THE RELATIONSHIP OF WORK DEMANDS AND RESOURCES TO SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING: THE ROLE OF SELF-EFFICACY AND COPING.

By

Nikolaos Dimotakis

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP OF WORK DEMANDS AND RESOURCES TO SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING: THE ROLE OF SELF-EFFICACY AND COPING.

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The present study proposes to examine the relationship between the demands of individuals' work environment and their levels of subjective well-being, as well as the role of self-efficacy as a mediator of this proposed relationship. Drawing from the demands-control model and its extensions (Karasek, 1979; Johnson & Hall, 1988; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), as well as the self-efficacy component of social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997), I suggest a model that examines the circumstances under which individuals manage to cope, with a greater or lesser degree of success, with the demands of their work, as well as how the success of these coping processes relate to individuals' level of subjective well-being, in combination with the availability of workplace resources in their job and changes in their daily self-efficacy beliefs. Finally, I describe a longitudinal field study designed to test this model in a sample of clerical and administrative employees, and discuss the implications of this model for theory and practice.

For my parents, who showed me the path, and Tracy, who helped me walk it.

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Introduction

How individuals function in the workplace has long been a main focus of organizational behavior, and has been long linked to individual levels of subjective well-being (e.g., Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Such linkages between subjective well-being and workplace experiences are not surprising, as, as Judge and Klinger (2007, p. 393) commented, "…more than half of the nonretired adult population spends most of its waking hours at work," thus underlining the importance of workplace experiences as a major influence in people's lives. Perhaps as a result, a variety of theoretical models have been put forth to explain the circumstances under which individuals manage to cope (and even flourish) in and out of the workplace, or, alternatively, the circumstances under which the stresses and demands of work result in decreases in subjective well-being and the experience of strain for individuals.

Perhaps the best known and most utilized model of workplace functioning is Karasek's (1979) job demands-control model, which argues that adequate control over one's job enables an individual to avoid the strain associated with increased job demands. This model has been expanded to include variables such as social support (Johnson & Hall, 1988) and additional types of workplace demands and resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). Such models have much in common with other theoretical approaches to the relationship between work and individual well-being, such as the person-environment fit theory of French, Caplan, and Harrison (1982), the commonality being that all

these approaches implicitly or explicitly argue that individuals will indeed function better or worse in the workplace based on the specific circumstances (which can be internal, external, or both) that individuals find themselves in, and as a result benefit from increased levels of subjective well-being (or, depending on the focus of the model, reduced levels of experienced strain). In other words, these models outline characteristics of the worker (such as personality or experienced states) and the workplace (such as workload and available resources), and explain how these characteristics interact to determine well-being outcomes.

Indeed, research has often been supportive of this interplay between an individual's experiences in the workplace and some stable external or internal characteristics, demonstrating that these models of workplace functioning can indeed be of value in explaining variance in between- and within-individual levels of subjective well-being and experienced strain (Karasek, 1979; Landsbergis, 1988; van Vegchel, de Jonge, Söderfeldt, Dormann, & Schaufeli, 2004; Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Ilies, Dimotakis, & De Pater, 2010; Bakker, van Veldhoven, & Xanthopoulou, 2010). Although the demands-control model has represented the basis for much of the research into strain and subjective well-being over the last decades (van der Doef & Maes, 1999; Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001), the focal mediating mechanisms underlying this model have received substantially less attention in the literature. Specifically, according to the demands-control model, exposure to increased job demands under conditions of increased control will not result in increased strain because job control will provide the employee with in increased capabilities to cope with their work demands and higher personal efficacy (Karasek, 1979), processes that have not been explicitly examined in the literature to an adequate extent. Therefore, although workplace and individual factors have been empirically linked to subjective-well-being, there is less available evidence on whether the beneficial effects of job

control (and other resources) actually occur as a result of increased personal self-efficacy beliefs or through improvements in capabilities to cope, resolve and contend with daily workplace demands and events on the part of the individual, and whether it is indeed this successful resolution of workplace demands and events that drives reductions in strain and enhancements in subjective well-being levels.

Moreover, this coping process is itself a dynamic phenomenon in which environmental stimuli are appraised and evaluated by the individual, involving a complex and subtle interplay among individual's perceptions of their environment, and evaluations of their perceived capabilities and capacities to cope with these stressors or events (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Izard, 1993; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Although these latter self-evaluations have a recognized role in the coping process through their influence on appraisal processes (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis, 1986), less attention has been paid towards the ways by which one's successes or failures in coping with daily experiences can inform or affect subsequent self-evaluations (specifically, self-efficacy), even though the role of success or failure in daily coping would seem to be central to the ways in which these evaluations are formed (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1997), Moreover, as these self-evaluations have been found to represent an important aspect of individual workplace experience (Siegrist, 2004), an investigation of how they fluctuate as a result of workplace experiences and how they affect individual functioning as a result could be of value.

Therefore, a comprehensive effort aiming to examine how the successful or unsuccessful handling of workplace events and demands affects individuals' self-evaluations and subjective well-being levels can be of help to the literature by illuminating the interactions among these important components of daily life, thus providing theoretical and empirical evidence for the

specific ways in which various workplace functioning models actually operate. Moreover, examining these processes and their role in influencing the effects of workplace events on individuals' daily lives can provide valuable insights on how work can affect the life experiences of individuals, thus providing an important contribution to our understanding of how subjective well-being levels fluctuate as a result of reactions to workplace demands and experiences.

Below, I describe a study intended to examine the effects of workplace experiences by investigating how the successful resolution of, or coping with, daily events and work demands affects individual levels of subjective well-being, and how self-efficacy beliefs can serve to influence and affect the ways in which individuals cope and function in the workplace, as well as their levels of experienced well-being. Furthermore, I investigate these processes in a longitudinal manner, to provide a more comprehensive examination of how the consequences of an individual's efforts to deal with daily demands and events can affect their functioning on subsequent days. Such an approach can extend our conceptualization of the effects of work demands and experiences from within-day only effects to a more nuanced representation in which the consequences of what the employee experiences on a given workday can carry over to subsequent days, thus taking into consideration accumulation or spillover processes and their potentially important effects.

Contributions

My dissertation aims to provide a contribution to the literature in a number of ways. First, it aims to demonstrate how dealing with the daily demands of individuals' work environment can influence their level of experienced subjective-well-being, thus outlining how experiences in this very important life domain can affect the daily functioning of employees. Second, this study seeks to illuminate the internal psychological processes underlying the linkages between

workplace experiences and subjective well-being by proposing that self-evaluation judgments (specifically, the self-efficacy beliefs individuals hold with regards to their capabilities to effectively function in the workplace) represent an important mediating mechanism in the relationship between work and subjective well-being, and by testing this proposition in a longitudinal design that includes measurements both at work and at home. Third, it explicitly examines the success of the coping strategies utilized by employees as a central factor in models of workplace functioning, and directly tests its importance for individual well-being. Finally, it examines how workplace resources and fluctuations in self-evaluations can moderate the relationship among workplace resources and well-being, and how workplace resources and prior self-efficacy beliefs can influence the coping capabilities of individuals on subsequent days, therefore outlining and testing an additional linking mechanism that can illuminate the relationships among self-evaluations, coping, and well-being over time.

These efforts can inform and extend current models of how individuals cope in the workplace and what this means for their subjective well-being by providing a comprehensive examination of workplace functioning processes, and by studying how these processes influence subjective well-being levels within and across days, as well as within- and between-individuals. The methodology used in this study can also provide a contribution to the literature by answering the call of Diener, Oishi, and Lucas (2003) for an increase in examinations of well-being that go beyond cross-sectional, one-time assessments of subjective well-being, and for research into the processes by which individuals respond to experiences in their environment.

Finally, apart from the potential empirical and theoretical contributions this study can provide, the findings of this study can also be of interest to practitioners aiming to improve the workplace experiences and subjective well-being of employees; such efforts can be of potential

benefit to organizations through the associations of subjective well-being with important organizational factors such as employee health (Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005), and performance (Petty, McGee, & Cavender, 1984; Warr, 1999; Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003; Russell, 2008). Similarly, these findings can be of direct benefit to individuals as well, as well-being has been recognized as a "necessary, but not sufficient, characteristic of the good society and the good life" (Diener et al., 2003, p. 405) and is associated with a host of important individual-level outcomes (Lyubomirsky et al., 2001).

Overview

In order to test my research questions, I will proceed as follows. First, I will review the pertinent empirical and theoretical literature linking workplace events and demands, subjective well-being, and self-efficacy. Second, I will present my general model, and outline specific hypotheses to be tested. Third, I will describe the overall design of the study I aim to use to empirically test these hypotheses, including the study procedure, measures and analytical strategies to be used. Fourth, I will describe the results of these analytical strategies, and provide a detailed examination of the testing of my proposed formal hypotheses. Finally, I will present a discussion of the implications of my findings for theory and research, as well as the practical implications for employees and organizations.

Literature Review

Subjective Well-Being

Subjective well-being has been a frequent subject of research in psychology and organizational behavior in the last few decades (Wilson, 1967; Diener et al., 1999; Diener et al., 2003). Diener (1984) categorized research in subjective well-being in two broad categories, namely top-down and bottom-up approaches. In top-down approaches, subjective well-being is considered to be the product of stable individual differences (such as personality traits), which influence the way in which individuals perceive the world, react to events, and form judgments about their levels of happiness. On the other hand, bottom-up approaches argue that these judgments are the results of the cumulative effects of the events, outcomes, and satisfaction in the various life domains of individuals, thus influencing well-being through the accumulation of momentary experiences (Diener, 1984; Diener et al., 2003).

Both these approaches have produced important findings that have advanced our understanding of subjective well-being (Heller, Watson, & Ilies, 2004), shedding light on some of the "immense number of factors" (Diener, 1984, p. 561) that can have an influence on this vital phenomenon. The top-down approach has consistently demonstrated the important role that individual differences can play in influencing subjective well-being levels (Deneve & Cooper, 1998; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002; Steel, Schmidt, & Schultz; 2008), while the bottom-up approach has similarly produced findings that support a relationship between experienced events, domain (e.g., job or marital) satisfactions, and subjective well-being (Diener, 1984; Suh, Diener, & Fujita, 1996; Pavot, Diener, & Fujita, 1990; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999).

Research on subjective well-being, however, has mostly focused on between-individual differences (Judge et al., 2002), while experiential and episodic approaches have been relatively neglected (Ilies et al., 2010). In an effort to address this, research on well-being has been recently enhanced by a within-individual research stream that utilizes episodic, momentary, and longitudinal conceptualizations in order to investigate the daily lives of employees, aiming to examine how the events and experiences from individuals' workplaces can influence and inform their levels of subjective well-being both in and out of work. These efforts compliment previous bottom-up processes that demonstrated the relationship between domain satisfactions by directly and dynamically linking what the individual experiences to how the individual feels, and by outlining boundary conditions that enhance or diminish this relationship.

Such within-individual approaches that investigate the effects of work experiences and events on individual functioning are well-positioned to answer the calls for an increased focus on explaining the specific processes that can link within-and between-person factors and experienced well-being (Heller et al., 2003; Heller, Watson, & Ilies, 2006). Focusing on work as a context in which such processes take place, I will review the relevant conceptual and empirical literature based on two theoretical conceptualizations which are well-positioned to elucidate such processes. These theoretical efforts consist of (a) the demands-control model (and its expanded conceptualizations; Karasek, 1979; Johnson & Hall, 1988; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), and (b) the self-efficacy component of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997). In order to provide clear linkages between the demands-control model and self-efficacy, I utilize the transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) as a framework for understanding the ways individuals perceive and react to the demands of their environment, as well as how this can affect their levels of subjective well-being and experienced strain.

The Demands-Control Model and Theoretical Extensions

The demands-control model posits that there is an interactive relationship between the demands of a job and the control (or decision latitude) that an individual can exercise in addressing his or her work responsibilities such that when control is low, high job demands will lead to strain; high control, on the other hand, can result in less negative or even positive outcomes for an employee facing high job demands (Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). The two factors in the model are thus seen as "the instigators of action (work load demands, conflicts or other stressors, which place the individual in a motivated or energized state of "stress") and the constraints on the alternative resulting actions" (Karasek, 1979, p. 287). When this energized state fails to result in success in dealing with job demands (a situation that can be more common when individuals lack the job control they need to be successful), individuals tend to experience decreased levels of subjective well-being (manifested as increased strain). On the other hand, when this energized state leads to success in dealing with job demands, then the accumulation of strain is reduced, and individual learning and growth is expected to increase.

This model was extended by Johnson and Hall (1988), who found that available social support at work can also attenuate the relationship between high job demands and increased strain; Ilies et al. (2010) found that perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1983) can also represent an important source of support for the employee. Bakker and colleagues (Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) have argued for a more comprehensive approach that considers autonomy, support and other buffering mechanisms as job or personal resources that can help protect the individual from the effects of work demands in general.

The demands-control model has been the basis for much of the research on employee strain in the last few decades (van der Doef & Maes, 1999; Cooper et al., 2001). Most of this research, however, has focused mainly on examining the basic propositions of the model, testing the additive and interactive effects of the demands of an individuals' workplace and the resources the individual has on his or her level of subjective well-being, but putting much less emphasis on examining the processes that could explain these additive or interactive effects. That is, research examining and testing the mechanisms linking the interaction between demands and control to experienced strain has been pursued to a much lesser extent. According to Karasek (1979), job control is expected to mitigate the effects on high job demands because such control allows individuals to better cope with their work environment; in turn, this enhanced coping can result in increases in personal efficacy beliefs relative to workplace functioning, providing valuable outcomes to the individual. That is, when individuals possess the resources they require to effectively deal with the demands of their workplace, they can be more likely to succeed in coping with these demands, and this successful coping can result in less accumulated strain and improved perceptions of their capabilities to deal with future demands. Therefore, the improvements in functioning under high demands that workplace resources provide for the individual can result in increased well-being both directly and indirectly, through enhancements in self-efficacy beliefs. Below, I will describe how these efficacy beliefs can be formed, and why they are expected to relate to individual levels of subjective well-being.

Self-Efficacy

Perceived self-efficacy "*refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments*" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3; emphasis in the original). Such beliefs operate as a central factor in human functioning (Bandura, 1986), and

their impact on individual outcomes can have the potential to be both positive and negative (Bandura, 1986; Bandura & Wood, 1989). This centrality of self-efficacy beliefs occurs because these beliefs can strongly influence the way people perceive their daily experience and their capabilities to cope (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Izard, 1993). According to the transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), exposure to a potential stressor is followed by two cognitive appraisal processes, and it is the outcomes of these processes that can influence the behavioral responses individuals will have to the experienced stressor, and ultimately affect individual levels of well-being and strain. *Primary* appraisal processes determine whether the individual will consider the stressor to be benign, threatening, or challenging; on the other hand, once a stressor is appraised as threatening or challenging, *secondary* appraisal processes involve evaluating "what might and can be done" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 35). Self-efficacy beliefs can provide information during both appraisal processes. During primary appraisal, higher self-efficacy makes it more likely that a stressor would be evaluated as non-threatening. During the secondary appraisal processes, self-efficacy beliefs can play a potentially more important role, as the confidence one has in successfully performing the actions that might be required to resolve the stressor will determine what behaviors are manifested, and the degree of effort that the individual will feel motivated to exert in said behaviors.

That is, self-efficacy can influence both whether an event or an experience will be considered as stressful or threatening by an individual, as well as whether the individual will perceive themselves as capable of dealing with it successfully; these two processes can collectively relate to individuals' behavior, functioning, and perceptions of daily experience. Individuals in a non-efficacious state will perceive more stimuli as potentially threatening, and will judge themselves less capable of successfully coping with their environment; the individual

is thus exposed to a greater amount of potential strain, and is also less likely to undertake the actions that could successfully address or alleviate the source of this strain.

Self-efficacy beliefs are formed through four main processes (Bandura, 1986). *Mastery experiences* refer to the experience of success or failure in a task, which in turn increases and decreases self-efficacy, respectively. In other words, success or failure at a task directly provides information to the individual about their capabilities with regards to this task, and thus their self-efficacy beliefs change to reflect their new level of confidence. *Vicarious experiences* refer to the experience of someone else's success or failure, which carries similar effects as mastery experiences. In this case, the individual uses someone else's experiences as information, information that becomes more salient the more similar the target and context under observation are to the individual and their own context. *Social persuasion* is a process by which individuals' self-efficacy beliefs can be influenced by others, both positively and negatively. In this case, the individual's social environment can provide positive or negative cues that signal to the individual that they should or should not be confident in their abilities to deal with the focal actions. Finally, *physiological states* reflect the way individuals consider processes such as emotional arousal and fear judgments when forming self-efficacy judgments; heightened fear, for example, would result in decreased efficacy beliefs as individuals appraised their emotion as relevant information for their capabilities in dealing with the current context (Bandura, 1986; Bandura, 1997).

Of these four functions, mastery experiences are the most relevant function in examinations of daily functioning in the workplace; the workplace represents one of the main contexts in which individuals can form beliefs about their self-efficacy levels based on their success in coping with the demands of the work. That is, the experience of dealing with work

demands successfully or unsuccessfully represents an archetypal example of mastery experiences which can then inform individual self-efficacy beliefs about workplace functioning. This formation of self-efficacy beliefs due to the experience of success or failure in the workplace represents a process that self-efficacy and work-demands models have in common, and can thus provide an interface by which these approaches can be theoretically combined.

Nevertheless, social persuasion processes can also be important factors when considering the social environment in the workplace, which provides opportunities for individuals' coworkers to have either a positive impact (for example, by providing encouragement and support) or a negative one (through acts such as bullying or non-constructive criticism). Similarly, physiological states can also provide self-efficacy information in the workplace, where the anxiety or negative affect created by workload (for example, see Ilies, Schwind, Wagner, Johnson, DeRue, & Ilgen, 2007) can reduce individual confidence in successfully dealing with the demands of the work environment.

The Role of Coping

Coping has been long recognized as an important aspect of individual functioning, and has important implications for individuals' levels of strain and subjective well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Coping has been defined as the "constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts" that individuals engage in order to manage the demands of their situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 141). Despite the important role coping plays for individual well-being, however, most investigations of coping in the psychology literature have focused on static examinations of coping, examining the behaviors that individuals engage in *on average*, thus limiting our knowledge of how individuals change their coping efforts in reaction to their environment.

Moreover, as mentioned above, most research tends to focus on the *types* of coping behaviors that individuals engage in order to contend with the demands of their lives (see, for example, Jex, Bliese, Buzzell, & Primeau, 2001; Elfering, Grebner, Semmer, Kaiser-Freiburghaus, Lauper-Del Ponte, & Witschi, 2005; Shoji, Harrigan, Woll, & Miller, 2010). These efforts aim to distinguish between various types of coping (for example, active, passive, and avoidance coping) and to examine the differential impact of these various coping types on individual levels of subjective well-being and experienced strain.

While these efforts have provided important insights on the average differential effectiveness of various types of coping behaviors, investigations on the actual effects of *success in coping* with workplace demands and experiences have been relatively neglected, as have examinations that conceptualize these processes dynamically instead of statically. The few extant investigations of coping success, however, have provided some evidence for the role of coping success and the need to study such processes further in a way that takes their adaptive character into consideration. For example, Zautra and Wrabetz (1991) demonstrated that coping success was related to lower levels of psychological distress in a sample of older adults, while the adaptive and dynamic nature of coping processes has been underlined in conceptual work, as has the need for investigations that take these characteristics of coping into consideration (Neufeld, 1999).

Below, I will review the empirical literature discussing the links among job demands, job control, workplace support, self-efficacy, coping, and subjective well-being. Specifically, I will outline the theoretical and empirical linkages between (a) job demands, workplace resources and subjective well-being, (b) job demands, workplace resources and self-efficacy, (c) self-efficacy

and subjective well-being, and (d) coping and subjective well-being. In each case, I will also provide a review of the pertinent moderating factors in these processes.

Workplace Demands and Subjective Well-Being

Job demands (defined in a variety of ways, such as high levels of workload, emotional labor, and role conflict; for example, see Parasuraman & Cleek, 1984; Fillion, Tremblay, Truchon, Côté, Struthers, and Depuis, 2007; Ilies et al., 2010), have been long linked to subjective well-being outcomes. While characteristics of the job such as workload are ubiquitous and an expected part of the job, theoretical and empirical work has long argued and found that increased levels of any demand can be linked to decreases in subjective well-being. Workload and role conflict have been found to be among the most commonly reported workplace stressors (Axelrod & Gavin, 1980; Nandram & Klandermans, 1993), and the emotional demands of an individual's workplace have been recently suggested to be another important factor in investigations of individual well-being (Grandey, 2000). Furthermore, negative social experiences can represent one more category of work demands that can relate to individual well-being (Lim & Cortina, 2005; Ilies et al., 2010).

Conceptually, the effects of these work demands can occur through a number of pathways. Accumulations of high workload levels can result in overload, taxing the individuals' capabilities to deal with them effectively (Ilies et al., 2010). The emotional demands of the work require attitudinal and motivational resources (Grandey, 2000) that might tax individual energy reserves, while role conflict is associated with hard-to-resolve situations, thus exposing the individual to accumulating and persistent stressors that could likely result in experienced strain (Axelrod & Gavin, 1980). Similarly, negative social experiences such as workplace incivility or interpersonal conflict, apart from their effects as pure workplace stressors, can also impact

individuals through their negative effects on the satisfaction of relatedness needs (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

In general, individuals' exposure to these workplace stressors is expected to be associated with a physiological state of arousal in which the individual is recruiting resources to deal with the demands of the situation at hand (Lazarus, 1999), resources that are then unavailable for other psychological or physiological processes, including the maintenance of subjective well-being levels. This draining of personal resources can then manifest as increased strain and reduced subjective well-being, either directly (through resource depletion, anxiety, or exhaustion) or indirectly (by reducing the capabilities of individuals to cope with other stressors, thus leading to accumulations of strain and reductions in subjective well-being.

Empirically, the literature is generally supportive of a negative relationship between the work demands (conceptualized in various ways, including various types of workplace experiences and stressors) placed upon the individual and employee well-being (Ganster & Schaubroeck, 1991; Sonnentag & Frese, 2003). These negative effects of workplace demands on subjective well-being can even persist even after the individual's exposure to them has ended, underlining the persistent character of this relationship (e.g., Repetti, 1993). Furthermore, the relationship between demands and well-being has been shown to persist even after controlling for other relevant predictors of subjective well-being such as neuroticism, gender, age, academic accomplishment, childhood socioeconomic status (de Jonge, Dormann, Jannsen, Dollard, Landeweerd, & Nijhuis, 2001; Elovainio et al., 2007; Conard & Matthews, 2008). Below, I provide a short review of the empirical literature discussing these linkages.

In terms of cross-sectional analyses, a variety of large-scale studies has been supportive of a negative relationship between job demands and subjective well-being (or experienced

strain). Specifically, a study conducted as part of the Northern Finland 1966 Birth Cohort Study found an association between job demands and psychological distress in a sample of 4,293 individuals (Elovainio et al., 2007), while Pelfrene, Vlerick, Kittel, Mak, Kornitzer, and De Backer (2002) found a positive relationship between job demands and low subjective well-being (conceptualized as depression) in a sample of 21,419 adult respondents in Belgium. Similar results were reported by Peeters, Montgomery, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2005) in a sample of 1,264 Dutch adults, who found that job demands (conceptualized as a combination of quantitative, emotional and mental demands) were associated with decreased subjective well-being (conceptualized as burnout). Furthermore, Lang, Thomas, Bliese, and Adler (2007) also reported a positive and significant relationship between job demands and psychological strain in a sample of 1,418 army cadets undergoing ROTC training. Karasek, Triantis, and Chaudhry (1982) found that task demands were significantly and positively associated with reports of mental strain in a sample of 1,016 male workers in the US, and a similar pattern of results was reported by Karasek, Gardell, and Lindell (1987), who found that higher levels of workload were associated with increased levels of mental strain symptoms. Finally, Tummers, van Merode, Landeweerd, and Candel (2003), in a study of 1,721 nurses nested within 15 hospital organizations, reported that work demands were significantly associated with increased levels of strain.

Smaller scale studies have provided similar indications of workplace support for the relationship between work demands and subjective well-being. Fillion et al. (2007), in an examination involving 209 palliative care nurses, found that job and emotional demands were associated with decreased subjective well-being (conceptualized as decreased job satisfaction and increased emotional distress). Furthermore, Jannsen, Peeters, de Jonge, Houkes, and

Tummers (2004), reporting the results of a study of 115 US and 260 Dutch nurses and nurse assistants found that job demands were associated with decreased subjective well-being (defined as increased emotional exhaustion). Comparable results were reported by Tse, Flin, and Mearns (2007) in a study of 186 bus drivers.

Longitudinal studies have provided additional evidence for this relationship, in both between- and within-people investigations. In a 2-year longitudinal study of 820 truck drivers in the Netherlands, de Croon, Sluiter, Blonk, Broersen, and Frings-Dresen (2004) found that job demands were associated with increased experiences of work strain (measured as perceived need for recovery). Similarly, de Jonge et al., (2001), using a sample of 261 health care professionals, found that job demands were negatively associated with psychological well-being one year later.

Likewise, Ilies et al., (2007), in a two-week long within-individual examination involving 106 participants, found that on days in which individuals reported increased levels of work demands (conceptualized as workload), they also reported increased feelings of negative affect at home (a component of subjective well-being; Diener et al., 2003). A comparable pattern of results was reported by Repetti (1993) in a within-individual examination of 52 air traffic controllers; results indicated that days with increased workload were associated with decreased positive and increased negative mood, and a similar effect was found on days in which participants reported experiencing more negative interactions with coworkers. Similarly, Teuchmann, Totterdell, and Parker (1999) reported a significant event-level within-individual association of job demands with mood and emotional exhaustion. Using a lengthier but sparser measurement schedule, in which 65 portfolio workers were asked to provide weekly diaries for a total of 26 weeks, Totterdell, Wood, and Wall (2006) also found a positive association between work demands and experienced strain.

The demands of work are not necessarily represented by a unidimensional construct, however. Indeed, work demands encompass a variety of different factors that individuals need to contend with, and investigations focusing on these specific categories of work demands have been equally supportive of a negative relationship between individual facets or aspects of workplace demands and subjective well-being. Of these specific categories or aspects, a high level of workload has been found to be among the most significant predictors of subjective well-being and experienced strain. For example, Jin, Yeung, Tang, and Low (2008) identified high levels of workload as the strongest predictor of the stress sources examined in their study, and found that workload levels were significantly associated with increased strain (conceptualized as psychosomatic symptoms) in a sample of 261 teachers in Hong Kong. Similarly, workload was found to be associated with well-being (measured as life satisfaction) in an investigation involving a sample of 371 full time workers reported by De Cuyper and De Witte (2006), although these authors also reported that these results did not replicate in a subsample of 189 temporary workers. Furthermore, Van Emmerik, and Jawahar (2006) reported an association between workload and negative mood in a sample of 629 dual-earner couples, while Ilies et al. (2010), in a within-individual examination of 64 clerical and administrative workers, found that on days when individuals reported higher than usual work demands, they also tended to report decreased subjective-well-being (defined as increased psychological strain measured at home). Finally, Lee and Ashforth (1996), in a meta-analytic examination of the correlates of job burnout, reported a positive relationship between workload and emotional exhaustion ($k = 6$; $N = 1{,}450$; $\rho = .65$).

Workload is not the only important facet of work demands, however. The emotional demands of an individual's job have also been linked to subjective well-being outcomes. For

example, in an investigation of 238 full time employees, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) found that (surface level) emotional labor was significantly associated with decreased well-being (operationalized as high burnout). Similarly, Tschan, Rochat, and Zapf (2005) found a relationship between emotional demands and well-being in a within-people investigation involving 78 employees in service and non-service professions that provided measures about 848 separate workplace interactions. Likewise, in a 1-year time interval longitudinal study involving 2,255 employees in Sweden, van Vegchel et al. (2004) found that emotional demands were significantly associated with experienced strain (conceptualized as emotional exhaustion). Moreover, emotional demands have been found to be independently associated with subjective well-being when considered concurrently with other types of workplace demands. For example, Montgomery, Panagopoulou, and Benos (2006) found that emotional demands were associated with decreased levels of subjective well-being in a sample of 162 doctors in Greece, and these effects held when controlling for the effects of quantitative job demands, and Ilies, Dimotakis and Wang (2010) found that high levels of emotional demands and workload were independently associated with emotional burnout in a three-week within-individual examination involving 120 clerical and administrative workers employed in a public university.

Empirical work has also been supportive of the importance of role demands in predicting individuals' subjective well-being. In one of the earlier investigations of such demands, Hamner and Tosi (1974) reported a significant correlation ($r = .27$) between role conflict and perceptions of anxiety in a sample of 61 high-level managers. Similarly, Bedeian and Armenakis (1981) found that role demands were associated with increased perceptions of workplace tension and reduced job satisfaction in an investigation of 460 employees of a nursing organization, while Greenhaus, Bedeian, and Mossholder (1987) found that role conflict was associated with

decreased perceptions of the quality of participants' life in a sample of 336 accountants. Furthermore, Coverman (1989) provided evidence for an association of role conflict with job satisfaction in a national probability sample that included 1,515 employed respondents, while Fried and Tiegs (1993) found that role conflict was positively associated with increased emotional exhaustion. In general, role conflict has been shown to be an important predictor of individual well-being outcomes, and recent meta-analytic efforts have been supportive of this effect (Fischer & Gitelson, 1983; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006). This relationship between role demands and subjective well-being has been found to persist even when role demands are considered concurrently with other important workplace demands such as high levels of workload; for example, Parasuraman and Cleek (1984) found that role conflict was associated with increased experienced stress and reduced job satisfaction even controlling for quantitative and qualitative work overload.

Finally, negative social experiences such as interpersonal conflict or workplace incivility have also been empirically examined as one important category of workplace demands, insofar as these social experiences represent salient events experienced as part of the job. In this conceptualization, negative social experiences can comprise a component of the work to the same extent as high emotional demands or workload. In terms of their effects on subjective well-being, the literature is supportive of the significant and negative component of this relationship. For example, Ilies, Johnson, Judge, and Keeney (2011), in a two-week experience sampling study involving 49 employees surveyed over a two-week period, found that the experience of interpersonal conflict at work was associated with increased negative affect within-individuals. Similarly, Frone (2000) found that interpersonal conflict at work was associated with decreased job satisfaction and increased feelings of depression in a sample of 319 younger workers, while

Lazuras, Rodafinos, Matsiggos, and Stamatoulakis (2009) found that interpersonal conflict was associated with decreased physical well-being in a sample of 764 telecommunication employees. In a within-individual investigation of workplace interactions involving 60 clerical and administrative employees, Dimotakis, Scott, and Koopman (2010) found that on days in which employees described their workplace interactions as more negative (a conceptualization that included interpersonal conflict as a component), employees also reported increased negative affect and decreased job satisfaction at the end of the workday. Similar effects of interpersonal conflict experiences on individual well-being have been reported by Harvey, Blouin, and Stout (2006) and Liu, Spector, and Shi (2007). Finally, Kamarck, Shiffman, Smithline, Goodie, Paty, Gnys, and Jong (1998) found that interpersonal conflict was associated with increased negative affect in a sample of 120 individuals.

Although workplace incivility has only recently begun to be examined in the literature, there is some evidence suggesting that workplace incivility can be another factor with important implications for well-being outcomes. In a large sample study that included 1,180 public-sector employees, Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout (2001) found that increased experiences of workplace incivility were associated with decreased job satisfaction and increased psychological distress. Furthermore, Lim and Cortina (2005), in a paper reporting the results of two studies involving a total of 2,258 employees, found that the experience of workplace incivility was associated with increased job stress, and reduced work and life satisfaction. Similarly, Miner-Rubino and Cortina (2007), in a study involving 871 women and 831 men, found that incivility had a zero-order association with reduced psychological well-being and job satisfaction, as well as with increased job burnout. In their final structural model, where experienced incivility was entered as a control, incivility was associated with both psychological well-being and job

satisfaction, and these effects were invariant by gender. Finally, Lim, Cortina, and Magley (2008) found that incivility was associated with decreased mental health in a study of 1,158 employees, and these effects held when controlling for general levels of work stress.

Workplace Resources and Subjective Well-Being

In addition to the well-established negative linear relationship between various workplace demands and subjective well-being, a number of approaches have investigated the positive effects of various workplace resources on individual well-being. Workplace resources such as increased job control and perceived social and organizational support have been shown to enhance employee subjective well-being and reduce experienced strain. These effects have been found for a variety of workplace resources, among which the most central ones are the amount of autonomy or discretion an individual has over their job (job control) and the availability of workplace support (from such sources as coworkers, supervisors, and the organization in general). In general, these resources can help individuals perceive their work environment as safer and less threatening, thus reducing the chance that work demands will be appraised as a stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Moreover, workplace resources can relate to intrinsic human needs such as the need for autonomy or relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000), thus directly enhancing individual well-being through the satisfaction of these aforementioned needs.

The available empirical evidence is strongly supportive of a main effect of workplace resources on individuals' subjective well-being. In terms of the relationship between job control and subjective well-being, Ippolito, Adler, Thomas, Litz, and Hölzl (2005) found a significant and positive relationship between job control and psychological well-being in a sample of 638 deployed soldiers, while Totterdell et al. (2006) found that job control was associated with decreased feelings of anxiety in a 26-week study involving 65 portfolio workers. Similarly,

Holman and Wall (2002), reporting the results of two cross-sectional and one longitudinal study of call center employees, found that increased job control was associated with decreased feelings of anxiety and depression, while a similar relationship between job control and state anxiety was found by Elsass and Veiga (1997) in a sample of 316 health care workers. Liu et al. (2007) reported that job control was positively associated with job satisfaction and negatively associated with feelings of frustrations in both a US and a Chinese sample, while Kamarck et al. (1998) found that job control was associated with decreased levels of negative affect as well as weakly related to cardiovascular indexes of strain.

The presence or absence of workplace support has also been found to relate to important well-being outcomes. In a sample of 3,725 navy personnel, La Rocco and Jones (1978) found that workplace support was associated with increased job satisfaction and individual self-esteem, while Schirmer and Lopez (2001) found that supervisor support was related to increased job satisfaction in a sample of 117 university employees. A similar finding was reported by Karasek et al. (1982), who found that individuals who reported having higher levels of available social support tended to also report decreased levels of reported mental strain. In a two-wave longitudinal study involving 261 health care professionals, de Jonge et al. (2001) found that perceived workplace support was associated with increased satisfaction with work one year later. Furthermore, Bourbonnais, Comeau, and Vézina (1999) reported that having higher levels of available social support was associated with decreased emotional exhaustion and experienced strain in a nursing sample, while Scheck, Kinicki, and Davy (1997) found that the presence of instrumental and emotional social support were associated with increased well-being and reduced strain, respectively, in a sample of 218 employees. Utilizing a more general conceptualization of well-being, Ganster, Fusilier, and Mayes (1986) found that the availability

of social support in the workplace (provided from either coworkers or supervisors) was associated with a variety of subjective well-being outcomes (including job and life satisfaction and depression) in a canonical analysis. Similarly, Canivet, Östergren, Lindeberg, Choi, Karasek, Moghaddassi and Isacsson (2010) found that a lack of social support was associated with increased feelings of exhaustion in a sample of 5,461 employed individuals in Sweden. Finally, meta-analytic evidence has provided additional confirmatory evidence for the main effects of social support availability on subjective well-being (see Viswesvaran, Sanchez, and Fisher, 1999).

In terms of perceived organizational support, in a meta-analytic review of the literature, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that perceived organizational support was negatively related to individual levels of strain ($k = 5$, $N = 874$, $\rho = -.32$) and positively related to job satisfaction and positive affect experienced at work ($k = 21$, $N = 5,886$, $\rho = .62$, and $k = 5$, $N = 1,420$ $\rho = .49$, respectively). Furthermore, Richardson, Yang, Vandenberg, DeJoy and Wilson (2007) found that perceived organizational support was associated with enhanced subjective well-being (defined as decreased depressive symptoms) across two different regional samples, totaling 1,599 individuals.

Moreover, these workplace resources have been previously found to be independently associated with subjective well-being in examinations that estimated their effects concurrently. For example, Parkes, Mendham, and von Rabenau (1994) found that job control (operationalized as discretion) and social support availability were both positively and independently associated with employee job satisfaction in a sample of 145 health care workers. This finding provides additional motivation for a concurrent examination of these workplace resources in order to provide a more comprehensive view of the factors that can enhance individual well-being.

The Moderating Role of Workplace Resources

Apart from the direct effects of workplace resources on employee well-being and strain, other lines of research have examined whether these resources can indirectly impact individual outcomes through changes in the relationship between workplace demands and well-being; this is generally described as the buffer hypothesis. In this hypothesis, resources are thought to provide a moderating effect, such that individuals high in job control or perceived support are less likely to report decreases in well-being due to high job demands or negative workplace experiences. Workplace resources can provide the individual with more options in selecting potential coping strategies, which can help the individual respond to perceived stressors in a more effective manner, thus reducing the impact of these stressors on individual levels of well-being. For example, job control can provide workload management strategies that employees can use to manage their work demands (Ilies et al., 2010). Similarly, the availability of social and organizational support provides more avenues for seeking emotional or instrumental help from coworkers, supervisors and the organization in general, which the employee can use in coping with the demands of their environment. Therefore, workplace resources are theoretically expected to provide a moderating effect on the relationship between work demands and individual levels of well-being (Karasek, 1979; Johnson & Hall, 1988; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

However, evidence for this moderating effect has been mixed (see De Jonge & Kompier, 1997; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999; De Lange, Taris, Kompier, Houtman, & Bongers, 2003). Some recent support for this contention has been found by Ilies et al. (2010), who demonstrated that decision latitude and perceived organizational support moderated the effects of workload on experienced affective distress, such that this relationship was weaker for individuals who

reported having higher levels of decision latitude or perceived organizational support, compared to those who reported having lower levels of decision latitude or perceived organizational support. Similarly, Bakker et al. (2005), in a study of 1,000 employees of a higher education organization, found that resources such as autonomy, available social support and a positive relationship with one's supervisor reduced the magnitude of the relationship between various work demands and decreased well-being. These findings are in line with previous work, such as Landsbergis' (1988) examination of 771 hospital and nursing home employees, which found that high workloads combined with low decision latitude were associated with decreased subjective well-being, a relationship that persisted after controlling for a variety of work and demographic variables.

Similarly, Van Vegchel et al. (2004) also reported that that job control moderated the relationship between emotional demands and subjective well-being (measured as emotional exhaustion), thus providing additional support for an interactive effect between various conceptualization of work demands and available resources. Likewise, Rau (2004), in a 24-hour ambulatory assessment of cardiovascular functioning in a sample of 241 employees, found that individuals with both high job demands and increased decision latitude showed a healthier cardiovascular response pattern relative to employees occupying low-strain positions who did have the same characteristics, a finding that she argued indicates that job demands under certain conditions might be beneficial for the well-being of individuals.

Furthermore, in a longitudinal investigation of 90 blue-collar workers, Frese (1999) found that the presence of social support moderated the relationship between social stressors and psychological dysfunction, such that for individuals who reported receiving higher levels of social support, increased social stressors did not result in increased psychological dysfunction. A

similar effect was found in a within-individual investigation by Ilies et al. (2011), who reported that the relationship between interpersonal conflict and negative affect was weaker for individuals who reported receiving more social support, compared to individuals who reported receiving less social support.

The availability of job resources can potentially do more than simply protect employees from the deleterious effects of work demands. In a recent study of 12,359 employees from 148 organizations, Bakker et al. (2010) reported that when increased levels of job resources are available to employees, increased job demands can result in positive effects on experienced well-being (conceptualized as task satisfaction). Moreover, a variety of additional efforts can provide some indirect insights on the moderating effect of job resources on the relationship between work demands and subjective well-being, through examinations of factors associated with the latter. For example, Bishop, Enkelmann, Tong, Why, Diong, Ang, and Khader (2003) reported that increased job control was associated with a decreased relationship between job demands and a objective indicators of health (specifically, cardiovascular functioning), providing evidence for an indirect moderating effect of job resources through health's relationship with subjective well-being (Peiró, 2006; Wilson, 1967).

Not all empirical results were supportive of a buffering role on the part of workplace resources; in fact, other studies have previously failed to find a moderating effect of workplace resources on the relationship between workplace demands and well-being. For example, Spector (1987), in a study utilizing a sample of 136 university clerical workers, reported no significant interaction between job stressors and job control in predicting satisfaction and health-related well-being. Similarly, Daniels and Guppy (1994), in a sample of 224 accountants reported no moderating effects for job control (conceptualized as autonomy) or social support in the

relationship between work demands and psychological well-being outcomes. More research is therefore needed to understand the role of workplace resources in moderating the relationship between workplace demands and well-being outcomes, and in influencing individual levels of well-being in general.

