

UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

WORK-FAMILY-LIFE SATISFACTION:
PROFESSIONAL & PERSONAL IMPACTS

A THESIS APPROVED FOR THE
WORK-FAMILY-LIFE SATISFACTION:
PROFESSIONAL & PERSONAL IMPACTS

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By

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The purpose of this study was to investigate how professional and personal experiences influence total life satisfaction of 261 university-affiliated people. An online survey was conducted to assess the relationships between perceived organizational support, burnout, communication technologies, personal responsibilities, involvement between work and family, and overall life satisfaction. The results indicated work and family significantly influenced each other in addition to total life satisfaction. Supplemental hypotheses revealed perceived organizational support has a positive relationship with professional satisfaction. Burnout and communication technologies outside of work hours have a negative relationship with professional satisfaction. Work and family involvement significantly influenced one another. Personal responsibilities were not significant of personal satisfaction in totality but did prove significant from specific individual questions on certain sample demographic traits.	35
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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate how professional and personal experiences influence total life satisfaction of 261 university-affiliated people. An online survey was conducted to assess the relationships between perceived organizational support, burnout, communication technologies, personal responsibilities, enrichment between work and family, and overall life satisfaction. The results indicated work and family significantly influenced each other in addition to total life satisfaction. Supplemental hypotheses revealed perceived organizational support has a positive relationship with professional satisfaction. Burnout and communication technologies outside of work hours have a negative relationship with professional satisfaction. Work and family enrichment significantly influenced one another. Personal responsibilities were not significant of personal satisfaction in totality but did prove significant from specific individual questions on certain sample demographic traits.

Work-Family-Life Satisfaction: Professional & Personal Impacts

People throughout the course of their lives experience different roles and responsibilities as they transition between their occupational duties fulfilling the worker role and their responsibilities in their private lives highlighting roles as spouse and parent. Traditionally, differing roles have been researched into how one domain is in conflict with other domains emphasizing that to place attention into one area of a person's life detracts from other personal facets causing emotional strain on the individual person (Bourne, Wilson, Lester, & Kickul, 2009). New research has emerged countering the negative relationship between roles by taking a more positivistic approach on the relationship between work and familial responsibilities by focusing on how professional and personal roles can enrich each other. The accumulation of positive work (e.g., receiving a promotion, quality relationships with coworkers and management, meaningful work, etc.) and family experiences (e.g., enhanced relationship with romantic partner, quality interactions with family members, and equal division of household duties and responsibilities) can have positive effects on physical and psychological well-being and participation in multiple roles can help individuals battle stress when one role becomes demanding, and experiences in one role can lead to positive outcomes in other roles (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Highlighting the ideal of added benefits among multiple domains, *Fortune* magazine publishes an annual article which publishes a list of the "100 Best Companies to Work For" in the United States showcasing some of the practices that make businesses on the list some of the greatest employers in the nation. Prevalent is that numerous companies are finding ways to invest in the well-being of their employees

spanning a wide array of worker needs and desires. In addition to benefits designed to improve the professional and personal lives of individual workers, companies highlighted in *Fortune* recognize the full-value their employees offer not only to the organization but to other avenues of life. These businesses recognize the combination of an employee's career tasks, family obligations, and community roles all of which frame an individual's concept of being a "whole" person. This notion sees people as more than just employees working towards company goals but rather recognizes that people have duties and interests outside of the organization. Conducted research found that 95% of survey respondents placed equal or more importance to life outside the company as well as life inside of the professional workplace which encompasses the idea of being a "whole" person thus suggesting that the combination of occupational roles (employee and coworker) as well as social roles (parent, spouse, caregiver, volunteer) form the foundation of a person's identity (Bourne, 2009; Burke, 1991; Frone & Russell, 1995). People can simultaneously be a business professional and parent, a medical expert and a spouse, among several other combinations of professional and personal roles that people may possess throughout the life course.

The *Fortune* article, and the companies and their best practices as emphasized by Fortune in this study, highlights an ideal that contributes to the well-being of employees in addition for companies meeting their financial goals. Specifically, the companies studied have provided a pathway for professional success in terms of the satisfaction of the whole person while not emphasizing more traditional business avenues such as salary, relations with co-workers and company leaders, and daily job duties. Personal achievement also plays a role in determining life satisfaction which can

be determined in relationship with occupational settings as enhancement in one domain can have a positive effect in the other domain but individual components of either the work or family spheres of influence can lower the quality of satisfactions among work and family domains. Stresses, in terms of work and family, may occur in one domain that can lessen the enrichment quality for the worker in terms of their employee role satisfaction in addition to role satisfaction related to being a romantic partner or family member. Stress is a factor all people amongst both domains will have to encounter at some point. Pertinent to this study, stress may come in the form of emotional exhaustion caused by lack of organizational support in the professional environment and hesitations one spouse may have about the other as determined by traditional gender roles in the personal domain. In their personal lives, when relationship partners had dealt with heightened levels of stress, couples reported being less satisfied in their relationships (Neff & Karney, 2007). As a result, studying the effects of stress on a relationship is important as couples need to learn how to manage stress effectively when certain situations arise. Stresses may come from factors directly related to being in a romantic relationship while other factors may derive from circumstances where one romantic party has an issue that the other partner may be unaware of. As a result, stress can negatively affect an otherwise meaningful and happy relationship and the results of this study will provide insight on how couples can help one another into maintaining a long-lasting relationship.

Personal Satisfaction Factors: Gender Roles and Responsibilities

Work has the ability to complement and improve family life, but in recent decades it has largely competed with the family domain (Hochschild, 1997). Mass

media regularly pointed to global competition as the major business story but often overlooked the fact that corporate America's biggest struggle has been with the family domain (Hochschild, 1997). Companies have utilized methods to invest in the professional needs of their employees that have brought out worker allegiance with the corporation. Businesses have shifted from a Taylorist viewpoint where managers coerced the worker's mind and body resulting in a workforce that was replaceable, deskilled, and underappreciated to utilizing Total Quality Principles emphasizing modern participative management techniques (Hochschild, 1997). The shift in focus enabled companies to invest in training their workers to make decisions that can eventually lead to achieved financial and moral goals stemming from successful organizational practices. Total Quality principles allowed managers to assume workers possessed a desire to want to achieve quality organizational outcomes while also being given a certain amount of autonomy (Hochschild, 1997). The Total Quality worker was invited to feel recognized for job accomplishments as personal recognition was proven an extremely effective motivational tool (Hochschild, 1997). Despite the efforts to dedicate support and commitment to employees while at work, oftentimes organizational efforts came at the expense of the family domain due to increased time demands placed on workers.

Organizational efforts have made efforts to fostering an environment conducive for employee success and organizational commitment, but Hochschild (1997) in her sample of 1,446 parents, spanning a diverse collection of companies, felt that professional success was attained at the sacrifice of the personal domain. One-third of fathers and a fifth of mothers felt they were workaholics with half of the sample stating

they brought work-related material at home (Hochschild, 1997). Half of the respondents felt guilty that they do not spend adequate time with their children while 43% stated they very often felt tired when with their children as a result of working away from home (Hochschild, 1997). Hochschild (2003) described a situation when work and family roles conflict with each other within the same domain regarding in that certain occupations call for women to communicate with people who expect them to enact two leading roles of womanhood: the loving wife and mother and the prestigious career woman. In essence, women portray an image of working in the public sector while maintaining the image that they still maintain stereotypical gender roles associated with being a woman (Hochschild, 2003). Successful achievement of balancing work and family demands was only reported by nine percent of the sample (Hochschild, 1997).

Employees upon completion of their daily occupational tasks begin the daily transition of shifting their focus from the worker role to the home and family domains. Men and women will always have various responsibilities within the household as to which romantic partner performs specific duties within the family role. Traditionally, women have been the gender primarily responsible for maintaining the home and the family but men have doubled the amount of time devoted to household chores since the 1970s but women are still doing far more work in this domain as women spend 19 hours a week cooking, cleaning, shopping for household needs, and other family work while men spend about 10 hours a week engaged in the same responsibilities (Johnson & Alaniz, 2008). Johnson and Alaniz (2008) state that American couples have made remarkable progress in working out satisfying arrangements that benefit both parties in sharing the responsibilities of organizational breadwinning and unpaid family care with

surveys continuing to show increasing approval of such arrangements, however this is not always the case. Taking the 10 hours a week men worked and applying that to the total number of hours worked by both men and women, males performed 34% of the unpaid labor duties which is comparable to other work conducted by researchers who reported women doing more domestic work in their relationships than men but with less satisfaction in the unequal amount of the division of household duties as a result of women performing 69% of the unpaid labor in the home compared to 31% for men (Stevens, Kiger, & Riley, 2001). Over a year, women work an additional month of twenty-four hour days in managing household responsibilities and raising children in comparison to men (Hochschild & Machung, 2003). Hochschild and Machung (2003) in their research findings found that 80% of men did not share equal responsibilities of household duties and that a majority of those men faced pressures from the women in their lives to contribute more to personal responsibilities. Employment status and work duration did not make a difference related to gender. Child care and household duties were performed primarily by women despite working the same number of hours a week as men (Hochschild & Machung, 2003). Employed women are thus working a “second shift” in that women are still charged with household responsibilities in addition to their occupational duties. Men have the opportunity to alleviate some of the stresses women face in their daily lives by being more of an active contributor to personal responsibilities. Men still feel primarily charged with the professional domain without much regard to personal duties while women have expanded beyond stereotypical gender roles by leaving the home domain during standard work hours by attaining organizational employment in addition to maintaining the home domain.

Individual gendered earnings can play a huge role in determining family satisfaction rates among romantic relationships. The effects of male and female income can show how one spouse feels when the other partner in the relationship works outside the home. For women, many positive effects came out of acquiring their own income as wives were more likely to experience increased levels of personal and marital satisfaction as a result of monetary gains while her husband's degree of marital and personal happiness was not negatively affected as a result of his wife working outside the home (Rogers & Deboer, 2001). Some men even derived value out of his romantic interest working in business organizations as men's rates of family satisfaction were enhanced when his wife or girlfriend experienced positive emotions at work (Dunn & O'Brien, 2013). Thus if the female partner is happy within her organization, family time may avoid instances on stress and negative emotions culminating into a more fulfilling family experience for the male partner (Dunn & O'Brien, 2013). Women finding satisfaction in the workplace comes at a time when more women have entered the workforce than ever before and by 2018, the share of women in the labor force is anticipated to be 47% of all workers (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, & Wright, 2011; Hochschild & Machung, 2003).

