there are limitations. First, the sample size used for analysis, while sufficient for conducting the primary path analysis based on the recommendations of 10 participants for each freed parameter (Kline, 2011; the most complex model included 15 free parameter estimates), fell short of some recommendations for minimum sample size to conduct bootstrapping analysis (Nevitt & Hancock, 2001). Thus, the bootstrapping analysis may have failed to detect all significant results.

Of note, approximately two-thirds of participants held a bachelor's degree or higher resulting in range restriction on this demographic variable. Given the historically robust relationship between educational attainment and economic conditions, the limited range represented in this sample may have constricted the degree to which economic resources relationships with study variables was truly captured (Barro & Lee, 2001). In other words, it may be that the influence of economic resources in this model is larger than estimated by this study because of potential underestimation due to range restriction. Given the Next, this study employed a cross-sectional design, limiting the ability to draw any references about causality.

Future research should incorporate longitudinal designs in exploring the process of balancing.

Additionally, while this study sought to represent the multiple role balance phenomenon as it applies to the diverse female experience, the present sample was fairly racially- and ethnically- homogenous. While the extant literature on the intersection of race, SES indicators, and mental health has not always indicated outcome differences (e.g. between European-Americans and African Americans), despite the association between race and SES indicators (Schulz, Israel, Zenk, Parker, Lichtenstein, Shellman-Weir, & Klem, 2006). Despite this, women of color are navigating balancing their multiple life roles in the face of increased discrimination and stereotyping, an experience not to be ignored and potentially impactful within this context (Steinberg et al., 2004). Hence, future studies should strive for more heterogeneous samples, as well as engage in invariance testing across models with different racial/ethnic identity groups to assess if the present model holds across race/ethnic identities. This study did not inquire about self-reported sexual orientation, another person input variable which may impact balancing. This important identify component should be incorporated into future testing.

While post-hoc analyses did not indicate any major group differences either by marital status or occupation, a significant difference in access to resources by level of education did emerge. Due to insufficient cases in some levels of other SES indicators (income and social class), other analysis for group differences could not be conducted. Future inquires would benefit from testing for the impact of income and perceived social class on study variables.

Lastly, learning experiences, such as access to a model of healthy role balancing and/or having been able to benefit from successful past balancing efforts, per SCCT, may mediate the influence of person-input and contextual variables on self-efficacy beliefs and outcome

expectations. Given the different and often disparate messages many women are socialized with regarding life roles, the impact of gender socialization may also be meaningful in dictating learning experiences and thus deserves further empirical attention (Williams et al., 2016). Learning experiences were not tested in the present study, thus future investigations should integrate the role of this link into the presently tested models.

Conclusion

While preliminary, results from this examination of SCCT's Self-Management model within the context of women's multiple role balancing contributes to the growing body of support for the model. In addition, the integration of access to economic resources and social support as personal input and contextual variables, congruent with calls in the extant literature to increase visibility within the multiple role literature (Steinberg et al., 2004), provides additional insight into the conditions under which the process of balancing may be hindered or fostered.

Ultimately, findings suggest that women with more social support do more to balance their multiple roles via their strong beliefs in their abilities to do so and more positive perception of associated outcomes. Furthermore, the greater the access to economic resources, the more women do to balance, as well as feel more confident. These findings have broad clinical implications. Moreover, there are myriad opportunities for future empirical work to both replicate and extend these findings.

APPENDIX A
RECRUITMENT AD

Hello,

I am currently recruiting participants for my doctoral dissertation study as part of consideration for a Ph.D. in Counseling Psychology at Loyola University Chicago examining the ways women think and feel about balancing multiple life roles (e.g. being a worker, a friend, a partner). I would like to extend an invitation to participate to anyone who meets the following criteria:

1. Are a U.S. citizen
2. Are 25 years of age or above
3. Identify as a woman
4. Are proficient with the English language

If you agree to participate, you will be asked a series of questions about the way you balance multiple life roles, your access to economic resources, and social support. You may choose to answer only some questions, and you also may choose to stop participating at any time once you have begun. Your responses will not be linked to any identifying information such as your IP address.

Completing this study should take no longer than 40 minutes. If you decide to participate, you will be entered into a raffle to win one of two \$20 VISA gift cards.

