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Examining the factors that impact work life balance for executive chefs

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EXAMINING THE FACTORS THAT IMPACT WORK LIFE BALANCE FOR EXECUTIVE CHEFS

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation served to deepen the theoretical and practical understanding of work life balance in the hospitality industry. Defined as "achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains to a level consistent with the salience of each role for the individual…. [that] introduces the possibility of a hierarchy of roles; however… it does not demand that a hierarchy is neither necessary nor desirable for balance" (Reiter, 2007, p.277), the study examined work life balance from a situationist perspective whereby the perspective of the individual determines whether or not balance exists. Further, the relationship between work life balance and callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, personality, gender and parenthood was explored using hierarchical multiple regression.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Being a chef is a unique and essential position in the hospitality industry—a good chef can either make or break a restaurant and the managerial as well as culinary expertise required of an individual in this position is not readily interchangeable with or supplemented by other kitchen workers. The talent and skill that goes into that position is at once cultivated and inherent requiring an unending passion (Pratten, 2003). Couple this drive with a work environment that is fast paced, high-pressured, ever-changing, and requires the majority of the hours in a day to complete, and it is easy to understand how the competing demands of work might affect the hours and quality of time spent in the home and in other satisfying life domains (Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). A Culinary Institute of America (CIA) instructor revealed the imbalance experienced by chefs, "who are working on Thanksgiving and Christmas, when everyone else is partying….Or at home with their family" (Ruhlman, 1997, p. 68). The CIA training serves as "protection against feeling like you don't have a normal life" and also "protect you against all the things you give up because of this work" (Ruhlman, 1997, p.74). This training fosters the expectation and acceptance of an imbalance between work and extracurricular obligations for executive chefs.

The hospitality industry is notorious for requiring its managerial employees to devote countless hours to their work that requires sacrifices in their family and personal lives (Bartholomew & Garey, 1996). How these individuals strike a balance between the demands of the workplace and the demands at home has spawned the interest of researchers. Subsequently, the topic of work life balance has generated a fairly robust

debate among scholars, employers and media alike due to the fact that it has yielded informative, yet polarizing research results.

Areas of study that involve work life balance include the roles adopted in work life and home life, employee engagement, organizational climate, personality, gender roles, and parenthood rank high among the myriad discussions this issue generates. Additionally, the passion or verve with which an individual approaches work and the idea of being called to perform a specific work role warrants further investigation. While a resolution of the balance issue is far from being achieved, a greater understanding of the topic will benefit all working members of society as the balance an individual is able or unable to strike has direct and indirect consequences for his or her family, friends and colleagues. In particular, understanding work life balance for the dedicated chefs who devote hundreds of hours a week of their time is critical to ensuring their personal and professional wellbeing in addition to the success of their hospitality establishments.

Creating and maintaining an environment that encourages executive chefs to achieve more balance in their work and life is vital to the hospitality industry. Role theory (Linton, 1936) served as the theoretical model underpinning this study. This framework provided this study with the possibility of making a theoretical contribution to the literature by examining and revealing new relationships related to work life balance. In addition, the findings may provide positive contributions to the hospitality industry by revealing personalities, climates and training information that can assist in the achievement of balance for key employees.

Problem Statement

Attracting and retaining quality employees has long been recognized as a key issue for the labor market in the United States (US Department of Labor, 1999). The profile of the modern worker is rapidly changing, with a greater representation of dual income earning couples, a more even representation of genders and an aging work population (Hammer, Colton, Caubet, & Brockwood, 2002). In addition, empirical research has demonstrated that work life balance is an important target for employee intervention measures that allow employees to negotiate realistic and adequate expectations from their roles within and outside of the workplace (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009). When this targeted balance is combined with supportive workplace practices, the outcomes have been shown to be emotionally beneficial to the employee, and resulted in financial gain for the establishment (Carlson et al., 2009). Accordingly, the onus of burden lies with businesses and society to help workers balance their lives both within and outside of the workplace.

Because being an executive chef is a pivotal position to a hospitality establishment and this position is not readily interchangeable, there needs to be an understanding of whether nor not this demographic is able to achieve balance across work and life domains and if any organizational or personal factors contribute to their attainment of work life balance. With this understanding, steps may be taken to promote work life balance for this group of individuals upon which the restaurant and hospitality industry is so heavily reliant.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to understand the individual, psychological and organizational factors that influence work life balance for executive chefs. Demographic factors including gender, and parenthood were also examined in relation to work life balance as they have been shown to affect this construct. Ultimately, this research sought to combine theoretical understandings with practical knowledge in order to further elucidate the factors that affect work life balance in the kitchen, so that restaurants may tailor their practices to benefit their key employees.

Significance of the Study

This study contributed to both scholarly and practical endeavors. From a theoretical standpoint, this study was the first of its kind to examine the construct of work life balance as it pertains to the pivotal role of executive chefs in the hospitality industry. Given that adequate time off of work; work life balance support in the workplace; work commitment; scheduling flexibility; life orientation; the ability to voluntarily reduce work hours when family life demands it; and preservation of the work and career (retention) have been identified as critical factors for the satisfaction and, ultimately, the retention of hotel employees (Wong & Ko, 2009), it stands to reason that the same might hold true across other outlets in the hospitality industry, specifically in the kitchen. This study helped explain if these and other factors impact executive chefs' work life balance. Additionally, while much of the extant literature explores the idea of work life balance in hospitality, there is a paucity of literature explaining the phenomenon through quantitative analyses. This study aids in understanding the factors that impact work life balance.

The study served to expand role theory by providing a broader and more encompassing context. First, it applied role theory to help further explain callings in a secular context. This was the first study of its kind to examine the construct of callings in the hospitality industry. It was also the first of its kind to use role theory to explain the relationship between callings and work life balance. Next, role theory was used to highlight the various life domain roles (i.e., man, woman, mother, father) that individuals adopt and explain the ways in which these roles impact psychological factors (i.e., callings and personality) and organizational factors (i.e., employee engagement and organizational climate). Finally, it was used to link work life balance to the demographic, psychological and organizational factors.

In addition to introducing a calling to hospitality workplace studies, this study answered several recommendations for further developing an understanding of work life balance (Carlson et al., 2009; Munn, 2013), and for establishing links between work life balance and previously studied variables. For example, scholars have indicated that a deeper understanding of personality in relation to work life balance is needed (Eby, Maher, & Butts, 2010; Devi & Rani, 2012; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000b). Moreover, conflicting findings between employee engagement and work life balance warranted further investigation.

There were also meaningful practical implications from the findings of this study. Because a calling is described as "the enactment of personally significant beliefs through work" (Wrzesniewski, 2012, p. 46) and is something that incorporates passion, meaning, purpose, and direction, the role of executive chef (a position that demands a critical skill set and verve) meets these requirements. While there is extant literature that examines

employees' views of the work itself (Dik & Duffy, 2009; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Wrzesniewski, 2003), there is limited research that focuses on how callings may affect one's ability to achieve work life balance. The literature asserts that positive experiences at work, including engagement is promoted when the strengths of a given individual are applied at work (Harzer & Ruch, 2012). The premise to examine work life balance in the hospitality industry, particularly among executive chefs, was to understand the motivational factors that compel them to perform at such high levels so that we can implement policies, provide mentoring, and offer benefits that promote personal and life balance, the result of which may facilitate career satisfaction. Literature suggests that employers' perceptions of their employees work life balance were positively related to appraisals of future career advancement potential (Lyness & Judiesch, 2008). Other research has shown work life balance practices to enhance the productivity of workers, increase retention, and diminish levels of turnover and absenteeism, which ultimately resulted in financial gain for the company (Daniels & McCarraher, 2000). Work life balance will enable chefs to be productive and endure over time, ultimately benefiting both the company and the individuals.

Definition of Terms

The following is an overview of constructs and terms that are used throughout the study. They are defined for purposes of clarification and understanding.

Work life balance is defined as "achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains to a level consistent with the salience of each role for the individual…. [that] introduces the possibility of a hierarchy of roles; however… it does not demand that a hierarchy is neither necessary nor desirable for balance" (Reiter, 2007, p.277).

Calling is referred to as “the enactment of personally significant beliefs through work” (Wrzesniewski, 2012, p. 46) and any type of role may be a calling. This definition incorporates the characteristics of passion, meaning, purpose and direction inherent in previous descriptions of callings while highlighting the fact that there is not a specific realm in which one must pursue a calling—any vocation or career path that is pursued in order to advance or support personally significant beliefs may be a calling (Wrzesniewski, 2012).

Employee engagement is defined as “the degree to which employees are focused on and present in their roles” (Rothbard & Patil, 2012, p. 56) and is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Vigor represents the level of energy and mental resilience displayed by the individual. Dedication is characterized by the amount that an individual finds significance in their work. Absorption signifies the degree to which an individual becomes engrossed in the work such that time seems to pass quickly (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Organizational climate represents an individual’s "perception of the psychologically important aspects of the work environment" (Ashforth, 1985; p. 837). These perceived important aspects may be shaped by the policies, procedures, and practices that are established in the workplace and are partly a result of the observed behaviors that are rewarded, supported, and subsequently expected by the organization (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins, 2003; Schneider & Reichers, 1983; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2011; Scheneider et al., 2013).

Personality is represented by five traits: extraversion, emotional stability,

agreeableness, openness to experience, and conscientiousness. Extraversion is an individual's propensity to be sociable and have an overall positive emotionality (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Devi & Rani, 2012). Emotional stability is comprised of traits that include balance, composure, and poise (Devi & Rani, 2012). Agreeableness is defined as being courteous, trusting, and good-natured (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Devi & Rani, 2012). Conscientiousness is representative of traits like being achievement-oriented, hardworking, dependable, and persevering (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Hogan, 1983; John, 1989). Openness to experience represents people who are imaginative, intelligent, and full of ideas (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Devi & Rani, 2012).

Executive chefs are individuals who have acquired advanced culinary expertise and food knowledge (Career as a Chef, 2007). Moreover, executive chefs possess both planning and managerial skills and they carry out culinary and supervisory responsibilities that yield culinary production for the venue or venues they oversee (Career as a Chef, 2007).

Delimitations

As with all research, there were delimitations to this study. Survey research design is limited by several factors. First, there is the issue of response bias whereby respondents either consciously or subconsciously misrepresent their actual behavior, attitudes, preferences, motivations or intentions. The researcher attempted to control for this by asking screener questions to ensure the right population is being represented by the sample.

Next, the study used a cross sectional design. The sample represents the beliefs and attitudes of executive chefs at only one point in time and these opinions may change

over time. Longitudinal studies could serve to validate the findings offered in this study as generalizable over time.

Finally, the reliability of self-reported data has also been questioned, as there may be issues of response error. This may occur by respondents providing what they perceive to be socially desirable answers, or due to their desire to be agreeable. Due to the nature of online surveys, the researcher could not control for the environment in which the survey was being taken.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a conceptual understanding of work life balance, role theory, callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, personality, gender, and parenthood. The literature review is comprised of four main sections: First, it introduces work life balance and defines the construct, its outcomes and its antecedents in the hospitality context. Second, it recognizes the import of role theory as the theoretical foundation of the study. Third, it presents a conceptual model that will be used to frame the understanding of the relationship between the individual, psychological and organizational factors that affect work life balance. Finally, it describes callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, personality, gender, and parenthood and reveals previously established relationships between these construct and work life balance where they exist.

Work Life Balance

The social roles that individuals assume help to shape and define them. These adopted roles allow the individual to form self-defined boundaries that in turn serve to create behavioral (how an individual acts), relational (with whom an individual relates), affective (how an individual feels), spatial (an individual's physical local), and temporal (how an individual uses time) boundaries (Frone, 2003). Inherently, the social roles adopted are pivotal in shaping the lives of all individuals (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Clark, 2000). Moreover, there is a clear delineation between the work and life domains (Rice, McFarlin, Hunt, & Near, 1985). The non-work roles that are adopted by individuals range from family to community to religious, even student. Because the roles

that an individual assumes provide both meaning and structure, the balance or imbalance that is created and imposed by these social roles is of particular interest to myriad researchers across multiple disciplines. Ashforth et al. (2000) assert that the various roles enacted by an individual foster boundaries. Those role boundaries vary in their flexibility and permeability however boundary transitions are often the necessary result.

The multiple roles that are assumed by an individual do not necessarily imply an outcome of role conflict rather there exists both positive and negative effects from role transitions (Sieber, 1974). Early organizational behavior scholars have argued that in order to accurately assess the impact of multiple roles on an individual, it is important to consider not only the negative outcomes, such as overload, strain or burnout, but also the positive outcomes, which include gratification and rewards (Sieber, 1974). The assumption of various work and life roles should not only be examined through a lens by which the result is depletion of energy (though this is undeniably an outcome) because there are roles that result in an energizing effect. Thus, it has been suggested that this positive effect serves to outweigh the negative costs of assuming multiple roles (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). In fact, modern scholars have demonstrated that there is an equal reporting of positive and negative effects that result from the assumption of work and family roles as well as the way that these roles affect each other (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000b; Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shafiro, 2005). It has even been suggested that the experience of role enrichment and role conflict by individuals are the respective ends of a continuum in which the myriad outcomes of family and work roles exist (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) defined role enrichment as "the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role"

(p. 73). Research has shown that role enrichment and role conflict distinctly and differently relate to other variables. They are not highly correlated, and, for various outcomes like job satisfaction, home-life satisfaction, and life satisfaction, they provide incremental prediction of one other the other (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; van Steenenbergen, Ellemers, & Mooijaart, 2007). Similarly, work life balance scholars have suggested that work life balance itself is conceptually unique from work life enrichment and work life conflict due to the global perspective of balance, and is supported by role theory (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009). The emphasis of balance rests in the individual's ability to meet the demands of the roles imposed by work life and family life.

Categorization of Work Life Balance

There are numerous definitions of work life balance although scholars have yet to arrive at a consensus meaning (Reiter, 2007). It has been suggested that the way in which work life balance ought to be interpreted is through an acknowledgement of the ideology underpinning the construct and then apply a definition that supports the ideological perspective that serves as the foundation of that interpretation (Reiter, 2007). A taxonomy of ideologies suggested by Forsyth (1980) highlights four categories into which work life balance may be viewed: absolutist, exceptionist, subjectivist and situationist.

Absolutists and exceptionists comprise the nonrelativistic side of the typology. Subsequently, the concern with the consequences of balance is lacking from these perspectives (Reiter, 2007). An equal distribution of time, involvement, and satisfaction across work and life domains as suggested by Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw (2003) is demonstrative of the absolutist typology. Marks and MacDermid (1996) argued in favor

of this perspective. They maintained that individuals who exhibit more balance across all roles and activities report experiencing less role strain and depression while having higher self-esteem, role ease, and added signs of well-being. The exceptionist perspective is utilitarian in nature and aims to reveal what balance works best for the greatest number of individuals (Reiter, 2007).

The alternative to these two perspectives is the subjectivist and situationist perspectives, which suggests that multiple iterations of balance exist. The subjectivist perspective offers that "because no moral standards are valid except in reference to one's own behavior, moral evaluations must depend on personal perspectives" (Forsyth, 1980, p. 176). The situationist perspective is one in which the employee is guided to concentrate on the optimum benefits, including maximizing satisfaction and experiences, and minimizing stress and errors, in both work and life domains (Reiter, 2007). Reiter (2007) asserted that this perspective is most valuable to academics and practitioners. The situationist vantage point provides researchers with the opportunity to explore those characteristics and factors that facilitate work life balance for specific groups of people (e.g., executive chefs). Specifically, the situationist perspective emphasizes tailoring the definition of balance to fit the individual's personal context. Moreover, balance facilitates the grouping of individuals according to similarities in values, including by career, gender, family structure, life stage, or income level with varying definitions of work life balance (Reiter, 2007).

Defining Work Life Balance

Work life balance has been described as the balance between work and all other life activities that occur outside of work (Guest, 2002). Traditionally, work life balance

was used to connote a willingness to compromise or reciprocate in terms of giving more or less of oneself to one area when appropriate and feasible, the idea being that more often than not the scale is tipped in favor of work (Ransome, 2007). This view has been suggested by other scholars, who similarly maintain that work life balance is the "accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his/her role-related partners in the work and family domains" (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007, p. 458). The focus on balancing life and work highlights the value placed on overall life quality and addresses the fact that increased demands at work are contributing to an imbalance (Guest, 2002; Lyness & Judiesch, 2014).

Adopting the premise that work life balance should be viewed from a situationist perspective, the term work life balance does not necessarily imply an equal distribution of work and life. In fact, the value of a balance between work and life domains does not have intrinsic value from a situationist perspective. Instead, balance enables satisfaction with the roles that take place in those domains, and it is the various types of satisfaction that are of value to the individual (Fletcher, 1966). From a situationist perspective, work life balance is defined as "satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home, with a minimum of role conflict" (Clark, 2000, p. 751). This definition builds on previous researchers that similarly characterize work life balance as contingent upon the individual in specific circumstances. For example, Kofodimos (1993) defines work life balance as:

> finding the allocation of time and energy that fits your values and needs, making conscious choices about how to structure your life and integrating inner needs and outer demands and involves honoring and living by your deepest personal qualities, values, and goals. (p. 8)

Developing this definition further, work life balance has been described as the demands from the work and life domains imposing acceptable levels of conflict for the individual

(Greenblatt, 2002). Therefore, it is the ability of the individual to achieve those goals within each domain that are most important by utilizing and managing the resources that facilitate achievement. The resources that aid the individual in achieving these work life balance goals include financial, control, temporal, and personal resources, with personal resources being comprised of physical, psychological, emotional and social components (Greenblatt, 2002).

More recently, an operational definition that considers role salience and the outcomes of role satisfaction and role conflict described work life balance as:

> achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains to a level consistent with the salience of each role for the individual…. [that] introduces the possibility of a hierarchy of roles; however… it does not demand that a hierarchy is neither necessary nor desirable for balance (Reiter, 2007, p.277).

This definition allows for balance to occur in a more fluid state by affording the individual to self-assess whether or not balance has been achieved. It allows for an individual who thrives in the workplace to assess balance in equal regard to an individual who places greater emphasis on achieving certain goals in social, family or other life domains. Essentially, each person is able to define what balance means to them in order to achieve the goals that facilitates that balance. This definition offers a more meaningful definition for academics and practitioners due to the personalization of the phenomenon. Ultimately, this perspective is appropriate for framing work life balance as a vehicle for understanding what and how a specific group of individuals (executive chefs) achieve balance and the antecedents needed to achieve it.

Work Life Balance in Hospitality

Specific to the hospitality industry, much of the research explores the phenomenon of work life balance through qualitative techniques (Wong & Ko, 2009).

There is little quantitative research examining the relationships between work life balance and the factors that achieve it. Wong and Ko (2009) revealed that hotel employees found balance when afforded adequate time off of work; work life balance support in the workplace; work commitment; scheduling flexibility; life orientation; the ability to voluntarily reduce work hours when family life demanded it; and preservation of the work and career. These qualitative findings have provided support for quantitative studies on work life balance.

Another pivotal qualitative study in the hospitality industry explored the work life balance opinions of entry-level managers. O'Neill (2012) found that these managers expressed trepidation regarding the perceived eminent issues of stress, burnout, and childcare due to the time demands of the work. The findings also revealed a concern with the ability to achieve also revealed that the fast-paced nature of the industry and the various tasks inherent in the jobs facilitated the perception that time passed quickly.

