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WORK-LIFE INTERFACE AND LIFE SATISFACTION: URBAN-
RURAL DIFFERENCES AMONG PORTUGUESE TEACHERS

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Biographic note

Joana Macias Matos was born on the 25th April 1996 in Oporto, Portugal.

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In September 2017, Joana continued her academic path and started the master's in management also at FEP. During the first year of the master, she applied for the Erasmus program and studied a semester in Kedge Business School, in Bordeaux, France. When she returned, she did a curricular internship in a specialized recruitment company, where she was responsible for recruitment processes, competences assessments and market research.

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Abstract

The present research aims to explore the differences in work-life interface between urban and rural Portuguese teachers by analyzing their levels of work-life conflict and enrichment. Additionally, this study aims to explore urban-rural differences in life satisfaction, as well as the relationship between work-life conflict and enrichment and life satisfaction. To achieve these goals, a quantitative approach was employed and a survey about work-life interface and life satisfaction was used to collect data from Portuguese elementary, middle school and high school teachers living in urban and rural municipalities. The results indicate that there are no differences between the levels of work-life conflict, enrichment and life satisfaction for teachers living in urban and rural settlements. On the other hand, life satisfaction was found to be negatively predicted by the level of work-life conflict and positively predicted by one of the two directions of work-life enrichment. This study is the first attempt to empirically explore the influence of the degree of urbanization of the living location in work-life interface issues at a national level, having also relevant managerial implications.

Keywords: Work-life interface, Work-life conflict, Work-life enrichment, Work-life balance, Life satisfaction, Urban-rural

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Resumo

O presente estudo pretende explorar as diferenças na interface trabalho-vida entre Professores portugueses a residir em áreas urbanas e rurais, através da análise dos seus níveis de conflito e enriquecimento trabalho-vida. Adicionalmente, a presente investigação pretende explorar diferenças urbano-rural na satisfação com a vida, bem como a relação entre o conflito e enriquecimento trabalho-vida e a satisfação com a vida. De forma a alcançar estes objetivos, uma abordagem quantitativa foi aplicada e uma sondagem sobre a interface trabalho-vida e a satisfação com a vida foi utilizada para recolher dados de professores portugueses do ensino primário, básico e secundário a residir em freguesias quer urbanas quer rurais. Os resultados indicam a ausência de diferenças nos níveis de conflito, enriquecimento e satisfação com a vida em professores a residir em áreas urbanas e rurais. Por outro lado, há evidência de que a satisfação com a vida é negativamente afetada pelo nível de conflito trabalho-vida e positivamente afetada por uma das duas direções do enriquecimento trabalho-vida. Este estudo é a primeira tentativa em explorar a influência do grau de urbanização do local de residência na interface trabalho-vida ao nível nacional, tendo igualmente implicações relevantes para a gestão.

Palavras-chave: Interface trabalho-vida, Conflito trabalho-vida, Enriquecimento trabalho-vida, Equilíbrio trabalho-vida, Satisfação com a vida, Urbano-rural.

JEL-Códigos: M50

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1. Introduction

During the past decades, an increasing number of dual-earner partners and single parents in the workforce have led to a growing body of employees who face the challenge of juggling multiple roles in their lives and combine a career with parenthood, education, and other interests outside work, such as community roles, hobbies and leisure (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Greenhaus & Singh, 2004; Eurofound, 2018; Powell et al., 2019). Due to these transformations in the society, work-life interface (WLI) issues have become a subject of increasing interest for researchers in several academic fields.

Research shows that people who perceive balance between their work and life roles tend to be more satisfied with their life and experience better physical and mental health (e.g.: Allen et al., 2000; Haar et al, 2014). On the other hand, a good balance between work and nonwork domains was found to be associated with positive work-related outcomes such as higher job performance and organizational commitment and lower absenteeism and turnover intentions (Frone et al., 1997; Whiston & Cinamon, 2015).

Earlier studies in the work-life domain have addressed the negative effects of combining work and nonwork roles, namely the inter-role conflict or work-life conflict generated by this interface (Allen, 2012). While these negative aspects have been the most studied within the work-life literature, more recently, researchers have started to focus on the positive aspects of performing multiple roles by introducing new constructs, such as work-life enrichment or facilitation (Kacmar et al., 2014).

While there is an extensive research on the cross-national variations of work-life interface, little is known about urban-rural differences. In 2003, the first European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) was launched in 28 countries and included respondents who lived in rural as well as urban regions of these countries. This survey offered, for the first time, the opportunity to explore urban-rural differences in quality of life across the European Union (Shucksmith et al., 2009), namely regarding work-life issues. Although the results showed similar levels of work-life interface in rural and urban areas, the descriptive analyses were undertaken by clustering countries according to their GDP instead of handling data at an individual (country) level of analysis. Given that prior research shows that work-life issues are particularly sensitive to national contexts (e.g.: Lunau et al., 2014), different results in the urban-rural comparison are to be expected if the countries of a certain cluster are analyzed separately.

To address this research gap, this study examines the urban-rural differences of work-life conflict and enrichment in a single European country such as Portugal. So far and up to our knowledge, no previous studies have addressed this issue.

Regarding the Portuguese context, there are several urban-rural disparities that may account for different levels of work-life conflict (WLC) and enrichment (WLE) in both settlements, such as differences in commuting time, income level and number of single-parent households. On the other hand, data from the Eurostat (2013) reveal that people living in Portuguese cities generally show a higher level of overall life satisfaction than their compatriots living in rural areas. Since life satisfaction was found to be predicted by the levels of both work-life conflict and enrichment (e.g.: Greenhaus et al., 2003; McNall et al., 2010), different levels of life satisfaction may be accounted for differences in these variables. Therefore, this study also examines the life satisfaction of urban and rural inhabitants, and addresses the relationship between work-life conflict and enrichment and life satisfaction.

To attain these research objectives, this study targets Portuguese teachers for four main reasons. First, the challenges of combining work with nonwork are not the same across occupations, since the work hours, schedules and workload vary in each profession (Kossek & Lautsch, 2017). Therefore, by targeting one single occupational group one attains a more reliable comparison of urban-rural differences. Second, the teaching profession is characterized by high levels of burnout, stress and emotional exhaustion (Hakanen et al., 2006). Some of the main antecedents of these symptoms among Portuguese teachers rely on students' lack of motivation and inadequate behaviours, time pressure, excessive workload and low wages (Gomes et al., 2006; Rita et al., 2010). On the other hand, previous research shows that work-life conflict is negatively associated with the happiness and affective commitment of Portuguese teachers and positively related with their stress levels (Cecílio, 2016). Hence, work-life issues seem to be significantly relevant for this occupational group. Finally, Portuguese elementary, middle school and high school teachers are civil workers who share a similar career path and are ruled by the same human resource management practices, which assist in controlling for the influence of these variables over the relationship between WLI and life satisfaction.

This research follows a quantitative approach and a survey addressing WLI and life satisfaction was presented to Portuguese teachers living in urban as well as rural municipalities. Overall, 425 Portuguese teachers participated in this study.

The structure of this dissertation will proceed as follows. In the following chapter, it will be presented the existing literature regarding work-life interface and life satisfaction, followed

by some considerations about urban-rural differences in Europe and within the national context. In the third chapter, the theoretical model and hypotheses of this research will be presented. Chapter four describes the methodology and procedures used. Chapter five presents the results and chapter six addresses their discussion. Finally, chapter seven presents the main conclusions of this research as well as the practical contributions, theoretical limitations and suggestions for future research.

2. Literature Review

In this chapter, a review of the literature that is relevant for carrying out this study is made. The concepts of work-life conflict, enrichment and balance and life satisfaction are clarified and considerations about urban-rural differences across Europe and within the Portuguese national context are detailed.

2.1. Work-Life Interface

Over the past decades there has been an increase in the number of dual-career partners and single parents entering the workforce, which prompted a growing interest for work-life issues (Greenhaus & Singh, 2004; Powell et al., 2019). As a result of blurred gender roles, the “traditional family” has changed, with the most prevalent family structure becoming the dual earner married couple (Powell et al., 2019). Nowadays, more employees face the challenge of juggling multiple roles and combine a career with parenthood, education, and other interests outside work, such as community roles, religion, education, friendships, hobbies and leisure (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Eurofound, 2018).

Besides these demographic trends, there were other societal transformations that contributed to the growing attention paid to work-life issues. Due to advances in information technology, there has been an increasingly need for quick response times and constant availability, leading to an intensification of the work pressures and a dominance of work demands over private life (Guest, 2002). On the other hand, organizations are starting to realize the numerous benefits of having employees with a positive work-life balance. Thus, balanced workers allow companies to increase their ability to attract and retain talent, to increase their levels of productivity and satisfaction, as well as to lower their levels of absenteeism, turnover and burnout (Gurvis & Patterson, 2005). Finally, the entrance of the Millennials and Generation Y in the labour market has led to higher expectations about what the workplace should offer, namely regarding work-life balance issues.

Portuguese employees are not an exception, being increasingly concerned about work-life issues. In 2016, a Kelly Services study involving 7500 Portuguese employees revealed that 75% of the sample considered work-life balance as a decisive factor for switching jobs and 34% would sacrifice part of their salaries for more flexible work schedules. In 2018, a study conducted by the consulting company Michael Page involving 768 participants in Portugal, found that only 64,1% of the respondents were satisfied with their work-life balance. In this study, Portugal was also found to be one of the countries with the highest share of employees taking work home, with 78% of the respondents working outside normal hours and 61% of

them working on holidays. Thus, work and non-work are becoming more and more overlapping domains.

In the literature, there are several mechanisms linking work and non-work domains, namely the spill-over, compensation and border models. The spill-over theory postulates that, although there are physical and temporal boundaries between work and nonwork, employees' experiences in the job carry over into the nonwork sphere and vice-versa (Staines, 1980). According to this theory, the spill-over between work and nonwork domains can be either positive or negative (Lambert, 1990). For instance, when employees are having a rough day at work, it is likely for them to carry that bad mood when they return home, occurring a negative spill-over (Clark, 2000). The compensation theory, complementary to the spill-over theory, argues that individuals compensate deficiencies in the work domain by engaging in nonwork-related activities and vice-versa (Clark, 2000; Staines, 1980). For instance, when individuals experience family problems, they may become more involved in their jobs in order to compensate the lack of satisfaction at home by seeking greater satisfaction at work (Lambert, 1990). Finally, border theory postulates that, since work and nonwork differ in purpose and culture, individuals have to make daily transitions between these settings in order to fit the demands of each domain, shaping borders and bridges between them (Clark, 2000). Thus, while some individuals prefer to keep the multiple roles more separated (segmentation), others allow them to overlap to a higher extent (integration) (Rothbard et al., 2005). For instance, those who integrate more are more likely to have pictures of their families in their office than the ones who tend to separate more the different domains (Rothbard et al., 2005).

