Effects of Work-Related Factors and Work–Family Conflict on Depression among Japanese Working Women Living with Young Children

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Abstract

Objective: In a Japanese metropolis, we examined the effects of work-related factors and work–family conflict on depressive symptoms among working women living with young children.

Methods: Data was derived from women ($n=501$) who lived with at least one preschool child and worked for 20 hours or more per week. As work-related factors, we chose job pressure, skill underutilization, dissatisfaction with personal income, inflexible work schedule, job insecurity, and relationships in the workplace. Depressive symptoms were assessed using the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale. The effects of work-related factors and work–family conflict on depressive symptoms were explored by hierarchical regression analysis.

Results: Work-related factors except job pressure were significantly correlated with depressive symptoms. Multiple regression analyses revealed that women who had more frequent work–family conflict and more work-related stressors such as bad relationships in the workplace, job insecurity, and underutilization of skills were likely to have more depressive symptoms.

Conclusions: Among women workers with young children, work–family conflict and various work-related factors such as perceived bad relationships at work, job insecurity, and underutilization of skills had a significant relationship with depressive symptoms. Much more research is needed to explore ways to support working mothers.

Key words: women workers, working mothers, depression, work–family conflict, job stress

Introduction

In Japan women commonly engage in paid work: in 2001, 40.4% of the labor force was female, and the labor force participation rate among women aged 15 to 59 years old was 62.2% (1). Recently, many women have been continuing to work through the childrearing life stage, and the number of women who leave jobs due to marriage, childbearing, and childcare has been decreasing (1).

Among workers in Japan, depression is a major mental health problem (2). Lack of energy, low interest, sleep disturbance, negative thoughts, and other depressive symptoms may reduce work productivity and increase absenteeism and suicide

among workers. Moreover, if the worker is a mother who engages in childrearing, her depressive symptoms have some degree of influence on the psychological well-being of her children. Prior studies have shown that depressed mothers express higher hostility and negativity toward their children than non-depressed mothers, and that their children have more intellectual and behavioral problems than the children of non-depressed mothers (3, 4). These ramifications make it a social issue to reduce depression among women workers with younger children.

Studies in Western countries have shown that work is good for women's psychological well-being. Working women have a lower level of anxiety and depression than non-working women (5). Work may protect women from becoming depressed by enhancing self-esteem and increasing the social network (6–9). When the women live with very young children, however, the positive effects of work may be outweighed by role overload, role conflict, and other concerns (9–12). A recent nationwide survey in Japan revealed that, on weekdays, on average, while working women with preschool children spent 6 hours 37 minutes on housework, men workers with preschool children spent only

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1 hour 8 minutes (13). These findings suggest that working mothers, as well as coping with employment, often have primary responsibility and burden for housework and childrearing. Sudo et al.'s study showed the physiological and hormonal proof of the heavy workload among childrearing women workers (14).

Research into women's work-related stress in Western countries has indicated a number of negative and positive factors that affect psychological well-being: high work demand; low job control; role ambiguity; inadequacy of reward; underutilization of skills; social support at work; flexible working hours; helpful supervisors; helpful colleagues; and paid sick leave (15–18). Several studies in Japan have examined the relationship between work-related stressors and psychological well-being in women, using employees of companies and hospital nurses (19–25). The results were inconsistent because of the difference in the measurements of job stressors and social background across the studies. Although several studies have suggested the importance of stressors in private life on fatigue or psychological distress (14, 25), most of the studies did not have information on family environment, including age and number of children.

Few community studies in Japan have chosen a population of working women with young children to evaluate work-related stress and its relationship with psychological well-being. Part of a study of married women showed that work strain did not have a significant relationship with psychological distress among full-time and self-employed women workers whose youngest child was 6 years old or younger (26). However, the results should be carefully interpreted, because of a low response rate and very small sample size. To examine the influence of work strain or other work-related factors on depression among working mothers, choosing an appropriate study population is necessary.

