Abstract

Aishwarya Viswanathan, Work/Non-Work Balance: Broadening the Conceptualization of Work and Life Balance (Under the direction of Dr. Mark Bowler) Department of Psychology, May, 2022

Extant research on work-life balance (WLB) is often conducted with gaps in the measurement of the construct, as most studies have primarily assessed “life” as it relates to family commitments. Thus, the present study aimed to reconceptualize the measurement of work-life balance as work/non-work balance with non-work being time spent on activities that are not work related – be it family or non-family activities. To this end, the present study developed a scale to measure work/non-work balance in terms of (1) perceived personal free time, (2) perceived organizational support, (3) psychological effects of work on life, and (4) time management skills. Data for this study were collected through Amazon MTurk on a sample of 318 individuals. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation models (SEM) were utilized to ascertain the measurement structure of the new scale and examine relationships between work/non-work balance, job burnout and turnover intentions. Overall, three of the four factors functioned properly with the final scale comprised of 9-items, 3 for each of the three remaining factors – perceived personal free time, perceived organizational support, and psychological effects of work on life. Furthermore, the study found significant relationships between the subfactors perceived organizational support and psychological effects of work on life, on job burnout, and turnover intentions. This study presents several theoretical and practical implications to the growing field of work-life balance research.

Keywords: work-life balance, job burnout, turnover intentions

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Working individuals are often faced with the dilemma of achieving satisfaction and balance in both their job and life demands (Casper et al., 2018; Smeltzer et al., 2016). Often, the pressures and time commitments of their work negatively affects non-work domains, such as family commitments, social engagement, and personal free time (Gisler et al., 2018). Researchers have studied this conflict between work life and personal (i.e., non-work) life extensively, with several approaches, to not only determine the causes of this role conflict (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007), but to also help organizations implement better human resources policies that promote satisfaction in both work and non-work domains for their employees (Casper et al., 2017). Those who feel overextended by work demands often report job burnout, a mental state of weariness (Schaufeli et al, 2009), which is not only associated with decreased life satisfaction, but also predicts job turnover intentions (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2004).

Consequently, job burnout can cause employees to experience depleted physical and emotional resources, as well as a loss of professional efficacy (Brewer & Shapard, 2004). Further, decreased productivity amongst employees and turnover intentions have financial impact on organizations, i.e., the cost of recruiting and training new employees (Sonnentag & Kruel, 2006). Despite the growing literature in this field, existing studies of work-life balance assess the construct as a dichotomous relationship between work and life, mainly defining “life” as encompassing of familial commitments (Allen et al., 2000; cf. Crouter, 1984; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Liu et al., 2019). Thus, to broaden the scope of the construct, the current study is focused on understanding the construct of work-life balance from the lens of all working individuals, while accounting for gender differences and varying familial commitments.

The present research was designed to develop a broad scale to measure the balance between work and non-work domains and evaluate the implications of the measures on job burnout and turnover intentions. More specifically, the goals of this study were to assess the following key questions left unanswered by previous research: (a) how do factors of work/non-work balance, such as perceived personal free time, perceived organizational support, psychological effects of work on life, and time management behaviors predict job burnout and turnover intentions? (b) how do demographic variables influence subfactors of work/non-work balance in predicting job burnout and turnover intentions?

Defining Work-Life Balance

In the late 1970s, work-life balance was initially explored as a construct in Great Britain to observe the balance between work and life among stay-at-home mothers who wanted to return to work (Smeltzer et al., 2016) Since then, the concept of work-life balance has continued to evolve and gain popularity (Casper et al., 2018; Fisher, 2001; Keeney et al., 2013), yet researchers cannot agree on a consistent definition of the construct (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Most commonly, research has been done to explore work and family as separate but interrelated facets, specifically the conflict between fulfilling work and family roles effectively (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In studying the association between work and family, other perspectives of the work-family interface have been considered, such as work-family integration (Ilies et al., 2009), work-family spillover (Small & Riley, 1990), and work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell 2006).

Although work and family are often viewed as the most dominant aspects of an individual's life, studies are limited in investigating work-life balance from a broader perspective to include time spent on personal activities (Fisher 2001; Haar et al., 2014). Existing literature in this field reflects a restricted definition of what "life" entails, mainly attributing it to conventional family responsibilities (Chang et al., 2010 as cited in Prakash, 2018), such as spouses with dual incomes or those taking care of elderly parents (Pichler, 2008). More recently, researchers have

urged that the definition of work-life balance be extended to consider a multiple-role approach, inclusive of the time devoted to other areas of non-work, such as hobbies, friends, recreation and entertainment, and community involvement (Prakash 2018; Valcour, 2007). Thus, with a more comprehensive approach of work-life balance, the scope of assessing the construct can be broadened to include other demographics of working individuals, such as recent college graduates, working individuals without familial commitments, and part-time workers (Prakash, 2018; Fisher, 2001). From that perspective, Haar et al., (2014) conceptualized work-life balance as a holistic construct focusing on how an individual perceives the balance between work and other domains of their life, taking into consideration subjective priorities, values, and beliefs.

Different Approaches to Work-life Balance

Researchers have utilized several theories to explain and observe the relationship between work and non-work domains, such as the *role theory* (Parsons, 1951; Rosenthal, 1964), *spill-over theory* (Edward & Rothband, 2000), *P-E fit approach,* and *conversations of resources theory.* Since most research in this field pertains work-family balance, consequently, the researched theories guide the explanation of work and family domains. However, the selected theories detailed above could be applied to the broader construct of work-life balance (Pradhan, 2016).

Role Theory

In considering the different approaches to understand work/non-work conflict, researchers Parsons (1951) and Rosenthal (1964) proposed the role theory, which acknowledges the multitude of roles in an individual's life within the context of an organization and outside of it. According to the role theory, individuals have limited resources, such as time and energy, which inadvertently cause inter-role conflict (Brummelhuis & Baker 2012; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Researchers contend that being able to engage in all the roles in an individual's life equally and accomplish specific role related tasks improves perception of

work-family balance (Grywacz & Carlson, 2007). Role theory has been modeled from two perspectives, the conflict perspective, and the enrichment perspective (Pradhan, 2016).

Conflict Perspective. Based on the role theory, role conflict refers to the stress experienced by an individual in adequately fulfilling roles (Fisher, 2001). In previous research about individual stressors, Moos and Swindle (1990) identified eight domains of life stressors which can lead to poor outcomes of work-life balance, such as (1) physical health stressors, (2) home and neighborhood stressors, (3) financial stressors, (4) work stressors, (5) spouse or partner stress, (6) child stressors, (7) extended family stressors, and (8) friend stressors. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) found that excessive demands in the work role inevitably leads to decreased participation in the family role.

Within the conflict theory, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) identified three sources of conflict, time-based conflict, strain-based conflict, and behavior-based conflict. For example, time-based conflict refers to an individual's inability to participate in both a work-related and a family-related commitment simultaneously due to one commitment taking priority over the other. Strain-based conflict pertains to psychological symptoms experienced by the individual, such as anxiety, stress, or depression, due to demands in one domain spilling over into the other, rendering the individual incapable of fulfilling both roles' demands. Time-based conflict and strain-based conflict are interrelated since they share resources (i.e., lack of time in one domain can lead to psychological strain). Behavior-based conflict occurs when one role demands certain behavioral expectations, while the same behavior would be considered inappropriate in another role. For example, emotional sensitivity would be viewed as appropriate in the family domain but be considered dysfunctional in the workplace (Fisher 2001; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Pradhan, 2016). Although studies of work-family conflict from the role theory perspective elucidates incompatibility between work and family roles due to work-related stressors, they are better understood from the enrichment perspective (Brummelhuis & Baker, 2012).

Enrichment Perspective. According to the enrichment perspective, activity in one domain of an individual's life can enrich their experiences in other domains, contrary to the conflict perspective which observed the transference of stress between domains due to depletion of available resources. The enrichment perspective provides a positive outlook while assessing work-life balance (i.e., it refers to bidirectional improvement of quality in one role due to the other) (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Whereas both the conflict perspective and enrichment perspective have been widely used to assess the relationship between work and family roles, these approaches have been applied to understanding the general relationship between work and non-work domains (McNall et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 1996a). For instance, in considering the multiple roles involved in the generalized definition of the life domain, increased role conflict can lead to diminished psychological abilities to fulfill all roles aptly (Fisher, 2001). Moreover, the enrichment perspective has provided a framework to understand how increased resources, such as social support, skills and self-esteem can improve inter-role fulfilment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Spill-Over Theory

In addition to role theory, the spill-over theory has been used to explain the work-life interface. Whereas role theory focuses on the adequate fulfilment of the multiple roles, the spillover theory, as applied to the work-family interface, pertains to the influence of behavior, or affect from one domain onto the other (Edward & Rothband, 2000; Waumsley et al., 2010). For example, in terms of behavioral work-family spillover, individuals who have high job satisfaction are more likely to elicit positive family role fulfilment, whereas affective work-family spillover refers to the work-related moods or attitudes, such as work-related stress, that can transfer to the family domain (Ilies et al., 2009; Waumsley et al., 2010).

P-E Fit Perspective. The premise of the P-E fit perspective lies in examining the interactive effects of a person and their work environment on work/non-work domains (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Pradhan, 2016). Edwards and Rothbard (1999) identified person-specific predictors, such as stress levels and overall well-being, and environment-specific predictors, such as job satisfaction, which can result in low or high levels of P-E fit outcomes. Thus, if person-related variables and environment-related variables are misaligned, work-life balance can be diminished (Valcour, 2007). For instance, if an individual perceives low support from their employer, the perceived lack of support can result in greater perceived conflict in their personal life (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Liu et al., 2019).