While the negative aspects of having to combine work with nonwork activities, usually named work-life conflict (WLC), have been the most studied within the work-life literature, more recently, researchers have been focusing on the positive aspects of performing multiple roles by introducing new constructs, such as work-life enrichment or facilitation (Kacmar et al., 2014). This positive view about work-life interface is based on the expansion theory (Marks, 1977), which suggests that combining multiple roles leads to a greater access to resources and higher psychological well-being (Allen, 2012).

Before addressing the concepts of work-life conflict, work-life enrichment and work-life balance, it is important to clarify the terminology that will be used in this report. Work-life differs from the term work-family in the sense that it goes beyond work and family roles, so as to include employees who are not parents but still strive to balance their work demands with other nonwork activities, such as sports, friendships and travel (Kalliath & Brough,

2008; Powell et al., 2019). Despite the differences, these concepts are often used interchangeably within the literature (Shaffer et al., 2011). However, and for the purpose of this research, the term ‘work-life’ will be employed, with ‘life’ referring to all nonwork domains including, but not limited to, the family sphere.

2.1.1. Work-Life Conflict

According to the role theory (Kahn et al., 1964), individuals juggle multiple roles, namely work-related roles (e.g. employee or supervisor) and nonwork-related roles, such as spouse, parent, friend, student, etc. (Fisher-McAuley et al., 2003). Then, work-life conflict occurs when the demands of these multiple roles become incompatible in some respect (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Hobfoll’s (1989) conservation of resources theory also helps explain the conflict between work and personal life. According to this theory, stress is created when the resources that individuals strive to retain and build are lost, or when individuals fail to gain a resource they were expecting (Hobfoll, 1989). In this sense, when individuals face the challenge of juggling multiple roles, these roles have to compete for the same limited resources, such as time and energy, which may lead to strains (Fisher-McAuley et al., 2003). In fact, the differing responsibilities of work and private life may cause intrusion and negative spill-over of one domain on the other, detracting the quality of life (Byron, 2005). For instance, overtime at work may prevent people from attending family events, which, in turn, may cause frustration (Eurofound, 2018). These conflicts are bidirectional, in that work demands may interfere with personal responsibilities (work-to-nonwork or work-nonwork conflict), or private life demands may interfere with employment (nonwork-to-work or nonwork-work conflict) (Jang & Zippay, 2011). According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), there are three major forms of inter-role conflict: time-based, strain-based and behavior-based conflict. Time-based conflict is experienced when the time pressures in one role are incompatible with the demands of another role; strain-based conflict is experienced when the stress created in one role negatively affects the performance of another role; and behavior-based conflict is experienced when the behaviours needed in one role are incompatible with the behaviours expected in another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Antecedents of work-life conflict

The antecedents of work-life conflict can be classified into work-related, nonwork-related and demographic variables (Byron, 2005; Eby et al., 2005; Michel et al., 2011). Table 1 summarizes some of the most studied antecedents of work-life conflict.

Work variables	Nonwork variables	Demographic variables
Job involvement	Nonwork involvement	Marital status
Work hours	Nonwork hours	Parental status
Social support	Social support	Education level
Work characteristics	Number of children	Coping style and skills
	Age of youngest child	Income

Table 1: Antecedents of work-life conflict

(*Source:* Michel et al., 2011; Zhang & Liu, 2011)

Role involvement refers to how high is an individual's psychological attachment and preoccupation with that role (Michel et al., 2011). Job and nonwork involvement are considered antecedents of work-life conflict since high levels of involvement in one of the roles may lead to a lower engagement in the activities of the other role (Michel et al., 2011).

Regarding work-related variables, the number of hours an individual works per week, including the time spent in commuting, is generally associated with time-based conflict (McMillan et al., 2011). Research also shows that having a supportive work environment, such as having work-family policies available and a supportive mentor, reduces the levels of work-life conflict (Kossek et al., 2011). Some work characteristics were also found to be predictors of work-life conflict, namely job tenure, type of job, task variety and schedule flexibility (Michel et al., 2011).

Within the nonwork-domain, the time spent in nonwork-related activities is generally associated with time-based conflict (McMillan et al., 2011). Social support was found to be related to work-life conflict, with the support from family, friends and the community reducing the levels of conflict (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Griggs et al., 2013).

Regarding demographic variables, research shows that individuals who are married or have children experience more conflict than single individuals and non-parents (Byron, 2005). The number of children has a positive correlation with nonwork-work conflict and it is known that when children are young the levels of work-life conflict increase (Zhang & Liu, 2011). Although the level of education has no apparent influence on work-to-nonwork conflict, higher educated males were found to experience higher nonwork-to-work conflict, while lower educated females were found to experience lower levels of nonwork-to-work conflict (Carnicer, 2004). On the other hand, having a positive coping style or better coping skills were found to reduce the levels of both work-nonwork and nonwork-work conflict (Byron, 2005). Lastly, previous studies show that high-earning (professional) workers

experience more work-life conflict than non-professional ones, due to longer hours worked and more work pressure (e.g. McGinnity & Calvert, 2009).

Finally, besides these generic antecedents across occupations, some professional groups may be exposed to occupation-specific stressors. For instance, the work-life conflict of teachers was found to be explained not only by generic stressors (e.g.: number of hours worked, schedule flexibility, etc.), but also by unique teaching stressors, such as investment in student misbehaviour and investment in relations with parents (Cinamon et al., 2007).

Outcomes of work-life conflict

Both directions of work-life conflict have been associated with a wide variety of work and nonwork-related negative outcomes (Allen, 2012; Amstad et al., 2011). Regarding work-related consequences, work-life conflict was found to be related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intention to quit (e.g.: Allen et al., 2000) as well as burnout (e.g.: Reichl et al., 2014). On the nonwork domain, research shows that work-life conflict is associated with marital, family and life satisfaction (e.g.: Greenhaus et al., 2003; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998), depression and substance abuse (e.g.: Frone et al., 1997), unhealthy diets (e.g.: Bohle et al., 2004) and sleep quantity and quality (e.g.: Crain et al., 2018).

Although these outcomes are related to both directions of conflict (work-to-nonwork and nonwork-to-work), work-to-nonwork conflict was found to be more strongly associated to work-related outcomes and nonwork-to-work conflict more strongly associated to nonwork-related outcomes (e.g. Amstad et al., 2011; Shockley & Singla, 2011).

2.1.2. Work-Life Enrichment

In the last decades there has been a growing body of research investigating the positive effects of the interface between work and nonwork domains (Allen, 2012). The introduction of concepts such as work-life enrichment, enhancement and facilitation have led to an emphasis on the positive spill-overs of combining work and nonwork (Kacmar et al., 2014). A positive work-life relationship is based on the expansion theory (Marks, 1977), which suggests that combining multiple roles leads to a greater access to resources and higher psychological well-being (Allen, 2012). Work-life 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. 73), with the term ‘quality of life’ relating to high performance and positive affect (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). According to the expansion theory (Marks, 1977), the resources acquired in one domain can then be used to enhance the quality of life in the other domain (Lapierre et al., 2018).

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) distinguish five types of resources that can be generated in a role, namely: (1) skills (i.e. knowledge and multitasking skills), (2) psychological and physical resources (such as self-esteem, optimism and physical health), (3) social capital (i.e. influence and information), (4) flexibility and (5) material resources (such as money and gifts). According to Greenhaus and Powell (2006), there are two paths by which a resource generated in one role can enhance the quality of life in the other. In one hand, a resource can be directly transferred from one role to another (instrumental path), enhancing the performance in the other role. On the other hand, a resource generated in a role can create positive affect within that role, leading to an enhanced performance and positive affect in the other role (affective path) (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Work-life enrichment is considered to be bidirectional (Kacmar et al., 2014; Lapierre et al., 2018), given that personal experiences may improve the quality of work-life (nonwork-to-work or nonwork-work enrichment) and work experiences may improve the quality of private life (work-to-nonwork or work-nonwork enrichment).

Antecedents of work-life enrichment

Lapierre, Li, Kwan, Greenhaus, DiRenzo and Shao (2018) reviewed the empirical literature on the antecedents of both directions of work-life enrichment, grouping them into resource-providing and resource-depleting contextual characteristics and personal characteristics. While some contextual characteristics are resource-providing in nature, in the sense that they enable enrichment, others are resource-depleting since they limit the enrichment experience (Lapierre et al., 2018). Table 2 summarizes the authors' findings.

Resource-providing characteristics	Resource-depleting characteristics	Personal characteristics
Support at work	Job insecurity	Work involvement
Work autonomy	Family hours	Work centrality
Family support	Number of children	Family involvement
Marital status		Family centrality

Table 2: Antecedents of work-life enrichment

(Source: Lapierre et al., 2018)

A supportive work environment, consisting of informal social support from co-workers and supervisors as well as family-friendly policies, such as telecommuting and flexible work schedules, were found to enable work-life enrichment (Wayne et al., 2006). Thus, a study with 343 elementary school teachers measured their willingness-to-pay for seven different work-life policies and found that the mean teacher would be willing to provide, per week,

over \$4.50 for after-school childcare and \$6-\$7 for either paid family care leave or free childcare (Drago et al., 2001). The sample of this study included not only individuals who were likely to make use of such policies, but also teachers with low or no probability of using them, revealing a wide recognition of the importance of implementing work-life policies.

On the other hand, family support was found to be positively associated with enrichment (Baral & Bhargava, 2011), as well as a sense of community and support from friends (Voydanoff, 2004). Other enablers of enrichment include being married and having more autonomy at work (Voydanoff, 2004). Contrarily, job insecurity, family hours and number of children were found to be negatively correlated to work-life enrichment (Lapierre et al., 2018).

Finally, work involvement and work centrality were found to be significantly related to work-to-nonwork enrichment, while family involvement and family centrality were found to be associated with nonwork-to-work enrichment (Lapierre et al., 2018). Role involvement and role centrality are close terms because both relate to the importance of the role to the individual (Michel et al., 2010). Thus, the greater the importance individuals place in a role, the greater will be their engagement in that role, leading to higher chances of experiencing positive feelings within that domain and transfer those feelings to other domains, through the enrichment process (Wayne et al., 2006).

