

The University of Southern Mississippi
The Aquila Digital Community

Dissertations

Summer 8-2017

**The Moderating Role of Sex on Gender Role Orientation's
Meditation of Work-Family/Family-Work Conflict and Satisfaction
Outcomes**

Deirdre Lynn Paulson-O'Donovan
University of Southern Mississippi

Follow this and additional works at: <https://aquila.usm.edu/dissertations>



Part of the [Other Psychology Commons](#), and the [Social Psychology Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Paulson-O'Donovan, Deirdre Lynn, "The Moderating Role of Sex on Gender Role Orientation's Meditation of Work-Family/Family-Work Conflict and Satisfaction Outcomes" (2017). *Dissertations*. 170.
<https://aquila.usm.edu/dissertations/170>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by The Aquila Digital Community. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of The Aquila Digital Community. For more information, please contact Joshua.Cromwell@usm.edu.

THE MODERATING ROLE OF SEX ON GENDER ROLE ORIENTATION'S
MEDITATION OF WORK-FAMILY/FAMILY-WORK CONFLICT
AND SATISFACTION OUTCOMES

by

Deirdre Lynn Paulson-O'Donovan

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate School
and the Department of Psychology
at The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Approved:

Dr. Melanie Leuty, Committee Chair
Assistant Professor, Psychology

Dr. Emily Bullock Yowell, Committee Member
Associate Professor, Psychology

Dr. Bonnie Nicholson, Committee Member
Associate Professor, Psychology

Dr. Richard Mohn, Committee Member
Associate Professor, Educational Studies and Research

Dr. Karen S. Coats
Dean of the Graduate School

August 2017

COPYRIGHT BY
DEIRDRE LYNN PAULSON-O'DONOVAN
2017

ABSTRACT

THE MODERATING ROLE OF SEX ON GENDER ROLE ORIENTATION'S MEDIATION OF WORK-FAMILY/FAMILY-WORK CONFLICT AND SATISFACTION OUTCOMES

by Deirdre Paulson-O'Donovan

August 2017

While biological sex has been examined in the work-family interface, findings have been inconsistent in determining if males and females differ in their experiences of work-family conflict (WFC) and family-work conflict (FWC), and how conflict impacts their job, family, and life satisfaction. These inconsistent findings may be due to the changing roles of men and women in today's society, as not all men and women are adhering to traditional gender roles as is assumed of men and women in previous studies. Furthermore, many researchers on the work-family interface have used incorrect terminology throughout their studies, indicating that they examined gender, when they actually assessed sex. Thus, the current study's purpose was to address the shortcomings of the previous literature by examining how male and female's gender role orientation (one's degree of conformity to his or her traditional gender roles) mediated the relationship between WFC/FWC and job, family, and life satisfaction. It was hypothesized that gender role orientation would significantly mediate the relations between WFC and job, family, and life satisfaction. It was also hypothesized that gender role orientation would significantly mediate the relations between FWC and job, family, and life satisfaction. Third, it was hypothesized that sex would moderate the significant mediation of WFC/FWC and job, family, life satisfaction, by gender role orientation.

Specifically, it was expected that egalitarian gender role orientation would mediate the relationship between WFC and family satisfaction for males. It was also specifically expected that gender role orientation would mediate the relationship between FWC and job satisfaction for males with more traditional gender role orientation, explaining a significant negative relationship between FWC and job satisfaction. The current study sampled approximately 400 working adults (205 male and 234 female) using Amazon's Mechanical Turk. Preliminary analyses found that having children related to more FWC, having younger children related to more FWC and more family satisfaction, and having only one child living in the home related to less job satisfaction. Additional preliminary analyses found that viewing one's job as a career related to more job and life satisfaction, higher levels of education related to more FWC, and higher levels of the participant's spouse's education related to more FWC and WFC. Following preliminary analyses, a structural equation modeling approach was employed to examine all variables in the same model concurrently. Results found significant direct effects for WFC and job satisfaction and WFC and life satisfaction, but not for WFC and family satisfaction, FWC and job satisfaction, FWC and family satisfaction, and FWC and life satisfaction. Contrary to study hypotheses, there were no significant indirect effects, indicating that gender role orientation did not mediate any paths between WFC and FWC and satisfaction outcomes. Due to the absence of any significant mediation, examining sex as a moderator of gender role orientation's mediation could not be conducted. However, due to finding two significant direct effects between conflict and satisfaction outcomes, analyses were run to determine if sex moderated any direct paths between conflict and satisfaction outcomes, finding that sex was not a significant moderator. Lastly, it was found that females

adhered to more egalitarian gender roles than males. Results obtained from this study add support for interventions in the workplace to increase job satisfaction and life satisfaction as well as interventions in the home domain to increase family satisfaction.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First, I would like to thank my major professor and dissertation committee chair, Dr. Melanie Leuty, for all of the hard work she put into helping me achieve this major milestone. Further, I would like to thank my other committee members, Dr. Emily Bullock Yowell, Dr. Bonnie Nicholson, and Dr. Richard Mohn, for their support towards my completion of this project. I would also like to express my gratitude towards several of my graduate student colleagues who helped me learn some of the statistics required for this project, prepare for my defense, and manage the stress related to the completion of this project. Lastly, I am very thankful for my family for their unconditional support throughout my graduate school career.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	ix
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
The Spillover Model Related to Work and Home Life	
Outcomes of WFC/FWC	
Sex and its Relations to WFC/FWC	
An Underlying Mechanism that Explains the Relationship between Sex	
and Conflict	
The Current Study	
II. METHOD	38
Participants and Procedures	
Measures	
Data Analysis	
III. RESULTS	54
IV. DISCUSSION	59
Limitations	
Implications	
APPENDIXES	73
REFERENCES	86

LIST OF TABLES

Table

1. Zero-order correlations between study variables54
2. Mediation of the effect of WFC and FWC on job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction by gender role orientation.....56
3. *T*-tests for sex on all the model variables.....58

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure

1. Path Model of work-family conflict and family-work conflict as independent variables, sex as a moderator, gender role orientation as a mediator, and job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction as dependent variables37
2. Path Model of work-family conflict and family-work conflict as independent variables, sex as a moderator, gender role orientation as a mediator, and job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction as dependent variables53
3. Path Model of significant direct effects from mediation with work-family conflict and family-work conflict as independent variables, sex as a moderator, gender role orientation as a mediator, and job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction as dependent variables. Path coefficients and significance levels indicated.....57
4. Direct paths between work-family conflict and family work conflict and job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction58

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Work-family conflict (WFC) and family-work conflict (FWC) are important constructs to examine in the vocational literature because both forms of conflict can have effects on individuals and organizations (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). Conflict has been found to be a source of stress and is negatively related to decreased productivity, performance both at home and at work, job satisfaction, family satisfaction, life satisfaction, and job retention rates, as well as related to increased absenteeism, burnout, and issues at home with children and partners (Appel & Kim-Appel, 2008; Boyar & Mosley, 2007; Frye & Breugh, 2004; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kelly & Voydanoff, 1985; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). Although there is a significant amount of research that consistently documents evidence that WFC/FWC is correlated with work-related (i.e., job satisfaction, absenteeism) and non-work related (i.e., poorer performance at home, decreased family and life satisfaction) outcomes, there is less research devoted to understanding possible significant differences in men and women's experiences of WFC/FWC and individuals' levels of job, family, and life satisfaction.

Using gender role theory as a framework, many researchers have found that sex is related to experiences of WFC/FWC and that sex often moderates the relations between conflict and outcome variables such as job, family, and life satisfaction (Grandey, Cordeiro, & Crouter, 2005). However, other researchers have found few sex differences in experiences of WFC/FWC or that sex did not moderate the relations between conflict and other outcomes (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Nohe, Meier, Sonntag, & Michel, 2015). Although sparse, more recent efforts to examine constructs that relate to sex that may explain the inconsistent relationship between sex and conflict can be found

in the vocational literature. Researchers have started to examine attitudes toward one's gender, such as adherence to gender roles, rather than one's biological sex, to better explain how gender may relate to conflict between work and family domains (Minnotte, Minnotte, & Pedersen, 2013; Minnotte et al., 2010). However, this literature is still scant, and very few studies include the examination of how conflict may affect experiences of job, family, and life satisfaction. Furthermore, many studies that examine the work-family interface use language that can sometimes be misleading. For example, many studies indicate that they examined gender (e.g., being a man or a woman), which is society's given rules of masculinity and femininity for males and females (Valdez & Lilly, 2014), but only examined sex (i.e., endorsing one is biologically male or female). Thus, more nuanced research that includes more accurate assessment of the underlying reasons why men and women may differ on WFC and FWC is needed to clarify these relationships between variables. This goal may be met by examining males and females and their adherence to gender roles (i.e., masculine, feminine), as not all males adhere to masculine roles and not all females adhere to feminine roles, which all may relate to experiences of WFC and FWC. Moreover, additional examination regarding one's adherence to one's gender roles and how that relates to the relationships between WFC/FWC and job satisfaction is important for further theory development. It is also important because it can help organizations and companies create interventions to help increase retention rates and their employees' satisfaction and productivity. Therefore, a more in-depth examination of the specific mechanisms by which sex may moderate gender roles and how gender roles mediate the relationship between conflict and outcome

variables is needed and is relevant to fully understanding WFC/FWC, and was the focus of the proposed study.

The Spillover Model Related to Work and Home Life

Decades ago, it was believed that the home and work domains of one's life were independent from each other but, over time, researchers have been able to provide significant evidence that these domains are related (Edwards & Rothard, 2000) and can affect one another (Jaga & Bagraim, 2011). When one domain (i.e., work or home) affects the other domain, or when involvement in one environment influences involvement in the other environment, it is referred to as spillover (Grzywacz, Almeida, & McDonoald, 2002). Spillover, specifically related to work and home, is often referred to as the work-family interface (Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurts, & Pulkkinen, 2006). Factors such as affect, values, skills, behaviors (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), attitudes, ideas, principles (Stevanovic & Rupert, 2009) strain, and beliefs (Kinnunen et al., 2006) have been found to carry over from one environment into another (Staines, 1980). Further, sex and/or gender has been found to effect one's experiences of spillover (Greer, Stephens, & Coleman, 2001).

Two broad forms of spillover have been identified in the vocational literature, positive and negative spillover (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Positive spillover, often referred to enrichment or enhancement (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), is when participation in one environment benefits or enriches another domain and creates fulfillment and enjoyment rather than strain (Rothbard, 2001), as well as enhances quality of life in the other domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Positive spillover includes two specific forms, work-family enrichment (WFE), which is when positive aspects of work carry

over into the home environment, and family-work enrichment (FWE), which is when positive aspects of the home domain carry over into work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). According to the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002), positive spillover occurs because involvement in multiple domains allows for more resources and energy to be gained and used for development and improved functioning in more than one domain (Barnett, 1998; Kinnunen et al., 2006). For example, employees who have strong social support in multiple environments are likely to have access to more resources because of their social support, which can be used for increasing satisfaction at home with their family and at work. Further, research has found that experiences of positive spillover may differ based on sex, as Grzywacz and Marks (2000) found that women had greater experiences of positive spillover in comparison to men. However, Greenhaus and Powell (2006), who reviewed several research articles that examined sex and positive spillover, found that research has been inconsistent in finding if men and women's experiences of positive spillover significantly differ.

In contrast, negative spillover, often referred to as conflict, occurs when involvement in one domain makes involvement in another domain problematic or more arduous (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Simply, satisfying demands in one domain creates more strain in satisfying demands in the other domain (Hammer, Grigsby, & Woods, 1998). Based on the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002), negative spillover occurs because humans only have a certain amount of energy and resources, and engagement in multiple domains can result in energy and resources diminishing, creating conflict and strain (Rothbard, 2001; van Steenbergen, Kluwer, & Karney, 2014). Negative spillover also includes two specific forms; work-family conflict, which is when there is negative

spillover occurring from work to family (WFC), and family-work conflict, which is when there is negative spillover occurring from family to work (FWC) (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrin, 1996). An example of WFC is when an employee has an overbearing supervisor that results in the employee going home irritable and with a low mood, which then can disrupt relationships in the family domain. Whereas an example of FWC is when a working parent has to miss work to care for a sick child, resulting in strain from work tasks not being completed. Although WFC and FWC have been conceptualized as independent constructs, researchers have found they are experienced at similar rates (Garies, Barnett, Ertel, & Berkman, 2009) and that they are significantly related to each other (Rotondo & Kincaid, 2008). For example, strain in the home has been found to be related to WFC and FWC (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Furthermore, greater amounts of stress at work and in the home environment have been found to have negative consequences on both environments (Frone et al., 1992). Moreover, examining conflict in general, research has been inconsistent in determining if there is a significant difference in men and women's experiences of conflict (Powell & Greenhaus, 2009). For example, Kinnunen and colleagues (2004) did not find any significant differences between males and females and their experiences of WFC/FWC, which is consistent with the majority of empirical research. However, Allen and Finkelstein (2014) recently found that females experienced more FWC than males.

Research on both forms of spillover, conflict and enrichment, has found that there is an inverse relationship between these two constructs. For example, WFC has been found to be significantly negatively related to WFE, and FWC has been found to be significantly negatively related to FWE (Jijena-Michel & Jijena Michel, 2012). Although

vocational literature supports that conflict and enrichment are related, researchers note that low levels of conflict do not correspond to increased enrichment carrying over between work and home or vice versa (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Given this, Voydanoff (2005) theorizes that conflict and enrichment are not dependent on each other and, therefore, these two variables should be conceptualized as independent constructs, rather than along the same continuum, which is supported by other researchers (Carlson et al., 2010; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003; Grzywacz & Butler, 2005). More recent literature also supports that enrichment and conflict should be conceptualized as separate constructs due to finding that conflict from both the work and home domains was significantly related to balancing demands from home and work, but enrichment was not (Lee, Zvonkovic, & Crawford, 2013).

Consequences of both enrichment and conflict have been, and are continuing to be studied, including their relationships with work-related outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction, job performance) and non work-related outcomes (e.g. life satisfaction, family satisfaction) (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). Researchers have proposed two differing hypotheses, the cross-domain hypothesis and the same-domain hypothesis, to help explain the relationships between positive and negative spillover and various outcomes. For example, researchers who have approached the work-family interface using the cross-domain hypothesis (i.e., conflict in one domain carries over and affects satisfaction in the other domain rather than in the same domain), have found that WFE and WFC are generally related to life and family satisfaction whereas FWE and FWC have been found to be more strongly related to job satisfaction (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Ford et al., 2007; McNall et al., 2010). On the other hand, researchers who

have approached the work-family interface using the matching or same-domain hypothesis (i.e., the effects of the spillover of conflict affect the domain in which the conflict was created), have found that spillover from work-to-family was related to job satisfaction, and spillover from family-to-work was related to family satisfaction (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011).

A meta-analysis by Ford and colleagues (2007) examined evidence for both the cross-domain and the same-domain hypotheses. They included in their meta-analysis articles found in the Social Sciences Citation Index, PsycINFO, and a manual search using the key words WFC, “work interfering with family,” and “family interfering with work.” They found that 7% of the variance in family satisfaction and 37% of the variance in WFC were accounted for by variables in the work domain and 7% of the variance in job satisfaction scores and 21% of the variance in FWC were related to variables in the family domain, supporting the cross-domain hypothesis. Particularly, they found the strongest negative relationship between work stress and family satisfaction. Also, Ford and colleagues (2007) found a significant negative relationship between WFC and family satisfaction for participants who had children, which is consistent with previous research that has found that having children is significantly related to increased experiences of conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Furthermore, finding evidence supporting the same-domain hypothesis, Brough and colleagues (2005) assessed employees between the ages of 14 and 74 years working at 23 large companies in New Zealand. Participants completed questionnaires at Time 1 ($n = 691$) and then six months later at Time 2 ($n = 398$) that assessed WFC, FWC, job satisfaction, family satisfaction, workplace resources, and family resources. They found

that FWC was related to decreased family satisfaction and WFC was related to decreased job satisfaction; thus, supporting the same-domain hypothesis. As it can be seen, both approaches have found empirical support for their hypothesis (Amstad et al., 2011; Ford et al., 2007) highlighting that, conflict and enrichment, regardless of the direction, relates to the same outcomes of job, family, and life satisfaction in both the same and cross domains.

Because both the same-domain and cross-domain hypotheses relate to the same outcome variables, researchers have examined both forms of enrichment and their relationships with job, family, and life satisfaction, finding that WFE and FWE were related to job, family, and life of satisfaction (MchNall et al., 2010). More specifically, WFE has been found to be significantly related to increased job satisfaction (Jaga & Bagraim, 2011) and FWE has been found to be positively related to family satisfaction (Boyar & Mosley, 2007). Also, WFE has been found to be related to marital satisfaction (van Steenbergen et al., 2014). Although many researchers examine the relationship between enrichment and satisfaction outcomes, very little research has examined if there are sex differences in this relationship (Shockley & Singla, 2011). With the limited literature available, Shockley and Singla (2011) conducted a meta-analysis and found that sex, as a proxy for gender, significantly moderated the relationship between enrichment and job and family satisfaction in samples that included more females. However, the authors note that their conclusions are not definite, as many articles included in their analysis had opposing “theoretical propositions” and high proportions of male participants.

Similar to enrichment, several researchers have examined the relationship between conflict and outcome variables, finding that WFC was significantly related to less job satisfaction (Bruck, Allen, & Spector, 2002). Specifically, Bruck and colleagues (2002) found that individuals who could not adjust their work behavior into appropriate home behavior had more conflict carrying over from work into their home, which was related to less job satisfaction. Furthermore, Naz, Gul, and Hak (2011) found that WFC was significantly negatively related to job and life satisfaction. Examining spillover from the home environment into the work environment, Boles, Howard, and Donofrio (2001) found that FWC was related to less job satisfaction, which is consistent with Sandberg and colleague's (2012) findings that FWC was related to less job satisfaction. Overall, researchers report that studies generally only examine correlations between WFC and FWC and job satisfaction, and fail to examine more specific mechanisms that create conflict between domains, such as mental disorders or adherence to gender roles. Therefore, they report that further research is needed to fully understand spillover between work and home domains (Leiter & Durup, 1996; Sandburg et al., 2012; Stevens et al., 2007). The limited research that has examined sex and/or gender has been inconsistent in finding if sex and/or gender impacts the relationship between conflict and satisfaction outcomes (Zhao, Settles, Sheng, 2011).

Although enrichment is an important construct, finding that conflict leads to more negative outcomes than enrichment, such as increased burnout, less job satisfaction, and less life satisfaction (Bruck et al., 2002; Naz et al., 2011), suggests studying conflict may be a more pressing issue than studying enrichment. Also, researchers have found that conflict is more strongly associated with the aforementioned negative outcomes than

enrichment. Moreover, research on enrichment has suggested that enrichment may serve as a buffer between conflict and negative outcomes (Gryzywacz & Bass, 2003), thus the relationship between conflict and outcome variables should be studied first due to research finding a direct relationship between conflict and outcomes, before understanding the buffering effects of enrichment. Therefore, further investigation of the role of conflict is needed in understating work related outcomes such as job satisfaction and non work-related outcomes such as family and life satisfaction.

