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**WORK-FAMILY BOUNDARY MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES: EXAMINING
OUTCOMES, AND THE ROLE OF FIT**

by

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DISSERTATION

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Date

DEDICATION

To Ma and Baba who taught me the meaning of work and family

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Work-Family Boundary Management Strategies: Examining Outcomes, and the Role of Fit

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Work-family or work-non-work interface in Industrial/Organizational Psychology has primarily been defined in terms of conflict, interference, facilitation, enrichment, or balance. While this research can be said to have shed some light on the implications of work-non-work interface on several individual and organizational outcomes, one can also argue that this research is reactive and that it typically portrays the individual as a passive reactor to contextual influences or fairly unchangeable individual differences. Recently, discussion regarding how individuals actively organize and transition between their personal and work domains has come into focus. Within that discussion, the concept of boundary management strategies was proposed by Nippert-Eng (1996). It describes the work-non-work interface in terms of cognitive, physical, and behavioral boundaries between work and family domains that individuals actively try to manage. This new conceptualization provides a more proactive approach to understanding work-family issues, portraying the individual as an active agent in charge of his/her work-family outcomes (Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2009).

However, research in boundary management strategies has been lacking, given the nascent stage of the construct. The little research that has taken place has most commonly looked at work-family related outcomes of boundary management like work-family conflict and work-family enhancement (e.g. Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006; Desrochers, Hilton, & Larwood, 2005). Work-related

outcomes like organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and so on, have been studied very rarely (Rothbard, Philips, & Dumas, 2005; Kreiner, 2006) in the context of boundary management. Other relevant work-related outcomes like work engagement, burnout, and job performance are yet to be studied in this context. Thus, in an age where organizations have to do more with less, where most work has become portable due to advanced technology, where stereotypical gender roles are on the wane, and where maintaining work-life balance is a primary concern among Generation Y employees, there is a critical need for empirically examining strategies one uses to actively manage the boundaries of work and family and their respective outcomes. This is the primary goal of the present study. Like Olson-Buchanan and Oswell (2006) mentioned, as the work-non-work role boundaries become increasingly blurred the need to empirically examine the consequences of boundary management strategies for the individual (e.g. strain) and the organization (e.g. productivity) becomes critical.

The introduction is organized in the following manner. First, the traditional approaches to the work-non-work interface will be discussed that provides the necessary background for the subsequent discussion on boundary management. Following that, a review of empirical findings examining boundary management and its outcomes will be presented after which individual study variables and corresponding study hypotheses will follow.

The Work-Non-work Interface – Interactive and Separate-spheres Model

The idea of boundaries between work and family has its roots in early conceptual approaches to work and family. Traces of the separate-spheres approach to work and family/non-work can be found in the biblical historians' view that says humankind is engaged in work in the form of tilling the land, and such work is to be viewed negatively

compared with the idyllic life in the Garden of Eden (Veal, 2004). In the 1920s, Bertrand Russell, the great philosopher, echoed a similar view. He wrote:

If every man and woman worked for four hours a day at necessary work, we could all have enough....it should be the remaining hours that would be regarded as important – hours that could be devoted to enjoyment of art and study, to affection and woodland and sunshine in green fields (Russell & Russell, 1923, p.23).

The separate-spheres model in early writings consists of the segmentation theory (Payton-Miyazakazi & Brayfield, 1976; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990) or theory of independence (Burke, 1986) which talks of a compartmentalized approach to work and family. According to these theories, the two domains are perceived to have a strong demarcation, and thus are inherently alienating from each other. They are assumed to have disparate functions – the family role meeting essentially expressive and affective needs and the work role serving instrumental purposes within a competitive environment (Parsons, 1970). This separation between the two spheres led to differing expectations whereby although individuals belonged to both realms of home and work, when in one sphere, they were expected to act as if the other did not exist. The gender role literature also suggests that since primitive times, certain roles have been associated with males and certain others with females. Such dissociative notions of masculine and feminine roles segmented activities associated with generating income (mostly viewed as the man's responsibility) and caring for family members (mostly viewed as the woman's responsibility). This concept of separate spheres was more strongly established during the industrialization period reinforcing that work and family

are temporally, spatially, and physically separated (Clark, 2000). Thus, historically the common approach to work and non-work interface supported a compartmentalized view, the underlying theme being work activities and home activities were meant to be enacted by different people, at different places, during different times.

The interactive spheres model where work and non-work are viewed as heavily linked arose subsequently, out of several triggers. In describing the 'myth of separate worlds,' Kanter (1977) talks about some of the following triggers. The recession in the 1950s spurred a lot of women to enter the workforce, which brought about changes to the traditional family structures and gender roles. The feminist movement in the 1960s brought about more such changes. Emergence of communities that emphasized leisure and personal growth rather than career advancement during the same decade, proved to be yet another influence. Political and legislative movements in the 1970s and later (e.g. Family and Medical Leave Act, 1993) represented a formal recognition of the 'other' sphere, thus supporting the notion that the two spheres of home and work are not independent of each other. The open-systems approach in research (Katz & Kahn, 1978) also recognized the two-way interaction between work and home. Finally, other changes in society during the following decades (e.g. increase in divorce rates, more part-time work, increased mobility among workers, greater worker interest in quality of life outside work, and growing social value placed on the father's involvement at home) increased the number of people with both work and family responsibilities and further fuelled an interest in the interdependencies of work and home lives (Clark, 2000). These triggers gradually influenced organizations and researchers to study the impact of the two spheres on each other.

Early researchers proposing the interactive model identified key aspects of both spheres that are likely to impact one another. Dimensions of work experience impacting families include relative absorptiveness (demands of work), time and timing (scheduling and time requirements of work), work rewards and resources, world view (work culture) and emotional climate (psychological aspects of work). Within the family domain, the impact of family culture (ethnic and cultural traditions) and family relationships on work orientation, motivation, and goals has been discussed (Kanter, 1977). Later, researchers like Greenhaus (1988) and Leiter and Durup (1996) described streams of research examining the impact of work on family (e.g. the effect of job characteristics on the quality of family life) and vice versa (e.g. impact of family responsibilities on job performance). The recognition of interdependence between the two domains is also clearly represented by growing research areas like positive and negative consequences of participation in multiple roles, the antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict, the role of coping and social support in ameliorating the negative effects of work-family conflict, and determinants of quality of life in two-career relationships, of which researchers have begun to develop a general understanding. Thus, the inter-relatedness of the two domains, as opposed to compartmentalization, characterizes the interactive model.

Over the years more specific linkages between the work and family/non-work domains have been proposed in the work-family literature. Edwards and Rothbard (2000) in their review of mechanisms linking work and family described six general categories described below.

1. *Spillover*

This mechanism refers to the effects of work and family on one another that lead to similarities between the two domains. These similarities can be experienced in terms of affect, values, skills, and overt behaviors. Two forms of spillover have been most commonly studied in the literature. The first kind of spillover is a positive relationship between a construct in the work domain and a distinct but related construct in the family domain. A positive correlation between job and family satisfaction can serve as an example of this kind of spillover. The second kind of spillover takes place when experiences are transferred intact from one domain to the other, for example, fatigue displayed at the work place that arises from dealing with household chores and one's children at home.

2. *Compensation*

This mechanism refers to efforts to offset dissatisfaction in one domain by seeking satisfaction in another domain. Two forms of compensation have most widely been studied. The first kind can be described as decreased involvement (reduced importance, time and attention) in the dissatisfying domain and increased involvement in a potentially satisfying domain. The second kind can be seen when an individual reacts to dissatisfaction in one domain by pursuing rewards in another one. Lambert (1990) proposes a similar linkage called 'accommodation' which can be described as the reverse of compensation. It refers to high involvement in one sphere leading to low involvement in the other.. Limiting one's involvement in the family sphere in order to accommodate the demands of an over-involving job is an example of accommodation.

3. *Segmentation*

This refers to the separation between work and family, such that the two domains are independent of each other. As described earlier, this has been the traditional approach to work and family where the two domains are viewed as separate from each other in terms of time, space, people, and functions they serve. Over time this approach to segmentation has been challenged and a more integrative view has been proposed by work-life researchers. In that light, segmentation now refers to an active process whereby individuals choose to maintain a boundary between the two domains (Lambert, 1990, Kossek et al., 2005).

4. *Work-family Conflict*

Work family conflict is perhaps the most studied linkage among all. It is said to arise from simultaneous pressures from the work and family domains that are incompatible in some respect. Because of this incompatibility, participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the other role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Greenhaus and Beutell identified three sources of work family conflict. Each is described briefly below.