Effects of Workplace Demands and Characteristics on Self-Efficacy

As previously mentioned, individuals' self-efficacy beliefs can be affected by a variety of processes, including mastery experiences, social persuasion, and physiological arousal stimuli (see Bandura, 1997). The experience of dealing with work demands, therefore, can be seen as likely to provide information relevant to individual self-efficacy beliefs through two main pathways. First, the degree of success or failure that individuals encounter when dealing with workplace demands can influence their confidence about their expected future performance. Failure to properly address work demands because of overload or experienced obstacles can lower self-efficacy beliefs, with the opposite being true when individuals succeed in addressing these demands. A supportive work environment can create opportunities for social persuasion, in which supportive comments or behaviors enhance self-efficacy by creating a sense of safety and individual worth. Finally, the experience of negative arousal states (such as anxiety, fear, or distress) that excessive work demands or negative social experiences can create can be interpreted by individuals as a sign that their abilities do not suffice to successfully cope with their work environment, thus reducing their perceived efficaciousness (Bandura, 1997).

In general, empirical work has been supportive of the importance of workplace demands and experiences in informing self-efficacy beliefs. For example, Webster, Beehr, and Christiansen (2010) found that challenge and hindrance stressors were significantly associated with self-efficacy levels in a sample of 143 employees from a variety of organizational settings;

specifically, challenge stressors predicted self-efficacy positively, and hindrance stressors predicted self-efficacy negatively. Similarly, Taris, Kompier, De Lange, Schaufeli, and Schreurs (2003), in study involving 876 Dutch teachers, found that job demands were negatively associated with individuals' level of self-efficacy beliefs.

Enhanced self-efficacy has also been linked to the presence of various positive job characteristics such as social and organizational support mechanisms (Bandura, 2000). For example, Xanthopoulou, Baker, Heuven, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2008), in a sample of 44 flight attendants, found that higher levels of colleague support was positively and significantly associated with increased self-efficacy. In a similar vein, Segrin and Taylor (2007) found that perceptions of positive relations with others were associated with increased self-efficacy beliefs in a sample of 703 individuals. A comparable pattern of results was reported by Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2007), using a conceptualization of self-efficacy as part of a personal resources construct. Their study found that job resources were associated with increased perceptions of personal resources, and personal resources mediated the relationship between characteristics of the workplace and experienced well-being (operationalized as engagement and exhaustion). Further support is given by Martinussen, Richardsen, and Burke (2007) who found that having higher levels of available social support was associated with increased professional efficacy in a sample of 205 police officers in Norway. Finally, Taris et al. (2003) found that job control was significantly associated with self-efficacy beliefs, and a similar finding was reported by Yoon (2001).

Similarly, adverse changes to the work environment can have a negative impact on self-efficacy beliefs. For example, Parker (2003), in a 3-year quasi-experimental study involving 368 employees, reported that changes to the workplace that resulted in reduced perceptions of job

characteristics such as skill utilization and decision making participation were associated with subsequent decreases in self-efficacy beliefs with regards to employee role breadth. Hecht and Allen (2005) also found support for the view that a good fit between workplace characteristics and the preferences or needs of an individual (focusing, in their case, on the temporal ordering of tasks at work) were associated with increased self-efficacy and affective well-being.

There have, however, been some reports of contradictory findings in investigations of the relationship between workplace factors and self-efficacy. For example, Parker and Sprigg (1999) found no relationship between role-breadth self-efficacy and strain in a sample of 268 manufacturing employees in the United Kingdom. Holman and Wall (2002), in a paper reporting the results of two cross-sectional and one longitudinal study of call-center employees, found no relationship between workplace demands and stressors and self-efficacy beliefs. As a cautionary note, however, these authors suggested that the general nature of the self-efficacy measure they used was probably the result of this non-significant relationship. Jex and Gudanowski (1992) also reported no significant relationship between workplace stressors and self-efficacy beliefs; while their measure of was more specific than the measure of Holman and Wall (2002), the stressors they used (role ambiguity, situational constraints, and hours worked) might not be best examined in a cross-sectional design, as they may fluctuate significantly across workdays.

Apart from providing some evidence for the importance of considering workplace characteristics (including workplace demands, work experiences, and characteristics of the workplace), the above studies indicate that although these workplace characteristics can have an impact on an individual's self-efficacy beliefs, investigations focusing on this relationship need to carefully consider both the required study design to be utilized in researching this relationship, as well as temporal and measurement considerations.

Self-Efficacy and Subjective Well-Being

Self-efficacy beliefs are thought to relate to individual levels of subjective well-being by increasing the perceived control that the individual has over their environment, context, and current situation, thus transforming individual's perceptions and affective reactions. Bandura (1997, p. 140) states that "perceived efficacy to exercise control over potentially threatening events plays a central role in anxiety arousal." In general, therefore, higher levels of efficacy can result in the individual perceiving their environment as less stressful or threatening, thus reducing the potential of accumulation strain and resulting in higher individual levels of subjective well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Previous research has been supportive of a direct link between self-efficacy beliefs and the experience of increased subjective well-being (Bandura, 1997; Gecas, 1989; Karademas 2007). For example, Karademas (2006) found that self-efficacy beliefs were associated with subjective well-being (operationalized using life satisfaction and depression as indicators) experienced one month later. Furthermore, the results of this study indicated that self-efficacy had both a direct as well as an indirect effect, operating through its association with individual levels of optimism. In a related study, Karademas (2007) also found that self-efficacy was associated with positive well-being (operationalized using life satisfaction, vitality and positive affect as indicators) experienced one month later, while Schwerdtfeger, Konermann, and Schönhofen (2008) found that occupation-specific self-efficacy was related to psychological well-being (assessed with subjective reports as well as with physiological responses such as cardiovascular variables and cortisol levels). Furthermore, Tran, Wright, and Chatters (1991) reported that self-efficacy beliefs were associated with increased subjective well-being in a

sample of older individuals, replicating previous findings (Bortner & Hultsch, 1970; Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976).

Self-efficacy has also been found to be negatively associated with indicators of low subjective well-being such as depression and anxiety (Jex & Gudanowski, 1992). Similarly, Fillion, et al. (2007) found that self-efficacy had a negative relationship with emotional distress in a sample of 209 palliative-care nurses, while Holahan, Holahan, and Belk (1984) found that self-efficacy was associated with lower levels of depression in a sample of older individuals. Additionally, Evers, Brouwers, and Tomic (2002), utilizing a sample of 490 teachers in the Netherlands, found that self-efficacy was significantly and negatively related to burnout, further demonstrating that such beliefs can play a role in subjective well-being processes. Similarly, Wilk and Moynihan (2005), utilizing a sample of 1,236 call center employees (nested within 429 supervisors), found that higher levels of self-efficacy beliefs were associated with decreased emotional exhaustion, a component of job burnout and an indicator of low subjective well-being. Creed, Lehmann, and Hood (2009) found that self-efficacy had a significant zero-order relationship with psychological well-being (although this relationship became insignificant when including other core self-evaluation variables as predictors in a multivariate model). Finally, Fillion et al. (2007) found that self-efficacy was associated with decreased emotional distress in a sample of 209 palliative-care nurses.

Importantly, these effects can potentially operate through multiple psychological pathways. For example, Karademas, Kafetsios, and Sideridis (2007) demonstrated that individuals higher in self-efficacy were less sensitive to threat stimuli, thus showing that increased self-efficacy might be associated with more positive perceptions of the environment, and thus a decreased potential to experience strain. Moreover, increased self-efficacy can

potentially enable individuals to better cope with the demands of their environment (Jex et al., 2001). In terms of work-related functioning, a meta-analysis by Judge, Jackson, Shaw, Scott, and Rich (2007) indicated that self-efficacy was related to at least some aspects of workplace performance, suggesting that increased levels of this self-evaluation could indicate an increased capacity to deal with workload and other work demands. This contention would then provide another pathway through which self-efficacy can relate to subjective well-being and strain, because of its association with how well individuals can perform (and thus cope with) the requirements of their work.

In summary, self-efficacy beliefs have been found to be associated with subjective well-being, affecting both its positive as well as its negative indicators. Moreover, this relationship appears to operate through a variety of pathways, further underlining the importance of including self-efficacy in theoretical and empirical examinations of the predictors of subjective well-being.

Self-Efficacy as a Mediator and Moderator of the Relationship between Workplace Demands and Experiences and Subjective Well-Being

Apart from investigations of the main effects of self-efficacy, other efforts have focused on the role of self-efficacy either as a moderator of the relationships between workplace demands and experiences and subjective well-being, or as a mediator of these relationships. In the latter approach, self-efficacy is thought to provide an explanation for the relationship between workplace demands and experiences and subjective-well-being outcomes. That is, excessive levels of work demands are expected to be associated with lower levels of well-being in part because the decreases in self-efficacy that can accompany these demands are expected to be detrimental to individual well-being.

Theoretically, an individual's self-efficacy beliefs can directly relate to the behaviors the individual is likely to manifest in the workplace, as well as the levels of effort and persistence that the individual is likely to muster in dealing with work demands (Bandura, 1997). In general, higher efficacy levels will result in individuals having higher expectancies of success in resolving workplace demands, which might make these demands seem less stressful or threatening (via the primary appraisal processes of the transactional stress model), thus reducing the potential for increased strain. Furthermore, self-efficacy beliefs can provide the individual with higher levels of motivation, thus increasing the likelihood that workplace demands will be successfully dealt with. As a result, decreases in self-efficacy can be expected to explain, at least in part, why increased job demands can be associated with decreased well-being.

This mediating role of self-efficacy on the effects of coping processes was supported by the results reported by Bandura, Taylor, Williams, Mefford, and Barchas (1985), who found that experimentally increased perceptions of self-efficacy were associated with decreased adverse physiological reactions when interacting with a phobic object (a perceived stressor). These authors argued that increased self-efficacy provided subjects with a perception of increased control, which in turn enabled individuals to better cope with the demands of the laboratory task they participated in. The role of self-efficacy for personal well-being was further supported in a laboratory study by Wiedenfeld, O'Leary, Bandura, Brown, Levine, and Raska (1990), who reported that self-efficacy beliefs enhanced participant's immunological system responses, enabling them to better respond to environmental stressors. Furthermore, this mediating effect of self-efficacy has also been found to be temporally persistent. For example, Cieslak, Benight, and Lehman (2008) reported that self-efficacy mediated the effects of negative cognitions on distress in two separate samples of individuals exposed to traumatic events, and these authors argued for

the potential of successful coping with previous events to enable individuals to better cope with any events they currently face.

Self-efficacy has also been utilized in models of workplace functioning as a moderator of the relationship between workplace experiences and subjective well-being. According to the transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), highly efficacious individuals are expected to (a) perceive fewer workplace stimuli as threatening or stressful, and (b) be more likely to consider themselves capable to successfully deal with stimuli that are actually perceived as stressful. Therefore, the relationship between workplace demands and experiences and subjective well-being can be expected to be lower in magnitude for individuals in a higher self-efficacy state.

This moderating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between workplace demands and experiences and experienced subjective well-being has been previously empirically demonstrated in the literature. For example, Siu, Spector, Cooper, and Lu (2005) reported that apart from a direct effect on job satisfaction, self-efficacy beliefs also attenuated the relationship between a variety of workplace stressors and well-being in a sample of employees in Hong Kong and Beijing. Likewise, Heuven, Bakker, Schaufeli, and Huisman (2006) demonstrated the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between emotional demands in the workplace and well-being outcomes; in a study of 154 cabin attendants, these authors found that higher levels of self-efficacy allowed employees to better deal with the emotional demands of their work, compared to employees with lower levels of self-efficacy. A similar moderating effect was reported by Jex and Bliese (1999); in analyzing the results of a survey that included 2,273 soldiers, they found that in addition to a zero-order negative association between self-efficacy beliefs and psychological strains, these self-efficacy beliefs also provided a moderating

effect on the relationship between work overload, work hours, and psychological strain experienced, such that the impact of these workplace demands on strain was much weaker for individuals high in self-efficacy.

Furthermore, in a study of 589 governmental employees going through a period of organizational change, Jimmieson, Terry, and Callan (2004) found that, in addition to having a direct effect on current psychological well-being, self-efficacy beliefs moderated the effects of role ambiguity, quantitative workload and experienced difficulties on psychological well-being levels assessed two years later, with self-efficacy beliefs demonstrating a buffering effect for individuals in this sample. Finally, this moderating effect has been also replicated in studies in other cultural contexts. For example, in a study of 450 enterprise managers in China, Lu, Siu, and Cooper (2005) reported that self-efficacy moderated the effect of experienced stressors on physical (although not psychological) strain, such that this relationship was significantly weaker for individuals who reported higher levels of managerial self-efficacy, compared to individuals reporting lower levels of managerial self-efficacy.

In general, therefore, the above studies demonstrate that self-efficacy can play an important role in predicting individual well-being. Self-efficacy, furthermore, can have both mediating and moderating effects. That is, self-efficacy can both partly explain why exposure to environmental stimuli such as stressors or work demands can lead to fluctuations in subjective well-being, as well as affect the strength of the relationship between subjective well-being and its predictors. As such, it can be thought as both affecting and being affected in turn by individuals' experience, and the outcomes of these dual processes can have important implications.

Coping and Subjective Well-Being

The transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) considers coping to be a central process in the relationship between workplace stressors and individual well-being. According to this model, coping is considered an adaptive, dynamic process through which individuals attempt to resolve experienced (or anticipated) stressors or to reduce the impact of these stressors on their subjective well-being and experienced strain. As such, coping can impact well-being through two main processes: by directly enhancing well-being levels (for example, by taking action to remove stressors proactively) and by buffering the individual from the effects of experienced stressors (for example, by swiftly resolving current workplace demands).

Empirical evidence is generally supportive of the importance of coping in directly influencing individual levels of subjective well-being, although, as previously mentioned, investigations have tended to focus more on the types of coping individuals engage in rather than the success or failure of these efforts. Nevertheless, investigations of coping have provided us with important findings in terms of the effects of this process on subjective well-being levels for individuals. For example, in an investigation of 480 individuals, Ben-Zur (2009) reported that coping was significantly associated with the affective component of subjective well-being. Furthermore, different coping styles showed opposite patterns of effects, with problem-focused coping being associated with increased positive and decreased negative affect, while avoidance coping showed an opposite pattern. Similarly, Weinstein, Brown, and Ryan, (2009) in a series of studies including laboratory, longitudinal and diary designs, found that approach coping was positively associated with subjective well-being, and a similar finding was reported by Aryee, Luk, Keung, and Lo (1999), who found that emotion-focused coping was related to life (but not job) satisfaction.

Other researchers have focused on coping as a moderator or mediator of other subjective well-being processes. Greenglass and Fiksenbaum (2009) reported that a proactive coping style was associated with improved psychological functioning, and this coping style also partially mediated the effects of social support availability on subjective well-being, thus providing some insight on how personal resources and behaviors relate to each other in predictions of individual well-being. In terms of the moderating role of coping, Kohn, Hay and Legere (1994) found that various coping styles had only a modest moderation role on the relationships between hassles and negative well-being, and these authors suggested that investigations of coping ability might be more successful than investigations of coping style alone. Parkes (1990), however, found that direct coping styles moderated the relationship between work demands and psychological strain such that for individuals high in direct coping, the positive relationship between work demands and mental strain was weaker compared to individuals low in direct coping. In general, although coping style has been previously associated with subjective well-being outcomes, there seems to be a need to move beyond simple investigations of the effects on coping types, and to better integrate coping into models of workplace functioning.

Summary

This literature review hopefully indicates that workplace demands and experiences, as well as factors such as job control and availability of workplace support, are important predictors of individual well-being and self-efficacy beliefs. These self-efficacy beliefs, in turn, are expected to be significant predictors of individual levels of well-being. Finally, coping can be seen as representing an important component in models of workplace functioning and subjective well-being, although there is a need to approach such a factor in a more ordered and careful manner.

Next, I will present a conceptual model linking these factors. I will present the hypotheses comprising this model, provide theoretical and empirical support for these hypotheses, and finally discuss a study designed to test this model in a two-week investigation involving a sample of clerical and administrative workers. As my analyses involve variables at two levels of analysis (with state or momentary variables comprising the within-individual level of analyses and trait or averaged state variables comprising the between-individual level of analysis), I will indicate in each section whether the expected effects lie at the within- or between-individual level, or alternatively the whether the expected effect implies cross-level relationships (see Figures 1 and 2 for a summary of the hypothesized relationships).

Hypothesis Development

The Relationship of Work Demands and Experiences to Subjective Well-Being.

Work demands have been theoretically linked to decreased subjective well-being and increased distress in a variety of workplace stress models, including the demands-control model (Karasek, 1979), the model of person-environment fit (French et al., 1982) and the transactional model of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). While a certain level of job demands is an expected part of any occupation or workplace, as work demands increase, the possibility that they will begin to tax the individuals' capabilities to effectively deal with them increases as well. This is the process by which, for example, workloads can overwhelm employees and become work overload (Ilies et al., 2010). In general, the higher the job demands experienced by the individual, the more likely it is that (a) these demands will be perceived as more psychologically threatening, initiating unfavorable secondary appraisal processes that could lead to strain (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), (b) they will exceed an individual's perceived and actual capabilities to adequately address them, resulting in a person-environment misfit (French et al., 1982; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), and (c) expose the individual to accumulations of stress and anxiety that can result in reductions of subjective well-being (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). While workload is the perhaps the most commonly examined job demand under these processes (see, for example, Ilies et al., 2010), other demands of the workplace such as emotional demands and role conflict can operate in a similar manner, and might even have a lower threshold for being perceived as threatening as they might not automatically be considered as a routine part of the job in the same way as workload.

Negative social experiences at work (the most common manifestation of which can be interpersonal conflict and workplace incivility) can similarly result in reductions in well-being levels. Insofar as they are perceived as a threat to salient aspects of an individual's life, their effects can be appraised and reacted to in a similar fashion as work demands (Lazarus, 1999). Moreover, interpersonal conflict at work has been conceptually linked to negative affective reactions, which can in turn result in a reduction of experienced well-being levels (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). These affective reactions can also exert an informative effect on individual attitudes and judgments (Schwarz & Clore, 1983), thus decreasing individual global satisfaction and well-being perceptions and providing another pathway through which negative experiences can impact subjective well-being. Finally, the experience of interpersonal conflict or workplace incivility can command attitudinal, cognitive and other resources (Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005) in order to be processed, explained, and reacted to by the individual. These attitudinal and cognitive resources are then no longer available to the individual, and this reduction in available resources can then further reduce an individual's capacity to cope with their environment, ultimately resulting in decreases in subjective well-being.

Nevertheless, a case could be made for the potential of work demands to provide a beneficial effect on individual subjective well-being. Namely, the presence of work demands can provide opportunities for personal successes and fulfillment of professional or personal goals, which could be expected to relate positively to individual subjective well-being. In this case, one would expect a positive, instead of negative, relationship between work demands and subjective well-being, and indeed this positive relationship is a point in which I return to in Hypothesis 8.

However, I expect that work demands and negative social experiences will have, on average, a negative effect, for two main reasons. First, in their role as the instigators of action, all

workplace demands require effort and mobilization of resources to engage (Theorell & Karasek, 1990), which can lead to resource depletion and fatigue with some possible negative outcomes for individual well-being, even if the job demands are ultimately resolved successfully. Second, the negative event of failing to successfully resolve a certain demand can have a stronger harmful effect on the individual than the possible positive effects of success could have, due to a tendency of negative events to have an asymmetrically strong effect on individuals, compared to positive ones (Fiske & Taylor, 1984; Taylor, 1991). In other words, while work demands have the potential to provide some benefits towards individual well-being in certain cases, on average, I expect that workplace events and experiences will have an overall negative effect on individual well-being.

Empirical approaches have been generally supportive of the net negative effects of workplace demands and negative social experiences on subjective well-being. For example, Ilies et al., (2010), in a 14-day ESM study involving 64 individuals, found that increased demands experienced at work (conceptualized as workload) were associated with two indicators of poor subjective well-being measured at the end of the day at home (γ = .24 for emotional exhaustion and .13 for daily strain assessed with the General Health Questionnaire). Other efforts have demonstrated the negative effects of work demands on the affective component of subjective well-being (Repetti, 1993; Geurts, Kompier, Roxburgh, & Houtman, 2003; Rau & Triemer, 2004; Ilies et al., 2007).

Similar effects were reported by Dimotakis et al. (2010) with regard to negative social experiences in the workplace; these authors showed that workplace interactions of a more negative character (including interpersonal conflict) were associated with increased negative affect (β = .42). Likewise, Taris, Peeters, LeBlanc, Schreurs, and Schaufeli (2001) found that the

experience of injustice in the workplace was associated with decreased well-being in a sample of teachers (N = 271), and van Eck, Nicolson, and Berkhof (1998) reported that daily unpleasant events were associated with decreased positive and increased negative affect, corroborating previous research (DeLongis, Folkman, & Lazarus, 1988; Affleck, Tennen, Urrows, & Higgins, 1994; Clark & Watson, 1998).

Therefore, there is adequate conceptual and empirical evidence to support a main effect of the daily levels of workplace demands and negative social experiences on individual subjective well-being levels. Thus, I expect that, within-individuals, increased job demands and negative experiences in the workplace will be associated with decreased levels of subjective well-being.

Hypothesis 1a: Higher levels of daily work demands will be associated with lower levels of subjective well-being.

Hypothesis 1b: More negative social experiences at work will be associated with lower levels of subjective well-being.

Experiences, Demands and Self-Efficacy

As previously discussed, self-efficacy beliefs are formed through a number of different pathways (Bandura, 1997), of which *mastery experiences, social persuasion,* and *physiological states* are the most relevant ones for the model proposed in this paper. Furthermore, Stajkovic (2006), in the context of discussing the core confidence component of self-efficacy, also described that individuals' confidence in their capabilities to deal with specific contexts are

informed by perceptions of their previous experiences, and their success in dealing with such contexts in the past. These processes thus both provide support for the view that workplace demands and experiences can influence individuals' self-efficacy beliefs. That is, previous success or failure in dealing with work demands can result in increases and decreases in self-efficacy, respectively. Moreover, the affective and psychological states experienced in dealing with such demands (whether such coping efforts were successful or not) can also inform self-efficacy judgments, with increased anxiety, or negative affect resulting in decreases in self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997). Finally, interpersonal conflict and experienced incivility can provide some degree of negative information to the employee about themselves (for example, in cases of destructive criticism), which can further reduce self-efficacy beliefs.

Increased job demands can also increase the chances of failure in at least some aspect of the work, thus reducing individual's self-efficacy beliefs through another potential pathway. Specifically, increased job demands can underline areas of concern formerly unknown to the individual (for example, by identifying a component of one's tasks that is more complex than expected, or by realizing that one's skills in a particular might not be sufficient in the future), resulting in decreased self-efficacy if one's success at a task is seen as an unrepeatable or overly costly endeavor (Bandura, 1982). Furthermore, increased job demands can require individuals to expend high levels of effort in order to cope with or resolve these demands, and this increased effort can be interpreted by the employee as a sign of decreased ability and reduced confidence in the likelihood of being able to produce the same high level of effort required to succeed in similar difficulties in the future, again resulting in decreases in self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura & Cervone, 1986).

As in the case of the relationship between work demands and subjective well-being, however, the successful resolution of work demands at work can also result in increased self-efficacy beliefs for individuals, in cases where this resolution provides information to the individual about potential increased capabilities to function effectively in the workplace (a point which I explore more fully in Hypothesis 8). Nevertheless, as with job demands, I expect that the net effect of job demands on self-efficacy will be on average negative, for two main reasons. First, the asymmetric impact of negative events (Fiske & Taylor, 1984; Taylor, 1991) on individual experiences and attitudes is expected to result in sharper self-efficacy decreases in the cases of negative work functioning outcomes, compared to the potential gain in the case of positive work functioning outcomes. Second, the successful resolution of workplace demands is expected to represent a mastery experience only in the cases where such resolution is, in some fashion, novel or exceptional. In other cases, individuals will maintain a stable level of self-efficacy in cases of success, and suffer a lower level of self-efficacy in cases of failure. In other words, the potential for self-efficacy losses is higher than the potential for gains of self-efficacy under most circumstances, and thus I expect that the relationship between workplace demands and negative social experiences and self-efficacy will be negative.

Available empirical evidence is supportive of a net negative relationship between workplace demands and self-efficacy beliefs. For example, Taris et al. (2003), in a sample composed of 876 Dutch teachers, found that increased job demands had a negative effect on self-efficacy beliefs, while Jex and Bliese (1999) reported a negative zero-order correlation between work overload and self-efficacy (r = -.20) in a sample of 2,273 soldiers. Supporting the relationship between past performance and self-efficacy judgments, Yeo and Neal (2006), as well as Vancouver and Kendall (2006), found that past performance was positively associated

with self-efficacy perceptions, and a similar finding was reported by Locke, Frederick, Lee, and Bobko (1984), providing empirical support for another pathway through which self-efficacy beliefs can be formed. Similarly, Mitchell, Hopper, Daniels, George-Falvy, and James (1994) reported that past performance was associated with self-efficacy beliefs in a laboratory task (although this association was reported to slightly decrease over time). Finally, a zero-order association between job demands and self-efficacy was reported by Schaubroeck and Merritt (1997).

In terms of the effects of workplace experiences, Webster et al. (2010) found a relationship between negative workplace events (conceptualized as hindrance stressors) and self-efficacy beliefs in a sample of 143 employees. Likewise, Lubbers, Loughlin and Zweig (2005), found that the experience of interpersonal conflict at work was negatively associated with self-efficacy beliefs in a sample of 195 young workers (β = -.16). Finally, Baron (1988) reported that receiving destructive criticism (a potentially important negative workplace event associated with incivility) resulted in decreases in self-efficacy in a sample of 106 undergraduate students.

There is, therefore, enough theoretical and empirical support to suggest negative within-individual relationships between the daily levels of workplace demands and negative social experiences experienced and the subsequent formation of lower levels of self-efficacy beliefs.

Hypothesis 2a: Higher levels of daily work demands will be associated with lower levels of self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 2b: More negative social experiences at work will be associated with lower levels of self-efficacy.

Workplace Resources, Well-Being and Self-Efficacy

The level of workplace resources individuals have available can be another important predictor of subjective-well-being levels (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Elsass & Veiga, 1997). For both job control and workplace support, one reason for this association can be that these resources are thought to be able to fulfill intrinsic individual needs, which, when unmet, can impact subjective well-being levels negatively. Indeed, the acquisition and retention of control over the circumstances of one's life has been characterized as an intrinsic individual motivation (Elsass & Veiga, 1997), an argument that can be extended to control or discretion over one's circumstances at work. Moreover, the presence of social and organizational support in the workplace directly relates to the satisfaction of relatedness needs (Ryan & Deci, 2000), thus resulting in higher subjective well-being through the satisfaction of these needs. These theoretical arguments thus posit that individuals who perceive that they have available workplace support and who are able to exert control over their work environments should have higher levels of subjective well-being compared to individuals who do not.

The second factor linking the availability of workplace resources to individual well-being can be the primary appraisal process of the transactional stress model (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). According to this argument, the presence of workplace resources can lead individuals to perceive that their environment contains fewer threatening or stressful stimuli. That is, individuals who possess a variety of workplace stressors can perceive their environment as generally positive, thus providing an additive effect that can result in stressors such as work demands being appraised as neutral or benign. This second argument is also supportive of a link between workplace resources and individual self-efficacy beliefs; when the availability of

resources enables the individual to perceive their work environment as less threatening, employees can have increased levels of confidence their ability to successfully deal with these demands (Bandura, 1997). On the other hand, more threatening or stressful appraisals of a work environment create the perception of increased difficulty in dealing with these job demands, thus resulting in relatively lower levels of self-efficacy.

Empirical results provide support for a positive association between workplace resources and subjective well-being levels. Ippolito et al. (2005) found such an effect for job control, as did Holman and Wall (2002) and Liu et al. (2007). Similarly, Totterdell et al. (2006) found a similar effect for job control within-people, providing further evidence for the importance of job control as a workplace resource. La Rocco and Jones (1978) reported that workplace support was another valid work resource that is associated with well-being outcomes, while Karasek et al. (1982) reported a negative association between the presence of social support and levels of mental strain. Furthermore, in a large scale study in Sweden, Canivet et al. (2010) linked social support to reduced feelings of exhaustion (an indicator of low well-being). Finally, meta-analytic evidence provided by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) provides evidence for the importance of perceived organizational support in predicting individual indicators of well-being such as strain, job satisfaction, and positive affect experienced at work.

The available empirical evidence would also seem to support a relationship of work resources such as job control and workplace support to self-efficacy beliefs, although investigations of this relationship are not very common in the literature. For example, Taris et al. (2003), in an investigation involving 876 Dutch teachers, found that higher levels of job control were associated with increased self-efficacy beliefs. Rees and Freeman (2009) reported a similarly positive association between of social support and self-efficacy beliefs, an association

also reported by Saltzman and Holahan (2002) in a longitudinal examination of 300 undergraduate students, and Shen (2009) in a sample of 530 teachers. Furthermore, a zero-order association between perceived availability of social support and self-efficacy was reported by Maurer, Weiss, and Barbeite (2003), as well as by Karademas (2006).

In sum, the available theoretical and empirical evidence provides support for a between-individual association of workplace resources with average levels of subjective well-being, as well as an association with average levels of self-efficacy beliefs. Therefore, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3a: Higher levels of available workplace resources will be associated with higher average levels of subjective well-being.

Hypothesis 3b: Higher levels of available workplace resources will be associated with higher average levels of self-efficacy beliefs.

Self-Evaluations and Subjective Well-Being

Self-efficacy beliefs have been theoretically linked to individual levels of subjective well-being (Bandura, 1977), with Warr (2006) arguing that self-efficacy beliefs as they relate to the present situation are one of the judgments most closely related to the experience of individual well-being. In essence, these beliefs relate to perceptions of whether one can respond to current and future situations in a sufficient or satisfactory manner, and as such can influence the individual's perceptions about their capability to overcome challenges and maintain an adequate level of functioning through a number of processes. High self-efficacy can result in more positive primary appraisals of the external environment (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), whereby

individuals perceive fewer stimuli as threatening to their well-being; these appraisal processes can result in a positive relationship between self-efficacy and subjective well-being through individual perceptions of a more positive and less stressful environment. Moreover, decreased self-efficacy has been argued to relate to more ineffectual modes of coping (Jex and Gudanowski, 1992), and to decreased perceptions of control (Litt, 1988), thus creating a perception for the individual of an environment that is more stressful and harder to contend with. These perceptions in turn can result in a higher potential for the accumulation of strain. In general then, increased self-efficacy is theoretically expected to relate to increased levels of subjective well-being.

Empirical evidence is also highly supportive of this effect (Bandura, 1997; Gecas, 1989; Karademas 2007). For example, Karademas et al. (2007), in a study of 104 undergraduate students, found both a direct and an indirect (through optimism) effect of self-efficacy on perceptions of strain. Moreover, Karademas (2006) found that self-efficacy beliefs were associated with subjective well-being (operationalized using life satisfaction and depression as indicators) experienced one month later. Similarly, Schwerdtfeger et al. (2008) found that occupation-specific self-efficacy was positively related to positive affect, and negatively related to negative affect and burnout in a sample of teachers. Utilizing a national 2,107 sample of older African-American adults, Tran et al. (1991) reported that self-efficacy beliefs were associated with increased subjective well-being (β = .26). Finally, in a sample of 8,796 participants from 5 countries, Luszczynska, Gutiérrez-Doña, and Schwarzer (2005) found that self-efficacy was positively associated with increased positive affect and life satisfaction, and negatively associated with negative affect, anxiety and depression.

In terms of other negative indicators of subjective well-being, Fillion et al. (2007) found a negative relationship between self-efficacy and emotional distress (β = -.26) in a sample of 209 palliative-care nurses. Similarly, in a sample of 490 teachers in the Netherlands, Evers et al. (2002), found a negative relationship between self-efficacy and various dimensions of burnout. Finally, Wilk and Moynihan (2005), found a negative relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and burnout in a sample of 1,236 call center employees.

In view of the theoretical and empirical support for a relationship between self-efficacy and individual levels of subjective well-being, I propose that, within-individuals, self-efficacy beliefs will be positively associated with subjective well-being.

Hypothesis 4: Increased self-efficacy beliefs at the end of the workday will be associated with increased subjective well-being.

The Mediating Role of Self-Efficacy

Thus far, I have advanced arguments for the relationships of (a) workplace demands and negative social experiences to subjective well-being, (b) available workplace resources to subjective well-being, (c) workplace demands and negative social experiences to self-efficacy states, (d) available workplace resources to self-efficacy states and (e) self-efficacy states to subjective well-being. Drawing again from the linkages between self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1997), and the demands-control model (Karasek, 1979), I now turn to a discussion of the mediating role of self-efficacy in the relationships between workplace experiences and subjective well-being.

Indeed, the effect of workplace demands and experiences on subjective well-being can be partially explained through their association with self-efficacy beliefs. That is, increases in work demands and negative social workplace experiences can negatively affect an individual's levels of well-being specifically because these events lead them to doubt their abilities to deal with the demands of their daily lives, which can then result in decreases in individual levels of self-efficacy beliefs. These decreases, in turn, can have a negative impact on individual levels of subjective well-being as mentioned above.

In terms of the effects of available workplace resources, I expect self-efficacy to again mediate the positive impact of resources on individual well-being levels. In this case, the effects of workplace resources on subjective well-being will be expected to be explained, at least partially, due to the enhancing of self-efficacy beliefs that workplace resources can affect on individuals. That is, the availability of organizational and social support and control over one's work will be associated with increased well-being specifically because individuals who have more access to these resources are more likely to hold higher efficacy beliefs (as previously stated).

The above arguments discuss how self-efficacy can mediate the within-individual negative effects of workplace demands and negative social experiences, and the between-individual positive effects of available workplace resources, on subjective well-being. However, because subjective well-being is associated with a variety of other factors, such as physiological health (Judge, Ilies, & Dimotakis, 2010) and recovery activities (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2006), I only expect self-efficacy to partially mediate these effects (see Figure 1). In short, I propose that:

Hypothesis 5: Self-efficacy beliefs will partially mediate the effects of (a) workplace demands, (b) negative social experiences, and (c) workplace resources on subjective well-being levels.

The Moderating Role of Workplace Resources on the Relationship between Workplace Demands and Negative Events and Their Outcomes

Job control (or decision latitude) and workplace support have been hypothesized to moderate the impact of job demands on individual-level outcomes. In terms of job demands, increased control can enable individuals to more effectively deal with the requirements of their environment (see Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Such effectiveness can come from an increase in the potential options individuals can have to manage their work demands and energy expenditure, such as the capability to utilize respites to avoid strain (Sonnentag, 2001), or the utilization of time management strategies designed to help individuals contend better with the requirements of their workplace (Adams & Jex, 1999). On the other hand, when control is not available, employees will not have many options available to them in order to successfully cope with increases in job demands (Karasek, 1979). Karasek and Theorell (1990) offered the example of the assembly worker whose behavior is severely constrained, leaving them unable to respond to increases in job demands (such as increases in line assembly speed), and thus resulting in increased strain that cannot be easily avoided.

The demands-control model has been expanded by Johnson and Hall (1988) to include the role of workplace support in alleviating the negative effects of job demands. The presence of social support can provide informational, instrumental and emotional assistance to its recipients (House, 1981) thus providing them with greater capabilities to deal with the requirements of their

environment. Receiving social support can thus provide individuals with assistance and affirmation (Lincoln, 2008), reducing the difficulty or load of their work, and improving their perceptions of their capabilities in dealing with the demands of the work environment.

Recently, Ilies et al. (2010) examined perceived organizational support (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002) as another potential moderator of the effects of workplace demands and experiences, with the expectation that the organization can represent another important source of support for the employee. Perceived organizational support is defined as an "assurance that aid will be available from the organization when it is needed to carry out one's job effectively and to deal with stressful situations" (Rhodes and Eisenberger, 2002, p. 698). Therefore, this source of support can provide additional help of a more instrumental character that directly relates to the capabilities of individuals to specifically address workplace demands in a successful fashion.

Empirical evidence supports the moderating effect of social and organizational support on the effects on workplace demands and experiences, although the evidence for a moderating effect of job demands is relatively mixed (see De Jonge & Kompier, 1997; De Lange, et al., 2003; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). Bakker et al. (2010) found that increased levels of job resources (which included support and autonomy) moderated the relationship between experienced workplace demands and well-being in a sample of 12,359 employees. Ilies et al. (2010) found that both decision latitude and perceived organizational support moderated the negative effects of workload on affective distress experienced at the end of the workday, such that these effects were weaker for individuals who reported increased decision latitude and perceived organizational support. Furthermore, Landsbergis (1988) found that high workloads in combination with decreased levels of decision latitude were associated with reductions in subjective well-being in a sample of 771 hospital and nursing home employees, and this

relationship that persisted after controlling for a variety of work and demographic variables. Likewise, Bakker et al. (2005), in a study of 1,000 employees of a higher education organization, found that workplace resources, including autonomy and social support, reduced the magnitude of the negative relationship between various work demands and well-being. Van Vegchel et al. (2004) also reported that job control moderated the relationship between emotional demands and subjective well-being (measured as emotional exhaustion), while Rau (2004), in a sample of 241 employees, found that having high job demands and high decision latitude was associated with a healthier physiological response compared to individuals who had high job demands but low decision latitude. Finally, Karasek et al. (1982) found that for individuals who reported having greater workplace support, the relationship between workplace stressors and mental strain was weaker compared to individuals who reported having lower levels support in the workplace.

While investigations of the effects of workplace resources on the effects of workplace demands on self-efficacy are lacking in the literature, the same theoretical arguments supporting the moderating effect of resources on subjective well-being can operate on self-efficacy beliefs. That is, the reduced perception of environmental demands and one's control over them, as well as the enhanced capabilities to cope with these environmental demands provided by job control and available workplace support can also buffer employees from the deleterious effects of job demands on self-efficacy (see above).

Therefore, based on the available theoretical linkages and empirical evidence, I expect that workplace support, as well as job control, will have a cross-level moderating effect, such that the effects of workplace demands and negative social experiences will be weaker for individuals reporting higher levels of available workplace resources (see Figure 1). In short, I expect that:

Hypothesis 6: Workplace resources will moderate the relationships of workplace demands and negative social experiences to (a) self-efficacy and (b) subjective well-being, such that the negative effects of work demands and negative social experiences will be weaker for individuals reporting having higher levels of available workplace resources, compared to individuals reporting having lower levels of available resources.

The Moderating Role of Prior Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Workplace Demands and Negative Events and Their Outcomes

Self-efficacy beliefs have been proposed to enhance individuals' capacities to mobilize resources, persistence, and effort in dealing with environmental stressors and persevering in the face of adversity (Bandura, 1997). Thus, self-efficacy can be related to individual levels of subjective well-being through the secondary appraisal process of the transactional stress model (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). According to this argument, the presence of workplace resources can lead individuals to perceive that stress stimuli experienced as part of the day do not represent overwhelming stressors that the individual will not be able to successfully cope with, but simply environmental demands that they can indeed engage and overcome. This perception can then enable individuals to take the proper actions (such as initiating coping strategies or otherwise taking action to deal with the situation at hand), thus possibly addressing the stressors and avoiding the stressors' effects on individual well-being.

That is, increased self-efficacy can result in individuals being more confident in their abilities to cope with work demands, thus being more likely to mobilize resources and manifest behaviors that can help them avoid their negative effects. For example, individuals with high

self-efficacy are more likely to undertake effective coping strategies (Jex & Bliese, 1999). This increased capability to deal with workplace demands, in turn, can strengthen individual self-efficacy beliefs even more, creating an upward spiral that is beneficial to the individual (Bandura, 1997). Finally, individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy beliefs are thought to be more resilient compared to less efficacious individuals, persisting even in the face of negative outcomes, thus potentially reducing the effects of workplace demands on future self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997).

Indeed, the literature has generally been supportive of this moderating effect of self-efficacy. Heuven et al. (2006) found that higher levels of self-efficacy allowed employees to better deal with the emotional demands of their work, compared to employees with lower levels of self-efficacy. Similarly, Siu et al. (2005) reported that self-efficacy beliefs moderated the relationship between workplace stressors and well-being in a sample of 234 employees in Hong Kong and Beijing, while Jex and Bliese (1999) found that higher self-efficacy neutralized the relationship between work overload and psychological strain. Furthermore, in a study of 589 governmental employees going through a period of organizational change, Jimmieson et al. (2004) found that self-efficacy moderated the effects of a variety of workplace stressors (including role ambiguity, quantitative workload and experienced job difficulties) on psychological well-being levels assessed two years later, with self-efficacy reducing the magnitude of these relationships.

In summary, I expect that, within-individuals, previously formed self-efficacy beliefs will protect individuals from the effects of currently experienced negative workplace demands and experiences, such that on days in which individuals experience stressful or negative workplace events after having experienced high levels of self-efficacy beliefs, the effects of these workplace

events will be weaker in magnitude (compared to days in which individuals experience stressful or negative workplace events after a decrease in their level of self-efficacy beliefs; see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 7: Previously formed levels of self-efficacy beliefs will moderate the relationship between workplace demands and negative social experiences and (a) self-efficacy beliefs and (b) subjective well-being levels, such that these relationships will be weaker on days in which individuals encounter these events after experiencing high levels of prior self-efficacy, compared to days in which individuals encounter these events after experiencing low levels of prior self-efficacy.