If you meet the criteria above and are interested in participating in this study, the survey may be accessed at <https://surveys.luc.edu/opinio6/s?s=663371>.

Please feel free to send an email with any questions you may have. I can be reached at mroche@luc.edu. Or you may contact the faculty sponsor, Dr. Steven Brown, at sbrown@luc.edu

Thank you!

Meghan Roche

APPENDIX B
CONSENT FORM

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Project Title: Women's Multiple Role Balance: A Test of the Social Cognitive Career Theory Self-Management Model

Researchers: Meghan Roche, M.A.

Faculty Sponsor: Steven Brown, Ph.D.

Research Assistant: Plamena Daskalova, M.Ed.

Introduction:

You are being asked to take part in a research study being conducted by Meghan Roche, M.A., with the assistance of Plamena Daskalova, M.Ed., for a dissertation under the supervision of Steven Brown, Ph.D., in the Department of Counseling Psychology at Loyola University Chicago.

You are being asked to participate because you have indicated that you meet the requirements of the study and are a U.S. resident, 25 years of age or over, and identify as a woman. Approximately 500 persons will participate in the study.

Please read this form carefully and email any questions you may have before deciding whether to participate in the study.

Purpose:

The purpose of this study is to find out more about the way women manage multiple life roles, as well as to better understand how these roles lead to unique balance issues and how they may be influenced by the amount of social support one receives and access to economic resources.

Procedures:

If you agree to take part in this study, you will be asked to answer a series of questions as accurately as possible as described in the instructions. These questions will focus on your experience with balancing multiple life roles, perceived social support, and access to economic resources. You will also be asked to complete a brief personality measure. Completing the study should take no more than 40 minutes.

Risks/Benefits:

There are minimal foreseeable risks involved in participating in this study beyond those experienced in everyday life. Some participants may experience an emotional response or discomfort to some items asking about balancing multiple life roles, perceived sense of social support, and access to different economic resources. For mental health services in your area please visit: mentalhealth.gov.

There are no direct benefits to participating in this study, but the results of this research may aid psychologists, universities, consultants, and employers in understanding how women feel about managing their multiple roles, and in sculpting relevant policies, services, and interventions.

Compensation:

During the study, you will have the opportunity to submit an email address to be entered into a

lottery for a chance to win one (1) of two (2) \$20 VISA gift cards. You may only participate in this study once, and completing these questions more than once will not result in duplicate entries into the lottery. Once data collection has been completed, two email addresses will be selected at random to receive the gift cards from the study. The participants will be notified via the email addresses provided, and the gift cards will be sent electronically to the selected email addresses.

Confidentiality:

Information gathered from this study will be coded so that you are represented with a unique identifying number that will not reveal any identifying information, including your IP address. Confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Your participation in this online study involve risks similar to a person's everyday use of the internet. If you choose to enter the gift card lottery, your email address will be kept only until the study is complete.

Voluntary Participation:

Participation in this study is voluntary. If you do not want to be in the study, you do not have to participate. Even if you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

Contacts and Questions:

If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact Meghan Roche at mroche5@luc.edu or the faculty sponsor Dr. Steven Brown at sbrown@luc.edu.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Loyola University Office of Research Services at (773) 508-2689.

Statement of Consent:

By selecting "I consent to participate in this study" below, you indicate that you have read the information provided above, have had an opportunity to ask questions, and agree to participate in the research study.

APPENDIX C
DEMOGRAPHIC FORM

WOMEN'S MULTIPLE ROLE BALANCE**DEMOGRAPHICS**

The purpose of this study is to find out more about the way woman balance their multiple life roles. In order to help us to get to know you a little better, please answer the questions below. All questions are voluntary and no identifying information will be collected. Thank you for your participation!

