5-31-2017

Multiple Roles in Later Life: Role Enhancement and Conflict and Their Effects on Psychological Well-Being

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MULTIPLE ROLES IN LATER LIFE: ROLE ENHANCEMENT AND CONFLICT AND THEIR EFFECTS ON PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

A Dissertation Presented

by

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Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies,
University of Massachusetts Boston,
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2017

Gerontology Program

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ABSTRACT

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Holding both work and family roles can be a central experience for men and women, young or old. Yet, to date, the bulk of knowledge on holding roles in both domains is specific to young adults, a critical gap as conditions warrant longer work life. This inquiry thus focused on older working men and women (over 50 years of age) with at least one family role (spouse, parent of adult children, caregiver to an aging parent, or grandparent). With survey data from the Health and Retirement Study in 2010 and 2012, latent profile analysis, path analyses, and regressions were conducted to investigate multiple roles in later adulthood: 1) The extent older workers experience role enhancement and conflict between work and family roles because of role stressors and rewards, and patterns of role enhancement and conflict experiences, 2) The extent role enhancement and conflict (a) mediate between role rewards/stressors and psychological

well-being (aging self-perceptions, life satisfaction, and depressive symptoms), and (b) interact with each other when exerting their psychological impacts, 3) Gender differences in role enhancement and conflict experiences and in their psychological consequences. Holding multiple roles in later life was characterized predominantly by work and family roles mutually enhancing each other, rather than conflicting with each other, a pattern driven primarily by low role stressors and secondarily by high role rewards. Role enhancement and conflict mediated the effects of role stressors/rewards on psychological well-being, especially on self-perceptions on aging. Interactive effects were also found: Psychological well-being was fostered by work conflicting with and enhancing the family but compromised by a similar circumstance in the family. Finally, gender differences emerged. Women benefitted more than men from multiple sources of role enhancement and from their work role (even when it enhanced and conflicted with the family). Men's psychological well-being was neutral to multiple sources of role enhancement, enhanced by multiple sources of role conflict, and compromised by later-life family (when it enhanced and conflicted with work). In conclusion, although men and women experienced multiple roles in unique ways, they overwhelmingly benefitted from socially recognized activities from work and family roles.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Foremost, my gratitude goes to the members of my dissertation committee, Kathrin Boerner, Kyungmin Kim, Frank Porell, and Shannon Davis. Each committee member, in her/his unique ways, made the challenge of completing a dissertation as enjoyable as it possibly could be. I wholeheartedly thank my dissertation chair, Dr. Boerner, for her generosity with her time and guidance. Dr. Kim's positive attitude as I performed my first SEM analyses did wonders for my confidence. Dr. Porell always calmed my nerves throughout the process. Dr. Shannon' collegial manner in giving feedback made the review process less daunting. Aside from my committee, I am very grateful to the Department of Gerontology for supporting me with the Robert Morris Dissertation Grant.

I am indebted to my family for seeing me through my education. I cannot count the number of times and the number of ways my mother and mother-in-law helped throughout these years. Most of all, I was able to complete my studies because of my husband. His constant support and encouragement during these years, especially in the most trying moments, helped me reach my goal, and for this, I will be forever grateful.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Engagement in work and family roles in later adulthood has been growing, due to several recent economic developments. Between 2004 and 2014, workers approaching retirement age, 55-64 years of age, increased by nearly 42% (Bureau of Labor Statistics). As of 2007, the number of workers over 65 years of age and those 75 years of age had also increased markedly since 1995 (Bureau of Labor Statistics), with the majority of workers in both age groups working full-time (Purcell, 2007). The employment of adults near and past normal retirement age is partly attributed to more recent degradations in the economy and retirement savings value (Brown, 2010). In addition, labor market trends, such as the expansion in the service sector and the decline of defined benefit plans (Cushion-Daniels, 2008; Purcell, 2007), may make work a prominent role in the later phases of adulthood.

Workers between 55 (or 50) and 75, referred as "older workers" in the work literature (Hill, Erickson, Fellows, Martinengo, & Allen, 2014; Rantanen, Kinnunen, Pulkkinen, & Kokko, 2012; Sterns & Miklos, 1995), occupy one of two segments of the life span, the late-middle years (50-59) of middle adulthood (Lachman, Teshale, & Agrigoroaei, 2015) or the young-old years (60-75) of late adulthood (Neugarten, 1974).

Although these two segments of the life span differ in some respects, older workers may occupy family roles that are commonly held during the late-middle and the young-old years. These family roles may be that of a spouse, parent of adult children, caregiver to an aging parent, or grandparent (although a small proportion of older workers may be parents of minor children). For instance, over 90% of householders over the age of 55 had the parent role (about 51% had a child living nearby); 62% of adults over the age of 55 and older were married (US Census Bureau, 2013). Moreover, an estimated 9.7 million individuals over the age of 50 were caregivers for a parent (MetLife, 2008) whereas nearly 2.4 million individuals were grandparents with primary caregiving responsibilities for 4.5 million, or 6 percent, of children (Kropf & Burnette, 2003). Thus, as a group, older workers with these family roles make up a unique (and possibly growing) segment within the population of adults in the late-middle and young-old years.

Occupying both family and work roles exposes adults to role conflict and enhancement. That is, the stressors of one role can interfere or conflict with the performance of another role, whereas the rewards of one role can enhance the performance of another role (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). Furthermore, role enhancement and conflict are gendered phenomena because, for example, men and women perform different tasks when holding the same family role. Differences in tasks expose individuals to different role rewards and stressors, which in turn generate substantively different role enhancement and conflict.

Yet, we know little about role enhancement and conflict experiences of older workers with later-life family roles (as parents of adult children, spouses, grandparents,

or caregivers). This is because most studies have focused on workers with early-life family roles, which have shown that role enhancement and conflict contribute to their psychological well-being, albeit unequally for women and men. Given the increasing prevalence and potential psychological implications of occupying family and work roles in later life, my study will investigate experiences with holding multiple roles in later life and their contribution to the psychological well-being of aging men and women.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

To inform my overall study objective, this literature review will cover several topics. First, to gain a more general understanding of the phenomenon of role enhancement and conflict of older workers with later-life family roles, I synthesize studies related to: role rewards and stressors that have been found to trigger role enhancement and conflict, respectively, in older workers with the roles of spouse, parent of adult children, caregiver to an aging parent, or grandparent; the co-occurrence of role enhancement and conflict; and the various ways in which role enhancement and conflict are gendered. Then, building on knowledge of the family/work factors associated with men and women's role enhancement and conflict, I describe the psychological consequences of holding roles in both domains of work and family. To ensure that I cover psychological consequences that are pertinent to older workers, I will describe role enhancement and conflict's effects on general psychological outcomes and on their self-perceptions on aging, a central psychological indicator for adults in middle and late adulthood. Finally, after synthesizing the pertinent literature, I evaluate its gaps.

Role Enhancement

Studies indicate that roles have rewards that are not isolated from other roles but are shaped by each other (Bakker & Geurts, 2004; Bird & Ross, 1993; Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Role rewards may be categorized as intrinsic rewards (skills/knowledge acquisition and role identities, such as perceived personal growth), extrinsic rewards (material), or social rewards (e.g., appreciation or recognition from others), with such rewards either shaping the perceptions of another role or buffering stress in another role. Such enhancement between roles can take the form of work-to-family enhancement or family-to-work enhancement.

Work-to-Family Enhancement

Intrinsic work rewards enhance family roles by buffering the psychological impacts of family stress. Intrinsic work rewards, such as work satisfaction or perceived success at work, can provide an alternate source of positive role identities (Sanders & McCready, 2010; Stevens-Ratchford, 2011; Teuscher, 2010) and positive mood (Carlson et al., 2006; Rothbard, 2001). This has been confirmed in working caregivers (Chumbler, Pienta, & Dwyer, 2004; Martire & Stephens, 2003) and working parents of young children, but rarely in working spouses (Lima, Allen, Goldscheider, & Intrator, 2008), grandparents (Meyer, 2014), or parents of adult children (Spitze, Logan, Joseph, & Lee, 1994).

Extrinsic rewards from work can enhance various family roles by meeting their basic necessities, e.g., housing and clothing. In particular, older workers who are caregivers, parents, and grandparents have described the value of work in terms of

earnings that help with purchases for their family. “Financial” assistance to adult children, e.g., help with rent or a down payment, may be more than just financial but also emotional, since transfers can alleviate children’s money-related worries. Grandparents may purchase necessary items, like clothing, books, and enrichment activities to foster grandchildren’s development (Meyer, 2014). Caregivers may purchase medical equipment or adult day care that foster the health and safety of their aging parents (Scharlach, 1994). Thus, work earnings can foster the physical or emotional well-being or development of the family members of older workers.

For married workers, work earnings can enhance the marital role in two ways. Earnings make individuals financial contributors to the household, and being financial contributors can enhance perceived equity with one’s spouse (Barnett, Davidson, & Marshall, 1991; Cassidy & Davies, 2003). In addition, making financial contributions may be perceived as fulfilling a marital responsibility (Barnett et al., 1991; Cassidy & Davies, 2003). Both perceived equity and fulfillment of one’s marital role contribute to marital satisfaction (Essex & Hong, 2005).

The work role is a conduit for developing a variety of skills useful to family roles. For example, workers learn new computer skills at work that can be applied to family tasks, e.g., bill payment. Aside from technical skills, interpersonal skills or new perspectives developed on the job can be transferrable, for example, collaborative communications or active listening with co-workers can also be applied to communications with family members (DePasquale, Davis, et al., 2016; Holman & Wall, 2002; McCauley, Ruderman, Ohlott, & Morrow, 1994; Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, &

King, 2002). Finally, organizational or managerial skills at work can be applied to the family domain, e.g., time management to achieve multiple tasks (Mccall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988).

Family-to-Work Enhancement

Family roles in later life confer intrinsic or social rewards that enhance how individuals view their work role (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Barnett & Marshall, 1992; Barnett, Marshall, & Pleck, 1992; Crain & Hammer, 2013). For example, commitment to ensuring the well-being of one's young children gives purpose to one's job or make one appreciate one's job (Crain & Hammer, 2013; Reitzes & Mutran, 1994; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006), a finding that may be replicated in parents of adult children if they continue to financially support adult children. For parents who no longer have dependent children, they may find work more intrinsically rewarding now that they have successfully raised children and thus can commit to their career in later life (Marks, Bumpass, & Jun, 2001; Ross, Mirowsky, & Goldsteen, 1990; Skinner, Elton, Auer, & Pocock, 2014). Thus, the parent role in later life may enhance work, albeit in a different way than it did in early life.

Based on very limited empirical data, grandparenting role rewards and the perception that one is a contributor to a grandchild's welfare can modify work arrangements and perceptions about work. Grandparent rewards can be in the form of role identity meanings, which may be social (e.g., perception that one is fostering the development of another or the perception that one is a "valued elder"), affective (emotional closeness with the grandchild), or intrinsic (role competence; Kivnick, 1982;

Reitzes & Mutran, 2004b). Prior studies have shown that a conduit for social and affective identity meanings is mutual activities with grandchildren (Meyer, 2014; Silverstein & Marenco, 2001). As a form of family rewards, grandparent role rewards have potential to enhance worker satisfaction (Crain & Hammer, 2013). In addition, commitment to grandchildren among non-custodial grandparents can make grandparents seek jobs or remain in jobs with flexible hours, so that their grandparent role triggers a more "balanced" situation between family and work (Meyer, 2014). The perception that one is responsible for grandchildren's welfare also intensifies the extrinsic value of work and thus increases grandparents' attachment to the labor force (Wang & Marcotte, 2007). For these grandparents, their family role may make them view work more positively (Meyer, 2014).

Caregiving rewards may influence the work role by fostering positive mood at work or by modifying work schedules (Stephens, Franks, & Atienza, 1997; Stephens & Townsend, 1997; Trukeschitz, Schneider, Mühlmann, & Ponocny, 2013). This potential for family-to-work enhancement among working caregivers is suggested by working caregivers not experiencing more work strain (Dautzenberg et al., 2000) than non-caregiving workers (Trukeschitz et al., 2013). Rather, caregiving may foster positive mood and enhance workers' performance (Rothbard, 2001; Scharlach, 1994; Stevens, Minnotte, Mannon, & Kiger, 2007) when caregiving creates feelings of emotional developments, role adequacy (Christensen, Stephens, & Townsend, 1998; Martire, Parris Stephens, & Atienza, 1997), usefulness (Scharlach, 1994), or family cohesiveness (Christensen et al., 1998). Social rewards related to caregiving have also been reported,

such as feelings of “repaying” one’s parents for parental effort during one’s early life (Silverstein, Conroy, Wang, Giarrusso, & Bengtson, 2002; Silverstein, Gans, & Yang, 2006). Thus, caregiving may reflect fulfillment of reciprocity if caregivers perceive they had received good parental care from early life (Silverstein et al., 2006).

Caregiving may influence work in other ways. Caregiving may induce caregivers to schedule work or seek employment that accommodates both sets of responsibilities (Scharlach, 1994). Moreover, caregiving can motivate individuals to be efficient at work (Carlson et al., 2006). In other words, to meet demands at work and at home, individuals must make the best use of their time at home and at work (Carlson et al., 2006). This form of family-to-work enhancement has been confirmed not only in samples of caregivers but of individuals in other time-intensive family roles (parents of young children) (Carlson et al., 2006; Scharlach, 1994).

Family roles allow individuals to receive another reward—social support—that can enhance their work role (Barnett et al., 1991; Barnett, Marshall, & Singer, 1992). For example, emotional support from a spouse may promote positive mood, thus buffering the distressing effect of work difficulties (Barnett et al., 1991; Barnett, Marshall, & Singer, 1992; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000a). Spousal assistance in household work can prevent worries about household matters, fostering positive mood and thus facilitating work, particularly for younger, working mothers (Heraty, Morley, Cleveland, Rotondo, & Kincaid, 2008; Stevens et al., 2007; Wayne et al., 2006). Spousal assistance with household work may become even more necessary if housework becomes more physically demanding in later life (Bird, 1999; Erickson, Martinengo, & Hill, 2010). Like

spouses, caregivers who receive social support from their aging parent experience role satisfaction (Lewinter, 2003; Lin, Fee, & Wu, 2012), which fosters work satisfaction (Crain & Hammer, 2013). Caregivers supported in their caregiving role may feel "recognized" for their endeavor, making caregiving less "invisible" or isolating. Indeed, the social support to caregivers may be analogous to social support from co-workers and supervisors, which, as work rewards, foster work-to-family enhancement (Crain & Hammer, 2013; Davis, 2011; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000a).

Skills acquired in family roles may be fruitfully applied to the work domain, another basis of family-to-work enhancement. For example, the caregiving role can be a setting for multi-tasking (e.g., providing the parent with a variety of assistance) and for gaining perspective (e.g., from managing difficult behaviors; (Scharlach, 1994). Such role skills can foster confidence (Grimm-Thomas & Perry-Jenkins, 1994) that have a positive impact on caregivers' work role (Trukeschitz et al., 2013).

Role Conflict

Whereas multiple role occupancy creates opportunities for role enhancement, it may produce role conflict. More specifically, role conflict occurs in two main ways: when strain in one role undermines mood in another role or perceptions about another role and when time spent in a role conflicts with another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Work-to-Family Conflict

Work-to-family conflict has been a predominant topic of work-family research, even though much of it is not specific to older workers. Nevertheless, work-to-family

conflict studies have revealed work stressors that conflict with (early-life) family roles—stressors that may also influence later-life family roles, which are thus briefly described. Work strain can be triggered by job characteristics such as high work hours, high pressures, low worker autonomy, low schedule control, or low job security (DePasquale, Zarit, et al., 2016; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000b; Janssen, Peeters, Jonge, Houkes, & Tummers, 2004; Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999). Such strain in turn creates negative interactions with family members (Matthews, Conger, & Wickrama, 1996); for example, among spouses, work strain reduces marital support and increases hostility (Matthews et al., 1996). Indeed, work-to-family conflict constitutes work strain that reduces marital satisfaction and family satisfaction (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000). Also, high work demands or strain can leave workers exhausted for their family demands, such as caregiving demands (Bakker & Geurts, 2004; Demerouti, Bakker, & Bulters, 2004; Gottlieb, Kelloway, & Fraboni, 1994; Lee, Walker, & Shoup, 2001; Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008).

Family-to-Work Conflict

Family role strain due to family members' problems, such as adult children's difficulties with employment or personal relationships (Birditt, Fingerman, & Zarit, 2010) and grandchildren's problem behavior (Emick & Hayslip, 1999), can take the form of negative role identities (e.g., a sense of burden or stigma) or worry for the role partner (Birditt et al., 2010; Emick & Hayslip, 1999). Such family role strain can make individuals distracted at work (Forma, 2009; Fredriksen-Goldsen & Scharlach, 2006; Scharlach, 1994; Stone & Short, 1990). In addition, family-to-work conflict can occur

when family members' problems increase family role demands, which change work hours. A grandchild's problem behavior or an aging parent's difficult behaviors make caring more time-consuming or challenging, with grandchild care hours lowering work hours (Szinovacz, DeViney, & Atkinson, 1999), particularly when grandparents cannot find day care for their custodial grandchildren (Wang & Marcotte, 2007). Like grandparents, caregivers' care demands have also lowered work hours (Barling, MacEwen, Kelloway, & Higginbottom, 1994; Gottlieb et al., 1994; Stephens et al., 1997; Stephens, Townsend, Martire, & Druley, 2001). Furthermore, care demands, whether for grandchildren or an aging parent, may induce fatigue, distress (Choi, Stewart, & Dewey, 2013; Pinquart & Sörensen, 2003; Voydanoff & Donnelly, 1999), and poor perceived health (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997; Musil & Ahmad, 2002), which, in mostly young adult samples, lead to work absences (Donders, Bos, van der Velden, & van der Gulden, 2012).

In addition, family-to-work conflict can occur from negative interactions with role partners, particularly with spouses or with adult children. Negative interactions related to adult children's difficulties may lower parents' family satisfaction or perceived family cohesion (Greenfield & Marks, 2006), which, in younger adults, has been shown to reduce work satisfaction (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Similarly, spouses may have conflicts, related to their adult children, grandchildren, mutual activities, and household responsibilities, that reduce positive mood at work (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007).

Role Balance, Role Differentiation, and Role Inclusiveness

For individuals with multiple roles, and hence separate role identities, how these role identities are organized in tandem with each other comprise role organization. More specifically, each of the four role enhancement and conflict processes described above may be considered in conjunction with each other to depict the totality of role experiences (role organization; (Markus & Wurf, 1987; Markus & Herzog, 1991). Role organization may tap into a role dimension unique to persons with multiple roles, and thus may have conceptual value that viewing each role independently does not. Although the four types of role conflict and enhancement can create 16 unique combinations of role conflict and enhancement, only a handful of conceptually meaningful role organizations have been described in prior research. Among this smaller subset, I describe below the role organizations that will be the foci on my study.

One role organization is role balance, describing individuals dedicating themselves equally across roles (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009; Marks, Huston, Johnson, & MacDermid, 2001; Marks & MacDermid, 1996), such as individuals experiencing both directions of enhancement in similar degree. Among persons with multiple roles, role balance is associated with perceived performance in every role (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). In contrast to role balance, role differentiation or hierarchy denotes a set of roles wherein roles are dissimilar on some dimension (Diehl, Hastings, & Stanton, 2001), e.g., enhancement from the family exceeds enhancement from the work role. Indeed, enhancement and conflict are often differentiated across roles: individuals experience higher work-to-family conflict than family-to-work conflict, but higher

family-to-work enhancement than work-to-family enhancement (Davis, 2011; Gareis, Barnett, Ertel, & Berkman, 2009; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003).

Another form of role organization is role "inclusiveness," describing a role with positive and negative attributes (Linville, 1985; Showers, Abramson, & Hogan, 1998), such as a role that simultaneously causes both enhancement and conflict with another role. In several samples, between 16% and 26% of study participants reported experiencing equal degree of family-to-work enhancement and conflict and work-to-family enhancement and conflict, respectively (Boz, Martínez-Corts, & Munduate, 2015; Demerouti & Geurts, 2004; Rantanen et al., 2012). As discussed above, whether they are caregivers, spouses, parents of adult children, and/or grandparents, adults have reported experiencing both rewards and strain in the course of performing their roles, necessitating a simultaneous examination of enhancement and conflict from each role.

Finally, role organizations must be considered within the context of role importance (Reitzes & Mutran, 2002). That is, a role may be perceived as more important than another, or roles may be perceived as equally important. In general, the family (the spouse and the parent roles) has been reported as being more important than the work role (Thoits, 1983). Because role organizations, when measured with role enhancement and conflict, are specific to family and work roles, role importance is necessarily embedded in role organization. Thus, role organizations may reflect (equally or differentially) favorable conditions for roles that may differ in their perceived importance. When considering the relative importance of work vis-à-vis family roles, one needs to consider gender roles.

Gender Differences in Role Enhancement and Conflict and in Their Impacts

Experiences with holding both work and family roles, whether in terms of role enhancement or conflict, are often distinctive for women and men, in various ways. Role conflict is more common among women because women assume more routine family demands than men (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Working women are more likely to spend more time providing aid to family members than working men, whether as caregivers (Kahn, McGill, & Bianchi, 2011; Neal, Ingersoll-Dayton, & Starrels, 1997), parents of adult children (Ward, 2008), or grandparents (Kahn et al., 2011). Because women assume more family demands, which contribute to both directions of conflict, role conflict may be more difficult to prevent for working women than working men.

Between work-to-family enhancement and family-to-work enhancement, women may find the former particularly salient whereas men may find the latter to be so. For women with both roles, paid work, compared to their family roles (mother, spouse), provides more social rewards (outward appreciation) and more intrinsic rewards (developmental value), and also enhances their standing in their family (Cassidy & Davies, 2003). Thus, for women, work provides social and intrinsic rewards that stand in contrast with their family roles. For men with both roles, work is associated with extrinsic value and may be viewed as a mandate than a choice (Larson, Richards, & Perry-Jenkins, 1994) whereas family role demands may be perceived as less mandatory and more leisurely than their work role, and more consistently related to positive mood (Larson et al., 1994; Rothbard, 2001). Thus, for men, “optional” family obligations or family rewards stand in contrast with the work mandate. For these reasons, between family-to-

work enhancement and work-to-family enhancement, women might experience work-to-family enhancement more readily whereas men might more readily experience family-to-work enhancement.

Studies on role balance or equal engagement in work and family roles (in early adulthood) suggest that role balance may be similar for both genders in some ways, but also different in other ways. Regarding similarity in work engagement, men may become more intrinsically motivated by work once their children are grown (Johnson, 2005), making them more similar to women. In addition, among women 50 years of age or older (M = 62.20, SD = 7.90), high work engagement was found to be associated with solely positive psychological outcomes (Matz-Costa, Besen, Boone James, & Pitt-Catsouphes, 2014), whereas younger women experienced both negative and positive affect from work engagement, thus making older women workers more similar to older working men. Yet, work-related differences may remain between working men and working women. Intrinsic job rewards are also fostered by autonomy over one's job, which may be higher among older men than older women. Regarding similarity in family engagement, women with adult children may experience lower family role demands compared to earlier in the life course (Hill et al., 2014), making them more similar to men. Yet, a family-related difference may remain. Family engagement causes positive and negative affect in women (Rothbard, 2001) but only positive affect in men (Larson et al., 1994; Matz-Costa et al., 2014). If these findings apply to older workers, then role balance may be less likely among women than among men.

Whereas role balance denotes equal engagement across both roles, one role – the family may be the predominant source of favorable experiences (i.e., higher family-to-work enhancement *and* lower family-to-work conflict, relative to work-to-family counterparts), with different implications for men and for women. In general, both men and women report that the importance or salience of family roles (e.g., the roles of spouse or parent) exceeds that of work (Thoits, 1983). Despite this similarity, family role performance takes a bigger toll on women. For example, working women seek work accommodations more often than men to ensure family role performance whereas men may be relatively unaware of work accommodations (Hill et al., 2014; Maume, 2006). Moreover, women may feel guilty if they perceive that they must make family sacrifices in the course of working (Bekker, Willemse, & De Goeij, 2010; Guendouzi, 2006). Indeed, when the family is their predominant source of favorable role experiences, women report higher job satisfaction (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010), an association found to weaker among men (McNall et al., 2010).Thus, assuring that family demands are met requires overcoming more hurdles by working women, who may, in turn, benefit more than men when family demands are fully met.

In contrast to the family being the dominant source of positive role experiences, the work role may be the predominant source of favorable role experiences (higher work-to-family enhancement and lower work-to-family conflict relative to family-to-work counterparts). Among working women and men, both genders report high commitment to work (Reitzes & Mutran, 1994), and such commitment may continue into later adulthood, as older workers report high job satisfaction (even more so than young workers; (Warr,

1992). Compared to women, men may be slightly more committed to work (Reitzes & Mutran, 1994). Yet, since both women and men report that work is less important than the family (Thoits, 1983), when work experiences are more favorable than family experiences, workers may feel guilty that the family is "neglected" (Guendouzi, 2006), as suggested by the negative association between work-to-family enhancement and relationship quality (Gareis et al., 2009). Still, having more positive experiences at work than in the family may benefit women more than men because young women, but not young men, experienced negative affect from work engagement (Rothbard, 2001).

Roles that have both rewards and demands, or inclusive roles, are fairly common at some point or another, possibly with women experiencing higher prevalence of inclusive roles. In young worker samples, women were found to experience both negative and positive experiences in family roles more frequently than men (Larson et al., 1994; Rothbard, 2001). Similarly, young women who are engaged in their work are more likely than men to experience both positive and negative affect (Rothbard, 2001). One way that role rewards and demands co-occur is that individuals develop skills to efficiently manage their varied role demands. In other words, when individuals face demands from multiple roles, these high demands may also create a basis for the development of skills related to efficiently managing these varied demands. Indeed, this phenomenon has been reported by adults with specific family roles, such as mothers of young children and caregivers. To the extent that demanding family roles are more likely to produce role inclusiveness, working women may experience more role inclusiveness than working men do.

Psychological Consequences of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict

For working adults, their work and their family constitute daily routines, routines that may be filled with rewards and/or physical and mental strain. Not surprisingly, these roles can impinge on psychological well-being (Grzywacz, 2000; Grzywacz, Almeida, & McDonald, 2002). Furthermore, among older workers, aging may create a context or lens through which role rewards and strain are experienced and interpreted. In other words, multiple roles in later life may influence one of older workers' core identities: their self-perceptions on aging, which encapsulate various aspects of the aging experience, physical, social, and psychological (von Humboldt, Leal, & Pimenta, 2012). To fully capture the psychological impacts of later-adulthood work and family roles, I will describe the impacts of multiple roles on general psychological well-being and then on adults' positive self-perceptions on aging.

General Psychological Well-Being

Generally speaking, role enhancement and conflict have been found to contribute to psychological well-being, using measures such as life satisfaction, anxiety, self-rated mental health, and depression (Gareis et al., 2009; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). Role enhancement has been found to contribute to higher life satisfaction (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003) and self-rated mental health (Gareis et al., 2009). Role conflict has been associated with lower life satisfaction, lower self-rated mental health, and higher depression (Gareis et al., 2009; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003).

In addition to the independent effects of role enhancement and conflict, totality of experiences across roles also seems to exert an effect on psychological well-being. In

particular, role balance has been indirectly and directly linked to psychological outcomes. For example, occupancy of each role—work and family—independently contributed to self-esteem (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Baruch & Barnett, 1986; Fazio, 2007; Reitzes & Mutran, 1994). Furthermore, the more roles individuals held (work, family, and other social roles), the lower their distress (Amatea & Fong, 1991; Baker, Cahalin, Gerst, & Burr, 2005; Hong & Seltzer, 1995; Thoits, 1983). When role balance per se or "even-handed involvement" (Carlson et al., 2009) was measured, less role balance was related to less self-esteem and higher depression (Marks & MacDermid, 1996).