Conservation of Resources Theory

According to the conservation of resources theory as modeled by Grandey and Cropanzano (1999), individuals are often concerned with maximizing the use of available resources, and simultaneously acquiring more of the same resources. These resources include personal characteristics, objects, energies, environmental conditions, and support, as valued by the individual (Brummelhuis & Baker 2012; Hobfoll,1989; Pradhan, 2016). For instance, *personal characteristics* can include traits or skills that boost the individual's self-esteem (e.g., optimism). Additionally, *objects* refer to tangible resources, such as an individual's home, car, or clothes, *conditions* refer to an individual's desired state of being, such as being married, and energies refer to resources that assist the individual in acquiring more valued resources, such as time, knowledge, and money (Brummelhuis & Baker 2012; Hobfoll 1989, Wayne et al., 2007). Thus, if an individual perceives depleted resources, i.e., lack of social support or autonomy, it can result in increased counter-productive work behaviors, such as low productivity, low job satisfaction and decreased job commitment (Burke 1998; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Research purports increased work-life balance from the COR perspective can be achieved if the resources valued by the employee are consistently replenished (Grandley & Cropanzano, 1999).

Consistent with the model proposed by Greenhaus & Allen (2011), which explains work-family balance through the lens of the role theory, the present study will utilize a similar approach in assessing work-life balance. Greenhaus & Allen (2011) define the term “balance” to entail an individual’s perceived satisfaction and efficacy across all roles. Whereas the term balance is subjective, the definition proposed by Greenhaus & Allen (2011) takes into consideration an individual’s preferences and beliefs. With this subjective view of the role theory, instead of the objective view which is driven by environmental factors (Fisher, 2001; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), the present study aims to explore work-life balance through a multiple-role perspective.

Prior Measures

Along these lines, theorists have modeled several perspectives of work-life balance including the role theory, which can be discussed through the conflict theory or enrichment theory (Parsons 1951; Pradhan 2016), spillover theory (Crouter, 1983), P-E fit theory (Kreiner, 2006) and conservation of resources theory (Grandey & Cropanzo, 1999). With the influence of these perspectives, researchers have developed numerous scales to measure the effects of work on one’s personal life. These measures can be broken into two categories – broad and specific. The *broad* scales evaluate the general interference of work on an individual’s personal life, whereas the *specific* scales evaluate how work affects specific relationships. The WLB scales that are domain specific are often beneficial in that they allow researchers to observe the unique effects of work on specific nonwork interests that are tailored to a specific research question (e.g., Keeney et al., 2013).

The initial operationalization of work-life balance was employed by Fisher (2001) who devised a 21-item scale to investigate employees’ perception of work-life balance. The research

aimed to identify the variables that relate to work-life balance and establish a conceptual definition for work-life balance. Fisher defined work-life balance as a broad construct, whereas work-family conflict would be a more specific construct. In considering the subjective nature of work-life balance, Fisher proposed a work/personal life scale. The original scale aimed to assess how overall perceived work-life balance affected work: (1) work interference with personal life (WIPL), (1) personal interference with work (PIWL), and (3) work/personal life enhancement (WPLE). The WIPL dimension consisted of four factors of measurement, time, energy, strain, and goal accomplishment, with sample items being “my personal life drains me of the energy I need to do my job” and “my personal life suffers because of my work.” The PIWL dimension assessed the interference of personal life on work with example items, such as “I am too tired to be effective at work because of things I have going on in my personal life.” The WPLE subscale examined the degree to which one’s personal life is enhanced by work and vice versa with items, such as “I would spend more time at work if it were not for my non-work responsibilities.” Overall, this measurement of work-life balance found work-life balance to be associated to organizational outcomes, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions (Burke 1988; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

A similar scale developed by Dex and Bond (2005) utilized a 10-item checklist to measure work interference with personal life. This measure included statements such as “relaxing and forgetting about work issues is hard to do” and “I often work late or at weekends to deal with paperwork without interruptions.”

Burke (1988) measured work-family conflict with a 39-item scale predicting work-family conflict, classified as four antecedents of WFC: (1) work settings (2) social support (3) work-stressors (4) non-work stressors, and seven predictors of WFC consequences: (1) work alienation (2) burnout (3) job satisfaction (4) turnover (5) psychosomatic symptoms (6) negative affective states (7) physical well-being. Overall, the study illustrated that WFC related more to work related stressors than non-work stressors. Consistent with WFC research and the conflict

approach of the role theory, Burke (1988)'s scale found WFC to be related to burnout, job satisfaction, psychosomatic symptoms, negative affective states and physical well-being (Crouter 1984; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus and Powell 2006; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Parasuraman et. al, 1989).

Furthermore, based on the conflict theory perspective, Netemeyer et al. (1996a) developed a short 10-item scale to measure the bidirectional effects of work-family conflict (WFC/FWC) using the following on-job predictors: (1) organizational commitment (2) job satisfaction (3) job burnout (4) job tension (5) job role conflict (6) job role ambiguity (7) intention-to-leave-an-organization (8) search-for-another-job (9) number of hours worked per week. In their measure of WFC and FWC, they also assessed off-job predictors, including (1) life satisfaction (2) relationship satisfaction and (3) relationship agreement. Overall, measures of WFC and FWC were found to be associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job tension, and life satisfaction (Burke 1988; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Prandhan 2016).

Using the spill over perspective of work-life balance, which elucidates the psychological effects of work "spilling over" into family life, Small and Riley (1990) developed the 20-item Work Spillover Scale which included four subscales measuring employee perception of work spillover into (1) parent-child relationships, (2) marital relationship, (3) leisure activities and (4) home management role. In evaluating the effects of work on spousal relationships, the researchers collected data on "spouse perception of worker's work spillover" and "marital satisfaction" with items, such as "my spouse's job keeps us from spending time together" and "I dislike the fact that my spouse is preoccupied with work." Although this scale includes marital relationships as one of the dimensions of family life, it is focused on nuclear families with the inclusion of the "parent-child" dynamic. In fact, Waumsley et al. (2010) investigated the differences in perceived work-life conflict and life-work conflict in women without children using an adapted version of Neteyemar et. al (1996)'s WFC/FWC measure. Thus, Waumsley et al. (2010) employed four scales to measure WFC and FWC and WLC and LWC as well as scales to measure (1)

organizational identity (3) turnover intention (4) organizational culture and (5) psychological health. Subsequently, it was found that LWC was related to turnover intention and psychological distress in women with children which can be explained by the conflict approach of the role theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Moreover, the P-E fit approach theorizes that a person's individual outcomes are not only contingent on both the direct effects of person and environment, but also the interactive effect of personal and environmental factors (Kreiner, 2006). Subsequently, Lui et al. (2006) developed a scale based on the P-E fit perspective intended to predict the combined impact of work-family integration preferences and organizational supplies on work-family balance. Work-family integration preferences reflect the extent to which employees prefer work life to be integrated with family life and organizational supplies refer to the willingness of the employer to facilitate the employee's preferred work-family integration. To measure work-family integration preferences and organizational supplies, the researchers utilized two 4-item scales with sample items, such as "I like work issues creeping into my home life" to assess individual preferences and "At my workplace, people allow work issues to creep into their home lives" to assess the individual's perception on organizational support. In addition, a 4-item scale was used to measure work-family balance with a sample item, "Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the way you divide your attention between work and home?" A 6-item scale measured family functioning and a 9-item scale measured marital satisfaction. Example items, such as "We are able to make decisions about how to solve problems" and "I am not happy about our communication and feel my partner does not understand me" measured family functioning and marital satisfaction respectively. In considering the P-E fit approach and work-nonwork boundaries, research indicates that excessive organizational supplies for employee work-life integration preferences is associated with job stress and absenteeism (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Kreiner 2006; Pichler 2008).

Kreiner (2006) devised a scale using the P-E fit approach and observed three individual outcomes, (1) work-home conflict, (2) stress and (3) job satisfaction as predicted by perceived work-home segmentation and organizational supplies. Whereas work-family integration focuses on consolidating the work and family domain, work-home segmentation refers to the extent to which an employee prefers the two domains to be separated. To measure work-home segmentation preferences and organizational supplies, the researcher developed matched 4-item scales with items, such as “I don’t like to have to think about work when I am home” for preferences with a corresponding supplies item, “My workplace lets people forget about work when they’re home.” Similarly, to evaluate individual outcomes, a 5-item scale was used for work-home conflict, 3-item scale for job satisfaction and 5-item scale for stress. Overall, this measure demonstrates that discrepancies between one’s work-home segmentation preferences and organizational supplies relates to work-home conflict (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), stress (McNall et al., 2010) and job satisfaction (Burke 1988). The incongruence between one’s segmentation preferences and workplace supplies relate to diminished resources available to the individual and based on the conservation of resources (COR) perspective, a lack of resources is associated with burnout (Allen et al., 2000), job commitment (Pradhan 2016) and productivity (Grandey & Cropanzano 1999).

The COR perspective, which describes the influence of environmental stressors on an individual’s overall well-being based on two critical processes, *loss spiral* (i.e., loss of resources relates to increased stress and further depletion of resources) and *gain spiral* (i.e., the accumulation of resources). According to this theory, resources can be defined as personal characteristics (e.g., individual’s traits, feelings, attitudes), objects (e.g. food, shelter, etc.), conditions (e.g. social support) or energies (e.g. time, knowledge or money) as deemed valuable by the individual (Brummelhuis & Bakker 2012). In evaluating the work-family dynamic, researchers have also proposed the enrichment theory, which Greenhaus and Powell (2006)

conceptualize as the extent to which an individual's performance in one domain can improve the other.