Outcomes of WFC/FWC

Typical outcome variables assessed in the work-family interface are various forms of satisfaction, such as job, family, and life satisfaction. All three forms of satisfaction have been found to be affected by WFC and FWC and all three forms have been found to relate to each other (Ford et al., 2007; Frone et al., 1992; Gao, Shi, Niu, & Wang, 2013; Judge & Watanabe, 1993). Thus, job, family, and life satisfaction are all important constructs to examine while studying the work-family interface.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is described as an individual's assessment of his or her job meeting his/her needs and providing gratification (Besen et al., 2013; Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992; Lambert, 2010). Measurement of job satisfaction includes examining multiple specific dimensions of the work domain that can be satisfying as well as examining overall or global assessments of job satisfaction (Federici & Skaalvik, 2012). Specific dimensions of work that have been measured have been reviewed by Spector (1997) and include satisfaction with; appreciation, communication, co-workers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of the work itself, the nature of the organization itself, an

organization's policies and procedures, pay, personal growth, promotion opportunities, recognition, security, and supervision. Alternatively, global measures assess one's overall attitude towards his or her job (Lu, While, & Barriball, 2005). Lu and colleagues (2005) report that measures that assess specific aspects of job satisfaction are useful when wanting to discover which components of work produce higher or lower levels of job satisfaction whereas global measures are useful when wanting to assess overall job satisfaction.

Examining sex and its relations to job satisfaction, research findings have been inconsistent in determining if sex significantly relates to levels of job satisfaction. For example, Yazici and Altun (2013) did not find a significant difference between males' and females' experiences of job satisfaction whereas Zou (2015) did find support for sex differences. Inconsistent results may be due to differences in samples, as the sample in Yazici and Altun's (2013) study included college instructors working in Turkey, whereas participants sampled in Zou's (2015) study were living in the United Kingdom and some were only working part-time. It may be that differences in cultures resulted in different experiences of job satisfaction for males and females. Also, Yazici and Altun's (2013) sample was made up of all highly educated participants working in the same profession, which may have led to males and females experiencing similar amounts of job satisfaction. This is significantly different than Zou's (2015) study, as his sample consisted of multiple jobs and education levels, which may have resulted in varying experiences of job satisfaction for males and females.

Furthermore, examining negative spillover and its relations to job satisfaction, both WFC and FWC were found to have a significant negative relationship with global

job satisfaction (Gao et al., 2013). Researchers theorize that job satisfaction is impacted by conflict because conflict causes individuals to experience increased amounts of distress associated with various life roles (i.e., work or family), thus decreasing their satisfaction in various life domains such as work (Frone et al., 1992). For example, Frone and colleagues (1992) discuss that, as compared to individuals who do not experience FWC, individuals with increased amounts of FWC report more job-related distress because they likely feel overwhelmed with trying to balance both work and home demands, which then decreases their job satisfaction. Findings from other researchers have supported this notion (see Bedeian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988; Noor, 2003; Parasuraman et al., 1989). Furthermore, job satisfaction is an important construct given its relation to other outcomes. Increased satisfaction with one's work has been found to be related to decreased burnout (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009), stress at work (Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek, & Frings-Dresen, 2003), intentions to quit, and employee turnover (Kudo et al., 2006). In sum, job satisfaction is an essential construct to examine in the spillover model, as it relates to negative outcomes at work and to increased experiences of distress.

Family Satisfaction

Spillover between domains not only relates to one's satisfaction in the work domain, but also it relates to satisfaction in the home domain, also known as family satisfaction. Family satisfaction is defined as an individuals' satisfaction with their family (i.e., parents, children, siblings, significant others) and the relationships with those family members (Carver & Jones, 1992). Family satisfaction may encompass several facets of satisfaction with one's home life, such as parental satisfaction and marital satisfaction

(Kinnunen, Guerts, & Mauno, 2004). However, most researchers have approached assessing family satisfaction with global measures rather than assessing satisfaction of each of these facets independently (Brough et al., 2005; Ford et al., 2007). The definition of family satisfaction may vary amongst individuals, such as couples who are married with children may define their family satisfaction based on their relationships with their children, whereas participants who are not married may base their family satisfaction on their relationships with their partner, siblings, parents, or other family members. Although individual differences may exist, global measures of family satisfaction attempt to account for this by including broad questions that assess for the positive or negative feelings participants have towards their family situation (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008).

Furthermore, like the relationship between sex and job satisfaction, research finding have been inconsistent in determining if there are significant differences between males' and females' and/or men and women's experiences of family satisfaction. For example, Forste and Fox (2012) found that men had significantly higher levels family satisfaction in comparison to women. However, Mills and colleagues (1992) found that wives had significantly higher levels of family satisfaction in comparison to husbands, which is consistent with Daig and colleagues (2009) who found that women had higher levels of family satisfaction in comparison to men. As with sex and job satisfaction, inconsistent results for sex and family satisfaction may be due to the study's samples. For example, Forste and Fox's (2012) data was collected from participants throughout the world (e.g., 31 countries) whereas Mills and colleagues (1992) data was collected from participants living in the state of Oklahoma, while Daig and colleague's (2009) study was

a nationwide study in Germany. The samples that were limited to one region may have led to finding more traditional samples (i.e., women value home, men value work), resulting in finding that females experienced higher levels of family satisfaction than men, whereas a more global sample may have represented less traditional participants or represented more diverse cultural values, resulting in men having higher levels of family satisfaction.

Moreover, similar to the relationship between conflict and job satisfaction, family satisfaction has also been found to be related to conflict because conflict causes an individual to experience increased amounts of distress; therefore decreasing satisfaction at work and at home with family (Frone et al., 1992). In relation to negative spillover and family satisfaction, family satisfaction has been found to have a significant negative relationship with WFC (Frye & Breugh, 2004; Ford et al., 2007) and FWC (Boyar & Mosley, 2007; Brough, O'Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2005). Given the relations across domains, research on both WFC and FWC suggest inclusion of both job and family satisfaction.

Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction is defined as an individual's overall judgment of the quality of his/her life (Lambert, 2010). Similar to satisfaction in other domains, life satisfaction can be assessed measuring specific facets of life or satisfaction with life overall (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Specific aspects of life satisfaction that can be measured include health, relationships (Pavot & Diener, 1993), family, employment, and income (Corrigan, Kolakowsky-Hayner, Wright, Bellon, & Carufel, 2013). However, researchers argue that using measures that assess specific aspects of life satisfaction are not as valid as global

measures, as aspects of life that are perceived as good may outweigh the aspects perceived as negative or vice versa, therefore, affecting an individual's responses on measures of life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Therefore, Pavot and Diener (1993) argue that the best assessments of life satisfaction are global measures. Furthermore, unlike job and life satisfaction, research on sex and/or gender differences in life satisfaction has consistently found that there are no significant differences between males' and females' experiences of life satisfaction (Fugl-Meyer, Melin, & Fugl-Meyer, 2002; Hong & Giannakopoulos, 1994; Saban, Smith, Collins, & Pape, 2011).

Exploring life satisfaction and conflict, both WFC and FWC have been found to have a significant negative relationship with life satisfaction (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005; Naz, Gul, & Haq, 2011). Siahpush, Spittal, and Singh (2008) found a significant relationship between life satisfaction and physical health outcomes, which likely can affect the work environment.

Overlap between Job, Family, and Life Satisfaction

Although research has examined relations between job, family, and life satisfaction and the work-family interface independently, often these forms of satisfaction are measured simultaneously. For example, family satisfaction has frequently been measured along with job satisfaction (see Ford et al., 2007; Frone et al., 1992; Higgins, Duxbury, & Irving, 1992), which Amstad and colleagues (2011) report is because family satisfaction is a counterpart of job satisfaction (for individuals who are employed) and, therefore, should be studied together when examining the work-family interface. Frone, Russel, and Cooper (1994) examined the relationship between job and family satisfaction and found that there was a significant positive relationship between the two variables.

Despite this, they statistically found that the relationship was noncausal, meaning that, while related, increased satisfaction in one domain does not cause one to be more satisfied in the other domain. Rather, Frone et al. (1994) hypothesize that job and family satisfaction are positively correlated because they share common causes, such as personality. Also, family satisfaction has been found to be positively correlated to life satisfaction (Johnson et al., 2010).

Furthermore, research has continually found a significant relationship between job and life satisfaction (Judge & Watanabe, 1993; Lent et al., 2011). However, researchers continue to debate whether life satisfaction predicts job satisfaction or vice versa (Judge & Watanabe, 1993). Judge and Watanabe (1993), who report a relationship between job and life satisfaction, found that life satisfaction explains more variance in job satisfaction than vice versa. For example, if an individual is happy with his or her life, he or she is more likely to be satisfied on the job, whereas if an individual is not satisfied with his/her job, it does not necessarily impact his/her satisfaction with life. Even though life satisfaction accounts for more variance in job satisfaction than vice versa, Lent et al., (2011) found that job satisfaction still significantly predicts life satisfaction. Moreover, higher levels of family satisfaction, in addition to job satisfaction, have been found to have a significant positive relationship with life satisfaction (Diener & Diener, 1995; Rupert, Stevanovic, Tuminello Hartman, Bryan, & Miller, 2012). Examining the work-family interface and all three forms of satisfaction, less WFC has been found to relate to increased job and family satisfaction, accompanied with higher overall life satisfaction (Lapierre et al., 2008). Given the overlap of these three domains of satisfaction, as well as

the particular relevance of each form of satisfaction to WFC and FWC, it is important to account for all three in research on conflict.

Sex and its Relations to WFC/FWC

Job, family, and life satisfaction are important variables to examine in the work-family interface; however, there are several other variables frequently studied. For example, one of the most common variables examined in the work family interface is sex. Specifically, sex has been examined as a moderator between spillover and its antecedents as well as outcomes, such as job satisfaction (Zhao et al., 2011). Sex is defined as the biological concept of being male or female (Valdez & Lilly, 2014). Although sex is a commonly studied variable in the work-family interface, the variable sex is often mistakenly labeled “gender” in several studies, thus making it confusing and unclear what the researchers were intending to measure: sex or gender. Gender is defined as sets of rules of masculinity and femininity set for males and females given by society (Valdez & Lilly, 2014), rather than one’s biological sex. Evidence suggests that gender likely explains why sex differences have been found for WFC/FWC. It is theorized that often sex impacts the development of one’s gender; however, sex and gender are separate constructs and thus should not be used interchangeably (Greenspan et al., 2007). Often, researchers report gender as being a dichotomous variable; however, gender is conceptualized on a continuum, ranging from being completely feminine to completely masculine, with the majority of individuals having masculine and feminine traits on a variety of characteristics (Greenspan et al., 2007).

Additionally, the construct gender is much more complex than sex. For example, Spence (1984, 1993) developed the multifactorial gender theory, which theorizes that

gender is made up of a combination of five factors that influence human behavior. These five factors include basic sense of personal maleness or femaleness, gender identity, gender role attitudes, engagement in behaviors that are considered masculine or feminine, and sexual orientation. Thus, Greenspan and colleagues (2007) discuss how, in addition to assessing sex (i.e., male, female), measures of masculinity and femininity should be used if researchers report assessing gender, as this construct is much more complex and cannot be captured by assessing biological sex alone. Overall, Greenspan and colleagues (2007) conclude that both sex and gender should be examined together in research to truly understand similarities and differences between men and women.

Many researchers who examine sex and/or gender, use the theoretical framework of gender role theory (see Cinamon & Rich, 2002a; Ergeneli et al., 2010; Ford et al., 2007; Grandey et al., 2005), which proposes that society sets expectations for how males and females should act based on their gender (i.e., man, woman) (Ergeneli et al., 2010). Specifically, society dictates that females are supposed to behave in ways that are feminine and males are supposed to behave in ways that are masculine (Ergeneli et al., 2010), leading to the expectation that the family domain should be more central to a female's identity more so than to a male's identity (Bem, 1993).

As mentioned, several researchers have used gender role theory to theoretically guide research on WFC/FWC, finding support for sex (as a proxy for gender) moderating the relation between conflict and satisfaction. For example, Grandey, Cordeiro, and Crouter (2005) found that sex was a significant moderator between WFC and job satisfaction in their sample of 174 dual-earning, Caucasian, heterosexual couples who had two children, and were living in the state of Pennsylvania. Specifically, they found

that females experienced more WFC and less job satisfaction over a one year period than males (Grandey et al., 2005). Furthermore, Zhao and colleagues (2011), who examined the moderating role of sex in working parents, found that FWC and job satisfaction were related for mothers, but not for fathers, in a sample of 1,744 employed mothers and fathers living in the United States. Additionally, using a snowball sample of 176 Masters of Business Administration students attending a large state university located in Eastern United States, and 975 managers and professionals working at over 100 companies in over 26 industries, recruited by the students, Martins, Eddleston, and Veiga (2002) found that WFC was negatively related to job satisfaction, and was moderated by sex. Specifically, they found that WFC was significantly correlated to less job satisfaction for females, but not for males.

Although there is evidence supporting the moderation of sex between conflict and satisfaction outcomes, other research has not found supporting evidence for sex moderating these relationships. For example, Ford and colleagues (2007) did not find support for sex moderating WFC and job and life satisfaction; however, their meta-analysis was limited in its scope because FWC was not examined, which may have affected the results, as FWC is an important construct to include when examining the work-family interface (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Particularly, FWC has been found to significantly differ for males and females (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014); thus, due to Ford and colleagues not including FWC in their model, it is not surprising that moderation was not supported. Moreover, although Grandey and colleagues (2005) found that sex was a significant moderator between WFC and job satisfaction over a one year period, they found that sex did not significantly moderate the relationship between WFC and job

satisfaction when only examining their cross-sectional data nor when they examined the participants' spouse's reports of the participant's experiences of WFC. Thus, they suggest that, many previous studies may not have found sex as a significant moderator due to most studies being cross-sectional and not longitudinal as well as not accounting for participant's spouse's perceptions.

More recently, in Nohe and Meier's (2015) meta-analysis that included 33 studies, they found that males and females (using sex as a proxy for gender) had similar experiences of WFC and FWC and strain, indicating that sex did not moderate the relationship between conflict and strain. They conceptualized strain as reactions to conflict, which could include experiences of burnout, depression, and less satisfaction. They speculate that, although gender role theory hypothesizes that females value the family domain more than the work domain, and males value the work domain more than the family domain, gender roles are becoming more egalitarian and, therefore, males and females may react to WFC and FWC similarly. Thus, as evidenced above, research has been extremely inconsistent in determining if sex does or does not moderate relations between negative spillover and outcome variables.

Because of such inconsistent findings, researchers have begun to examine more explicit aspects of gender that relate to biological sex. For example, Cinamon and Rich (2002a) examined the centrality of life roles for males and females, as males and females have different experiences of work and family being central to their identity, according to gender role theory, and, therefore, likely affecting the spillover of conflict (Ford et al., 2007). Cinamon and Rich's (2002a) study supported propositions of gender role theory and found that work was more central to males' identities, and family/parenting was more

central to females' identities overall in a sample of 213 lawyers and computer software and hardware workers between ages 20 to 50 years working in Tel Aviv, Israel.

Furthermore, not supporting the researchers' hypotheses, females were found to experience more WFC, but attribute more importance to FWC, which the researchers argued could be explained by women valuing family life more than men. Although Cinamon and Rich (2002a) document significant findings, they discuss how their results are limited in generalizability to those living in the United States, as their participants were all living in Israel and working in primarily male dominated fields. Further, Cinamon and Rich (2002a) discussed that Israel is an industrialized country with a labor force making up almost an equal number of males and females, which may not generalize to other countries. Additionally, although using sex, Grandey and colleagues (2005), in a study that examined sex as a moderator between WFC and job satisfaction, found that that females valued family life more so than work, and males valued work more so than family life.

Further, Ergeneli and colleagues (2010) examined the moderating role of sex (as a proxy for gender) and interpretive habits between WFC and job satisfaction, providing evidence that the examination of various facets of sex can be beneficial in understanding the relationship between spillover and outcomes. Ergeneli and colleagues (2010) examined three interpretive habits; deficiencies, which involves focusing on one's deficiencies and limitations; necessitation, which involves focusing on what one has to or needs to do rather than what he/she wants to do; and skill recognition, which involves attributing one's success to one's abilities (Ergeneli et al., 2010). The interpretive habits of deficiencies and necessitation were found to have a positive relationship with

experiences of stress whereas skill recognition was found to have a negative relationship with experiences of stress (Ergeneli et al., 2010). Ergeneli and colleagues (2010) also found that males who had interpretive habits of deficiencies and necessitation, that predisposed one to experience more stress, had more WFC and less job satisfaction whereas females who had the interpretive habit of skill recognition, that predisposed them to experience less stress, had more WFC and less job satisfaction, suggesting sex differently affected the relations between interpretive habits, WFC, and job satisfaction.

As it can be seen, researchers continually find contradicting results on whether sex does or does not moderate the relations between negative spillover and outcome variables, such as job satisfaction. Contradictory results may have been due to many researchers using sex as a proxy for gender and not actually implementing a measure of gender within their questionnaire, and samples may have varied to the extent that they espoused congruent sex-gender orientations. Because of the contradicting research related to sex moderating WFC/FWC and job satisfaction, Byron (2005) suggests taking a more “finely grained” approach to understanding WFC/FWC, meaning studying the mechanisms by which women and men may vary to explain why gender, rather than sex as a proxy for gender, may or may not explain the relationship between conflict and outcome variables. Although some researchers have begun taking a more “finely grained” approach, this research is limited (e.g., only examining WFC, excluding various forms of satisfaction), as this is a new area of study.

As mentioned earlier, there are many variables that can relate to the work-family interface, such as job, family, and life satisfaction, and sex. However, these are not the only variables associated with conflict carrying over between the work and home

domains. Another variable that is commonly assessed in the work-family literature is whether having children or not impacts participant's experiences of conflict. It is important to account for having children, as many studies have found that having children relates to increased experiences of WFC and FWC (e.g., Ford et al., 2007; Netemeyer et al., 1996). Researchers find that this may be due to parents' having increased family-related expectations that can interfere with fulfilling duties both at work and at home more so than those who do not have children (Ford et al., 2007). However, many researchers argue that assessing for parent status is not sufficient enough, as many researchers have found that only having children of younger ages (i.e., infants, toddlers), as compared to having children of older ages (i.e., school aged children), impacted conflict (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Higgins, Duxbury & Lee, 1994; Lewis & Cooper, 1988). Examining the impact of younger versus older children, where younger children have been classified as children under 13 years-old and older children as 13 years of age and older, Saltzstein, Ting, and Saltzstein (2001) found that having younger children related to increased experiences of conflict and decreased job satisfaction. Also, Demerouti, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2005) found that increased experiences of conflict related to less job and life satisfaction for parents of children under the age of three years. Frone and colleagues (1996) argue that having younger children likely relates to increased experiences of conflict because parents have to rely on external childcare whereas older children can take greater care of themselves. Further, research has found that the number of children a participant has living in the home, in particular, relates to experiences of conflict, where more children relates to more conflict (Grandey &

Cropanzano, 1999; Kinnunen et al., 2004; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Although many researchers find that having children in general, having children of younger ages, or having an increased number children living in the home, significantly influences experiences of conflict, several researchers have not found support for the presence of children in the home relating to conflict (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Cinamon & Rich 2002b). Byron (2005) hypothesizes that research has been inconsistent in determining the effects of having children on WFC and FWC because previous research has asked such varying questions in order to assess for having children. Because there has been no reliable or consistent way to measure having children, assessment of this issue varies from some researchers simply asking if a participant has a child or not, while other researchers ask for the ages of the participant's children, whereas others ask for the number of children living in the home, with different methods of assessment related differently to findings. Thus, Byron (2005) argues that multiple questions pertaining to the participants' children should be included in surveys or questionnaires in order to account for the variance of having children.

