



# Marital satisfaction and parenting styles in One's Own Family in relation to Occupational Burnout<sup>1</sup>

<https://doi.org/10.34766/16n95065>

© Authors (copyright) • Quarterly Journal Fides et Ratio (publishing rights) • Open Access CC BY-NC-ND 4.0.

Angelika Szczepanik-Paśnik<sup>a</sup>, Eliza Gorzelak<sup>b</sup> ✉

<sup>a</sup> Angelika Szczepanik-Paśnik<sup>1</sup>, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1943-0444>

<sup>b</sup> Eliza Gorzelak<sup>1</sup>, <https://orcid.org/0009-0009-4006-2242>

✉ Corresponding author: [angelikaszczepanik@gmail.com](mailto:angelikaszczepanik@gmail.com)

<sup>1</sup> Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology, Department of Psychology, Jan Kochanowski University in Kielce, Poland

**Abstract:** *Objective:* The aim of the present study was to examine the relationships between parenting styles adopted by parents toward their children, marital well-being, and the level of occupational burnout. Three hypotheses were formulated: (H1) democratic and liberal-affectionate parenting styles are associated with lower levels of occupational burnout; (H2) autocratic and liberal-non-affectionate parenting styles are associated with higher levels of burnout; and (H3) higher marital well-being co-occurs with lower intensity of occupational burnout. *Methods:* The study involved 417 married individuals with at least one child (266 women and 151 men), aged between 21 and 63 years ( $M = 41$ ). The following research instruments were administered: the Marital Quality Questionnaire (KDM-2; M. Płopa & J. Rostowski), the Parenting Styles Analysis – Own Family Questionnaire (M. Rys), and the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI; E. Demerouti et al.; Polish adaptation by T. Chirkowska-Smolak). In the present sample, Cronbach's alpha coefficients indicated high internal consistency of the applied measures (e.g., intimacy  $\alpha = 0,88$ ; marital satisfaction  $\alpha = 0,94$ ; overall OLBI  $\alpha = 0,83$ ). Although the distribution of the data slightly deviated from normality, as indicated by the Shapiro–Wilk and Kolmogorov–Smirnov tests, skewness and kurtosis values remained within the acceptable  $\pm 2$  range, which justified the use of Pearson's  $r$  correlation coefficients in the hypothesis testing procedure. *Results:* All three hypotheses were supported empirically. Higher levels of democratic and liberal-affectionate parenting styles were associated with lower levels of occupational burnout, whereas autocratic and liberal-non-affectionate styles showed positive correlations with burnout, with moderate effect sizes observed for the latter relationships. Furthermore, higher marital well-being—reflected in greater intimacy, self-fulfilment, and similarity between partners, alongside lower levels of disappointment—was associated with lower levels of exhaustion and disengagement at work. *Conclusions:* The findings confirm the interrelationship between family-role functioning and occupational burnout. Parenting styles based on dialogue, empathy, and emotional support, combined with high marital well-being, may constitute protective factors against the negative consequences of chronic occupational stress. From a practical perspective, burnout prevention programmes should incorporate family-related dimensions, including the quality of partner communication, parenting competencies, and mutual emotional support.

**Keywords:** marital satisfaction, occupational burnout, parenting styles

## 1. Introduction

Human functioning within family and professional roles has attracted considerable attention in contemporary psychology, particularly in relation to maintaining work-life balance. Interactions between these domains may serve as sources of support or psychological strain. The quality of the marital relationship and the way individuals engage in parenting responsibilities may influence life satisfaction, psychological well-being, occupational effectiveness and job satisfaction.

Increasingly, the literature suggests that occupational burnout is shaped not only by organisational and individual factors, but also by family and relational contexts.

Occupational burnout, understood as the outcome of chronic occupational stress, is characterised by lack of energy, engagement and self-efficacy. Although it has traditionally been examined within an organisational context, an increasing body of evidence indicates that its origins are

<sup>1</sup> Article in Polish language: [https://stowarzyszeniefidesetratio.pl/fer/66p\\_Szcz.pdf](https://stowarzyszeniefidesetratio.pl/fer/66p_Szcz.pdf)

multidimensional and include non-work factors such as family relations, emotional support, and domestic responsibilities.

Including these three areas (marital well-being, parenting styles, and occupational burnout) enables a more comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms underlying work-family balance. Examining the interrelationships between them may contribute to identifying protective factors against burnout and provides a basis for developing effective preventative and interventive strategies in the area of employees' mental health.

### 1.1. Marital well-being

Marital well-being constitutes an important component of an individual's overall functioning within the family system and is a significant determinant of quality of life and adults' mental health. In the literature, the term *marital well-being* is often identified with marital satisfaction or the quality of the marital relationship, encompassing emotional, cognitive and behavioural dimensions. According to Plopa (2006), marital well-being arises from a balance between the satisfaction of individual and relational needs, mutual understanding between partners, and the ability to maintain positive emotional bonds despite recurring difficulties.

From the perspective of close relationships' psychology, high marital quality is associated with greater resilience to stress, improved emotion regulation, and more adaptive coping with everyday demands, including occupational challenges (Tavakol et al., 2017; Wojciszke, 2021). The framework of the *Marital Quality Questionnaire* (KDM-2), developed by M. Plopa and J. Rostowski (2005) conceptualises marital well-being as a multidimensional construct consisting of four components: intimacy, self-fulfilment, similarity and disappointment. Each of these dimensions reflects different aspects of the partner relationship, and their interplay allows for an assessment of relational harmony and overall relationship fulfilment.

*Intimacy* reflects a high level of spousal satisfaction with the close relationship with one's partner. It is expressed in the need of building a relationship

based on openness, trust, and closeness. Such individual is motivated to work on the relationship and to foster both their own and their partner's sense of happiness. Both partners are deeply connected to each other and are convinced that they share a genuine love for one another.

According to research, intimacy composes of several elements, including the desire to care for one's partner's well-being, experiencing happiness in the partner's presence and as a result of the relationship, respect for the partner, the belief that they can be relied upon in times of need, mutual understanding, sharing experiences and both emotional and material possessions, giving and receiving emotional support, exchanging intimate information, and perceiving the partner as an important part of one's life (Wojciszke, 2021).

*Self-fulfilment* through the relationship, understood as the opportunity to realise one's own potential, value system, and life goals, contributes to a high level of marital satisfaction. The performance of marital and family roles provides an individual with a sense of fulfilment derived from becoming the person they aspire to be (Plopa, 2005).

*Similarity* refers to a high level of consistency between spouses regarding the achievement of important marital and family goals. Both partners share similar views on relationship development, leisure time activities, organisation of family life. They also hold common approaches to setting boundaries between the family and the external environment, maintaining family traditions, and child-rearing practices. When spouses' expectations are aligned, there is a greater likelihood of experiencing satisfaction with one's partner and the relationship as a whole (Plopa, 2005).

*Disappointment* is experienced by a spouse who perceives entering into marriage as a life failure. Such an individual views the relationship as a constraint on their sense of independence and autonomy and may frequently consider ending the relationship and making significant life changes. Spending time with the partner does not bring enjoyment, emotional closeness is reduced, and in dealing with everyday problems the dominant tendency becomes avoidance, accompanied by a decreased sense of responsibility (Plopa, 2005).