In contrast to role balance, role differentiation appears to exert a negative psychological impact (Diehl et al., 2001; Diehl & Hay, 2010). In general, measured as perceptions about each role a person has, individuals who viewed their roles in disparate ways experienced worse psychological outcomes than individuals who viewed their roles in congruent ways (Diehl et al., 2001; Diehl & Hay, 2010). In terms of role differentiation specific to work and family roles, individuals whose work is the predominant source of positive role experiences fared worse than individuals whose family is the predominant source of positive role experiences (Gareis et al., 2009). For example, family-to-work enhancement exerted a stronger effect on life satisfaction than work-to-family enhancement did (Gareis et al., 2009). Similarly, family-to-work enhancement reduced depression whereas work-to-family had no such effect. On the conflict side, work-to-family conflict was more strongly associated with depressive symptoms than family-to-work conflict was (Gareis et al., 2009).

When “role inclusiveness” (Showers et al., 1998); e.g., an individual experiences both family-to-work enhancement and family-to-work conflict) was examined, high involvement in the family (more family-to-work conflict and enhancement relative to work-to-family counterparts) was overall more beneficial than high involvement in work. For example, family-to-work enhancement buffered family-to-work conflict in relation to anxiety (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003), life satisfaction, and relationship quality (Gareis et al., 2009). In contrast, work-to-family enhancement’s buffering effect was inconsistent: a buffering effect on anxiety was found, but a buffering effect on life satisfaction or self-rated mental health was not (Gareis et al., 2009). When role inclusiveness was measured as a difference score between, for example, level of family-to-work enhancement and the level of family-to-work conflict, only the family-to-work difference (favoring enhancement) was related to risks of anxiety disorder (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003), relationship quality, and life satisfaction (Gareis et al., 2009); the work-to-family difference was unrelated to relationship quality but related to life satisfaction and self-rated mental health (Gareis et al., 2009). Because these findings are based on mostly younger worker samples (Gareis et al., 2009), these findings may not necessarily generalize to older workers with different family roles.

Self-Perceptions on Aging and Role Identities

For adults in their late-middle and young-old years, a central aspect of their psychological well-being may be perceptions of themselves as they “age” or self-perceptions on aging. Positive self-perceptions on aging may reflect experiencing desirable changes (such as continuous growth; (Westerhof, Whitbourne, & Freeman,

2012) or maintaining positive aspects of oneself in “old age” (Heckhausen & Krueger, 1993; Keller, Leventhal, & Larson, 1989). Likewise, negative self-perceptions may reflect experiencing negative changes or the persistence of undesirable aspects in “old age” (Heckhausen, 1997; Heckhausen & Krueger, 1993; Keller et al., 1989; Kooij & Van De Voorde, 2011).

Another psychological asset throughout adulthood is holding positive role identities. Role identities represent personal meanings each role occupant infuses his/her roles (Thoits, 2003). For example, occupants of the same role may differ in how they perceive their roles, e.g., how committed they are to their role or how competent they feel about their role (Reitzes & Mutran, 1994; Reitzes & Mutran, 2002).

As a positive role identity, the perceived importance of the roles one holds may be highly salient in later adulthood (Ryff, 1989; Ryff, Lee, Essex, & Schmutte, 1994). Perceived role importance may contribute to self-esteem (Reitzes & Mutran, 1994; Reitzes & Mutran, 2002) and may also give individuals a sense of purpose (Ahrens & Ryff, 2006; Marks, Bumpass, et al., 2001; Ryff, 1989). Thus, individuals may strive to maintain roles of personal importance.

In addition to the perceiving that a particular role is important, one may perceive holding multiple roles to be important, another positive role identity. The perceived importance of occupying multiple roles may be reinforced (Norton, Stephens, Martire, Townsend, & Gupta, 2002) when roles mutually benefit each other, i.e., when one experiences rewards from occupying multiple roles. Alternately, role conflict or strain from occupying multiple roles (Krause, 1999, 2004; Norton et al., 2002) could trigger

several potential responses. It may force individuals to modify their role involvement, and if this happens, the individual may, over time, perceive the role as less important or central, since role enactment is "proof" of one's commitment (Thoits, 2013). If individuals do not or cannot reduce their role involvement, they may evaluate that such role conflict is unavoidable and thus change their perspective about such strain (e.g., downgrade its perceived impact). Doing so may allow individuals to maintain their current involvement in multiple roles. In contrast, role conflict may make individuals rethink the importance of maintaining multiple roles, for instance, whether holding multiple roles is important enough to endure the role conflict. Thus, role conflict may trigger questions about not only how to resolve it but also whether multiple roles are "worth it," potentially resulting in lower perceived importance of holding multiple roles. The extent to which role conflict causes individuals to downgrade the importance of holding multiple roles can signify an altered role identity.

For persons with both family and work roles, the perceived importance of family roles may be less susceptible to adjustment than that of the work role, a finding from younger workers. For instance, work stress reduced the work role importance whereas stress in family roles (parent, caregiver, or spouse) did not (Norton et al., 2002). Such preservation in the perceived importance of the family may be reflected in the finding that work-to-family conflict had a stronger impact on depression than family-to-work conflict (Gareis et al., 2009), possibly because intrusions into the family, a more important domain, caused more distress than intrusions into work, a less important domain. A difference between work and family role importance was suggested by the

following finding: Family-to-work enhancement exerted a stronger effect on life satisfaction than work-to-family enhancement (Gareis et al., 2009), suggesting that positive family identities may be more crucial to life satisfaction than work role identities. Thus, among persons with both family and work roles, maintaining personal investment in family roles appears more salient than maintaining personal investment in the work role. For older workers, this finding may also be true, especially if they want to scale down their work hours (Skinner et al., 2014). Nevertheless, their work identity may become as important as family identities because work acquires new meanings in later life (e.g., work is a way to remain "active" or "useful"; (Miche et al., 2014).

Gaps

Notwithstanding our multiple-roles knowledge just described, several important gaps exist pertaining to older workers and their experiences with role enhancement and conflict. More specifically, we have limited insights on the role rewards and stressors that produce role enhancement and conflict in later life. This gap in knowledge has resulted partly because prior studies have been focused on the rewards and stressors of (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003) early-life family and work roles (e.g., parents of minor children; (Frone et al., 1997), rather than those in later-life roles. Even though some studies have examined working caregivers (for their aging parent; (Gordon, Pruchno, Wilson-Genderson, Murphy, & Rose, 2011; Gordon & Rouse, 2013; Kramer & Kipnis, 1995) or working spouses (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000a)—roles commonly held by older workers—these studies had few older workers in their study samples. In addition, other key family roles, such as grandparent or parents of adult children, have been left out of studies of role

enhancement and conflict altogether. These research gaps leave us asking whether and how later-life roles generate role enhancement and conflict, especially because later-life roles have different rewards and stressors than early-life ones. For example, in contrast to work in early adulthood, working is a way of remaining "active" in later life (Burr & Mutchler, 2007; Pienta, Burr, & Mutchler, 1994) or may be perceived in strongly intrinsic terms for some older individuals who view work as a "choice." In terms of stressors, older workers contend with "keeping up" their skills and with possible age discrimination in the workplace (Hansson, Dekoekkoek, Neece, & Patterson, 1997), work stressors unique to older workers. In addition, in contrast to family roles that often begin early adulthood (such as the spouse role or parents of young children), spouses with adult children provided more emotional support to each other compared to spouses with young children (Ross et al., 1990). Thus, marriages may become more positive or egalitarian as children grow older (Fischer, Zvonkovic, Juergens, Engler, & Frederick, 2015). Moreover, the caregiver and the grandparent roles are generally unique to later adulthood, with intergenerational role meanings, e.g., "giving back" to one's parents and to the next generation (Gans & Silverstein, 2006; Lai, 2010; Reitzes & Mutran, 2004a, 2004b; Scharlach, 1994). Parents of adult children may experience stress through their adult children's difficulties (Greenfield & Marks, 2006) whereas parents of young children may experience strain from intensive hands-on care. Such rewards and stressors in these later-life roles may (or may not) contribute to role enhancement and conflict, but if they do, older workers' role enhancement and conflict would be substantively different from those of younger workers. Thus, investigating the family/work factors associated with

older workers' role enhancement and conflict would inform us whether holding multiple roles generates similar potential for role enhancement and conflict throughout the life course.

In addition, because studies of role enhancement and conflict have focused on general psychological well-being of mostly younger workers, we lack knowledge related to aging-related impacts on older workers (Grzywacz et al., 2002; Noor, 2002). For example, prior studies of mostly younger workers have included outcomes such as distress (Barnett et al., 2012), drinking, and depressive symptoms (Grzywacz et al., 2002; Noor, 2002). Such general outcomes are clearly also informative for older workers and allow a comparison with younger workers. Nevertheless, they do not illuminate on how role enhancement and conflict affect the experience of aging per se. Adding an aging-specific construct could indicate whether or not multiple roles of work and the family influence how later life is viewed and experienced. For example, holding multiple roles may tap into a sense of productivity or usefulness (Glass, Seeman, Herzog, Kahn, & Berkman, 1995), that defies negative aging stereotypes, thus making views of one's aging more positive. Furthermore, linking multiple roles directly to aging self-perceptions broadens our understanding of such self-perceptions, an aging-specific predictor of other outcomes in later life, that is, functional decline, memory loss, and mortality (Levy, 1996; Levy, 2003; Levy & Banaji, 2002; Levy, Hausdorff, Hencke, & Wei, 2000; Levy & Myers, 2004; Levy, Slade, & Kasl, 2002; Levy, Slade, Kunkel, & Kasl, 2002).

For either outcome (general psychological well-being or self-perceptions on aging), we still lack clarification about the simultaneous effects of role enhancement and

role conflict. Most of the literature has hypothesized and confirmed the independent effects of role enhancement and conflict on psychological well-being of younger workers (Crain & Hammer, 2013; Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, LeBreton, & Baltes, 2009). Moving beyond independent effects, examining the simultaneous influence of role enhancement and conflict would capture, among others, the totality of role enhancement and conflict experiences, or role organization (Markus & Herzog, 1991), using various combinations of these experiences both within a role and across roles. Role organization has relevance for older workers because older adults have generally lower role inclusiveness (a role having both positive and negative aspects) than younger adults do (Hill et al., 2014; Ready, Carvalho, & Åkerstedt, 2011), but older adults were more strongly affected by role differentiation than younger adults were (Diehl et al., 2001). In addition, several studies have investigated various combinations of role enhancement and conflict experiences by exploring a typology of workers' role enhancement and conflict experiences. However, these studies have sampled predominantly younger workers and have not conceptualized such combinations as role organization (Boz et al., 2015; Demerouti & Geurts, 2004; Rantanen, Kinnunen, Mauno, & Tement, 2013; Rantanen, Kinnunen, Mauno, & Tillemann, 2011). A study of combined effects would expand our understanding into how various role organizations (or role combinations) of older workers with family roles might influence their psychological well-being.

Finally, although gender has been a central topic in role enhancement and conflict studies of younger workers (McNall et al., 2010; Noor, 2004; van Steenbergen, Ellemers, & Mooijaart, 2007), studies on older male workers' or older female workers' role

enhancement and conflict are rare (Gordon, Whelan-Berry, & Hamilton, 2007; Skinner et al., 2014). Most studies regarding older workers have focused on gender differences for other work-related facets (e.g., labor force participation). This is not surprising because role enhancement and conflict is a rare topic in research of older workers (Davis, 2011; Dilworth & Kingsbury, 2005; Sterns & Miklos, 1995), for men and for women alike. This gap obstructs our knowledge about the extent to which the gendered division of labor is dynamic across the life span (Vespa, 2009). For example, men and women with minor children experience different levels of role conflict (Byron, 2005), a gender difference that may not be replicated among male and female workers with adult children. Indeed, older men and women did not differ in their grandparent identities (Reitzes & Mutran, 2004a). Thus, it cannot be taken for granted that gender differences in role enhancement and conflict experiences, such as level of conflict, are comparable across the life course. Furthermore, among older workers, the impact of role enhancement and conflict on psychological well-being may not necessarily be gender-specific. For instance, although role conflict was more strongly associated with women's work satisfaction than with men's, such association might have been driven mostly by women with young children (Byron, 2005). For women workers with other family roles, role conflict may not have a similarly potent impact, since the parent role is a highly central role for women (Reitzes & Mutran, 1994). The impact of role enhancement and conflict, as generated by later-life roles, may become less pronounced in women, creating similarity between older working men and older working women. Thus, an inquiry into the extent to which holding

multiple roles in later life is gendered will contribute to knowledge about the gendered life course and the ways it may evolve.

CHAPTER 3

STUDY AIMS

Based on these gaps in the literature, I set out four study aims, designed to address the overall objective of examining family/work contributors of role enhancement and conflict and the psychological consequences of role enhancement/conflict on men and women. Specifically, the four research aims are: 1) how later-life family and work role rewards and role stressors influence role enhancement and conflict, 2) how role enhancement and conflict contribute to older workers' positive and negative self-perceptions on aging and to indicators of general psychological well-being, both as indirect effects of role stressors and rewards and as interactive effects, 3) whether a typology of individuals exists based on their role enhancement and role conflict experiences, and whether this typology explains psychological well-being, and 4) determine the extent to which these research questions yield gender-specific results.

Aim 1

Under Aim 1, I will examine the potential of role stressors and rewards (related to work and family) to produce role conflict and enhancement. Based on prior evidence and theory, I expect that family stressors and rewards would generate family-to-work conflict and enhancement, respectively, while work stressors and rewards would engender work-

to-family conflict and enhancement. Furthermore, I will also explore the potential that either role demands or role rewards may broadly influence conflict and simultaneously enhancement, e.g., family role stressors can increase family-to-work conflict and simultaneously decrease the family-to-work enhancement. For instance, family disagreements may generate family-to-work conflict by creating negative mood or distractions at work while the absence of family disagreements may produce family-to-work enhancement (enabling family time to be a source of respite from work).

In addition, I will explore whether role stressors and rewards have cross-domain enhancement and conflict effects, that is, do family stressors and rewards influence *work*-to-family conflict and enhancement, and do work stressors and rewards influence *family*-to-work conflict and enhancement? This possibility may occur if, for example, work stressors increase negative mood at home, increasing withdrawal at home and thereby fomenting family conflict.

Aim 1 Hypotheses:

(1) Family and work rewards are positively related to, respectively, family-to-work enhancement and work-to-family enhancement.

(2) Family and work stressors/demands are positively related to, respectively, family-to-work conflict and work-to-family conflict.

Aim 2

Under Aim 2, I will explore the effects of role enhancement and conflict on four separate psychological outcomes: two outcomes specific to aging adults (positive self-perceptions on aging and negative self-perceptions on aging) and two outcomes general

to both aging and younger adults (depressive symptoms and life satisfaction). The general psychological outcomes were selected to enable me to evaluate whether role enhancement and conflict from later-life roles exert similar effects on psychological well-being as enhancement and conflict from early-life roles do. The aging-specific outcomes were selected because I seek to understand the extent family-work processes of later-life roles are central to older workers' evaluations of their aging.

In particular, Aim 2 consists of examining (a) whether role enhancement and conflict mediate the relationships between roles and psychological well-being and (b) whether role enhancement and conflict interact with each other on psychological well-being. Based on studies of role occupancy among aging adults and studies of role enhancement and conflict among young adults, I expect role enhancement to be associated with positive self-perceptions on aging, and role conflict with negative self-perceptions on aging. On the other hand, the few studies of role enhancement and conflict in older workers suggest that they experience lower role conflict, are less vulnerable to role conflict, and have higher work satisfaction than younger workers. Thus, it is an open question whether role conflict or enhancement constitute a key mechanism in which adults are psychologically influenced by their roles.

In addition to examining role enhancement and conflict as mediators between roles and psychological outcomes, I will explore how combinations of role enhancement and conflict (or role organization) contribute to psychological well-being: (a) whether family-to-work enhancement interacts with family-to-work conflict (role differentiation) in producing psychological outcomes, (b) whether work-to-family enhancement and

conflict interacts with each other (role differentiation), (c) whether work-to-family enhancement and family-to-work enhancement interacts, and (d) whether work-to-family conflict interacts with family-to-work conflict (the extent of multiple-role pursuit is impaired) in producing psychological outcomes. Based on prior studies of younger adults, I expect that family role differentiation (co-occurrence of family-to-work enhancement and family-to-work conflict) would benefit psychological outcomes, an effect found among younger adults. Alternatively, family role rewards in later adulthood are substantively different from those in younger adulthood, raising the possibility that family-to-work enhancement may not moderate family-to-work conflict similarly across the life span. In addition, I have no guidance from the literature to formulate a specific hypothesis about whether work-to-family enhancement moderates the effect of work-to-family conflict, a moderating effect absent among younger adults, and will therefore explore this question. Another simultaneous effect I will explore is whether older workers have a higher tolerance for conflict or whether older workers may have developed techniques to cope with conflict at lower levels, so that conflict in one direction may not exert a deleterious impact unless the individual also experiences conflict in the other direction. To test this potential, I examine whether the impact of one direction of conflict is increased as the other direction of conflict intensifies. A fourth interaction (family-to-work enhancement and work-to-family enhancement) will also be tested. Since role conflict may be low in later adulthood, role enhancement may be particularly salient; conversely, at low levels of role conflict, role enhancement may have a weaker impact on well-being.

Aim 2 Mediation Hypotheses:

(1) Role enhancement (family-to-work and work-to-family enhancement) mediates the effects of role rewards (family rewards and work rewards) on psychological well-being outcomes (positive self-perceptions on aging, negative self-perceptions on aging, life satisfaction, and depressive symptoms).

(2) Role conflict (family-to-work and work-to-family conflict) mediates the effects of role stressors (family stressors and work stressors) on psychological well-being outcomes.

Aim 2 Interaction Hypotheses:

(1) The effect of family-to-work enhancement on psychological well-being is moderated by family-to-work conflict.

(2) The effect of work-to-family enhancement on psychological well-being is moderated by work-to-family conflict.

(3) The effect of family-to-work conflict on psychological well-being is intensified by work-to-family conflict.

(4) The effect of family-to-work enhancement on psychological well-being is moderated by work-to-family enhancement.

Aim 3

Under Aim 3, I will explore whether distinctive groups of older workers could be identified based on their role enhancement and conflict experiences, and whether group differences contribute to psychological well-being outcomes. For example, the following

groups are possible: (a) primarily role conflict (role conflict exceeds role enhancement), (b) primarily role enhancement (role enhancement exceeds role conflict), (c) similarly high levels of role enhancement and role conflict, (d) similarly low levels of role enhancement and role conflict, (e) role enhancement in the absence of role conflict, and (f) role conflict in the absence of role enhancement. Although, based on younger-adult samples, typologies of 4 and of 3 groups have been identified (Demerouti & Geurts, 2004; Rantanen et al., 2013), the restricted range of conflict experiences in older workers may mean that fewer groups would be meaningfully identified. Whether three or four groups are empirically supported, I will explore if group differences predict different levels of psychological well-being.

Aim 3 Research Questions and Hypotheses:

(1) What typology of role enhancement/conflict experiences is discernible among working adults with later-life family roles experience?

(2) Do the groups described in the typology differ in (a) demographics, role occupancy, physical/psychological resources, and mastery and (b) psychological well-being outcomes?

Aim 4

Under Aim 4, I will explore the role of gender in the predictors and consequences of role enhancement and conflict of older workers. One cannot take for granted that the role of gender in work-family processes is static throughout the life span (Vespa, 2009). One reason for this is that, because family roles in later adulthood are substantially different from those in early adulthood, e.g., parents of young children versus of adult

children, the trade-offs working men and women face or make may be dissimilar across the life span. To explore whether predictors and consequences of role enhancement and conflict in later life are gendered, I will conduct gender-specific analyses for Aims 1, 2, and 3.

Aim 4 Research Questions:

(1) Do role rewards/stressors predict role enhancement/conflict regardless of gender?

(2) Do role enhancement/conflict mediate the effects of roles on psychological well-being regardless of gender?

(3) Do role enhancement and role conflict moderate each other regardless of gender?

(4) Is the typology of role enhancement/conflict experiences found among men similar to that found among women?

(5) Do groups in the men's typology have similar characteristics as the groups in the women's typology?

(6) Are group memberships associated with psychological well-being regardless of gender?

See Figure B1 for the research aims and hypothesized relationships.

To explain the relationships I hypothesize and explore in Aims 1-4, I employ role theory, on which prior studies have frequently relied. However, an explanation of such associations among older workers may necessitate a reliance on not only role theories but also adaption theories (successful aging and life span development), because multiple-roles experiences may take on new meanings when adults are aging.

CHAPTER 4

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Conceptually, the central topics of my study— work and family roles, gender, and psychological well-being in later life—and research aims are informed by role theory, the successful aging framework, and life span development theories. In particular, role theory informs Aims 1 and 4: whether later-life family and work role rewards and role stressors contribute to role enhancement and conflict and whether role enhancement and conflict are gendered phenomena in later life. In addition, the successful aging framework and the life span development theories provide adaptive behavior concepts for examining older workers' psychological response (their psychological well-being and self-perceptions on aging) to role enhancement and conflict (Aims 2 and 3).

Briefly, the conceptual framework of my study builds on these theoretical traditions in the following ways. Family and work roles are conceptualized as socially-structured behavior that can yield cultural value and personal rewards. Because of this potential, a goal of role occupants is to maintain and thrive in their roles. In other words, roles express individuals' goals and are a venue for individual goal striving. Among persons with multiple roles, goal striving is successful when roles are mutually enhancing and do not interfere with each other. Goal fulfillment, in turn, contributes to positive self-

perceptions, such as perceived control (Brandtstädter & Rothermund, 1994) and general psychological well-being (Cairney & Krause, 2008; Krause & Shaw, 2000). As men and women strive to thrive in their family and work roles in later adulthood, their gender-specific role behavior may expose them to unequal opportunities to thrive across roles, and gender differences in role enhancement/conflict, in turn, may create differences between the self-perceptions/psychological well-being of men and of women. Below I describe concepts most relevant to my study and elaborate upon the conceptual framework of my study.

Role Theory

Broadly speaking, roles represent social norms or broad imperatives (Turner, 1983), whether pertaining to family, work, or gender. Norms denote expectations or a "script" for individuals to follow. Such norms can take the form of behavior and attitudes (Biddle, 1986).

Role behavior encompasses role demands or obligations (Turner, 1983), constituting a source of role strain (Goode, 1960). To meet role demands, individuals need time and/or personal resources, such as personal skills (Goode, 1960). Although role obligations can be generally fulfilled, certain aspects of demands may trigger role strain, or the "felt difficulty in meeting role obligations" (Goode, 1960). For example, a role demand may require an individual to be in a specific to time and place, so that at times, this requirement can be onerous or unpleasant to fulfill (Goode, 1960). In addition, if an individual has multiple roles, the totality of demands may, at times, exceed the person's available time and resources (Goode, 1960).

In addition to role demands, rights and privileges exist in some roles, particularly work and family ones, constituting role rewards (Sieber, 1974). Some rights may be inherent and independent of role performance whereas other rights are contingent upon some degree of role performance (Sieber, 1974). Another personal value of roles is that some roles can be a source of positive beliefs about the self (Reitzes & Mutran, 2002; Sieber, 1974). For instance, when asked to describe themselves, individuals present their family or work roles. Such role rewards (rights and identities) induce individuals to assume and maintain their roles (Sieber, 1974). Because a role can generate more role rewards than role demands, having multiple roles can be beneficial overall.

Furthermore, roles also denote particular attitudes or meanings, that is, "subjective" roles, in addition to overt behavior ("enacted roles"; Stryker & Burke, 2000; Turner, 1983, p. 350). Some roles are associated with being "productive" (e.g., work; (Glass et al., 1995), or generational "giving back" (caregiving and grandparenting). These role meanings become a way that role occupants describe their themselves in their roles, i.e., individuals acquire self-identities from their roles (Sieber, 1974).

The duality of role demands and role privileges is the foundation of role conflict and role enhancement (Goode, 1960; Sieber, 1974). Performance in one role can interfere with that in another role in two primary ways: time and strain (Goode, 1960; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In particular, time spent in a role can reduce time in another role; stress in a role can influence enactment in another role, such as reducing one's attention or capabilities in another role (Goode, 1960; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

In contrast to depleting time, attention, or capabilities in another role, a role may enhance another role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Sieber, 1974). In particular, rewards in a role, such as material resources, social support, skills/knowledge/perspectives, can enhance another role. For example, social support in one role can increase positive mood that energizes the enactment of another role. Skills/knowledge acquired in one role can applied in and thus enhance the enactment of another role. Moreover, role-beliefs or perspectives about one role can shape the meanings of another role, as in men's work role may shape their perspective about whether their spouse should or should not work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Thus, within role theory, competing perspectives predict likely consequences of holding multiple roles (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Goode, 1960; Sieber, 1974). The role strain perspective predicts that multiple roles result in role conflict, depletes a person's limited resources, and thus lower well-being. The role expansion perspective (Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Sandberg et al., 2013; Sieber, 1974) predicts that multiple roles facilitate role enhancement (Barnett & Hyde, 2001) and create a balance in favor of rewards over demands, thus fostering well-being (Sieber, 1974).

Just as general ideas or scripts exist for family and work roles, ideas about differences between men and women (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Eagly, Wood, & Diekman, 2000) prevail. Such ideas or gender roles may pertain to "competencies, interests, and value orientations" (Bandura, p. 185) for men versus for women. These ideas about the difference between men and women, or the manifestation of gender, should be distinguished from two concepts: sex and sex category. Whereas sex denotes

socially agreed-upon biological classification of an individual as female or male, sex category is an individual's claim as a female member or male member within society. Such claims are bolstered or substantiated by the individual's overt gendered behavior, so that sex category is taken as a proxy of sex or biological differences (West & Fenstermaker, 1995).

Gender roles are perpetuated by the contrasting division of labor or social arrangements (Eagly et al., 2000). Such division of labor produces an ideology that family and work roles are separate (Davis & Greenstein, 2009), with family responsibilities allocated by sex category. These social arrangements place pressures on women to develop "competencies, interests, and value orientations" (Bussey & Bandura, 1999, p. 185) that enable them to thrive in such social arrangements. For example, female workers have described themselves having more nurturing than male workers did, or women's "values" or personal standards may be more strongly tied to family roles than men's personal standards (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). Furthermore, the existing division of labor may pressure individuals to also assume demands consistent with their gender (the "enacted" role).

Successful Aging and Life Span Development

Indicators of successful aging have been subject to debate (Katz & Calasanti, 2014), with recent critiques emphasizing the role of individuals' views of their own development in defining successful aging (Stowe & Cooney, 2015). In seeking to refute the perception that aging equated inevitable decline, the early framework of successful aging asserted that aging can be characterized by low probability of disease, high

cognitive ability, or engagement in social relationships and productive activity (Rowe & Kahn, 1997). The prominence of physical and cognitive ability in this early framework has been criticized because these indicators have limited relevance for segments of the aging population, such as individuals who are 80 years of age or older (Baltes & Smith, 2003), among whom illness or cognitive decrements are relatively common. Another challenge to this early framework is empirical evidence showing that individuals can develop cognitive decrements and illness but maintain psychological well-being (Scheibe & Carstensen, 2010). That is, even in the presence of physical challenges, individuals have potential to adapt to these challenges and maintain a sense of continuity amidst changes (Stowe & Cooney, 2015). Thus, proponents of later perspectives of successful aging have advocated for an expansion of successful aging indicators that includes indicators of psychological well-being, with one such indicator being individuals' perceptions of their adaption in later life (Stowe & Cooney, 2015).

Theories on adaption in later life postulate that successful aging depends on goal selection and engagement (Baltes & Carstensen, 1996; Brandtstädter & Greve, 1994; Wrosch & Freund, 2001). A goal is considered a "good choice" by several criteria. First, a goal is optimal if the individual has adequate resources to pursue it, resources being both societal and individual (biological and psychological) resources. A goal is "good" if it enables individuals to also pursue a diversity of goals, i.e., not creating barriers that inhibit pursuit of other goals. Thus, goal selection is judged based on the goal itself but also by its short-term and long-term impacts on other goals (Heckhausen, Wrosch, & Schulz, 2010).