A meta-analysis of existing enrichment scales, conducted by McNall et al. (2010), assessed the correlates of predictors, including (1) job satisfaction (2) affective commitment (3) turnover intentions (4) family satisfaction (5) life satisfaction and (6) physical and health outcomes on both work-family enrichment (WFE) and family-work enrichment (FWE).

Consistent with the COR perspective, the results of this analysis indicate a relationship between enrichment and physical well-being, which would limit depletion of resources (Brummelhuis & Bakker 2012; Greenhaus & Powell 2006). Moreover, consistent with Greenhaus and Powell (2006)'s framework of work-family conflict, McNall et al. (2010) found enrichment to be related to work-outcomes, such as job satisfaction and affective commitment. Similarly, another meta-analysis conducted by Lapierre et. al (2017) assessed contextual and personal characteristics specific to each domain in work-family enrichment and work-family enrichment were observed. Based on the COR perspective (Brummelhuis & Bakker 2012), contextual characteristics i.e., resource-providing factors, such as social support and work autonomy and resource-depleting factors, such as role overload were assessed. In addition, personal characteristics were included in the analysis, such as one's psychological involvement in each domain and work engagement. Overall, the analysis found an association between enrichment, work engagement and work autonomy (McNall et al. 2010; Shantz et al, 2014).

Correlates of Work-Life Balance

Sex Differences

In assessing perceived work-family role conflict, it is imperative to consider culturally ascribed gender roles for men and women, i.e., men are traditionally associated with work and women with caretaking responsibilities (Eagly 1987). Although research has identified gender role expectations to distort men and women's perception of work-life imbalance, empirical evidence presents no significant differences reported between men and women (Gutek et al.,

1991). Williams et al. (2016) contend that existing research of work-life balance fails to consider the differences between men and women in perceived work-life balance by either controlling for sex differences in studies of work-life balance or ignoring the highly skewed categories towards men or women in the surveys administered to evaluate work-life balance. Further, popular measures of work-family conflict consider traditional roles of men and women, which limits the potential of assessing this construct in individuals non-conforming to stereotypical gender roles.

Organizational Support

Kossek et al (2011) define organizational support of work and family roles as the extent to which an organization caters to work-family balance, i.e., with job conditions, such as work hours, organizational culture that allows employees to fulfill work and non-work roles, and human resources policies, such as paid time-off, elder care, education, etc. Previous research has found that high or low organizational support affects perception of work-life balance by employees (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Kreiner 2006). In fact, studies measuring the impact of organizational norms about time spent at work was associated with perceived work-life balance based on the degree to which organizational norms affect work hours (Gryzwacs & Carlson, 2007; Kossek et al., 2011). Pichler (2008) ascertained working hours, more specifically over-time at work, as a significant predictor of work-life imbalance, with over 14% of the variation in WLB scores explained by working hours. Other research found long workhours to be associated with increasing work-life imbalance emphasizing the spill-over effects from work to life (Dex & Bond 2005).

Consequences of Work-Life Balance

Job Burnout

Whereas adequate work-life balance promotes positive employee and organizational related outcomes, such as employee commitment, job/life satisfaction and increased performance (Allen et al. 2000; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), studies have also identified negative consequences of decreased work-life balance, specifically,

increased job burnout and turn over intention (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 1996a). Burnout, initially defined by Maslach (1982), is a debility characterized by mental exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment from overexerting to meet job demands. Job demands, or the extent to which a work-related task requires effort, causes job burnout when excess effort is needed to achieve work goals (Demerouti et al 2001). Relatedly, previous studies have found that job burnout is related to an employee's level of perceived control of their time (Siltaloppi et al, 2009) and their ability to disengage from work during non-work hours (Sonnentag & Kruel, 2006). Those who are unable to detach from work during non-work hours expend their resources (emotional, cognitive, and physical), which inevitably compromises the availability of resources in the non-work domains of their life (Barber et al 2019). As such, this study predicts that work-life balance will be negatively related to job burnout. Schaufeli et al (1996)'s Maslach Burnout Inventory- General Survey (MBI-GS) has been widely used to measure job burnout with three subscales (1) exhaustion, (2) cynicism, and (3) professional efficacy.

Hypothesis 1: Perceived personal free time will be negatively associated with job burnout, such that an increase in perceived personal free time will be associated with a decrease in job burnout.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived organizational support will be negatively associated with job burnout, such that an increase in perceived organizational support will be associated with a decrease in job burnout.

Turnover Intentions

Not only does work-life imbalance result in negative outcomes for the individual, but it also leads to costs incurred by organizations. Previous studies explain the role of work-life balance in employees' organization citizenship behavior, and they found flexible hours increased productivity, low absenteeism, and low turnover intentions (Chow & Keng-Howe's, 2006; Dalton & Meshc's, 1990; Koubova & Buchko, 2013 as cited in Suifan et al, 2016; Holtom

et al, 2008). Turnover intention, or the estimated probability of an employee's desire to quit their job (Krelinger, 1973 as cited in Suifan et al.2016), is an ubiquitous predicament faced by organizations, and research shows high turnover rates adversely impacts job performance and the morale of existing employees (Surienty et al, 2013). High turnover rates in service industries (i.e., hospitality, healthcare, accounting firms, etc.) can have more serious ramifications as they depend on human capital (Allen et al, 2000; Surienty et al, 2013).

Thus, it is imperative for such organizations to retain existing employees to not incur the cost of training new personnel and reselecting new staff. It is beneficial for organizations to implement policies that promote work-life balance, such as flexible job conditions, organizational culture and norms, and human resource policies encouraging work-life balance (Kossek et al., 2011). Conversely, organizations that lack this focus contribute to job burnout amongst their employees, which has previously been associated to high turnover intentions due to reduced job satisfaction (Acker, 1999; Lu & Gursoy, 2013; Martin & Schinke, 1998). Whereas existing studies have examined the effects of job burnout on turnover intentions, limited attention has been given to assessing the interdependence among the antecedents of WLB (Sirgy & Lee, 2017). Thus, the present study aims to explore the subfactors of work/non-work balance in predicting turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 3a: Psychological effects of work on life will be positively associated with job burnout, such that an increase in psychological effects of work on life will be associated with a increase in job burnout.

Hypothesis 3b: Psychological effects of work on life will be positively associated with turnover intentions, such that an increase in psychological effects of work on life will be associated with an increase in turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4a: Time management behaviors will be negatively associated with job burnout, such that an increase in time management will be associated with a decrease in burnout.

Hypothesis 4b: Further, those with increased scores on time management behaviors will also present with low scores on the turnover intentions scale.

The Present Study

Based on Haar et al.'s (2014) holistic conceptualization of work-life balance – adapted from Greenhaus et al,'s (2003) definition of work-life balance – focused on the allocation of time and psychology energy in both work and non-work domains, the present study defines *work-life balance as perceiving the availability of free time to engage in non-work activities without feeling psychological distress from job demands, simultaneously establishing equilibrium between time spent at work and time spent on non-work endeavors*. Subsequently, the purpose of this study is to examine the interface between work/non-work life with a broad scale of work-life balance, which does not limit the definition of the non-work life to any specific domain, potentially excluding any working individuals based on gender, age, marital status, number of kids, or their subjective preferences on how non-work time is used. Although, like the work/personal life scale developed by Fisher (2001), the scale developed in this study is focused on the unidirectional effects of work life on non-work life and, in the interest of creating a more accessible WLB scale, consists only of four factors (two work-related factors and two non-work-related factors).
Prior scales measuring work-life balance focused mostly on the work-family interface (Burke 1988; Netemeyre et al., 1996; Lui et al., 2006; Small and Riley 1990), thus limiting the scope of WLB measurement to working individuals with families. Moreover, popular scales devised by Burke (1988) and Netemeyre et al. (1996) approached the dichotomous relationship between work and life from the conflict theory point of view based on Greenhaus and Powell's framework of work-family conflict (2006). Whereas these scales are informative in assessing the tumultuous dynamic of work/family lives, the present study is focused on the equilibrium between work/non-work and examines factors that promote work/non-work stability. Further, as mentioned previously, studies are in this field are limited in their assessment of the influence of demographic variables, such as age, sex, race, etc. – as such, the impact of those variables on

work/non-work measures, as well as job burnout and turnover intentions, will be evaluated in this study

CHAPTER II: METHODS

Participants

A statistical power analysis was performed for sample size estimation, based on data from Fisher (2001)'s study of work-life balance (N = 267). Based on this study, using GPower 3.1, the effect size of this study was calculated to be d = 0.24, which is a medium effect size using Cohen's (1998) criteria. With an alpha = .05, and power = .80, the projected sample size needed with this effect size is estimated at N = 150. The present study recruited participants from an online survey pool, Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), based on two restrictions: (1) individuals had to be employed at full-time (35+ hours) and (2) working within the United States to qualify for the study. Participants provided informed consent prior to taking the survey, and they were allowed to withdraw from the study whenever they wished. Upon completion of the survey, participants received $1.00 as monetary compensation for their time. The valid sample included 318 participants, 64.5% men and 35.5% women, and participants' ages ranged from 19 to 67 years (M = 35.88, SD = 9.54), with 57.9% self-identifying as Caucasian, 29.9% as Asian and/or Asian American, 6.0% as African and/or African American, 3.8% as Hispanic/Latino/Spanish origin, 0.9% as Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, 0.3% as Native American/Alaska Native, and 1.3% as Mixed/Other.