An Underlying Mechanism that Explains the Relationship between Sex and Conflict *Gender Roles*

According to one of the most empirically supported theories of gender role development, the biosocial theory, different roles for males and females have historically developed due to biological factors, such as reproduction, in addition to multiple social factors (Fischer & Anderson, 2012). For example, Wood and Eagly (2002) state that, throughout the history of humans and before baby formula was available, females who

have had children have had to breastfeed. Therefore, this requirement necessitated females to stay near their children and not leave for long periods of time in order to feed their child, leading to females staying home and males having to engage in tasks required outside of the home in order support their families. Due to females and males having to engage in these very specific behaviors throughout history, particular characteristics became associated with being male and female, leading to the development of the traditional gender roles commonly known for males and females today (Eagly & Wood, 1999).

Other theorists offer a more simplistic view of gender role development, such as Hines (1982) who finds support for hormones explaining traditional behaviors for males and females. Specifically, Hines (1982) found that the display of various behaviors such as patterns of play in children, aggression, visuospatial abilities, and verbal abilities differed for males and females. For example, Hines (1982) found that females exposed to testosterone displayed more aggressive behaviors; therefore, leading to the conclusion that testosterone likely increases one's aggressive tendencies, which are commonly seen in males. Overall, Hines (1982) found support for hormones explaining differing behaviors engaged in for male and females which are the basis of expected behaviors for men and women. This is supported by other researchers who have commonly found that testosterone is related to decreased nurturing behaviors whereas oxytocin, found in higher levels in females, is related to increased nurturing behaviors, helping explain why males and females differ in their nurturing behaviors and experiences of empathy and sympathy (Rhoads & Rhoads, 2012).

Gender norms, also known as gender roles, are specific behaviors men and women are supposed to engage in based on their biological sex (Fischer & Anderson, 2012). One's degree of conformity to his or her traditional gender roles is known as gender role orientation (Livingston & Judge, 2008). Gender role orientation is conceptualized on a continuum from being more traditional to being more egalitarian (Livingston & Judge, 2008). For example, women who satisfy demands in the family domain and men who satisfy demands in the work domain are considered to be more traditional, or in more alignment with expected social norms, whereas men and women who are less adherent to these expectations, and are accepting of both men and women fulfilling demands in both the home and work domains, are considered to be more egalitarian (Eagly & Karay, 1991; Fletcher & Bailyn, 2005). Block (1983) theorizes that gender conformity develops during childhood because boys and girls are raised to socially prescribe to either masculine or feminine interests, attitudes, values, and behaviors, resulting in the conformity to gender roles in adulthood (Carter, 2011). More frequently than not, men and women feel compelled to conform to the expectations of their sex set by society, because there often are negative consequences to not conforming to these expectations or norms (Sanchez, Crocker, & Boike, 2005). Judge and Livingston (2008) discuss that, although gender role orientation is studied in many disciplines, this construct is often neglected and needs to be examined more in-depth, such as examining the predictors of gender role orientation.

Despite social pressures to conform to gender stereotypes for one's gender, research has continually found that those who value gender conformity or place importance on conforming to gender roles for their specific sex are at a greater risk for

experiencing psychological maladjustment (Sanchez et al., 2005), such as anxiety, withdrawal, unhappiness, and other forms of distress (Carver, Yunger, & Perry, 2003), which likely can affect one's satisfaction with their work, family, and life. Also, previous research has found that one's adherence to traditional gender roles (i.e., males should display or participate in masculine roles and characteristics, females should participate or display feminine roles/characteristics) is related to one's own engagement and non-engagement in typical behaviors and activities expected of one's sex (Carver et al., 2003).

Although many males and females generally conform to traditional gender norms held by society, in relation to work, there is a wave of more females working, more males being stay-at-home fathers, and more relationships involving both females and males working, indicating that adherence to traditional gender roles is waning (Marks, 2006; Powell & Greenhaus, 2009; Sanchez et al., 2005). For example, currently, in the United States, the demographics of males and females in the workplace and at home are changing (Dunn, Rochlen, & O'Brien, 2013). Many females have shifted into becoming the "breadwinner" in their families (Dunn, Rochlen, & O'Brien, 2013), while many males are taking on more parental and domestic duties, such as childcare (Fischer & Anderson, 2012; Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth, & Lamb, 2000). Overall, dual-income homes are becoming more common, meaning both the female and male in the relationship are working (Marks, 2006; Powell & Greenhaus, 2009). This has then led to both males and females having to balance aspects of both their family and work environments (Perrone, Wright, & Jackson, 2009).

This represents a major change from the past as historically males have been expected to work and be the "breadwinners" while females' expectations were to care for

dependents and aspects of home life, and not necessarily work outside of the home (Fletcher & Bailyn, 2005). Historical data on the working patterns of both men and women further support these changes in gender role orientations for both sexes. For example, in 1996, the number of reported stay-at-home fathers was 49,000, but by 2006, the reported number had grown to 159,000, and in 2013, there was an estimated 214,000 stay-at-home fathers (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010), indicating a significant change in home obligations between sexes in less than 20 years. Furthermore, statistics have shown that females now make up 57.7% of the workforce whereas females only comprised 43.9% of the workforce in 1972 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012), indicating an increase in percentage of females working over the past 50 years. Additionally indicating a shift in traditional gender roles for men and women is the number of dual-earner couples in the workforce, as data shows that, in 1986, the number of dual-earner couples was 49.9%, but as of 2010, the number of dual-earner couples increased to 53.6% (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

This major shift in more females working, more males staying home, and overall both couples working violates commonly held gender roles. As mentioned, traditional gender roles have been that males work and be the primary financial providers as well as be more dominant and assertive whereas traditional gender roles for females have been that they take care of responsibilities in the home and be more warm and nurturing (Fischer & Anderson, 2012). These gender roles are consistent with expectations for females to display more feminine traits and behaviors such as having more affection, cultivation, emotion, compassion, and collaboration, and males to display more masculine traits and behaviors such as being more independent, dominant, competent,

and capable (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995). Because more individuals are violating prescribed roles for their sex, Hakim (2000) proposes that it is no longer appropriate to classify females into one single group, rather females now fit into the categories of traditional and nontraditional gender roles. Therefore, one possible explanation of why sex moderates WFC/ FWC and outcome variables such as job, family, and life satisfaction, is the effects of conformity to gender roles (i.e. conforming to traditional gender roles, not conforming to traditional gender roles), which has yet to be researched.

Some researchers have assumed females' gender role orientation based on their engagement in paid labor. For example, females who conform to traditional gender roles have been defined as females who work only part-time or only work until they are married because they place family life as more important than work (Mosser & Hanson Frieze, 2012) and females who do not conform or conform less to traditional gender roles (i.e., work full-time both before and after marriage and rate work as more important than family life) have been classified as nontraditional (Hakim, 2000; Mosser & Hanson Frieze, 2012). While this method provides a slightly more accurate assessment of adherence to gender roles than use of sex, this method is still flawed. In particular, use of one's engagement in the work role only examines adherence to gender role expectations and does not examine the specific reasons to why females may work or not work due to obligations that arise. For example, some females work because their family needs the income (Hennessy, 2009), whereas some females stay at home to provide daily care to their children themselves due to the rising costs of daycare, although they desire to work outside the home (Baum, 2002). Thus, engagement in a paid work role may not accurately assess one's beliefs about or overall adherence to their prescribed gender role.

Furthermore, the possible influence of gender role conformity can be applied to males as well, due to males also shifting away from traditionally held gender roles, which is supported by Livingston and Judge (2008) who examined gender role conformity more directly. They did this by examining both females' and males' gender role conformity (level of compliance to gender roles) to investigate gender role conformity related to men and women's experiences of guilt related to WFC/FWC. In their study, participants completed a daily survey via the Internet for five consecutive workdays to assess WFC, FWC, and their levels of guilt experienced that day. Livingston and Judge (2008) found that males and females who conformed to their prescribed gender roles experienced more guilt related to FWC and participants who did not conform to their prescribed gender roles experienced more guilt related to WFC. Furthermore, they found that males who conformed to male gender roles experienced more guilt related to FWC than males who did not conform to male gender roles. Their results indicated that gender role orientation is an important factor in understanding the work-family interface and emotions related to conflict. Although not assessed in Livingston and Judge's study, it is likely that individuals' gender role orientation also moderated the relationships between conflict and experiences of satisfaction with one's job, family, and life. Thus, research suggests that gender role orientation, or one's conformity to their gender roles, may help explain the relationship between WFC/FWC and satisfaction for men and women.

Due to many researchers not adequately assessing for gender role adherence, and the trend of males and females increasingly not conforming to traditionally held gender roles, a more specific examination of gender (i.e., gender role conformity) may lead to a better understanding of men and women's experiences of conflict and its relationships

with job, family, and life satisfaction. The specific examination of the mediating role of gender role orientation on WFC/FWC and job, family, and life satisfaction and how that is moderated by sex has never been researched. However, following similar reasoning to why this needs to be examined (i.e., changing social roles for men and women), Minnotte et al., (2013) conducted a study that examined the moderating role of spouse's gender ideologies between FWC and marital satisfaction. Gender ideologies were defined as attitudes that individuals have related to gender roles on a continuum from traditional gender ideologies to egalitarian gender ideologies (Minnotte et al., 2013). Thus, gender ideologies were operationalized very similar to gender role orientations. They argued that gender ideologies determine how individuals think and feel about their own and their spouse's FWC. Data was collected from dual-earner couples via paper questionnaires that assessed marital satisfaction, FWC, and gender ideology. They found that husbands' gender ideologies moderated the relationship between both their own and their wives' FWC and marital satisfaction. Specifically, they found a stronger negative relationship between FWC and marital satisfaction for husbands that adhered to more egalitarian gender ideologies than husbands who adhered to traditional gender ideologies. They also found that husbands' gender ideologies moderated how husbands' FWC related to wives' marital satisfaction. Particularly, they found that FWC was related to less marital satisfaction for wives who had husbands who held more traditional gender ideologies. Furthermore, they found that wives' FWC was negatively related to their own marital satisfaction; however, they did not find support for wives' gender ideologies moderating the relationship between their own or their spouse's FWC and marital satisfaction. Their results overall provided initial evidence that a more specific examination of both sex and

attitudes toward gender roles and their relation to conflict and outcome variables is warranted.

Further, other variables have been shown to relate to gender role orientation. For example, research has found differences in conformity to traditional gender roles based on sexual orientation. Specifically, non-heterosexual couples have been found to have more liberal attitudes towards gender roles and hold more egalitarian beliefs towards the delegation of household tasks than heterosexual couples (Schechory & Ziv, 2007). Further, relationship status has been shown to impact gender role conformity. For example, single individuals have been found to hold more egalitarian (i.e., nontraditional) gender role beliefs whereas married or cohabitating individuals were found to hold more traditional gender role beliefs (Barber & Axinn, 1998). Moreover, although engaged and/or cohabitating individuals can be conceptualized as being very similar to married couples, research has found that married versus cohabitating couples can differ in aspects of gender roles (Shelton & Daphne, 1993). It has been found that married women perform more housework duties than women who are not married, but cohabitating with their partner (Shelton & Daphne, 1993; South & Spitze, 1994). Also, it has been found that cohabitating couples have significantly lower levels of partner satisfaction and overall family satisfaction than married couples (Nock, 1995).

Furthermore, more recent literature has examined gender role conformity and its relations to individuals who identify as transgender. Nagoshi and colleagues (2014) found that many transgender individuals identified as having both masculine and feminine traits, indicating that they likely adhere to more egalitarian gender roles. Additionally, when Nagoshi and colleagues (2014) assessed how transgender individuals define what

being a male or female means, there was not definitive consensus. Many transgender individuals defined being male or female based on genitalia, whereas others defined being male or female based on heteronormative masculinity and femininity. This was significantly different than participants who did not identify as transgender, as they consistently defined being male or female based on genitalia and biological characteristics (Nagoshi, Terrell, Nagoshi, & Brzuzy, 2014). When examining non-transgender women who were married to trans-men (i.e., individuals who had transitioned from being a woman to a man), Pfeffer (2010) found that these partners adhered to more traditional gender roles as the women in the relationship identified that they completed more household tasks than their trans-men partners. Due to research being relatively new in examining the relationship between gender roles and individuals who identify as transgender, there is limited ability to distinguish whether transgender individuals adhere to more traditional or egalitarian gender roles.

Overall, it is important to study specific aspects of sex to help explain why there is a relation between conflict and satisfaction in different domains for males and females. Research findings have been inconsistent in the past; therefore suggesting that more nuanced examination of these relations is needed. Furthermore, because WFC and FWC have been found to be significantly related to levels of job satisfaction (Gao, Shi, Niu, & Wang, 2013), understanding how more specific aspects, such as gender role orientation, may relate to conflict and job satisfaction, rather than sex used as a proxy for gender, can help organizations increase their employees experiences of satisfaction at work. For example, understanding men and women's experiences of WFC and FWC can help aid in the development of work policies, as family friendly work policies have been found to be

pertinent to both men and women and their levels of job satisfaction (Villablanca, Beckett, Nettiksimmons, & Howell, 2011). Moreover, career counselors can use this information to understand how conformity to gender roles relates to career planning for men and women to facilitate career choices that may increase satisfaction at work and at home (Cinamon & Rich, 2002b). Further understanding of gender role orientations and the work-family interface may be beneficial in general mental health treatment as well. Assessing conformity to gender roles can help in understanding differing experiences of women and men in both the work and family domains, which may help tailor interventions that can improve a client's mental health and well-being (Parent & Moradi, 2011) such as job and life satisfaction.

The Current Study

While existing studies have examined negative spillover, job, family, and life satisfaction, and sex independently (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Judge & Watanabe, 1993; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009; Zhao et al., 2011) or in various combinations with each other (Bruck et al., 2002; Ergeneli et al., 2010; Ford et al., 2007; Livingston & Judge, 2008; Minnotte et al., 2013), this body of work lacks cohesion. As well, inconsistent findings in regards to sex moderating the relations between negative spillover and outcome variables may be due to using sex as a proxy for gender, assuming that all men and women adhere to traditional gender roles. It is possible that some researchers from the aforementioned studies inadvertently collected samples that were more egalitarian, which could have contributed to finding no sex differences, while other samples could have included more traditional women and men and, thus, finding support for sex differences. For example, Grandey and colleagues (2005) found support for gender as a moderator in a sample that

was likely more traditional as they sampled Caucasian heterosexual couples who had children and were living in Pennsylvania. Whereas, Ford and colleagues (2007) and Byron (2005) conducted meta-analyses and did not find support for gender as a moderator, which could have been due to the studies they examined including more egalitarian participants.

Literature suggests that the roles of males and females have changed over time and, thus, may explain inconsistent findings related to sex moderating WFC/FWC and outcomes. Therefore, examination of gender role orientation for males and females is needed, as gender role orientation may help explain why there is a relationship between conflict and satisfaction outcomes for sex. When gender role orientation is not examined, there likely is no relation between conflict and satisfaction for sex, helping explain why evidence is so inconsistent in determining if sex does or does not moderate conflict and satisfaction. Thus, the current study's purpose is to address the shortcomings of the current literature by examining if gender role orientation mediates WFC/FWC and outcome variables and how that is moderated by sex.

Previous literature is very limited, but available research that is similar, such as Minnotte and colleague's (2013) study, suggests that gender role orientation impacts the relationship between conflict and satisfaction outcomes, which is then moderated by sex, specifically for males. They found that that gender ideologies (similar to gender role orientation) moderated FWC and marital satisfaction for men who adhered to more egalitarian gender ideologies as compared to men who adhered to more traditional gender ideologies; however, significant results were not found for women. Although Minnotte and colleague's (2013) study has begun examining the role of sex moderating the

mediation of gender role orientation on conflict and satisfaction outcomes, further investigation is needed.

The outcome variables for this study will be job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Based on gender role theory and previous literature, the following research question and hypotheses were proposed (Figure 1):

Research Question: To what extent are the mediational effects of gender role orientation between WFC/FWC and satisfaction outcomes moderated by sex?

Hypothesis 1: It is expected that gender role orientation will significantly mediate the relations between WFC and job, family, and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: It is expected that gender role orientation will significantly mediate the relations between FWC and job, family, and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: It is expected that sex will moderate the significant mediation of WFC/FWC and job, family, life satisfaction, by gender role orientation.

- a. Egalitarian gender role orientation is expected to mediate the relationship between WFC and family satisfaction, specifically for males.
- b. It is anticipated that gender role orientation will mediate the relationship between FWC and job satisfaction for males with more traditional gender role orientation, explaining a significant negative relationship between FWC and job satisfaction.

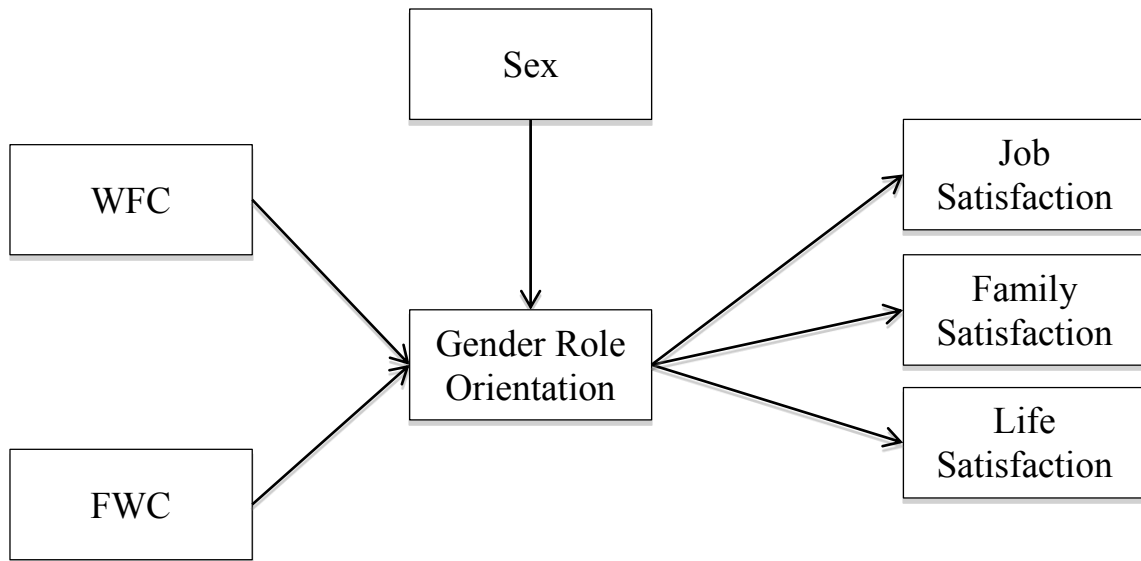


Figure 1. Path Model of work-family conflict and family-work conflict as independent variables, sex as a moderator, gender role orientation as a mediator, and job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction as dependent variables.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants and Procedures

Participants were required to be at least 18-years of age and working full-time. Also, participants were required to be married, heterosexual individuals in order to control for potential differences in the variables assessed among same-sex partners and those who are not married. Specifically, researchers have found differences between single, cohabitating/engaged, and married individuals, and heterosexual and non-heterosexual individuals on gender role orientation (Barber & Axinn, 1998; Schechory & Ziv, 2007; South & Spitze, 1994). Additionally, participants were required to reside in the United States, as various experiences differ amongst cultures. For example, predictors of life satisfaction in individualist cultures are different than the predictors of life satisfaction in collectivist cultures (Suh, Diener, Oishi, & Triandis, 1998); thus, collecting a sample from only the United States can help control for differences amongst individuals from different countries.