Once goals are selected, individuals strive to maintain goals by adjusting to emergent opportunities or barriers. Responses to constraints may include mobilizing resources to compensate the insufficient personal resources (Baltes & Baltes, 1990b; Heckhausen et al., 2010). Other responses may be adjusting one's goals, such as scaling back a goal, modifying criteria for what constitutes goal achievement, or shifting one's resources to alternate goals (Baltes & Baltes, 1990b; Brandtstädter & Rothermund, 2002; Heckhausen et al., 2010). Just as an individual may adjust a goal when facing barriers, the individual may also adjust how the barrier is perceived. Whether responses are adaptive is determined by similar criteria as adaptive goal selection: a match between one's ability and goal, the maintenance of diverse goals. and the assurance of beneficial long-term consequences (Heckhausen et al., 2010).

Conceptual Framework of the Proposed Study

Goals provide a venue for individuals to take an active role in their own development (Heckhausen et al., 2010). Because family and work roles have personal rewards, positive meanings, and social worth, such roles make worthwhile goals for pursuit. Successful goal pursuit means enjoying their rights (role enhancement) while minimizing undesirable consequences (role conflict). Through successful goal pursuit, roles become a source of positive self-perceptions.

As individuals maintain goals, they may need to respond to emergent opportunities and barriers. One such barrier is role conflict, which may trigger doubts about the attainability of a particular goal or even about one's ability to pursue multiple roles. Yet, role conflict may not indicate impaired goal pursuit in all circumstances.

When confronted with role conflict alongside role enhancement, individuals may downplay the barriers (role conflict) and emphasize the benefits (role enhancement). For these individuals, role enhancement may compensate for the downside of multiple role pursuit, providing motivation (Heckhausen et al., 2010) to maintain the role set, despite the role conflict. Nevertheless, the absence of role enhancement may deprive individuals with role conflict from both the family and the work role of the psychological resource needed to sustain goal strivings.

Thriving in multiple roles may depend on an individual's gender. When occupying work and family roles, men and women face an existing division of labor in which family role demands are gendered (Eagly et al., 2000). Women assume different family tasks and more family demands than men do, creating different circumstances that create men's and women's enhancement and conflict between the two domains. The higher level of family demands may put women at a disadvantage for feeling successful in goal strivings since family tasks may have less clear criteria for success (Bird & Ross, 1993; Lombardi & Ulbrich, 1997). Thus, gendered family demands may influence the potential for thriving across roles.

Another way in which women and men may respond differently to role enhancement and conflict is in their different self-standards (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Markus & Herzog, 1991). Women and men are pressured to adopt "values" that are consistent with the gendered division of labor in order to thrive in it (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Eagly et al., 2000). Such "values" take the form of self-standards or self-concept (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). In particular, a woman may have an "ideal" self that is more

strongly linked to her family rewards or demands than her male counterpart's ideal self (Markus & Herzog, 1991). Therefore, women's self-evaluations may be more linked to assuring that the family does not suffer due to work demands whereas men's self-evaluations may be linked to assuring that work does not suffer due to family demands. Furthermore, if assuring multiple roles demands are met require more effort from women than from men, then women may strive to prevent role conflict and assure role enhancement more than men do. Thus, role enhancement/conflict may be more pertinent to women's self-standards than to men's self-standards, making women respond more strongly to role enhancement/conflict than men do.

Nevertheless, the gender division of labor is not uniform across the life span. For example, the work role may be more normative for women whose children are grown, possibly creating less guilt among women if work conflicts with the family. The work role may become more salient to women if family demands are lower in later life. The meaning of the work role may also change for men in later adulthood if work is no longer a role to financially support dependent children, shifting the meaning of work to a more intrinsic one. Thus, the work role may take on new meanings for both men and women in later adulthood as the family demands change.

Furthermore, gender division of labor may change in later adulthood in other ways. As children are grown, the level of women's family role demands may become more similar to men's, even though the types of role demands may still differ by gender. Aside from role demands, role meanings may also be distinctive in later life, as later-life

family roles of grandparent and caregiver are intergenerational in meaning. These unique later-life family roles may be salient to men in different ways than they are to women.

In summary, holding family and work roles may constitute a diversity of goals, which has value throughout the life span. Maintaining multiple roles requires adjustments to constraints, with adjustments including modifying goals or their criteria of achievement or adjusting effort to enable pursuit of goals. How individuals adapt to constraints will shape their views of themselves in later life. Adaption, or successful striving in one's roles, may be unequal by gender. Women and men assume different family demands and have different self-standards regarding holding both family and work roles. Thus, founded on both role theory and adaptation concepts from the successful aging framework and life span development theories, this conceptual framework provides guidance for testing my study's hypotheses related to role enhancement and conflict among older male and female workers.

CHAPTER 5

METHODS

To address my four study aims, I use the Health and Retirement Study data and several analytic techniques. Below I elaborate on my data source, the analytic sample, the analytic strategy for each aim, and the measurement of variables.

Data Source

To address my study aims, I use data from the Health and Retirement Study (HRS). Begun in 1992, the HRS interviews adults over the age of 50 nation-wide every two years, asking them about a variety of topics, such as their labor force participation, family and social network, and health. The HRS conducts in-person interviews for first-time participants, telephone interviews with participants in follow-up waves, and self-administered surveys for specific survey modules. The HRS employs a multistate probability cluster sample, oversampling Hispanics, Blacks, and residents of Florida. The HRS is sponsored by the National Institute of Aging and the Social Security Administration (Health and Retirement Study, 2010).

In each wave of data collection, the HRS administers some survey questions to only a subset of HRS respondents. In particular, a self-administered psychosocial questionnaire (the source of my main variables) was given to a subset of HRS

respondents (these respondents also answered interviewer-administered questions that comprise my control variables). The respondents to the 2010 and 2012 psychosocial questionnaire were selected as follows: Half of HRS respondents in 2008 and 2010, respectively, were randomly selected to participate in an enhanced interview, and individuals who were ineligible for an enhanced interview in 2008 and 2010 became eligible (for an enhanced interview) in 2010 and 2012. Those eligible for an enhanced interview were given the psychosocial questionnaire to complete and return to the HRS. If an individual did not complete the psychosocial questionnaire after two reminders, s/he was called by the HRS for a telephone interview. Among those eligible for the 2010 enhanced interview, 70% completed the 2010 psychosocial questionnaire (University of Michigan, 2013). Among those who were eligible for an enhanced interview, 73.42% completed the 2012 psychosocial questionnaire.

Analytic Sample

The data for my study derived from the 2010 HRS and the 2012 HRS's respondents, to assure I had sufficient observations for my analyses. Specifically, the analytic sample includes respondents who were employed and who occupied at least one of the following family roles—spouse, parent of adult children, grandparent, and caregiver to an aging parent/parent in law. The work and family roles derived from the following HRS questions or variables:

Being employed: "Are you doing any work for pay at the present time?"

Spouse: Marital status variable in the cross-wave file (the 2010 Tracker file)

Parent of adult children: Roster of biological/stepchildren over the age of 18 (and their non-resident and resident status) (Preload file)

Grandparent: Number of grandchildren

Caregiver: Gives personal care, errands assistance, or financial assistance to either parents or parents-in-law.

In total, 5,628 observations constituted the analytic sample. See Table A1 for the analytic sample, by role type and gender, from the 2010 and 2012 HRS waves, totaling 5,627 because one observation had no valid gender data. The full analytic sample was utilized in analyses based on full information maximum likelihood, which was the case for most analyses. In other analyses, listwise deletion was used and thus these analyses were based on fewer observations than the full analytic sample.

Analytic Strategy for Aim 1

Under Aim 1, I will use path analysis to examine whether role demands and rewards in later life foster role enhancement and conflict. In particular, I test a structural model in which rewards and stressors (exogenous variables) in later-life roles engender role enhancement and conflict (endogenous variables), in two steps:

(1) I will examine the following paths: (a) 4 paths from 4 family role rewards to family-to-work enhancement, (b) 1 path from work rewards to work-to-family enhancement, (c) 4 paths from family demands to family-to-work conflict, and (d) 2 paths from work demands to work-to-family conflict. See hypothesized paths in Figure B2.

(2) An alternative model that has the above paths and the following additional paths: (a) 4 paths leading from 4 family stressors to family-to-work *enhancement*, (b) 4 paths

leading from 4 family rewards to family-to-work *conflict*, (c) 2 paths leading from 2 work stressors to work-to-family *enhancement*, and (d) 1 path leading from work rewards to work-to-family *conflict*). See Figure B2 for these alternative paths. Although not reflected in Figure 1, I will also explore "cross-domain" paths: (a) 2 paths from work stressors to *family*-to-work conflict, (b) 4 paths from 4 family stressors to *work*-to-family conflict, (c) 1 path from work rewards to *family*-to-work enhancement, and (d) 4 paths from 4 family rewards to *work*-to-family enhancement.

To understand whether hypothesized paths or the alternate paths fit better to the data, model fit indices of three models will be examined: the hypothesized model, the alternate model, and a third "comparison" model. Because the alternate model specifies all possible theoretical paths, a third model—a more parsimonious model—with only significant paths from the hypothesized model and significant paths from the alternate model will serve as another "comparison" model. Upon a determination of the model with optimal model fit indices, path coefficients will be examined to reveal the specific role rewards and stressors that are associated with the four types of role enhancement and conflict.

Analytic Strategy for Aim 2

Aim 2 will test the potential of role enhancement and conflict to influence psychological well-being as indirect effects of roles and the potential of role enhancement to interact with role conflict in this influence. Specifically, all four types of role enhancement and conflict will be specified as indirect effects of every stressor and every reward on each outcome, using path analysis. The paths from role stressors/rewards to

role enhancement/conflict will be controlled for self-mastery, which has been shown to predict role enhancement and conflict. The paths from role enhancement/conflict to psychological outcomes will be controlled for demographics, volunteer status, and physical/psychological resources, which also influence the four indicators of psychological well-being.

In addition, four interactive effects of role enhancement and conflict will be tested (see Figure B3 for these interaction terms). Each interaction term will be created by multiplying the appropriate variables, centered from their means. Each outcome will be regressed on only one interaction term at a time but with all four role enhancement/conflict variables and all role stressors, rewards, demographics and physical and psychological resources as covariates. Specifying only one interaction term in each regression model facilitates the interpretation of each interaction term.

Analytic Strategy for Aim 3

Aim 3 seeks to identify a typology of older workers based on their role enhancement and conflict experiences, using latent profile analysis, and whether this typology is associated with psychological well-being, using regression. From latent profile analysis, a latent categorical variable will be derived that describes relatively homogenous groups of adults based, with individuals in each group having similar values on the role enhancement/conflict variables (Bauer & Curran, 2004; Hill, Degnan, Calkins, & Keane, 2006; Pastor, Barron, Miller, & Davis, 2007); and calculates each person's probability of being in each group (Roesch, Villodas, & Villodas, 2010). To do this, latent profile analysis uses observations that have a valid value on at least one of the

four enhancement/conflict variables. Of the 5,628 observations (full sample), 4,976 observations met this criterion and constituted the sample for the latent profile analysis.

Guided by prior studies of younger workers that found 3 or 4 latent groups, I will test at least 5 models (1-, 2-, 3-, 4, and 5-group models). Classes will be added iteratively to determine the best model fit. Model fit will be evaluated using the following statistics. (1) The bootstrapped likelihood ratio test (LRT) uses bootstrap samples to estimate the distribution of the log likelihood difference test statistic (Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthén, 2007). The BLRT statistically compares the fit of a target model (e.g., a 4-group model) to a model that specifies one fewer group (e.g., a 3-group model). P-values less than .05 indicate that the solution with more profiles fits better (e.g., 4-group better than 3-class). In contrast, p-values greater than .05 indicate that the solution with fewer fits better. (2) Both the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC; Akaike, 1974) and the sample size-adjusted Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC; Schwarz, 1978) will also be examined to ascertain the most optimal group solution. Optimal model fit is defined by lower AIC and BIC values (i.e., closer to 0). (3) Finally, the entropy criterion will be examined. Entropy is an index that determines the accuracy of classifying people into their respective groups, with higher values (i.e., closer to 1.0) indicating superior solutions (Roesch et al., 2010).

To better understand the groups identified in the latent profile analysis, I will examine descriptors of these groups. First, I will report each group's means on the four family-work scales and contrast each group's means with the overall sample's means.

Then, I will describe these groups' demographics, role occupancy, and physical/psychological resources levels.

Group memberships will be examined in relation to psychological well-being. ANOVA will be used to reveal contrasts among the groups' levels of psychological well-being indicators. Mean levels of positive self-perceptions on aging, negative self-perceptions on aging, and life satisfaction will be computed for each group, with post hoc comparisons of means based on Bonferroni *t* tests. In addition, the percentages of group members (within each group) with at least one depressive symptom will be computed, with comparisons of proportions based on Chi-square tests.

Finally, psychological outcomes will be regressed on all group variables (except the reference group), including demographics and physical/psychological resources as covariates. Linear regression will be used for positive self-perceptions on aging, negative self-perceptions on aging, and life satisfaction whereas probit regression for depressive symptoms. Although either logistic or probit regression could be used for binary outcome variables, logistic regression is especially favored for models with extreme independent variables (Hahn & Soyer, 2005), whose prevalence is relatively low in my sample. In these regressions, the reference group was selected after examining the groups that emerged from the latent profile analysis. The reference group was chosen to allow meaningful comparisons among the groups (i.e., its adequate size and on its role enhancement and conflict levels not being "excessively" high or low).

Analytic Strategy for Aim 4

To understand gender roles in the context of later-life family and work, I will conduct gender-specific analyses for Aims 1-3. First, I will test whether the structural model in Aim 1 fit equally for men as for women: are the paths between stressors and rewards and role conflict and enhancement factors in the male group similar to parallel paths in the female group? To conduct these tests, I will use multiple group analysis. I will allow the male model's paths to vary from the female model's paths and examine whether the associations between roles/rewards and role enhancement/conflict among men are similar to the associations among women. Second, I will estimate mediation effects and interactive effects separately for men and for women. Third, I will examine if my latent profile analysis differs by gender. In particular, I will compare if the best-fitting typology (a solution with the lowest BIC value; (Hill et al., 2006) in an all-men sample is the same as the best-fitting typology in an all-women sample. Then, I repeat the ANOVA with gender-specific samples. Furthermore, I test for gender differences in group memberships' impacts on outcomes in the following way. Outcomes will be regressed on the following variables, in a stepwise fashion: first, the group variables (without the reference group variable) and, second, interaction terms (gender will be interacted with each of the group variables included in the model).

Measures

Psychological Outcomes

Positive and negative self-perceptions on aging. Positive self-perceptions on aging come from endorsement of the following four statements (Lawton, 1975; Liang & Bollen,

1983): (1) I have as much pep as I did last year; (2) I am as happy now as I was when I was younger; (3) as I get older, things are better than I thought they would be; (4) So far, I am satisfied with the way that I am aging. Negative self-perceptions on aging come from endorsement of the following four statements (Lawton, 1975; Liang & Bollen, 1983): (1) things keep getting worse as I get older; (2) the older I get, the more useless I feel; (3) the older I get, the more I have had to stop doing things that I like; (4) getting older has brought with it many things that I do not like.

Possible responses to both scales were: 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *somewhat disagree*, 3 = *slightly disagree*, 4 = *slightly agree*, 5 = *somewhat agree*, and 6 = *strongly agree* (Ailshire & Crimmins, 2011). Two continuous variables, positive and negative self-perceptions on aging, will be created by averaging the values from the items from the respective scales. Cronbach's alphas for positive aging and negative aging in the analytic sample are, respectively, .91 and .92.

Life satisfaction. Life satisfaction comes from endorsement of the following five statements: (1) In most ways my life is close to ideal, (2) The conditions of my life are excellent, (3) I am satisfied with my life, (4) So far, I have gotten the important things I want in life, and (5) If I could live my life again, I would change almost nothing. Possible responses to both scales were: 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *somewhat disagree*, 3 = *slightly disagree*, 4 = *neither agree nor disagree*, 5 = *slightly agree*, 6 = *somewhat agree*, and 7 = *strongly agree* (Ailshire & Crimmins, 2011). An index of life satisfaction is based on an average of values across at least 3 statements. Cronbach's alpha for life satisfaction in the analytic sample was .89 .

Depressive symptoms. Depressive symptoms are measured using the Epidemiological Studies Depression scale (Haringsma, Engels, Beekman, & Spinhoven, 2004; Radloff, 1977; Steffick, 2000) consisting of 8 statements. Starting with "Much of the time during the past week you felt…," the statements are: (1) felt depressed, (2) everything was an effort, (3) sleep was restless, (4) felt happy, (5) felt lonely, (6) enjoyed life, (7) felt sad, and (8) couldn't get going. Response options are either "yes" or "no." Depressive symptoms were coded as a binary variable: 0 = *no symptoms* and 1 = *1 or more symptoms*. This low-cutoff, as opposed to a cut-off of 2-symptoms or more, was chosen to detect elevated psychological distress of any severity. Subclinical levels of psychological distress are relevant and arguably more appropriate for a study of workers, who have, on average, "good health".

Work-Family Enhancement and Conflict

Work-to-family conflict is measured by 3 items (MacDermid et al., 2000): (1) My work schedule makes it difficult to fulfill personal responsibilities, (2) Because of my job, I don't have the energy to do things with my family or other important people in my life, (3) Job worries or problems distract me when I am not at work. Cronbach's alpha for the analytic sample was .69

Family-to-work conflict is measured by 3 items (MacDermid et al., 2000): (1) My home life keeps me from getting work done on time on my job, (2) My family or personal life drains me of the energy I need to do my job, (3) I am preoccupied with personal responsibilities while I am at work. Cronbach's alpha for the analytic sample was .66.

Work-to-family enhancement is measured by 3 items (MacDermid et al., 2000): (2) My work leaves me enough time to attend to my personal responsibilities, (2) My work gives me energy to do things with my family and other important people in my life, and (3) Because of my job, I am in a better mood at home. Cronbach's alpha for the analytic sample was .77.

Family-to-work enhancement is measured by 3 items (MacDermid et al., 2000): (1) My personal responsibilities leave me enough time to do my job, (2) My family or personal life gives me energy to do my job, and (3) I am in a better mood at work because of my family or personal life. Cronbach's alpha for the 2010 HRS sample was .81.

Response categories for all four work-family scales are: 1 = *rarely*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *often*, 4 = *most of the time*. The average from at least 2 of the 3 items in each scale denotes the level of interference or enhancement an individual experiences (University of Michigan, 2013).

Family Role: Demands

Caregiver demands. Several types of assistance to a mother or a father may constitute caregiver demands for workers: financial assistance, hours spent on assistance with personal care, and hours spent on other help, such as errands. For financial assistance, I used the question "Now about help to and from parents...Not counting any shared housing or shared food, did you give financial help to your [parent] amounting to $500 or more [in the last two years]?" If yes, then the respondent was further asked "about how much money did that amount to altogether [since the last two years]? Respondents were instructed that financial help meant "giving money, helping pay bills,

or covering specific types of costs such as those for medical care or insurance, schooling, down payment for a home, rent, etc. The financial help can be considered support, a gift or a loan." For personal care assistance, I used the question "Did you [or your spouse/ partner] spend a total of 100 or more hours [in the last two years] helping [any of your parents and their spouse] with basic personal activities like dressing, eating, and bathing?" If yes, respondents further reported either the number of hours ("Roughly how many hours did you yourself spend [over two years] giving such assistance") or a range ("Did it amount to less than ____ hours, more than ____ hours, or what?"). For other forms of assistance, I used the question "Did you spend a total of 100 or more hours [in the last two years] helping your [parent] with other things such as household chores, errands, transportation, etc.?" Similar to personal care assistance, individuals who answered affirmatively were further asked to report on the number of hours or a range. For each type of assistance, respondents specified whether the recipient was their mother or father. I chose to focus on assistance to mothers, a more prevalent target of assistance, to keep the number of caregiving demands comparable to the number of demands in each of the other roles.

Grandparent demands. To measure grandchild care demands, I used the question "Did you spend 100 or more hours in total [in the last two years] taking care of grandchildren?" If yes, respondents were asked either "Roughly how many hours altogether did you spend?" or "Did it amount to less than ____ hours, more than ____ hours, or what?" Individuals were flagged if they responded that their grandchild lived with them in the same house. Thus, to assess all four care demands, an opening question

was asked to screen in those who provided at least some assistance (100 hours or $500 over two years), followed by questions that asked for specific amounts of assistance.

However, when I examined the data for hours on personal care, errands, and grandchild care, and for financial assistance dollars, I found two issues. First, the values included 0's or were below the 100 hours or $500 cut-off. Second, the distributions were highly skewed, as shown in the percentiles categories in the Table 2. For care hours (for personal care, errands, and grandchild care), the categories of percentiles are as follows: 0 = *individuals having provided 0 care hours*, 1 = *1 through the 5th percentile* (to differentiate individuals who provided some hours but not nearly 100 hours), 2 = *the 5th percentile to 100 hours*, 3 = *101 hours - 50th percentile*, 4 = *50th - 75th percentile*, and 5 = *top quartile*. The percentile categories for financial assistance are: 0 = *$0-$500*, 1 = *$501 to the 5th percentile*, 2 = *the 5th to 25th percentile*, 3 = *25th to 50th percentile*, 4 = *50th to 75th percentile*, 5 = *top quartile*. I present slightly different categories of percentiles for financial assistance because only a handful of cases reported less than $500 in financial assistance. When deriving percentile cut-offs to construct these categories, I excluded individuals who reported 0 hours or $0. In addition, percentiles were presented separately for men and women to reflect the gender differences in the distributions of care hours and financial amounts (a method used to account for gender differences in other distributions; (Mast, Körtzinger, König, & Müller, 1998)). For example, the median and the maximum care hours among men are both lower than the median and the maximum care hours among women, consistent with prior studies showing women providing more caregiving

tasks (Pinquart & Sörensen, 2006). The Table A2 specifies the actual values that constitute the percentiles categories for these four types of assistance.

Although I first specified the four care demands using these percentile categories in Aim 1's preliminary path analyses, I re-specified these variables for the final path analysis in Aim 1 and all other analyses. The final caregiving demands variable was coded as the number of assistance (finance, personal care, or errands) provided to an aging mother (0 = *no caregiving*, 1 = *one type of caregiving*, 2 = *two types*, and 3 = *three types*). Grandparent demands were coded as follows: 0 = *no grandchildren*, 1 = *grandchildren but gives no care*, 2 = *gives grandchild care*, and 3 = *grandchild in household*. Although the final specifications of the care demands do not take full advantage of the care hours reported, the final specifications avoid the "noise" that may be present in the reported care hours.

Spouse and adult children negative interactions. The same scale consisting of 3 questions is used to evaluate perceived negative interactions with a spouse as well as from adult children (Schuster, Kessler, & Aseltine Jr, 1990). The four questions are: How often do they (1) make too many demands on you? (2) criticize you? (3) they let you down when you are counting on them? and (4) they get on your nerves? Response options are: 1 = *a lot*, 2 = *some*, 3 = *a little*, and 4 = *not at all*. The average from at least 2 of the 4 items in each scale denotes the level of negative interactions with a spouse or adult children. Cronbach's alphas for negative interactions with a spouse and with adult children are, respectively, .79 and .78.

Family Role: Rewards

Caregiver rewards. Positive aspects of caregiving have been reported by caregivers (Cohen, Colantonio, & Vernich, 2002; Farran, 1997; Harwood et al., 2000; Tarlow et al., 2004), including the perceived reciprocity for past care by the parent (Silverstein et al., 2006). I use the HRS question related to the individual's perception about whether the respondent was "close" to his/her mother in early life, as past emotional attachment to one's parent may make caregivers view caregiving as an expression of giving back to the parent (Silverstein et al., 2006). Responses to perceived closeness to one's parent in early life were categorized as 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neither agree or disagree*, 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *strongly agree*.

Another social reward of caregiving may be receiving social support for the caregiving role. I use questions about the number of siblings who helped one's mother with personal care and the number of siblings who helped with finance. Although I specified each type of help separately (as 2 binary variables) in Aim 1's preliminary path analyses, I re-specified these two variables into an ordinal variable (0 = *no sibling help*, 1 = *sibling help with either finance or personal care*, and 2 = *sibling help with both finance and errands*) in the final path analysis in Aim 1 and all other analyses.

Grandparent rewards. Unlike the social support scales for spouse and adult children, a validated scale for grandparenting rewards has not yet been widely replicated in studies. Thus, I use the question that asks respondents about "activities in their life now" and specifically asks the respondent to report whether they "do activities with grandchildren, nieces/nephews, or neighborhood children?" and the activity frequency,

with 0 = *not in the last month or never/not relevant*, 1 = *daily*, 2 = *several times a week*, 3 = *once a week*, 4 = *several times a month*, and 5 = *at least once a month*.

Spouse and adult children social support. The same scale consisting of three questions is used to evaluate perceived social support from a spouse as well as from adult children(Schuster et al., 1990). The three questions are: How much does (1) they really understand the way you feel about things, (2) you rely on them if you have a serious problem, and (3) you open up to them if you need to talk about your worries? Response options are: 1 = *a lot*, 2 = *some*, 3 = *a little*, and 4 = *not at all*. The average from at least 2 of the 3 items in each scale denotes the level of social support from a spouse and from adult children. Cronbach's alpha's for spousal support and adult children support in the analytic sample were, respectively, .80 and .82.

Work Role: Demands

Work time demands. Work hours represent work time demands and were measured by the question asked of individuals who reported "working for pay": "How many hours a week do you usually work on this job…[or] in this business"?

Work role stressors. A 6-item scale was used, based on agreement or disagreement with these statements (Karasek Jr, 1979; Quinn & Staines, 1979): (1) My job is physically demanding, (2) I am under constant time pressure due to a heavy workload, (3) I have very little freedom to decide how I do my work, (4) Considering the things I have to do at work, I have to work very fast, (5) I often feel bothered or upset in my work, and (6) The demands of my job interfere with my personal life. The responses were coded: 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *agree*, 4 = *strongly agree*. The

average of these six items denote the extent of job stress that an individual experiences. Cronbach's alpha in the analytic sample was .74.

Work Role: Rewards

Work role satisfaction. A 9-item scale was used, based on agreement or disagreement with these statements (Karasek Jr, 1979; Quinn & Staines, 1979; Smith et al., 2013) : (1) All things considered I am satisfied with my job, (2) I receive the recognition I deserve for my work, (3) My salary is adequate, (4) My job promotion prospects are poor, (5) My job security is poor, (6) I have the opportunity to develop new skills, (7) I receive adequate support in difficult situations, (8) At work, I feel I have control over what happens in most situations, and (9) In my work I am free from conflicting demands that others make (the 4^{th} and the 5^{th} statement are reverse-coded). The responses were coded: 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *agree*, 4 = *strongly agree*. The average of these nine items denote the extent of job satisfaction that an individual experiences. Cronbach's alpha in the analytic sample was .65.

Other Variables

Gender. Gender is denoted by the 2010 Tracker file's gender variable, with 1 for female and 0 for male.

Control variables. A set of control variables were included in the path analyses and regressions addressing Aims 1-4. The measurement of the control variables is described in Table A3.

The descriptive statistics of my study's variables, in their final specification, are shown in Table A4.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS

Aim 1: Role Contributors of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict

Under Aim 1, three path analyses were conducted to understand the family and work factors associated with role conflict and enhancement. I first present model fit indices of these path models to explain how the final model was selected among these models and, then, the path coefficients in the selected model.

Model Fit Indices

Model fit indices of three path models were compared. The first path analysis—the alternate model–contained both hypothesized paths and all alternative paths (paths from all role rewards to all four types of role enhancement/conflict; paths from all stressors to these four types of role enhancement and conflict). The second path analysis was the hypothesized model with only hypothesized paths (e.g., paths from family rewards/stressors to family-to-work enhancement/conflict). Upon a comparison of the alternate and the hypothesized model's path coefficients, a third path analysis was conducted ("trimmed" model), consisting of only paths that were significant in either the alternate model or the hypothesized model.

As shown in Table A5 in Appendix A, the model fit indices of the hypothesized model were inferior to both the alternate model and the trimmed model. This indicates that predictors of the four types of role enhancement and conflict were not limited to only the hypothesized paths. Thus, both the trimmed and the alternate model were favored over the hypothesized model.