Age: _____

Gender:

_____ Male
_____ Female

Work:

_____ Employed full-time
_____ Employed part-time
_____ Non-employed

Marital status:

_____ Single
_____ Married
_____ Widowed
_____ Divorced
_____ Partnered

Race/Ethnic Identification:

_____ African American, Black
_____ European American, White
_____ American Indian, Alaskan Native
_____ Asian American, Pacific Islander
_____ Mexican American, Chicano
_____ Other Latino or Hispanic origin
_____ Multi-Racial
_____ Other: _____

Your Approximate Annual Income Level:

_____ Under \$20,000
_____ \$20,000 to less than \$40,000
_____ \$40,000 to less than \$60,000
_____ \$60,000 to less than \$80,000
_____ \$80,000 to less than \$100,000
_____ \$100,000 to less than \$120,000

- \$120,000 to less than \$140,000
- \$140,000 to less than \$160,000
- \$160,000 to less than \$180,000
- \$180,000 to less than \$200,000
- \$200,000 or more

How would you describe your social class level?

- Lower Class
- Lower Middle Class
- Middle Class
- Upper Middle Class
- Upper Class

What is the highest level of education you have received?

- Did Not Complete High School
- GED
- High School Diploma
- Associate's Degree
- Bachelor's Degree
- Master's Degree
- Doctoral Degree

What category *best* describes the kind of work you do:

- Management Occupations (e.g. chief executives, operations managers, marketing and sales managers)
- Business and Financial Operations (e.g. claims adjusters, human resources, accountants)
- Computer and Mathematical Occupations (e.g. computer support, software developer, mathematicians, statisticians)
- Architecture and Engineering Occupations
- Life, Physical, and Social Sciences (e.g. biological scientists, psychologists,
- Community and Social Service Occupations (e.g. counselor, religious worker, social workers)
- Education, Training, and Library Occupations (e.g. teacher, librarian)
- Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media Occupations (e.g. artist, writer, entertainer, athlete)
- Healthcare Practitioners and Technical Occupations (e.g. dentist, pharmacist, physical therapist, nurse, physician, EMT)
- Healthcare Support Occupations (e.g. medical assistant, pharmacy aid)
- Protective Service Occupations (e.g. fire fighter, police officer, animal control)
- Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations (e.g. cook, bartender, server)
- Building and Grounds Cleaning Maintenance
- Personal Care and Service Occupations (e.g. usher, cosmetologists, fitness worker,

- child-care worker)
- _____ Sales and Related Occupations (e.g. sales, retail, real estate)
- _____ Office and Administration Support Occupations (e.g. billing, front desk staff, secretary)
- _____ Farming, Fishing, and Forestry Occupations (e.g. agriculture, logging)
- _____ Construction and Extraction Occupations (e.g. construction, electrician)
- _____ Installation, Maintenance, and Repair Occupations (e.g. mechanics, installation)
- _____ Production Occupations (metal, textiles)
- _____ Transportation and Material Moving Occupations (e.g. pilot, bus driver)
- _____ Military Specific Operations (e.g. infantry, armed forces)

APPENDIX D

MULTIDIMENSIONAL SCALE of PERCIEVED SOCIAL SUPPORT

ZIMET, DAHLEM, ZIMET, & FARLEY, 1988

Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support

Indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements regarding your perceived social support:

Strongly							Strongly
Disagree							Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

- 1.) There is a special person who is around when I am in need.
- 2.) There is a special person with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.
- 3.) My family really tries to help me.
- 4.) I get the emotional help and support I need from my family
- 5.) I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me.
- 6.) My friends really try to help me.
- 7.) I can count on my friends when things go wrong.
- 8.) I can talk about my problems with my family.
- 9.) I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.
- 10.) There is a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.
- 11.) My family is willing to help me make decisions.
- 12.) I can talk about my problems with my friends.

APPENDIX E

ACCESS to ECONOMIC RESOURCES (BASIC NEEDS AND AMENITIES)

DISC; BROWN et al., 2002

Please respond to the questions in terms of how you see yourself compared to the average United States citizen. Please indicate how you compare to the average citizen in terms of the items below using the following scale:

Very Much Below Average	Below Average	Equal	Above Average	Very Much Above Average
-2	-1	0	+1	+2

For example, if you believe that you and your family are equal to the average U.S. citizen in terms of the financial resources needed for a child to pursue a high-quality university education, you would mark “0” to item 1 below.