Lodging managers were also interviewed in order to assess the ability of managers in the hospitality industry who were also parents to achieve work life balance (Hsieh & Eggers, 2010). The majority of managers indicated that balance may change throughout one's life and that it was common to make sacrifices at younger ages in order to increase the odds of career advancement (Hsieh & Eggers, 2010). The results also indicated that attaining a managerial position afforded greater scheduling flexibility and it was at this point in their careers that there was a realization that personal lives had been sacrificed and damaged. Interestingly, all of the respondents in the study who were married attributed spousal support to their ability to alleviate work life conflict (Hsieh & Eggers, 2010).

While there is a paucity of quantitative research on work life balance within the hospitality industry, there are a few extant studies. For instance, hospitality research has demonstrated that an individual's level of emotional exhaustion statistically significantly served to mediate the effects of work-family conflict and family-work conflict on both job performance and job embeddedness (Karatepe, 2013). This was found to be relevant for both front-line employees and their managers. Hospitality researchers have also found that the availability of family-centric benefits and a supportive supervisory staff had a positive effect on employees' integration of work and family life (Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008) and promoted buffering resources that served to create balance (Chiang, Birtch, & Kwan, 2010). Still other hospitality scholars have found that the family roles interfere far greater with the work roles than do the work roles with the family roles (Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007).

Outcomes of Work Life Balance

Outcomes of work life balance have been shown to affect both the individual and the organization. One positive outcome of organizational support for work life balance is higher displays of work performance (Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008). Gallinsky (2005) established that work life balance leads to an increase in employee commitment and improved retention, productivity, and mental health. Career satisfaction has also been shown to be the result of how well an individual's goals and needs have been attained through their career choice (Timms & Brough, 2012). Researchers have demonstrated that work–family facilitation afforded by companies was positively related to job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Tompson & Werner, 1997).

The culmination or penultimate result of the human experience is life satisfaction (Andrews, 1974). Seminal research has explored the topic of life experience in relation to one's job, health and social life (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976). Pavot & Diener (2008) define life satisfaction as a comprehensive, cognitive self-assessment of quality of life, which serves as both an indication of one's own perceived success and a principle component of subjective well-being. Because individuals have been shown to draw conclusions regarding life satisfaction based on other important life domains (Pavot & Diener, 2008).

In fact, the presence or absence of work life balance has been found to impact life satisfaction. Adams, King, and King (1996) examined spillover from the work domain to the life domain. They found that work issues could interfere with family life and life satisfaction, and in turn impact employee satisfaction with the job itself (Adams et al., 1996). More recent studies have found that work life balance is actually a practice in which components from both work and life domains interact and depend on each other (Munn, 2013). Karatepe and Bekteshi (2008) found that work-family facilitation practices to be positively related to life satisfaction, and that work-family conflict actually detracted from life satisfaction.

Work Life Balance in Practice

Human resource management has attempted to use work life balance as a tool to aid in employees' wellbeing that enhances their perception of balance and contributes to retention, workplace productivity and attracting higher quality applicants (Evan & Vernon, 2007). For example, researchers have shown that the demands of a hospitality job are not inherently stressful, especially when organizational support works in

conjunction with an individual's control over their job responsibilities (Chiang et al., 2010). Their findings confirmed the pivotal role that job control plays in moderating or diminishing stress, and also that active organizational support in the form of work life balance policies served as valuable buffering resources (Chiang et al., 2010). While job control has been studied, there is still a gap in understanding of how it could be improved (Jones, Burke, & Westman, 2012).

Specific to the hospitality industry, research has demonstrated justification for hospitality executives to integrate work life balance practices in order to remain competitive in the marketplace (Mulvaney, O'Neill, Cleveland, & Crouter, 2007). Karatepe and Bekteshi (2008) suggest that organizations may help support work life balance through policies and benefits including paid family leave, on premise childcare, health insurance, and flexible or compressed work schedules. The researchers suggested that the availability and incorporation of these practices demonstrate the type of regard that is desirable to demonstrate a sustainable family-supportive work environment. However, the study was limited to front-line hospitality employees, which leaves a gap in research for managerial or supervisory staff (Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008).

Antecedents of Work Life Balance

There has been a great deal of research conducted in the area of work life balance in the social sciences. Researchers have conducted both qualitative and quantitative studies on this pivotal topic in order to first explore and then explain the phenomenon. Studies have examined the ways in which stressors and issues from work interfere with the family life, whether or not stressors and issues from family life interfere with work, and whether or not those interferences affect organizational commitment (Karatepe &

Bekteshi, 2008; Namasivayam, & Zhao, 2007).

One study showed that family roles interfere with work satisfaction far greater than work roles interfere with family roles (Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007). Other researchers have revealed that family social support and facilitation helped to mitigate conflicts across work–family boundaries and increased family–work facilitation (Abendroth & den Dulk, 2011; Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008). Additionally, other research has suggested that cultural influences play a significant role in predicting the extent to which balance or imbalance created by the spillover from work to home and home to work roles affects and predicts job satisfaction (Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007). However, regardless of cultural influences, it has been strongly suggested in the literature that family roles greatly impact the work life balance of individuals (Hall & MacDermid, 2009; Hsieh & Eggers, 2010; Minnotte, 2012).

Gender has also been highlighted as a predictor of work life balance (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Minnotte, 2012). Aryee et al., (2005) found that gender only marginally moderated family-work facilitation, suggesting that men and women actually experience similar issues with regard to work life balance regardless of gender. This finding differs from other studies that suggest that gender is linked to work life balance issues both from a supervisory perspective and from the perspective of female workers, albeit for different reasons (Lyness & Judiesch, 2014). Still other research has revealed a significant interaction between gender and single-parent status in predicting work-to-family conflict (Minnotte, 2012). These competing findings suggest that further research is needed on the relationship between gender and work life balance.

Shankar and Bhatnagar (2010) researched work life balance and organizational

outcomes, and suggested a link between employee engagement and work life balance. This link was proposed in a model that has not yet been tested. Other scholars tested the link between employee engagement and work–family balance and found that it was not significant (Parkes & Langford, 2008). However, work life balance was a predictor of engagement in this study. The relationship between these two constructs with employee engagement as the predictor has yet to be established. However, researchers have called for the investigation of this relationship.

Additional research has recognized personality as a potential antecedent to work life balance (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005). The neuroticism aspect of personality was shown to support the idea that personality may predict an individual's ability to attain a balanced feeling, but further research was needed to reinforce this claim. Frone (2003) has also suggested that personality plays an integral role in determining work life balance. While there are studies that have partially demonstrated a link between the two constructs (Devi & Rani, 2012; Eby, Maher, & Butts, 2010; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000b), there is limited understanding of how personality as a whole predicts work life balance. Most of the research only examines specific dimensions of personality.

With specific regard to the culinary industry, previous research has shown that work in a professional kitchen as a chef is challenging due to the untraditional and long work hours, problem acquiring days off, intense physical demands, and lack of benefits afforded (Bartholomew & Garey, 1996). Karatepe (2013) suggested that an individual's fit within the organizational climate contributes to understanding work-life balance among front-line employees and managers in the hospitality industry. It would, therefore, be worthwhile to explore the organizational climate in the kitchen, a previously

unexplored realm, in order to ascertain whether it affects achievement of work life balance.

Finally, there are no extant studies of which the researcher is aware that examined the predictive qualities of callings in relation to work life balance. It will be shown in subsequent sections that executive chef is a position that meets the definition of work as a calling. Moreover, the way in which calling is defined suggests that there should be a relationship with work life balance. Accordingly, this relationship will be examined.

Given the numerous variables that have been suggested as antecedents to work life balance, and the benefits when balance has been achieved, it is important to understand these variables and their predictive relationship to work life balance. More specifically, in the context of hospitality and the kitchen, it is important to understand whether or not these variables help to predict work life balance for executive chefs, as this position in the organization is one that is not readily interchangeable and is pivotal to organizational success. In order to better understand the predictive variables associated with work life balance (callings, employee engagement, personality, organizational climate, gender and family roles) it is first important to explain the theory that supports work life balance.

Theoretical Framework

Due to the complexity and multifaceted nature of work life balance, there are several theories used to explain this elusive phenomenon. The theories used to help support previous studies include role theory, spillover theory, boundary theory and numerous others. Due to the fluid definition of work life balance, theories such as role and spillover are pivotal to this study. In an effort to better understand work life balance,

role theory will be used to explain the association between work life balance and callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, personality, gender, and parenthood.

Role Theory

There have been several studies that explore and apply role theory to work life balance in order to help explain the construct (Graham, Sorell, & Montgomery, 2004; Jang & Zippay, 2011). The theory posits that individuals impress upon themselves personal and social expectations related to the myriad roles that they might hold (e.g., employee, parent, caretaker) (Graham, Sorell, & Montgomery, 2004). In fact, researchers have maintained that, "everyday life is increasingly mediated through formal roles in organizational settings" (Ashforth et al., 2000, 472).

In 1936, Ralph Linton, a prominent anthropologist proposed that there was a definite difference between an individual's status or position and their role. He wrote that a status was "simply a collection of rights and duties" whereas "a role represents the dynamic aspect of status" (Linton, 1936, p. 113). Thus, a role is performed when the rights and duties that comprise the position or status are carried out. However, Linton (1936) goes on to write that the two constructs, status and role, are inseparable, that one does not exist without the other. Moreover, he establishes that the term role has a duplicitous meaning. Linton informs that, "every individual has a series of roles deriving from the various patterns in which he participates and at the same time *a role*, general, which represents the sum of these roles and determines what he does for his society and what he can expect from it" (1936, p.114). This theoretical foundation comprising both position and role is one has been adopted by social scientists (Biddle & Thomas, 1966). Additionally, there is underlying implication in the notion that one's behavior can be

viewed as the performance of a role—role is subsequently a link between one's behavior and social constructs (Biddle & Thomas, 1966).

Specifically, when referring to a position in terms of role, position is representative of a recognized category of individuals (e.g., executive chef). There are several factors that require understanding for position to be fully realized. In order to fully comprehend the term, one must be able to recognize people associated with the position (e.g., celebrity chefs, local chefs), the skill aptitude necessary for the position (e.g., culinary knowledge, knife skills, etc.), and salience of the conduct of the individuals who comprise that group (e.g., chef instructors, teachers). Ultimately, position, in contrast to role, is operationally defined as "a collectively recognized category of persons for whom the basis of such differentiation is their common attribute, their common behavior, or the common reactions of others toward them" (Biddle & Thomas, 1966, p.29).

There are myriad lenses through which various role variables may be studied. Role can be viewed in terms of conflict, expectancy, socialization, acquisition, differentiation, prejudice, and adjustment to name a few. Because role theory is essentially the study of "real-life behavior as it is displayed in genuine, on-going social situations," it affords researchers the ability to examine issues pertaining to "processes and phases of socialization, interdependences among individuals, the characteristics and organization of social positions, processes of conformity and sanctioning, specialization of performance and the division of labor, and many others" (Biddle & Thomas, 1966, p. 17).

It is appropriate to partition individuals when applying role theory into sections

based upon behavior. The implication in partitioning individuals by behavior is that the behavior being examined differs from behavior in general. Hence, there are two types of relationship that an individual may have with the person in a given role: reflexive or interpersonal. A reflexive understanding of the behavior implies that the individual evaluating the behavior has the same role as the individual exhibiting it (e.g., executive chef assessing the behavior of another executive chef). An interpersonal assessment of behavior involves someone outside of the domain evaluating the behavior of the individual in a specific domain (e.g., customer evaluating the behavior of executive chef). Other behavior assessments include self-assigned assessments (e.g., an executive chef's descriptions of the norms of executive chefs) and other-assigned assessments (e.g., an executive chef's descriptions of the norms of customers). While behavior can be partitioned into categories including action, prescription, evaluation, description and sanction, action is the partition that is pertinent in this study (Biddle & Thomas, 1966).

Role theory, in the context of the organization, proposes that one's life is comprised of various roles across all work and life domains (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). The scarcity hypothesis maintains that the capacity and individual has regarding both psychological and physical resources are fixed, and the result is that each person has only a partial ability to fulfill certain life domains (Graves, Ohlott, & Ruderman, 2007). This hypothesis is also referred to as role conflict or the depletion argument. The role conflict/ depletion argument asserts that two or more concurrent pressures occur and a compliance with one pressure would necessarily encumber compliance with the other pressure (Lenaghan, Buda, & Eisner, 2007). Role conflict may be experienced when there exists an incompatibility between aspects of respective roles

(Thoits, 1992). When an individual is unable to satisfy the needs imposed by various role pressures, psychological conflict may be the result (Kahn et al., 1964). Additionally, when an individual is unclear about which role to assume or how to assume a particular role in a given situation, role confusion is often the outcome (Thoits, 1992). This confusion often results in spillover.

Spillover theory explores the point at which experiences from work intersect with experiences from family life and the point at which the emotional states from the home and workplace influence behavior in the other (Keene & Reynolds, 2005; Jang & Zippay, 2011). Both positive and negative emotional outcomes in the life and work domains have been examined in order to assess the emotional spillover that affects performance at both work and home. For example, studies have explored how overtime may cause irritable behavior at home, or how a sleepless night due to a sick child affects performance in the workplace (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000a). While a great deal of literature examines the negative affects of spillover from work to life, family support and social support outside of the workplace has been shown to have a positive effect on the individual's performance, motivation, commitment and satisfaction in the workplace (Adams, King, & King, 1996; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000a). The term positive spillover is used to connote the positive emotions, energy, and motivation that permeate the home from the positive experiences that occur in the work domain, and vice versa (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Two decades of research examining the ways in which family issues spill over into the workplace (family-work conflict) and the ways in which work issues spill over family life (work-family conflict) demonstrate a continued interest in this phenomenon (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005).

Previous literature has revealed that personal life satisfaction is more important to fulfill than is job satisfaction (Koubova & Buchko, 2013). Koubova and Buchko (2013) found that when satisfaction of personal life was more readily fulfilled, the result translated into better work performance and greater possibility for one's career. The authors' purported that their findings were supported by the fact that the emotions that were generated in the life domain proved stronger that those experienced in the work domain. They asserted that individuals who can cultivate and maintain better relationships with friends and family are better able to concentrate on work tasks, are higher performers, and are more likely to experience professional growth opportunities (Koubova & Buchko, 2013). Contrarily, previous studies have shown that personal life domains do not interfere with the work domain as much as work interfered with personal life (Hsieh, Pearson, Chang, & Uen, 2004; Hsieh, Kline, & Pearson, 2008). Based on the conflicting findings, this theory provides a foundation and justification for further investigation of career satisfaction and life satisfaction as predictors for work life balance.

Given the ideas that resources are fixed and that one does not have the capacity to successfully fulfill both life and career pressures concurrently, the depletion argument and the scarcity hypothesis both support a negative relationship between family life and career advancement (Graves et al., 2007; Lyness & Judiesch, 2008; Netemeyer, Maxham, & Pullig, 2005). Role theory in conjunction with spillover theory establishes the basis for continued exploration and explanation of the relationship between callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, personality, gender, parenthood, and work life balance. Therefore, a model was conceptualized based on role theory.

Conceptual Model

The model was comprised of individual, psychological and organizational factors that were predicted to have a relationship with work life balance and are presented in Figure 1. The individual factors include the demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, parenthood) of the participants. The psychological factors include the characteristics of calling and personality that are unique to individual. The organizational factors include employee engagement and organizational climate, which provides the individual's perspective of the organization and his or her involvement with the organization. Ultimately, the model demonstrates the relationship among (1) the individual factors, and the psychological and organizational factors; (2) the individual factors and work life balance; (3) the psychological and organizational factors and work life balance; and (4) the individual factors, and the psychological and organizational factors, and work life balance.

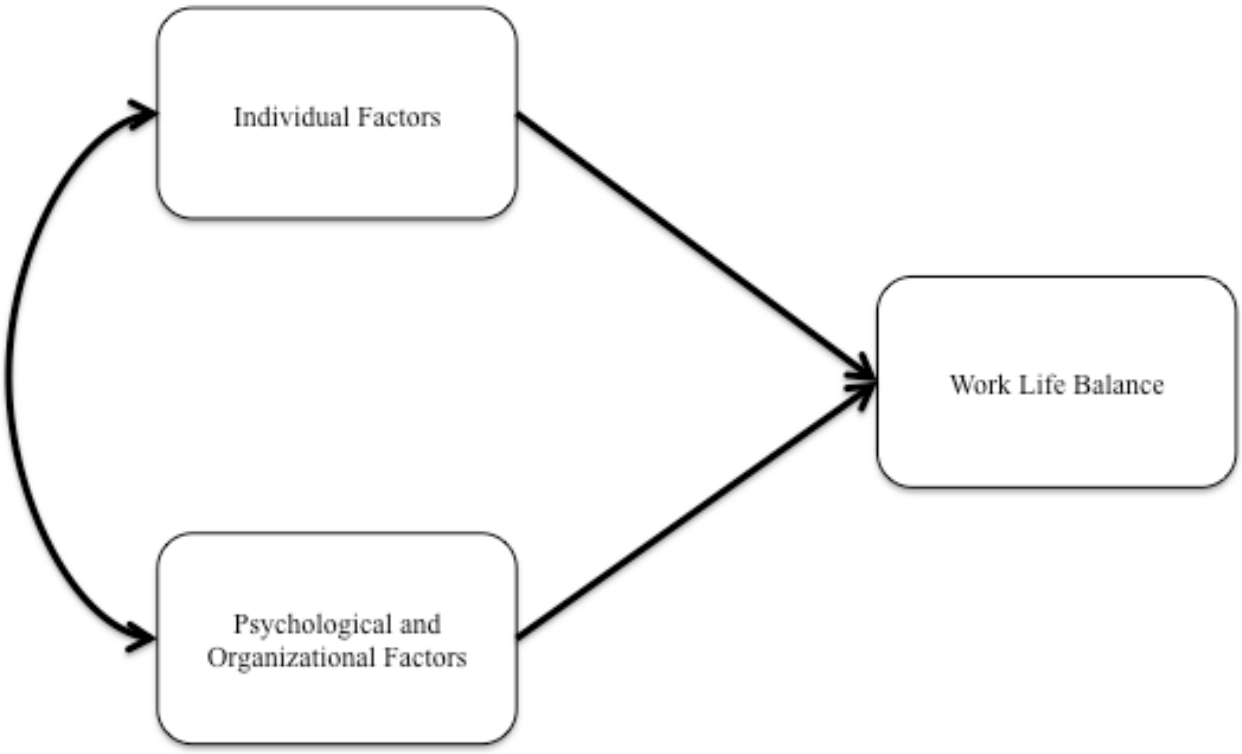

Figure 1. Conceptual Model of the Factors Affecting Work Life Balance.

Callings

The importance of understanding the perceptions and attitudes an individual holds with regard to the work they do has been touted by organizational behavior scholars and human relations scholars for decades (Dobrow & Totsi-Kharas, 2011; Wrzeniewski, 2003). What motivates an individual to perform well and how they find meaning in the line of work they choose has been of particular interest in recent years (Dobrow & Totsi-Kharas, 2011). When an individual experiences deep meaning from their work, this may be characterized as a calling (Wrzeniewski, 2003). Because research has demonstrated that there are myriad positive outcomes both in the workplace and in the domain of life experienced by individuals who view their line of work as a calling, a greater

understanding of calling is necessary in determining and understanding how people derive meaning from their work and life (Dobrow & Totsi-Kharas, 2011). In order to better grasp the construct of callings and to help further elucidate how to achieve it, it is important to understand its origins, the previous ways in which it has been defined, the most appropriate operational definition of a calling, the ways in which role theory helps to support and explain callings, the difference between a job, a career and a calling, its previously established outcomes, and the ways in which it relates to work life balance.