Despite women actively working in organizations in greater numbers, men primarily are still socialized to believe that their main duty is to be the family breadwinner (Finsterbusch, 2014). Research related to individual earnings looked at instances in which wives made a higher level of income over their husbands. Women earning a higher annual salary challenge traditional gender roles of men working away from the home and women being in charge of raising children and doing domestic

duties. The worry behind wives earning more than their husbands is related to masculinity ideology in that breadwinning is associated with masculinity and when wives contribute equal or larger portions of the total family income, men may perceive themselves as being less of a partner (Rogers & Deboer, 2001). Thus men who perceive women earning more income may feel threatened in the relationship if he does not derive value in both partners working together to create a livable wage.

Husbands who prefer both spouses earning a yearly income are more likely to experience greater levels of relationship satisfaction than men who prefer traditional breadwinner concepts and for women, both working and traditional wives reported higher levels of personal happiness (Wilkie, Ferree, & Ratcliff, 1998). Levels of relationship satisfaction among women decreased when the wife was responsible for both working away from the home and for being primarily in charge of domestic duties especially if she does not find any value in bringing home income or taking care of the home (Wilkie, Ferree, & Ratcliff, 1998; Stevens, Kiger, & Riley, 2001). In addition to perceptions in income disparity, personal preferences as to division of both domestic and paid work significantly influence relationship satisfaction for both husbands and wives in that as long as a value system is in place for both partners where both spouses are happy, the more combined annual income leads to higher levels of relationship satisfaction (Wilkie, Ferree, & Ratcliff, 1998; Schoen, Astone, Rothert, Standish, & Kim, 2002).

It is also important to make a connection between individual income and masculinity. Masculinity comes in two forms: traditional which emphasizes stereotypical gender roles and nontraditional which prescribes less to those stereotypical

male and female duties (Coughlin & Wade, 2012). Coughlin and Wade (2012) found specifically that traditional masculinity would relate negatively whereas nontraditional masculinity would relate positively to romantic relationship quality. The stronger one's endorsement of traditional masculinity ideology, the more a man with this notion perceived the disparity in incomes as important thus income disparity significantly negatively correlated with the quality of his romantic relationship. However, the more a husband endorsed nontraditional masculinity ideology, the more he experienced high romantic relationship quality, and the more one perceived the disparity in incomes as not important (Coughlin & Wade, 2012).

Professional Satisfaction Factors: Burnout and Communications

Burnout is a psychological response to work stress where employees feel repeated occurrences of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced feelings of personal accomplishment (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). Wright and Hobfoll (2004) studied burnout and their findings, when studying human resource counselors, included negative relations among burnout as a result of emotional exhaustion and job performance in addition to burnout negatively affecting psychological well-being. More of their results linked psychological well-being to job performance in addition to burnout affecting organizational commitment amongst workers. As a result, all findings negatively related to organizational commitment. People who no longer perceived any value within their place of work had higher intentions of burnout. Here, direct onsite involvement within the organization led workers to experience negative associations with their place of employment. Burnout was also tested by Campbell, Perry, Maertz, Allen, and Griffeth (2013), in their study of social workers. Their findings indicated

perceived organizational support negatively related to emotional exhaustion and burnout. Furthermore, emotional exhaustion negatively related to organizational commitment in that as workers feel higher amounts of stress and fatigue from the jobs, their level of company loyalty decreased. Similarly, Campbell and colleagues (2013) found that perceived organizational support positively related to organizational commitment, with organizational commitment being positively related to turnover intentions, which ultimately led to turnover intentions being positively related to turnover behavior. Burnout was also studied in human service workers and what was discovered was that employees in this field felt that depersonalization not only led to lesser degrees of personal accomplishment but also found a positive relationship between depersonalization and emotional exhaustion (Snyder, 2012).

Burnout has been traditionally studied in professional environments but where burnout has been studied less is when work-related matters spillover into family time when employees are away from the office. Similarly, to the extent that work permeates into one's personal life, employees attempting to transfer from the worker role to the family role are hindered from fully participating in the personal domain (Bowsell, Olson-Buchanan, & Harris, 2014). The advancement of readily-available communication technologies makes it easier for employees to be connected to organizational matters even while at home (Wright, Abendschein, Wombacher, O'Connor, Hoffman, Dempsey, & Shelton, 2014). Modern technologies such as the Internet, cellular phones, iPhones, and other mobile communication devices have enabled employees the ability to communicate with their family members nearly anywhere at any time (Ilies, Wilson, & Wagner, 2009). The evolving communication

technologies have led to profound changes in organizations (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). Increasingly sophisticated and affordable technologies have made it more feasible for employees to stay connected to work. Communication technology has facilitated telecommuting where workers perform some or all of their work outside of a traditional office setting, yet this technology also provides employees in traditional work settings with a means to stay connected to the job while away from the office during non-work hours (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). Emerging technologies have offered advantages to employees and company leaders in terms of cost reduction and enhanced flexibility in completing work-related tasks but negative impacts relating to stress and burnout become prevalent (Wright et al., 2014). As employees begin to use communication technologies for workplace duties more frequently during their free time, this may contribute to an increase in work-life conflict in addition to decreased job satisfaction, stress, and burnout as employees feel they always need to be connected to their worker role even when they are away from the organization. Workers are increasingly responding to work-related emails, texts, calls, via smartphones during evenings away from the office, weekends, or when on vacation (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007).

Moreover, the use of electronic devices such as iPhones, Blackberries, laptops, and other communication technologies have led to increased communication between employees and employers, and has affected the quality of workers in their personal lives as the boundaries between work life and home life have become blurred (Wright et al., 2014; Perlow, 1998). In their survey of 168 employees spanning 30 companies, Wright and colleagues (2014) found that as the amount of time using communication

technologies for work tasks outside of regular office hours increased, work life conflict associated with mobile and electronic devices increased. Employees are thus working unpaid hours away from the organization in their own homes which can cut into time spent with family or personal time away from the business.

Advancements in communication technologies have enabled employees to be connected to work and family matters regardless of physical location, which has served to blur the boundaries between work and family domains (Wright et al., 2014; Park, Fritz, & Jex, 2011; Boswell & Olson-Buchanan 2007). Park, Fritz, and Jex (2011) found that employees who preferred a stronger segmentation of the work and family domains were able to experience greater separation of the work domain while at home. Employees who derived value in work and family segmentation found that communication technology use at home for work-related material negatively impacted separation of work and family roles (Park, Fritz & Jex, 2011). The blurring of boundaries can be problematic for certain workers but other employees derive value and delight from continuously being connected to the office via handheld and electronic devices (Siha & Monroe, 2006; Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). For these individuals, dealing with a work-related problem at night or on the weekend may be perceived as less of an intrusion into one's personal life than employees who feel that communication technology does not allow them to escape from work. Wright and colleagues (2014) found in their same study of workers that employees who perceived the usefulness of workplace communications after office hours did not find any violations of perceived work-life conflict via smart phones and other electronic devices. Increases in work-life conflict flourished as a result of spending extra time away from

the office for organizational matters via communication technologies (Wright et al., 2014). Employees who did not derive value from separating work matters in their private lives during hours spent at home resulted in decreased job satisfaction and their intentions of burnout had increased (Wright et al., 2014). Thus, for employees found in the study, work-life imbalance was found as a result of working increased hours as a result of continuous use of electronic devices which in turn keep employees tuned in for work-related matters while ignoring other areas of personal life involvement such as time spend with peoples' romantic interests.

Daily Crossings between Work and Family

Clark's Work-Family Border Theory explains how individuals manage and negotiate work roles and family environments and the borders between them to attain balance in both avenues (Clark, 2000). Pertinent to Work-Family Border Theory is the notion that both the work environment and the family domain are different spheres which influence each other (Clark, 2000). Clark (2000), describes work and home as two different countries where there are numerous differences, in both the home and work settings, including what is defined as acceptable behavior, how to accomplish daily procedures, and differences in communication. People are border-crossers who make daily transitions between the work and family roles often "tailoring their focus, goals, and their interpersonal style to fit the unique demands of each," (Clark, 2000, p. 751). People make transitions, sometimes multiple times per day and for some, the shift between the two roles is manageable and for others, the changeover is more extreme (Clark, 2000). Differences in the ease (or difficulty) of role transition depends on how

similar (or different) the transition between the worker and family mentality is for each person (Clark, 2000).

Whether a spouse or unmarried romantic partner arrives at work to perform organizational tasks and procedures, the individual becomes acclimated to the employee role. Upon conclusion of all organizational assignments, the employee shifts from the worker mentality to the family role. Workers then become husband/wife, boyfriend/girlfriend, parent, or some other familial role in addition to any combination of personal roles (i.e. spouse and parent). Individuals have the ability to shape in some aspects the nature of both the work and family spheres and the daily border crossings between each role to achieve some kind of balance. Clark, (2000) defines balance as “satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home, with a minimum of role conflict” (p. 751). Through research via studies of balancing her academic occupation along with her familial relationships, Clark researched and interviewed people with time-consuming work and family responsibilities and found that people through negotiation and communication were mainly proactive, rather than reactive, in the daily crossings between borders (Clark, 2000).

Work-Family Border Theory (or Border Theory as Clark abbreviates) consists of four central concepts including the work and home domains, the borders between both domains, the border-crosser, and the border-keepers (Clark, 2000). Work and home domains are the physical environments as seen at the workplace and in the household unit. Borders between both domains include various symbols or images that create influences or reminders of the other domain (Clark, 2000). At work, pictures of family

members and phone calls from the home constitute as borders between both domains.

At home, work brought to the house and phone calls from clients or business entities describes influences of the temporary minority role into the current majority role.

Border-crossers are simply the individual(s) who transition from worker to family member and vice-versa and the border-keepers are other primary individuals in each domain i.e. boss and coworkers in the employee role and spouse and/or children in the family environment. Having all four components influencing the individual altogether allows people to see how both domains, individually and together, influences their daily work and family environments.

Differences between work and home can be classified in different ways. Clark, (2000), as cited in Clark & Farmer (1998) describes a study of satisfactions being sustained separately but together in that independently, the worker role primarily satisfies the need to provide an income as well as provides a sense of accomplishment in doing well at work while the familial role successfully allows for close relationships and personal happiness. Here, two separate scenarios independently work together to provide satisfaction and happiness for the individual in both domains. Clark (2000), as cited in Nippert-Eng (1996), describes segmentation, regarding how people experience different intellectual and emotional approaches in the work and family domains as well as integration which involves no distinction regarding how an individual thinks and acts in both the family and organizational environments. Each individual must assess his/her situation and decipher whether integration, segmentation, or some combination of both is best as some people operate best when primarily separating both roles while others perform at optimum levels when both roles can oftentimes be satisfied using the thought

processes and actions. Regardless of the mixture of integration and segmentation, borders will be crossed at specific points spanning three different levels to shape the events of an individual's daily surroundings.

Borders come in the forms: physical, temporal and psychological (Clark, 2000).