In a comparison between the alternate model and the trimmed model, the trimmed model had acceptable model fit and was more parsimonious. Nevertheless, the trimmed model omitted (non-significant) paths of variables that were crucial to Aims 2-4 (i.e., various types of sibling help and various types of caregiving help to mother). Therefore, the alternate model was favored over the trimmed model for the former model's inclusion of key study variables. The alternate model also fit the data best because it specified all possible theoretical paths (a "just-identified" model).

Paths Coefficients

According to the path analysis shown in Table A6 in Appendix A, role rewards were positively associated with mainly role enhancement and negatively associated partly with role conflict. In particular, higher levels of role rewards (spouse, parent, and work) were associated with not only higher family-to-work enhancement but also higher work-to-family enhancement. This "cross-domain" effect related to role enhancement was unexpected. These same role rewards that contributed to role enhancement also were significantly associated with role conflict, albeit less consistently. For example, spouse rewards (i.e., higher support from a spouse) were related to only lower family-to-work

conflict. Thus, role rewards tended to be associated with both types of role enhancement, but not both types of role conflict.

Role stressors were associated not only with role conflict but also with role enhancement. As expected, higher levels of family role stressors (except grandparent) were related to higher family-to-work conflict while higher levels of job stress with higher work-to-family conflict. Unexpectedly, higher levels of family stressors (spouse, parent, and grandparent) were also associated with higher work-to-family conflict; higher levels of work stressors were also related to higher family-to-work conflict. In addition to being predictors of role conflict, stressors were inversely associated with role enhancement. Some stressors (parent, grandparent, and work) were associated with both directions of role enhancement whereas spouse stressors were related to only family-to-work enhancement.

In summary, a role (whether work or family) can predict both family-to-work and work-to-family conflict/enhancement. Moreover, stressors in a role were related to both role enhancement and conflict whereas role rewards were related primarily to role enhancement. Thus, stressors predicted role enhancement and conflict more consistently than did rewards.

Aim 2: Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict

Under Aim 2, path analyses were conducted to examine whether role enhancement and conflict mediated the effects of role rewards/stressors on psychological well-being. Table A7 presents the path coefficients of role enhancement and conflict as mediating the effects of roles on positive aging self-perceptions, Table A8 on negative

aging self-perceptions, Table A9 on life satisfaction, and Table A10 on depressive symptoms (see Appendix A). Given that the purpose of my study is to examine role enhancement/conflict, I focus on only the indirect effects but include the direct effects (between roles and psychological well-being) for reference.

Positive Self-Perceptions on Aging

Role enhancement consistently mediated the effects of roles on positive aging self-perceptions (Table A7 in Appendix A). Role enhancement in both directions (family-to-work enhancement and work-to-family enhancement) mediated the associations between all rewards/stressors (except grandparent rewards) and positive aging self-perceptions. In contrast to role enhancement, only work-to-family conflict mediated the effects of stressors (spouse, parent, caregiver, and work) and rewards (caregiver, grandparent, and work) on positive self-perceptions on aging. Thus, role conflict was less central than role enhancement in explaining how positively older workers view their aging.

Negative Self-Perceptions on Aging

Role conflict emerged as a key mediator between roles (especially role stressors) and negative self-perceptions on aging. Family-to-work conflict mediated the effects of some rewards (spouse and caregiver) but all stressors (except grandparent) on negative aging self-perceptions. Similarly, work-to-family conflict mediated the effects of some rewards (caregiver, grandparent, and work) but all stressors on negative self-perceptions on aging. In contrast to role conflict, only family-to-work enhancement, but not work-to-family enhancement, was a mediator between roles and negative self-perceptions on

aging (Table A8 in Appendix A). Family-to-work enhancement was a mediator of all roles, whether because of their rewards or stressors, and negative aging self-perceptions.

Life Satisfaction

The associations between roles and life satisfaction were mediated by family-to-work enhancement and conflict (Table A9 in Appendix A). Family-to-work enhancement mediated the effects of all role rewards/stressors (except grandparent rewards) on life satisfaction. Also, family-to-work conflict mediated the effects of specific role rewards (sibling help and spouse support) and of all stressors (except grandparent stressors) on life satisfaction. Unexpectedly, neither work-to-family conflict nor work-to-family enhancement mediated the effects of any rewards or stressors on life satisfaction. Thus, how the family influences work was a mediator between roles and life satisfaction, but not how work influences the family.

Depressive Symptoms

Role enhancement and conflict were limited mediators between roles and depressive symptoms, which were linked consistently to the work role. As shown in Table A10 in Appendix A, family-to-work enhancement mediated the effects of rewards (spouses, caregivers, and work) and of work stressors on depressive symptoms. Family-to-work conflict was a mediator between stressors (parent and work) and depressive symptoms whereas work-to-family conflict was a mediator between work rewards and depressive symptoms.

Aim 2: Interactive Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict

Under Aim 2, four interactions between role enhancement and conflict were examined on each of the four psychological well-being indicators (see Table A11 in Appendix A). All four interactions were significantly associated with either positive/negative aging self-perceptions or life satisfaction. In particular, when family-to-work enhancement and family-to-work conflict were interacted with each other, this "family-to-work" interaction term was significant for only negative aging self-perceptions. That is, more family-to-work conflict was associated with more negative aging self-perceptions, when family-to-work enhancement was also high (i.e., above its mean); however, when family-to-work enhancement was low (i.e., below its mean), the association between family-to-work conflict and negative aging self-perceptions was weaker. Thus, family-to-work enhancement did not attenuate the adverse association between family-to-conflict and negative aging self-perceptions in the full sample, as one might have expected. Figure B4 in Appendix B illustrates the effects of the "family-to-work" interaction term.

When work-to-family enhancement and work-to-family conflict were interacted with each other, this "work-to-family" interaction term was significantly associated only with life satisfaction (Table A11). When work-to-family conflict was low, work-to-family enhancement was unassociated with life satisfaction; however, when work-to-family conflict was high, more work-to-family enhancement became associated with higher life satisfaction (see Figure B5 in Appendix B).

When family-to-work enhancement and work-to-family enhancement were interacted with each other, this "enhancement" interaction term was significantly associated with positive aging self-perceptions and life satisfaction. Each type of role enhancement was associated with more positive aging self-perceptions and more life satisfaction, and these associations became stronger when the other type of role enhancement was also high. Figure B6 in Appendix B depicts this "enhancement" interactive effect on positive aging self-perceptions and life satisfaction.

When family-to-work conflict and work-to-family conflict were interacted with each other, this "conflict" interaction term was significantly associated with life satisfaction in an unexpected way. Even though higher family-to-work conflict was associated with lower life satisfaction, this association became weaker when work-to-family conflict was high. Thus, as individuals experienced high levels of both types of role conflict, the adverse impact of family-to-work conflict was attenuated. Figure B7 in Appendix B depicts this "conflict" interactive effect on life satisfaction.

Aim 3: Group Memberships

Under Aim 3, I generated groups of individuals distinguished by their role enhancement and conflict, using latent profile analysis. Because some studies had identified four distinctive groups whereas others had identified three groups, I tested solutions with at least three groups.

In general, a 5-group solution received more support than solutions with more than 5 groups and solutions with fewer than 5 groups. Table A12 in Appendix A presents model fit indices for solutions ranging from 1 through 7 groups. Compared to solutions

with fewer than 5 groups, a 5-group solution showed optimal values for 4 out of 5 key fit indices: The BIC and the three likelihood ratio tests favored the 5-group solution whereas entropy did not. Focusing on solutions with more than 5 groups (6 and 7 groups), the 7-group solution was unstable, with one group among the seven groups without any cases. The 6-group solution, compared to the 5-group, yielded mixed fit indices. On the one hand, two indices, BIC and entropy, improved (BIC improved progressively from class 1 through 7 whereas entropy values peaked at a 4-group solution, fell at a 5-group, and rose back up in the 6- and the 7-group solution). On the other hand, the three likelihood ratio tests worsened after the 5-group solution. Taken together, the 5-group solution received more empirical support than solutions with more groups and solutions with fewer groups.

The five groups are distinctive in their absolute levels of each type of role enhancement/conflict and in each type's level relative to the other three types. Figure B8 in Appendix B illustrates the between-group and within-group differences in these levels. In the largest group (51.0%), individuals had the highest levels of role enhancement combined with the lowest levels of role conflict, relative to other 4 groups. In addition, the difference between its role enhancement levels and its conflict levels was also larger relative to this difference in the other groups. This group was dominated by role enhancement (in both directions) and may be termed "dual enhancement."

The second largest group (31.6%) is distinctive for its preponderance of benefits deriving from the family, i.e., high family-to-work enhancement and low family-to-work conflict. In contrast to the family domain, the work domain is more neutral, with work-to-family enhancement and work-to-family conflict levels nearly identical to each other and

hovered near the lower end (2) of the rating scale (1-4). The dominant feature of this group is the family being the predominant source of role enhancement. Following prior research, this group may be termed “family-enhancement.”

The third group (10.8%) is distinctive in that all four types of enhancement and conflict are relatively similar to each other, though family-to-work enhancement level was still higher than the other three types. This group will be termed “comparable enhancement & conflict.” Interestingly, compared to the “family-enhancement” group, the “comparable enhancement & conflict” group had similar levels of role enhancement but higher levels of role conflict.

The fourth group (5.5%) was distinguished by work-to-family conflict level as the highest, followed by the other 3 types of role enhancement and conflict. This contrasts with the other three groups, in which family-to-work enhancement levels were higher than the other types of role enhancement/conflict. This group is characterized by work being the source of high conflict and low enhancement, with the family being a source of high enhancement and low conflict. In this group, the two domains of the family and work are highly differentiated, and this group is termed “work conflict-family enhancement.”

The fifth group (1.1%) was distinguished by its family-to-work conflict level exceeding the levels of the other three types of role conflict and enhancement, with family-to-work conflict higher than this level in each of the other four groups. In this group, the other three types of role conflict and enhancement were highly similar to each other, hovering around 2.5 on the 1-4 scale. This group is termed “family-conflict.”

Description of Groups

Next, I explore whether these groups are distinguishable by their demographics, role occupancy, mastery (which has been previously shown to be related to role enhancement and conflict) (Jex & Bliese, 1999; Noor, 2002), and physical health indicators (Table A13 in Appendix A). Rather than focusing on statistically significant differences (e.g., between group pairs), I will describe general group patterns or prominent between-group differences related to these characteristics.

Demographic characteristics among groups were distinctive (see Table A13). Group "dual enhancement" stood out as one of the "oldest" groups, with relatively high income and education; group "family-enhancement" had one of the highest proportions of White individuals, also with high education and income; group "comparable enhancement and conflict" was relatively younger, with high proportions of persons of Asian ethnicity ("other race") and persons of Hispanic ethnicity; group "work conflict-family enhancement" was younger, with high proportions of Black members, and lower levels of education; and group "family-conflict" had substantial proportions of Black and Hispanic members.

The family roles that members in each of the five groups held could also be distinguished (see Table A13). Having a spouse was highly common across 4 out of 5 groups (ranging between 72% and 70%), but only 64% of group "work conflict-family enhancement" were married. In addition, being a grandparent was also highest in group "work conflict-family enhancement" (91.25%), followed groups "dual enhancement" and "family-conflict" (86% for both), and lastly, in groups "family-enhancement" and

"comparable enhancement/conflict" (81% and 82%). For the caregiver role, groups "work conflict-family enhancement," "comparable enhancement/conflict," and "family-conflict" had the highest proportions of caregivers (60%, 64%, and 90%), followed by groups "dual enhancement" and "family-enhancement" (53% and 55%). Despite these differences in caregiver occupancy rates, at least ½ of all individuals in each group provided at least one type of assistance (financial, errands, and personal care) to their aging parents. Unlike the other family roles, parent role occupancy had little variations among the groups, with all five groups' occupancy rates ranging between 97% and 94%.

Psychological and physical resources also varied between groups, in expected ways (see Table A13). In particular, mastery levels followed a pattern of decreasing self-mastery across groups 1 (*dual enhancement*) through 5 (*family-conflict*). Physical resources, measured by chronic conditions and perceived health, also varied across groups, with groups 1 through 5 exhibiting worsening physical health.

Group Memberships and Psychological Well-Being Outcomes

Two types of analyses – ANOVA/chi-square and regression – were employed to ascertain whether group memberships explained differences in psychological outcomes. Table A14 in Appendix A displays the descriptive statistics of each group's positive aging self-perceptions, negative self-perceptions, life satisfaction, and depressive symptoms, based on the ANOVA or chi-square. Groups "dual enhancement" and "family-enhancement" had the highest levels of positive self-perceptions on aging and life satisfaction and lowest negative self-perceptions on aging. The other three groups exhibited similar levels of psychological well-being.

In regression analyses to predict psychological outcomes using group memberships, group "dual enhancement" had lower negative self-perceptions on aging, compared to the "comparable conflict/enhancement" group, the reference group. Table A15 in Appendix A displays the regression parameters from models predicting the four psychological well-being indicators. Yet, unexpectedly, the "work conflict-family enhancement" group had lower levels of negative self-perceptions on aging than the "comparable enhancement/conflict" group, even though these two groups did not differ in their levels of positive self-perceptions on aging. In addition, life satisfaction levels were highest in group "dual enhancement," followed by group "family-enhancement." Life satisfaction in group "work conflict-family enhancement" was also higher than level of the "comparable enhancement/conflict" group. This pattern of findings was repeated for depressive symptoms: Compared to the "comparable enhancement/conflict" group, groups "dual enhancement" and "family-enhancement" were less likely to have depressive symptoms.

Aim 4: Gender Differences in Role Enhancement/Conflict and in Their Impacts

In Aim 4, I tested whether men's and women's role enhancement and conflict derived from similar role rewards and stressors; and whether various scenarios of role enhancement and conflict were associated with psychological well-being in different ways for men than for women.

Gender Differences in Predictors of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict

In the analyses of the predictors of role enhancement and conflict, two gender differences emerged. Table A16 and Table A17 in Appendix A display role rewards and

stressors that have statistically significant effects on role enhancement and conflict, among men and among women, respectively. First, men experienced more linkages between roles and family-to-work enhancement and conflict than women did whereas women experienced more linkages between roles and work-to-family enhancement and conflict than men did. Second, women exhibited more "cross-domain" effects than men did. Specifically, women's role enhancement was related to parent stressors whereas men's role enhancement was related to parent rewards. In addition, more associations between role conflict and rewards (grandparent and work rewards) were found among women than among men.

Gender Differences in Mediation Effects

In the analyses of role enhancement and conflict as mediators between roles and well-being, women's positive self-perceptions on aging were predominantly mediated by a different type of role conflict from men's positive aging. Table A18 and Table A19 in Appendix A display the gender-specific mediating effects of role enhancement and role conflict of roles on positive aging self-perceptions. For women, work-to-family conflict was a mediator between role rewards/stressors(e.g., work rewards and stressors) and positive aging self-perceptions whereas for men, family-to-work conflict was a mediator between role rewards/stressors (e.g., caregiver and spouse) and positive aging self-perceptions.

Men and women also differed in the type of rewards/stressors that were mediated by role enhancement. For women, role enhancement mediated parent stressors' effects on

their positive aging self-perceptions. For men, role enhancement mediated parent rewards' and spouse stressors' effects on their positive aging self-perceptions.

Concerning negative self-perceptions on aging, family-to-work enhancement was a prominent mediator between roles and women's negative aging self-perceptions, but work-to-family enhancement was a key mediator between roles and men's negative aging self-perceptions. Table A20 and Table A21 in Appendix A display gender-specific mediating effects of role enhancement and role conflict, in relation to negative aging self-perceptions. For women, family-to-work enhancement explained how role rewards (spouse and work) and stressors (parent, caregiver, and work) were associated with negative aging self-perceptions. In contrast, among men, work-to-family enhancement was a mediator of the effects of role rewards (caregiver and work) and work stressors on their negative aging self-perceptions.

Regarding life satisfaction, roles' associations with life satisfaction were mediated by both family-to-work enhancement and conflict among women but only role enhancement among men (see Table A22 and Table A23 in Appendix A for gender-specific mediation effects of role enhancement/conflict on life satisfaction). In particular, among women, family-to-work enhancement mediated the effects of rewards (spouse and work) and stressors (parent, caregiver, grandparent, and work) on life satisfaction; family-to-work conflict mediated stressors (parent, caregiver, and work) and spouse rewards' effects on life satisfaction. Neither work-to-family enhancement nor work-to-family conflict were mediators of roles' effects on women's life satisfaction. In contrast, among men, family-to-work enhancement were mediators of rewards (spouse, parent,

sibling help, and work) and stressors (spouse, caregiver, grandparent, and work); work-to-family enhancement were mediators of caregiver rewards' and work stressors' effects on life satisfaction. Role conflict did not mediate the effects of roles on men's life satisfaction.

In terms of depressive symptoms, role enhancement mediated the effects of roles on depressive symptoms only for women (see Table A24 and Table A25 in Appendix A for gender-specific mediation effects of role enhancement/conflict on depressive symptoms). Among women, family-to-work enhancement mediated the effects of rewards (spouse, caregiver, and work) and stressors (parent and work) on depressive symptoms while work-to-family enhancement mediated work rewards and stressors' associations with depressive symptoms. Among men, neither direction of role enhancement mediated roles' associations with depressive symptoms.

Men and women also differed in the types of roles that influenced their depressive symptoms via role conflict. Among men, family-to-work conflict was a mediating effect for spouse stressors whereas among women, family-to-work conflict was a mediating effect for work rewards/stressors. In addition, work-to-family conflict was a mediator between work rewards/stressors and depressive symptoms among men, but work-to-family was a mediator between parent stressors and depressive symptoms among women. Thus, for women, the parent and work roles contributed to depressive symptoms (through role conflict) whereas for men, the spouse and work roles did.

Gender Differences in Interactive Effects

Interactive effects that had been tested in the full sample were tested in separate men and women samples. Of the four interaction terms, which were tested with each of the well-being indicators, all 4 terms showed significant effects on well-being of either men or women or both. Table A26 and Table A27 in Appendix A display gender-specific interactive parameters for each psychological well-being indicator.

Family-to-work interaction. For the interaction "family-to-work," or when family-to-work conflict and family-to-work enhancement were interacted with each other, this interaction term was significant among men (negative aging self-perceptions and life satisfaction) and women (depressive symptoms), with unexpected results among men. When family-to-work enhancement was low, higher family-to-work conflict was associated with more negative aging self-perceptions. When family-to-work enhancement was high, family-to-work conflict became even more strongly associated with (more) negative aging self-perceptions. In addition, the "family-to-work" interaction term was also significant in relation to men's life satisfaction. At low family-to-work conflict, family-to-work enhancement was associated with more life satisfaction. When family-to-work conflict was high, family-to-work enhancement was even more strongly associated with life satisfaction.

Among women, the "family-to-work" interaction term was significant in relation to their depressive symptoms. At low family-to-work conflict, family-to-work enhancement was associated with lower depressive symptoms. At high family-to-work

conflict, family-to-work enhancement became even more strongly (inversely) associated with depressive symptoms.

Work-to-family interaction. When work-to-family conflict and work-to-family enhancement were interacted with each other, this "work-to-family" interaction term was significant only for women and their life satisfaction. As found in the full sample, neither work-to-family conflict nor work-to-family enhancement had any associations with women's life satisfaction when the other type was low. However, when work-to-family conflict was high, work-to-family enhancement became positively associated with life satisfaction.

Enhancement interaction. When the interaction between family-to-work enhancement and work-to-family enhancement was explored, this "enhancement" interaction term showed a significant effect on men's and women's well-being, but in opposite directions (in the full sample, the interaction was non-significant). See Figure B9 in Appendix B for the effects of the "enhancement" interaction on men and women. Among men, higher work-to-family enhancement was associated with less negative aging self-perceptions when family-to-work enhancement was low, as expected. When family-to-work enhancement was high, this association became weaker (left panel of Figure B9). Among women, work-to-family enhancement was associated with less negative aging self-perceptions when family-to-work enhancement was low, as expected. When family-to-work enhancement was high, this association became stronger (right panel of Figure B9). The "enhancement" interactive effect on women's negative aging self-perceptions was analogous to the effect on women's life satisfaction: Family-to-work enhancement

was more strongly associated with life satisfaction when work-to-family enhancement was high than when work-to-family enhancement was low.

Conflict interaction. When the two types of role conflict were interacted with each other, the effect was significant only to men's life satisfaction in unexpected ways. Although neither type of role conflict was associated with life satisfaction when the other type of role conflict was low, work-to-family conflict became associated with higher life satisfaction when family-to-work conflict was high.

Gender Differences in Group Memberships

To identify whether a five-group solution was also optimal for men and women separately, as it was in the full sample, gender-specific latent profile analyses were conducted. In these analyses, a 5-group solution received more support in the all-women sample than the all-men sample. Table A28 in Appendix A shows model fit indices for gender-specific latent profile analyses. In the all-women sample, the three likelihood ratio tests or LRT's favored the 5-group solution, over all other groups, with the 7-group solution difficult to extract (nonidentifiable). Therefore, the five-group solution was deemed optimal for women.

In the all-men sample, the 4-group and the 5-group solution received empirical support, over the other solutions. Specifically, the bootstrapped LRT favored the 5-group over all other solutions whereas the other two LRT's favored the 4-group solution. The 4-group solution was perhaps more stable than the five-group solution, as one group in the five-group solution had only 6 cases. In contrast to these two solutions, the 7-group solution and the 6-group solution were not robust: One group in the 7-group solution had

no cases whereas the 6-group solution had non-significant LRT's. Thus, despite some ambiguity in fit indices of the 4-group and the 5-group solution, the five-group solution yielded added a group that was substantively distinctive from the other four groups (that had been identified in the four-group solution) and was conceptually meaningful. Moreover, the low prevalence of the fifth group (having only six cases) may be specific to the sample, that is, it is possible that other samples of older workers with multiple roles, e.g., older workers with more children or more extensive family members living nearby or co-residing, may yield a "family-conflict" group with relatively more cases. Therefore, the five-group solution was deemed optimal for men (and for women).

Although men and women could be categorized into five groups that are meaningfully differentiated, two groups showed gender differences: the "family-enhancement" group and the "work conflict-family enhancement group." In the "family-enhancement" group, the work domain was more neutral among men than among women. That is, among men, the gap between the work-to-family enhancement level and work-to-family conflict level was very small whereas this gap among women larger. Thus, women in the "family-enhancement" group also had relatively high work-to-family enhancement whereas men in this group did not. In addition, the "work conflict-family enhancement" group exhibited variations between the male and the female sample. As noted above, this group is distinguished from the other four groups because its work-to-family conflict level was the highest of the four types of role enhancement and conflict. Nevertheless, the male "work conflict-family enhancement" group members exhibited high levels of role conflict in both directions. In contrast, in the female group, the family-

to-work conflict level was far lower than the work-to-family conflict level. Moreover, the gap between family-to-work enhancement and work-to-family enhancement was smaller in the male group than that in the female group, even though family-to-work enhancement still had the second highest level of the four types of role enhancement and conflict among men in the "work conflict-family enhancement" group. Thus, work as the only source of role conflict and the family as the predominant source of enhancement was more indicative of women than of men in the "work conflict-family enhancement" group (see Figure B10 in Appendix B, top panel for male groups and bottom panel for female groups).

The prevalence of the five groups also varied by gender (see Figure B11 in Appendix B). Broadly speaking, the proportions of groups "dual enhancement" and "family-enhancement" were slightly greater (55.3% and 32.9%) among men than these proportions among women (50.0% and 31.0%). In contrast, the proportions of groups "comparable enhancement/conflict" and "work conflict-family enhancement" were higher among women (11.2% and 6.0%, respectively) than among men (9.7% and 1.8%). Membership in group "family-conflict" was rare among men and women (0.003% and 1.7%, 6 and 54 cases). Because of such low prevalence of group "family-conflict" members, I describe my findings as they relate to the other four groups.

Male groups also differed from female groups in terms of their role occupancy, particularly the spouse and parent roles (see Figure B12 in Appendix B, top and bottom panel). Among men, being married was most prevalent in the group "dual enhancement," followed by "family-enhancement," "comparable enhancement/conflict," and "work

conflict," which had comparable rates to each other. This distribution was not replicated among women: Group "family-enhancement" had the highest spouse role occupancy, group "work conflict-family enhancement" had the lowest spouse occupancy, with groups "dual enhancement" and "low enhancement/conflict" in between. In addition to the spouse role, the distribution of the parent role occupancy rates among the five groups was distinctive by gender. The male "comparable enhancement/conflict" group had particularly low parent role occupancy compared to the other four groups whereas all five female groups were generally similar in their parent occupancy rates.

Gender Differences in Group Memberships' Impacts on Psychological Well-Being

Group memberships were examined in conjunction with psychological well-being of men versus women, using ANOVA/chi-square and regression. The ANOVA/chi-square results are very similar for men and women (see Table A29 in Appendix A for well-being indicators by group membership, by gender). The "dual enhancement" and the "family-enhancement" groups exhibited the most positive and the most negative self-perceptions on aging and depressive symptoms whereas the other three groups were not significantly different from each other on these outcomes. For life satisfaction, however, a gender difference emerged: The "work conflict-family enhancement" group showed higher life satisfaction than the "comparable enhancement/conflict" group (than the "family-conflict" group as well as), among women, whereas the "work conflict-family enhancement" group showed lower life satisfaction than the "comparable enhancement/conflict" group among men.

Regression analyses reveal that women's and men's psychological well-being was associated with their group membership, with group memberships being a stronger explanatory factor for women's psychological well-being than for men's (see Table A30 in Appendix A for gender-specific effects of group membership on psychological well-being). Starting with positive aging self-perceptions, being in the "family-enhancement" group was related to more positive self-perceptions on aging, but only among women (compared to "comparable enhancement and conflict" members). For negative aging self-perceptions, being in the "work conflict-family enhancement" group also benefitted female members' negative aging self-perceptions but being in the "work conflict-family enhancement" group did not benefit male members. For life satisfaction, women in the "work conflict-family enhancement" group experienced more life satisfaction whereas men in the "work conflict" group had lower life satisfaction. Furthermore, being in the "dual enhancement" or the "family-enhancement" group was associated with more life satisfaction, associations more pronounced among women than men. Finally, for both men and women, being in the "dual enhancement" or the "family-enhancement" group was associated with not having any depressive symptoms.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION

This study covered three topics: experiences with holding multiple roles, psychological impacts of holding multiple roles, and differences between men and women. These three topics were examined and analyzed under Aims 1-4 (the direct effects of role rewards/stressors on role enhancement/conflict, the mediation and interactive effects of role enhancement/conflict on psychological impacts, the typology of role enhancement/conflict experiences, and gender differences). In this section, I discuss how findings derived from Aims 1-4's analyses advance our knowledge about these topics, drawing on concepts from primarily role theory and the life span perspectives to explain my findings.

Multiple Roles Experiences in Later Adulthood

A fundamental question of my study was whether later-life family and work roles had potential to enhance and interfere with each other as early-adulthood roles have been shown to. Indeed, according to the direct effects analyses, family and work roles continue to influence each other into later life. Rewards and stressors in one domain continue to, respectively, enhance and conflict with the other domain. Furthermore, rewards and stressors in one domain also help to, respectively, reduce interference with and enhance

the other domain. Thus, later-life family roles can affect work, and vice versa, and the linkages between these two domains are substantial. Such linkages stand in contrast to younger workers reporting no linkages between the family and the work domain (Demerouti & Geurts, 2004), a phenomenon absent in my sample. The interdependence between the family and work in my sample pertained to the later-life roles of spouse, parent of adult children, caregiver for an aging parent, and grandparent, demonstrating that role enhancement/conflict is not limited to early adulthood roles (Barnett & Marshall, 1992; Barnett, Marshall, & Singer, 1992), but is a life course phenomenon.

Not only do older workers experience the family and work domains as highly interdependent, they also experience both domains in similar ways (i.e., low role differentiation). As the latent profile analysis showed, in 3 out of 5 groups (the "dual enhancement," the "family-enhancement," and the "comparable enhancement/conflict") individuals experienced both domains as sources of some level of role enhancement. Only one group, the "work conflict-family enhancement" group, had high role differentiation, with the family being the source of role enhancement and the work domain the source of role conflict. In contrast, prior studies with younger samples had identified two groups with high role differentiation: a group whose members experience work as the predominant source of rewards and a group whose members experience the family as the predominant source (Demerouti & Geurts, 2004; Rantanen et al., 2013). The high role enhancement among older workers is consistent with previous findings of accumulated work experience (Warr, 1992), lower family demands (Dilworth &

Kingsbury, 2005), and higher family rewards in later adulthood. Thus, multiple roles occupancy in later adulthood is characterized by both domains enhancing each other.