The origins of life's work being a calling stem from a religious context in which a person was called by God to partake in work that served a religious purpose: it was one's duty or destiny (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009). As early as the 16th or 17th century, Protestants maintained that the concept of callings should be expanded because any occupation could have spiritual meaning (Hunter, Dik, & Banning, 2010). Over time, the definition of calling was extended to incorporate a secular meaning. Callings can thus be segmented into religious, secular, occupational, and non-occupational domains (Elangovan, Pinder, & McLean, 2010). Further, an individual with a calling is compelled to pursue a line of work that both serves a greater purpose and the common good (Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997; Wrzesniewski, 2003; Wrzesniewski, 2012). More specifically, someone who is called to enter a certain line of work does so without monetary motivation; rather the work serves as a form of personal fulfillment, and the person being called is motivated by the meaning and purpose of the work (Baumeister, 1991; Dobrow, 2006; Dobrow & Totsi-Kharas, 2011; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Wrzesniewski, 2012). Specifically, the work is intrinsically linked to the identity of the worker (Berg, Grant, & Johnson, 2010; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997) and

their self-esteem; it provides a sense of meaning (Dobrow, 2006; Wrzesniewski, 2012). Regardless of the way in which the definition of callings evolves, its religious roots permeate and continue to help guide the way in which the construct is explained.

Seminal research reveals that there are three distinct ways in which a person may view his or her line of work: as a job, income generation; as a career, advancement in a given field; or calling, a sense of individual fulfillment through the work, and that the work is an end in itself (Baumeister, 1991; Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swindler, & Tipton, 1985; Wrzesniewski, 2012; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Those individuals who view their work as a job do not seek or obtain any benefits from their work other than material benefits and their primary interests and ambitions are not conveyed through their work. Comparatively, individuals who view their work as a career seek and obtain personal enrichment through advancement in the organization in the forms of greater self-esteem, greater social standing, and greater power within the organization (Bellah et al., 1985). Individuals who view their work as callings, by contrast, view their work and life as an inseparable entity. Individuals with callings work for the sense of fulfillment they achieve through their work instead of for material gain (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997).

There are countless anecdotes of individuals pursuing a career because they were somehow 'born to do it.' The idea that someone's line of work is somehow written into their DNA, that some higher power has called them to perform a specific task in order to bring satisfaction to themselves and others, is a notion that emerged from the clergy and that has permeated the modern workplace. Often, when an individual comes of age in the U.S., there is both an internal and external drive to "make something of yourself" through work (Bellah et al., 1985). In fact, the ways in which an individual defines work is often

closely linked with their self-identity—the work that one does often translates into who one is (Bellah et al., 1985). The implications that when work is experienced as a calling it is intrinsically linked to self-identity, has myriad implications for the ways in which work is approached.

Further, American culture provides little guidance in terms of how to fulfill oneself. The goal is often to become an individual, "almost to give birth to oneself" in order to define one's meaning in life (Bellah et al., 1985, 82). At best, society offers two very broad means through which and individual may become the autonomous, responsible person that society impresses one ought to: work and life. The work realm enables a person to demonstrate utilitarian individualism in which they can prove their ability to be self-reliant in a respective occupation (Bellah et al., 1985). This realm allows men and women to demonstrate to their occupational peers that they can thrive in the workplace. In the life realm, the goal is to achieve expressive individualism, to find a similar group of people (or at least one person) who share in the leisure pursuits of the individual and cultivate "an atmosphere of acceptance, happiness and love" (Bellah et al., 1985, 83). More to the point, an individual who participates in developing their life and work as a calling fosters a self worth through social means in an effort to cultivate a more just and caring society. Bellah et al., (1985) explained that:

> we discover who we are face to face and side by side with others in work, love, and learning. All of our activity goes on in relationships, groups, associations, and communities ordered by institutional structures and interpreted by cultural patterns of meaning….connectedness to others in work, love, and community is essential to happiness, self-esteem, and moral worth (p. 84).

Thus, according to these scholars, achievement in the combination of the work and life realms is highly satisfying.

There are several professions in which the idea of having a calling to perform a job is pervasive, and being a chef is one such profession. Chefs have described themselves as individuals "who pursued [their] deepest passion[s]" (Samuelsson & Chambers, 2012, p. 198) and researchers have maintained that in order to reach an echelon of culinary excellence, one must be "driven by a compulsion that few would feel" (Pratten, 2003, p.458). There is emerging literature on callings, but also an important need for research particularly as it relates to the secular workplace (e.g., executive chef) (Wrzesniewski, 2012).

Defining Callings

Due to the evolutionary manner of the definition of callings, scholars have argued that constructs such as callings that tend to change over time warrant continued investigation and exploration (Hunter et al., 2010). Early definitions of the construct are as abstract as a call to serve God (Davidson & Caddell, 1994). While efforts have been undertaken to delineate the meaning of calling specific to work, because of the religious underpinnings of the construct, its definition with regard to secular work has varied (Duffy, 2006). Everything from what a calling is to where one experiences a calling has been debated (Dobrow & Totsi-Kharas, 2011). To demonstrate the number of distinct yet analogous definitions of the construct, callings has been described as the type of work one chooses (Hall & Chandler, 2005), one place in the hierarchy of an organization (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009), one's work orientation (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), or the motivational factors that drive one to pursue a specific career (Dik & Duffy, 2009).

In earlier literature, work-related definitions include the pursuit of a specific kind of work due to a command from God (Dalton, 2001), an orientation toward work driven

by the desire for self-fulfillment and the need to positively contribute to society (Bellah et al., 1986; Dobrow & Totsi-Kharas, 2011; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), the perception that the type of work one has chosen to pursue is his or her purpose (Hall & Chandler, 2005), and a sense of direction instilled by God that enables one to sense their own giftedness and vocational purpose (Sellers, Thomas, Batts, & Ostman, 2005). Additionally, callings have been defined as "a consuming, meaningful passion people experience toward a domain" (Dobrow & Totsi-Kharas, 2011). While the definition of callings has shifted, all previous explanations of the construct have overlapping qualities. There are three crucial elements of the construct that have remained constant: callings are action-oriented, callings provide a sense of mission and meaning, and callings are pro-social in focus (Dik, & Duffy, 2009; Wrzesniewski, 2012).

First, the action-orientation of the construct callings reveals an emphasis on doing something; the term inherently advocates a call to action (Elangovan et al., 2010). Regardless of whether one is compelled by God to pursue a passion or is guided through some internal stimuli, one pivotal underlying premise of a calling is that a course of action must be taken in order to fulfill it (Elangovan et al., 2010). The focus of a calling, then, is explicitly on what one does (Grant, 2007); it is on the actions that are elicited by the beliefs and values one has.

The second salient attribute of a calling is that it provides an individual with a sense of meaning, purpose, direction, and mission (Dik & Duffy, 2009; Elangovan et al., 2010). These characteristics are what compel the individual to identify with and take action. Previous scholars have maintained that individuals find meaning from the work that they do; that self-identity is realized through one's vocation (Bellah et al., 1985;

Norton, 1976). Ultimately, this concept reveals that an individual's work helps to shape that individual—one is what one does (Elangovan et al., 2010). Other authors have similarly argued that in order to foster meaningfulness, an individual's self-identity or identities must be associated with work (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). That is to say that both life and livelihood must be intermingled to achieve authenticity (Bolman & Deal, 2001). Finally, research has revealed a strong relationship between callings and self-clarity (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007).

Finally, the pro-social focus of the construct of callings reveal an individual's desire to enhance the world in some way, to somehow make it better (Elangovan et al., 2010). To expand on this point, the idea is not just that one has a purpose, but that purpose is in some way for the greater good (Bellah et al., 1985; Dik & Duffy, 2009; Elangovan et al., 2010; & Wrzeniewski et al., 1997). This pro-social orientation toward work has been seen as a delineating factor between those individuals who view work as a calling and those who do not (Grant, 2007), those employees who view work as a calling are usually compelled to better the world, whereas those who do not possess this view of their work are less inclined to have this drive.

Given the plethora of definitions of callings and acknowledging the similarities and differences among and between them, it is important to operationally define the construct. For the purposes of this study, callings will be defined as "the enactment of personally significant beliefs through work" (Wrzesniewski, 2012, p. 46) and any type of role may be a calling. This definition incorporates the characteristics of passion, meaning, purpose and direction inherent in previous descriptions of callings while highlighting the fact that there is not a specific realm in which one must pursue a calling—any vocation or

career path that is pursued in order to advance or support personally significant beliefs may be a calling. To further this point, previous scholars have asserted that it is not work in general with which a calling is associated, rather it is a specific domain (e.g., cooking, teaching, music, art) toward which the calling is directed (Wrzeniewski et al., 1997). A further implication of this definition is that a calling may be pursued in any role of one's life (Super, 1980); it is not confined to one's career or work role (Dobrow & Totsi-Kharas, 2011; Schuurman, 2004) as previously defined in extant literature (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Hall & Chandler, 2005). Subsequently, one may report to have a calling in a specific life domain or relationship (e.g., parent), or may report several callings in within and outside of the work context (Oates, Hall, & Anderson, 2005). This definition of callings is thus supported by previous literature.

Callings and Work Life Balance

Several theories have been used previously to explain the construct of callings due to the intricate nature of understanding both what the meaning of work is to an individual, and then how that relates to the rest of that individual's life. For instance, social learning theory has been used to explain the imitation of observed behaviors and highlight the importance of parental behavior in shaping one's definition of a calling (Bandura, 1977). Similarly, social reproduction theory posits that paternal occupation successfully predicts the occupation and level of that occupation achieved by children (Robinson & Garnier, 1985). There exists in both of these theories the attribution of one's definition of success to what has been set forth by role models. Another theory that has been used to support callings is object relations theory, which offers an explanation of the types of relationships or representations of work that an individual is likely to foster (Masling &

Bornstein, 1994). Self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) purports that an individual's behavior and actions may be rationalized by acknowledging one's desire to limit the discrepancies among the various images one has of oneself; that is to distinguish between one's ideal self, one's self as one thinks one ought to be, and one's actual self. Finally, identity theory, similar to self-discrepancy theory, has been used to authenticate positive identities that an individual has of himself, as well as to validate those that he wishes others to have of him. Tajfel and Turner (1979) suggest that one attains positive identity through comparisons of others in similar groups or domains to oneself. Many of these aforementioned theories are rooted in role theory.

Due to the complexity and multifaceted nature of work life balance, there are similarly several theories used to explain this elusive phenomenon. The theories used to help support previous studies include role theory, spillover theory, and boundary theory. Due to the fluid definition of work life balance, theories such as role and spillover are pivotal to this study. In an effort to better understand the link between work life balance, and callings, role theory will be used to explain the association.

Recent scholars in organizational behavior have emphasized the need to reestablish the construct of calling as a conduit for infusing meaningfulness into work and other life roles (Bellah et al., 1985; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Schuurman, 2004; Treadgold, 1999; Wrzesniewski, et al., 1997). There are several positive psychological outcomes including job satisfaction, increased health and increased life that research suggests is associated with experiencing work as a calling (Hall & Chandler, 2005, Wrzesniewski et al. 1997). Research has revealed that occupational callings are associated with feelings of passion; an individual is fervently emotionally predisposed to

partake in work activities that they find important, interesting and worth their energy and time (Berg et al., 2010). By contrast, those individuals who view their jobs as work and who separate their work from their sense of self tend to approach work from a calculated perspective; their commitments are linked to and contingent upon the specific benefits that the work yields and the character enriching benefits are absent (Bellah et al., 1985). When one commits to becoming an expert in their craft through a calling, not only does that individual enrich their sense of self, but they anchor themselves within the community of other professionals who share in their passion for their careers, subsequently linking them to those that they serve (Bellah et al., 1985).

Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) have demonstrated that individuals who report having a calling display lower levels of absenteeism from work and put more time into their work. Additionally, this study and one other revealed that health satisfaction, work satisfaction and life satisfaction were all positive results of individuals who had callings (Dobrow, 2006; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Other studies revealed an association between callings and high levels of intrinsic motivation (Wrzesniewski, 2012); callings and strong levels of engagement and identification with work (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Dobrow, 2006); and callings and levels of high performance at work (Hall & Chandler, 2005). Finally, previous literature reveals that individuals who view work as a calling have a lower probability of experiencing stress, depression and conflict between their work and life domains (Oates et al., 2005; Treadgold, 1999). Because there are myriad positive outcomes of callings, it is important to understand the relationship between this construct and work life balance. Organizational psychologists have posited that positivity incites positivity (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012). Given the permeation of

the sentiments experienced from one role to another, it stands to reason that callings would help to create work life balance. More specifically, given the nature of the kitchen and the presence of callings among executive chefs, it is important to understand what type of relationship the construct of callings has with work life balance in this particular domain.

A limited amount of callings research has shown that in the absence of calling, work life balance is inherently more difficult to achieve. This is likely due to the psychological role factors that encourage identification with a given role. When an individual pursues a career that is absent of a calling, but is in pursuit of success, it "dramatizes the split between public and private life—between the challenges a public self takes on and the pleasures a private life enjoys (Bellah et el, 1985, 68). Previous studies have demonstrated that there are psychological benefits associated with experiencing one's work as a calling including better health, greater job satisfaction and increased life span (Berg et al., 2010; Hall & Chandler 2005; Heslin, 2005; Wrzesniewski et al. 1997).

However, role theory also supports the converse of these findings. Literature on work life balance also reveals that when an individual strongly associates a given role (e.g., executive chef) with their self-concept, may incite feelings of preoccupation with that role and inhibit them from being emotionally present in other roles in their lives (e.g., significant other or parent) (Frone, 2003). Because there are multiple roles that comprise the individual, the role with which the individual most readily identifies may make it difficult for that individual to operate meaningfully in a second or third role (Frone, 2003). Moreover, researchers have demonstrated that individuals experience difficulty

creating boundaries between the roles: there is a spillover effect from one domain to the other (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000).

While there is a paucity of research on callings as they relate to work life balance, there is an emerging field of management researchers who are investigating the role that calling plays for adults in the workplace (Duffy, Dik, & Steger, 2011). In the existing studies on this topic, researchers found that those individuals who viewed their work as a calling experienced greater satisfaction in both work and life domains (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Wrzesniewski et al. 1997). Results from these studies suggest that for working adults, viewing work as a calling may positively relate to beneficial career and life outcomes. Individuals who view their job as a calling "may be more satisfied with life and work, may view life as more meaningful, may be more decided and committed to their careers, and may be more committed to their organizations" (Duffy et al., 2011, 211).

Role theory supports the idea that both behavioral and psychological involvement in a given role contributes to or detracts from work life balance (Frone, 2003). Because psychological involvement is viewed as the amount an individual identifies with a social role and sees it as important to their self-concept (Frone, 2003), it stands to reason that when one positively and thoroughly identifies with their work domain, that positive sentiment and role relation permeates into the life domain and vice versa. The converse, inherently, that if one does not identify with their work domain, the indifferent or negative sentiment and role relation may similarly cross into the life domain. Thus, role theory supports the relationship between an individual having a calling and having work life balance.

Additional exploratory research has shown that calling may take a duplicitous role in the form of both parenthood and career (Sellers, Thomas, Batts, & Ostman, 2005). This necessarily demands an understanding of the relationship between the vocational role and parenthood. If one can be simultaneously called to both a work and a life domain, then inherently there is a link not only between the work and life, but between having a calling and work and life. Moreover, the psychological involvement associated with these roles would necessarily be high (Frone, 2003).

Ultimately, a viable link has been established between the construct of callings and work life balance with the assistance of role theory. However, this link has yet to be established using quantitative measures to help validate the relationship and the affects of callings on work life balance. Moreover, quantitative analysis may assist with the generalizability of this relationship, in the realm of executive chefs.

H1: Callings affects work life balance.

Employee Engagement

Khan (1990) developed the construct of employee engagement based on the work of Goffman (1961). The premise of engagement is that people attach and detach from their respective work roles at varied rates and times (Goffman, 1961). Khan (1990) posited that three psychological conditions shape employee engagement: meaningfulness, availability, and safety. Psychological meaningfulness is represented by emotional, physical or cognitive energy that an individual experiences from investing time in a role (Khan, 1990). Psychological availability represents the confidence with which an individual approaches and engages in their work role. Activities that transpire outside of the work place may enhance or detract from an individual's ability to be psychologically

available for a work role (e.g., a family member's birthday or a death in the family). Psychological safety represents an individual's ability to behave in a manner that is natural and utilizes skill and aptitude in a role without fear of negative repercussion or criticism (Khan, 1990).

Further, engagement resides within the individual, not the job itself (Lewis, 2011). Thus, an individual who adopts his or her role is said to have role embracement, and an individual who demonstrates dislike or resistance to a role is said to be expressing role distance. Based on this foundation, employee engagement scholars have focused on the varying degree that an individual occupies his or her role within an organization and how psychologically present that individual is throughout the duration of his or her time at work (Khan, 1990). Engagement then, may serve as a pivotal predictor of role performance in an organization (Khan, 1990).

Accordingly, scholars maintain there exists a dynamic relationship between the individual and their work role such that engagement in the role facilitates both the self to be expressed within that role (self-expression) and the infusion of energy into specific role performances (self-employment) (Kahn, 1990). An individual's level of engagement, thus, exists on a continuum that ranges from disengagement to engagement. Further engagement is not solely an attitude, rather it is the degree to which an individual is absorbed in his or her role performance and the amount to which he or she is attentive to the work (Kahn, 1990). Thus, it has been argued that engagement is demonstrated through high levels of energy, enthusiasm about the work, and absorption in the work; it is an individual's devotion of his or her cognitive, emotional, and physical resources to work roles (Saks, 2006). Positive outcomes of being engaged include a greater likelihood

to work harder and with greater effort than those individuals who are disengaged (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2012). However, engagement is not something that can be achieved 100% of the time—recovery from intense attention and absorption is needed (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2012). Based on these attributes, engagement has been defined as the "harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles" (Kahn, 1990, p. 694) and is the combination of the three psychological states of: 1) meaningfulness, 2) safety and 3) availability. Employees were more engaged in situations in which they found meaning, felt safe, and were psychologically available (Khan, 1990; May, Gilson, & Harter, 1994).