Physical borders, such as walls of the office or home, define where domain-relevant actions occur, temporal borders divide the responsibilities of both work and family domains, while psychological borders are rules created by individuals that "dictate when thinking patterns, behavior patterns and emotions are appropriate for one domain but not the other," (Clark, 2000, p. 756.) Borders can be permeable in that elements from the second domain may enter into the current primary role (Clark, 2000).

Permeability can span any combination of the physical, temporal, and psychological borders and can be maintained in positive or negative regards. Clark describes a possibility, regarding spillover from one role to another that can positively or negatively impact the other role once that second role becomes the primary domain. Borders can also be flexible and in terms of work-life integration, flexibility in professional and personal roles describes this concept. Finally blending occurs when a near-equal mixture of permeability and flexibility is prevalent. The combination of permeability, flexibility, and blending creates the strength of the border where borders with little blending are considered strong while borders allowing some merger of borders is regarded as weak.

There are attributes and consequences to both instances of strength. Strong borders, typically not taking work-life integration into full account, allows for

individuals to excel in their careers while making balance between roles more difficult while the opposite occurs in weaker borders which emphasize work-life balance but career success and possible advancement are not likely as employers, must decide if work-life options work best in terms of productivity for the company and if deemed a liability, people who do not seek out integration are more likely to succeed in the organization (Clark, 2000). Border-crossers, and the combination of border strength associated, then calls for levels of influence and/or identity (Clark, 2000). Clark, (2000) states that influence gives individuals the power to negotiate and make changes to borders and is described when people in jobs with high autonomy and ability to make decisions are then shown to be more satisfied in both domains. Clark, (2000) also states identity as important in that people spend copious amounts of time in work and family domains which establishes the need to identify with both roles specifically deriving meaning and value to both roles and the responsibilities associated to each domain.

Duties associated with each domain occur not only from the personal standpoint but in conjunction with border-keepers i.e. central figures in the work and family roles. These spheres of influence constitute the boundaries of each domain and where the borders between each role are determined. Conflict can occur when the individual border-crosser and the border-keepers disagree on the permeability and flexibility of the domains (Clark, 2000). What happens is that border-keepers in both domains carefully dictate the rules and responsibilities each role possesses thus causing conflict for the role-crosser in that the individual has a difficult time in addressing the demands of the conflicting second role (Clark, 2000). Despite such hardships, key players in both the work and family roles need to establish commitment for the role-crosser in both

domains so as he or she can become a total person, one that is not bound by one primary role (Clark, 2000). Clark (2000), points out that a wide array of research has found supportiveness for the total person has increased a border-crosser's well-being.

Organizational Commitment for the Total Person

Companies, as emphasized by *Fortune*, have established a successful work-life enhancement concept and as a result, people can derive satisfaction among daily transitions between work and family roles which can lead to the individual achieving higher levels of life satisfaction. Various firms spanning a multitude of occupational lines maintain business practices that assist employees with specific needs spanning work-life balance, health and wellness, further educational attainment, and volunteerism.

Arnold & Porter, a law firm, provides onsite childcare services so employees can monitor their children throughout the day (Bourne et al., 2009). Flexible scheduling options were another practice highlighted in *Fortune* magazine. The Principal Financial Group allows employees to work part-time for up to 12 weeks per year, while maintaining full benefits and job security, to take care of personal matters; Baptist Health South Florida allows for working a reduced schedule for prolonged periods to take care of family members with special needs (Bourne et al., 2009). Health care in terms of medical services and efforts designed to improve employee physical and mental ability are also highlighted. Quad/Graphics offers onsite medical care for their employees in which 80% of the company's workforce utilizes those services (Bourne et al., 2009). The Container Store and Eileen Fisher, offers yoga classes to help with employee physical and mental health while SRA International provides rewards in the

form of cash and paid vacations for employees to improve their overall physical health and well-being (Bourne et al., 2009). Some organizations award their employees paid time away from the company for a wide array of reasons. Whole Foods Market maintains a program where for every two weeks worked, employees accrue hours that can be transformed into paid time away from work to explore other interests or take a break, Intel Corporation mandates that its employees, for every seven years worked, receive a fully-paid two months off of work, and The Four Seasons Hotels gives employees three free nights in their luxury hotels at any company property (Bourne et al., 2009). Companies also demonstrate care for their employee's educational attainment. A.G. Edwards will pay for up to 29 hours of job-related college courses for their workers while MITRE, offers up to \$20,000 as a tuition reimbursement for their employees and Google offers support for continuous occupational growth by taking work-related courses with a payback of up to \$150,000 for expenses (Bourne et al., 2009). Companies featured in *Fortune* showcase instances of their employees being actively engaged in volunteer efforts. Business and accounting firms, such as Deloitte and Touche as well as Ernst and Young, allows its employees to donate their skills and knowledge to organizations in the United States and across the world in order to make those companies more proficient in business knowledge to improve their financial figures while Timberland allows employees up to 40 hours per year of paid leave to participate in community service efforts (Bourne et al., 2009). Employees of these organizations were not the only business entity to receive quality benefits spanning from practices involving time and efforts away from the office, the organizations

themselves also profited not only financially but in matters of public perception and opinion (Bourne et al., 2009).

Bourne et al (2009), as cited in Levering, Moskowitz, Garcia, & Vell-Zarb (2010), describe benefits for the organization in terms of increased annual returns as companies on *Fortune's* "100 Best" list outperform the S&P 500 with a 3-year higher annualized stock returns by 12%, a 5-year return increase in annualized stock market return of 9%, and 10-year return increase by 4%. Companies featured in the magazine consistently have higher customer satisfaction ratings than other firms and are able to recruit and retain the best employees (Bourne et al., 2009). When companies are able to ensure that employees remain loyal to the organization, businesses lower their turnover rates. Companies that fail to retain their top talent can spend up to one-and-a-half times the departed employee's salary to replace a full-time worker (Bourne et al., 2009). Organizations, spanning a wide array of industries including technology, financial, medical, retail, transportation, and travel, who successfully demonstrate employee importance and loyalty reduce their turnover rates across the board by 10%-15% which are lower than industry averages and furthermore, voluntary turnover rates were cut in half (Bourne et al., 2009). Lower turnover rates saves the company thousands of dollars in terms of revenues earned and lost productivity resulting in a higher bottom-line for companies.

Work-Family Enrichment

The Work-Family Enrichment model was developed to advance research regarding work and family being "allies rather than enemies" (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 88). Resources are conceptualized as assets that are generated in one role that

can result in increased functioning in a second role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Dunn & O'Brien, 2013; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). Accumulated assets derived from the worker role can positively increase enrichment in the family role and vice-versa.

Resources include skills and perspectives, psychological and physical resources, social capital resources, flexibility, and material resources (Dunn & O'Brien, 2013). Skills and perspectives involve interpersonal skills, coping skills, and respecting individual differences; psychological and physical resources include self-efficacy, hardiness, and optimism (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). Social capital resources refer to networking with others and collection of information while flexibility involves manageable work arrangements and material resources include money and other financial gifts (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda 2010).

Greenhaus and Powell (2006), proposed two pathways by which work and family may augment one another; first is the instrumental pathway where resources are transferred directly from the worker role to the family role and vice-versa, and the affective pathway where resources from the work or family role indirectly influence family performance through high performance or positive affect. Actions occurring in the instrumental pathway include resources being acquired or developed in role A which correlates to a high performance in Role A which then leads to high performance and positive affect in Role B. The affective pathway includes skill sets developed in Role A resulting in a positive effect in Role A which then leads to high performance and positive affect in Role B (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Carlson, Zivnuska, Kacmar, Ferguson, & Whitten (2011).

Work-Family Enrichment provides an extension based on the works of other theorists (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010; Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Marks 1977; Sieber 1974). Role accumulation was developed to explain why people may choose to participate in multiple roles and what was found was that people earn various rewards including greater role privileges, lower strain in one role resulting from a buffering effect in other roles, greater status enhancement, and personality enrichment in the form of greater flexibility and more tolerance of discrepancies by immersing themselves in multiple domains (Sieber, 1974; McNall et al., 2010). Mark's (1977) expansionist approach state that some roles may produce a positive affect for another role by means of increased energy occurring through acquisition of resources which help people manage work and family demands more successfully (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). In this study, Work-Family Enrichment will be used in conjunction with Work-Family Border Theory with the goal being enhancement between the daily crossings people experience as they transition from the family role to the worker role and from the worker domain back to the family domain. The following predictions have been made utilizing concepts of Work-Family Enrichment while fully using Work-Family Border Theory.

Proposed Study

In summation, the literature review has established that both men and women have evolved from the traditional gender roles that have men in the provider role in charge of paid work away from the home and women primarily in the nurturer role where duties are bound to the household. Family satisfaction will be derived from the value men and women place on their paid and unpaid responsibilities in addition to how

their spouse or romantic partner values those same duties. As a result, a major hypothesis of the proposed study is that, *personal satisfaction will be positively related to life satisfaction*. Derived value is also applied to professional settings when related to communication usage that keeps workers engaged in organizational matters after work hours specifically people who do not find value in being continuously linked into business communications while at home will have lower levels of perceived organizational support. Diminished quantities of perceived organizational support will also be negatively affected by organizational burnout which has been applied to several human services fields. Thus, another major hypothesis of the proposed study is that, *professional satisfaction will have a positive relationship with life satisfaction*. Work satisfaction and family satisfaction have a transactional relationship with one another; thereby influencing life satisfaction separately as well as in a cumulative nature. Though supplemental in nature, the following sub-hypotheses have been predicted regarding professional and personal satisfaction:

H₁: Respondent's positive indications of perceived organizational support are positively related with professional satisfaction. Respondent's negative indications of perceived organizational support are negatively associated with perceived organizational support.

H₂: Respondent's levels of burnout are negatively associated with professional satisfaction.

H₃: Respondent's time spent on work-related communication technology at home is negatively associated with personal satisfaction assuming the employee does not derive value from working at home after hours.

H₄: Respondent's thoughts on gender norms will be associated with personal satisfaction.

H₅: Dedication of the family role from parties in the worker role will have a positive impact on the individual.

H₆: Dedication of the worker role from parties in the family role will have a positive impact on the individual.

H₇: Support from a key player in an individual's domain will have a positive effect on the individual's position in the same domain.

The purpose of this research is to identify the professional and personal factors that positively or negatively affect individual life satisfaction within business and private settings. This study will explore a correlation between the amount of satisfaction people derive at work and how this affects their life away from the organization as well as exploring how time spent at home can affect a worker's role within the business. This study will allow business leaders to determine how effective they are in matters dealing with organizational support for employees. Companies will also gain insight into how businesses try to keep their employees connected to organizational matters away from the office and how those employees feel about being linked in to professional matters while at home. The potential results of this study will also allow businesses to develop strategies and implement possible new policies dedicated to the reduction of emotional exhaustion which can lead to burnout and voluntary employee turnover.