Measures

Work-Life Balance

A four-factor model of work-life balance was developed for this study. Items were created based on reviewing numerous contemporary work-life balance scales (e.g., Dex & Bond, 2005; Hayman, 2005; Small & Riley (1990)). Based on Fisher (2001)'s work-life balance scale, measuring the effects of work interference with personal life, a 5-item scale was developed to evaluate participants *perceived personal free time*. The scale included items such as, "I do not spend time outside of work on work-related projects," as well as reverse-scored items, such as "I often cancel plans to complete work related tasks." Responses were made via a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5), with higher scores indicating increased levels of perceived personal free time and lower scores representing lower levels of perceived personal free time. To assess *perceived organizational support*, a 5-item scale was developed asking participants how they felt about the support provided by their employers in terms of work flexibility, job demands, employee support, etc., and included items such as "my employer does not require me to respond to work emails over the weekend." The scale did not include any reverse scored items. Responses were scored using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5), with higher scores representing increased levels of perceived organizational support and lower scores indicating decreased levels of perceived organizational support. To examine the *psychological effects of work on life*, a 5-item scale was created with responses again ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Statements from this scale measured both positive psychological effects (e.g., "I look forward to going to work every-day"), which were reverse scored, as well as emotional strain from work (e.g., "I feel guilty when I take a break from work."). Thus, higher scores on this scale represent increased negative psychological effects of work on life and lower scores represent decreased perceived emotional strain due to work on life. Finally, to assess participants' *time management behaviors*, a fourth subscale comprised of 5-items was constructed. This scale

asked participants to indicate how they felt about allocating time for both work and non-work demands (e.g., “I keep track of both my work and non-work commitments”). Responses were made via a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). High scores on this scale represent increased perceived ability of time management and lower scores on this scale indicate decreased perceived ability of time management.

Job Burnout

Maslach’s Burnout Inventory (MBI-GS; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) was used to evaluate participants’ experienced levels of job burnout. Responses on this 15-item scale ranged from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements, such as “I feel emotionally drained from work” and “I feel used up by the end of the workday” with higher scores reflecting higher levels of perceived job burnout.

Turnover Intentions

A 9-item scale was adapted from Roodt (2004)’s measure of turnover intentions to assess participants’ inclination to quit their current jobs. The items in this scale sought to measure participants’ affinity for their current jobs (i.e., “I am satisfied with my current job”) as well as their willingness to find a new job (i.e., “I frequently scan the internet for alternative job opportunities”). Responses were scored using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) and higher scores are predictive of higher turnover intentions.

Data Analysis

Descriptive and correlational analyses were done using SPSS v21. Internal consistency was evaluated by computing McDonald’s omega coefficients (w) using JASP, which reveal good internal consistency when superior to 0.70 (Catalan, 2018). The four factors and their respective items were labelled: (1) perceived personal free time (PPFL; items PPFL1 – PFFL5), (2) perceived organizational support (POS; items POS1 – POS5), (3) psychological effects of work

on life (PAL; items PAL1 – PAL5), (4) Time management behaviors (TM; items TM1 – TM5), as well as job burnout (JB; items JB1-JB15) and turnover intentions (TRN; items TRN1-TRN9).

The hypothesized factor structure of the work/non-work balance was tested with Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using the *lavaan* and *semTool* packages in R Software (version 4.01; R Core Team, 2020, Jorgensen et al, 2021, Rossell, 2012). The maximum likelihood estimation method was applied to the analysis of the covariance matrices. Based on Kline (2011)'s recommendations, the following parameters were used to evaluate absolute goodness-of-fit of the models to the data: the ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom (χ^2/df), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) with 90% confidence interval (CI), Comparative fit index (CFI), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). The fit of the model was deemed to have acceptable fit if RMSEA was < .10 and excellent fit with values around .06, SRMR with values less than .08 and CFI >.90 (Browne & Cudeck, 1994; Hu & Bentler, 1999). To maximize future use of the work/non-work balance scale, (1) the factor loadings of the items were also inspected and items with loadings less than .40 were considered for removal, (2) improvements were made based on modification indices (MI) and the Standardized Expected Parameter Change (SEPC) values. SEM analysis was performed to investigate the effect of the factors in the work/non-work balance scale, job burnout, and turnover intentions. SEM was conducted with a maximum likelihood estimation method. The same criteria as defined for CFA analyses were used to determine model fit for SEM. For both CFA and SEM analyses, a fixed factor method of identification was employed

CHAPTER III: RESULTS

CFA analyses

CFA was used to confirm whether a 4-factor solution would provide the best fit for the data. First, a null model with no latent variables was fit, then a one-factor model, and the proposed 4-factor model. Scale development was based on item factor loadings. As such, model fit was adjusted primarily based on each individual item's factor loading onto its respective sub-factor. The one-factor model presented in poor model fit indices: c^2 (170) = 1620.71, $p < .001$, CFI = .538, RMSEA = .164 90% CI [.16, 17], and SRMR = .179. The theorized four-factor model resulted in fit indices below the criteria for acceptable fit: χ^2 (164) = 1654.64, $p < .001$, CFI = .532, RMSEA = .168 90% CI [.16, 17], and SRMR = .202. The fit diagnostics were inspected to find potential issues with model specification and item factor loadings lower than |.40| were deleted (Stevens, 1992). The list of items retained and those eliminated from the next model iteration are detailed in *Table 1* and *Figure 1*.

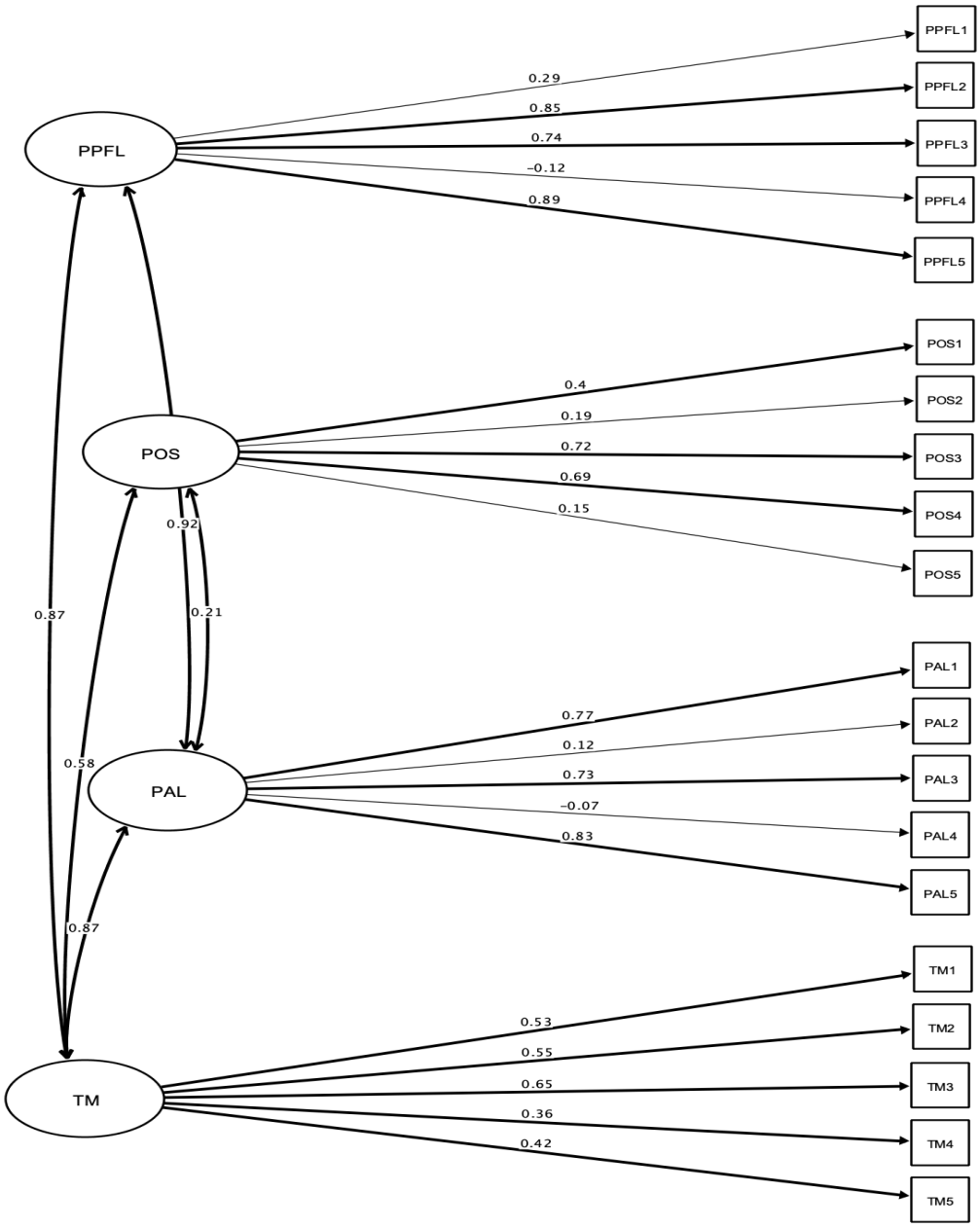
Table 1. *Factor loadings of items on the PPFL, POS, PAL, and TM subscales*

	PPFL	POS	PAL	TM
After work, I have time to spend on activities I enjoy.	*			
I often cancel plans to complete work related tasks. (R)	.85			
I spend less than 5 hours a week on leisure activities. (R)	.74			
I do not spend time outside of work hours on work projects.	*			
I feel like I do not have time to focus on anything else other than work. (R)	.90			
My employer does not require me to respond to work emails over the weekend.		.40		
My employer allows me to work from home as long as I complete required tasks.		*		
I feel comfortable talking to my employer about work-related issues.		.72		

My employer takes my future goals within the company into consideration.	.70		
My employer would not understand if I took days off from work due to a personal problem. (R)	*		
I feel guilty when I take a break from work.		.78	
I feel appreciated for my efforts at work. (R)		*	
When I engage in non-work activities, I automatically find myself thinking about work.		.73	
I look forward to going to work every-day. (R)		*	
I often feel too exhausted after work to do anything else.		.83	
I am able to allocate time for both work and non-work activities.			.52
I wish I had more time to spend doing things I enjoy. (R)			.55
I often feel rushed to meet deadlines at work. (R)			.65
I do not neglect my personal priorities to make time for work.			*
I keep track of both my work and non-work commitments.			.42

Note: Items with * were excluded in analyses. Items noted with (R) are reverse scored. Variables labelled as Percieved personal free time (PPFL), Percieved organizational support (POS), Psychological effects of work on life (PAL), Time management (TM).