Outcomes of work-life enrichment

McNall, Nicklin and Masuda (2010) reviewed the work, nonwork and health-related consequences of work-life enrichment. Regarding work-related outcomes, they found positive relationships between both work-to-nonwork and nonwork-to-work enrichment and job satisfaction and affective commitment. Regarding nonwork-related outcomes, the authors found a positive relationship between both forms of enrichment and family satisfaction, and a positive association between work-nonwork enrichment and life satisfaction. However, there were not enough studies to generalize the conclusions regarding the relationship between nonwork-work enrichment and life satisfaction (McNall et al., 2010). On the other hand, both directions of enrichment were found to be associated with better physical and mental health. Finally, their meta-analytic review of a total of 46 studies about work-nonwork and nonwork-work enrichment show that, while work-to-nonwork enrichment was more strongly related to work-related variables, such as job satisfaction, nonwork-to-work enrichment was more strongly associated with family satisfaction (McNall et al., 2010). More recently, a study conducted with a sample of 225 teachers showed that

work-life enrichment was positively associated with both job satisfaction and affective commitment and negatively associated with turnover intentions (Akram et al., 2014).

2.1.3. Work-Life Balance

The term ‘work-life balance’ is widely employed, although there is not much agreement on a single definition or measure for this construct (Kalliath & Brough, 2008). The variety of conceptualizations that populate the literature warns for the importance of being cautious in addressing work-life balance (Eurofound, 2018).

In fact, the lack of consensus regarding the meaning of ‘balance’ creates confusion and ambiguity when defining work-life balance (Casper et al., 2018). While some authors view it as equity across multiple roles (e.g.: Greenhaus et al., 2003), others define it as satisfaction between multiple roles (e.g.: Kirchmeyer, 2000), fulfilment of role salience between roles (e.g.: Greenhaus & Allen, 2011) or yet as a relationship between conflict and facilitation (e.g.: Frone, 2003) (Kalliath & Brough, 2008).

Extant research shows that perceived balance between work and life roles is conducive to job and life satisfaction as well as better physical and mental health (Carlson et al., 2009; Greenhaus et al., 2003; Haar, 2014; Lunau et al., 2014). Conversely, the absence of balance between life roles has been associated to reduced quality of life and other outcomes related to well-being, such as increased stress (Greenhaus et al., 2003) and poor self-rated health (Lunau et al., 2014).

2.1.4. Country variations in Work-Life Interface

Previous research shows that work-life interface varies across nations (e.g.: Crompton & Lyonette, 2006; Den Dulk et al., 2013). A likely determinant of this variation is the extent to which public work-life policies are implemented in different welfare states, such as childcare facilities, leave arrangements and policies regarding working hours (Abendroth & Den Dulk, 2011; Lunau et al., 2014). For instance, the level of state provisions in Portugal is low and families are legally responsible for the support to family members, contrarily to the Nordic states (Crompton & Lyonette, 2006).

Besides differences in welfare states, the effects of culture also play an important role on the differences in work-life interface across countries (Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017). For instance, reports of nonwork-work conflict were found to be higher in more collectivistic cultures than in more individualistic ones, as well as in countries with higher economic gender gap (Allen et al., 2015).

2.2. Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction is a key indicator of subjective well-being. According to Diener's (1984) tripartite model, subjective well-being consists of two key components, namely a cognitive judgement regarding one's overall life satisfaction, and positive and negative affects reflecting people's emotional reactions to their lives (Busseri & Sadava, 2011). In other words, subjective well-being consists of high levels of life satisfaction and positive feelings, along with low negative feelings (Newman et al., 2014).

Several potential influences on life satisfaction and subjective well-being can be found in the literature, namely demographics, income, relationships, use of time and the wider socio-economic environment.

Research on the correlations between subjective well-being and demographic variables show that *age* has a U-shaped correlation, with higher levels of well-being found for younger and oldest people and a lower life satisfaction happening in the middle age (Dolan et al., 2008). In terms of *gender*, research shows that women and men do not differ substantially in their level of average subjective well-being (Diener & Ryan, 2009). Finally, the findings on the correlation between *education* and well-being are not congruent, since while some authors suggest a positive relationship between each additional year of formal education and subjective well-being, others find a non-existent relation (Witter et al., 1984).

Previous research on the correlation between *income* and well-being suggests that money has a positive effect in one's subjective well-being, although it decreases for higher levels of income, revealing a pattern of 'declining marginal utility' (Diener et al., 2008; Diener & Ryan, 2009). Nevertheless, well-being increases with income at all levels of income and, moreover, cross-national comparisons show that people in richer countries experience higher well-being than citizens of poorer nations (Sacks et al., 2012).

Social relationships are repeatedly cited as a central cause of subjective well-being, with individuals who are highly sociable and extrovert, who have more friends or are married, reporting higher life satisfaction than those who are less sociable, have few friends or have experienced divorce or widowhood (Lucas et al., 2008). *Work relationships* also play a role on subjective well-being, since a supportive work environment and, specially, co-worker satisfaction, are correlated with higher life satisfaction (Erdogan et al., 2012). Overall, *time spent socializing* with family and friends appears to be positively related to subjective well-being (Dolan et al., 2008).

In addition to spending time with people, the other activities individuals engage in throughout the day also contribute to subjective well-being. Several studies have found that

there is a positive relationship between subjective well-being and different *leisure activities*, such as playing sports, watching television, using the internet and going on vacation (Newman et al., 2014). Accordingly, Kahneman and Krueger (2006) results indicate that the engagement in activities such as exercising and relaxing leads to higher levels of positive affect than those related to work, housework, commuting and childcare. Regarding the amount of work activities, previous studies have not found a straightforward relationship between the number of hours worked and subjective well-being or life satisfaction (Dolan et al., 2008; Erdogan et al., 2012).

Previous research has also revealed that the average levels of subjective well-being differ across nations, and these differences can be explained, to some extent, by the effects of culture (Diener & Ryan, 2009). For instance, Biswas-Diener, Vitterso and Diener (2010) found that low-income respondents in the United States reported lower levels of life satisfaction than their counterparts in Denmark (Biswas-Diener et al., 2010).

Finally, life satisfaction was found to be related to several work-related outcomes, such as job performance (Jones, 2006), commitment (Redman & Snape, 2006) and absenteeism (Murphy et al., 2006).

2.3. Work-Life Interface and Life Satisfaction

Previous studies show that the effects of work-life interface on life satisfaction varies with individual's values and role salience (work, family, leisure, etc.). Role salience, or role importance, can be defined as 'the psychological importance of a particular role in a person's life' (Eddleston et al., 2006, p. 438). The more salient a role is to an individual, the more meaning and purpose are derived from engaging in that role, conducting to higher levels of psychological well-being (Thoits, 1991). In this sense, when career-role importance is high, nonwork-work conflict may have stronger negative effects on individuals' well-being than work-nonwork conflict, since they attach greater importance to their work and job performance (Noor, 2004; Wolfram & Gratton, 2014). On the other hand, the correlation between work-nonwork enrichment and life satisfaction seems to be stronger for individuals with high family-role importance, since they may particularly appreciate the positive experiences within the nonwork domain (Wayne et al., 2006; Wolfram & Gratton, 2014).

In addition to individual differences, culture can also moderate the effects of work-life interface on subjective well-being. For instance, Haar, Russo, Suñe & Ollier-Malaterre (2014) explored the effects of work-life balance on several outcomes in different cultures and found that the effect size differed across cultures. In their study, high levels of work-life balance were found to be more positively related to job and life satisfaction in individualistic and

highly gender egalitarian cultures, compared to collectivistic and low gender egalitarian ones (Haar et al., 2014).

2.4. Urban-Rural Differences

Although there is not a common and unique definition of rurality or rural area in Europe, the most common variables used to distinguish urban from rural areas include population density and share of employment in agricultural activities (Leeuwen, 2015). In fact, although European rural areas are extremely diverse, two of the few attributes these areas have in common are (1) low population density and (2) the significant role that agriculture plays in the local economy (Ballas et al., 2003). Since regional differences need to be taken into consideration when deciding about regional policies and allocation of funds, in 1991, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) introduced the first degree of urbanization classification, which distinguished densely, intermediate and thinly populated areas (Brezzi et al., 2011; Dijkstra & Poelman, 2014).

In 2014, a new urban-rural regional typology was introduced by the Eurostat, based on the OECD methodology (Dijkstra & Poelman, 2014; Eurostat, 2017). This new typology classifies the local administrative units at level 2 (LAU2 or municipalities) in cities (densely populated areas), towns and suburbs (intermediate density areas) and rural areas (thinly populated areas). These three types of areas are defined using a criterion of geographical contiguity based on a population grid of 1 km² in combination with a minimum population threshold (Eurostat, 2017). Table 2 summarizes this delimitation, which will be used for the aims of this report.

Degree of urbanization concept	Alternative terminology	Criteria
Cities	Densely populated areas	At least 50% of the population lives in high-density clusters.
Towns and suburbs	Intermediate urbanized areas	Less than 50% of the population lives in rural grid cells and less than 50% of the population lives in high-density clusters.
Rural areas	Thinly populated areas	More than 50% of the population lives in rural grid cells.

Table 3: Degree of urbanization

(Source: Eurostat Regional Yearbook, 2017, p. 13)

2.4.1. European Urban-Rural Differences in Work-Life Interface

In 2003, the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions launched the first European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS), which assessed key aspects of the quality of life in 28 European countries. This survey included respondents who lived in rural as well as urban regions in all these countries, offering, for the first time, the opportunity to explore urban-rural differences in quality of life across the EU (Shucksmith et al., 2009).

Since the first release of the EQLS, in 2003, three more surveys were conducted, namely in the years of 2007, 2012 and 2016. Nevertheless, the analysis of the findings of these last surveys regarding the urban-rural divide was not as detailed as in the first one, namely the differences in work-life interface. Therefore, this section focuses on the findings of the First EQLS only. For simplicity and clarity in presenting the results for the 28 European countries, the authors grouped the findings into four clusters according to the gross domestic product of each region (Shucksmith et al., 2006). Thus, the descriptive analysis was undertaken not at an individual country level but by clusters of countries. The four resulting clusters are presented in Table 3.