Recent scholars have adapted this concept and defined engagement as "the degree to which employees are focused on and present in their roles" (Rothbard & Patil, 2012, p. 56). Employee engagement, then, is a state of mind that is positive and fulfilling; characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Vigor represents the level of energy and mental resilience displayed by the individual. It also is characterized by the amount of effort an individual is willing to put into their work and the amount of persistence demonstrated during difficult situations. Dedication is characterized by the amount that an individual is inspired, challenged, enthused, and finds significance in their work. The amount of pride an individual takes in work is also a trait inherent in dedication. Absorption signifies the ability of the individual to concentrate fully and the degree to which an individual becomes engrossed in the work such that time seems to pass quickly. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES*)* was developed to measure the three dimensions of vigor, dedication, and absorbtion. It has been deemed a valid and reliable measure of the engagement construct

(Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Research has shown that employees who are engaged in their work are more likely to have greater trust of their employers and a better relationship with their employers (Karatepe, 2011; Saks, 2006). It was also shown that engaged employees demonstrate higher levels of job performance (Abraham, 2012). Individual outcomes associated with employee engagement include the quality of the work produced by the individual along with positive experiences from doing the work (Kahn, 1992). When examining individuals across an organization's hierarchy, it was found that senior executives demonstrated the greatest level of engagement and the lowest level of disengagement, while line level employees showed the highest levels of disengagement (Towers Perrin, 2003). What this study suggests is that, given the level of executive chef within the hierarchy of the kitchen and the restaurant, the level of engagement displayed by the individuals occupying this role should be higher.

Employee Engagement and Work Life Balance

Motivating an individual to engage in their work role is an organizational issue that is made more complex by the fact that several roles may exist and the behaviors, emotions and feelings associated with one role may spill over into another (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). It is not always possible for an individual to leave the emotions attached with issues that arise at home outside of the workplace and vice versa. Additionally, the complexity of certain job expectations is such that multiple roles must be engaged in order to fulfill and satisfy the expectations. For example, an executive chef might be in charge of managing the kitchen and the staff (an internal role), but may also be in charge of marketing the restaurant (e.g., generating awareness through food

competitions and charity events; an external role).

The literature has revealed an absence of motivation and satisfaction in the culinary profession, specifically among chefs (Pratten, 2003). Additional research has demonstrated that intrinsic factors, including variety in the job, ability to express creativity, interesting and challenging work, and the competitive nature of the job, were all found to be more highly valued than were the extrinsic factors, like the number of days of sick leave, salary, and paid vacation days by chefs (Chuang, Yin, & Dellmann-Jenkins, 2008). Chuang et al. (2008) found that chefs who worked in fine dining and managed 21 to 30 employees experienced the highest level of satisfaction. The results of that study also found that chefs working in casual dining and managing between 31 to 40 employees experienced the lowest levels of career satisfaction. The literature in psychology has revealed that high levels of job involvement were associated with high levels of job satisfaction (Adams, King, & King, 1996). However, these findings were also associated with work interfering with family life, and with creating an imbalance or conflict between the work and life domains.

Role identification and organismic involvement are components of the phenomenon of role theory (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Biddle & Thomas, 1966). Role identification maintains that an individual is inclined to value and become involved in a role they find intrinsically satisfying, in which they are proficient, and at which they are extrinsically rewarded (Ashforth et al., 2000). Previous studies have demonstrated that those employees who are satisfied with their career choices were more likely to have been engaged and productive in the workplace (Schaufeli, 2004; Timms & Brough, 2012). For instance, a celebrity chef may choose to identify with his or her

professional role over the role of parent because there are societal benefits in addition to personal gains associated with the professional role.

Subsequently, the more an individual values a role and the identity associated with that role, the greater the likelihood of internalizing the role and viewing it as an extension of his or her self (Ashforth et al., 2000). Thus, when an individual is defined by the role he or she identifies (e.g., I am an executive chef), that is the point at which role identification occurs (Ashforth et al., 2000; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). The role is subsequently internalized by the individual and becomes, at least, a partial definition of the self—the individual effectively becomes the role (Ashforth, 1998).

Research has similarly demonstrated that the greater an individual identifies with a role, the more often that individual seeks out opportunities to express that role as an esteemed extension of their self-concept (Ashforth et al., 2000). This inherent identification prompts the individual to endeavor an integration of that role with other life roles. Thus, the boundaries created by the individual or inherent in the roles themselves, may be relaxed by the individual in order to lessen the contrast between various work and life roles (Ashforth et al., 2000). For example, an individual who identifies strongly as an executive chef might experiment with meals in the home in order to advance their career. However, there is a limit to the desired amount an of role integration (Ashforth et al., 2000). While some individuals may choose to run a family-owned businesses or to work from home, others need the physical separation of the two and the travel time to decompress and refocus from one role to another (Mirchandani, 1998; Yalof, 1988).

The immersion in the experience of a role becomes faster and easier when the individual is physically and psychologically stimulated by what the role has to offer

(Ashforth et al., 2000). To that end, engagement scholars have defined engaged employee as an individual who is physically, emotionally and cognitively expressing oneself throughout work role operations (Simpson, 2008). Immersion complements and supports the idea of absorption that serves as one dimension of employee engagement. Researchers similarly maintain that it is often more difficult to break away from the psychological aspects of work when there is strong identification. As a result, an individual who is eager to become absorbed in a role may experience reluctance at having to depart or turn off that role (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992).

Previous literature asserts that, "the integration and development of new implementable and usable initiatives aimed to engage employees… has the potential to foster a meaningful workplace that helps individuals achieve a work–life balance" (Munn, 2013, 402). The construct of engagement, at its core, denotes workers' experience as stimulating and energetic (i.e., vigor), interesting and engrossing (i.e., absorption), and meaningful and significant (i.e., dedication) (Bakker & Oerlmans, 2012). Engaged employees have been found to be self-efficient and enthusiastic individuals who have control over the circumstances and events that impact their lives (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). In fact, authors have maintained that engaged employees are those who are persistent in the face adversity in the workplace, willing to exert extra effort at work, and demonstrate high energy and flexibility in the workplace (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014).

A result of the positive attitude and engrossed nature of employees who are engaged is self-established positive feedback (Bakker & Oerlmans, 2012; Rothbard & Patil, 2012). Rothmann and Baumann (2014) found that positive work-home exchanges

had a positive direct and indirect impact on an individual's engagement in the workplace Specifically, positive work interactions spilled over into the home and further supported engagement in the workplace. This suggests that engagement and work life balance may result in self-established positive feedback. Furthermore, the enthusiasm experienced through engagement has been reported to permeate aspects of life outside of work (Bakker & Oerlmans, 2012). From this, it stands to reason that engaged employees help to create their own sense of work life balance through the inherent traits that represent their engagement at work. Additional research has shown that engagement has a significant relationship with both family and work roles (Rothbard, 2001). Specifically, both a positive and negative affect from either the family or work role was related to absorption and attention in that role (Rothbard, 2001).

H2: Employee engagement affects work life balance.

Organizational Climate

Organizational climate represents the conceptualization of the way individuals experience and explain their workplace (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013) Organizational climate has been defined as one's "perception of the psychologically important aspects of the work environment" (Ashforth, 1985; p. 837). These important aspects perceived by an employee are, in part, shaped by the policies, procedures, and practices that are established in the workplace and, in part, a result of the observed behaviors that are rewarded, supported, and subsequently expected by the organization (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins, 2003; Patterson et al., 2005; Schneider & Reichers, 1983; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2011; Scheneider et al., 2013). Inherent in the definition of organizational climate, then, is the idea that each individual has a unique understanding

of the organizational climate and may be viewed in various ways—it is not something that is achieved through consensus (Klein, Conn, Smith, & Sorra, 2001).

To build on this idea, previous research has maintained that a major accomplishment of organizational climate research is the emphasis being placed on specific climates (Patterson et al., 2005; Schneider et al., 2013). While extant literature has revealed that there are between 6 and 11 dimensions of organizational climate, there is a need for research to examine a less generic and more focused area of climate that explores specific outcomes (Schneider et al., 2013). Specifically, what organizational climate scholars are looking for is research that utilizes measures that are salient to the organizational context. Ultimately, prominent scholars have called for measures that "match the bandwidth and focus of the outcome to be predicted" (Schneider et al., 2013, p. 365). Potential and recognized employee outcomes of a positive organizational climate include increased retention rates, productive behaviors (i.e., increased attendance, improved performance, extra role behaviors), and psychological and physical well-being (Gormley & Kennerly, 2009; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnystsky, 2002).

The plea for a more focused research stream begs for researchers to examine not only those measures that help explain the predicted outcome (e.g., work life balance), but the subunit of the organization that is of interest (e.g., management) in order to develop a meaningful survey with both valid and reliable measures (Schneider et al., 2013). This could be taken further and individual positions (e.g., executive chef) across similar organizations could be studied to determine if there exists a common perception of climate. In order to accomplish this, it is first necessary to identify the outcome of interest and then to determine which measures will facilitate a better understanding of

that outcome.

In keeping with this appeal for a more specific examination of the construct, researchers have determined that looking specifically at the psychological components of organizational climate is pivotal to understanding this complex, multi-dimensional construct (Koys & DeCotiis, 1991). Focusing on the psychological factors of organizational climate enables researchers to gain a more comprehensive analysis of the individual's assessment of the organization (Koys & DeCotiis, 1991). Moreover, the function of climate is to prompt and guide an individual's behavior toward those that are desired by the organization (Koys & DeCotiis, 1991).

There are several primary characteristics that comprise the climate perceptions of the individual. First, perceptions of climate are specifically distinct from an evaluation of the employee's experience in an organization (Ashforth, 1985). That is, an individual's perceptions of climate do not account for the satisfaction or dissatisfaction they may have experienced, rather it is simply the description of the experience within the climate (Schneider, 1975). A second feature of organizational climate is that it is reasonably stable over time (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970). The third defining feature of organizational climate is that it is commonly viewed by the majority of individuals within the organization or the specific unit within the organization (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Payne & Pugh, 1975). However, multiple climates may exist within the same organization as the perception of the climate may vary between hierarchical levels, as well as in different departments that serve different functions within the organization, and in different geographic locations of the organization (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Payne & Mansfield, 1973; Schneider & Hall, 1972). Accordingly, there has been some concern

expressed that there may be as many climates within an organization as there are individuals that comprise it (Johannesson, 1971). However, if a systematic effort is made to determine whether or not there is significant variance in organizational climate on a number of objective demographic measures (e.g., age, gender, marital status, years of service.) then representative climate information may be attributed to the organization and its various hierarchical levels (Hellriegel & Slocum Jr., 1974).

There have been several attempts to focus the research on climate in order to enhance its validity (Hellriegel & Slocum Jr., 1974; Schneider et al., 2013). Research attempts to assess organizational climate has predominantly examined workers' perceptions of how the climate contributed to the employees' well-being (Schneider et al., 2011). Looking specifically at the service industry, previous studies have shown that employee engagement (Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005), transformational leadership (Liao & Chuang, 2007), and servant leadership (Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010) serve as antecedents that predict the service climate. Additionally, role theory has been used explain workers' perceptions of organizational climate. Previous literature revealed a significant negative correlation between role ambiguity, role conflict and dimensions of organizational climate (Gormley & Kennerly, 2010).

Similarly, there have been various outcomes that result from a positive organizational climate. Organizational scholars have recognized climate as a likely influence on both the behavior and job satisfaction of employees in the workplace (Ashforth, 1985; Johnstone & Johnston, 2005). Research has also shown that social support within organizations may reduce the effects of occupational stressors and may help individuals to better cope with work environment (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994;

Peterson, 1997). Organization climate has been recognized as an important factor to understand in the hospitality industry (Manning, Davidson, & Manning, 2004). There have been a number of organizational outcomes linked to climate including workplace productivity (James & Jones, 1974), organizational commitment (Lam, Lo, & Chan, 2002), organizational change and development (Morrison & Milliken, 2000), and organizational satisfaction (Ghiselli, LaLopa, & Bai, 2001).

Organizational Climate and Work Life Balance

The establishment of the link between organizational climate and work life balance has begun, but is far from being substantiated, particularly in the hospitality industry. Role identity theory may serve to buttress this link. Role identities are those that incorporate the goals, beliefs, norms, interaction styles and values of an individual (Stryker, 1980). Like the organizational climate is an individual's perception of the work environment, the role an individual assumes within that climate is similarly reflective of his or her perception of what that role means and entails. In fact, an individual's role identity is partly shaped by the physical space in which the role is appropriate (Ashforth et al., 2000). Thus, an individual's role will ultimately influence their perception of the organizational climate. Moreover, in the case of higher levels of management (e.g., executive chef), these individuals help to dictate the organizational climate.

Findings from one study on organizational climate revealed that work environments that were perceived as supportive, cohesive, inclusive and low pressure had respondents who tended to report higher levels of job satisfaction, whereas those climates that were perceived as high pressure tended to incite a drive to work hard in respondents (Johnstone & Johnston, 2005).

Earlier research in organizational climate examined the relationship between work-family conflict, work overload, development opportunities, career advancement goals, career advancement expectations, and turnover intention (Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, & Parasuraman, 1997). Accountants who were either married or had children or both were studied. While the findings revealed a higher attrition rate for women than for men, this finding was explained by differences in career aspirations and not work family conflict issues. Additionally, it was found that work overload contributed to turnover intentions, not work-family conflict (Greenhaus et al., 1997).

In a later study linking organizational climate and work-life balance (Behson, 2002), employed students from an American university were sampled in order to examine the effect of family-friendly work climates on job satisfaction, commitment to the organization and work-family conflict. The findings of this study revealed that perceptions of family-friendly work culture did significantly affect work-family conflict. However, none of the other examined variables were statistically significantly affected by this culture.

A final study examined the influence of work role and perceptions of work climate on organizational commitment among nurses in academia (Gormley & Kennerly, 2010). A dynamic relationship between organizational climate, role ambiguity, role conflict and work role balance was established. Both role ambiguity and role conflict have been said to happen in circumstances where the responsibilities required of multiple roles confound and stretch the work role to the point of strain (Gormley & Kennerly, 2010). This study revealed that when role ambiguity and role conflict were said to occur in the workplace, it affected work climate and commitment in a negative way (Gormley

& Kennerly, 2010).

Finally, none of the studies on organizational climate focus specifically on the managerial level employees who influence climate. Given the call for research to address these subunits within the organization in order to better understand the construct of organizational climate (Patterson et al., 2005; Schneider et al., 2013), it stands to reason that those individuals who help dictate the climate also warrant investigation to see how it affects them and their work life balance. Moreover, by learning more about executive chefs' perceptions of organizational climate, kitchen environments may be constructed that support positive relationships, encourage cooperative methods, and facilitate enhanced role clarity.

H3: Organizational climate affects work life balance.

Personality

The taxonomy of traits that comprise personality have been of interest to researchers since as early as the 1930's when McDougall (1932) asserted that, personality may "be broadly analyzed into five distinguishable but separate factors…." (p. 15). Over time scholars developed taxonomies as complex as having 16 principal factors and 8 minor factors (Cattell, 1948), though this taxonomy was not replicable (Tupes & Christal, 1961). Since then, the principal traits used to characterize personality have been examined, revised and amended in an effort by social scientists to capture the dimensions of human personality (Barrick & Mount, 1991), but the relative consensus has been that there exist five factors that capture personality (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa & McCrae, 1988; Tupes & Christal, 1961). Accordingly, modern psychologists and behavioral scientists have popularized the use of the Big Five (Goldberg, 1990) as a

typology that represents personality.

However, the five-factor model is not without detraction. Block (1995) maintains that the five-factor model is atheoretical in nature, that the efficacy of the use of factor analysis is questionable in this situation, and that the five-factor model is an ideal that is not sufficiently elaborate such that a consensus has been reached. Other scholars have expressed reservations regarding the imprecision with which the dimensions that comprise the five-factor model have been specified (Briggs, 1989; John, 1989). It has also been suggested by researchers that five dimensions are not enough to capture the personality domain. While Hogan (1986) proposed that six dimensions consisting of adjustment, prudence, sociability, ambition, intellectance, and likeability were more appropriate for encompassing personality, other researchers have proposed that this distinction is simply the division of extraversion into sociability and ambition (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Given these caveats and alternative propositions, there is an increasing amount of evidence to support the robustness of the five-factor model (McCrae & John, 1992). Goldberg (1981) tested the model across several theoretical frameworks. Myriad scholars have also tested this model across varying cultures to determine its strength (Allik & McCrae, 2009; McCrae, Costa, & Yik, 1996), including a study conducted by McCrae, Terracciano, and 78 other members involved with the Personality of Cultures Project in 2005. Several different instruments have been used to examine and support the efficacy of the model (Costa & McCrae, 1988; McCrae & Costa, 1987, 1989; McCrae, Zonderman, Costa, Bond, & Paunonen, 1996). Another noteworthy feature of the five-factor model is its relative independence from measures of cognitive ability (McCrae &

Costa, 1987).

Even with mounting evidence to support the five-factor model, there are several iterations that have emerged in the extant literature. Due to the broad and inclusive nature of the factors, there is some variance in both the meaning and the phrasing of the five-factor model and its measure (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Semantics are largely what distinguish the traits highlighted in the five factor model, but the various archetypes will be given attention in order to demonstrate their similarities and utility. The five traits used to represent personality are extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness.

Extraversion is the first and most widely agreed upon dimension of personality (Barrick & Mount, 1991). The two most common names by which this dimension is referred to are Extraversion or Surgency (Digman & Takemoto-Chock, 1981; Goldberg, 1990; Hakel, 1974; Hogan, 1983; John, 1989; McCrae & Costa, 1985; Norman, 1963). Extraversion has been described as an individual's propensity to be sociable, assertive, gregarious, active, talkative, and have an overall positive emotionality (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Devi & Rani, 2012). It should be noted that this dimension should be separated into sociability and ambition Hogan, 1986).

Emotional stability, the second personality dimension, is also largely agreed upon in the literature (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Titles including emotional stability, emotionality, stability and neuroticism have all been used to represent this dimension of personality (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Goldberg, 1990; Hakel, 1974; John, 1989; McCrae & Costa, 1985; Norman, 1963). This dimension is comprised of traits that include balance, composure, poise, and equanimity (Devi & Rani, 2012). It has also been

associated with descriptors including being depressed, anxious, emotional, angry, worried, embarrassed and insecure (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

The third factor that helps represent personality is agreeableness. This trait has monikers including agreeableness or likeabilty (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Goldberg, 1990; Hakel, 1974; John, 1989; McCrae & Costa, 1985; Norman, 1963; Tupes & Christal, 1961). Agreeableness is comprised of traits including being courteous, flexible, helpful, soft-hearted, tolerant, likeable, cooperative, trusting, and good-natured (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Devi & Rani, 2012). People who score low on agreeableness exhibit traits like being egocentric and competitive and have been shown to define their own norms and put personal needs and viewpoints first (Devi & Rani, 2012).

Conscientiousness and conscience are the two most commonly used terms for referring to the fourth dimension of personality (Goldberg, 1990; Hakel, 1974; John, 1989; McCrae & Costa, 1985; Norman, 1963). This dimension represents being careful, organized, goal-directed, responsible, and self- disciplined. However, because individuals who score high in conscientiousness tend to be achievement-oriented, hardworking, dependable, and persevering (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Hogan, 1983; John, 1989), this dimension has also been called dependability or conformity.

The final dimension of personality is entitled openness to experience (Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1985). This dimension has also been referred to as culture (Hakel, 1974; Norman, 1963), intellect or intellectence (Digman & Takemoto-Chock, 1981; Hogan, 1983; John, 1989). Individuals who express this trait are interested in novelty, are open-minded, imaginative, intelligent, artistically sensitive, curious, and full of ideas (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Devi & Rani, 2012).