The term *marital satisfaction* is used to describe the happiness and stability of a marital relationship. Marital satisfaction is one of the most significant determinants of overall life satisfaction. Marriage constitutes a primary source of social support; consequently, marital satisfaction is associated with both mental and physical health, overall life satisfaction, occupational achievements, and social relationships (Tavakol et al., 2017).

Research has established that marital satisfaction is influenced by a range of factors, including length of marriage, spouses' psychological maturity, life expectations, intimacy, financial situation, parenting styles or stress (Tavakol et al., 2017). Higher levels of marital satisfaction are reported by couples who spend a significant amount of their free time together, share common hobbies, and engage in communication, which plays a crucial role in maintaining intimacy. This involves, in particular, the expression of feelings and emotions, as well as acceptance and understanding of the partner. (Tavakol et al., 2017).

In summary, the theoretical description of the factors examined by the KDM-2 questionnaire suggests that intimacy, self-fulfilment, and similarity between partners are positively associated with marital satisfaction, whereas disappointment is linked to a lack of satisfaction in the relationship. This conclusion is supported by the findings from a study conducted to validate the factor structure of the KDM-2. The study involved 2,279 married individuals and employed factor analysis (Plopa, 2005). It examined the relationship between marital satisfaction and several factors, including intimacy, self-fulfilment, disappointment and similarity. The results indicate that husbands reported higher levels of marital satisfaction than their wives. Wives generally experienced lower levels of intimacy and similarity within marriage and, consequently, higher levels of disappointment. This pattern was particularly evident in the early years of marriage and may be related to women's challenges in defining their identity in relation to roles such as mother, wife, and homemaker, as well as their professional career development (Plopa, 2005). With age, the perception of self-fulfilment within marriage increases, a trend observed in both husbands and wives (Plopa, 2005).

Research examining the relationship between marital satisfaction and educational level showed that wives with primary education reported higher levels of marital satisfaction, particularly in the dimension of self-fulfilment, compared with wives holding higher education degrees (Plopa, 2005).

The number of children appears to influence marital satisfaction only among husbands and fathers. Husbands with one child reported higher levels of intimacy compared with fathers of three. Fathers of only children also perceived greater similarity with their wives in adopting shared strategies related to *shaping marital life*, compared with fathers of two or more children (Plopa, 2005).

Research on marriages indicates that level of relationship satisfaction is associated with preferences for particular stress-coping styles (Plopa, 2004, za: Plopa, 2005). An emotion-focused coping style, characterised by concentration on one's own emotional experiences in problematic situations and a tendency toward wishful thinking, is more frequently observed among wives dissatisfied with their marriage (Plopa, 2005). Husbands who are satisfied with their relationship more often demonstrate a task-oriented coping style, involving efforts aimed at resolving problems or conflicts through constructive cognitive and behavioural actions. They are also less likely to respond in an emotion-focused manner, which is more characteristic of dissatisfied spouses. In conflict situations, they tend to seek social contact not only as a way of relieving emotional tension, but also to obtain advice and support (Plopa, 2005).

Marital well-being constitutes a key context in which parental attitudes are shaped. The quality of the partner relationship influences the way individuals regulate emotions, deal with stress, and engage in interactions with their child. Research indicates that emotion regulation plays an important role in preventing marital burnout, particularly in the context of parenthood (Kocyigit, 2025). High levels of marital satisfaction are associated with greater emotional stability, openness, and empathy, which in turn promote parenting styles based on dialogue, trust, and cooperation, particularly democratic and permissive-indulgent styles.

Conversely, difficulties within the marital relationship, such as lack of emotional support, conflicts, or feelings of being misunderstood, may contribute to increased negative emotions, tension, and frustration, thereby increasing the likelihood of adopting more autocratic or emotionally detached parenting practices. In this regard, marital well-being may be regarded as an important factor influencing the way individuals fulfil their parental role.

## 1.2. Parenting styles

Parenting style is understood as a relatively stable way in which parents influence their child, expressed through specific attitudes, methods of control, communication patterns, and the expression of affection. Terminological analyses emphasize that parenting style should be viewed as a complex, processual, and intentional system of parental influences, which affect both child's development and parents' functioning in other areas of life (Bakiera, 2019). In psychological literature, parenting style is treated as an integrated system of parental behaviours shaping the child's emotional, social, and cognitive development (Przetacznik-Gierowska i Włodarski, 2014). According to M. Ryś (2001), parenting style is the resultant of parents' emotional attitude toward the child and the level of control and demands they place on the child.

Classical theories developed by Baumrind, as well as their extensions in Polish research, distinguish several parenting styles, including the autocratic style (characterised by high control and low emotional support), the democratic style (combining clear expectations with dialogue and empathy), the liberal-affectionate style (characterised by freedom alongside acceptance), and the liberal-non-affectionate style (marked by a lack of consistency and emotional involvement). Each of these styles has a different impact on the emotional functioning of the family, and in the longer term, on the quality of adults' romantic and occupational relationships.

Research suggests that parenting style which promotes mutual respect, trust and communication foster the development of stable emotional bounds and inner balance, which may serve as a protective factor against occupational stress. In contrast, styles

characterised by excessive control or emotional detachment are more often associated with tension and conflict, potentially increasing the risk of psychological strain and burnout (Bakiera, 2019; Ryś, 2001).

Upbringing can be understood both in the broad sense as all influences exerted on a person that shape their behaviour, attitudes, and values, and in a more specific sense as intentional forms of influence applied by the person providing upbringing (Harwas, 1999, za; Bakiera, 2019). Several parenting styles are distinguished. A parenting style is defined either as the selection and use of educational methods (Ziemska, 1973; Ryś, 2001) or as a resultant of the ways and methods of influencing the child within the family (Kuczkowski, 1991; Ryś, 2001). The most commonly distinguished are three basic styles: democratic, autocratic, and liberal. Ryś (2001) proposed distinguishing the liberal-affectionate style and liberal-non-affectionate style, on the grounds that the liberal style may take two extreme forms.

*The democratic parenting style* is characterised by respect for the rights and feelings of each family member. It is also marked by mutual affection, trust, and concern for the development of each family member. Parental control is flexible, with no rigidly imposed rules, or strict discipline. Instead, family members rely on persuasion and reasoning, plan activities, and solve problems together (Ryś, 2001). Learning to consider others' perspectives, cooperate with parents and siblings, and engage in decision-making processes allows the child to develop initiative and fosters pro-social attitudes. Flexible rules that allow the child to take initiative in choosing tasks, along with the absence of non-punitive approach in the cases of neglecting responsibilities and the use of persuasion and argumentation, contribute to the early development of self-control and discipline based on internalised norms and values. In this parenting style, a strong emotional bond connects children and parents.

*The autocratic parenting style*, which was prevalent in patriarchal families, is characterised by a conservative orientation and is based on parental control and authority, including the use of coercion (Przetacznik-Gierowska i Włodarski, 2014). Parents provide explanations to children only when they consider it appropriate. The child is aware of the level of

control they are subject to and that any misbehaviour will not go unnoticed by parents (ibidem). The child clearly knows their rights and responsibilities, yet their achievements are taken for granted and not rewarded, while punishment and criticism of mistakes play a dominant role in upbringing. Strict parental control also extends to the child's relationships outside the family (Ryś, 2001).