Figure 1. *Hypothesized 4-factor CFA model of the Work-Nonwork Balance Scale*



Note: Variables labelled as Percieved personal free time (PPFL), Percieved organizational support (POS), Psychological effects of work on life (PAL), Time management (TM). Factor loadings greater than the threshold |.40| are highlighted with darker paths.

A subsequent model with 4-factors and 3 items each on the PPFL, POS, and PAL factors, and 4 items on the TM factor was fit (after excluding items with factor loadings < |.40| as depicted in *Figure 1*), and the model fit indices were still deemed below the level of acceptance: χ^2 (59) = 368.77, p < .001, CFI = .836, RMSEA = .129 90% CI [.11, 14], and SRMR =.10. Modification indices were assessed and items from the TM factor, specifically items T3 and T5, appeared to covary with several other items in the scale and cross-load with the PPFL factor. Upon reviewing the items, subsequent models were fit with the addition of covariances one at time, and the model fit indices did not meet the specified goodness of fit criteria. A 3-factor model was considered, without the TM factor, and the 3-factor model exhibited acceptable model fit parameters: χ^2 (24) = 82.06, p < .001, CFI = .955, RMSEA = .08, 90% CI [.06, .10], and SRMR =.05. Further, the 3-factor model demonstrated better fit as compared to the original 4-factor model without item or factor deletion, $\Delta\chi^2$ (140) = 1563.6, p < .001. *Table 2* presents the model fit statistics for the hypothesized CFA models, and *Tables 3* and *4 (in the Appendix)* present the completely standardized variance-covariance matrix and standardized residual matrix 3-factor model with a total of 9 items.

Table 2. *CFA model fit statistics*

Model	χ^2	*df*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Null	3329.82	190	0.00	-0.00	.23	.31
One-factor	1620.71	170	.54	.48	.16	.18
Hypothesized Four-factor	1632.84	164	.53	.45	.17	.20
Four-factor (after removal of items with factor loadings < |.40|)	368.77	59	.84	.78	.13	.10
Three-factor	**82.06**	**24**	**.96**	**.93**	**.08**	**.05**

Table 3. *Model variance-covariance matrix of the Final 3-factor CFA*

VAR	PPFL2	PPFL3	PPFL5	POS1	POS3	POS4	PAL1	PAL3	PAL5
PPFL2	2.11								
PPFL3	1.32	2.03							
PPFL5	1.52	1.26	1.89						
POS1	0.22	0.04	0.02	1.36					
POS3	0.15	0.05	0.14	0.35	1.05				
POS4	-0.12	-.09	-.01	0.16	0.56	1.18			
PAL1	1.14	0.98	1.24	0.06	0.31	0.10	1.94		
PAL3	1.13	1.07	1.07	0.11	0.01	-0.18	1.13	1.73	
PAL5	1.19	1.10	1.28	0.01	0.31	0.15	1.20	1.01	1.82

Note: Abbreviations are as follows - PFFL (Perceived personal free time), POS (Perceived organizational support), and PAL (Psychological effects of work on life).

Table 4. *Standardized Residual Matrix of the Final 3-factor CFA*

VAR	PPFL2	PPFL3	PPFL5	POS1	POS3	POS4	PAL1	PAL3	PAL5
PPFL2	0.00								
PPFL3	0.01	0.00							
PPFL5	0.01	-0.02	0.00						
POS1	0.11	0.00	-0.01	0.00					
POS3	0.00	-0.05	-0.00	0.00	0.00				
POS4	-0.12	-0.09	-0.04	0.01	0.00	0.00			
PAL1	-0.04	-0.04	0.00	0.00	0.05	-0.01	0.00		
PAL3	0.03	0.08	-0.01	0.04	-0.15	-0.19	0.04	0.00	
PAL5	-0.02	0.02	0.02	-0.03	0.04	0.03	-0.004	-0.03	0.00

Note: Abbreviations are as follows - PFFL (Perceived personal free time), POS (Perceived organizational support), and PAL (Psychological effects of work on life).

Internal Consistency

The overall work/non-work balance scale with 3-factors and 9 items exhibited high levels of internal consistency (ω = .850). The subscales also indicated high levels of internal consistencies with PPFL (ω = .867), POS (ω = .710), and PAL (ω = .827). The job burnout and turnover intentions scales both presented with high levels of internal consistencies with job burnout (ω = .901) and turnover intentions (ω = .929).

Preliminary Analyses on Demographic variables

Prior to conducting further analyses, specific statistical tests were employed to evaluate the effects of demographic variables on the work/non-work subscales based on the final 3-factor CFA model including perceived personal free time (PPFL), perceived organizational support (POS), psychological effects of work on life (PAL), as well as the job burnout (JB) and turnover intention (TRN) scales (see *Figure 2* for the conceptual model). An independent samples *t*-test was conducted to assess the gender differences (coded Male = 0, Female = 1) on the study measures and as shown in *Table 5*, the mean score of men on the POS measure (M = 3.94, SD = 0.72) was significantly higher than the mean score of women (M = 3.75, SD = 0.91) on the same scale.

Similarly, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted to identify differences based on respondents' race (coded White = 0, Non-white = 1) as shown in *Table 6*, as well as ethnicity (coded Yes = 0, No = 1 to the question "Are you of Hispanic/Latino/Spanish origin?") shown in *Table 7*. Race was coded as such since the majority, 57.9% of respondents, self-identified as White and given the unequal subsets within the sample who self-identified as other races. Results indicated the mean score of White respondents on the PPFL measure (M = 3.42, SD = 0.93) was significantly higher than the mean score of Non-White respondents (M = 3.10, SD = 0.66) on the same scale, $t(316) = -3.45$, $p < .001$, $d = -.39$. Non-White respondents presented with significantly higher mean scores on the job burnout measure (M = 2.81, SD = 0.58) as well as the turnover intentions measure (M = 3.37, SD = 0.93). Mean scores were significantly different based on ethnicity on all study measures except the POS subfactor (see *Table 7*).

Table 5. *Independent samples t-test examining gender differences*

	Male (*n* = 205)		Female (*n* = 113)		*t*(316)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
PPFL	3.01	1.29	2.97	1.21	0.32	.746	0.04
POS	3.94	0.72	3.75	0.91	2.02	.043	0.04
PAL	2.89	1.21	2.66	1.08	1.74	.083	0.20
JB	2.65	0.72	2.65	0.68	-0.08	.933	-0.01
TRN	3.03	1.07	3.10	1.09	-0.55	.582	-0.07

Note: Variables labelled as Percieved personal free time (PPFL), Percieved organizational support (POS), Psychological effects of work on life (PAL), Time management (TM).

Table 6. *Independent samples t-test examining racial differences*

	White (*n* = 184)		Non-white (*n* = 134)		*t*(316)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
PPFL	3.42	0.93	3.10	0.66	-3.45	< .001	-0.39
POS	3.63	0.72	3.70	0.54	0.89	.374	0.10
PAL	3.23	0.93	3.07	0.65	-1.71	.088	-0.19
JB	2.53	0.76	2.81	0.58	3.59	< .001	0.41
TRN	2.81	1.11	3.37	0.93	4.72	< .001	0.54

Note: Variables labelled as Percieved personal free time (PPFL), Percieved organizational support (POS), Psychological effects of work on life (PAL), Time management (TM).

Table 7. *Independent samples t-test examining the difference between ethnic groups*

	Yes (*n* = 67)		No (*n* = 251)		*t*(316)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
PPFL	3.05	0.61	3.35	0.88	-2.55	.011	-0.35
POS	3.72	0.57	3.65	0.67	0.83	.405	0.12
PAL	2.98	0.64	3.21	0.86	-2.04	.043	-0.28
JB	2.83	0.53	2.60	0.74	2.37	.018	0.33
TRN	3.51	0.88	2.93	1.09	4.04	< .001	0.56

Note: Variables labelled as Percieved personal free time (PPFL), Percieved organizational support (POS), Psychological effects of work on life (PAL), Time management (TM).

Bivariate correlation analyses were conducted between the variables in the model to examine issues with multicollinearity as well as inspect the effects of age and number of

children on the measures. There were no bivariate correlations found between the study variables which indicated issues with multicollinearity using Kline (2016;2015)'s guideline of r = .85. However, results (as shown in *Table 8*) indicated significant correlations between number of children and all the measures, as well as age and the study variables.

Table 8. *Bivariate correlation analyses between Work/Non-Work subscales, Job Burnout, Turnover Intentions and Demographic Variables Age and Number of Children*

	n	*M*	*SD*	PPFL	POS	PAL	JB	TRN	Children	Age
PPFL	318	3.00	1.26	--						
POS	318	3.87	0.80	.04	--					
PAL	318	2.81	1.17	.78**	.10	--				
JB	318	3.05	1.08	-.63**	-.39**	-.65**	--			
TRN	318	1.52	1.22	-.71**	-.24**	-.72**	.83**	--		
Children	318	35.88	9.55	-.33**	.13*	-.28**	.17**	.24**	--	
Age	318	3.00	1.26	.29**	-.15**	.22**	-.21**	-.20**	-.02	--

Note: *p < .05 and **p < .001. Variables labelled as Percieved personal free time (PPFL), Percieved organizational support (POS), Psychological effects of work on life (PAL).