To understand psychological distress or work satisfaction among workers, the importance of the stress that comes from the interaction between family and work roles has been studied. Up to now, various aspects such as spillover, work–family conflict (27), and quality of working life (28) have been considered relevant in work stress research. In particular, work–family conflict has been emphasized as an inter-role conflict that occurs when the role pressure from work and that from family are incompatible (29–31). This conflict has been reported to relate to various outcomes such as depression, bad physical health, job dissatisfaction, life dissatisfaction, and intention to quit the job (32). For women it is related more strongly with life satisfaction and work satisfaction than for men (33). In a community study of women, higher educational attainment, having a child, and the perceived poorer quality of the maternal role were found to be related to work–family conflict among employed women (5). In Japanese research, Kanai has examined work–family conflict among workers (34). Conflict from the family-to-work direction was found to reduce work and family satisfaction. Contrary to previous Western studies, work–family conflict either from the work-to-family or from the family-to-work direction, was not significantly related to depressive tendency among women workers (34). However, it is not reasonable to generalize the results to childrearing women workers. Research specifically for working mothers in Japan is needed because they are likely to take responsibility for both work and family.

As shown above, in Japan, in spite of its importance, the influence of work-related factors and work–family conflict on psychological well-being among working mothers has not been fully studied. In this study, we examined several work-related factors and work–family conflict and their relationships with depressive symptoms using heterogeneous women workers living with at least one preschool child.

Methods

Participants and data collection procedure

We designed a survey to examine the relationship between socio-environmental factors and well-being among mothers of preschoolers. Mothers of preschoolers from eight private preschools in a large city in the Kansai region of Japan participated. In January 2001, cooperating classroom teachers distributed a letter to explain the aim of the survey and a questionnaire to all parents of preschoolers ($n=871$). In the letter, we explained that participation in the survey could be decided with free will, that the survey was anonymous, and the privacy of the participants was guaranteed in case of publishing the data. Among 871 parents, 688 submitted the filled questionnaire to the classroom teacher in an envelope without signing. Among the 688 returned questionnaires, we omitted 43 incomplete questionnaires and 9 questionnaires written by a mother who was not living with the preschool child, or a father or a grandmother of the preschool child, and the sample was 636 women. After excluding women who were not working ($n=69$), on maternity leave ($n=3$), without information on working hours ($n=5$), and working less than 20 hours a week ($n=58$), the data included in the final analysis came from the remaining 501 mothers, who had a paid job for 20 hours or more per week at the time of the survey.

Among the 501 women, 84% were between 25 and 39 years old (Table 1). Only two women were teenagers. The majority of the participants ($n=395$) were married and living with a spouse. Two women were unmarried and cohabiting. These women were categorized as living with a partner ($n=397$). The remaining women—divorced ($n=88$), separated ($n=4$), widowed ($n=4$), or unmarried and not cohabiting ($n=8$)—were categorized as living without a partner ($n=104$). Personal monthly income was less than 100,000 yen for more than 40% of the women (Table 1). Only 2.2% of the sample earned 400,000 yen or more. The mean number of family members was 4.0 (S.D. 1.2); the mean number of children was 1.9 (S.D. 0.9); and the mean number of children who were 6 years old or younger was 1.4 (S.D. 0.6). Ten percent of the women in the sample lived with their parents and 8% lived with their parents-in-law.

Most of the women worked less than 60 hours a week (Table 1). Classified by mode of employment, 48% were non-regular employees, including part-time, contract, and dispatched workers; 38% were regular employees; and 13% were self-employed or employed in a family member's company or store. More than half of the women were engaged in clerical, technical, or managerial jobs, and one-third of the mothers were in sales or service-related jobs. The others were engaged in manufacturing, small-scale manufacturing, or transportation jobs (Table 1).

Table 1 Demographic and work characteristics and their relationship with depressive symptoms