Whether work or family, older workers tended to experience each domain as either a source of role conflict or role enhancement, but not both, although role inclusiveness (when a role conflicts with and enhances another role), was more prevalent among younger workers in prior research (Rantanen et al., 2013). Among older workers, in only 1 out of 5 groups (the "comparable enhancement/conflict" group) role inclusiveness was found in both the work and family domains, that is, each domain was a source of conflict and enhancement. In another group (the "family-enhancement" group), only the work domain was a source of both conflict and enhancement. In contrast, studies of younger samples had identified two groups, each group having role inclusiveness in both domains: a "passive" group that had low levels in all four types of role enhancement and conflict, and an "active" group that had high levels in all four types (Rantanen et al., 2013). Overall, older workers in my study exhibited less "variety" in role enhancement/conflict experiences, compared to previous studies on younger workers.

Later-life role enhancement and role conflict were consistently linked to role stressors. Although role conflict was low among most older workers, stressors were associated with role conflict, and unexpectedly, with role enhancement. For example, family stressors can reduce work-to-family enhancement in the following way: Difficulty at home (family stressors) can neutralize or reverse the positive affect that spills into the family from a "good" day at work (work-to-family enhancement). In contrast, a study of mostly younger workers showed that rewards influenced role enhancement more

consistently (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000) than role stressors did. The key role of stressors among older workers with family roles suggest that older workers may have less physical or psychological resources to deal with role stressors (Cairney & Krause, 2008; Krause, 2007) and thus prevent these stressors from either causing role conflict or reducing role enhancement. Alternatively, when role stress levels are relatively low, individuals may pay attention to them when they do occur. Because role stressors predicted role enhancement/conflict more consistently than role rewards did, the task of maintaining multiple roles in later life may be foremost a task of minimizing stressors.

Psychological Impacts of Holding Multiple Roles

A second question I set out to answer was whether experience from holding multiple roles would influence adults in two ways—their general psychological well-being and their aging self-perceptions—and variations of these effects. As the path analyses and regression analyses show, experiences in diverse roles were more pertinent to aging self-perceptions than to general psychological well-being. From the path analyses, negative and positive self-perceptions on aging could be explained by all four types of role enhancement and conflict whereas life satisfaction and depressive symptoms were predominantly explained by fewer types of role enhancement/conflict. Life satisfaction was explained by family-to-work enhancement/conflict. Depressive symptoms were explained by role conflict, but only partly by role enhancement. This may be because family and work roles are perceived as a progression (e.g., work promotions or having grandchildren; (Elder, 1998), that is, work and family roles are age-graded. Thus, role occupancy (e.g., having grandchildren) gives individuals a sense of

where they are in their life course. Furthermore, individuals may evaluate whether such a point in their life course is positive or negative by whether they have "mastered" these roles. In other words, "success" in both domains, or role enhancement/conflict, appears to be a developmental goal by which individuals evaluate themselves in later adulthood (Heckhausen et al., 2010).

Another reason multiple roles occupancy influences aging self-perceptions may be that family and work roles carry demands or requisites and fulfilling these obligations can contribute to a sense of being useful or productive (McAvay, Seeman, & Rodin, 1996; Miche et al., 2014). Indeed, when describing aging-related losses, older adults have reported a loss in productivity more frequently than other types of aging-related losses (McAvay et al., 1996). By doing things that make one feel productive, individuals may perceive some control over how their later adulthood unfolds, or how they age. In particular, feelings of usefulness from roles can reverse or defy negative perceptions about aging (Miche et al., 2014). Through perceptions of usefulness or of control over how one ages, holding diverse roles may become integrated with aging self-perceptions.

Both role enhancement and conflict influenced unique dimensions of aging self-perceptions. For persons with multiple roles, role enhancement was a more prevalent mediator between rewards and positive aging self-perceptions whereas role conflict was a more prevalent mediator between stressors and negative aging self-perceptions. The centrality of both role enhancement and conflict to aging self-perceptions suggests that older workers with family roles are especially attentive to or actively assuring that diverse roles work in their favor. They do this mostly by managing stressors, partly by

maintaining rewards. These findings suggest that even when role conflict is lower in later adulthood than in early adulthood (Hill et al., 2014), role conflict (and role enhancement) is highly relevant to individuals holding multiple roles.

Life satisfaction among the older workers in my study was more linked to family-to-work enhancement/conflict than to work-to-family enhancement/conflict, a pattern that diverged from that among younger workers in prior research. In particular, work-to-family conflict was unassociated with older workers' life satisfaction, but it was strongly associated with younger workers' life satisfaction (Gareis et al., 2009). In addition, family-to-work conflict was consistently associated with older workers' life satisfaction, but it was weakly associated with younger workers' life satisfaction (Gareis et al., 2009). Like older workers' life satisfaction, younger workers' life satisfaction had been found to be associated with family-to-work enhancement (Gareis et al., 2009). These findings suggest that workers, regardless of their life stage, are satisfied with their "life" because of their attachment to their family, but workers may be vulnerable to different types of role conflict depending on their life stage.

Depressive symptoms were associated with role conflict more than with role enhancement among the older workers, particularly in specific roles. That is, both types of role conflict but only one type of role enhancement mediated the effects of roles on depressive symptoms. Such mediating effects were found in the roles of spouse, parent, and work—roles associated with both early and later adulthood. Thus, working adults with the spouse or the parent role may be subject to depressive symptoms due to role conflict, regardless of their life stage.

Role Enhancement and Conflict Within the Family

When the coupling of family-to-work enhancement and family-to-work conflict was examined, such coupling was detrimental to aging self-perceptions, as unexpectedly shown in the interactions analyses. The higher the family-to-work conflict level, the more negative the self-perceptions on aging, especially when family-to-work enhancement was also high. This contrasts with the study of younger workers finding that when family-to-work enhancement was high, family-to-work conflict's adverse effects were attenuated (Gareis et al., 2009). The finding in my study suggests that a situation in which the family role causes both conflict and enhancement (family role inclusiveness) may fall short of the coveted goal for the family to be a domain of rewards in later life, i.e., impaired goal pursuit. This goal for the family domain may reflect expectations of later adulthood as a time of lower family demands when dependent children are no longer in the household, making family-to-work conflict seem incongruent with such expectations. Furthermore, when family-to-work conflict co-occurs with family-to-work enhancement, it may be perceived as a threat to a domain valued for its rewards. In this way, individuals may have more to "lose" from family-to-work conflict when they also have family-to-work enhancement. In other words, family-to-work enhancement may indicate the salience of the family to the individual, intensifying the threat of family-to-work conflict.

Role Enhancement and Conflict Within Work

In contrast to the family domain, the work domain, when causing both conflict and enhancement, was beneficial to life satisfaction. At low levels of work-to-family conflict and work-to-family enhancement, neither was associated with life satisfaction.

However, either type (work-to-family conflict and work-to-family enhancement) became positively associated with life satisfaction at high levels of the other type. This finding is inconsistent with one study of younger workers, in which the interactive effect was non-significant (Gareis et al., 2009). Although unexpected vis-a-vis younger workers, this "work-to-family" interaction is consistent with how individuals adjust to barriers during goal striving (Baltes, Zhdanova, & Clark, 2011). Older workers may accept work-to-family conflict as a "routine" byproduct of the mandates of the workplace and thus no longer equate "success" with multiple roles as an absence of work-to-family conflict. Such redefinition of "success" may be adaptive because work-to-family conflict is still the more prevalent of the two types of role conflict well in later life and thus may be perceived as "inevitable." Furthermore, when work-to-family conflict is coupled with work-to-family enhancement, such a situation may indicate high engagement in work, which is a correlate of psychological well-being (Reitzes & Mutran, 1994). This contrasts with family-to-work conflict findings, showing family-to-work conflict to be especially threatening when coupled with family-to-work enhancement, because older workers may perceive work-to-family conflict as more "acceptable" than family-to-work conflict.

Another potential explanation for positive effects of work role inclusiveness is that individuals with high work-to-family conflict and work-to-family enhancement are actually individuals actively trying to prevent one role from "taking over" another role. Individuals with high work-to-family conflict and enhancement may have high family demands (making it easier for work to interfere with those demands) and who perceive work to be a "haven" (or use work as a legitimate excuse) from "excessive" family

demands (work enhancing the family). This scenario may be more common in later life because family demands (e.g., demands related to adult children, grandchildren, or aging parents) in later life are less "obligatory" compared to the role of parents of minor children and thus avoiding such demands is more "doable." For this reason, older workers with high work-to-family conflict and enhancement may actually be preventing family-to-work conflict or preventing the family from being overwhelming. Thus, assuring multiple roles are maintained may depend on "scaling back" or adjusting one's effort in one domain to increase capacity in the other domain (Baltes et al., 2011; Baltes & Baltes, 1990a).

Gender Differences

Gender differences in role enhancement and conflict in later life represented the third topic of this study. Indeed, gender differences were found with respect to experiences in holding multiple roles, the psychological impacts of role enhancement and conflict, and the potential benefit of each domain.

Multiple-Roles Experiences

On the whole, the women experienced more cross-domain linkages between the family and work domains than men did, possibly because of women's continuing role in the family. Among women, each type of linkage--role enhancement and role conflict—was influenced by both factors (rewards and stressors), rather than role enhancement being influenced by rewards and role conflict by stressors. For example, such cross-domain linkage, e.g., sibling help with caregiving (role reward) being associated with work-to-family conflict, may occur possibly because sibling help allowed more flexibility

as to when the individual needed to be available for caregiving. If a "substitute" is available for caregiving tasks and the caregiving "schedule" is more flexible, then work is less likely to interfere with caregiving. Likewise, work rewards may be negatively associated with family-to-work conflict, possibly because supervisory support or job security made work delays (due to family roles) less onerous than they might otherwise have been. That such linkages between rewards/stressors and conflict/enhancement are more common among women than men suggests that women may be more actively using rewards not only to foster role enhancement but also to curb conflict. Thus, role enhancement and role conflict did not seem to be parallel experiences, predicted by different factors, for women. This may be because women assume primary responsibility in the family, whose demands are less predictable, necessitating them to expend more effort to avoid role conflict and find ways to make assure "all" role demands are fulfilled.

A prominent difference in men's and women's multiple-roles experiences is how they experience the work role, as shown in gender-specific latent profile analyses. Work-to-family enhancement and work-to-family conflict tended to be comparable among men whereas work-to-family enhancement level exceeded work-to-family conflict level among women, as seen in the "family-enhancement" group and the "work conflict-family enhancement" group. In other words, men's work role was mixed with rewards and stressors whereas women's work role was dominated by rewards. The comparable levels of work-to-family conflict and enhancement (work role inclusiveness) among men may indicate high work engagement, as attention at work can cause strain but also invigoration (Rothbard, 2001). Such work engagement suggests that the work role is

more multi-faceted in later adulthood for men, when compared to the work role being defined primarily as a "breadwinning" or mandatory role in early life (Johnson, 2005).

Psychological Impacts of Multiple-Roles Experiences

Gender differences also emerged relating to the psychological impacts of multiple-roles experiences, with such experiences more salient to women's psychological well-being, as evident in three sets of analyses (mediation effects, interactive effects, and group memberships). The mediation effects analyses showed that stressors and rewards flowed through more types of role enhancement and conflict in predicting women's psychological well-being but fewer types in predicting men's psychological well-being. This suggests that the psychological impacts of specific roles are explained by how a role influences another role, particularly for women. The interactions analyses showed that women with both types of role enhancement gained more benefits than men with both types of role enhancement. In the group membership analysis, compared to the "comparable enhancement/conflict" group, women in the "dual enhancement" and the "family-enhancement" group exhibited more favorable psychological outcomes than the men in these latter two groups. Findings from these three sets of analyses strongly suggest that assuring "success" with multiple roles is more of a "life task" or goal for women holding multiple roles than for men holding multiple roles. Thus, when women achieve their goal, such goal achievement is more gratifying to women than to men.

Men and women also responded to different sources of conflict, consistent with gender roles. In particular, a role affected women's aging self-perceptions when it created work-to-family conflict and men's aging self-perceptions when it created family-to-work

conflict. Several reasons may account for this gender difference. First, women may react to work-to-family conflict because women may be assuming primary responsibility for "handling" such interferences or the (negative) consequences of such interferences. Second, based on research with younger workers, low family salience made individuals more vulnerable to adverse effects of family-to-work conflict (Bagger, Li, & Gutek, 2008), suggesting that older men, compared to older women, had lower family salience. Third, family-to-work conflict may be particularly onerous to older men if they had not been exposed to family-to-work conflict from early adulthood because of their "breadwinner" role and thus are less prepared to handle it in later adulthood. The adverse impact of family-to-work conflict on men was also not made worse by work-to-family conflict, just as the detrimental impact on women of work-to-family conflict was not exacerbated by family-to-work conflict (as seen interactive analyses). Together, these findings suggest that men and women are vulnerable to divergent types of role conflict, possibly due to gender differences in the family domain.

In addition, women and men benefited from opposite directions of role enhancement. More than men, women benefitted from family-to-work enhancement, possibly because family-to-work enhancement had been harder to achieve in early life for women when they had more family demands (Larson et al., 1994). Lower family demands in later life may allow the family to emerge more prominently as a source of enhancement for women. Work-to-family enhancement's benefit to men may signify that male workers are enjoying work's intrinsic rewards more in later adulthood than they did in early adulthood, when work had been primarily a mandatory role (Johnson, 2005).

Women appear to benefit from changes in family demands whereas men benefit from changes in their work role.

Role enhancement and conflict within the family. The psychological effects of the family as a source of conflict and enhancement were complex among men. The family causing enhancement and conflict contributed to higher negative self-perceptions on the one hand, but higher life satisfaction on the other hand. The adverse impact on aging self-perceptions may occur because men might have been accustomed to fewer family demands from early adulthood. Family role inclusiveness in later life contrasts with a prior finding that younger men generally experience the family domain as one of predominantly leisure compared to their work role (Larson et al., 1994). The extent to which older male workers perceive the family domain as causing both conflict and enhancement may deviate from how the family domain had been to them in early adulthood (Larson et al., 1994). The unexpected positive impact on life satisfaction may result because the co-existence of enhancement and conflict from the family may indicate general engagement in their family roles (roles that are qualitatively different from early-life family roles of spouse or parent of young children). Thus, later-life family engagement can contribute to life satisfaction, even if such engagement brings about family-to-work conflict.

Among women, family-to-work enhancement appears to reduce the adverse impact of family-to-work conflict. This may indicate that women are able to use family rewards to "fuel" or sustain their effort in meeting family demands, thus creating a synergy between family demands and family rewards. Such synergy may result from

women adapting to high family demands associated with the parent role from young adulthood.

Role enhancement and conflict within work. The beneficial impact of the work role enhancing and conflict with the family was, in fact, significant only among women, indicating that specific work circumstances can be beneficial to women with later-life family roles. Although neither work-to-family conflict nor work-to-family enhancement was associated with life satisfaction, more work-to-family enhancement became associated with more life satisfaction when work-to-family conflict was high—a finding significant only among women. The co-occurrence of work-to-family conflict and work-to-family enhancement may be resulting from positive and negative affect at work, when individuals are highly engaged at work (high attention or absorption at work). As prior research showed, although younger female workers highly engaged in their work experienced both positive and negative affect, they only experienced work-to-family conflict (Rothbard, 2001). It may be possible that once women no longer have care of young children, the positive and the negative affect from high work engagement create not just work-to-family conflict but also work-to-family enhancement. By benefitting the family, high work engagement contributes to women's life satisfaction.

Role conflict within work and the family. Among men, the co-occurrence of family-to-work conflict and work-to-family conflict had an unexpected positive impact, contributing to higher life satisfaction. This finding may reflect a sense of "invigoration" individuals experience (Demerouti & Geurts, 2004) when assuming high demands in both domains. Thus, for men, the co-occurrence of both types of role conflict may reflect high

engagement in both domains, or “role balance”, which has been linked to psychological well-being (Carlson et al., 2009; Marks & MacDermid, 1996).

Implications for Theory

Overall, my study findings suggest that role theory may need to be expanded. Prior conceptual models theorizing role conflict and role enhancement may need to integrate rewards and stressors, respectively, based on the associations between role rewards and role conflict, and the associations between role stressors and role enhancement, prevalent among women. That is, prior conceptual models need to incorporate role stressors, not just rewards, as starting points for role enhancement. Furthermore, role conflict theories that posit time and strain as sources for role conflict may also need to incorporate role rewards. For instance, the role enhancement model elaborated by Greenhaus and Powell (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) showed that role rewards could influence another role by enhancing mood, one mechanism of role enhancement. This model could be modified to show that rewards not only fostered positive mood but also may block or dampen the effects of stressors and keep negative mood at a minimum. Likewise, the role conflict model could be modified to show that rewards do intervene in the creation or ramifications of role strain by reversing the cause of role conflict itself, e.g., when role support allows flexible schedule, thus reducing time-based interference. Thus, the mechanisms in which roles produce role enhancement and conflict previously described may need to be modified to reflect more fully the experiences of women and men.

My findings support the more recent perspective that successful aging may be meaningfully measured by psychological well-being, such as self-perceptions on aging. In my study, self-perceptions on aging gauged how "successful" older workers perceived their aging to be when holding multiple roles. Compared to general psychological indicators of life satisfaction and depressive symptoms, aging self-perceptions, or one's "aging identity", had unique associations with multiple roles that either general indicator did not. In other words, older adults revealed experiences that they linked to their aging. Thus, measuring how adults perceive their aging contributes to understanding successful aging.

I also found empirical support for theoretical connections between role theory and the successful aging framework. Older adults perceived their aging in terms of the "results" of their time and effort. Older adults with multiple roles perceived themselves as successfully aging when effort or involvement in one domain of activity is well integrated with that in another domain, or involvement in a domain does not compromise involvement in another domain. This suggests that roles allow individuals to be involved or spend time in socially recognized activities or goals, and by being a conduit of their physical and mental energy, social roles become the basis on which older adults evaluate themselves. Thus, when roles are sources of activity engagement in later life, role enhancement and conflict provide windows into the lived experiences of older adults.

Concepts in role theory and life span perspectives are also linked. Multiple roles were perceived in a holistic or integrated way by older adults, more so than by younger adults as indicated by prior studies. As adults age and acquire more roles, they may have

experienced more “variety” of ways in which roles have conflicted with or enhanced each other, making the integration between roles more likely in later adulthood than early adulthood. Furthermore, if older adults are more likely to have multiple family roles, e.g., parents of adult children, caregiver, and/or grandparent, that place demands on them whereas younger adults assume role demands primarily as parents or spouses, then older adults may find segmentation between work and the family less feasible. Thus, whether individuals occupy more or fewer roles and how long they have had multiple roles may be factors in the extent multiple roles are interdependent. If these two factors are unequal across the various stages of adulthood, then role theory may need to be more explicit about role occupants’ life stage.

My study raises the possibility that the adjustment behaviors, and their psychological effects, suggested by life span perspectives may be distinguished as short-term versus long-term. Among persons with multiple roles, individuals experiencing role conflict in tandem with role enhancement, or role differentiation, showed higher psychological well-being. This unexpected beneficial effect of role differentiation may be particular to the short term. When older adults experience both role enhancement and conflict, they may be more likely to evaluate the role holistically or even emphasize role enhancement over role conflict. In the short run, if adjustments in role involvement are infeasible, this approach may mitigate the negative impacts associated with role conflict. However, the impact of role differentiation may be negative in the long-term because keeping a positive outlook on role conflict, or increasing effort against role conflict, may be taxing. Nevertheless, in the long run, individuals may have a wider range of

behavioral options, such as adjusting their role involvement (e.g., reducing work hours) or selecting a different goal (e.g., finding a different job). Thus, the unexpected beneficial effect of role differentiation raises the possibility that this effect reflects a short-term effect, accentuating the importance of differentiating between adjustment behaviors and their effects in the short-term and those in the long-term.

Findings support the notion that gendered roles relating to work and the family are dynamic across the life span. My study of older workers revealed more evidence of men's well-being being compromised by high engagement in the family and more evidence of women benefitting from high engagement at work. These unexpected findings suggest that gender roles among middle-aged and older adults may differ from gender roles among younger adults. For instance, if transitions to parenthood reinforce traditional gender roles, then it is possible that men and women who are parents of adult children may experience weaker gendered norms governing work and the family. This may allow women to invest themselves in work and men in the family, roles that had been "elusive" in early adulthood. Thus, my study suggests that gender roles are more dynamic across the life than generally postulated, and that gender role theory should be more explicit about women and men's stages of adulthood.

Gender theory's major tenets remain useful in understanding how older men and women respond to multiple roles. Overall, compared to older working men with family roles, women counterparts more actively assured that multiple roles did not interfere with each other. This finding is consistent with social arrangements wherein women assume primary responsibilities in the family, whose boundaries are porous, thus increasing the

chance of role conflict among women than among women, especially if women have little help to reduce it. Furthermore, older male workers and older female workers were reactive to different types of role conflict and different types of role enhancement, in line with gender roles. For example, lower psychological well-being resulted when working older women experienced work-to-family conflict but when working older men experienced family-to-conflict. These findings suggest that because of gendered social arrangements, men's self-standards are strongly tied to work and women's self-standards to the family, even when women and men have roles in both domains.

Study Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

I conducted my study with a number of limitations in mind, which may be overcome in future research. The most prominent limitation in my study relates to my sample containing cross-sectional data, leaving the potential for confounding aging effects with cohort effects, even though my relatively age-homogenous sample allowed me to eliminate some sources of heterogeneity or "noise." Specifically, comparisons between studies of younger workers and my study of older workers may reveal differences in cohorts rather than in aging. Likewise, gender differences I observed may be specific to the cohorts represented in my sample but less accurate for other birth cohorts. Future research can replicate my findings with different cohorts of older workers or address later-life role enhancement and conflict using longitudinal data of workers as their family roles change.

My cross-sectional data also limits my ability to determine the direction of causality among my variables of interest (role rewards/stressors, role enhancement and

conflict, and psychological well-being indicators). More specifically, although I posited that role rewards/stressors predict role enhancement/conflict, which predict well-being--relationships based on prior empirical and conceptual work—it is possible that as a resource, psychological well-being may make individuals more equipped to find ways to avoid role conflict. With longitudinal data, one could examine whether within-person changes in role enhancement/conflict are associated with within-person changes in psychological well-being. Such an approach can help to clarify the direction of causality.

Another limitation that could be addressed in future research is the types of role stressors and rewards in my study, which might have biased towards finding gender differences. For instance, for the parent of adult children role, negative interactions with adult children was a role stressor; yet, it is possible that another parent role stressor not included in my analyses may have influenced men's role enhancement more than women's role enhancement. For example, adult children's financial dependence may dampen role enhancement more strongly among men than among women. Future research can examine a different array of family rewards that may influence later-life work. For instance, adult children's "success" (e.g., with their job or marriage) may be examined as a stressor of parents in later life. Such research can expand our understanding of the types of rewards and stressors that are (or are not) pertinent to older workers' role enhancement and conflict. Such research would cast light on role factors relevant to holding multiple roles in later adulthood.

Another limitation of my study is the use of the gender category to measure family role salience and demands. Categorization as a man or a woman is only a proxy

for family demands or family role salience, even though gender category is associated with both (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). Nevertheless, with my use of gender category, I cannot determine whether gender differences in my study stem from women having higher family demands than men or from the higher family salience among women than among men, or another reason. To overcome this ambiguity, future research examining gender differences may seek measure family salience or demands directly.

Another fruitful direction for future research may be to use qualitative methodology to enhance our understanding of later-life role enhancement and conflict, especially to explore the unexpected findings in this study. For instance, older female and male workers could be interviewed for in-depth information about how women use rewards to curb role conflict. In addition, how older workers think about their multiple roles and aging may be explored, in their own words. Thus, such qualitative data can be a "follow-up" to this study and identify issues relevant to later-life role enhancement/conflict that have been omitted from prior research.

Summary and Conclusion

Family and work roles continue to be interdependent into later adulthood. Later-life family roles of spouse, parent of adult children, caregiver for an aging parent, and grandparent all have potential to influence the work role, and vice versa. By later adulthood, family and work roles are often enhancing each other. Such role enhancement is facilitated primarily because role stressors are low and partly because role rewards are high. Thus, multiple roles occupancy in later life seems to be primarily positive because individuals are able to maintain low role stress.

Multiple roles occupancy in later life can pose both opportunities and challenges to the psychological well-being of older workers. In later life, success in holding both roles can be a source of goal achievement and of perceived productivity, allowing individuals to perceive later adulthood as a positive phase in the life course. Indeed, role enhancement was a mechanism through which individuals with multiple roles perceived their aging. Nevertheless, holding multiple roles creates potential for role conflict and the co-existence of role conflict and role enhancement. How individuals respond to these role scenarios, that is, whether they can prevent a role from overwhelming another, create synergy between role rewards and demands, or capitalize on role enhancement, can have implications for their psychological well-being.

Gender roles assigning the family as the domain primarily of women and work as that of men were manifest in unique ways in later life. Women continued to exert more effort than men into assuring multiple roles are “balanced” and, thus, benefit psychologically more than men when such assurances are met. In this way, gender roles in later life were consistent with those in early life. Nevertheless, because family demands are lower, on average, in later life, both men and women’s work role also appears distinctive in later life: Men appear more engaged in paid work while women who are highly engaged in work reaped a psychological benefit. Notwithstanding the potential centrality of the work role for both men and women in later adulthood, the family—especially when its demands are high—were particularly salient to men, who may be ill-prepared for these demands. In this way, men appear more vulnerable to

family strain in later life than women are. Thus, the work role appears to present new opportunities for women whereas the family may present new risks for men.

In conclusion, experiences in multiple roles were not static, for either men or women, over the life span. In light of what prior studies have uncovered about younger workers with family roles, the family and work roles in later adulthood were distinctive from those in early life, making ways these two domains influence each other also distinctive from those prevalent in early life. Thus, experiences with multiple roles do evolve over the life course, uniquely for men and women.

APPENDIX A

TABLES

Table A1. Analytic Sample's Role Occupancy, by Year and Gender

	2010				2012			
	Women (*n* = 1,691)		Men (*n* = 1,364)		Women (*n* = 1,438)		Men (*n* = 1,134)	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Spouse:								
Yes	1,078	63.7	1,121	82.2	886	61.6	898	79.2
No	611	36.1	242	17.7	552	38.4	235	20.7
Missing	2	0.1	1	0.1	0	0	1	0.1
Parent:								
Yes	1,502	88.8	1,203	88.2	1,352	94.0	1,067	94.1
No	99	5.9	70	5.1	17	1.2	18	1.6
Missing	90	5.3	91	6.7	69	4.8	49	4.3
Caregiver:								
Yes	416	24.6	235	17.2	299	20.8	172	15.2
No	478	28.3	390	28.6	392	27.3	316	27.9
Missing	797	47.1	739	54.2	747	51.9	646	57.0
Grandparent:								
Yes	1,161	68.7	891	65.3	1,019	70.9	791	69.8
No	261	15.4	244	17.9	9	0.6	5	0.4
Missing	269	15.9	229	16.8	410	28.5	338	29.8
Worker	1,691	100.0	1,364	100.0	1,438	100.0	1,134	100.0

Table A2. Percentiles of Care Demands Variables

	Personal care hours		Errand hours		Financial assistance dollar amount		Grandchild care hours	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1 - 30	1-24	1-38	1-33	1-1000	1-1,000	1-50	1-10
2	31-100	25-100	39-100	34-99	1001-,1600	1,001-2,000	51-100	11-60
3	101-350	101-200	101-200	100-120	1601-3,000	2,001-4,000	101-300	61-100
4	51-2,000	201-500	201-540	121-350	3,001-6,000	4,001-6,000	301-1,000	101-350
5	2,001-9,000	501-9,000	41-9,100	351-5,000	6,001-150,000	6,001-500,000	1,001-10,400	351-10,400

Notes. M = male, F = female.

