

WORK-LIFE INTERACTION EXPERIENCES IN
WOMEN 55 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THE
TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY AND PHILOSOPHY
COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

BY
SASHA M. DESSY, M.A.

DENTON, TEXAS

AUGUST 2016

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am deeply grateful to the many people who provided invaluable help on this dissertation. I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my dissertation chair, Dr. Linda Rubin, for her continued enthusiasm and support throughout this research process. I am thankful to her for sharing her authenticity, wealth of knowledge, superb editing, and willingness to help with every step of the process. She has been a wonderful mentor and a role model for me in my professional development.

I wish to thank my committee members for each contributing their unique expertise, and for their invaluable assistance throughout this process. I am grateful to Dr. David Marshall for his research guidance, vital help with the statistical analyses, and enthusiastic approach to this work. I would like to thank Dr. Jeff Harris for his guidance and genuineness throughout my graduate training, and for challenging me constructively on this research project. I am thankful to Dr. Ronald Palomares for his thought-provoking discussions about research ideas, and for his cheerful presence.

I am ever grateful to my wonderful family and friends for their love, encouragement, and understanding. Special thanks to my husband, my parents, and my closest friends for their support in this process.

I would also like to thank the amazing women who shared their stories with me and helped inspire this research. Thank you to all of the participants who were willing to contribute their time and effort to this research project.

ABSTRACT

SASHA M. DESSY

WORK-LIFE INTERACTION EXPERIENCES IN WOMEN 55 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER

AUGUST 2016

The purpose of this study was to examine the experiences of work-life interaction in women aged 55 years and older. Women's work-life interaction was measured as the frequency of their experiences of work interference with personal life, personal life interference with work, work enhancement of personal life, and personal life enhancement of work, using the Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale (Fisher, Bulger, & Smith, 2009). The relationships between personal and professional background factors (e.g., age, relationship status, caregiver status, education level, hours worked per week) and work-life interference and enhancement were explored. Participants included 94 women, aged 55 years and older, who were working an average of 30 or more hours each week at the time of the study. Participants were recruited via email and an advertising link on social networking websites using snowball sampling (Goodman, 1961). Participants completed an online survey comprised of the Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale and a detailed Demographic Questionnaire. A two-factor MANOVA demonstrated statistically significant mean differences between the domains of work and personal life, and between the impacts of interference and enhancement, with a statistically significant interaction between domain

and impact. The canonical correlational analysis performed to test the relationship between the set of work-nonwork interaction variables and the set of demographic variables was not statistically significant. Statistically significant modest positive correlations were found between personal life interference with work and both quantitative caregiving (number of care roles) and binary caregiving (any endorsement of care roles). A statistically significant modest positive correlation was found between personal life interference with work and binary personal care assistance, but not with quantitative personal care assistance. The relationships between work interference with personal life and both caregiving and personal care assistance were not statistically significant. To explore engagement in nonwork activities, participants were asked to select the three out of eight nonwork activity domains in which they spend the most time. The current findings are discussed in terms of potential areas for future research, implications for theory on work-life interaction for aging women, and implications for practice and training in counseling psychology.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	7
Work-Life Interaction: Overview of Constructs and Definitions	7
Work-Family Conflict and Interference	8
Work-Family Positive Spillover, Facilitation, and Enrichment	10
Work-Family Balance and Interaction	13
Conceptualizing and Defining Work-Life Interaction	16
Work-Life Interaction: Theoretical and Conceptual Foundations	18
The Ecological Systems Model	20
Work-Family Border Theory	23
Role Theory and Related Models.....	25
Life Course Perspective	27
Women and Work.....	29
Women’s Work-Life Interaction.....	30
Aging and Work.....	31
Aging and Work-Life Interaction	33
Women, Work, and Aging.....	36
Women and Retirement.....	38
Older Women’s Work-Life Interaction.....	39
Family.....	39
Nonwork Roles	42
Individual Differences and Work Factors	47
Literature Review Summary.....	51
Purpose of the Study	52

Hypotheses	53
III. METHOD.....	55
Participants	55
Instrumentation	57
Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale.....	57
Demographic Questionnaire	58
Procedure.....	58
Hypotheses and Statistical Analyses.....	60
IV. RESULTS	63
Hypothesis 1	63
Hypothesis 2	64
Hypotheses 3a, 3b, 3c, and 3d	64
Hypothesis 4	66
Hypotheses 5a and 5b.....	69
Hypotheses 6a and 6b.....	70
Analysis of Nonwork Activities	71
V. DISCUSSION.....	73
Work-Life Interaction: Domain and Impact.....	73
Individual Differences and Work-Life Interaction	75
Caregiving Roles and Work-Life Interference	80
Primary Nonwork Activities.....	82
Implications for Theory.....	85
Implications for Research.....	87
Implications for Training and Practice.....	90
Limitations.....	95
Conclusion.....	97
REFERENCES.....	98
APPENDICES	
A. Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale	114
B. Demographic Questionnaire.....	117
C. Request for Participation.....	121

D. Advertising Link	123
E. Flier Request for Participation.....	125
F. Informed Consent Form	128

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Demographic Characteristics	55
2. Means of Work-Life Interaction Variables	64
3. Main Effects and Interaction of Work Life and Personal Life Domains and Interference and Enhancement Impacts	65
4. Canonical Correlation of Demographics to Low Interference and High Enhancement Impacts	68
5. Correlations Between Quantitative and Binary Caregiving and Work-Nonwork Interference.....	70
6. Correlations Between Quantitative and Binary Personal Care and Work- Nonwork Interference	71
7. Nonwork Activities in Which Participants Spend the Most Time	72

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Comparison of Means of Work-Life Interaction Variables	66

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Work, relationships, community, and many other life roles are central to the diverse lives of older women. Bi-directional work-life interaction, that is, the influence of the work and personal life domains on each other, is a growing area of research (Fisher, Bulger, & Smith, 2009). There is a substantial body of research on work-family issues, which is a significant component of the work-life interface. Work and family life role domains are seen as important for the majority of adults, and these roles have been found to influence one another (Phillips & Siu, 2012; Pitts-Catsouphe, Kossek, & Sweet, 2006; Voydanoff, 2008). Work-family research can be found across disciplines, which serves to illuminate the complexity of the work-family interface, and the wide interest in related phenomena (Voydanoff, 2008). The literature on work-family issues has expanded over time to reflect the bi-directional influences and multidimensional elements of work and family life (Fisher et al., 2009; Whitehead, Korabik, & Lero, 2008). Recent shifts in research can be considered reflections of the changes in work and family life in the 21st century (Marks, 2006; Pitts-Catsouphe et al., 2006; Wharton, 2006; Whitehead, 2008). Yet, there has been little attention to older working women within the literature on work-life issues (Gordon, Litchfield, & Whelan-Berry, 2003).

Despite relatively limited research on older adults' work-life interaction (Allen & Shockley, 2012), the literature on work-family issues shows differences between older

and younger workers' priorities regarding their work and family lives (Baltes & Young, 2009). Younger employees have tended to focus on their careers more than older workers (Evans & Bartolomé, 1984). Older women have reported making more deliberate choices about their work, home and family, and personal responsibilities (Gordon, Whelan-Berry, & Hamilton, 2007). Older adults have seemed to place greater importance on balancing different life roles (Baltes & Young, 2009). Older workers also have appeared to engage in more coping behaviors to manage multiple roles, rather than accepting life domain conflict as inescapable (Baltes & Young, 2009; Gordon et al., 2007).

Numerous studies have explored the antecedents and outcomes of the work-life and work-family interface (Byron, 2005; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007). Unbalanced work-family relationships are linked to reduced health and performance outcomes across levels (i.e., individual, families, and organizations; Voydanoff, 2004; Wayne, Musica, & Fleeson, 2004). Work-life conflict is recognized as a source of stress, which may also lead to physical and psychological outcomes that can impact the quality of work and family life (Baltes & Young, 2009). The positive effects of work-life interaction have received less attention than the conflict perspective (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008), but the study of positive work-life issues has grown substantially in recent decades. The integration perspective of the work-life interface, including constructs such as balance and interaction, has received even less research attention (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008). Researchers have identified negative and positive work impact on family, and family impact on work, as distinct phenomena

(Carlson, Grzywacz, & Kacmar, 2010; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hanson, Hammer, & Colton, 2006), indicating the importance of a conceptual basis for the measurement of work-life interaction. Experiences of work-life interaction can impact turnover intentions, commitment to the organization, psychological well-being, job stress and satisfaction, and family stress and satisfaction (Fisher et al., 2009; Frone et al., 1992; Voydanoff, 2008).

Workers' eldercare responsibilities are also increasing (Baltes & Young, 2009), as population aging is increasing and projected to continue (Ortman, Velkoff, & Hogan, 2014). The increase in eldercare provision by family members has important implications for the work-life interface, particularly as a potential stressor in the lives of older workers (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Baltes & Young, 2009). Balancing work and caregiving is challenging and can cause significant work-family conflict (Baltes & Young, 2009). Additionally, women tend to provide more care hours for aging relatives than men (Lero & Lewis, 2008), and are more likely to take on and maintain eldercare responsibilities (Baltes & Young, 2009). However, it is important to consider the possible benefits of engaging in both work and eldercare roles. Fulfilling both roles can increase feelings of accomplishment and confidence (Baltes & Young, 2009). Further, employed caregivers may experience less stress compared to unemployed caregivers, as a result of spending time away from caregiving while working and earning money (Baltes & Young, 2009).

Theory and research have also indicated that people have numerous and varied salient life roles, which often interact with work and family roles (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn,

Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Super, 1953, 1980). Numerous nonwork roles are relevant to individuals across the lifespan, with different values placed on each role depending on the individual (Keeney, Boyd, Sinha, Westring, & Ryan, 2013). Some of these nonwork roles include education, health, leisure, friendships, and community involvement (Keeney et al., 2013). Close friendships, as well as family relationships, are important to older women, and can have significant impact on their well-being (Adams, 2001; Scott, 2001). Older women have also reported that social support is important for their career development and well-being (Bimrose, McMahon, & Watson, 2013). In general, midlife and older women (i.e., women age 35 and older) view career success as important, but other personal life responsibilities and interests are often equally, if not more, important to them (Gordon et al., 2003).

Family structures are also shifting, along with the demographic changes of the population (Marks, 2006). There has been an increase in multigenerational households in the United States, and an increase in the number of older workers providing care for grandchildren (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Wang & Marcotte, 2007). Population projections have demonstrated increases in the proportion of ethnic minority and immigrant groups in the U.S. The decline of heteronormativity, the expectation that everyone is heterosexual, is a social and cultural transformation that also has implications for the structure of family life. Heteronormativity contributes to the stereotypically gendered view of the work and home domains as strictly male and female, respectively (Marks, 2006). The increased visibility and acceptance of diverse gender expressions and family formations challenge the idea that traditional gender roles are normative, which

then impacts the way people choose to manage their home and work roles (Marks, 2006). Demographic aging impacts household structures as well, with implications for the work-life interface (Marks, 2006). The growing proportion of older adults has led to an increased need for caregiving, much of which is provided by older women (Marks, 2006). Increased labor force participation and caregiving responsibilities often create difficulties for managing multiple roles, but may also lead to gratification for caregivers (Marks, 2006). Much of the research on the work-family interface is based on samples of primarily White, married, dual-earner, highly educated, full-time workers, in professional occupations (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007). Overall, family diversity is increasing and can impact the work-family interface, through differences in the division of work and home responsibilities, and the diverse needs of families (e.g., low-income families, immigrant families; Marks, 2006). Research on work and family roles should incorporate social contexts, including diversity variables, such as ethnicity and culture. These diversity factors have potential implications for the work-life interface in terms of salient roles, opportunities, and discrimination (Casper et al., 2007; Marks, 2006). Yet, diversity factors have been understudied within the work-life literature (Casper et al., 2007).

In the current study, the researcher aimed to expand the existing literature by specifically addressing the work-life interaction experiences of working women aged 55 years and older, a population not well studied in this branch of research. The use of a bi-directional measure of positive and negative aspects of work-life interaction also contributes to this understudied topic, by expanding the exclusive work-family conflict

and enrichment research to include a broad understanding of life variables beyond a strictly work and family focus. Furthermore, the inclusion of numerous demographic variables, as recommended in existing research (Casper et al., 2007; Fisher et al., 2009; Marks, 2006), was used to provide insight into some of the individual differences in the work-life interaction experiences of aging women.

Readers will note the use of the terms work-life interface and work-family interface. Work-life interface is used within this paper as an umbrella term to refer to any work-life research issues between any work and nonwork domains. The nonwork domain includes various roles and activities, such as community activities, family activities, and other areas of interest outside of work (Fisher et al., 2009). Similarly, work-family interface is a broad term used herein to refer to research issues focused on the relationship between the work and family domains. The literature review that follows is intended as an overview of the theory and conceptualization of the study of work-life issues and research findings pertinent to aging women's work-life interaction.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Work-Life Interaction: Overview of Constructs and Definitions

A clear definition and conceptualization of work-life interaction is crucial to the pursuit of research (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Fisher et al., 2009). Multiple terms have been used to describe the interaction of work-family and work-life roles, and an array of constructs with which to explain work-life interaction exist (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Greenhaus & Allen, 2010). The research on the work-life interface has focused predominantly on interactions between work and family (Fisher et al., 2009; Keeney et al., 2013). Additionally, in the work-life literature, there is often a lack of distinction between family and nonwork (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008); that is, other nonwork roles are often excluded or not elaborated (Fisher et al., 2009; Keeney et al., 2013).

Within the work-family literature, there are three main perspectives: negative, positive, and integrative (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008). The most studied concept within work-family literature is the negative interaction view of work-family conflict (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Fisher et al., 2009). In more recent years, there has been increased attention to the positive work-family interaction, including such topics as work-family enrichment, facilitation, and positive spillover (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Fisher et al., 2009; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hanson et al., 2006; Thompson, Beauvais, & Allen, 2006). There is limited research on the interaction of the work-family interface, and

while numerous authors have moved toward using terms and concepts of interaction, they often still focus on one component or one direction of the work-family interface (see Keeney et al., 2013; Kirchmeyer, 1992b). Because of the lack of specific research on work-life interaction, or the lack of distinction between family and nonwork roles in such research (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008), many of the terms addressed here utilize the phrase work-family. These terms provide important information relevant to the exploration of work-life interaction, and are used as they appear in the original research to maintain accuracy. The following subsections provide definitions for pertinent, distinct terms and concepts within the work-life and work-family literature, and briefly address important similarities and differences.

Work-Family Conflict and Interference

Work-family conflict is commonly defined as “a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). In the ecological systems model of work-family interface, work-family conflict is considered a cognitive appraisal of the effects of the work and family domains on each other (Voydanoff, 2008). Work-family conflict has been viewed as non-directional (i.e., between the work and family domains), and as taking direction at the point when individuals decide to resolve the incompatibility between the roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Using this conceptualization, work-family interference would occur in the process of individuals taking action on the incompatibility of their roles (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008). Carlson and Grzywacz (2008) argued that measurement of work-family conflict, as it was originally

conceptualized, would require studying the frequency of experiences of mutually incompatible domain-related pressures (e.g., work and family responsibilities requiring someone to be in two places at one time). Work-family interference is a term that is often used interchangeably with work-family conflict in the literature, and it has been noted that the majority of measures of work-family conflict actually measure work-family interference (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008).

Research on work-family conflict and interference has supported the distinction of three forms of interference or conflict: time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Keeney et al., 2013). Time-based interference occurs when time pressures, or time spent in one role, prevent persons from meeting expectations in one or more other roles (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Fisher et al., 2009; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Keeney et al., 2013; Staines, 1980). Strain-based interference occurs when fulfilling expectations in one role leads to fatigue, tension, or worry, making it difficult to fulfill other roles (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Keeney et al., 2013). Behavior-based interference occurs when patterns of behavior developed in one role are unsuited to, or incompatible with, behavioral expectations in another role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Keeney et al., 2013). This broad domain-based conceptualization of work-family interference has been used for the study of work-family conflict, which makes it difficult to distinguish between more specific constructs in the literature (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008). Based on consideration of the literature that attempts to distinguish these terms, work-family conflict appears to be a broader construct that identifies the

existence of an incompatibility between roles. Alternately, work-family interference focuses on the specific paths by which obligations in one role impede the fulfillment of expectations in other roles.

Work-Family Positive Spillover, Facilitation, and Enrichment

While there are often conflicts and difficulties associated with fulfilling both work and family roles, the evidence suggests that individuals experience benefits from engaging in multiple roles (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Research on the positive elements of work-life interface is a more recent endeavor than the study of the negative view of this interface (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Hanson et al., 2006). Some of the constructs used in the study of the positive work-family interface have been used simultaneously or interchangeably (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). However, it has been argued that these constructs must be clearly differentiated for the purposes of theory development and measurement in the work-family literature (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008).

Spillover has been studied as a link between work and family in both the positive and negative interactions of these domains (Hanson et al., 2006). Originally, spillover theory presented the argument that there are similarities between what happens in different domains (e.g., work and family), through a direct transfer of experiences and attitudes from one domain into another (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Staines, 1980; Zedeck, 1992). Positive spillover has been broadly defined as experiences, thoughts, and feelings of one role being transferred or spilling over to influence the experiences, thoughts, and feelings in another role positively (Stephens, Franks, & Atienza, 1997). It

has been argued that the direct transfer of experiences (e.g., work fatigue while at home) does not serve as a linking mechanism for the work and family domains because it does not involve a relationship between a work construct and a family construct (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Positive spillover has also been defined as “the transfer of positively valenced affect, skills, behaviors, and values from the originating domain to the receiving domain, thus having beneficial effects on the receiving domain” (Hanson et al., 2006, p. 251). In this sense, positive spillover refers to the similarity between related, yet distinct, constructs in the two domains (e.g., the positive association of job satisfaction and family satisfaction; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Zedeck, 1992).

Work-family enrichment is another construct in the work-family literature that was initially conceptualized and measured similarly to positive spillover (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Kirchmeyer, 1992a, 1992b). More recently, work-family enrichment has been defined as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 72). In earlier use of the term work-family facilitation, there was overlap with enrichment and positive spillover as well (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008). A definition presented in the literature to provide distinction to the concept of work-family facilitation is “the extent to which an individual’s engagement in one social system, such as work or family, contributes to growth in another social system” (Grzywacz, Carlson, Kacmar, & Wayne, 2007, p. 559). Using this definition, facilitation has been viewed as a construct with an impact at the systems level, as it incorporates the transfer of resources to the systems level; that is, individuals’ activities in one life domain impact the larger work or family systems

(Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Grzywacz et al., 2007). Facilitation has been defined in further detail to reflect the types of gains that result in enhanced functioning in another domain (Hanson et al., 2006; Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007; Wayne, Musica, & Fleeson, 2004). The definition of work-family facilitation provided by Wayne et al. (2007) is “the extent to which an individual’s engagement in one life domain (i.e., work/family) provides gains (i.e., developmental, affective, capital, or efficiency) which contribute to enhanced functioning of another life domain (i.e., family/work)” (p. 64).