Personality and Work Life Balance

While a vast amount of literature examines role characteristics as possible causes of work life balance, emerging studies have begun to explore personality as a potential cause as well (Devi & Rani, 2012; Frone, 2003). Because personality influences behavior, it stands to reason that an individual's personality would have an effect on his or her ability to balance work and life roles. There are several five factor personality traits, including extraversion, mastery, and positive affectivity, that have been viewed as individual resources. Individuals who display these traits have demonstrated the ability to better cope with situations that arise in the work place and in their personal lives (Frone, 2003). This ability to cope inherently reduces the probability of work-life imbalance.

In fact, a review of the five domains reveals a strong relationship between work life balance and personality. Researchers have suggested that people who score high in the extraversion domain have a greater propensity to reduce negative spillover that might occur from work to home and vice versa due to their likelihood to look for solutions and helpful resources (Bernas & Major, 2000; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000b). Pervious scholars have postulated that high scores in emotional stability, also increases the likelihood that the individual will experience a reduction in negative spillover when traits like balance, poise and composure are revealed. Researchers have found that individuals with high emotional stability report experiencing greater levels of positive emotion and life satisfaction (Devi & Rani, 2012). However, these same researchers found no significant relationship between emotional stability and work life balance in their study. Additional scholars found that high levels of emotional stability were actually associated with higher levels of conflict and negative spillover (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000b).

Additional research has revealed that individuals who score high on agreeableness, (e.g., being courteous, likeable, trusting and good-natured), similarly experience lower levels of negative spillover between life and work (Eby et al., 2010). Another study examined the relationship between personality and work life balance. Agreeableness was the only trait that demonstrated a significant relationship with work life balance (Devi & Rani, 2012). Other scholars have suggested that individuals who score high in conscientiousness may experience less negative spillover between the work and life domains due to high levels of achievement orientation, organization, time management and dependability (Devi & Rani, 2012). Those who rated high in openness to experience were expected to have similar results due to the ability to find creative solutions to the problems that may cause imbalance. Ultimately, neither dimension was found to have a significant relationship with work-life balance (Devi & Rani, 2012). This last insignificant finding is particularly interesting with regard to the executive chef, as the role has been associated with high levels of creativity (Robinson & Beesley, 2010).

Additionally, previous literature has suggested that one's role and behaviors at work in conjunction with principles resultant from the five-factor model of personality explain how traits and job characteristics mutually influence work outcomes (Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013). Accordingly, role theory supports the idea that personality traits dictate an individual's desire to attain goals in the work domain through role performance (Barrick et al., 2013; Biddle & Thomas, 1966). When an individual experiences motivational forces that are associated with one's professional role (e.g., responsibilities of a chef) and these forces act in conjunction with one's motivation to achieve a goal, the result is a task-specific motivation process that influences the attainment of work

outcomes.

However, there is a paucity of literature examining personality and its effects on work life balance. Given the link between personality and behavior, coupled with conflicting findings of the effect of personality on work life balance, there is an apparent need to further explore whether or not personality affects work life balance.

H4: Personality affects work life balance.

Gender

Gender roles and differences are pivotal in understanding work life balance issues (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). Workforce participation varies by both gender and marital status according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012). A review of the changes in the work landscape over a twenty year period reveal that women have become a more dominant force in the workplace, with greater than 60% of women over 20 years old being paid for work (Winslow, 2005). This represents a 13% increase over the 20 years from 1977-1997 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2002b; Hayghe, 1997; Winslow, 2005). Moreover, looking specifically at the female demographic, divorced women had the greatest workforce presence, comprising 66% of the labor force in 2011 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). Married women represented nearly 60% of the workforce whereas their male counterparts represented nearly 75% of the workforce. Men who were divorced represented roughly 68% of the workforce (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012).

In 2012, roughly 58% of women were represented in the workforce, compared to the much higher 70% of men in the workforce (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). Additionally, in 2012 women represented 51% of the workforce in the hospitality and

leisure industry (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). While the landscape of the workforce is changing, more families are reporting dual incomes, despite the fact that most men and women assert that family is more important than work. Conventional gender roles emphasize the importance of these two domains differently—men work and women care for the home (Gutek, Nakamura, & Nieva, 1981). Gender studies, particularly gender inequality studies, reveal that men and women fill unique niches in organizations (MacDermid & Wittenborn, 2007).

Previous literature revealed that work life balance issues are complex from a gender perspective; it has been suggested that women's experiences of balance differ from men's (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Lyness & Judiesch, 2014). When gender roles are considered, research has demonstrated that the differing roles prescribed to men and women are fundamental to the societies from which they stem (Hofstede, 1980). Gender egalitarianism is the term used to represent the idea that "biological sex should determine the roles that [people] play in their homes, business organisations, and communities" (Emrich, Denmark, & Den Hartog, 2004, p. 347). In areas with low egalitarian or traditional role beliefs, women tend to experience greater work life balance issues due to the difficulties in accomplishing work and domestic responsibilities, while men may experience less balance issues as their immersion in work helps to fulfill the family role of breadwinner (Wada, Backman, & Forwell, 2010). Miller-McLemore (1994) provided further support this sentiment:

> Adulthood for men and women alike involves the developmental task of determining the place of work in their life.... Many women have an additional hurdle: they not only enter upon the external process of vocational change from

lay person to trained person, they enter upon an internal process of transformation of their core identity from private to public worker (p. 112).

Gender differences in work life balance were also studied across 36 countries. Based on the supervisory self-report ratings of 40,921 managers, a disparity existed in perceptions of balance (Lyness & Judiesch, 2014). The findings showed that both the gender of the rater and the gender of the manager being rated impacted the perception of their ability to achieve work life balance. The researchers attributed some of this to country gender egalitarian values, as those supervisors from countries with low egalitarian values tended to rate women much lower than men, whereas there was more parity in the ratings of supervisors from countries with high gender egalitarian values. The researchers further suggested that because women comprise a smaller percentage of the managerial workforce, this might explain some of the disparity in perceptions of balance (Lyness & Judiesch, 2014).

A study examining the work life support offered by companies through an examination of their websites revealed that work life balance arrangements were apparently gendered (Mescher, Benschop, & Doorewaard, 2010). The researchers found that the cultural norms of the individual who is available for full-time employment and who places work priorities ahead of life priorities were perpetuated on the companies' websites. Further, the underlying messages on their websites was that men were expected to put work first and occasionally utilize the work life arrangements being offered by the company whereas women were expected to utilize the provided arrangements, but were not portrayed as ideal workers (Mescher, Benschop, & Doorewaard, 2010). Additional research studying work life balance practices promoted

by organizations found that the policies did not lead to gender neutral or well-balanced family practices (Burnett, Gatrell, Cooper, & Sparrow, 2010). There is an assumed gendered division of labor among heterosexual couples and this assumption is entrenched in not only the policies and practices afforded to families but in society as a whole (Burnett et al., 2010).

Specific to the hospitality industry, findings from a study examining gender disparity found work family conflict to be a universal issue among female chefs (Harris & Guiffre, 2010). Women with children were particularly prone to career change and leaving the professional kitchen because of the demands of the industry and its affect on home life. Social psychology research has similarly found that in households where there were traditional gender roles, there was an increase in the negative family to work spillover for women who were employed, whereas in households with shared responsibilities, both work and life satisfaction were positively affected (Roehling, Jarvis, & Swope, 2005).

Parenthood

The struggle with navigating work and family life experienced by contemporary families is a topical issue in organizational scholarship (Hall & MacDermaid, 2009; Minnotte, 2012). While myriad extant literature has explored the link between gender disparity and work life balance issues (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Eagle, Icenogle, Maes, & Miles, 1998; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; Winslow, 2005), the focus of these studies has been predominantly on the assertion that working women, and mothers specifically, are most likely to experience tension or imbalance between work life and home life. However, more recent studies have suggested that fathers are becoming more active

participants in the family domain (Coltrane, 1996; Townsend, 2002), which indicates that the issue of balancing work and life priorities is a relevant topic for all parents, irrespective of gender.

Literature has revealed that higher levels of family involvement and positive experiences at home positively impacted the emotional level of the individual, which in turn positively influenced both career and life satisfaction (Adams, King, & King, 1996). In 2001, it was shown that married mothers, a demographic that has had historically low rates of participation in the workforce, has increased rapidly over a twenty year period from 1977-1997 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2002a).

In 2011, 53% of married couples reported income earning from both spouses, which was a nine percent increase from 1967 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). That same year, couples in which the sole source of income came from the husband represented 19% of the workforce, compared to roughly 36% in 1967. From 1970 to 2011, there was a 10% increase in the number of working wives contributing to family income, from 27% to 37%. Another significant increase is the proportion of wives who earn more in a dual-income family, with 28% of working wives earning more than their male counterparts.

Specifically examining mothers, those women who had children between the ages of six and 17 years old represented the highest rate of workforce participation at 76% compared to those women who had children that were under six years old (64.7%) and those women with children under the age of three (60.7%) (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). In 2012, those women who were unmarried and had children under the age of 18 had higher workforce participation numbers (75.8%) than did their married counterparts

(68.5%) with children under 18 years old. The cumulative representation of both married and unmarried women in the workforce with children was 70.9%, and remained constant from 2011 to 2012 (Bureau of Labor Statistic, 2012).

A national study revealed that there is increasing parity among responsibilities of both men and women in the workplace and in parental roles at home (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002). Research examining gender inequity roles revealed that there are unique niches for mothers in the workplace (MacDermid & Wittenborn, 2007). These shifting role obligations could potentially increase role stress and create tension between genders (Bond et al., 2002). Gender egalitarianism seems to permeate the social norms imbedded in the genders. Research has found that working mothers reported more conflict between balancing work and life responsibilities than did their male counterparts (Thoits, 1992). Moreover, working fathers reported greater levels of depression when unemployed than did their female counterparts (Thoits, 1992). In their work on women, men, work and family, Barnett and Hyde (2001) suggested an expansionist theory in which the various work and life roles in which women and men enact reflect a positive reality prompted by the social and structural shifts in the home and workplace.

The facilitation of balance by companies for professional, dual-earner families with dependent children, was examined by Burnett et al., (2010). Specifically, the research sought to understand how companies facilitated and enabled working parents to fulfill commitments to both the company and their children. The study revealed that the companies' policies did not facilitate balance for two reasons and both were explained by maternal versus paternal roles. First, the employment and utilization of work life balance policies was found to be gendered, as more mothers than fathers were found to exercise

flexible work schedules. The researchers attributed this to a failure on the part of organizations to acknowledge changes regarding the role of the father. Second, domestic labor, a responsibility still greatly carried by mothers, is not taken into consideration when organizations examine how to promote work life balance practices. Instead, the focus is predominantly on issues regarding childcare and paid work (Burnett et al., 2010).

Further studies have taken issue with the emphasis on the sole support of dual-earner families, as that norm is becoming less abundant. Researchers have called for a broadening of the definition of work life balance to include marginalized parents (Winslow, 2005). Additionally, there is a specific focus on mothers and their ability to balance their roles, while there is a paucity of research fathers and their ability to provide financially as well as emotionally (Winslow, 2005). Thus, a more concentrated effort must be placed on understanding both working parents, and sole-income earning parents who are married and separated in order to gain a broader and deeper understanding of how parenthood relates to work life balance.

Gender, Parenthood and Work Life Balance

Between and across the various home, work and life domains, the roles that individuals adopt and embody (e.g., parent, chef, manager) are defined by certain boundaries that help to distinguish those roles from others (Ashforth et al., 2000). The title of the role helps with association of the responsibilities and expectations that accompany the role. Role identities are formed when the role being employed connotes certain expectations of the individual. The specific goals, norms, values, beliefs, interactive styles, and time limit all comprise one's role identity (Ashforth et al., 2000). Role identities are socially constructed characterizations of how a person should behave

in a given role, and they are comprised of both core and peripheral attributes (Ashforth et al., 2000). For example, a stereotypical executive chef is someone whose core features might include being aggressive and able to delegate tasks clearly and precisely. The executive chef's peripheral features might include being intellectual and creative.

Scholars have maintained that the roles are, in a sense, bounded or delimited by a certain personal and societal definition that enables the individual to assess their relevance to a given situation in a given place (Ashforth et al., 2000). To this point, there are certain roles that are more relevant at specific times and in specific places than in others. For instance, an executive chef becomes a parent when he or she leaves the kitchen and comes home to his or her family—the role of executive chef is no longer relevant or predominant. Thus, the idea that role boundaries are formed and serve to promote silos for appropriate actions and behaviors is pivotal to understanding the way in which the roles of gender and parenting affect work life balance (Ashforth et al., 2000).

Role theory scholarship provides conceptual support for role boundary creation through the notion that transitioning from one role to another requires that the roles be both flexible and permeable. The flexibility of a role is the extent to which the role can transcend space and time boundaries (Hall & Richter, 1988). The more flexible a role, the more that it can be carried out in different environments and at various times. For example, an executive chef of a family-owned restaurant may play the part of father or son while at work. Roles that are limited in flexibility are highly restricted as to when they may be executed. How permeable a role is depends on the ability of an individual to be physically present at one role (e.g., executive chef running a kitchen), but emotionally, psychologically or even behaviorally engaged in another role (e.g., parent) (Pleck, 1977).

The reason that role identity is pivotal to role boundaries, and why both are crucial to understanding work life balance, is that there are myriad peripheral and even core features that are required by certain roles that are not required by others and this creates conflict (Ashforth et al., 2000). For example, an executive chef might have to be cold and aggressive in the kitchen and then go home and want to be warm and nurturing with his or her family. The greater the transition magnitude required, to switch from a work role to a family role or vice versa, the greater the potential for strain between the two roles (Ashforth et al., 2000; Louis & Sutton, 1991). There are often residual emotions, moods, temperaments or behaviors that carry over from the workplace into the life domain if the contrast between the two is great. The executive chef who is aggressive in the kitchen may find it difficult to "shut off" the aggression in order to become the warm, nurturing parent at home. Conversely, the aggressive chef who is filled with adrenaline at work may come home and be able to continue to play with his or her children for a few hours because he or she is unable to "wind down" quickly upon arriving home.

Previous studies have demonstrated that there is a "spillover" effect that occurs between the work domain and the life domain particularly if there is an extreme difference in role expectations (Ashforth et al., 2000; Williams & Alliger, 1994). This spillover research explores the point at which work experiences intersect with family life experiences and the point at which the emotional states from the home and workplace influence the behavior of the other (Keene & Reynolds, 2005; Jang & Zippay, 2011). Both positive and negative emotional outcomes in life and work domains have been examined in order to assess the emotional spillover that affects performance in both

contexts. For example, studies have explored how work overtime may cause irritable behavior at home, or how a sleepless night due to a sick child affects work performance (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000a). While a great deal of literature examines the negative affects of spillover from work to life, family support and social support outside of the workplace has been shown to have a positive effect on the individual's performance, motivation, commitment and satisfaction in the workplace (Adams, King, & King, 1996; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000a). The term positive spillover is used to connote the positive emotions, energy, and motivation that permeate the home from the positive experiences that occur in the work domain, and vice versa (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Two decades of research examining the ways in which family issues spill over into the workplace (family-work conflict) and the ways in which work issues spillover family life (work-family conflict) demonstrated a continued interest in this phenomenon (Eby et al., 2005).

Previous literature has revealed that satisfaction in the life domain is more important to fulfill than is job satisfaction (Koubova & Buchko, 2013). Koubova and Buchko (2013) found that when personal life satisfaction was more readily fulfilled, the result translated into better work performance and greater potential for one's career. The authors' purport that their findings were supported by the fact that emotions generated in the life domain proved stronger than those experienced in the work domain. They assert that individuals who can cultivate and maintain better relationships with friends and family were better able to concentrate on work tasks, performed higher, and more likely to experience professional growth opportunities (Koubova & Buchko, 2013). Contrarily, studies have shown that personal life domains do not interfere with the work domain as

much as work interfered with personal life (Hsieh et al., 2004; Hsieh et al., 2008).

While there are a few studies assessing the spillover from work to life and life to work domains, there is a paucity of research assessing the relationship between gender and work life balance and parenthood and work life balance. Specifically, many of the arguments regarding spillover theory and role theory are wholly theoretical in nature and warrant investigation. Because there is a spillover effect that occurs when work roles and life roles are disparate, it is important to further assess whether or not there is a relationship between the inherent roles of gender and family roles like parent, and work life balance for executive chefs.

H5: Gender affects work life balance.

H6: Parenthood affects work life balance.

H7: Gender and parenthood affects work life balance.

H8: Callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, and personality affect work life balance.

H9: Callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, and personality affect work life balance when controlling for gender and parenthood.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter involves the research design, data collection, and data analysis that will be used to examine the research questions in this study. The study used a survey instrument and non-experimental research design to examine the relationship between the independent variables (callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, personality, gender, parenthood) and the dependent variable (work life balance). The setting was not controlled and no treatments were introduced to the participants. The methodology is comprised of three main parts: (1) sampling and the survey instrument, (2) data collection procedures including data screening and recruitment processes, and (3) data analysis.

Sample

According to a national study, there were a total of 616,008 restaurants in the United States in 2012 (The NDP Group, 2013). Of these restaurants, 276,238 were chain restaurants and 339,770 were independently owned establishments. Subsequently, there are somewhere between 400,000 and 616,000 employed chefs operating with an executive title in the United States. The American Culinary Federation's (ACF) membership will be used as the sampling frame for this study. The ACF (2014) is comprised of over 20,000 members from over 200 chapters in the United States and various territories. This positions the ACF as the largest professional chef's organization in North America. The goal of the ACF is to enhance the current and future professional growth of chefs.

The sample was comprised of ACF members and affiliate organization members, along with individuals who were referred by ACF members, who were 21 years of age and older and currently an executive chef in the restaurant industry. A convenience sample was employed. The sample size was projected to be 300 completed surveys. This is a sufficient number of respondents to keep the statistical power at 99% with a p-value of .05 given the number of predictors and an observed R^2 of .25 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

Survey Instrument

The questionnaire was comprised of six parts (see Appendix 1): work life balance, callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, personality, and demographic questions. Demographic questions such as age, gender, parenthood, number of children, ages of children, types of restaurant, size of restaurant staff were incorporated at the end of the questionnaire. The measures being used in this study were all adapted from previous research with satisfactory reliabilities ranging from α= .72 to .94 (Hair et el., 2010).

Work Life Balance

Work life balance is defined as "achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains to a level consistent with the salience of each role for the individual…. [that] introduces the possibility of a hierarchy of roles; however… it does not demand that a hierarchy is neither necessary nor desirable for balance" (Reiter, 2007, p.277). Several studies have explored and applied role theory to work life balance in order to help explain the construct (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009; Graham, Sorell, & Montgomery, 2004; Jang & Zippay, 2011). Researchers have

maintained that, "everyday life is increasingly mediated through formal roles in organizational settings" (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000, 472). Accordingly, role theory posits that individuals impress upon themselves personal and social expectations related to the myriad roles that they might hold (e.g., employee, parent, caretaker) across work and life domains (Graham, Sorell, & Montgomery, 2004).

The first section of the survey consisted of a 6-item scale on work life balance that has been adapted from Carlson et al., (2009). The scale items were measured on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Previous research demonstrated these six items showed internal consistency (Chronbach's alpha) of .93.

Callings

A calling is one's pursuit of personally significant beliefs through work (Elangovan, Pinder, & McLean, 2010; Wrzesniewski, 2012). The notion of position inherent in role theory is the unit of social structure that an individual adopts and specifically refers to those occupational designations that represent the concept (e.g., executive chef) (Biddle & Thomas, 1966). Examining callings through a role theory lens may contribute to the body of knowledge on callings and may help to establish the relationship between callings and work life balance.