The Moderating Role of Coping, And the Relationships among the Moderators of the Effects of Workplace Demands and Experiences

The last two hypotheses discussed the expected moderating influences of workplace resources and prior self-efficacy beliefs on the negative effects of workplace demands and experiences. The theoretical frameworks supporting these effects, however, implicitly or explicitly depend on coping and functioning arguments in making these propositions. Coping is a central factor in the relationship between perceptions of stressors and the experience of strain and subjective well-being (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, 1999). Furthermore, the arguments advanced in the demands-control model (Karasek & Theorell, 1990) as well as the self-efficacy component of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1997) discuss that control and self-efficacy can have valuable buffering effects specifically because they allow individuals to cope better with their environment by summoning resources and manifesting behaviors that enable them to better respond to the environmental demands at hand. This increased coping

success is thus expected to be the most proximal moderator of the relationship between workplace demands and experiences and their outcomes. Moreover, as the most proximal moderator, coping success is also expected to mediate the ameliorating effect of work resources and prior levels of self-efficacy.

In other words, by successfully engaging in coping responses, individuals are able to better muster the efforts and behaviors that can enable them to deal with the demands of their work environment effectively (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). These efforts and behaviors can then in turn either directly address the work demand itself (for example, by managing to successfully complete a difficult work assignment) or manage the impact of the stressor (for example, by ordering tasks such that individuals can better manage their effort expenditure during their workday). Therefore, coping success can have a within-individual moderating effect on the effects of workplace demands and negative social experiences, with higher levels of coping success ameliorating the negative effects of these experienced workplace events.

Moreover, success in coping with work demands can result in increases in self-efficacy beliefs, as this success represents a mastery experience that increases individual confidence in one's capabilities to function successfully in the workplace (Bandura, 1997). In this case, overcoming higher levels of environmental demands can provide more salient information to the individual about their capabilities. Furthermore, overcoming work demands can remove negative psychological and physiological states that are associated with reduced self-efficacy beliefs. In other words, when individuals successfully cope with a workplace demand, feelings of anxiety or discomfort can be removed, and their informational effect on self-efficacy is also expected to diminish. In general then, when individuals are faced with high levels of work demands and overcome them successfully, their self-efficacy beliefs are expected to increase correspondingly.

In this case, high coping success will be expected to result in a positive relationship between workplace demands and self-efficacy beliefs.

A similar effect can be expected for the relationship between workplace demands and experiences and subjective well-being. Successfully coping with workplace demands can be seen as a positive affective event (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) that can create positive affective experiences, alleviate negative states, and as such result in increased levels of subjective well-being. Success in coping can also satisfy individual needs for competence (Ryan & Deci, 2000), which provide another mechanism for how coping success can relate to subjective well-being. As with self-efficacy then, under conditions of high coping success, workplace demands are expected to relate positively to subjective well-being, while under conditions of low coping success workplace demands are expected to maintain a negative relationship to subjective well-being (see Figure 1).

Furthermore, coping can explain the cross-level moderating effect of workplace resources and the within-individual moderating effect of previous self-efficacy beliefs on the relationship between work demands and subjective well-being. That is, for individuals who have high levels of available workplace resources or previously increased levels of self-efficacy beliefs, the relationship between work demands and subjective well-being is expected to be weaker, because these individuals will exhibit more successful coping strategies, and it is these successful coping strategies that buffer them from the negative impact of workplace demands and negative social experiences.

As previously mentioned, the literature on coping has tended to focus more on the types of coping rather than their (objective or subjective) effectiveness. Nevertheless, there is some empirical research to support that coping success is an important factor in dealing with stressors

(Zautra & Wrabetz, 1991). Furthermore, the finding that certain coping strategies are more effective in enhancing individual well-being (e.g., Ben-Zur, 2009) might be indicative of the importance of coping success in influencing well-being outcomes, by implicitly capturing the concept of coping success in such investigations. Furthermore, Greenglass and Fiksenbaum (2009) described the role of coping style in mediating the effects of social support on subjective well-being, while Parkes (1990) found that coping style can buffer individual levels of well-being from the negative effects of work demands. In all, although coping success has not been explicitly examined in the literature to an adequate level, to the extent that different coping styles can be differentially successful in dealing with work demands, these studies can be seen as indicating that coping can provide a buffering effect for individuals, and this buffering effect can explain to some extent the beneficial nature of workplace resources such as available workplace support (see Figure 1).

Therefore, drawing from these initial empirical results and the theoretical arguments underlying the demands-control model and self-efficacy, I contend that there is sufficient support to suggest these relationships. Thus, I propose that:

> *Hypothesis 8:* The degree of reported success in coping with workplace demands and negative social experiences will moderate the relationship of these demands and experiences to (a) self-efficacy beliefs and (b) subjective well-being levels, such that workplace demands and experiences will be positively associated with self-efficacy beliefs and subjective well-being on days in which individuals report higher levels of coping success, but negatively associated on days in which individuals report lower levels of coping success.

Hypothesis 9: Coping success will mediate the moderating effects of (a) available workplace resources and (b) previous levels of self-efficacy on the relationship between work demands and negative social experiences and self-efficacy beliefs.

Hypothesis 10: Coping success will mediate the moderating effects of (a) available workplace resources and (b) previous levels of self-efficacy on the relationship between work demands and negative social experiences and subjective well-being levels.

Summary of Study Hypotheses and Levels of Analysis

In summary, my study involves the following hypotheses across the various levels of analysis (see Figure 1 and Figure 2 for a summary of these proposed relationships). In terms of the within-individual main effects, I expect that higher levels of daily work demands and more negative social experiences will be associated with (a) lower levels of subjective well-being experienced at the end of the day, and (b) lower levels of self-efficacy experienced at the end of the workday. In turn, I expect that higher levels of self-efficacy at the end of the workday will be associated with increased levels of subjective well-being at the end of the day. Relative to the between-individual main effects hypothesized, increased availability of workplace resources (job control and workplace support) is expected to be positively related to average levels of subjective well-being and to average levels of self-efficacy beliefs.

In terms of the cross-level moderators of the hypothesized within-individual relationships, I expect that the availability of workplace resources (job control and workplace support) will moderate the relationship of workplace demands and negative social experiences to

(a) the level of subjective well-being experienced at the end of the day, and (b) the level of self-efficacy experienced at the end of the workday, such that these relationships will be weaker for individuals who report having more workplace resources available, relative to individuals who report having fewer workplace resources available.

Furthermore, regarding the hypothesized same-level moderating effects of the within-individual relationships discussed above, I expect that on days in which individuals report higher levels of coping success or in which they have previously formed higher levels of self-efficacy beliefs, the relationships between workplace demands and experiences and (a) the level of subjective well-being experienced at the end of the day, and (b) the level of self-efficacy experienced at the end of the workday, will be weaker, compared to days in which individuals report lower levels of copings success or have previously formed lower levels of self-efficacy beliefs.

Relevant to the hypothesized mediating effects, at the within-individual level I expect that self-efficacy beliefs at the end of the workday will partially mediate the effects of (a) workplace demands and (b) negative social experiences on subjective well-being experienced at the end of the day. At the between-individual level, the average level of individual self-efficacy beliefs is expected to partially mediate the between-individual relationship between workplace resources and average levels of subjective well-being.

Furthermore, in terms of the expected mediation of cross-level moderating effects, coping success is hypothesized to mediate the moderating effects of workplace resources on the relationship between workplace demands and experiences and (a) self-efficacy beliefs experienced at the end of the workday, and (b) subjective well-being experienced at the end of the day.

Finally, relevant to the expected mediation of within-individual moderating effects, coping success is hypothesized to mediate the moderating effects of previously formed self-efficacy beliefs on the relationship between workplace demands and experiences and (a) self-efficacy beliefs experienced at the end of the workday and (b) subjective well-being experienced at the end of the day.

Method

Power Analyses

To estimate the sample size needed for my analyses, I conducted multilevel power analyses to determine the number of participants needed, as well as the necessary number of within-individual observations (Snijders and Bosker, 1999). Assuming an average effect size of .30, and an alpha level of .05, I estimated than the standard error of my coefficients needs to approach .12 to achieve a power level of .80. To calculate the sample size required for this standard error, I conducted a power analysis using the *Power IN Two-level designs* program (PINT; Snijders and Bosker, 1993). Analyses indicated that achieving this standard error in an analysis with 2 moderately correlated dependent variables and one cross-level moderator will require a total of 84 individuals each providing 5 day-level data points (an expected response rate for my design; see for example Ilies et al. 2010). Therefore, in order to attain this sample size, while allowing for some individuals to drop out of the study without adversely affecting my power level, I attempted to enroll 90 individuals in my study.

Sample

My sample was drawn from a pool of mainly administrative and clerical Michigan State University (MSU) employees who have previously indicated they would be willing to participate in research studies. Participants were recruited through an e-mail advertisement, which contained the description of the study and a link to a survey sign-up website, where they were requested to indicate their agreement to enroll in the study by approving an online consent form. Participation

was completely confidential and voluntary, and participants were compensated for their efforts with a small honorarium (up to $75).

In order to comply with the study design, participants were required to be full-time employees (full-time in this case being defined as working more than 35 hours a week), and to have internet access at work and at home. To receive full compensation, participants were required to complete at least 18 surveys (out of 30 possible); responses between 0 and 17 were compensated on a prorated basis.

A total of 95 employees signed up for the study. These participants were mostly (81%) female. Furthermore, they worked an average of 41.87 hours a week (*SD* = 7.89), were mostly married (68%), and had an average of 1.64 children (*SD* = 1.33).

Procedure

After completing an online survey containing perceptions of workplace resources and the trait measures to be used as controls, participants were asked to fill out 3 daily surveys (two surveys in the workplace, one survey at home) for a period of 2 weeks, for a total of 10 day-level possible observations per individual. This 2-week study period is in line with the recommendations of Wheeler and Reis (1991), and similar to previous research studies (for example, see Ilies et al. 2010). All surveys were administered online, and individuals were signaled to fill out a survey through e-mail messages. These signaling e-mails were sent out during at a fixed time (for the first daily survey; see below) or around randomly assigned 2-hour blocks around a designated time (for the second and third daily surveys), and each of the daily surveys required around 5 minutes to complete.

The first daily survey signal was sent at 1:15 pm, and included measures of workplace demands and experiences. The second daily survey signal was randomly sent within a time block

centered around 3:30 pm, and included measures of state self-efficacy and perceived success in coping with workplace demands and experiences. Finally, the third daily survey was randomly sent within a time block centered around 7:00 pm, and included measures of current subjective well-being. Responses from these surveys were combined in order to create day-level data points; a usable day-level data point will thus consist of three complete surveys. See Figure 3 for a representation of the variables measured with each daily survey, and a summary of the time blocks in which these surveys will be administered.

Due to missing data or violations of study protocol, not all participants had enough complete data points to be included in this study; therefore, the total sample consisted of 77 individuals providing a total of 514 to 517 day-level observations (depending on the specific variables involved), for a total within-individual response rate of around 66.9% (*SD* = 2.50 day-level data points).

Measures

Work demands and interpersonal experiences. I measured work demands using a multi-dimensional conceptualization, in which the demands of work are considered to consist of the current level of workload, the level of emotional labor requirements (to capture the emotional demands of the work), and the role conflict currently experienced (to assess the difficulties encountered when role requirements clash or create incompatibilities). While work demands could undoubtedly be considered to include other relevant factors (for example, physical demands), the conceptualization I used covers the majority of work demands that are involved in typical white-collar or professional work, and the constructs included are among the most frequently examined components of work demands examined in the literature (see, for example, Repetti, 1993; de Jonge, Mulder, & Nijhuis, 1999; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Dwyer &

Ganster, 2006). Additionally, I included two measures of negative social experiences (interpersonal conflict and experienced incivility), in order to assess these common but undesirable stimuli that individuals are exposed (and need to react) to in their daily work lives. As such, these interpersonal experiences can be seen to represent an additional category of workplace demands that individuals might need to contend with as part of their workday. All the work demand variables were assessed during the first daily survey, which was sent out at 1:15 pm every day. Participants were expected to be at work at the time when they responded to this survey.

Workload was measured using a modified 9-item version of Jannsen's (2001) job demands measure; this measure has been previously used successfully in studies examining the effects of increased workloads on individual's well-being and experience (see Ilies et al., 2010; Ilies et al., 2007). Respondents were asked to use Likert scale responses (ranging from *1 = strongly disagree* to *5 = strongly agree)* to indicate their agreement to statements such as "Today, I have too much work to do in my job" and "Today, I have to work under time pressure". The average internal consistency reliability of this scale was .91.

Emotional demands were measured using the surface acting component of Brotheridge and Lee's (2003) Emotional Labor Scale, modified to reflect the daily experience of participants. Among the components of the scale, surface acting most clearly fits the conceptualization of work demands I am using, and as such is preferred over components such as deep acting. In responding to this instrument, participants were asked to use Likert scale responses (ranging from *1 = strongly disagree* to *5 = strongly agree)* to indicate the extent of their agreement to statements such as "Today, I have had to resist showing my true feelings," and "Today, I have

been pretending to have emotions I didn't really have." The average internal consistency reliability of this scale was .96.

Role conflict was measured using the scale of Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970), modified to assess participants' daily experiences. This scale required participants to use Likert scale responses (*1 = strongly disagree* to *5 = strongly agree)* to indicate their agreement to a list of provided statements referring to the role conflict that they have experienced during the workday, such as "I have to buck rules or policies in order to carry out my assignments," "I received incompatible requests from two or more people," and "I have to work under incompatible policies and guidelines." The average internal consistency reliability of this scale was .93.

In terms of measuring social experiences at work, to assess the levels interpersonal conflict experiences individuals encounter in the course of their workday I utilized Jehn's (1995) conflict scale, modified to assess daily experiences. This instrument required participants to use Likert scale responses (*1 = strongly disagree* to *5 = strongly agree)* to indicate their agreement to a list of provided statements about the interpersonal conflict they experienced during the workday, such as "There is conflict about ideas between me and my coworkers." and "There are personality conflicts evident between me and my coworkers." Responses were aggregated into an overall scale assessing the degree to which participants experienced interpersonal conflict throughout the workday. Although this scale was originally intended to differentiate between task and relationship conflict, the association between these two has been shown to be of a magnitude that might not support differentiation among the two (Simons & Peterson, 2000; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Because of this potential lack of differentiation, and to avoid multicollinearity issues in the estimation of my models, I constructed an overall interpersonal

conflict scale instead of differentiating between task and relationship conflict. The average internal consistency reliability of this scale was .95.

Finally, workplace incivility was be assessed using the 7-item Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2001), modified to assess daily experiences. This scale required participants to use Likert-scale responses (*1 = not at all* to *5 = extremely)* to indicate the extent to which their coworkers or supervisors have displayed uncivil behaviors toward them during the workday. Items include "Made demeaning or derogatory remarks toward you," "Put you down or was condescending to you," and "Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie." The average internal consistency reliability of this scale was .88.

Work and personal resources. To capture the resources available to study participants, I used constructs representing the most common definitions of workplace resources in the literature: (a) job control, (b) workplace support (comprised of perceived organizational support, and perceived availability of social support from coworkers and supervisors). While recent conceptualizations such as the demands/resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001) have utilized an expanded inventory of job and personal resources, the three variables mentioned above are strongly rooted in the literature and represent core components of the demands/control model and related conceptualizations (Karasek, 1979; Johnson & Hall, 1988; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). That is, these resources are widely applicable to most workplaces, have been found to relate to important characteristics of the workplace with vital implications for organizations and employees, and can thus provide a stronger contribution relative to more workplace-specific or narrow-band resources (such as, for example, specific types of technological support or monetary resources that would be more applicable to specific

occupations). All resource variables were conceptualized as stable constructs, and as such were only measured once, at the beginning of the study.

Job control was measured using the decision latitude component of the Job Content Questionnaire (Karasek, Brisson, Kawakami, Houtman, Bongers, & Amick, 1998). Responses were given by participants utilizing a 5-point Likert scale (*1 = strongly disagree* to *5 = strongly agree*) to indicate agreement to statements such as "I have a lot of say about what happens on my job" and "On my job, I have very little freedom to decide how I work" (reverse-coded). The reliability of this scale was .86.

Perceived organizational support was measured using Eisenberger and colleagues' (Eisenberger et al., 1986) scale of the same name. As with job control, participants were asked to use a 5-point Likert scale (*1 = strongly disagree* to *5 = strongly agree*) to indicate their agreement to statements such as "The organization values my contribution to its well-being" and "The organization strongly considers my goals and values". The reliability of this scale was .94.

Finally, perceived social support from coworkers and supervisors will be measured with a form of the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988), modified to relate to the availability or instance of social support in the workplace received from coworkers and supervisors, as opposed to friends and significant others that were the initial focus of the instrument. This scale will ask participants to use Likert scale responses (ranging from *1 = very strongly disagree* to *7 = very strongly agree*) to indicate their degree of agreement to statements such as "My coworkers really try to help me", and "I can count on my coworkers when things go wrong". The reliability of this scale was .93, and this scale was combined with perceived organizational support to create an overall index of available workplace support.

Coping success. To measure coping success, I followed a procedure similar to those of Zautra and Wrabetz (1991), in which participants were presented with a list of 20 coping strategies from the COPE scale (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989), modified to assess daily behaviors, and were asked to indicate which of these strategies they followed in dealing with the demands of their workday. Such strategies include "I tried to get advice from someone on what to do", "I put aside other activities in order to concentrate on the issues at hand", and "I took direct action to get around any problems". Next, respondents were required to utilize a 5-point Likert scale (*1 = not at all successful* to *5 = extremely successful*) to indicate the extent to which the strategies they reported engaging in were successful in helping them cope with their daily workplace demands. These responses were averaged to create an overall daily workplace coping success scale, and a variable containing the total number of coping strategies utilized was also used in the relevant analyses as a control. Coping success was assessed during the second daily survey, which was randomly signaled during a 2-hour block centered around 3:30 pm. Participants were expected to be at work at the time when they responded to this survey.

Self-efficacy. To measure self-efficacy, I used a domain-specific scale designed to conform to Bandura's (2006) suggestions on the measurement of self-efficacy. As such, this scale was designed to be specific to the domain of workplace demands, and to moreover be directly relevant to the work demands examined in this study. The domain of workplace demands in my study related specifically individuals' capabilities to respond to and overcome the demands and pressures exerted to them by their work environment. This scale required participants to use Likert-scale responses (ranging from *0 = cannot do at all* to *10 = perfectly certain can do)*, to indicate their confidence in dealing with the workplace demands and social experiences described above. In this scale, three items referred to each of the work demands

(workload, emotional demands, role conflict, interpersonal conflict and workplace incivility) for a total of 15 items. These 5 sub-components of work demands self-efficacy were pilot tested before the start of the study (see below for results of this pilot-testing). Self-efficacy was assessed during the second daily survey, which was randomly signaled during a 2-hour block centered around 3:30 pm. Participants were expected to be at work at the time when they responded to this survey, and measures provided by participants when they were in other locations were not be included in the analyses. The average internal consistency reliability of the self-efficacy subscales was .84, .96, .94, .95, and .94 for emotional demands self-efficacy, role conflict self-efficacy, interpersonal conflict self-efficacy, workload self-efficacy, and incivility self-efficacy, respectively.

Subjective well-being. To measure subjective well-being, I followed a multi-dimensional approach that includes the Diener et al. (1999) conceptualization of subjective well-being as comprised of the presence of Positive Affect, the absence of Negative Affect, and a measure of life satisfaction, as well as additional indicators of (poor) well-being that included perceived levels of affective distress, experienced strain, and emotional exhaustion (a main component of occupational burnout; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Such a multidimensional approach to the measurement of subjective well-being is appropriate, as subjective well-being has been described as "broad category of phenomena," which are distinct yet related in a higher-order fashion (Diener et al., 2003, p. 277). Moreover, this approach captures both positive and negative aspects of well-being, thus providing a more complete representation of the construct and more credible data (Diener, 1984). All of these proposed measures of well-being were modified to reflect currently or daily experienced states as appropriate, and were assessed during

the third daily survey, which was randomly signaled during a 2-hour block centered around 7:00 pm. Participants were expected to be at home at the time they responded to this survey.

The Positive Affect and Negative Affect components of subjective well-being were measured with the 20-item *Positive and Negative Affect Schedule* (PANAS; Watson & Clark, 1994). For the PANAS, participants were asked to use Likert scale responses (ranging from *1 = not at all* to *5 = extremely*) to indicate how accurately twenty adjective mood descriptors describe the way they feel at the time when they are reporting. For Positive Affect, these descriptors include "enthusiastic," "excited," "proud," and "determined," while for Negative Affect sample descriptors include "upset," "irritable," "nervous," and "hostile." Across observations, the average internal consistency reliabilities were .85 and .95 for negative and positive affect, respectively.

The life satisfaction component was measured with the 5-item *Satisfaction with Life Scale* (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). For this scale, participants were asked to use Likert scale responses (ranging from *1 = strongly disagree* to *7 = strongly agree*) to indicate how accurately each of the five presented statements reflect the way they feel at the time when they are reporting. The presented statements were modified from the original state to reflect currently experienced states. Specifically, the five items read as follows: "At this point, in most ways my life is close to my ideal," "Currently, the conditions of my life are excellent," "At this time, I am satisfied with my life," "At this point, I have the important things I want in life," and "Right now, I feel that if I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing." The average internal consistency reliability of the scale was .95.

Experienced strain was measured using the 12-item form of the *General Health Questionnaire* (Goldberg, 1992), modified to reflect day-level responses and exclude items that

are unsuitable for daily measurement (such as "I lost much sleep over worry"). This instrument required the participants to use Likert scale responses (ranging from *1 = not at all,* to *5 = much more than usual)* to indicate their agreement to statements referring to their experiences of well-being on the day they were reporting. These statements include "Today, I have been able to concentrate on what I'm doing" and "Today, I have been able to enjoy my normal activities"). The average internal consistency reliability of the scale was .88.

The emotional exhaustion scale was measured using the homonymous 9-item component of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), modified to reflect a same-day temporal referent. Respondents will be asked to use Likert-scale responses (ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree)* to indicate the degree to which statements like "Today, I feel emotionally drained" and "Today, I felt too tired to face another day" reflected the way they felt during the day. The average internal consistency reliability of the scale was .93.

Affective distress was measured with the stress component of the *Stress/Arousal Adjective Checklist* (SACL; MacKay, Cox, Burrows, & Lazzerini, 1978). This 10-item scale required participants to use Likert scale responses (ranging from *1 = not at all* to *5 = extremely*) to indicate the extent to which the adjectives provided accurately describe the way respondents felt during the day. Sample descriptors include "distressed," "uneasy," "tense" and "worried". The average internal consistency reliability of the scale was .86.

Control variables. A number of trait variables were used as controls, in order to ensure the robustness of my findings. For control variables, I collected demographics including age, gender, marital status, number of children, and typical hours worked per week. Moreover, I collected measures of neuroticism, an important explanatory variable in the investigation of subjective well-being (Heller et al., 2003), and negative affectivity which relates to stress

processes and to the experience of daily affect (Watson, 2000). Moreover, in the analyses involving coping success, total number of coping strategies utilized was also included as a control. Neuroticism ($\alpha = .88$) was measured with the 10-item homonymous scale from the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; Goldberg, Johnson, Eber, Hogan, Ashton, Cloninger, & Gough, 2006), and negative affectivity was measured with the PANAS (Watson & Clark, 1994), using instructions appropriate to trait measurement. Finally, at the end of the study, participants were asked to report, in an open response format, any important events that occurred in their workplace (such as layoffs, turnover and so on), that might be of importance to my analyses. The vast majority of events described related to relatively minor events (many of which, such as increased workload, were already captured by my scales). There was only one instance of potential layoffs reported in these events, so there did not seem to be any unusual occurrences in the participants' work environment during the data collection period that would unduly bias my results.

Analyses

I used Hierarchical Level Modeling (HLM; Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992) in order to test the hypothesized day-level relationships between workplace demands and experiences, self-efficacy and subjective well-being, as well as the moderating effects of successful coping, available resources and previous self-efficacy. In all HLM analyses, I centered the day level predictor variables relative to the each individual's mean (group centering) in order to eliminate confounding sources of variance (such as response biases).

In these HLM analyses, the relevant dependent variable (self-efficacy for Hypothesis 2, and subjective well-being for Hypotheses 1 and 4) was regressed on the appropriate day-level variables (as workplace demands and negative experiences for Hypotheses 1 and 2; self-efficacy

for Hypothesis 4). To test the cross-level moderating effect of available resources (Hypothesis 6), the resources variables (job control and workplace support) were entered into the second level of analysis, in order to examine their effects on the slope of the level-1 (or day-level) variables (controlling for their effect on the β_0 intercept). To test the same-level moderating role of prior levels of self-efficacy (Hypothesis 7) and coping success (Hypothesis 8) on the relationship between workplace demands and experiences and self-efficacy, the interacting variables as well as their product term (calculated from group centered variables) were entered into the relevant HLM models. Finally, to test the hypotheses involving mediation (Hypotheses 5a, 5b, 9 and 10) I used the series of models prescribed by Baron and Kenny's (1986) guidelines. In addition, a series of Sobel tests (Sobel, 1982) were used to test the statistical significance of the mediating effects; these tests will be conducted using the unbiased *z´* estimators recommended by MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, and Sheets (2002).

Person-level relationships were tested using OLS regression. Specifically, OLS regression was used to examine the effects of workplace resources on average levels of subjective well-being (Hypothesis 3a) and average self-efficacy beliefs (Hypothesis 3b). To test the hypothesized person-level mediation effect of self-efficacy beliefs on the relationship between the availability of workplace resources and subjective well-being, I used a series of OLS regression models as per the Baron and Kenny (1986) guidelines mentioned above, as well as a Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) to test for the significance of the mediating effect. As this is a single-level model, I shall use the regular Sobel *z* estimator instead of the MacKinnon et al. (2002) estimators discussed above. The control variables were included in these models to ensure the robustness of my findings.

Self-Efficacy Scales Pilot Testing

Before collecting data to test my hypotheses, I conducted a pilot test of the self-efficacy scales constructed for this study. In this pilot test, the self-efficacy scales, a 10-item work demands and negative experience scale (composed of 2 sample items from each of the demand and event factors included in this study; $\alpha = .77$) and a short 5-item well-being scale (comprised of items from the General Health Questionnaire; $\alpha = .73$) were administered through a web survey to a sample of 202 individuals (66% female, mean age 46.28 years, SD 10.05) employed full time in a variety of occupations. The self-efficacy subscales demonstrated sufficient levels of reliability ($\alpha = .90$ for role conflict self-efficacy, $\alpha = .91$ for workload self-efficacy, $\alpha = .79$ for interpersonal conflict self-efficacy, $\alpha = .83$ for incivility self-efficacy), with only emotional demands self-efficacy showing lower levels of reliability ($\alpha = .63$, $\alpha = .67$ based on standardized items).

The self-efficacy scales generally demonstrated relationships with well-being and workplace demands and experiences in the expected fashion (as expected, the workplace demands and negative social experiences scale correlated negatively with well-being; $r = -.35$, $p < .01$). All the self-efficacy subscales except for incivility self-efficacy correlated negatively with the work demands and negative experiences scale, as expected ($r = -.12$, $p < .10$ for role conflict self-efficacy, $r = -.22$, $p < .01$ for workload self-efficacy, $r = -.18$, $p < .01$ for emotional demand self-efficacy, $r = -.30$, $p < .01$ with interpersonal conflict self-efficacy). In terms of correlations with well-being, all of the self-efficacy subscales were positively correlated to the well-being measure ($r = .18$, $p < .05$ for role conflict self-efficacy, $r = .35$, $p < .01$ for workload self-efficacy, $r = .33$, $p < .01$ with interpersonal conflict self-efficacy, and $r = .17$, $p < .05$ for incivility self-efficacy), although the correlation between emotional demand self-efficacy and

well-being did not reach significance ($r = .11$, $p < .12$), perhaps due to the lower levels of reliability exhibited by this construct.

Furthermore, a confirmatory factor analysis was supportive of the hypothesized structure of the self-efficacy component scales. Specifically, a 5 item factor structure fit the data significantly better than a one factor structure, and also displayed acceptable levels of overall fit (NFI of .88 vs. .42; NNFI of .89 vs. .34; CFI of .92 vs. .43; GFI of .87 vs. .57; SRMR of .10 vs. .15; RMSEA .10 vs. .24; AIC 70.49 vs. 929.07; $\Delta\chi^2 = 878.57$, $p < .01$). In general, therefore, the self-efficacy component scales were found to perform adequately in terms of their psychometric properties, and were judged appropriate to be used in the full dissertation data collection.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses of Daily Measures

A series of confirmatory factor analyses conducted was generally supportive of the proposed factor structure among my items. In terms of the items measuring daily work demands and negative social experiences, although a 5 factor structure did not show evidence of excellent fit, it did fit the data better than a one factor structure (NFI of .84 vs. .39; NNFI of .86 vs. .36; CFI of .87 vs. .40; GFI of .86 vs. .52; SRMR of .05 vs. .14; RMSEA of .06 vs. .13; AIC of 1071.33 vs. 6966.85; $\Delta\chi^2 = 5915.52$, $p < .01$). In terms of the self-efficacy scales, a 5 factor structure fit the data well, and better than a one factor structure (NFI of .93 vs. .54; NNFI of .92 vs. .47; CFI of .94 vs. .55; GFI of .92 vs. .59; SRMR of .07 vs. .13; RMSEA of .08 vs. .22; AIC of 383.91 vs. 3508.07; $\Delta\chi^2 = 3144.16$, $p < .01$). Finally, in terms of the well-being measures collected at the end of the day, while the 6 proposed six factor structure did not show evidence of close fit to the data (likely due to the high number of items included in the CFA), six factors fit the data better than a one factor structure (NFI of .71 vs. .35; NNFI of .76 vs. .36; CFI of .77 vs.

.38; GFI of .80 vs. .51; SRMR of .06 vs. .11; RMSEA of .06 vs. .10; AIC of 2243.96 vs. 8310.81; $\Delta\chi^2 = 6096.85$, $p < .01$). See Table 1 for a summary of these analyses.

Variance Components of Study Variables

I conducted a variance components analysis to ensure there was adequate variance at the within person level to proceed with hypothesis testing. In terms of the work demands and social experiences scales included in this study, all were found to have sufficient levels of within-person variance. Specifically, the proportion of variance at the within-person level was found to range from 22.02% (for role conflict) to 45.26% (for incivility experienced). Similarly, in terms of the self-efficacy scales, estimates of within-person variance proportions ranged from 21.28% (for incivility self-efficacy) to 32.49% (for emotional demands self-efficacy). The proportion of within-person variance in number of coping strategies and coping success was also found to be adequate (45.95% and 57.18%, respectively). Finally, in terms of the well-being scales, only life satisfaction showed lower levels of variance at the within-person level (11.59%), with the within-person variance proportions in the other scales ranging from 18.09% (for emotional exhaustion) to 44.88% (for affective distress). Overall then, the daily measures in general showed adequate within-person variance for analyses to proceed as planned. For a summary of variance components and within-person variance proportions for all scales included in this study, see Table 2.

Correlations among Study Variables

Table 3 presents the means and standard deviations of, and correlations among, the between-person variables included in this study. Job control was found to be significantly and positively associated with overall levels of workplace support, while neuroticism was negatively associated with both job control and workplace support levels. Negative affectivity was also found to be negatively associated with workplace support, albeit not with job control perceptions. There was no association between job control or workplace support with any of the

demographic variables (gender, number of children, marital status) or with reports of typical hours worked per week.

In terms of the within-person correlations, the workplace demands and negative social experiences scales (role conflict, workload, emotional demands, interpersonal conflict, and incivility) were found to be generally negatively related to the self-efficacy scales, and positively related to the strain components of subjective well-being (emotional exhaustion and strain measured with the General Health Questionnaire). Role conflict and workload were also found to be positively related to number of coping strategies reported, but not to coping success. The self-efficacy scales were found to be generally positively related to positive affect and life satisfaction, and negatively related to the strain components of subjective well-being and to negative affect and affective distress. Finally, the number of different coping strategies utilized was negatively related to the self-efficacy subscales, while coping success was positively related to the self-efficacy subscales. Coping success was finally found to be negatively related to experienced strain, emotional exhaustion, affective distress and negative affect. See Table 4 for means and standard deviations of, and within-person correlations among, the repeated measures variables included in this study.

Tests of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 posited that workplace demands and negative social experiences are going to relate negatively to individual levels of subjective well-being at the within-individual level. Controlling for demographic variables, hours worked, and negative affectivity and neuroticism, role conflict and workload were significantly related to emotional exhaustion (standardized $\gamma' = .28$, $p < .01$, and $\gamma' = .22$, $p < .01$, respectively), while emotional demands were found to be significantly related to both experienced strain and emotional exhaustion ($\gamma' = .17$, $p < .01$, and $\gamma' = .25$, $p < .01$, respectively). In terms of negative social experiences in the workplace, both interpersonal conflict and incivility were found to be associated with experienced strain ($\gamma' = .24$, $p < .01$, and $\gamma' = .35$, $p < .01$, respectively), emotional exhaustion ($\gamma' = .23$, $p < .01$, and $\gamma' = .25$, $p < .01$, respectively), affective distress ($\gamma' = .18$, $p < .01$, and $\gamma' = .13$, $p < .05$, respectively), and negative affect ($\gamma' = .16$, $p < .01$, and $\gamma' = .12$, $p < .05$, respectively). Finally, interpersonal conflict was found to be negatively related to life satisfaction ($\gamma' = -.17$, $p < .05$), although incivility was not. In general then, workplace demands were found to be significantly related to the strain components of well-being, while negative social experiences were found to also be related to the negative affective components of well-being (affective distress and negative affect). However, none of the predictors were found to be related to positive affect, and only interpersonal conflict was associated with levels of life satisfaction. Hypothesis 1 was thus partially supported. Please see Tables 5 to 9 for a summary of these analyses.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 referred to the relationship of workplace demands and negative social experiences to self-efficacy beliefs about these workplace demands and negative social experiences. All hypothesized relationships were significant and in the expected direction, with role conflict, workload, emotional demands, interpersonal conflict, and incivility negatively predicting self-efficacy beliefs related to the same dimensions ($\gamma' = -.20$, $p < .05$ for role conflict, $\gamma' = -.22$, $p < .01$ for workload, $\gamma' = .24$, $p < .01$ for emotional demands, $\gamma' = -.31$, $p < .01$ for interpersonal conflict, and $\gamma' = -.31$, $p < .01$ for incivility). In other words, individuals exposed to workplace demands or negative social experiences were more likely to report feeling less confident in their ability to effectively engage the experienced demand or experience. Overall then, Hypothesis 2 was fully supported (see Table 10).

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 argued that workplace resources are going to have a positive relationship with (a) subjective well-being and (b) self-efficacy beliefs, such that those with higher levels of resources are going to report higher average levels of well-being and self-efficacy compared to individuals with lower levels of resources. In terms of individual resources, results indicated that job control was not associated with subjective well-being or self-efficacy beliefs ($p > .10$ for all variables). Available workplace support levels, however, did negatively predict emotional exhaustion ($\gamma' = -.43$, $p < .01$) and positively predicted life satisfaction ($\gamma' = .25$, $p < .05$). Similarly, available workplace support was positively and significantly related to average levels of self-efficacy for all subscales ($\gamma' = .40$, $p < .01$ for role conflict self-efficacy, $\gamma' = .37$, $p < .01$ for workload self-efficacy, $\gamma' = .33$, $p < .01$ for emotional demands self-efficacy, $\gamma = .43$, $p < .01$ for interpersonal conflict self-efficacy, and $\gamma' = .26$, $p < .05$ for incivility self-efficacy). In

general, then, Hypothesis 3a was partially supported and Hypothesis 3b was fully supported for workplace support, but not for job control.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 concerned the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and subjective well-being. Role conflict self-efficacy was found to relate to strain and emotional exhaustion negatively ($\gamma' = -.16$, $p < .01$, and $\gamma' = -.12$, $p < .05$, respectively) and to life satisfaction positively ($\gamma' = .14$, $p < .05$). Workload self-efficacy was found to relate to all subjective well-being measures except for positive affect ($\gamma' = -.23$, $p < .01$ for strain, $\gamma' = -.17$, $p < .01$ for emotional exhaustion, $\gamma' = -.16$, $p < .01$ for affective distress, $\gamma' = -.12$, $p < .05$ for negative affect, and $\gamma' = .17$, $p < .01$ for life satisfaction). Emotional demands self-efficacy was found to be negatively related to strain and emotional exhaustion ($\gamma' = -.21$, $p < .01$ and $\gamma' = -.26$, $p < .01$, respectively), and positively related to life satisfaction ($\gamma' = .14$, $p < .05$). A similar pattern of results was found for interpersonal conflict self-efficacy ($\gamma' = -.23$, $p < .01$ for strain, $\gamma' = -.17$, $p < .05$ for emotional exhaustion, $\gamma' = .23$, $p < .01$ for life satisfaction), while incivility self-efficacy was negatively related to strain ($\gamma' = -.23$, $p < .01$), emotional exhaustion ($\gamma' = -.22$, $p < .01$), and affective distress ($\gamma' = .12$, $p < .05$), and positively related to life satisfaction ($\gamma' = .22$, $p < .05$). In general then, self-efficacy components were found to consistently relate to strain and emotional exhaustion negatively, and to life satisfaction positively, except for workload and (to a lesser degree) incivility self-efficacy which were found to predict a wider range of subjective well-being outcomes. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was partially supported (see Tables 13 to 17 for a summary of these analyses).

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 posited that the effects of workplace demands and negative social experiences on subjective well-being would be partially mediated by self-efficacy beliefs. Self-efficacy was indeed found to mediate a number of these relationships. In models predicting subjective well-being from self-efficacy beliefs, controlling for the appropriate demand or social experience dimension, role conflict self-efficacy partially mediated the effects of role conflict and workload on experienced strain (z' for the significance of the mediated effect = 2.47, $p < .05$ and z' = 2.87, $p < .01$, respectively); the decrease in the magnitude of the demand coefficients once self-efficacy was accounted for, however, was fairly small. In terms of emotional demands, emotional demands self-efficacy partially mediated the effects of emotional demands on strain and emotional exhaustion (z' = 2.63, $p < .05$). For the negative social experience variables, interpersonal conflict and incivility self-efficacy mediated the effects of interpersonal conflict and incivility, respectively, on experienced strain (z' = 2.07, $p < .05$ and z' = 2.09, $p < .05$).

Apart from these direct mediation effects, however, self-efficacy beliefs were also found to provide a link for indirect effects of workplace demands and negative social experiences on subjective well-being. Specifically, workload was found to indirectly relate to emotional exhaustion, negative affect, and weakly to affective distress through self-efficacy beliefs (z' = 2.33, $p < .01$, 2.82, $p < .01$, and z' = 1.93, $p < .10$). Similarly, both role conflict and workload were indirectly related to life satisfaction through the relevant self-efficacy components (z' = 2.20, $p < .05$ and z' = 2.12, $p < .05$, respectively). There was some evidence, therefore, for a partial mediating role of self-efficacy, and for the significance of self-efficacy as a pathway through which workplace demands can affect subjective well-being. Hypothesis 5 was therefore partially supported (see Tables 18 to 22 for a summary of these analyses).

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 posited that the availability of workplace resources (job control and workplace support) would moderate the relationship between workplace demands and experiences and (a) self-efficacy beliefs and (b) subjective well-being. In terms of self-efficacy, job control was found to moderate the effects of both emotional demands and interpersonal conflict on the relevant self-efficacy dimensions, such that the negative relationship between these factors was mitigated with high levels of job control ($\gamma' = .18$, $p < .05$ and $\gamma' = .19$, $p < .05$, respectively; see Figures 4 and 5). While the availability of workplace support did have a main positive effect on all self-efficacy dimensions, it was not found to moderate the relationship between workplace demands and negative social experiences and their relevant self-efficacy dimensions. Hypothesis 6a was thus partially supported for job control, and not supported for workplace support (see Tables 23 and 24).

In terms of Hypothesis 6b, job control was not found to moderate any of the relationships between workplace demands and negative social experience and subjective well-being. The availability of workplace support did provide a significant mitigating effect in the relationship of workload and emotional demands to emotional exhaustion ($\gamma' = -.12$, $p < .05$, $\gamma' = -.09$, $p < .05$, and $\gamma' = .09$, $p < .05$, respectively; see Figures 6 & 7). The moderating effect of workplace support on the workload-life satisfaction and incivility-emotional exhaustion relationships was also significant, albeit in the opposite direction ($\gamma' = .09$, $p < .05$ and $\gamma' = -.10$, $p < .01$, respectively; see Figures 8 & 9). Overall then, Hypothesis 6b was not supported at all for job control, and only partly supported in terms of emotional exhaustion for the availability of workplace support (see Tables 25 to 34).

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 related to the moderating effect of prior (previous day) self-efficacy levels on the relationship between workplace demands and negative social experiences and (a) self-efficacy beliefs, and (b) subjective well-being. In terms of self-efficacy beliefs, no moderating effect for prior self-efficacy level was found. Interestingly, there was no significant main effect of previous self-efficacy levels on current levels of these beliefs either. Hypothesis 7a was thus not supported (see Table 35).