Participants were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk), an online marketplace that requires human intelligence to complete paid tasks (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). Researchers have found that MTurk users are diverse, ranging in age, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, language, and country of origin (Mason & Suri, 2012; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010). Furthermore, researchers who have used MTurk to collect data have found their data to be reliable (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Paolacci et al., 2010). Participants were awarded \$.25-.40 compensation for their time, with amount paid depended on the demand for completion of the survey. First, this study was approved by The University of Southern Mississippi's Institutional Review Board

(Appendix A). Following approval, the consent form (Appendix B) and all study measures (Appendix C) were administered online using a research-based survey service (qualtrics.com).

Overall, 205 male (46.7%) and 234 female (53.3%) participants volunteered to complete the survey. Individuals who identified as transgender were not allowed to complete the survey, as this was an exploratory study attempting to assess individuals with congruent sex-gender identities. Of the total 439 participants, the following ethnicities were recorded; 82% White/European American and 18% non-White (i.e., approximately 5.5% Black/African American, 5.9% Asian American, 3% Hispanic/Latino, 2.3% Multicultural, < 1% American Indian, <1% Alaskan Native, <1% Native Hawaiian, and <1% Pacific Islander). The participants were on average 36.44 ($SD = 9.92$) years of age and the average length of marriage was 11 ($SD = 8.8$) years. Further, participants indicated that they were employed at their current job for a median of 4 years with a range of 4 months to 36 years. Also, 83.4% of participants viewed their current job as a career whereas 16.6% viewed their job as just a job. Moreover, 77.9% of the participants reported that their spouses were employed whereas 22.1% reported that their spouses were unemployed or were homemakers. Additionally, the reported annual mean income was between \$61,000 and \$80,000. Of the participants, 8.4% reported having less than a college education and 91.1% reported having some form of college education or greater. Of the participant's spouse's, 18.5% were reported to have less than a college education and 81.3% were reported to have some form of college education or greater.

Furthermore, 68.1% of the participants reported having children while 31.9% reported not having children. Of the participants who reported having children, 49.2% of

them reported having at least one child 12-years-old or younger and 18.5% reported only having children 13 years of age or older. Lastly, of the participants who reported having children, no matter their ages, 24.8% of them reported having one child living in the home whereas 33.5% of participants reported having two or more children living in the home.

Measures

The Demographic Form asked participants to report their age, sex, sexual orientation, race, relationship status, length of relationship, and, if applicable, if they had children, how many children they had, their children's ages, how many children under the age of 18-years lived in the home, and how many adult children lived in the home.

The demographic form also asked their current work status (full or part-time), how long they have been at their current job, career field, occupational title, and if they consider their job their career. Assessing for if the participant views their job as their career or not is important, as perception of one's employment statuses (i.e., just a job or lifelong career) is related to satisfaction outcomes (Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997). Additionally, the demographic form asked participants to report their highest degree obtained, the highest degree their partner has obtained, and gross annual income, as education and income have been found to relate to conflict experienced and satisfaction outcomes (Byron, 2005; Clark & Oswald, 1995; Frone et al., 1992; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998). For example, Byron (2005) found that higher income was related to greater experiences of WFC. Additionally, education and income have been found to be positively related to less traditional views of the division of labor in the household (Forste

& Fox, 2012); thus, questions related to education and income were included in order to account for their variance within the model.

Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict scale. This scale (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996) is a bidirectional measure that was created for the purpose of assessing global experiences of WFC and FWC. The Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict scale was developed for the purpose of creating a short and validated measure of both WFC and FWC. This measure is made up of ten items, including five items that assess WFC (e.g., “my work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like”) and five that assess FWC (e.g., “because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work”). Thus, two separate scores are obtained from this measure, WFC and FWC. Items on this measure are answered using a 7-point Likert scale (1= *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) with higher scores indicating more experiences of conflict and lower scores indicating less conflict.

Netemeyer and colleagues (1996) reported running a confirmatory factor analysis with items and found adequate dimensionality for the two forms of conflict (work to family, family to work). Netemeyer and colleagues (1996) reported supportive evidence of discriminant validity by examining the zero estimates (i.e., standardized correlations between the WFC portion of the measure and the FWC portion), finding correlations of .48 on a sample of teachers and administrators, .33 for a sample of small business owners, and .42 for a sample of real estate salespersons. They reported finding that the square of the parameter estimates between WFC and FWC was lower than the average variance extracted between WFC and FWC, thus supporting discriminant validity.

Furthermore, Netemeyer and colleagues (1996) reported evidence of construct validity, finding that job tension, role conflict, role ambiguity, and intentions to quit were positively correlated with their WFC and FWC scales, while life satisfaction and family satisfaction had significant negative relationships with both scales.

Strong evidence of internal consistency has been found by both Ergeneli and colleagues (2009), reporting an alpha coefficient of .90 for their study's sample, and by Aycan and Eskin (2005; $\alpha = .89$ FWC, $\alpha = .90$ WFC). Additionally, Netemeyer et al. (1996) found internal consistency estimates ranging from .82 to .90 across samples. For the current sample, an alpha coefficient of .90 was found for FWC and .92 for WFC.

Lastly, this measure was selected given that it has been used frequently in related research. Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) measure has been used to examine sex and its effects on WFC/FWC, and job satisfaction (Ergeneli et al., 2010) as well as to study links between WFC/FWC and employee performance and job stress (Netemeyer, Maxham III, & Pullig, 2005), suggesting its use is supported in the literature. Moreover, use of this measure allows for comparison to prior research on this topic.

Overall Job Satisfaction questionnaire. The Overall Job Satisfaction questionnaire (OJS; Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983) is one questionnaire among many on the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ; Cammann et al., 1983), which is an extensive survey that assesses perceptions of organizational members. The MOAQ was designed for the purpose of creating a cost-efficient assessment that is a complete measure of individual-level perceptions in an organization. The OJS was added to the MOAQ as a brief measure of overall job

satisfaction to help learn more about an employee's general attitude toward his/her job (Cammann et al., 1983).

The OJS consists of three self-report items (e.g. "all in all, I am satisfied with my job") that are answered using a 7-point Likert scale (1= *strongly disagree* to 7= *strongly agree*). Higher scores on the OJS reflect higher levels of job satisfaction whereas lower scores indicate lower levels of job satisfaction.

Cammann and colleagues have assessed the psychometric properties of the OJS several times over various time periods and found test-retest reliability coefficients to range from .67 to .95. Brough and colleagues (2005) found an internal consistency coefficient of .89 for the OJS in a sample of 398 working men and women between the ages of 16 and 74 years. O'Driscoll, Brough, and Kalliath (2004) found acceptable reliability coefficients ranging from $\alpha = .85$ to $\alpha = .91$ and also found that the OJS scores were significantly negatively related to psychological strain and physical health, indicating acceptable criterion validity of the OJS scores. Furthermore, others have found acceptable estimates of internal consistency, finding Cronbach alphas of .91 (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000) and .93 (Carlson, Hunter, Ferguson, 2014). A high Cronbach alpha was found for the current study's sample ($\alpha = .92$).

Additionally, supportive evidence of construct validity has been established. Bowling and Hammond (2008) found that job complexity, overall job attitudes, skill variety, task significance, autonomy at work, and feedback at work were all positively related to OJS scores whereas work stressors, such as role ambiguity, role conflict, work constraints, and interpersonal conflicts, were negatively related to OJS scores.

Overall Family Satisfaction questionnaire: The Overall Family Satisfaction questionnaire (OFS) was developed as a revision of the OJS (Cammann et al., 1983), but with the word “job” replaced with the word “family.” For example, the item “all in all, I am satisfied with my job” is revised to be “all in all, I am satisfied with my family” for this scale. The use of the OFS to measure family satisfaction has been used in conjunction with the OJS in several studies (see Brough et al., 2005; Carlson et al., 2014; O’Driscoll et al., 2004). The OFS consists of three self-report items (e.g. “in general, I don’t like my family”) that are answered using a 7-point Likert scale (1= *strongly disagree* to 7= *strongly agree*). Higher scores on the OFS indicate higher levels of family satisfaction whereas lower scores indicate lower levels of family satisfaction.

Similar to the OJS, O’Driscoll and colleagues (2004) found acceptable reliability coefficients ranging from $\alpha = .85$ to $\alpha = .91$ for the OFS scores as well as that the OFS was significantly negatively related to psychological strain and physical health, indicating acceptable criterion validity of the OFS. Brough and colleagues (2005) found an alpha coefficient of .90 for this scale and Carlson and colleagues (2014) found a Cronbach’s alpha of .95, suggesting high internal consistency of the scale. Furthermore, for the current study’s sample, an alpha coefficient of .83 was found.

Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS). The SWLS (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) is a short measure of global or overall life satisfaction. The SWLS is the most commonly used measure to assess life satisfaction and it is considered the “gold standard” of life satisfaction measures (Kaczmarek, Bujacz, & Eid, 2014). Previous measures of life satisfaction primarily assessed life satisfaction with one item, therefore, this scale was designed to be a brief multi-item measure of global life satisfaction (Diener

et al., 1985). There are a total of five items that comprise the SWLS. An example of an item on the SWLS includes, “the conditions of my life are excellent.” The items are assessed using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). Higher scores on the SWLS indicate higher levels of life satisfaction whereas lower scores indicate lower levels of life satisfaction.

The authors found that the five items had high correlations with each other, indicating a high level of internal consistency and that the SWLS overall moderately to highly correlated (e.g., $r = .47$ to $.75$) with other measures of life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1985) providing supportive evidence of construct validity. They also reported obtaining a two month test-retest alpha coefficient of $.87$ from an undergraduate sample. Other studies that have used the SWLS have found an alpha coefficient of $.82$ in a sample of 210 undergraduate college students (Gross & John, 2003) and $.88$ for a sample of 235 middle and high school teachers (Lent et al., 2011). Lightsey and colleagues (2011) found a stability coefficient of $.82$ after a two month test-retest period and report that hundreds of studies have established convergent and discriminant validity. Additionally, the current study’s sample found a high alpha coefficient ($\alpha = .90$).

Traditional–Egalitarian Sex Roles scale. The TESR was created by Larsen and Long (1988) for the purpose of assessing attitudes towards traditional and egalitarian (i.e. nontraditional) gender roles. The authors generated 120 items from multiple sources, such as from speeches by feminists and literature on gender roles, and then had eight undergraduate students choose items that they believed assessed traditional and egalitarian gender roles, resulting in 75 items retained. Traditional and egalitarian gender roles were conceptualized as being on a continuum rather than separate constructs, which

the authors refer to as the traditional versus egalitarian sex role dimension. The 75 items were then tested on another group of undergraduate students, resulting in maintaining 20 items with the highest inter-correlations, which are the items that currently make up the TESR. Of the 20 items, 12 measure traditional gender roles (e.g., “the man should be more responsible for the economic support of the family than the woman,” while the other 8 measure egalitarian gender roles (e.g., “having a challenging job or career is as important as being a wife and mother”). Items are self-report using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The items measuring traditional gender roles are reverse coded and then scores are reported as one total score with low scores reflecting more traditional attitudes and high scores reflecting more egalitarian attitudes.

Larsen and Long (1988) tested the TESR on another sample of undergraduate students, finding split-half reliability coefficients of .85 and .91. Larsen and Long also found a correlation of .79 with the Brogan and Kutner Scale (1976), a scale that also measures sex role orientation, indicating sufficient construct validity. Further supportive evidence of construct validity has been found given that the items measuring traditional attitudes on the TESR were found to have significant positive relationships with divorce, authoritarianism, and conservatism (Larsen & Long, 1988). Additionally, from a sample of 196 working adults (124 women and 72 men), reliability coefficients of .85 (Livingston & Judge, 2008) and .84 for mothers and .87 for fathers (Katz-Wise, Priess, & Hyde, 2010) have been found. For the current sample, an alpha coefficient of .90 was found.

Data Analysis

Data Management

The first step was to identify cases with missing data. Any cases in which the participant did not complete the study were omitted from the analysis. Furthermore, participants with 75% missing data or the appearance of inattentive or acquiesced response sets (i.e., responding with all 1's or all 5's) were also excluded from the analysis ($n = 8$). Additionally, validity checks were included in the study's survey to help eliminate careless responding. Meade and Craig (2012) suggest including "bogus" items or instructed response items (i.e., *Please select Strongly Agree for this item*) in one's survey to help detect careless responding. As such, this study's survey included two instructed response items, as the recommended amount is one validity check item every 50-100 items, with no more than three per study (Meade & Craig, 2012). Participants who failed to respond adequately to the any one validity item were exited from the survey and were not compensated ($n = 36$).

Furthermore, the highest amount of missingness for any one item was 1.2%, thus series mean substitution was used to replace missing data, as using mean substitution when there is a small percentage of data missing (e.g. less than 10% for any given item) has been recommended (Parent, 2013).

Additionally, as research has found that having children can impact both WFC and FWC (Ford et al., 2007; Netemeyer et al., 1996) and job, family, and life satisfaction (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 1999; Clark, Oswald, Warr, 1996; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Kinnunen et al., 2004; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), independent-sample *t*-tests were conducted to determine if simply having children or not affected any of the variables. It

was found that having children significantly related to more FWC ($t(437) = 3.77, p < .01$). However, having children did not significantly affect WFC ($t(437) = 1.87, p = .06$), job satisfaction ($t(437) = 0.33, p = .75$), family satisfaction ($t(437) = 1.51, p = .13$), or life satisfaction ($t(437) = 0.51, p = .61$).

Further, since researchers have found that having younger children versus older children can impact experiences of both conflict and satisfaction outcomes (see Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Higgins, Duxbury & Lee, 1994; Lewis & Cooper, 1988; Saltzstein et al., 2001), independent-sample t -tests were conducted to determine if having younger children (i.e., 12-years-old or younger) or older children (i.e., 13-years-old and older) impacted conflict and satisfaction outcomes. It was found that having younger children significantly related to more FWC ($t(295) = 2.74, p = .01$) as well as more family satisfaction ($t(295) = 2.07, p = .04$). However, children's ages did not significantly affect WFC ($t(295) = .80, p = .42$), job satisfaction ($t(295) = .00, p = .99$), or life satisfaction ($t(295) = 1.30, p = .19$).

Also, since it has been found that the number of children living in the home relates to conflict and satisfaction outcomes (see Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 1999; Clark, Oswald, Warr, 1996; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Kinnunen et al., 2004; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 1996), independent-sample t -tests were conducted to determine if having two or more children living in the home as compared to only having one child living in the home affected conflict and satisfaction outcomes. It was found that children living in the home did not significantly affect WFC ($t(254) = -1.79, p = .07$) or FWC ($t(254) = -.36, p = .71$). Furthermore, it was found that participants who only had one child living in the home had significantly less job satisfaction ($t(254) = -2.64, p =$

.01) than participants who had two or more children living in the home. There were no significant differences between number of children living in the home and experiences of family satisfaction ($t(254) = -.25, p = .81$) or life satisfaction ($t(254) = -1.31, p = .19$). Due to finding that having children significantly related to FWC, ages of children significantly related to FWC and family satisfaction, and number of children living in the home significantly related to job satisfaction, these relationships were included in the model to account for their variance.

Additionally, as mentioned, other covariates have been found to impact satisfaction outcomes and conflict (Byron, 2005; Forste & Fox, 2012; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997); thus, additional independent sample t -tests were conducted to determine if viewing one's job as a career or not, participant's education, participant's spouse's education, and gross annual income impacted any of the study's independent and dependent variables. It was found that participants who viewed their job as a career had significantly higher levels of both job satisfaction ($t(437) = 6.53, p < .01$) and life satisfaction ($t(437) = 4.29, p < .01$). However, viewing one's job as a career or not did not significantly relate to WFC ($t(437) = -1.43, p = .15$), FWC ($t(437) = .14, p = .89$), or family satisfaction ($t(437) = 1.21, p = .23$).

Further, participant's education was classified into the two following categories: having a high school diploma/GED or less and having some form of college or greater. It was found that having some form of a college education or greater significantly related to more FWC ($t(435) = -2.17, p = .03$), but not to WFC ($t(435) = .56, p = .58$), job satisfaction ($t(435) = -.84, p = .40$), family satisfaction ($t(435) = .43, p = .67$), or life satisfaction ($t(435) = -.34, p = .73$). For participant's spouse's education, it was found

that participants who had a spouse with some form of a college education or greater experienced significantly more WFC ($t(436) = -2.01, p = .04$) and more FWC ($t(436) = -2.69, p = .01$) than participants whose spouses did not have a college education.

Participant's spouse's education was not significantly related to job satisfaction ($t(436) = -.36, p = .72$), family satisfaction ($t(436) = .17, p = .87$), or life satisfaction ($t(436) = 1.25, p = .21$).

Lastly, income was classified as \$60,000 or less and \$61,000 or more. It was found that income did not significantly impact any of the independent or dependent variables [WFC ($t(437) = .63, p = .53$), FWC ($t(437) = -.80, p = .42$), job satisfaction ($t(437) = -1.23, p = .22$), family satisfaction ($t(437) = -.46, p = .65$), life satisfaction WFC ($t(437) = -1.21, p = .23$)]. Due to finding that viewing one's job as a career significantly related to both job and life satisfaction, participant's education related to FWC, and participant's spouse's education related to both WFC and FWC, these relationships were also included in the model to account for their variance.

Primary Analysis

To address the main research question, structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed using Mplus 7.11 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). Specifically, to address study hypotheses (given below), moderated mediation effects analyses, also known as conditional indirect effect analyses, were performed adhering to the approach detailed by Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007). Moderated mediation is considered an example of conditional indirect effects because it examines the indirect effect of a mediator (gender role orientation) on a relationship (WFC/FWC and job, family or life satisfaction), under certain conditions (being male or female). SEM was utilized because it allows for

concurrent analysis of all variables in one model, rather than multiple models, while accounting for the variance shared by all variables (Chin, 1998). The model was constructed to evaluate if gender role conformity (i.e. TESR scores) mediated relations between conflict (WFC and FWC) and job, family, and life satisfaction (Hypotheses 1 & 2), and if this relationship was moderated by sex (Hypothesis 3), as illustrated in Figure 1.

Concurrently, six mediated analyses were performed within the model, with gender role orientation as the mediator, WFC and FWC as the independent variables, and job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction as the dependent variables. Specifically, the model analyzed the mediation of gender role orientation between WFC and job satisfaction, WFC and family satisfaction, WFC and life satisfaction, FWC and job satisfaction, FWC and family satisfaction, and FWC and life satisfaction, creating six different paths that were analyzed all within the model. Following that, the moderator, sex, was assessed for each path in which the mediation was found statistically significant.