As mentioned previously, there is often overlap between the constructs pertaining to positive forms of work-life interface. Positive spillover and facilitation both focus on individual participation in one domain being beneficial for another domain (Hanson et al., 2006). However, positive spillover generally refers to the transfer of personal characteristics (e.g., affect, behaviors) between domains, resulting in similarities between the domains, and with benefit to the receiving domain (Hanson et al., 2006; Staines, 1980). Facilitation is a broader concept, in that it encompasses personal and capital gains (e.g., employment benefits, monetary gain; Grzywacz et al., 2007; Hanson et al., 2006). Positive spillover and facilitation, depending on the conceptualization being used, can also be considered types of work-family enrichment (Hanson et al., 2006). The conceptualization of enrichment includes a broad view of resources, including personal resources, social capital, and material assets (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), which encompasses those resources addressed in positive spillover and in facilitation. Furthermore, the paths through which enrichment occurs, identified as instrumental and affective, overlap with positive spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus &

Powell, 2006; Hanson et al., 2006). Another broad concept, enhancement, “represents the acquisition of resources and experiences that are beneficial for individuals in facing life challenges” (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006, p. 133). Researchers have examined enhancement based on the idea that engagement in one domain can help people deal with failures in another domain (Wiese, Seiger, Schmid, & Freund, 2010). Research has shown that focusing on positive aspects of one domain can compensate for stressors in other domains by protecting from the negative effects that failures or problems can have on well-being (Wiese et al., 2010). Whereas enrichment entails a focus on the resources gained in one domain improving role performance in another domain, enhancement has been viewed as a focus on benefits gained by individuals, and the potential impact of these benefits across life domains (Carlson et al., 2006).

Work-Family Balance and Interaction

An interaction perspective of work and family is the third major viewpoint within the work-family literature (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008). Work-family balance is a widely used term within the literature on an interaction approach to work-life research, and also within popular media (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008). While work-family balance has gained popularity as a construct, there is no clear consensus on the best definition of work-family balance (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Greenhaus & Allen, 2010). Similar to work-family balance, it has been noted that the meaning of the term work-life balance is open to subjective interpretation, as well as significant cultural variation for individuals and collective groups (Khallash & Kruse, 2012). There is clearly significant ambiguity in the term work-family balance (Greenhaus & Allen, 2010; Khallash & Kruse, 2012), and

it has been argued that researchers need to develop and validate a theoretically-based measure of work-family balance to improve the study of this construct (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008).

There have been multiple conceptualizations of balance presented in the literature (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Greenhaus & Allen, 2010). In a general sense, work-life balance has been considered the desire of all individuals to achieve a balance between their work lives and lives outside work (Khallash & Kruse, 2012). The equality view suggests that work-family balance is “the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in – and equally satisfied with – his or her work role and family role” (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003). This equality perspective is characterized by equal amounts of time investment, psychological involvement, and satisfaction in work and family roles (Greenhaus et al., 2003). This conceptualization of balance was intended to include positive and negative balance, meaning equally high or equally low levels of time, involvement, or satisfaction among roles (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Along the same lines as the positive equality view, balance has been conceptualized as high involvement, investment, or engagement in multiple roles, and as high satisfaction across multiple roles (Greenhaus & Allen, 2010). However, it has been noted that there are a wide range of work and family arrangements (Burke, 2004).

Fit is another conceptualization of balance that incorporates individuals’ satisfaction with roles (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Greenhaus & Allen, 2010; Voydanoff, 2005b). Specifically, work-life balance is viewed as an investment in roles in a way that is consistent with the individuals’ underlying values (Bielby & Bielby, 1989;

Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Greenhaus & Allen, 2010; Milkie & Peltola, 1999). Role performance is a different perspective used to conceptualize work-family balance as the “accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his or her role-related partners in the work and family domains” (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007, p. 455). The role performance perspective moves beyond the individuals’ experience, arguing that self-appraisal of behavior may not accurately tap balance between work and family roles (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). The role performance perspective attempts to focus on the interactional aspects of daily work and family life to identify work-family balance accurately (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007).

Work-family balance has also been construed as a metaphor – a danger-juggling act between work and family (and other roles), in which peril awaits individuals who fail to maintain a precise balance (Halpern & Murphy, 2005). Researchers have argued that work-family balance conveys the wrong message, which is that individuals have limited resources to devote to work and family roles, and that if they give more personal resources (e.g., attention, time, energy) to one role, then they will fail in their other roles (Halpern & Murphy, 2005). Thus, the work-family balance metaphor stresses the idea that individuals must give equal time and effort to each of their roles, and that filling multiple roles will demand all of individuals’ available personal resources. Halpern and Murphy (2005) have stated that a work-family interaction perspective is of more use than work-family balance, because the work-family interaction perspective focuses on the potential benefits of engaging in multiple roles and combining roles, rather than viewing

the role interface as a competition between roles. For instance, women in leadership positions have been found to redefine their work and family roles, allowing for blending of roles, in addition to creating greater compatibility of these distinct life roles (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). Work-personal life integration is another term used in the interaction literature, which moves beyond the concept of balance (Burke, 2004). Integration, in a general sense, “implies that individuals can participate in and obtain satisfaction in both work and personal life, regardless of how much time they invest in each” (Burke, 2004, p. 300).

Conceptualizing and Defining Work-Life Interaction

Conflict has been the dominant paradigm in the study of work-family issues (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). It has been suggested that exploration of both positive and negative effects of the relationships between work and family is needed (Eby et al., 2005). Furthermore, the majority of work-nonwork research is focused on the interface of work and family roles; that is, it does not include other life domains (Fisher et al., 2009; Keeney et al., 2013). Moving beyond the work and family roles is important, in part, because participation and involvement in a variety of nonwork activities can enhance performance, attitudes, and satisfaction in the work and family domains (Fisher et al., 2009). Additionally, work-life interaction is a complex phenomenon that may be significantly impacted by individual diversity (Fisher et al., 2009; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Work-life interaction incorporates the negative and positive bi-directional (i.e., work-to-nonwork and nonwork-to-work) impact of each domain on the other (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Fisher et al., 2009; Grzywacz & Marks,

2000). For the purposes of this study, work-life interaction is considered to be the interference and enhancement that occurs between the work and personal life domains (Fisher et al., 2009).

The positive (i.e., enhancement) and negative (i.e., interference) concepts of work-life interaction are viewed as distinct phenomena (Carlson et al., 2010; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hanson et al., 2006). Role interference is viewed as the result of two or more sets of pressures occurring at the same time, whereby compliance with the demands of one role, and the use of resources to comply (e.g., time, energy), makes compliance with another role more difficult (Fisher et al., 2009; Hobfoll, 1989; Kahn et al., 1964). Work-life interference is based in the research on work-family conflict, because that body of research usually measures interference, or the antecedents or outcomes of interference (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Fisher et al., 2009). For the purposes of this study, work-life interference is conceptualized as “perceptions of the extent to which work interferes with personal life and personal life interferes with work” (Fisher et al., 2009, p. 443). This approach is more general than distinguishing between specific types of conflict with the intention of measuring actual experiences of work-life interference, rather than antecedents of conflict (i.e., time, strain, and behavior-based conflict) between the work and life domains (Fisher et al., 2009).

Enhancement is a broad construct referring to the positive interface between work and nonwork domains (Gordon et al., 2007). For the purposes of this study, work-life enhancement is considered to be perceptions of “the extent to which work enhances personal life and personal life enhances work” (Fisher et al., 2009, p. 443). Enhancement

includes different forms of positive interaction between work and personal life, including enrichment and positive spillover (Fisher et al., 2009). These forms of positive interaction focus on benefits gained in one domain via participation and gains (e.g., affect, skills, behaviors) in another domain (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hanson et al., 2006). The constructs discussed above represent the main topics in the extant work-life literature. Another important component of this research is the theoretical basis for these constructs, which guides the ways in which researchers conceptualize the work-life interface.

Work-Life Interaction: Theoretical and Conceptual Foundations

One of the major criticisms of work-family research is that it has been largely atheoretical (Neal & Hammer, 2007; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002; Westman & Piotrkowski, 1999; Zedeck, 1992). Review of the literature has shown that techniques for theory development and theory testing are lacking in the work-family research literature (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007). Additionally, it has been argued that many theories or models of the relationship between work and family were developed post hoc, based on results from correlational research including family and work variables (Zedeck, 1992). It is also important to note the widespread interest in the work-family interface across disciplines, including psychology, social work, sociology, family science, human development, gerontology, law, and occupational health (Voydanoff, 2008; Westman & Piotrkowski, 1999; Zedeck, 1992). Even within psychology, research on work-family issues has been conducted in counseling psychology (Cinamon & Rich, 2002; Perrone & Worthington, 2001), industrial

organizational, clinical, developmental, and occupational health specialty areas (Westman & Piotrkowski, 1999).

Such great interest appears to demonstrate the importance work-life interaction holds for scholars and practitioners alike (Zedeck, 1992). Furthermore, the diverse interests and approaches in the research help bring to light the complexity of the work-life interface (Voydanoff, 2008). Yet, diverse approaches and perspectives across disciplines have led to a lack of coherence in the work-family literature (Zedeck, 1992), and one of the criticisms of work-family research is the lack of interdisciplinary integration (Neal & Hammer, 2007). The lack of integration makes the development of cohesive theoretical frameworks and models for research a difficult task (Voydanoff, 2008). Fortunately, more recent work-family and work-life research have incorporated theoretical bases, allowing for clearer conceptualization of the work-life interface (Gordon et al., 2007; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Matthews, Barnes-Farrell, & Bulger, 2010; Wayne et al., 2007). This research seems to originate most frequently in the organizational psychology and occupational health psychology fields, as well as in books on work-family research.

The following sections cover the theories most relevant to the study of work-life interface. The ecological systems model is a broad conceptual framework based in numerous theories, which provides a contextual view of the relationships between work and life domains (Voydanoff, 2008). Work-family border theory is a conceptual model that distinguishes the type and extent of borders between domains (Clark, 2000). Role theory is a key conceptual model within work-life research, and has been used to explain

various interactions between work and life domains (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Neal & Hammer, 2007). There is overlap between these models in terms of specific concepts, and thus, there is potential for integration of theories and models within the broader framework of a systems model.

The Ecological Systems Model

Experts in the field of work-family research have discussed the need for a theoretically grounded, comprehensive, conceptual model of the work-family interface (Matthews et al., 2010; Voydanoff, 2008). A systems approach has been recommended as a framework for a conceptual model of the work-family interface, as well as for the measurement of constructs (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Neal & Hammer, 2007; Voydanoff, 2008). Voydanoff (2008) suggested an ecological systems approach, developed from the ecological model of human development and theories of stress, resilience, and borders. One of the key points of the ecological systems approach is the view that elements of each domain (i.e., work, family, and community) occur at multiple levels (Voydanoff, 2008). The approach includes ecological levels that are organized based on their immediacy to the developing person (Voydanoff, 2008). The most immediate, the microsystem, is comprised of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations, which occur in different domain settings (Voydanoff, 2008). This model also suggests the importance of demands and resources, which are identified as characteristics of microsystems (Voydanoff, 2008). Voydanoff defines demands as “structural or psychological claims associated with role requirements, expectations, and norms to which individuals must respond or adapt by exerting physical or mental effort” (p. 39).

Alternately, resources are defined as “structural or psychological assets that may be used to facilitate performance, reduce demands, or generate additional resources” (Voydanoff, 2008, p. 39). Thus, demands require the use of energy or effort, and resources assist individuals to meet role expectations or requirements (Voydanoff, 2008).

The second level in the ecological systems model includes the mesosystems, which encompass interrelationships among individuals’ microsystems (i.e., work, family, and community; Voydanoff, 2008). The third level is the macrosystem, which incorporates economic, workplace, family, community, and other social contexts (e.g., social class, ethnicity, gender; Voydanoff, 2008). This macrosystem level is expected to influence the other levels, as mesosystems operate within the structural and cultural contexts that comprise the macrosystem. Overall, this ecological systems theory purports that larger sociocultural contexts influence the relationships and processes of the mesosystems. Thus, these contexts play a part in the interactions between the demands, resources, and strategies associated with different domains (i.e., work, family, and community), which subsequently affect individual performance and well-being. Much of the research on work-family and work-life interface is based in the view that direct relationships exist between demands, resources, and outcomes. Voydanoff (2008) stated that the ecological systems model “also serves as a framework for proposing a chain of relationships and processes through which these direct effects may operate” (p. 40). It is at this point in the model where multiple existing theories tie into the conceptualization of the work-life interface.

The ecological systems model posits the importance of within-domain and boundary-spanning demands and resources for understanding the relationships between the work, family, and community domains and outcomes (i.e., role performance, role quality, and individual well-being; Voydanoff, 2008). In this model, time-based and strain-based within-domain demands are identified (Voydanoff, 2008). Time is considered a fixed resource; thus, time-based demands in one domain limit resources in another domain, referred to as resource drain (Voydanoff, 2008). Strain refers to the negative psychological impact of participating in a domain, and includes experiences, such as energy depletion, stress, anxiety, dissatisfaction, fatigue, and tension (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Keeney et al., 2013; Voydanoff, 2008). Strain-based demands are incorporated into theories of psychological spillover, role conflict, and domain-based interference, which posit that strain associated with participation in one domain affects attitudes and behaviors (i.e., performance) in other domains (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Keeney et al., 2013; Voydanoff, 2008). Within the model, work-family conflict is considered a linking mechanism and is tied to role theory (Voydanoff, 2008). In this model, a linking mechanism is a process by which demands and resources have an indirect effect (i.e., mediating or moderating) on outcomes. Role theory is relevant to the conceptualization of work-family conflict and interference, which are considered to be the negative impact of the work-family interface, and will be discussed at a later point in this paper.

Within-domain resources include enabling resources, such as skills utilization and social support, and psychological rewards, such as feeling valued and engaging in

meaningful activities (Voydanoff, 2008). These resources are proposed to improve performance in other domains via skill development, increased energy from positive experiences, improved motivation, interpersonal availability, and positive emotional arousal (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974; Voydanoff, 2008). When the resources gained in one domain are applied across other domains, they are proposed to influence outcomes (Voydanoff, 2008). Within the ecological systems model, work-family facilitation is considered a linking mechanism between within-domain resources and work-family balance (Voydanoff, 2008). These theories are particularly relevant to the conceptualization of the positive impact of the work-family interface, such as enhancement and positive spillover.

Work-Family Border Theory

The relationship of boundary-spanning demands and resources to outcomes can be conceptualized using work-family border theory (Clark, 2000; Voydanoff, 2008). Work-family border theory views the relationships between domains on a continuum of segmentation to integration (Clark, 2000). Segmentation is the complete separation of work and family domains, and integration is when work and family are indistinguishable regarding the people, tasks, and thoughts involved (Clark, 2000; Voydanoff, 2008). Work-family border theory centers on the concepts of permeability and flexibility in borders (i.e., boundaries) between work and family (Clark, 2000; Hall & Richter, 1988; Voydanoff, 2008). “Borders are lines of demarcation between domains, defining the point at which domain-relevant behavior begins or ends” (Clark, 2000 p. 756). Three categories of borders have been identified: (1) physical, indicating where behaviors take

place; (2) temporal, indicating when behaviors occur; and (3) psychological, indicating individuals' rules about what thinking patterns, emotions, and behavior patterns are domain-appropriate (Clark, 2000). This conceptualization of borders is comparable to the notion of boundaries found in the ecological systems model.

Permeability is the degree to which elements from one domain enter into other domains (Clark, 2000; Hall & Richter, 1988; Voydanoff, 2008). For example, taking a work phone call during family time is a permeation of the boundary between work and family life (Voydanoff, 2008). Psychological permeations may also occur and could include emotional spillover from one domain to another, or engaging in thought processes to solve a problem from one domain while engaged in another domain (Clark, 2000; Hall & Richter, 1988). Flexibility is the “extent to which a border may contract or expand, depending on the demands of one domain or the other” (Clark, 2000, p. 757). Flexibility also “describes the extent to which the physical time and location markers, such as working hours and workplace, may be changed” (Hall & Richter, 1988, p. 215), referring to the amount of flexibility surrounding when and where activities are performed (Voydanoff, 2008).

Another important concept in work-family border theory is that of blending. Blending occurs when there is high permeability and flexibility around a border, leading to the combining of the different domains (Clark, 2000). The combination of permeability, flexibility, and blending determines the strength of a border (Clark, 2000). In the ecological systems model, boundary-spanning demands include boundary permeability, and boundary-spanning resources incorporate boundary flexibility

(Voydanoff, 2008). Using the key concepts described above, work-family border theory proposes relationships between domain characteristics and work-family balance (Clark, 2000), which fit with the ecological systems model view of relationships between domain demands, resources, and outcomes (Voydanoff, 2008). Overall, the ecological systems model provides a broad contextual framework for the theories that have been applied to the study of the work-life interface.

Role Theory and Related Models

Role theory is the foremost guiding theory for constructs of the work-family interface (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Hanson et al., 2006; Neal & Hammer, 2007). Role theory addresses the idea that people accumulate roles in life, including multiple roles at work and outside of work (Kahn et al., 1964). Role theory explains the idea of interference between roles, where role demands in one role domain make it difficult to fulfill role demands in another domain (Kahn et al., 1964). For example, having a workload that requires weekend overtime to complete required tasks could interfere with nonwork activities, such as volunteering on weekends.

Another term, role strain, is commonly defined as the difficulty fulfilling all of the obligations of different roles, which can easily include roles beyond work and family (Matlin, 2008). Related to the idea of role strain, the scarcity hypothesis offers the idea that each person has limited resources and various roles (e.g., worker, parent, spouse), which demand all of those resources (Goode, 1960). For instance, people have limited time and may not have enough time to fulfill the demands of every role in their lives. The scarcity model is focused on negative outcomes of participation in multiple domains,

resulting in dysfunctional behaviors (Kirchmeyer, 1992a; Marks, 1977). The scarcity model, that accumulating multiple roles depletes limited personal resources (e.g., time, energy, commitment) and increases the likelihood of interdomain conflict, links the concept of resources to the concept of work-family conflict (Gordon et al., 2007).

Role theory also explains the concept of role enhancement, when role accumulation (i.e., participation in multiple roles) leads to gaining resources that benefit those or other roles (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). For example, engaging in one role may allow individuals to gain knowledge and skills that can be used in another role, or successful performance in one role may create a buffer for potential negative effects of failure in another role (Sieber, 1974). Role enhancement is linked to the expansion hypothesis, which is based on the notion that human social activity both consumes and produces energy (Marks, 1977). The various works that draw from role theory and role accumulation have indicated that there are differences in the extent to which people experience interference and enhancement, and that either or both may result from engagement in multiple roles (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). Marks (1977) stated that human energy and time resources are flexible elements impacted by societal structures of commitment to various roles, which fits with the ecological systems model view that social categories impact role demands and resources (Voydanoff, 2008). When resources (e.g., energy, time) in one role are depleted by meeting the demands of another role, work-life interference would occur (Fisher et al., 2009). For example, if caring for a family member takes all of the energy individuals believe they have, they will experience interference with their ability to fulfill other roles, such as work or household

management. Additionally, the renewal of resources through completing the demands of one role could enhance performance in another role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Marks, 1977). For instance, completing a big work project could improve individuals' mood and energy and in turn, improve their mood and engagement with family members during a weekend activity. Thus, as with the ecological systems model, demands and resources from each domain impact outcomes across domains (Voydanoff, 2008).