In terms of subjective well-being outcomes, no significant moderating effect of prior self-efficacy beliefs was found on the effects of role conflict or emotional demands. For workload, prior self-efficacy beliefs moderated the effects of workload on experienced strain ($\gamma' = -.14$, $p < .05$; see Figure 10) as well as on positive affect ($\gamma' = .07$, $p < .05$; see Figure 11), with the direction of these effects being as hypothesized. A similar moderating role (also in the hypothesized direction) was found for prior self-efficacy beliefs on the effects of interpersonal conflicts on emotional exhaustion ($\gamma' = -.19$, $p < .01$; see Figure 12), affective distress ($\gamma' = -.07$, $p < .05$; see Figure 13) and life satisfaction ($\gamma' = .19$, $p < .01$; see Figure 14). Finally, prior self-efficacy beliefs moderated the effects of incivility on positive affect and life satisfaction ($\gamma' = .07$, $p < .05$, and $\gamma' = .15$, $p < .05$, respectively; see Figures 15 and 16) as hypothesized; there was, however, a significant moderating effect on negative affect that was in the opposite direction than expected ($\gamma' = .13$, $p < .05$; see Figure 17). Overall then, Hypothesis 7b was partially supported (see Tables 36 to 40).

Hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8 posited that coping success would moderate the relationship of workplace demands and negative social experiences to (a) self-efficacy beliefs, and (b) subjective well-

being. In terms of self-efficacy beliefs, coping success was found to significantly moderate the effects of workload on workload self-efficacy in the expected direction ($\gamma' = .16$, $p < .05$; see Figure 18); no other significant moderating effects were found. Hypothesis 8a thus was only supported for workload, with none of the models concerning the other work demands and social experiences showing a significant interaction term. Coping success, however, did have a significant and positive main effect on all self-efficacy outcomes except for emotional demands self-efficacy (see Table 41 for a summary of these analyses).

In terms of the subjective well-being outcomes, coping success did not significantly moderate the effects of role conflict, or workload on subjective well-being. It did show a significant moderating effect for the effects of emotional demands and interpersonal conflict on emotional exhaustion, albeit this effect was in the opposite direction than expected ($\gamma' = .11$, $p < .05$ and $\gamma' = .14$, $p < .05$, respectively; see Figures 19 and 20). Also in the opposite than expected direction was the moderating effect of coping success on the relationship between interpersonal conflict and positive affect ($\gamma' = -.26$, $p < .01$; see Figure 21). The only effect found in the expected direction was the moderation of the incivility – positive affect relationship ($\gamma = .10$, $p < .05$; see Figure 22). Hypothesis 8b was thus not supported (see Tables 42 to 46 for a summary of these analyses).

Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9 posited that coping success will mediate the moderating effects of (a) workplace resources and (b) prior self-efficacy levels on the relationship of work demands and negative social experiences to self-efficacy beliefs. Although workplace support did not have any significant moderating effect, analyses proceeded to investigate whether workplace support affects self-efficacy though its association with coping success (thus confirming an indirect

mediated moderation effect). Similarly, although job control and prior efficacy beliefs did not have a moderating effect on all tested relationships, analyses proceeded to investigate indirect mediated moderation effects through coping success.

To begin testing for mediation, I investigated the relationship of (a) workplace resources (job control and workplace support) and (b) previous self-efficacy beliefs on coping success. Although both job control and workplace support were significantly related to average levels of coping success ($\gamma' = .20$, $p < .05$ and $\gamma' = .26$, $p < .05$, respectively), there was no association between any of the self-efficacy components and coping success. Hypothesis 9b was thus not supported, therefore I proceeded to test for mediation only with regard to Hypothesis 9a. Coping success was again found onto moderate the relationship between workload and workload self-efficacy, and the test of significance for an indirect effect between coping success and workplace support and job control was at least marginally significant ($z' = 1.82$, $p < .10$ for job control, $z' = 2.09$, $p < .05$ for workplace support). There was, however, a significant relationship between coping success and self-efficacy for both the job control and workplace support models that can provide an alternative pathway though which workplace resources can affect self-efficacy beliefs indirectly. Hypothesis 9a was thus only supported for the relationship between workload and workload self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 10

Hypothesis 10 posited that coping success will mediate the moderating effects of (a) workplace resources and (b) prior self-efficacy levels on the relationship between work demands and negative social experiences and subjective well-being. Based on the relationships between resources and previous self-efficacy beliefs reported above, Hypothesis 10b was not supported, and analyses proceeded only with regards to Hypothesis 10a. Results, however, again either did

not provide support for a buffering effect of coping success that could mediate other moderating effects, or was in other than the expected direction (as with Hypothesis 8). The only effect that was in the expected direction was again the moderation of coping success on the incivility - positive affect relationship ($\gamma' = .10$, $p < .05$ for the job control models, $\gamma' = .10$, $p < .05$ for the workplace support models). Hypothesis 10 was thus not supported.

Discussion

Overall, results were supportive of the main effects hypothesized in this study, although support for the proposed moderators was inconsistent. Workplace demands and negative social experiences were generally associated with decreased levels of well-being, with these effects being particularly consistent in terms of experienced strain and emotional exhaustion. Workplace demands and negative social experiences were also found to consistently and negatively relate to self-efficacy beliefs, and these self-efficacy beliefs were in turn associated with subjective well-being, providing a mediating or indirect effect from workplace demands and negative social experiences to subjective well-being outside of work. Workplace support was associated with higher levels of self-efficacy beliefs, lower levels of strain, and higher levels of life satisfaction, but job control did not predict any of these outcomes. In terms of work demands and experience effects, the well-being outcomes best predicted by the model were experienced strain and emotional exhaustion for the work demands variables, and experienced strain, emotional exhaustion, affective distress and negative affect for the negative social experiences variables. In terms of the self-efficacy scales, the well-being outcomes predicted most consistently were strain, emotional exhaustion and life satisfaction. Positive affect was not consistently related to any of the examined variables.

In terms of the hypothesized moderating effects, results were much less consistent. The data did not provide any evidence for a moderating role of job control on the relationship of workplace demands and experiences to well-being, but job control did have a significant effect on the relationship of emotional demands and interpersonal conflict to self-efficacy beliefs

relevant to these factors. The availability of workplace support did moderate the effects of workload and emotional demands on emotional exhaustion, but did not moderate any of the relationships of workplace demands and experiences to self-efficacy beliefs. Prior self-efficacy levels showed some evidence for their role as moderators of the relationships contained in the model, providing a buffering role on the effects of workload, interpersonal conflict, and incivility on individual well-being; however, previous self-efficacy was not found to moderate the relationship between work demands and negative social experiences and self-efficacy beliefs related to these factors. In terms of coping success, although it was found to significantly moderate the effects of workload on workload self-efficacy, coping success did not have a significant moderating effect on any of the other relationships examined. Coping success did, however, have a consistent significant main effect on self-efficacy beliefs, as well as on two components of well-being (experienced strain and affective distress).

Implications for Theory

The implications of these results for theory mainly relate to the basic theories utilized as a background for this model (the demands/control model, self-efficacy theory, and the transactional model of stress), although other theoretical frameworks can also be potentially informed by this study.

Demands/Control/Support Model. In general, results were not supportive of the moderating hypotheses of the demands/control model, with job resources providing inconsistent moderating effects on the relationship of work demands and negative experiences to subjective well-being (although the relationship perhaps closest conceptually to the original predictions of this model, namely that between workload and emotional exhaustion, was indeed moderated by workplace support).

The factors included in the demands/control model, did however demonstrate some consistent main effects, with both workplace demands and negative social experiences predicting well-being (mostly the components related to strain or low well-being) at the end of the day, and workplace support also had direct effects on well-being. These findings thus provide little support for the buffering hypothesis of the demands/control model (except as mentioned above), but do support the direct effects propositions of the model.

Different workplace events also were found to differentially relate to well-being outcomes, with work demands (role conflict, workload, and emotional demands) being only related to strain and emotional exhaustion, and with negative social experiences being related to strain, emotional exhaustion, affective distress and negative affect. This potential for differential effects is not currently well explained by the theory, but does indicate that the various workplace stressors can potentially affect different aspects of well-being. It is possible that social experiences in the workplace show greater affective responses because they pose a threat to the continuing satisfaction of different needs compared to work demands (relatedness versus competence; see Ryan & Deci, 2000). Alternatively, the satisfaction of the various needs can directly relate to affective versus lack-of-strain indicators of well-being, such that the failure to

satisfy relatedness needs increases affective distress as well as strain, while failure to satisfy competence needs on results in increases in levels of experienced strain.

Moreover, there might be a deeper difference in the way work demands and negative social experiences are conceptualized. Negative experiences might be functionally much closer to affective events (see Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) compared to workplace demands, in that they begin and end more quickly and with greater distinctiveness relative to their "beginning" and "end." On the other hand, workplace demands could represent more of an ongoing situational characteristic that, while potentially affecting the individual adversely in terms of stress, do not invoke a strong affective response (or one that is much closer to moods rather than affect or discrete emotions; see Thayer, 1996).This would imply that models of workplace functioning need to consider these two categories of workplace features more carefully and with greater discretion between the two, or utilize separate conceptual models to explain their effects (for examples, see Spector & Fox, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

These differential predictions also have implications for the aspects of well-being investigated by models of workplace functioning. In other words, the fact that different aspects of well-being are not all predicted by the same workplace events might mean that the various dimensions considered part of well-being do not represent as tight a nomological net as previously thought. This implies that, for example, a low level of experienced strain is not necessarily associated with high levels of the positive indicators of well-being such as life satisfaction or high levels of positive affect. The direct implication of this for the demands/ control model is that expanding it to include more diverse aspects of well-being might be empirically or theoretically appropriate, and that future work needs to consider indicators of low and high well-being in a more separated fashion (for an example, see Karademas 2007).

This study also did not find any evidence for a main or moderating effect of job control, although there was some evidence for the importance of workplace support for individual well-being. While this provides some additional evidence for the support component of the demands/support aspect of the model, the fact that job control failed to predict any of the outcomes of interest does raise some interesting points. A potential implication is that the effects of job control are more subject to moderating influences on the part of contextual or individual factors. For example, Schaubroeck and colleagues (Schaubroeck et al., 2000; Schaubroeck et al., 2001) found that job support was only beneficial for individuals with high levels of self-efficacy; a similar or related moderated effect could also have occurred in this research context. This would indicate that although the effects of workplace support might be applicable to a greater variety of individuals and situations, the utility of job control is more narrow or specific.

Another possibility is that, while the main or moderating effects of workplace support might be linear in nature, with higher levels of workplace support providing consistently higher levels of utility to the individual, the effects of job control are more related to reaching a specific threshold to at which the individual benefits, with further increases in job control being of minor importance; indeed, the data presented by Karasek (1977) when introducing the demands/control model are fully compatible with this possibility. In this study, a set of exploratory analysis did not clearly demonstrate the existence of such non-linear effects[1], although the lack of significant

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[1] No significant curvilinear effects were found in the models predicting well-being from workplace resources (workplace support and job control). In predicting self-efficacy, there was only one instance of a significant curvilinear effect, for the relationship between interpersonal conflict self-efficacy and workplace support ($\gamma = -.19$, $p < .05$). There was also a significant curvilinear effect in the moderating role of job control in the relationship between interpersonal conflict and interpersonal conflict self-efficacy ($\gamma = -.17$, $p < .01$), and in the relationship

and consistent non-linear effects could be due to a lack of power at the higher level of analysis since this study was not optimized to test such effects.

Finally, the underlying needs satisfied by these workplace resources might fluctuate between people to a varying extent. If the need for autonomy (which provides some theoretical basis on why job control is beneficial to individuals) fluctuates more between people than the need for relatedness (which provides a similar theoretical basis for the effects of the social components of workplace support), this could indicate that job control is only important for a narrower subset of the population, compared to the availability of workplace support. Self-determination theory does acknowledge the potential for different need orientations (see Black & Deci, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 1995); a joint investigation of the phenomena involved in the demands control model and self-determination theory could shed some light into how these two frameworks might jointly predict well-being outcomes.

Self-Efficacy. The fact that daily fluctuations in self-efficacy were also found to be predicted by work demands, and in turn predictive of individual well-being, implies that self-efficacy should be more closely considered as a construct central to workplace functioning. These results further underline the importance of self-efficacy beliefs for a host of individual-level outcomes, and provide some evidence for how self-efficacy beliefs are formed as a result of workplace factors.

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between workload and affective distress ($\gamma = -.18$, $p < .05$). Finally, in terms of the non-linear moderating effects of workplace support, there was a curvilinear moderating effect for the relationship between role conflict and negative affect ($\gamma = -.17$, $p < .05$), for the relationship between emotional demands and positive affect ($\gamma = -.14$, $p < .05$), and for the relationship between workload and emotional exhaustion ($\gamma = .20$, $p < .01$).

Specifically, the results were generally supportive of the role of workplace demands and negative social experiences in negatively affecting self-efficacy beliefs. Individuals exposed to high levels of work demands tended to report reduced levels of these beliefs, most likely due to these demands leading to experienced difficulties or to what could be perceived as unsustainably high levels of effort. In other words, when individuals experienced workplace demands that were higher than normal, this likely resulted in them experiencing some momentary fatigue, distress, or concern about the level of effort required to cope, which then negatively affected their beliefs in their capabilities to successfully cope with future demands. These effects are in line with the mechanisms proposed by Bandura (1997) on self-efficacy belief formation, and add some additional empirical evidence to this literature.

Furthermore, the availability of workplace support was significantly associated with all measured components of workplace self-efficacy. The availability of workplace support can be seen as a safety net that individuals perceive in the workplace, thus feeling that help will be provided if needed and accordingly increasing their confidence in successfully meeting future challenges. Moreover, as Bandura (1997) argued, higher levels of workplace support can be associated with increased social persuasion processes, whereby individuals are provided with encouragement and positive views on their own capabilities by others around them, leading to increased self-efficacy.

Moreover, this last finding can provide a linkage between models of workplace investigating the relationships between demands, resources, and well-being and self-efficacy frameworks, by providing a pathway through which workplace resources can enhance or benefit individual well-being. That is, this linkage can shed light on potential mechanisms through

which workplace resources provide benefits to employees, thus improving the theoretical clarity of these models.

In terms of predicting state levels of self-efficacy beliefs, the fact that prior self-efficacy levels failed to predict current self-efficacy beliefs in the models presented (with the exception of incivility self-efficacy) in this study invokes some interesting considerations. A likely possibility is that self-efficacy beliefs could be even more malleable than previously thought, and that individuals rapidly revised them to reflect current workplace realities. This can have implications for state versus trait conceptualizations of this construct, because if self-efficacy beliefs are indeed rapidly revised as a result of individual experience then perhaps general trait self-efficacy conceptualizations (for example, see Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001) might not adequately capture the nature of this construct. There is, however, the possibility that the failure of self-efficacy beliefs to persist across days could be an artifact of group centering and regression to the mean effects; in other words, individuals who experienced high levels of self-efficacy (relative to their average level) were likely to persist in such beliefs the following day, but also likely to naturally revert to their default level of self-efficacy beliefs, with these two effects cancelling each other out for an overall null relationship. Therefore, while the questions generated by these null effects are interesting, more research is needed to fully understand what they would mean for theories of self-efficacy.

This study also found a relationship between self-efficacy and individual levels of subjective well-being. These results have implications for a variety of models of workplace functioning, well-being, and stress, by positioning self-efficacy as an important predictor of individual outcomes of this nature. In fact, self-efficacy beliefs were generally a more consistent predictor of well-being than workplace demands and experiences, although this could be due to

the increased temporal distance between the measurements of demands, self-efficacy, and well-being rather than a stronger association of well-being with self-efficacy beliefs. Still, the results of this study do point to the importance of self-efficacy in predicting well-being (particularly experienced strain, emotional exhaustion, and life satisfaction), something that can be of use to a number of well-being frameworks, by positing self-efficacy as a mediator of the effects of workplace features, characteristics, or episodes, on subjective well-being.

Self-efficacy beliefs did not, however, show a significant relationship with positive affect, and their relationship with other affective indicators of well-being (specifically, affective distress and negative affect) were somewhat inconsistent. Similar to the varying effects of workplace demands in predicting different well-being dimensions, these results provide more support to the idea that more attention needs to be paid to the specific aspects of well-being being examined by each particular theoretical framework or empirical study, and to their relationship with specific aspects of workplace self-efficacy beliefs.

In terms of self-efficacy measurement issues, this study can also be seen as demonstrating the feasibility of constructing targeted self-efficacy scales that focus on specific workplace demands and negative social experiences. With minor alterations to the scale construction process, it seems it would be relatively simple to devise self-efficacy scales that relate to a variety of other workplace factors (such as interactions with customers, or to the completion of specific tasks), thus facilitating targeted research efforts. In short, this study demonstrated that Bandura's (2006) self-efficacy scale construction guidelines, when paired with existing constructs measuring workplace factors, can result in scales of sufficient predictive validity and good psychometric properties in a simple and expedient fashion.

Transactional Stress Model. Coping, one of the basic components of the transactional

stress model (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), was found to be an important predictor of subjective well-being in this study. These findings thus provide support for the central tenets of the transactional stress model, as well as potentially relating to the importance of fulfillment of competence needs discussed by Ryan & Deci (2000). The conceptualization of coping used, however, focused on general coping success rather than the discrete coping strategies often utilized in stress research (for example, see Carver et al., 1989). The primary implication of this for the transactional stress model is that, in dealing with workplace stressors, it might matter less what strategies people utilize and more how well these strategies are utilized. That is, any coping strategy followed can be of benefit to the individual, as long as this strategy is successful in avoiding or alleviating the stressor at hand, in contrast to previous views that some coping strategies are by their nature more successful than others.

This contention was further supported by a series of tests estimating differences in average success of each strategy measured in this study; although some differences achieved statistical significance, these effects were of minor practical importance. Nevertheless, there are some alternative explanations to consider. First, the coping strategies selected for this study were those that would be most applicable to (and effective in) an organizational setting; this might have resulted in reduced variance in their means level of success due to the fact that they were all, to some extent, appropriate for the context. If more maladaptive or counterproductive coping strategies (such as venting or workplace disengagement) were included this could reveal differences in average coping success between these strategies and the ones included in my study. However, apart from purely maladaptive coping strategies such as alcohol or drug abuse, there would probably be little theoretical reason to expect average success differences between the coping strategies examined in this study and any alternative ones excluded.

Second, individuals could be repeatedly selecting strategies that have served them well in the past (or fit best to their disposition or occupation), thus increasing coping strategy success levels beyond what would be expected. This alternative explanation, however, would still mean that coping success, not coping type, is a more appropriate predictor of individual well-being, as that would imply differences in coping strategies followed between individuals (in line with previous research), but less differences in how well these strategies can counteract the effects of workplace stressors (supporting the importance of coping success for well-being).

Finally, the design of this study did not include frequency assessments of coping strategies followed (as would be the case in most traditional coping research), which makes a direct empirical comparison between traditional operationalizations and my coping success construct impossible with the existing data. These results, however, do provide some initial evidence for the importance of coping success that can inform and extend future work on the transactional stress model and related frameworks.

Coping success did, however, emerge as an overall important component of workplace functioning, as it was positively associated with increased levels of self-efficacy beliefs in addition to the subjective well-being effects discussed above. In general, when individuals perceived greater success in coping with workplace demands and negative social experiences, they also reported higher levels of self-efficacy beliefs across all dimensions (except for emotional demands self-efficacy, for which this effect did not achieve significance). This provides support for Bandura's (1997) assertion of mastery experiences as a source of self-efficacy, and represents an empirical synthesis of self-efficacy theory and the transactional model of stress. The implications of this are that both self-efficacy and coping success emerge as important variables in considering how individuals experience and react to social occurrences

and stressors in their workplace, and can thus inform future research on workplace events, stress, or well-being.

Furthermore, average coping success was positively associated with the availability of workplace resources (workplace support and job control), providing a potential pathway that can explain the previously reported relationships of these workplace resources with well-being. That is, workplace resources could benefit the individual in part because they allow them to manifest coping strategies in a more successful fashion, thus counteracting the negative effects of workplace stressors and other negative events.

Similar to workplace resources, however, coping success was not found to play a significant moderating role in the relationship of workplace demands and negative social experiences to subjective well-being (with the exception of the relationship between workload and workload self-efficacy, where coping success manifested the hypothesized moderating effect). The implications of this finding is that coping success can be better thought of as counteracting the effects of workplace stressors (that is, exerting an effect on well-being of the opposite sign relative to stressors) rather than providing a buffering effect to the individual (or affecting the magnitude of the relationship of stressors and self-efficacy to well-being outcomes). While this initial investigation on coping success is not sufficient to fully address the issue of main versus moderated effects of coping, it can inform future research that seeks to explicitly test these two potential mechanisms of action.

Moreover, as with workplace demands and negative social experiences and self-efficacy beliefs, coping success was mostly associated with the experienced strain and affective distress components of subjective well-being, with no significant relationship being found with positive or negative affect and life satisfaction. This again underlines the importance of considering sub-

components of subjective well-being separately in constructing theoretical arguments about their relationship with workplace events and experiences, and of the potential mediators or moderators of this relationship.

However, in informing theory on stress and coping care must be taken to not equalize coping success with improvements in well-being, as this would introduce tautology concerns in the literature. In this study, coping success was conceptualized as success in dealing with the workplace stressor at hand, not with the resulting strain or stress. In other words, the construct of coping success focuses on the effectiveness of the behaviors that individuals use in engaging, removing, or otherwise avoiding workplace demands and negative social experiences, not with the ways in which individuals manage the experienced distress or other reductions in their well-being that have come about as a results of workplace experiences. This is not to say that the latter is not an important topic of investigation, but rather to differentiate behaviors aimed at stressors versus behaviors aimed at the stressors' effects.

Implications for Practice

The results of this study can also have important implications for practice. Organizations that seek to improve employee subjective well-being can do so through interventions or programs in a variety of areas. First, these programs can aim to increase available workplace resources, which can include workplace such as work redesign programs to increase job control, or leadership initiatives to increase the amount of workplace support that is available to employees. Furthermore, organizations can implement programs designed to improve individual levels of self-efficacy through, for example, improved training in time management or conflict resolution. This can help individuals feel more confident in their ability to successfully resolve a wider variety of workplace events, thus increasing their self-efficacy beliefs. Finally, other

training approaches can directly aim to improve employee coping skills, providing employees with more options they can use and better proficiency at implementing these options.

When attempting to enhance individual levels of resources, however, organizations must ensure that this does not turn into into a zero-sum game in which some employees benefit from increased workplace resources at the expense of other employees. The workplace resource for which this is perhaps most likely to be a concern is job control, in which increased control for some employees might result in decreased control for others (by, for example, enhancing an employee's control over the job by reducing the control of their supervisor over them). The best way to avoid this is to look for aspects of the work that employees specifically desire control over in order to function best at the workplace, and that at the same time represent a task burden or hassle for their superiors (or, at the very least, are not central to superiors' task performance or workplace functioning). In other words, workplace interventions that seek to identify and transfer control over the aspects of the job that are beneficial to one party and harmful (or at least neutral) to others are most likely to be successful in enhancing workplace resources for employees without reducing workplace resources for others.

The relationship between the coping success construct included in this study and individual levels of self-efficacy and well-being can further inform interventions aimed at increasing employee self-efficacy or well-being by underlining the importance of the ultimate effectiveness of coping, rather than the specific coping strategy selected in terms of predicting important individual outcomes (although see the discussion above for an overview of alternative explanations). Although there is probably still value in educating employees about different coping strategies, helping employees refine and improve on the strategies that they are more

comfortable with or that are more applicable to their situation could represent a reliable way to enhance employee well-being.

Although there is still some theoretical uncertainty on the exact way the three factors mentioned above (workplace resources, self-efficacy, and coping) operate in terms of main or moderated effects, such a question is arguably of less concern when considering practical applications (compared to theoretical and empirical efforts). That is, in terms of workplace interventions or other programs designed to improve employee well-being or increase self-efficacy, the question of moderating versus main effects is less important than it is in academic terms. This means that organizations can provide a benefit to their employees by taking measures designed to make more workplace resources available to them (or by helping increase their coping capabilities and self-efficacy levels), with the exact nature of the mechanism by which these benefits accrue being of secondary importance.

Furthermore, these results indicate that organizations can improve employee well-being by directly addressing the negative impact of work demands and negative workplace experiences. While some demands such as workload might perhaps not be directly addressable (see below), other demands such as role conflict could be potentially targeted by improved communication and lines of command, clearer goal-setting, and a more accessible code of conduct or set of rules that employees could apply; reducing these "non-essential" demands would be expected to result in improvements in employee well-being without unduly affecting organizational effectiveness and functioning.

Workload could be harder to directly reduce because workload fluctuations would imply that eliminating high workload levels would require introducing substantial slack into the workday at considerable cost to the organization. Nevertheless, organizations can still have some

options when attempting to manipulate workload levels to protect employee well-being. Specifically, job design efforts could seek to identify optimal levels of workload for each occupation or class of employee, with the focus then being shifted towards keeping deviations from that optimal workload level to a minimum Moreover, organizations can incorporate examinations of person-workload fit into their selection mechanisms, thus selecting for individuals that are best matched for the levels of workload (or workload fluctuations) that are typical of the position at hand. Alternatively, employees could be assigned tasks that best fit their current psychological and physiological state, ensuring (to the extent that this is possible) that no single employee is exposed to high levels of workload over a prolonged period of time. Finally, workload levels (or fluctuations of workload) could be managed by the introduction of work teams or closely collaborating groups that provide helping and other supportive behaviors to their overwhelmed members, thus creating slack within the group that can be allocated to specific tasks as needed.

On the other hand, the findings of this study showing a negative relationship between negative social experiences (interpersonal conflict and incivility) and subjective well-being point to the importance of establishing and maintaining a safe and positive work climate**.** Establishing an organizational climate in which civility is strongly encouraged could be particularly helpful; eliminating conflict is not always possible, and doing so could also have important negative organizational implications (see Jehn, 1995). Because incivility does not seem to have any potential benefits to the organizations and is generally established as an undesirable norm in most cases of human interaction, interventions designed to reduce instances of incivility by educating employees on its costs or by providing rewards for civil behavior could be very successful and ultimately result in increased levels of employee well-being.

Limitations

As with any research, this study has a number of limitations that need to be acknowledged. First, all the variables included in this study were assessed using self-reported measures, which might create some concerns about common methods bias (see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, these concerns could be somewhat alleviated by the fact that the independent, mediator, and dependent variables were all separated in time, by placing them in different measurement occasions as typical with such designs (for an example, see Ilies et al., 2010). Furthermore, the nature of some of the constructs (such as self-efficacy) included in this study is such that self-reports are likely the only feasible measurement option available. However, some common methods variance concerns do remain, and this is a limitation of this study that needs to be acknowledged.

First, it is possible that the collection of the study data exerted a reactive effect on participants (see Ilies et al., 2010), thus changing their attitudes, affect, or behavior in the workplace. This concern is perhaps most prominent when considering the coping success measure, due to two potential mechanisms. Participants could have been made aware of coping behaviors they could (or should) be doing, but were not, such as directly working to address a workplace demand or to confront an uncivil supervisor. This discrepancy between potential and actual behavior could create some distress or personal feelings of failure, thus affecting participants' well-being or self-efficacy beliefs beyond the effects that would be expected in the workplace alone. The second, albeit less likely, potential reactive effect for the coping success measure is providing participants with options they would have not otherwise considered, either in general or at the particular point of time of the measurement. For example, participants could have sought emotional support that they would otherwise not have, or were moved to shift

attention and effort away from some tasks in favor of others. Although the impact of any reactive effect exerted by the data collection on the results of this study is unclear, the potential for such impact exists.

Second, the workplace demands and negative social experiences included in this study were by necessity chosen to represent those most commonly or frequently encountered in the average workplace. Attempting to capture the most common events, however, necessitates that other, perhaps most contextually applicable events are left unexplored. That is, this study did not try to investigate some potential workplace demands that are especially salient for some workplaces or occupations. For example, the most salient workplace demand for some employees might be the need to fulfill specific sales quotas; this "sales quota" demand would not necessarily map well into the network of demands included in this study.

A similar criticism can also be applied to the selection of workplace resources included in the study; while the resources examined were chosen to be the ones with the widest applicability and theoretical background to support their effects, this still comes at the cost of leaving other, potentially more salient, resources unexamined. For example, operational resources such as material support might be more important than job control or social and organizational support availability in some workplaces or occupation.

In a related vein, all demands and negative experiences were weighed equally for all individuals in this study, but it is entire possible that some of these were more important than others either at the level of the individual or the organization. For example, some employees or workplace might be more accepting of or tolerant of incivility or conflict; for them, conflict would exert a smaller influence on well-being levels, thus potentially affecting the results of this study.

Third, the sample of participants involved in this study represented a generally limited part of the total breadth of the workforce, in that the sample was mainly composed of clerical, administrative, and technical workers. This limitation of the sample can somewhat limit the generalizability of these results to other occupations, such as those of a more physical (for example, manufacturing plant workers) or creative (such as graphical designers or architects) nature. The occupations involved in this study do, however, represent a sizable component of the workforce; therefore, the generalizability issues of this study might not be so severe in that the study findings can generalize to a practically significant number of employed individuals.

Another criticism related to the sample is that the individuals involved in this study were not randomly selected, but rather chose to self-select into this study. While none of the demographic, control, or other variables seemed to be outside the norm for similar samples, and of course such self-selection is a typical feature of field studies, the study sample could still be subject to some selection biases. Similarly, there was the potential for self-selection within-people, as participants decided to complete or skip measurements on specific days (or even specific measurements within a study day). Such self-selection effects might not always be avoidable, however, because participants can hardly be randomly selected and then compelled to join the study, or forced to complete specific surveys. Moreover the effect of between- or within-person selection biases could also operate to make the effects presented in this study more rather than less conservative, as it is possible that individuals who experience a wider range or workplace demands or negative social experiences would refuse to participate due to constraints imposed by these demands and experiences, and similar processes could also operate at the within-individual level (e.g. with participants skipping surveys during times of high workplace demands or during times of experienced distress). Nevertheless, it is hard to completely dismiss

the possibility that some self-selection effects did take place, and as a result these need to be acknowledged as a limitation of this study.

Finally, the measures utilized to assess workplace demands and negative social experiences, while psychometrically sound and generally suitable for a design such as the one used in this study, undoubtedly cannot adequately capture all the richness involved in workplace demand experiences or the complex nature of human conflict and uncivil interactions. Even if such predictors perform well in explaining variance in the outcomes of interest, there are elements of the nature of these events that remain unexplained by these quantitative measures, a factor that represents another limitation of this work.

Future Directions

This study can also serve to generate a number of future avenues of research. Future direction can be guided by two main motivations related to this study; the need to further investigate some of the empirical results reported, and the need to improve on the limitations associated with the current study design.

Extending the findings of this study. In terms of further investigations into the results presented herein, there are a few areas that can provide particularly interesting contributions. First, there would be value in a closer investigation of the relationships between the different aspects of well-being, including indicators of strain, positive affective responses, negative affective responses, and domain satisfactions (such as job and life satisfaction measures). Such an investigation can provide an important contribution to well-being theories as well as to a variety of models of workplace functioning that take well-being into consideration by aiming to uncover and explain the underlying structure and nomological net around these well-being components.

Future research could also specifically focus on some of the interactions reported in this study. Perhaps the most impactful of these is the moderating effect of coping success in the relationship between workload and workload self-efficacy, but there would be value in focusing on the moderating effects of previous self-efficacy as well. The former is important in that workload is the one workplace demand that is most applicable to all occupations, and one that is costliest to reduce in the work environment as mentioned above. Moreover, workload self-efficacy beliefs were found in turn to be linked to well-being levels as well as influencing future workplace functioning, further underlining the importance of this finding. These factors can be therefore combined to inform a model in which success in addressing the demands of the work increases self-efficacy beliefs, which in turn improves workplace functioning on subsequent days. Other future work can focus on similar interactions to create cross-level and temporally sophisticated models of workplace functioning.

Alternatively, future research could focus on these moderated effects that were found to be significant but opposite to the hypothesized direction. For example, the moderating effects of coping success were not always supportive of the study hypotheses; indeed, in three cases, coping success was found to moderate the relationship of emotional demands and interpersonal conflict to emotional exhaustion and positive affect in the opposite than expected direction. In terms of positive affect, the pattern of results suggests that it is possible that this reversed moderating effect could be due to the cost of increasing one's coping effort, but this possibility does not hold for the other two interactions. Instead, it could be that deviations from the optimal situation (in which there are few demands and negative social experiences and at the same time the individual feels that whatever minor issues remain are well handled) could create individual concerns, worries, or doubts that translate into reduced well-being. If that is the case, future

research can investigate some potential mediators of these moderated effects such as perceptions of workplace climate, psychological safety, feelings of psychological contract violation, or other attitudes, feelings, or stressors that could be triggered due to increased negative perceptions of the workplace.

Moreover, the findings of this study relative to how individuals experience and respond to their work environment have the potential to inform future work based on other theoretical frameworks. A theoretical framework that is perhaps most directly applicable is Hofboll's Conservation of Resources theory (COR; Hofboll, 1989). COR states that individuals "*strive to retain, protect, and build resources and that what is threatening to them is the potential or actual loss of these valued resources"* (Hoboll, 1989, p. 513). Using this framework, workplace self-efficacy beliefs can be conceptualized as an important "resource" for individuals, which can be protected, gained, or lost in the workplace depending on how successfully individuals cope with the workplace demands at hand. This synthesis can help explain individual behavior and well-being in terms of self-efficacy gains or losses, based on the interplay between workplace demands, factors such as the availability of workplace support, and coping responses.

Furthermore, while this study explicitly focused on how workplace functioning affects individual well-being, future research could also seek to examine a variety of other important organizational outcomes using a framework similar to the one presented herein. For example, some studies could investigate whether coping success leads to improved task or job performance, or if coping success refers only to the individual's efforts to avoid experiencing distress. Similarly, other efforts could seek to investigate how factors related to workplace functioning affect voluntary behaviors such as organizational citizenship or negative workplace behaviors (Organ, 1988; Dimotakis, Ilies, & Mount, 2008). By examining a wider range of

outcomes of importance to individuals and organizations, such efforts could stand to provide a more well-rounded understanding of the way employees experience and react to the daily occurrences of their workplace.

Future studies could also examine self-efficacy beliefs across different temporal frames, and more clearly focus on the events and episodes that precede fluctuations in self-efficacy. This approach would provide a closer look at how self-efficacy judgments are formed, and provide an explanation for how they persist or fluctuate according to individual experiences. For example, an Experience Sampling Methodology study involving frequent measurement (see Dimotakis, Ilies, & Judge, in press) could investigate how long the positive or negative effects of discrete workplace experiences (for example, achieving task success or failure) persist across time, and whether other intervening events could affect increases or decreases in the temporal persistence of such effects.

Moreover, while as previously mentioned exploratory analyses conducted in this study failed to find a consistent pattern of non-linear effects for workplace support and job control, future work could explicitly seek to address the possibility of such effects using studies specifically designed and optimized for testing non-linear relationships. By investigating non-linear effects, this line of research could provide an alternative explanation for the sometimes mixed support that the demands/control/support model has received in the literature, and thus contribute to both theory and practice.

Finally, future studies could expand on the findings presented herein relative to the positive effects of coping success on subjective well-being and self-efficacy. Specifically, an investigation that explicitly compares and contrasts the effects of coping success versus coping styles could shed some light on the findings of this study and contribute to a variety of models of

stress and well-being that include coping responses. Furthermore, future work could investigate the relative benefits of coping success on individual well-being as well as the organizational outcomes discussed above, thereby uncovering any differential relationships of success in different coping styles with organizational and individual outcomes (for example, by demonstrating that success in seeking emotional support is beneficial in terms of individual subjective well-being levels, but not for organizationally important outcomes such as task or job performance).

Addressing limitations. Other avenues of research could attempt to address some of the limitations inherent in the design of this study. First, future research approaches could attempt to address the common methods variance concerns mentioned in the limitations section by replicating the findings of this study using other sources of ratings or data collection methods, thus going beyond self-reported measures. For example, self-reported data on experienced positive or negative affect could be validated by collecting spouse or peer reports, and self-reports of experienced strain or emotional exhaustion could be improved upon by collecting physiological measures (such as cortisol samples or cardiovascular measures). Similarly, workplace demands such as workload can be measured using more objective techniques (such as utilizing measures of actual tasks needing completion on a particular workday). These approaches can thus help address some of the common methods bias concerns included in this study, as well as providing a more comprehensive investigation of these well-being phenomena.

Similarly, generalizability concerns can also be assuaged by future research by conducting similar studies on a wider range of occupations. While the technological approach utilized will probably need to be adjusted to best fit the context (for a discussion of various technological approaches and how they can be adjusted to the work context at hand, see

Dimotakis et al., in press), examining other samples can help ensure that the findings of this study generalize beyond clerical and administrative workers to a larger segment of the workforce.

Expanding future investigations into other contexts can also provide a prime opportunity to extend current research into more targeted work demands and sources of workplace resources. In other words, future research can use initial investigations into the work context to uncover these resources or demands that are particularly applicable or salient to that organization or occupation, and focus their work accordingly. While this might decrease the potential generalizability of the findings, such research efforts that pay close attention to the context at hand can provide a clear and concise picture of workplace functioning for their particular context, adding detail and nuance to the theoretical conclusions that can be drawn from them.

Beyond examining more contextually applicable resources or demands, other research approaches can instead take a more qualitative approach towards workplace functioning, using the appropriate data collection techniques to attempt to gain a richer understanding of how employees experience workplace demands and negative social experiences, and what resources or strategies they use to effectively cope with them. This can extend our understanding beyond the conclusions reached by the various quantitative approaches implemented so far, and perhaps reveal new avenues of research or potential mediating processes that can then be investigated further.

Finally, future research can instead seek to investigate workplace experiences that can enhance individual well-being or help individuals function better, thus examining the "flip-side" of the demand experiences that have been the focus of investigations up to this point (see Ilies, Keeney, & Scott, 2011, for an exception). Similarly, other approaches can investigate the effects

of chronic demands or pressures experienced by the individual, either from their work or family domains, thus providing a counterpoint to the well-being enhancing resources included in models of workplace functioning. In other words, future investigations could focus on the reverse side of the demands/control model and other similar conceptualization, by investigating the beneficial influences of positive workplace events, and how chronic stressors or demands can affect these influences and individual well-being in general.

Conclusion

This study proposed and tested a model by which workplace demands and negative social experiences affect individual well-being partly through variations in self-efficacy beliefs. It also posited a series of moderators of these relationships, as well as a proximal order for the effects of these moderators. The former arguments were mostly supported by this study, but support for the latter was mixed. In general though, this study proposed and found that self-efficacy beliefs and success in individual coping efforts are important variables in understanding workplace functioning in general and the relationship between workplace demands and negative social experiences and individual well-being, findings that can provide contributions for both theory and practice.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

TABLES

Table 1: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Daily Measurement Variables

	x^2	df	NFI	NNFI	CFI	GFI	SRMR	RMSEA	AIC
Demands Measures									
5 Factors	2105.33	517	.84	.86	.87	.86	.05	.06	1071.33
1 Factor	8020.85	527	.39	.36	.40	.52	.14	.13	6966.85
Self-Efficacy Measures									
5 Factors	543.91	80	.93	.92	.94	.92	.07	.08	383.91
1 Factor	3688.07	90	.54	.47	.55	.59	.13	.22	3508.07
Well-Being Measures									
6 Factors	5073.96	1415	.71	.76	.77	.80	.06	.06	2243.96
1 Factor	11170.81	1430	.35	.36	.38	.51	.11	.10	8310.81

Notes: All estimates derived from within-individual CFAs. NFI= Normed Fit Index. NNFI = Non-Normed Fit Index. CFI = Comparative Fit Index. GFI = Goodness-of-fit Index. SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Residual. RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation. AIC = Akaike Information Criterion

Table 2: Variance Components of the Repeated Measures Variables

	Between-Person Variance Component	Within-People Variance Component	% Variance Within People
1. Role Conflict	0.66	0.19	22.02%
2. Workload	0.50	0.23	31.39%
3. Emotional Demands	0.81	0.35	30.58%
4. Interpersonal Conflict	0.23	0.17	42.53%
5. Incivility	0.07	0.06	45.26%
6. Role Conflict SE	307.27	118.54	27.84%
7. Workload SE	360.12	130.79	26.64%
8. Emotional Demands SE	276.59	133.10	32.49%
9. Interpersonal Conflict SE	345.37	98.88	22.26%
10. Incivility SE	323.33	87.40	21.28%
11. Experienced Strain	0.09	0.09	48.92%
12. Emotional Exhaustion	0.76	0.17	18.09%
13. Affective Distress	0.30	0.24	44.88%
14. Negative Affect	0.08	0.06	43.88%
15. Positive Affect	0.49	0.29	37.02%
16. Life Satisfaction	2.26	0.30	11.59%
17. # of Coping Strategies	20.76	17.65	45.95%
18. Coping Success	0.29	0.39	57.18%

Notes: SE = Self-Efficacy. All variance components estimated from null HLM models.