Testing Hypotheses 1 and 2

Hypothesis 1: It was expected that gender role orientation would significantly mediate the relations between WFC and job, family, and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: It was expected that gender role orientation will significantly mediate the relations between FWC and job, family, and life satisfaction.

First, to assess for the significance of the mediation, a bootstrapping method to assess model parameters and significance was implemented, as this is the preferred method for mediation models suggested in the literature (Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

Bootstrapping methods are used because bootstrapping allows for multiple iterations of a

model to be run so that the model fit can be examined at various random times, which helps with reducing error as well as helps increase power and statistical confidence, especially for smaller samples (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). For the current analyses, 5000 bootstrap samples were used. The mediation model was considered significant if the 95% confidence interval (the 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles in the distribution) obtained from the bootstrapping estimate for this study's sample did not contain a zero (Hayes, 2013; Preacher et al., 2007).

Testing Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3: It was expected that sex would moderate the significant mediation of WFC/FWC and job, family, life satisfaction, by gender role orientation.

- a. Egalitarian gender role orientation was expected to mediate the relationship between WFC and family satisfaction, specifically for males.
- b. It was anticipated that gender role orientation would mediate the relationship between FWC and job satisfaction for males with more traditional gender role orientation, explaining a significant negative relationship between FWC and job satisfaction.

Next, invariance testing was conducted to examine each mediation path that was considered significant for the purpose of determining the levels at which sex (i.e., male, female) moderated the mediator (i.e., gender role orientation) (Preacher et al., 2007). Sex was dummy coded with females coded as 0 and males coded as 1. First, the constrained model was examined to see if there was an overall significant difference between males and females. If a significant difference between sexes is supported, then invariance

testing is to be conducted to determine which significant mediated path was moderated by sex.

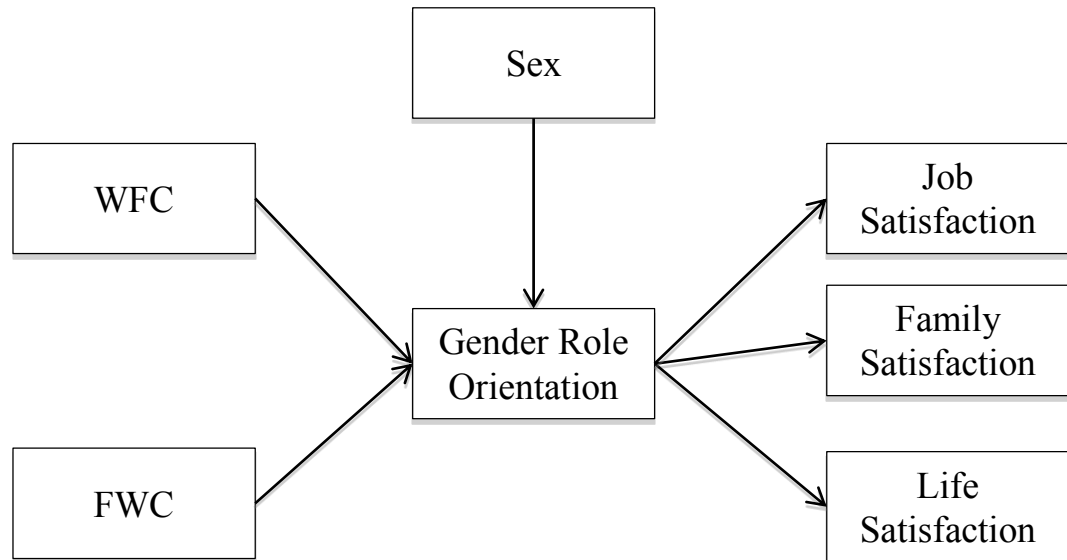


Figure 2. Path Model of work-family conflict and family-work conflict as independent variables, sex as a moderator, gender role orientation as a mediator, and job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction as dependent variables.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

First, examining correlations between all variables (Table 1), there was a range between -.35 to .55, indicating satisfactory discriminant validity between the variables (Bollen, 1990).

Table 1

Zero-order correlations between study variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. FWC	.90					
2. WFC	.52*	.92				
3. Job Satisfaction	-.19*	-.35*	.92			
4. Family Satisfaction	-.22*	-.13*	.24*	.83		
5. Life Satisfaction	-.19*	-.24*	.55*	.44*	.90	
6. Gender Role Orientation	-.25*	-.12*	.07	.11*	.05	.90
<i>M</i>	11.26	13.67	15.98	19.34	25.26	79.09
<i>SD</i>	4.56	5.26	4.25	2.29	6.37	12.83

Note: Reliabilities are on the diagonal (Cronbach's alpha) for each scale. Significant correlations ($p < .01$) are noted with a *. FWC= family-work conflict. WFC= work-family conflict.

Next, in order to test Hypotheses 1 and 2, SEM was used to determine if any paths between the independent and dependent variables were mediated by gender role orientation while accounting for the demographic variables found to significantly impact the model (e.g., if the participant's had children, participant's children's ages, the number of children the participants had living in the home, if participants viewed their job as a career, participant's education, and participant's spouse's education) (Figure 2). Because degrees of freedom for the model were zero – mostly due to correlating WFC and FWC as well as all the error terms of the dependent variables (i.e., job, family, and life

satisfaction), as all three outcomes variables have been found to relate to each other – global fit statistics could not be reported. Rather, parameter estimates were identified for each path that was being tested for mediation (Table 2). Examining the indirect effects to determine if any paths between conflict and satisfaction outcomes were mediated by gender role orientation, it was found that there was no significant mediation of any paths, as all confidence intervals contained a zero (Table 2). Thus, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were not supported. Due to not finding any significant mediation, testing for if any significantly mediated paths were moderated by sex could not be conducted; therefore, Hypotheses 3 could not be tested. Although there were no significant indirect effects, there were significant direct effects for WFC and job satisfaction ($c' = -.328, p < .001$) and WFC and life satisfaction ($c' = -.180, p = <.01$) (Figure 3). Non-significant direct effects were found for WFC and family satisfaction ($c' = -.017, p = .80$), FWC and job satisfaction ($c' = -.014, p = .87$), FWC and family satisfaction ($c' = -.210, p = .13$), and FWC and life satisfaction ($c' = -.095, p = .40$).

Table 2

Mediation of the effect of WFC and FWC on job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction by gender role orientation

	<u>Work-Family Conflict</u>				<u>Family-Work Conflict</u>			
	Total	Direct	Indirect		Total	Direct	Indirect	
	c	c'	ab	95% CI	c	c'	ab	95% CI
Job Satisfaction	-.328	-.328***	.001	-.006, .008	-.024	-.014	-.010	-.052, .031
Family Satisfaction	-.016	-.017	.001	-.008, .010	-.227	-.210	-.016	-.062, .029
Life Satisfaction	-.180	-.180**	.000	-.006, .006	-.097	-.095	.002	-.043, .040

Note: Total, direct, and indirect refers to the standardized effects accounted for in the model (Figure 3). ** refers to $p < .01$, *** refers to $p < .001$. Significance and confidence intervals are based on bias-corrected bootstrapping for 5,000 samples.

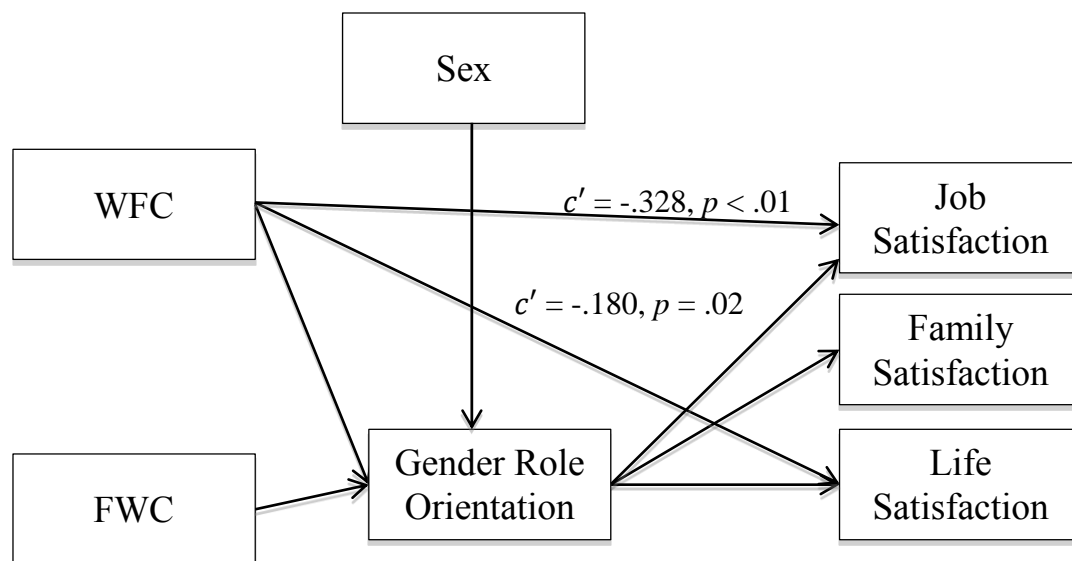


Figure 3. Path Model of significant direct effects from mediation with work-family conflict and family-work conflict as independent variables, sex as a moderator, gender role orientation as a mediator, and job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction as dependent variables. Path coefficients and significance levels of direct paths indicated.

Furthermore, although testing for if any significantly mediated paths were moderated by sex could not be completed (Hypothesis 3), two direct paths between conflict and satisfaction outcomes were significant; thus, analyses were run to examine if sex moderated the direct relationships between WFC and FWC and satisfaction outcomes (Figure 4). This was conducted in order to determine if the relationships between conflict and satisfaction outcomes differed for males and females. It was found that there was no significant moderation of sex, as the Wald Test of Parameter Constraints for the constrained model produced a p value of .79, indicating no significant differences between males and females and their experiences of conflict and job, family, and life satisfaction.

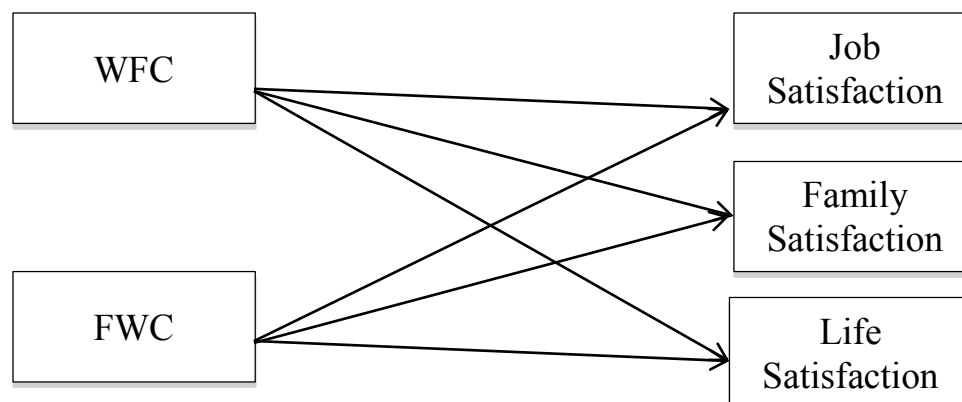


Figure 4. Direct paths between work-family conflict and family work conflict and job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction.

Lastly, since Hypothesis 3 could not be tested and it was not found that sex moderated any direct paths between conflict and satisfaction outcomes, *t*-tests were run to determine if any of the variables in the model significantly varied by sex. It was found that sex only significantly related to gender role orientation (Table 3). Specifically, females had more egalitarian gender roles than males.

Table 3

T-tests for sex on all the model variables

	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Males		Females	
				\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD
1. FWC	-1.52	437	.13	11.61	4.40	10.95	4.68
2. WFC	-1.10	437	.27	13.96	4.99	13.41	5.50
3. Job Satisfaction	-.14	437	.89	16.01	4.14	15.96	4.35
4. Family Satisfaction	.48	437	.63	19.28	2.26	19.38	2.31
5. Life Satisfaction	.05	437	.96	25.25	6.24	25.28	6.50
6. Gender Role Orientation	4.77	437	.00	76.04	12.61	81.76	12.45

Note: FWC= family-work conflict. WFC= work-family conflict.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

A common phenomenon examined in the vocational literature is the work-family interface, particularly work-family and family-work conflict. Conflict is of importance because it is significantly related to multiple negative outcomes, such as less job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction (Frone et al., 1992; Gao et al., 2013; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005; Naz, Gul, & Haq, 2011). Often, researchers attempt to assess if the relationship between conflict and satisfaction outcomes significantly differs for males and females (i.e., biological sex), and find inconsistent results (Ford et al., 2007; Grandey et al., 2005). Thus, researchers have more recently begun to test if gender roles (i.e., traditional, egalitarian) explain men and women's experiences of conflict, with less research examining how men and women's experiences of conflict relates to job, family, and life satisfaction. Further, while the relationship between conflict and satisfaction outcomes has been examined, many researchers have reported that they assessed gender, but in reality only assessed biological sex. Therefore, the goal of the current study was to address the gaps in the literature by exploring how males' and females' adherence to more or less traditional gender roles related to the relationship between conflict and satisfaction outcomes.

First, gender role orientation was not found to mediate any paths between WFC and FWC and job, family, and life satisfaction, which was inconsistent with gender role theory. Not finding any significant mediation was surprising due to theoretical support as well as recent literature finding that adherence to gender roles related to FWC and WFC for males and females (Livingston & Judge, 2008), and adherence to gender roles significantly related to the relationship between FWC and marital satisfaction for

husbands (i.e., men) (Minnotte et al., 2013). Despite significant findings, Minnotte and colleagues (2010) reported that men's gender ideologies (similar to gender role orientation) alone did not significantly affect their model, which examined the impact of gender ideologies on the relationship between WFC and marital satisfaction, until they accounted for the men's spouses' gender ideologies. Thus, they suggest that, in order to fully understand married couples experiences, researchers must account for the participants' spouses' gender role adherence. This can then help explain non-significant findings in the current study, as the current study's participants were married, but their spouse's gender role orientation was not accounted for. It is possible that, if information related to the participant's spouses' gender role orientation was obtained and included in the model, significant results may have been found. However, although no significant mediation was found, these results are interesting, as they suggest that men and women's gender role orientation does not explain how WFC and FWC relates to job, family, and life satisfaction.

Furthermore, although the relationships between conflict and satisfaction outcomes were not mediated by gender role orientation, some of the direct relationships between conflict and satisfaction outcomes were significant. Specially, the relationships between WFC and job satisfaction and WFC and life satisfaction were found to be significant. Finding that WFC related to job satisfaction is consistent with the same-domain hypothesis, which proposes that the domain in which the conflict was created impacts satisfaction in that same domain (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011). Further, this study's results are consistent with Brough and colleagues (2005) who found that WFC related to less job satisfaction. Finding support for the same-domain

hypothesis suggests that, in order to increase job satisfaction, interventions in the workplace would likely be more beneficial than interventions in the home. Moreover, supporting previous research (Naz, Gul, & Haq, 2011), it was found that WFC significantly related to less life satisfaction. This suggests that conflict carrying over from work into the home domain has a greater impact on satisfaction with ones' life than conflict occurring at home and affecting the work domain; therefore, interventions aimed at decreasing WFC would likely be more beneficial in increasing one's life satisfaction. Overall, finding that WFC had significant relationships with satisfaction outcomes, while FWC did not, suggests that conflict originating at work and carrying over into the home domain is more detrimental than conflict carrying over from the home domain into work, which is supported by previous research (Mennino, Rubin, & Brayfield). This finding suggests that interventions that focus on decreasing conflict originating at work are more important than interventions that focus on decreasing conflict occurring at home.

Additionally, although testing if sex moderated any significant mediation of gender role orientation could not be conducted as planned, additional analyses were conducted to examine whether the direct paths between conflict and satisfaction outcomes were moderated by sex, and to add to the literature about this issue. It was found that sex did not significantly moderate any direct paths, indicating that males and females in the current sample do not significantly differ in their experiences of conflict and job, family, and life satisfaction. This study's findings are consistent with several other studies (see Ford et al., 2007; Frone et al., 1996; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Kinnunen et al., 2004; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998). Ford and colleagues (1996) report that their lack of findings may have been due to males and females having more equal work

and family responsibilities, as couples are more likely to be dual earners and more females are working than in the past, which is consistent with the current study's sample, as 77.9% of the participants had spouses who were working. As such, Ford and colleagues (1996) report it is possible that the demands of males and females are significantly more alike and, therefore, males and females are more likely to experience similar amounts of conflict due to having comparable work and family responsibilities. This can help explain the current study's findings in that it is possible that, due to all participants being required to be married and working full-time, and the majority of participants had working spouses, they had similar work and family responsibilities, resulting in similar experiences of WFC and FWC; thus, relating to similar amounts of job, family, and life satisfaction across sexes.

Furthermore, it was very interesting to find that, although gender role orientation did not significantly mediate the relationship between conflict and satisfaction outcomes, and sex did not moderate the relations between conflict and satisfaction outcomes, gender role orientation significantly differed by sex. Specifically, females were found to adhere to more egalitarian gender roles than males. Finding that females had more egalitarian gender role orientation than men is consistent with previous research (see Eagly, Diekmann, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Koenig, 2004; Judge and Livingston's, 2008; Minnotte et al., 2010; Minnotte et al., 2013). Judge and Livingston (2008) suggest that these sex differences in gender role orientation exist because females experience increased benefits from adhering to more egalitarian gender roles and males experience increased benefits from adhering to more traditional gender roles. For example, they found that men who adhered to more traditional gender roles received more earning rewards in the workplace

than men who adhered to more egalitarian gender roles. Thus, this suggests that females may have adhered to more egalitarian gender roles than males in the current sample due to the likely chance of receiving increased benefits in the workplace. Overall, although females adhered to more egalitarian gender roles than males, this did not significantly impact the relationship between conflict and job, family, and life satisfaction.

Another surprising finding of this study was that simply having children significantly related to FWC, but not to WFC or job, family, or life satisfaction. Furthermore, children's ages significantly related to FWC and family satisfaction, and number of children living in the home significantly related to job satisfaction. First, these findings support Byron (2005) who argues that, in order to adequately assess for if having children significantly affects one's dependent variables, multiple questions related to participants' children should be included. Research has found support for various factors pertaining to having children relating to WFC/FWC and satisfaction outcomes, such as children's ages and number of children living in the home (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Netemeyer et al., 1996); thus, assessing for these various aspects is important. The importance of having multiple questions related to the participants' children can be seen in this study's results, as one question did not significantly relate to any satisfaction outcomes (e.g. Do you have children?), but did to FWC, whereas another (e.g. What are your child(ren)'s ages?) only significantly related to family satisfaction and FWC, while a third question (e.g. How many children under the age of 18 live in your home?) significantly related to job satisfaction. These findings suggest and support Byron (2005) in the need for including multiple questions that assess more specific details related to the participants' children in order to account for variance related to this issue.