Cluster	Countries
EU-12 High	Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden and the UK
EU-7 Intermediate	Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Greece, Malta, Portugal , Slovenia and Spain
EU-6 Low	Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia
ACC3	Bulgaria, Romania and Turkey

Table 4: Clusters of countries defined by GDP

(*Source:* Shucksmith et al., 2006, p.20)

In each of the 28 countries analyzed in EQLS, around 1,000 persons aged 18 and over were interviewed, except for the smaller countries, where around 600 interviews were conducted (Fahey et al., 2004). The classification of the respondents' living area as rural or urban was made based on the subjective evaluation of the respondents themselves, who were asked in the EQLS in which type of area they considered to live in: (a) open countryside, (b) village/small town, (c) a medium to large town, or (d) a city or city suburb (Shucksmith et

al., 2006). However, after comparing the respondents' answers with official statistics, quite large deviations were found in some countries (e.g.: Belgium, Germany and Portugal), since the respondents generally underestimated the degree of urbanization of their living area (Shucksmith et al., 2006). This can be seen as a substantial limitation of the analysis conducted.

One of the aspects of quality of life analyzed in EQLS was the work-life interface issues, which focused the perceived difficulties of reconciling work and nonwork life, weekly working hours and other time constraints, such as enough time for hobbies, voluntary work, sleep, etc. (Fahey et al., 2004). The results of the descriptive analysis of urban-rural differences show that, although the average weekly working hours were consistently higher in rural areas, problems with work-life balance were, in rich and poor countries alike, widespread in both urban and rural settlements (Shucksmith et al., 2009).

Regarding the EU-7 cluster, where Portugal is inserted, the mean working hours from main and secondary jobs registered a higher value in rural areas (44.3 hours) compared to the urban ones (41.8 hours). Also, with respect to work pressures regarding difficulties in concentrating at work due to family responsibilities, it was found that rural inhabitants had slightly higher level of difficulty than the urban population (14% of rural inhabitants mentioned they experience this difficulty at least several times a month vs. 11% in urban areas). Nevertheless, the results obtained show that Europeans living in urban and rural areas share similar difficulties in reconciling work and personal life, namely regarding work and time pressures, in all clusters of countries (Shucksmith et al., 2006).

2.4.2. Urban-Rural Differences in Portugal

Portugal is characterized by a significant asymmetry in the population distribution and economic activities as well as in social and cultural dimensions, mainly between urban and rural areas (Rego et al., 2017).

The population loss in Portuguese rural municipalities has been ongoing for decades. In the past decade the rural depopulation has worsened, up to a point of no return (Almeida, 2017). These peripheral regions have become more remote after the closure of schools, health facilities and post offices, due to the public policies lead by the Social Democrat Government between 2011 and 2015 (Almeida, 2017). Thus, it seems that the main motivations for leaving the rural, especially among the younger and more educated, are the lack of prestigious and well-paid jobs as well as the lack of social infrastructures, which leads to a non-intensive social life (Vaishar et al., 2018).

European statistics (Eurostat, 2017) reflect a national context with differences between the rural and urban inhabitants, namely regarding income level, lone-parent households, commuting time and overall life satisfaction. An analysis by degree of urbanization shows that the average income levels were, in 2017, higher for those living in cities (€12.205) and in towns and suburbs (€10.530), while the lowest income was registered for those living in rural areas (€9.019) (Eurostat, 2017). On the other hand, lone-parent households were more common in the functional urban areas of European capital cities than they were nationally (Eurostat, 2011). Relatively large differences were recorded in Portugal too, where the share of lone-parent households over the total number of households in cities was 1.3 percentage points higher than the national average.

Those living in and around the EU's largest cities can spend a considerable amount of their lives commuting between home and work. This is particularly the case of commuters in the Portuguese capital of Lisbon, who were taking around 17 minutes more to get to work than the national average (data from 2011). While the city with the shortest average amount of commuting time (Paredes) reported 15-16 minutes, Lisbon reported a journey of almost 40 minutes to get to work (data from 2011). In this sense, city-dwellers may suffer more with the traffic congestion than those living in rural areas, since it leads to wasted time and additional stress.

Finally, an analysis by degree of urbanization revealed that people living in the cities of Portugal generally had a higher level of overall life satisfaction than their compatriots living in towns and suburbs or rural areas (data from 2013). In a rating from 1 to 10, city-dwellers evaluated their overall life satisfaction in 6.3, while those living in rural areas scored 6 (data from 2013). Although this difference is not high, the satisfaction with the living environment (an indicator on a person's overall satisfaction) reported a higher disparity between urban and rural inhabitants. This indicator can be measured by the access to a range of services (for example, shops or public transport) and the presence of entertainment in the form of cinemas, museums or theatres (Eurostat, 2017). Thus, although the technical infrastructure of rural settlements starts to be comparable with the urban one in many aspects, the social infrastructure still divides urban and rural settlements quite substantially (Vaznonienė & Pakeltienė, 2017). This can possibly explain the reason why Portuguese city-dwellers revealed a higher level of satisfaction with their living environment (6.7 in a scale from 1 to 10) than those living in rural areas (5.4 out of 10), contributing, in turn, to a higher overall life satisfaction.

3. Theoretical Model and Hypotheses

The present study aims to explore urban-rural differences in the levels of work-life conflict and enrichment at a national level, contributing, in this way, to the empirical literature of work-life interface. To the best of our knowledge, no previous study has explored this issue.

Although a study of urban-rural differences in work-life interface in European countries exists (Shucksmith et al., 2006), the analysis was conducted by clustering the countries according to their GDP instead of examining national differences. Given the diversity of European rural areas (Ballas et al., 2003) and the empirical evidence on the sensitivity of work-life issues to national contexts (e.g.: Lunau et al., 2014), one would expect country variations and within-country differences, in comparing work-life interface in urban and rural areas.

In fact, Portugal has several socio-demographic differences between the rural and urban inhabitants that may predict different levels of work-life conflict and enrichment, such as income level, number of lone-parent households, commuting time and overall life satisfaction. Since high-earning professionals usually work longer hours and have more work pressure (McGinnity & Calvert, 2009), different levels of education and income may lead to different levels of work-life conflict between urban and rural populations. Since single-parents are likely to be responsible for a greater share of household and childcare duties (Voydanoff, 1988), this may also lead to different levels of work-life conflict and enrichment between the two populations. Since the time spent commuting diminishes the time available for work and other nonwork-related activities, this can lead to urban-rural differences in the levels of work-life conflict and enrichment. Finally, life satisfaction was found to be related to work-life conflict and enrichment, so different levels of life satisfaction may be explained by work-life conflict and enrichment differences between urban and rural populations.

To address these predictions, this study examines the urban-rural differences in work-life conflict and enrichment of the Portuguese teachers. By doing so one aims to ascertain if the similar levels reported by Schucksmith et al. (2006) for the European cluster that includes Portugal also applies to this occupational group. Additionally, this research aims to add a methodological contribution by evaluating the degree of urbanization of the living area based on Eurostat's classification, rather than using the subjective evaluation of the respondents. Therefore, the risk of 'underestimation' of the degree of urbanization is reduced.

Based on these premises and on the literature reviewed, the following research hypotheses are formulated:

H1. There are differences in work-life conflict among urban and rural teachers.

H2. There are differences in work-life enrichment among urban and rural teachers.

Additionally, this study intends to explore urban-rural differences in the level of life satisfaction, as well as analyse the relationship between work-life conflict and enrichment and life satisfaction.

According to the literature, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H3. There are differences in life satisfaction among urban and rural teachers.

H4. Work-life conflict negatively predicts teachers' life satisfaction.

H5. Work-life enrichment positively predicts teachers' life satisfaction.

Figure 1 presents the theoretical model of this study and summarizes the research hypotheses.

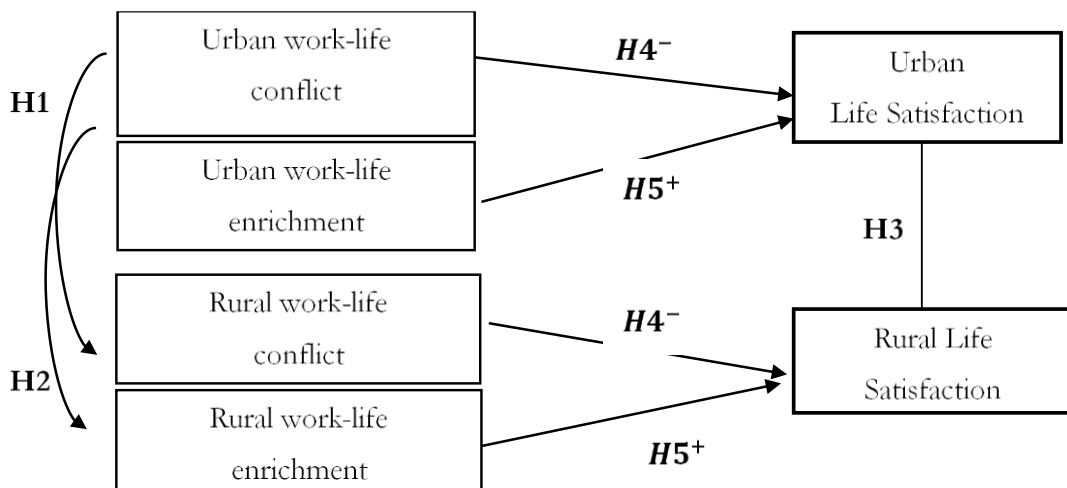


Figure 1: Theoretical model

4. Methodology

The present study aims to explore urban-rural differences in the work-life conflict and enrichment of Portuguese teachers, as well as to explore differences in the overall life satisfaction of both urban and rural inhabitants. In addition, it aims to understand if work-life conflict and enrichment predicts teachers' levels of life satisfaction. To achieve these aims, a quantitative method was employed, and data collected through a survey.