Table 3: Means and Standard Deviations for the Between-People Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Gender	1.81	0.39							
2. Number of Children	1.66	1.33	.14						
3. Hours Worked	41.89	7.93	.19	.08					
4. Workplace Support	3.49	0.64	.04	.13	-.08				
5. Job Control	3.73	0.58	-.07	.17	.20	.36**			
6. Neuroticism	2.28	0.63	.05	-.11	-.10	-.43**	-.32**		
7. NA	1.33	0.44	-.04	.02	-.01	-.22*	.05	.57**	
8. Marital Status	0.68	0.47	-.10	-.07	.28**	.09	.13	.03	.07

Notes: N = 96. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 4: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations for the Within-People Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Role Conflict	1.87	0.43										
2. Workload	3.06	0.48	.38**									
3. Emotional Demands	1.81	0.60	.49**	.20**								
4. Interpersonal Conflict	1.37	0.41	.27**	.22**	.41**							
5. Incivility	1.14	0.25	.27**	.11*	.29**	.20						
6. Role Conflict SE	82.71	10.89	-.16*	-.07	-.21**	-.13*	-.13*					
7. Workload SE	80.94	11.44	-.21**	-.21**	-.18**	-.12**	-.08*	.38**				
8. Emotional Demands SE	82.96	11.54	-.23**	-.10**	-.24**	-.20**	-.13*	.47**	.28**			
9. Interpersonal Conflict SE	83.89	9.94	-.20*	-.09	-.25**	-.26**	-.06	.53**	.31**	.53**		
10. Incivility SE	85.63	9.35	-.17*	-.10*	-.22**	-.27**	-.17	.40**	.35**	.43**	.62**	
11. Experienced Strain	1.83	0.30	.08	.06	.18**	.17**	.10	-.17**	-.23**	-.26**	-.21**	-.25**
12. Emotional Exhaustion	2.38	0.41	.28**	.19**	.25**	.17**	.14**	-.12*	-.16**	-.24**	-.16*	-.22**
13. Affective Distress	1.92	0.49	.02	.01	.10	.13*	.06	-.08	-.16**	-.12*	-.05	-.11*
14. Negative Affect	1.19	0.25	.04	.01	.09	.13*	.07	-.04	-.13*	-.14*	-.03	-.14*
15. Positive Affect	2.37	0.53	-.03	.04	-.06	-.17*	.07	.13*	.18**	.09	.16*	.17*
16. Life Satisfaction	4.73	0.54	-.07	-.02	-.12**	-.13*	-.07	.11**	.17**	.17**	.12*	.16**
17. # of Coping Strategies	9.10	4.20	.14*	.11*	.03	.14	.06	-.15**	-.21**	-.17**	-.15*	-.07
18. Coping Success	3.37	0.63	.05	.00	-.13	-.12	-.12	.15*	.17**	.04	.17*	.24**

Notes: N = 514-517. Within-people correlations were estimated from coefficients derived from univariate fixed-effect HLM models, which were then standardized using within-individual standard deviation estimates. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 4 (cont'd).

	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
12. Emotional Exhaustion	.37**						
13. Affective Distress	.59**	.42**					
14. Negative Affect	.48**	.34**	.72**				
15. Positive Affect	-.26**	-.16**	-.29**	-.03			
16. Life Satisfaction	-.43**	-.23**	-.47**	-.32**	.26**		
17. # of Coping Strategies	-.02	.07	.02	.03	.07	-.02	
18. Coping Success	-.17**	-.13*	-.12*	-.10*	.04	.02	.09

Notes: N = 514-517. Within-people correlations were estimated from coefficients derived from univariate fixed-effect HLM models, which were then standardized using within-individual standard deviation estimates. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 5: Relationship between Role Conflict and Well-Being (Hypothesis 1).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	57.25	2.44	28.95	1.95	39.45	1.21	49.08	2.36	31.82	4.66	35.32
Gender	.03	.37	.18	2.82**	.06	.98	.00	.03	-.03	-.45	-.07	-1.00
Children #	.03	.51	-.12	-1.69	.06	.93	-.05	-.88	.08	.81	-.09	-.98
Work Hours	.01	.21	-.03	-.39	.06	1.04	-.02	-.24	.00	.03	-.07	-.93
Neuroticism	.36	3.04**	.31	2.90**	.29	3.51**	-.05	-.60	-.34	-3.96**	-.45	-4.38**
Trait NA	.02	.17	.04	.34	.27	2.78**	.61	2.54*	.08	.97	-.11	-1.29
Marital Status	.08	1.07	.20	2.00*	-.05	-.74	.02	.44	.02	.24	.17	1.82
Role Conflict	.05	.92	.28	4.93**	.01	.12	.01	.20	.01	.17	-.03	-.62

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 6: Relationship between Workload and Well-Being (Hypothesis 1).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	57.18	2.43	28.94	1.95	39.49	1.21	49.25	2.36	31.80	4.66	35.24
Gender	.02	.28	.20	3.11**	.06	1.03	-.01	-.22	-.06	-1.02	-.07	-.95
Children #	.04	.57	-.11	-1.69	.10	1.41	-.04	-.63	.06	.58	-.09	-.99
Work Hours	.02	.41	-.05	-.56	.06	1.11	-.01	-.14	.00	-.02	-.09	-1.06
Neuroticism	.35	3.14**	.31	3.12**	.33	4.14**	-.04	-.49	-.37	-4.39**	-.43	-4.12**
Trait NA	.02	.20	.04	.33	.26	2.71**	.61	2.57*	.07	.92	-.11	-1.23
Marital Status	.07	1.00	.20	2.06*	-.08	-1.14	.02	.30	.01	.10	.17	1.82
Workload	.06	1.12	.22	3.74**	.01	.10	.00	-.09	.10	1.80	.06	1.08

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 7: Relationship between Emotional Demands and Well-Being (Hypothesis 1).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	57.15	2.44	28.94	1.95	39.52	1.21	49.07	2.36	31.71	4.66	35.31
Gender	.03	.39	.18	2.79**	.06	.92	-.01	-.19	.01	.10	-.08	-1.00
Children #	.01	.23	-.12	-1.74	.08	1.10	-.06	-1.01	.06	.62	-.09	-1.02
Work Hours	.02	.44	-.03	-.34	.08	1.48	-.01	-.17	.01	.10	-.08	-1.01
Neuroticism	.35	3.06**	.31	2.95**	.30	3.60**	-.05	-.57	-.38	-4.71**	-.45	-4.29**
Trait NA	.00	-.03	.05	.35	.28	2.79**	.63	2.60*	.12	1.67	-.11	-1.30
Marital Status	.08	1.07	.18	1.79	-.05	-.80	.04	.65	.04	.53	.17	1.85
Em. Demands	.17	3.17**	.25	4.46**	.10	1.55	.11	1.64	-.03	-.50	-.04	-.61

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 8: Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict and Well-Being (Hypothesis 1).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.61	25.53	2.13	17.72	1.65	17.54	1.08	22.15	2.34	21.99	4.92	23.84
Gender	-.02	-.26	.24	3.39**	.05	.93	-.03	-.55	-.04	-.63	-.08	-1.00
Children #	.03	.49	-.12	-2.01	.10	1.37	-.01	-.22	.07	.70	-.09	-.92
Work Hours	.01	.27	-.03	-.46	.07	1.63	.00	-.06	.01	.17	-.08	-1.02
Neuroticism	.28	3.07**	.27	2.66*	.27	3.43**	-.05	-.68	-.34	-3.97**	-.42	-3.95**
Trait NA	.06	.72	.09	.66	.29	2.88**	.63	2.77**	.08	1.02	-.11	-1.29
Marital Status	.02	.25	.20	2.02*	-.10	-1.58	-.03	-.49	.01	.08	.19	2.13
In. Conflict	.24	3.83**	.23	4.62**	.18	3.94**	.16	3.90**	.01	.32	-.17	-2.04*

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 9: Relationship between Incivility and Well-Being (Hypothesis 1).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.38	12.46	1.97	15.38	1.66	13.52	1.07	18.31	2.56	16.35	4.96	18.70
Gender	-.01	-.22	.18	2.82**	.06	.92	-.02	-.39	-.02	-.24	-.08	-1.04
Children #	.07	1.20	-.08	-1.27	.08	1.11	-.04	-.60	.06	.58	-.11	-1.28
Work Hours	.04	.90	-.03	-.41	.08	1.69	.00	-.02	.00	.01	-.07	-.89
Neuroticism	.33	3.40**	.32	3.28**	.28	3.44**	-.06	-.76	-.33	-3.91*	-.42	-3.96**
Trait NA	.06	.70	.04	.29	.30	3.07**	.65	2.69*	.07	.95	-.13	-1.43
Marital Status	.02	.37	.18	1.88	-.06	-.94	.01	.20	.04	.43	.19	2.17**
Incivility	.35	4.29**	.25	5.88**	.13	2.44*	.12	2.59*	-.09	-1.66	-.13	-1.41

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 10: Relationship between Workplace Demands and Negative Social Experiences and Self-Efficacy (Hypothesis 2).

	Self-Efficacy - Role Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Workload		Self-Efficacy - Em. Demands		Self-Efficacy - In. Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Incivility	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	80.97	44.16	79.67	39.68	82.11	47.28	91.98	32.85	96.42	18.41
Gender	-.09	-1.28	-.13	-1.68	-.13	-1.90	-.12	-1.54	-.09	-.97
Children #	-.04	-.46	.01	.10	.08	1.20	.09	1.13	.09	1.36
Hours Worked	.08	.80	.13	1.50	.00	-.04	.04	.47	.00	.02
Neuroticism	-.32	-2.73**	-.18	-1.57	-.30	-2.70*	-.37	-3.59**	-.34	-2.84**
Trait NA	.15	1.64	.07	.71	.07	.82	.18	1.92	.20	1.99*
Marital Status	-.13	-1.44	-.20	-2.19*	-.15	-1.71	-.16	-1.87	-.19	-1.94
Demand/Experience	-.20	-2.47*	-.22	-5.00**	-.24	-3.42**	-.31	-5.70**	-.31	-2.90**

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Demand/Experience relates to the relevant domain being examined (e.g. Role Conflict for Role Conflict Self-Efficacy). Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 11: Relationship between Workplace Resources and Well-Being (Hypothesis 3).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	58.36	2.44	32.28	1.95	40.38	1.21	49.96	2.36	31.89	4.65	37.10
Gender	.03	.41	.23	3.70**	.07	1.03	-.02	-.39	-.05	-.76	-.09	-1.26
Children #	.05	.82	-.08	-1.19	.09	1.35	-.04	-.65	.06	.59	-.13	-1.48
Hours Worked	.04	.71	-.09	-1.17	.08	1.36	.01	.18	.02	.23	-.06	-.80
Neuroticism	.26	2.25*	.16	1.90	.22	2.57*	-.08	-.99	-.29	-3.00**	-.31	-2.75**
Trait NA	.05	.58	.05	.52	.30	2.82**	.66	2.77**	.07	.97	-.14	-1.31
Marital Status	.09	1.18	.16	1.68	-.05	-.82	.05	.78	.02	.20	.19	2.32*
Job Control	-.14	-1.24	.04	.34	-.08	-1.19	-.11	-1.65	.03	.37	.10	1.05
W. Support	-.07	-.78	-.43	-4.76**	-.12	-1.33	.03	.27	.09	.91	.25	2.48*

Notes: N = 77. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. W. Support = Workplace Support. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 12: Relationship between Workplace Resources and Self-Efficacy (Hypothesis 3).

	Self-Efficacy - Role Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Workload		Self-Efficacy - Em. Demands		Self-Efficacy - In. Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Incivility	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	80.92	48.85	79.70	42.75	82.11	50.88	81.68	48.48	83.31	46.99
Gender	-.12	-1.40	-.17	-2.09*	-.14	-1.88	-.13	-1.39	-.12	-1.26
Children #	-.08	-1.15	.01	.14	.05	.82	.02	.23	.05	.82
Hours Worked	.11	1.33	.16	1.90	.05	.49	.05	.59	.03	.28
Neuroticism	-.13	-1.06	-.02	-.19	-.16	-1.39	-.20	-1.61	-.21	-1.49
Trait NA	.12	1.34	.06	.64	.08	.92	.18	1.91	.18	1.80
Marital Status	-.07	-.84	-.17	-2.03*	-.11	-1.28	-.15	-1.75	-.19	-1.95
Job Control	.07	.75	-.05	-.53	-.01	-.13	.02	.26	.06	.41
W. Support	.40	4.03**	.37	4.12**	.33	3.47**	.43	3.86**	.26	2.40*

Notes: N = 77. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. W. Support = Workplace Support. Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 13: Relationship between Role Conflict Self-Efficacy and Well-Being (Hypothesis 4).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.84	56.57	2.42	28.77	1.94	39.43	1.21	49.66	2.37	31.96	4.69	35.64
Gender	.04	.56	.19	2.86**	.06	.90	-.03	-.45	-.02	-.32	-.07	-.94
Children #	.04	.56	-.12	-1.68	.08	1.08	-.05	-.83	.07	.69	-.10	-1.12
Work Hours	.01	.16	-.05	-.63	.06	1.22	.00	.01	-.01	-.09	-.06	-.72
Neuroticism	.33	3.02**	.31	2.91**	.30	3.50**	-.05	-.56	-.36	-4.08**	-.45	-4.25**
Trait NA	.03	.30	.06	.41	.28	2.91**	.65	2.70**	.09	1.16	-.12	-1.44
Marital Status	.09	1.26	.23	2.27*	-.04	-.66	.02	.29	.02	.23	.16	1.69
R. Conflict SE	-.16	-3.20**	-.12	-2.53*	-.08	-1.89	-.05	-1.07	.06	1.15	.14	2.68*

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. R. Conflict SE = Role Conflict Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 14: Relationship between Workload Self-Efficacy and Well-Being (Hypothesis 4).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.84	57.26	2.44	28.97	1.95	39.52	1.21	48.53	2.36	31.88	4.66	35.30
Gender	.03	.43	.19	2.87**	.06	1.03	.02	.33	-.04	-.66	-.08	-1.02
Children #	.03	.43	-.12	-1.73	.07	1.01	-.05	-.84	.10	.97	-.10	-1.09
Work Hours	.02	.48	-.03	-.38	.08	1.63	.03	.40	.00	-.05	-.09	-1.09
Neuroticism	.32	3.01**	.31	2.91**	.29	3.52**	-.05	-.61	-.35	-3.98**	-.44	-4.19**
Trait NA	.03	.31	.05	.36	.28	2.80**	.59	2.51*	.09	1.19	-.11	-1.29
Marital Status	.08	1.09	.21	2.11*	-.05	-.71	.05	.86	.01	.16	.18	1.92
Workload SE	-.23	-3.99**	-.17	-3.25**	-.16	-3.89**	-.12	-1.99*	.06	1.14	.17	2.86**

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Workload SE = Workload Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 15: Relationship between Emotional Demands Self-Efficacy and Well-Being (Hypothesis 4).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.84	57.37	2.44	29.02	1.95	39.38	1.21	48.78	2.36	31.93	4.66	35.26
Gender	.04	.54	.20	3.02**	.07	1.20	.00	-.06	-.03	-.46	-.07	-.95
Children #	.04	.66	-.13	-1.89	.07	1.01	-.06	-1.07	.08	.81	-.10	-1.12
Work Hours	-.01	-.18	-.03	-.39	.05	.81	-.03	-.31	-.01	-.10	-.08	-1.05
Neuroticism	.36	3.33**	.33	3.16**	.30	3.71**	-.04	-.47	-.35	-3.98**	-.44	-4.23**
Trait NA	.00	.02	.05	.34	.27	2.92**	.60	2.80**	.08	1.04	-.11	-1.24
Marital Status	.08	1.16	.22	2.21*	-.04	-.56	.05	.86	.02	.23	.18	1.92
E. Demands SE	-.21	-3.76**	-.26	-4.33**	-.07	-1.50	-.08	-1.25	.09	1.64	.14	2.07*

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. E. Demands SE = Emotional Demands Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 16: Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict Self-Efficacy and Well-Being (Hypothesis 4).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.84	57.16	2.44	28.98	1.95	39.20	1.21	49.03	2.36	31.71	4.66	35.37
Gender	.04	.48	.19	2.87**	.06	.95	-.01	-.23	-.03	-.41	-.08	-1.02
Children #	.03	.41	-.12	-1.71	.07	1.05	-.05	-.86	.07	.68	-.10	-1.07
Work Hours	.02	.35	-.04	-.42	.07	1.43	.00	-.05	-.03	-.53	-.08	-.98
Neuroticism	.35	3.14**	.32	2.97**	.30	3.60**	-.05	-.53	-.34	-3.86**	-.45	-4.37**
Trait NA	.02	.25	.05	.35	.28	2.80**	.64	2.64*	.08	1.06	-.11	-1.25
Marital Status	.08	1.16	.21	2.11*	-.05	-.73	.03	.57	.04	.44	.17	1.82
In. Conflict SE	-.23	-3.66**	-.17	-2.63*	-.08	-1.23	-.02	-.30	.07	1.25	.23	3.21**

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. In. Conflict SE = Interpersonal Conflict Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 17: Relationship between Incivility Self-Efficacy and Well-Being (Hypothesis 4).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.84	57.10	2.44	28.96	1.95	39.57	1.21	48.65	2.36	31.85	4.66	35.32
Gender	.04	.64	.20	2.91**	.06	.94	.02	.28	-.02	-.37	-.09	-1.14
Children #	.02	.32	-.12	-1.75	.07	1.04	-.04	-.60	.07	.65	-.09	-1.05
Work Hours	.02	.47	-.04	-.46	.07	1.43	.00	.03	-.01	-.15	-.08	-.98
Neuroticism	.34	3.32**	.32	3.03**	.30	3.54**	-.06	-.67	-.35	-4.01**	-.45	-4.33**
Trait NA	.02	.21	.04	.32	.28	2.80**	.63	2.81*	.08	1.09	-.11	-1.23
Marital Status	.10	1.37	.21	2.09*	-.05	-.76	.06	1.17	.02	.21	.16	1.72
Incivility SE	-.23	-4.02**	-.22	-3.74**	-.12	-2.15*	-.12	-1.41	.03	.65	.22	2.71**

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Incivility SE = Incivility Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 18: The Mediating Role of Role Conflict Self-Efficacy in the Relationship between Role Conflict and Well-Being (Hypothesis 5).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.84	56.59	2.42	28.75	1.94	39.44	1.21	49.64	2.37	31.94	4.69	35.65
Gender	.04	.50	.18	2.82**	.05	.89	-.01	-.21	-.02	-.27	-.07	-.94
Children #	.03	.53	-.12	-1.66	.07	1.00	-.05	-.84	.07	.71	-.10	-1.05
Work Hours	.01	.12	-.05	-.62	.05	.89	-.01	-.09	-.01	-.13	-.05	-.68
Neuroticism	.34	3.01**	.31	2.86**	.29	3.49**	-.05	-.61	-.36	-4.07**	-.45	-4.34**
Trait NA	.02	.26	.05	.39	.28	2.88**	.62	2.61*	.09	1.14	-.12	-1.45
Marital Status	.09	1.21	.21	2.14*	-.05	-.75	-.01	-.18	.02	.26	.15	1.65
Role Conflict	.04	.74	.26	4.69**	.00	-.07	.01	.25	.03	.64	-.01	-.31
R. Conflict SE	-.15	-3.03**	-.08	-1.77	-.08	-1.76	-.03	-.70	.06	1.20	.14	2.54*

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. R. Conflict SE = Role Conflict Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 19: The Mediating Role of Workload Self-Efficacy in the Relationship between Workload and Well-Being (Hypothesis 5).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.84	57.15	2.43	28.96	1.95	39.56	1.21	48.53	2.36	31.86	4.66	35.23
Gender	.03	.35	.21	3.28**	.06	1.02	.01	.24	-.07	-1.15	-.07	-.94
Children #	.03	.45	-.14	-2.18*	.10	1.35	-.04	-.66	.08	.92	-.09	-1.02
Work Hours	.03	.54	-.02	-.29	.07	1.19	.03	.37	-.02	-.39	-.09	-1.06
Neuroticism	.33	3.04**	.28	2.87**	.32	4.11**	-.05	-.54	-.37	-4.36**	-.44	-4.13**
Trait NA	.03	.29	.06	.44	.26	2.76**	.57	2.48*	.08	1.06	-.11	-1.20
Marital Status	.07	1.01	.21	2.25*	-.07	-1.11	.03	.59	.01	.08	.17	1.86
Workload	.01	.31	.19	3.30**	-.02	-.47	-.02	-.34	.12	2.11*	.11	1.85
Workload SE	-.22	-3.89**	-.13	-2.74**	-.16	-3.74**	-.13	-2.12*	.08	1.67	.14	2.40*

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Workload SE = Workload Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 20: The Mediating Role of Emotional Demands Self-Efficacy in the Relationship between Emotional Demands and Well-Being (Hypothesis 5).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.84	57.30	2.44	28.99	1.95	39.46	1.21	48.72	2.36	31.81	4.66	35.24
Gender	.03	.43	.17	2.70**	.06	1.02	-.01	-.16	.00	.05	-.07	-.91
Children #	.03	.49	-.14	-1.90	.08	1.14	-.07	-1.14	.07	.65	-.11	-1.23
Work Hours	-.01	-.24	-.04	-.39	.05	.94	-.03	-.37	.00	-.04	-.08	-1.04
Neuroticism	.36	3.36**	.33	3.16**	.31	3.79**	-.04	-.49	-.38	-4.55**	-.44	-4.15**
Trait NA	-.01	-.11	.03	.27	.27	2.86**	.60	2.78**	.11	1.48	-.11	-1.22
Marital Status	.08	1.13	.18	1.89	-.04	-.68	.05	.89	.04	.57	.18	1.96
E. Demands	.12	2.31*	.19	3.48**	.07	1.16	.07	1.06	.02	.35	-.01	-.23
E. Demands SE	-.18	-3.56**	-.20	-3.85**	-.07	-1.40	-.08	-1.30	.10	1.67	.12	2.13**

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. E. Demands = Emotional Demands. E. Demands SE = Emotional Demands Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 21: The Mediating Role of Interpersonal Conflict Self-Efficacy in the Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict and Well-Being (Hypothesis 5).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.84	56.96	2.44	28.91	1.95	39.19	1.21	48.88	2.36	31.72	4.66	35.35
Gender	.06	.86	.23	3.32**	.06	.90	-.02	-.31	-.03	-.46	-.08	-1.08
Children #	.04	.62	-.11	-1.72	.08	1.16	-.03	-.49	.07	.66	-.10	-1.15
Work Hours	.01	.23	-.02	-.26	.08	1.69	.01	.13	-.04	-.63	-.08	-1.01
Neuroticism	.34	3.13**	.31	2.79**	.30	3.53**	-.05	-.60	-.36	-4.06**	-.44	-4.14*
Trait NA	.02	.24	.07	.46	.28	2.79**	.66	2.79**	.08	1.02	-.11	-1.31
Marital Status	.09	1.24	.22	2.28*	-.06	-.84	.02	.32	.03	.41	.18	2.01*
In. Conflict	.16	2.42*	.18	2.86**	.12	1.66	.15	2.56**	.09	1.98*	-.13	-1.43
In. Conflict SE	-.17	-2.37*	-.11	-1.56	-.03	-.43	.01	.16	.09	1.70	.13	1.82*

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. In. Conflict SE = Interpersonal Conflict Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 22: The Mediating Role of Incivility Self-Efficacy in the Relationship between Incivility and Well-Being (Hypothesis 5).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.84	57.16	2.44	28.92	1.94	39.58	1.21	48.48	2.36	31.81	4.66	35.31
Gender	.05	.75	.19	2.87**	.07	1.07	.03	.59	-.01	-.19	-.09	-1.18
Children #	.01	.18	-.10	-1.45	.07	1.04	-.07	-1.11	.05	.53	-.11	-1.27
Work Hours	.02	.37	-.03	-.40	.07	1.38	-.01	-.09	.00	.02	-.07	-.90
Neuroticism	.34	3.22**	.35	3.49**	.29	3.49**	-.09	-1.05	-.34	-4.00**	-.43	-4.09**
Trait NA	.02	.29	.03	.21	.28	2.86**	.65	2.97**	.09	1.26	-.12	-1.38
Marital Status	.11	1.58	.19	2.02*	-.05	-.69	.08	1.54	.02	.28	.17	1.94
Incivility	.08	.91	.34	4.99**	.12	1.02	-.04	-.45	-.11	-1.19	.01	.04
Incivility SE	-.26	-3.85**	-.20	-3.08**	-.13	-1.93	-.15	-1.52	.03	.53	.26	2.87**

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Incivility SE = Incivility Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 23: The Moderating Role of Job Control in the Relationship between Workplace Demands and Experiences and Well-Being (Hypothesis 6).

	Self-Efficacy - Role Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Workload		Self-Efficacy - Em. Demands		Self-Efficacy - In. Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Incivility	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'
Intercept	81.02	44.89	79.65	39.65	82.14	47.46	81.64	43.72	83.21	45.00
Gender	-.09	-1.19	-.11	-1.47	-.12	-1.71	-.16	-2.20*	-.11	-1.24
Children #	-.05	-.59	.00	-.06	.08	1.08	.08	1.10	.09	1.25
Work Hours	.04	.43	.13	1.35	-.01	-.10	.02	.24	-.02	-.13
Neuroticism	-.24	-2.04*	-.19	-1.51	-.27	-2.38*	-.36	-3.31**	-.25	-1.92
Trait NA	.10	1.09	.07	.70	.06	.63	.18	1.73	.17	1.67
Marital Status	-.15	-1.67	-.19	-2.07*	-.15	-1.68	-.22	-2.46*	-.24	-2.52*
Demand/ Experience	-.20	-2.56*	-.20	-4.47**	-.22	-3.40**	-.32	-4.80**	-.27	-2.35*
Job Control Main Effects	.19	2.06*	.02	.21	.07	.72	.10	.98	.14	.95
Job Control Slope Effects	.02	.21	-.06	-1.10	.18	2.39**	.19	2.08**	.13	.61

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Demand/Experience relates to the relevant domain being examined (e.g. Role Conflict for Role Conflict Self-Efficacy). Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. Main Effects relates to the effect of Job Control on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Job Control on the level-1 Demand/Experience slopes predicting Self-Efficacy.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 24: The Moderating Role of Workplace Support in the Relationship between Workplace Demands and Experiences and Self-Efficacy Beliefs (Hypothesis 6).

	Self-Efficacy - Role Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Workload		Self-Efficacy - Em. Demands		Self-Efficacy - In. Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Incivility	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'
Intercept	80.86	48.57	79.66	42.46	82.12	50.67	81.66	48.11	83.22	46.39
Gender	-.13	-1.53	-.15	-1.73	-.14	-1.95	-.18	-2.34*	-.14	-1.47
Children #	-.08	-1.00	-.02	-.24	.05	.83	.06	.79	.07	1.12
Work Hours	.12	1.43	.17	2.06*	.04	.45	.09	1.29	.04	.39
Neuroticism	-.14	-1.20	-.04	-.33	-.16	-1.43	-.24	-2.26*	-.19	-1.55
Trait NA	.14	1.66	.07	.77	.07	.89	.21	2.42*	.20	2.23*
Marital Status	-.07	-.81	-.15	-1.74	-.11	-1.31	-.15	-1.91	-.20	-2.06*
Demand/ Experience	-.20	-2.65*	-.20	-4.71**	-.22	-3.65**	-.28	-4.53**	-.27	-2.18*
W. Support Main Effects	.43	4.42**	.35	3.86**	.33	3.52**	.42	3.88**	.28	2.50*
W. Support Slope Effects	-.03	-.27	-.02	-.50	.15	1.73	.10	1.43	.00	-.02

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Demand/Experience relates to the relevant domain being examined (e.g. Role Conflict for Role Conflict Self-Efficacy). Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. W. Support = Workplace Support. Main Effects relates to the effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Workplace Support on the level-1 Demand/Experience slopes predicting Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 25: The Moderating Role of Job Control in the Relationship between Role Conflict and Well-Being (Hypothesis 6).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	58.47	2.44	28.93	1.95	40.19	1.21	49.69	2.36	31.83	4.66	35.99
Gender	.02	.30	.18	2.78**	.05	.91	-.01	-.09	-.03	-.41	-.07	-.91
Children #	.05	.77	-.11	-1.53	.08	1.08	-.04	-.70	.07	.74	-.11	-1.21
Work Hours	.04	.71	-.02	-.24	.08	1.38	.00	-.05	-.01	-.15	-.10	-1.23
Neuroticism	.30	2.51*	.28	2.75	.25	3.04**	-.08	-1.04	-.32	.67	.17	1.84
Trait NA	.05	.58	.06	.50	.30	3.12**	.63	2.68*	.06	-3.36**	-.27	-3.42**
Marital Status	.09	1.21	.20	1.97	-.04	-.54	.04	.64	.02	.76	-.16	-1.65
Role Conflict	.04	.78	.28	4.89**	.01	.12	.01	.25	.00	.19	.42	1.71
Job Control Main Effects	-.17	-1.33	-.08	-.59	-.12	-1.69	-.10	-1.59	.07	.08	-.01	-.59
Job Control Slope Effects	.05	.39	.00	-.05	-.01	-.07	-.05	-.47	.04	.61	-.01	-.28

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Main Effects relates to the effect of Job Control on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Job Control on the level-1 Role Conflict slopes predicting Well-Being. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 26: The Moderating Role of Job Control in the Relationship between Workload and Well-Being (Hypothesis 6).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	58.40	2.44	28.94	1.95	40.21	1.21	49.77	2.36	31.74	4.66	35.96
Gender	.01	.19	.18	2.89**	.07	1.14	-.02	-.28	-.08	-1.39	-.07	-.86
Children #	.06	.84	-.11	-1.58	.11	1.43	-.04	-.54	.06	.58	-.11	-1.24
Work Hours	.05	.92	-.03	-.31	.08	1.32	.00	.05	.00	.08	-.11	-1.31
Neuroticism	.29	2.64*	.30	3.29**	.28	3.56**	-.08	-1.03	-.33	-3.59**	-.38	1.88
Trait NA	.06	.67	.04	.37	.29	3.16**	.64	2.74**	.04	.53	-.15	-3.32**
Marital Status	.09	1.16	.20	1.98*	-.06	-.87	.03	.56	-.01	-.12	.16	-1.62
Workload	.06	1.15	.20	3.27**	.03	.60	.01	.20	.07	1.22	.06	1.75
Job Control Main Effects	-.17	-1.39	-.06	-.49	-.11	-1.56	-.10	-1.62	.06	.62	.18	.96
Job Control Slope Effects	.00	.04	-.01	-.11	-.12	-1.34	-.08	-1.02	.09	1.23	-.06	-1.15

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Main Effects relates to the effect of Job Control on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Job Control on the level-1 Workload slopes predicting Well-Being. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 27: The Moderating Role of Job Control in the Relationship between Emotional Demands and Well-Being (Hypothesis 6).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	58.39	2.44	28.95	1.95	40.25	1.21	49.66	2.36	31.74	4.66	35.98
Gender	.02	.32	.18	2.75**	.05	.84	-.02	-.30	.00	-.02	-.07	-.91
Children #	.03	.49	-.12	-1.60	.09	1.26	-.05	-.73	.06	.59	-.11	-1.25
Work Hours	.05	.90	-.02	-.23	.10	1.84	.01	.08	.00	-.07	-.11	-1.29
Neuroticism	.30	2.55*	.29	2.86**	.26	3.11**	-.09	-1.04	-.35	-3.85**	-.38	-3.36**
Trait NA	.04	.40	.06	.49	.30	3.14**	.65	2.74**	.11	1.44	-.15	-1.66
Marital Status	.10	1.23	.18	1.78	-.04	-.60	.04	.80	.03	.34	.16	1.74
Em. Demands	.17	3.30**	.24	4.41**	.09	1.45	.11	1.61	-.02	-.39	-.04	-.58
Job Control Main Effects	-.16	-1.32	-.07	-.53	-.13	-1.76	-.11	-1.68	.05	.50	.18	1.87
Job Control Slope Effects	-.01	-.10	-.04	-.90	-.05	-.54	-.02	-.25	.08	1.69	.02	.28

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. Main Effects relates to the effect of Job Control on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Job Control on the level-1 Emotional Demand slopes predicting Well-Being. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 28: The Moderating Role of Job Control in the Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict and Well-Being (Hypothesis 6).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	58.29	2.44	28.96	1.95	40.17	1.21	49.48	2.36	31.83	4.66	35.93
Gender	.04	.54	.22	3.32**	.06	.91	-.02	-.39	-.04	-.62	-.08	-1.04
Children #	.05	.83	-.11	-1.60	.09	1.27	-.01	-.08	.07	.64	-.11	-1.33
Work Hours	.05	.87	-.01	-.09	.10	1.83	.03	.47	.00	.01	-.10	-1.30
Neuroticism	.28	2.56*	.28	2.53*	.25	3.00**	-.09	-1.13	-.32	-3.51**	-.37	-3.14**
Trait NA	.06	.69	.09	.62	.31	3.16**	.69	3.06**	.06	.80	-.16	-1.69
Marital Status	.10	1.28	.22	2.21*	-.04	-.62	.02	.34	.00	.02	.17	1.94
In. Conflict	.18	2.42*	.17	2.62*	.10	1.55	.15	2.28*	.08	2.01*	-.16	-1.65
Job Control Main Effects	-.17	-1.42	-.09	-.67	-.13	-1.79	-.13	-1.93	.06	.63	.18	1.89
Job Control Slope Effects	.02	.13	.07	.79	.14	.88	.08	.58	-.11	-1.24	-.01	-.10

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. Main Effects relates to the effect of Job Control on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effect of Job Control on the level-1 Interpersonal Conflict slopes predicting Well-Being. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 29: The Moderating Role of Job Control in the Relationship between Incivility and Well-Being (Hypothesis 6).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	58.47	2.44	29.02	1.95	40.24	1.21	49.61	2.36	31.81	4.66	35.92
Gender	.03	.36	.20	2.96**	.06	.92	-.03	-.43	-.02	-.34	-.08	-1.00
Children #	.05	.75	-.09	-1.30	.09	1.23	-.07	-1.18	.05	.53	-.13	-1.57
Work Hours	.05	.91	-.02	-.27	.09	1.71	.02	.21	.00	.02	-.10	-1.15
Neuroticism	.28	2.54*	.29	2.78**	.25	3.05**	-.09	-1.12	-.30	-3.17**	-.35	-3.05**
Trait NA	.06	.68	.07	.51	.31	3.16**	.67	2.90**	.07	.93	-.17	-1.79
Marital Status	.10	1.28	.21	2.11*	-.04	-.55	.05	.84	.01	.09	.18	2.07**
Incivility	.24	2.45*	.21	5.42**	.13	1.55	.02	.32	-.07	-1.29	-.11	-1.16
Job Control Main Effects	-.17	-1.41	-.08	-.61	-.13	-1.78	-.11	-1.67	.07	.74	.19	1.98*
Job Control Slope Effects	-.07	-.24	-.06	-1.10	.22	.99	-.01	-.13	.04	.39	-.14	-.95

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. Main Effects relates to the effect of Job Control on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effect of Job Control on the level-1 Incivility slopes predicting Well-Being. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 30: The Moderating Role of Workplace Support in the Relationship between Role Conflict and Well-Being (Hypothesis 6).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	58.47	2.44	28.93	1.95	40.19	1.21	49.69	2.36	31.83	4.66	35.99
Gender	.02	.30	.18	2.78**	.05	.91	-.01	-.09	-.03	-.41	-.07	-.91
Children #	.05	.77	-.11	-1.53	.08	1.08	-.04	-.70	.07	.74	-.11	-1.21
Work Hours	.04	.71	-.02	-.24	.08	1.38	.00	-.05	-.01	-.15	-.10	-1.23
Neuroticism	.30	2.51*	.28	2.75	.25	3.04**	-.08	-1.04	-.32	.67	.17	1.84
Trait NA	.05	.58	.06	.50	.30	3.12**	.63	2.68*	.06	-3.36**	-.27	-3.42**
Marital Status	.09	1.21	.20	1.97	-.04	-.54	.04	.64	.02	.76	-.16	-1.65
Role Conflict	.04	.78	.28	4.89**	.01	.12	.01	.25	.00	.19	.42	1.71
W. Support Main Effects	-.17	-1.33	-.08	-.59	-.12	-1.69	-.10	-1.59	.07	.08	-.01	-.59
W. Support Slope Effects	.05	.39	.00	-.05	-.01	-.07	-.05	-.47	.04	.61	-.01	-.28

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. W. Support = Workplace Support. Main Effects relates to the effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 Role Conflict slopes predicting Well-Being. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 31: The Moderating Role of Workplace Support in the Relationship between Workload and Well-Being (Hypothesis 6).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	57.14	2.44	32.25	1.95	39.89	1.21	49.34	2.36	31.83	4.65	36.82
Gender	.03	.32	.22	3.47**	.09	1.47	-.02	-.25	-.09	-1.47	-.09	-1.29
Children #	.06	.88	-.08	-1.27	.12	1.73	-.04	-.64	.05	.49	-.12	-1.35
Work Hours	.01	.17	-.08	-1.12	.04	.73	-.01	-.12	.02	.32	-.05	-.64
Neuroticism	.31	2.68*	.17	2.22*	.26	3.28**	-.04	-.52	-.31	-3.39**	-.34	-3.20**
Trait NA	.02	.23	.04	.47	.27	2.57*	.62	2.62*	.05	.77	-.11	-1.09
Marital Status	.05	.73	.15	1.73	-.09	-1.42	.02	.39	.01	.09	.20	2.41*
Workload	.04	.78	.22	3.66**	.02	.31	.03	.53	.08	1.34	.07	1.19
W. Support Main Effects	-.11	-1.14	-.42	-4.59**	-.14	-1.83	.00	-.02	.10	.98	.27	3.07**
W. Support Slope Effects	.12	1.37	-.12	-2.41*	-.03	-.41	-.15	-1.93	.04	.53	-.10	-2.08*

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. W. Support = Workplace Support. Main Effects relates to the effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 Workload slopes predicting Well-Being. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 32: The Moderating Role of Workplace Support in the Relationship between Emotional Demands and Well-Being (Hypothesis 6).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	57.18	2.44	32.27	1.95	39.93	1.21	49.23	2.36	31.79	4.65	36.85
Gender	.04	.49	.22	3.51**	.07	1.08	-.01	-.21	.00	-.02	-.10	-1.35
Children #	.03	.42	-.08	-1.22	.09	1.38	-.06	-.94	.05	.53	-.12	-1.38
Work Hours	.01	.23	-.08	-1.05	.06	1.20	-.01	-.15	.02	.24	-.05	-.61
Neuroticism	.31	2.59*	.15	1.84	.25	2.85**	-.05	-.61	-.34	-3.82**	-.34	-3.21**
Trait NA	.00	.04	.06	.58	.28	2.54*	.63	2.61*	.12	1.88	-.12	-1.12
Marital Status	.07	.97	.15	1.63	-.07	-1.15	.04	.62	.05	.73	.20	2.42**
Em. Demands	.16	3.06**	.23	4.25**	.09	1.37	.09	1.41	-.02	-.35	-.05	-.74
W. Support Main Effects	-.11	-1.14	-.42	-4.61**	-.14	-1.74	.00	.00	.10	1.02	.27	3.09*
W. Support Slope Effects	-.09	-1.44	-.09	-2.47*	-.04	-.65	-.10	-1.40	.03	.48	-.02	-.31

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. W. Support = Workplace Support. Main Effects relates to the effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 Emotional Demands slopes predicting Well-Being. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 33: The Moderating Role of Workplace Support in the Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict and Well-Being (Hypothesis 6).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	57.15	2.45	32.20	1.95	39.82	1.21	48.99	2.36	31.90	4.65	36.76
Gender	.05	.68	.26	4.31**	.07	1.19	-.02	-.32	-.05	-.78	-.11	-1.56
Children #	.05	.76	-.07	-1.16	.10	1.44	-.01	-.14	.06	.60	-.13	-1.47
Work Hours	.01	.14	-.06	-.79	.07	1.23	.02	.27	.02	.33	-.04	-.60
Neuroticism	.30	2.64*	.13	1.56	.24	2.71**	-.06	-.74	-.31	-3.25**	-.31	-2.93**
Trait NA	.02	.23	.08	.79	.28	2.57*	.67	2.91**	.08	1.10	-.12	-1.17
Marital Status	.07	.97	.17	1.93	-.08	-1.19	.00	.04	.02	.25	.22	2.78**
In. Conflict	.19	2.56*	.19	2.85**	.11	1.45	.14	2.19*	.06	1.22	-.16	-1.85
W. Support Main Effects	-.11	-1.20	-.42	-4.65**	-.14	-1.79	-.01	-.05	.10	1.01	.29	3.29**
W. Support Slope Effects	.09	1.05	-.02	-.35	.00	-.01	-.10	-1.36	-.03	-.71	.01	.08

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. W. Support = Workplace Support. Main Effects relates to the effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 Interpersonal Conflict slopes predicting Well-Being. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 34: The Moderating Role of Workplace Support in the Relationship between Incivility and Well-Being (Hypothesis 6).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	57.25	2.45	32.32	1.95	39.92	1.21	49.14	2.36	31.89	4.65	36.72
Gender	.04	.49	.23	3.71*	.07	1.17	-.03	-.42	-.03	-.48	-.11	-1.51
Children #	.04	.64	-.07	-1.03	.09	1.32	-.09	-1.46	.04	.45	-.15	-1.79
Work Hours	.01	.16	-.08	-1.09	.06	1.09	.00	-.01	.02	.36	-.03	-.41
Neuroticism	.30	2.61*	.16	1.97	.24	2.78**	-.05	-.70	-.28	-3.14**	-.28	-2.79**
Trait NA	.02	.21	.05	.55	.28	2.55*	.64	2.75**	.09	1.34	-.14	-1.29
Marital Status	.07	1.00	.16	1.80	-.07	-1.07	.04	.63	.03	.35	.23	3.00**
Incivility	.32	2.50*	.21	4.64**	.16	1.50	.05	.61	-.11	-1.79	-.12	-1.17
W. Support Main Effects	-.11	-1.15	-.42	-4.62**	-.14	-1.77	.01	.06	.12	1.22	.30	3.46**
W. Support Slope Effects	.43	1.69	.09	2.59*	.19	1.09	.13	.99	-.10	-.99	-.08	-.91

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. W. Support = Workplace Support. Main Effects relates to the effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 Incivility slopes predicting Well-Being. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 35: The Moderating Role of Prior SE Levels in the Relationship between Workplace Demands and Experiences and Self-Efficacy (Hypothesis 7).