Moreover, examining the significant findings of the current study pertaining to the participants' children, the findings were opposite of many previous research studies. Specifically, having younger children in the home has been found to be related to increased experiences of conflict and decreased life and family satisfaction, as compared to having older children (Demerouti et al., 2005; Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Higgins, Duxbury & Lee, 1994; Lewis & Cooper, 1988). Although the current study was consistent with previous literature in finding that having younger children (i.e., 12-years-old or younger) significantly related to more conflict, it was found that having younger children significantly related to more family satisfaction, despite experiencing more conflict. Although this finding is different than most previous literature, Darcy and McCarthy (2007) hypothesize that parents experience more strain as their children age, due to their children becoming more independent. This may then help explain the current study's findings in that, the less independent the participants' children were (i.e., being younger), the more family satisfaction they experienced, no matter the amount of conflict occurring. Although it was unexpected to find that parents of younger children experienced more FWC as well as more family satisfaction (rather than less), this makes sense in context of the current study, as it was found that FWC and family satisfaction did not significantly relate to one another; thus, although parents of younger children experienced more FWC, having higher levels of family satisfaction was not impacted by more experiences of conflict.

Also, several researchers have found that having more children living in the home relates to increased conflict and decreased family and job satisfaction (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 1999; Clark, Oswald, Warr, 1996; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Kinnunen et

al., 2004; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 1996). However, the current study found that participants who only had one child living in the home experienced significantly less job satisfaction than participants who had two or more children living in their home. A limitation to the current study's finding is that number of children in the home was grouped into the following two categories; one child versus two or more children. Although this grouping is typical as compared to most literature, Clark and colleagues (1996) conceptualized number of children in the home differently because they found that having three or more children significantly affected job satisfaction, whereas having two or less did not. Thus, the grouping of number of children may have affected the results. Although researchers assess the number of children differently, further research into the relationship of having one child versus two or more with job satisfaction is needed in order to help explain the current study's findings.

Lastly, other demographic variables were found to relate to conflict and satisfaction outcomes, such as viewing one's job as a career, personal education, and spouse's education. Finding that viewing one's job as a career rather than just a job related to higher levels of job and life satisfaction is consistent with previous research (see Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). This finding is important for career counselors, as this emphasizes the importance of helping clients find a position they would view as a potential career, rather than a position they would view as just a job. Doing this would not only increase well-being for clients in multiple domains (e.g., job, life), but it would also help companies increase retention rates and decrease burnout, as higher levels of job and life satisfaction have been found to be related to less intentions to quit and burnout (Côté & Morgan, 2002; Hakanen & Schaufeli, 2012; Rode, Rehg, Near, & Underhill,

2007). Also, finding that higher levels of participants' education related to more FWC was surprising, as previous literature has primarily found that higher levels of education are related to WFC (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Schieman & Glavin, 2011). Although limited, one research study found that having at least a four-year degree increased both WFC and FWC (Mennino et al., 2005). Lastly, this study found that the participant's spouse's education related to more FWC and WFC for the participants. Assessing for spouses' education is important, as it can be seen in the current study that spouse's education can impact individuals' experiences of both forms of conflict. Examining participant's spouse's educational levels and their relationship with conflict is relatively unique, and studies that have examined both the participants' and their spouses' education level have found non-significant results (see Minnotte et al., 2003). Thus, due to the current study's findings, in order to adequately assess participants' experiences of conflict, questions related to participant's spouse's education are needed.

Limitations

As previously mentioned, Minnotte and colleagues (2010) found that adherence to gender roles was not significant in impacting the relationship between conflict and satisfaction outcomes when just assessing for the participants' adherence to gender roles. Rather, the model became significant when the husbands' spouses' adherence to gender role was also accounted for. Further, Minnotte and colleagues (2013) found that FWC was related to less marital satisfaction for wives who had husbands who adhered to more traditional gender roles. Thus, a limitation of this study was that the gender role orientation of the participants' spouses was not accounted for. If it had been, the

mediation of gender role orientation on the relationship between conflict and satisfaction outcomes may have been significant.

Additionally, another limitation of this study was that it did not include an assessment of marital satisfaction. Although family satisfaction encompasses satisfaction with one's spouse (Kinnunen et al., 2004), measures of family satisfaction are more general in the assessment of satisfaction in the home, which likely involves assessing satisfaction with all family members (i.e., spouses and children). Thus, specifically examining marital satisfaction, in addition to family satisfaction, may be beneficial and may have resulted in the significant mediation of gender role orientation. This is supported by Minnotte and colleagues (2010; 2013) who found that adherence to gender roles impacted the relationship between conflict and marital satisfaction.

Furthermore, a limitation of this study was that it did not include enrichment (i.e., positive spillover) in the model. Previous research has found that conflict and enrichment are inversely related (Jijena-Michel & Jijena Michel, 2012), and it is possible that, although gender role orientation did not mediate the relationship between conflict and job, family, and life satisfaction, gender role orientation mediates the relationship between enrichment and satisfaction outcomes. Sex differences have been discovered for enrichment (see Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Gzywacz and Marks, 2000) when both enrichment and conflict have been included in one model, finding that females had significantly greater experiences of enrichment carrying over from the work domain into the home domain than males. Moreover, examining previous literature on sex, adherence to gender roles, and enrichment, Powell and colleagues (2009) propose that adherence to gender roles will likely significantly moderate positive spillover between the work and

home domains for males and females who adhere to more traditional gender roles than males and females who adhere to more egalitarian gender roles. They propose this because they find that males and females who adhere to more egalitarian gender roles have more similar experiences in the home (e.g., similar amounts of time interacting with children and/or time devoted to household tasks) and at work (e.g., work hours) whereas males and females who adhere to more traditional gender roles have more defined differences between them (e.g., men devoting more time to the work domain and women devoting more time to children and household tasks); thus, leading to their aforementioned proposition. Therefore, future research examining the full work-family interface (i.e., conflict and enrichment) would be beneficial in exploring if men and women's adherence to gender roles is related to all forms of spillover, but also mediates the relationships between positive spillover and satisfaction outcomes.

Other limitations include that the current study utilized the Traditional-Egalitarian Sex Roles scale (TESR; Larsen & Long, 1988) to assess gender role orientation. Although this measure was found to have strong reliability ($\alpha = .90$) based on the current study's sample, utilizing a measure developed and validated in the late 1980's could have been problematic. As mentioned, society's expectations for men and women have and currently are drastically changing and, therefore, utilizing a measure that has been validated on today's adult population may have been more beneficial. Further, inclusion of nontraditional families may also have been beneficial, such as unmarried couples, same-sex couples, transgender individuals, as these multicultural populations warrant attention because they also experience conflict carrying over between the work and home domains (Ford et al., 2007).

Lastly, inclusion of participants who adhered to more traditional gender roles would have been beneficial, as the current sample's participants primarily adhered to egalitarian gender roles. For the TESR, scores can range between 20 to 100 with lower scores representing traditional gender roles and higher scores representing egalitarian gender roles. It was found that the average TESR score for the current sample was 79.09 with a standard deviation of 12.83, indicating that the majority of participants adhered to more egalitarian gender roles, even within one standard deviation of the mean. It is possible that, if the sample was more balanced with equal amounts of participants who adhered to traditional gender roles and egalitarian gender roles, significant mediation would have been found, followed by sex moderating those significant mediated paths. As previously mentioned, Powell and colleagues (2009) reported that samples that are less egalitarian (i.e., more traditional) may demonstrate greater sex differences in the work-family interface than samples that are more egalitarian; thus, helping explain why there were no significant sex differences in experiences of conflict, as the majority of the current study's sample adhered to egalitarian gender roles. Obtaining a sample that was primarily egalitarian may have been due to requiring all participants to be working full-time; thus, female participants may have inadvertently been more egalitarian. Therefore, attaining more traditional populations may be done through recruiting female participants who are homemakers and have husbands who work full-time and/or male participants who work full-time and have wives that are homemakers.

Implications

Finding evidence that further supports the same-domain hypothesis emphasizes the importance of implementing interventions in the environment in which conflict is

originating. Thus, in order to increase job satisfaction, interventions in the workplace that can help reduce conflict deriving at work would be beneficial. Fortney and colleagues (2013) found that a brief mindfulness intervention utilized to help working professionals manage stress significantly reduced burnout, depression, anxiety, and stress. They found that this brief intervention had notable long term effects in that the significant reduction in burnout, depression, anxiety, and stress was maintained at a nine month follow up. Therefore, this brief intervention implemented in the workplace would likely be beneficial in increasing job satisfaction and decreasing WFC. Additionally, it has been found that organizational empowerment significantly increases job satisfaction (Huai-Ting, Teresa Jeo-Chen, & I-Chuan, 2008); thus, likely decreasing conflict originating at work. Specifically, Huai-Ting and colleagues (2008) found that building relationships and alliances as well as solving problems and generating solutions with co-workers, supervisees, and supervisors resulted in the development of informal/organizational empowerment, leading to increased job satisfaction. Therefore, interventions that focus on increasing collaboration and support in the workplace would be beneficial in decreasing conflict and increasing job satisfaction. Moreover, supporting Huai-Ting and colleagues, other researchers (see Mennino et al., 2005; O'Driscoll et al., 2003) found that family friendly policies implemented within organizations were not helpful in reducing WFC and FWC; thus, they suggest that changing the work culture (e.g., organizational support for work-family balance) would be more beneficial in decreasing conflict.

In addition to implementing interventions in the workplace to increase job satisfaction, interventions in the home domain to decrease FWC would be beneficial,

particularly for parents with younger children. Zabriskie and McCormick (2003) found that increased leisure time with one's family was related to increased family satisfaction for parents, which likely would decrease experiences of FWC. Thus, promoting parents to spend leisure time with their families in order to build stronger relationships would be beneficial in helping decrease FWC and increase family satisfaction. Further, Zabriskie and McCormick (2003) found that parents who had children who were at least 10 years of age utilized more effort in increasing activity with their children in order to build stronger relationships and increase family satisfaction. Their findings are consistent with the current study in that, having children of younger ages was related to more family satisfaction than parents who had children of older ages; thus, increasing leisure time in families who have older children is also important. Moreover, increased family resources, such as assistance with household tasks, egalitarian partner relationships, and strong social support, have been found to be related to increased family satisfaction (Brough et al., 2005). This finding supports that interventions that focus on increasing resources at home would be beneficial in decreasing conflict originating in the home and increasing family satisfaction.

In final review, it was found that gender role orientation did not mediate any relationships between WFC and FWC and job, family, and life satisfaction, not supporting Hypothesis 1 and 2. Due to not finding any significant mediation, examining if any significant mediated paths were moderated by sex (Hypothesis 3) could not be tested. Although there were no significant indirect effects (i.e., mediation), it was found that the direct relationships between WFC and job satisfaction, and WFC and life satisfaction were significant. Due to finding significant direct effects, all direct paths

between WFC and FWC and satisfaction outcomes were tested to see if they were moderated by sex; however, it was not found that sex moderated any of these direct paths. Further, examining if sex related to any of the study variables, it was found that gender role orientation significantly differed by sex, finding that females adhered to more egalitarian gender roles than males. Overall, these results suggest that the relationships between both forms of conflict and satisfaction outcomes hold for both men and women. Thus, reducing WFC is likely to improve job and life satisfaction for both men and women.

APPENDIX A

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

**INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD**

118 College Drive #5147 | Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001

Phone: 601.266.5997 | Fax: 601.266.4377 | www.usm.edu/research/institutional.review.board**NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION**

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months. Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 15010504

PROJECT TITLE: Sex Moderating Gender Role Orientation's Mediation of Work-Family/Family-Work Conflict and Satisfaction Outcomes

PROJECT TYPE: New Project

RESEARCHER(S): Deirdre Paulson-O'Donovan

COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Education and Psychology

DEPARTMENT: Counseling Psychology

FUNDING AGENCY/SPONSOR: N/A

IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Expedited Review Approval

PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 01/16/2015 to 01/15/2016

Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.**Institutional Review Board**

APPENDIX B


 INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
LONG FORM CONSENT

LONG FORM CONSENT PROCEDURES
<p>This completed document must be signed by each consenting research participant.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Project Information and Research Description sections of this form should be completed by the Principal Investigator before submitting this form for IRB approval. • Signed copies of the long form consent should be provided to all participants. <p style="text-align: right;">Last Edited August 28th, 2014</p>

Today's date: January 6, 2015		
PROJECT INFORMATION		
Project Title: Sex Moderating Gender Role Orientation's Mediation of Work-Family/Family-Work Conflict and Satisfaction Outcomes		
Principal Investigator: Deirdre Paulson-O'Donovan, M.S.	Phone: 612-209-0732	Email: Deirdre.paulson@eagles.usm.edu
College: Education and Psychology	Department: Counseling Psychology	
RESEARCH DESCRIPTION		
<p>1. Purpose:</p> <p>You are invited to participate in a study measuring adherence to gender roles, work-family/family-work conflict, and satisfaction outcomes. You were selected as a possible participant because you are a married heterosexual full-time working adult. We ask that you read this form before agreeing to be in the study. The researchers conducting this study are Deirdre Paulson-O'Donovan, Doctoral student in Counseling Psychology, who is supervised by Dr. Melanie Leuty from the University of Southern Mississippi, Department of Psychology.</p> <p>2. Description of Study:</p> <p>The purpose of the current project is to examine adherence to gender roles and how that is related to work-family/family-work conflict and satisfaction outcomes. You will receive \$0.25-\$0.50 compensation for your participation. Quality assurance checks will be used to make sure that participants are reading each question carefully and answering thoughtfully. Participants who do not pass these checks will NOT receive compensation for their participation.</p> <p>3. Benefits:</p> <p>A benefit of the study is that you will receive between \$0.25-\$0.50 in compensation for time</p>		

spent completing the survey. You most likely will not experience any other benefits. However, you may find that responding to questions about your preferences may increase your self-awareness.

4. Risks:

The risks associated with your participation are minimal. You may find that a few of the questions are sensitive in nature (e.g., questions about job, family, and life satisfaction), which may result in some distress. Also, some of the questions may be difficult to answer or you may find that you become fatigued when completing questions.

5. Confidentiality:

The records of this study will be kept private. After the study has been completed, a unique number will be assigned to your information. In any sort of report that might be published from this data, no information will be included that will make it possible to identify a participant. Research records will be stored securely on computer devices and only the researchers involved in this study will have access to the research records.

6. Alternative Procedures:

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Southern Mississippi or the Department of Psychology. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

7. Participant's Assurance:

This project has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations.

Any questions or concerns about rights as a research participant should be directed to the Chair of the IRB at 601-266-5997. Participation in this project is completely voluntary, and participants may withdraw from this study at any time without penalty, prejudice, or loss of benefits.

Any questions about the research should be directed to the Principal Investigator using the contact information provided in Project Information Section above.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Participant's Name: N/A

Consent is hereby given to participate in this research project. All procedures and/or investigations to be followed and their purpose, including any experimental procedures, were explained to me. Information was given about all benefits, risks, inconveniences, or discomforts that might be expected.

The opportunity to ask questions regarding the research and procedures was given. Participation in the project is completely voluntary, and participants may withdraw at any time without penalty, prejudice, or loss of benefits. All personal information is strictly confidential, and no names will be disclosed. Any new information that develops during the project will be provided if that information may affect the willingness to continue participation in the project.

Questions concerning the research, at any time during or after the project, should be directed to the Principal Investigator with the contact information provided above. This project and this consent form have been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations. Any questions or concerns about rights as a research participant should be directed to the Chair of the Institutional Review Board, The University of Southern Mississippi, 118 College Drive #5147, Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001, (601) 266-5997.

I consent to participate in this study, in doing so I am agreeing that:

- 1. I am at least 18 years of age**
- 2. I am currently working full-time**
- 3. I identify my sexual orientation as heterosexual**
- 4. I am married**
- 5. I am being asked to complete a set of questionnaires, which will take no more than 30 minutes and for which I will receive \$.25-.50**
- 6. All information I provide will be used for research purposes and will be kept confidential**

I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary. If I decide to participate in the study, I may withdraw my consent and stop participating at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled.

I have read and understand the above information. I consent to participate in this study by clicking on the box below.

_____ I agree to the terms

Research Participant

Person Explaining the Study

Date

Date

APPENDIX C

SURVEY

Demographic Questionnaire

Please provide the following demographic information.

MTurk ID: _____

State you live in: _____

Age, in years: _____

Date of Birth: _____

Sex:

Male (0)

Female (1)

Sexual orientation:

Heterosexual (1)

Homosexual (2)

Bisexual (3)

Transgender (4)

Other (5)

Race/Ethnicity:

Alaskan Native (1)

American Indian (2)

Asian American (3)

Black or African American (4)

Hispanic/Latino (5)

White or Caucasian (6)

Native Hawaiian (7)

Pacific Islander (8)

Multicultural (9)

Gender:

Man (1)

Woman (2)

Transgender (3)

Relationship Status:

Single/Never Married

In a committed relationship

In a committed relationship AND living together

¹ The number in parentheses will be used to code data.

- Engaged
- Married
- Divorced/Separated
- Widowed

If applicable, how long have you been in your current relationship? _____

Do you have children?

- Yes (1)
- No, but I plan on having children in the future (2)
- No, and I do not plan on having children in the future (3)

If you do have children, how many? _____

What are your child(ren)'s ages (list)? _____

How many adults live in your home? _____

How many children under the age of 18 live in your home? _____

How many adult children (over the age of 18) live in your home? _____

Your current employment status:

- Employed
 - 0-10 hours a week
 - 10-20 hours a week
 - 20-30 hours a week
 - 30-40 hours a week
 - 40+ hours a week
- Not employed, but actively searching for a job
- Not employed and not actively searching
- Homemaker

Are you considered:

- Full-time employee
- Part-time employee

Your spouse's employment status:

- Employed
 - 0-10 hours a week
 - 10-20 hours a week
 - 20-30 hours a week
 - 30-40 hours a week
 - 40+ hours a week
- Not employed, but actively searching for a job
- Not employed and not actively searching for a job
- Homemaker

¹ The number in parentheses will be used to code data.

Is your spouse considered:

- Full-time employee
 Part-time employee

How long have you been at your current job?

years _____, months _____

What is your career field?

- Agriculture, food, and natural resources (1)
 Architecture and construction (2)
 Arts, audio/video technology, and communications (5)
 Business, management, and administration (4)
 Education and training (6)
 Finance (7)
 Government and public administration (8)
 Health science (9)
 Hospitality and tourism (10)
 Human services (11)
 Information technology (12)
 Law, public safety, correction, and security (13)
 Manufacturing (14)
 Marketing, sales, and service (15)
 Science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (16)
 Transportation, distribution, and logistics (17)
 Other _____ (18)

Current Occupational Title (e.g., nurse, high school teacher, cashier, accountant, therapist, scientist, construction worker, etc.): _____

Do you consider your job your career (meaning you plan to work in this type of occupation for a number of years)? _____

Please indicate the highest degree you have earned.

- Some high school (1)
 High school diploma/GED (2)
 Some college (3)
 Technical/vocational certificate (4)
 Associates degree (5)
 Bachelors degree (6)
 Masters degree (7)
 Doctoral degree (8)
 Other _____ (9)

¹ The number in parentheses will be used to code data.

If applicable, what is your spouse's current occupational title: (e.g., nurse, high school teacher, cashier, accountant, therapist, scientist, construction worker, etc.): _____

If applicable, please indicate the highest degree your partner has earned.

- Some high school (1)
- High school diploma/GED (2)
- Some college (3)
- Technical/vocational certificate (4)
- Associates degree (5)
- Bachelors degree (6)
- Masters degree (7)
- Doctoral degree (8)
- Other _____ (9)

Please estimate your family's annual income.