1. Ability to give your children additional educational experiences like ballet, tap, art/music classes, science camp, etc.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

2. Ability to afford to go to the movies, restaurants, and/or the theater on a regular basis

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

3. Ability to join a health club/fitness center

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

4. Ability to afford regular dental visits

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

5. Ability to afford dry cleaning services on a regular basis

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

6. Ability to travel recreationally

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

7. Ability to travel overseas for business and/or pleasure

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

8. Ability to shop comfortably in upscale department stores, such as Saks Fifth Avenue

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

9. Potential for receiving a large inheritance

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

10. Ability to secure loans with low interest rates

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

11. Ability to hire professional money managers

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

12. Ability to go to a doctor or hospital of your own choosing

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

13. Ability to hire others for domestic chores (e.g. cleaning, gardening, child care, etc.)

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

14. Ability to afford prescription medicine

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

15. Ability to afford elective surgeries and/or high-cost medical examinations, such as MRIs or CAT scans

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

Compare what is available to you in terms of type and/or amount of resources to what you believe is available to the average citizen of the United States. Please indicate how you will compare to the average citizen in terms of the type and amount of resources listed below using the following scale:

Very Much Below Average	Below Average	Equal	Above Average	Very Much Above Average
-2	-1	0	+1	+2

For example, if you believe you and your family are equal to the average U.S. citizen in access to owning a home(s), you would mark "0" for item 1 below.

1. Home(s)	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
2. Land	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
3. Stocks and Bonds	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
4. Money	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
5. Cars	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
6. Computers	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
7. New Appliances (Washers, Dryers, Refrigerators, etc.)	-2	-1	0	+1	+2

8. Amount of Education	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
9. Quality of High School(s) Attended	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
10. Life Insurance	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
11. Quality of Health Insurance	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
12. Savings	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
13. Maids or Cooks	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
14. Close Connections to the Rich and Powerful	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
15. Quality of Health Care	-2	-1	0	+1	+2

APPENDIX F

MULTIPLE ROLE BALANCE SELF-EFFICACY SCALE

ROCHE, DASKALOVA, & BROWN, 2017

Multiple Role Balance Self-Efficacy Scale

We are interested in your level of confidence in balancing your multiple life roles (i.e., employee/worker, spouse/partner, parent, friend, and personal).

For clarification:

Spouse or partner role: your role as a significant other or someone with whom you have a meaningful intimate relationship with

Leisurite: anything you do to take care of yourself and to relax (i.e, leisure activities, spiritual well-being, etc)

Work role: employment, position in your job or career

Friend role: non-romantic significant relationships with others

Parenting role: as a parent, co-parent, step-parent, or primary care-giver

Volunteer: your activities in the community outside of your job

Please indicate your degree of confidence in doing the following:

No Confidence

Some confidence

Complete

1

2

3

4

5

1.) Balance my work role and my parenting role
2.) Balance my volunteer role and leisurite role
3.) Balance my leisurite role and my child/family member role
4.) Balance my work role and my role as a friend
5.) Balance my role as a spouse/partner and my leisurite role
6.) Balance my work role and my role as a spouse/partner
7.) Balance my volunteer role and my child/family member role
8.) Balance my role as a volunteer and my role as spouse/partner
9.) Balance my work role and my role as a volunteer
10.) Balance my role as a friend and my leisurite role
11.) Balance my role as a spouse and my child/family member role
12.) Balance my work role and my leisurite role
13.) Balance my volunteer role and my role as a friend
14.) Balance my role as a friend and my role as a spouse/partner

15.) Balance my parenting role and my role as a friend
16.) Balance my role as a friend and my child/family member role
17.) Balance my work role and my child/family member role
18.) Balance my parenting and my leisurite role
19.) Balance my role as a spouse/partner and my leisurite role
20.) Balance my role as a volunteer and my parenting role
21.) Balance my parenting role and my role as a partner/spouse

APPENDIX G

MULTIPLE ROLE BALANCE OUTCOME EXPECTATIONS SCALE

ROCHE, DASKALOVA, & BROWN, 2017

Multiple Role Balance Outcome Expectations Scale

Please read each statement and indicate how likely you think each of the following are to occur as a results of balancing your multiple life roles (e.g. parent, partner, employee, friend, volunteer, etc).