4.1. Procedures of Data Collection

This investigation targets Portuguese teachers from several municipalities across the country, classified as rural or urban according to Eurostat's degree of urban classification. In this sense, elementary and secondary (middle and high school) teachers were invited to participate in this research, by answering a web survey. Web surveys are a cost- and time-efficient alternative to obtain information from respondents living in different parts of a country (Evans & Mathur, 2005). Portuguese teachers were targeted for four main reasons. First, the challenges of combining work with nonwork are not the same across occupations, since the work hours, schedules and workload vary in each profession (Kossek & Lautsch, 2017). Therefore, by targeting one single occupational group one attains a more reliable comparison of urban-rural differences. Second, the teaching profession is characterized by high levels of burnout, stress and emotional exhaustion (Hakanen et al., 2006). On the other hand, previous research shows that work-life conflict is negatively associated with the happiness and affective commitment of Portuguese teachers and positively related with their stress levels (Cecílio, 2016). Hence, work-life issues seem to be significantly relevant for this occupational group. Finally, Portuguese elementary, middle school and high school teachers are civil workers who share a similar career path and are ruled by the same human resource management practices, which assist in controlling for the influence of these variables over the relationship between WLI and life satisfaction.

The survey instrument was made available in Portuguese through an online link with a response time of approximately 10 minutes (see Appendix 1). Before its distribution, the survey was pre-tested with a group of eight respondents, who gave feedback about the clarity of the items. After some minor corrections, and for the purpose of its divulgation, Teachers' Trade Unions of several regions and districts were contacted and asked to send the survey to the affiliates (Appendix 2). The Teachers' Trade Union of the North Zone (SPZN) agreed to publish the survey in their website and Facebook page. Teachers from the six districts of the north region of Portugal were reached (Aveiro, Braga, Bragança, Porto, Viana do Castelo

and Vila Real). Additionally, two District Trade Unions in the center agreed to send the survey (Covilhã and Lamego), as well as one district in the south region (Portalegre). Given this procedure, one cannot estimate the overall participation rate. Individual participation was voluntary and anonymous. The data was collected during April 2019.

4.2. Measures

The dependent variables of this study – work-life conflict, work-life enrichment and life satisfaction – were measured with previously tested scales adapted and translated to Portuguese for the purposes of the present research.

Work-Life Conflict. Work-life conflict was assessed with the Carlson, Kacmar & Williams (2000) 18-item Work-Family Conflict scale, which was translated to Portuguese. The Portuguese version of this scale has been previously validated (Vieira et al., 2014). This scale measures two directions of work-family conflict: nine items assess work-to-family conflict and nine items assess family-to-work conflict. These items were presented randomly to prevent common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The scale was adapted to the measurement of work-life conflict by including friends and extend social activities in the formulation of the items. Respondents were asked to answer on a Likert-scale from 1 to 5 (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). A sample item of the original scale is ‘My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like’, which was adapted to ‘My work keeps me from my social and family activities more than I would like’.

Work-Life Enrichment. Work-life enrichment was assessed with the Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne & Grzywacz (2006) 18-item Work-Family enrichment scale, adapted and translated for this research. The Portuguese version of this scale has been previously validated (Vieira et al., 2014). This scale measures the two directions of work-family enrichment, nine items assess work-to-family enrichment and the other nine assess family-to-work enrichment. Following a similarly procedure, all statements were adapted to broaden the concept of ‘family’ to ‘life’. Respondents were asked to indicate, on the same Likert-scale, how much they agreed with the statements. A sample item of the adapted scale is ‘My involvement in my friends and family helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker’.

Life Satisfaction. Life satisfaction was measured using the Portuguese translation of the five-item scale by Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin (1985). In this scale, respondents were asked to assess, on a Likert-scale from 1 to 7 (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree), their level of agreement with the statements. A sample item is: “In most ways my life is close to ideal”.

Other Measures. Several demographic variables found to influence work-life conflict, work-life enrichment and life satisfaction were added to the questionnaire. First, respondents were asked about how many hours per day they spend on several activities, namely working, commuting, housework, leisure and sleeping. Second, regarding their professional situation, respondents were asked about the type of employment contract, years of teaching experience and income level. Third, and regarding family situation, respondents were asked about the marital status, number of children living at home, their age and if they had help taking care of them, as well as caring responsibilities for other family members. Finally, gender, age, education and place of work (municipality place) were also asked for hypotheses testing.

To test the hypotheses about urban-rural differences, the delimitation of urban and rural areas was made taking into consideration the degree of urbanization of the teachers' work location, instead of the place of family residence. While for most respondents these places were coincidental, some contract teachers were displaced and therefore lived closer to the school during the school year. Given the characteristics of this occupational group, the work location was then used as a proxy for the urban-rural delimitation.

4.3. Sample

The overall sample is composed by 425 Portuguese teachers: 128 (30.3%) work in cities, 151 (35.7%) work in towns and suburbs and 144 (34.0%) work in rural areas.

The average age of the respondents was 48 years old and 86.8% of them were female. Regarding education, 70.8% of the teachers had a bachelor's degree, with the remaining respondents having a higher degree (master's degree, PhD, etc.). For the individuals who were parents (74.4% of the sample), the majority didn't have children living at home (35.1% of the sample). Regarding support with childcare, 59.8% had help from someone else to take care of the children. In addition, 25.2% of the total respondents were responsible for taking care of other relatives.

The average tenure as a teacher was 23.3 years and most were from the first income level (monthly income from €1,025.08 to €1,138.97) from a total of eleven grades. Regarding the employment contract, 59.3% of the sample was employed as 'Quadro de Escola (QE)', meaning that they have a permanent contract with a specific school. On the other hand, 14.4% of the teachers were employed as "Quadro de Zona Pedagógica (QZP)", which means they have a permanent contract but can be placed in a cluster of schools from the same geographical area. Finally, 23.8% of the sample was constituted by contract teachers, who are not allocated to neither a school nor a geographical zone.

Regarding commuting time from home to work and work to home, the average time spent was 80 minutes, with the rural respondents taking around 9 more minutes commuting than the respondents who worked in suburban and urban areas. The average number of hours worked was 7.87 hours, with the highest mean value being registered in suburban areas (7.97 hours). Regarding the nonwork-related activities, the average number of daily hours spent in sleeping was 6.47 hours, 2.16 hours for leisure, and 2.69 hours for domestic work. The following table provides more details about teachers' demographic characteristics.

	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age			47,99	8,09
Years of professional experience			23,29	8,69
Daily sleeping hours			6,47	1,44
Daily leisure hours			2,16	1,61
Daily hours of domestic work			2,69	1,64
Daily hours of work			7,87	2,96
Daily commuting hours			1,20	1,05
Gender				
	Female	369	86,8%	
	Male	56	13,2%	
Education				
	Bachelor Degree	301	70,8%	
	Master	101	23,8%	
	Doctoral	13	3,1%	
	Other	10	2,4%	
Marital status				
	Unmarried	143	33,6%	
	Married/Living with partner	282	66,4%	
Family situation				
	With children	316	74,4%	
	Without children	109	25,6%	
Number of children living at home				
	0	149	35,1%	
	1	137	32,2%	
	2	117	27,5%	
	3	20	4,7%	
	4	2	0,5%	
Support with child care				
	Yes	189	59,8%	
	No	127	40,2%	
Other relatives care responsibilities				
	Yes	107	25,2%	
	No	318	74,8%	
Type of employment contract				
	QZP	61	14,4%	
	QE	252	59,3%	
	Contract	101	23,8%	
	Other	11	2,6%	
Remuneration Grade				
	1st grade	90	21,5%	
	2nd grade	59	14,1%	
	3rd grade	69	16,5%	
	4th grade	44	10,5%	
	5th grade	30	7,2%	
	6th grade	36	8,6%	
	7th grade	25	6,0%	
	8th grade	8	1,9%	
	9th grade	29	6,9%	
	10th grade	10	2,4%	
	Other	18	4,3%	

n = 425

Table 5: Sample demographics

5. Results

After collecting the data, the results from the survey were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) in its 24th version. Section 4.1. describes each instrument's validity and reliability and section 4.2. presents the descriptive statistics for the main dependent variables. The chapter ends with the description of the tests of hypotheses.

5.1. Instruments' validity and reliability

In order to ensure that all scales used in the questionnaire are consistent and valid, internal reliability tests and validity procedures were conducted for the three measures. A confirmatory factor analysis was executed for each measure used – work-life conflict, work-life enrichment and life satisfaction. Regarding the 18-item work-life conflict scale, the confirmatory factor analysis did not reproduce the six dimensions (e.g.: time-based work interference with family; strain-based family interference with work) as per the original, from Carlson et al. (2000). However, given the correlation between items and the overall scale reliability, as computed by the Cronbach alpha ($\alpha = 0.89$), one decided to use a one-dimension scale, with all 18 items.

The factor structures found for the scales of work-life enrichment and life satisfaction were consistent with the originals (respectively Carlson et al., 2006, and Diener et al., 1985) and no adjustments were required. Thus, the 18-item work-life enrichment scale was decomposed in two different dimensions: work to nonwork enrichment and nonwork to work enrichment; and the 5-items of life satisfaction were used to compute this variable.

To ascertain the internal reliability of all scales, the Cronbach's Alpha (α) was calculated, since it is the most common measure of internal consistency. A reliability coefficient equal or higher than 0.70 is usually considered, in social science research, 'acceptable' (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). As table 6 shows, all the scales have a good internal reliability, with coefficients ranging from 0.89 to 0.96.

<i>Criterion</i>	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha of the Original Scale
WLC (18 items)	0.89	na*
Work-nonwork enrichment (9 items)	0.96	0.92
Nonwork-work enrichment (9 items)	0.93	0.86
Life Satisfaction	0.92	0.87

Notes: * WLC original scale is composed by six dimensions, while the used scale has only one.

Table 6: Cronbach's alpha results

5.2. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variables

Table 7 presents the descriptive statistics and correlation analysis (Pearson's coefficients) for the dependent variables of this study.

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Criterion</i>						
1. WLC (18 items)	3,089	0,036	1,000	-0,349**	-0,009	-0,425**
2. Work-nonwork enrichment (9 items)	3,090	0,057	-0,349**	1,000	0,237**	0,441**
3. Nonwork-work enrichment (9 items)	3,852	0,040	-0,009	0,237**	1,000	0,064
4. Life Satisfaction	3,460	0,075	-0,425**	0,441**	0,064	1,000

Notes: Cronbach coefficients in the diagonal

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Table 7: Descriptive statistics and correlation analysis for the dependent variables

Table 8 shows the means and standard deviation of the dependent variables by degree of urbanization of the respondents' work location.