Within the autocratic parenting style, different variants can be distinguished, ranging from strict, repressive supervision associated with demands that sometimes exceed from child's capabilities, to a more rational limitation of the child's autonomy combined with tasks adjusted to their individual and developmental characteristics. The first extreme variant is based on punishments, fear and one-sided communication, and is characterised by emotional distance between parents and the child. The second variant, although still maintaining a certain level of distance, does not exclude warmth and the expression of affection. Communication in this case may be two-way, and the child may receive explanations for punishments as well as answers to their questions; however, parents remain convinced of the need for constant guidance and control over the child (Przetacznik-Gierowska i Włodarski, 2014).

*The liberal parenting style* assumes full freedom for the child's development; parents are expected to provide appropriate conditions, and intervene only when the child severely violates social norms. The liberal-affectionate variant involves surrounding the child with affection while allowing freedom of action and choice of attitudes, with parental believing that the child possesses the skills necessary to cope with independent life. In the liberal-non-affectionate variant, parents display indifference and emotional coldness, showing little interest in the child's life (Ryś, 2001).

The democratic and liberal-affectionate parenting styles require openness, empathy, and reflexiveness, which simultaneously serve as protective factors in the context of occupational burnout. In contrast, the autocratic and liberal-non-affectionate styles, characterised by control and emotional distance, are associated with higher levels of tension and psychological exhaustion, which may hinder adaptation to occupational demands and the ability to balance work and private life.

### **1.3. Occupational burnout**

Occupational burnout is a complex psychological syndrome that develops in response to prolonged occupational stress, particularly in people-oriented professions. Initially described by Freudenberger and Maslach (Freudenberger, 1974, as cited in Mańkowska, 2016, Maslach, 2011, as cited in Mańkowska, 2016) and later expanded in energy models (e.g. Demerouti et al.). This phenomenon encompasses two core dimensions: emotional and physical exhaustion, and reduced work engagement. Contemporary perspectives conceptualise occupational burnout not only as an individual problem but also as an organisational phenomenon with significant social consequences (Mańkowska, 2016, 2025).

According to the *Oldenburg Burnout Inventory* (OLBI) (Chirkowska-Smolak, 2018) model used in this study, burnout is understood as a process of loss of energy and motivation in response to chronic occupational demands combined with limited social support. Reduced work engagement may result not only from workload overload but also from tensions in the family domain and a lack of work-life balance. In this context, marital well-being and family functioning styles become particularly important, as they may serve as a buffer protecting against the effects of prolonged occupational stress (Strzelecki, 2023).

Occupational burnout has not been unambiguously defined in psychological literature. However, there is a general consensus among researchers regarding its primary basis and necessary condition, which is the experience of prolonged stress. (Mańkowska, 2016). The consequences of chronic stress can be both psychological and physiological. In the physical aspect, prolonged stress may lead to, among others, elevated blood pressure, weakened immune functioning, dysregulation of the endocrine system, and gastric ulcers. Psychological symptoms of stress include anxiety, insomnia, impairment social functioning, irritability, and aggression.

In Maslach's classical approach, occupational burnout is understood as a psychological response to chronic occupational stress and is manifested as a three-dimensional syndrome consisting of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, as cited in: Mańkowska, 2016).

Emotional exhaustion results from psychological overload or compassion fatigue, as well as from sustained involvement in professional interactions with individuals experiencing multiple problems and attempts to resolve these difficulties on their behalf. It is manifested, among others, by a general sense of fatigue. Psychosomatic symptoms may include, for example: headaches and insomnia (Mańkowska, 2016).

Depersonalisation is considered to serve a defensive function against excessive emotional burden. Interpersonal relations experienced by the individuals become impersonal. The person shows indifference towards others' problems and develops strategies aimed at resolving issues as quickly as possible and minimising the duration of contact with other individuals. Depersonalisation contributes to the formation of stereotypes. Over time, it may be expressed not only towards clients, but also towards subordinates, co-workers and even supervisors (*ibidem*).

Reduced personal accomplishment, according to Maslach, refers to a decline in self-efficacy and effectiveness of one's actions, as well as dissatisfaction with one's achievements resulting from difficulties in coping with occupational stress (Maslach and Jackson, 1981, as cited in: Mańkowska, 2016).

The updated version of this concept, developed by Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter, identifies three components of occupational burnout: exhaustion (replacing emotional exhaustion), which includes not only a reduction in energy but also a loss of physical strength and diminished cognitive resources: cynicism (replacing depersonalisation) understood as psychological distancing not only from people but also from the entire work-related environment; and reduced professional efficacy, which represents a narrower, construct to reduced personal accomplishment (Baka and Basińska, 2016).

The authors of the modified concept assume that occupational burnout results from dysfunctional relations between the individual and the organisational environment. According to these authors, such an incompatibility is promoted by excessive workload, lack of control, insufficient reward, lack of social support, absence of fairness, and value conflicts (*ibidem*).

Another approach to occupational burnout is presented in the *Job Demands – Resources* model. According to this model, occupational burnout

consists of two components: exhaustion (physical, emotional, and cognitive) and disengagement from work. Occupational burnout is understood as the result of insufficient resources in relation to excessive demands (Demerouti, 2001, as cited in: Mańkowska, 2025).

The two presented models compete with one another, and the current state of knowledge on occupational burnout still allows for a wide range of perspectives. The lack of consensus regarding the definition of occupational burnout is particularly problematic given the increasing prevalence of occupational burnout and the complexity of its underlying mechanisms. Reaching agreement in this area is essential for accurate diagnosis as well as for the development and implementation of effective prevention strategies (Mańkowska, 2025).

Apart from systemic solutions, individuals may also undertake specific actions aimed at preventing occupational burnout. The strategies most frequently mentioned in the burnout literature include setting achievable goals, ensuring adequate rest, engaging in physical activity, maintaining emotional distance from external stressors, undertaking activities that support mental and physical health, and preserving boundaries between work and home life (Mańkowska, 2016).

The social environment and an individual's interactions with other people play an important role in preventing occupational burnout. Among the personal factors associated with an increased risk of burnout are the lack of partner relationships, and social support systems, as well as neglect of intimacy (Skłodowski, 2010).

Partnership relationships, trust, support, intimacy, opportunities for mutual self-realisation, and similarity between partners contribute to high levels of marital satisfaction. The fact that the absence of factors underlying a satisfying marriage may increase the likelihood of occupational burnout suggests a possible association between marital well-being and the risk of burnout. Accordingly, lower marital satisfaction may be associated with a higher risk of occupational burnout.

Marital well-being, parenting style, and occupational burnout form an interconnected system in which functioning within one domain may influence

the others. High levels of marital satisfaction promote emotional balance, which is reflected in more supportive and empathic parental attitudes. At the same time, constructive parenting styles based on openness, trust, and dialogue facilitate more effective stress management, which may protect individuals from excessive strain and occupational burnout.

Conversely, reduced marital well-being may contribute to increased emotional tension, which can extend to both parenting relationships and occupational functioning. Conflicts, lack of support, or feeling of being misunderstood within the relationship may result in greater impulsivity and emotional distance in interactions with children, as well as a reduced ability to cope with occupational pressure. Therefore, it may be assumed that the quality of the marital relationship and the parenting style employed remain in a reciprocal relationship with the level of occupational burnout, either supporting one another or intensifying difficulties in the emotional and social functioning of the individual.

In consequence, all three analysed variables are closely interrelated and form a system of dependencies in which well-being in one life domain influences functioning in the others. This perspective highlights the importance of integrating family and occupational perspectives in research on adult functioning.