Table A3. Measurement of Control Variables

Control Variables	Measurement (type of variable)
Demographics:	
Education	The number of formal education years completed (continuous)
Household income	The log of the total household income (using imputed values from the RAND HRS's data set) (continuous variable)
Race	Whites/Blacks/Other races (categorical variable)
Ethnicity	Hispanic/Non-Hispanic (dummy)
Chronological age	Age (continuous)
Other roles:	
Volunteer work	Whether an individual does either "volunteer work with children or young people" or "any other volunteer work" or both (regardless of the frequency of such work) (categorical variable)
Physical/psychological resources:	
Number of chronic illness	Sum of eight health conditions based on the question "Has a doctor ever told you that you have…[high blood pressure, heart problems, psychiatric problems, lung disease, stroke, arthritis, cancer, and diabetes]?" (continuous)
Perceived health	"Would you say your health is excellent, very good, good, fair, or poor?" (continuous) Response categories are: 1 = *excellent*, 2 = *very good*, 3 = *good*, 4 = *fair*, and 5 = *poor*.
Mastery	A five-item scale consisting of the following statements: "I can do just about anything I really set my mind to," "When I really want to do something, I usually find a way to succeed at it," "Whether or not I am able to get what I want is in my own hands," "What happens to me in the future mostly depends on me," and "I can do the things that I want to do." Response categories are: 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *somewhat disagree*, 3 = *slightly disagree*, 4 = *slightly agree*, 5 = *somewhat agree*, and 6 = *strongly agree*. An average of at least 3 statements was computed to denote level of mastery.

Table A4. Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables, by Gender and Year

	Women				Men			
	2010		2012		2010		2012	
Variables (range of values)	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Psychological well-being:								
Positive aging self-perceptions (1-6)	4.24	1.13	4.26	1.17	4.24	1.09	4.20	1.12
Negative aging self-perceptions (1-6)	2.79	1.11	2.85	1.11	2.96	1.12	2.99	1.10
Life satisfaction (1-7)	4.93	1.54	4.89	1.50	4.93	1.47	4.77	1.48
Depressive symptoms (0-8)	1.19	1.75	1.08	1.68	0.83	1.38	0.88	1.43
Having any depressive symptoms (%)	49.08	—	45.97	—	39.81	—	44.00	—
Role enhancement:								
Work-to-family (1-4)	2.75	0.88	2.69	0.92	2.80	0.84	2.71	0.85
Family-to-work (1-4)	3.18	0.82	3.07	0.85	3.20	0.79	3.17	0.77
Role conflict								
Work-to-family (1-4)	1.56	0.57	1.60	0.63	1.56	0.56	1.59	0 .59
Family-to-work (1-4)	1.16	0.32	1.20	0.36	1.17	0.35	1.18	0 .36
Role rewards:								
Spouse social support (1-4)	3.38	0.68	0.68	3.42	3.59	0.56	3.56	0 .54
Adult children social support (1-4)	3.26	0.69	0.70	3.29	3.04	0.78	3.06	0 .80
Perceived past closeness with mother (1-5)	3.93	1.27	1.29	3.98	4.29	1.10	4.34	1.07
Sibling level of help (0-2)	0.31	0.56	0.31	0.55	0.37	0.61	0.42	0.64
Grandparent activities frequency (0-6)	2.49	1.96	2.64	1.95	2.21	1.81	2.27	1.85
Work satisfaction (1-4)	2.92	0.51	2.89	0.56	2.99	0.52	2.95	0.54
Role stressors:								
Spouse negative interactions (1-4)	2.01	0.70	1.98	0.69	1.94	0.67	1.93	0.65
Negative interactions with adult children (1-4)	1.84	0.66	1.81	0.65	1.75	0.62	1.73	0.65
Work stressor index (1-4)	2.13	0.60	2.11	0.63	2.12	0.56	2.17	0.58
Work hours/time demands	33.89	14.83	33.54	14.06	38.33	15.72	38.01	15.48
Control variables:								
Age (in 2010)	57.66	8.17	59.54	8.03	61.20	8.48	61.69	8.44
White race, non-Hispanic (%)	66.29	—	63.49	—	73.77	—	68.55	—
Black race, non-Hispanic (%)	18.86	—	19.82	—	12.25	—	14.24	—
Other race, non-Hispanic (%)	3.49	—	3.89	—	2.93	—	3.71	—
Hispanic ethnicity (%)	11.35	—	12.66	—	11.01	—	13.35	—
Education years	13.99	7.05	13.84	6.53	14.21	7.86	14.42	9.25
Logged household income	8.62	3.18	10.97	0.99	11.20	.90	11.16	0.91
Number of chronic illness (0-8)	1.48	1.24	1.55	1.30	1.46	1.30	1.59	1.27
Perceived health (1-5)	2.46	0.96	2.48	0.98	2.48	0.98	2.52	0.94
Volunteer status (%)	63.81	—	63.84	—	61.05	—	62.26	—
Mastery (1-6)	4.94	1.05	4.91	1.08	4.95	1.00	4.92	1.02

Table A5. Model Fit Indices for Path Models Relating Role Rewards/Stressors to Role Enhancement/Conflict

Models	AIC	Sample-sized Adjusted BIC	Chi-Square	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Hypothesized model							
without controls	184,899.24	185,300.34	1,484.27	0.09	0.81	0.72	0.07
with controls	364,637.66	366,013.87	1,070.26	0.07	0.88	0.65	0.03
Alternate model							
without controls	181,588.56	182,055.37	0.00	.00	1.00	1.00	0.00
with controls	366,047.31	367,651.73	0.00	.00	1.00	1.00	0.00
Trimmed model							
without controls	114,691.41	115,023.37	111.38	0.05	0.99	0.93	0.02
with controls	342,578.94	343,882.53	113.12	0.03	0.99	0.96	0.01

Notes. Trimmed models exclude sibling help, grandparent activities, and work hours as predictors of work-to-family enhancement and conflict. Control variables were: education, logged income, race/ethnicity, age, volunteer status, perceived health, chronic conditions, and mastery. N = 5,628.

Table A6. Path Coefficients of Role Rewards and Stressors on Four Types of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict

	Role enhancement				Role conflict			
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family	
Variables	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards								
Spouse	0.20***	0.02	0.05*	0.02	-0.06***	0.01	-0.01	0.02
Parent	0.07***	0.02	0.06***	0.02	-0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.01
Caregiver								
Perceived past closeness	0.02**	0.01	0.01	0.01	-0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.02
Sibling help	-0.04	0.03	0.00	0.03	-0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.01
Grandparent activities	-0.00	0.01	-0.00	0.01	-0.00	0.00	-0.02***	0.02
Job satisfaction	0.27***	0.02	0.45***	0.02	-0.02*	0.01	-0.17***	0.01
Role stressors								
Spouse	-0.11***	0.02	-0.03	0.02	0.04***	0.01	0.05***	0.02
Adult children	-0.08***	0.02	-0.05*	0.02	0.07***	0.01	0.07***	0.01
Caregiver no. of help	-0.04	0.02	-0.02	0.02	0.03***	0.01	0.01	0.01
Grandchild involvement	-0.06***	0.02	-0.06**	0.02	-0.01	0.01	-0.03**	0.01
Work stress	-0.14***	0.02	-0.34***	0.02	0.08***	0.01	0.37***	0.01
Work hours	0.00	0.00	-0.01***	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01***	0.00

*p < .05. **p < .10. ***p < .001.

Table A7. Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Positive Self-Perceptions on Aging

	Role Enhancement				Role conflict				Total indirect effects		Total direct effects of rewards/ stressors		Total effects	
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family							
Variables	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards														
Spouse	0.02***	0.01	0.01***	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.04***	0.01	0.11***	0.03	0.15***	0.03
Adult children	0.01**	0.00	0.01***	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02***	0.01	0.09***	0.02	0.11***	0.02
Caregiver Perceived past closeness	0.00*	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01 ***	0.00	0.03*	0.01	0.03**	0.01
Sibling help	0.02***	0.01	0.03***	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01*	0.00	0.07***	0.01	-0.01	0.04	0.06	0.04
Grandparent activities	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00*	0.00	0.01**	0.00	-0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Job satisfaction	0.03***	0.01	0.07***	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01*	0.01	0.11***	0.01	0.26***	0.03	0.38***	0.03
Role stressors														
Spouse	-0.01**	0.00	-0.01*	0.00	-0.01	0.00	-0.01*	0.00	-0.03***	0.01	-0.16***	0.03	-0.19***	0.03
Adult children	-0.01***	0.00	-0.01***	0.00	-0.01	0.00	-0.01*	0.00	-0.03**	0.01	-0.04	0.03	-0.07**	0.03
Caregiver no. of help	-0.02***	0.01	-0.03***	0.01	-0.01	0.00	-0.01*	0.00	-0.06***	0.01	0.06*	0.03	-0.00	0.03
Grandparent involvement	-0.01**	0.00	-0.02**	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.03***	0.01	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.03
Work stress	-0.01***	0.00	-0.05**	0.01	-0.01	0.00	-0.03*	0.01	-0.10***	0.01	0.10***	0.03	-0.01	0.03
Work hours	0.00	0.00	-0.00***	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.00*	0.00	-0.00***	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00

Notes. All control variables were included. N = 5,628.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table A8. Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Negative Self-Perceptions on Aging

	Role enhancement				Role conflict				Total indirect effects		Total direct effects of rewards/ stressors		Total effects	
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family							
Variables	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards														
Spouse	-0.01*	0.01	-0.01	0.01	0.01***	0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.03***	0.01	-0.05	0.03	-0.08**	0.03
Adult children	-0.00*	0.00	-0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.01**	0.00	-0.07***	0.02	-0.08***	0.02
Caregiver														
Perceived past closeness	-0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.01	-0.01**	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01
Sibling help	-0.01**	0.01	-0.01	0.01	-0.01***	0.00	-0.02***	0.01	-0.05***	0.01	0.06**	0.04	0.01	0.04
Grandparent activities	-0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.00***	0.00	-0.01**	0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.01
Job satisfaction	-0.02**	0.01	-0.02	0.01	-0.01	0.00	-0.03***	0.01	-0.07***	0.10	-0.21***	0.03	-0.28***	0.03
Role stressors														
Spouse	0.01**	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01***	0.00	0.01***	0.00	0.03***	0.01	0.07*	0.03	0.10***	0.03
Adult children	0.01*	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02***	0.00	0.01***	0.00	0.04***	0.01	0.08**	0.03	0.01**	0.03
Caregiver no. of help	0.01**	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.02***	0.00	0.02***	0.00	0.05***	0.01	-0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03
Grandparent involvement	0.01*	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	0.01*	0.00	0.016*	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.03
Work stress	0.01*	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02***	0.00	0.07***	0.01	0.01***	0.01	0.13***	0.03	0.24***	0.04
Work hours	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00***	0.00	0.00***	0.00	-0.01***	0.00	-0.00**	0.00

Notes. All control variables were included. N = 5,628.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table A9. Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Life Satisfaction

	Role enhancement				Role conflict								
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Total indirect effects		Total direct effects of role rewards/ stressors		Total effects
Variables	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards														
Spouse	0.03***	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01***	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.05***	0.01	0.39***	0.04	0.42***	0.04
Adult children	0.01*	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02**	0.01	0.19***	0.03	0.20***	0.03
Caregiver														
Perceived past closeness	0.00*	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01**	0.00	0.07***	0.02	0.08***	0.02
Sibling help	0.03***	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01**	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.06***	0.01	-0.07	0.05	-0.05	0.05
Grandparent activities	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00*	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Job satisfaction	0.04***	0.01	0.03	0.02	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.08***	0.01	0.57***	0.04	0.64***	0.04
Role stressors														
Spouse	-0.02***	0.01	-0.00	0.00	-0.01**	0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.03***	0.01	-0.31***	0.04	-0.34***	0.04
Adult children	-0.01***	0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.01**	0.01	-0.00	0.00	-0.03***	0.00	-0.04	0.03	-0.07*	0.03
Caregiver no. of help	-0.03***	0.01	-0.01	0.01	-0.01**	0.01	-0.00	0.00	-0.05***	0.01	0.00	0.04	-0.06	0.04
Grandparent involvement	-0.02**	0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.02**	0.01	-0.01	0.04	-0.03	0.04
Work stress	-0.02***	0.01	-0.02	0.01	-0.02**	0.01	-0.01	0.02	-0.07***	0.02	0.15***	0.04	0.10*	0.04
Work hours	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.00*	0.00	-0.00*	0.00	-0.00**	0.00

Notes. All control variables were included. N = 5,628.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table A10. Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Depressive Symptoms

	Role enhancement				Role conflict								
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Total indirect effects		Total direct effects of role rewards/ stressors		Total effects
Variables	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards														
Spouse	-0.08**	0.03	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	-0.09**	0.04	-0.18	0.12	-0.27*	0.12
Adult children	-0.02	0.01	-0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.01	-0.00	0.01	-0.03	0.02	0.03	0.08	0.00	0.08
Caregiver														
Perceived past closeness	-0.02*	0.01	-0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.01	-0.00	0.00	-0.03*	0.01	-0.09	0.05	-0.11*	0.05
Sibling help	-0.01	0.02	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.00	-0.03	0.03	0.14	0.11	0.10	0.11
Grandparent activities	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.01	0.01	0.03	-0.01	0.04
Job satisfaction	-0.06*	0.02	-0.05	0.04	0.02	0.02	-0.07***	0.03	-0.16***	0.07	-0.07	0.15	-0.23	0.13
Role stressors														
Spouse	0.02	0.02	-0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.06	0.10	0.02	0.10
Adult children	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.04**	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.07*	0.03	-0.02	0.01	-0.05	0.10
Caregiver no. of help	-0.01	0.01	-0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.08
Grandparent involvement	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.01	-0.00	0.01	-0.00	0.03	-0.05	0.10	-0.05	0.10
Work stress	0.06**	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.05*	0.02	0.07*	0.03	0.21***	0.06	-0.11	0.13	0.10	0.11
Work hours	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	0.00*	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.01	-0.00	0.00

Notes. Depressive symptoms were specified as 0 symptoms or 1 or more symptoms, and values represent probit regression coefficients. All control variables were included. N = 5,628.

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

Table A11. Interactive Effects of Role Enhancement and Conflict on Psychological Well-Being

Variables	Positive aging self-perceptions		Negative aging self-perceptions		Life satisfaction		Depressive symptoms	
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
1. Interaction: Family-to-work	0.07	0.04	**0.15*** **	0.04	0.08	0.06	0.02	0.08
Family-to-work enhancement[a]	0.09***	0.02	-0.05*	0.02	0.13***	0.03	-0.11**	0.04
Work-to-family enhancement	-0.14***	0.02	-0.02	0.02	0.04	0.03	-0.00	0.23
Family-to-work conflict[b]	0.03	0.05	0.28***	0.05	-0.04	0.07	0.10	0.73
Work-to-family conflict	-0.08*	0.03	0.18***	0.03	-0.01	0.04	0.17	0.57
2. Interaction: Work-to-family	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	**0.08***	0.04	0.01	0.03
Family-to-work enhancement	0.09***	0.02	-0.05*	0.02	0.13***	0.03	0.11***	0.03
Work-to-family enhancement[a]	-0.14***	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.03
Family-to-work conflict	0.09	0.05	-0.20***	0.05	-0.13*	0.06	-0.15**	0.05
Work-to-family conflict[b]	-0.06	0.04	0.20***	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.21***	0.04
3. Interaction: Enhancement	**0.05***	0.01	-0.02	0.01	**0.03***	0.01	-0.01	0.01
Family-to-work enhancement[a]	0.08***	0.02	-0.04	0.02	0.07*	0.02	-0.38***	0.01
Work-to-family enhancement[b]	0.10***	0.02	-0.01	0.02	0.14***	0.03	-0.43***	0.01
Family-to-work conflict	-0.02	0.01	0.06***	0.01	-0.03	0.01	0.27***	0.01
Work-to-family conflict	-0.04*	0.02	0.09***	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.06***	0.01
4. Interaction: Conflict	0.08	0.05	-0.01	0.05	**0.16***	0.07	0.12	0.08
Family-to-work enhancement	0.09***	0.02	-0.05*	0.02	0.13*	0.03	-0.11***	0.03
Work-to-family enhancement	0.13***	0.02	-0.03	0.02	0.03	0.03	-0.01	0.03
Family-to-work conflict[a]	-0.13	0.05	0.21***	0.05	-0.20*	0.07	0.08	0.07
Work-to-family conflict[b]	-0.09*	0.03	0.18***	0.03	-0.03	0.04	0.20***	0.04

Notes. Under each interaction term (interaction terms 1-4), the superscripts “a” and “b” denote the variables that were multiplied to create the corresponding interaction term. Linear regression was used with models predicting positive self-perceptions on aging, negative self-perceptions on aging, and life satisfaction. Probit regression was used with models predicting depressive symptoms. Each regression model included only one interaction term and all four types of role enhancement and conflict. All role rewards/stressors and control variables were included in each model. N = 5,628. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table A12. Fit Indices for Latent Profile Analysis

Fit indices	Full sample
Sample-size adjusted BIC	
1 (k-1) versus 2 (k)	32,978.62
2 (k-1) versus 3 (k)	30,659.03
3 (k-1) versus 4 (k)	29,047.24
4 (k-1) versus 5 (k)	28,383.64
5 (k-1) versus 6 (k)	25,978.01
6 (k-1) versus 7 (k)	24,982.21
Vuong-Lo-Mendell-Rubin LRT (*p* value)	
1 (k-1) versus 2 (k)	4,240.92 ($p < .001$)
2 (k-1) versus 3 (k)	3,151.65 ($p < .001$)
3 (k-1) versus 4 (k)	3,037.99 ($p < .001$)
4 (k-1) versus 5 (k)	690.27 ($p < .001$)
5 (k-1) versus 6 (k)	2,576.81 ($p < .05$)
6 (k-1) versus 7 (k)	1,983.48 ($p < .001$)
Vuong-Lo-Mendell Rubin adjusted LRT (*p* value)	
1 (k-1) versus 2 (k)	4,143.57 ($p < .001$)
2 (k-1) versus 3 (k)	3,079.30 ($p < .001$)
3 (k-1) versus 4 (k)	2,968.25 ($p < .001$)
4 (k-1) versus 5 (k)	674.43 ($p < .001$)
5 (k-1) versus 6 (k)	2,517.66 ($p < .05$)
6 (k-1) versus 7 (k)	1,960.44 ($p < .001$)
Bootstrapped LRT	
1 (k-1) versus 2 (k)	4,240.92 ($p < .001$)
2 (k-1) versus 3 (k)	3,151.65 ($p < .001$)
3 (k-1) versus 4 (k)	3,037.99 ($p < .001$)
4 (k-1) versus 5 (k)	690.27 ($p < .001$)
5 (k-1) versus 6 (k)	2,576.81 ($p < .001$)[a]
6 (k-1) versus 7 (k)	461.93 ($p < .001$)[a]
AIC	
1 (k-1) versus 2 (k)	32,935.26
2 (k-1) versus 3 (k)	30,599.00
3 (k-1) versus 4 (k)	28,970.54
4 (k-1) versus 5 (k)	28,290.27
5 (k-1) versus 6 (k)	25,867.96
6 (k-1) versus 7 (k)	24,855.49
Entropy	
1 (k-1) versus 2 (k)	.78
2 (k-1) versus 3 (k)	.84
3 (k-1) versus 4 (k)	.88
4 (k-1) versus 5 (k)	.87
5 (k-1) versus 6 (k)	.92
6 (k-1) versus 7 (k)	.93

Notes. The 7-group solution has 0 cases for one of the seven groups. $N = 4{,}976$
[a]Bootstrapped LRT was unreplicated in some bootstrap draws.

Table A13. Demographics, Family Role Occupancy, and Physical/Psychological Resources, by Group Membership

	Dual Enhancement		Family Enhancement		Comparable Enhancement & Conflict		Work Conflict-Family Enhancement		Family-Conflict		F/χ^2
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	
Demographics											
Income	11.17	0.90	11.19	0.88	11.03	1.03	10.86	0.95	10.72	1.26	17.50***
Age	60.99	8.34	58.05	7.16	57.86	7.54	58.29	7.65	55.99	7.50	45.63***
Education	13.67	2.69	13.70	2.63	13.52	3.00	12.80	2.94	13.19	3.25	12.17***
White	.69	–	.72	–	.63	–	.60	–	.51	–	38.80***
Black	.15	–	.15	–	.15	–	.25	–	.27	–	34.97***
Other race	.03	–	.03	–	.07	–	.03	–	.05	–	20.11***
Hispanic	.12	–	.10	–	.15	–	.13	–	.16	–	10.07*
Family role occupancy		–		–		–		–		–	
Spouse role	.72	–	.72	–	.70	–	.64	–	.70	–	16.62**
Parent role	.97	–	.95	–	.94	–	.96	–	.94	–	10.63*
Grandparent role	.86	–	.81	–	.82	–	.91	–	.86	–	26.47***
Caregiver role	.53	–	.55	–	.64	–	.60	–	.90	–	22.64***
Volunteer role	.65	–	.65	–	.60	–	.56	–	.64	–	17.80***
Health											
Chronic conditions	1.42	1.23	1.47	1.25	1.50	1.28	1.60	1.30	1.67	1.22	2.75*
Perceived health	2.28	0.91	2.49	0.93	2.72	1.01	2.81	0.97	3.00	1.14	55.72***
Mastery	5.16	1.00	4.86	0.98	4.61	1.02	4.69	1.06	4.70	1.27	53.88***

Notes. F statistics/Chi-squares pertain to group membership differences for continuous/categorical variables. $N = 4{,}976$.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table A14. Means and Standard Deviations of Psychological Well-Being, by Group Membership

Groups	Positive self-perceptions on aging *M* (*SD*)	Negative self-perceptions on aging *M* (*SD*)	Life satisfaction *M* (*SD*)	Depressive symptoms Proportion with symptoms
Dual Enhancement	4.62 (1.01)	2.58 (1.06)	5.36 (1.34)	.34
Family-Enhancement	4.08 (1.04)	2.93 (1.04)	4.76 (1.41)	.47
Comparable Enhancement & Conflict	3.74 (1.17)	3.38 (1.11)	4.17 (1.57)	.66
Work Conflict-Family Enhancement	3.74 (1.19)	3.26 (1.14)	4.19 (1.58)	.63
Family-Conflict	3.55 (1.43)	3.50 (1.26)	3.57 (1.96)	.80
F/Chi-Square	143.66***	93.93***	134.69***	295.15***
Pairwise comparisons	1>2>3=4=5	1>2>3=4=5	1>2>3=4>5	1>2>3=4=5

Notes: *N* = 4,862 observations for positive self-perceptions on aging, 4,874 for negative self-perceptions on aging, 4,797 for life satisfaction, and 4,890 for depressive symptoms. *F* statistics/Chi-squares pertain to group membership differences for each gender. *F* statistics apply to positive self-perceptions on aging, negative self-perceptions on aging, and life satisfaction. Chi-square statistics pertain to depressive symptoms.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table A15. Regression Models for Psychological Well-Being with Group Memberships as Predictors

Groups	Positive self-perceptions on aging *B* (*SE*)	Negative self-perceptions on aging *B* (*SE*)	Life satisfaction *B* (*SE*)	Depressive symptoms *B* (*SE*)
Dual Enhancement	0.51 (0.05)***	-0.51 (0.05)***	0.73 (0.07)***	-0.54 (0.07)***
Family-Enhancement	0.17 (0.05)***	-0.28 (0.05)***	0.38 (0.07)***	-0.34 (0.07)**
Work Conflict-Family Enhancement	0.00 (0.06)	-0.15 (0.06)**	0.10 (0.09)*	-0.11 (0.09)
Family-Conflict	-0.17 (0.14)	0.08 (0.14)	-0.45 (0.20)	0.12 (0.19)
Comparable Enhancement & Conflict	Ref group	Ref group	Ref group	Ref group

Notes. All control variables were included in each of the four models. Parameters for depressive symptoms derive from probit regression; parameters for the other three outcomes derive from linear regression. N = 4,976.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table A16. Direct Effects of Role Reward/Stressors on Four Types of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict, Among Men

	Role enhancement				Role conflict			
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family	
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards								
Spouse	0.20	0.03	–		-0.08	0.02	–	
Adult children	0.09	0.02	0.09	0.02	–		–	
Caregiver								
Perceived past closeness	–		–		–		–	
Number of help from siblings	–		–		–		–	
Grandparent activities	–		–		–		–	
Job satisfaction	0.32	0.03	0.47	0.04	–		-0.20	0.02
Role stressors								
Spouse	-0.17	0.03	–		0.05	0.02	0.05	0.02
Adult children	–		–		0.06	0.01	0.07	0.02
Caregiver no. of help	–		–		0.04	0.02	–	
Grandchild involvement	-0.06	0.03	–		–		–	
Work stress	-0.08	0.03	-0.28	0.03	0.06	0.02	0.38	0.02
Work hours	–		-0.01	0.00	–		0.01	0.00

Notes: All control variables were included. All reported coefficients were significant at least at $p < .05$; omitted coefficients were not significant at $p < .05$. $n = 2{,}498$.

Table A17. Direct Effects of Role Reward/Stressors on Four Types of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict, Among Women

	Role enhancement				Role conflict			
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family	
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards								
Spouse	0.21	0.03	0.08	0.03	-0.05	0.01	–	
Adult children	–		–		–		–	
Caregiver								
Perceived past closeness	–		–		–		–	
Number of help from siblings	–		–		–		–	
Grandparent activities	–		–		–		-0.02	0.01
Job satisfaction	0.23	0.03	0.43	0.03	-0.04	0.01	-0.17	0.02
Role stressors								
Spouse	–		–		0.04	0.01	0.04	0.02
Adult children	-0.11	0.03	-0.06	0.02	0.08	0.01	0.06	0.02
Caregiver no. of help	–		–		0.04	0.01	–	
Grandchild involvement	–		-0.07	0.03	-		0.04	0.02
Work stress	-0.18	0.00	-0.37	0.03	0.10	0.01	0.36	0.02
Work hours	–		-0.01	0.00	–		0.01	0.00

Notes: All control variables were included. All reported coefficients were significant at least at $p < .05$; omitted coefficients were not significant at $p < .05$. $n = 3{,}129$.

Table A18. Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Positive Self-Perceptions on Aging, Among Men

	Role enhancement				Role conflict									
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Total indirect		Total direct		Total effects	
Variables	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards														
Spouse	0.02	0.01	–		0.01	0.01	–		0.04	0.01	0.15	0.05	0.19	0.05
Adult children	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.00	–		–		0.03	0.01	0.09	0.03	0.10	0.03
Caregiver														
Perceived past closeness	–		0.01	0.00	–		–		0.01	0.01	–		–	
Number of help from siblings	0.03	0.01	0.07	0.01	0.01	0.01	–		0.12	0.02	–		–	
Grandparent activities	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Job satisfaction	0.03	0.01	0.11	0.04	–		–		0.16	0.02	0.37	0.05	0.54	0.05
Role stressors														
Spouse	-0.02	0.01	-0.02	0.01	-0.01	0.01	–		-0.06	0.01	-0.13		-0.20	0.04
Adult children	–		–		-0.01	0.01	–		-0.04	0.01	–		–	
Caregiver no. of help	-0.02	0.01	-0.03	0.01	-0.02	0.01	–		-0.07	0.02	0.18	0.05	0.11	0.05
Grandchild involvement	-0.01	0.01	-0.03	0.01	–		–		-0.04	0.01	–		–	
Work stress	-0.01	0.01	-0.07	0.01	-0.02	0.01	–		-0.07	0.02	0.17	0.05	–	
Work hours	–		-0.00	0.00			–		-0.00	0.00	–		–	

Notes. All control variables were included. All reported coefficients were significant at least at $p < .05$; omitted coefficients were not significant at $p < .05$. $n = 2{,}498$.