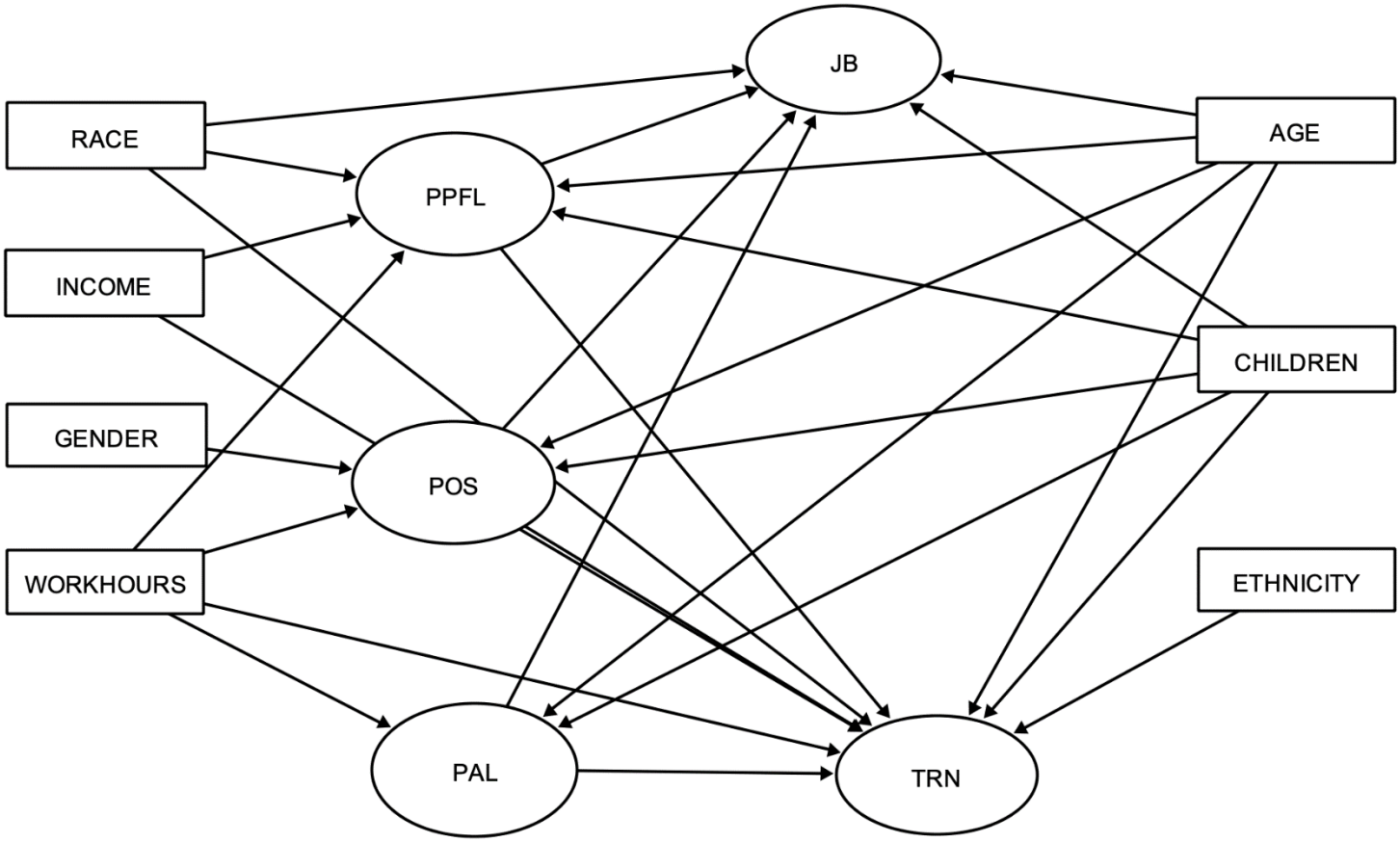
One-way ANOVA tests were conducted to evaluate differences in mean scores between groups based on income (grouped onto an ordinal scale ranging from 1-12; see *Table 9* in the appendix), workhours (grouped onto an ordinal scale ranging from 1-5; see *Table 10* in the appendix), and education (grouped onto an ordinal scale ranging from 1-7; see *Table 11* in the appendix).

There was a significant effect of income level on PPFL (F (11,306) = 2.67, p = .003) and TRN (F (11,306) = 3.40, p < .001). There were significant effects of workhours on PPFL (F (4,313) = 9.78, p < .001), POS (F (4,313) = 5.11, p < .001), PAL (F (4,313) = 7.44, p < .001), and TRN (F (4,313) = 5.87, p < .001). No significant effects were found based on education level. As such, demographic variables were included in the hypothesized SEM model if significant group differences were found on composite scale scores of the study measures (see *Figure 2 for a conceptual model*).

SEM Analyses

Based on the results of the final CFA solution, SEM analysis was conducted to assess the effects of the 3 factors – perceived personal free time (PPFL), perceived organizational support (POS), and psychological effects of work on life (PAL) – on job burnout (JB) and turnover intentions (TRN) as well as demographic variables (i.e., gender, income, workhours, children, ethnicity, education, and race). The theorized model is depicted in *Figure 2*.

Figure 2. *Conceptual SEM Model of Work/Non-Work Balance subscales predicting Job Burnout and Turnover Intentions*



Based on the results of the preliminary analyses of demographic variables, The first model employed demonstrated poor model fit, χ^2 (695) = 2929.65, p < .001, CFI = .727, RMSEA = .12, 90% CI [.11, .12], and SRMR = .15. Upon examination of the modification indices, items from the job burnout scale, specifically JB1 and JB2, covaried with items on the PAL and PPFL factors. Thus, to reduce model complexity and decrease item-specific biases, items from the JB and TRN scales were parceled, 3 parcels with 5 items each for the JB scale, and 3 parcels with 3 items each for the TRN scale. The new items were labelled “JBL1, JBL2, JBL3” and “TRNL1, TRNL2, TRNL3.”

A second model was estimated with the parceled items, but the model fit estimates indicated poor model fit, χ^2 (164) = 880.76, p < .001, CFI = .807, RMSEA = .12, 90% CI [.11, .12], SRMR = .15. Upon reviewing the standardized regression estimates, any paths that were not significant at the p < .05 level were excluded from the pruned model to improve model fit and allow for a more parsimonious analysis. The final, trimmed model exhibited acceptable model fit, χ^2 (133) = 511.37, p < .001, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .09, 90% [.08, .10], SRMR = .07 (see *Figure 3*).

Examination of Specific Hypotheses

H1: Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Perceived personal free time did not significantly predict job burnout (β = -.03, p = .809). However, perceived personal free time was significantly associated with turnover intentions (β = -.32, p = .014). As such, individuals with increased perceived personal free time were less likely to report intentions to quit.

H2: Hypothesis 2 was supported. Employees who are more likely to perceive organizational support are less likely to report job burnout (β = -.44, p = .01).

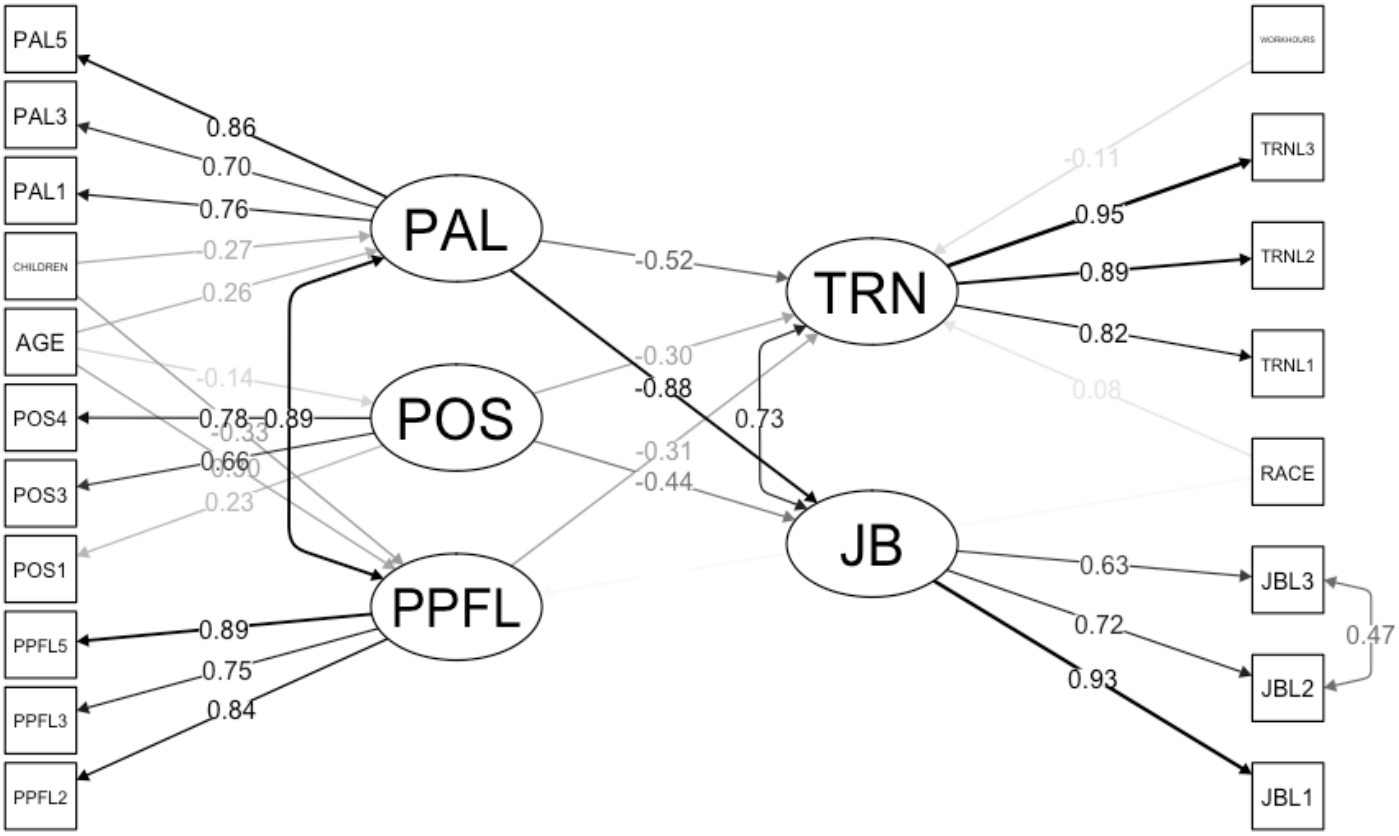
H3a: Hypothesis 3a was supported. Employees who are more likely to experience psychological effects due to work on life are more likely to report increased job burnout (β = .85, p = .031).