Life course perspective. Work-life interaction is not a stable, static phenomenon. The life course perspective is an approach within social science research that takes into account the biographical and sociohistorical contexts of individuals' lives (Sweet & Moen, 2006). The life course perspective is another guiding framework for conceptualizing the work-family interface, and links experiences of work-family interface to changes throughout the lifespan (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Sweet & Moen, 2006). In its application to work-family theory, this perspective has been used along with stage theory as a way to characterize the development of family and of career (Allen & Shockley, 2012). Stage theory is based on the idea that different life stages in family and career development are characterized by unique issues or tasks (e.g., establishing a career versus mentoring new workers; Allen & Shockley, 2012). The demands associated with certain stages of development, and transitions (i.e., major events) throughout the life course, are believed to impact individuals' and groups' stress within and across roles (Allen & Shockley, 2012).

In other work, the life course perspective has been described as having a focus on individuals' experiences and strategy development over time (Sweet & Moen, 2006). For

example, individuals following the career course of completing their education, establishing a career, and then establishing a family might engage in several hobbies or leisure activities earlier in their career course, and reduce the amount of engagement in hobbies and leisure as other work and family responsibilities increase (Sweet & Moen, 2006). From this perspective, context has a significant impact on development (Sweet & Moen, 2006). Personal factors, such as gender, life stage, social class, ethnicity, and birth cohort, are seen as key to understanding the work-family interface (Sweet & Moen, 2006). This perspective appears to align with the ecological systems model, in that multiple interactions occur between individuals and institutions, while context also plays a key role. The life course perspective has relevance to the study of work-life interaction for aging women because various life events, transitions, and experiences can impact the roles in which women engage, and the ways aging women manage engagement in multiple roles. Thus, the life course perspective would support the consideration of contextual factors, including individual diversity, in the study of work-life interaction.

Integrating theories relevant to the work-life interface is a complex task. The theories discussed above represent some important themes in the work-life and work-family literature. First are the mutual influences of systems or contextual factors and work-life interface on each other. Next is the importance of understanding borders or boundaries that individuals' create and maintain between different life domains. There is also the issue of considering a complex array of life roles with which individuals identify, and which come with internal and external pressures and expectations for performance. Additionally, there is the view that the work-family interface changes throughout the

lifespan based on individuals' life experiences and sociocultural histories. Thus, roles and role expectations are at the heart of the work-life interface, with larger systems, individual background characteristics, and individual development adding to a more holistic approach to understanding experiences of work-life interaction. Using these key ideas to guide the study of work-life interaction, it is important to examine the background information relevant to the population of interest. In this case, the background for the population of interest involves exploring the work and life experiences and work-life interaction of midlife and older women.

Women and Work

The pattern of women's engagement in work outside the home has changed along with societal changes. Around the early to mid-20th century, working women in the United States would typically leave the workforce after getting married or having children, if possible (Quick & Moen, 1998). Then, women might return to work outside the home after the children started school (Quick & Moen, 1998). However, historically, the labor force participation rates of poor and working-class women, as well as ethnic minority women, have been higher than White and middle class women (Wharton, 2006). Since the late 1960s, and into the 21st century, women are more likely to have continuous employment, similar to men's employment patterns throughout the 20th century (Gordon et al., 2003; Quick & Moen, 1998; Scott, 2001). In the present day, more women are working outside of the home and have better opportunities to enter a wide array of career fields (Matlin, 2008; Sharf, 2010). Women in the U.S. are better educated than ever before, and there are more women in mid-level management positions than men (Cheung

& Halpern, 2010). Still, women's career paths often differ greatly from the career paths of men (Moen, 2005). For instance, women are more likely than men to take breaks from working to care for children or aging relatives (Moen, 2005), and women are much less likely than men to obtain top leadership positions (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). Many women also have continuous career paths, and a diverse array of lifetime work patterns is possible (Quick & Moen, 1998).

Women's Work-Life Interaction

While work-family issues and the existing research are relevant to both men and women, gender differences in work-family conflict and work-family enrichment have been shown in the literature (Eby et al., 2005). Women who take time off for childbearing or other family responsibilities are more likely than men to have discontinuous career histories, which can impact retirement planning and timing (Allen & Shockley, 2012). Women's financial well-being is an issue to consider, since research has demonstrated that there is a motherhood wage penalty, referring to the finding that mothers earn less than their childfree counterparts, and less than men overall (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). Women also typically spend twice as much time on home and family tasks as men (Parkman, 2004), which can create challenges in work and family responsibilities and the work-family interface of women (Gordon et al., 2007). Women are also more likely than men to be part-time workers, which is often attributed to the need for flexibility and time to fulfill caregiving responsibilities (Sugar, 2007). The number of employed women and men who provide eldercare are similar, but women provide more hours of care in general, and more personal care (i.e., assistance with

activities of daily living, such as feeding and bathing; Lero & Lewis, 2008).

Furthermore, employed women providing eldercare report greater caregiver strain than employed men providing eldercare (Lero & Lewis, 2008). Research on the relationships of work-to-family conflict and work-to-family enrichment, to performance and satisfaction outcomes, has shown that schedule flexibility is more effective at reducing work-to-family conflict for women than for men (Carlson et al., 2010). Research on midlife and older women's work-family interaction indicated that the majority of the women viewed work flexibility (i.e., flexible work schedules and part-time schedules) as very important (Gordon et al., 2003). Nevertheless, researchers must consider the diversity in the work and family structures of women at all life stages (Sugar, 2007; Whitehead, 2008).

Aging and Work

The global population of adults aged 65 and older has been rapidly increasing for decades (Phillips & Siu, 2012). The percentage of the population aged 65 and older, as well as those aged 80 and older, is projected to continue increasing (Colby & Ortman, 2014; Lero & Lewis, 2008; Ortman et al., 2014; Phillips & Siu, 2012). Demographic aging is the result of decreased fertility rates and greater life expectancy (Lero & Lewis, 2008) and has been identified as a global trend (Baltes & Young, 2009; Phillips & Siu, 2012). In the U.S., the growing number of older adults is also the result of the aging of the baby boom generation (Colby & Ortman, 2014; Lero & Lewis, 2008; Ortman et al., 2014; Whitehead, 2008). The demographic trends related to population aging have significant workforce implications (Lero & Lewis, 2008; Phillips & Siu, 2012). One such

issue is the challenge of engaging an aging workforce, which can involve creating workplaces that fit the needs of aging adults, understanding aging adults' motivation to work, and providing benefits and opportunities to aging workers (Albright, 2012; Baltes & Young, 2009; Harrington & Ladge, 2009; Lero & Lewis, 2008). Efforts to retain older workers are important for workplaces, due to workforce implications of demographic aging, including the overall aging of the workforce, and the lack of sufficient numbers of younger workers to fill existing job positions (Baltes & Young, 2009; Lero & Lewis, 2008).

There is little consensus on the age range of mature or older workers in the research literature (Phillips & Siu, 2012). Some research includes adults aged 40 or 45 and over, whereas others start in the age ranges of the mid 50s or 60s (Phillips & Siu, 2012; Sugar, 2007). Labor force participation rates start to decline around age 50, and generally, workers ages 55 to 64 are considered older workers in the research literature (Phillips & Siu, 2012; Sugar, 2007).

Despite the growing proportion of older adults, age bias and discrimination are real problems, particularly within the realm of work (Phillips & Siu, 2012; Posthuma, Wagstaff, & Campion, 2012; Whitehead, 2008). There is evidence that a growing number of workers aged 45 and older perceive age to be tied to negative treatment at work by employers (AARP, 2014). Additionally, among workers who believe age discrimination occurs in the workplace, the majority perceives age discrimination to begin when workers are in their 50s (AARP, 2014). Negative stereotypes about aging and women are common in the U.S., such as the perception that physical signs of aging

(e.g., wrinkles, grey hair) are unattractive, and that older women are portrayed in popular media as stubborn, helpless, forgetful, and dependent (Coyle, 2001; Denmark & Klara, 2007). Such negative stereotypes and views have an impact on aging women's work experiences and opportunities, and older women are generally undervalued by employers (Coyle, 2001; Denmark & Klara, 2007). Nonetheless, qualitative research on women aged 45 to 65 has suggested that working women may not label or recognize discriminatory processes as such, and that they have accepted such processes as simply a matter of the way things are (Bimrose et al., 2013).

Aging and Work-Life Interaction

Within the large research base on the work-family interface, the majority of research has addressed work-family needs of middle-aged workers (Allen & Shockley, 2012). However, in recent decades, there has been increased research interest in the work and family issues faced by older adults (Gordon et al., 2007). There has also been increased attention to eldercare as an issue that impacts late-midlife and older adults' work-family interface (Baltes & Young, 2009; Gordon et al., 2003; Gordon et al., 2007). There is still limited research on work-family enhancement, important outcomes of work-family conflict, and organizational work-family culture for older adults (Gordon et al., 2007). Furthermore, there is a need for research on the work-life interface experiences of older adults, which allows for the inclusion of diverse roles outside of work.

Research on work-family conflict indicates an association between the age of children and parents' experiences of work-family conflict, suggesting a decrease in work-family conflict as children age and families move through later life stages (Baltes &

Young, 2009; Phillips & Siu, 2012). Additionally, work-family conflict increases during earlier life stages and decreases during later stages (Phillips & Siu, 2012). Because of the correlation between life stages and age, it has been suggested that older individuals – who are likely in later life stages – would experience less work-family conflict than younger adults (Baltes & Young, 2009; Phillips & Siu, 2012). Additionally, older workers have reported paying more attention to their private lives and family lives (e.g., leisure, marriage) compared to younger workers (Baltes & Young, 2009; Evans & Bartolomé, 1984; Gordon et al., 2007; Phillips & Siu, 2012), which could help moderate the experience of work-family conflict. Evidence has shown that older employees seem to adopt more coping strategies, rather than accepting work-family conflict as inevitable (Baltes & Young, 2009). For example, setting clear boundaries and rules around switching activities (e.g., routinely eating dinner with the family and finishing work after the kids go to bed) helps women in leadership positions integrate and manage multiple roles (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). It has also been suggested that older workers may seek greater work flexibility, in both time and place, allowing for greater involvement in leisure and family commitments (Albright, 2012).

The increased diversity of household structures among the population of older adults in the U.S. is relevant to the work-life interface of aging workers (Albright, 2012; Allen & Shockley, 2012). There is a need for continued research that explores the work-family needs of older adults, with consideration for diverse family structures and responsibilities (Albright, 2012; Whitehead, 2008). Population aging and demographic changes will lead to a reduced young adult workforce and a higher proportion of older

workers who simultaneously provide childcare or eldercare for family or close friends (Lero & Lewis, 2008). One major area of note is the increase in multigenerational households, which can impact the intergenerational responsibilities of aging workers (Albright, 2012). Older adults may live in multigenerational households for various reasons, such as cultural norms, financial needs, health needs, caregiving, and assisting with childcare (Albright, 2012). The number of older adults who provide primary or secondary care for grandchildren has grown (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Wang & Marcotte, 2007). Caring for grandchildren may lead to career disruption, or leaving retirement by returning to work (Allen & Shockley, 2012). Providing primary care for grandchildren is linked to greater hours worked by grandmothers, if other adult supervision for the grandchildren is available (Wang & Marcotte, 2007). Adults are also more likely to provide caregiving to their parents or other older relatives at midlife and beyond (Allen & Shockley, 2012).

Growth in both the aging population and the aging workforce generates concerns about care issues for aging workers who need to work and care for children or aging relatives (Whitehead, 2008). It has been suggested that workplaces will need to tailor policies and practices to accommodate the needs of workers who are providing eldercare (Gordon et al., 2003; Lero & Lewis, 2008). In research comparing perceptions of work-life balance across age groups, it was found that work-life balance was negatively impacted by high job involvement for all age groups (Darcy, McCarthy, Hill, & Grady, 2012). Darcy et al. (2012) have suggested that organizations provide customized work-life balance initiatives tailored to different age groups, with consideration for modern day

living, to achieve a beneficial impact on the work-life balance of employees. These researchers specifically reported a need for attention to older workers' needs in regard to work-life balance.

Changes in retirement patterns also signify the importance of studying current experiences of work-life interaction for aging adults. It has been noted that career and lifestyle transitions are becoming more common for adults in their 60s, as part of the retirement process (Albright, 2012; Sugar, 2007; Whitehead, 2008). Some examples of these transitions from previous work commitments include: reduced workload, returning to school, changing careers, entrepreneurship, volunteer work, and increased leisure activities (Albright, 2012; Whitehead, 2008). Among aging workers who have marketable skills, it may be more common to negotiate for favorable work conditions in later adulthood (Whitehead, 2008). Alternatively, some workers may retire early if they have enough income to retire, and others may adjust their work hours or obligations to supplement their retirement savings (Whitehead, 2008). However, many older workers may not have an option to retire or make such transitions due to financial need (Albright, 2012; Sugar, 2007; Whitehead, 2008). Whether aging adults are unable to retire, choose to transition to different occupations, or choose to work for added financial or personal reasons (e.g., enjoyment of work), the proportion of older adults remaining engaged in work continues to rise.

Women, Work, and Aging

The labor force participation of older women has continued to grow over the past several decades (Kromer & Howard, 2013). The increased labor force participation of

women has contributed to the increase in the number of working adults aged 65 and older (Kromer & Howard, 2013). Older women are a group that deserves research attention, particularly in terms of their work-life needs. In research focused on midlife women's work-family interaction, Gordon et al. (2003) compared surveys from 299 women under age 35, 1,089 women aged 35 to 50, and 489 women over age 50. Interest in receiving above average compensation and benefits was lower for the women over 50 (Gordon et al., 2003). Other opportunities, such as challenging assignments, advancement, and added responsibilities, were rated as more important by women under the age of 50 than those over 50 (Gordon et al., 2003). Among all the women, the primary motivation to work was monetary need (Gordon et al., 2003). While women over 50 reported the same primary reason for working, need for money was less important for women over 50 than for the other age groups (Gordon et al., 2003). The researchers suggested that changing financial obligations at different life stages might explain some of the variation between age groups (Gordon et al., 2003). Most women in the study expected to work the same number of hours in the future, but a greater percentage of women over 50 anticipated working fewer hours (Gordon et al., 2003). Women over 50 also reported more commitment to their organizations than younger women, and the majority of a sample of 489 women over 50 reported that they would be happy remaining with the same organization for the duration of their careers (Gordon et al., 2003). These findings point out that, while on average, women over 50 may still work primarily to earn money, they also value work stability and security, and many older women plan to reduce their workloads in the near future.

Qualitative research on the career trajectories of women aged 45 to 65 demonstrated a common theme of lack of formal career guidance at key moments in their career decision-making (Bimrose et al., 2013). This lack of career guidance is another way in which women, and particularly aging women, may be at a disadvantage in the workplace throughout their careers. The interviews also demonstrated women's experiences of multiple transitions during their careers, which at times, led to instability and discontinuity (Bimrose et al., 2013). The women reported a significant impact of unexpected events, both at work and in life (e.g., job loss, childbirth, retirement; Bimrose et al., 2013). Unexpected life events often precipitated life transitions for these women, many of which were perceived as stressful or negative transitions (e.g., becoming the family's primary income earner; Bimrose et al., 2013). Nonetheless, the researchers suggested the importance of considering transitions and continuity or stability in women's work-life experiences as co-existing phenomena (Bimrose et al., 2013).

Women and Retirement

Retirement is an important, and often complex, process for women. In research on midlife and older women, women over 50 reported they often thought about how their contributions at work would be remembered when they retired from their jobs (Gordon et al., 2003). Family also has an influence on retirement for women; for example, coordinating with other family members to make retirement decisions, or the desire to fulfill other family roles as the impetus for retirement (Allen & Shockley, 2012). Women engage in many forms of work, much of which is unpaid and undervalued (Sugar, 2007). Unpaid labor impacts women's financial well-being while in the paid workforce and

during their later retirement prospects (Sugar, 2007). It has also been reported that a cyclic lifespan view is most representative of the intermingling of education, work, and leisure activities in which adults engage, especially for women (Sugar, 2007).

Around retirement age, older women in particular are often financially disadvantaged compared to older men, due at least in part to discriminatory policies and practices in U.S. society (Sugar, 2007). Women in dual-earner, heterosexual marriages are more likely to face pressures to retire with their husbands, whereas men are more likely to retire for work reasons (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Carp, 2001). In the workplace, women are penalized with reduced retirement benefits as a result of working part-time or taking time away from work to provide care for children or elderly relatives (Sugar, 2007). Furthermore, a lifetime of lower wages than men for the same jobs leaves women at a financial disadvantage at retirement age (Rife, 2001; Sugar, 2007). Women are at an elevated risk for poverty in older age (Whitehead, 2008). Financial need has a significant impact on women's retirement, and thus, on their work-life interaction too.

Older Women's Work-Life Interaction

Family

Personal relationships, including marriage or partnership, family, and friendships, have important influences on older women's well-being (Adams, 2001; Newton & Keith, 2001; Scott, 2001). Research on the work-family interface for adult men and women has shown that work-to-family conflict is experienced more frequently than family-to-work conflict, and family-to-work enhancement is experienced more than work-to-family enhancement (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Research on women over 50

has also demonstrated these effects, in addition to overall greater experiences of work-family enhancement than conflict (Gordon et al., 2007). While research has indicated that work-family conflict decreases among older women, it shows that work-family enhancement is maintained (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Gordon et al., 2003; Gordon et al., 2007). In a study of working women aged 50 and older, women reported making deliberate choices about their responsibilities in the domains of work, family and home, and personal life (Gordon et al., 2007). The women studied also had greater seniority at work, allowing for more paid time off and autonomy over work schedules (Gordon et al., 2007). Women in leadership positions were likely to have control over their schedules and the ability to focus on work performance, rather than hours worked, which may allow them to manage work and family demands more easily (Cheung & Halpern, 2010).

In their research on issues and challenges specific to women's work-family interaction, Gordon et al. (2003) surveyed women age 35 and older, and compared women from 35 to 50 years old to women over 50 years old. In their research, the older group of women reported less difficulty managing work and family roles (Gordon et al., 2003). Researchers on women's work-family interaction across the lifespan have suggested that greater dependent care responsibilities (i.e., young children and aging parents) largely explain the greater difficulty among middle-aged women in managing work and family responsibilities (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Gordon et al., 2003). However, the number of aging women providing care for grandchildren, adult siblings, partners, close friends, and aging parents is increasing (Ackerman & Banks, 2007; Baltes & Young, 2009; Gordon et al., 2003; Lero & Lewis, 2008). Grandparents raising

children have reported experiencing role overload, psychological burden, and lack of support (Ackerman & Banks, 2007). Additionally, aging women may have their own health issues, functional limitations, and financial difficulties (Ackerman & Banks, 2007), which could increase the strain of managing work and caregiving responsibilities. The majority of women aged 35 years and older in a study of work-family interaction reported that better work-life balance, and more time with family, were potentially important reasons to leave their jobs (Gordon et al., 2003). Nonetheless, women over 50 reported less likelihood to consider leaving work than their younger counterparts (Gordon et al., 2003). These issues highlight the complexity and importance of older women's work-life interaction. Older women often place significant importance on their work lives, and also on other roles, including family roles. One major role within family life is that of the caregiver, which can include caring for children, and also for aging family and friends.