An equal aspect of this study is dedicated to the private lives of people as they transition from the worker role into the partner role. This study will evaluate issues related to individual sources of income and household duties that men and women face together in their private lives and how dealing with those issues can enhance or diminish the happiness of that relationship. The results of the second aspect of the study seeks to identify potential stressors in relationships, as described by gender norms, in order to determine ways to strengthen the partnership while preventing hostilities and possible dissolution of the relationship resulting from responsibilities related to perceived or actual forms of gendered behavior.

Methods

Study participants included male and female graduate-level students and faculty at one southwestern United States university spanning three sites. The proposed study was conducted through Qualtrics and was distributed through university email in the form of an online questionnaire. A link leading to the survey was attached to the solicitation and allowed the respondents at that point to answer the questions. A total of 88 questions spanning perceived organizational commitment (POS), burnout, use of portable communication devices after work hours, personal responsibilities, enrichment, and overall life satisfaction were asked of respondents.

Participants

Participants from the main campus and the two satellite campuses were selected from working students, faculty, and staff who are employed by the universities or through other companies which was determined by survey respondents when stating their place of employment in the demographic portion of the questionnaire. A total of

261 university-affiliated people participated in the survey with 226 of those surveys being completed (87%). Participants were assured of their anonymity of their responses as well as their confidentiality in taking part of this survey. Participants were not harmed in any way through the conduction of this research. Survey respondents had the option to withdrawal, without threat of penalty or retaliation, from the study at any point in time in the duration of the questionnaire, as links were on every page of the survey asking respondents if they wished to continue with the survey.

The total study sample was comprised of 75% women and 25% men. Male and female employees stated whether they worked for the university or in occupational fields outside of the university with 48% of the sample working for the university and 52% of participants working elsewhere. Workers currently employed, whether full-time or part time, accounted for 90% of the sample with 60% containing full-time employees and 30% working part-time. The remaining 10% of workers were not employed, retired, or disabled with 5% not employed looking for work, 4% were not employed not looking for work, and 1% retired. In terms of work duration, 30% of currently employed workers had worked for less than one year, 45% of employees had worked 1-5 years, 9% had worked 6-10 years, 3% of currently employed workers for 11-15 years, 2% for 16-20 years, and 3% working for over 20 years.

Respondents ranged in age from 18-25 through over 66 years with 20% being under 25 years of age, 25% being 26-30 years of age, 29% of respondents being 31-40, 15% ranging from 41-50 years of age, 9% of participants being 51-60 years of age, and 2% of the sample being over 66 years of age. In terms of race, 71% of the participants were Caucasian, 9% were African-American, 9% were Hispanic, 5% were Native

American, 2% were Asian, 2% were Middle-Eastern, 1% were Pacific Islander, and 2% of the sample contained people of other cultural backgrounds. The entire sample had at least a Bachelor's Degree as their highest level of degree achieved but 41% of the sample had obtained a Master's Degree while 7% had acquired a Ph.D. or Doctoral Degree as their highest level of educational achievement. Respondents were also asked of their relationship status. Fifteen percent of the sample reported they were single at the time of the survey research while 7% of the respondents stated they were divorced. Participants who stated they were currently dating or married were asked to specify the duration of their relationship. Ongoing relationships ranged from less than one year up to over 26 years with 4% stating their relationship was under one year, 25% reporting 1-5 years, 23% stating 6-10 years, 9% for 11-15 years, 5% for 16-20 years, 7% for 21-25 years, and 5% for people in relationships spanning beyond 26 years.

Measures

Demographic Questions. Questions relating to respondent gender, race, age, relationship duration, educational achievement, employment status, employment worksite, and worker duration were addressed as the first questions asked in the survey. Respondents will answer eight questions related to demographic characteristics (see Appendix A).

Perceived Organizational Support (POS). Measures relating to perceived organizational support included actual observances of specific issues as covered by a condensed questionnaire. The original perceived organizational support scale contained 36 questions but 15 measures regarding involuntary turnover were omitted. The original analysis resulted in a Cronbach's alpha of .97. Twenty-two questions were asked of

respondents of positive and negative observances of perceived organizational support businesses utilized in workplace commitment to their employees (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa 1986). Twelve questions asked respondents of positive practices of perceived organizational support while ten questions asked respondents of negative occurrences of perceived organizational support (see Appendix B and Appendix C).

Maslach Burnout Inventory. Burnout was measured by a condensed survey of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* consisting of an abridged version of the survey utilizing just the emotional exhaustion part of the survey (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Internal consistency was estimated by Cronbach's coefficient alpha, which yielded reliability coefficients of 0.83 (frequency) and 0.84 (intensity) for the 25-item scale. The reliability coefficients for the Emotional Exhaustion subscales were 0.89 (frequency) and 0.86 (intensity). Nine questions were asked of respondents about actual burnout observances they may have experienced in their occupations (see Appendix D).

Communication Technology. Questions regarding communication technologies were modified from a study looking at cognitive-based work-nonwork conflict (Ezzedeen & Swiercz, 2007). Their scale of six questions involving social dimensions were changed in order to measure the effect of communications involving work after hours on the personal lives of respondents. Internal consistency was estimated with Cronbach alpha. Internal consistency reliability of the original Factor 1 questions, containing social dimension questions, was .88. One additional question, separate from the Ezzedeen & Swiercz (2007) scale, was created by the researcher and his leading professor. Seven total Likert-Scale questions were asked of respondents regarding how

the use of communication devices at home affects the quality of personal relationships (see Appendix E).

Gender Norms. The Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ) was the primary scale measuring gender norms (Baber & Tucker, 2006). The original scale included 13 items, of which eight were used, with an original Cronbach's alpha of .71. Gender norms were also measured by using the Gender-Equitable Men (GEM) scale (Pulerwitz & Barker, 2007). The original scale included 24 items measuring inequitable gender norms and equitable gender norms but many questions addressed areas not discussed in the study, the survey was modified to include only two questions from the original survey, one spanning inequitable gender norms and the other asking about equitable gender norms. The original internal consistency reliability was ascertained using Cronbach's alpha. Their two factors, inequitable gender norms and equitable gender norms, achieved alphas of .85 and .77, respectively. Pampel (2011) also measured gender norms. Two questions of the four original scale questions were addressed. An Alpha reliability of .71, in these measures, was determined. Two additional questions were created by the researcher and his leading professor regarding financial and spousal support. Fourteen total Likert-Scale questions, were addressed covering male and female perceptions of equitable and stereotyped gender roles and responsibilities (see Appendix F).

Enrichment. Levels of enrichment were measured by a short questionnaire of work-family enrichment questions (Kacmar, Crawford, Carlson, Ferguson, & Whitten, 2014). This scale measures both Work-Family Enrichment (WFE) and Family-Work Enrichment (FWE), with nine items for each of these directions. Cronbach's alphas for WFE and FWE were .94 and .95, respectively. Eighteen Likert-Scale questions will be

covered exploring how work and family affect the opposing role. The first nine questions asked respondents how workplace involvement affects the life of the worker in their personal life while the second nine questions inquired how decisions made at home can affect decisions made while at work (see Appendix G & Appendix H).

Life Satisfaction. The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) was the primary scale measuring life satisfaction (Diener, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). The original scale consisted of five items inquiring as to how respondents felt about general satisfaction. For this study, life Satisfaction was measured by a modified version of the SWLS to include specific measures of life satisfaction to both the work and family domains. The original coefficient for the SWLS was .77. Ten Likert Scale questions, five pertaining to work satisfaction and five relating to family satisfaction were covered asking survey respondents about their total satisfaction of the work and family spheres (see Appendix I).

Results

The survey data was entered into SPSS 22 for statistical analysis. Descriptive findings for measurement scales are presented in Table 1. All items were measured on a seven-item Likert Scale with 1 meaning “Strongly Disagree,” 2 being “Disagree,” 3 meaning “Slightly Disagree,” 4 being “Neither Agree nor Disagree,” 5 meaning “Slightly Agree,” 6 being “Agree,” and 7 meaning “Strongly Agree.”

Table 1: *Descriptive Statistics of Measurement Scales.*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Positive POS	227	4.00	84.00	59.29	16.59
Negative POS	223	5.00	70.00	47.58	15.72
Burnout	217	10.00	63.00	42.06	12.80
Communications	215	7.00	49.00	33.80	11.09
Responsibilities	210	36.00	84.00	70.90	11.03
WFE	205	9.00	63.00	45.00	12.38
FWE	204	9.00	63.00	49.54	9.36
Financial Support	210	1.00	7.00	6.28	1.16
Spousal Support	210	1.00	7.00	6.40	1.16
Work Satisfaction	204	4.00	28.00	16.35	6.77
Family Satisfaction	204	4.00	28.00	20.19	6.32
Life Satisfaction	204	2.00	14.00	9.86	2.70
Total Satisfaction	204	8.00	56.00	36.54	10.34

Note: a POS Perceived Organizational Support

Note: b WFE Work-Family Enrichment

Note: c FWE Family-Work Enrichment

Positive perceived organizational support contained 12 questions. A score of 84 indicates the highest level of positive workplace practices. Negative perceived organizational support was recoded so that a maximum score of 70 indicates workers do not have any occurrences of negative workplace practices in their office environment. A perfect score of 63 for the recoded burnout indicates the removal of any emotional exhaustion and stress indicators in the organization. A maximum score of 49 indicates that communication technologies have no negative interference on professional or personal satisfaction. A maximum score of 84 for responsibilities relates to complete personal satisfaction levels among household leaders. A top score of 63 for both enrichment factors correlates to a situation where work and family influence each other to the most positive degree. A top score of seven on financial support indicates that respondents do not find any problems at all regarding which romantic partner earns a higher annual income. A top score of seven on spousal support means that respondents have achieved the highest degree of trust and support within the family domain. A maximum score of 35 on work (professional) and family (personal) satisfaction means the recipient has zero issues in those domains. A maximum score of 14 on life satisfaction means the respondent has achieved full satisfaction in the organizational and familial domains.

Initial correlations were run to determine interrelationships among variables of interest. The correlation matrix for each of the variables appears in Table 2. Main Hypotheses in addition to supplemental predictions were each tested with correlations. Linear Regression analyses were then used to examine predicted relationships among hypotheses. Negative perceived organizational support, burnout, and communication

technologies were recoded so as to remain consistent with positive scoring. Missing data were excluded through the pairwise function in SPSS. Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were used to focus on how demographic variables influenced individual statements related to both directions of perceived organizational support, burnout, communication technologies, personal responsibilities, enrichment, supportive indications, and life satisfaction.