	Percent	CES-D Mean (S.D.)
Age		(n.s.)
≤24	4.6	19.2 (9.1)
25–29	21.8	15.8 (8.9)
30–34	36.5	16.5 (9.9)
35–39	25.3	16.6 (10.7)
≥40	11.8	13.1 (8.3)
Education		(***)
Less than high school graduate	9.6	21.4 (9.4)
High school graduate	41.9	16.9 (9.9)
Two-year college degree/special school graduate	37.7	14.6 (9.2)
Bachelor's degree or higher	10.8	13.3 (9.5)
Living with a partner		(**)
Yes	79.2	15.5 (9.5)
No	20.8	18.4 (10.4)
Personal income (yen/month)		(***)
≤99,999	40.7	18.2 (10.6)
100,000–199,999	30.9	15.2 (8.0)
200,000–299,999	20.2	14.8 (9.8)
300,000–399,999	5.9	12.8 (11.0)
≥400,000	2.2	11.7 (5.8)
Work hours (hours/week)		(*)
20–29	23.6	18.5 (10.6)
30–39	27.1	15.5 (9.1)
40–49	37.1	15.2 (9.7)
50–59	8.4	13.8 (7.7)
≥60	3.8	18.7 (11.5)
Work style		(*)
Non-regular employee ^a	48.3	17.1 (9.9)
Self-employed, family employee	13.1	17.2 (11.8)
Regular employee, full-time employee	37.7	14.2 (8.7)
Job Classification		(**)
Manufacturing, transportation	10.3	16.0 (8.9)
Sales, service	34.2	17.6 (9.3)
Clerical, technical, managerial	55.5	15.0 (9.9)

The category comparison was conducted by Mann-Whitney test for “living with/without a partner” and by Kruskal-Wallis test for other variables. The results are shown in the parentheses in the third column.

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; n.s. not significant.

^a Non-regular employee includes part-time, contract, and dispatched workers.

Measures

Symptoms of depression. Depressive symptoms were evaluated according to the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D) (35). This twenty-item self-reported questionnaire has been widely used for measuring symptoms of depression in the general population. It is a screening instrument that reflects the degree of psychological maladjustment (36) or feelings of distress (37). A study of the validity and the reliability of the CES-D (38), suggested that a cut-off point of 16 is appropriate for the Japanese population.

Work-related factors. The following work-related factors were chosen from the preliminary interview with six women from this study's population and from previous studies of women (18, 21, 39): work amount; work responsibility; underuti-

lization of personal skills; dissatisfaction with personal income; inflexibility of work schedule; job insecurity; and relationships in the workplace. Each question was answered on a four-point scale from 1 (not at all) to 4 (a great deal). Perceived amount of work and work responsibility were surveyed in the questions, “Is your work amount large?” and “Is your work responsibility serious?”, respectively. Since these two variables were highly correlated with a coefficient of 0.599 ($p < 0.001$), the sum was expressed as job pressure and the combined variable was used in this study (range, 2–8). Job insecurity was estimated by the question, “Is there a possibility that you will be discharged?” The questions regarding utilization of personal skills, satisfaction with personal income, and flexibility of work schedule were “Can you utilize your ability or skill in your job?”, “Are you satisfied with your own income?”, and “Is it easy to change your work schedule or be absent from work if your child is sick or if another emergency arises?”, respectively, and were inversely coded.

Work-family conflict. Work-family conflict was examined by the question, “How often do you have to juggle work and family obligations that conflict with one another and give you a pulled-apart feeling?” (40)

Demographic and work characteristics. Demographic information such as maternal age category (24 or under, 25–29, 30–34, 35–39, 40 years old or more), marital status, personal monthly income category (99,999 or less, 100,000–199,999, 200,000–299,999, 300,000–399,999, 400,000 or more yen), educational attainment (4 levels: non-high school graduate; high school graduate; junior college or special school graduate; bachelor's degree or higher) was requested in the questionnaire. Family environment was also surveyed: number of family members, number and age of the children; and whether the mother was living with a partner, with parents, or with parents-in-law. The questionnaire included work characteristics such as job classification, work style, and weekly hours of work (20–29, 30–39, 40–49, 50–59, 60 hours or more). Jobs were classified according to revision three of the Standard Occupational Classification for Japan (1997).

Analyses

Initially, we examined the bivariate relationships between demographic factors and depressive symptoms. For each factor, categorical differences of depressive symptoms were examined using the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test or Mann-Whitney test, because several categories had a very small sample size. Using the significant demographic factors as covariates, the relationship between each work characteristic and depressive symptoms was examined by multiple regression analysis. Work characteristics were entered in the analyses as dummy variables. The dependent variable was CES-D score. When demographic factors were controlled, none of the work characteristics were significantly related to depressive symptoms. Thus, work characteristics were not included in the following hierarchical regression analyses. Finally, to examine a) work-related factors once demographic factors were controlled; and b) work-family conflict after demographic characteristics and work-related factors were controlled, we applied hierarchical linear regression analyses. At stage 1 of the hierarchical analyses, significant

demographic characteristics chosen in the previous process were used as independent variables. At stage 2, work-related factors were added as independent variables. At stage 3, work-family conflict was added. Analyses were carried out using SPSS 10.0J for Windows.