Time-based conflict. Multiple roles may compete for a person's time. Time spent on activities within one role generally cannot be devoted to activities within another role resulting in time-based conflict. Time based conflicts can take two forms: (a) time pressures associated with membership in one role may make it physically impossible to comply with expectations arising with another role, (b) pressures also may produce a preoccupation with one role even when one is physically attempting to meet the demands of another role

Strain-based conflict. This involves role-produced strain (e.g. tension, anxiety, fatigue, depression, apathy, and irritability). This kind of conflict is present when strain in one role affects one's performance in another role.

Behavior-based conflict. Specific patterns of in-role behavior may be incompatible with expectations regarding behavior in another role. If a person is unable to adjust his or her behavior to comply with the expectations of different roles, he or she is likely to experience behavior-based conflict between the roles. For example, many young managers may feel caught between two incompatible behaviors or value systems: the emotional restrictedness presumably reinforced at work and the openness expected by family members.

5. *Resource Drain*

This mechanism refers to the transfer of limited resources like time and energy from one domain to the other. Resource drain differs from the compensation mechanism described earlier, in that the latter is a reaction to dissatisfaction in one domain whereas the former takes place irrespective of the impetus of the transfer.

6. *Congruence*

This mechanism refers to similarity between two domains caused by a third variable. The third variable may include personality traits, genetic factors, social or cultural factors. For example, a positive dispositional affect may affect both family and job satisfaction, resulting in a spurious relationship between the two. Congruence is different from spillover in that the former attributes the positive relationship between the two domains to a third variable, whereas the latter attributes it to the effect of one domain on the other.

7. *Enrichment*

Finally, enrichment or facilitation, a seventh linkage refers to the degree to which participation (e.g. skills, abilities, values, resources, and experiences acquired) in one domain positively enhances quality of life in another domain resulting in increased levels of organization and personal development.

These specific linkages can be said to fall under either the interactive spheres (spillover, compensation, resource drain, congruence, work-family conflict, and enrichment/facilitation) or the separate spheres (segmentation) models described earlier.

More recently, and more relevant to a discussion of boundary management, certain theoretical advancements have helped to develop the conceptualization of separate and interactive models. Two such theories are Boundary Theory (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000) and Border Theory (Clark, 2000). Both address how people construct, maintain, negotiate and cross the boundaries between work and family.

Boundary theory is a general cognitive theory of social classification (Zerubavel, 1991) that focuses on outcomes such as the meanings people assign to home and work and the ease and frequency of transitioning between roles (Ashforth et al., 2000). Research on boundary theory examines the ways that individuals erect “mental fences” around roles such as work and family, and it focuses on the temporal and spatial boundaries between roles and how they are enacted (Ashforth et al, 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996). According to this theory, high integration would mean low contrast in role identities and flexible and permeable boundaries between work and family, whereas high segmentation would mean high contrast in role identities and inflexible and

impermeable boundaries between work and family. The former decreases the magnitude of change to be made when making a transition from one domain to the other but increases role blurring. The latter, decreases the blurring of roles but increases the magnitude of change to be made while transitioning from one domain to the other.

In contrast, work family border theory is devoted only to work and family domains, work family balance being the outcome of interest. The theory posits that work family balance (i.e., satisfaction and good functioning at work and home) can be achieved in a variety of ways depending on the similarity of work and family domains, the strength of the boundaries between these domains, and a variety of other factors (Desrochers, et al., 2005).

Though it is commonly stated (e.g. Lambert, 1990; Snir & Harpaz, 2002) that both interactive and separate spheres models aptly describe the work-family interface, there is clearly a stronger emphasis on the former in more recent literature. There is a growing recognition of greater integration between work and family roles as a way to balance work and family life. Research continues to emphasize interdependencies between work and non-work. Summarizing the processes linking the two domains, Lambert (1990) highlighted a model that recognizes the interdependent and reciprocal relationships between work and family. Watkins and Subich (1995) in their review of the empirical literature noted the increasing accord that work and non-work are inextricably intertwined, once again indicating support for the interactive spheres model. Even in practice, organizations are encouraged by researchers and practitioners alike to

promote integrative work-home policies in order to create an organizational climate that favors work-life integration (Kreiner, 2006).

Only a few researchers have proposed a balanced view or a segmentation-favored view of the two approaches. Elizur (1991) proposed a facet analysis approach to study the work non-work linkages where certain linkages (e.g. compensation) were said to be more prevalent in cognitive and instrumental items while other linkages (e.g. segmentation) were said to be more prevalent in affective items. In a more recent quantitative review of work-family linking mechanisms, Michel and Hargis (2008) examined work-family conflict and segmentation. The conflict approach suggests that factors in one life domain are able to affect other life domain (as proposed by the interactive model) whereas the segmentation approach suggests that factors in one life domain tend to have an impact within the same life domain and have little or no impact on cross-domain outcomes. Results of the study indicated that segmentation, explained far more variance in satisfaction outcomes than the work-family conflict model, meaning relationships between within-domain variables (e.g. family social support and family satisfaction) were far stronger than relationships between across-domain variables (e.g. work social support and family satisfaction). In spite of overriding support for popular interactive models in work-family literature and practice, this quantitative review provides strong support for the segmentation model. It emphasizes that the interactive model might appear weak in comparison to the segmentation approach when it comes to affecting outcomes.

In summary, the two predominant approaches to work-non-work interface have been the interactive-spheres and the separate-spheres models. Even though

researchers claim that both the models aptly describe the interface, one can say the interactive-spheres model has been the dominant model in explaining work-non-work linkages in recent times both in research and in practice.

The preceding discussion on interactive and separate-spheres models will help to better understand boundary management strategies, a detailed description of which is presented in the following section.

The Construct of Boundary Management Strategies

Although similar concepts like those of work-family blurring and segmentation of the work and family spheres have been discussed in the literature in the past few decades, the theoretical concept of boundary management strategies was first proposed by Nippert-Eng in 1996. It refers to the strategies, principles, and practices one uses to organize and separate role demands and expectations into specific realms of home and work. As conceptualized by the early proponents of the boundary management construct, such strategies typically range from segmentation (when an individual prefers to keep work and family domains completely separate) to integration (when an individual perceives of work and family as having no distinctions in thought, time or space). In the words of Kreiner (2006), integration represents the merging and blending of various aspects of work and home while segmentation is the degree to which aspects of each domain (such as thoughts, concern, physical markers) are kept separate from one another – cognitively, physically or behaviorally. It is likely that no individual is a complete integrator or a segmentor and that most individuals lie somewhere in between the two ends of the continuum. An example of an integrator would be an employee who prefers to bring extra work home or who typically does

family/non-work chores during work hours while his or her segmentor counterpart is one who tends to finish all extra work at office and then come home or who typically does family/non-work chores outside work hours only.

According to Ashforth, Kreiner, and Fugate (2000) the primary objective behind choosing integration or segmentation strategies is to minimize the difficulty of enacting both home and work roles. However, both segmentation and integration have costs and benefits that might inform why people desire greater integration or segmentation (Rothbard, et al., 2005). Employees might desire greater integration because blurring role boundaries allow them to accommodate multiple identities and constituencies in the work place thus helping to resolve some of the tension arising from holding multiple roles. Moreover, greater integration provides flexibility and enables employees to cope with the multiple demands in their lives by allowing them to deal with problems in either domain. Finally, integration reduces the effort needed to transition back and forth between roles (Ashforth et al., 2000). The primary costs associated with integration are role blurring, transaction costs, and process losses associated with switching roles. Alternatively, employees might desire greater segmentation because it allows them to preserve and develop their non-work lives more fully. Greater segmentation may buffer employees from the spillover of negative emotions and experience of one domain to the other (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Hall & Richter, 1988). Moreover, greater segmentation reduces role blurring, allowing people to focus more exclusively on the salient role (Ashforth et al., 2000). Finally, employees may want to separate home and work to cope with differing expectations or norms for behavior in the two domains (Hewlin, 2003). The primary cost associated with segmentation is that transitions

between domains become more difficult (Ashforth et al., 2000). Empirical studies have been conducted to examine outcomes of using one strategy over another. A detailed discussion pertaining to these findings will be found in the following sections.