H3b: Hypothesis 3b was supported. Employees who are more likely to experience psychological distress due to work are more likely to report turnover intentions (β = .52, p = .001).

H4a and 4b: Since the time management subfactor was not included in the final SEM model, hypothesis 4a and 4b were not tested. However, correlation analyses indicated a negative association between time management and job burnout (r = -.63, p < .001) as well as turnover intentions (r = -.53, p < .001).

Moreover, workhours (β = -.11, p < .001) and race (β = -.07, p = .019) were significantly associated with turnover intentions. As such, individuals who reported to work longer hours during the week were less likely to report intentions to quit. Further, age was significantly associated with perceived personal free time (β = .29, p < .001), perceived organizational support (β = -.14, p = .036), and psychological effects of work on life (β = -.25, p < .001). Similarly, number of children was significantly associated with perceived personal free time (β = -.32, p < .001) and psychological effects of work on life (β = .27, p < .001).

Figure 3. *Final SEM Model of Work/Non-work Balance subscales on Job Burnout and Turnover*



Note: Regression paths shown are significant at $p < .05$ and $p < .001$. Variables labelled as Percieved personal free time (PPFL), Percieved organizational support (POS), Psychological effects of work on life (PAL), Time management (TM)

CHAPTER IV: DISCUSSION

Based on the popular measures of work-life balance and extant research in this field, the current study (1) defined work-life balance from a multiple-role perspective as work/non-work balance, (2) developed a terse scale to measure work/non-work balance broadly, (3) examined the relationship between factors of the hypothesized scale, i.e., perceived personal free time, perceived organizational support, and psychological effects of work on life with job burnout and turnover intentions, and (4) assessed the impact of demographic variables, such as gender, workhours, age, and number of children on the aforementioned factors. These findings contribute to existing literature in two ways. First, in contrast to existing work-life balance scales, which are dominated by studies of married and parental employees (Neteymer et al, 1996; Small & Riley, 1990; Lui et al, 2006), the scale developed in this study examined individual and work-related factors applicable to those who do not have familial commitments. The present study provides preliminary support for a 9-item scale that measures work/non-work balance. Confirmatory factor analyses found 3 subscales which provided a good fit with the data across several goodness of fit indices. Results suggest that work/non-work balance can be categorized into three factors: perceived personal free time, perceived organizational support, and psychological effects of work on life. These subscales presented with both high internal consistencies and strong interrelationships supporting the measurement structure of the developed work/non-work balance scale.

The first hypothesis concerned the negative association of perceived personal free time on job burnout, such that individuals who perceive higher levels of personal free time are less likely to experience job burnout. However, the results indicated no significant relationship between the two factors, which is inconsistent with findings in this field. Kaliath & Brough (2008) found that individuals who perceived compatibility between work and non-work activities

reported higher levels of work/non-work balance. Future studies in this area should be conducted on more diverse samples which may yield different results.

Perceived organizational support presented a significant, negative association with job burnout, thus supporting *Hypothesis 2*, i.e., as individuals feel more supported by their employers, they are less likely to report job burnout. In addition, *Hypothesis 3a* was supported, such that the psychological effects of work on life elicited a significant, positive relationship with job burnout, i.e., employees who report increased psychological distress are more likely to feel job burnout. These findings contribute to existing literature on job demands and decreased organizational support predicting burnout (Haar, 2013; Mas-Machuca et al, 2016; Schaufeli et al, 2009). Moreover, studies have found that work related pressure causes elevated stress levels in individuals who lack effective coping strategies and as such, over time, they tend to experience more job burnout (Amazue & Onyishi, 2016; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Hypothesis *3b* concerns the psychological effects of work on life and turnover intentions. The present study found a significant positive association between psychological effects of work on life and turnover intentions, i.e., individuals who report increased psychological effects of work on life are more likely to report intention to quit. These findings support previous studies (Griffeth et al., 2000; Fried et al., 2008) that identified psychological stress from work to be positively related to turnover intentions. Moreover, perceived personal free time, perceived organizational support, and work hours elucidated significant negative associations with turnover intentions. This provides empirical support to McNall et al.'s (2010a;2010b) suggestion that employees are more likely to reciprocate positive behaviors, such as higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions, when they find evidence of organizational investment in terms of flexible workhours, paid sick-leave, opportunities for growth within the company, etc. The negative association between work hours and turnover intentions is inconsistent with studies done by Holtom et al (2008) and Ya-Yuan Hsu et al (2019) who found long work hours to reduce job satisfaction and as such, contributes to the intention to quit. Perhaps one explanation for the

contrasting results is that previous studies found perceived control of work hours to mediate the relationship between work hours and turnover intentions. As such, those who willingly work long hours may experience higher levels of job engagement and report lower levels of intention to quit.

The decision to eliminate the time management subscale was due to psychometric issues, such as the unsatisfactory internal consistency of the subscale (ω = .622) and items being highly correlated with other factors. That said, the measure may benefit from modifying some of the items. An alternative explanation for insignificant findings could be attributed to the conditions of data collection, i.e., data for this study were collected during the COVID-19 pandemic, which could have affected employees' working conditions and subsequently, time management behaviors. Although time management was not included in the final measurement structure of work/non-work balance, it did highly correlate with psychological effects of work on life (r = .70, p < .001) which is consistent with recent findings from Caci et. al (2020) about the effects of time management during a pandemic, and its effects on reducing psychological distress, such that employees who have improved time management skills are less likely to feel emotional fatigue due to work demands.

The present study did not find any significant differences between men and women with respect to the work/non-work balance subscales. The evidence in relation to gender differences in work-life balance is inconsistent with some studies finding that women report higher levels of work-life imbalance (e.g., Crompton & Lyonette, 2006; Dex & Bond, 2005) and supportive of others who also found insignificant gender differences (e.g., Bari & Robert, 2016; Byron, 2005) in perceived work-life balance. However, this study found differences based on age and children on the subscales of work/non-work balance. Moreover, there was a significant positive association between age and perceived personal free time, such that older employees reported higher levels of perceived personal free time as compared to respondents from younger age groups. Age was negatively associated with both perceived organizational support and

psychological effects of work on life. Thus, respondents from older age groups reported lower levels of perceived organizational support and psychological effects of work on life. These results align with the findings from a study carried out by Richert-Kaźmierska & Stankiewicz (2016) who found employees of older age groups to report positive assessments of achieved work-life balance, specifically psychological well-being. Also, this study found that employees of older groups were less likely to feel benefited by the decisions made by their organization. Further, the results of the present study demonstrated that number of children negatively impacted perceived personal free time and positively impacted the psychological effects of work on life. These findings are not surprising given the number of children individuals have can strain their ability to balance family responsibilities with work demands, which can ultimately exacerbate the psychological distress of work on life (Lui et al, 2006; Michel et al, 2010).

Limitations and Future Research

However, this study had several limitations. For instance, all measures were collected from self-reported surveys, and respondents from Amazon MTurk were not asked about the industries they are currently employed in. Thus, the results obtained need to be further validated by gathering information on employee occupation and collect data from other sources, such as testimonies from family/friends to account for common method bias. Moreover, the study measured the factors of work/non-work balance and other variables at a specific point in time, and analyses through a longitudinal study design would be more beneficial. The sample has a disproportionate number of men (64.5%) and women (35.5%) as well as over half the participants self-identifying as white (57.9%). Future studies should consider a larger and more representative sample that is inclusive of gender and racial diversities. Another limitation of this study was that data were collected during COVID-19 pandemic and respondents were not asked about their location of work (i.e., work from home or work from the office), which could have influenced their overall outlook on work/non-work balance. It would be beneficial to examine pre-COVID studies on work/non-work balance and compare the findings with post-

COVID studies to investigate the impact of the pandemic on employees' perceived work/non-work balance.

Conclusions

The present study furthers the literature by defining work-life balance from a broad, multiple-role perspective (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011) as work/non-work balance or achieving a state of equilibrium across work and non-work domains. This study presents a new measure of work/non-work balance based on 3 factors: perceived personal free time, perceived organizational support, and psychological eustress/distress, and a total of 9 items; 3 items per factor. Overall, this study found that perceived organizational support and psychological effects of work on life can significantly predict job burnout and intention to quit. Further, this study emphasizes the negative effects of work hours on job burnout and turnover intentions. As such, one of the strongest implications from this study is for organizations to revise their policies on work hours, paid leave, and company culture. Given the drastic impact of the pandemic, organizations should take proactive measures to provide employees with resources that can help them cope with work/non-work imbalance, such as access to mental health resources, work from home flexibility, and allocated time for employees to directly communicate with their supervisors about any work-related issues. The current research presents significant implications on HR policies and practices that organizations need to examine to improve job satisfaction, job engagement, and employee retention.