- \$0-\$20,000 (1)
- \$21,000-\$40,000 (2)
- \$41,000-\$60,000 (3)
- \$61,000-\$80,000 (4)
- \$81,000-\$100,000 (5)
- \$101,000+ (5)

¹ The number in parentheses will be used to code data.

Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict Scale

Directions: Below are statements in which you may agree or disagree with. Please use the 1-5 rating scale to rate whether you agree or disagree by selecting the appropriate number for each item.

- 1= Strongly Disagree
- 2= Disagree
- 3= Neither disagree or agree
- 4= Agree
- 5= Strongly Agree

- _____ The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities
- _____ I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home
- _____ Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner
- _____ My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime
- _____ Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties
- _____ The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
- _____ The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.
- _____ Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.
- _____ My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.
- _____ Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.

Overall Job Satisfaction (OJS)

Directions: Below are statements in which you may agree or disagree with. Please use the 1-7 rating scale to answer the following statements:

1= Strongly Disagree

2= Disagree

3= Slightly Disagree

4= Neither Agree nor Disagree

5= Slightly Agree

6= Agree

7= Strongly Agree

_____ All in all, I am satisfied with my job.

_____ In general, I don't like my job. (reverse-coded)

_____ In general, I like working here.

Overall Family Satisfaction (OFS)

Directions: Below are statements in which you may agree or disagree with. Please use the 1-7 rating scale to answer the following statements:

1= Strongly Disagree

2= Disagree

3= Slightly Disagree

4= Neither Agree nor Disagree

5= Slightly Agree

6= Agree

7= Strongly Agree

_____ All in all, I am satisfied with my family.

_____ In general, I don't like my family.(reverse-coded)

_____ In general, I like living with my family.

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

Directions: Below are statements in which you may agree or disagree with. Please use the 1-7 rating scale to answer the following statements:

1= Strongly Disagree

2= Disagree

3= Slightly Disagree

4= Neither Agree nor Disagree

5= Slightly Agree

6= Agree

7= Strongly Agree

_____ In most ways life is close to my ideal

_____ The conditions of my life are excellent

_____ I am satisfied with life

_____ So far I have gotten the important things I want in life

_____ If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing

Traditional-Egalitarian Sex Roles scale (TESR)

Directions: Below are statements in which you may agree or disagree with. Please use the 1-5 rating scale to rate whether you agree or disagree by selecting the appropriate number for each item.

1= Strongly Disagree

2= Disagree

3= Neither disagree or agree

4= Agree

5= Strongly Agree

- _____ It is just as important to educate daughters as it is to educate sons
- _____ Women should be more concerned with clothing and appearance than men
- _____ Women should have as much sexual freedom as men
- _____ The man should be more responsible for the economic support of the family than the woman
- _____ The belief that women cannot make as good supervisors or executives as men is a myth
- _____ The word "obey" should be removed from wedding vows
- _____ Ultimately a woman should submit to her husband's decision
- _____ Some equality in marriage is good, but by and large the husband ought to have the main say-so in family matters
- _____ Having a job is just as important for a wife as it is for her husband
- _____ In groups that have both male and female members, it is more appropriate that leadership positions be held by males
- _____ I would not allow my son to play with dolls
- _____ Having a challenging job or career is as important as being a wife and mother
- _____ Men make better leaders
- _____ Almost any woman is better off in her home than in a job or profession
- _____ A woman's place is in the home
- _____ The role of teaching in the elementary schools belongs to women
- _____ The changing of diapers is the responsibility of both parents
- _____ Men who cry have weak character
- _____ A man who has chosen to stay at home and be a house-husband is not less masculine
- _____ As head of the household, the father should have the final authority over the children

REFERENCES

- Alimo-Metcalfe, B. (1995). An investigation of female and male constructs of leadership and empowerment. *Women in Management Review*, *10*(2), 3-8. doi: 10.1108/17542411011092309
- Allen, T. D., & Finkelstein, L. M. (2014). Work–family conflict among members of full-time dual-earner couples: An examination of family life stage, gender, and age. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *19*(3), 376-384. doi:10.1037/a0036941
- Allen, T. D., Herst, D. E. L., Bruck, C. S., & Sutton, M. (2000). Consequences associated with work-to-family conflict: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *5*, 278–308. doi: 10:1037//1076-8998.5.2.278
- Aryee, S., Srinivas, E. S., & Tan, H. H. (2005). Rhythms of life: Antecedents and outcomes of work-family balance in employed parents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(1), 132-146. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.90.1.132
- Aycan, Z., & Eskin, M. (2005). Relative contributions of childcare, spousal support, and organizational support in reducing work–family conflict for men and women: The case of Turkey. *Sex Roles*, *53*(7-8), 453-471. doi: 10.1007/s11199-005-7134-8
- Barber, J. S., & Axinn, W. G. (1998). Gender role attitudes and marriage among young women. *The Sociological Quarterly*, *39*(1), 11-31. doi: 10.1111/j.1533-8525.1998.tb02347.x
- Barrett, P. (2007). Structural equation modeling: Adjudging model fit. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *42*(5), 815-24. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2006.09.018

- Barnett, R. (1998). Toward a review and reconceptualizing of the work/family literature. *Genetic, Social and General Psychology Monographs, 124*, 125–182.
- Baum, C. L. (2002). A dynamic analysis of the effect of child care costs on the work decisions of low-income mothers with infants. *Demography, 39*(1), 139-164. doi: 10.1353/dem.2002.0002
- Bedeian, A. G., Burke, B. G., & Moffett, R. G. (1988). Outcomes of work-family conflict among married male and female professionals. *Journal of Management, 14*(3), 475-491. doi: 10.1177/014920638801400310
- Bem, S. L. (1993). *The lenses of gender*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Besen, E., Matz-Costa, C., Brown, M., Smyer, M. A., & Pitt-Cat Souphes, (2013). Job characteristics, core self-evaluations, and job satisfaction: What's age got to do with it? *International Journal of Aging & Human Development, 76*(4), 269-295. doi: 10.2190/AG.76.4.a
- Beutell, N. J., & Wittig-Berman, U. (2008). Work-family conflict and work-family synergy for generation X, baby boomers, and matures: Generational differences, predictors, and satisfaction outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 23*(5), 507-523. doi: 10.1108/02683940810884513
- Beutell, N. J., & Wittig-Berman, U. (1999). Predictors of work-family conflict and satisfaction with family, job, career, and life. *Psychological Reports, 85*(3), 893-903. doi: 10.2466/PR.85.7.893-903
- Block, J. H. (1983). Differential premises arising from differential socialization of the sexes: Some conjectures. *Child Development, 54*(6), 1335-1354. doi: 10.2307/1129799

- Boles, J. S., Howard, W. G., & Donofrio, H. H. (2001). An investigation into the inter-relationships of work-family conflict, family-work conflict and work satisfaction. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 376-390.
- Bollen, K. A. (1990). Overall fit in covariance structure models: Two types of sample size effects. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107(2), 256. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.107.2.256
- Bowling, N. A., & Hammond, G. D. (2008). A meta-analytic examination of the construct validity of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire Job Satisfaction Subscale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73(1), 63-77. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2008.01.004
- Boyar, S. L., & Mosley, D. r. (2007). The Relationship between Core Self-Evaluations and Work and Family Satisfaction: The Mediating Role of Work-Family Conflict and Facilitation. *Journal Of Vocational Behavior*, 71(2), 265-281. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2007.06.001
- Brough, P., O'Driscoll, M. P., & Kalliath, T. J. (2005). The ability of 'family friendly' organizational resources to predict work-family conflict and job and family satisfaction. *Stress and Health*, 21(4), 223-234. doi: 10.1002/smi.1059
- Bruck, C. S., Allen, T. D., & Spector, P. E. (2002). The relation between work-family conflict and job satisfaction: A finer-grained analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 60(3), 336-353. doi:10.1006/jvbe.2001.1836
- Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk: A new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality, data?. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 6(1), 3-5. doi: 10.1177/1745691610393980

- Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012). *Latest annual data*. Retrieved from <http://www.dol.gov/wb/stats/recentfacts.htm#rates>
- Byron, K. (2005). A meta-analytic review of work-family conflict and its antecedents. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 67*(2), 169-198. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2004.08.009
- Cabrera, N., Tamis-LeMonda, C. S., Bradley, R. H., Hofferth, S., & Lamb, M. E. (2000). Fatherhood in the twenty-first century. *Child Development, 71*(1), 127-136.
- Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, D., & Klesh, J. (1983). Assessing the attitudes and perceptions of organizational members. In S. Seashore, E. Lawler, P. Mirvis, & C. Cammann (Eds.), *Assessing organizational change: A guide to methods, measures and practices*. New York: John Wiley.
- Carlson, D. S., Grzywacz, J. G., & Zivnuska, S. (2010). Is work—family balance more than conflict and enrichment?. *Human Relations, 62*(10), 1459-1486. doi: 10.1177/0018726709336500
- Carlson, D. S., Hunter, E. M., Ferguson, M., & Whitten, D. (2014). Work—family enrichment and satisfaction mediating processes and relative impact of originating and receiving domains. *Journal of Management, 40*(3), 845-865. doi: 10.1177/0149206311414429
- Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., Wayne, J. H., & Grzywacz, J. G. (2006). Measuring the positive side of the work-family interface: Development and validation of a work-family enrichment scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68*, 131-164. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2005.02.002

- Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., & Williams, L. J. (2000). Construction and initial validation of a multidimensional measure of work–family conflict. *Journal of Vocational behavior, 56*(2), 249-276. doi:10.1006/jvbe.1999.1713
- Carter, R., Silverman, W. K., & Jaccard, J. (2011). Sex variations in youth anxiety symptoms: Effects of pubertal development and gender role orientation. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology, 40*(5), 730-741. doi:10.1080/15374416.2011.597082
- Carver, M. D., & Jones, W. H. (1992). The Family Satisfaction Scale. *Social Behavior & Personality: An International Journal, 20*(2). doi: 10.2224/sbp.1992.20.2.71
- Carver, P. R., Yunger, J. L., & Perry, D. G. (2003). Gender identity and adjustment in middle childhood. *Sex Roles, 49*(3-4), 95-109. doi: 10.1023/A:1024423012063
- Chin, W. (1998). The partial least squares approach for structural equation modeling. In G. A. Marcoulides (Ed.), *Modern methods for business research* (pp. 295-336). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cinamon, R. G., & Rich, Y. (2002a). Gender differences in the importance of work and family roles: Implications for work–family conflict. *Sex Roles, 47*, 531–541. doi: 10.1023/A:1022021804846
- Cinamon, R. G., & Rich, Y. (2002b). Profiles of attribution of importance to life roles and their implications for the work–family conflict. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 49*(2), 212. doi: 10.1037/0022-0167.49.2.212
- Clark, A. E., & Oswald, A. J. (1996). Satisfaction and comparison income. *Journal of Public Economics, 61*(3), 359-381. doi:10.1016/0047-2727(95)01564-7

- Clark, A., Oswald, A., & Warr, P. (1996). Is job satisfaction U-shaped in age?. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 69(1), 57-81. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8325.1996.tb00600.x .
- Corrigan, J. D., Kolakowsky-Hayner, S., Wright, J., Bellon, K., & Carufel, P. (2013). The Satisfaction with Life Scale. *The Journal of Head Trauma Rehabilitation*, 28(6), 489-491.
- Côté, S., & Morgan, L. M. (2002). A longitudinal analysis of the association between emotion regulation, job satisfaction, and intentions to quit. *Journal of organizational Behavior*, 23(8), 947-962.
- Daig, I. O. (2009). Gender and age differences in domain-specific life satisfaction and the impact of depressive and anxiety symptoms: A general population survey from Germany. *Quality Of Life Research*, 18(6), 669-678. doi: 10.1007/s11136-009-9481-3
- Darcy, C., & McCarthy, A. (2007). Work-family conflict: An exploration of the differential effects of a dependent child's age on working parents. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 31(7), 530-549. doi: 10.1108/03090590710820042
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2005). Spillover and crossover of exhaustion and life satisfaction among dual-earner parents. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67(2), 266-289. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2004.07.001
- Diener, E., & Diener, M. (1995). Cross-cultural correlates of life satisfaction and self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68(4), 653. doi: 10.1007/978-90-481-2352-0_4

- Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The Satisfaction with Life Scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 49, 71–75.
doi:10.1207/s15327752jpa4901_13
- Dunn, M. G., Rochlen, A. B., & O'Brien, K. M. (2013). Employee, mother, and partner. An exploratory investigation of working women with stay-at-home fathers. *Journal of Career Development*, 40(1), 3-22. doi: 10.1177/0894845311401744
- Duxbury, L. E., & Higgins, C. A. (1991). Gender differences in work-family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(1), 60. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.76.1.60
- Eagly, A. H., Diekmann, A. B., Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C., & Koenig, A. M. (2004). Gender gaps in sociopolitical attitudes: A social psychological analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 87, 796–816.
- Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (1991). Gender and the emergence of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60, 685–710. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.60.5.685
- Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (1999). The origins of sex differences in human behavior: Evolved dispositions versus social roles. *American Psychologist*, 54(6), 408. doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.54.6.408
- Edwards, J. R., & Rothbard, N. P. (2000). Mechanisms linking work and family: Clarifying the relationship between work and family constructs. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1), 178-199. doi:10.2307/259269 doi: 10.5465/AMR.2000.2791609

- Ergeneli, A., Ilsev, A., & Karapınar, P. B. (2010). Work–family conflict and job satisfaction relationship: The roles of gender and interpretive habits. *Gender, Work & Organization*, *17*(6), 679-695. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-0432.2009.00487.x
- Fischer, J., & Anderson, V. N. (2012). Gender role attitudes and characteristics of stay-at-home and employed fathers. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, *13*(1), 16. doi: 10.1037/a0024359
- Federici, R. A., & Skaalvik, E. M. (2012). Principal self-efficacy: Relations with burnout, job satisfaction and motivation to quit. *Social Psychology of Education*, *15*(3), 295-320. doi: 10.1007/s11218-012-9183-5
- Fletcher, J. K., & Bailyn, L. (2005). The equity imperative: Redesigning work for work–family integration. In E. E. Kossek & S. J. Lambert (Eds.), *Work and life integration: Organizational, cultural, and individual perspectives* (pp. 171–190). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ford, M. T., Heinen, B. A., & Langkamer, K. L. (2007). Work and family satisfaction and conflict: A meta-analysis of cross-domain relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*, 57–80. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.57
- Forste, R., & Fox, K. (2012). Household labor, gender roles, and family satisfaction: A cross-national comparison. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, *43*(5), 613-631.
- Fortney, L., Luchterhand, C., Zakletskaia, L., Zgierska, A., & Rakel, D. (2013). Abbreviated mindfulness intervention for job satisfaction, quality of life, and compassion in primary care clinicians: A pilot study. *Annals of Family Medicine*, *11*(5), 412-420. doi:10.1370/afm.1511

- Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Barnes, G. M. (1996). Work–family conflict, gender, and health-related outcomes: A study of employed parents in two community samples. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 1*(1), 57. doi: 10.1037/1076-8998.1.1.57
- Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of work–family conflict: testing a model of the work–family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*(1), 65. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.77.1.65
- Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1994). Relationship between job and family satisfaction: Causal or noncausal covariation?. *Journal of Management, 20*(3), 565-579. doi: 10.1177/014920639402000303
- Frye, N. K., & Breugh, J. A. (2004). Family-friendly policies, supervisor support, work–family conflict, family–work conflict, and satisfaction: A test of a conceptual model. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 19*(2), 197-220. doi: 10.1007/s10869-004-0548-4
- Fugl-Meyer, A. R., Melin, R., & Fugl-Meyer, K. S. (2002). Life satisfaction in 18-to 64-year-old Swedes: in relation to gender, age, partner and immigrant status. *Journal of Rehabilitation Medicine, 34*(5), 239-246. doi: 10.1080/165019702760279242
- Gao, Y., Shi, J., Niu, Q., & Wang, L. (2013). Work–family conflict and job satisfaction: Emotional intelligence as a moderator. *Stress and Health, 29*(3), 222-228. doi: 10.1002/smi.2451
- Garies C. K, Barnett, C. R, Ertel A. K., & Berkman, F.U.F. (2009). Work-family enrichment and conflict: Additive affects, buffering or balance? *Journal of Marriage and Family, 71*, 696-707. doi: 10.1111/j.1741-3737.2009.00627.x

- Geurts, S. A. E., & Demerouti, E. (2003). Work/non-work interface: A review of theories and findings. In M. J. Schabracq, J. A. M. Winnubst, & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *The handbook of work and health psychology* (pp. 279-312). Chichester, England: John Wiley.
- Grandey, A., Cordeiro, B., & Crouter, A. (2005). A longitudinal and multi-source test of the work–family conflict and job satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 78(3), 305-323. doi: 10.1348/096317905X26769
- Grandey, A., & Cropanzano, R. (1999). The conservation of resources model applied to work–family conflict and strain. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54(2), 350-370. doi:10.1006/jvbe.1998.1666
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10(1), 76-88. doi: 10.5465/AMR.1985.4277352
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2006). When work and family are allies: A theory of work–family enrichment. *Academy of Management Review*, 31, 72–92. doi:10.5465/AMR.2006.19379625
- Greenspan, J. D., Craft, R. M., LeResche, L., Arendt-Nielsen, L., Berkley, K. J., Fillingim, R. B., ... & Traub, R. J. (2007). Studying sex and gender differences in pain and analgesia: A consensus report. *Pain*, 132, S26-S45.
- Greer, B., Stephens, D., & Coleman, V. (2001). Cultural diversity and gender role spillover: A working perspective. *Journal of Library Administration*, 33(1-2), 125-140. doi: 10.1300/J111v33n01_09

- Gross, J. J., & John, O. P. (2003). Individual differences in two emotion regulation processes: Implications for affect, relationships, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(2), 348. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.85.2.348
- Grzywacz, J. G., Almeida, D. M., & McDonald, D. A. (2002). Work–family spillover and daily reports of work and family stress in the adult labor force*. *Family Relations*, 51(1), 28-36. doi: 10.1111/j.1741-3729.2002.00028.x
- Grzywacz, J. G., & Bass, B. L. (2003). Work, family, and mental health: Testing different models of work-family fit. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 65, 248–262. doi: 10.1111/j.1741-3737.2003.00248.x
- Grzywacz, J. G., & Butler, A. B. (2005). The impact of job characteristics on work-to-family facilitation: Testing a theory and distinguishing a construct. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 10, 97-109. doi: 10.1037/1076-8998.10.2.97
- Grzywacz, J. G., & Marks, N. F. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work–family interface: An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5(1), 111. doi: 10.1037/1076-8998.5.1.11
- Hakanen, J. J., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2012). Do burnout and work engagement predict depressive symptoms and life satisfaction? A three-wave seven-year prospective study. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 141(2), 415-424.
- Hakim, C. (2000). *Work-lifestyle choices of the 21st century: Preference Theory*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Hammer, L. B., Grigsby, T. D., & Woods, S. (1998). The conflicting demands of work, family, and school among students at an urban university. *The Journal of Psychology, 132*(2), 220-226. doi:10.1080/00223989809599161
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York, NY: Guilford Press
- Hennessy, J. (2009). Choosing work and family: Poor and low-income mothers' work-family commitments. *Journal of Poverty, 13*(2), 152-172. doi:10.1080/10875540902841747
- Higgins, C. A., Duxbury, L. E., & Irving, R. H. (1992). Work-family conflict in the dual-career family. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 51*(1), 51-75. doi:10.1016/0749-5978(92)90004-Q
- Higgins, C., Duxbury, L. & Lee, C. (1994). Impact of life-cycle stage and gender on the ability to balance work and family responsibilities. *Family Relations, 43*, 144–150. doi: 10.2307/585316
- Hines, M. (1982). Prenatal gonadal hormones and sex differences in human behavior. *Psychological Bulletin, 92*(1), 56. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.92.1.56
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 44*, 513–524. doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.44.3.513
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2002). Social and psychological resources and adaptation. *Review of General Psychology, 6*, 307–324. doi:10.1037/1089-2680.6.4.307
- Hong, S. M., & Giannakopoulos, E. (1994). Effects of age, sex, and university status on life-satisfaction. *Psychological reports, 74*(1), 99-103. doi: 10.2466/pr0.1994.74.1.99