It has been suggested that boundaries between home and work have two distinct but related characteristics, sometimes referred to as mechanisms underlying boundary management strategies - flexibility and permeability (Ashforth et al., 2000). Flexibility refers to the malleability of the boundary between two or more roles. It is the degree to which the spatial and temporal boundaries are pliable (Hall & Richter, 1988). A role with flexible boundaries can be enacted at various settings and at various times. An example of inflexible boundary would be an assembly-line worker who cannot carry his/her work home or perform his/her duties from a different location other than where he/she is assigned to work. Permeability is the degree to which a role allows one to be physically located in a role's domain but psychologically and/or behaviorally involved in another role (Pleck, 1977; Richter, 1992). For example, an individual who can accept personal calls and visits at work can be said to have a permeable boundary. Matthews and Barnes-Farrell (in press) have further expanded the definition of boundary flexibility by including two components – ability and willingness. Flexibility-ability is conceptualized as an individual's perception of personal and situational constraints that affect boundary management, and flexibility-willingness is conceptualized as an individual difference variable that captures the motivation to engage in boundary flexing.

Some boundary management researchers (e.g. Kossek et al., 2005) have also stressed the importance of various aspects of boundaries that are being integrated or separated, including spatial, cognitive, behavioral, and temporal aspects. For example,

an individual who works from home but does not attend to any non-work responsibilities during work hours reflects physical or spatial integration but behavioral and cognitive segmentation. However, in the current literature such a scenario is typically treated as an integration practice. This aspect of boundary management remains unexplored and in order to address it, existing boundary management measurement scales need to be refined to incorporate the different forms of boundaries. The boundary management strategies scales as they exist today, including the one that is used in the present study, focus mostly on behavioral integration and segmentation with a few items that cover the other aspects.

Very recently researchers have challenged the notion of boundary management being a monolithic construct, as proposed initially. In other words, integration/segmentation was viewed as a single continuum. Recent empirical findings indicate a new dimension of the construct, its directionality (Bulger, Matthews & Hoffman, 2007; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006). In other words, the concept of directionality calls for work-to-non-work and non-work-to-work integration/segmentation. This also implies that there can be several configurations. For example, an individual may allow work to flow into the home domain but not the other way round. Alternatively, an individual may segment the work domain from home but allow home to flow into work or allow some flow between the two. Very little research has been done in the directionality component of boundary management, thus making it a potential area for expansion.

In summary, boundary management is a relatively new construct in the work-family literature. The concept is still developing and beginning to gain popularity due to

its practical implications, although a lot of areas still remain unexplored and call for empirical testing support. Before presenting a detailed discussion of empirical findings pertaining to the outcomes of boundary management strategies, it is important to further elucidate the meaning of the terms integration and segmentation as they will be used in the context of the current study and to distinguish them from similar terms from the popular literature and from other related theoretical concepts.

Integration-Segmentation in the Context of Boundary Management – Distinction from Related Terms and Concepts

The term integration in popular literature is often used to refer to organizational efforts to recognize non-work aspects of an employee's lives, or the importance of effectively balancing multiple roles. For example, Morris and Madsen (2007) define integration as a solution representing a holistic strategy including effective and efficient coordination of efforts and energies among all stakeholders sharing interest and benefits from workers able to fulfill and transition between their personal, work, family, and community obligations. Thompson and Swihart (2008) state that the concept of integration has emerged in recent years as a strategy considered by providers of employee assistance, wellness and work-life services to meet the changing needs of the organizations they serve. However, integration in this study strictly refers to a strategy of actively managing boundaries between work and family by which the two domains are perceived to have no distinctions in thought, time or space.

In the empirical literature, similar constructs like work-family interference or spillover have been commonly studied and are different from a boundary management strategy. Transitioning back and forth between the two domains of work and family may

be intentional or strategic (e.g., a parent attempting to read work materials while supervising a child) or unintentional or unplanned (e.g. when a parent is required to make arrangements for a sick child while at work; Williams & Alliger, 1994). It is the former that translates into boundary management strategies and is the focus of the current study. Intentional or strategic transitioning (or lack thereof) reflects conscious strategies that an individual uses to manage the demands of the two domains, and that are expected to have important outcomes. On the other hand, unintentional transitioning and carry-over of mood or tiredness between work and family domains have been commonly studied in the form of work-family interference and spillover respectively, which are not the focus of the current study, even though they have been found to have important implications. Finally, the current study is based on the assumption that studying integration and segmentation and their outcomes is particularly important in contexts where individuals can bring their work home, which is true for the current sample and the majority of today's professional workforce (Kossek, et al., 2005). This argument is supported by Clark (2000) and Kreiner, et al. (2009) who indicated that individuals are not merely reactive or resistant to organizational pressures to integrate or segment the work-family boundary. Instead, they are actively managing the boundary through conscious practices and strategies and selective use of available resources. Therefore, it is important for researchers to focus on the role of an individual's own actions in shaping his or her work-life balance in addition to focusing on organizational-level influences or fairly stable individual differences. It is in this context that boundary management strategies will be examined in the present study.

Outcomes of Boundary Management Strategies – Literature Review of Past Research Findings

Limited empirical studies have been conducted on outcomes of boundary management strategies due to the novelty of the construct (Kossek et al., 2006). As a result, the literature review in the following paragraphs contains relatively recent studies that have looked at relationships between boundary management and its outcomes, as well as earlier studies that have addressed essentially similar constructs like role juggling, work-family blurring, and so on. Once again, those studies that have looked at outcomes of related but distinct constructs like spillover or work-family interference have not been included in the literature review.

Kossek, et al. (2006) hypothesized that integration as a boundary management strategy will be associated with higher work-to-family and family-to-work conflict, and depression since the cognitive complexity that is involved with managing blended boundaries may be related to higher frustration and negative affect. This was partially supported in that the researchers found that higher integration was related to higher family-to-work conflict. The authors concluded that contrary to the popular press an integration strategy does not necessarily correlate with less work-family conflict. This might be due to reasons stated above like process losses arising from having to switch back and forth and refocus between work and family roles. The authors also concluded from the study that employees' boundary management strategies might be more important as predictors of work and family effectiveness than measures of telecommuting policies and practices. Although it was not the focus of the study, boundary management strategies were not found to be significantly related to turnover

intentions, psychological job control, and supervisors' performance ratings. It was found to be significantly positively related to use of HR policies, and significantly negatively related to number of work hours, and telework volume.

Poppleton, Briner, and Kiefer (2008) contrasted two organizations that differed extensively in fostering an integration and a segmentation culture in terms of balancing work and non-work. The former company was called Flexorg and the latter, The Factory. The study participants from the two organizations were asked to maintain diaries where they described work events that affected their personal lives (and vice versa) for fourteen consecutive days. The events were categorized under work to non-work and non-work to work positive spillover, negative spillover, facilitation and conflict. It was found that positive and negative events were reported with equal frequencies in both the contexts, suggesting that work non-work relationships were simultaneously experienced as enriching and depleting in either culture. Significantly more work to non-work conflict events were reported at Flexorg as compared to non-work to work conflict events at Flexorg and both forms of conflict events at The Factory. The findings in general showed very low levels of work to non-work conflict among the employees of The Factory, an unexpected finding given the lack of family friendly policies and management's insensitivity to non-work lives of the employees. The author attributed this finding to the routine and predictability of The Factory workers' working patterns that possibly exerted a protective effect. The study highlighted the strengths and limitations of an integrative working pattern in terms of fostering facilitation while simultaneously creating conflict and negative spillover. The study findings also indicated that segmentist working patterns might be more conducive to work-life balance than more

flexible arrangements. In both organizations, work to non-work relationships were found to be relatively stronger than the other way round. Ahrentzen (1990) found that when individuals working from home maintained a separate work space with restricted access from others at home, they experienced less work-family conflict.

Desrochers, et al. (2005) constructed and validated the work family integration-blurring (WFIB) scale. The WFIB construct described by the authors (a subjective, cognitive phenomenon involving perceived integration of work and home that is situated in a highly interdependent work-family context) is similar to the integration strategy of boundary management. In validating the three item scale, the authors found a strong positive correlation between WFIB and work-family conflict, such that higher blurring between domains corresponded to more inter-domain conflict. Among other variables used to establish its construct validity, the WFIB scale was also found to be positively correlated with working at home, hours worked at home, number of work-family transitions, and distractions while working at home.