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APPENDIX A

Table 9. *One-way ANOVA by Income Level on Measures*

	N	*M*	*SD*	*F*(317)	*p*	η^2
PPFL				2.67	.003	0.06
Less than $10,000	6	2.56	1.31			
$10,000 - $19,999	28	2.55	0.96			
$20,000 - $29,999	33	2.27	1.02			
$30,000 - $39,999	34	3.16	1.49			
$40,000 - $49,999	40	2.80	1.20			
$50,000 - $59,999	53	3.29	1.23			
$60,000 - $69,999	26	3.29	1.28			
$70,000 - $79,999	30	2.86	1.20			
$80,000 - $89,999	15	3.02	1.28			
$90,000 - $99,999	14	3.52	1.31			
$100,000 - $149,999	30	3.33	1.30			
More than $150,000	9	3.56	0.94			
Total	318	3.00	1.26			
POS				.75	.665	0.06
Less than $10,000	6	3.83	0.51			
$10,000 - $19,999	28	3.69	0.73			
$20,000 - $29,999	33	3.97	0.70			
$30,000 - $39,999	34	3.90	0.88			
$40,000 - $49,999	40	4.00	0.71			
$50,000 - $59,999	53	3.83	0.81			
$60,000 - $69,999	26	4.03	0.69			
$70,000 - $79,999	30	3.58	1.01			
$80,000 - $89,999	15	3.93	0.91			
$90,000 - $99,999	14	3.88	0.83			
$100,000 - $149,999	30	3.94	0.87			
More than $150,000	9	3.81	0.58			
Total	318	3.87	0.80			
PAL				1.54	.115	0.05
Less than $10,000	6	2.94	1.18			
$10,000 - $19,999	28	2.70	0.93			

$20,000 - $29,999	33	2.28	0.94			
$30,000 - $39,999	34	2.99	1.42			
$40,000 - $49,999	40	2.61	1.11			
$50,000 - $59,999	53	3.00	1.09			
$60,000 - $69,999	26	2.92	1.24			
$70,000 - $79,999	30	2.57	1.11			
$80,000 - $89,999	15	2.71	1.25			
$90,000 - $99,999	14	3.24	1.12			
$100,000 - $149,999	30	2.98	1.34			
More than $150,000	9	3.37	1.11			
Total	318	2.81	1.17			
JB				1.75	.063	0.06
Less than $10,000	6	2.69	0.74			
$10,000 - $19,999	28	2.88	0.52			
$20,000 - $29,999	33	2.94	0.43			
$30,000 - $39,999	34	2.59	0.85			
$40,000 - $49,999	40	2.65	0.68			
$50,000 - $59,999	53	2.50	0.75			
$60,000 - $69,999	26	2.64	0.67			
$70,000 - $79,999	30	2.78	0.65			
$80,000 - $89,999	15	2.61	0.72			
$90,000 - $99,999	14	2.60	0.88			
$100,000 - $149,999	30	2.51	0.81			
More than $150,000	9	2.11	0.44			
Total	318	2.65	0.71			
TRN				3.40	< .001	0.11
Less than $10,000	6	2.93	1.05			
$10,000 - $19,999	28	3.23	0.92			
$20,000 - $29,999	33	3.70	0.77			
$30,000 - $39,999	34	3.03	1.27			
$40,000 - $49,999	40	3.09	1.03			
$50,000 - $59,999	53	2.79	0.97			
$60,000 - $69,999	26	3.00	1.02			
$70,000 - $79,999	30	3.35	0.96			

$80,000 - $89,999	15	3.24	1.11
$90,000 - $99,999	14	2.81	1.24
$100,000 - $149,999	30	2.76	1.21
More than $150,000	9	1.77	0.74
Total	318	3.05	1.08

Note: Variables labelled as Percieved personal free time (PPFL), Percieved organizational support (POS), Psychological effects of work on life (PAL), Time management (TM).

APPENDIX B

Table 10. *One Way ANOVA by Work-Hours on Measures*

	N	*M*	*SD*	*F*(317)	*p*	η^2
PPFL				9.78	< .001	0.11
Less than 25 hours	3	1.89	0.96			
25 – 30 hours	32	1.93	0.68			
30 – 40 hours	139	3.03	1.36			
40 – 50 hours	131	3.30	1.13			
More than 50 hours	13	2.49	0.98			
Total	318	3.00	1.26			
POS				5.11	< .001	0.06
Less than 25 hours	3	3.89	1.07			
25 – 30 hours	32	4.21	0.40			
30 – 40 hours	139	3.98	0.76			
40 – 50 hours	131	3.74	0.82			
More than 50 hours	13	3.26	1.10			
Total	318	3.87	0.80			
PAL				7.44	< .001	0.09
Less than 25 hours	3	1.67	0.67			
25 – 30 hours	32	1.96	0.85			
30 – 40 hours	139	2.82	1.23			
40 – 50 hours	131	3.07	1.08			
More than 50 hours	13	2.44	0.91			
Total	318	2.81	1.17			
JB				1.69	.151	0.02
Less than 25 hours	3	3.16	0.04			
25 – 30 hours	32	2.91	0.48			
30 – 40 hours	139	2.62	0.72			
40 – 50 hours	131	2.6	0.72			
More than 50 hours	13	2.65	0.84			
Total	318	2.65	0.71			
TRN				5.87	< .001	0.07
Less than 25 hours	3	3.52	1.13			

25 – 30 hours	32	3.82	0.69
30 – 40 hours	139	3.06	1.09
40 – 50 hours	131	2.88	1.04
More than 50 hours	13	2.66	1.24
Total	318	3.05	0.06

Note: Variables labelled as Percieved personal free time (PPFL), Percieved organizational support (POS), Psychological effects of work on life (PAL), Time management (TM).

APPENDIX C

Table 11. *One-way ANOVA by Education Level on Measures*

	N	*M*	*SD*	*F*(317)	*p*	η^2
PPFL				1.22	.294	0.02
Less than high school	3	3.33	1.86			
High school/ GED	17	3.20	1.20			
Some college	20	3.08	1.29			
2-year degree	27	3.36	1.37			
4-year degree	174	2.94	1.22			
Professional degree	70	3.01	1.32			
Doctorate degree	7	2.05	0.80			
Total	318	3.00	1.26			
POS				1.61	.143	0.03
Less than high school	3	3.67	2.03			
High school/ GED	17	3.57	0.90			
Some college	20	3.85	0.88			
2-year degree	27	3.73	0.97			
4-year degree	174	3.95	0.69			
Professional degree	70	3.89	0.85			
Doctorate degree	7	3.24	0.71			
Total	318	3.87	0.80			
PAL				1.22	.293	0.02
Less than high school	3	3.11	2.01			
High school/ GED	17	3.27	1.02			
Some college	20	2.75	1.20			
2-year degree	27	3.14	1.22			
4-year degree	174	2.78	1.16			
Professional degree	70	2.69	1.17			
Doctorate degree	7	2.29	0.62			
Total	318	2.81	1.17			
JB				.73	.627	0.03
Less than high school	3	2.60	1.16			
High school/ GED	17	2.65	0.84			
Some college	20	2.56	0.80			

2-year degree	27	2.49	0.76			
4-year degree	174	2.66	0.67			
Professional degree	70	2.66	0.72			
Doctorate degree	7	3.09	0.31			
Total	318	2.65	0.71			
TRN				.59	.738	0.02
Less than high school	3	2.33	1.76			
High school/ GED	17	2.95	1.22			
Some college	20	2.98	1.12			
2-year degree	27	2.84	1.21			
4-year degree	174	3.09	1.01			
Professional degree	70	3.07	1.15			
Doctorate degree	7	3.37	0.67			
Total	318	3.05	1.08			

Note: Variables labelled as Percieved personal free time (PPFL), Percieved organizational support (POS), Psychological effects of work on life (PAL), Time management (TM).

APPENDIX D

IRB Approval

EAST CAROLINA UNIVERSITY
University & Medical Center Institutional Review Board
4N-64 Brody Medical Sciences Building· Mail Stop 682
600 Moye Boulevard · Greenville, NC 27834
Office **252-744-2914** · Fax **252-744-2284** ·
rede.ecu.edu/umcirb/

Notification of Exempt Certification

From: Social/Behavioral IRB
To: Mark Bowler
CC:
Date: 3/22/2021
Re: UMCIRB 21-000425
Work/non-work Behaviors

I am pleased to inform you that your research submission has been certified as exempt on 3/22/2021. This study is eligible for Exempt Certification under category # 2a.

It is your responsibility to ensure that this research is conducted in the manner reported in your application and/or protocol, as well as being consistent with the ethical principles of the Belmont Report and your profession.

This research study does not require any additional interaction with the UMCIRB unless there are proposed changes to this study. Any change, prior to implementing that change, must be submitted to the UMCIRB for review and approval. The UMCIRB will determine if the change impacts the eligibility of the research for exempt status. If more substantive review is required, you will be notified within five business days.

Document	Description
Work Consent Form [MTURK].docx(0.01)	Consent Forms
Work Measures.docx(0.01)	Surveys and Questionnaires
Work Mturk Listing.docx(0.01)	Recruitment Documents/Scripts

For research studies where a waiver or alteration of HIPAA Authorization has been approved, the IRB states that each of the waiver criteria in 45 CFR 164.512(i)(1)(i)(A) and (2)(i) through (v) have been met. Additionally, the elements of PHI to be collected as described in items 1 and 2 of the Application for Waiver of Authorization have been determined to be the minimal necessary for the specified research.

The Chairperson (or designee) does not have a potential for conflict of interest on this study.