In the second section of the survey, a 12-item callings scale was adapted from the work of Dobrow and Tosti-Kharas (2011). Dobrow and Tosti-Kharas (2011) conducted hierarchical multiple regression in order to control for the potentially related variables to the callings construct. Internal consistency

(Cronbach's alpha) ranged from .88 to .94. The scale items were measured on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Employee Engagement

Employee engagement is a state of mind that is positive and fulfilling; characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Employee engagement has been described as "the degree to which employees are focused on and present in their roles" (Rothbard & Patil, 2012, p. 56). Role performance, and role expectations are inherent components of role theory that support and explain employee engagement (Biddle & Thomas, 1966).

In the third section of the survey, a 9-item employee engagement scale was used (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). These nine items demonstrated internal consistency or reliability (Chronbach's alpha) of .94. Three items represented each of the employee engagement subscales of vigor, dedication and absorption. The scale items were measured on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 7 (Always).

Organizational Climate

The set of attributes that are viewed by an organization's constituents regarding that specific organization and its various subsystems is the definition of organizational climate (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974). This construct is based on the premise that individuals within an organization at any level in the hierarchy should have a similar perception of that climate (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974). Previous research has noted a significant relationship between organizational climate and employee performance and job satisfaction (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974). Factors

that affect work climate include autonomy, pressure and control (Gringsby, 1991). Role ambiguity and role conflict have both been associated with organizational climate, and served as a link to determine work role balance (Gormley & Kennerly, 2009).

In this fourth section of the study, a 6-dimension, 28-item scale regarding organizational climate was employed (Patterson et al., 2005). These six dimensions and their items demonstrated internal consistency or reliability (Chronbach's alpha) ranging from .78 to .87. The six dimensions include clarity of organizational goals, efficiency, effort, performance feedback, pressure to produce, and quality. The scale items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (definitely false) to 7 (definitely true).

Personality

The five-factor model has been accepted by myriad scholars of personality and organizational behavior and has been lauded as a comprehensive taxonomy that depicts the pivotal unique differences in personality (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann Jr., 2003). Openness to experience (e.g., imaginative, adaptable, intellectual), conscientiousness (e.g., dependable, hardworking, persistent), extraversion (e.g., ambitious, sociable, dominant), agreeableness (e.g., cooperative, considerate, trusting), and neuroticism (e.g., agitated, timid, insecure), are the five distinct personality traits (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Previous literature has suggested that one's role and behaviors at work in conjunction with principles resultant from the five-factor model of personality explain how traits and job characteristics mutually influence work

outcomes (Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013).

This fifth section of the survey consisted of a 10-item scale called the Ten-Item Personality Inventory (TIPI) based on the five-factor model that addresses personality (Gosling et al., 2003). Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agree or disagree with how the statement regarding personality relates to them. The scale ranged from disagree strongly (1) to agree strongly (7). The10-items reported internal consistency or reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) with an average of .55. The test-retest reliability of the scale had an acceptable alpha mean of .72, with a range from .62 to .77 (Gosling et al., 2003). Because there are only two items per measure, inter-item correlation is difficult to achieve. Accordingly, the test-retest reliability was also evaluated as that revealed greater reliability, in addition to the validities, which were all found to be high for the TIPI (Gosling et al., 2003).

Demographics

Demographic information including gender, age, marital status, parenthood, number of children and ages, average cover count, average guest check, back of the house staff size, front of house staff size, restaurant type, restaurant ownership, hours of operation, traditional education, culinary education and household income were collected.

Data Collection

Data collection took place from February to May 2015. An invitation to participate in the survey along with the Qualtrics link was included in the American Culinary Federation's bi-monthly electronic newsletter and in the Nevada

Restaurant Association's email newsletter. See Appendix B - D. Moreover, e-mails with a link to the survey were sent to executive chefs in the ACF database, executive chefs the Nevada Restaurant Association's database, and convenience emails were sent to executive chefs outside of both networks. The survey was developed and made available through Qualtrics, an online survey company (see Appendix A). Reminder emails have been shown to increase response rate and were sent to encourage participation.

Additionally, the intercept method was employed at the American Culinary Federation's regional conference entitled ChefConnect: Indy, which took place in Indianapolis, Indiana from April 12 to April 14, 2015. At this conference, a booth was set up in a prominent location in the main hallway where other vendors were situated. Paper copies of the survey including a cover page with the consent form were distributed, filled out, and returned to the researcher (see Appendix A). In addition, incentives of a reusable, health code approved plastic cup was provided to participants at this convention. Moreover, all respondents were offered the incentive of being entered in a drawing for a chance to receive one of 20, $25 gift cards for their participation. These incentives to participate in the study were used to increase the response rate.

Data Analysis

Data Screening and Assumptions Testing

Data screening and preparation involved the following procedures: (1) screening for missing data; (2) checking for outliers; (3) testing for linearity; (4) testing for homogeneity of variance; (5) testing for normality; and (6) testing for

multicollinearity. It is important to screen for missing data because if a non-random pattern appears in the data, the results may not be generalizable. Researchers have suggested identifying errors and either correcting them if possible or deleting the responses with errors if they are not correctable (Pedhazur, 1997). The statistical package SPSS 21 was used to detect any errors in the data. If any missing values were detected, they were replaced with the group mean. If any outliers were detected, both their influence and distance from the group were examined to determine their influence. The scatterplot was examined to determine linearity. Levene's test was utilized to determine violations of homogeneity of variance. Skewness and kurtosis on each variable were examined for normality.

Descriptive Statistics

Additionally, the demographic variables were analyzed using descriptive statistics. This provided an overview of the gender, age, marital status, parenthood, number of children and ages, average cover count, average guest check, back of the house staff size, front of house staff size, restaurant type, restaurant ownership, hours of operation, traditional education, culinary education and household income of the sample.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression

This study used hierarchical multiple regression in addition to personal information to explain the relationship between callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, personality, gender, and parenthood, and work life balance for executive chefs in the hospitality industry. The use of regression analysis in this study was appropriate due to the continuous and categorical independent variables

associated with callings, employee engagement, personality, gender and parenthood, and the continuous dependent variable associated with work life balance.

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used to analyze the relationship between the dependent variable (work life balance) and the independent variables (callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, personality, gender, and parenthood). Hierarchical multiple regression is a variant of basic multiple regression procedure that enables the researcher to specify a fixed order of entry for variables in order to test the effects of certain predictors independent of the influence of others or to control for the effects of covariates. In this study, hierarchical multiple regression was used to test the effects of the predictors independent of the influence of the others. In addition to assessing the importance of each variable, hierarchical multiple regression provided the researcher with the ability to assess the nature of the relationships between the dependent variable and the independent variables (Hair et al., 2010). Moreover, because this technique can be utilized when the independent variables are correlated, it is useful for examining real world issues that are difficult to recreate in a laboratory setting (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

First, gender and parenthood were entered, as those are the variables for which the researcher needed to control the most. In this analysis, the goal was to assess whether callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, and personality predicted work life balance. The concern was that the demographic variables like gender and parenthood might be associated with these constructs, in

addition to being predictors themselves. To ensure that the demographic variables did not explain away the whole relationship between the independent variables (callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, and personality) and the dependent variable (work life balance), they were entered into the model first. This allowed the researcher to determine any shared variability that they may have had with the other predictors of interest. Any observed effect of callings, employee engagement, organizational climate and personality could then be said to be independent of the effects of the variables for which the researcher has controlled. Additionally, the demographic information of gender and parenthood were entered first to inform the researcher which demographic predictors explained the most variance.

Finally, the independent variables of callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, and personality were entered in order to determine how well they predicted the dependent variable of work life balance. This revealed what percent of variability in the dependent variable may be accounted for by all the independent variables together.

Human Subjects and Research Ethics

The university's Institutional Review Board procedures and regulations were followed. This allowed the researcher to inform the participants of any harm or discomfort they might experience as well as any benefits they might receive as a result of participation in the study through the informed consenting process. Further, confidentiality was maintained, data was stored in a secure facility for the requisite number of years, after which it was destroyed, and the reporting of the

data did not reveal any confidential information. Participation in this study was voluntary. Neither respondent nor restaurant names were collected during any part of this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to understand the individual, psychological and organizational factors that impact work life balance for executive chefs. The individual factors included the demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, parenthood) of the participants. The psychological factors included the characteristics of calling and personality that are unique to individual. The organizational factors included employee engagement and organizational climate, which provides the individual's perspective of the organization and his or her involvement with the organization. Ultimately, the study sought to demonstrate the relationship among (1) the individual factors, and the psychological and organizational factors; (2) the individual factors and work life balance; (3) the psychological and organizational factors and work life balance; and (4) the individual factors, and the psychological and organizational factors, and work life balance by addressing the following hypotheses:

H1: Callings affects work life balance.

H2: Employee engagement affects work life balance.

H3: Organizational climate affects work life balance.

H4: Personality affects work life balance.

H5: Gender affects work life balance.

H6: Parenthood affects work life balance.

H7: Gender and parenthood affects work life balance.

H8: Callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, and personality affect work life balance.

H9: Callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, and personality affect work life balance when controlling for gender and parenthood.

This chapter will first provide the descriptive statistics on the demographic and profile characteristics of the executive chefs that participated in the study, followed by a presentation of the results from the analysis of the six hypotheses. Chapter 4 will then conclude with a summary of the results.

Response Rate

Data were collected through the online survey collection platform Qualtrics and via written responses collected on a paper version of the same survey distributed at ChefConnect: Indy. Due to convenience sampling, an exact response rate was not attainable. However, all of the 92 paper surveys were distributed, completed and returned. Of the online surveys started, 183 of the 259 surveys were completed, yielding a 71 percent completion rate. Therefore, the final sample consisted of 275 cases that were used for analysis in this study.

Demographics of Respondents

The demographics of respondents are shown in Table 1 (see Appendix F). The majority of the respondents were male (85.5%). Executive chefs between the ages of 51 and 60 had the highest representation in this study at 32.4%, followed by those aged 41 to 50 at 29.8%, and those aged 31 to 40 at 19.3%. The majority of the participants were married (63.3%). Additionally, the majority of the respondents had children (71.3%), and of those who reported having children, 60% had 3 or

fewer children. However, the majority of the ages of the children were over 18 years (63.8%). Caucasians represented the greatest number of respondents (78.2%), followed by Hispanics (8.7%). The average income for executive chefs who participated in the study was largely between $50,000 and $99,999 per year (44%). Finally, the majority of the chef respondents had earned an Associate's Degree (40.4%) and had obtained a culinary degree as well (72.7%).

Restaurant Characteristics

The restaurant characteristics of the sample executive chefs are shown in Table 2 (see Appendix G). Upscale casual dining was the most represented restaurant type of those provided (11.3%), followed by fine dining (9.1%) and hotel dining (9.1%). The majority of respondents indicated they worked in a restaurant that did not fit the categories provided (42.4%). Most of the establishments in which respondents worked had cover counts of 151 or more people (62.2%) and the majority reported check averages of $30 or less (44%). The hours of operation that were most common were lunch (42.5%), followed by dinner (42.1%) and then breakfast (31.1%). Only 6.5% of respondents owned the restaurants in which they worked. The front of house staff sizes ranged from 0-6 individuals working front of house (19.6%) up to 110 to 999 individuals working in the front of house (13.6%). The back of house staff sizes had similar ranges with 0 to 6 representing 18.6 % and 120 to 999 staff members representing 11.3% of the organizations for which the respondents worked.

Hierarchical Regression Assumptions Testing

Coding

The nature of the online surveys required respondents to complete each section of the survey in its entirety before moving on to the next section. Due to the nature of paper surveys, this was not possible. Therefore, there were several cases in which a few missing values were found in the completed paper surveys distributed at ChefConnect: Indy. These missing values were identified and replaced by the mean values for the respective series of responses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Additionally, there were 13 variables in the climate measure and 5 variables in the personality measure that needed to be reverse-coded in order to accurately represent the constructs. Once the scores were reverse-coded, mean scores were created to represent Callings, Employee Engagement, Organizational Climate, Personality, and Work Life Balance. Gender and Parenthood were nominal level variables and required dummy coding to enable proper analysis.

Outliers and Assumptions Testing

Casewise diagnostics were used to detect outliers among the sample. One outlier, case number 186, was identified through casewise diagnostics. Because there was only one case identified as an outlier, it was determined that no data would be removed from the dataset as a normal population has outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The Durbin-Watson score was 1.998, indicating that none of the errors in the observations were related. The residual scatterplot was analyzed and it was

determined that the assumption of linearity was upheld. The residuals were spread evenly over the predicted values of Y, indicating that homogeneity of variance was not violated. Multicollinearity was not an issue, as the tolerance levels fell between .69 and .96, which exceeds the recommended level of .1, and the VIF fell between 1.05 and 1.45, which is well below the established threshold of 10 (Pedhazur, 1997).

Regarding normality, the normal Q-Q plot in Figure 2 clearly demonstrates that the distribution of the residuals from the linear model shown in Table 3 was not normal. Gender was omitted as it was not significant. This implies that even though the linear model reported in Table 3 is the best model in terms of the sum of squares errors, the p-values may not be accurate, as these were obtained assuming normality of the residuals (Efron, 1979).

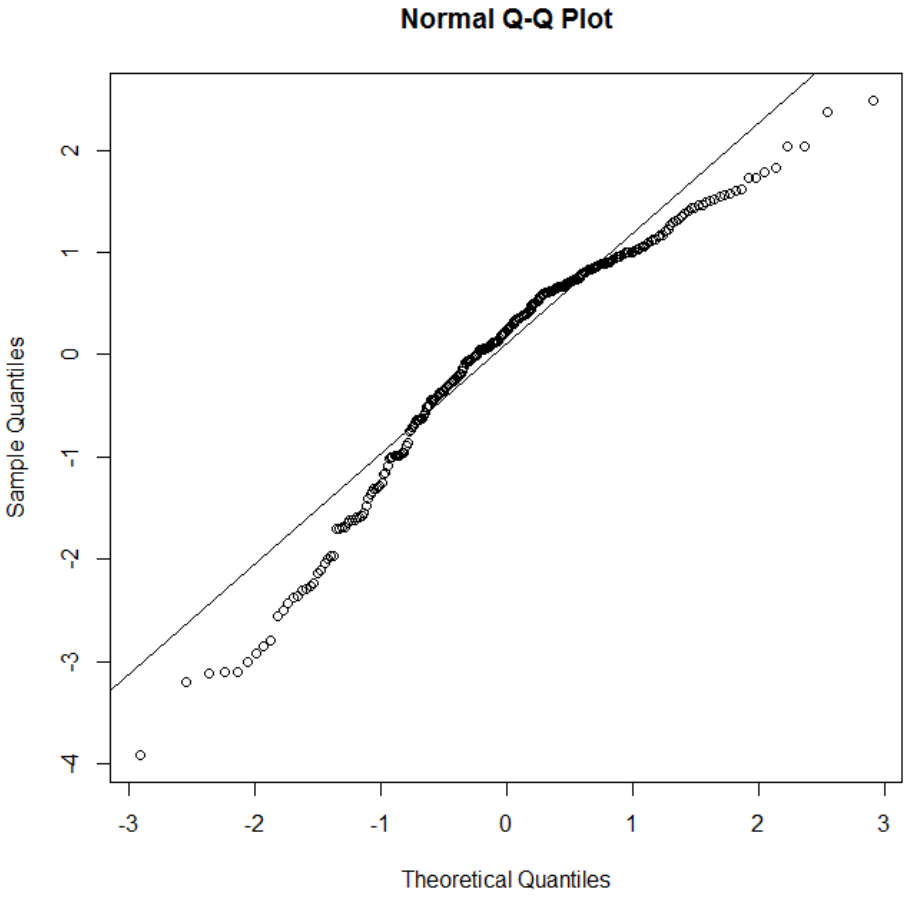

Figure 2. Shaprio-Wilk Normality Test.

Note. W = 0.9476. p-value = 2.363e-08.

Table 3

OLS Model Fitted to the Data

	Estimate	SE	t	P-value	VIF
(Intercept)	1.800	0.904	1.992	0.047*	
Parenthood	-0.327	0.158	-2.069	0.039*	1.012
Callings	0.297	0.070	4.244	0.000***	1.236
Engagement	0.245	0.100	2.453	0.015*	1.455
Climate	-0.557	0.255	-2.186	0.030*	1.112
Personality	0.390	0.114	3.427	0.001**	1.189

Note. Multiple R-squared: 0.207; Adjusted R-squared: 0.1922; F-statistic: 14.04 on 5; DF=269; p-value: 3.333e-12. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

The p-values, therefore were obtained utilizing the bootstrap method (Efron, 1979). In bootstrapping a regression model, there are two approaches: bootstrap the rows (i.e., sample with replacement rows of the data matrix containing the dependent variable and predictor variable values), fit the linear model a large number of times, estimating the model each time, or; bootstrap the residuals (i.e., sample replacement of the residuals, add to the fitted model), a large number of times, and estimating the model each time.

In either case, the results are B estimated models. The B coefficient estimates can be used to compute approximate 95% confidence intervals for the regression coefficients. If a 95% confidence interval contains 0, then the corresponding predictor is deemed insignificant, otherwise it is considered to be significant at a 5% error rate. In other words, the P-value for the coefficient of this predictor is less than 0.05. Table 4 shows the results obtained from B=1000 bootstrap samples.

Gender was omitted, as it was not significant in the original regression analysis. From Table 4 it can be discerned that each of the predictors in the model was significant at a 5% error rate. All assumptions of hierarchical regression were met.

Table 4

Bootstrap 95% Confidence Intervals of the Model Parameters

			95% CI	
	Mean	SD	LL	UL
(Intercept)	1.835	0.876	1.781	1.889
Parenthood	-0.323	0.155	-0.332	-0.313
Callings	0.303	0.068	0.298	0.307
Engagement	0.237	0.098	0.231	0.243
Organizational Climate	-0.563	0.247	-0.578	-0.548
Personality	0.390	0.112	0.383	0.397

Note. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

Correlation Analysis

Each outcome variable was significantly correlated with each other outcome variable. Work life balance was significantly correlated with parenthood (r = -.14, p = .009), Callings (r = .34, p < .0001), employee engagement (r = .32, p .0001), and personality (r = .26, p < .0001). Work life balance and callings, employee

engagement, and personality were all significantly positively correlated. Work life balance and parenthood were significantly negatively correlated.

The two individual factors included as independent variables were correlated with each other as well as with the psychological and organizational factors. Gender was significantly positively correlated with parenthood (r = .17, p = .002) and personality (r = .13, p = .018). Parenthood was significantly negatively correlated with employee engagement (r = -.10, p = .048).

Of the psychological and organizational factors, callings was significantly positively correlated with employee engagement (r = .43, p < .0001). Employee engagement was significantly positively correlated with both organizational climate (r = .27, p < .0001) and personality (r = .35, p < .0001). Finally, organizational climate and personality were positively significantly correlated (r = .29, p < .0001). All correlations between the predictor variables and the dependent variable are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Correlations Between Predictor Variables and Dependent Variable

	WLB	Gender	Parenthood	Callings	Engagement	Climate
Gender	.076					
Parenthood	-.143*	.171*				
Callings	.336*	.027	-.025			
Engagement	.332*	.030	-.100*	.432*		
Climate	.009	-.057	-.072	.080	.268*	
Personality	.259*	.126	-.069	.093	.354*	.290*

Note. *$p < .05$.