Work Location	N	WLC		Work-nonwork Enrichment		Nonwork-work Enrichment		Life Satisfaction	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Urban	87	2,96	0,70	3,22	1,01	3,92	0,74	3,51	1,51
Suburbs	113	3,12	0,57	3,03	0,97	3,87	0,65	3,35	1,47
Rural	99	3,21	0,66	3,06	1,00	3,79	0,62	3,13	1,50
Overall sample	299	3,10	0,65	3,10	0,99	3,86	0,67	3,33	1,49

Notes. WLC: work-to-nonwork and nonwork-to-work conflict (with 17 items). M: Mean; SD: Standard Deviation

Table 8: Descriptives for the dependent variables by degree of urbanization

5.3. Tests of hypotheses

5.3.1. Differences in work-life conflict, enrichment and life satisfaction

In order to test for differences in work-life conflict, work-life enrichment and life satisfaction for urban and rural teachers, several univariate analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were executed. Given that there were significant associations between certain respondents' characteristics (such as age, marital status, support with child care, having children living at home, having other relatives' care responsibilities, tenure, income, sleeping hours, leisure hours, domestic work hours and work hours), these variables were used as covariates in examining mean differences for the criterion variables according to the work location (urban vs others).

Table 9 and Table 10 summarize the results, with the values presented referring to the corrected model.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that there would be differences in the level of work-life conflict of urban and rural teachers. Following table 9, the work-life conflict of teachers who live in urban settlements ($M_{urban} = 2.97$; $SD = 0.71$) is statistically different and lower than those who live in suburban and rural areas ($M_{suburbs} = 3.12$; $SD = 0.60$ and $M_{rural} = 3.18$; $SD = 0.70$). Although the overall model is statistically significant ($F(2,296) = 5.505$, $\rho = .000$, $\eta\rho^2 = .201$), what explains the criterion variable are the respondents' demographics, notably support with childcare ($\beta = -.280$, $\rho = .001$, $\eta\rho^2 = .039$) and daily hours of leisure ($\beta = -.114$, $\rho = 0.000$, $\eta\rho^2 = 0.085$). This result does not support hypothesis 1.

Effects between conditions	N	WLC						Life Satisfaction					
		M	SD	F	df	p	η_p^2	M	SD	F	df	p	η_p^2
<i>Effects Work Location</i>													
Urban	87	2,97	0,71	5,505	13	0,000***	0,201	3,59	1,49	8,86	13	0,000***	0,288
Suburbs	113	3,12	0,60					3,46	1,50				
Rural	99	3,18	0,70					3,33	1,48				

Notes. M average, SD standard deviation, F F ratio, df degrees of freedom, p significance level, η_p^2 partial eta squared effect size. All values were computed for the corrected model. Significant at: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 9: ANCOVA results for WLC and Life Satisfaction according to the urban-rural work location

Effects between conditions	N	Work-nonwork Enrichment						Nonwork-work Enrichment					
		M	SD	F	df	p	η_p^2	M	SD	F	df	p	η_p^2
<i>Effects Work Location</i>													
Urban	87	3,22	1,03	3,93	13	0,000***	0,152	3,91	0,75	1,81	13	0,042*	0,076
Suburbs	113	2,99	1,05					3,88	0,68				
Rural	99	3,06	1,02					3,76	0,67				

Notes. M average, SD standard deviation, F F ratio, df degrees of freedom, p significance level, η_p^2 partial eta squared effect size. All values were computed for the corrected model. Significant at: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 10: ANCOVA results for Work-nonwork and Nonwork-work Enrichment according to the urban-rural work location

Hypothesis 2 predicted that there would be differences in the level of work-life enrichment of urban and rural teachers. Following Table 10, the work-nonwork enrichment of teachers who work in urban settlements ($M_{urban} = 3.22$; $SD = 1.03$) is statistically different and higher than those who live in suburban and rural areas ($M_{suburbs} = 2.99$; $SD = 1.05$ and $M_{rural} = 3.06$; $SD = 1.02$). Although the overall model is statistically significant ($F(2,296) = 3.93$, $\rho = .000$, $\eta\rho^2 = .152$), the effect is explained, again, by the respondents' demographics, such as support with childcare ($\beta = .340$, $\rho = .009$, $\eta\rho^2 = .024$) and leisure hours ($\beta = .153$, $\rho = .000$, $\eta\rho^2 = .062$). As shown in Table 10, teachers who live in urban areas ($M_{urban} = 3.91$; $SD = 0.75$) exhibit a higher and statistically different level of nonwork-work enrichment ($M_{suburbs} = 3.88$; $SD = 0.68$ and $M_{rural} = 3.76$; $SD = 0.67$) as the overall model is significant ($F(2,296) = 1.81$, $\rho = .042$, $\eta\rho^2 = .076$). However, the effect is not explained by the work location but by the intercept and the demographic variables as a whole. These results do not support hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that there would be differences in life satisfaction among urban and rural teachers. Following Table 9, the life satisfaction of teachers working in urban municipalities ($M_{urban} = 3.59$; $SD = 1.49$) is statistically different and higher than the life satisfaction of those who work in suburban and rural areas ($M_{suburbs} = 3.46$; $SD = 1.50$ and $M_{rural} = 3.33$; $SD = 1.48$). While the overall model is significant ($F(2,296) = 8.86$, $\rho = .000$, $\eta\rho^2 = .288$), the criterion variable is explained by the respondents' demographics, such as support with childcare ($\beta = .504$, $\rho = .003$, $\eta\rho^2 = .030$), income ($\beta = .123$, $\rho = .002$, $\eta\rho^2 = .034$), leisure hours ($\beta = .277$, $\rho = .000$, $\eta\rho^2 = .111$), work hours ($\beta = -.079$, $\rho = .003$, $\eta\rho^2 = .030$) and commuting time ($\beta = -.300$, $\rho = .000$, $\eta\rho^2 = .055$). This result does not support hypothesis 3.

5.3.2. Relationship between work-life conflict and enrichment and life satisfaction

Finally, to test the relationship between work-life conflict and work-life enrichment and life satisfaction, a regression analysis was computed. In addition to the criterion variables work-life conflict and enrichment, the respondents' demographics were added as predictors of life satisfaction. Table 11 summarizes the results.

Predictors	Satisfaction		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Intercept	3,276**	6,617***	3,693**
<i>Demographics</i>			
Age	-0,131		
Marital Status	0,106*		
Number of children at home	0,110*		
SupportChildCare	0,166**		
Other Care Responsibilities	-0,040		
Years of professional experience	-0,065		
Income	0,239**		
Sleep Hours	0,104*		
Leisure Hours	0,313***		
Work Hours	-0,154**		
Commuting Hours	-0,221***		
<i>Predictors</i>			
WLC		-0,367***	
Work-nonwork Enrichment			0,254***
Nonwork-work Enrichment			0,087
<i>Overall F</i>	10,414***	15,495***	17,328***
<i>R²</i>	0,285	0,394	0,461
<i>Adjusted R²</i>	0,258	0,369	0,434
<i>Change in R²</i>	0,285	0,109	0,067

Notes. Significant at: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; standardized β coefficients are reported after Z-score transformation, $n = 299$.

Table 11: Regression analysis for the hypothesized relationships between work-life conflict and enrichment and life satisfaction

According to *hypothesis 4*, work-life conflict negatively predicts the respondents' life satisfaction. As shown in Table 11, this hypothesis is supported ($\beta = -.367$, $\rho < .001$) since the work-life conflict coefficient is negative and statistically significant.

Hypothesis 5 postulated that teachers' work-life enrichment would positively predict their life satisfaction. According to the results of Table 11, this hypothesis is only partially supported. Although work-nonwork enrichment is a predictor of life satisfaction ($\beta = .254$, $\rho < .001$), nonwork-work enrichment is not ($\beta = -.087$, $\rho > .05$), meaning that only one of the two directions of enrichment (work-to-nonwork) predicts the respondents' life satisfaction.

6. Discussion

This research examines the life satisfaction of urban and rural teachers and addresses the relationship between work-life conflict and enrichment and life satisfaction. In this sense, the present study extends earlier research by analyzing differences of work-life interface (namely work-life conflict and enrichment) at an individual country level, exploring potential urban-rural disparities. Table 12 shows the overall results from the test of hypotheses.

Hypothesis	Description	Result
H1	There are differences in work-life conflict among urban and rural teachers.	Not supported
H2	There are differences in work-life enrichment among urban and rural teachers.	Not supported
H3	There are differences in life satisfaction among urban and rural teachers.	Not supported
H4	Work-life conflict negatively predicts teachers' life satisfaction.	Supported
H5	Work-life enrichment positively predicts teachers' life satisfaction.	Partially supported

Table 12: Overall results from the test of hypotheses

6.1. Differences in work-life conflict and enrichment

As shown in Table 12, the results of this research do not support the hypothesis that there are differences in the work-life conflict among teachers who work in urban areas versus those who work in rural settlements. In fact, the results show that what explains the lower work-life conflict of urban teachers is not their work location but the respondents' demographics, notably support with childcare and leisure hours. Regarding work-life enrichment, the findings reject the hypothesis that there are differences in this variable for urban and rural teachers. Although teachers who work in urban areas exhibited higher levels of both work-to-nonwork and nonwork-to-work enrichment, the differences are explained by the intercept of the demographic variables.

These findings are consistent with the results of Shucksmith, Cameron, Merridew and Pichler (2006), who analyzed urban-rural differences in work-life issues in European

countries and found a similar pattern in both urban and rural areas for the cluster of countries where Portugal was inserted. On the other hand, these results are in line with previous research that shows a negative relationship between work-life conflict and support from family, friends and the community (e.g.: Griggs et al., 2013) and a positive relationship between work-life enrichment and social support (e.g.: Voydanoff, 2004).

Interestingly, the results obtained do not support previous research that shows a positive relationship between work-life conflict and the time spent in nonwork activities (e.g.: McMillan et al., 2011). In fact, the present research reveals a negative relationship between these two variables, suggesting that the hours spent in leisure activities reduce the levels of conflict. This finding may suggest that, due to large amounts of time spent working, the conflict that this sample of teachers is experiencing is caused by not having enough time for leisure activities, such as socializing with their family and friends, playing sports, watching television, etc. (i.e., time-based work-nonwork conflict). In this sense, since the leisure domain is what is lacking in their lives, engaging in leisure activities reduces their work-life conflict because it leads to a greater distribution of time between work and nonwork activities. This interpretation is consistent with the concept of work-life balance defined as “approaching each role with an approximately equal level of attention, time, involvement or commitment” (Greenhaus et al., 2003, p. 512). This interpretation is also in line with the results of this research, since the mean time spent on leisure activities is only 2.16 hours, while the mean time spent on professional activities, commuting and domestic work sums up to 11.76 hours.