Results

The mean score of CES-D was 16.1 (S.D. 9.8). The Cronbach coefficient for the total CES-D score was 0.79. In our sample, with scores of 16 or higher, 45.1% of the women were indicated to have depressive symptoms. Table 1 shows the mean CES-D score for each category of demographic and work characteristics. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test or Mann-Whitney test are shown in the parentheses in column three. Age categories did not significantly differ in depressive symptoms. Women with higher levels of educational attainment, higher

personal income, and women living with a partner tended to show fewer symptoms of depression. Number of family members, number of children, number of children aged six or younger, and living with parents or parents-in-law showed no category differences, so these results are not shown in Table 1.

Table 2 presents descriptive statistics and the distribution of work-related variables and work-family conflict. For each item, the mean CES-D score is shown in column six. Only 10% of the women considered that their skills were fully utilized; the others thought their skills were underutilized to a greater or lesser extent. Furthermore, only 4% of the women were satisfied with their personal income. Not many women gave high scores for work schedule inflexibility, job insecurity, bad relationships in the workplace, and frequent work-family conflict. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test showed significant category differences for all work-related factors except job pressure.

Table 2 Descriptive statistics of work-related variables, and the distribution of depressive symptoms

	Mean	SD	Range	Percent	CES-D Mean (S.D.)
Job pressure	4.94	1.74	2–8		(n.s.)
None (2)				9.6	18.6 (11.0)
A little (3–4)				33.3	15.6 (9.3)
Certain amount (5–6)				37.3	15.4 (9.5)
Great deal (7–8)				19.7	16.8 (10.3)
Skill underutilization	2.69	0.91	1–4		(***)
None (1)				10.5	13.8 (10.2)
A little (2)				29.8	13.6 (9.1)
Certain amount (3)				39.9	16.9 (9.9)
Great deal (4)				19.8	19.5 (9.1)
Dissatisfaction with personal income	3.22	0.84	1–4		(***)
Not at all (1)				4.2	10.8 (7.1)
A little (2)				13.7	12.9 (9.6)
Certain amount (3)				38.0	15.1 (9.8)
Great deal (4)				44.2	18.4 (9.5)
Inflexible schedule	2.25	1.04	1–4		(*)
Not at all (1)				28.4	15.5 (9.5)
A little (2)				34.1	14.7 (9.4)
Certain amount (3)				21.2	16.5 (8.9)
Great deal (4)				16.3	19.2 (11.6)
Job insecurity	1.62	0.89	1–4		(***)
None (1)				59.3	14.8 (9.0)
A little (2)				26.9	15.9 (9.4)
Certain amount (3)				6.9	20.9 (11.4)
Great deal (4)				6.9	21.5 (11.3)
Relationships in the workplace	2.90	0.89	1–4		(***)
Bad (1)				5.3	22.4 (8.5)
Not bad (2)				29.1	19.7 (9.5)
Good (3)				36.0	14.4 (9.2)
Very good (4)				29.7	13.3 (9.5)
Work-family conflict	2.29	1.01	1–4		(***)
None (1)				26.7	11.6 (7.3)
Rarely (2)				30.9	15.7 (8.5)
Sometimes (3)				29.0	17.5 (9.9)
Often (4)				13.4	22.8 (11.6)

The marks in parentheses are based on the p-value of Kruskal-Wallis test.

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; n.s., not significant.

Relationship between the variables

Table 3 shows the Spearman correlation coefficients between demographic factors, work-related variables, work-family conflict, and depressive scores. Among the demographic and family environmental factors, educational attainment, personal income, and living with a partner were significantly correlated with depressive symptoms. Omitted from the table are the following variables, which had no significant ($p \geq 0.05$) correlation with depression: age category, number of family members, number of children, number of children 6 years old or younger, living with parents, and living with parents-in-law. These six variables also had no significant relationship with work-family conflict. Educational attainment, personal income, and living with

a partner were used as independent variables in the following regression analyses.

Depressive symptoms showed a significant correlation with most of the work-related factors and with scores for work-family conflict. Personal income was correlated with work-family conflict and several work-related factors: job pressure; skill underutilization; dissatisfaction with personal income; and inflexible work schedule.