Results of Hierarchical Regression

Complete data were available for 275 participants. Basic descriptive statistics and values of Cronbach's alpha are shown in Table 6 for all the continuous independent variables and the dependent variable. All of the Cronbach's alphas were above the recommended threshold of .70, with the exception of personality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). However, the Cronbach's alpha for personality was comparable to the findings of previous research (Gosling et al., 2003).

Table 6

Basic Descriptive Statistics and Cronbach's Alpha

Variable	*M*	*SD*	α
Work life balance	5.39	1.31	.93
Callings	5.78	1.13	.92
Employee Engagement	5.98	.86	.90
Organizational Climate	3.05	.29	.77
Personality	5.65	.68	.58

With hierarchical regression, the variables were added in blocks. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 8. The first block of individual variables (gender and parenthood) entered in the regression resulted in a statistically significant increase in the explained variable (R^2 = .03, $F(2, 272) = 4.334$, p = .014), as did the second block of variables (psychological and organizational factors) entered into the regression equation, (R^2 = .21, $F(6, 268) = 11.775$, $p < .0001$). The results of the hierarchical regression revealed that gender and parenthood explained 3% of the variance in work life balance for executive chefs. Further, callings, employee engagement, organizational climate and personality explained an additional 19% of the total variance in work life balance, for a total of 21% of the variance explained by the overall model.

Table 7

Predicting Work Life Balance

Predictor	β	*b*(s.e.)	*t*	ρ
Gender	.054	.200(.208)	.964	.336
Parenthood	-.125	-.362(.161)	-2.249	.025
Callings	.254	.294(.070)	4.197	.000
Employee Engagement	.159	.243(.100)	2.430	.016
Organizational Climate	-.117	-.478(.237)	-2.019	.045
Personality	.198	.380(.116)	3.276	.001

Table 7 provides the regression, which showed that callings had a significant positive effect on work life balance (β = .25, t = 4.20, p < .0001); *supporting Hypothesis 1*. Employee engagement had a significant positive effect on work life balance (β = .16, t = 2.43, p = .016); *supporting Hypothesis 2.* Organizational climate had a significant negative effect on work life balance (β = -.12, t = -2.10, p = .045); *supporting Hypothesis 3.* Personality had a significant positive effect on work life balance (β = .20, t = 3.28, p = .001); *supporting Hypothesis 4.* Gender did not have a significant effect on work life balance (p = .336); *thus failing to support Hypothesis 5.* However, parenthood had a significant negative effect on work life balance (β = -.125, t = -2.25, p = .025); *supporting Hypothesis 6.* Finally, Gender and parenthood significantly affects work life balance (R^2 = .03, F(2, 272) = 4.334, p = .014); *supporting Hypothesis 7*. Callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, and personality significantly affect work life balance (R^2 = .19, F(6, 268) = 11.775, p <

.0001); *supporting Hypothesis 8*. And callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, and personality significantly, affect work life balance when controlling for gender and parenthood (R^2 = .21, F(6, 268) = 11.775, p < .0001); *supporting Hypothesis 9.*

Summary

This study used hierarchical multiple regression to examine the factors that affect work life balance for executive chefs. Individual, psychological and organizational characteristics that relate to work life balance were examined. These predictor variables included gender, parenthood, callings, employee engagement, organizational climate, and personality. All of the predictor variables, with the exception of gender, statistically significantly predicted work life balance. The two individual variables (gender and parenthood) explained 3% of the variance in work life balance, R^2 = .03, F(2, 272) = 4.334, p = .014. The psychological (callings and personality) and organizational (employee engagement and organizational climate) variables explained 21% of the variance in work life balance when controlling for the individual variables, R^2 = .21, F(6, 268) = 11.775, p < .0001. These results will be further examined and discussed in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

This chapter reviews, examines, and discusses the results of the study and suggests conclusions based on the findings. Chapter five begins with an overview of the study and includes a discussion of the results. Next, the theoretical and practical implications of the findings will be discussed. Finally, the limitations of this study and recommendations for future research will be presented.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of this study was to understand the individual, psychological and organizational factors that influence work life balance for executive chefs. Demographic factors including gender, and parenthood were also examined in relation to work life balance as they have been shown to affect this construct. Ultimately, this research utilized a theoretical approach to enhance a practical understanding of the factors that affect work life balance for executive chefs, so that restaurants may tailor their practices to benefit their key employees.

A review of the literature revealed several individual (gender and parenthood), psychological (callings and personality), and organizational (employee engagement and organizational climate) characteristics that had been associated with work life balance. Nine hypotheses emerged from this review of literature.

The dependent variable (work life balance) was measured through the adaptation of a 6-item scale from Carlson et al., (2009). This scale demonstrated consistency in previous studies with a Chronbach's alpha of .93 (Carlson et al., 2009). It demonstrated

similar consistency in this study as well (Chronbach's alpha = .93). This measure is supported by role theory.

Linton's (1936) role theory offered the theoretical framework for this study. Role theory asserts that individuals impress upon themselves personal and social expectations related to the myriad roles that they might hold (e.g., employee, parent, caretaker) (Graham, Sorell, & Montgomery, 2004). Organizational settings have been argued to similarly affect formal roles both within and outside of the workplace (Ashforth et al., 2000). Therefore, due to the inherently conflicting nature of certain individual, psychological and organizational roles, this study sought to understand them and their effects on work life balance.

Effects on Work Life Balance

Effects of Callings, Employee Engagement, Organizational Climate, and Personality

The results of the hierarchical regression revealed that callings, employee engagement, organizational climate and personality explained 19% of the variance in work life balance for executive chefs, $\Delta R^2 = .19$, $F(6, 268) = 11.775$, $p < .0001$. The effects of each psychological and organizational independent variable on work life balance will be discussed in detail below.

Effects of Callings

In keeping with extant literature, the hierarchical regression revealed that callings had a significant positive effect on work life balance ($\beta = .25$, $t = 4.20$, $p < .0001$). This extends the understanding of previous findings that have demonstrated that individuals who report viewing their work as a calling have a lower probability of experiencing stress, depression and conflict between their work and life domains (Oates et al., 2005;

Treadgold, 1999). Due to the recent scholarly emphasis on the need to reestablish the construct of calling as a conduit for infusing meaningfulness into work and other life roles (Bellah et al., 1985; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Schuurman, 2004; Treadgold, 1999; Wrzesniewski, et al., 1997), this study examined the role of callings in the context of the role of executive chef. Previous positive psychological outcomes associated with experiencing work as a calling included job satisfaction, increased health and increased life (Hall & Chandler, 2005, Wrzesniewski et al. 1997).

The results of calling on work life balance also revealed that callings explained the largest amount of variance in work life balance. This implies that viewing one's job of executive chef, as a calling is an important factor in one's ability to achieve work life balance. This further suggests that exploring callings as it impacts work life balance is important for scholarly understanding of both constructs, as a clear relationship between the two has been identified. Accordingly, the inclusion of calling in the regression model has been substantiated in this study. Because callings was found to be a significant factor among executive chefs and has a positive effect on work life balance, the scholarly understanding of callings has been expanded further in the secular realm.

Effects of Employee Engagement

In this study, employee engagement was found to have a significant positive effect on work life balance ($\beta = .16$, $t = 2.43$, $p = .016$). Previous research has shown that increasing employee engagement toward their work role is an organizational issue that is complicated by the fact that several roles may exist outside of the organization, the behaviors, emotions and feelings of which may spill over into the work role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). What this study found was that the more engaged the employee was

better able to achieve work life balance. This finding builds on the concept of role identification, which states that an individual is inclined to value and become involved in a role they find intrinsically satisfying, in which they are proficient, and at which they are extrinsically rewarded (Adams, King, & King, 1996; Ashforth et al., 2000).

Effects of Organizational Climate

Organizational climate had a significant negative effect on work life balance (β = -.12, t = -2.10, p = .045). This could be explained by the fact that executive chefs are the individuals who dictate or affect organizational climate. Previous researchers have called for studies to address certain subunits within the organization (e.g., managers) in order to better understand the construct of organizational climate (Patterson et al., 2005; Schneider et al., 2013). Investigating executive chefs, who have a managerial role, revealed that organizational climate negatively impacted work life balance for them.

Effects of Personality

The findings of this study demonstrated that personality had a significant positive effect on work life balance (β = .20, t = 3.28, p = .001). This extends the ideas espoused in previous research, which suggest that one's role and behaviors at work, combined with personality, explain how traits and job characteristics mutually influence work outcomes (Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013). Role theory further supports the notion that personality traits affect an individual's desire to attain goals in the work domain through role performance (Barrick et al., 2013; Biddle & Thomas, 1966). This study suggests that forces associated with their professional role motivated executive chefs and those forces contributed to attaining work outcomes and work life balance.

Effects of Gender and Parenthood

The results of the hierarchical regression revealed that gender and parenthood explained 3% of the variance in work life balance for executive chefs, $R^2 = .03$, $F(2, 272) = 4.334$, $p = .014$. The effects of each individual independent variable will be discussed in detail below.

Effects of Gender

Based on the results of this study, gender did not have a significant effect on work life balance ($p = .336$). This is contrary to the literature, that a distinct difference exists regarding men's and women's experiences with work life balance (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Lyness & Judiesch, 2014). This has been attributed to the differing roles prescribed by society to men and women (Hofstede, 1980), particularly in male-dominated industries like the culinary industry (Harris & Guiffre, 2010). There are several explanations for the disparate finding of this study regarding gender and its effect on work life balance.

First, the non-significant finding could be attributed to the sample distribution of male and female chefs who participated in the study. Only 14.5% of the respondents were female. While this number seems small, it is actually fairly representative of the ACF membership, which reports that 26% of their membership is female (ACF, 2014). However, this 26% constitutes female executive chefs and women from other culinary related occupations including pastry chefs, university faculty and culinary students. Because the female population is so small, it may be difficult to find statistical significance between genders regarding the effects on work life balance. However, when the mean scores for men and women are analyzed regarding their work life balance, the

women who participated in this study reported higher means (5.63) than did the men who participated in this study (5.35), indicating that the female respondents had a greater propensity to achieve work life balance than did their male counterparts at the executive chef level. These findings contradict those of a study that examined the ways in which gender affected individual perceptions of managers' work life balance, which found that men were rated much higher than women in countries with low gender egalitarianism and equal in those with high gender egalitarianism (Lyness & Judiesch, 2014). Additionally, the disparity in gender representation in this study also supports previous findings that this is a male-dominated industry (Harris & Guiffre, 2010).

Second, due to the limited literature that focuses specifically on the hospitality industry and executive chefs in particular, there may not be differences between gender and its effect on work life balance in this population. For example, specific to the hospitality industry, one study that examined gender disparity found work family conflict to be a universal issue among female chefs (Harris & Guiffre, 2010). The study revealed that women with children were particularly prone to career change and leaving the professional kitchen because of the demands of the industry and its effect on home life. However, this study did not examine male executive chefs and their propensity to leave the industry if they had a family. Because there is no extant literature to date exploring whether this phenomenon is applicable across genders, it cannot be concluded that there is in fact a difference between male and female executive chefs regarding work life balance.

In keeping with this idea is the notion that women who choose to stay in this industry do so via the self-selection process. In other words, because this industry is

categorized as a male-dominated occupation, women who opt to work and succeed in this industry adopt the requisite mindset and make personal choices to stay in this industry. Previous literature has purported that many women delay childbearing in order to stay and succeed in this industry or they simply find a way to make the two work (Harris & Guiffre, 2010). Additionally, those women who cannot successfully balance work and life in this profession leave for a different position in hospitality, but outside of the kitchen (Harris & Guiffre, 2010). In fact, studies have shown that women who choose to stay in male-dominated professions need to adopt the "childless male model" or risk experiencing the work life role pressure that has been found to plague women more than men due to gendered expectations (Harris & Guiffre, 2010). Working as an executive chef has been shown to be demanding of and difficult for members of both sexes because of the long, untraditional work hours required, intense physical labor demands, and difficulty obtaining days off, to name a few (Bartholomew & Garey, 1996). This could mean that only those individuals, both men and women, who are willing to put forth the effort to succeed as an executive chef actually make it to that level in the industry, ultimately negating the gender difference.

Effects of Parenthood

Parenthood had a significant negative effect on work life balance ($\beta = -.125$, $t = -2.25$, $p = .025$). Recent studies have suggested that the issue of balancing work and life priorities is a relevant topic for all parents, irrespective of gender (Coltrane, 1996; Townsend, 2002). The findings of this study add to this extant literature as it was found that being a parent had a negative impact on work life balance for executive chefs.

Effects of Callings, Employee Engagement, Organizational Climate, and Personality when controlling for Gender and Parenthood

Ultimately, the effects of all of the psychological and organizational variables on work life balance, when controlling for the individual variables explained 21% of the variance in work life balance, $R^2 = .21$, $F(6, 268) = 11.775$, $p < .0001$). The effects of each independent variable were explained above. While these results explain some of what affects work life balance for executive chefs, there is still opportunity for research regarding other factors that may help to explain what helps to promote or detract from work life balance for this unique population.

Theoretical Implications

This study offers several theoretical contributions. First, role theory was used as the basis from which conceptualization of the antecedents and the model was constructed. Theoretically, role theory has explained the overall model, and helped to highlight several factors that predict work life balance for executive chefs. Role theory predicted the relationships between the independent variables and work life balance and was statistically substantiated. Additionally, this study offers a new conceptual model of work life balance in the hospitality context by examining its predictors at the individual, psychological and organizational levels.

Second, this study expands the application of role theory by further substantiating certain existing constructs. These constructs include the individual construct of parenthood, which was found to have a negative effect on work life balance, the psychological construct of personality, which was found to have a positive effect on work life balance, and the organizational constructs of employee

engagement and organizational climate, which had a positive and negative effect on work life balance respectively.

Third, this study builds on theory by bringing forward new constructs to be viewed from this lens. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this study was the first of its kind of examine the construct of callings in the hospitality context, and its effects on work life balance for executive chefs. This study took callings outside of its religious context and practically applied it to the secular realm. This is unique in that previous studies that have explored this construct in a secular context have only looked at artistic fields (i.e. art, music). The role of executive chef requires managerial knowledge in addition to culinary expertise (which may be considered an artistic topic). With the support of role theory, this construct was established in a new, secular context.

Finally, this study adds to theory by contrasting the existing understanding of certain constructs in relation to work life balance. Gender was found to be statistically not significant among respondents. This finding contrasts the findings eschewed by previous authors who have found a difference between men and women regarding their ability to balance work and life duties because of their societal roles (Harris & Guiffre, 2010). However, some of the extant literature examines this issue solely from the female perspective (Bartholomew & Garey, 1996; Harris & Guiffre, 2010) and the literature that does not is not specific to executive chefs or hospitality (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Lyness & Judiesch, 2014).

Practical Implications

There are several practical implications provided by this study. Because this

study examined several factors that affect work life balance for executive chefs, the practical implications of each of these factors will be discussed. The practical implications for the psychological constructs of callings and personality, and their relationship to work life balance, will be discussed in terms of the human relations benefits that may be achieved. The benefits discussed will include recruitment, selection, and mentoring. The practical implications for the organizational constructs of employee engagement and organizational climate, and their relationship to work life balance, will be explained in terms of management applications. These practical implications will include a discussion of creating an environment that facilitates engagement and policies and benefits that may be implemented to improve climate.

Callings. Because callings was found to positively affect work life balance, it may benefit hospitality companies to include questions regarding whether or not the individual applying for the position demonstrates that they view being a chef as a calling in their hiring materials in addition to incorporating information in their recruitment material that utilizes language indicative of having a calling. Including these questions may not only help the employee psychologically, but the organizational benefits for the company may include less turnover and absenteeism. While it is not possible to train an individual to view work as a calling, an increase in awareness of the positive attributes of the job through mentorship may aid in a greater appreciation for what the position has to offer in terms of personal and psychological benefits. Mentorship similarly opens the door for life coaching and may afford the employee the opportunity to balance their career passions with their life goals.

Employee Engagement. In the culinary industry, researchers have purported that

there is an absence of motivation and satisfaction among chefs (Pratten, 2003). Additional research has demonstrated that intrinsic factors, including the ability to express creativity, interesting and challenging work, and the competitive nature of the job, were all found to be more highly valued than were the extrinsic factors, such as the number of days of sick leave, salary, and paid vacation days by chefs (Chuang, Yin, & Dellmann-Jenkins, 2008). Because this study, in addition to several others, has demonstrated that as executive chefs become more engaged, they are also better able to achieve work life balance, it is important to consider the ways in which employee engagement may be fostered. Allowing executive chefs to express themselves creatively by giving them autonomy over menu choices may enhance levels of engagement. Ensuring that the workload is both challenging and interesting may be achieved by providing enough managerial work that the job is not too simplistic and enough creative work that the job remains interesting. Additionally, encouraging competition in the kitchen through cooking contests, recipe challenges and rewards for new and creative ideas may aid in further engaging the executive chef.

Organizational Climate. Because research on organizational climate has shown that work environments that were perceived as supportive, cohesive, inclusive and low pressure resulted in employees who reported higher levels of job satisfaction (Johnstone & Johnston, 2005), it may benefit culinary organizations to demonstrate some of these qualities. This can be achieved through finding ways to accommodate employees when issues arise in their personal lives through clearly stated benefits, policies that include selective hiring processes that involve more team members to facilitate engagement, and business decision making (such as menu item changes and other nonproprietary changes)

that involves team members. This inclusion of team members may help facilitate a more cohesive and inclusive work unit and foster a better climate for the executive chefs in charge. Because the kitchen is inherently a high-pressure environment, it should be noted that those climates that were perceived as high pressure tended to incite employees' drive to work hard (Johnstone & Johnston, 2005). This hard working behavior should be rewarded in order to further buttress support for employees and encourage camaraderie in the kitchen. Moreover, by learning more about executive chefs' perceptions of organizational climate, kitchen environments may be constructed that support positive relationships, encourage cooperative methods, and facilitate enhanced role clarity.

Personality. Because this study supports the findings of previous literature, which has suggested that one's role and behaviors at work combined with personality factors explain how traits and job characteristics mutually influence work outcomes (Barrick et al., 2013), practitioners should employ the use of personality tests in order to determine compatibility between job type and personality of executive chefs when recruiting and hiring executive chefs. By employing those chefs who demonstrate higher cumulative scores on extraversion, agreeableness, openness to new experiences, conscientiousness, and emotional stability, this may ensure more motivation and engagement from the chefs, which has been shown to positively influence the attainment of work outcomes (Barrick et al., 2013; Biddle & Thomas, 1966), and ultimately help the individual more readily achieve work life balance. Additionally, mentoring executive chefs regarding those traits that promote balance in the work place may enable them to behave in ways that not only benefit them emotionally, but benefit their staff and the climate of the organization overall.