Olson-Buchanan and Boswell (2006) found that higher work-to-non-work permeability related to higher work-life conflict, providing empirical support that simultaneously attending to two domains leads to blurring of boundaries and increased role conflict. Although the authors were unable to measure non-work-to-work conflict, interestingly, a post hoc analysis revealed that higher non-work-to-work permeability was significantly related to lower work-life conflict. As the authors rightly pointed out, the findings of the study suggest that the effect of integration is not absolute, but depends on directionality. While work-to-non-work integration may increase work-life conflict, non-work-to-work integration may help reduce work-life conflict.

Hecht and Allen (2009) developed and validated a bi-directional boundary strength scale, boundary strength being defined as the extent to which individuals restrict activities to one domain. For example, individuals with strong work boundary typically focus on work during office hours and do not think about non-work during that time. Individuals with a strong family boundary typically deal with non-work issues outside the office in their personal time and do not think about or take care of work responsibilities during that time. In terms of boundary management strategies, such individuals will be classified as segmentors. In contrast, according to the authors, individuals with weak boundaries barely distinguish between time and space devoted to work and non-work. Therefore, in terms of boundary management strategies, such individuals can be classified as integrators. The authors hypothesized and found that boundary strength at home is negatively related to work-to-family conflict. In terms of boundary management, it would mean work-to-family segmentation is negatively related to work-to-family conflict. Also, it was hypothesized and found that boundary strength at work is negatively related to family-to-work conflict. In terms of boundary management it would mean family-to-work segmentation is negatively related to family-to-work conflict.

Williams, Suls, Alliger, Learner, and Wan (1991) found that multiple role juggling mothers reported less task enjoyment and greater negative affect. Williams and Alliger (1994) conducted a study using experience sampling methodology to replicate their earlier findings. These authors found that juggling work and family roles throughout the day is related to both concurrent mood and end-of-the-day work-family conflict. Specifically, work-family juggling was found to increase feelings of distress and decrease feelings of calmness. However, these effects were found to be significant only

in the family-to-work direction meaning work-to-family juggling did not have the same negative effects as family-to-work juggling.

Berke (2003) conducted in-depth qualitative interviews with 20 women who were in home-based self-employed occupations (a case of extreme integration of work and family) to investigate how they balanced their work and family demands on a daily basis with regard to temporal and spatial boundaries within and around the home. The qualitative data suggested that while home-based self-employed women identified the rewards of working from home, they also note that the two domains of work and family need to have some boundaries for successful functioning. Being self-employed and working from home generated feelings of “having it all” which included flexibility and control over the workday, and the ability to rearrange work around family needs. However, the feeling of “having it all” came at a price that included perceptions of “not really working”, lack of motivation and focus, and finally, increased distractions. Overall, such an integrated work and family life, as identified by the study sample, had both advantages and disadvantages.

Ilies and Wagner (2009) studied the effect of work-family integration on the spillover of daily job satisfaction onto daily marital satisfaction and affective states experienced by employees at home. The authors of the longitudinal, multi-method, multisource study found that the extent to which individuals integrate their work and family roles is positively related to the strength of spillover of daily job satisfaction onto positive and negative affect at home, meaning employees with highly integrated work and family roles exhibit stronger spillover effects from one domain to the other. Also, employees with highly integrated work and family roles were found to experience higher

levels of negative affect and lower levels of positive affect when they are dissatisfied with their work than employees who are low on work-family integration.

In pointing out the challenges facing telecommuters, home-workers, and individuals who bring work home from the office, Shumate and Fulk (2004) described the lack of distinct boundaries between spheres leading to conflicting expectations, loss of traditional time-space paths and thereby, increased inter-role conflict.

Hill, Darling, and Raimondi (2003) studied boundary related stress among clergy families whose daily work schedules often force them to lead a lifestyle of blurred boundaries between work and family. In their qualitative study, the authors found that most of the stress that the clergymen experienced was directly or indirectly connected to boundary-related stress. Boundary-related stressors were found to include issues surrounding time, mobility, congregational fit, space, isolation, and intrusions.

Hill, Hawkins, and Miller (1996) examined the influence of telework, widely considered to be an integration policy, on aspects of family life. The study's findings suggested that while such a work arrangement is often perceived to be a positive influence on work-family balance due to increased flexibility, it could also lead to a perception of lack of balance between work and family due to blurred boundaries.

In studying the role of technology in managing work-life boundaries Golden and Geisler (2007) conducted a qualitative study in which they investigated how employees used and interpreted the personal digital assistant as a boundary management resource. The findings of the study state that the two most commonly used mechanisms underlying the use of PDAs to manage the boundaries of work and family included one that functioned to segment work and personal life and a second that functioned to

integrate work and life. In other words, the PDA was found to be effective in generating permeability in the work-life boundary as well as providing a resource for maintaining a well-defined boundary between the two. The study findings not only imply the prevalence of integration or segmentation as boundary management strategies but also point to the fact that both are commonly used as means to the same end – an attempt to balance the two worlds of work and family. Although Golden and Geisler have interpreted the concurrent use of integration and segmentation as potentially contradictory goals for boundary management, a more appropriate interpretation would be to perceive them to be different strategies used by individuals to achieve the same end. To that end, it can be said that as per the findings of this study, both these strategies (through the use of PDA) are commonly used to effectively manage the boundaries of work and family.

Voydanoff (2005) used border theory to examine the relationship between boundary-spanning demands and resources and their impact on work-family conflict and perceived stress. The study findings suggest that boundary-spanning demands, when described in terms of work-to-family role blurring is positively related to work-to-family conflict and perceived stress. More specifically, frequency of bringing work home and job contacts at home is found to be positively related to the two outcomes. Work-family multitasking when working at home was found to be positively associated with work-to-family conflict and perceived stress. It was also found to partially mediate the relationship between work-to-family role blurring and the two outcomes, which in turn suggests that multi-tasking may be the underlying mechanism through which role-blurring affects work-family conflict and perceived stress. Interestingly, doing regular

work at home, a third component of role blurring besides bringing work home and job contacts at home, was not found to be significantly related to any of the two outcomes.

Other researchers like Desrochers and Sargent (2004), in their review of contemporary research in either boundary theory or border theory, suggest that while integrative work-family arrangements can help in balancing work and family demands (e.g. by scheduling work around family demands, spending more time with family, or reducing weekly commuting time), if work and family life become so integrated that their boundaries are blurred, it can lead to negative consequences such as work-family conflict, stress, depression, and dissatisfaction with both work and family lives.

Boundary Management Fit – Literature Review of Past Research Findings

Some researchers (e.g. Rothbard et al., 2005) in the boundary management literature are of the opinion that integration or segmentation is not inherently better or worse than the other. According to these researchers, it is the fit between what is preferred and what is supplied by the environment (e.g. workplace, home, surrounding individuals) that matters.

Person-Environment (P-E) fit is based on the notion that the person and the environment not only directly affect individual and organizational outcomes but also interact with one another to affect these outcomes (Kossek et al., 2005). One type of P-E fit is referred to as needs-supplies fit or the extent to which the environment satisfies the person's needs, values, and preferences. The other type of P-E fit is referred to as demands-abilities fit. Demands include quantitative and qualitative job requirements, role expectations, and group and organizational norms, whereas abilities include aptitudes, skills, training, time, and energy that may be used to meet demands. When

the environment provides the individuals' preferred level of supplies, or when the individual possesses the abilities needed to meet the demands of the environment, fit is achieved and in turn leads to reduced conflict, and stress, and increased well-being. On the other hand, a lack of fit is likely to lead to increased conflict and stress and decreased well-being (Kossek et al.).

A few attempts have been made to study the concept of fit in the boundary management literature. Kreiner (2006) used a P-E fit approach to examine an interaction of individual and situational variables to predict work-to-home conflict. More specifically, Kreiner examined the fit between an individual's preferred level of segmentation (segmentation preferences) and the level of segmentation provided by the individual's workplace (segmentation supplies), and its effect on work-home conflict, stress, and job satisfaction. It was found that overall, as workplace segmentation supplies more closely matched segmentation preferences, individuals reported less work-home conflict, stress, and increased job satisfaction.

Rothbard et al. (2005) examined a similar concept of fit as Kreiner (2006) in which they studied the fit between desire for segmentation and organizational policies to predict job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Their findings suggested that individuals who prefer more segmentation tend to be less satisfied and committed to the organization when they have greater access to integrating policies (e.g. onsite childcare) than when they have less access to such policies. Likewise, people who prefer more segmentation tend to be more committed when they have greater access to segmenting policies (e.g. flextime) than when they have less access to such policies. Thus, the findings suggest that overall, the fit between desired level of segmentation

(individual factors) and the nature of the policies one has access to (environmental factors) predicts organizational satisfaction and commitment experienced by employees. Interestingly, it was also found that incongruence of boundary management strategies seemed to have less of an effect on integrators than on segmentors.