## 2. Method

The aim of the present study is to address the following research question: Does marital well-being and parenting styles in one's family of origin influence the level of occupational burnout? Based on the research question and the relevant literature, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- H1. The democratic and liberal-affectionate styles are associated with lower levels of burnout.
- H2. The autocratic and liberal-non-affectionate styles are associated with higher levels of burnout.
- H3. Higher marital well-being co-occurs with lower intensity of occupational burnout.

### 2.1. Participants

The study sample consisted of 417 married individuals with at least one child, including 266 women and 151 men, aged between 21 to 63 years. The average age of the participants was  $M = 41$  years. The majority of participants had higher education (54.28%), followed by secondary education (20.54%), vocational education (14.43%), incomplete higher education (9.54%), and primary education (1.22%). Most respondents lived in the countryside (36.63%), followed by cities with 51,000 inhabitants and more (32.05%), cities with 21,000–50,000 inhabitants (18.07%), and cities with 6,000–20,000 inhabitants (13.25%). The average length of employment was 13 years. The sample included 63.18% white-collar workers and 36.82% blue-collar workers.

### 2.2. Research tools

Three measures and a sociodemographic questionnaire consisting of nine items assessing sociodemographic variables were used in the study. Marital well-being was assessed using the *Marital Quality Questionnaire* (KDM-2) developed by M. Plopa and J. Rostowski (2005). The instrument measures the quality of marital relationship across four dimensions: intimacy, self-fulfilment, similarity, and disappointment. The questionnaire consists of 32 statements rated on a five-point Likert scale: 5 – strongly agree, 4 – rather agree, 3 – neither agree nor disagree, 2 – rather disagree, 1 – strongly disagree. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients obtained in the present study were as follows: intimacy  $\alpha = 0.881$ , disappointment  $\alpha = 0.862$ , self-realisation  $\alpha = 0.810$ , similarity  $\alpha = 0.776$ , and overall marital satisfaction  $\alpha = 0.938$ . Parenting style was assessed using the *Parenting Styles Analysis – Own Family Questionnaire* (M. Ryś, 2001). The instrument consists of 33 items, and respondents answer using a five-point scale: 3 – definitely yes, 2 – rather yes, 1 – rather no, 0 – definitely no, x – cannot determine. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients in the present sample were: democratic style – 0.793; autocratic style – 0.805; permissive-indulgent – 0.428; neglectful-permissive – 0.820. Occupational burnout was measured

using the *Oldenburg Burnout Inventory* (OLBI) developed by E. Demerouti, A.B. Bakker, I. Vardakou, and A. Kantas, in the Polish adaptation by T. Chirkowska-Smolak (2018). The instrument consists of 16 items rated on a four-point scale: 1 – strongly agree, 2 – agree, 3 – disagree, 4 – strongly disagree. The OLBI conceptualises occupational burnout as a two-factor construct comprising exhaustion and disengagement from work (Chirkowska-Smolak, 2018). The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients in the present study were: overall occupational burnout  $\alpha = 0.833$ ; exhaustion  $\alpha = 0.739$ ; disengagement  $\alpha = 0.714$  (ibidem).

### 3. Results

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test indicated that the distributions of studied variables differed from a normal distribution. However, analysis of the skewness and kurtosis values showed that for most variables (with the exception of similarity and marital well-being) the coefficients fell within the range of  $\pm 2$ , suggesting that the distribution of variables can be considered approximately normal.

To verify the proposed hypotheses, Pearson’s  $r$  correlation analysis was conducted.

Hypothesis 1, which assumed that democratic and liberal-affectionate parenting styles reduce risk of occupational burnout, was confirmed. The correlation results indicated that higher levels of these parenting styles (i.e., more frequent use) were associated with higher OLBI scores, which in this study reflects lower levels of burnout and its components. Although these relationships were weak, their direction was consistent with the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2, which stated that the use of autocratic and liberal-non-affectionate parenting styles increases the risk of occupational burnout, was also supported. Higher levels of these parenting styles were associated with lower OLBI scores, indicating higher levels of burnout and its components. This relationship was particularly pronounced for the liberal-non-affectionate style, for which correlations of moderate strength were observed.

To test Hypothesis 3, Pearson’s  $r$  correlation analysis was conducted. The results indicate that Hypothesis 3, which assumed that marital well-being reduces the risk of occupational burnout, was supported with regard to selected components of

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of variables with results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

|                                      | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>Sk</i> | <i>Kurt</i> | <i>Min</i> | <i>Maks</i> | <i>KS</i> | <i>p</i> |
|--------------------------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|-------------|------------|-------------|-----------|----------|
| Parenting styles in one’s own family |          |           |           |             |            |             |           |          |
| Democratic style                     | 24.21    | 4.02      | -0.746    | 0.891       | 7.5        | 30.0        | 0.08      | <0.001   |
| Autocratic style                     | 11.24    | 5.56      | 0.578     | 0.324       | 0.0        | 30.0        | 0.08      | <0.001   |
| Liberal-affectionate style           | 20.02    | 3.27      | -0.510    | 0.802       | 8.0        | 27.0        | 0.07      | <0.001   |
| Liberal-non-affectionate style       | 8.64     | 5.22      | 0.682     | 0.082       | 0.0        | 25.0        | 0.09      | <0.001   |
| Marital well-being (KDM-2)           |          |           |           |             |            |             |           |          |
| Intimacy                             | 30.60    | 6.08      | -1.096    | 1.610       | 4.0        | 40.0        | 0.15      | <0.001   |
| Self-fulfilment                      | 26.95    | 4.87      | -0.807    | 1.721       | 3.0        | 35.0        | 0.09      | <0.001   |
| Similarity                           | 27.19    | 4.90      | -1.152    | 2.290       | 4.0        | 35.0        | 0.12      | <0.001   |
| Disappointment                       | 37.54    | 7.86      | -0.822    | 0.605       | 4.0        | 50.0        | 0.09      | <0.001   |
| Marital well-being                   | 84.75    | 14.60     | -1.165    | 2.632       | 11.0       | 110.0       | 0.11      | <0.001   |
| Occupational burnout (OLBI)          |          |           |           |             |            |             |           |          |
| Lack of engagement for work          | 22.02    | 4.24      | -0.177    | 0.182       | 7.0        | 32.0        | 0.07      | <0.001   |
| Occupational exhaustion              | 21.60    | 3.98      | -0.069    | 0.629       | 9.0        | 32.0        | 0.08      | <0.001   |
| Occupational burnout                 | 43.62    | 7.47      | -0.122    | 0.458       | 18.0       | 64.0        | 0.05      | 0.008    |

Legend: n-number of observation, M-mean, SD-standard deviation, Sk-skewness, Kurt-kurtosis, Min-minimal value, Maks-maximal value, KS - Kolmogorow-Smirnov test statistic, p - significance for normality test

Table 2. Relationships between occupational burnout, and democratic, autocratic, liberal-affectionate, liberal-non-affectionate parenting styles

| Variable                       | Lack of engagement in work | Occupational exhaustion | Occupational burnout |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|
| Democratic style               | 0.159**                    | 0.181***                | 0.187***             |
| Autocratic style               | -0.112*                    | -0.200***               | -0.170***            |
| Liberal-affectionate style     | 0.105*                     | 0.070                   | 0.097*               |
| Liberal-non-affectionate style | -0.179***                  | -0.307***               | -0.265***            |

\*\*\*p<0,001, \*\*p<0,01, \*p<0,05

Table 3. Relationship between occupational burnout and marital well-being

| Variable           | Lack of engagement in work | Occupational exhaustion | Occupational burnout |
|--------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|
| Intimacy           | 0.106*                     | 0.200***                | 0.167***             |
| Self-fulfillment   | 0.097*                     | 0.148**                 | 0.134**              |
| Similarity         | 0.122*                     | 0.186***                | 0.168***             |
| Disappointment     | 0.108*                     | 0.199***                | 0.167***             |
| Marital well-being | 0.117*                     | 0.195***                | 0.171***             |

\*\*\*p<0,001, \*\*p<0,01, \*p<0,05

marital well-being, such as intimacy, self-realisation, and similarity. These variables were negatively correlated with occupational burnout and its components (work disengagement and exhaustion), indicating that higher levels of marital well-being are associated with lower levels of burnout.