Table 2: Correlation Matrix for all Variables.

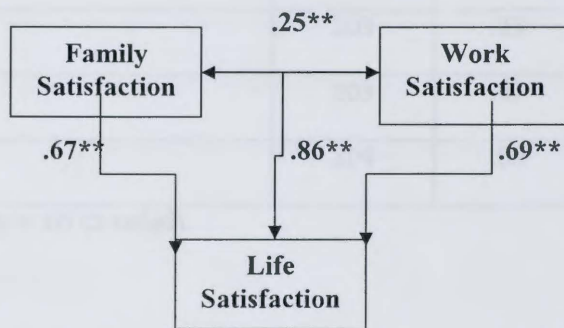
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Positive POS	-												
2. Negative POS	.77**	-											
3. Burnout	.47**	.64**	-										
4. Communications	.27**	.28**	.44**	-									
5. Responsibilities	.03	.01	.00	.06	-								
6. WFE	.29**	.40**	.45**	.16*	.01	-							
7. FWE	-.05	-.04	-.05	-.13	.07	.31**	-						
8. Financial Support	-.00	-.00	-.10	-.04	.01	-.14*	-.04	-					
9. Spousal Support	-.03	-.08	-.20**	-.05	.01	.01	.10	.31**	-				
10. Work Satisfaction	.50**	.64**	.60**	.25**	-.02	.69**	.17*	-.11	-.07	-			
11. Family Satisfaction	.01	.03	.14	.16*	.09	.25**	.42**	-.09	.03	.25**	-		
12. Life Satisfaction	.35**	.40**	.48**	.26**	.06	.50**	.28**	-.15*	-.02	.69**	.68**	-	
13. Total Satisfaction	.33**	.44**	.48**	.26**	.05	.60**	.36**	-.13	-.03	.81**	.77*	.86**	-

Note: **p < .01, * p < .05 (2-tailed).

Main Hypotheses

The study's main hypotheses stated that professional satisfaction will positively predict one's life satisfaction and that personal satisfaction will also have a positive prediction with life satisfaction. Additionally, work and family satisfaction combined were predicted to have a positive impact on individual life satisfaction. Furthermore, work and family satisfaction were positively predicted to influence one another. This prediction was fully supported (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. *Bojarski-Bert Model of Total Satisfaction*



Initial Pearson r correlations were conducted to assess the relationship between work satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction amongst each other (see Table 2). Before the specific main findings were conducted, regressions of individual predictor variables were tested on life satisfaction (see Table 3). Negative occurrences of perceived organizational support, burnout, communication technologies, and certain personal responsibility questions were recoded so as all means and standard deviations were measuring in the same direction. The relationship between work and family

satisfaction were conducted by a linear regression with the results stating that both family and work domains were predictive of each other, $R^2 = .06$, $\beta = .25$, $p < .01$. As either professional or personal satisfaction increased, the second domain increased.

Table 3: *Regression of Professional & Personal Factors by Life Satisfaction.*

Predictor Variables	Outcome: Life Satisfaction		
	N	R^2	B
Positive POS	204	.12	.35**
Negative POS	203	.16	.40**
Burnout	203	.23	.48**
Communications	203	.07	.26**
Responsibilities	204	.00	.06

Note: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$ (2-tailed).

Table 4: *Regression of Individual & Combined Satisfaction by Life Satisfaction.*

Predictor Variables	Outcome: Life Satisfaction		
	N	R^2	β
Work Satisfaction	204	.47	.69**
Family Satisfaction	204	.45	.67**
Total Satisfaction	204	.74	.86**

Note: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$ (2-tailed).

The relationship between work satisfaction on life satisfaction were conducted by a linear regression with the results stating that positive conditions of one's professional experience significantly predicts life satisfaction (see Table 4). The relationship family satisfaction had on life satisfaction was also proven statistically significant (see Table 4). Finally, when work and family satisfaction were combined, total satisfaction had a significant relationship on life satisfaction in that many of the personal and professional factors had a profound effect on survey respondents' total current life satisfaction. Work satisfaction accounted for 69% of the variance in total life satisfaction while family satisfaction accounted for 67% of the variance in total life satisfaction. Combined work and family satisfaction accounted for 86% of the variance in total life satisfaction. Participants felt that their individual total life satisfaction was predicted by present levels of work satisfaction, family satisfaction, and by a combined effect of both domains.

Supporting Hypotheses

The first supporting hypothesis stated that positive levels of perceived organizational support were related to overall work satisfaction. A Pearson r correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between the levels of perceived organizational support employees have in the organization with their rating of work satisfaction. This was performed twice as a second set of questions measured negative indications of perceived organizational support that were recoded. There was a statistically significant relationship between the first two sets of variables, $r = .50$, $n = 204$, $p < .01$. Increases in perceived organizational support were correlated with increases in work satisfaction. There was also a statistically significant relationship

between the second set of variables, $r = .64$, $N = 203$, $p < .01$. Work satisfaction increased as negative practices of perceived organizational support decreased. To determine if causation can be inferred from correlation, two Linear Regression analyses were conducted accounting for both directions of perceived organizational support. The first regression analysis revealed that positive notions of perceived organizational support caused workers to have higher levels of professional satisfaction, $R^2 = .25$, $\beta = .50$, $p < .01$. The second regression analysis, recoded, revealed that workplace satisfaction is also caused by decreases in negative practices of perceived organizational support, $R^2 = .42$, $\beta = .64$, $p < .01$.

The second hypothesis stated that levels of employee burnout relate negatively to work satisfaction. A Pearson r correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between employee burnout with their rating of work satisfaction. There was a statistically significant correlation between the variable set, $r = .60$, $N = 203$, $p < .01$. Overall there was a strong positive relationship indicating a correlation between increasing levels of burnout among employees related to decreasing levels of work satisfaction. A linear regression analysis, revealed that organizations that decrease employee burnout factors causes an increase in the professional satisfaction of employees, $R^2 = .36$, $\beta = .60$, $p < .01$.

The third hypothesis stated that the amount of time employees spend on work-related communication technologies while at home related negatively to work and family satisfaction. Two separate Pearson r correlation coefficients were computed to assess the relationship between communication technologies and levels of professional and personal satisfaction. There was a statistically significant negative correlation

between the communication technology and professional satisfaction, $r = .25$, $N = 203$, $p < .01$. As employees remained linked into their computers, smartphones, or emails for work-related matters for longer periods of time, their levels of workplace satisfaction decreased. There was also a statistically significant negative relationship between communication technology and personal satisfaction, $r = .16$, $N = 203$, $p < .05$. Employees increased time spent at home on work-related matters through advanced technologies was correlated with decreases in their personal satisfaction levels. Two linear analyses were conducted accounting for the effect of communication technology on both professional and personal satisfaction as this is the linking variable between the family and business domains. The first regression analysis revealed that limiting the time employees spend at home on communication devices for office matters increases professional satisfaction, $R^2 = .06$, $\beta = .25$, $p < .001$. The second regression analysis revealed that limiting the time employees spend at home on communication devices for office matters increases personal satisfaction, $R^2 = .03$, $\beta = .16$, $p < .05$.

The fourth hypothesis stated there would be an association between personal responsibilities and family satisfaction. A Pearson r correlation coefficient was conducted to assess the relationship between household duties and perceptions with family satisfaction. This hypothesis was not supported, $r = -.02$, $N = 203$, $p = n.s.$

The fifth and sixth hypotheses explored the relationship between Work-Family Enrichment (WFE) and Family-Work Enrichment (FWE). Furthermore, the fifth hypothesis predicted that increases in WFE would also cause increases in FWE. A Pearson r correlation coefficient was conducted to assess the relationship between these two variables. A statistically significant moderate correlation between WFE and FWE

was determined, $r = .31$, $N = 204$, $p < .01$. Increases in the support people received in one domain, correlated with increased feelings of support in the second domain. A single regression analysis revealed that positive workplace practices spilled over into the family domain resulting in positive outcomes related to personal satisfaction, $R^2 = .10$, $\beta = .31$, $p < .01$, supporting H₅. A second single regression analysis revealed that positive occurrences in the familial domain spilled over into an employee's professional environment, $R^2 = .10$, $\beta = .31$, $p < .01$, supporting H₆. Further testing of enrichment on work, family, and life satisfaction were conducted to determine predictions among the variables. Multiple single regression analyses revealed that WFE led to increased levels of work satisfaction, $R^2 = .47$, $\beta = .69$, $p < .01$, family satisfaction, $R^2 = .06$, $\beta = .25$, $p < .01$, and life satisfaction $R^2 = .25$, $\beta = .50$, $p < .01$ while FWE led to increased levels of work satisfaction, $R^2 = .03$, $\beta = .17$, $p < .05$, family satisfaction, $R^2 = .17$, $\beta = .42$, $p < .01$, and life satisfaction, $R^2 = .08$, $\beta = .28$, $p < .01$. In short, Work-Family Enrichment (WFE) accounted for 47% of the variance in work satisfaction, 6% of the variance in family satisfaction, and 25% of the variance in life satisfaction. Family-Work Enrichment (FWE) accounted for 3% of the variance for work satisfaction, 17% of the variance for family satisfaction, and 8% of the variance for life satisfaction.

The seventh hypothesis stated that support from someone in the family role will have a positive impact on that person in that same role. A Pearson r correlation coefficient was conducted to assess the relationship between supporting characteristics. A statistically significant correlation was found between key financial support and positive personal support, $r = .31$, $N = 210$, $p < .01$. A single regression analysis

revealed that positive support in one key facet resulted in positive outcomes related to the second support variable, $R^2 = .09$, $\beta = .31$, $p < .01$.

Supplemental Analyses

Though personal satisfaction in terms of totality did not prove significant, individual occurrences of personal responsibilities were influenced from certain demographic variables. An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to check for statistical significance difference within items related to personal responsibilities as a function of demographic grouping variables. In particular, gender, race, and employment status were found to be the most significant predictors of outcomes.

Gender and Personal Responsibility items. Gender was found as a significant predictor of outcomes specifically on seven of the 12 items related to personal responsibilities. In all seven questions, both men and women agreed on the direction of the relationship between gender and each individual personal responsibility question but women reported higher degrees of positive or negative direction in all seven statistically significant statements as determined by the total mean of answers.