Kreiner et al., (2009) used a P-E fit lens to qualitatively study consequences of work-home boundary incongruence, defined as the degree of mismatch between what an individual desires regarding work-home segmentation or integration and what the individual perceives he or she is afforded by various aspects of the environment. Two important consequences of such boundary incongruence were work-home boundary violations and work-home conflict. Boundary violations in this study referred to an individual's perception that a behavior, event, or episode either breaches or neglects an important facet of the desired work-home boundary. Such violations were found to be of two types, one in which the individual desires segmentation but the violation forces an integration, and the second in which the individual desires integration but segmentation is forced. Work-home conflict in this study referred to a generalized state and a sub-set of role conflict that results from the incompatibilities between role expectations and the consequences of such incompatibilities.

Chen, Powell, and Greenhaus (2009) used a P-E fit approach to examine employee-employer congruence in work-family boundary management. Results indicated that work-to-family boundary management congruence, defined as fit between work-to-family segmentation preferences and supplies, was negatively related to time-based and strain-based work-to-family conflict and positively related to work-to-family instrumental positive spillover. Surprisingly, it was found that work-to-family boundary

management congruence was negatively associated with affective positive spillover, a finding that the authors could not explain.

Kossek et al., (1999), in their theoretical paper, provided a summary framework of understanding the antecedents and consequences of boundary management strategies. In their framework, the authors emphasized the need to study the role of fit between an individual's work-family boundary management strategies and the organizational context to determine psychological and behavioral outcomes. Negative outcomes like turnover intentions, poor performance, and dissatisfaction with work and family roles are likely to follow if an individual's boundary management strategy is not congruent with the work context. On the other hand, better fit between chosen strategy and organizational context is likely to result in positive outcomes (e.g. job and family satisfaction).

The Present Study and Hypotheses

As mentioned earlier, the primary goal of the study is to look at outcomes of boundary management strategies. Specifically, the first objective is to examine those important organizational and individual outcomes like work engagement, job performance, and burnout, which are yet to be studied in the context of boundary management. Second, this study aims to examine the bi-directional nature of boundary management (i.e. work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management strategies), as opposed to a non-directional approach that is typically studied in the current literature, and its corresponding relationships with the study outcomes. Third, it aims to examine work and family role involvement as moderators of the proposed relationships. Finally, this study proposes a novel approach to examine fit in the context of boundary

management. The fit between the actual use of these strategies and preferences for these strategies will be used to predict important organizational outcomes like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, etc.

The following sections will consist of a brief description of each study variable, a recap of past research presented in the earlier section, leading to the corresponding study hypotheses.

Work-Family Conflict

As described earlier work-family conflict is said to arise from simultaneous pressures from the work and family domains that are incompatible in some respect. Because of this incompatibility, participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the other role. Work-family conflict is often broken into time-based, strain based, and behavior-based conflict and also into work-to-home and home-to-work conflict.

The literature review of boundary management and its outcomes presented above suggests a few things with regard to this variable. First, work-family conflict was most commonly studied as an outcome of boundary management strategies or similar concepts like role juggling, role blurring, etc. (e.g. Kossek et al., 2006; Poppleton et al., 2008; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006).

Second, very few studies have explicitly addressed the issue of directionality of work-family conflict with respect to boundary management (e.g., Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006; Hecht & Allen 2009), and in studies where it has been explicitly addressed, only the work-to-family direction has been considered though the reasons for this are not clearly explained most of the time. One of the reasons for doing so might

be because work-to-family relationships have typically been found to be stronger than family-to-work relationships (Leiter & Durup, 1996). Therefore, exploring the bi-directional aspect of work-family conflict as an outcome of boundary management also measured bi-directionally is a gap in the literature that the present study aims to address.

Third, the majority of the study findings, both qualitative and quantitative, indicate that work-family conflict (specifically, work-to-family conflict in most cases) is positively related to an integration strategy of boundary management (e.g. Voydanoff, 2005; Hecht & Allen, 2009; Desrochers, et al., 2005) such that higher integration of work and family roles corresponded to greater the work-family conflict. However, a few mixed findings exist like those of Olson-Buchanan and Boswell (2006) who found non-work-to-work permeability or integration to be related to reduced overall work-life conflict.

Fourth, although the direction of the relationship is more or less consistent, the magnitude of most of these relationships is low. This could be due to at least two reasons, one of which was mentioned before – lack of aligning directionality of work-family conflict with that of boundary management strategies. The relationship between work-family conflict and boundary management strategies is likely to be weak or inconsistent if one or both is holistically measured, without taking into consideration the directionality. On the contrary, stronger relationships are likely to emerge if they are aligned, i.e. work-to-family conflict is examined as an outcome of work-to-family integration/segmentation and family-to-work conflict is examined as an outcome of family-to-work integration/segmentation. The second reason for low magnitude of these relationships can be the lack of examining moderators in explaining the relationship

between work-family conflict and boundary management strategies, yet another gap in the literature that the present study aims to address. Voydanoff (2005) is the only exception. This study investigated the role of multi-tasking as a mediator between role blurring and work-family conflict. Other than that, researchers have indicated the need to examine moderators but it remains to be addressed empirically (Kossek et al., 2006, Kossek et al., 2005).

Congruent with prior research findings in this area and in an attempt to address the gaps in the literature the following hypotheses are suggested.

Hypothesis 1a. A boundary management strategy of work-to-home integration is likely to be positively related to work-to-family conflict. In other words, a boundary management strategy of work-to-home segmentation is likely to be negatively related to work-to-family conflict.

Hypothesis 1b. A boundary management strategy of home-to-work integration is likely to be positively related to family-to-work conflict. In other words, a boundary management strategy of home-to-work segmentation is likely to be negatively related to family-to-work conflict.

Although prior research suggests a positive linear relationship between integration as a boundary management strategy and work-family conflict, it is possible that an extreme case of segmentation is positively related to work-family conflict as well. While some researchers (e.g. Ashforth et al., 2000) have pointed out the advantages of a segmentation approach to managing work-family boundaries, extreme segmentation can have its disadvantages. First, very strong segmentation can be detrimental for people because transitioning between boundaries becomes more difficult (Rothbard et

al., 2005) due to which conflict maybe experienced. Second, in the day and age of dual career couples and laptops, Blackberries and I-phones, it is often easier to manage the simultaneous demands of work and family by integrating the two domains (e.g. baby-sitting while attending a work-related phone call). In such instances, a strategy supporting extreme segmentation may prove to be ineffective, thereby increasing work-family conflict.

Therefore, as a competing hypothesis, a U-shaped relationship between work-family conflict and boundary management strategy is suggested such that high integrators or segmentors are likely to experience maximum work-family conflict compared to individuals who lie somewhere in between on the continuum. Similar findings were reported by Kreiner (2006) where it was found that experiencing neutrality towards issues of work-home segmentation was actually associated with lower stress and work-home conflict, suggesting that having neutral attitudes is more beneficial to employee well-being than having strong preferences.

Hypothesis 1c. A boundary management strategy of very high work-to-family integration or segmentation is positively related to work-to-family conflict.

Hypothesis 1d. A boundary strategy of very high family-to-work integration or segmentation is positively related to family-to-work conflict.

Work Engagement

The emergence of work engagement as a variable of interest and importance has been recent in industrial/organizational psychology (Macey & Schneider, 2008). As organizations become leaner and employees are expected to do more with less, there will be higher expectations from employees to be more proactive and show initiative,

take responsibility for their own professional development, and to be committed to high quality performance standards. Given such a context, one would assume the need for employees who feel energetic and dedicated and who feel immersed in their jobs (that is, employees who feel engaged) would grow rapidly (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Additionally, the results of empirical studies done so far tend to indicate that work engagement is associated with important outcomes. Most studies show a positive relationship between engagement and in-role and extra-role performance, and financial returns (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). Thus, research is beginning to show that work engagement can potentially make a meaningful difference for employees and may offer organizations a competitive advantage.

The reasons stated above justify the recent spur in engagement research in the last five years. The absence of any empirical studies focusing on work engagement in the context of boundary management is a prominent gap in the literature that this study aims to address.