	Self-Efficacy - Role Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Workload		Self-Efficacy - Em. Demands		Self-Efficacy - In. Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Incivility	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'
Intercept	81.31	39.97	80.67	35.91	82.08	43.06	82.64	40.83	82.99	41.55
Gender	-.07	-.89	-.09	-1.12	-.09	-1.15	-.12	-1.36	-.09	-1.04
Children #	-.07	-.80	.02	.29	.05	.64	.07	.78	.11	1.59
Work Hours	.18	2.00*	.19	2.05*	.00	-.05	.09	.95	.03	.33
Neuroticism	-.35	-2.61*	-.11	-.85	-.33	-3.03**	-.39	-3.29*	-.34	-2.47*
Trait NA	.17	1.75	.00	.01	.15	1.68	.21	2.15	.15	1.39
Marital Status	-.11	-1.21	-.21	-2.19*	-.18	-2.05*	-.18	-1.82	-.24	-2.47*
Demand/ Experience	-.10	-1.80	-.25	-5.25**	-.15	-2.73**	-.33	-3.62**	-.14	-1.09
Prior SE level	.00	.06	.09	1.18	.08	1.07	.07	1.48	.13	2.00*
Interaction Term	.11	1.97	-.08	-1.12	.02	.47	.02	.28	-.09	-.96

Notes: N = 394-398. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Demand/Experience relates to the relevant domain being examined (e.g. Role Conflict for Role Conflict Self-Efficacy). SE = Self Efficacy. Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. Interaction term relates to the interaction between the relevant Demand/Experience and associated Self-Efficacy domain (e.g. Role Conflict interacting with prior levels of Role Conflict Self Efficacy). * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 36: The Moderating Role of Prior SE Levels in the Relationship between Role Conflict and Well-Being (Hypothesis 7).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.87	50.40	2.48	27.98	1.98	35.89	1.22	45.57	2.32	29.22	4.66	33.36
Gender	-.03	-.40	.18	2.43*	.00	.06	-.04	-.61	-.05	-.76	-.05	-.67
Children #	.06	.90	-.12	-1.63	.06	.80	-.04	-.61	.10	.93	-.09	-.92
Work Hours	.07	1.22	-.02	-.23	.09	1.48	.04	.51	.00	-.06	-.04	-.54
Neuroticism	.43	3.54**	.38	3.51**	.35	3.93**	.00	-.03	-.34	-3.85**	-.45	-4.19**
Trait NA	.01	.13	.00	.00	.24	2.80**	.56	2.57*	.07	.77	-.15	-1.74
Marital Status	.07	.95	.25	2.51*	-.04	-.52	.00	.01	-.01	-.16	.13	1.34
Role Conflict	.02	.20	.35	3.96**	.01	.19	.03	.36	.08	1.61	-.04	-.76
Prior SE Level	-.04	-.56	.04	.82	.00	.02	-.03	-.46	.09	1.55	.12	1.94
Interaction Term	-.03	-.52	.05	.63	-.03	-.45	-.09	-1.71	.02	.51	.06	1.24

Notes: N = 394-398. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. SE = Self Efficacy. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Role Conflict and prior levels of Role Conflict Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 37: The Moderating Role of Prior SE Levels in the Relationship between Workload and Well-Being (Hypothesis 7).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.87	51.01	2.47	27.47	1.97	36.87	1.21	48.63	2.32	29.22	4.66	33.47
Gender	.03	.34	.19	2.59	.01	.15	-.06	-.82	-.08	-1.15	-.06	-.68
Children #	.03	.44	-.11	-1.56	.06	.83	-.05	-.78	.09	.86	-.10	-1.13
Work Hours	.03	.56	-.02	-.29	.08	1.88	.03	.42	-.02	-.32	-.07	-.81
Neuroticism	.40	3.10**	.36	3.54**	.38	4.78**	.00	-.05	-.38	-4.40**	-.43	-4.11**
Trait NA	.00	.01	.00	.03	.21	2.62**	.54	2.73**	.07	.77	-.14	-1.66
Marital Status	.13	1.74	.26	2.55*	-.04	-.63	.00	.01	-.02	-.23	.17	1.78
Workload	.06	1.19	.25	4.09**	.03	.59	.02	.37	.09	1.62	.10	1.66
Prior SE Level	-.09	-1.35	-.06	-1.26	.11	1.72	.05	.56	-.04	-.99	.03	.42
Interaction Term	-.14	-2.23*	-.08	-1.43	-.10	-1.84	-.08	-.95	.07	2.48*	.11	1.16

Notes: N = 394-398. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. SE = Self Efficacy. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Workload and prior levels of Workload Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 38: The Moderating Role of Prior SE Levels in the Relationship between Emotional Demands and Well-Being (Hypothesis 7).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.86	50.92	2.47	27.97	1.98	36.31	1.20	50.54	2.32	29.28	4.67	33.73
Gender	-.06	-.60	.18	2.57*	.01	.17	-.09	-1.47	-.05	-.69	-.04	-.53
Children #	.01	.15	-.12	-1.66	.06	.77	-.04	-.81	.10	.92	-.09	-.95
Work Hours	.07	1.21	-.02	-.24	.09	1.71	.01	.16	.00	-.04	-.05	-.57
Neuroticism	.40	3.09**	.38	3.58**	.33	3.76**	.04	.52	-.37	-4.22**	-.45	-4.13**
Trait NA	-.04	-.36	.02	.19	.24	2.79**	.35	3.03**	.09	1.10	-.14	-1.59
Marital Status	.06	.81	.23	2.28*	-.03	-.45	.01	.12	-.02	-.19	.15	1.57
Em. Demands	.10	1.45	.18	2.95**	.11	1.54	.10	1.33	.04	.81	-.01	-.16
Prior SE Level	-.06	-1.02	-.04	-.91	.01	.21	.03	.57	.04	.68	.08	1.08
Interaction Term	.01	.26	.04	.52	.02	.47	-.14	-.72	-.06	-1.31	-.06	-1.42

Notes: N = 394-398. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. SE = Self Efficacy. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Emotional Demands and prior levels of Emotional Demands Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 39: The Moderating Role of Prior SE Levels in the Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict and Well-Being (Hypothesis 7).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.87	50.91	2.47	27.71	1.98	35.30	1.21	45.72	2.32	29.25	4.68	33.55
Gender	.02	.24	.21	2.72**	.03	.40	-.04	-.62	-.06	-.82	-.05	-.55
Children #	.02	.29	-.14	-1.88	.09	1.14	-.02	-.30	.10	.93	-.10	-1.11
Work Hours	.06	.99	.02	.33	.12	2.33*	.04	.62	.00	.04	-.03	-.42
Neuroticism	.45	3.53*	.35	3.23**	.35	4.02*	.00	.06	-.35	-3.91**	-.46	-4.14**
Trait NA	-.01	-.07	.05	.34	.23	2.66**	.55	2.48*	.07	.87	-.12	-1.43
Marital Status	.14	1.74	.28	2.68*	-.03	-.45	.01	.15	-.02	-.21	.14	1.51
In. Conflict	.20	2.63*	.21	3.19**	.10	1.20	.12	1.41	.08	1.43	-.05	-.70
Prior SE Level	-.09	-1.23	-.01	-.15	-.02	-.33	.00	.04	.02	.52	.03	.57
Interaction Term	.01	.13	-.19	-3.81**	-.07	-2.08**	-.05	-.84	.07	1.67	.19	4.60**

Notes: N = 394-398. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. SE = Self Efficacy. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Interpersonal Conflict and prior levels of Interpersonal Conflict Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 40: The Moderating Role of Prior SE Levels in the Relationship between Incivility and Well-Being (Hypothesis 7).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.87	50.75	2.46	27.67	1.98	35.40	1.21	45.34	2.32	29.36	4.65	33.12
Gender	-.02	-.24	.19	2.48*	.02	.25	-.03	-.57	-.04	-.55	-.05	-.65
Children #	.02	.28	-.12	-1.61	.05	.65	-.08	-1.29	.10	.96	-.10	-1.11
Work Hours	.04	.67	.00	-.05	.10	1.99*	.03	.41	-.01	-.15	-.04	-.48
Neuroticism	.45	3.44**	.35	3.31**	.34	3.84**	-.02	-.32	-.35	-3.89**	-.48	-4.45
Trait NA	-.01	-.11	.02	.18	.25	2.95**	.61	2.99**	.07	.87	-.11	-1.25
Marital Status	.12	1.43	.27	2.62*	-.01	-.11	.05	.88	-.01	-.14	.14	1.55
Incivility	.22	1.79	.12	1.95	.04	.60	-.04	-.66	-.04	-.88	-.04	-.51
Prior SE Level	-.13	-1.78	-.07	-1.37	-.04	-.59	.00	-.05	.06	1.35	.13	2.04
Interaction Term	-.08	-.93	.01	.09	.02	.31	.13	2.23*	.07	2.35*	.15	2.25*

Notes: N = 394-398. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. SE = Self Efficacy. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Incivility and prior levels of Incivility Self-Efficacy. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 41: The Moderating Role of Coping Success in the Relationship between Workplace Demands and Experiences and Self-Efficacy (Hypothesis 8).

	Self-Efficacy - Role Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Workload		Self-Efficacy - Em. Demands		Self-Efficacy - In. Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Incivility	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'
Intercept	80.67	42.84	78.69	38.92	81.53	46.40	81.44	42.89	83.12	43.52
Gender	-.12	-1.64	-.10	-1.35	-.16	-2.28*	-.11	-1.49	-.13	-1.75
Children #	-.02	-.22	.07	.93	.09	1.39	.12	1.47	.08	1.21
Work Hours	.08	.89	.12	1.51	.01	.09	.03	.28	.01	.13
Neuroticism	-.32	-2.77**	-.15	-1.34	-.28	-2.56*	-.41	-3.78**	-.33	-2.79**
Trait NA	.10	1.08	.04	.53	.02	.28	.20	1.94	.23	2.63*
Marital Status	-.07	-.79	-.19	-2.26*	-.14	-1.66	-.19	-2.10*	-.16	-1.75
# of Coping Strategies	-.13	-2.23*	-.19	-2.67*	-.18	-2.90**	-.12	-2.25*	-.04	-.67
Demand/ Experience	-.16	-2.28*	-.20	-4.04**	-.23	-2.88**	-.24	-3.18**	-.22	-2.27*
Coping Success	.18	3.41**	.31	4.51**	.03	.54	.17	2.46*	.21	3.38**
Interaction Term	.07	.75	.16	3.53*	-.03	-.39	.09	.98	-.02	-.09

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Demand/Experience relates to the relevant domain being examined (e.g. Role Conflict for Role Conflict Self-Efficacy). Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. Interaction term relates to the interaction between the relevant Demand/Experience and Coping Success (e.g. Role Conflict interacting coping success when predicting Role Conflict Self Efficacy). * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 42: The Moderating Role of Coping Success in the Relationship between Role Conflict and Well-Being (Hypothesis 8).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	55.85	2.45	28.86	1.94	37.85	1.19	59.87	2.38	31.57	4.66	35.12
Gender	.02	.27	.21	3.05**	.04	.59	-.05	-.95	-.04	-.56	-.09	-1.17
Children #	.00	.01	-.10	-1.39	.10	1.44	.01	.34	.10	1.12	-.10	-1.06
Work Hours	.00	.05	-.04	-.42	.03	.53	-.01	-.15	.05	.95	-.08	-.95
Neuroticism	.33	3.35**	.28	2.53*	.31	3.63	.01	.21	-.35	-3.85**	-.43	-4.19**
Trait NA	.01	.07	.04	.32	.20	1.78	.28	2.79**	.05	.55	-.10	-1.09
Marital Status	.09	1.27	.14	1.41	-.12	-1.86	-.08	-1.65	.03	.35	.16	1.77
# of Coping Strategies	.01	.21	.05	.75	.04	.64	.04	.61	.03	.40	-.02	-.32
Role Conflict	.04	.71	.38	4.13*	.01	.17	.04	.63	.04	.91	-.06	-1.25
Coping Success	-.17	-3.59*	-.05	-.86	-.13	-2.38*	-.01	-.13	.03	.57	.04	.84
Interaction Term	.06	.91	.00	-.03	.01	.19	.02	.19	-.10	-1.83	.06	.61

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Role Conflict and Coping Success. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 43: The Moderating Role of Coping Success in the Relationship between Workload and Well-Being (Hypothesis 8).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	56.07	2.45	29.33	1.95	38.15	1.20	57.20	2.38	31.76	4.66	35.23
Gender	.00	.05	.21	3.51**	.09	1.50	-.04	-.77	-.11	-1.68	-.07	-.94
Children #	.04	.62	-.07	-1.14	.10	1.48	.01	.24	.06	.59	-.10	-1.11
Work Hours	.01	.13	-.07	-1.13	.09	1.81	.00	.06	.00	-.01	-.06	-.74
Neuroticism	.34	3.60*	.27	3.02**	.31	3.67**	-.01	-.11	-.33	-3.62**	-.41	-3.85**
Trait NA	.03	.36	.03	.24	.27	2.16*	.34	2.92**	.03	.37	-.11	-1.16
Marital Status	.06	.80	.13	1.51	-.12	-1.89	-.07	-1.57	.00	.01	.18	1.96
# of Coping Strategies	.04	.60	.04	.57	.04	.71	.01	.23	.02	.30	-.03	-.57
Workload	.06	1.24	.20	3.25**	.00	-.06	-.01	-.16	.07	1.37	.04	.66
Coping Success	-.17	-3.16*	-.09	-1.39	-.13	-2.15*	-.01	-.15	.05	.96	.05	.99
Interaction Term	-.05	-1.00	.04	1.30	-.08	-.90	.05	.77	.05	.71	.08	1.18

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Interaction term relates to the interaction between workload and Coping Success.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 44: The Moderating Role of Coping Success in the Relationship between Emotional Demands and Well-Being (Hypothesis 8).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	55.42	2.46	29.27	1.94	38.34	1.19	58.90	2.38	31.39	4.66	35.20
Gender	.04	.67	.25	3.79**	.05	.80	-.06	-1.00	-.02	-.31	-.09	-1.25
Children #	-.03	-.50	-.09	-1.39	.10	1.37	.00	-.08	.10	1.04	-.10	-1.08
Work Hours	.04	.72	-.05	-.67	.07	1.46	-.01	-.17	.04	.70	-.08	-1.02
Neuroticism	.35	3.46**	.26	2.39*	.29	3.40*	-.02	-.35	-.40	-4.69**	-.40	-3.93**
Trait NA	.02	.23	.05	.39	.25	2.09*	.38	3.21**	.09	1.32	-.12	-1.39
Marital Status	.11	1.48	.18	1.86	-.11	-1.64	-.08	-1.73	.04	.52	.15	1.69
# of Coping Strategies	.02	.39	.07	1.07	.05	.81	-.01	-.24	.06	1.03	-.03	-.45
Em. Demands	.15	2.51*	.25	3.80**	.09	1.18	.10	1.64	-.02	-.46	-.07	-.75
Coping Success	-.15	-3.00**	-.08	-1.17	-.12	-2.09*	.00	-.03	.03	.55	.03	.77
Interaction Term	.05	.73	.11	2.49*	-.02	-.29	-.04	-.75	-.14	-1.91	-.06	-.66

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Emotional Demands and Coping Success. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 45: The Moderating Role of Coping Success in the Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict and Well-Being (Hypothesis 8).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	55.90	2.45	29.48	1.95	37.68	1.20	55.50	2.37	31.52	4.66	35.51
Gender	.01	.14	.22	3.47**	.07	1.04	-.06	-1.05	-.06	-.91	-.10	-1.42
Children #	.02	.37	-.04	-.64	.10	1.36	.01	.13	.09	.88	-.11	-1.32
Work Hours	.04	.85	-.06	-.85	.08	1.64	.01	.12	-.01	-.14	-.09	-1.05
Neuroticism	.33	3.74**	.29	2.70**	.29	3.26**	-.01	-.19	-.36	-4.14**	-.41	-4.00**
Trait NA	.04	.48	.02	.16	.27	2.13*	.38	2.73**	.06	.67	-.12	-1.32
Marital Status	.06	.90	.12	1.37	-.11	-1.55	-.06	-1.29	.01	.18	.18	2.08*
# of Coping Strategies	.01	.14	.01	.19	.02	.35	-.01	-.14	.08	1.30	-.01	-.21
In. Conflict	.14	1.63	.17	2.23*	.09	1.06	.10	1.26	.05	1.00	-.11	-1.03
Coping Success	-.21	-3.63**	-.09	-1.43	-.10	-1.71	-.01	-.15	.06	1.00	.04	.87
Interaction Term	.07	.78	.14	2.12*	-.01	-.27	.05	.76	-.26	-4.16**	.05	.54

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Interpersonal Conflict and Coping Success. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 46: The Moderating Role of Coping Success in the Relationship between Incivility and Well-Being (Hypothesis 8).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	56.43	2.46	29.51	1.95	37.80	1.20	54.37	2.38	31.40	4.63	34.37
Gender	.05	.65	.21	3.22**	.08	1.22	-.04	-.74	-.04	-.60	-.11	-1.41
Children #	.01	.10	-.05	-.86	.10	1.35	-.02	-.46	.06	.57	-.11	-1.26
Work Hours	.03	.55	-.06	-.85	.08	1.62	.00	-.08	.01	.18	-.08	-1.07
Neuroticism	.32	3.44**	.29	2.73**	.28	3.12**	-.03	-.49	-.38	-4.61**	-.41	-3.65**
Trait NA	.05	.61	.02	.20	.28	2.26*	.39	3.15**	.08	.98	-.11	-1.21
Marital Status	.08	1.14	.14	1.52	-.10	-1.51	-.05	-1.14	.02	.19	.14	1.59
# of Coping Strategies	.01	.13	.03	.42	.02	.30	-.01	-.20	.05	.71	-.01	-.15
Incivility	.18	2.64*	.21	4.01*	.10	1.25	.01	.10	-.06	-1.36	-.24	-1.51
Coping Success	-.17	-3.22**	-.08	-1.23	-.11	-1.64	.01	.17	.03	.50	.05	.95
Interaction Term	.04	.69	.01	.36	.03	.82	-.03	-.95	.10	2.48*	-.10	-.39

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Incivility and Coping Success.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 47: The Relationship of Prior Self-Efficacy Levels and Workplace Resources with Coping Success

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	3.36	58.39	3.36	58.45	3.34	51.48	3.33	51.86	3.33	51.84	3.33	51.63	3.33	51.36
Gender	.05	.92	.03	.44	.02	.36	.03	.49	.03	.62	.03	.45	.02	.42
Children #	.01	.10	.01	.14	.08	1.18	.08	1.13	.09	1.37	.08	1.26	.10	1.43
Work Hours	-.07	-1.15	-.01	-.10	.02	.30	.02	.43	.03	.54	.02	.34	.02	.30
Neuroticism	-.25	-3.17**	-.22	-2.62*	-.30	-2.93**	-.29	-2.88**	-.29	-2.91**	-.29	-2.82*	-.28	-2.75**
Trait NA	.02	.35	.08	1.07	.06	.59	.03	.36	.03	.30	.03	.33	.03	.27
Marital Status	-.10	-1.30	-.05	-.74	-.10	-1.17	-.09	-1.13	-.10	-1.18	-.10	-1.22	-.11	-1.34
# of Cop. Strategies	.10	1.53	.10	1.57	.13	1.56	.12	1.51	.11	1.26	.14	1.62	.11	1.32
Job Control	.20	2.02*												
Workplace Support			.26	2.55*										
Pr. R. Conflict SE					-.02	-.27								
Pr. Workload SE							.10	.98						
Pr. E. Demands SE									-.05	-.52				
Pr. In.Conflict SE											.07	.67		
Pr. Incivility SE													-.04	-.45

Notes: N = 77 for Models 1-2, N = 394-398 for Models 3-7. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Pr. = Previous. R. Conflict SE = Role Conflict Self-Efficacy. E. Demands SE = Emotional Demands Self-Efficacy. In. Conflict SE = Interpersonal Conflict SE. All models have Coping Success as the dependent variable. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 48: The Mediating Role of Coping Success for the Buffering Effects of Control on Self-Efficacy Outcomes (Hypothesis 9).

	Self-Efficacy - Role Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Workload		Self-Efficacy - Em. Demands		Self-Efficacy - In. Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Incivility	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'
Intercept	80.70	43.45	78.69	38.94	81.56	46.43	81.39	43.02	83.09	43.12
Gender	-.11	-1.51	-.10	-1.33	-.15	-2.00*	-.10	-1.29	-.10	-1.26
Children #	-.03	-.38	.05	.74	.08	1.20	.11	1.53	.05	.70
Work Hours	.05	.50	.13	1.57	.00	-.04	.01	.05	-.02	-.22
Neuroticism	-.23	-2.02*	-.17	-1.43	-.24	-2.11*	-.33	-2.97*	-.24	-2.00*
Trait NA	.04	.49	.06	.71	.00	-.04	.16	1.48	.16	1.99*
Marital Status	-.10	-1.05	-.18	-2.18*	-.14	-1.61	-.21	-2.34*	-.13	-1.42
# of Coping Strategies	-.13	-2.22*	-.20	-2.78**	-.18	-2.87**	-.12	-2.19*	-.06	-1.15
Demand or Experience	-.17	-2.30*	-.18	-3.39**	-.21	-2.91**	-.26	-3.57**	-.17	-1.74
Job Control Main Effect	.21	2.42*	-.02	-.24	.12	1.26	.16	1.65	.26	1.93
Job Control Slope Effect	-.02	-.30	-.12	-2.21*	.16	1.79	.17	1.39	.27	2.00*
Coping Success	.19	3.45**	.32	4.57**	.03	.47	.16	2.28*	.23	4.09**
Interaction Term	.07	.74	.14	3.68**	-.05	-.59	.08	.99	-.08	-.40

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. Demand/Experience relates to the relevant domain being examined (e.g. Role Conflict for Role Conflict Self-Efficacy). Main Effects relates to the effect of Job Control on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Job Control on the level-1 Demand/Experience slopes predicting Self-Efficacy. Interaction term relates to the interaction between the relevant Demand/Experience and Coping Success (e.g. Role Conflict interacting with Coping Success when predicting Role Conflict Self-Efficacy). * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 49: The Mediating Role of Coping Success for the Buffering Effects of Workplace Support on Self-Efficacy Outcomes (Hypothesis 9).

	Self-Efficacy - Role Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Workload		Self-Efficacy - Em. Demands		Self-Efficacy - In. Conflict		Self-Efficacy - Incivility	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'
Intercept	80.65	46.73	78.74	41.53	81.54	49.27	81.41	47.50	83.05	45.86
Gender	-.13	-1.69	-.15	-1.82	-.17	-2.25*	-.12	-1.47	-.16	-1.94
Children #	-.07	-.90	.04	.56	.06	1.00	.08	1.18	.08	1.20
Work Hours	.12	1.45	.15	2.08*	.04	.41	.08	.88	.02	.23
Neuroticism	-.16	-1.41	-.03	-.22	-.16	-1.45	-.24	-2.20*	-.21	-1.80
Trait NA	.11	1.14	.03	.33	.03	.28	.21	1.95	.21	2.54*
Marital Status	-.02	-.24	-.16	-2.02*	-.11	-1.29	-.16	-2.01*	-.17	-1.81
# of Coping Strategies	-.12	-2.10*	-.18	-2.56*	-.18	-2.83**	-.12	-2.15*	-.03	-.52
Demand or Experience	-.17	-2.25*	-.19	-3.80**	-.22	-3.07**	-.24	-3.58**	-.20	-1.63
W. Support Main Effect	.39	3.82**	.30	3.04**	.30	3.18**	.43	3.80**	.24	2.10*
W. Support Slope Effect	-.03	-.41	-.02	-.39	.10	1.61	.02	.21	.39	1.82
Coping Success	.16	2.95**	.30	4.31**	.02	.38	.15	2.12*	.18	2.79**
Interaction Term	.06	.62	.15	3.36**	-.04	-.44	.07	.74	.05	.74

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. Demand/Experience relates to the relevant domain being examined (e.g. Role Conflict for Role Conflict Self-Efficacy). W. Support = Workplace Support. Main Effects relates to the effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Workplace Support on the level-1 Demand/Experience slopes predicting Self-Efficacy. Interaction term relates to the interaction between the relevant Demand/Experience and Coping Success (e.g. Role Conflict interacting with Coping Success when predicting Role Conflict Self-Efficacy). * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 50: The Mediating Role of Coping Success for the Moderating Effects of Job Control on Role Conflict (Hypothesis 10).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	56.82	2.45	28.84	1.94	38.55	1.19	61.58	2.38	31.56	4.66	35.95
Gender	.01	.19	.20	2.98**	.03	.41	-.06	-1.26	-.03	-.48	-.06	-.76
Children #	.02	.32	-.09	-1.29	.11	1.57	.03	.62	.09	.92	-.11	-1.25
Work Hours	.03	.55	-.03	-.33	.06	.88	.01	.15	.04	.66	-.09	-1.07
Neuroticism	.28	2.98**	.27	2.53*	.28	3.40**	-.02	-.31	-.30	-3.14**	-.37	-3.31**
Trait NA	.03	.37	.05	.40	.22	2.10*	.30	3.11**	.02	.23	-.13	-1.31
Marital Status	.11	1.38	.15	1.40	-.11	-1.69	-.06	-1.39	.02	.21	.16	1.78
# of Coping Strategies	.01	.19	.06	.78	.05	.67	.04	.63	.02	.38	-.03	-.40
Role Conflict	.03	.49	.38	4.13	.01	.32	.04	.71	.04	.85	-.07	-1.36
Job Control Main Effects	-.14	-1.23	-.03	-.25	-.11	-1.73	-.11	-2.26*	.11	1.38	.19	2.23*
Job Control Slope Effects	.06	.59	.03	.50	-.06	-.95	-.09	-.88	.02	.28	-.01	-.55
Coping Success	-.17	-3.58**	-.05	-.89	-.14	-2.44*	-.02	-.25	.03	.57	.04	.88
Interaction Term	.06	.98	-.01	-.09	.02	.20	.02	.17	-.10	-1.74	.04	.45

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Main Effects relates to the effect of Job Control on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Job Control on the level-1 Role Conflict slopes predicting Well-Being. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Role Conflict and Coping Success. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 51: The Mediating Role of Coping Success for the Buffering Effects of Job Control on Workload (Hypothesis 10).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.86	57.04	2.45	29.24	1.95	38.63	1.20	58.62	2.38	31.78	4.66	36.02
Gender	.00	-.03	.21	3.49**	.08	1.30	-.05	-.95	-.10	-1.65	-.07	-.89
Children #	.06	.89	-.07	-1.13	.11	1.53	.02	.44	.05	.48	-.13	-1.49
Work Hours	.03	.69	-.07	-1.10	.10	1.96	.02	.43	-.01	-.17	-.08	-1.06
Neuroticism	.28	3.24**	.28	3.03**	.28	3.31**	-.03	-.59	-.30	-3.13**	-.34	-3.00**
Trait NA	.07	.84	.02	.24	.29	2.36*	.36	3.18**	.01	.14	-.15	-1.56
Marital Status	.08	.99	.13	1.47	-.11	-1.70	-.06	-1.25	-.01	-.08	.16	1.90
# of Coping Strategies	.04	.56	.03	.55	.04	.59	.01	.17	.02	.35	-.04	-.67
Workload	.05	1.13	.21	3.17**	.01	.16	.00	-.05	.07	1.26	.05	.88
Job Control Main Effects	-.15	-1.39	.00	.01	-.08	-1.22	-.09	-2.09*	.09	.90	.18	2.15*
Job Control Slope Effects	.01	.21	-.02	-.40	-.09	-1.27	-.08	-1.13	.03	.56	-.05	-1.19
Coping Success	-.17	-3.15**	-.08	-1.34	-.12	-2.19*	-.01	-.15	.05	.86	.05	1.08
Interaction Term	-.05	-.95	.04	1.25	-.08	-.88	.05	.71	.05	.74	.08	1.13

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Main Effects relates to the effect of Job Control on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Job Control on the level-1 Workload slopes predicting Well-Being. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Workload and Coping Success. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 52: The Mediating Role of Coping Success for the Buffering Effects of Support on Emotional Demands (Hypothesis 10).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	56.33	2.45	29.10	1.94	39.04	1.19	60.75	2.38	31.44	4.66	35.97
Gender	.04	.55	.25	3.79**	.04	.64	-.07	-1.24	-.02	-.36	-.09	-1.19
Children #	-.01	-.20	-.09	-1.34	.12	1.53	.01	.31	.09	.89	-.11	-1.35
Work Hours	.05	1.06	-.06	-.69	.09	1.72	.01	.23	.03	.49	-.11	-1.34
Neuroticism	.31	3.24**	.26	2.58*	.26	3.05**	-.06	-.85	-.38	-4.15**	-.33	-2.97**
Trait NA	.05	.58	.04	.35	.27	2.37*	.40	3.53**	.08	1.14	-.17	-1.80
Marital Status	.12	1.48	.18	1.78	-.10	-1.55	-.07	-1.47	.04	.49	.14	1.60
Em. Demands	.02	.40	.07	1.07	.05	.83	-.01	-.22	.07	1.07	-.02	-.27
# of Coping Strategies	.15	2.61*	.25	3.82**	.09	1.14	.09	1.64	-.01	-.28	-.06	-.72
Job Control Main Effects	-.12	-1.05	.01	.12	-.10	-1.46	-.10	-2.20*	.03	.33	.17	2.07*
Job Control Slope Effects	-.07	-.81	-.03	-.83	-.10	-1.14	-.06	-.72	.07	1.41	-.03	-.92
Coping Success	-.15	-3.03**	-.07	-1.12	-.12	-2.08*	.00	-.05	.03	.51	.03	.67
Interaction Term	.03	.42	.11	2.15*	-.03	-.51	-.04	-.85	-.14	-1.93	-.08	-.92

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. Main Effects relates to the effect of Job Control on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Job Control on the level-1 Emotional Demands slopes predicting Well-Being. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Emotional Demands and Coping Success. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 53: The Mediating Role of Coping Success for the Buffering Effects of Job Control on Interpersonal Conflict (Hypothesis 10).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	56.74	2.45	29.41	1.95	38.14	1.20	56.69	2.37	31.57	4.66	36.20
Gender	.00	-.04	.22	3.38**	.06	.91	-.07	-1.24	-.06	-.96	-.09	-1.27
Children #	.03	.44	-.04	-.64	.11	1.48	.02	.43	.08	.79	-.13	-1.55
Work Hours	.07	1.48	-.07	-.97	.10	1.89	.02	.46	-.03	-.46	-.11	-1.31
Neuroticism	.29	3.38**	.30	2.80**	.26	2.94**	-.04	-.72	-.31	-3.49**	-.36	-3.23**
Trait NA	.06	.78	.01	.10	.29	2.35*	.40	2.97**	.03	.34	-.15	-1.63
Marital Status	.08	1.08	.12	1.28	-.10	-1.40	-.05	-1.10	.00	.02	.17	2.00*
# of Coping Strategies	.00	.04	.01	.21	.02	.30	-.01	-.21	.09	1.37	.00	.00
In. Conflict	.11	1.28	.14	1.82	.08	.98	.10	1.27	.06	1.30	-.09	-.84
Job Control Main Effects	-.12	-1.18	.01	.05	-.10	-1.50	-.10	-2.15*	.12	1.29	.17	2.02*
Job Control Slope Effects	.20	1.56	.09	1.06	.15	1.02	.09	.73	-.15	-1.40	-.09	-1.59
Coping Success	-.20	-3.51**	-.09	-1.46	-.10	-1.62	-.01	-.12	.07	1.09	.03	.62
Interaction Term	.09	.96	.15	2.10*	.00	-.01	.06	.80	-.25	-4.34**	.00	.03

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. Main Effects relates to the effect of Job Control on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Job Control on the level-1 Interpersonal Conflict slopes predicting Well-Being. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Interpersonal Conflict and Coping Success.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 54: The Mediating Role of Coping Success for the Buffering Effects of Job Control on Incivility (Hypothesis 10).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.86	57.72	2.46	29.49	1.95	38.45	1.20	55.47	2.38	31.44	4.63	35.20
Gender	.04	.61	.22	3.32**	.07	1.10	-.05	-.88	-.03	-.54	-.09	-1.22
Children #	.04	.59	-.05	-.74	.11	1.51	.00	-.10	.05	.47	-.13	-1.48
Work Hours	.06	1.28	-.06	-.89	.10	1.88	.01	.23	.00	-.02	-.10	-1.28
Neuroticism	.26	3.09**	.27	2.48*	.25	2.84**	-.05	-.93	-.33	-3.69**	-.36	-2.87**
Trait NA	.09	1.22	.03	.29	.30	2.51*	.40	3.34**	.05	.65	-.15	-1.52
Marital Status	.09	1.11	.14	1.48	-.09	-1.37	-.04	-.96	.00	.06	.14	1.62
# of Coping Strategies	.00	.06	.03	.40	.02	.32	-.01	-.20	.05	.72	.00	-.05
Incivility	.18	2.77**	.21	3.78**	.13	1.34	.01	.17	-.07	-1.20	-.27	-1.66
Job Control Main Effects	-.16	-1.41	-.01	-.10	-.10	-1.50	-.10	-2.27*	.10	1.10	.16	1.83
Job Control Slope Effects	-.21	-1.61	-.11	-1.82	.10	.53	-.07	-.70	-.02	-.18	-.37	-2.39*
Coping Success	-.17	-3.24**	-.08	-1.15	-.10	-1.63	.01	.14	.03	.46	.05	.95
Interaction Term	.02	.35	.01	.29	.03	.49	-.04	-1.27	.10	2.41*	-.09	-.33

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Main Effects relates to the effect of Job Control on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Job Control on the level-1 Incivility slopes predicting Well-Being. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Incivility and Coping Success. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 55: The Mediating Role of Coping Success for the Buffering Effects of Workplace Support on Role Conflict (Hypothesis 10).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	56.72	2.46	32.29	1.94	38.46	1.19	60.39	2.38	31.68	4.65	36.46
Gender	.03	.35	.22	3.45**	.05	.75	-.05	-1.00	-.04	-.69	-.09	-1.28
Children #	.03	.44	-.05	-.68	.11	1.71	.02	.46	.09	.99	-.12	-1.25
Work Hours	.00	-.07	-.08	-1.06	.03	.45	-.01	-.18	.06	1.01	-.03	-.40
Neuroticism	.27	2.55*	.13	1.57	.26	3.01**	-.01	-.11	-.31	-3.23**	-.34	-3.23**
Trait NA	-.01	-.08	.03	.35	.18	1.57	.28	2.66*	.05	.69	-.08	-.73
Marital Status	.06	.89	.09	1.02	-.14	-2.26*	-.08	-1.97	.04	.50	.20	2.32*
# of Coping Strategies	.02	.29	.06	.80	.05	.72	.05	.77	.02	.34	-.02	-.38
Role Conflict	.04	.90	.39	4.32**	.01	.12	.03	.48	.05	.99	-.07	-1.45
W. Support Main Effects	-.17	-1.98*	-.42	-4.67**	-.16	-2.07*	-.07	-1.31	.10	1.13	.27	3.00**
W. Support Slope Effects	.07	.99	-.07	-1.23	-.07	-1.13	-.12	-1.62	.02	.31	-.01	-.26
Coping Success	-.17	-3.58**	-.04	-.83	-.14	-2.42*	-.01	-.09	.03	.60	.04	.84
Interaction Term	.06	.95	.01	.07	.04	.48	.04	.42	-.11	-1.85	.04	.44

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. W. Support = Workplace Support. Main Effects relates to the effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Workplace Support on the level-1 Role Conflict slopes predicting Well-Being. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Role Conflict and Coping Success. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 56: The Mediating Role of Coping Success for the Buffering Effects of Workplace Support on Workload (Hypothesis 10).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	56.75	2.46	32.97	1.95	38.40	1.20	56.56	2.38	31.84	4.65	36.43
Gender	.01	.16	.23	3.69**	.10	1.52	-.05	-.82	-.12	-1.90	-.10	-1.31
Children #	.07	1.08	-.03	-.51	.13	1.84	.02	.34	.05	.50	-.14	-1.54
Work Hours	.00	-.07	-.11	-1.72	.07	1.36	.00	-.02	.01	.17	-.02	-.27
Neuroticism	.27	2.82**	.15	2.07*	.26	3.07**	-.02	-.32	-.28	-2.94**	-.30	-2.80**
Trait NA	.02	.24	.03	.36	.25	1.87	.34	2.77**	.03	.45	-.11	-.96
Marital Status	.02	.30	.09	1.18	-.14	-2.25*	-.07	-1.66	.01	.17	.21	2.56*
# of Coping Strategies	.03	.56	.05	.79	.05	.80	.02	.37	.01	.23	-.03	-.53
Workload	.04	.83	.22	3.72**	.01	.14	.01	.26	.07	1.28	.06	.94
W. Support Main Effects	-.19	-2.21*	-.39	-4.64**	-.14	-1.68	-.05	-.86	.13	1.33	.27	3.01**
W. Support Slope Effects	.10	1.47	-.15	-3.40**	-.07	-.88	-.16	-2.05*	.04	.57	-.08	-1.75
Coping Success	-.16	-3.03**	-.08	-1.31	-.13	-2.16*	-.02	-.21	.05	.96	.04	.85
Interaction Term	-.05	-.99	.04	1.12	-.08	-.92	.05	.71	.06	.80	.08	1.14

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. W. Support = Workplace Support. Main Effects relates to the effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Workplace Support on the level-1 Workload slopes predicting Well-Being. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Workload and Coping Success.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 57: The Mediating Role of Coping Success for the Buffering Effects of Workplace Support on Emotional Demands (Hypothesis 10).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	56.37	2.46	32.88	1.93	39.04	1.19	59.52	2.38	31.50	4.65	36.36
Gender	.05	.75	.27	4.26**	.06	.99	-.06	-1.11	-.03	-.42	-.12	-1.58
Children #	-.01	-.11	-.04	-.66	.12	1.74	.01	.21	.09	.97	-.14	-1.64
Work Hours	.02	.40	-.10	-1.39	.06	1.17	-.01	-.15	.04	.75	-.05	-.63
Neuroticism	.29	2.72**	.11	1.38	.23	2.67*	-.04	-.52	-.36	-3.85**	-.28	-2.67*
Trait NA	.03	.26	.05	.56	.23	1.87	.37	3.08**	.09	1.31	-.12	-1.19
Marital Status	.08	1.14	.13	1.54	-.14	-2.17*	-.09	-2.18*	.05	.63	.19	2.35*
# of Coping Strategies	.02	.41	.07	1.06	.05	.82	-.01	-.26	.07	1.05	-.03	-.51
Em. Demands	.15	2.60*	.24	3.69**	.09	1.08	.07	1.27	-.03	-.64	-.06	-.71
W. Support Main Effects	-.15	-1.71	-.41	-4.63	-.15	-1.94	-.04	-.72	.10	1.00	.27	3.04**
W. Support Slope Effects	-.06	-1.26	-.08	-2.03*	-.06	-.96	-.18	-2.80**	-.05	-.96	.02	.75
Coping Success	-.15	-2.99**	-.06	-.99	-.12	-2.05*	.00	-.04	.03	.56	.03	.75
Interaction Term	.04	.74	.11	2.79**	-.01	-.18	-.02	-.53	-.11	-1.96	-.04	-.62

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. Em. Demands = Emotional Demands. W. Support = Workplace Support.Main Effects relates to the effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Workplace Support on the level-1 Emotional Demands slopes predicting Well-Being. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Emotional Demands and Coping Success. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 58: The Mediating Role of Coping Success for the Buffering Effects of Workplace Support on Interpersonal Conflict (Hypothesis 10).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.85	56.54	2.46	33.00	1.95	38.12	1.20	55.40	2.37	31.85	4.66	36.72
Gender	.02	.32	.24	4.10**	.08	1.23	-.06	-1.03	-.07	-1.05	-.12	-1.77
Children #	.04	.69	.02	.29	.12	1.69	.01	.22	.08	.79	-.14	-1.78
Work Hours	.03	.56	-.09	-1.40	.07	1.37	.01	.10	.00	-.04	-.06	-.76
Neuroticism	.27	2.82**	.15	1.79	.23	2.59	-.02	-.36	-.31	-3.21**	-.31	-2.95**
Trait NA	.04	.43	.04	.41	.26	1.94	.38	2.66*	.05	.71	-.13	-1.25
Marital Status	.04	.54	.06	.76	-.13	-1.99*	-.06	-1.43	.03	.34	.22	2.80**
# of Coping Strategies	.01	.23	.02	.32	.02	.38	-.01	-.15	.09	1.35	-.01	-.09
In. Conflict	.15	1.81	.20	2.53*	.10	1.12	.10	1.32	.03	.52	-.13	-1.31
W. Support Main Effects	-.17	-1.99*	-.42	-4.80**	-.15	-1.86	-.03	-.50	.11	1.01	.27	3.05**
W. Support Slope Effects	.11	1.04	-.05	-.60	-.02	-.14	-.01	-.16	-.07	-1.10	-.07	-1.20
Coping Success	-.20	-3.48**	-.07	-1.23	-.10	-1.62	-.01	-.13	.06	1.02	.03	.60
Interaction Term	.12	.89	.27	2.46*	-.01	-.19	.09	.79	-.38	-3.81**	.03	.23

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. In. Conflict = Interpersonal Conflict. W. Support = Workplace Support. Main Effects relates to the effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Workplace Support on the level-1 Interpersonal Conflict slopes predicting Well-Being. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Interpersonal Conflict and Coping Success. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 59: The Mediating Role of Coping Success for the Buffering Effects of Workplace Support on Incivility (Hypothesis 10).