- Hu, L.T., & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling, 6*(1), 1-55. doi:10.1080/10705519909540118
- Huai-Ting, K., Teresa Jeo-Chen, Y., & I-Chuan, L. (2008). Relationship between organizational empowerment and job satisfaction perceived by nursing assistants at long-term care facilities. *Journal of Clinical Nursing, 17*(22), 3059-3066. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2702.2007.02072.x
- Jaga, A., & Bagraim, J. (2011). The relationship between work-family enrichment and work-family satisfaction outcomes. *South African Journal of Psychology, 41*(1), 52-62. doi: 10.1177/008124631104100106
- Jijena-Michel, R., & Jijena Michel, C. (2012). The Relationship between work-family conflict and work-family enrichment of university professors. *Journal of Behavioural Sciences, 22*(2), 1-12.
- Johnson, C. L., Resch, J. A., Elliott, T. R., Villarreal, V., Kwok, O. M., Berry, J. W., & Underhill, A. T. (2010). Family satisfaction predicts life satisfaction trajectories over the first 5 years after traumatic brain injury. *Rehabilitation Psychology, 55*(2), 180. doi: 10.1037/a0019480
- Judge, T. A., & Livingston, B. A. (2008). Is the gap more than gender? A longitudinal analysis of gender, gender role orientation, and earnings. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(5), 994. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.93.5.994
- Judge, T. A., & Watanabe, S. (1993). Another look at the job satisfaction-life satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(6), 939-948. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.78.6.939

- Kaczmarek, L. D., Bujacz, A., & Eid, M. (2014). Comparative latent state–trait analysis of satisfaction with life measures: The Steen Happiness Index and the Satisfaction with Life Scale. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 1-11. doi: 10.1007/s10902-014-9517-4
- Katz-Wise, S. L., Priess, H. A., & Hyde, J. S. (2010). Gender-role attitudes and behavior across the transition to parenthood. *Developmental Psychology*, 46(1), 18. doi: 10.1037/a0017820
- Kinnunen, U., Feldt, T., Geurts, S., & Pulkkinen, L. (2006). Types of work-family interface: Well-being correlates of negative and positive spillover between work and family. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 47(2), 149-162. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9450.2006.00502.x
- Kinnunen, U., Geurts, S., & Mauno, S. (2004). Work-to-family conflict and its relationship with satisfaction and well-being: A one-year longitudinal study on gender differences. *Work & Stress*, 18(1), 1-22.
doi:10.1080/02678370410001682005
- Kinnunen, U., & Mauno, S. (1998). Antecedents and outcomes of work–family conflict among employed women and men in Finland. *Human Relations*, 51(2), 157-177.
doi:10.1023/A:1016962202639
- Kudo, Y., Satoh, T., Hosoi, K., Miki, T., Watanabe, M., Kido, S., & Aizawa, Y. (2006). Association between intention to stay on the job and job satisfaction among Japanese nurses in small and medium-sized private hospitals. *Journal of Occupational Health*, 48(6), 504-513. doi: 10.1539/joh.48.504

- Lambert, E. G. (2010). The relationship of organizational citizenship behavior with job satisfaction, turnover intent, life satisfaction, and burnout among correctional staff. *Criminal Justice Studies*, 23(4), 361-380.
doi:10.1080/1478601X.2010.516533
- Lapierre, L. M., Spector, P. E., Allen, T. D., Poelmans, S., Cooper, C. L., O'Driscoll, M. P., ... & Kinnunen, U. (2008). Family-supportive organization perceptions, multiple dimensions of work–family conflict, and employee satisfaction: A test of model across five samples. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73(1), 92-106.
doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2008.02.001
- Larsen, K. S., & Long, E. (1988). Attitudes toward sex-roles: Traditional or egalitarian?. *Sex Roles*, 19 (1-2), 1-12. doi:10.1007/BF00292459
- Lee, N., Zvonkovic, A. M., & Crawford, D. W. (2013). The Impact of work–family conflict and facilitation on women's perceptions of role balance. *Journal of Family Issues*, 35(9), 1252- 1274. doi: 10.1177/0192513X13481332
- Leiter, M., & Durup, M. (1996). Work, home and in between: A longitudinal study of spillover. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 32, 29. doi: 10.1177/0021886396321002
- Lent, R. W., Nota, L., Soresi, S., Ginevra, M. C., Duffy, R. D., & Brown, S. D. (2011). Predicting the job and life satisfaction of Italian teachers: Test of a social cognitive model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79(1), 91-97.
doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2010.12.006

- Lewis, S. N. C., & Cooper, C. L. (1988). Stress in dual-earner families. In B. A. Gutek, A. H. Stromberg, & L. Larwood (Eds.), *Women and work: An annual review* (Vol. 3, pp. 139–168). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Lightsey, J., Maxwell, D., Nash, T., Rarey, E., & McKinney, V. (2011). Self-control and self-efficacy for affect regulation as moderators of the negative affect-life satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Cognitive Psychotherapy, 25*(2), 142-154.
doi:10.1891/0889-8391.25.2.142
- Livingston, B. A., & Judge, T. A. (2008). Emotional responses to work-family conflict: An examination of gender role orientation among working men and women. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(1), 207-216. doi:
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.1.207>
- Lu, H., While, A. E., & Barriball, K. L. (2005). Job satisfaction among nurses: A literature review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 42*(2), 211–227.
doi:10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2004.09.003
- Maertz, C. P., & Boyar, S. L. (2011). Work-family conflict, enrichment, and balance under “levels” and “episodes” approaches. *Journal of Management, 37*(1), 68-98.
doi: 10.1177/0149206310382455
- Marks, S. R. 2006. Understanding diversity of families in the 21st century and its impact on the work-family area of study. In M. Pitt-Catsouphes, E. E. Kossek, & S. Sweet (Eds.), *The work and family handbook: Multi-disciplinary perspectives, methods, and approaches*: 41-65. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Martins, L. L., Eddleston, K. A., & Veiga, J. F. (2002). Moderators of the relationship between work-family conflict and career satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(2), 399-409. doi: 10.2307/3069354
- Mason, W., & Suri, S. (2012). Conducting behavioral research on Amazon's Mechanical Turk. *Behavior Research Methods*, 44(1), 1-23. doi: 10.3758/s13428-011-0124-6
- McNall, L. A., Nicklin, J. M., & Masuda, A. D. (2010). A meta-analytic review of the consequences associated with work-family enrichment. *Journal of Business And Psychology*, 25(3), 381-396. doi:10.1007/s10869-009-9141-1
- McQuitty, S. (2004). Statistical power and structural equation models in business research. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(2), 175-83. doi:10.1016/S0148-2963(01)00301-0
- Meade, A. W., & Craig, S. B. (2012). Identifying careless responses in survey data. *Psychological Methods*, 17(3), 437. doi: 10.1037/a0028085
- Mennino, S. F., Rubin, B. A., & Brayfield, A. (2005). Home-to-job and job-to-home spillover: The impact of company policies and workplace culture. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 46(1), 107-135. doi:10.1111/j.1533-8525.2005.00006.x
- Mesmer-Magnus, J. R., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). Convergence between measures of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict: A meta-analytic examination. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67(2), 215-232. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2004.05.004
- Mills, R. J., Grasmick, H. G., Morgan, C. S., & Wenk, D. (1992). The effects of gender, family satisfaction, and economic strain on psychological well-being. *Family Relations*, 440-445. doi: 10.2307/585588

- Minnotte, K. L., Minnotte, M. C., & Pedersen, D. E. (2013). Marital Satisfaction among dual-earner couples: Gender ideologies and family-to-work conflict. *Family Relations, 62*(4), 686-698. doi: 10.1111/fare.12021
- Minnotte, K. L., Minnotte, M. C., Pedersen, D. E., Mannon, S. E., & Kiger, G. (2010). His and her perspectives: Gender ideology, work-to-family conflict, and marital satisfaction. *Sex Roles, 63*(5-6), 425-438. doi: 10.1007/s11199-010-9818-y
- Mosser, A., & Hanson Frieze, I. (2012). Future work and family plans of traditional women, nontraditional women and men. *Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 22*(3).
- Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (2012). Mplus user's guide (7th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Authors.
- Nagoshi, J. L., Terrell, H. K., Nagoshi, C. T., & Brzuzy, S. (2014). The complex negotiations of gender roles, gender identity, and sexual orientation among heterosexual, gay/lesbian, and transgender individuals. *Journal of Ethnographic & Qualitative Research, 8*(4), 205-221.
- Naz, S., Gul, S., & Haq, A. (2011). Relationship of work-family conflict with job satisfaction and life satisfaction in high tech industrial employees. *International Journal of Academic Research, 3*(6), 476-480.
- Netemeyer, R. G., Boles, J. S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of work-family and family-work conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(4), 400-401. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.81.4.400
- Netemeyer, R. G., Maxham III, J. G., & Pullig, C. (2005). Conflicts in the work-family interface: Links to job stress, customer service employee performance, and

- customer purchase intent. *Journal of Marketing*, 69(2), 130-143. doi:
10.1509/jmkg.69.2.130.60758
- Nock, S. L. (1995). A comparison of marriages and cohabiting relationships. *Journal of Family Issues*, 16(1), 53-76. doi: 10.1177/019251395016001004
- Nohe, C., Meier, L. L., Sonntag, K., & Michel, A. (2015). The chicken or the egg? A meta-analysis of panel studies of the relationship between work–family conflict and strain. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(2), 522-536.
doi:10.1037/a0038012
- O’Driscoll, M., Brough, P., & Kalliath, T. (2004). Work–family conflict, psychological well-being, satisfaction and social support: A longitudinal study in New Zealand. *Equal Opportunities International*, 23, (1/2), 36–56. doi:
10.1108/02610150410787846
- O’Driscoll, M. P., Poelmans, S., Spector, P. E., Kalliath, T., Allen, T. D., Cooper, C. L., & Sanchez, J. I. (2003). Family-responsive interventions, perceived organizational and supervisor support, work-family conflict, and psychological strain. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 10(4), 326. doi:
10.1037/1072-5245.10.4.326
- Paolacci, G., Chandler, J., & Ipeirotis, P. G. (2010). Running experiments on Amazon Mechanical Turk. *Judgment and Decision making*, 5(5), 411-419.
- Parent, M. C. (2013). Handling item-level missing data: Simpler is just as good. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 41, 568-600. doi: 10.1177/0011000012445176
- Parent, M. C., & Moradi, B. (2010). Confirmatory factor analysis of the Conformity to Feminine Norms Inventory and development of an abbreviated version: The

- CFNI-45. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 34(1), 97-109. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-6402.2009.01545.x
- Parent, M. C., & Moradi, B. (2011). An abbreviated tool for assessing feminine norm conformity: Psychometric properties of the Conformity to Feminine Norms Inventory-45. *Psychological Assessment*, 23(4), 958. doi: 10.1037/a0024082
- Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (1993). Review of the Satisfaction with Life Scale. *Psychological Assessment*, 5(2), 164. doi: 10.1037/1040-3590.5.2.164
- Perrone, K., Wright, S., & Jackson, Z. (2009). Traditional and nontraditional gender roles and work-family interface for women and men. *Journal of Career Development*, 36, 8-24. doi: 10.1177/0894845308327736
- Pfeffer, C. A. (2010). "Women's work"? Women partners of transgender men doing housework and emotion work. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 72(1), 165-183. doi:10.1111/j.1741-3737.2009.00690.x
- Powell, G. N., Francesco, A. M., & Ling, Y. (2009). Toward culture-sensitive theories of the work-family interface. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(5), 597-616. doi:10.1002/job.v30:510.1002/job.568
- Powell, G. N., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2010). Sex, gender, and decisions at the family→work interface. *Journal of Management*, 36(4), 1011-1039. doi: 10.1177/0149206309350774
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, 36(4), 717-731. doi: 10.3758/BF03206553

- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 42*(1), 185-227. doi:10.1080/00273170701341316
- Rhoads, S. E., & Rhoads, C. H. (2012). Gender roles and infant/toddler care: Male and female professors on the tenure track. *Journal of Social, Evolutionary, and Cultural Psychology, 6*(1), 13-31. doi:10.1037/h0099227
- Rode, J. C., Rehg, M. T., Near, J. P., & Underhill, J. R. (2007). The effect of work/family conflict on intention to quit: The mediating roles of job and life satisfaction. *Applied Research In Quality Of Life, 2*(2), 65-82. doi:10.1007/s11482-007-9030-6
- Rothbard, N. P. (2001). Enriching or depleting? The dynamics of engagement in work and family roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 46*(4), 655-684. doi: 10.2307/3094827
- Rotondo, D. M., Carlson, D. S., & Kincaid, J. F. (2003). Coping with multiple dimensions of work–family conflict. *Personnel Review, 32*, 275–296. doi:10.1108/00483480310467606.
- Rotondo, D. M., & Kincaid, J. F. (2008). Conflict, facilitation, and individual coping styles across the work and family domains. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 23*(5), 484-506. doi:10.1108/02683940810884504
- Rupert, P. A., Stevanovic, P., Hartman, E. R. T., Bryant, F. B., & Miller, A. (2012). Predicting work–family conflict and life satisfaction among professional psychologists. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 43*(4), 341. doi: 10.1037/a0026675

- Saban, K. L., Smith, B. M., Collins, E. G., & Pape, T. L. (2011). Sex differences in perceived life satisfaction and functional status one year after severe Traumatic Brain Injury. *Journal of Women's Health, 20*(2), 179-186.
doi:10.1089/jwh.2010.2334
- Saltzstein, A. L., Ting, Y., & Saltzstein, G. H. (2001). Work-family balance and job satisfaction: The impact of family-friendly policies on attitudes of federal government employees. *Public Administration Review, 61*(4), 452-67.
- Sanchez, D. T., Crocker, J., & Boike, K. R. (2005). Doing gender in the bedroom: Investing in gender norms and the sexual experience. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 31*(10), 1445-1455. doi: 10.1177/0146167205277333
- Sandberg, J. G., Yorgason, J. B., Miller, R. B., & Hill, E. (2012). Family-to-work spillover in Singapore: Marital distress, physical and mental health, and work satisfaction. *Family Relations, 61*(1), 1-15. doi:10.1111/j.1741-3729.2011.00682
- Shechory, M., & Ziv, R. (2007). Relationships between gender role attitudes, role division, and perception of equity among heterosexual, gay and lesbian couples. *Sex Roles, 56*(9/10), 629-638. doi:10.1007/s11199-007-9207-3
- Shelton, B. A., & John, D. (1993). Does marital status make a difference? Housework among married and cohabiting men and women. *Journal of Family Issues, 14*(3), 401-20. doi: 10.1177/019251393014003004
- Schieman, S., & Glavin, P. (2011). Education and work-family conflict: Explanations, contingencies and mental health consequences. *Social Forces, 89*(4), 1341-1362.
doi: 10.1093/sf/89.4.1341

- Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: new procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 7(4), 422. doi: 10.1037/1082-989X.7.4.422
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2009). Does school context matter? Relations with teacher burnout and job satisfaction. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(3), 518–524. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2008.12.006
- Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job Satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Spence, J. T. (1984). Masculinity, femininity, and gender-related traits: A conceptual analysis and critique of current research. *Progress in Experimental Personality Research*, 13, 1–97.
- Spence, J. T. (1993). Gender-related traits and gender ideology: Evidence for a multifactorial theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 64, 627–635. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.64.4.624
- Staines, G. L. (1980). Spillover versus compensation: A review of the literature on the relationship between work and nonwork. *Human Relations*, 33, 111-129. doi: 10.1177/001872678003300203
- Stevanovic, P., & Rupert, P. A. (2009). Work-family spillover and life satisfaction among professional psychologists. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 40(1), 62-68. doi:10.1037/a0012527
- Suh, E., Diener, E., Oishi, S., & Triandis, H. C. (1998). The shifting basis of life satisfaction judgments across cultures: Emotions versus norms. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(2), 482. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.74.2.482

- U.S. Census Bureau (2013). *America's families and living arrangements: 2013: Adults*. Retrieved from <http://www.census.gov/hhes/families/>
- Valdez, C. E., & Lilly, M. M. (2014). Biological sex, gender role, and Criterion A2: Rethinking the “gender” gap in PTSD. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy*, 6(1), 34. doi: 10.1037/a0031466
- Van Saane, N., Sluiter, J. K., Verbeek, J. H. A. M., & Frings-Dresen, M. H. W. (2003). Reliability and validity of instruments measuring job satisfaction—A systematic review. *Occupational Medicine*, 53(3), 191-200.
- van Steenbergen, E. F., Kluwer, E. S., & Karney, B. R. (2014). Work–family enrichment, work–family conflict, and marital satisfaction: A dyadic analysis. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 19(2), 182-194. doi:10.1037/a0036011
- Villablanca, A. C., Beckett, L., Nettiksimmons, J., & Howell, L. P. (2011). Career flexibility and family-friendly policies: an NIH-funded study to enhance women's careers in biomedical sciences. *Journal of Women's Health*, 20(10), 1485-1496. doi:10.1089/jwh.2011.2737.
- Voydanoff, P. (2005). Toward a conceptualization of perceived work-family fit and balance: A demands and resources approach. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67(4), 822-836. doi: 10.1111/j.1741-3737.2005.00178.x
- Wood, W., & Eagly, A. H. (2002). A cross-cultural analysis of the behavior of women and men: Implications for the origins of sex differences. *Psychological Bulletin*, 128(5), 699-727. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.128.5.699

- Wrzesniewski, A., McCauley, C., Rozin, P., & Schwartz, B. (1997). Jobs, careers, and callings: People's relations to their work. *Journal of Research in Personality, 31*(1), 21-33. doi:10.1006/jrpe.1997.2162
- Yazici, H., & Altun, F. (2013). Type-A behavior, gender, and job satisfaction: A research on instructors. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 13*(3), 1455-1459.
- Zabriskie, R. B., & McCormick, B. P. (2003). Parent and child perspectives of family leisure involvement and satisfaction with family life. *Journal of Leisure Research, 35*(2), 163-189.
- Zou, M. (2015). Gender, work orientations and job satisfaction. *Work, Employment and Society, 29*(1), 3-22. doi:10.1177/0950017014559267
- Zhao, J., Settles, B. H., & Sheng, X. (2011). Family-to-work conflict: Gender, equity and workplace policies. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 723-738*.