Regarding instances involving negative direction, women ($M = 1.73$, $SD = 1.22$) reported a higher degree of disagreement than men ($M = 2.50$, $SD = 1.68$) regarding males solely being responsible for making the final decision related to household decisions ($F_{(1, 206)} = 12.16$, $p < .001$). Women ($M = 1.99$, $SD = 1.40$) also stated a higher degree of disagreement than men ($M = 2.65$, $SD = 1.64$) related to standard provider and nurturer roles calling for wives and/or mothers to stay at home and raise the family while men leave the home to go to work ($F_{(1, 207)} = 7.52$, $p < .01$). Women ($M = 2.17$, $SD = 1.52$) more than men ($M = 2.96$, $SD = 2.09$) also opposed the notion of certain

work-related fields being better for one gender over another ($F_{(1, 206)} = 8.29, p < .001$). Regarding positive practices of personal responsibilities, women ($M = 6.49, SD = 1.03$) compared with men ($M = 5.83, SD = 1.67$) felt more strongly about tasks not needing to be assigned due to gender ($F_{(1, 206)} = 10.90, p < .001$). Statistically significant results were found among comparisons of working mothers and stay-at-home mothers. Women ($M = 5.93, SD = 1.49$) reported a higher degree of agreement than men ($M = 4.85, SD = 1.95$) that women who worked could maintain just as secure and nurturing of a relationship to that as mothers who choose unpaid labor in terms of raising a family ($F_{(1, 206)} = 16.42, p < .001$). Finally, societal notions of gendered roles also proved statistically significant among two areas. First, more women ($M = 6.47, SD = 1.03$) than men ($M = 5.77, SD = 1.88$) felt more strongly that individuals should be treated the same for who they are as people and not because of their anatomy ($F_{(1, 207)} = 11.05, p < .001$). Lastly, more women ($M = 6.35, SD = 1.10$) than men ($M = 5.58, SD = 1.66$) felt more of a desire for society to focus more on the individual strengths of people rather than their strengths corresponding with gender ($F_{(1, 205)} = 13.97, p < .001$).

Gender and Perceived Organizational Support items. Gender was also found as a significant predictor of negative practices of organizational commitment and burnout. Male workers ($M = 3.04, SD = 1.79$) disagreed to a lesser degree than female employees ($M = 3.71, SD = 2.05$) that their place of employment provides them little possibility for upward mobility ($F_{(1, 218)} = 4.61, p < .05$). Thus men were given more of a possibility to advance in the organization than compared to women. Similarly, fewer men ($M = 2.08, SD = 1.48$) than women ($M = 2.61, SD = 1.68$) felt less emotional exhaustion in their

jobs ($F_{(1, 213)} = 3.96, p < .05$). While women reported low levels of burnout, they still experienced higher rates of burnout tendencies as compared to men.

Gender and Enrichment items. Gender was also predictive of individual statements related to WFE & FWE. Both males and females reported positive results regarding the impact related to work-on-family and family-on-work domains, but women responded more positively than men in measures relating to positive workplace experiences translating to positive relationships within the family. In particular, involvement in organizational practices helped women ($M = 5.29, SD = 1.46$) more than men ($M = 4.46, SD = 1.59$) to be better family members ($F_{(1, 202)} = 11.14, p < 0.001$). Women's enhanced knowledge gained in the workplace also assisted women ($M = 5.32, SD = 1.39$) more than men ($M = 4.46, SD = 1.71$) in their familial roles ($F_{(1, 202)} = 12.22, p < 0.001$). Women also reported to a higher degree that organizational skill acquisition also helped women ($M = 5.32, SD = 1.38$) more than men ($M = 4.52, SD = 1.68$) become better family members ($F_{(1, 202)} = 10.79, p < 0.001$). Finally, women ($M = 5.49, SD = 1.46$) compared to men ($M = 4.93, SD = 1.69$) felt higher amounts of professional success which provided positive spillover into the family domain ($F_{(1, 202)} = 4.84, p < 0.05$). As positive professional practices positively enriched time spent in the personal domain, family enrichment positively affected workplace occurrences but to a lesser degree. Women's involvement with their families allowed for household knowledge to be expanded into organizational matters resulting in more women ($M = 5.61, SD = 1.25$) than men ($M = 5.09, SD = 1.41$) feel a sense of improvement in their individual occupations ($F_{(1, 200)} = 5.85, p < 0.01$).

Age and Communication Technology items. Age was also found as a significant predictor of outcomes; post-hoc analyses using the Bonferroni procedure was used to determine which age categories differed in their means scores on specific outcomes. In terms of communication technologies, certain age groups felt as though their place of employment did not link work-related material after the conclusion of standard business hours while workers were at home resulting in the employee feeling he/she had more time for activities outside of work ($F_{(6, 208)} = 2.46, p < .05$). Post-hoc analyses were not able to be computed due to only one person within the age group of 61-65.

Correspondingly, family and friends of the workers were not impacted as a result of employment locations not mandating employees stay continually linked to business matters while at home thus allowing workers adequate time to spend with family and friends ($F_{(6, 207)} = 2.97, p < .01$). Post-hoc analyses were not able to be computed due to only one person within the age group of 61-65.

Race and Personal Responsibility items. Race was found as a significant predictor of outcomes; post-hoc analyses using the Bonferroni procedure was used to determine which racial categories differed in their means scores on specific outcomes. In terms of personal responsibilities, certain races believed that only certain types of duty were appropriate for both men and women ($F_{(7, 200)} = 4.45, p < 0.01$). Specially, the mean score for Asian respondents ($M = 5.00, SD = 1.88$) was significantly larger than Caucasians ($M = 2.20, SD = 1.55$) and Hispanics ($M = 2.00, SD = 1.51$). Asian respondents felt that only some work attributes could be performed by both men and women compared to Caucasians and Hispanics who felt less desire to separate tasks by gender. Corresponding with separation of work tasks, significant results were found

among the importance placed on specific jobs being performed by men instead of women ($F_{(7, 200)} = 4.46, p < 0.001$). Specifically, the mean score for Asian respondents ($M = 3.75, SD = 2.22$) was significantly larger than Hispanics ($M = 1.27, SD = 0.59$), African-Americans ($M = 1.33, SD = 0.80$), and Caucasians ($M = 1.61, SD = 1.09$). Asians disagreed with the idea of occupational importance influenced by gender, but Hispanics, African-Americans, and Caucasians significantly opposed the notion of gendered job importance by a far greater degree. Statistical significance between race and levels of aggression and/or nurturing were established ($F_{(7, 201)} = 2.19, p < 0.05$). Race was also a significant predictor of whether motherhood should be the primary factor in how children are raised ($F_{(7, 201)} = 2.17, p < 0.05$) however Bonferoni post-hoc analyses could not determine where the significant differences were located. Race was a significant predictor in the degree of how an occupation would help its employees perform specific job tasks to the best of their ability ($F_{(7, 213)} = 2.17, p < 0.05$) however the significance between races was not found significant.

Relationship duration and Life Satisfaction items. Relationship duration was found as a significant predictor of outcomes; post-hoc analyses using the Bonferroni procedure was used to determine which years of romantic relationship differed in their means scores on specific outcomes. People with various years of romantic relationship durations felt their work life ($F_{(8, 195)} = 2.23, p < .05$) and their family life ($F_{(8, 195)} = 2.37, p < .05$) were close to respondent's ideal. Men and women in romantic relationships of different durations also felt the positively about the conditions of their family life ($F_{(8, 195)} = 2.01, p < .05$). People in relationships also reported having attained important features within their familial lives ($F_{(8, 193)} = 2.75, p < .01$). Finally, men and

women who were in committed relationships felt satisfied with their family lives ($F_{(8, 195)} = 2.27, p < .05$). However, the Bonferroni procedure could not determine where any of the significances were located for any of these findings.

Work duration and Perceived Organizational Support items. Work duration was found as a significant predictor of outcomes; post-hoc analyses using the Bonferroni procedure was used to determine which years of organizational experience differed in their means scores on specific outcomes. People with different intervals of work experience felt that their supervisors were more proud of their involvement within the organization ($F_{(7, 214)} = 3.31, p < .01$). Specifically, the mean score for people with 1-5 years of occupational experience ($M = 5.71, SD = 1.32$) was significantly larger than people who had 6-10 years of work experience ($M = 4.48, SD = 1.54$). In addition, people with differing years of professional experience felt as though the organization was more likely to ignore worker complaints ($F_{(7, 214)} = 2.20, p < 0.05$). Specifically, the mean score for people who were no longer in the workforce ($M = 4.23, SD = 1.64$) was significantly larger than that of people new to the organization with less than one year of experience ($M = 2.63, SD = 1.43$). Organizations were more likely to address the issues of employees most recently hired than they were to other employees no longer with certain companies. People with different years of work experience felt that their place of employment would disregard the best interests of the individual workers regarding decisions that would affect them while at work ($F_{(7, 210)} = 2.23, p < .05$). Specifically, the mean score for people who chose, either voluntarily or involuntarily, to leave their place of employment ($M = 4.33, SD = 1.37$) was significantly larger than that of people with less than one year work experience in their employment ($M = 2.65, SD =$

1.47). People newest to the work force, felt less likely that the organization would make decisions that would negatively affect their professional happiness. Furthermore, people with different years of occupational experience felt that their place of employment would take advantage of them ($F_{(7, 212)} = 2.84, p < .01$). However, the Bonferroni procedure could not determine where the significant difference was located.

Work duration and Burnout items. Work duration was found as a significant predictor of burnout; post-hoc analyses using the Bonferroni procedure was used to determine which years of organizational experience differed in their means scores on specific outcomes. People with different years of workplace experience felt as though they were completely burned out in their office duties ($F_{(7, 206)} = 2.69, p < .05$). Specifically, the mean score for people no longer in the organization ($M = 4.58, SD = 1.73$) was significantly larger than that of people who have been with their place of employment for less than a year ($M = 2.68, SD = 1.93$). People who left their place of work had experienced higher degrees of burnout and emotional exhaustion compared to employees newest to organizations. Correspondingly, people with various levels of work experience also felt like they were working too hard in their place of employment ($F_{(7, 206)} = 3.15, p < .01$). Specifically, the mean score for people no longer in the workforce ($M = 4.92, SD = 1.62$) was significantly larger than those newest to their place of employment ($M = 2.94, SD = 1.74$). People either terminated or who chose to voluntarily leave the organization felt like their work was too much for them compared to people who were newest to their companies. The belief that individuals have stayed with their place of employment long enough due to reasons of emotional exhaustion was different for people with various years of occupational experience ($F_{(7, 207)} = 2.17, p$

< .05). Specifically, those no longer with a company ($M = 4.00, SD = 1.71$) was significantly larger than those with less than a year of work experience for a specific worksite ($M = 2.21, SD = 1.59$). People newest to organizations did not consider notions of employment voluntary termination in their place of employment.

Work duration and Life Satisfaction items. Work duration was also found as a significant predictor of life satisfaction outcomes; post-hoc analyses using the Bonferroni procedure was used to determine which years of organizational experience differed in their means scores on specific outcomes. People who were no longer employed for any reason reported lower levels of complete work satisfaction ($F_{(7, 195)} = 2.23, p < 0.05$). Specifically, the mean score for non-workers ($M = 3.00, SD = 1.63$) were significantly smaller than people with less than one year of occupational experience ($M = 4.70, SD = 1.73$) and people with 6-10 years of employment history ($M = 4.43, SD = 1.89$).