### 3.1. Additional analyses

To examine intergroup differences in the studies variables, Student's t-test for independent samples and Kruskal-Wallis test were used. The first set of analyses concerned gender differences. Student's t-test revealed statistically significant differences in three dimensions of parenting styles in one's own family. Women showed significantly higher levels of

the democratic parenting style compared to men,  $t(415) = 2.22$ ;  $p = 0.027$ ;  $d = 0.23$ , indicating a small effect size. At the same time, women obtained significantly lower scores in the autocratic style,  $t(415) = -2.27$ ;  $p = 0.024$ ;  $d = 0.23$ . A similar pattern was observed for the liberal-non-affectionate style, where women also achieved significantly lower results compared to men,  $t(415) = -2.24$ ;  $p = 0.026$ ;  $d = 0.23$ . No significant gender differences were found for the liberal-affectionate style for the remaining variables related to marital well-being and occupational burnout ( $p > 0.05$ ).

The next set of analysis examined intergroup differences connected to respondents' age. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to compare three age groups: up to 25 years old, 26–40 years old, and over 40 years old. Regarding parenting styles in one's own family, a significant difference was found only for the liberal-non-affectionate style,  $H(2) = 6.29$ ;  $p = 0.043$ ;  $\epsilon^2 = 0.02$ , indicating a small effect size. The highest scores in this dimension were observed in the group of people up to 25 years of age, while the lowest were found in the 26–40 age group. With respect to marital well-being, the Kruskal-Wallis test revealed significant age-group differences in four dimensions. For intimacy, the result was  $H(2) = 8.05$ ;  $p = 0.018$ ;  $\epsilon^2 = 0.02$ , with the highest scores observed in the 26–40 age group. Similarity also differed significantly between groups,  $H(2) = 8.75$ ;  $p = 0.013$ ;  $\epsilon^2 = 0.02$ , again with the highest values in the 26–40 age group. For disappointment, the result was  $H(2) = 7.84$ ;  $p = 0.020$ ;  $\epsilon^2 = 0.02$ , with the highest scores observed in the 26–40 age group. The overall marital well-being index also differed significantly across age groups,  $H(2) = 6.57$ ,  $p = 0.037$ ,  $\epsilon^2 = 0.02$ , with the highest scores in the 26–40 age group and the lowest in the up-to-25 group. Regarding occupational burnout, a significant age-related difference was found only for exhaustion,  $H(2) = 10.04$ ,  $p = 0.007$ ,  $\epsilon^2 = 0.02$ . According to the interpretation of the OLBI scale, lower scores indicate higher levels of exhaustion; therefore, the lowest scores (reflecting the highest exhaustion) were observed by participants over 40 years of age, whereas the highest scores (indicating the lowest exhaustion), were found in the up-to-25 age. group.

Table 4. Analysis of gender-related differences in parenting styles of one's own family, marital well-being and occupational burnout

| Dependent variable       | Woman (n=266) |      | Man (n=151) |      | t     | df  | p     | 95% CI |      | d    |
|--------------------------|---------------|------|-------------|------|-------|-----|-------|--------|------|------|
|                          | M             | SD   | M           | SD   |       |     |       | LL     | UL   |      |
| Democratic               | 24.5          | 4.0  | 23.6        | 4.0  | 2.22  | 415 | 0.027 | 0.1    | 1.7  | 0.23 |
| Autocratic               | 10.8          | 5.6  | 12.1        | 5.4  | -2.27 | 415 | 0.024 | -2.4   | -0.2 | 0.23 |
| Liberal-affectionate     | 20.2          | 3.3  | 19.7        | 3.2  | 1.75  | 415 | 0.081 | -0.1   | 1.2  | 0.18 |
| Liberal-non-affectionate | 8.2           | 5.3  | 9.4         | 5.0  | -2.24 | 415 | 0.026 | -2.2   | -0.1 | 0.23 |
| Intimacy                 | 30.5          | 6.3  | 30.8        | 5.7  | -0.53 | 415 | 0.594 | -1.6   | 0.9  | 0.05 |
| Self-fulfilment          | 26.9          | 4.8  | 27.0        | 5.0  | -0.19 | 415 | 0.853 | -1.1   | 0.9  | 0.02 |
| Similarity               | 27.2          | 5.0  | 27.1        | 4.8  | 0.30  | 415 | 0.766 | -0.8   | 1.1  | 0.03 |
| Disappointment           | 37.2          | 8.0  | 38.1        | 7.6  | -1.04 | 415 | 0.299 | -2.4   | 0.7  | 0.11 |
| Marital well-being       | 84.6          | 14.8 | 84.9        | 14.3 | -0.18 | 415 | 0.854 | -3.2   | 2.6  | 0.02 |
| Lack of engagement       | 22.2          | 4.3  | 21.8        | 4.2  | 0.85  | 415 | 0.394 | -0.5   | 1.2  | 0.09 |
| Occupational burnout     | 43.6          | 7.6  | 43.6        | 7.3  | 0.04  | 415 | 0.970 | -1.5   | 1.5  | 0.00 |
| Occupational exhaustion  | 21.5          | 4.1  | 21.8        | 3.8  | -0.84 | 415 | 0.402 | -1.1   | 0.5  | 0.09 |

Legend: t- statistic of t Studenta test, \*- statistic of Welch test, df -degrees of freedom; p-the level of test's pertinence, d- the size of d Cohena effect, M- mean, SD- standard deviation, 95% CI- 95% confidence interval, LL- lower line of confidence interval, UL- utter line of confidence interval