Caregiving has been defined as the provision of direct personal assistance with daily activities, in addition to "primary responsibility for the health and welfare of people receiving informal care in the community or formal care in institutions" (Ackerman & Banks, 2007). Primary caregiving is considered to be the person with primary responsibility for the health and welfare of another person, who provides care to that person on a daily basis (Ackerman & Banks, 2007). This term is differentiated from personal care assistance, which involves providing care assistance to another person without the primary responsibility for the health and welfare of that person (Ackerman & Banks, 2007). The percentage of women providing care to a dependent adult increases

with age (Gordon et al., 2003), further indicating that caregiving is a significant issue for older women. Eldercare responsibilities are associated with work-family conflict and work-related outcomes (e.g., absenteeism; Allen & Shockley, 2012), which suggests that older women who frequently provide care for a parent, partner, or other elderly relative might experience work-family conflict or work-related issues as a result. Women are also more likely than men to exit the workforce for eldercare reasons (Ackerman & Banks, 2007; Lero & Lewis, 2008; Pavalko & Henderson, 2006). Women providing eldercare are more likely to quit their jobs or cut back at work, rather than try to negotiate with their employers (Pavalko & Henderson, 2006). Still, access to flexibility at work can increase the number of women who remain at work while providing eldercare (Pavalko & Henderson, 2006), indicating the importance of compatibility between work and family roles for aging women. Flexibility and partial retirement have been suggested as ways for organizations to better meet the needs of, and retain, older women in the workplace (Gordon et al., 2003). These findings have indicated that both family responsibilities and the ability to work are important for many aging women, and that continued research is needed as the structure of many older women's work lives shifts.

Nonwork Roles

While the majority of research on work-life interface has focused on the domains of work and family, researchers have reported the importance of other nonwork domains, such as community activities (Fisher et al., 2009; Kirchmeyer, 1992a; Voydanoff, 2005a). It has been suggested that some organizations have shifted their focus from work-family programs to broader work-life programs, indicating a need for policies and outlooks that

consider the diversity of employees' nonwork lives. One of the reasons for pursuing research on the work-life interface, which includes nonwork activities, rather than exclusively work-family, is that organizational, family-friendly policies may neglect or disadvantage single or childfree employees (Casper, Weltman, & Kwesiga, 2007). Family-friendly policies may contribute to organizational choices that favor married or partnered employees with children and overlook the needs of individuals who are single and do not have dependent children (Casper, Weltman, & Kwesiga, 2007). For instance, childfree single workers are often given more work when employees with families want time off, employees with families may be given preference for work assignments, and the work stress of childfree single employees may be ignored (Casper, Weltman, & Kwesiga, 2007). Additionally, organizations have begun to incorporate more flexible policies (e.g., flexible work schedules, telecommuting), but the organizational research literature has not yet provided enough clear guidance to help with the widespread implementation of organizational work-life practices (Keeney et al., 2013).

Keeney et al. (2013) conducted research on work interference with life and focused on nonwork domains beyond family. Keeney et al.'s research on work interference within nonwork domains was based on a life domains perspective, which supported the concept that people are involved in multiple domains beyond work and family, and the importance of each domain varies for all individuals (Super, 1980). The theory of inter-role conflict (Kahn et al., 1964) guided the concept that failure to meet external and internal expectations (i.e., pressures from family members and the self, respectively) in a valued domain leads to perceptions of interference within that domain

(Keeney et al., 2013). It has been found that the majority of midlife and older women report that it is important to feel successful in their careers, but also report that other nonwork, nonfamily responsibilities and interests are of significant importance (Gordon et al., 2003). Aging women have also reported the importance of having strong social support networks and mentors or role models for career development, particularly as sources of informal career advice and support (Bimrose et al., 2013).

In their research on work interference with nonwork domains, Keeney et al. (2013) specifically explored time and strain-based forms of interference. The researchers conducted a literature review on the primary life domains for most people over the lifespan, to determine which life domains to include (Keeney et al., 2013). Their review resulted in eight life domains: education, health, leisure, friendships, romantic relationships, family, household management, and community involvement (Keeney et al., 2013). Keeney et al. provided descriptions of each domain to ensure participants (i.e., the first study had 1,811 participants, 54% of whom were women, and the second study had 3,145 participants, 48% women) understood what activities fell in each domain; their descriptions are provided here for clarity. The education domain included involvement in educational activities (e.g., reading job-related material, classwork, seminar attendance) that were not part of participants' work. Health included activities to maintain physical and mental health (e.g., exercise, doctor's visits, diet, meditation) and physically healthy appearance (e.g., a haircut). The leisure domain included active leisure, such as hobbies, and resting leisure, such as reading and watching television. Friendships included any activities with friends outside of work (e.g., talking, sharing a meal). Romantic

relationships included spending personal time with a significant other. Family involved all activities with family members, including visits, caregiving, family functions, and time spent with pets, but not including time with a significant other. Household management referred to activities meant to maintain a household (e.g., cleaning, grocery shopping, paying bills, household repairs and care, delegating household tasks), but not including caregiving. Community involvement included activities, such as volunteering and attending community meetings or events.

Keeney et al.'s (2013) research on work interference across life domains indicated that employees are involved in nonwork domains outside of family, and are able to distinguish between work interference with family and work interference within other domains. On a Likert scale for rating domain importance from 1 (*not at all important*) to 5 (*very important*), the means for the importance of each domain were all a 3 or higher, and half of the means were over a 4 (Keeney et al., 2013). Their research also provided empirical support for the use of time-based and strain-based measurements of interference (Keeney et al., 2013), which supports previous research findings that time-based and strain-based conflicts are distinct and relevant sources of interference between work and family (Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999). The authors reported that the inclusion of life domains beyond family improved the prediction of personal well-being and work-related outcomes, suggesting that work-family conflict scales may be insufficient in measuring work interference with all aspects of life (Keeney et al., 2013). This research supports the inclusion of nonwork domains beyond family, and suggests that the studied domains are likely to be relevant and important across the lifespan.

Expanding research on the work-life interface has necessitated the development of new measures (e.g., Carlson et al., 2006; Casper, Weltman, & Kwesiga, 2007; Fisher et al., 2009; Hanson et al., 2006; Kirchmeyer, 1992b). Fisher et al. (2009) developed and validated a measure of work-nonwork interference and enhancement. This measure expanded upon existing research measures by incorporating the following elements: a personal life domain, bi-directionality between work and nonwork domains, questions about interference and questions about enhancement, and items that broadly address interference (rather than items based on individual antecedents of conflict, such as time-based conflict; Fisher et al., 2009). The inclusion of the personal life domain, rather than a family domain, makes this measure more inclusive for workers with diverse family structures and other commitments (Fisher et al., 2009). After testing and validating their measure of work-nonwork interference and enhancement, the researchers conducted a study in which they used an exploratory factor analysis to examine the factor structure of the revised scale, and then used a confirmatory factor analysis to test the fit of the final version of the scale to the four-factor model from their previous study (Fisher et al., 2009). The final 17-item Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale is comprised of the following dimensions: work interference with personal life (WIPL, 5 items), personal life interference with work (PLIW, 6 items), work enhancement of personal life (WEPL, 3 items), and personal life enhancement of work (PLEW, 3 items). The researchers found significant relationships between WIPL and WEPL and overall job stress (Fisher et al., 2009). Additionally, WIPL and WEPL were significantly related to overall job satisfaction (Fisher et al., 2009). The work-life research that goes beyond

family to include other nonwork roles is growing, and advocates of broadening the study of the work-life interface have also stressed the need to explore the impact of individual characteristics (e.g., ethnicity, family structure) and work conditions (e.g., flexible work arrangements) on work-life interaction.

Individual Differences and Work Factors

Further research on the relationship between individual differences and perceptions of work-nonwork interference and enhancement is needed, particularly for the understanding of potential moderators of work-nonwork interference and enhancement (Fisher et al., 2009). A criticism of the industrial organizational psychology research on work-family interaction has been the omission of other nonwork domain variables (e.g., leisure, community, volunteer, social support; Eby et al., 2005). Research has also indicated the importance of considering family structure in the work-family interface (e.g., parent status, marital status, dependent care; Eby et al., 2005). It has also been suggested that role quality, rather than simply role involvement, should be studied in relation to the work-family interface (Eby et al., 2005).

Midlife and older married women have reported collaborating with their husbands or partners to balance work and family demands, mainly through receiving significant support from their partners (e.g., financial security, managing house activities, organizing family activities, calming influence, career advice; Gordon et al., 2003). Research on women in leadership positions has also shown that women view family support as crucial to their career success (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). Women have reported that support from their husbands was particularly important, including housework, emotional support,

and encouragement (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). Women leaders who maintained marriages reported engaging in a give and take process to sustain their relationships and careers (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). These findings beg the question of how the work-life interaction of single, working women differs from their married counterparts. Single older women often have strong sources of social support and are more likely than married or formerly married older women to be highly educated and working in a professional career (Newtson & Keith, 2001). Additionally, single older women may report greater satisfaction and focus on their work lives than married women or formerly married women in their age group (Newtson & Keith, 2001).

Many of the studies on women's work-life interface have not incorporated other individual differences, including diversity variables (Casper et al., 2007; Fisher et al., 2009; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Additionally, in large-scale studies that have thoroughly reported their sample demographics, the samples are often not representative of women across the U.S. For instance, in their main study of the work-life interaction of 1,578 midlife and older women, Gordon et al. (2003) obtained a sample comprised of primarily full-time, working, White women who had at least some college education, were married to a husband who worked full-time, had children, and were in good health. Additionally, while they compared women from 35 to 50 to women over 50, the younger age group comprised 69% of their overall sample (Gordon et al., 2003).

In research on work interference with life, Keeney et al. (2013) obtained a sample of 1,811 alumni for their first study, and 3,145 alumni for their second study. Their overall sample was primarily White, educated (i.e., college degree or higher), married or

in a domestic partnership, dual earner, and full-time workers (Keeney et al., 2013). Their sample also had some representation of diversity. The sample included participants from diverse occupations, almost equal numbers of men and women, almost half with children living at home, and participants across a fairly large age range (primarily late 20s to late 50s; Keeney et al., 2013).

Family structures in the U.S. are highly diverse, and women's family status may impact the caregiving roles in which they engage (Ackerman & Banks, 2007). However, much of the research on women over 50 assumes that women are heterosexual and married, which is not representative of the diversity of aging women's lives (Ackerman & Banks, 2007). A review of the industrial organizational psychology and organizational behavior research on work-family showed that the majority of research is based on samples of White, professional or managerial employees, in traditional family arrangements (i.e., dual-earner married couples; Casper et al., 2007). Specific criticisms of this body of research on the work-family interface focus on the absence of single adults, single-parent families, extended families, and gay and lesbian families (Casper et al., 2007). Furthermore, it has been argued that the work-family experiences of racial and ethnic minorities have also been excluded from the existing research (Casper et al., 2007; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Thus, it has been argued that a lack of consistent reporting of sample characteristics makes it difficult to evaluate the generalizability of existing work-family research to groups who are demographically diverse, have different family configurations, and who work in different industries and occupations (Casper et al., 2007). Researchers have recommended considering the impact of individual

characteristics on the work-family interface, and on perceptions of work-life interaction (Fisher et al., 2009; Gordon et al., 2007).

Other factors related to work conditions and behaviors have also been studied in relation to the work-family interface. In research focused on individual differences in the use of flexible time (flextime) and flexible locations for work (flexplace), researchers found that individuals who preferred greater segmentation or separation of work and other life roles used less flexible work arrangements (Shockley & Allen, 2010). The authors reported that flextime and flexplace arrangements facilitate the integration of multiple roles, and may blur the boundaries (i.e., physical and temporal boundaries) of work (Shockley & Allen, 2010). Individuals who have a high need for segmentation may not find flexible work arrangements useful in managing multiple roles (Shockley & Allen, 2010). However, the researchers also reported that, for individuals with high family responsibility, need for segmentation was less important in determining the use of flexible work arrangements (Shockley & Allen, 2010). This finding indicated that flexible work arrangements can help with managing demanding work and family roles (in which the individual is motivated to achieve), and this benefit often supersedes the need for segmentation of roles (Shockley & Allen, 2010).

It has also been found that the number of hours worked has a negative association with satisfaction on work-family balance; that is, the more hours worked, the less satisfaction with work-family balance (McNamara, Pitts-Catsouphe, Matz-Costa, Brown, & Valcour, 2013). One of the nuances of this research is that, among those in the 75th percentile of satisfaction with work-family balance, hours worked had a weaker

relationship to satisfaction than in the group at the 25th percentile of satisfaction with work-family balance (McNamara et al., 2013). The researchers suggested that employees who are satisfied with their work-family balance for reasons other than hours worked, may be less impacted by working longer hours, whereas those who are not satisfied for reasons other than hours worked may find long hours to be more burdensome (McNamara et al., 2013). These research findings exemplify the complexity of relationships between different variables in the context of the work-life interface. An array of variables could potentially influence the work-life interaction experiences of older women, such as individual diversity characteristics, relationships, and job characteristics.

Literature Review Summary

Current changes in the workforce (e.g., women, aging) and family structures (i.e., diversity of families) provide the impetus for research on experiences of work-life interaction. While work-life interaction, which extends beyond work-family balance, is a topic that has garnered widespread interest, it has also received limited research attention. A historically atheoretical approach to research, combined with distinct approaches from diverse fields of study, and vague or overlapping concepts and terminology, are issues that call for continued intentional, empirical research on the work-life interface. Furthermore, the majority of the literature focuses exclusively on the work and family domains. More research on work and other life domains, and on the positive and negative bi-directional effects of these domains, is needed.

Research on the work-family interface has demonstrated an impact on psychological well-being, work outcomes, and family outcomes. The growing aging population and increased labor force participation of older women, along with limited inclusion of older women in work-life research, demonstrate a need for research on the work-life experiences of older working women. Research specifically on aging women has demonstrated the significance of various life roles for aging women, including work, family, social, and community domains. Research on the work-life interface and aging has pointed to the growing importance of salient issues, such as eldercare in the management of work and family responsibilities. Other issues, such as individual health, financial security, and job characteristics (e.g., flexibility, hours), have been linked to work-family outcomes, indicating the importance of considering these issues for aging women.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the work-life interaction experiences of working women aged 55 and older in the United States. The variables of domain (i.e., work-to-personal life and personal life-to-work) and impact (i.e., interference and enhancement) were included to provide a bi-directional measure of positive and negative effects of the work-life interface. This study considered the relationship of work-life interaction to demographic characteristics, including age, gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, marital status, caregiver status, personal care status, parent status, health status, socioeconomic status, education level, employment status, average hours of paid work, and engagement in nonwork activities. The relationships between being a primary

caregiver or providing personal care assistance and work-life interaction were also examined in the current study.

Hypotheses

1. Statistically significant mean differences will be observed between the domains of work and personal life, as measured by the Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale (WNIE).
2. Statistically significant mean differences will be observed between the impact of interference and enhancement, as measured by the WNIE.
3. Statistically significant interactions between domain and impact will be observed, as measured by the WNIE. The following mean differences are predicted:
 - a. The work interference with personal life (WIPL) mean will be statistically significantly greater than the personal life interference with work (PLIW) mean.
 - b. The personal life enhancement of work (PLEW) mean will be statistically significantly greater than the work enhancement of personal life (WEPL) mean.
 - c. The WEPL mean will be statistically significantly greater than the WIPL mean.
 - d. The PLEW mean will be statistically significantly greater than the PLIW mean.

4. Statistically significant relationships between the set of work-life interaction variables and the set of demographic variables will be observed, as measured by the WNIE and the Demographic Questionnaire.
5. Statistically significant relationships between caregiving and interference will be observed. The following directional relationships are predicted:
 - a. Caregiving involvement will be statistically significantly related to greater work interference with personal life (WIPL).
 - b. Caregiving involvement will be statistically significantly related to greater personal life interference with work (PLIW).
6. Statistically significant relationships between personal care assistance and interference will be observed. The following directional relationships are predicted:
 - a. Providing personal care assistance will be statistically significantly related to greater work interference with personal life (WIPL).
 - b. Providing personal care assistance will be statistically significantly related to greater personal life interference with work (PLIW).

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Participants

Women aged 55 and older, who were working 30 or more hours a week, were recruited for the present study. Participants were recruited via email, an advertising link on public websites, and paper fliers on public bulletin boards. In total, 94 women participated in the study. The demographic characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics

Variable	Frequency	%
Age in years		
55-59	55	59
60-64	31	33
65-69	4	4
70-74	4	4
Ethnicity		
Biracial	1	1
Caucasian	90	96
Hispanic/Latina	4	4
Sexual Orientation		
Bisexual	4	4
Heterosexual	81	86
Lesbian	8	9

(Continued)

<hr/>		
Marital Status		
Divorced	17	18
Married/Domestic Partnership	60	64
Separated	1	1
Single, Never Married	12	13
Widowed	3	3
Primary Caregiver		
Children/Grandchildren, under 18 years old	7	7
Adult Children	7	7
Parent/Elderly Relative	7	7
Partner/Spouse	8	9
Other Friend or Relative	1	1
Personal Care Assistance		
Children/Grandchildren, under 18 years old	8	9
Adult Children	7	7
Parent/Elderly Relative	11	12
Partner/Spouse	10	11
Other Friend or Relative	6	6
Number of Children		
No children	22	23
One	15	16
Two	33	35
Three	17	18
Four	6	6
Major Health Issues		
Yes	19	20
No	75	80
Household Income		
\$20,000 - \$39,999	6	6
\$40,000 - \$59,999	8	9
\$60,000 - \$79,999	7	7
\$80,000 - \$99,999	10	11
\$100,000 and above	54	58
Education (Highest Degree Completed)		
High School Diploma/Equivalent	1	1
Some College	8	9
Associates	1	1
Bachelors	33	35
Masters	35	37
Doctorate	16	17
<hr/>		

(Continued)

Employment Status		
Employed for Wages	66	70
Self-Employed	28	30
Weekly Hours Worked		
30-39 hours	26	28
40-49 hours	48	51
50+ hours	20	21

Note. Demographic categories with zero participants are not included, for the full demographic questionnaire see Appendix B; $n = 94$.

Instrumentation

Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale

The Work/Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale (WNIE; Fisher et al., 2009) was used to measure experiences of work-life interaction, specifically assessing the frequency of older working women's experiences of interference and enhancement between the work and personal life domains (see Appendix A). The WNIE is a 17-item self-report scale that measures the frequency of work interference with personal life (WIPL, 5 items, e.g., "My job makes it difficult to maintain the kind of personal life I would like."), personal life interference with work (PLIW, 6 items, e.g., "My personal life drains me of the energy I need to do my job."), work enhancement of personal life (WEPL, 3 items, e.g., "The things I do at work help me deal with personal and practical issues at home."), and personal life enhancement of work (PLEW, 3 items, e.g., "My personal life helps me relax and feel ready for the next day's work."). Interference and enhancement comprise the impact factor, and work and personal life comprise the domain factor. The Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale uses a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "not at all," to "almost all of the time." Scaled scores, from 1 to 5, were calculated using the average of scores on the items for each of the four

variables. A low scaled score represents a low frequency of experiencing the type of work-nonwork interaction being measured, and a high score represents a high frequency of the type of work-nonwork interaction. The Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale was developed on the basis of several research studies aimed at item generation and assessment, scale validation, and scale revision and validation. Confirmatory factor analysis yielded a four-factor model, with items loading on each of the work-nonwork interference and enhancement dimensions. Fisher et al. (2009) reported the discriminant validity of the four dimensions of work-nonwork interference and enhancement was adequate. As reported by Fisher et al. (2009), internal consistency reliabilities indicated desirable levels of reliability. Structural equation modeling suggested adequate convergent validity with overall job stress, and adequate criterion-related validity of job satisfaction.

Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire, designed by the researcher, included questions to better understand the participant sample (see Appendix B). The demographic questionnaire included the following categories: age, gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, marital status, primary caregiver status, personal caregiver status, parent status, health status, socioeconomic status, education level, employment status, average hours of paid work per week, and nonwork activities.