Employment and Positive Perceived Organizational Support items. Employment status was found as a significant predictor of positive organizational outcomes; post-hoc analyses using the Bonferroni procedure was used to determine which occupational categories differed in their means scores on specific outcomes. People who were no longer employed for reasons of voluntary termination, involuntary termination, disability, or retirement reported lower levels of positive organizational practices and higher levels of negative organizational practices compared to workers employed for the university or elsewhere. Workers not employed felt less likely that they would be forgiven for honest mistakes ($F_{(2, 219)} = 4.79, p < 0.01$). Specifically, the mean score for non-workers ($M = 4.48, SD = 1.95$) were significantly smaller than university workers

($M = 5.30$, $SD = 1.43$) and people employed outside of the university ($M = 5.53$, $SD = 1.39$). Former employees felt organizations were less likely to help when a special favor was requested ($F_{(2, 219)} = 4.67$, $p < 0.01$). Specifically, the mean score for non-workers ($M = 4.23$, $SD = 1.74$) was significantly lower than non-university employees ($M = 5.25$, $SD = 1.42$). Retired, disabled, or non-employed workers reported that their organizations were not as understanding if organizational tasks were not completed on schedule ($F_{(2, 219)} = 4.15$, $p < 0.05$). Specifically, the mean score for non-workers ($M = 3.83$, $SD = 1.67$) was significantly smaller than university employees ($M = 4.81$, $SD = 1.60$) and employees not working for the university ($M = 4.83$, $SD = 1.51$). Finally, people not currently employed felt their supervisors were not as proud of their place within the organization ($F_{(2, 220)} = 5.80$, $p < 0.001$). Specifically, the mean score for non-workers ($M = 4.57$, $SD = 1.81$) was significantly smaller than those who work in organizations away from the university ($M = 5.69$, $SD = 1.32$).

Employment and Negative Perceived Organizational Support items.

Employment status was also found to be a significant predictor of negative organizational outcomes; post-hoc analyses using the Bonferroni procedure was used to determine which occupational categories differed in their means scores on specific outcomes. Former employees showed significantly higher rates on negative organizational practices in addition to burnout measures compared to university employees and outside workers. People currently employed, regardless of worksite, reported lower levels of intentional failure to recognize worker efforts ($F_{(2, 220)} = 3.67$, $p < 0.05$). Specifically, the mean score for non-workers ($M = 4.45$, $SD = 1.77$) was significantly larger than university employees ($M = 3.38$, $SD = 1.79$) and employees

working away from the university ($M = 3.30, SD = 1.92$). People employed for the university or outside of campus reported lower levels of ignored complaints ($F_{(2, 220)} = 3.66, p < 0.05$). Specifically, the mean score for non-workers ($M = 3.95, SD = 1.56$) was significantly smaller than university workers ($M = 2.98, SD = 1.65$) and outside workers ($M = 2.96, SD = 1.61$). Disregard for best interest of workers was reported highest among people not currently employed ($F_{(2, 216)} = 4.78, p < 0.01$). Specifically, the mean score for non-workers ($M = 4.24, SD = 1.64$) was significantly larger than university employees ($M = 3.03, SD = 1.70$) and non-university workers ($M = 3.08, SD = 1.64$). Failure to understand employee absence due to personal issues was reported highest among people who were not employed ($F_{(2, 218)} = 4.25, p < 0.05$). Specifically, the mean score for non-workers ($M = 3.43, SD = 1.72$) was larger than university employees ($M = 2.39, SD = 1.41$) as well as outside workers ($M = 2.46, SD = 1.56$). People no longer in the workforce reported the highest levels of organizational lack of concern when they were employed ($F_{(2, 217)} = 4.13, p < 0.05$). Specifically, the mean score for non-workers ($M = 3.95, SD = 2.04$) was significantly larger than university employees ($M = 2.81, SD = 1.64$) and with outside workers ($M = 2.86, SD = 1.69$). Finally, former employees felt that the organizations they worked for cared more for profits than for them as workers ($F_{(2, 218)} = 4.79, p < 0.05$). Specifically the mean score for non-workers ($M = 4.52, SD = 2.14$) was significantly larger than university employees ($M = 3.20, SD = 1.90$) and outside workers ($M = 3.10, SD = 2.06$).

Employment and Burnout items. Employment status was also found as a significant predictor of outcomes of burnout; post-hoc analyses using the Bonferroni procedure was used to determine which occupational categories differed in their means

scores on specific outcomes. People, who are currently outside of the workforce, reported higher levels of burnout in their former occupations. University employees and workers away from campus felt the lowest levels of frustration ($F_{(2, 213)} = 3.31, p < .05$). With the marginal significance found, post-hoc analyses were not able to differentiate which groups significantly differed from one another. Currently employed workers, regardless of organizational location, also felt lower levels of emotional exhaustion and stress ($F_{(2, 213)} = 3.89, p < .05$). Specifically, the mean score for non-workers ($M = 3.43, SD = 1.83$) was significantly larger than university workers ($M = 2.41, SD = 1.54$) as well as outside workers ($M = 2.37, SD = 1.67$). Former employees also reported higher levels of discouragement with the amount of time they had for activities away from the office due to time spent at home on work-related material through communications technologies ($F_{(2, 212)} = 4.97, p < 0.01$). Specifically, the mean score for non-workers ($M = 4.29, SD = 2.05$) was significantly larger than people working away from campus ($M = 2.89, SD = 1.81$).

Employment and Life Satisfaction items. Employment status was also found as a significant predictor of life satisfaction; post-hoc analyses using the Bonferroni procedure was used to determine which occupational categories differed in their means scores on specific outcomes. Currently employed university employees experienced higher levels of work life conditions being excellent ($F_{(2, 201)} = 3.24, p < 0.05$). Specifically, the mean score for university employees ($M = 4.31, SD = 1.86$) was significantly larger than people who are not employed ($M = 3.16, SD = 1.71$). Currently employed people, regardless of university employment or work outside of the university, experienced higher levels of work satisfaction ($F_{(2, 201)} = 5.15, p < 0.01$).

Specifically, the mean score for university employees ($M = 4.65$, $SD = 1.83$) and outside workers ($M = 4.73$, $SD = 1.76$) were significantly larger than people who are not currently employed ($M = 3.32$, $SD = 1.64$).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate how professional and personal experiences influence respondent work and family satisfaction on life satisfaction and among each other in addition to combining these domains into respondent total life satisfaction. Supportive findings explored the relationships between both directions of perceived organizational support, burnout, and communication technologies on professional satisfaction in addition to communication technologies, personal responsibilities, and supportive measures affecting personal satisfaction. The relationships between professional and personal domains were explored with Clark's (2000) Work-Family Border theory. This relationship was explored further in a positive direction with Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) concept of Work-Family Enrichment (WFE) and Family-Work Enrichment (FWE). Enrichment levels also explored the relationship among WFE and FWE on the three main facets of satisfaction.

Supplemental findings indicated how demographic characteristics influenced research topics. Main findings indicated that the combination of people in their professional lives having ideal occupational practices, excellent employment conditions, outcomes deemed important, and wanting to change almost nothing while at work positively predicted employee work satisfaction in addition to those same people in their personal lives having ideal familial practices, excellent household conditions, outcomes deemed important to themselves and families, and wanting to change almost

nothing while at home positively predicted family satisfaction. The total work and family satisfaction for employees had a reciprocal positive relationship on each other in that happiness in one domain brought out satisfaction in the second domain. Finally, life satisfaction was positively impacted by work satisfaction, family satisfaction, and the total satisfaction combining both domains. The study findings shed light on research in several ways in terms of supporting hypotheses.

Organizational commitment in the form of perceived organizational support is an attribute that all companies hope to achieve for their employees and numerous companies have found a way to invest in the well-being of their workers thus recognizing the full-value their employees offer to the organization. Many of the positive outcomes seen by university workers and people who are students employed in outside corporations together indicate significant findings in how organizations value their workforce by applying positive methods and limiting negative methods of perceived organizational support associated with organizational commitment. Those currently employed felt like their organization valued them for who they are as workers and not as a means for profit. Employees also felt their place of employment listened to any negative feedback given to organizational leaders and felt like they were appreciated for completion of organizational tasks. Most important was that the working sample felt that their supervisors were most proud of their placement within university employment or job status in outside companies. A study similar to the current study should be conducted to universities in the regional area to see if these findings related to both forms of perceived organizational support is replicated thus providing generalizability in the form of external validity.

Past research involving burnout has determined that repeated occurrences of emotional fatigue, depersonalization, and reduced indications of personal achievement has negatively affected the organizational commitment of employees in human service fields (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004; Campbell et al., 2013; Snyder, 2012). The findings of this study discovered that people who were no longer employed, had faced higher degrees of burnout which ultimately led to some kind of termination, whether voluntary or forced. For this sample subject, burnout had a negative impact on their organizational commitment. Although not technically a surprising finding, this was a strong feature of this study due to the implications that organizational leaders within the university and through these companies hiring university-affiliated students are engaging in practices conducive to positive organizational commitment. Therefore, workers still currently employed, whether through the university or outside in other occupational fields, faced lesser degrees of emotional exhaustion and burnout resulting in higher levels of organizational commitment. Future studies, similar to POS, should be conducted to determine if the findings of the current study can be replicated to students across the region.

Communication technologies will continue to evolve as the future progresses and employees will still use electronic devices to connect with the workplace. For some workers, communication technologies may be seen as beneficial in terms of easier methods to stay coordinated with organizational entities in the accomplishment of work-related tasks (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). For other workers, electronic devices may be seen as an inconvenience businesses utilize in keeping their employees linked into organizational matters while away from the office (Wright et al., 2014).

Depending upon how these technologies are perceived, this may increase positive or negative organizational outcomes such as job (dis)satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions. A longitudinal study needs to be conducted to determine whether communication devices indeed enhance or detract between individual work life and family life of the specific person at different ages in conjunction to how communications affect relationships with workers' family members and friends.

Men and women have expanded upon their stereotypical gender roles of men as the breadwinner providing income away from the home and women as the nurturer being responsible for unpaid labor of tending to matters relating to household responsibilities and child-bearing (Johnson & Alaniz, 2008). Men and women will continue to have various duties within their personal lives but equitable division of household tasks not assigned by gender needs to be the model couples strive for as the future progresses. The concept of equality was also prevalent in the professional opportunities of female workers that called for women to be able to explore any career field desired free from gender bias. The men in this study disagreed to a certain extent relating to stereotypical gender roles that place men at a higher status in society but it is women who still feel stronger about the desire for a more equitable society in both professional and personal domains. Men should examine the results of this study to place a higher value on the importance of women in all facets of daily life, in both the work and family domains, in the hopes for the creation of a society that sees women for their strengths determined by their professional and personal aptitude and ability rather than being classified and limited based off stereotypical gender roles determined by biology (e.g., age, race, disability, or sexual orientation).