6.2. Differences in life satisfaction

The results of this study do not support the hypothesis that urban and rural teachers have different levels of life satisfaction. Such as with work-life conflict and enrichment, the differences found between the two populations are explained by demographic variables, namely support with childcare, income, leisure hours, work hours and commuting time.

These findings go against Eurostat’s data from 2013, which showed a slightly superior, although not significant, overall life satisfaction for city dwellers compared to rural inhabitants (6.3 in cities vs 6.0 in rural areas). However, this result is in line with previous research that showed a positive relationship between life satisfaction and income (Diener et al., 2008) and leisure activities (Newman et al.), and a negative relationship with commuting time (Kahneman and Krueger, 2006). The absence of differences found in life satisfaction may be explained by the fact that urban and rural inhabitants have different elements of dissatisfaction with their living environment. For instance, although there were not found

significant differences in commuting time between both settlements, city-dwellers may suffer additional stress from commuting due to traffic, affecting their quality of life. On the other hand, the lack of social infrastructures in rural areas may lead to a lower satisfaction with the living environment, affecting rural teachers' life satisfaction.

6.3. Relationship between work-life conflict and enrichment and life satisfaction

In addition to exploring differences in work-life conflict, enrichment and life satisfaction for urban and rural workers, the present research also intended to examine the relationship between teachers work-life conflict and enrichment, and life satisfaction.

Consistent to predictions, life satisfaction is negatively predicted by teachers' work-life conflict. This result supports previous findings about work-life conflict leading to lower levels of life satisfaction and subjective well-being (e.g.: Allen et al., 2000; Byron, 2005). This is an important finding not only for employees, but for employers as well, since life satisfaction was found to be related to several work-related outcomes, such as job performance (Jones, 2006), commitment (Redman & Snape, 2006) and absenteeism (Murphy et al., 2006). In this sense, this result highlights the importance for employers to implement work-life policies and help employees balancing work with private life to reduce their levels of work-life conflict and, in turn, increase their life satisfaction.

Finally, and as shown, the hypothesis that life satisfaction is positively predicted by work-life enrichment was only partially supported. Results show that only work to nonwork enrichment predicts teachers' life satisfaction. Although there is not enough evidence to draw conclusions about the relationship between nonwork-work enrichment and life satisfaction (McNall et al., 2010), these findings do not support the predictions of the social exchange theory applied to the work-life interface. According to this theory (Blau, 1964), nonwork to work enrichment would be more strongly related to nonwork-related outcomes, such as life satisfaction, than work-nonwork enrichment. Thus, since the nonwork domain is the one seen as providing the help for the work domain, this would lead individuals to reciprocate toward the nonwork domain in the form of more positive feelings and attitudes, contributing to favourable nonwork-related outcomes, such as family and life satisfaction (McNall et al., 2010; Wayne et al., 2006). Nevertheless, these results may suggest that teachers place a greater importance in their social and family lives, comparing to their work lives, in the sense that they seem to value more the work experiences that allow them to become better friends and family members (work-nonwork enrichment), rather than the personal experiences that allow

them to become better professionals (nonwork-work enrichment). This interpretation is in line with previous research that shows a stronger correlation between work-nonwork enrichment and life satisfaction for individuals with high family-role importance (e.g.: Wolfram & Gratton, 2014).

So far, no earlier investigation had addressed urban-rural differences in work-life interface at a national level, despite the extensive literature about work-life interface and its cross-country variations. The original contribution of this study is the inclusion of the degree of urbanization of the living environment as a potential influence in work-life issues, at a national level. In this sense, this research extends the work of Shucksmith, Cameron, Merridew and Pichler (2006), who analysed urban-rural differences in work-life balance issues for European clusters of countries, by analysing these issues at an individual country level. Nevertheless, in line with Shucksmith et al. (2006) findings, the results obtained in this research reveal an absence of urban-rural differences in work-life issues. In fact, it seems that what influences teachers' work-life conflict and enrichment is not their living environment, but rather their living circumstances, such as income, leisure hours and childcare support. Nevertheless, it is interesting to notice that some of the variables that influence teachers' work-life conflict and enrichment are the same variables that lead individuals to move from the countryside to cities. In fact, it seems that the main motivators for leaving rural areas are the lack of prestigious and well-paid jobs as well as the lack of social infrastructures, which leads to a non-intensive social life (Vaishar et al., 2018). In other words, people seem to move to cities in the pursuit of higher income levels and more time spent in nonwork-related activities, which were both found in this study to be antecedents of work-life conflict and enrichment.

Finally, the present study adds a methodological contribution to the work of Shucksmith, Cameron, Merridew and Pichler (2006) by evaluating the degree of urbanization of the work location based on Eurostat's classification, rather than using the subjective evaluation of the respondents. In this sense, the risk of 'underestimation' of the degree of urbanization by the respondents was eliminated, contributing to the accuracy of the analysis.

7. Conclusion

The present research explored differences in the work-life conflict, work-life enrichment and life satisfaction among Portuguese urban and rural teachers. In addition, it examined the relationship between work-life conflict and enrichment, and life satisfaction. To accomplish these aims, a quantitative approach was employed, and a survey was collected from 425 elementary, middle school and high school Portuguese teachers.

Overall, this study did not find differences between the levels of work-life conflict, enrichment and life satisfaction for Portuguese teachers living in urban and rural settlements. Nevertheless, although this was not verified for the occupational group or national context used in this study, this research contributes to the work-life literature by adding the degree of urbanization of the working environment as a potential influence in work-life issues. An important finding of the present research is that life satisfaction is negatively predicted by the level of work-life conflict, highlighting the importance for employers to implement work-life policies, since life satisfaction was found to be related to positive work-related outcomes (e.g.: Jones, 2006). Another important finding is that life satisfaction is positively predicted by work-to-nonwork enrichment but not by nonwork-to-work enrichment, suggesting that teachers place a greater importance in their social and family lives, comparing to their work lives. Thus, they seem to value more the work experiences that allow them to become better friends and family members (work-nonwork enrichment), rather than the personal experiences that allow them to become better professionals (nonwork-work enrichment).

Expanding the existing literature on work-life interface, these findings have implications to educational institutions, teachers as well as faculties of educational sciences.

7.1. Limitations and Future Research

The findings of this study must be interpreted considering its limitations. First, the scales used for work-life conflict and enrichment were not previously adapted and validated to the Portuguese population. Nevertheless, to prevent common method variance, three steps were made. To ensure that the translation of the items to Portuguese was clear and unambiguous, the scale was tested with eight respondents who gave their feedbacks before the distribution of the questionnaires. Then, the items of both scales were presented in a random order. Finally, an explanatory factor analysis was conducted. Given that multiple factors emerged from the factor analysis, meaning that the variance in the items was not explained by a single factor, one could conclude that common method variance was not a major issue (Podsakoff et al., 2003). On the other hand, the internal consistency of work-life conflict scale was 0.89

and the internal consistencies of the two dimensions of work-life enrichment were higher than 0.90, exceeding the conventional level of acceptance of 0.70 (Gliem & Gliem, 2003).

Second, the use of a sample constituted by individuals belonging to the same occupational group (teachers) prevents us from generalizing the findings to the overall population. Since work hours, work schedules and workload vary in each occupation (Kossek & Lautsch, 2017), different results could be found if the sample was constituted by individuals belonging to other occupational groups. For instance, although the results of this study show a negative relationship between leisure hours and work-life conflict, this finding may have been influenced by the great amount of time that these teachers spend working and commuting, which leads to a lack of leisure time in their lives and a need for engaging in more nonwork-related activities to achieve a better work-life balance. However, this result may not be generalized to all occupational groups. Future research could explore work-life issues in other occupations, such as nurses, manufacturers or business professionals, as well as explore which are the occupational groups who suffer more from work-life issues within the Portuguese context.

Third, the data was collected during a single online survey administration, which does not allow us to draw firm causal inferences regarding the relationship between work-life conflict and enrichment, and life satisfaction. Future research on this topic could use longitudinal designs to better explore this relationship.

Finally, future research could extend our understanding of this subject by exploring urban-rural differences in work-life conflict and enrichment in other countries. For instance, in countries where the territorial wage inequality between urban and rural areas is more significant than in Portugal, urban-rural differences in work-life issues might be found. In this sense, the replication of this study in other countries could lead to different results.

7.2. Managerial Implications

From a practical standpoint, this research contributes to the debate of work-life interface by introducing the consideration of the individuals' living environment as a potential influence in work-life issues at a national level.

In practical terms, the present research has implications for several stakeholders, namely educational institutions, teachers and faculties of educational sciences.

In terms of human resources management, educational institutions would benefit from implementing policies and strategies to identify the sources of conflict between work and nonwork and, in this way, help teachers minimizing these conflicts. For instance, institutions could adjust teachers' work schedule taking into consideration their personal circumstances,

such as having a younger child or having caring responsibilities for a family member. On the other hand, the great geographical mobility that contract teachers are subjected to, during the school year, should be reduced to a minimal. These teachers may be particularly exposed to work-life issues since they are often displaced to a work location that is distant from their homes. Therefore, contract teachers should be given priority when implementing family-friendly policies. Given that a good balance between work and nonwork lives leads to positive work-related outcomes, such as job satisfaction, burnout and turnover intentions, institutions should pay more attention to the work-life issues of teachers.

From the teachers' viewpoint, these professionals would benefit from learning how to successfully cope with their multiple role demands. Thus, in order to prevent work from monopolizing their lives, it would be beneficial for them to limit the number of hours they work and, in this way, ensure that they have also enough time for leisure throughout the day. On the other hand, teachers could alleviate their domestic work responsibilities by hiring a domestic helper, if within their own possibilities. In this sense, teachers could increase their levels of life satisfaction by finding effective coping strategies to balance their work and personal demands.

Finally, faculties of educational sciences could prevent future work-life issues by including contents about work-life interface in their programs, and teaching students on how to successfully cope with multiple role demands, since this occupational group faces some challenges regarding the work schedule and the workload.

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Annexes

Annex I – Questionnaire

Estilo de Vida dos Professores

O presente questionário está inserido numa investigação da **Faculdade de Economia do Porto** e aborda os estilos de vida dos professores do ensino primário, básico e secundário.