Table A19. Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Positive Self-Perceptions on Aging, Among Women

	Role enhancement				Role conflict				Total indirect		Total direct		Total effects	
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family							
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards														
Spouse	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.01	–		–		0.06	0.01	0.12	0.04	0.19	0.04
Adult children	–		–		–		–		–		0.11	0.03	0.12	0.03
Caregiver														
Perceived past closeness	–		–		–		–		–		0.04	0.01	0.04	0.02
Number of help from siblings	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	–		–		0.05	0.01	–		–	
Grandparent activities	–		–		–		–		0.01	0.00	–			
Job satisfaction	0.03	0.01	0.05	0.00	–		0.02	0.01	0.10	0.01	0.25	0.04	0.40	0.04
Role stressors														
Spouse	–		–		–		–		–		-0.18	0.04	-0.19	0.04
Adult children	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.00	–		-0.01	0.00	-0.04	0.01				
Caregiver no. of help	-0.03	0.01	-0.02	0.01	–		-0.01	0.00	-0.06	0.01	–		–	
Grandchild involvement	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.01	–		–		-0.03	0.01	–			
Work stress	-0.02	0.01	-0.04	0.01	–		-0.00	0.02	-0.10	0.02	0.08	0.04	–	
Work hours	–		-0.00	0.00	–		-0.00	0.01	-0.00	0.00	–		–	

Notes. All control variables were included. All reported coefficients were significant at least at $p < .05$; omitted coefficients were not significant at $p < .05$. $n = 3{,}129$.

Table A20. Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Negative Self-Perceptions on Aging, Among Men

	Role enhancement				Role conflict									
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Total indirect		Total direct		Total effects	
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards														
Spouse	–		–		-0.02	0.00	–		-0.03	0.01	-0.10	0.05	-0.13	0.05
Adult children	–		–		–		–		-0.01	0.01	–		–	
Caregiver														
Perceived past closeness	–		–		–		–		0.01	0.00	–		–	
Number of help from siblings	–		-0.03	0.01	-0.01	0.01	-0.04	0.01	-0.90	0.02	–		–	
Grandparent activities	–		–		–		-0.01	0.00	-0.01	0.00	–		–	
Job satisfaction	–		-0.05	0.02	–		-0.07	0.00	-0.14	0.02	-0.18	0.05	-0.32	0.05
Role stressors														
Spouse	–		–		0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.04	0.01	–		0.08	0.04
Adult children	–		–		0.02	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.04	0.01	0.10	0.04	0.15	0.04
Caregiver no. of help	–		–		0.02	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.06	0.01	–		–	
Grandchild involvement	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Work stress	–		0.03	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.11	0.02	0.09	0.02	0.14	0.00	0.20	0.04
Work hours	–		0.00	0.00	–		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.00	-0.00	0.00

Notes. All control variables were included. All reported coefficients were significant at least at $p < .05$; omitted coefficients were not significant at $p < .05$. $n = 2{,}498$.

Table A21. Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Negative Self-Perceptions on Aging, Among Women

	Role enhancement				Role conflict				Total indirect effects		Total direct effects		Total effects	
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family							
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards														
Spouse	-0.02	0.01	–		0.01	0.00	–		-0.04	0.01	–		-0.09	0.04
Adult children	–		–		–		–		–		-0.08	0.03	-0.09	0.03
Caregiver														
Perceived past closeness	–		–		–		–				–		–	
Number of help from siblings	–		–		-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.01	-0.00	0.00	–		–	
Grandparent activities	–		–		–		-0.00	0.00	–		–		–	
Job satisfaction	-0.02	0.01			–		-0.02	0.01	-0.05	0.01	-0.22	0.04	-0.27	0.04
Role stressors														
Spouse	–		–		0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.09	0.04	0.10	0.04
Adult children	0.01	0.01			-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.07	0.04	0.11	0.04
Caregiver no. of help	-0.02	0.01	–		-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.04	0.01	–		0.07	0.03
Grandchild involvement	–		–		–		–		0.01	0.01	–		–	
Work stress	-0.01	0.01	–		-0.01	0.01	-0.05	0.02	0.08	0.02	0.12	0.04	0.12	0.04
Work hours	–		–		–	–	-0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	-0.01		-0.01	0.00

Notes. All control variables were included. All reported coefficients were significant at least at $p < .05$; omitted coefficients were not significant at $p < .05$. $n = 3{,}129$.

Table A22. Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Life Satisfaction, Among Men

	Role enhancement				Role conflict				Total indirect effects		Total direct effects		Total effects	
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family							
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards														
Spouse	0.03	0.01	–		–		–		0.05	0.01	0.44	0.06	0.48	0.06
Adult children	0.02	0.01	–		–		–		0.02	0.01	0.13	0.04	0.15	0.04
Caregiver														
Perceived past closeness	–				–		–		0.01	0.00	0.08	0.02	0.09	0.02
Number of help from siblings	0.05	0.02	0.03	0.02	–		–		0.08	0.02	–		–	
Grandparent activities	–		–		–		–		–		–		0.04	0.02
Job satisfaction	0.10	0.02	–		–		–		0.11	0.02	0.57	0.06	0.70	0.06
Role stressors														
Spouse	-0.03	0.01	–		–		–		-0.05	0.01	-0.30	0.05	-0.35	0.05
Adult children	–		–		–		–		-0.02	0.01	–		–	
Caregiver no. of help	-0.03	0.01	–		–		–		-0.05	0.01	–		–	
Grandchild involvement	-0.02	0.01	–		–		–		-0.03	0.01	–		–	
Work stress	-0.02	0.01	-0.03	0.01	–		–		-0.06	0.03	–		–	
Work hours	–		-0.00	0.01	–		–		-0.00		–		–	

Notes. All control variables were included. All reported coefficients were significant at least at $p < .05$; omitted coefficients were not significant at $p < .05$. n = 2,498.

Table A23. Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Life Satisfaction, Among Women

	Role enhancement				Role conflict				Total indirect		Total direct		Total effects	
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family							
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Role rewards														
Spouse	0.04	0.05	–		0.01	0.05	–		0.05	0.01	0.38	0.05	0.43	0.05
Adult children	–		–		–		–		–		0.16	0.04	0.17	0.04
Caregiver														
Perceived past closeness	–		–		–		–		–		0.09	0.02	0.09	0.04
Number of help from siblings	–		–		–		–		0.04	0.01	–		–	
Grandparent activities	–		–		–		–		–	–	–		–	
Job satisfaction	0.03	0.01	–		–		–		0.06	0.02	0.6	0.06	0.63	0.05
Role stressors														
Spouse	–		–		–		–		-0.02	0.01	-0.30	0.05	-0.32	0.05
Adult children	-0.02	0.01	–		-0.02	0.01	–		-0.04	0.01	-0.12	0.05	-0.16	0.05
Caregiver	-0.03	0.01	–		-0.01	0.01	–		-0.05	0.01	–		-0.13	0.04
no. of help														
Grandchild involvement	-0.01	0.01	–		–		–		-0.02	0.01	–		–	
Work stress	-0.02	0.01	–		-0.01	0.01	–		-0.07	0.02	0.18	0.05	0.12	0.05
Work hours	–		–				–		–		–		–	

Notes. All control variables were included. All reported coefficients were significant at least at $p < .05$; omitted coefficients were not significant at $p < .05$. $n = 3{,}129$.

Table A24. Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Depressive Symptoms, Among Men

	Role enhancement				Role conflict									
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Total indirect		Total direct		Total effects	
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards														
Spouse	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Adult children	–		–		–		–		-0.08†	0.04	–		–	
Caregiver	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Perceived past closeness	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Number of help from siblings	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Grandparent activities	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Job satisfaction	–		–		–		-0.21	0.06	-0.30	0.11	–		-0.41	0.20
Role stressors														
Spouse	–		–		0.06†	0.03	–		–		–		–	
Adult children	–		–		–		–				-0.27†	0.15	–	
Caregiver no. of help	–		–		–		–		–		–		0.25†	0.15
Granddchild involvement	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Work stress	–		–				–0.11	0.04	0.18	0.06	–		–	
Work hours	–		–		–		0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	-0.02	0.01	–	

Notes. All control variables were included. Because the majority of the sample did not have any depressive symptoms, gender-specific samples also reflect this low prevalence of depressive symptoms. Therefore, coefficients reported were significant at either $p < 0.10$ or $p < .05$. $n = 2{,}498$.
†$p < .10$.

Table A25. Mediation Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Depressive Symptoms, Among Women

	Role enhancement				Role conflict				Total indirect		Total direct		Total effects	
	Family-to-work		Work-to-family		Family-to-work		Work-to-family							
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Role rewards	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Spouse	-0.09	0.03	–		–		–		-0.13	0.05	–		–	
Adult children	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Caregiver														
Perceived past closeness	-0.02†	0.01	–		–		–		–		-0.12	0.05	-0.14	0.05
Number of help from siblings	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Grandparent activities	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Job satisfaction	-0.04†	0.02	-0.07	0.04	-0.08	0.04	–		-0.18	0.07	–		–	
Role stressors														
Spouse	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Adult children	0.04†	0.02	–		–		0.03†	0.02	0.10	0.04	–		–	
Caregiver no. of help	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Grandchild involvement	–		–		–		–		–		–		–	
Work stress	0.06	0.02	0.04†	0.02	0.06	0.02	0.03†	0.02	0.18	0.05	-0.20†	0.11	–	
Work hours	–		–		–		0.01	0.00	0.01†	0.00	–		–	

Notes. All control variables were included. Because the majority of the sample did not have any depressive symptoms, gender-specific samples also reflect this low prevalence of depressive symptoms. Therefore, coefficients reported were significant at either $p < 0.10$ or $p < .05$. $n = 3{,}129$.
†$p < .10$.

Table A26. Interactive Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Psychological Well-Being, Among Men

	Positive self-perceptions on aging		Negative self-perceptions on aging		Life satisfaction		Depressive symptoms	
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
1. Interaction: Family-to-work	0.11	0.06	**0.19*** **	0.06	**0.18***	0.08	-0.35	0.43
Family-to-work enhancement[a]	0.09*	0.04	-0.03	0.04	0.15**	0.05	-0.19	0.18
Work-to-family enhancement	0.19***	0.04	-0.07	0.04	0.08	0.05	0.06	0.16
Family-to-work conflict[b]	-0.11	0.07	0.34***	0.07	0.02	0.09	0.21	0.35
Work-to-family conflict	-0.08	0.05	0.26***	0.05	0.02	0.06	0.54*	0.21
2. Interaction: Work-to-family	0.03	0.04	-0.01	0.04	0.05	0.05	-0.06	0.22
Family-to-work enhancement	0.09*	0.04	-0.03	0.04	0.16***	0.05	-0.19	0.18
Work-to-family enhancement[a]	0.19***	0.04	-0.07	0.04	0.07	0.05	0.07	0.15
Family-to-work conflict	-0.17*	0.07	0.26***	0.07	-0.09	0.09	0.35	0.33
Work-to-family conflict[b]	-0.06	0.05	0.26***	0.05	0.05	0.07	0.52*	0.22
3. Interaction: Enhancement	0.06	0.03	**0.08*** **	0.03	-0.00	0.04	-0.02	0.08
Family-to-work enhancement[a]	0.12*	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.16**	0.05	-0.41***	0.03
Work-to-family enhancement[b]	0.16***	0.04	-0.09*	0.04	0.07	0.05	-0.55***	0.03
Family-to-work conflict	-0.15*	0.07	0.26***	0.07	-0.09	0.09	0.98***	0.09
Work-to-family conflict	-0.08	0.05	0.26***	0.05	0.03	0.06	0.11**	0.03
4. Interaction: Conflict	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.07	**0.18***	0.09	0.04	0.05
Family-to-work enhancement	0.07	0.04	-0.02	0.04	0.15**	0.05	-0.08*	0.04
Work-to-family enhancement	0.17***	0.04	-0.06	0.04	0.06	0.05	-0.04	0.04
Family-to-work conflict[a]	-0.23**	0.08	0.22*	0.08	-0.19	0.10	0.13	0.08
Work-to-family conflict[b]	-0.09	0.05	0.26***	0.05	0.01	0.06	0.24***	0.05

Notes. Under each interaction term (interaction terms 1-4), the superscripts a and b denote the variables that were multiplied to create the corresponding interaction term. Parameters for depressive symptoms derived from probit regression; parameters for the other three outcomes derived from linear regression. All control variables were included. n = 2,498.

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

Table A27. Interactive Effects of Role Enhancement and Role Conflict on Psychological Well-Being, Among Women

	Positive self-perceptions on aging		Negative self-perceptions on aging		Life satisfaction		Depressive symptoms	
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
1. Interaction: Family-to-work	0.07	0.06	0.11	0.06	-0.02	0.08	**-0.77****	0.28
Family-to-work enhancement[a]	0.09**	0.03	-0.07*	0.03	0.10*	0.04	-0.26*	0.11
Work-to-family enhancement	0.10**	0.03	0.01	0.03	-0.00	0.04	-0.01	0.11
Family-to-work conflict[b]	0.06	0.08	0.21**	0.08	-0.05	0.10	-0.20	0.27
Work-to-family conflict	-0.10*	0.04	0.12**	0.04	-0.07	0.06	0.20	0.17
2. Interaction: Work-to-family	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.04	**0.11***	0.05	0.06	0.15
Family-to-work enhancement	0.09*	0.03	-0.06	0.03	0.11**	0.04	-0.27*	0.11
Work-to-family enhancement[a]	0.10*	0.03	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.11
Family-to-work conflict	0.01	0.06	0.15*	0.06	-0.11	0.08	0.07	0.23
Work-to-family conflict[b]	-0.08	0.05	0.15**	0.05	0.01	0.06	0.24	0.19
3. Interaction: Enhancement	0.05	0.03	**-0.07****	0.03	**0.11****	0.04	-0.02	0.04
Family-to-work enhancement[a]	0.11**	0.04	-0.10**	0.03	0.15**	0.05	-0.47***	0.02
Work-to-family enhancement[b]	0.09**	0.03	0.02	0.03	-0.02	0.04	-0.48***	0.02
Family-to-work conflict	0.01	0.06	0.15*	0.06	-0.12	0.08	0.67***	0.09
Work-to-family conflict	-0.10*	0.04	0.12**	0.04	-0.07	0.06	0.12***	0.03
4. Interaction: Conflict	0.06	0.08	-0.13	0.07	0.11	0.10	-0.04	0.06
Family-to-work enhancement	0.09*	0.03	-0.06*	0.03	0.10*	0.04	-0.11**	0.03
Work-to-family enhancement	0.10*	0.03	0.01	0.03	-0.00	0.04	0.01	0.03
Family-to-work conflict[a]	-0.03	0.07	0.20**	0.07	-0.13	0.10	-0.07	0.06
Work-to-family conflict[b]	-0.11*	0.04	0.14**	0.0	-0.08	0.06	0.20***	0.04

Notes. Under each interaction term (interaction terms 1-4), the superscripts a and b denote the variables that were multiplied to create the corresponding interaction term. Parameters for depressive symptoms derived from probit regression; parameters for the other three outcomes derived from linear regression. All control variables were included. n = 3,129.

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

Table A28. Fit Indices for Latent Profile Analysis, by Gender

	Male *n* = 2,170	Female *n* = 2,805
Sample-size adjusted BIC		
1 (k-1) versus 2 (k)	14,303.35	18,668.13
2 (k-1) versus 3 (k)	13,251.77	17350.08
3 (k-1) versus 4 (k)	12,513.99	16,440.66
4 (k-1) versus 5 (k)	12,250.60	16,053.62
5 (k-1) versus 6 (k)	11,977.15	15,718.03
6 (k-1) versus 7 (k)	10,969.51	13,327.88
Vuong-Lo-Mendell-Rubin LRT (2x LL Dff)		
1 (k-1) versus 2 (k)	1,594.39 ($p < .001$)	2,656.62 ($p < .001$)
2 (k-1) versus 3 (k)	1,594.39 ($p < .001$)	1,912.72 ($p < .02$)
3 (k-1) versus 4 (k)	760.31 ($p < .03$)	933.23 ($p < .001$)
4 (k-1) versus 5 (k)	285.92 ($p < .06$)	410.85 ($p < .02$)
5 (k-1) versus 6 (k)	296.43 ($p < .05$)	429.00 ($p < .004$)
6 (k-1) versus 7 (k)	751.75 ($p < .001$)	-116.71 ($p < .668$)
Vuong-Lo-Mendell Rubin adjusted LRT *p* value		
1 (k-1) versus 2 (k)	1,553.94 ($p < .001$)	2,591.34 ($p < .001$)
2 (k-1) versus 3 (k)	1,553.94 ($p < .001$)	1,865.72 ($p < .02$)
3 (k-1) versus 4 (k)	741.01 ($p < .03$)	910.30 ($p < .001$)
4 (k-1) versus 5 (k)	278.67 ($p < .07$)	400.75 ($p < .02$)
5 (k-1) versus 6 (k)	288.91 ($p < .06$)	418.46 ($p < .001$)
6 (k-1) versus 7 (k)	742.09 ($p < .001$)	-114.30 ($p < .67$)
Bootstrapped LRT		
1 (k-1) versus 2 (k)	1,594.39 ($p < .001$)	2,656.62 ($p < .001$)
2 (k-1) versus 3 (k)	1,594.39 ($p < .001$)	1,912.72 ($p < .001$)
3 (k-1) versus 4 (k)	760.31 ($p < .001$)	933.23 ($p < .001$)
4 (k-1) versus 5 (k)	285.92 ($p < .001$)	410.85 ($p < .001$)
5 (k-1) versus 6 (k)	675.22 ($p < .001$)[b]	429.00 ($p < .001$)[a]
6 (k-1) versus 7 (k)	675.22 ($p < .001$)[b]	338.36 ($p < .001$)[a]
AIC		
1 (k-1) versus 2 (k)	14,270.78	18,632.23
2 (k-1) versus 3 (k)	13,206.68	17,300.36
3 (k-1) versus 4 (k)	12,456.37	16,377.14
4 (k-1) versus 5 (k)	12,180.45	15,976.29
5 (k-1) versus 6 (k)	11,894.47	15,626.89
6 (k-1) versus 7 (k)	10,874.31	13,222.93
Entropy		
1 (k-1) versus 2 (k)	.75	.78
2 (k-1) versus 3 (k)	.83	.84
3 (k-1) versus 4 (k)	.87	.88
4 (k-1) versus 5 (k)	.89	.87
5 (k-1) versus 6 (k)	.85	.85
6 (k-1) versus 7 (k)	.92	.93

Notes. The 7-group solution has 0 cases for one of the seven groups.
[a]Bootstrapped LRT was unreplicated in some bootstrap draws.
[b]Bootstrapped LRT was unreplicated in all 5 bootstrap draws.

Table A29. Means and Standard Deviations of Psychological Well-Being by Group Membership, by Gender

	Positive self-perceptions on aging *M* (*SD*)		Negative self-perceptions on aging *M* (*SD*)		Life satisfaction *M* (*SD*)		Depressive symptoms Proportion	
Groups	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Dual Enhance.	4.62 (0.94)	4.63 (1.06)	2.66 (1.03)	2.51 (1.07)	5.34 (1.30)	5.37 (1.38)	.30	.37
Family-Enhance.	4.03 (1.03)	4.12 (1.05)	3.01 (1.06)	2.86 (1.03)	4.64 (1.41)	4.86 (1.41)	.47	.47
Comparable Enhance.& Conflict	3.77 (1.15)	3.73 (1.18)	3.45 (1.11)	3.32 (1.10)	4.25 (1.56)	4.12 (1.57)	.63	.69
Work Conflict-Family Enhance.	3.66 (1.15)	3.79 (1.21)	3.46 (1.07)	3.13 (1.16)	3.98 (1.55)	4.33 (1.59)	.59	.65
Family-Conflict	3.73 (1.59)	3.43 (1.31)	3.88 (1.35)	3.24 (1.15)	3.90 (1.96)	3.33 (1.96)	.78	.81
F/Chi-Squares	68.28***	76.86***	46.47***	50.75***	63.65***	75.27***	134.16***	162.60***
Pairwise comparisons	1>2>3= 4=5	1>2>3= 4=5	1<2<3= 4=5	1<2<3= 4=5	1>2>3= 4>5	1>2>3= 4> 5	1<2<3=4 =5	1<2<3=4= 5

Notes. *F* statistics/Chi-squares indicate group membership differences within each gender, for each outcome. *F* statistics apply to positive self-perceptions on aging, negative self-perceptions on aging, and life satisfaction whereas chi-squares apply to depressive symptoms. M = Male, F = Female. *n* = 2,170 male observations and 2,805 female observations.

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

Table A30. Effects of Group Membership on Psychological Well-Being, by Gender

	Positive self-perceptions on aging		Negative self-perceptions on aging		Life satisfaction		Depressive symptoms	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Groups	*B* (*SE*)	*B* (*SE*)	*B* (*SE*)	*B* (*SE*)	*B* (*SE*)	*B* (*SE*)	*B* (*SE*)	*B* (*SE*)
Dual Enhancement	0.51*** (0.07)	0.50*** (0.06)	-0.52*** (0.07)	-0.51*** (0.06)	0.61***[a] (0.10)	0.83***[b] (0.09)	-0.56*** (0.11)	-0.51*** (0.09)
Family-Enhancement	0.13 (0.07)	0.19*** (0.06)	-0.30*** (0.07)	-0.27*** (0.06)	0.23*[a] (0.02)	0.52***[b] (0.09)	-0.29* (0.11)	-0.38*** (0.09)
Work Conflict-Family Enhancement	-0.09 (0.09)	0.05 (0.08)	-0.02 (0.09)	-0.23*** (0.08)	-0.18 [a] (0.15)	0.27*[b] (0.11)	-0.13 (0.14)	-0.11 (0.11)
Family-Conflict	-0.10 (0.21)	-0.19 (0.18)	0.50*[a] (0.21)	-0.20[b] (0.17)	-0.27 (0.30)	-0.60* (0.26)	0.23 (0.28)	0.05 (0.27)
Comparable Enhancement & Conflict	Ref group	Ref group	Ref group	Ref group	Ref group	Ref group	Ref group	Ref group

Notes. Parameters for depressive symptoms derived from probit regression; parameters for the other three outcomes derived from linear regression. All control variables were included. M = Male, F = Female. *n* = 2,170 male observations and 2,805 female observations.

[a b] Different subscripts indicate a significant difference between the male coefficient and the corresponding female coefficient.

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

APPENDIX B

FIGURES

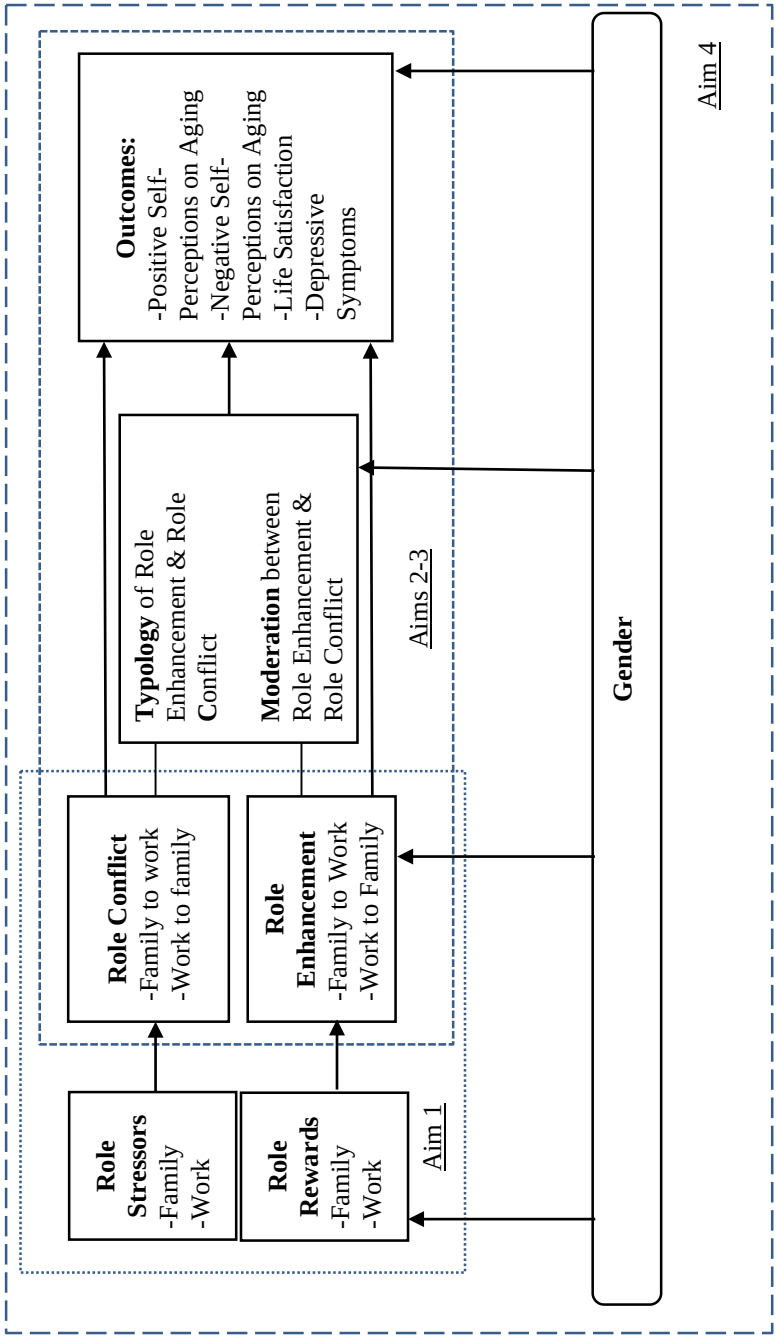


Figure B1. Research aims and hypothesized relationships.

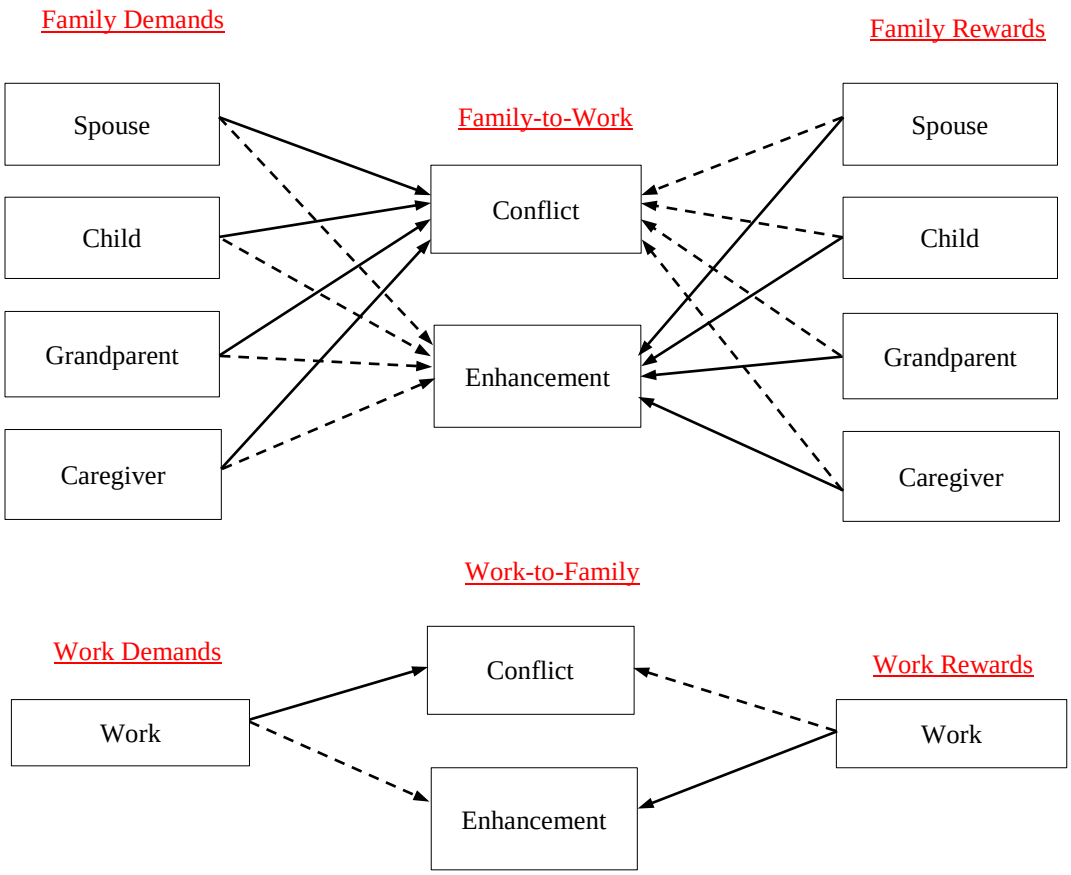


Figure B2. Aim 1 paths. Solid lines indicate hypothesized paths; dotted lines indicate alternative paths.