Work-Family Border Theory described the crossings between professional and personal roles that individuals balance on a daily basis (Clark, 2000). Furthermore, the work and family spheres were described as environments where both spheres have the ability to influence each other (Clark, 2000). Work-Family Enrichment adds a possible expansion to Work-Family Border Theory by placing a positive direction on the relationship between the professional and personal environments that affect the individual in terms of worker and family member (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The findings of the current study added to the research on enrichment in that university-affiliated people, whether by student, employee, or student-worker, value how one primary sphere directly affects the other in a positive manner. The positive relationship between professional and personal domains had the greatest effect on women in that they used organizational practices and concepts which provided a sense of personal accomplishment. To a lesser extent but still prevalent, women also used familial practices which positively translated into their professional lives. The current study also found that enrichment had a positive impact on work satisfaction, family satisfaction, and overall life satisfaction. The positive impacts that the individual person felt from their occupation (or private life) not only positively affected the same person's family life (or occupational life), but also led to increased satisfaction within the same domains. WFE led to employees finding more enjoyment in their work lives while FWE led to employees feeling a greater sense of family satisfaction. Future research should study working couples living together to determine the strength of the effects on how the work and family domains influence themselves as individuals in their professional

and personal roles as well as on how enrichment positively affects their romantic relationships.

Finally, support given by integral people in a person's personal sphere of influence provided a positive effect on that person in those specific domains. Past research has demonstrated that men feel threatened when they accrue a lower yearly income than that of their wife or girlfriend (Rogers & Deboer, 2001). The findings in this study contributed to a changing dynamic in that the respondents in this sample do not prescribe to masculine ideology that pressures men to successfully fulfill the provider role while continually remaining under the constant threat of being seen as less of a relationship contributor if not achieved. Future research should expand upon the findings of this southwestern university to determine if other universities have study participants that do not subscribe to stereotypical masculine pressures which would then make this research generalizable providing a pathway to external validity.

Possible Limitations

In addition to the findings, the limitations of this study warrant consideration. The first limitation includes a potential selection bias due to the voluntary nature of the online survey and the fact that the respondents in the sample were all located in a single southwestern university. Both of these factors may negatively affect external validity thus limiting the generalizability of the study findings. Another limitation of the study was the use of a nonprobability sample which resulted in a disproportionate number of female respondents in the study. Future researchers should strive for a closer balance between the number of male and female workers when attempting to replicate this study. Furthermore, the cross-sectional design of this study did not allow examination

of the impact of research topics over time. Future research should include a longitudinal study of professional and personal impacts among supportive findings over two time periods to provide a comparison between the data points. The researcher only had information relating to workplace location and not specific job categories or titles. Thus, research topics were only applied to the two employment statuses as a conglomerate without detail as to which occupations provided significant results. Finally, participants in the survey may have been concerned over whether or not responses could be tracked (via Internet protocol [IP] addresses), and thus may have feared providing honest answers in specific sections of the survey regarding negative occurrences of organizational commitment, burnout, and personal responsibility questions pertaining to unequal division of household duties.

Conclusion

The findings of the current study have implications for individuals in their business and private roles as well as for the organizational and familial people who maintain regular interaction with the individual as they make their daily crossings between the worker role and the family role. Main findings involving current life satisfaction among students found that present-day levels of work and family satisfaction, separately and combined together, were strongly predictive of university-affiliated peoples' positive life satisfaction. Supplemental findings indicated that positive perceived organizational support was found to be a strong predictor of professional satisfaction. Negative perceived organizational support was also found to be a strong predictor of professional satisfaction. Burnout and communication technologies were negatively associated with professional satisfaction while several

individual personal responsibility statements were predictive within specific demographic attributes. Enrichment in both domains were positively predictive of each other as well as in all three main satisfaction factors and support in financial earnings or in the romantic relationship by specific people proved to have a positive impact on the individual worker or family member.

Important implications need to be addressed for the main findings. Work and family roles do indeed form the foundation of a person's identity (Bourne et al., 2009) and positive daily transactions between both roles led to increased life satisfaction for the sample in this study. Healthy interactions in both roles lead to professional success for the individual in the worker role and personal success for the individual in the family role. Companies featured in *Fortune* provided a model for all organizations that highlighted the benefits of seeing their employees as a total person. Even if companies hiring university-affiliated employees do not have the financial means to employ tactics as showcased in *Fortune*, organizations can still highlight dedication to their workers by applying continuous praise to workers in the form of public recognition or a letter personally signed by organizational leaders that demonstrates the business recognizes the contributions the worker is making. Positive organizational impacts can come from more than just financial gestures or upward mobility. Organizational commitment can be achieved from measures of gratitude and appreciation. These are tactics that can be implemented by all organizations in demonstrating acknowledgement of the hard-work and dedication of employees towards their place(s) of employment. Further organizational emphasis was placed on notions of work-life balance that allowed individuals to successfully achieve positive results in both professional and personal

domains. Business that employed the ideal of people being seen as workers and family members allowed their workers to devote equitable time to those in the professional environment as well as to those people the individual chooses to be associated with in their personal lives. This ideal is one all places of professional employment need to strive for in organizational human relations so that all people can experience a positive degree of work and family satisfaction culminating into a strong existence of life satisfaction.

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a. 31-40

b. 41-50

c. 51-60

d. 61-65

e. 66 or older

3. What is your Race?

a. Caucasian

b. African American

c. Asian

d. Native American

e. Hispanic/Latino

f. Middle Eastern

g. Pacific Islander

Appendix A

Demographic Data

1. What is your Gender?

- a. Male
- b. Female

2. What is your Age?

- a. 18-25
- b. 26-30
- c. 31-40
- d. 41-50
- e. 51-60
- f. 61-65
- g. 66 or older

3. What is your Race?

- a. Caucasian
- b. African-American
- c. Asian
- d. Native American
- e. Hispanic/Latino
- f. Middle Eastern
- g. Pacific Islander

- h. Other
 - d. Not employed, NOT looking for work
4. How many years have you been with your Spouse or Boyfriend/Girlfriend?
- a. < 1
 - b. 1-5
 - c. 6-10
 - d. 11-15
 - e. 16-20
 - f. 21-25
 - g. > 26
 - h. I am single
 - i. I am divorced
 - j. I am widowed
5. What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have achieved?
- a. Bachelor's Degree
 - b. Master's Degree
 - c. Ph.D. or Doctoral Degree
6. Which of the following best describes your employment status?
- a. Employed, working full-time
 - b. Employed, working part-time

- c. Not employed, looking for work
 - d. Not employed, NOT looking for work
 - e. Retired
 - f. Disabled, not able to work
7. Where do you work?
- a. For the University of Oklahoma
 - b. Outside of the University of Oklahoma
8. About how long have you been in your current position?
- a. <1 Year
 - b. 1-5 Years
 - c. 6-10 Years
 - d. 11-15 Years
 - e. 16-20 Years
 - f. >20 Years
 - g. I am Not Employed
 - h. I am Retired
 - i. I am Disabled

Appendix B

Positive Practices of Perceived Organizational Commitment

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being
2. The organization strongly considers my goals and values
3. The organizations provides help when I have a problem
4. The organization really cares about my well-being
5. The organization is willing to help me perform my job to the best of my ability
6. The organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part
7. The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor
8. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work
9. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work
10. The organization would understand if I could not finish a task on time
11. The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible
12. My supervisors are proud that I am a part of this organization

Appendix C

Negative Practices of Perceived Organizational Commitment

1. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me
2. The organization would ignore any complaint I may have
3. The organization disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me
4. The organization would fail to understand my absence due to a personal problem
5. The organization if given a chance, would take advantage of me
6. The organization provides me little opportunity for advancement
7. The organization would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible
8. The organization shows very little concern for me
9. The organization cares more about making a profit than me
10. The organization is unconcerned about paying me what I deserve

Appendix D

Burnout

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 co-workers 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 like I'm working too hard on my job
8. Working with other people directly puts too much stress on me
9. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope

Appendix E

Communication Technology

1. I feel like work is all I talk about with family and friends
2. Because I check in with work online or through use of my phone outside of regular work hours, my personal life suffers
3. Because I check in with work through communication devices outside of regular office hours, my relationship with my spouse or romantic interest suffers
4. Because I check in with work through communication devices outside of regular office hours, my relationship with my friends suffers
5. I feel like I cannot separate myself from my work while at home
6. I am unhappy with the amount of time I have for activities outside of work because of time spent on work-related material at home through communication devices
7. People in my life are unhappy with the amount of time I have for activities outside of work because of time spent on work-related material at home through communication devices

Appendix F

Personal Responsibilities

1. A woman's most important role is to take care of the home and cook for the family
2. A man should have the final word about decisions in the home
3. It is much better for everyone involved if the man is the provider outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family
4. A working mother can establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work
5. People can be both aggressive when needed and nurturing when needed regardless of sex
6. People should be treated the same regardless of their sex
7. Tasks around the house should not be assigned by sex
8. Society should stop thinking about whether people are male or female and focus on their strengths
9. Mothers should make most decisions about how children are brought up
10. Mothers should work only if necessary
11. Only some types of work are appropriate for both men and women
12. For many important jobs, it is better to choose men instead of women
13. I will be fine if my spouse or romantic partner earns more income than I do
14. Having support by my spouse or romantic interest will benefit me positively at home

Appendix G

Work-Family Enrichment

My involvement in my work....

1. Helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member
2. Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member
3. Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member
4. Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member
5. Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member
6. Makes me feel cheerful and this helps me be a better family member
7. Helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member
8. Provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member
9. Provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member

Appendix H

Family-Work Enrichment

My involvement in my family... *is closely related to my work*

1. Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker
2. Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker
3. Helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker *related with my work life*
4. Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker
5. Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker *life*
6. Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker *work life*
7. Requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker
8. Encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker
9. Causes me to be more focused at work and this helps me be a better worker


Appendix I


Life Satisfaction

1. In most ways, my work life is close to my ideal
2. In most ways, my family life is close to my ideal
3. The conditions of my work life are excellent
4. The conditions of my family life are excellent
5. I am satisfied with my work life
6. I am satisfied with my family life
7. So far I have gotten the important things I want in my work life
8. So far I have gotten the important things I want in my family life
9. If I could change anything about my work life, I would change almost nothing
10. If I could change anything about my family life, I would change almost nothing

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