Several approaches to defining engagement are apparent in the literature. Kahn (1990) conceptualized engagement as a dynamic, dialectical relationship between the employee who drives personal energies (physical, cognitive, mental, and emotional) into his or her work role on one hand, and the work role that allows this person to express himself or herself on the other. Engaged employees put more effort into their work because they identify with it. Rothbard (2001) took a slightly different approach in describing engagement as a two-dimensional motivational construct that includes attention and absorption. The former refers to the cognitive ability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role. The latter refers to the intensity of one's focus on

a role. In an attempt to solve the problem of proliferation of various definitions of engagement, Macey and Schneider (2008) proposed employee engagement to be an all-inclusive umbrella term that contains different types of engagement; trait engagement (e.g., proactive personality), state engagement (e.g., involvement), and behavioral engagement (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior).

In recent times, the most commonly used definition of engagement has been Schaufeli's. Work engagement is defined as a positive fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). Engaged employees have a sense of energetic and effective connection with their work activities and they see themselves as successful in effectively dealing with their job demands. Engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state rather than a momentary or specific state. It is not focused on a particular object, event, individual or behavior. Typically, as indicated in the definition, there are three facets underlying engagement, which are vigor, dedication and absorption. Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to exert effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge. Finally, absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties detaching oneself from work (Schaufeli et al., 2006).

Job and personal resources have been typically found to be the most common antecedents of work engagement. Job resources refer to those physical, social, or

organizational aspects of the job that may reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs. Job resources are also functional in achieving work goals and stimulating personal growth, learning, and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Examples of job resources that have been found to positively predict work engagement include social support from supervisors and co-workers, performance feedback, skill variety, and learning opportunities. Personal resources on the other hand are positive self-evaluations that are linked to resiliency and refer to individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment successfully (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003). Examples of personal resources that have been found to positively predict work engagement are self-efficacy, organizational-based self esteem, resilience, and optimism.

Sonnentag (2001, 2003) and Sonnentag and Bayer (2005) conducted a series of empirical studies that examined work engagement in the context of work and non-work. The authors studied work engagement as one of the consequences of psychological detachment from work at the end of the work day. Psychologically detaching from work or recovery from work refers to not being occupied by work-related duties and not thinking of one's work during off-job time (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005). It was found consistently that psychological detachment from work at the end of the work day is positively associated with outcomes like overall well-being, positive mood at the end of the day, proactive behavior, and work engagement during subsequent day. This is because psychologically detaching oneself from work during personal time gives an opportunity to recover and replenish the resources that one heavily draws upon during one's work day, which in turn leads to positive outcomes. With regard to work

engagement specifically, Sonnentag (2003) found that recovery in the evening after daily work is positively associated with day-level work engagement during the subsequent work-day. In other words the more an individual psychologically detaches himself/herself from work during leisure time, the greater his/her work engagement is the next day. Therefore, one may say that recovery or psychological detachment attained during non-work hours is critical for work engagement.

Using the same logic, it is plausible that a work-to-family integration strategy implies a failure to experience psychological detachment or recovery from work that in turn is likely to lead to reduced levels of engagement.

Hypothesis 2a. A boundary management strategy of work-to-family integration is negatively related to work engagement. In other words, a boundary management strategy of work-to-family segmentation is positively related to work engagement.

On the other hand, experimental research in the field of attention and cognition has shown that switching attention from one task to another and back affects performance on both tasks. Leroy (2009) found that it is difficult for people to transition their attention away from one task, specifically when it is unfinished. Consequently, subsequent task performance suffers. The study findings state that people need to completely stop thinking about one task in order to fully transition their attention and perform well on another. It seems the transition costs associated with switching from one task to another includes disruption in the attention process that in turn affects performance on the tasks. Additionally, Ashforth et al. (2000) have stated the risks associated with integration like those of increased process losses resulting in difficulty in having to focus back to the original task. Therefore it is likely that frequently switching

back and forth from one's work role to family role and back again to work role (tasks that are likely to be inherently different from one another in nature) will affect work engagement. However, not all three components of engagement will be affected due to such role switching. Switching from one role to the other is likely to impact only the third component of engagement, which is absorption.

Hypothesis 2b. A boundary management strategy of family-to-work integration is negatively related to absorption, the third component of work engagement. In other words, a boundary management strategy of family-to-work segmentation is positively related to absorption, the third component of work engagement.

Burnout

Burnout and work engagement are often thought to be the conceptual opposites of each other (Gonzales-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Lloret, 2006). Burnout is commonly used to describe a state of mental weariness (Schaufeli, Taris, & Rhenen, 2008). Although there have been several conceptualizations of burnout, the most widely used originates from Maslach (1993), according to whom burnout is a reaction to chronic occupational stress characterized by: (1) exhaustion (depletion or draining of mental resources), (2) cynicism (indifference or a distant attitude towards one's job), and (3) lack of professional efficacy (tendency to evaluate one's work performance negatively, resulting in feelings of inefficiency and poor job related self-esteem). Work demands and resources are found to be the major predictors of burnout. Job demands include role ambiguity, role conflict, stressful events, heavy workload and pressure. Job resources include social support, job enhancement opportunities, and re-inforcement contingencies (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Major outcomes of burnout include behavioral

coping responses, turnover intentions, and erosion of organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction (Burke & Richardsen, 1993). Given the important organizational outcomes of burnout along with a practical interest by the organization (where data was collected) in assessing its employee health, burnout was included as an outcome of boundary management strategies.

In the present study, only exhaustion is measured as an outcome of boundary management strategies. This is primarily due to constraints with regard to the number of survey items that could be included. Theoretically, exhaustion and cynicism are thought of as the core dimensions of burnout (Green, Walkey, & Taylor, 1991). Between the two core dimensions cynicism is said to develop as a response to exhaustion (Leiter, 1993). Also, in a meta-analytic examination of correlates of the three burnout dimensions, exhaustion was found to have the strongest relationships with most of the job demands, followed by cynicism and personal efficacy (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). In the same study, exhaustion was also found to be strongly associated with turnover intentions and organizational commitment. Therefore, theoretically, exhaustion can clearly be said to be an important, if not the most important, component of burnout.

In the literature reviewed above, it is apparent that burnout is yet to be examined in the context of boundary management. Three studies have looked at perceived stress as an outcome of blurred boundaries or role juggling (Voydanoff, 2005; Hill et al., 2003; Williams & Alliger, 1994). In all three studies there is a positive relationship reported between perceived stress and role blurring. This indicates that integration is likely to share a similar relationship with burnout, which is defined as a reaction to stress, the latter being a strong predictor of burnout.

The conservation of resource theory of stress (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993) suggests that burnout occurs due to loss of certain valued resources or when the resources are inadequate to meet demands or fail to meet the anticipated demands. Using the same logic of restoration and recovery used earlier in the case of work engagement, it is plausible that when an individual fails to disengage oneself from work (meaning frequent work-to-family integration) even during non-work hours, he/she fails to restore the resources used up during work hours, which in turn can lead to loss of resources or inadequate resources over time potentially leading to burnout.

Hypothesis 3a. A boundary management strategy of work-to-family integration is positively related to burnout. In other words, a boundary management strategy of work-to-family segmentation is negatively related to burnout.

On the other hand, using scarcity theory and conservation of resource theory, one can say that high family-to-work integration is also likely to lead to burnout over time. The scarcity theory assumes that personal resources of time, energy and attention are finite and that the devotion of greater resources to one role necessitates the devotion of lesser resources to the other role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Marks, 1977; Seiber, 1974). A family-to-work integration strategy will imply that an individual potentially ends up with lesser or inadequate resources to carry out his work role which may lead to him/her experiencing burnout.

Hypothesis 3b. A boundary management strategy of family-to-work integration is positively related to burnout. In other words a boundary management strategy of family-to-work segmentation is negatively related to burnout.

Role Involvement/Role Salience

According to identity theories, individuals tend to behave in ways which are consistent with their identities and invest resources in those roles that they strongly identify with (Ashforth & Mael 1989). Role salience or role involvement is a person's psychological dedication to a role and his/her intention to devote time and energy to attaining success in that role (Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986). It may play a significant part in how effective the individual is in that role, which may influence their physical or psychological availability in another role (Rothbard, 2001). Stryker's (1980) work suggests that individuals are more likely to enact those roles they identify with because they place a high value on that aspect of themselves. Although many adults have multiple role identities, the salience of the identities is not the same for each role (Bagger, Li & Gutek, 2008) and typically, work and family roles are the most salient and significant identities for working adults (Werbelt & Walter, 2002).