Procedure

The researcher recruited potential participants using snowball sampling (Goodman, 1961) and electronic advertising in concert, whereby participants were asked

to forward the survey to other potentially interested individuals. Snowball sampling is a research method in which participants name, or recommend, acquaintances to participate in the research (Goodman, 1961). Participants were recruited in the following ways: emailing a link to personal contacts who previously expressed interest in the proposed area of research (Request for Participation, see Appendix C), through an advertising link on public websites (see Appendix D), and through paper fliers posted on public bulletin boards (see Appendix E). The Request for Participation provided participants with instructions about how to participate in the study, and encouraged them to forward the email or advertising link to other potentially interested individuals. Accessing the link connected participants to a Psychdata survey constructed specifically for the proposed study. The Psychdata website included an Informed Consent Form for participants to read (see Appendix F). After reading the informed consent, participants were required to click on a “Continue” button indicating that they had read it and consented to proceeding with the questionnaires. The informed consent form included information about the purpose of the study, the criteria for participation, and confidentiality for participants. The informed consent process disclosed the personal nature of the questionnaires and informed participants of the risks and benefits associated with participation in the study. The informed consent process also informed participants of the voluntary nature of participation, and their right to terminate participation in the study at any time. Using an online survey allowed participants’ anonymity, as their names were not included in the materials, providing confidentiality to participants. After reading the informed consent document and clicking the button to continue with the survey, participants were given the

Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale and the Demographic Questionnaire in that order.

Hypotheses and Statistical Analyses

All statistical analyses were considered to be significant at $p \leq .05$. Participants' work-life interaction was measured as four different variables using the Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale: (1) work interference with personal life (WIPL), (2) personal life interference with work (PLIW), (3) work enhancement of personal life (WEPL), and (4) personal life enhancement of work (PLEW). The first three hypotheses predicted effects of domain, impact, and the interaction of domain and impact on the work-life interaction variables.

The first hypothesis predicted statistically significant mean differences between the domains of work and personal life, as evidenced by scores on the Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale. The second hypothesis predicted statistically significant mean differences between the impacts of interference and enhancement. The third hypothesis predicted statistically significant interactions between domain and impact, with predictions about the differences between the means of the work-life interaction variables. The four specific predictions of mean differences were that: (a) WIPL would be statistically significantly greater than PLIW, (b) PLEW would be statistically significantly greater than WEPL, (c) WEPL would be statistically significantly greater than WIPL, and (d) PLEW would be statistically significantly greater than PLIW. For these three hypotheses, analysis of the difference between the means was examined using a two-factor multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)

with repeated measures on domain and impact, using the work-life interaction mean scores as dependent variables. The mean scores for this analysis were calculated by totaling the subscale scores for each of the four work-life interaction variables and then dividing each sum by the number of items on that particular subscale, resulting in a mean score from 1 to 5 for each subscale. The null hypothesis for this analysis was that there would be no statistically significant effects on work-life interaction due to domain, impact, or the interaction of domain and impact.

The fourth hypothesis predicted that there would be statistically significant relationships between the set of work-life interaction variables and the set of demographic variables. A canonical correlational analysis was used to examine correlational relationships between the set of work-life interaction variables and the set of demographic variables.

The fifth hypothesis predicted that there would be statistically significant relationships between caregiving and interference, in that caregiving involvement would be statistically significantly related to greater WIPL and greater PLIW. One-tailed t-tests were used for this analysis.

The sixth hypothesis predicted that there would be statistically significant relationships between personal care assistance and interference, in that providing personal care assistance would be statistically significantly related to greater WIPL and PLIW. One-tailed t-tests were used for this analysis.

In addition, descriptive statistics were calculated for all items of the Demographic Questionnaire in order to provide detailed information about the participant sample (e.g.,

sexual orientation, education level). To explore the nonwork activities in which participants spend most of their time, frequencies for responses to the nonwork activities question were included in the analyses for the current study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

One hundred and five surveys were completed through the Psychdata online survey created for this study. Ninety-four surveys were utilized in the final data analysis. Eleven surveys were considered unusable as a result of the following: (1) missing information, (2) participants were younger than 55 years of age, or (3) participants were working less than 30 hours per week on average. Participants ranged in age from 55 to 74 years, with a mean age of 58.8. Ninety-six percent of the sample identified as Caucasian, 4% identified as Hispanic/Latina, and 1% as biracial (Asian American and Hispanic/Latina). Eighty-six percent identified as heterosexual, 9% as lesbian, and 4% as bisexual. The full set of demographic characteristics for the sample are presented in Table 1.

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 predicted significant effects of domain, impact, and the interaction of domain and impact on the work-life interaction variables. Analyses for the first three hypotheses consisted of a two-factor multivariate analysis of variance with repeated measures.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis predicted statistically significant mean differences between the domains of work and personal life, as measured by the Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale (see Table 2). The two-factor MANOVA with repeated

measures was conducted to determine whether the differences between domains were statistically significant. Results indicated statistically significant mean differences between the domains of work and personal life (see Table 3). Hypothesis 1 was supported. Overall, the findings suggested that participants experienced greater negative effects from work life and greater positive effects from personal life.

Table 2

Means of Work-Life Interaction Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>
Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL)	2.95
Work Enhancement of Personal Life (WEPL)	2.93
Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW)	1.86
Personal Life Enhancement of Work (PLEW)	3.50

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis predicted statistically significant mean differences between the impact of interference and enhancement, as measured by the Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale. The two-factor MANOVA with repeated measures was used to determine whether the differences between impacts were statistically significant. Results indicated statistically significant mean differences between the impacts of interference and enhancement, supporting Hypothesis 2 (see Table 3). This finding suggested that participants experienced greater enhancement than interference.

Hypotheses 3a, 3b, 3c, and 3d

The third hypothesis predicted statistically significant interactions between domain and impact, as measured by the Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement

Scale. The two-factor MANOVA with repeated measures was used to determine whether the interactions between impact and domain were statistically significant. Results indicated statistically significant interactions between domain and impact (see Table 3). Hypothesis 3 was supported, overall.

Table 3

Main Effects and Interaction of Work Life and Personal Life Domains and Interference and Enhancement Impacts

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Significance
Domains	6.17	1, 93	6.17	21.52	<.001**
Impacts	62.12	1, 93	62.12	36.18	<.001**
Interaction	65.42	1, 93	65.42	134.35	<.001**

** $p < .01$.

Additionally, Hypotheses 3a, 3b, 3c, and 3d predicted specific mean differences between the four work-life interaction variables. Hypothesis 3a predicted that the work interference with personal life (WIPL) mean would be statistically significantly greater than the personal life interference with work (PLIW) mean. Hypothesis 3b predicted that the personal life enhancement of work (PLEW) mean would be statistically significantly greater than the work enhancement of personal life (WEPL) mean. Hypothesis 3c predicted that the WEPL mean would be statistically significantly greater than the WIPL mean. Hypothesis 3d predicted that the PLEW mean would be statistically significantly greater than the PLIW mean. Results of the two-factor MANOVA with repeated measures supported Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3d (see Figure 1). Hypothesis 3c was not

supported (see Figure 1). These findings suggested that participants reported positive and negative impacts that differed depending on the work and personal life domains.

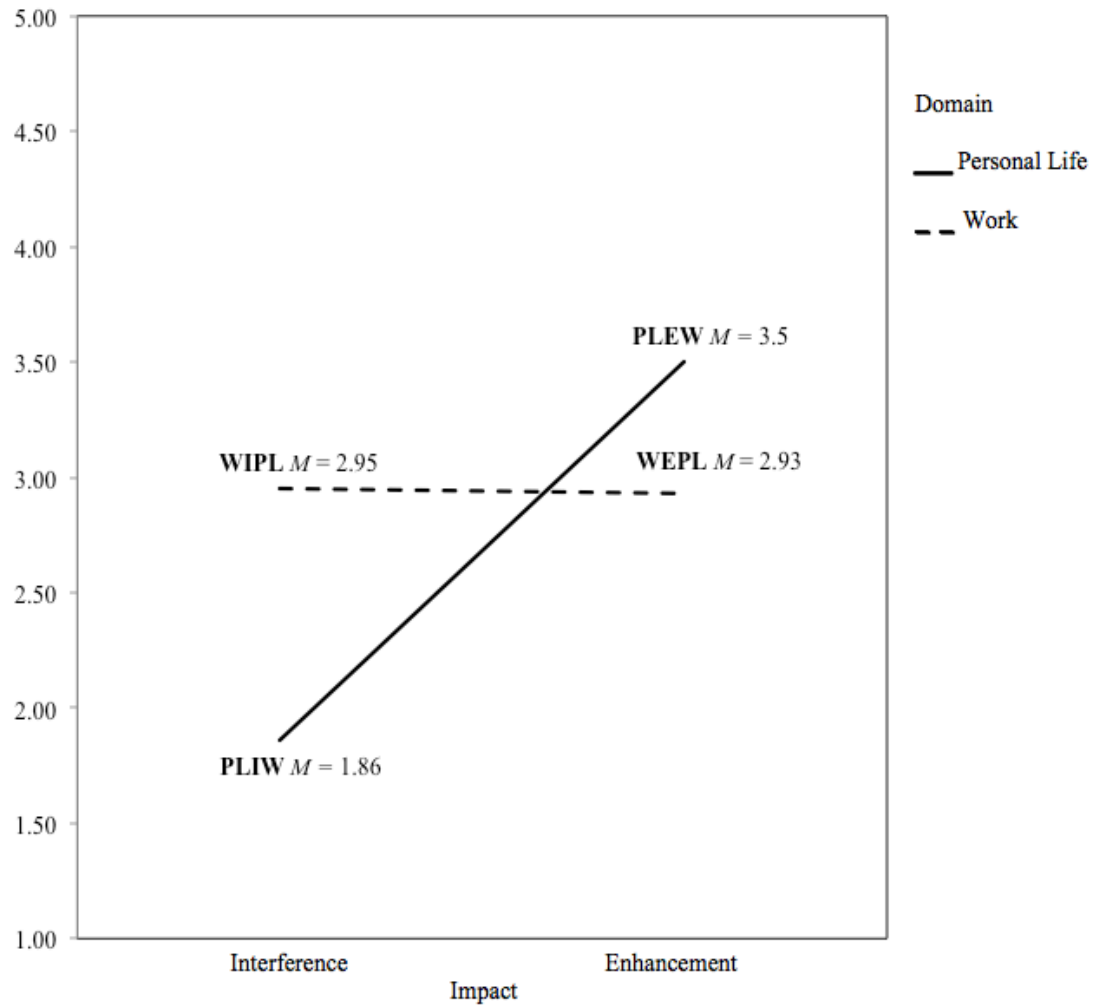


Figure 1. Comparison of means of work-life interaction variables

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis predicted statistically significant relationships between the set of work-life interaction variables and the set of demographic variables. A canonical correlational analysis was performed on the set of four work-life interaction variables and

the following set of demographic variables: age, ethnicity, caregiving roles, personal care assistance roles, number of children, health status, income, education level, employment status, hours worked each week, and nonwork activities. Data from 84 participants were included in the canonical correlation, and 10 participants were not included because of missing data. For Hypothesis 4, the canonical correlational analysis did not reach statistical significance, Pillai's Trace = 1.73, $F(124, 208) = 1.28$, $p = .057$. However, these findings did indicate a trend, suggesting that individual characteristics may contribute to differences in work-life interaction experiences.

The results of the canonical correlational analysis demonstrated potentially meaningful correlations between the set of work-life interaction variables and some of the demographic characteristics (see Table 4). The canonical correlation indicated low interference (i.e., WIPL, $s = -.869$, and PLIW, $s = -.634$) and high enhancement (i.e., WEPL, $s = .766$, and PLEW, $s = .777$) were correlated with 10 of the demographic characteristics included in the analysis. Specifically, lower interference and higher enhancement were positively correlated with age ($s = .304$), providing personal care assistance to a friend or relative ($s = .264$), health (i.e., not having major health issues, $s = .228$), income ($s = .215$), being self-employed ($s = .369$), and spending time with friends as a top nonwork activity ($s = .250$). Lower interference and higher enhancement were negatively correlated with caregiving for children or grandchildren ($s = -.298$), providing personal care assistance to children or grandchildren ($s = -.473$), hours worked each week ($s = -.258$), and household activities as a top nonwork activity ($s = -.297$).

Table 4

Canonical Correlation of Demographics to Low Interference and High Enhancement Impacts

Interference and Enhancement Impacts and Demographic Characteristics	Canonical Loading
<u>Impacts</u>	
Work Interference with Personal Life	-.869
Personal Life Interference with Work	-.634
Work Enhancement of Personal Life	.766
Personal Life Enhancement of Work	.777
<u>Demographic Characteristics</u>	
Age	.304
Marital Status	
Divorced	.009
Married/Domestic Partnership	-.006
Separated	-.091
Single, Never Married	-.120
Primary Caregiver	
Children/Grandchildren, under 18 years old	-.298
Adult Children	.091
Parent/Elderly Relative	-.087
Partner/Spouse	-.072
Personal Care Assistance	
Children/Grandchildren, under 18 years old	-.473
Adult Children	-.100
Parent/Elderly Relative	.016
Partner/Spouse	-.050
Other Friend or Relative	.264
Number of Children	.027
Major Health Issues	.228
Household Income	.215
Education Level	-.093
Employment Status	
Self-Employed	.369
Weekly Hours Worked	-.258

(Continued)

Top Nonwork Activities	
Household Activities	-.297
Spending Time with Significant Other	.082
Family Activities	-.144
Hobbies and Recreation	.094
Physical and Mental Health Activities	.122
Spending Time with Friends	.250
Community Activities	-.047
Educational Activities	-.097

Note. Canonical loadings > .20 are in boldface.

Hypotheses 5a and 5b

The fifth hypothesis predicted statistically significant relationships between caregiving involvement and interference. Caregiving involvement was calculated in two ways: (1) as a quantitative sum of the number of primary caregiving roles endorsed (i.e., scores from 0-5), and (2) as a binary variable based on whether participants were primary caregivers or not. Hypothesis 5a predicted a statistically significant positive correlation between caregiving involvement and WIPL. One-tailed correlation t-tests showed that there was not a statistically significant correlation between WIPL and the quantitative caregiver variable, nor between WIPL and the binary caregiver variable. Hypothesis 5b predicted a statistically significant positive correlation between caregiving involvement and PLIW. One-tailed correlation t-tests showed statistically significant modest positive correlations between PLIW and quantitative caregiving, and between PLIW and binary caregiving. Hypothesis 5a was not supported and Hypothesis 5b was supported by modest positive correlations (see Table 5). This finding indicated that being a primary caregiver was related to increased personal life interference with work.

Table 5

Correlations Between Quantitative and Binary Caregiving and Work-Nonwork Interference

	Quantitative Caregiving			Binary Caregiving		
	Pearson Correlation	Significance	N	Pearson Correlation	Significance	N
WIPL	.007	.475	94	.112	.142	94
PLIW	.289	.002**	94	.392	<.001**	94

Note. WIPL = work interference with personal life; PLIW = personal life interference with work. ** $p < .01$.

Hypotheses 6a and 6b

The sixth hypothesis predicted statistically significant relationships between personal care assistance involvement and interference. Personal care assistance involvement was calculated the same two ways as primary caregiving involvement: (1) as a quantitative sum of the number of personal care assistance roles endorsed (i.e., scores from 0-5), and (2) as a binary variable based on whether participants were personal care assistants or not. Hypothesis 6a predicted a statistically significant positive correlation between personal care involvement and WIPL. One-tailed correlation t-tests showed that there was not a statistically significant correlation between WIPL and the quantitative personal care variable, nor between WIPL and the binary personal care variable. Hypothesis 6b predicted a statistically significant positive correlation between personal care involvement and PLIW. A one-tailed correlation t-test showed that there was not a statistically significant correlation between PLIW and the quantitative personal care variable. However, a one-tailed correlation t-test showed a statistically significant modest positive correlation between PLIW and the binary personal care variable.

Hypothesis 6a was not supported and Hypothesis 6b was partially supported by a modest positive correlation (see Table 6). This finding indicated that providing personal care assistance was related to increased personal life interference with work.

Table 6

Correlations Between Quantitative and Binary Personal Care and Work-Nonwork Interference

	Quantitative Personal Care			Binary Personal Care		
	Pearson Correlation	Significance	<i>N</i>	Pearson Correlation	Significance	<i>N</i>
WIPL	-.039	.357	91	.061	.279	94
PLIW	.073	.247	91	.204	.024*	94

Note. WIPL = work interference with personal life; PLIW = personal life interference with work. * $p < .05$.

Analysis of Nonwork Activities

In addition to hypothesis testing, the demographic questionnaire included a question about the top three nonwork activities in which participants spend their time. The frequencies of participants' selection of various nonwork domains were calculated to better understand the activities in which participants spend the most of their time outside of work. Out of 94 participants, 6 participants selected more than 3 nonwork activity domains, and 1 participant selected only one activity domain, and thus, they were excluded from the frequency analysis. The frequencies and percentages of each domain are presented in Table 7, in order of frequency from greatest to lowest.

Table 7

Nonwork Activities in Which Participants Spend the Most Time (N = 87)

Variable	Frequency	%
Household Activities	57	66
Spending Time with Significant Other	46	53
Family Activities	42	48
Hobbies and Recreation	31	36
Physical and Mental Health Activities	31	36
Spending Time with Friends	23	26
Community Activities	18	21
Educational Activities	13	15

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the experiences of work-life interaction in women aged 55 years and older. Perceptions of interference and enhancement between work and personal life were examined to compare the negative and positive bi-directional interactions of these two domains. To explore other potential factors related to experiences of work-life interaction, the relationships between personal and professional background factors (e.g., age, income, hours worked per week) and work-life interaction were examined. Based on literature about the importance of caregiving in many women's lives (Lero & Lewis, 2008), the relationships between caregiving and personal care assistance and work-life interaction were examined. Finally, to explore the nonwork activities in which older working women report spending most of their time, the frequencies for participants' selection of nonwork activity categories were examined.

Work-Life Interaction: Domain and Impact

The domains of work and personal life differed in their impact on participants' lives. Participants reported that work interfered with their personal lives more frequently than personal life interfered with work. Conversely, participants reported that their personal lives enhanced their work lives more frequently than work enhanced their personal lives. Thus, participants perceived that work had more frequent negative effects

on personal life, and personal life had more frequent beneficial effects on work in the current study. Participants' perceptions of positive and negative impacts of work and personal life in the current study were consistent with previous research findings in the work-family literature. Prior research has suggested that work-to-family conflict was experienced more frequently than family-to-work conflict for adult women and men (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), consistent with the current finding that work interference with personal life was more frequent than personal life interference with work. Additionally, family-to-work enhancement was more frequent than work-to-family enhancement for adults (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), similar to how personal life enhanced work more frequently than work enhanced personal life in the current study. Research on work-family enhancement and conflict for women over 50 has demonstrated the same effects (Gordon et al., 2003; Gordon et al., 2007), indicating a similar interaction between the work and family domains and the work and personal life domains for older working women.

The majority of research on work-life interaction has been focused on work-family conflict (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008). In the current study, interference and enhancement were included to explore the positive and negative interactions between work and nonwork. The impacts of interference and enhancement differed between the work life and personal life domains in the current study. Participants reported that their personal lives led to greater enhancement than interference with work. However, results showed that work enhanced personal life about the same amount as work interfered with personal life. Overall, this finding indicates that participants experienced greater

enhancement than interference, primarily related to the personal life domain. This overall effect is consistent with previous research findings that work-family enhancement was experienced more than work-family conflict (Gordon et al., 2007). Research has also indicated a decrease in work-family conflict and maintenance of work-family enhancement as working women age (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Gordon et al., 2003; Gordon et al., 2007).