Table 5. Analysis of age-related differences in parenting styles in one's own family, marital well-being, occupational burnout

| Dependent variable       | 25 years old and younger (n=8) |      | 26-40 years old (n=197) |      | over 40 years old (n=210) |      | H     | df | p     | ε <sup>2</sup> |
|--------------------------|--------------------------------|------|-------------------------|------|---------------------------|------|-------|----|-------|----------------|
|                          | M                              | Me   | M                       | Me   | M                         | Me   |       |    |       |                |
| Democratic               | 23.8                           | 24.0 | 24.5                    | 25.0 | 23.9                      | 24.0 | 2.46  | 2  | 0.292 | 0.01           |
| Autocratic               | 12.2                           | 11.2 | 10.6                    | 10.0 | 11.8                      | 11.0 | 5.67  | 2  | 0.059 | 0.01           |
| Liberal-affectionate     | 19.4                           | 20.0 | 20.1                    | 20.0 | 20.0                      | 20.0 | 0.27  | 2  | 0.874 | 0.00           |
| Liberal-non-affectionate | 9.9                            | 9.5  | 8.1                     | 7.0  | 9.2                       | 8.5  | 6.29  | 2  | 0.043 | 0.02           |
| Intimacy                 | 29.2                           | 30.5 | 31.5                    | 32.0 | 29.9                      | 31.0 | 8.05  | 2  | 0.018 | 0.02           |
| Self-fulfilment          | 25.4                           | 26.0 | 27.3                    | 27.0 | 26.7                      | 27.0 | 1.75  | 2  | 0.418 | 0.00           |
| Similarity               | 25.4                           | 28.0 | 27.9                    | 29.0 | 26.6                      | 28.0 | 8.75  | 2  | 0.013 | 0.02           |
| Disappointment           | 32.1                           | 34.0 | 38.5                    | 40.0 | 36.9                      | 38.0 | 7.84  | 2  | 0.020 | 0.02           |
| Marital well-being       | 80.0                           | 84.0 | 86.6                    | 88.0 | 83.2                      | 86.0 | 6.57  | 2  | 0.037 | 0.02           |
| Lack of engagement       | 22.1                           | 22.5 | 22.1                    | 22.0 | 21.9                      | 22.0 | 0.31  | 2  | 0.858 | 0.00           |
| Occupational burnout     | 44.9                           | 45.5 | 44.2                    | 44.0 | 43.0                      | 43.0 | 3.72  | 2  | 0.156 | 0.01           |
| Occupational exhaustion  | 22.8                           | 23.0 | 22.1                    | 22.0 | 21.1                      | 21.0 | 10.04 | 2  | 0.007 | 0.02           |

Legend: H- statistics of Kruskal-Wallis test, df -degrees of freedom, p- the level of test's pertinence, ε<sup>2</sup>- measure of the size of the effect for Kruskal-Wallis test, M- mean, Me- median

Table 6. Analysis of differences according to work experience in parenting style in one's own family, marital well-being, occupational burnout

| Dependent variable       | under 1 year<br>(n=23) |      | 1-5 years<br>(n=106) |      | 6-10 years<br>(n=92) |      | 11-20 years<br>(n=112) |      | over<br>20 years<br>(n=84) |      | H     | df | p     | ε <sup>2</sup> |
|--------------------------|------------------------|------|----------------------|------|----------------------|------|------------------------|------|----------------------------|------|-------|----|-------|----------------|
|                          | M                      | Me   | M                    | Me   | M                    | Me   | M                      | Me   | M                          | Me   |       |    |       |                |
| Democratic               | 24.3                   | 25.0 | 24.5                 | 25.0 | 24.0                 | 24.5 | 24.1                   | 25.0 | 24.2                       | 24.0 | 1.99  | 4  | 0.738 | 0.00           |
| Autocratic               | 11.1                   | 10.0 | 11.1                 | 10.5 | 10.6                 | 10.0 | 11.9                   | 11.0 | 11.3                       | 11.0 | 2.12  | 4  | 0.713 | 0.01           |
| Liberal-affectionate     | 19.4                   | 19.5 | 20.3                 | 20.5 | 20.0                 | 20.0 | 19.6                   | 20.0 | 20.5                       | 20.0 | 5.11  | 4  | 0.276 | 0.01           |
| Liberal-non-affectionate | 8.4                    | 7.0  | 8.7                  | 8.0  | 8.5                  | 8.0  | 8.8                    | 8.0  | 8.5                        | 7.2  | 0.28  | 4  | 0.991 | 0.00           |
| Intimacy                 | 29.3                   | 30.0 | 31.2                 | 32.0 | 31.5                 | 32.0 | 30.2                   | 31.0 | 29.8                       | 31.0 | 5.07  | 4  | 0.281 | 0.01           |
| Self-fulfillment         | 26.4                   | 27.0 | 27.1                 | 28.0 | 27.1                 | 27.0 | 26.8                   | 27.0 | 26.9                       | 28.0 | 0.80  | 4  | 0.939 | 0.00           |
| Similarity               | 26.5                   | 27.0 | 27.5                 | 28.0 | 27.8                 | 28.5 | 27.1                   | 28.0 | 26.5                       | 27.0 | 3.90  | 4  | 0.419 | 0.01           |
| Disappointment           | 37.2                   | 38.0 | 37.8                 | 39.5 | 38.5                 | 40.0 | 36.9                   | 37.0 | 37.2                       | 39.5 | 1.59  | 4  | 0.811 | 0.00           |
| Marital well-being       | 82.2                   | 82.0 | 85.8                 | 88.0 | 86.4                 | 87.0 | 84.2                   | 87.0 | 83.2                       | 86.0 | 2.85  | 4  | 0.583 | 0.01           |
| Lack of engagement       | 21.0                   | 20.0 | 22.9                 | 23.5 | 21.6                 | 22.0 | 21.2                   | 21.0 | 22.7                       | 22.0 | 14.87 | 4  | 0.005 | 0.04           |
| Occupational burnout     | 42.3                   | 40.0 | 45.1                 | 46.0 | 43.4                 | 43.0 | 42.4                   | 43.0 | 44.0                       | 44.0 | 9.16  | 4  | 0.057 | 0.02           |
| Occupational exhaustion  | 21.3                   | 20.0 | 22.2                 | 22.0 | 21.7                 | 21.0 | 21.2                   | 21.0 | 21.3                       | 21.0 | 6.12  | 4  | 0.190 | 0.01           |

Legend: H-statistics of Kruskal-Wallis test, df- degrees of freedom, p- level of test's pertinence, ε<sup>2</sup>-measure of the size of the effect for Kruskal-Wallis test, M- mean, Me-median

The final set of analyses examined differences according to respondents' length of employment. The Kruskal-Wallis test compared five groups: individuals with less than 1 year of work experience, 1–5 years, 6–10 years, 11–20 years, and over 20 years. No significant between-group differences were found for family parenting in one's own family or for marital well-being ( $p > 0.05$ ). However, a significant difference was observed for the work disengagement dimension of occupational burnout,  $H(4) = 14.87$ ;  $p = 0.005$ ;  $\epsilon^2 = 0.04$ . According to the interpretation of the OLBI scale, lower scores indicate the higher levels of work disengagement; therefore, the lowest scores (reflecting the highest level of disengagement) were observed among participants with less than 1 year of work experience.

The highest scores (indicating the lowest level of disengagement) were found in participants with 1–5 years of experience and those with over 20 years of experience. No significant differences related to length of employment were found for the remaining dimensions of occupational burnout.

#### 4. Interpretation of results

The obtained empirical results confirmed all three research hypotheses. In line with the theoretical assumptions, the use of democratic and liberal-affectionate parenting styles was associated with lower levels of occupational burnout. This finding suggests that individuals functioning in family relationships based on trust, empathy, and mutual respect tend to display similar attitudes in other areas of social functioning, including work-related relationships. Parenting style reflects a relatively stable pattern of emotional responding, self-regulation, and interpersonal maturity, which fosters constructive coping with stress and reduces the risk of emotional exhaustion.

Opposite relationships were observed for autocratic and liberal-non-affectionate parenting styles, which were positively correlated with occupational burnout. Excessive control, criticism, or emotional distance expressed by parents may reflect a generally detached and rigid interpersonal functioning pattern, which can be transferred to non-family relationships. Such attitudes contribute to the accumulation of emotional tension and reduce an individual's adap-

tive capacity in the occupational context, while also hindering the maintenance of work–life balance. A particularly strong association with occupational burnout was observed for the liberal-non-affectionate style, characterised by emotional indifference and lack of parental involvement. This pattern may indicate deficits in emotional and cognitive resources as well as signs of general psychological exhaustion.