The construct of role involvement or role salience has been prevalent in the context of work-family research for many years. As Greenhaus (1988) stated, conflict depends not only on environmental pressures but also on the relative salience of work and family roles. For example, an individual whose work schedule structurally conflicts with family responsibilities or activities will experience relatively little conflict if the family role is particularly not important to his or her self-concept. Therefore, which role takes precedence in a particular 'conflicting' situation may well depend upon the salience of each role to the focal person.

Border theory (Clark, 2000) suggests that borders will be stronger in the direction of the domain that an individual considers to be more powerful. Ashforth et al. (2000) stated that role salience should influence boundary strength between various roles and

proposed that a strong identification with a role is likely to lead to integration of that role into other roles. Olson-Buchanan and Boswell (2006) incorporated role identification in studying outcomes of work-to-non-work integration and empirically tested Ashforth et al.'s proposition. They found that individuals with stronger work-role identification reported higher work-to-non-work integration. Similarly, individuals with stronger non-work-role identification reported higher non-work-to-work integration. Hecht and Allen (2009) suggested that strong role salience can lead an individual to protect a role from incursion by other roles. For example, an individual who is high on family role salience might try to avoid bringing work home or thinking about work when spending time with family. The authors tested the relationship between boundary strength and role identification in that they found that individuals who are highly involved with their work tend to have weaker boundaries at home and individuals who are high on personal life involvement, tend to have stronger boundaries at home. In terms of boundary management, the findings translate to a positive relationship between high job involvement and work-to-family integration and a negative relationship between high personal life involvement and work-to-family integration. Interestingly, these authors had also hypothesized a positive relationship between job identification and boundary strength at work (that translates to negative relationship between job involvement and family-to-work integration) and a negative relationship between personal life identification and boundary strength at work (that translates to a positive relationship between personal life involvement and family-to-work integration), which were not found to be significant.

Daily spillover from work to family was found to be positively correlated with day-level job involvement and daily spillover from family to work was found to be positively related to day-level family involvement in an experience sampling study conducted by Williams and Alliger (1994).

The work-family role synthesis model proposed by Kossek et al. (1999) includes role embracement or role intensity as one of the two components of the role synthesis construct, the other being boundary management strategies. Role embracement or intensity has been defined as the zeal with which one enacts a role. It is reflected in the amount of energy and time that a person chooses to collectively devote to work and family roles (Kossek et al.). Extra-role behavior is likely to be an outcome of role embracement or role intensity. Given the authors' definition of role embracement or intensity and the absence of further clarification about its uniqueness from other related constructs, it is logical to assume that it is similar to role involvement or role salience.

Winkel and Clayton (2010) examined how role salience moderates the effect of role flexibility (willingness and ability) on work-family role transitions. Specifically, they tested: (1) work role salience as a moderator in explaining the relationship between family role flexibility (ability and willingness) and family-to-work transitions and (2) family role salience as a moderator in explaining the relationship between work role flexibility (ability and willingness) and work-to-family transitions. It was found that work identity salience moderates the relationship between the willingness to flex the family role boundary and family-to-work transitions, such that for those who are willing to flex their family role boundary, a stronger work role salience will result in less reported family-to-work transitions. Also, family identity salience moderates the relationship between the

willingness to flex the work role boundary and work-to-family transitions, such that for those who are willing to flex their work role boundary, a stronger family role salience will result in less reported work-to-family transitions. The relationships did not hold true for the ability component of flexibility.

As evident from past research, role involvement plays an important part in determining work-family outcomes. It is likely that positive or negative outcomes of boundary management strategies will also be dependent on an individual's role involvement. For example, an individual who has to constantly attend to family responsibilities at work will experience relatively little conflict or burnout if the work role is particularly not important to his or her self-concept. Therefore, I propose that role involvement will moderate the relationship between boundary management strategies and the outcome variables in the present study.

Hypothesis 4a. The relationship (linear or curvilinear) between work-to-family integration and work-to-family conflict is moderated by family involvement such that greater the family involvement, stronger the relationship between work-to-family integration and work-to-family conflict.

Hypothesis 4b. The relationship (linear or curvilinear) between family-to-work integration and family-to-work conflict is moderated by work involvement such that greater the work involvement, stronger the relationship between family-to-work integration and family-to-work conflict.

Hypothesis 4c. The negative relationship between family-to-work integration and absorption (a component of work engagement) is moderated by work involvement such that greater the work involvement, stronger the relationship between family-to-work

integration and absorption (a component of work engagement). In other words, the positive relationship between family-to-work segmentation and absorption (a component of work engagement) is moderated by work involvement such that greater the work involvement, stronger the relationship between family-to-work segmentation and absorption (a component of work engagement).

Hypothesis 4d. The positive relationship between family-to-work integration and burnout is moderated by work involvement such that greater the work involvement, stronger the relationship between family-to-work integration and burnout. In other words, the negative relationship between family-to-work segmentation and burnout is moderated by work involvement such that greater the work involvement, stronger the relationship between family-to-work integration and burnout.

For the effect of work-to-family integration on work engagement and burnout, work involvement is likely to play an opposite role. Past studies have found that work involvement is positively correlated with time and effort spent in work-related activities (e.g. Brett and Stroh, 2003; Riketta, 2005). Therefore, individuals high in work involvement will naturally tend to take work home and spend “personal” time doing office work. For such individuals, not disengaging from work during personal time is less likely to lead to negative outcomes like reduced work engagement or increased burnout compared to those who are low on work involvement.

Hypothesis 4e. The negative relationship between work-to-family integration and work engagement is moderated by work involvement such that greater the work involvement, weaker the relationship between work-to-family integration and work engagement. In other words, the positive relationship between work-to-family

segmentation and work engagement is moderated by work involvement such that greater the work involvement, weaker the relationship between work-to-family segmentation and work engagement.

Hypothesis 4f. The positive relationship between work-to-family integration and burnout is moderated by work involvement such that greater the work involvement, weaker the relationship between work-to-family integration and burnout. In other words, the negative relationship between work-to-home segmentation and burnout is moderated by job involvement such that greater the job involvement, weaker the relationship between work-to-home segmentation and burnout.

It is important to specify that even though one may intuitively think job involvement (also referred to in the literature as work-role salience, work-role centrality, work-role importance; Noor; 2004) and work engagement to be the same construct, they differ from each other in several ways. Job involvement as described above is characterized by the extent to which one's job or work role is salient to one's identity. If an individual thinks his or her job describes to a large extent who he or she is, job involvement is said to be high. For such an individual, the work role provides a framework on which one develops a sense of meaning, purpose, and agency (Reitzes & Mutran, 1994). On the other hand, work engagement is a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Similar to the distinction between older and more recent concepts of work engagement (Bakker et al.; 2008), one may say that the focus of job involvement is the work *role* as it relates to the individual's self identity whereas the focus of work engagement is the employee's work activity or the work itself. Given the same logic, it is

possible that an individual performs his work with great enthusiasm and is highly engrossed at work but his job is not an important part of his self-concept. Such an individual may perceive work to be a means to fulfill his other more important non-work role responsibilities (e.g. that of a father or as a spouse). Other distinctions have included those of Macey and Schneider (2008) who stated that job involvement is seen in contemporary definitions of work engagement as a facet of engagement, a part of engagement but not equivalent to it. Engagement is a broader concept encompassing energy and efficacy. There is no doubt that the two are related concepts and much has been written about their conceptual ambiguities but it is important to note the distinctions between the two in order to interpret the findings of the current study.

The following section addresses the final research question, that of boundary management fit, and its impact on organizational outcomes.

Boundary Management Fit

The summary of the empirical studies on boundary management fit presented earlier suggests three things. First, the notion of fit in this area of research varies widely from one study to another. While Kreiner (2006) and Chen et al. (2009) defined fit as a match between the level of segmentation preferred by individuals and individuals' perception of segmentation allowed by the organization, Rothbard et al. (2005) defined fit as the match between an individual's segmentation preferences and access to organizational policies. Yet other researchers (e.g. Kreiner et al; 2009) have used a qualitative approach to study fit, defined broadly in terms of what an individual desires regarding work-home segmentation or integration and what the individual perceives he or she is afforded by various aspects of the environment. Finally, Kossek et al.'s (1999)

role synthesis model emphasizes the role of fit between boundary management strategies and the organizational context where the latter has been defined as formal work-family policies, job autonomy, and informal organizational climate.

Second, although the notion of fit varies, the outcomes of fit or lack of fit have been found to be relatively consistent. The majority of the empirical studies in this area have found fit between employees' preferred boundary management strategies and organizational or environmental support for those boundary management strategies leading to positive outcomes like lower work-family conflict, reduced stress, increased organizational commitment, job and organizational satisfaction, and positive spillover and vice versa.