For clarification:

Spouse or partner role: your role as a significant other or someone with whom you have a meaningful intimate relationship with

Leisurite: anything you to do take care of yourself and to relax (i.e, leisure activities, spiritual well-being, etc)

Work role: employment, position in your job or career

Friend role: non-romantic significant relationships with others

Parenting role: as a parent, co-parent, step-parent, or primary care-giver

Volunteer: your activities in the community outside of your job

Not at all likely

Somewhat likely

Very

likely 1

2

3

4

5

1. I would feel fulfilled with my life.
2. I would not meet important goals I have set for myself.
3. Others would judge me.
4. Others would admire me.
5. I would experience conflict with important others in my life.
6. I would not have time to do things I enjoy.
7. I would experience negative emotions.
8. I would feel too much pressure from others.
9. I would feel a part of a community.
10. I would use my experience in one to grow in another role.
11. I would gain valuable experience.
12. I would feel proud of my efforts.
13. I would feel excited by many new challenges.

APPENDIX H

ACTIONS for BALANCING MULTIPLE ROLES SCALE

ROCHE, DASKALOVA, & BROWN, 2017

Actions for Balancing Multiple Roles Scale

Please indicate to what degree you are currently doing or have done the following:

Am not doing		Do occasionally		Always do
1	2	3	4	5

- 1.) Actively think of ways to balance your multiple life roles in the future
- 2.) Develop specific plans or goals for balancing your multiple life roles
- 3.) Talk to others about strategies for balancing your multiple life roles
- 3.) Look for different resources (e.g., websites, blogs, magazine articles, books, etc) for how to balance multiple roles
- 4.) Make contacts with professionals or others who may help you balance multiple roles (i.e. nanny, counselor, etc.)
- 5.) Try out some ways to balance multiple life roles
- 6.) Make changes in how you balance from learning strategies that work and do not work for you
- 7.) Track your success in balancing multiple roles
- 8.) Seek out others to serve as role-models
- 9.) Join organizations that will support your balance of multiple roles
- 10.) Prioritize roles you see as most important

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VITA

Meghan Kathleen Roche was born in Colorado Springs, Colorado and grew up in Louisville, Colorado. Dr. Roche graduated from high school at Peak to Peak Charter School in Lafayette, Colorado in 2006. In 2010 she graduated from the University of Colorado-Boulder in 2010 with a Bachelor of Arts in Psychology. She enrolled in Loyola University Chicago's Master's in Community Counseling program in 2011, and graduated in 2013. The following fall she began her doctoral studies in Loyola University Chicago's APA accredited Ph.D. in Counseling Psychology program.

Throughout her graduate studies Dr. Roche was actively engaged in pursuing her passion in social justice informed scholarship and teaching and clinical practice. She served as a research assistant, contributing to projects examining the cross-cultural application of a measure of career indecision. She also served as the primary research assistant for a large-scale meta-analysis exploring the impact of supports and barriers on educational and occupational outcomes. As she matured through the program, so did her desire and ability to conduct independent research. She lead a study investigating the anticipated multiple role balance among emerging adults, a project which later served to inform her dissertation. In addition, Dr. Roche contributed to scholarship on the socio-emotional experience of ESL, at-risk, and urban students. Dr. Roche enjoyed active participation with scholarship through regular attendance and involvement in the American Psychological Association's annual conference. She even had the pleasure of presenting some of her original scholarship at a symposium on the Social Cognitive Career

Theory Self-Management Model. Dr. Roche was also active in the Chicago community throughout her tenure at Loyola. She helped craft and deliver career development oriented prevention programming in a number of Chicago Public Schools. She also delivered Strong Interest Inventory interpretations at a non-profit career center for career-transitioning adults. Dr. Roche simultaneously indulged her passions for knowledge and curiosity by serving as the instructor of record for graduate level courses in career counseling and development.

Lastly, Dr. Roche fully embraced the practitioner component of her scholar-practitioner training and eagerly pursued a number of diverse clinical experiences. She trained in an inpatient psychiatric unit for children and adolescents, a specialty clinic for children and adolescents with developmental, behavioral, and emotional disorders, and a college counseling center. Dr. Roche had the pleasure of working as a Master's-level staff therapist at the specialty clinic she once trained at. For her capstone doctoral internship placement she was honored to match at the University of Houston's Counseling and Psychological Services.