It was also confirmed that marital well-being plays an important protective role in relation to occupational burnout. Higher levels of intimacy, similarity, and self-fulfillment in the marital relationship co-occurred with lower levels of emotional exhaustion and work disengagement. It can therefore be assumed that a satisfying marital relationship functions as an emotional buffer, as it provides support, understanding, and a sense of stability that mitigate the negative effects of occupational stress. The absence of such support increases vulnerability to burnout, particularly among individuals burdened with parental responsibilities.

Additional analyses also revealed certain differences in the studied variables depending on selected sociodemographic characteristics. Women more often than men reported using the democratic style and less frequently autocratic and liberal-non-affectionate styles, which may indicate a greater tendency toward relational and supportive functioning in family relationships. Age- and work experience-related differences concerned mainly selected aspects of marital well-being and components of occupational burnout, although their effect sizes were small. These findings suggest that demographic factors may to some extent differentiate the levels of analysed variables; however, they do not constitute the main determinants of the observed relationships.

## **5. Discussion**

The obtained results are consistent with previous research findings highlighting the importance of work–family balance and the influence of quality of intimate relationships on individual psychological well-being (Baka and Basińska, 2016). These findings also support earlier observations by Liang and Chen

(2025), who demonstrated that work–family conflict negatively affects parent–child relationships, increases parental burnout, and may consequently reduce the quality of occupational functioning (Liang and Chen, 2025). The identified relationships indicate that the way parents interact with their children reflects not only their parenting attitudes but also their current level of emotional, cognitive, and adaptive resources. Democratic and liberal-affectionate parenting styles, based on trust, dialogue, and acceptance, are associated with higher levels of self-regulation, empathy, and interpersonal competence. These characteristics serve as protective factors against occupational burnout, as they facilitate constructive coping with work demands, the maintenance of satisfying workplace relations, and more effective emotional recovery. In contrast, autocratic and liberal-non-affectionate styles, characterised by excessive control, emotional distance, or lack of involvement, may contribute to higher levels of tension, frustration, and psychological exhaustion. Individuals exhibiting such styles are more likely to experience difficulties in adapting to occupational demands and in maintaining work–life balance, which increases the risk of burnout symptoms.

A high level of marital well-being can be interpreted as an important psychological resource that supports more effective emotional self-regulation and more efficient coping with workplace demands. Individuals satisfied with their partner relationship tend to experience a greater sense of security and belonging, which enhances their resilience to occupational stress. In contrast, low marital satisfaction may contribute to feelings of loneliness, overload, and a lack of meaning at work, all of which are factors commonly associated with the process of occupational burnout. Research has shown that work–family role conflict increases the risk of burnout; however, the presence of a stable marital relationship and parental role may mitigate some of these effects by providing emotional support and a sense of meaning (Zheng et al., 2022). Other studies indicate that although marriage may, in certain situations, increase levels of personal burnout – particularly during periods of heightened occupational stress, such as the COVID–19 pandemic – positive family relationships and reduced excessive workload can nevertheless serve a protective function (Chen

et al., 2022). Furthermore, work-family enrichment, understood as the positive transfer of experiences and resources between these domains, has been found to reduce parental burnout by increasing parenting self-efficacy and lowering stress levels (Wang et al., 2024). These findings confirm that the quality of marital and family relationships may constitute an important factor against the negative consequences of occupational overload.

Additionally, the quality of the marital relationship may influence the parenting styles adopted by spouses. Marital well-being constitutes a key context in which parental attitudes are shaped and enacted. The quality of the partner relationship affects how individuals regulate emotions, respond to stress, and engage in interactions with their child. Research indicates that emotional regulation plays an important role in preventing marital burnout, particularly in the context of parenthood (Kocyigit & Uzun, 2025). High levels of marital satisfaction are associated with greater emotional stability, openness, and empathy, which in turn promote parenting styles based on dialogue, trust, and cooperation, namely the democratic and liberal-affectionate styles.

Conversely, deficits in the marital relationship, such as a lack of emotional support, conflicts, or being misunderstood, may lead to intensified negative emotions, tension, and frustration, which in turn increase the likelihood of adopting more autocratic or indifferent forms of parenting. In this sense, marital well-being can be regarded as an important factor regulating the manner in which the parental role is fulfilled.

Recent analyses indicate that higher-quality marital relationships are associated with better indicators of mental health and certain cognitive benefits, suggesting their role as adaptive resources (Haghighi et al., 2024).

Analyses of factors influencing occupational burnout confirm that social resources, including family resources such as the quality of partner support, have a protective effect against the development of burnout symptoms (Wudarczyk, 2023).

It should be emphasized that the study concerned current parenting styles used by parents, rather than styles derived from the family of origin. The obtained

results therefore reflect the contemporary context of parents' functioning, rather than retrospective childhood experiences. Consequently, it can be assumed that occupational burnout, marital well-being, and parenting style form a dynamic system of interrelated factors: the quality of the marital relationship influences the manner in which parental roles are fulfilled, while occupational overload may negatively affect family functioning.

## 6. Study limitations

Despite obtaining valuable and significant results, the study is not without certain limitations that should be considered when interpreting the findings. First, the correlational design of the analyses allows for the identification of associations between the studied variables; however, it does not permit drawing definitive conclusions about causal relationships. Future research should employ longitudinal designs, which would make it possible to capture the dynamics of these relationships over time.

The use of self-report methods, although widely applied in psychological research, may involve a certain risk of cognitive distortions and social desirability bias. Nevertheless, the instruments used in this study demonstrate good psychometric properties, which increases the reliability of the obtained data.

Although the sample size ( $N = 417$ ) allows for drawing reliable conclusions, the demographic composition of the sample, with a predominance of women and individuals with tertiary education, may limit the generalisability of the results to other groups of parents. However, it should be noted that such a profile is consistent with trends observed in studies involving working parents raising children, which makes the obtained data representative for this population.

In summary, despite aforementioned limitations, the obtained results constitute a valuable contribution to the development of knowledge regarding the relationships between parenting style, marital well-being, and occupational burnout, highlighting the need for further research to deepen the understanding of this mechanisms.

## **7. Theoretical and practical implications**

The obtained results constitute an important contribution to the development of knowledge on the links between family functioning and mental health in the occupational context. These findings empirically support the rationale for integrating perspectives from work psychology, family psychology, and health psychology in research on occupational burnout. They indicate that individuals' emotional and motivational resources are deeply embedded within their relational systems, particularly in the quality of marital relationships, parenting styles, and perceived family support. These results further support a systemic and psychological approach to human functioning, according to which work and family life form a dynamic system of interrelated factors in which stress or satisfaction in one domain may significantly influence the other.

In practical terms, this study opens new opportunities for practitioners, including organisational psychologists, family therapists, career counsellors, and HR specialists. The findings suggest that occupational burnout prevention programmes should include not only organisational components (e.g., workload management, improving workplace culture, and developing soft skills), but also elements related to family functioning. In practice, this implies the need to consider factors such as marital communication, work-family balance, mutual partner support and parenting strategies.