Effects of work-related factors and work-family conflict on depressive symptoms

To examine the relationship of work-related factors and work-family conflict with symptoms of depression, hierarchical

Table 3 Intercorrelations between the variables: Spearman's ρ

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Depressive symptoms	—									
2. Education	-.223***	—								
3. Living with a partner	-.117**	.254***	—							
4. Personal income	-.182***	.342***	.035	—						
5. Job pressure	-.012	.016	-.042	.246***	—					
6. Skill underutilization	.253***	-.162***	.019	-.231***	-.435***	—				
7. Dissatisfaction with personal income	.263***	-.159***	-.138**	-.315***	-.002	.207	—			
8. Relationships in the workplace	-.327***	.023	-.004	-.059	-.108*	-.209***	-.199***	—		
9. Inflexible schedule	.112**	.099*	.025	.218***	.272***	-.024	.103**	-.387***	—	
10. Job insecurity	.171***	-.051	-.062	.047	-.012	.125**	.105*	-.224***	.128**	—
11. Work-family conflict	.333***	.017	-.031	.188***	.268***	-.047	-.038	-.189***	.221***	.171***

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 4 Effects of demographic characteristics, work-related factors, and work-family conflict on depressive symptoms

Variables	Standardized Regression Coefficients (β)		
	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
	Demographic factors	Demographic and work-related factors	Demographic factors, work-related factors, and work-family conflict
<i>Background</i>			
Education ^a	-.148**	-.127**	-.121**
Living with a partner ^b	-.087	-.077	-.070
Personal income ^c	-.141**	-.139*	-.179***
<i>Work-related factors</i>			
Job pressure ^d		.036	-.037
Skill underutilization		.116*	.106*
Dissatisfaction with personal income		.058	.043
Inflexible schedule		.057	.021
Job insecurity		.147**	.107*
Relationships in the workplace ^e		-.191***	-.166***
<i>Work-family conflict</i>			
Work-family conflict			.344***
R ²	.072	.195	.297
ΔR^2		.123	.102

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

outcome=CES-D scores.

^a Education (1=less than high school graduate, 2=high school graduate, 3=two-year college or special school graduate, 4=bachelor's degree or higher).

^b living with a partner (1=yes, 0=no).

^c personal income (1=99,999 or less, 2=100,000–199,999, 3=200,000–299,999, 4=300,000–399,999, 5=400,000 or more).

^d Job pressure (2=none; 3, 4=a little; 5, 6=certain amount; 7, 8=great deal).

^e Relationships in the workplace (1=bad, 2=not bad, 3=good, 4=very good).

regression analysis was performed (Table 4). In the first stage, three demographic factors accounted for 7.2% of the variance in depressive scores. While educational attainment and personal income were significantly related to depressive symptoms, living with a partner was not. In the second stage, work-related factors additionally accounted for 12.3% of the variance. In the third stage, work–family conflict accounted for an additional 10.2%. Among the work-related variables, bad interpersonal relationships in the workplace, skill underutilization, and job insecurity each significantly contributed to depression. Job pressure, dissatisfaction with personal income, and inflexible work schedules did not have significant effects on depression.

Discussion

Among the work-related factors, bad relationships in the workplace, job insecurity, and skill underutilization had a significant relationship with symptoms of depression. Job pressure, that is, the sum of job pressure and responsibility, was not related to depression. The conflict between work and family was also found to have a close relationship with depressive symptoms. In the sample, 45% scored at or above the cut-off point of depression on the CES-D, and this rate is higher than those in comparable studies in Japan that used the same method of evaluation: 16.3% in a community study (41); and 15% from studies on working women (42, 43).

The majority, nearly 60%, complained about the underutilization of work skills. Jobs of women workers often have been characterized by underutilization of skills (44), and the tendency seemed to be the same in the present study population of working mothers in Japan. From Table 3, one can speculate that women with lower income had less job pressure, more flexible work schedules, and less frequent work–family conflict, but simultaneously they are frustrated by not being able to fully use their skills or earn a satisfactory income. By contrast, women with higher income may attain greater fulfillment by using their skills and be more satisfied with the payment they receive. Even so, they have higher job pressure, less flexible work schedules, and more frequent work–family conflict. This may suggest that future research on childrearing women workers needs to consider subpopulations that have different psychological work characteristics.