A sua colaboração é essencial! Todas as respostas são **confidenciais e anónimas** e serão usadas apenas com o propósito desta investigação. Nenhuma das questões solicitará informação que o(a) identifique. O tempo estimado de preenchimento é de **10 minutos**.

Se tiver alguma dúvida acerca do estudo não hesite em contactar a investigadora principal – Joana Matos, Faculdade de Economia da Universidade do Porto, Rua Dr. Roberto Frias, 4200-464 Porto, e-mail: up201403668@fep.up.pt.

Muito obrigado pela sua colaboração!

Aceita participar neste estudo?

Sim

Não

- 1. Seguidamente, encontra afirmações relativas ao seu trabalho e à sua vida fora do local de trabalho. Utilize a escala de modo a indicar o grau em que concorda/discorda com cada uma das afirmações.**

1	2	3	4	5
Discordo totalmente	Discordo	Não concordo nem discordo	Concordo	Concordo totalmente

O meu trabalho afasta-me das minhas atividades sociais e familiares mais do que eu gostaria.	1	2	3	4	5
O tempo que dedico ao meu trabalho impede-me de participar de igual forma em atividades e responsabilidades sociais e familiares.	1	2	3	4	5
Tenho de faltar a atividades com amigos e família devido à quantidade de tempo que dedico às minhas responsabilidades de trabalho.	1	2	3	4	5

O tempo que dedico às responsabilidades sociais e familiares interfere frequentemente com as minhas responsabilidades de trabalho.	1	2	3	4	5
O tempo que dedico aos meus amigos e família leva-me frequentemente a faltar a atividades no meu trabalho que poderiam ser benéficas para a minha carreira.	1	2	3	4	5
Tenho de faltar a atividades no meu trabalho devido à quantidade de tempo que passo com responsabilidades sociais e familiares.	1	2	3	4	5
Quando chego a casa do trabalho, sinto-me frequentemente demasiado extenuado(a) para participar em atividades ou responsabilidades sociais e familiares.	1	2	3	4	5
Sinto-me com frequência emocionalmente esgotado(a) quando chego a casa do trabalho, o que me impede de contribuir para os meus amigos e família.	1	2	3	4	5
Devido a pressões no meu trabalho, às vezes, quando chego a casa, estou demasiado stressado(a) para fazer o que me dá prazer.	1	2	3	4	5
Devido ao stress fora do trabalho, estou frequentemente preocupado(a) no trabalho com os assuntos relacionados com os amigos e família.	1	2	3	4	5
Por estar frequentemente stressado(a) com responsabilidades sociais e familiares, tenho dificuldades em concentrar-me no trabalho.	1	2	3	4	5
A tensão e ansiedade da minha vida social e familiar enfraquecem frequentemente a minha capacidade de realizar o meu trabalho.	1	2	3	4	5
O processo de resolução de problemas que uso na atividade profissional não é eficiente na resolução de problemas em contexto social e familiar.	1	2	3	4	5
O comportamento que é eficiente e necessário no meu trabalho seria contraproducente em casa.	1	2	3	4	5
Os comportamentos que adoto no meu trabalho que me permitem ser mais eficiente não me ajudam a ser um melhor amigo(a), pai/mãe ou cônjuge.	1	2	3	4	5
Os comportamentos que resultam em casa não parecem ser eficientes no trabalho.	1	2	3	4	5
O comportamento que é eficiente e necessário em casa seria contraproducente no trabalho.	1	2	3	4	5
O processo de resolução de problemas que funciona em casa não parece ser tão útil no trabalho.	1	2	3	4	5

2. Utilize a escala de modo a indicar o grau em que concorda/discorda com cada uma das seguintes afirmações. Note que, para concordar, deve concordar com toda a afirmação.

Exemplo: *O meu envolvimento com o meu trabalho ajuda-me a adquirir conhecimentos e isto ajuda-me a ser um melhor amigo e membro de família.*

Para concordar totalmente com esta afirmação, deve concordar que (1) o seu envolvimento com o trabalho ajuda-o a adquirir conhecimentos E (2) estes conhecimentos são transferidos para a sua vida pessoal ajudando-o a ser um melhor amigo e/ou membro da família.

1	2	3	4	5
Discordo totalmente	Discordo	Não concordo nem discordo	Concordo	Concordo totalmente

O meu envolvimento com o trabalho...

Ajuda-me a compreender diferentes pontos de vista e isto ajuda-me a ser um melhor amigo e membro da família.	1	2	3	4	5
Ajuda-me a adquirir conhecimentos e isto ajuda-me a ser um melhor amigo e membro da família.	1	2	3	4	5
Ajuda-me a adquirir competências e isto ajuda-me a ser um melhor amigo e membro da família.	1	2	3	4	5
Deixa-me de bom humor e isto ajuda-me a ser um melhor amigo e membro da família.	1	2	3	4	5
Faz-me sentir feliz e isto ajuda-me a ser um melhor amigo e membro da família.	1	2	3	4	5
Deixa-me animado e isto ajuda-me a ser um melhor amigo e membro da família.	1	2	3	4	5
Ajuda-me a sentir-me pessoalmente realizado(a) e isto ajuda-me a ser um melhor amigo e membro da família.	1	2	3	4	5
Dá-me uma sensação de realização e isto ajuda-me a ser um melhor amigo e membro da família.	1	2	3	4	5
Dá-me uma sensação de sucesso e isto ajuda-me a ser um melhor amigo e membro da família.	1	2	3	4	5

O meu envolvimento com os meus amigos e família...

Ajuda-me a adquirir conhecimentos e isto ajuda-me a ser um(a) melhor Professor(a).	1	2	3	4	5
Ajuda-me a adquirir competências e isto ajuda-me a ser um(a) melhor Professor(a).	1	2	3	4	5
Ajuda-me a alargar o meu conhecimento sobre novos assuntos e isto ajuda-me a ser um(a) Professor(a).	1	2	3	4	5

Deixa-me de bom humor e isto ajuda-me a ser um(a) melhor Professor(a).	1	2	3	4	5
Faz-me sentir feliz e isto ajuda-me a ser um(a) melhor Professor(a).	1	2	3	4	5
Deixa-me animado e isto ajuda-me a ser um(a) melhor Professor(a).	1	2	3	4	5
Exige que evite desperdiçar tempo no trabalho e isto ajuda-me a ser um(a) melhor Professor(a).	1	2	3	4	5
Encoraja-me a utilizar o meu tempo de trabalho de forma focada e isto ajuda-me a ser um(a) melhor Professor(a).	1	2	3	4	5
Faz com que eu esteja mais concentrado(a) no trabalho e isto ajuda-me a ser um(a) melhor Professor(a).	1	2	3	4	5

3. Reportando-se às duas últimas semanas de trabalho, refira o número de horas/minutos diários que gastou, em média, nas seguintes atividades:

- | | |
|---|---|
| a. Dormir | c. Tarefas domésticas |
| b. Lazer (socializar com a família e amigos, hobbies, jogos, televisão, computador, etc.) | d. Atividades profissionais |
| | e. Deslocação casa-trabalho e trabalho-casa |

4. Utilize a seguinte escala para indicar o grau em que concorda/discorda com cada uma das afirmações.

1	2	3	4	5
Discordo totalmente	Discordo	Não concordo nem discordo	Concordo	Concordo totalmente

Em muitos aspetos, a minha vida aproxima-se dos meus ideais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
As minhas condições de vida são excelentes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Estou satisfeito com a minha vida.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Até agora, consegui obter aquilo que era importante na vida.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Se pudesse viver a minha vida de novo, não alteraria praticamente nada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. Género:

Feminino

Masculino

6. Idade: _____ anos

7. Estado civil:

Solteiro(a)

Viúvo(a)

Casado(a) / Numa

Divorciado(a)

relação

8. Local de residência (localidade/cidade): _____

9. Tem filhos (caso não, passar para a pergunta 10)?

Sim

Não

Caso sim:

9.1. Quantos filhos tem a residir ainda em sua casa?

9.2. Quais a(s) idade(s) do(s) seu(s) filho(s)?

9.3. Tem ajuda para cuidar do(s) seu(s) filho(s) (ex.: conjugue, pais, amigos, etc.)?

Sim

Não

10. Tem a seu cargo outros familiares (ex.: pais, tios, avós, etc.)?

Sim

Não

11. Grau académico:

Licenciatura

Doutoramento

Mestrado

Outro. Qual? _____

12. Anos de experiência profissional como professor: _____

13. Local de trabalho (localidade/cidade): _____

14. Tipo de contrato de trabalho:

Quadro Zona

Quadro Escola

Contratado

Pedagógica (QZP)

15. Escalão de remuneração atual:

1º

4º

7º

2º

5º

8º

10º

3º

6º

9º

Outro: _____

Annex II – Collaboration Request Email

Assunto: Pedido de Colaboração no âmbito da Dissertação de Mestrado

Exmo. Presidente da Delegação Distrital,

O meu nome é Joana Macias Matos e sou aluna do Mestrado em Gestão na Faculdade de Economia do Porto. Encontro-me neste momento a desenvolver a minha Dissertação de Mestrado sob orientação da Doutora Luísa Helena Pinto, subordinada ao tema “Diferenças urbano-rural no conflito entre a vida pessoal e profissional dos professores portugueses”.

Assim sendo, venho por este meio solicitar a vossa colaboração na divulgação por correio eletrónico de questionários a professores que se encontrem a residir quer em regiões urbanas quer rurais, de forma a comparar os resultados para ambos os meios. Trata-se de um questionário que pretende avaliar o equilíbrio entre a vida pessoal e profissional dos professores, bem como a sua satisfação em geral. Ao concordarem em participar, os professores responderão anonimamente a um questionário online, maioritariamente constituído por perguntas de escolha múltipla. Um exemplo de uma questão é: “O meu trabalho afasta-me das minhas atividades sociais e familiares mais do que eu gostaria”. 1 = Discordo totalmente; 2 = Discordo; 3 = Não concordo nem discordo; 4 = Concordo; 5 = Concordo totalmente.

Caso seja possível, da vossa parte, a colaboração, comprometo-me a partilhar convosco os resultados globais da investigação, se esta for do vosso interesse.

Fico a aguardar o vosso feedback, estando disponível para os esclarecimentos que considerarem necessários.

Atenciosamente,

Joana Macias Matos

(Contacto: 91 236 48 78)