	Experienced Strain		Emotional Exhaustion		Affective Distress		Negative Affect		Positive Affect		Life Satisfaction	
	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t	γ'	t
Intercept	1.86	57.27	2.46	33.20	1.95	38.32	1.20	54.30	2.38	31.53	4.62	35.50
Gender	.06	.84	.24	3.87**	.09	1.44	-.04	-.76	-.05	-.74	-.13	-1.83
Children #	.03	.57	-.02	-.29	.12	1.69	-.02	-.37	.05	.51	-.15	-1.82
Work Hours	.01	.23	-.10	-1.48	.06	1.28	-.01	-.10	.02	.31	-.05	-.78
Neuroticism	.24	2.61*	.13	1.68	.22	2.48**	-.04	-.60	-.33	-3.50**	-.29	-2.56*
Trait NA	.06	.62	.03	.40	.27	2.04*	.39	3.00**	.07	1.01	-.12	-1.10
Marital Status	.05	.71	.10	1.18	-.12	-1.91	-.06	-1.30	.03	.34	.18	2.34*
# of Coping Strategies	.01	.21	.04	.56	.02	.29	-.01	-.21	.05	.71	-.02	-.29
Incivility	.22	2.41*	.25	3.86**	.14	1.23	.03	.36	-.07	-1.09	-.25	-1.46
W. Support Main Effects	-.20	-2.31*	-.40	-4.74**	-.15	-1.84	-.03	-.41	.11	1.15	.30	3.42**
W. Support Slope Effects	.02	.14	.14	1.94	.06	.33	.05	.42	-.03	-.41	.05	.25
Coping Success	-.16	-3.15**	-.07	-1.07	-.10	-1.58	.02	.21	.03	.48	.05	.94
Interaction Term	.05	.82	.00	-.08	.03	.63	-.04	-.98	.10	2.44*	-.11	-.44

Notes: N = 514-517. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female. Children # = Number of Children. Work Hours relates to mean hours worked per week. Marital Status was coded as 1 = not married, 2 = married. Trait NA = Trait Negative Affect. # of Coping Strategies = the number of different copings strategies utilized. W. Support = Workplace Support. Main Effects relates to the effect of Workplace Support on the level-1 intercept. Slope effects relates to the cross-level moderating effects of Workplace Support on the level-1 Incivility slopes predicting Well-Being. Interaction term relates to the interaction between Incivility and Coping Success.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

APPENDIX B

FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual Representation of Hypothesized Within Person Relationships

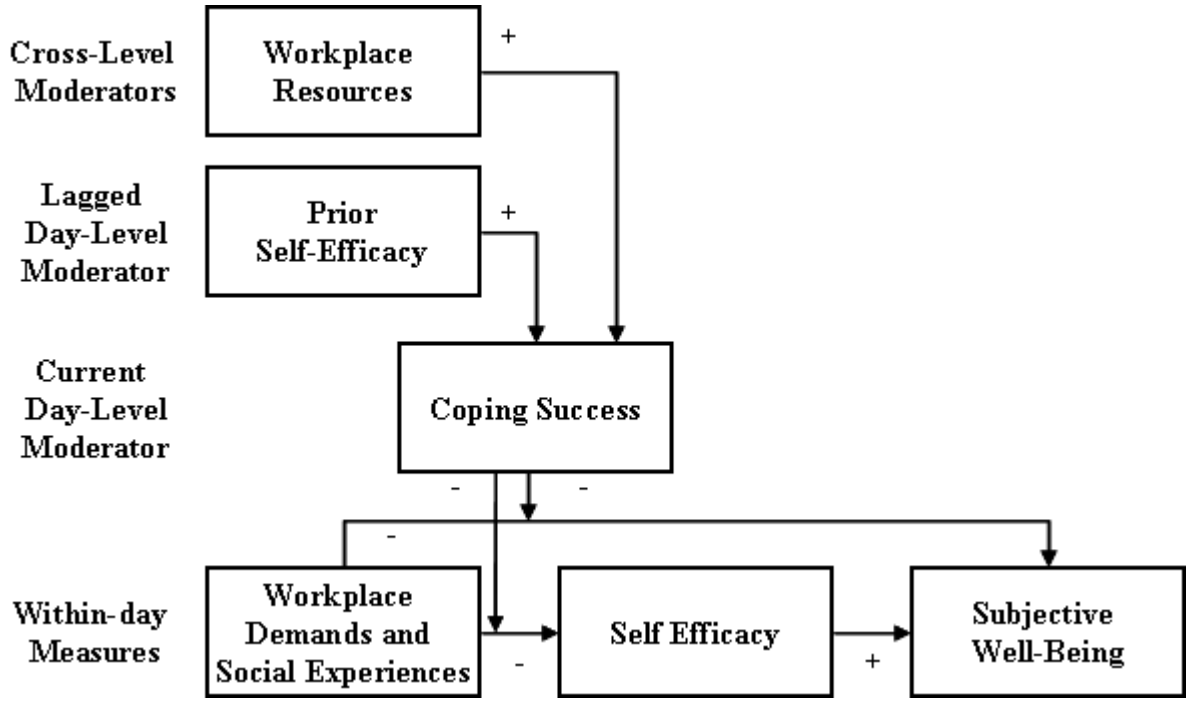


Figure 2: Conceptual Representation of Hypothesized Between Person Relationships

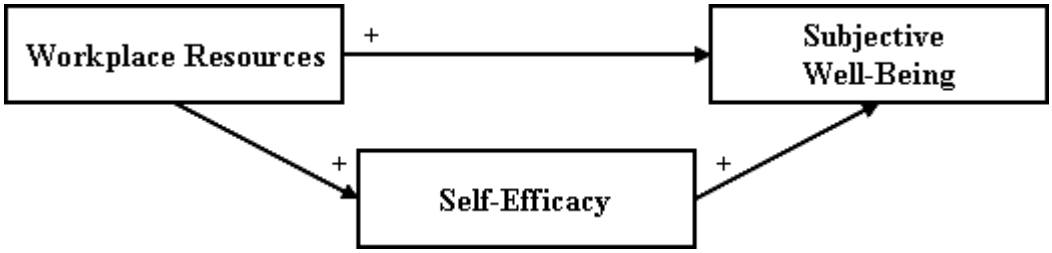


Figure 3: Measurement of Study Variables

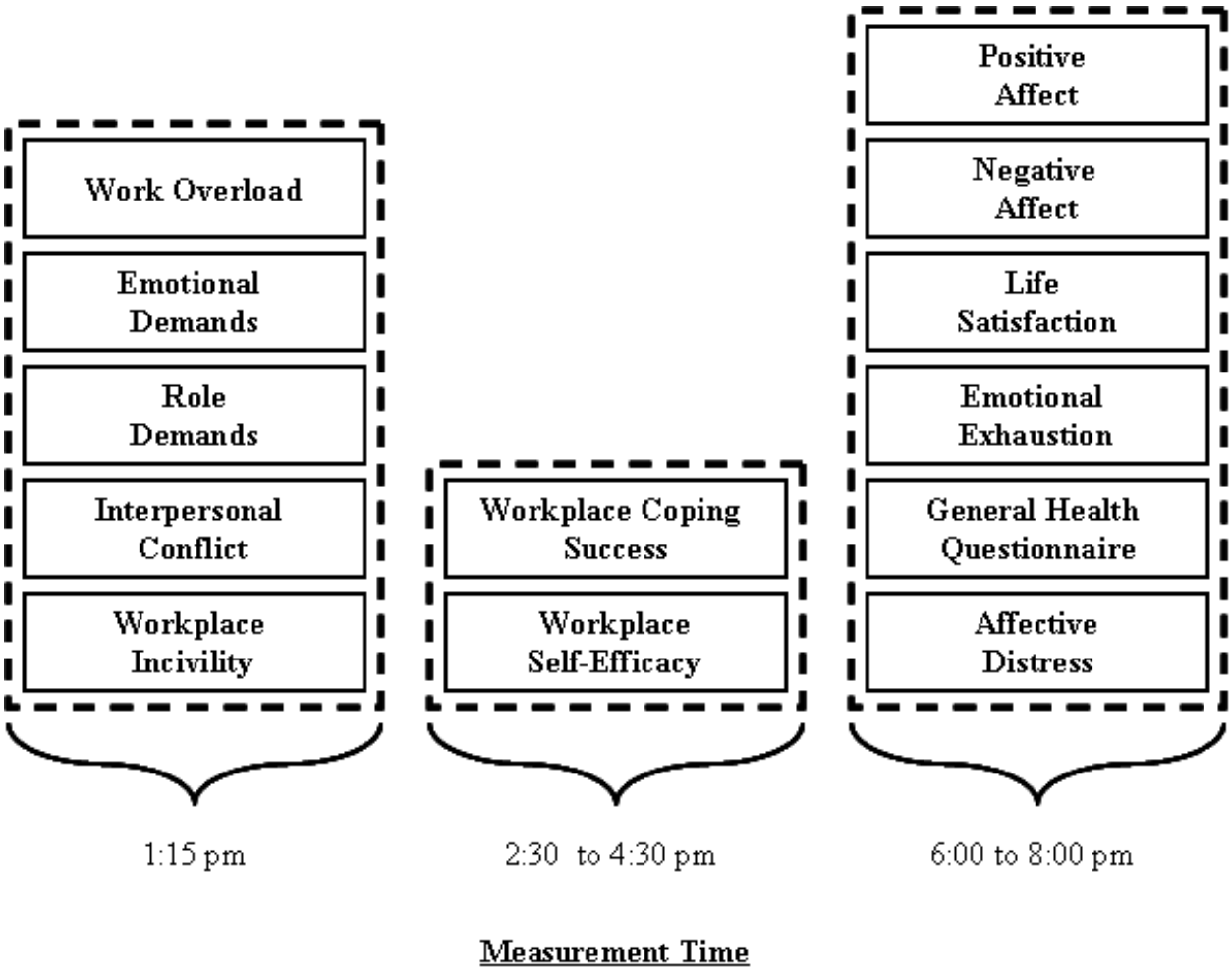
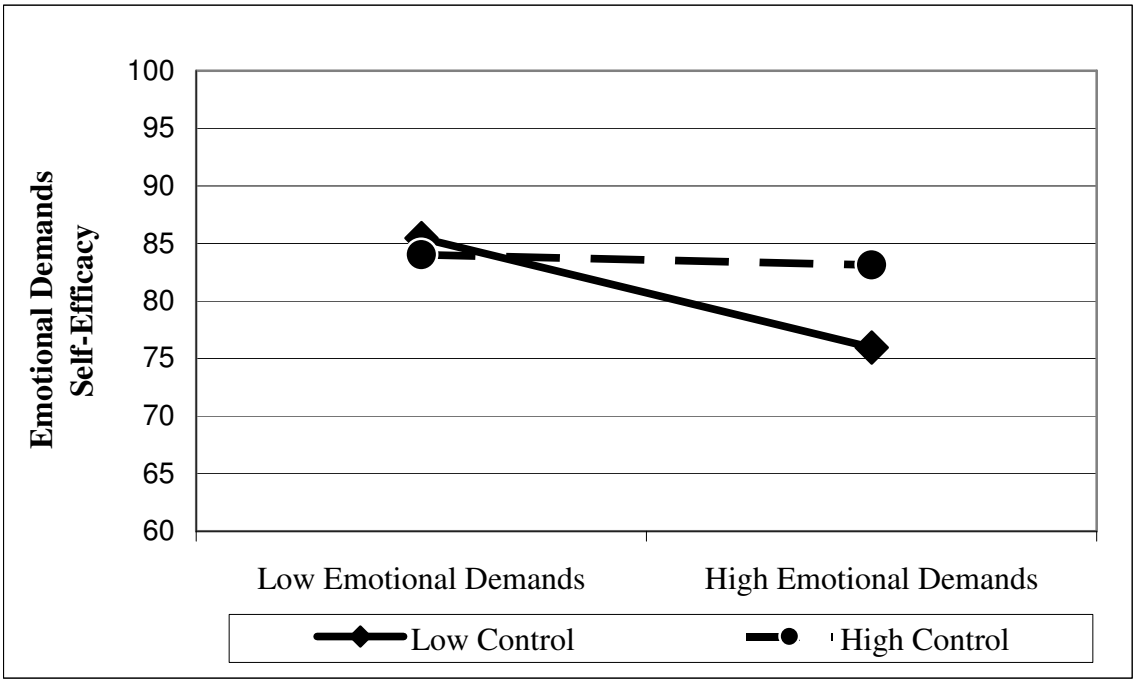
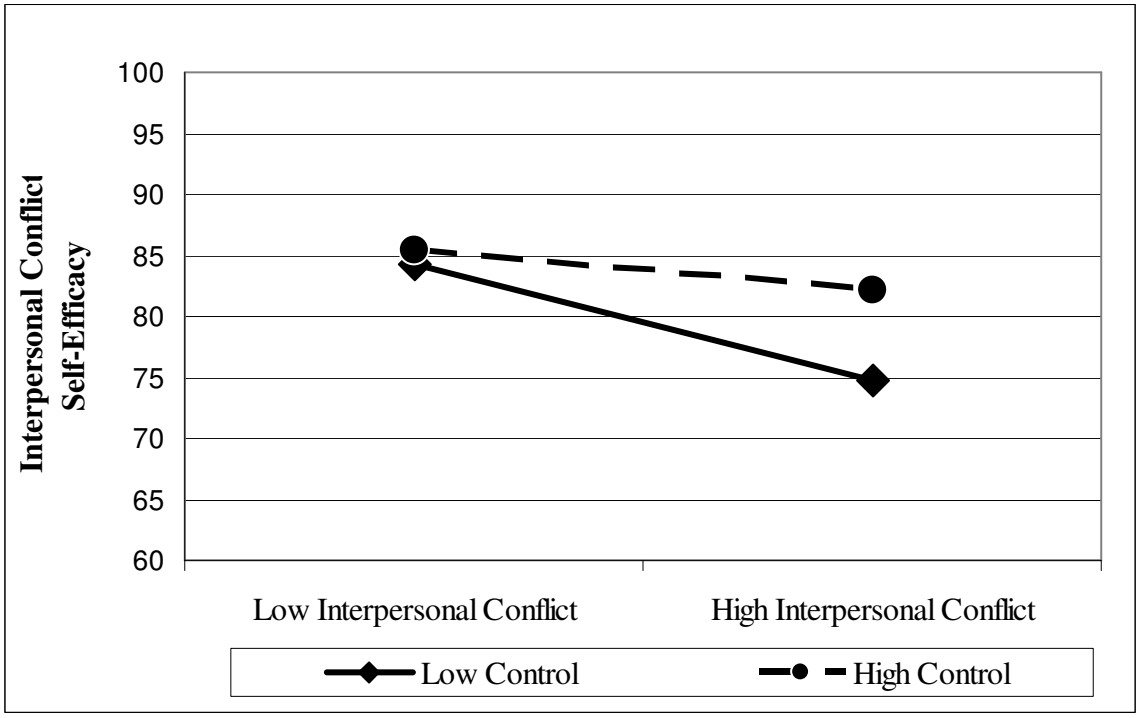


Figure 4: The Moderating Effect of Job Control on the Relationship between Emotional Demands and Emotional Demands Self-Efficacy



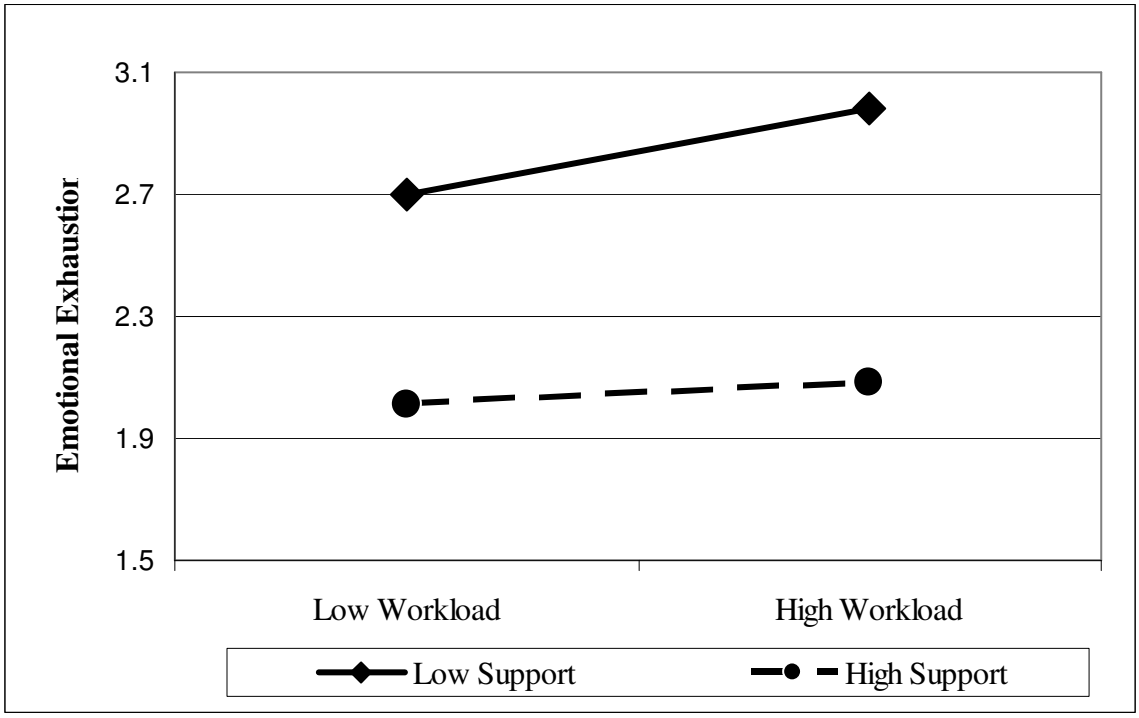
Notes: Low Emotional Demands refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on emotional demands. High Emotional Demands refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Emotional Demands. Low Control refers to one between-person standard deviation below the mean on Job Control. High Control refers to one between-person standard deviation above the mean on Job Control.

Figure 5: The Moderating Effect of Job Control on the Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict and Interpersonal Conflict Self-Efficacy



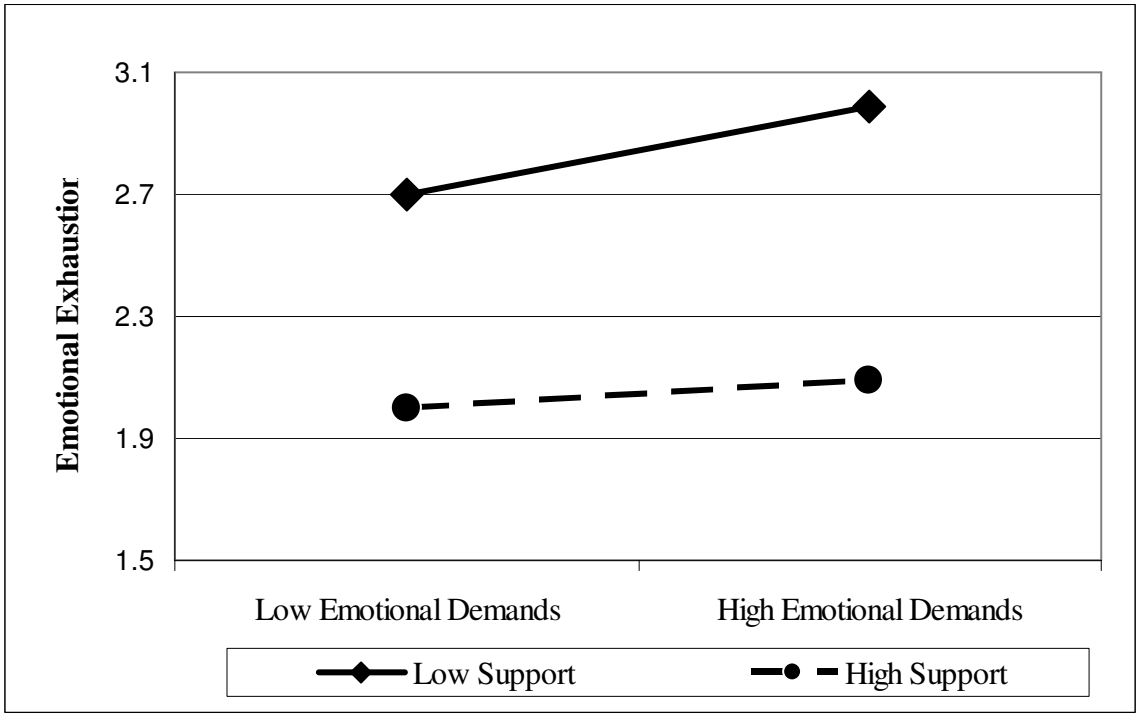
Notes: Low Emotional Demands refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on emotional demands. High Emotional Demands refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Emotional Demands. Low Control refers to one between-person standard deviation below the mean on Job Control. High Control refers to one between-person standard deviation above the mean on Job Control.

Figure 6: The Moderating Effect of Workplace Support on the Relationship between Workload and Emotional Exhaustion



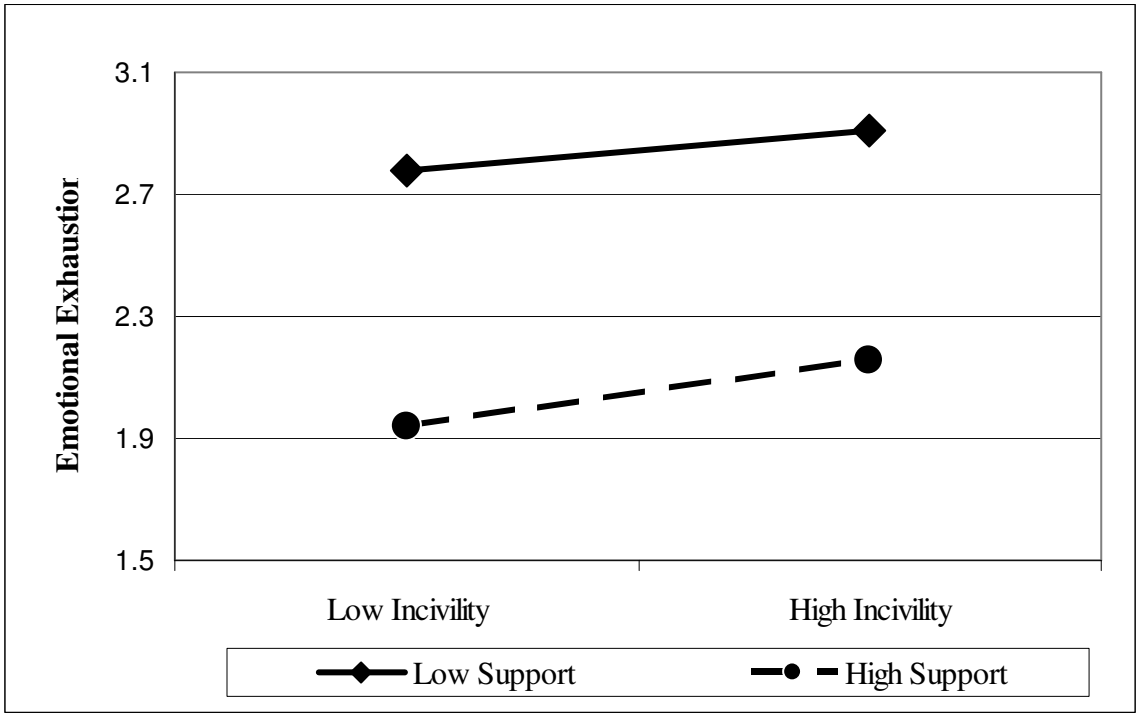
Notes: Low Workload refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Workload. High Workload refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Workload. Low Support refers to one between-person standard deviation below the mean on Workplace Support. High Support refers to one between-person standard deviation above the mean on Workplace Support.

Figure 7: The Moderating Effect of Workplace Support on the Relationship between Emotional Demands and Emotional Exhaustion



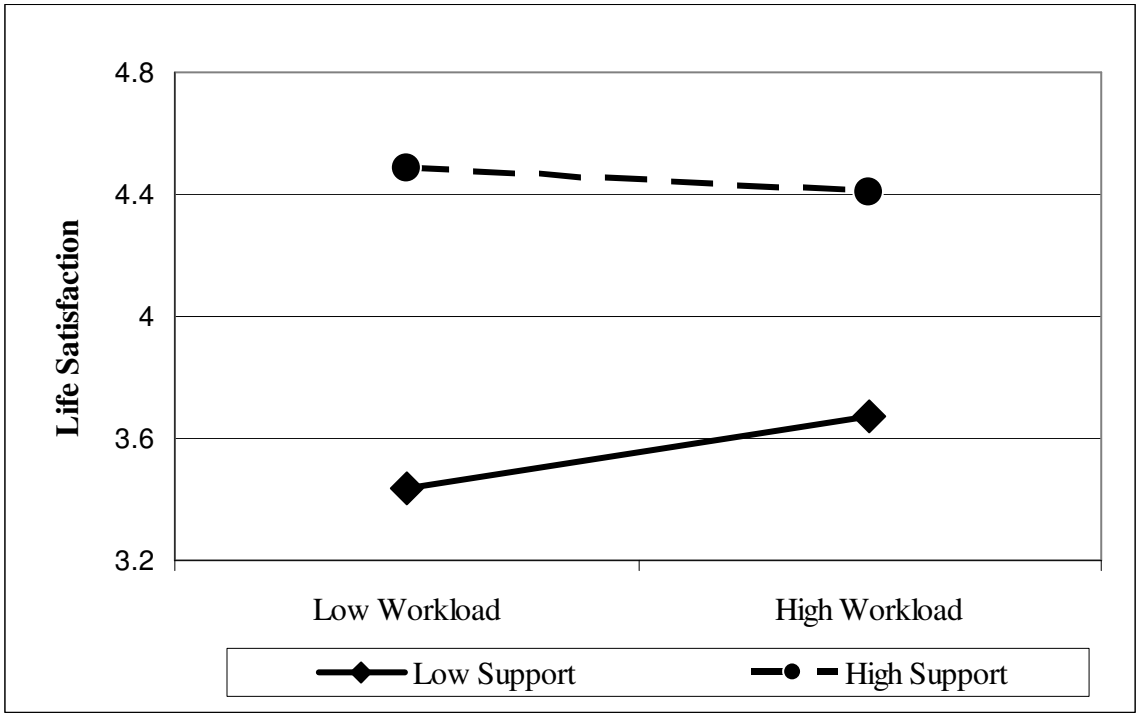
Notes: Low Emotional Demands refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on emotional demands. High Emotional Demands refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Emotional Demands. Low Support refers to one between-person standard deviation below the mean on Workplace Support. High Support refers to one between-person standard deviation above the mean on Workplace Support.

Figure 8: The Moderating Effect of Workplace Support on the Relationship between Incivility and Emotional Exhaustion



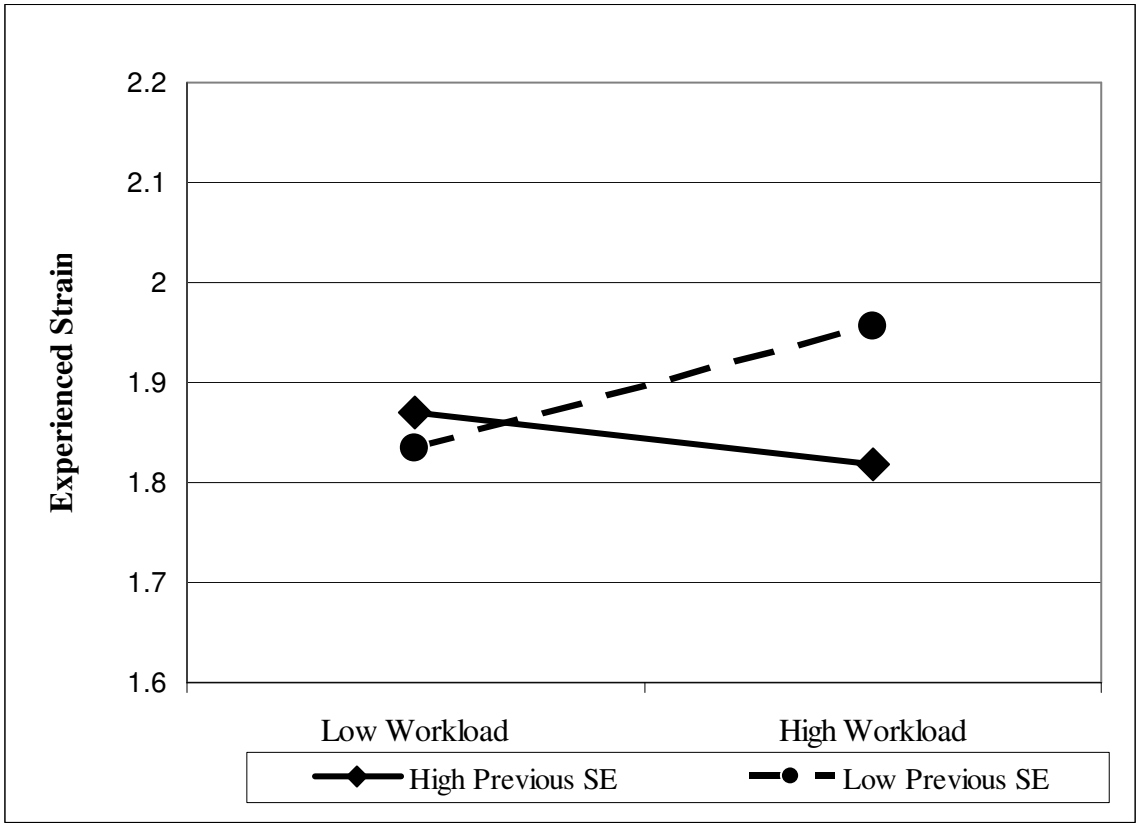
Notes: Low Incivility refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Incivility. High Emotional Demands refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Incivility. Low Support refers to one between-person standard deviation below the mean on Workplace Support. High Support refers to one between-person standard deviation above the mean on Workplace Support.

Figure 9: The Moderating Effect of Workplace Support on the Relationship between Workload and Life Satisfaction



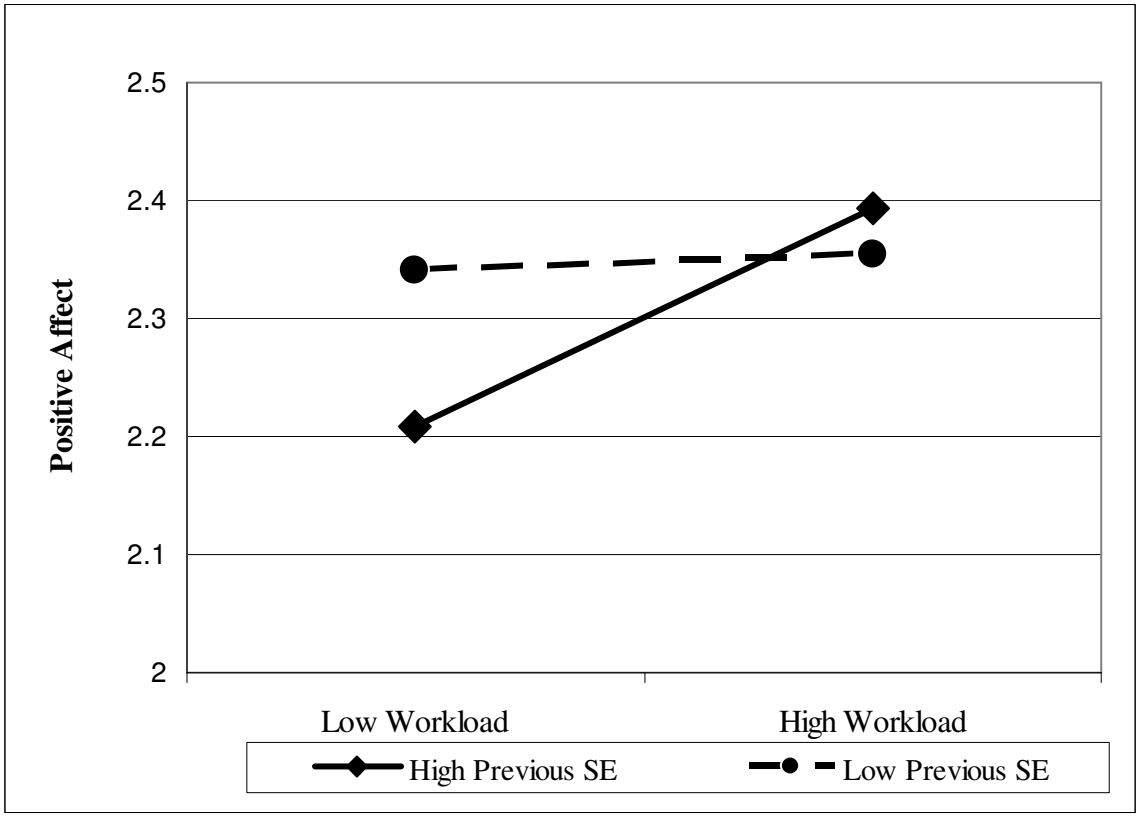
Notes: Low Workload refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Workload. High Workload refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Workload. Low Support refers to one between-person standard deviation below the mean on Workplace Support. High Support refers to one between-person standard deviation above the mean on Workplace Support.

Figure 10: The Moderating Effect of Prior Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Workload and Experienced Strain



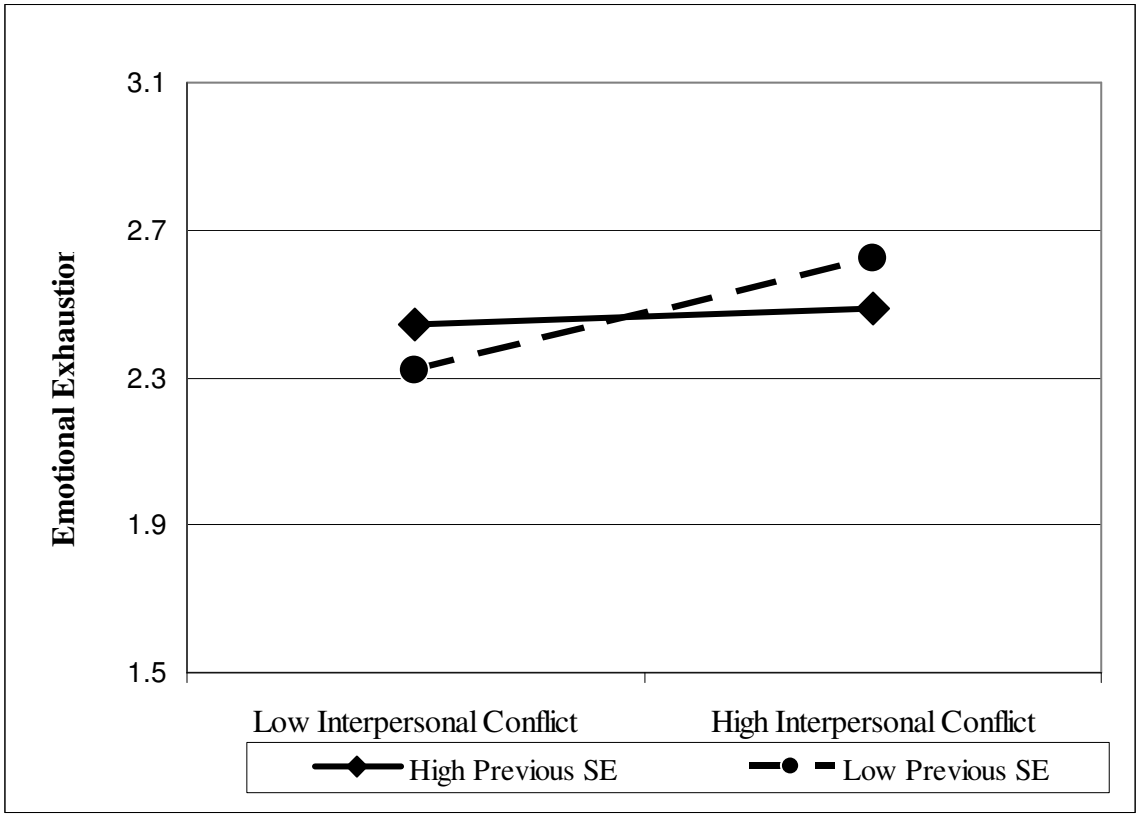
Notes: Low Workload refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Workload. High Workload refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Workload. High Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Workload Self-Efficacy. Low Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Workload Self-Efficacy.

Figure 11: The Moderating Effect of Prior Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Workload and Positive Affect



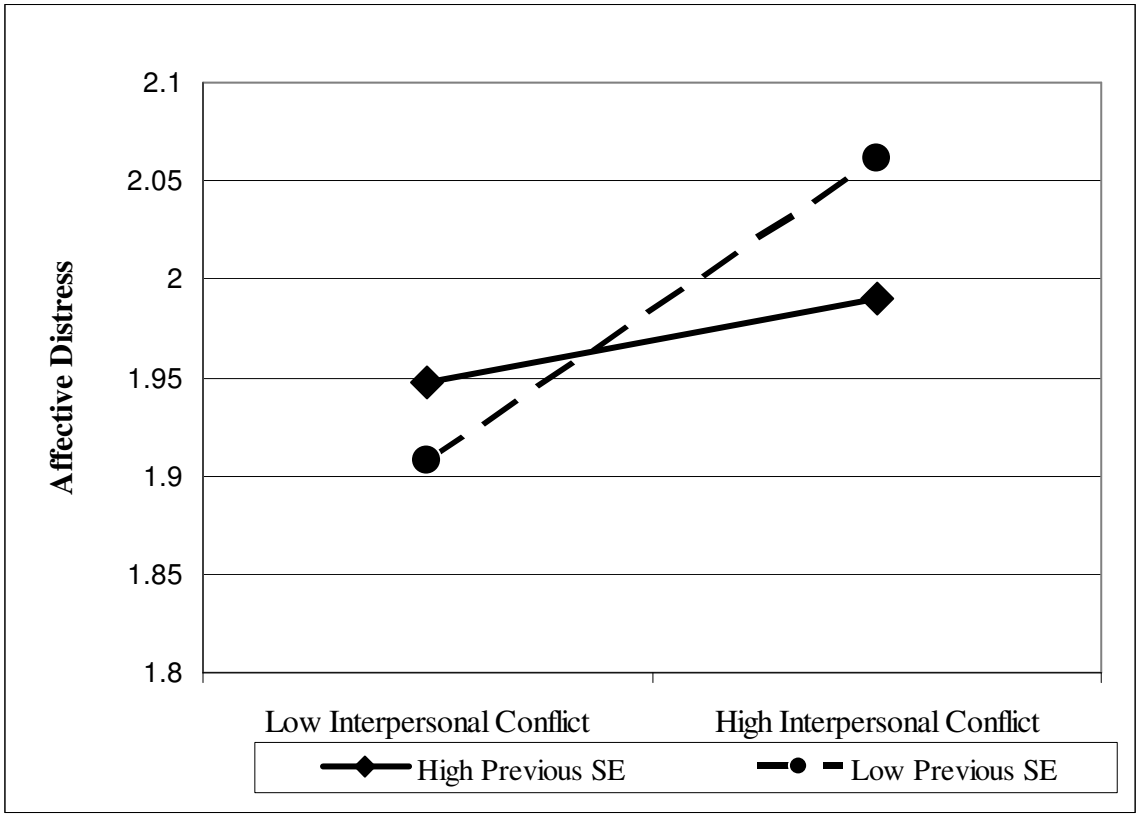
Notes: Low Workload refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Workload. High Workload refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Workload. High Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Workload Self-Efficacy. Low Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Workload Self-Efficacy.