The current findings on bi-directional positive and negative interactions between work and personal life were consistent with prior research on work-family interaction. More broadly measuring the interactions between work life and personal life allows for the inclusion of people with diverse family roles and obligations (Fisher et al., 2009). Comparison of the current findings with existing literature suggests the value of using a work-life interaction measure to include diverse nonwork roles in understanding the experiences of aging working women.

Individual Differences and Work-Life Interaction

In the current study, the relationship between the set of demographic characteristics and work-life interaction variables was not statistically significant. However, because the relationship was approaching significance and the relationships between certain characteristics and work-life interaction variables were significant, it is possible that the results can still provide useful information about relationships to explore in future studies. It is important to note that the following descriptions of relationships between individual characteristics and work-life interaction variables contributed to the canonical correlational analysis approaching significance. Nonetheless, these results

should be interpreted with caution and are discussed in an attempt to highlight areas for further exploration.

The specific areas of interest implicated as potentially significant for future research on work-nonwork interaction were as follows: age, health, income, self-employment, hours worked per week, caregiving and personal care assistance (especially for children or grandchildren under 18 years old), and the nonwork activities of spending time with friends and household activities. The current findings showed that lower interference and higher enhancement were associated with the following 10 characteristics (listed in order starting with greatest significance): (1) not providing personal care assistance to children or grandchildren under 18, (2) being self-employed, (3) older age, (4) not being a primary caregiver for children or grandchildren under 18, (5) not ranking household activities as a top nonwork activity, (6) providing personal care assistance to a friend or relative (not a spouse or parent), (7) working fewer hours each week, (8) spending time with friends as a top nonwork activity, (9) lack of major health problems, and (10) greater household income.

The extant literature on work-family interface and work-nonwork interaction has suggested the importance of considering the impact of individual differences, such as age, gender, ethnicity, education, income, personality, nonwork domains, role quality, and family structure – including parental status, marital status, and dependent care (Eby et al., 2005; Fisher et al., 2009; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Numerous authors have noted the limited research on individual differences, such as diversity variables (e.g., age, ethnicity, education, income, marital status, parental status), in the work-family literature, and also

stressed the importance for future research to include such factors (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007; Fisher et al., 2009; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). The current study attempted to explore the relationships between individual demographic variables and work-nonwork interaction. However, the sample obtained had limited or minimal demographic variability of certain characteristics (e.g., ethnicity, education level, income), which prevented the ability to obtain significant differences or similarities for those characteristics.

In terms of work characteristics, the current study suggested that self-employment, working fewer hours, and greater household income were related to more enhancement and less interference between the domains of work and personal life. Research on working women aged 50 years and older suggested that they had greater autonomy of their work schedules than younger women (Gordon et al., 2007), and it has been suggested that greater control of work schedule may contribute to managing the demands of work and family more easily (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). It has been noted in the literature that aging women with financial difficulties may struggle with managing work and caregiving responsibilities (Ackerman & Banks, 2007), which, in concert with the current research, suggests that income (or financial status) may be significantly related to work-nonwork interaction.

Regarding personal characteristics, the current study indicated that being older and not having major health problems were also related to greater enhancement and lower interference between both work life and personal life domains. This finding corresponds to research showing that older women reported less difficulty managing

work and family roles than their younger counterparts (Gordon et al., 2003). Literature focused on women over 50 has also noted that health issues may increase the strain of managing work and caregiving responsibilities (Ackerman & Banks, 2007). Thus, it appears that major health problems could be related to work-nonwork interaction and the current results hint at the potential value of exploring this issue in future research.

Several caregiving characteristics also appeared related to work-nonwork interaction in the current study. Not providing caregiving or personal care assistance to children or grandchildren under 18, and providing personal care assistance to a friend or relative were related to greater enhancement and less interference between work and personal life. Lifespan work-family interaction research has suggested that mid-life women's greater dependent care responsibilities help to explain the increased difficulty of managing work and family responsibilities for this age-group of women (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Gordon et al., 2003). The current finding on the potential impact of caring for young children or grandchildren on work-nonwork interaction appears to correspond with previous findings that grandparents who are raising children have reported role overload (Ackerman & Banks, 2007; Baltes & Young, 2009; Gordon et al., 2003; Lero & Lewis, 2008). Although providing caregiving or personal care assistance to children or grandchildren under 18 appeared related to work-nonwork interaction in the current study, participants' reported number of children did not demonstrate a statistically significant relationship with work-nonwork interaction variables. These findings could point to the importance of role quality, rather than role involvement, suggested in previous research on work-family interaction (Eby et al., 2005; Stephens et

al., 1997) and literature on theoretical models for conceptualizing the work-family interface (Voydanoff, 2008). Research on aging women's work-life interaction has shown that women reported making deliberate choices about their responsibilities in various life domains (e.g., work, family, personal; Gordon et al., 2007). Furthermore, research on engaging in work and eldercare roles has noted the value of considering not only strain, but benefits of multiple role engagement, such as feelings of accomplishment and confidence (Baltes & Young, 2009). The current finding suggesting a potential relationship between providing personal care assistance to a friend or other relative and work-nonwork interaction may indicate that older women are more likely to intentionally choose this type of caregiving role and experience greater benefits from participating in this caregiving role. The current findings also help to highlight the importance of considering the current increase of caregiving roles for aging women.

The nonwork activities of spending time with friends as a top activity, and not having household tasks as a primary activity, were related to greater enhancement and less interference between the work and personal life domains. Close friendships and social support have been shown to be important to many older women, and have a significant impact on their well-being (Adams, 2001; Scott, 2001) and career development (Bimrose et al., 2013). Research on women's work-family interaction has also shown the importance of partner support and family support, particularly in managing household activities and providing emotional support, for balancing work and family demands (Cheung & Halpern, 2010; Gordon et al., 2003). In general, older women often value personal life responsibilities and interests as much as, or more than,

they value career success (Gordon et al., 2003). The impacts of individual characteristics (e.g., work characteristics, personal characteristics, caregiving roles, nonwork activities) should be further studied in relation to work-nonwork interaction, particularly for older working women.

Caregiving Roles and Work-Life Interference

Existing research suggests that working women spend more time than working men on caregiving responsibilities, and tend to report higher levels of caregiver strain than their male counterparts (Lero & Lewis, 2008). As women age, the likelihood that they will provide eldercare increases (Gordon et al., 2003). Further, the percentage of aging women providing care for family and friends, including grandchildren, parents, and partners, has been increasing (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Gordon et al., 2003). Research has shown that eldercare responsibilities are linked to work-family conflict (Allen & Shockley, 2012), and can contribute to women leaving work permanently (Ackerman & Banks, 2007; Lero & Lewis, 2008; Pavalko & Henderson, 2006).

In the current study, being a primary caregiver was related to greater personal life interference with work (PLIW), but not to work interference with personal life (WIPL). When considering the number of primary caregiving roles, there was also a positive correlation with PLIW, but not with WIPL. Thus, a greater number of primary caregiving roles was associated with increased experiences of personal life interfering with work. This finding indicates that those individuals who are primary caregivers experience strain on their work lives as a result of their personal lives. Being a primary caregiver, regardless of the number of roles, was not associated with increased WIPL in

the current study. Because the type and amount of caregiving provided by aging adults may vary significantly, primary caregiving roles and personal care assistance roles were differentiated in the current study. Providing personal care assistance, which may describe secondary caregivers or others who provide significant care without the primary responsibility for care, was not related to increased WIPL in the current study. Providing personal care assistance was related to increased PLIW in the current study. However, fulfilling a greater number of personal care assistance roles was not related to increased PLIW. This finding indicates that individuals who provide personal care assistance may experience greater strain on their work lives as a result of their personal lives.

These findings are discrepant from previous literature reporting greater work interference with family related to caregiving (Stephens et al., 1997), and simultaneous high child-care and parent-care demands (Allen & Shockley, 2012). Several explanations for this finding are possible. For example, older women may have greater work flexibility due to greater seniority or choice of work, which could reduce the frequency of work interference with personal life. Women's perceived intentionality or control over their work lives, or having high satisfaction with work life, could also reduce their perceived work life interference with personal life. Still, the current findings appear to correspond with previous findings that there are negative work-related outcomes for women providing caregiving (Stephens et al., 1997), and for people fulfilling intergenerational caregiving roles (Allen & Shockley, 2012) and higher parent-care demands (Neal & Hammer, 2007). Recent research from the United Kingdom has focused on the impact of caregiving on older working women, noting the growth in the

number of aging women and grandparents who are fulfilling caregiving roles while working (Ben-Galim & Silim, 2013). The authors emphasized the importance of creating policy that enables older women to better balance work and caring to extend their time in the workforce and benefit individual women, their families, and society (Ben-Galim & Silim, 2013).

In the current study, a greater number of primary caregiving roles corresponded with greater perceived frequency of personal life interference with work. Having primary responsibility for the care of another person, or providing personal care assistance, was also related to increased perceived frequency of personal life interference with work. The existing literature on the impact of caregiving on work-life interaction for older working women is limited. However, the literature does note the increasing number of older women who provide caregiving, and the importance of considering the implications of these responsibilities. The current results suggest that older working women provide primary caregiving and personal care assistance, and these roles may have significant negative impacts on their work lives. Additionally, older working women sometimes provide caregiving and personal care assistance for multiple people, such as grandchildren, parents, or partners. Fulfilling multiple care roles may lead to even greater perceived negative impacts of personal life on work for women in this age group.

Primary Nonwork Activities

To gain a sense of the types of nonwork activities in which women engaged, participants were asked to rank the top three nonwork activities in which they spend the most time. To explore patterns of the top activities identified, the percentages of each

activity were calculated. While all of the categories were ranked by at least some participants, there were substantial differences in the number of times each type of activity was ranked in the top three. Two-thirds of participants ranked household activities in the top three, over half ranked spending time with a significant other, and just under half ranked family activities. Just over one-third of participants ranked hobbies and recreation, and the same percentage ranked physical and mental health activities. Around one-quarter of participants ranked spending time with friends, fewer ranked community activities, and the category of educational activities was ranked the least.

It is important to note that several participants ranked more than three activities, and one participant ranked only one. Those responses were excluded from the analysis. However, there are potential explanations for these differences in responding. It is possible participants misread the question or the difference was due to simple response error. It is also possible participants intentionally chose more than three activities, for example, to accurately represent their lived experiences of nonwork activities in which they spend the most time. Perhaps they divide their time equally between more than three nonwork domains. Several of the nonwork activities focus on time spent with other people, and it is possible that the time spent with people in these groups (e.g., family and significant other) overlap, and both were selected by participants to represent their experiences. It could be that some participants spend substantial time on activities they do not enjoy, and wanted to represent the domains in which they prefer to spend the most time. In the current study, the possible reasons for responding in a way that differed from the prompt are numerous and unknown. Still, the response pattern indicates that older

women spend their time on activities from various domains, and it is likely that many of these nonwork domains are relevant to the work-life interaction experiences of aging women.

Previous research on work interference with life, where nonwork life included multiple domains (which were used to measure nonwork activities in the current study), found that women reported higher work interference with life than men (Keeney et al., 2013). Researchers also found that work interference with each of the eight life domains (i.e., physical and mental health activities, family activities, household activities, spending time with friends, educational activities, spending time with significant other, community activities, and hobbies and recreation) significantly predicted outcomes, such as work attitudes (Keeney et al., 2013). Researchers have suggested that involvement in a variety of nonwork activities could enhance both the work and family domains (Kirchmeyer, 1992a; Voydanoff, 2005a), and that activities other than family could interfere with work (Fisher et al., 2009). In the current study, ranking household activities as a top nonwork activity appeared related to low interference and high enhancement, whereas ranking spending time with friends as a top nonwork activity appeared related to lower interference and higher enhancement. These preliminary findings suggest the possibility of significant relationships between bi-directional, positive and negative work-nonwork interaction and nonwork activities, other than just family. The results of this study show that there are numerous areas of nonwork activity in which older working women spend their time. There are also individual differences in the activities in which older working women spend the most time. Research focused on

work-nonwork interaction is broader than work-family research alone, and allows for examining the experiences of diverse individuals with different interests, family structures, and work lives.

Implications for Theory

The work-family interface has been researched across numerous disciplines, but criticism of this research has focused on the lack of theoretical foundations and theory testing (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007; Neal & Hammer, 2007; Voydanoff, 2008). A review of literature on theories of work-family and work-life interface revealed several overlapping themes. These themes demonstrate potential for developing an integrated theory to understand work-life interaction. At the core of theories on the work-life interface are roles and role expectations, with a focus on interference and enhancement between roles (Fisher et al., 2009; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Hanson et al., 2006; Neal & Hammer, 2007). The extant literature also suggests attending to the mediating or moderating impacts of larger systems (e.g., social structures; Lero & Lewis, 2008; Voydanoff, 2008), individual background characteristics (e.g., gender, social class, ethnicity; Sweet & Moen, 2006), and individual lifespan development (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Sweet & Moen, 2006) on work-life interaction. In the current study, the measure of work-nonwork interference and enhancement was based on role theory (Kahn et al., 1964), and conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which focus on the relationship between demands and resources in different role domains (Fisher et al., 2009). The current results demonstrated relationships between

work-nonwork interference and enhancement that were largely consistent with previous theory and research on work-family interaction.

The current survey also incorporated demographic questions focused on other life roles (e.g., caregiving), participants' personal and work characteristics, and nonwork activities, to explore the relationships between these characteristics and work-life interaction. Results of the current study did not show a statistically significant relationship between the overall set of demographics and work-life interaction variables. However, there were modest relationships between certain individual and work characteristics and work-nonwork interaction variables. Future research on work-life interaction should be grounded in theory to better test existing models that focus on roles, role quality and expectations, individual diversity, and systems. The current findings, along with prior research (e.g., Gordon et al., 2007), suggest that age is an important factor to consider when studying work-life interaction. Theories of a lifespan development model have been largely focused on midlife adults, particularly due to the increased number of caregiving roles among that age group. The current findings show that caregiving roles have a significant impact on personal life interfering with work for women aged 55 years and older. Increased attention to the lifespan development model of older workers' work-life interaction, including the increased caregiving roles and changing work patterns of this age group, appears warranted.

Recent research on work-life balance among Irish workers demonstrated that work-life balance was a concern for adult employees of various ages, not only for parents with young children (Darcy et al., 2012). The researchers also found that various

workplace factors (e.g., job involvement, perceived managerial support) had different relationships with work-life balance across the different age groups (Darcy et al., 2012). Additionally, theories of the work-life interface have incorporated roles outside of work and family (Voydanoff, 2008), but the research on nonwork roles outside of family is limited (Keeney et al., 2013). The current results indicate that working women aged 55 years and older spend significant time on numerous nonwork activities, and that the specific activities vary for each individual. Exploration of the interaction between various nonwork roles (e.g., friends, community, hobbies; Keeney et al., 2013) and work could provide greater insight into the diverse experiences of older working women. Further research on the positive and negative bi-directional work-life interaction for this age group is key to understanding the specific experiences and needs of this growing population.

Implications for Research

Previous research has indicated the value of expanding from work-family conflict and work-family issues to studying a broader nonwork domain, as well as negative and positive bi-directional work-life interaction (Fisher et al., 2009). The current study provides evidence that various nonwork roles, in addition to family, are significant in the lives of older working women. Future research focused on a broad nonwork domain, as in the current study, would allow for the ongoing inclusion of workers with diverse personal lives and family roles. Additionally, exploring the positive and negative bi-directional relationships between specific nonwork domains and work (Keeney et al., 2013) would provide a significant expansion to the existing work-life literature. The

extant literature has suggested the importance of studying individual diversity and systems level impacts on the work-life interface (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007; Fisher et al., 2009; Lero & Lewis, 2008; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002; Voydanoff, 2008). In the current study, the researcher attempted to explore personal and work factors related to work-nonwork interaction. However, the study sample was not as representative of the diversity of older working women as desired. Future research of a larger scale, in order to reach a more diverse, representative sample of older women, would allow for exploration of potentially significant differences in the relationships between individual and work characteristics and work-nonwork interaction. Recent research on spillover of interpersonal conflicts from work to nonwork showed that resilience and optimism were effective personal resources to help buffer the potential negative spillover of interpersonal conflicts at work (Martinez-Corts, Demerouti, Bakker, & Boz, 2015). Future research on the work-life interaction of older working women could incorporate these other personal or individual factors to examine the potential moderation of work-life interaction.

Caregiving is another significant area of study for work-life interaction, as research has shown that caregiving has a significant impact on the work outcomes of older adults (AARP, 2014). However, the focus of existing research has been primarily on outcomes for workplaces, rather than the work-life experiences of aging workers (AARP, 2014). Previous research on midlife and older women has suggested a need for studying how caregiving responsibilities impact work-family conflict and enhancement for this population (Gordon et al., 2007). The current study showed that caregiving was

related to personal life interference with work, particularly for women fulfilling multiple care roles. Previous research has demonstrated significant relationships between work-family conflict and stress, which may in turn contribute to negative physical and psychological outcomes (Baltes & Young, 2009), potentially creating additional role strain for older working women (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Lero & Lewis, 2008).

Recent research has expanded to explore the broader construct of work-life interaction as it relates to various work and personal outcomes. For example, *The Australian Work and Life Index* (Skinner & Pocock, 2014) examined gender differences in work-life experiences, the impact of providing eldercare on work-life outcomes, and the impact of work schedules and employment factors on work-life outcomes. This recent research in Australia revealed that women reported feeling more time pressured and less satisfied with work-life balance than men, and generally experienced worse work-life interference (Skinner & Pocock, 2014). The researchers also found that the majority of workers who were 45 years and older reported providing care and assistance to an elder (Skinner & Pocock, 2014). The authors reported that age was related to work-life interference, with a peak in the middle of work and family engagement (Skinner & Pocock, 2014). Their results suggested that flexible work arrangements supported health, well-being, and work-life outcomes (Skinner & Pocock, 2014). Women with caring responsibilities and young and middle-aged parents were more likely to request flexible work arrangements (Skinner & Pocock, 2014). Research from the United Kingdom has also emphasized the need for policy to support the growing population of older working women who are also providing care to younger and older individuals (Ben-Galim &

Silim, 2013). The number of older women simultaneously participating in the workforce and caregiving in the U.S. is increasing, similarly to increases in other countries. Based on these similarities, research from the United Kingdom or Australia, for example, can help inform future research on workplace improvement for older working women in the U.S. Future research on aging working women should also explore the benefits or positive effects of caregiving roles on work-life interaction (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Gordon et al., 2007; Stephens et al., 1994). Research has shown that the experience of greater positive spillover from work to caregiving among working women who were caring for aging parents was associated with greater psychological well-being (Stephens et al., 1997). Studying the positive and negative effects of caregiving on work-life interaction could provide insight into psychological outcomes for older working women, allowing for better attention to the needs of this population. Overall, the current study suggests ongoing research on work-life interaction and personal and work characteristics and caregiving is needed. Greater attention to the growing population of aging working women, including diverse participants, is recommended.