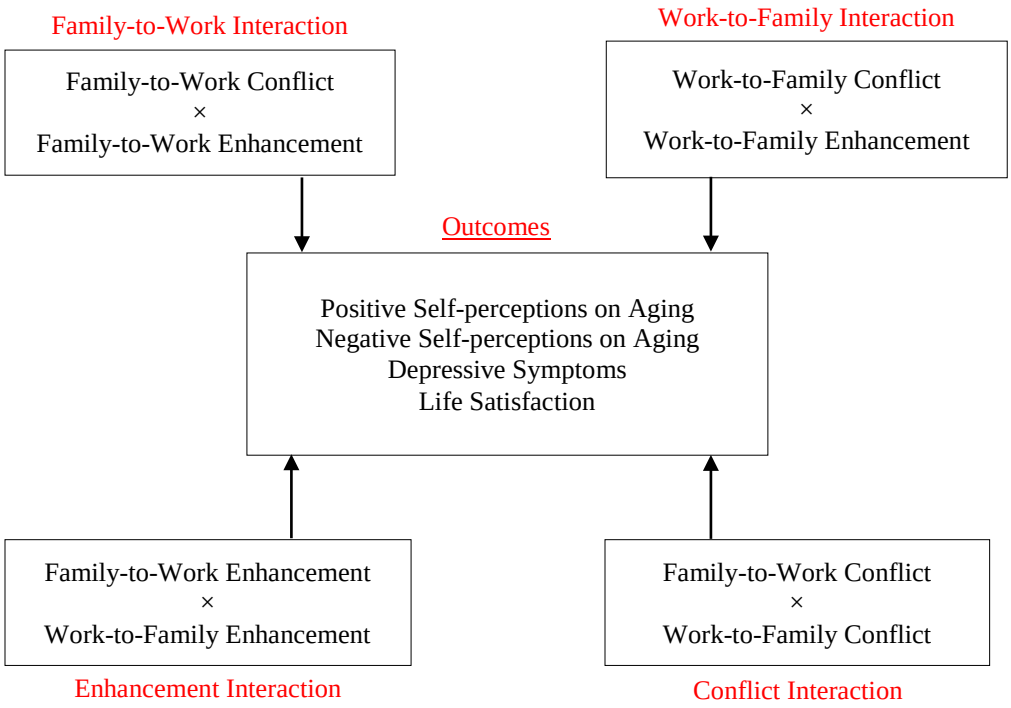


Figure B3. Aim 2 interaction hypotheses.

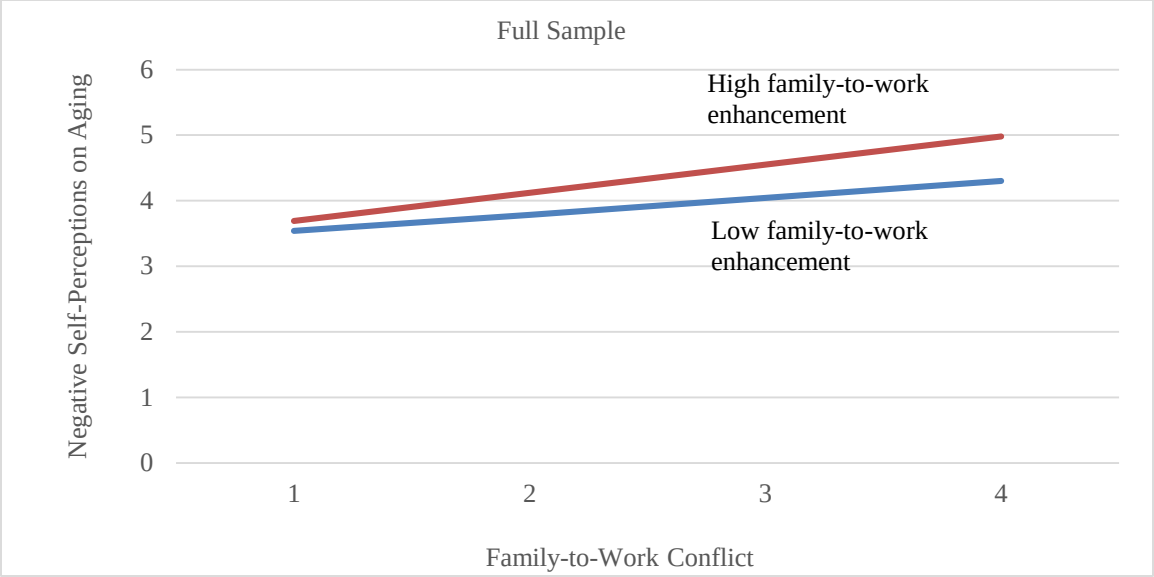


Figure B4. Interactive effects of family-to-work enhancement and family-to-work conflict on negative aging self-perceptions. The slope of the line "high family-to-work enhancement" (and the slope of the line "low family-to-work enhancement") represents the effect of family-to-work conflict on negative aging self-perceptions when family-to-work enhancement is above (and below) its mean. Control variables were: work-to-family conflict, work-to-family enhancement, all role rewards/stressors, demographic, physical/psychological resources, and mastery. *N* = 5,628 observations.

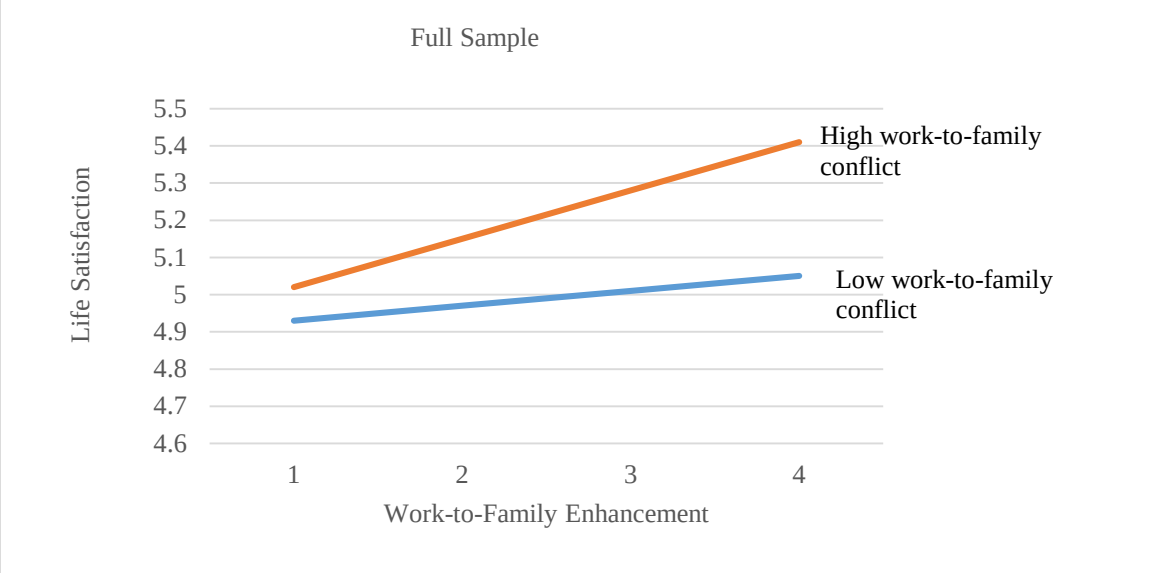


Figure B5. Interactive effects of work-to-family enhancement and work-to-family conflict on life satisfaction. The slope of the line "high family-to-work enhancement" (or the slope of the line "low level of family-to-work enhancement") represents the effect of family-to-work conflict on negative aging self-perceptions when family-to-work enhancement is above (or below) its mean. Control variables were: work-to-family conflict, work-to-family enhancement, all role rewards/stressors, demographic, physical/psychological resources, and mastery. *N* = 5,628 observations.

Figure B6. Interactive effects of work-to-family enhancement and family-to-work enhancement on life satisfaction and positive aging self-perceptions. *N* = 5,628 observations.

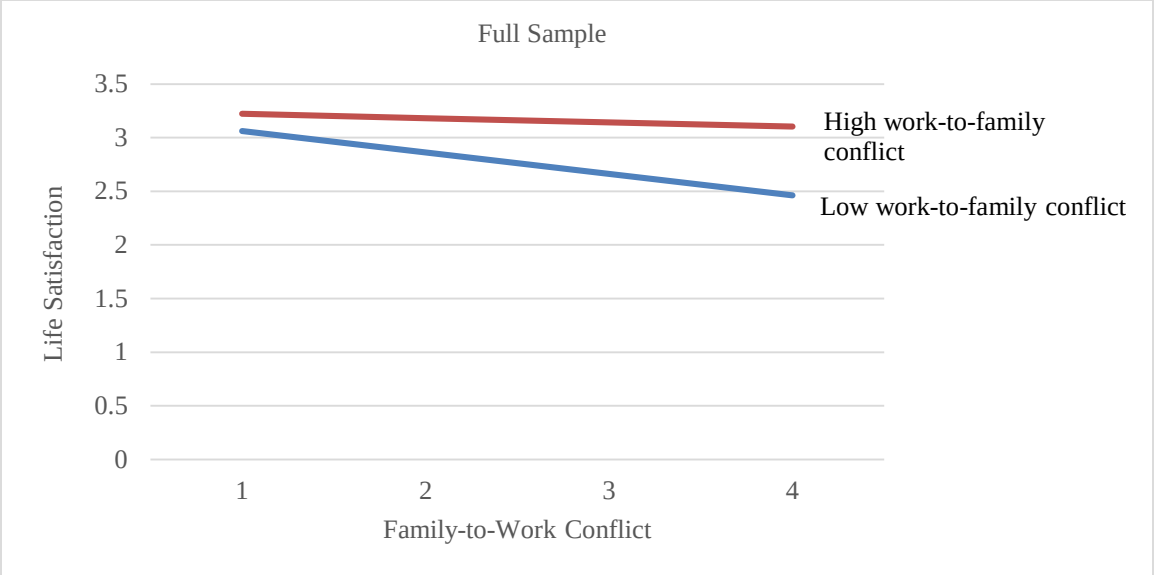


Figure B7. Interactive effects of work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict on life satisfaction.

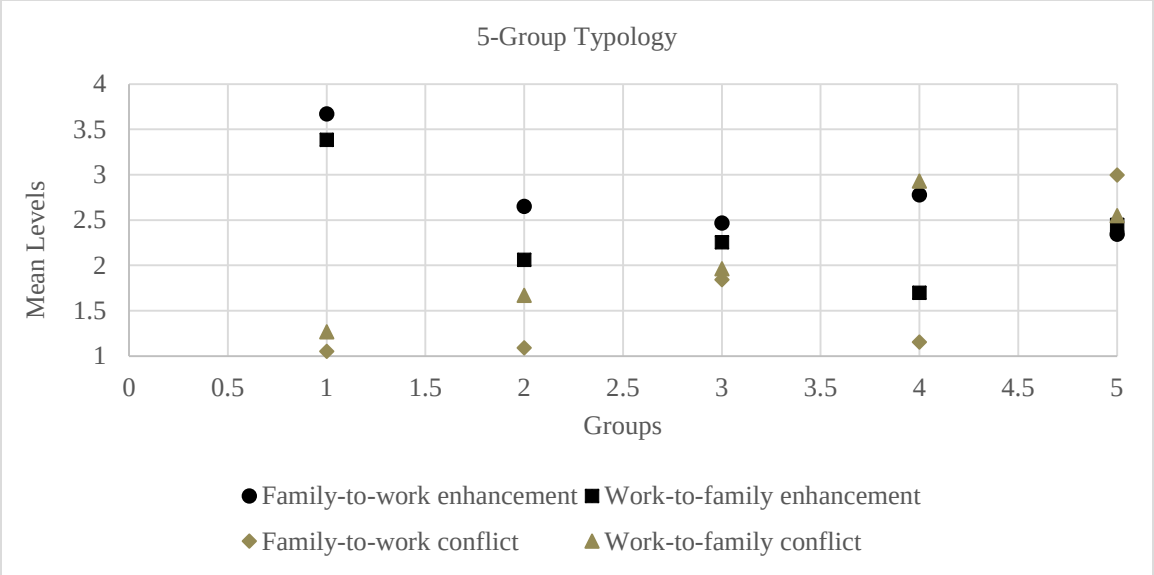


Figure B8. Mean levels of role enhancement and conflict for group membership. Groups: 1 = Dual Enhancement, 2 = Family-Enhancement, 3 = Comparable Enhancement & Conflict, 4 = Work Conflict-Family Enhancement, 5 = Family-Conflict. *N* = 4,976 observations.

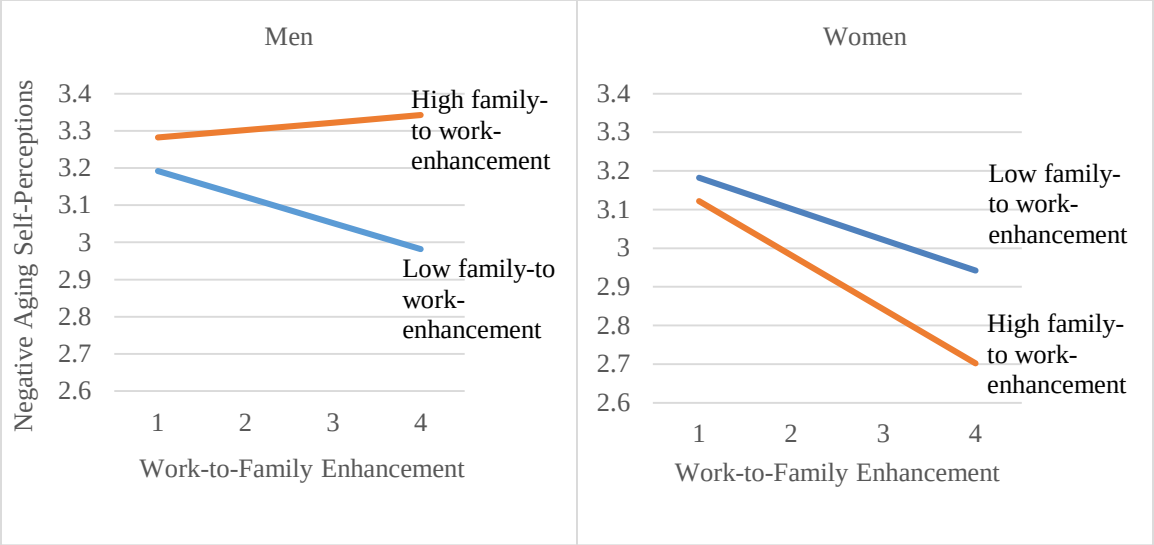


Figure B9. Interactive effects of work-to-family enhancement and family-to-work enhancement on negative aging self-perceptions, by gender. *n* = 2,498 male observations and 3,129 female observations.

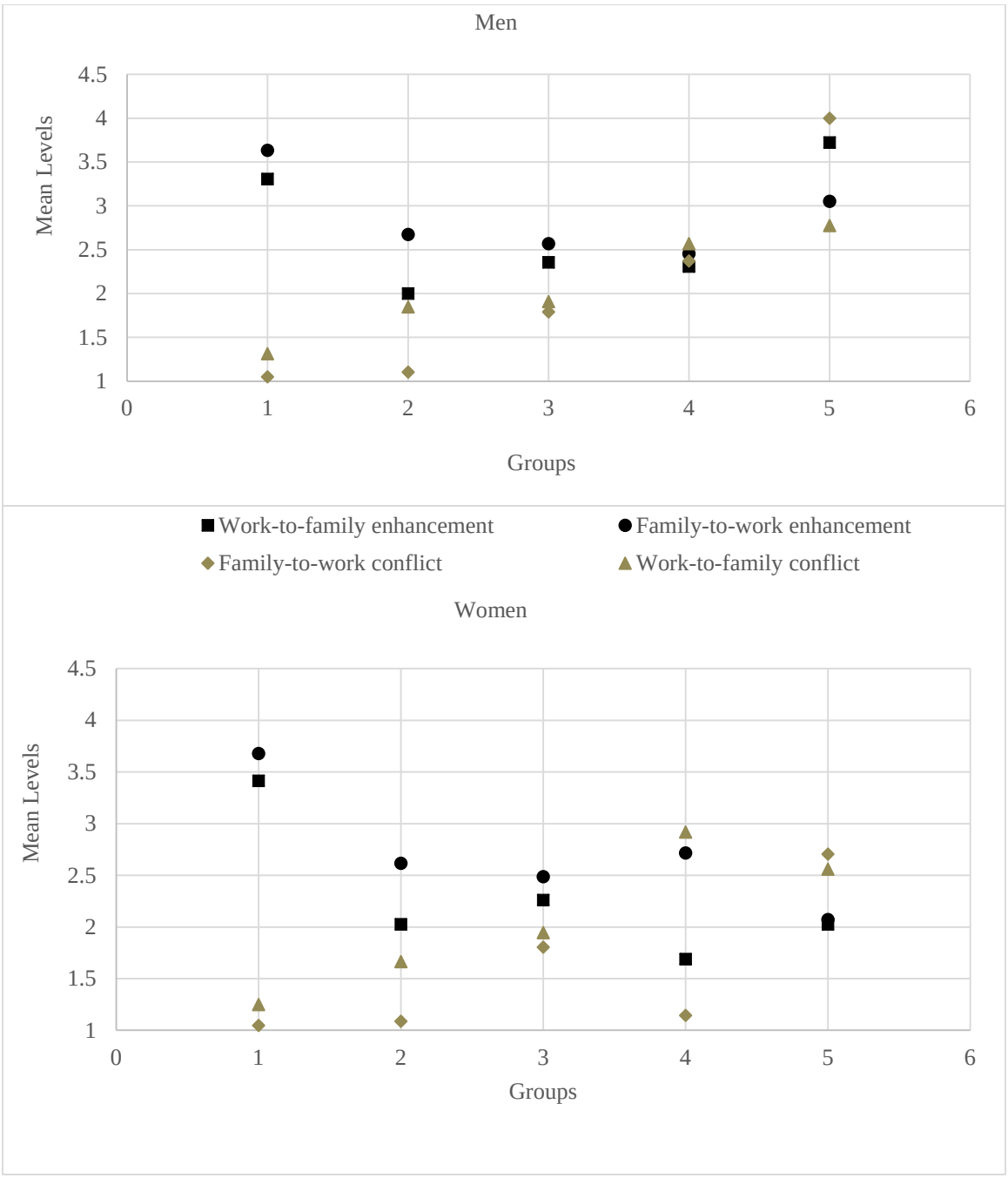


Figure B10. Mean levels of role enhancement and role conflict for each group in the five-group typology, by gender. Groups are: 1 = Dual Enhancement, 2 = Family-Enhancement, 3 = Comparable Enhancement & Conflict, 4 = Work Conflict-Family Enhancement, 5 = Family-Conflict. *n* = 2,170 male observations and 2,805 female observations.

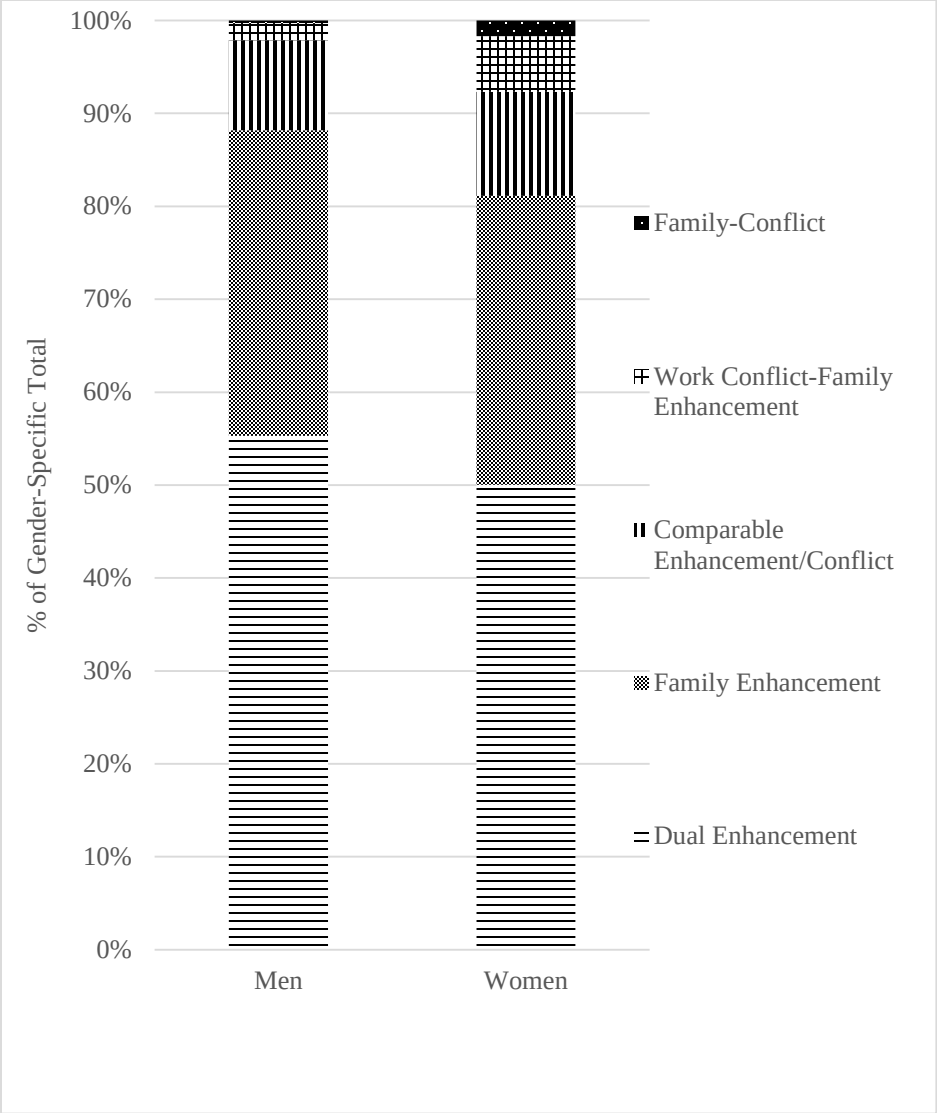
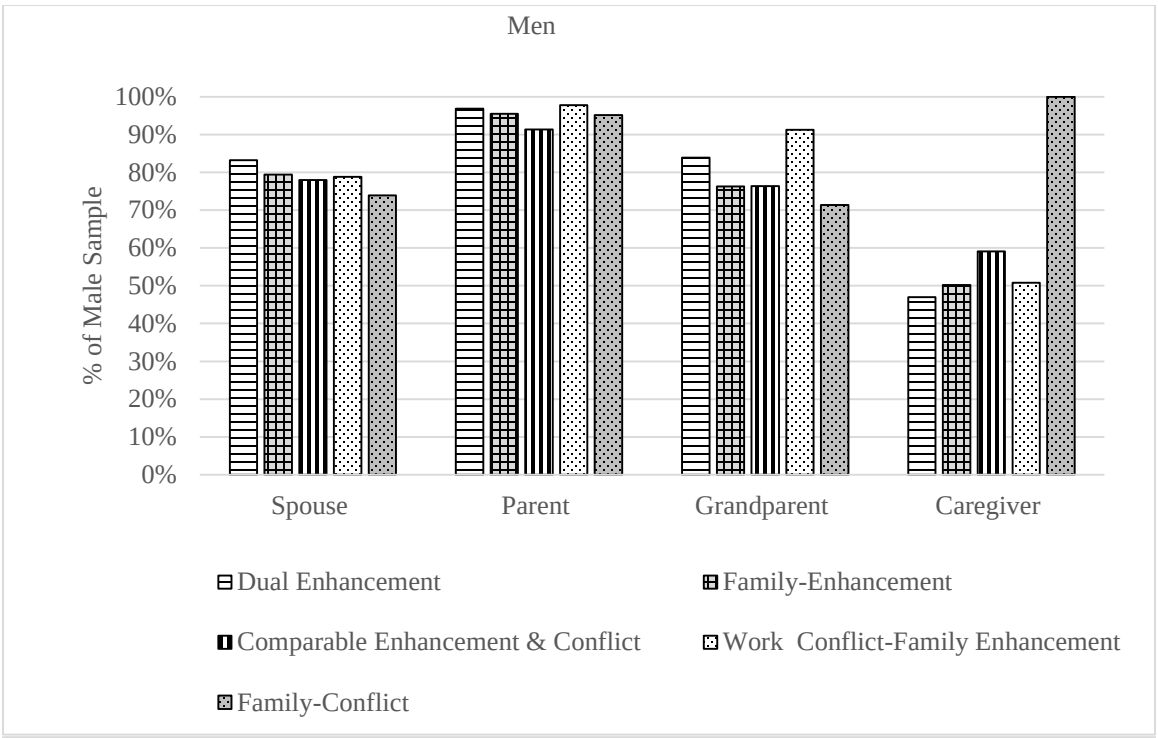


Figure B11. Group prevalence, by gender. n = 2,170 male observations and 2,805 female observations.



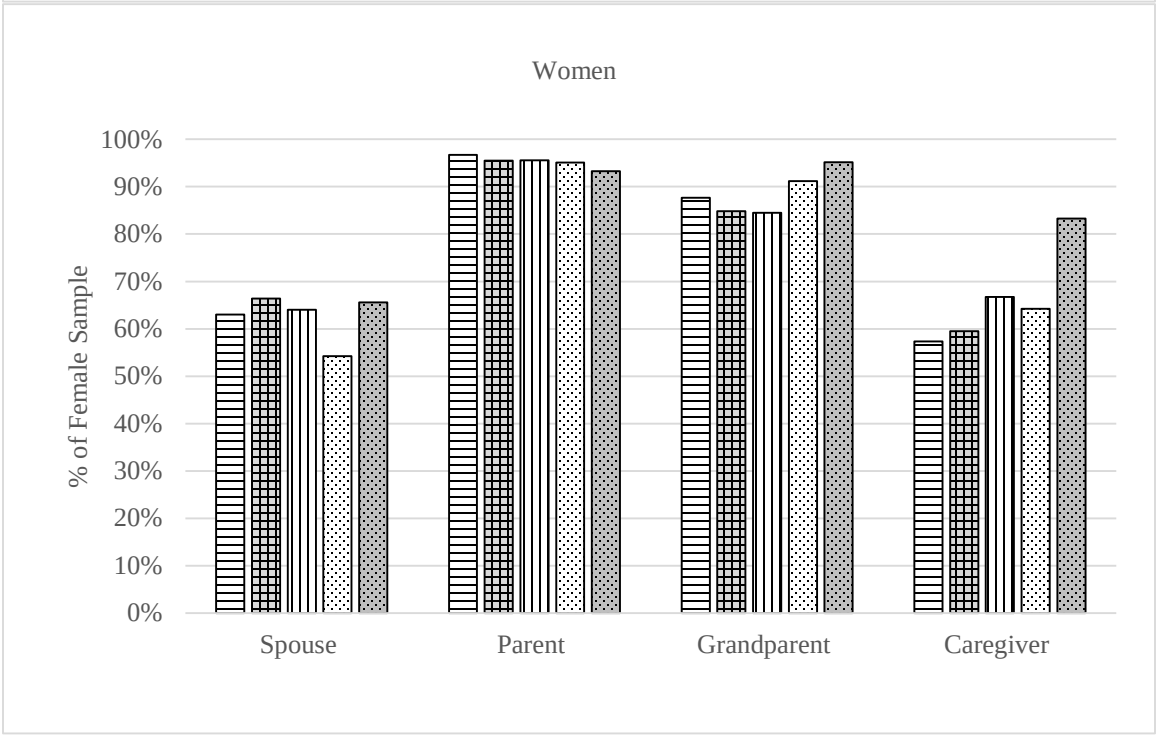


Figure B12. Family roles by group membership, by gender. *n* = 2,170 male observations and 2,805 female observations.

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