Gender. The lack of parity in representation across gender among executive chefs is something to which restaurant owners and managers should be made aware. Finding ways to make it easier for women (and men) to balance the demands of life outside of the workplace with those of the kitchen may help with the attrition rates of members of both sexes. This may be accomplished by offering better employee benefits that include things like maternity leave and daycare in order to help facilitate work-family responsibilities (Harris & Guiffre, 2010). Greater levels of parity may also be accomplished by having clear workplace policies and practices in place that help prevent a culture that excludes female workers. This would include clearly defined actions taken against verbal, as well as physical, harassment in the workplace.

Parenthood. Literature has shown that higher levels of family involvement and positive experiences at home positively impacted the emotional level of the individual, which in turn positively influenced both career and life satisfaction (Adams, King, & King, 1996). Couple these findings with the findings that being a parent and a chef has a negative impact on work life balance, it stands to reason that there is a need to implement practices and benefits in the workplace that facilitate more family time. This can be achieved through several means including proper staffing, which would enable the chef to work more regular hours or to take days off, and childcare services on or near the property, which would enable the chef to spend more time with the child during down time.

Limitations and Future Research

As mentioned in Chapter One, this study had several delimitations. First, survey research design is limited by response bias. Screener questions were employed to combat

this issue and helped to ensure the right population was being represented by the sample. Next, the study used a cross sectional design. It was suggested previously that longitudinal studies could be used to validate the findings offered in this study as generalizable over time. Additionally, as mentioned in the methods section, the personality measure is a limitation as the reliability of the measure is low. Finally, the reliability of self-reported data has been questioned. Because the survey was offered online, the researcher could not control the environment in which the survey was taken.

In addition to the limitations that were apparent from the outset of the study, several limitations were revealed after data collection had taken place. These limitations, along with potential areas for future research emerged from the results.

First, because the findings of the study revealed that the independent variables in this study (Callings, Employee Engagement, Organizational Climate, Personality, Gender and Parenthood) explained 21% of the variance in the dependent variable (Work Life Balance; $R^2 = .21, F(6, 268) = 11.843, p < .0001$), there is room to identify other factors that may affect work life balance for executive chefs. These additional factors would contribute to explaining the variance in work life balance. Identifying these additional factors may help researchers to better understand the construct of work life balance for executive chefs, and it may help practitioners to create work environments that facilitate the attainment of these factors.

Second, this study only examined callings in the context of executive chefs. There is a great deal of room to explore the effects of callings on work life balance in other professional occupations (e.g. teaching, professional golf management, athletics, healthcare) in which a passion for the craft and technical skills are required. This would

extend the scholarly understanding of this construct in the secular realm with regard to work life balance. As previous scholars have called for a broadening of understanding regarding callings, this work would have theoretical implications for academia because it may broaden scholarly understanding of a construct that was previously reserved for religious studies and it may enhance scholarly insight regarding behavior in the secular work place by facilitating a new and significant lens through which to examine employee behavior. Additionally, the findings may help practitioners in these respective industries with hiring practices and finding individuals that are a strong match for the positions in their respective fields.

Third, due to the disparate distribution of gender within the sample (40 females and 235 males), the insignificant findings may not be indicative of how gender affects work life balance in the population of executive chefs. However, this disparate representation of females to males in the study is rather representative of the population of executive chefs. Future research could examine both the opinions of men and women in this industry to see if these two groups are in fact unique or if they are statistically the same. Moreover, future research could explore whether or not female executive chefs believe that they need to emulate male personalities and characteristics in order to survive and thrive in this male-dominated industry.

Additionally, previous research found that chefs who worked in fine dining and managed 21 to 30 employees experienced the highest level of satisfaction and that chefs working in casual dining and managing between 31 to 40 employees experienced the lowest levels of career satisfaction (Chuang et al., 2008). Future research could explore the myriad demographic information provided in this study, including type of restaurant

and staff size, and see if these factors affect employee engagement for executive chefs and if the findings support or disagree with previous research.

Future research could also explore which personality traits are most conducive to stimulating work life balance for executive chefs. Future research could also examine which factors that comprise organizational climate affect work life balance and how each of these factors impact work life balance for executive chefs.

Finally, future research could explore the relationships between the variables in this study using alternative statistical techniques like path analysis and structural equation modeling in order to establish relationships among the variables. This would help expand researchers' understanding of how the different variables affect one another in addition to work life balance. It would facilitate an understanding of whether or not having a calling causes employee engagement, and its relationship to organizational climate and personality. Moreover, additional variables may be examined as consequences of work life balance. These outcomes could include career satisfaction and life satisfaction. Understanding the relationship between the antecedents and consequences of work life balance may help practitioners better understand the importance of helping employees attain it. Additionally, it would inform theorists of the meaningful variables that could help explain the phenomenon of work life balance and its various causes and effects.

APPENDIX A

Survey

INFORMED CONSENT

Department of Hotel Administration

Investigators
Lisa Moll, M.S. & James Busser, Ph.D.

For questions regarding the rights of research subjects, any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted, contact **the UNLV Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects at 702-895-2794, toll free at 877-895-2794 or via email at IRB@unlv.edu.**

Purpose of the Study

The goal of this study is to investigate what organizational and personal factors may help executive chefs achieve work life balance.

Participants

You are being asked to participate in the study because you are an executive chef.
Procedures

You will be asked to answer questions about your experience working as a chef. Please read each question carefully and answer each question to the best of your ability.

Benefits of Participation

There may not be direct benefits to you as a participant in this study. However, the goal is to better understand what may help executive chefs achieve work life balance.

Risks of Participation

There are risks involved in all research studies. This study may include only minimal risks. You may be uncomfortable with answering some of the questions.

Cost /Compensation

There is no financial cost to you to participate in this study. The study will take 15 minutes of your time. If you choose to provide your email address, you will be entered into a drawing to win one of 20 $25.00 gift cards. You will be contacted by email if you are one of the 20 randomly selected winners.

Confidentiality

All information gathered in this study will be kept as confidential as possible. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to this study. All records will be stored in a locked facility at UNLV for 3 years after completion of the study. After the storage time the information gathered will be deleted from the hard drive of the computer and the paper documentation will be shredded.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You may withdraw at any time without prejudice to your relations with UNLV. You are encouraged to ask questions about this study at the beginning or any time during the research study.

- o I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study
- o I DO NOT agree to participate in this study

Are you currently employed as an executive chef?

- o Yes
- o No

Are you 21 years old or older?

- o Yes
- o No

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements listed below regarding your feelings about being an executive chef.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
I am passionate about being an executive chef	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I enjoy playing being an executive chef more than anything else	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Being an	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
executive chef gives me immense personal satisfaction							
I would sacrifice everything to be an executive chef	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The first thing I often think about when I describe myself to others is that I'm a chef	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would continue being an executive chef even in the face of severe obstacles	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I know that being a chef will always be part of my life	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel a sense of destiny about being a chef	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Cooking is always in my mind in some way	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Even when not in the professional	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
kitchen, I often think about my culinary specialty							
My existence would be much less meaningful without my involvement in the professional kitchen	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Being an executive chef is a deeply moving and gratifying experience for me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements listed below regarding your work and life balance.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
I am able to negotiate and accomplish what is expected of me at work and in my family	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I do a good job of meeting the role expectations of critical people in my	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
work and family life							
People who are close to me would say that I do a good job of balancing work and family	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am able to accomplish the expectations that my supervisors and my family have for me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My co-workers and members of my family would say that I am meeting their expectations	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
It is clear to me, based on feedback from co-workers and family members, that I am accomplishing both my work and family responsibilities	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate how often each of the following statements listed below describes your engagement at work.

	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Frequently	Usually	Always
At my work, I feel bursting with energy	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Frequently	Usually	Always
I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Time flies when I am working	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am enthusiastic about my job	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
When I am working, I forget everything else around me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My job inspires me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel happy when I am working intensely	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate which of the following statements listed below represents your view of your workplace.

	Definitely False	Mostly False	Mostly True	Definitely True
I have a good understanding of what the organization is trying to do	○	○	○	○
The future direction of the company is clearly communicated to me	○	○	○	○
I am not clear about the aims of the company	○	○	○	○
Everyone who works here is well aware of the long-term plans and direction of this company	○	○	○	○
There is a strong sense of where the company is going	○	○	○	○

	Definitely False	Mostly False	Mostly True	Definitely True
Time and money could be saved if work were better organized	○	○	○	○
Things could be done much more efficiently, if people stopped to think	○	○	○	○
Poor scheduling and planning often result in targets not being met	○	○	○	○
Productivity could be improved if jobs were organized and planned better	○	○	○	○
I always want to perform to the best of my ability	○	○	○	○
I am enthusiastic about my work	○	○	○	○
I get by with doing as little as possible	○	○	○	○
I am prepared to make a special effort to do a good job	○	○	○	○
I don’t put more effort into my work than I have to	○	○	○	○
I usually receive feedback on the quality of work I have done	○	○	○	○
I don’t have any idea how well I am doing my job	○	○	○	○
In general, it is hard for me to measure the quality of my performance	○	○	○	○
My performance is measured on a	○	○	○	○

	Definitely False	Mostly False	Mostly True	Definitely True
regular basis				
The way I do my job is rarely assessed	○	○	○	○
I am expected to do too much in a day	○	○	○	○
In general, my workload is not particularly demanding	○	○	○	○
I am required to work extremely hard	○	○	○	○
I am under pressure to meet targets	○	○	○	○
The pace of work here is pretty relaxed	○	○	○	○
This company is always looking to achieve the highest standards of quality	○	○	○	○
Quality is taken very seriously here	○	○	○	○
I believe the company's success depends on high-quality work	○	○	○	○
This company does not have much of a reputation for top-quality products	○	○	○	○

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements listed below regarding your personality.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
Extraverted, enthusiastic	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Critical,	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
quarrelsome							
Dependable, self-disciplined	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Anxious, easily upset	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Open to new experiences, complex	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Reserved, quiet	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sympathetic, warm	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Disorganized, careless	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Calm, emotionally stable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Conventional, uncreative	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Now we are going to ask you some questions about yourself.

What is your gender?
- Male
- Female

What is your relationship status?
- Single
- In a relationship
- Married
- Separated
- Divorced

Do you have any children? (IF **NO** skip to "what is your age?")
- Yes
- No

How many children do you have?

- o 1
- o 2
- o 3
- o 4
- o 5 or more

What ages are your children? Check all that apply.

- ☐ 0-2
- ☐ 3-5
- ☐ 6-11
- ☐ 12-17
- ☐ 18 and older

What is your age?

- o 21-30
- o 31-40
- o 41-50
- o 51-60
- o 61 or older

What is your ethnicity?

- o Caucasian/White
- o Black
- o Hispanic
- o Asian / Pacific Islander / Indian subcontinent
- o Native American
- o Other

What is your annual household income?

- o Under $25,000
- o $25,000-$49,999
- o $50,000- $74,999
- o $75,000- $99,999
- o $100,000-$124,999
- o $125,000- $149,999
- o 150,000+

What is the highest level of traditional education you have received?

- o High School/GED or below

- Some College
- Associate's Degree
- Bachelor's Degree
- Some Graduate Coursework
- Graduate Degree

Do you have a culinary degree?

- Yes
- No

Now we are going to ask you some questions about the restaurant you are the executive chef at.

How would you classify your restaurant?

- Fast-casual dining
- Upscale casual dining
- Fine dining
- Hotel dining
- Contract dining
- Banquets
- Off-premise catering
- Military dining
- Other_____

What is the size of your Back of House (BOH) staff? Please write a number below.

_____

What is the size of your Front of House (FOH) staff? Please write a number below.

_____

What is your average cover count?

- Less than 30
- 31-50
- 51-75
- 76-100
- 101-150
- 151 or more

What is your guest check average?

- $30 or less
- $31-$50
- $51 or more

What are your hours of operation? Check all that apply.

- ☐ Breakfast
- ☐ Brunch
- ☐ Lunch
- ☐ Dinner
- ☐ 24 hours

Do you own the restaurant you work at?

- o Yes
- o No

Thank you for participating in our survey.

If you would like to be entered to win one of 20 $25.00 gift cards, please provide your email address below. You will be contacted by email if you are one of the 20 randomly selected winners.

_____

APPENDIX B

Participant Recruitment Letter

If you are currently working as an executive chef in culinary industry, you are invited to participate in a study that seeks to better understand work life balance. If you are interested in participating, please click on the link below. It will take approximately 10 minutes of your time. While there may not be direct benefits to you as a participant in this study, the ultimate goal is to better understand what may help executive chefs achieve work life balance. Your participation would be greatly appreciated.

APPENDIX C

Participant Recruitment Letter for American Culinary Federation

This appeared in the culinary insider, the bimonthly publication in *The Culinary Insider*, Vol. XIII, Issue 4 - February 23, 2015 and *The Culinary Insider*, Vol. XIII, Issue 6 - March 23, 2015.

Dear Executive Chefs,

We could really use your help! For only 10 minutes of your time, you can help us educate future chefs and business owners about work life balance. Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary and your responses are anonymous. As a result of your participation you may enter to win a randomly drawn gift card.

You may click on the link below to go to the survey or paste the link in your browser.

https://unlv.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_bfiWk3FriLk1GKx

If you have any questions, please contact me at molll@unlv.nevada.edu.

Thank you in advance for participating in the research,

Lisa Moll
Doctoral Candidate
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

APPENDIX D

Participant Recruitment Announcement from Nevada Restaurant Association

This recruitment announcement appeared in an online newsletter sent by the Nevada Restaurant Association on May 8, 2015.

RESEARCH STUDY FOR EXECUTIVE CHEFS

UNLV

Lisa Moll, Ph.D., along with Dr. Jean Hertzman and Dr. Pat Moreo, is conducting a survey on various aspects of Executive Chefs. Below is a link to a survey on the matter. Please take a few minutes and be a part of the research project by completing the survey below.

https://unlv.co1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_bfiWk3FriLk1GKx

APPENDIX E

IRB Approval Form

UNLV

Social/Behavioral IRB – Exempt Review
Deemed Exempt

DATE: January 23, 2015

TO: **Dr. James Busser,** Hotel Administration

FROM: Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects

RE: Notification of IRB Action
Protocol Title: Examining the Factors That Impact Work Life Balance for Executive Chefs
Protocol # 1412-5035

This memorandum is notification that the project referenced above has been reviewed as indicated in Federal regulatory statutes 45CFR46 and deemed exempt under 45 CFR 46.101(b)2.

PLEASE NOTE:
Upon Approval, the research team is responsible for conducting the research as stated in the exempt application reviewed by the ORI – HS and/or the IRB which shall include using the most recently submitted Informed Consent/Assent Forms (Information Sheet) and recruitment materials. The official versions of these forms are indicated by footer which contains the date exempted.

Any changes to the application may cause this project to require a different level of IRB review. Should any changes need to be made, please submit a **Modification Form**. When the above-referenced project has been completed, please submit a **Continuing Review/Progress Completion report** to notify ORI – HS of its closure.

If you have questions or require any assistance, please contact the Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects at IRB@unlv.edu or call 895-2794.

APPENDIX F

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristic	N	%
Gender		
Male	235	85.5
Female	40	14.5
Age		
21-30	12	4.4
31-40	53	19.3
41-50	82	29.8
51-60	89	32.4
60 or older	34	12.4
Relationship Status		
Single	43	15.6
In a relationship	30	10.9
Married	175	63.6
Separated	1	0.4
Divorced	26	9.5
Parenthood		
Yes	196	71.3
No	79	28.7
Number of Children		
1	44	16.0
2	77	28.0
3	44	16.0
4	21	7.6
5 or more	10	3.6
Ages of Children		
0 to 2	18	9.2
3 to 5	22	11.2
6 to 11	43	21.9
12 to 17	57	29.1
18 and older	125	63.8
Ethnicity		
Caucasian/White	215	78.2
Black	11	4.0
Hispanic	24	8.7
Asian/Pacific Islander/Indian Subcontinent	10	3.6
Native American	2	0.7
Other	6	2.2
Household Income		

Demographic Characteristic	N	%
Under $25,000	2	0.7
$25,000-$49,999	22	8.0
$50,000-$74,999	56	20.4
$75,000-$99,999	66	24.0
$100,000-$124,999	43	15.6
$125,000-$149,999	31	11.3
$150,000+	40	14.6
Education		
High School/GED or below	16	5.8
Some College	47	17.1
Associate's Degree	111	40.4
Bachelor's Degree	54	19.6
Some Graduate Coursework	18	6.5
Graduate Degree	22	8.0
Culinary Degree		
Yes	200	72.7
No	67	24.4

Note. *Each category may not total the sample size of 275 cases due to missing data.

APPENDIX G

Table 2

Restaurant Characteristics

Restaurant Characteristic	N	%
Cover Count		
Less than 30	16	5.8
31-50	17	6.2
51-75	16	5.8
76-100	16	5.8
101-150	14	5.1
151 or more	171	62.2
Check Average		
$30 or less	121	44.0
$31-$50	66	24.0
$51 or more	41	14.9
Hours of Operation		
Breakfast	142	31.1
Brunch	114	25.0
Lunch	194	42.5
Dinner	192	42.1
24 Hours	60	13.2
Restaurant Owner		
Yes	18	6.5
No	236	85.8
Restaurant Type		
Fast-casual dining	16	5.8
Upscale casual dining	31	11.3
Fine dining	25	9.1
Hotel dining	25	9.1
Contract dining	16	5.8
Banquets	18	6.5
Off-premise catering	13	4.7
Military dining	4	1.5
Other	116	42.2
Front of House Staff		
0-6	54	19.6
7-15	52	18.9
16-30	50	18.4
35-100	53	19.3
110-999	36	13.6
Back of House Staff		
0-6	51	18.6

Restaurant Characteristic	N	%
7-15	63	22.8
16-30	60	21.9
35-100	47	17.4
120-999	30	11.3

Note. Each category may not total the sample size of 275 cases due to missing data.

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Yalof, I. (1988). *Life and death: The story of a hospital*. New York, NY: Fawcett Crest.

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- Taught TCA 380: Hospitality Marketing
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- Taught HMD 307: Leadership, Management and Ethics in the Hospitality Industry
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- Assisted with research in the topics of Human Resources Management, Organizational Behavior, Leadership, Foodservice, and Marketing in the Hospitality Industry
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EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

- Hospitality Service Management Search Committee Member 2014
- Hospitality Graduate Student Association: Treasurer 2013-2014
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- Lead for Rick Bayless at the S.B.W. & F.F. February 2011
- House Secretary 2006-2007
- Head of New Students at Smith College 2004-2005
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HONORS

- 2014 Hilton Grant Recipient for research at the William F. Harrah, Hotel Administration College $3000.00
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- Hospitality Honor Society (Eta Sigma Delta) at F.I.U.
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- Dean's List 2004/2005/2007

PEER REVIEWED JOURNAL PUBLICATIONS

- Kitterlin, M., **Moll, L.**, & Moreno, G. **(2015**). Employee substance abuse: Is anyone getting the message? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 27*(3).
- Green, A., Chang, W., Tanford, S., & **Moll, L**. (**2014)**. Student perceptions towards using Clickers and lecture: Software applications in hospitality lecture courses. *Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism.*
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- **Cain, L.**, & Cain, C. (**2015**). *Hospitality education fusion: A call for the coalescence of competency based education and traditional academic instruction*. Western CHRIE Conference Roundtable Discussion
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- **Moll, L.** & Kitterlin, M. (**2012**) *Employee attitudes towards pre-employment drug-testing in the full-service restaurant industry* 2012 FIU Scholarly Forum: First place $400 Prize.