Implications for Training and Practice

It is important for practitioners to be aware of the diverse work-life interaction experiences of aging women. Participants in the current study were offered an opportunity to write comments at the end of the survey. Many of the participants' comments help illustrate issues that are relevant to training and practice in psychology. For example, numerous participants in the current study commented on retiring and career changes at age 55 years and older, which fits with the existing literature on

women's retirement (Allen & Shockley, 2012; Sugar, 2007). One participant stated, "after I retired I got another job"; another commented, "I only recently became self-employed as a result of the pressures working for someone else"; and a third participant suggested, "I think a good question would be whether someone has to work or does it by choice at 55 years or older." Literature suggesting a need for research on how to create workplaces that fit the needs of older workers (Lero & Lewis, 2008) also highlights the fact that many workplaces do not focus on the needs of older women. Demographic aging of the workforce (Lero & Lewis, 2008; Phillips & Siu, 2012) and issues, such as age bias (AARP, 2014; Cheung & Halpern, 2010; Posthuma et al., 2012; Whitehead, 2008), are important elements of vocational psychology and multicultural psychology training due to the implications for discrimination that older working women may encounter (APA, 2007). As one participant in the current study commented:

I'm stuck with a very time-consuming, stressful job that... negatively affects my life. I can't switch careers at my age although I've tried to for almost eight years. No one wants to take in an older worker who wants to start over in another line of work no matter how much education you have.

Individual contextual histories and the intersectionality of factors, such as age and gender, have also been noted as crucial to informing effective career guidance for women (Bimrose et al., 2013). The complex relationships between individual and cultural diversity factors and work-life are relevant to training and practice in the vocational and multicultural domains of counseling psychology.

Individual differences can also occur in terms of the roles older women fulfill. Work-family research has frequently brought attention to the importance of role salience, rather than role fulfillment alone (Cinamon & Rich, 2002; Eby et al., 2005; Super, 1980). Research on midlife and older women has emphasized the importance of career success, as well as social support and nonwork activities for working women (Bimrose et al., 2013; Gordon et al., 2003). In line with existing research on the continued importance and positive effects of work for older women (Gordon et al., 2007), several participants in the current study commented on their current satisfaction with work. One participant noted, “I find great satisfaction in success in work,” and another, “I work by choice because I enjoy what I do as a small business owner.” Research on women aged 50 years and older has shown that they often intentionally choose responsibilities in work, nonwork, and family domains (Gordon et al., 2007). Additionally, the current research aligns with previous findings on the importance of social support for older women, such as through friendships and partnerships (Adams, 2001; Bimrose et al., 2013; Newton & Keith, 2001; Scott, 2001). One participant in the current study wrote:

As a caregiver for 20+ years in my relationship I have always worked. ... The one thing that helps me to balance between home & work is having a support system of friends that step in when I am on travel. That helps me to keep my spirits up and focus on work. Without that support I could not do my job and stay balanced.

Women often have varied career paths that may be impacted by other significant life roles, such as caregiving (Moen, 2005). Issues, such as financial well-being (Cheung

& Halpern, 2010; Sugar, 2007), caregiving roles, household and family roles, and work characteristics, such as flexibility (Carlson et al., 2010; Gordon et al., 2003; Sugar, 2007; Whitehead, 2008), can all have intersecting impacts on the work-life interaction of older women (Allen & Shockley, 2012). In the current study, several women provided comments that relate to the interaction between multiple factors of work and personal life. For example:

Our employer in the last 3 years changed policy to allow workers to telecommute - or work from home. This change has dramatically impacted my work-life balance, I was spending 3 hours a day commuting and not able to get home at a reasonable hour. Now, I'm able to take care of personal errands, appointments during the work week which leaves time for hobbies and recreation on the weekends.

Another participant stated, "I work from home, with my husband...for adequate pay. We have significant retirement savings. These things are why it works." Individual differences in the importance of various life roles should be considered and incorporated into counseling practices to meaningfully meet the needs of older women. Furthermore, research has shown that older workers utilize more coping behaviors than their younger counterparts to manage multiple roles (Baltes & Young, 2009; Gordon et al., 2007). Attending to positive interactions between work and nonwork for this age group can inform strengths-based approaches to counseling older working women on issues of work and life transitions and adjustment. Overall, the attention to individual differences in salient life roles and diversity should inform practice with older working women.

A recent article published in the *American Psychologist* emphasized how psychology as a profession is under-prepared to meet the increasing health care demands of the growing aging population in the U.S. (Hoge, Karel, Zeiss, Alegria, & Moye, 2015). Recent public policy recommendations have urged the increased training and recruitment of mental health professionals, including psychologists, to work with older adults (Institute of Medicine, 2012). Recommendations for psychology training include exposing students early-on during training to normal aging and illness in aging to provide a base of knowledge in geriatric health (Hoge et al., 2015). Furthermore, it has been suggested that core competencies in the care of older adults should be identified and incorporated into psychology graduate training (Hoge et al., 2015). Courses on psychology of women and vocational psychology provide an opportunity for training about women's lifespan career development. The literature on aging women and work highlights the significant changes occurring in the workforce, family structures, and career progression of this population, particularly within the U.S. (Albright, 2012; Allen & Shockley, 2012; Sugar, 2007; Whitehead, 2008). Training in psychology of women and vocational psychology should include recent research and literature on the specific issues that are prominent for aging working women. For example, women as a group are achieving higher levels of education and employment than ever before (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). There is also substantial diversity in career patterns (Albright, 2012; Quick & Moen, 1998; Sugar, 2007) and nonwork roles (Gordon et al., 2003; Keeney et al., 2013) among aging women. Within the field of counseling psychology, the American Psychological Association's (APA, 2007) *Guidelines for Psychological Practice with*

Girls and Women highlight the importance of recognizing the challenges faced by women, including workplace stressors, while also attending to resiliency and strength demonstrated by women faced with significant stressors. These guidelines also note the importance of awareness of many risk factors (e.g., problems with financial resources, biases due to disabilities associated with aging, and elder abuse) that are prevalent among the growing population of older women (APA, 2007). Acknowledging and understanding intersecting identities are key components of multicultural training and practice in counseling psychology (APA, 2003), and the intersection of gender and age in both the workplace and personal life domains is relevant to psychological practice with aging working women.

Limitations

Several limitations in the current study should be considered when interpreting the findings. One of the goals of this study was to explore how individual differences were related to work-life interaction. However, there was some homogeneity among the demographic characteristics of the sample. In particular, the sample obtained for the current study was comprised of mostly highly educated, White, heterosexual, married or partnered women with children, and a high socioeconomic status. These are significant factors to consider when examining the current results, especially since previous literature has demonstrated a lack of work-family research on ethnic minority individuals, single adults, single-parent families, extended families, and gay and lesbian families (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). The extant literature has noted that most work-family research has been done on

samples of White, professional or managerial employees, in dual-earner married couples (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007). The limited diversity among multiple demographic characteristics of the current sample makes it difficult or impossible to measure the correlation between those individual characteristics and work-life interface. For example, there were so few ethnic minority participants that a comparison of work-life interaction differences based on ethnicity could not be performed. Demographic heterogeneity of the sample also limits generalizability to the entire population of working women over 55 years old in the U.S. Nonetheless, future research should focus on utilizing measures of work-nonwork interaction with diverse participants because of the potential applicability to individuals with diverse work and personal characteristics.

Another limitation of the current study was the modest sample size. Some participants were not included in the canonical correlational analysis due to missing data. Thus, the reduced sample size limited the statistical power for the comparison of the set of demographic variables to the set of work-life interaction variables. Another possible limitation was the sampling method. Participants were recruited via online advertising and snowball sampling. Because the survey was online, the sample was limited to individuals with access to a computer and an Internet connection. Snowball sampling may have impacted the sample and results obtained. Furthermore, participants self-selected to participate in the survey, which could have impacted the results. Both participant self-selection and snowball sampling could also have narrowed the range of participants to those interested in the topic area and contributed to limited diversity in the

final sample. Future researchers could attempt to obtain a more diverse sample that better represents the overall population of older working women by using random sampling techniques.

Conclusion

Existing research on the work-life interaction of aging women is very limited, while the population of older working women in the U.S. is continuing to grow substantially. Simultaneously, the lives of aging women are shifting as a result of changes in educational attainment, career and workplace changes, increased care demands, social changes, and family and household changes. The current study contributes to this body of research by examining the perceptions of interference and enhancement between work and personal life for aging women. Increased research on the work-life interaction of older working women is needed to understand the work-life experiences of older working women, and to best meet their needs both within the workforce and outside of work. Workplaces that do not adapt to meet the needs of older workers are at risk for permanently losing workers. Additionally, psychologists and other mental health professionals who work with aging women must be aware of both the great diversity among this population, as well as the complex interactions between the different life domains that are salient for their clients.

REFERENCES

- AARP. (2014, January). *Staying ahead of the curve 2013: The AARP work and career study*. Washington, DC: Author.
- Ackerman, R. J., & Banks, M. E. (2007). Women over 50: Caregiving issues. In V. Muhlbauer & J. C. Chrisler (Eds.), *Women over 50: Psychological perspectives* (pp. 147-163). New York: Springer.
- Adams, R. G. (2001). Friendship patterns among older women. In J. M. Coyle (Ed.), *Handbook on women and aging* (pp. 400-417). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Albright, V. A. (2012). Workforce demographics in the United States: Occupational trends, work rates, and retirement projections in the United States. In J. W. Hedge & W. C. Borman (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of work and aging* (pp. 33-59). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Allen, T. D., & Shockley, K. M. (2012). Older workers and work-family issues. In J. W. Hedge & W. C. Borman (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of work and aging* (pp. 520-537). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- American Psychological Association. (2003). Guidelines on multicultural education, training, research, practice, and organizational change for psychologists. *American Psychologist*, 58, 377-402. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.58.5.377
- American Psychological Association. (2007). Guidelines for psychological practice with girls and women. *American Psychologist*, 62, 949-979. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.62.9.949

- Baltes, B. B., & Young, L. M. (2009). Aging and work/family issues. In K. S. Shultz & G. A. Adams (Eds.), *Aging and work in the 21st century* (pp. 251-275). New York, NY: Psychology Press.
- Ben-Galim, D., & Silim, A. (2013, August). *The sandwich generation: Older women balancing work and care*. Retrieved from Institute for Public Policy Research website:
http://www.ippr.org/files/images/media/files/publication/2013/08/sandwich-generation-August2013_11168_11168.pdf?noredirect=1
- Bielby, W. T., & Bielby, B. B. (1989). Family ties: Balancing commitments to work and family in dual earner households. *American Sociological Review*, 54, 776-789.
doi:10.2307/2117753
- Bimrose, J., McMahon, M., & Watson, M. (2013). Career trajectories of older women: Implications for career guidance. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 41, 587-601. doi:10.1080/03069885.2013.779639
- Burke, R. J. (2004). Work and personal life integration. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 11, 299-304. doi:10.1037/1072-5245.11.4.299
- Byron, K. (2005). A meta-analytic review of work-family conflict and its antecedents. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67, 169-198. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2004.08.009
- Carlson, D. S., & Grzywacz, J. G. (2008). Reflections and future directions on measurement in work-family research. In K. Korabik, D. S. Lero, & D. L. Whitehead (Eds.), *Handbook of work-family integration: Research, theory, and best practices* (pp. 57-73). Boston, MA: Academic Press.

- Carlson, D. S., Grzywacz, J. G., & Kacmar, K. M. (2010). The relationship of schedule flexibility and outcomes via the work-family interface. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25, 330-355. doi:10.1108/02683941011035278
- 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
- Carp, F. M. (2001). Retirement and women. In J. M. Coyle (Ed.), *Handbook on women and aging* (pp. 112-128). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Casper, W. J., Eby, L. T., Bordeaux, C., Lockwood, A., & Lambert, D. (2007). A review of research methods in IO/OB work-family research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 28-43. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.28
- Casper, W. J., Weltman, D., & Kwesiga, E. (2007). Beyond family-friendly: The construct and measurement of singles-friendly work culture. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 70, 478-501. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2007.01.001
- Cheung, F. M., & Halpern, D. F. (2010). Women at the top: Powerful leaders define success as work + family in a culture of gender. *American Psychologist*, 65, 182-193. doi:10.1037/a0017309
- Cinamon, R. G., & Rich, Y. (2002). Profiles of attribution of importance to life roles and their implications for the work-family conflict. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 49, 212-220. doi:10.1037//0022-0167.49.2.212

- Clark, S. C. (2000). Work/family border theory: A new theory of work/family balance. *Human Relations*, 53, 747-770. doi:10.1177/0018726700536001
- Colby, S. L., & Ortman, J. M. (2014). *The baby boom cohort in the United States: 2012 to 2060* (P25-1141). Retrieved from U.S. Census Bureau website: <http://www.census.gov/prod/2014pubs/p25-1141.pdf>
- Coyle, J. M. (2001). Conclusions and research implications. In J. M. Coyle (Ed.), *Handbook on women and aging* (pp. 465-467). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Darcy, C., McCarthy, A., Hill, J., & Grady, G. (2012). Work-life balance: One size fits all? An exploratory analysis of the differential effects of career stage. *European Management Journal*, 30, 111-120. doi:10.1016/j.emj.2011.11.001
- Denmark, F. L., & Klara, M. D. (2007). Empowerment: A prime time for women over 50. In V. Muhlbauer & J. C. Chrisler (Eds.), *Women over 50: Psychological perspectives* (pp. 182-203). New York: Springer.
- Eby, L. T., Casper, W. J., Lockwood, A., Bordeaux, C., & Brinley, A. (2005). Work and family research in IO/OB: Content analysis and review of the literature (1980-2002). *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66, 124-197. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2003.11.003
- 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, 178-199. doi:10.5465/AMR.2000.2791609

- Evans, P., & Bartolomé, F. (1984). The changing pictures of the relationship between career and family. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 5, 9-21.
doi:10.1002/job.4030050103
- Fisher, G. G., Bulger, C. A., & Smith, C. S. (2009). Beyond work and family: A measure of work/nonwork interference and enhancement. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 14, 441-456. doi:10.1037/a0016737
- 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, 65-78. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.77.1.65
- Goode, W. J. (1960). A theory of role strain. *American Sociological Review*, 25, 483-496. doi:10.2307/2092933
- Goodman, L. A. (1961). Snowball sampling. *The Annals of Mathematical Statistics*, 32, 148-170. doi:10.1214/aoms/1177705148
- Gordon, J. R., Litchfield, L. C., & Whelan-Berry, K. S. (2003). *Women at midlife and beyond: A glimpse into the future*. Retrieved from Boston College Center for Work and Family website:
<http://www.bc.edu/content/dam/files/centers/cwf/research/publications/pdf/midlifefinal.pdf>
- Gordon, J. R., Whelan-Berry, K. S., & Hamilton, E. A. (2007). The relationship among work-family conflict and enhancement, organizational work-family culture, and work outcomes for older working women. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12, 350-364. doi:10.1037/1076-8998.12.4.350

- Greenhaus, J. H., & Allen, T. D. (2010). Work-family balance: A review and extension of the literature. In J.C. Quick & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), *Handbook of occupational health psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 165-184). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 76-88. doi:10.2307/258214
- Greenhaus, J. H., Collins, K. M., & Shaw, J. D. (2003). The relation between work-family balance and quality of life. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 63, 510-531. doi:10.1016/S0001-8791(02)00042-8
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Parasuraman, S. (1999). Research on work, family, and gender: Current status and future directions. In G. N. Powell (Ed.), *Handbook of gender and work* (pp. 391-412). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- 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
- Grzywacz, J. G., & Carlson, D. S. (2007). Conceptualizing work-family balance: Implications for practice and research. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 9, 455-471. doi:10.1177/1523422307305487
- Grzywacz, J. G., Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., & Wayne, J. H. (2007). A multi-level perspective on the synergies between work and family. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80, 559-574. doi:10.1348/096317906X163081

- 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*, 111-126. doi:10.1037//1076-8998.5.1.111
- Hall, D. T., & Richter, J. (1988). Balancing work life and home life: What can organizations do to help? *Academy of Management Review, 2*, 213-223. doi:10.5465/AME.1988.4277258
- Halpern, D. F., & Murphy, S. E. (2005). *From work-family balance to work-family interaction: Changing the metaphor* [Adobe Digital Editions version]. Retrieved from <http://ezproxy.twu.edu>
- Hanson, G. C., Hammer, L. B., & Colton, C. L. (2006). Development and validation of a multidimensional scale of perceived work-family positive spillover. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11*, 249-265. doi:10.1037/1076-8998.11.3.249
- Harrington, B., & Ladge, J. J. (2009). Work-life integration: Present dynamics and future directions for organizations. *Organizational Dynamics, 38*, 148-157. doi:10.1016/j.orgdyn.2009.02.003
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 44*, 513-524. Retrieved from PsycARTICLES database.
- Hoge, M. A., Karel, M. J., Zeiss, A. M., Alegria, M., & Moye, J. (2015). Strengthening psychology's workforce for older adults: Implications of the Institute of

Medicine's report to Congress. *American Psychologist*, 70, 265-278.

doi:10.1037/a0038927

Institute of Medicine. (2012, July). *The mental health and substance use workforce for older adults: In whose hands?* (Report Brief). Washington, DC: National Academies Press.

Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., Snoek, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964). *Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Keeney, J., Boyd, E. M., Sinha, R., Westring, A. F., & Ryan, A. M. (2013). From "work-family" to "work-life": Broadening our conceptualization and measurement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 82, 221-237. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2013.01.005

Kelloway, E. K., Gottlieb, B. H., & Barham, L. (1999). The source, nature, and direction of work and family conflict: A longitudinal investigation. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 4, 337-346. doi:10.1037/1076-8998.4.4.337

Khallash, S., & Kruse, M. (2012). The future of work and work-life balance 2025. *Futures*, 44, 678-686. doi:10.1016/j.futures.2012.04.007

Kirchmeyer, C. (1992a). Nonwork participation and work attitudes: A test of scarcity vs. expansion models of personal resources. *Human Relations*, 45, 775-795. doi:10.1177/001872679204500802

Kirchmeyer, C. (1992b). Perceptions of nonwork-to-work spillover: Challenging the common view of conflict-ridden domain relationships. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 13, 231-249. doi:10.1207/s15324834basp1302_7

- Kromer, B., & Howard, D. (2013). *Labor force participation and work status of people 65 years and older* (ACSB/11-09). Retrieved from U.S. Census Bureau website: <http://www.census.gov/prod/2013pubs/acsbr11-09.pdf>
- Lero, D. S., & Lewis, S. (2008). Assumptions, research gaps and emerging issues: Implications for research, policy and practice. In K. Korabik, D. S. Lero, & D. L. Whitehead (Eds.), *Handbook of work-family integration: Research, theory, and best practices* (pp. 371-397). Boston, MA: Academic Press.
- Marks, S. R. (1977). Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time and commitment. *American Sociological Review*, 42, 921-936. Retrieved from SocINDEX database.
- 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* (pp. 41-65). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Martinez-Corts, I., Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., & Boz, M. (2015). Spillover of interpersonal conflicts from work into nonwork: A daily diary study. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 20, 326-337. doi:10.1037/ocp0000011
- Matlin, M. W. (2008). *The psychology of women* (6th ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.