As in previous studies (32), the present study found that work–family conflict was significantly related to depressive symptoms. Furthermore, work–family conflict was the most important single factor, accounting for 10% of the variance of depressive symptoms. Our results suggest that to improve the psychological well-being of women workers with young children it is important to consider not only stress at work but also the conflict between work and family. Since the question regarding work–family conflict in the present study requested a subjective cognition of the conflict rather than the objective situation, there might be a possibility that its relationship with depression seemingly became too close. Various factors at work and at home are speculated to have an influence on this conflict: necessary time for pick-ups of the child and commuting; the woman's personality and coping style; support from the spouse; and the spouse's work characteristics. A lot more research is

needed to find the risk and protective factors of the conflict. Research has suggested that work–family conflict is bi-directional: work-to-family and family-to-work (45, 46). In a study of the Japanese working population, however, the two directions of conflict were found to be closely related, leading the author to suggest that, for Japanese workers, the two directions may be inseparable (34). In the future, we should examine whether the result would be applicable for a childrearing population.

Relationships in the workplace were the work factor that correlated most strongly with depressive symptoms. Several previous studies of women workers in Japan have pointed out that the interpersonal relationships in the workplace play an important role in the psychological well-being and quality of working life (22, 25, 47–50). A study on married women workers in Japan has also shown that relationships in the workplace are significantly related to depressive symptoms (21). The Japanese phrase, “bad relationships in the workplace” can encompass situations such as personal conflicts, bullying, competitive relationships with co-workers, difficulty with getting help and support, and general discord between co-workers (21, 22). In Japan, the quality of relationships in the workplace is considered to be an important aspect of the work environment (28). Women workers were found to be more susceptible than men to depression caused by inharmonious or formalized, impersonal relationships (22). Our present study has suggested an association between bad human relationships and an inflexible work schedule at work (Spearman's $\rho=0.387$). Women workers with young children who have an inflexible work schedule are speculated to have difficulties in maintaining good relationships with co-workers and/or supervisors because they have to change their schedules for a sick child's care or emergency problems.

Many women in the present study had lower personal income and showed low satisfaction with it. These two factors were related to depressive symptoms. More than half of the women in the present study worked less than 40 hours a week and nearly half of the sample were non-regular employees, and this is likely to result in lower personal income because the mean hourly wage of non-regular women employees was only 65% of the mean wage of the regular women employees in 2002 (51). For a woman who has an affluent household income or who wants to keep her income under the upper limit of the spouse subtraction rate, the lower personal income may be a deliberate choice. However, when a woman who has to make a living becomes an involuntary or voluntary non-regular employee to meet her family responsibility, it may be difficult for her to avoid financial difficulty.

This study has several limitations. Preliminary interviews indicated that the women in the sample were generally very busy. To elicit cooperation, the questionnaire had to be brief enough to complete in a short time. This led us to use single-item questions for work-related factors and work–family conflict and left us unable to determine the validity and reliability of the responses. In a cross-sectional study such as this, we are unable to examine the causal relationship between work-related factors and appearance of depressive symptoms. Furthermore, the sample consists of heterogeneous childrearing women workers in several wards in a large city, and all of the sample

had to entrust a daycare center with daytime childcare in order to work 20 hours or longer a week, so the findings may not be generalized to working women with a different community environment or shorter working hours, or women who receive daytime childcare support from their relatives. We should have requested the total family income including child's allowance and welfare allowance to understand the socio-economic status of the family. We did not ask about it because of its complexity. The personal income that we used in the analyses may not be an appropriate covariate because there may be some women who are trying to prevent their income from exceeding the upper limit of taxation or the spouse subtraction rate. Even so, this study may provide extensive information about depressive symptoms among working mothers.

The results of multiple regression analyses have revealed that, among childrearing women workers, work-family conflict,

in addition to work-related stressors such as bad relationships at work, job insecurity, and underutilization of skills, was related to a greater presence of depressive symptoms. It is imperative to recognize that a considerable number of childrearing women workers may have current depressive symptoms. In order to improve psychological well-being, it is necessary to explore the origins and correlates of work stressors and work-family conflict, and to try to find a support system at the level of the family, workplace, community, or government.

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