Figure 12: The Moderating Effect of Prior Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict and Emotional Exhaustion



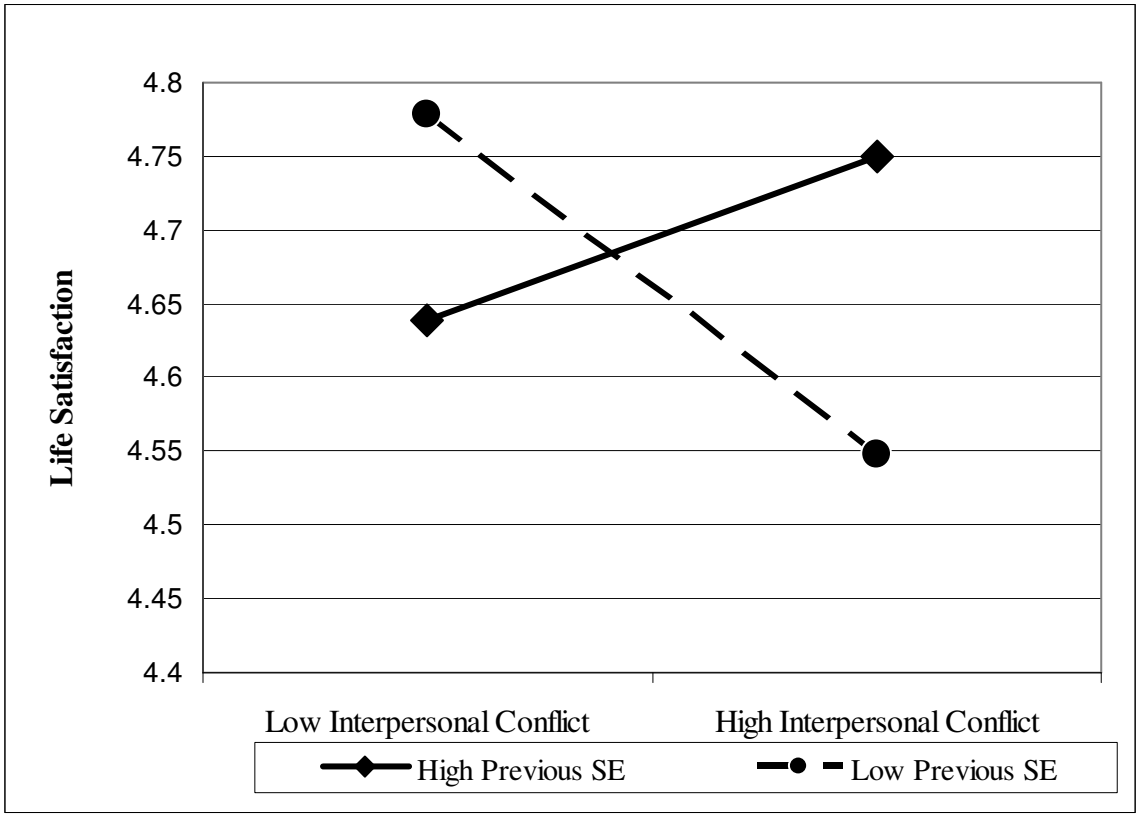
Notes: Low Interpersonal Conflict refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Interpersonal Conflict refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Interpersonal Conflict Self-Efficacy. Low Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Interpersonal Conflict Self-Efficacy.

Figure 13: The Moderating Effect of Prior Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict and Affective Distress



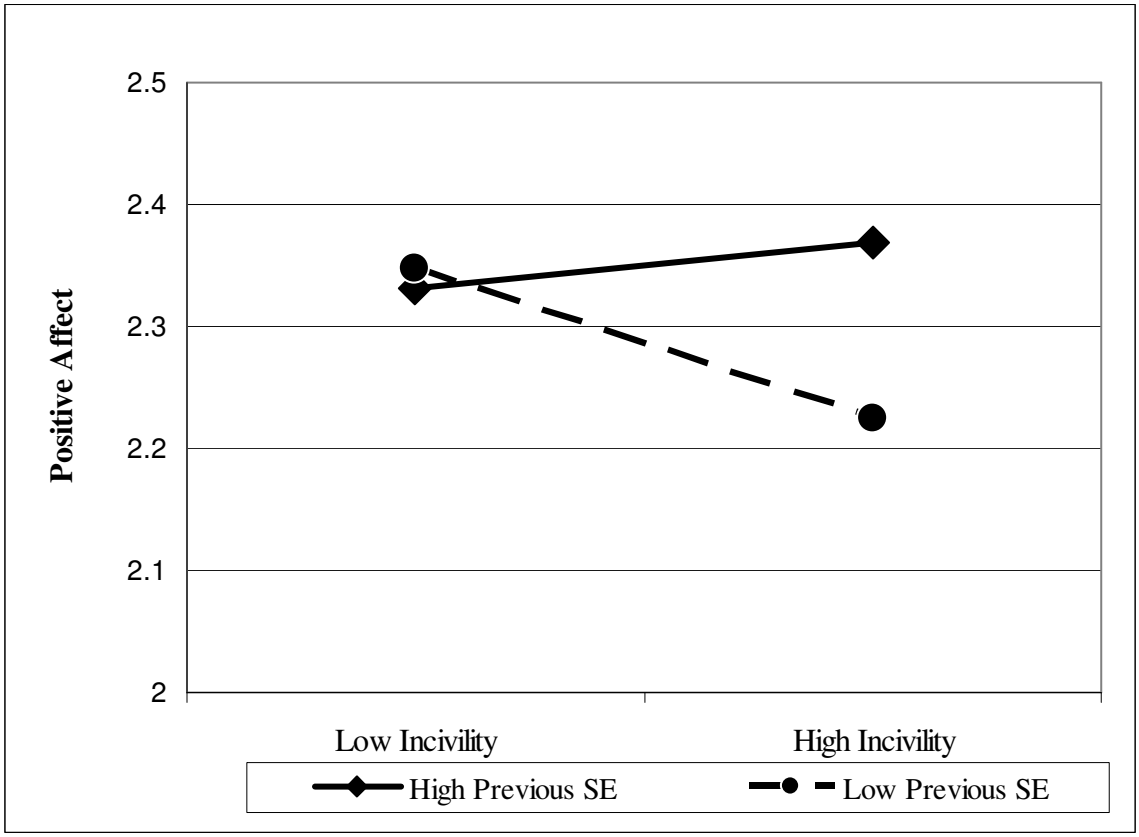
Notes: Low Interpersonal Conflict refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Interpersonal Conflict refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Interpersonal Conflict Self-Efficacy. Low Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Interpersonal Conflict Self-Efficacy.

Figure 14: The Moderating Effect of Prior Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict and Life Satisfaction



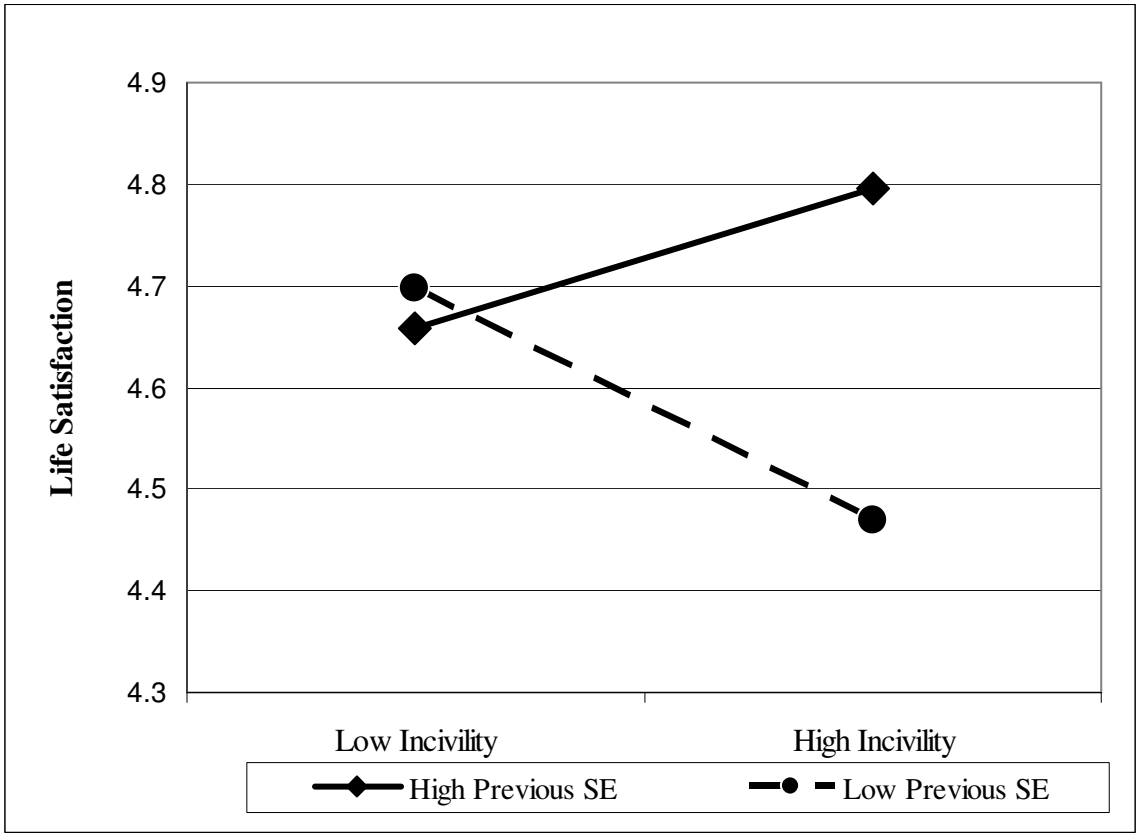
Notes: Low Interpersonal Conflict refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Interpersonal Conflict refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Interpersonal Conflict Self-Efficacy. Low Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Interpersonal Conflict Self-Efficacy.

Figure 15: The Moderating Effect of Prior Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Incivility and Positive Affect



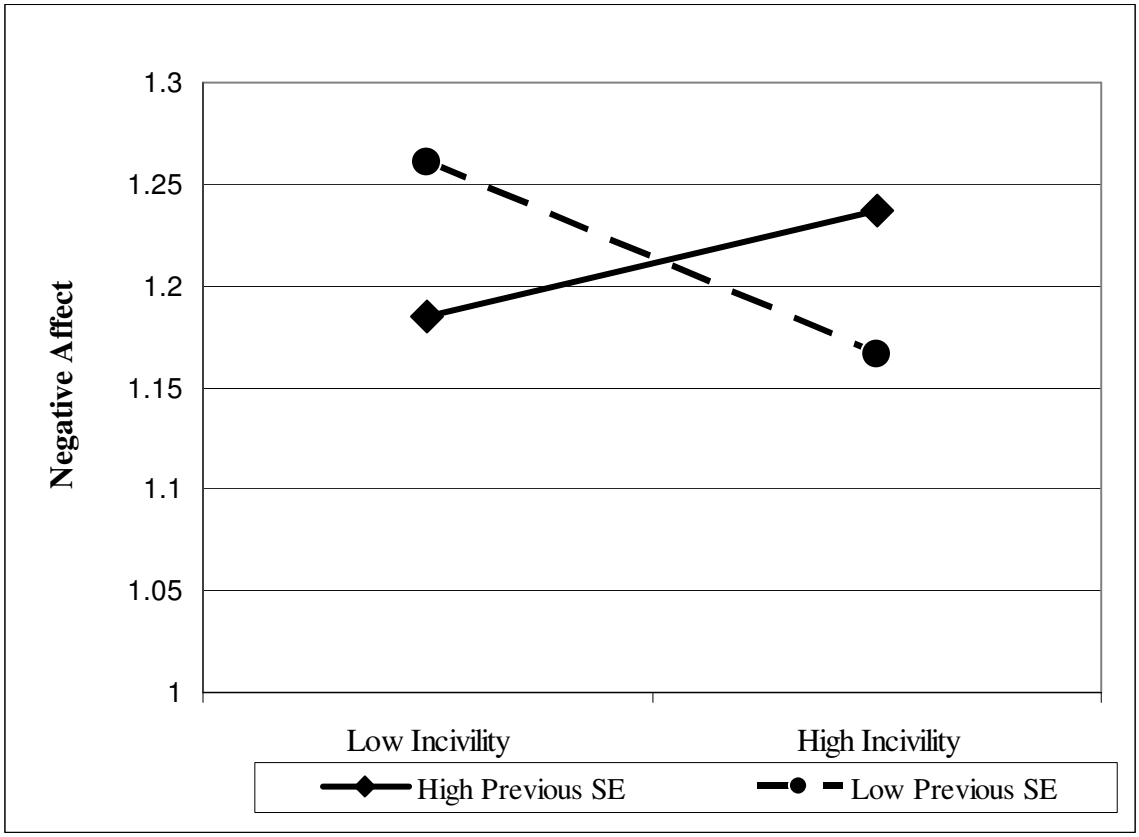
Notes: Low Incivility refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Incivility refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Incivility Self-Efficacy. Low Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Incivility Self-Efficacy.

Figure 16: The Moderating Effect of Prior Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Incivility and Life Satisfaction



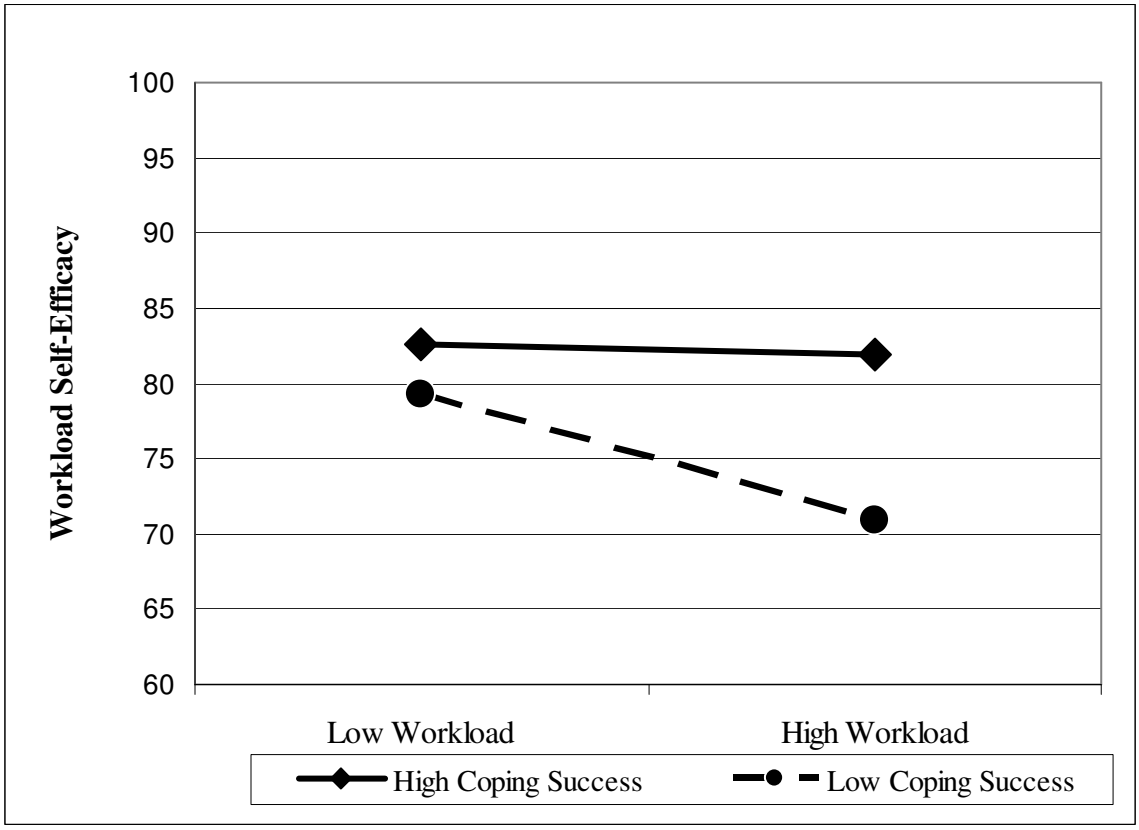
Notes: Low Incivility refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Incivility refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Incivility Self-Efficacy. Low Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Incivility Self-Efficacy.

Figure 17: The Moderating Effect of Prior Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Incivility and Negative Affect



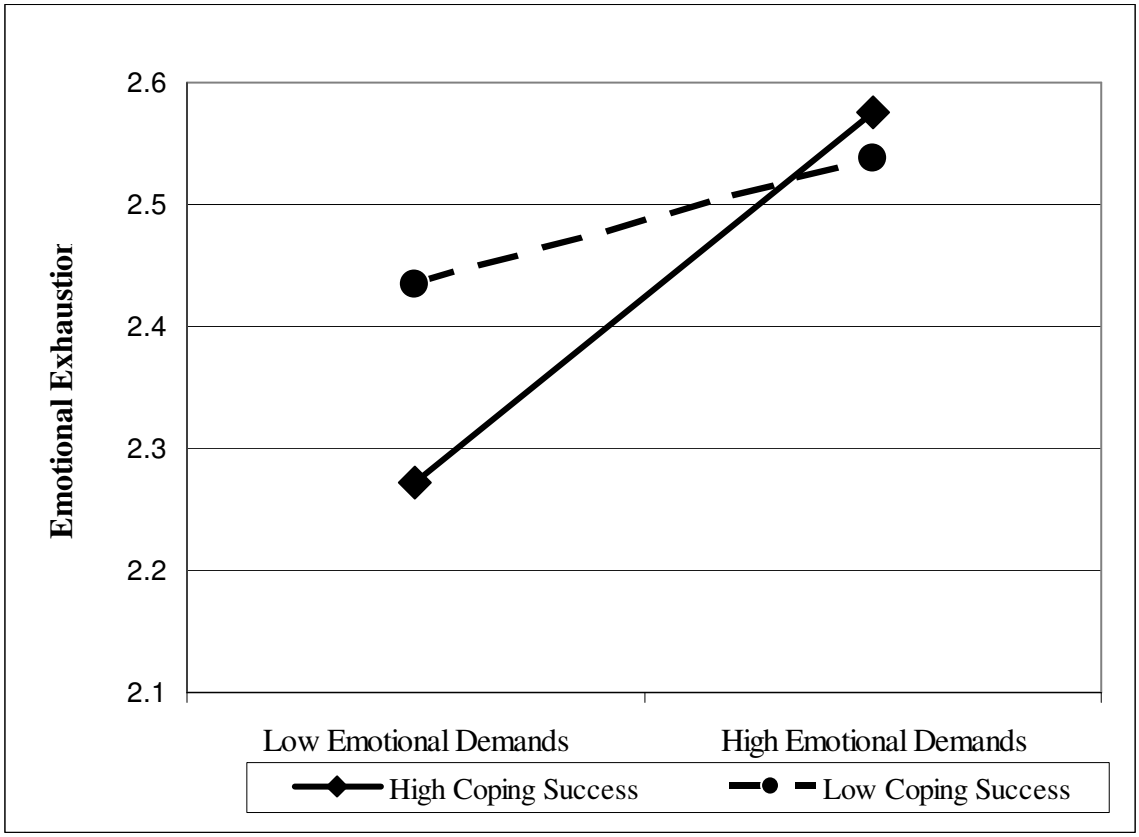
Notes: Low Incivility refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Incivility refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Incivility Self-Efficacy. Low Previous SE refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Incivility Self-Efficacy.

Figure 18: The Moderating Effect of Coping Success on the Relationship between Workload and Workload Self-Efficacy



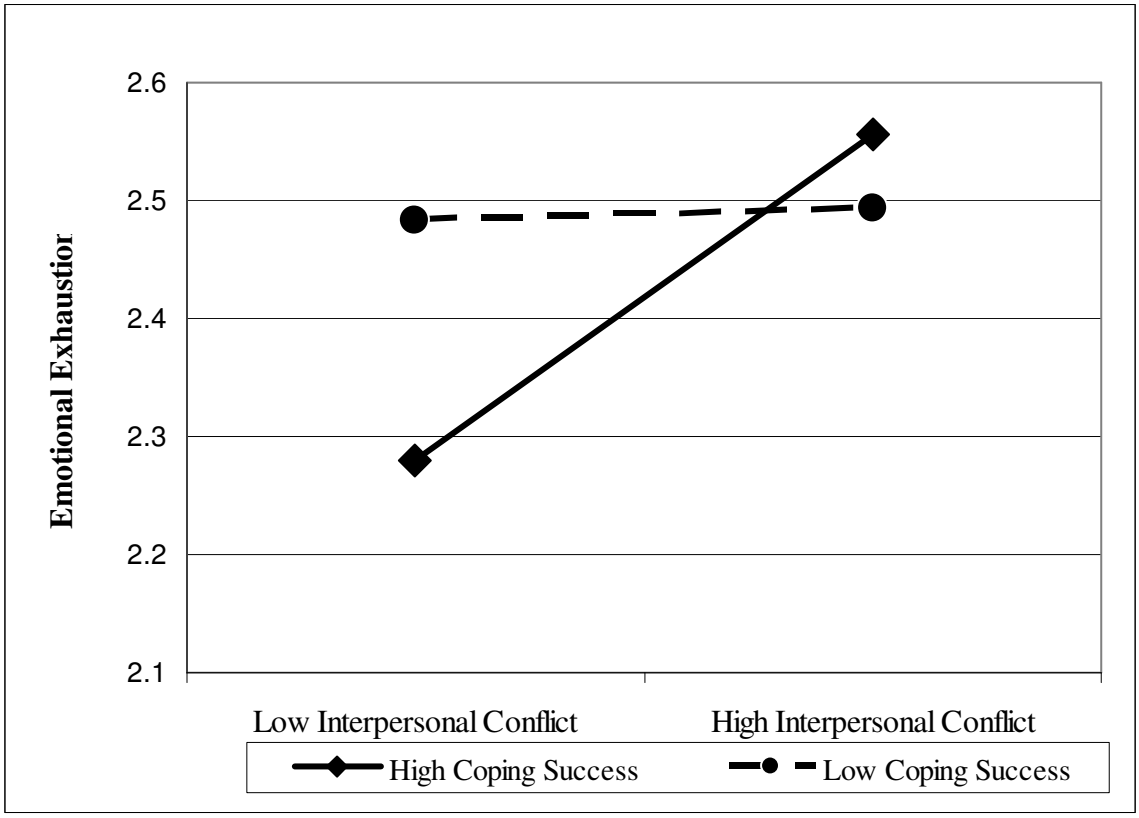
Notes: Low Workload refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Workload. High Workload refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Workload. High Coping Success refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Coping Success. Low Coping Success refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Coping Success.

Figure 19: The Moderating Effect of Coping Success on the Relationship between Emotional Demands and Emotional Exhaustion



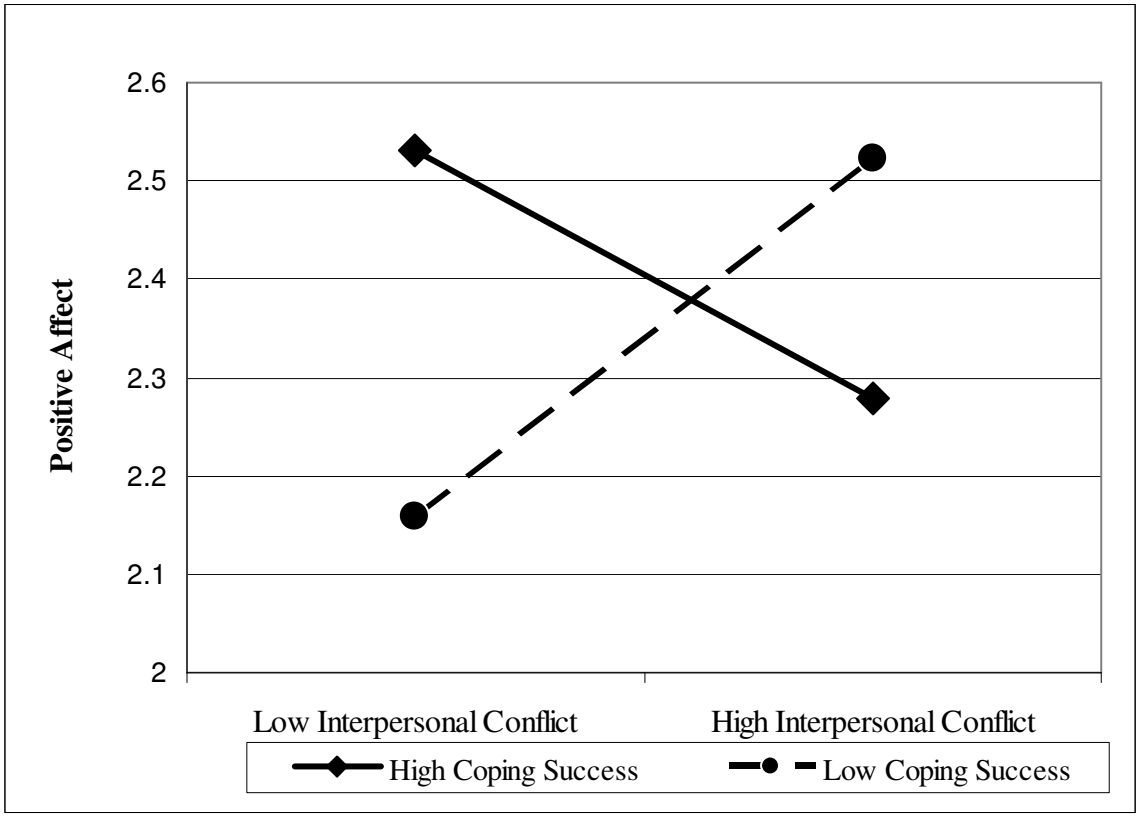
Notes: Low Emotional Demands refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Emotional Demands. High Emotional Demands refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Emotional Demands. High Coping Success refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Coping Success. Low Coping Success refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Coping Success.

Figure 20: The Moderating Effect of Coping Success on the Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict and Emotional Exhaustion



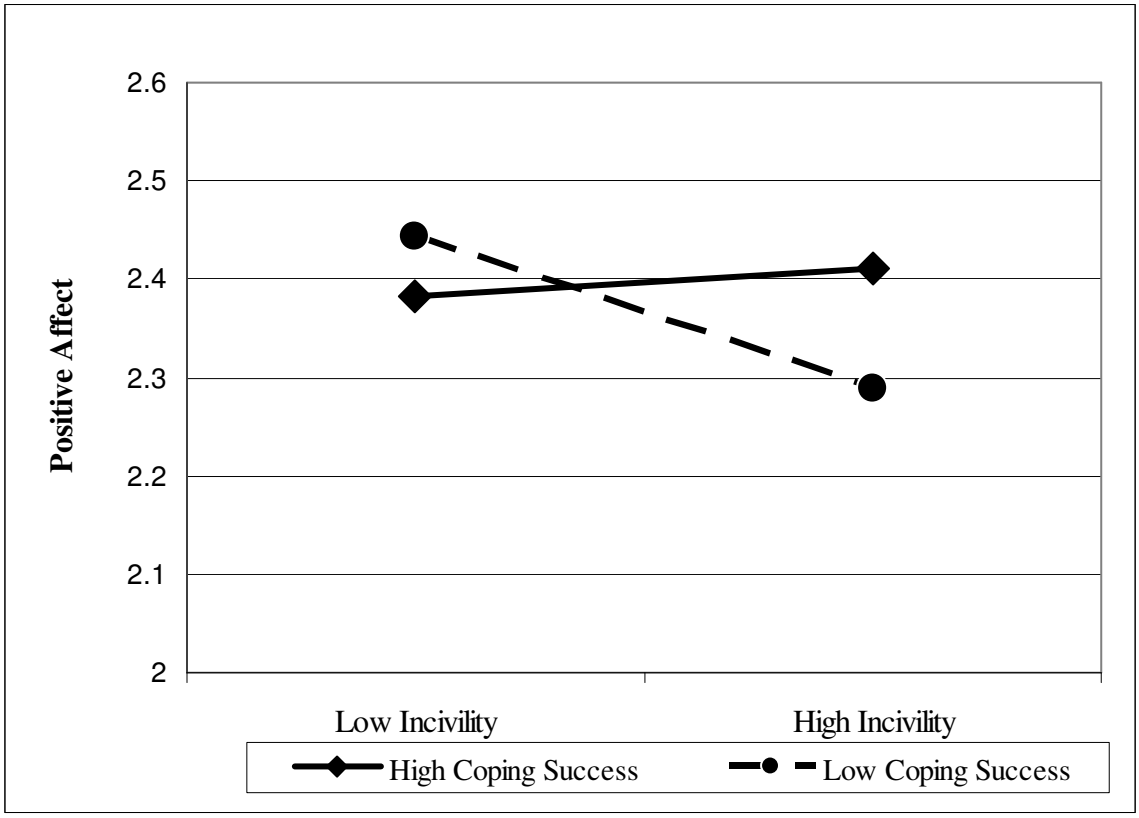
Notes: Low Interpersonal Conflict refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Interpersonal Conflict refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Coping Success refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Coping Success. Low Coping Success refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Coping Success.

Figure 21: The Moderating Effect of Coping Success on the Relationship between Interpersonal Conflict and Positive Affect



Notes: Low Interpersonal Conflict refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Interpersonal Conflict refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Coping Success refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Coping Success. Low Coping Success refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Coping Success.

Figure 22: The Moderating Effect of Coping Success on the Relationship between Incivility and Positive Affect



Notes: Low Incivility refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Incivility. High Incivility refers to one standard within-person deviation above the mean on Interpersonal Conflict. High Coping Success refers to one within-person standard deviation above the mean on Coping Success. Low Coping Success refers to one within-person standard deviation below the mean on Coping Success.

APPENDIX C

MEASURES COLLECTED WITH THE 1ST DAILY SURVEY.

Work Demands (Janssen, 2001).

Please use a number from this scale to indicate your agreement to the following phrases that describe your situation at work, as it applies for today:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1. I have to work fast.
2. I have too much work to do.
3. I have to work extra hard to finish a task.
4. I have to work under time pressure.
5. I can do my work in comfort.
6. I can take my time in doing my work.
7. I have to deal with a work backlog.
8. I have problems with the high pace of work.
9. The workload is high.

Role Conflict (Rizzo et al., 1970).

Please use a number from this scale to indicate your agreement to the following phrases that describe your situation at work, as it applies for today:

1	2	3	4	5
Very Slightly or Not at all	**Somewhat**	**Moderately**	**Very much**	**Extremely**

1. I have to do things that should be done differently.
2. I have to work under incompatible policies and guidelines.
3. I have to buck rules or policies in order to carry out my assignments.
4. I have to work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.
5. I received incompatible requests from two or more people.
6. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.
7. I work on things that I think are unnecessary.
8. I have to work under vague directives or instructions.

Emotional Demands (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003).

Please use a number from this scale to indicate your agreement to the following phrases that describe your situation at work, as it applies for today:

1	2	3	4	5
Very Slightly or Not at all	**Somewhat**	**Moderately**	**Very much**	**Extremely much**

1. I have to resist expressing my true feelings.
2. I have to pretend to have emotions I don't really have.
3. I have to hide my true feelings about a situation.

Interpersonal Conflict (Jehn, 1995).

Please use a number from this scale to indicate your agreement to the following phrases that describe your interactions with your coworkers, as they apply for today:

1	2	3	4	5
Very Slightly or Not at all	**Somewhat**	**Moderately**	**Very much**	**Extremely much**

1. There is friction between me and my coworkers.
2. There are personality conflicts evident between me and my coworkers.
3. There is emotional conflict between me and my coworkers.
4. My coworkers and I disagree about opinions regarding the work being done.
5. There is conflict about ideas between me and my coworkers.
6. There is conflict between me and my coworkers about the work we do.
7. There are differences of opinion between me and my coworkers.

Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina & Weingart, 2001).

Please use a number from this scale to answer the following questions about your experiences at work today.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Slightly or Not at all	**Somewhat**	**Moderately**	**Very much**	**Extremely**

Did any of your superiors or coworkers:

1. Put you down or was condescending to you?
2. Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion?
3. Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you?
4. Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?
5. Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie?
6. Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility?
7. Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters?

APPENDIX D

MEASURES COLLECTED WITH THE 2ND DAILY SURVEY.

Self-efficacy.

Please use a number from this scale to indicate how confident you feel *right now* in your ability to accomplish the following during your daily life.

1	5	10
Cannot do at all	**Might be able to do**	**Perfectly certain I can do**

1. Handling the volume of the work.
2. Dealing with the pace of the workday.
3. Successfully completing the tasks I have to perform.
4. Displaying the emotions I have to display as part of my work duties.
5. Regulating my emotional expressions in order to complete my work.
6. Keeping my true feelings hidden.
7. Dealing with contradicting instructions.
8. Juggling conflicting guidelines or policies.
9. Successfully fulfilling non-compatible responsibilities.
10. Resolving conflicts about the work at hand.
11. Resolving personality conflicts between you and your coworkers.
12. Handling frictions in the workplace.
13. Managing others' unprofessional behavior in the workplace.
14. Dealing with uncivil situations.
15. Handling others' potentially offensive comments and remarks.

Coping Efforts (Carver et al., 1986).

Please indicate whether you performed the following actions today when trying to deal with any problems, obstacles, and challenges in your workplace.

1	2
Did not do	**Did**

1. I asked people who have had similar experiences what they did.
2. I tried to get advice from someone about what to do.
3. I talked to someone to find out more about the situation.
4. I talked to someone who could do something concrete about the problem.
5. I talked to someone about how I feel.
6. I tried to get emotional support from coworkers or my supervisor.
7. I discussed my feelings with someone.
8. I got sympathy and understanding from someone.
9. I took additional action to try to get rid of any problems.
10. I concentrated my efforts on doing something about the work issues.
11. I did what had to be done, one step at a time.

12. I took direct action to get around any problems.
13. I tried to come up with a strategy about what to do.
14. I made a plan of action.
15. I thought hard about what steps to take.
16. I thought about how I might best handle the problem.
17. I put aside other activities in order to concentrate on the issues at hand.
18. I focused on dealing with the current problems, and if necessary let other things slide a little.
19. I kept myself from getting distracted by other thoughts or activities.
20. I tried hard to prevent other things from interfering with my efforts.

Coping Success.

Please use a number from the scale below to indicate how successful the actions described above were in helping you deal with the demands of your workplace today.

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all successful	**Somewhat successful**	**Moderately successful**	**Very successful**	**Extremely Successful**

1. Coping Action #1.
2. Coping Action #2.
3. Coping Action #3.
4. Coping Action #4.
5. Coping Action #5.
6. Coping Action #6.
7. Coping Action #7.
8. Coping Action #8.
9. Coping Action #9.
10. Coping Action #10.
11. Coping Action #11.

APPENDIX E

MEASURES COLLECTED WITH THE 3RD DAILY SURVEY.

Positive and Negative Affect (Watson & Clark, 1994).

Using this scale, rate the following items below as to how you feel right now.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Slightly or Not at all	**Somewhat**	**Moderately**	**Very much**	**Extremely much**

1.	Interested	6.	Guilty	11.	Irritable	16.	Determined
2.	Distressed	7.	Scared	12.	Alert	17.	Attentive
3.	Excited	8.	Hostile	13.	Ashamed	18.	Jittery
4.	Upset	9.	Enthusiastic	14.	Inspired	19.	Active
5.	Strong	10.	Proud	15.	Nervous	20.	Afraid

Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985).

Below are five statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the 1-7 scale below, please indicate your agreement to the following statements, as they apply right now. Please be open and honest in your responding.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1. At this point, in most ways my life is close to my ideal.
2. Currently, the conditions of my life are excellent.
3. At this time, I am satisfied with my life.
4. At this point, I have the important things I want in life.
5. Right now, I feel that if I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Affective Distress (Mackay et al., 1978).

Please use a number from this scale to indicate the extent to which each adjective describes your mood right now. There are no right or wrong answers; please respond honestly and openly, about your mood at the present moment.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Slightly or Not at all	**Somewhat**	**Moderately**	**Very much**	**Extremely much**

1.	Calm	4.	Uneasy	7.	Tense
2.	Contented	5.	Worried	8.	Relaxed
3.	Comfortable	6.	Uptight	9.	Bothered

General Health Questionnaire (Goldberg, 1992).

Please read the questions below and each of the four possible answers, as they apply for today. Choose the response that best applies to you.

1	2	3	4
Not at all	**Less than usual**	**Same as usual**	**More than usual**

1. Have you been able to concentrate on what you're doing?
2. Have you felt that you are playing a useful part in things?
3. Have you felt capable of making decisions about things?
4. Did you feel constantly under strain?
5. Have you been able to enjoy your normal activities?
6. Were you feeling unhappy or depressed?
7. Have you been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?
8. Were feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?

Emotional exhaustion scale (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Please indicate your agreement to the following statements, as they apply for right now:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
4. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.
5. I feel burned out from my work.
6. I feel frustrated by my job.
7. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.
8. Working with people directly put too much stress on me.
9. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.

Work environment changes and catastrophic events.

Below, please summarize any important events that occurred at your work environment in the last two weeks. Please include events that related to either you or your coworkers (for example, include any downsizing, promotions, turnover, important health issues and so on).

Event #1: _____
Event #2: _____
Event #3: _____

APPENDIX F

MEASURES COLLECTED ONCE AT THE BEGINNING OF THE STUDY.

Perceived social support (Zimet et al., 1990).

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements, using the scale below:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1. My coworkers really care about my feelings.
2. I can count on my coworkers when things go wrong.
3. I get the emotional help and support I need from my coworkers.
4. My coworkers are a real source of comfort to me.
5. My coworkers really try to help me.
6. I can talk about my problems with my coworkers.
7. My supervisors really care about my feelings.
8. I can count on my supervisor when things go wrong.
9. I get the emotional help and support I need from my supervisor.
10. My supervisor is a real source of comfort to me.
11. My supervisor really tries to help me.
12. I can talk about my problems with my supervisor.

Decision Latitude (Karasek et al., 1998).

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements, using the scale below:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1. My job requires that I learn new things
2. My job involves a lot of repetitive work
3. My job requires me to be creative
4. My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own
5. My job requires a high level of skill
6. On my job, I have very little freedom to decide how I work
7. I get to do a variety of different things on my job
8. I have a lot of say about what happens on my job
9. I have an opportunity to develop my own special abilities

Perceived organizational support. (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements, using the scale below:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being.
2. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me (reverse coded).
3. The organization would ignore any complaint from me (reverse coded).
4. The organization really cares about my well-being.
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice (reverse coded).
6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.
7. The organization shows very little concern for me (reverse coded).
8. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

Negative Affectivity (Watson & Clark, 1994).

Using this scale, rate the following items below as to how you feel in general.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Slightly or Not at all	**Somewhat**	**Moderately**	**Very much**	**Extremely much**

1. Distressed
2. Upset
3. Guilty
4. Scared
5. Hostile
6. Irritable
7. Ashamed
8. Nervous
9. Jittery
10. Afraid

Neuroticism (Goldberg et al., 2006).

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements, using the scale below:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1. I often feel blue.
2. I dislike myself.
3. I am often down in the dumps.
4. I have frequent mood swings.
5. I panic easily.
6. I rarely get irritated.
7. I seldom feel blue.
8. I feel comfortable with myself.
9. I am not easily bothered by things.
10. I am very pleased with myself.

APPENDIX G

SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1a: Higher levels of daily work demands will be associated with lower levels of subjective well-being.

Hypothesis 1b: More negative social experiences at work will be associated with lower levels of subjective well-being.

Hypothesis 2a: Higher levels of daily work demands will be associated with lower levels of self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 2b: More negative social experiences at work will be associated with lower levels of self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 3a: Higher levels of available workplace resources will be associated with higher average levels of subjective well-being.

Hypothesis 3b: Higher levels of available workplace resources will be associated with higher average levels of self-efficacy beliefs.

Hypothesis 4: Increased self-efficacy beliefs at the end of the workday will be associated with increased subjective well-being.

Hypothesis 5: Self-efficacy beliefs will partially mediate the effects of (a) workplace demands, (b) negative social experiences, and (c) workplace resources on subjective well-being levels.

Hypothesis 6: Workplace resources will moderate the relationships of workplace demands and negative social experiences to (a) self-efficacy and (b) subjective well-being, such that the negative effects of work demands and negative social experiences will be weaker for individuals reporting having higher levels of available workplace resources, compared to individuals reporting having lower levels of available resources.

Hypothesis 7: Previously formed levels of self-efficacy beliefs will moderate the relationship between workplace demands and negative social experiences and (a) self-efficacy beliefs and (b) subjective well-being levels, such that these relationships will be weaker on days in which individuals encounter these events after experiencing high levels of prior self-efficacy, compared to days in which individuals encounter these events after experiencing low levels of prior self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 8: The degree of reported success in coping with workplace demands and negative social experiences will moderate the relationship of these demands and experiences to (a) self-efficacy beliefs and (b) subjective well-being levels, such that workplace demands and experiences will be positively associated with self-efficacy beliefs and subjective well-being on days in which individuals report higher levels of coping success, but negatively associated on days in which individuals report lower levels of coping success.

Hypothesis 9: Coping success will mediate the moderating effects of (a) available workplace resources and (b) previous levels of self-efficacy on the relationship between work demands and negative social experiences and self-efficacy beliefs.

Hypothesis 10: Coping success will mediate the moderating effects of (a) available workplace resources and (b) previous levels of self-efficacy on the relationship between work demands and negative social experiences and subjective well-being levels.

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