- Matthews, R. A., Barnes-Farrell, J. L., & Bulger, C. A. (2010). Advancing measurement of work and family domain boundary characteristics. *Journal Vocational Behavior*, 77, 447-460. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2010.05.008
- McNamara, T. K., Pitts-Catsoupes, M., Matz-Costa, C., Brown, M., & Valcour, M. (2013). Across the continuum of satisfaction with work-family balance: Work hours, flexibility-fit, and work-family culture. *Social Science Research*, 42, 283-298. doi:10.1016/j.ssresearch.2012.10.002
- Milkie, M. A., & Peltola, P. (1999). Playing all the roles: Gender and the work-family balancing act. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 61, 476-490. doi:10.2307/353763
- Moen, P. (2005). Beyond the career mystique: "Time in," "time out," and "second acts." *Sociological Forum*, 20, 189-208. doi:10.1007/s11206-005-4100-8
- Neal, M. B., & Hammer, L. B. (2007). *Working couples caring for children and aging parents: Effects on work and well-being*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Newton, R. L., & Keith, P. M. (2001). Single women in later life. In J. M. Coyle (Ed.), *Handbook on women and aging* (pp. 385-399). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Ortman, J. M., Velkoff, V. A., & Hogan, H. (2014). *An aging nation: The older population in the United States* (P25-1140). Retrieved from U.S. Census Bureau website: <http://www.census.gov/prod/2014pubs/p25-1140.pdf>

- Parasuraman, S., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2002). Toward reducing some critical gaps in work-family research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12, 299-312. doi:10.1016/S1053-4822(02)00062-1
- Parkman, A. M. (2004). Bargaining over housework: The frustrating situation of secondary wage earners. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 63, 765-794. doi:10.1111/j.1536-7150.2004.00316.x
- Pavalko, E. K., & Henderson, K. A. (2006). Combining care work and paid work: Do workplace policies make a difference? *Research on Aging*, 28, 359-374. doi:10.1177/0164027505285848
- Perrone, K. M., & Worthington, E. L., Jr. (2001). Factors influencing ratings of marital quality by individuals within dual-career marriages: A conceptual model. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 48, 3-9. doi:10.1037//0022-0167.48.1.3
- Phillips, D. R., & Siu, O. (2012). Global aging and aging workers. In J. W. Hedge & W. C. Borman (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of work and aging* (pp. 11-32). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Pitts-Catsouphe, M., Kossek, E. E., & Sweet, S. (2006). Charting new territory: Advancing multi-disciplinary perspectives, methods, and approaches in the study of work and family. In M. Pitt-Catsouphe, E. E. Kossek, & S. Sweet (Eds.), *The work and family handbook: Multi-disciplinary perspectives, methods, and approaches* (pp. 1-16). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Posthuma, R. A., Wagstaff, M. F., & Campion, M. A. (2012). Age stereotypes and workplace age discrimination: A framework for future research. In J. W. Hedge

- & W. C. Borman (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of work and aging* (pp. 298-312). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Quick, H. E., & Moen, P. (1998). Gender, employment, and retirement quality: A life course approach to the differential experiences of men and women. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 3, 44-64. doi:10.1037/1076-8998.3.1.44
- Rife, J. C. (2001). Middle-aged and older women in the work force. In J. M. Coyle (Ed.), *Handbook on women and aging* (pp. 93-111). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Scott, J. P. (2001). Family relationships of midlife and older women. In J. M. Coyle (Ed.), *Handbook on women and aging* (pp. 367-384). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Sharf, R. S. (2010). *Applying career development theory to counseling* (5th ed.). Belmont, CA: Brooks Cole.
- Shockley, K. M., & Allen, T. D. (2010). Investigating the missing link in flexible work arrangement utilization: An individual difference perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 76, 131-142. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2009.07.002
- Sieber, S. D. (1974). Toward a theory of role accumulation. *American Sociological Review*, 39, 567-578. doi:10.1126/science.135.3503.554
- Skinner, N., & Pocock, B. (2014). *The Australian Work and Life Index 2014. The persistent challenge: Living, working and caring in Australia in 2014*. Retrieved from University of South Australia website: http://www.unisa.edu.au/documents/eass/cwl/publications/awali_2014_national_report_final.pdf

- 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
- Stephens, M. A. P., Franks, M. M., & Atienza, A. A. (1997). Where two roles intersect: Spillover between parent care and employment. *Psychology and Aging*, 12, 30-37. doi:10.1037/0882-7974.12.1.30
- Sugar, J. A. (2007). Work and retirement: Challenges and opportunities for women over 50. In V. Muhlbauer & J. C. Chrisler (Eds.), *Women over 50: Psychological perspectives* (pp. 164-181). New York, NY: Springer.
- Super, D. E. (1953). A theory of vocational development. *American Psychologist*, 8, 185-190. doi:10.1037/h0056046
- Super, D. E. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 16, 282-298. doi:10.1016/0001-8791(80)90056-1
- Sweet, S., & Moen, P. (2006). Advancing a career focus on work and the family: Insights from the life course perspective. In M. Pitt-Catsouphes, E. E. Kossek, & S. Sweet (Eds.), *The work and family handbook: Multi-disciplinary perspectives, methods, and approaches* (pp. 189-208). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Thompson, C. A., Beauvais, L. L., & Allen, T. D. (2006). Work and family from an industrial/organizational psychology perspective. In M. Pitt-Catsouphes, E. E. Kossek, & S. Sweet (Eds.), *The work and family handbook: Multi-disciplinary*

- perspectives, methods, and approaches* (pp. 283-307). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Voydanoff, P. (2004). The effects of work demands and resources on work-to-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 66, 398-412.
doi:10.1111/j.1741-3737.2004.00028.x
- Voydanoff, P. (2005a). Social integration, work-family conflict and facilitation, and job and marital quality. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67, 666-679.
doi:10.1111/j.1741-3737.2005.00161.x
- Voydanoff, P. (2005b). Toward a conceptualization of perceived work-family fit and balance: A demands and resources approach. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67, 822-836. doi:10.1111/j.1741-3737.2005.00178.x
- Voydanoff, P. (2008). A conceptual model of the work-family interface. In K. Korabik, D. S. Lero, & D. L. Whitehead (Eds.), *Handbook of work-family integration: Research, theory, and best practices* (pp. 37-55). Boston, MA: Academic Press.
- Wang, Y., & Marcotte, D. E. (2007). Golden years? The labor market effects of caring for grandchildren. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 69, 1283-1296.
doi:10.1111/j.1741-3737.2007.00447.x
- Wayne, J. H., Grzywacz, J. G., Carlson, D. S., & Kacmar, K. M. (2007). Work-family facilitation: A theoretical explanation and model of primary antecedents and consequences. *Human Resource Management Review*, 17, 63-76.
doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2007.01.002

- Wayne, J. H., Musica, N., & Fleeson, W. (2004). Considering the role of personality in the work-family experience: Relationships of the big five to work-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 64, 108-130.
doi:10.1016/S0001-8791(03)00035-6
- Westman, M., & Piotrkowski, C. S. (1999). Introduction to the special issue: Work-family research in occupational health psychology. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 4, 301-306. doi:10.1037/1076-8998.4.4.301
- Wharton, A. S. (2006). Understanding diversity of work 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* (pp. 17-39). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Whitehead, D. L. (2008). Historical trends in work-family: The evolution of earning and caring. In K. Korabik, D. S. Lero, & D. L. Whitehead (Eds.), *Handbook of work-family integration: Research, theory, and best practices* (pp. 13-35). Boston, MA: Academic Press.
- Whitehead, D. L., Korabik, K., & Lero, D. S. (2008). Work-family integration: Introduction and overview. In K. Korabik, D. S. Lero, & D. L. Whitehead (Eds.), *Handbook of work-family integration: Research, theory, and best practices* (pp. 3-11). Boston, MA: Academic Press.

Wiese, B. S., Seiger, C. P., Schmid, C. M., & Freund, A. M. (2010). Beyond conflict:

Functional facets of the work-family interplay. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*,

77, 104-117. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2010.02.011

Zedeck, S. (1992). Introduction: Exploring the domain of work and family concerns. In

S. Zedeck (Ed.), *Work, families, and organizations* (pp. 1-32). San Francisco,

CA: Jossey-Bass.

APPENDIX A

Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale

Work-Nonwork Interference and Enhancement Scale

Instructions: Using the scale provided, please respond to each statement by indicating the frequency with which you have felt this way during the last three months.

	Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost all of the time
1. I come home from work too tired to do things I would like to do.	1	2	3	4	5
2. My job makes it difficult to maintain the kind of personal life I would like.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I often neglect my personal needs because of the demands of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My personal life suffers because of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have to miss out on important personal activities due to the amount of time I spend doing work.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My personal life drains me of the energy I need to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
7. My work suffers because of everything going on in my personal life.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I would devote more time to work if it weren't for everything I have going on in my personal life.	1	2	3	4	5

9. I am too tired to be effective at work because of things I have going on in my personal life.	1	2	3	4	5
10. When I'm at work, I worry about things I need to do outside work.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I have difficulty getting my work done because I am preoccupied with personal matters at work.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My job gives me energy to pursue activities outside of work that are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Because of my job, I am in a better mood at home.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The things I do at work help me deal with personal and practical issues at home.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I am in a better mood at work because of everything I have going for me in my personal life.	1	2	3	4	5
16. My personal life gives me the energy to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My personal life helps me relax and feel ready for the next day's work.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B

Demographic Questionnaire

Demographic Questionnaire

1. Age:

What is your age?

2. Gender:

What is your gender?

Woman

Man

Transgender

Other

3. Ethnicity:

What is your ethnicity?

African/African American/Black

Asian/Asian American

Biracial

Caucasian/European/White

Hispanic/Latina

Multiracial/Multiethnic

Native American

4. Sexual Orientation:

What is your sexual orientation?

Bisexual

Heterosexual

Lesbian

5. Marital Status:

What is your current marital status?

Divorced

Married/Domestic Partnership

Separated

Single, Never Married

Widowed

6. Caregiver Status:

A **primary caregiver** is the person with primary responsibility for the health and welfare of another person, and provides care to that person on a daily basis.

Care may include assistance with activities of daily living (e.g., personal care, bathing, eating) or other instrumental activities of daily living, such as preparing meals, shopping for groceries, and housework.

Are you currently the primary caregiver for:

Children/Grandchildren, Under 18 years old	Yes/No
Adult Children	Yes/No
Parent/Elderly Relative	Yes/No
Spouse/Partner	Yes/No
Other Friend or Relative	Yes/No

7. Personal Care Assistance:

Personal care assistance is providing care assistance to another person **without** the primary responsibility for the health and welfare of that person.

Care may include assistance with activities of daily living (e.g., personal care, bathing, eating) or other instrumental activities of daily living, such as preparing meals, shopping for groceries, and housework.

Are you currently providing personal care assistance to:

Children/Grandchildren, Under 18 years old	Yes/No
Adult Children	Yes/No
Parent/Elderly Relative	Yes/No
Spouse/Partner	Yes/No
Other Friend or Relative	Yes/No

8. Parent Status:

How many children do you have?

10. Health Status:

Do you currently have any major health issues or concerns? Yes/No

11. Income:

What is your approximate yearly household income?

\$0 - \$19,999

\$20,000 - \$39,999

\$40,000 - \$59,999
\$60,000 - \$79,999
\$80,000 - \$99,999
\$100,000 and above
Prefer not to answer

12. Education Completed:

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

Some high school
High school diploma/equivalent
Some college
Associate Degree
Bachelor's Degree
Master's Degree
Doctorate Degree

13. Employment Status:

What is your current employment status?

Employed for wages
Retired
Self-employed
Unemployed

14. Hours Worked:

How many hours, on average, do you work each week?

Less than 30 hours a week
30-39 hours a week
40-49 hours a week
50+ hours a week

15. Out of the following list, please select the **top three nonwork activities you spend time doing:**

Physical and Mental Health Activities
Family Activities
Household Activities
Spending Time with Friends
Educational Activities
Spending Time with Significant Other
Community Activities
Hobbies/Recreation

APPENDIX C

Request for Participation

Request for Participation

Dear Potential Participant,

My name is Sasha Dessy, and I am a doctoral candidate in the Counseling Psychology program at Texas Woman's University. I am currently conducting my dissertation research and would greatly appreciate your assistance.

I am investigating work-life interference and enhancement experiences for working women aged 55 years and older. I hope that the results of this study will provide valuable information regarding the work-life interaction of women in this age group.

Participants must be women, aged 55 years or older, who are currently working an average of 30 hours or more per week. Participation in this study will take approximately 15 minutes and is completely voluntary and confidential. Participants who are interested in the study's findings can contact the principal investigator to request a summary of the findings. If you are interested in participating, you can log onto the website designated below.

I hope to reach many women with diverse lives and experiences to include in this study. I am asking for help to reach as many interested individuals as possible. I would greatly appreciate it if you could take a minute to forward this email to any other women you know who may be interested in participating in this study.

The research study website address is: (web address to be determined).

Sasha M. Dessy, M.A.
Doctoral Candidate and Principal Investigator
Counseling Psychology
Texas Woman's University
Email: sdessy@twu.edu

Linda Rubin, Ph.D.
Faculty Advisor/Licensed Psychologist
Counseling Psychology
Department of Psychology and Philosophy
Texas Woman's University
Phone:
Email: LRubin@twu.edu

APPENDIX D

Advertising Link

CALL FOR PARTICIPANTS

Online Survey on Work-Life Interaction

Working Women Aged 55 and Older

<https://www.psychdata.com/s.asp?SID=164013>

APPENDIX E

Flier Request for Participation

CALL FOR PARTICIPANTS
Online Survey on Work-Life Interaction
Working Women Aged 55 and Older

Dear Potential Participant,

My name is Sasha Dessy, and I am a doctoral candidate in the Counseling Psychology program at Texas Woman's University. I am currently conducting my dissertation research and would greatly appreciate your assistance.

I am investigating work-life interference and enhancement experiences for working women aged 55 years and older. I hope that the results of this study will provide valuable information regarding the work-life interaction of women in this age group.

Participants must be women, aged 55 years or older, who are currently working an average of 30 hours or more per week. Participation in this study will take *approximately 15 minutes* and is *completely voluntary and confidential*. Participants who are interested in the study's findings can contact the principal investigator to request a summary of the findings. If you are interested in participating, you can visit the website designated below.

I hope to reach many women with diverse lives and experiences to include in this study. I am asking for help to reach as many interested individuals as possible. I would greatly appreciate it if you could take a minute to pass along this information to any other women you know who may be interested in participating in this study.

The research study website address is: <https://www.psychdata.com/s.asp?SID=164013>
Feel free to take one of the tabs at the bottom of this page.

Sasha M. Dessy, M.A.
Principal Investigator
Doctoral Candidate
Counseling Psychology
Texas Woman's University
Philosophy
Email: sdessy@twu.edu
Phone: 940-898-2314
Email: LRubin@twu.edu

Linda Rubin, Ph.D.
Faculty Advisor
Licensed Psychologist
Counseling Psychology
Department of Psychology and
Texas Woman's University

Work-Life Interaction Survey https://www.psychdata.com/s.asp?SID=164013
Work-Life Interaction Survey https://www.psychdata.com/s.asp?SID=164013
Work-Life Interaction Survey https://www.psychdata.com/s.asp?SID=164013
Work-Life Interaction Survey https://www.psychdata.com/s.asp?SID=164013
Work-Life Interaction Survey https://www.psychdata.com/s.asp?SID=164013
Work-Life Interaction Survey https://www.psychdata.com/s.asp?SID=164013
Work-Life Interaction Survey https://www.psychdata.com/s.asp?SID=164013
Work-Life Interaction Survey https://www.psychdata.com/s.asp?SID=164013
Work-Life Interaction Survey https://www.psychdata.com/s.asp?SID=164013

APPENDIX F

Informed Consent Form

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title: Work-Life Interaction Experiences in Women 55 Years of Age and Older

Principal Investigator: Sasha Dessy, M.A.	Faculty Advisor: Linda Rubin, Ph.D.
Email: sdessy@twu.edu	Telephone: 940/898-2314
	Email: lrubin@twu.edu

Explanation and Purpose of the Research

You are being asked to participate in a research study for Sasha Dessy, M.A., to fulfill a doctoral dissertation requirement at Texas Woman's University. The present study is being conducted under the direction of Linda Rubin, Ph.D. The purpose of this research study is to investigate the work-life interference and enhancement experiences of working women aged 55 years and older. The study will only be surveying women aged 55 years and older, who are currently working an average of 30 hours or more each week.

Research Procedures

If you agree to participate in the present study, you will be given a set of two short questionnaires. One questionnaire will ask you questions about how frequently you experience different impacts of work on personal life and personal life on work. The second questionnaire will ask you about demographic information, including information about your personal background and professional background. It is expected that your total time commitment for completing the study packet will be approximately 15 minutes. The maximum total time commitment for the study is estimated to be 20 minutes.

Confidentiality

Confidentiality will be protected to the extent that is allowed by the law. All of the answers that you provide in the questionnaires are anonymous and you will not be asked to provide any identifying information at any point during the study. No one will have access to any data related to this study with the exception of the researcher, the faculty advisor, and three faculty committee members. The data collected in the present study will only be used for research purposes. These data may be used, not only for the principal investigator's doctoral dissertation, but also in future publications or presentations.

Potential Risks

There is a potential risk for loss of confidentiality in all Internet communications, including emails and downloads. Confidentiality will be protected as much as possible in

the following ways. Internet Provider addresses will not be accessed or traced. All of the survey pages are designed so that pressing the “Back” button will not result in the retrieval of data. The survey pages and the survey link will be encrypted and protected using 128-bit Secure Socket Layer Technology. All responses to the survey questions will be encrypted instantly and all data stored on the Psychdata server will stay stored until the principal investigator accesses them. The data can only be accessed by the principal investigator and the faculty advisor through the use of a username and password known only to them. It is possible for someone to view your responses if you do not exit your browser when you have completed the questionnaires. So, to ensure your confidentiality, please remember to close your browser once you have submitted your questionnaires, or if you choose not to participate.

All data collected will be stored in a secure location in the home of the primary investigator. All data stored on the hard drive of the principal investigator’s computer, or any mass storage device, will be destroyed within five years of completing the study. All files will be destroyed by erasing and/or deleting them off of the hard drive and mass storage devices. Any paper printouts of data will be destroyed using a paper shredder.

The potential risks or ill effect from participating in this study also include loss of time, fatigue while completing the survey, and some psychological discomfort and/or irritation at the questions being asked. If you feel uncomfortable or do not have time to complete the full survey, you may stop participating at any time without penalty. Participation in this study is voluntary.

The researchers will try to prevent any problem that could happen because of this research. You should let the researchers know at once if there is a problem and they will help you. However, TWU does not provide medical services or financial assistance for injuries that might happen because you are taking part in this research.

Benefits

A direct benefit of participating in this study is that you have the option of receiving a summary of the results upon completion of the study. The summary of results will be mailed to you if you request it. If you would like to request the results of the study, you may contact the principal investigator using the contact information provided above.

Questions Regarding the Study

If you have any questions regarding the research study you may contact the researcher or advisor. Contact numbers and email addresses for the principal investigator and faculty advisor are located at the top of this form. Please note that there is a risk of loss of confidentiality through all email transactions. You may contact the principal investigator or faculty advisor regardless of whether or not you complete the questionnaires, and any

questions you have cannot be traced back to any actual survey responses you answered. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in the research study or the way this study has been conducted, you may contact the Texas Woman's University Office of Research and Sponsored Programs at 940-898-3378 or via email at IRB@twu.edu. Please print a copy of this consent form for your own records and in case you need to refer to it in the future.

If you would like to proceed with participation in the study, please click the "Continue" button to acknowledge that you have read and consent to the information provided above. If you do not wish to complete the survey at this time, please close your browser and completely exit the program.