A particularly promising direction involves interventions aimed at improving the quality of partner relationships. Research indicates that persistent conflict and dissatisfaction within intimate relationships increase the risk of adverse mental health outcomes, whereas improvements in relationship quality may contribute to enhanced psychological well-being. (Whisman et al., 2021). These results highlight that interventions strengthening relational resources, such as empathy training, emotional understanding, and joint problem-solving skills, may constitute an effective preventative tool for both occupational burnout and emotional difficulties within the family.

In organisational practice, it may be considered to include work-life balance modules in stress management training, as well as to promote cooperation between mental health institutions and employers in order to support the families of individuals exposed to chronic occupational stress (e.g., healthcare professionals, teachers, and social workers). Integrating work and family perspectives into organisational policies may lead to a tangible improvement in employees' psychological well-being, as well as increased work effectiveness and engagement.

In summary, the obtained results indicate that the prevention of occupational burnout should be designed in a holistic manner, taking into account the individual's emotional, relational and family resources. Parenting styles based on empathy and dialogue, high-quality marital relationship, and effective partner communication constitute key protective factors that may effectively counteract the negative effects of occupational stress enhance overall psychological well-being.

## **8. Future research directions**

Future studies should focus on identifying mediating mechanisms between parenting styles and occupational burnout, such as the level of parental stress, satisfaction with the parental role, or coping strategies used in response to stress. Longitudinal research would also be valuable, as it would allow for the examination of changes in marital and parenting relationships over time and their impact on the development or reduction of occupational burnout.

Another promising direction involves comparing occupational groups particularly vulnerable to burnout, such as teachers, healthcare professionals, and individuals working in helping professions. It would also be valuable to include the perspective of both partners; such an approach could reveal how mutual parenting styles and quality of the partner relationship interact in shaping individual well-being and psychological resilience.

## References

- Baka, Ł., & Basińska, A. B. (2016). Psychometryczne właściwości polskiej wersji Oldenburskiego Kwestionariusza Wypalenia Zawodowego (OLBI) [Psychometric properties of the Polish version of the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI)]. *Medycyna Pracy*, 67(1), 29–41.
- Bakiera, L. (2019). Wychowanie i rodzicielstwo, styl wychowania i styl rodzicielski. Analiza terminologiczna [Upbringing and parenthood, parenting style and parental style: A terminological analysis]. *Psychologia Wychowawcza*, 58(16), 60–72. <https://doi.org/10.5604/01.3001.0013.6361>
- Chen, Y.-H., Lou, S.-Z., Yang, C.-w., Tang, H.-M., Lee, C.-H., & Jong, G.-P. (2022). Effect of Marriage on Burnout among Healthcare Workers during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(23), 15811. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph192315811>
- Chirkowska-Smolak, T. (2018). Polska adaptacja kwestionariusza do pomiaru wypalenia zawodowego OLBI (The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory) [A Polish Adaptation of the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI)]. *Studia Oeconomica Posnaniensia*, 6(3), 24–47. <https://doi.org/10.18559/SOEP.2018.3.2>
- Haghighi, P., Littler, E. A. L., Mauer-Vakil, D., Miller, M., Oremus, M. (2024). Exploring the relationship between marital quality and cognitive function: A systematic review. *Social Science & Medicine* 355, 117120. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2024.117120>
- Kocygigit, M., & Uzun, M. (2025). Emotion regulation and couple burnout in marriage: A moderated moderation model of authenticity, sex of parents and having children. *Current Psychology*, 44, 3564–3578. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-024-07253-1>
- Kuczowski, S. (1991). *Przyjacielskie spotkania wychowawcze* [Friendly educational meetings]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Apostolstwa Modlitwy.
- Liang, J., & Chen, Z. (2025). Parents' work-family conflict and parent-child relationship: The mediating role of parenting burnout. *PLOS ONE*, 20(6), e0319675. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0319675>
- Mańkowska, B. (2016). *Wypalenie zawodowe: Źródła, mechanizmy, zapobieganie* [Occupational burnout: Sources, mechanisms, prevention]. Gdańsk: Grupa Wydawnicza Harmonia.
- Mańkowska, B. (2025). Burnout phenomenon still unresolved: The current state in theory and implications for public interest. *Frontiers in Organizational Psychology*, 3, 1549253. <https://doi.org/10.3389/forgp.2025.1549253>
- Plopa, M. (2005). *Więzi w małżeństwie i rodzinie: Metody badań* [Bonds in marriage and family: Research methods]. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls.
- Plopa, M., Rostowski, J. (2005). Kwestionariusz Dobranego Małżeństwa (KDM-2) [Marital Quality Questionnaire]. In M. Plopa (2005). *Więzi w małżeństwie i rodzinie: Metody badań* (pp. 51-108). Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls.
- Przetacznik-Gierowska, M., & Włodarski, Z. (2014). *Psychologia wychowawcza* [Educational psychology]. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Ryś, M. (2001). *Systemy rodzinne: Metody badań struktury rodziny pochodzenia i rodziny własnej* [Family systems: Methods for studying the structure of the family of origin and the current family]. Warszawa: Centrum Metodyczne Pomocy Psychologiczno-Pedagogicznej.
- Strzelecki, D. D. (2023). Wypalenie akademickie. Właściwości psychometryczne polskiej wersji Oldenburskiego Kwestionariusza Wypalenia – wersja dla studentów (OLBI-S). Badania wstępne [Academic burnout: Psychometric properties of the Polish version of the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory – student version (OLBI-S). Preliminary studies]. *Edukacja Dorosłych*, 89(2), 131–150. <https://doi.org/10.12775/ED.2023.018>
- Tavakol, Z., Behboodi Moghadam, Z., Nikbakht Nasrabadi, A., Salehiniya, H., & Rezaei, E. (2017). A review of the factors associated with marital satisfaction. *Galen Medical Journal*, 6(3), e641. <https://doi.org/10.31661/gmj.v6i3.641>
- Wang, W., Song, T., Chen, S., et al. (2024). Work-family enrichment and parental burnout: The mediating effects of parenting sense of competence and parenting stress. *Current Psychology*, 43, 6966–6976. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-023-04874-w>
- Wasilewska, M., & Kuleta, M. (2006). Style wychowania w rodzinie a zadowolenie z siebie młodych kobiet wkraczających w dorosłe życie [Parenting styles in the family and self-satisfaction among young women entering adulthood]. *Państwo i Społeczeństwo*, 6(2), 81–92.
- Whisman, M. A., Sbarra, D. A., & Beach, S. R. H. (2021). Intimate relationships and depression: Searching for causation in the sea of association. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology*, 17, 233–258. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-clinpsy-081219-103323>
- Wojciszke, B. (2021). *Psychologia miłości* [Psychology of love]. Gdańsk: Gdańskie Wydawnictwo Psychologiczne.
- Wudarczyk, B. (2023). *Analiza czynników wpływających na wypalenie zawodowe* [Analysis of factors influencing occupational burnout]. Uniwersytet Medyczny im. Piastów Śląskich. Wrocław, Poland. PhD thesis. <https://ppm.umw.edu.pl/seam/resource/rest/download/inline/UMW77178d6b323f4ce39385ce67f1dd1613>
- Zheng, G., Lyu, X., Pan, L., et al. (2022). The role conflict-burnout-depression link among Chinese female health care and social service providers: The moderating effect of marriage and motherhood. *BMC Public Health*, 22, 230. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-022-12641-y>
- Ziemska, M. (1973). *Postawy rodzicielskie* [Parenting attitudes]. Warszawa: Wiedza Powszechna.