Third, in all empirical studies measuring boundary management strategies fit, it is the employees' *desire or preference* for the strategies as opposed to their *actual use* that is used to represent the person side of the person-environment fit equation. There are a couple of reasons for choosing to focus on preference or desire for boundary management strategies as opposed to their use. First, as Rothbard et al. (2005) stated, most studies in boundary management have used demographic categories as proxies to explain choice of one boundary management strategy over another. According to these same authors, both segmentation and integration are effective strategies to manage home and work, and demographic proxies might not accurately reflect peoples' preference for a particular strategy. By focusing on peoples' preference for integration/segmentation while controlling for relevant demographic/contextual variables, one can achieve greater theoretical understanding of the construct and its antecedents and outcomes. Second, with the evolution of technology over time and the

changing nature of work, it has become increasingly common and often expected to blur the boundaries of work and home. In such a context, integration or segmentation strategies becomes a matter of personal preference whether people want to keep the boundaries discrete or blend them, which is the true theoretical essence of the boundary management construct. Given that the person side of the P-E fit equation is typically represented by preference for these strategies and not its actual use it is assumed that an individual's preference can serve as a proxy for actual use of boundary management strategies. Also, one would commonly assume that there is likely to be a strong association between one's preference and one's actual use of these strategies. However, this assumption has never been empirically tested. Is preference for boundary management strategies the same as actual use of them by individuals and will a fit between the two or lack thereof likely to have any implications? In other words, if an individual prefers to be a segmentor, does that mean he or she actually *uses* the strategy in his or her day-to-day life to actively manage the boundaries of work and home? This might not be the case given that an individual's actions (in this case, actual use of boundary management strategies) are often dependent upon a variety of external factors (like in this case, flexibility at home and work, social norms, etc.) beyond one's true preferences. Also, in case of a mismatch, is it likely to have any important outcomes? Rothbard et al.'s argument stated above indicates that studying preference for boundary management strategies should provide a better theoretical understanding of the construct. I argue that studying actual use of these strategies will potentially help us to have a better practical understanding of the construct. Also, as rightly pointed out by Kreiner et al. (2009) there is a need in the literature to emphasize the role of

individuals' own actions in shaping his or her work-life-related outcomes rather than attributing the outcomes to either organizational influences or individual differences. By studying the actual use of these strategies, this study focuses on an individual's own actions in determining outcomes. Therefore a more practical notion of fit is proposed that will examine the match between preference and actual use of these boundary management strategies in determining commonly studied outcomes of job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Job performance, which is yet to be studied in the context of boundary management will also be studied as an outcome of fit.

Fit and job performance. Kossek et al. (2006) in their study examining telecommuting, job control and boundary management included job performance as an outcome variable but did not propose any formal hypothesis. As the authors stated, this was because boundary management is a measure of personal preference for one's approach to managing flexibility and such a measure is likely to be more strongly associated with personal well-being than work outcomes. However, because the present study proposes to explicitly measure actual use of boundary management, it makes logical sense to examine performance as an outcome. Also, many authors (e.g. Ashforth et al., 2000) have stated that both integration and segmentation are useful strategies, and both have its pros and cons. It is difficult to state which strategy is better than the other in terms of predicting performance in a given role. Therefore, hypothesizing a direct relationship between a strategy and job performance will not yield significant results like in Kossek et al.'s study where the relationship between boundary management strategies and job performance was close to zero. Thus, I propose that it is the fit between the actual use of a strategy and preference for that strategy that will

determine how well an individual performs in a given role. Due to study constraints only performance in a work role could be measured.

As found in prior research described above, it is suggested that greater fit between an individual's preference for and actual use of boundary management strategies will result in more positive outcomes including higher job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intent to stay with the organization, and job performance.

Hypothesis 5a: Positive outcomes will increase as mismatch between actual use of boundary management strategies and preferences decreases and decrease as the mismatch increases.

On an exploratory note, the outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction, organizational commitment) at various levels of perfect fit will also be examined. That is, will the level of job satisfaction vary when both use and preference are high versus when both are low or when both are neutral? It can be commonly assumed that outcomes will be more positive when both use and preference are high or low than when both are neutral. This is because when both are high or low, it clearly means that an individual is doing something that he/she strongly prefers and that is likely to yield more positive outcomes. On the other hand when both are neutral the individual is doing something that he/she does not really have a strong preference about and that is likely to yield less positive outcomes. However, Kreiner (2006) found opposite results in that neutral levels of perfect fit were found to yield more positive outcomes than when perfect fit was high or low. Therefore this aspect will be explored to see whether levels of a particular outcome are likely to differ when use and preference for a strategy are both high, both low and both neutral.

CHAPTER 2

METHODS

Participants and Procedure

Data were collected from a large Fortune 500 company situated in the Midwest that will be referred to as Organization A in this study. Study participants in Organization A consisted of exempt employees (only entitled to receive overtime pay when pre-approved) who were members of one or more employee resource groups within the organization. In order to bolster the sample size, two additional sets of data were collected from a large Midwestern University that will be referred to as Organization B, and from a pool of adult research participants for social, behavioral and organizational science research that will be referred to as Organization C for convenience. Participants from all three organizations had to fulfill two criteria in order to be included in the final sample – (1) they had to be working at least 30 hours per week and (2) living with significant other and/or child. As per the study design, data were collected in three phases in all three organizations.

Organization A. An employee resource group in Organization A conducted a member satisfaction survey for its 1300 registered members within the organization during May-June 2010. An invitation to take part in an optional work-life strategies pilot study (the current study) was added to the member satisfaction survey as a supplement. At the completion of the member satisfaction survey, participants were provided with a brief description of the work-life strategies pilot study and asked if they would be interested to take part in it. The description contained the details of the study in terms of study objectives, study design, time commitment with regard to each part of

the study, and study incentives (see Appendix A). The original communication for the member satisfaction survey mentioned that taking part in the work-life strategies pilot study was purely voluntary and that results would be used for research purposes only. Due to confidentiality issues, no personally identifiable information or any other information that could potentially be linked to any personal data was allowed to be collected. No monetary incentives were allowed to be offered to study participants.

After reading the study description, interested individuals had to express their willingness to take part in the work-life strategies pilot study. If an individual said yes he/she was asked to generate (and remember) a unique identification code. Participants were informed that that they would be asked to produce the same code during subsequent parts of the study. The purpose of asking participants to generate a unique code and use it for all three parts was to link the data across three parts of the study while maintaining participants' anonymity. Subsequent to that, participants were asked to begin with Part 1 of the work-life strategies pilot study. Part 1 contained items that asked participants about their boundary management strategies that they have *used* during the past week. Two hundred and thirty-four people filled out Part 1.

Since no personally identifiable information was collected, no individual follow-ups were possible for Part 2 invitations. Therefore, an invitation to take part in Part 2 of the work-life strategies pilot study was sent to all the members of the employee resource group. Part 2 contained the same items on boundary management strategies as Part 1. The reason behind capturing this data twice was to add rigor to the methodology. An average score of '*boundary management strategies used during past week*' measured twice over a span of four weeks is likely to be a more accurate

representation of strategies typically used by individuals compared to a single score of '*boundary management strategies used during past week*'. Part 2 also contained a set of items measuring work/family role involvement. One hundred and ninety-one participants filled out Part 2.

An invitation to participate in Part 3 (if one had taken part in Part 1 and/or Part 2) of the work-life strategies pilot study was sent to all members of the employee resource group. Part 3 contained the outcome measures of work-family conflict, work engagement, burnout, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, along with preference for boundary management strategies. One hundred and eleven participants filled out Part 3. At the end of Part 3, participants were thanked for their time and effort spent in taking part in the study.

The number of participants from each time point who were included in the final data set for analysis will be presented in a later section.

Part 1 and Part 2 surveys were kept open for two consecutive weeks each and reminders were sent out during middle of the second week for each wave. Part 3 was kept open for three consecutive weeks and reminders were sent out during the third week.

All demographic information was collected as part of the original member satisfaction survey. All the survey items of the work-life strategies pilot study had to be approved by the legal department in Organization A before the study was launched. Although the eligibility criteria to be a study participant included working at least 30 hours a week and living with significant other and/or child, no explicit screening was

done due to organizational concerns. Only those who fulfilled the eligibility criteria based on self-reported demographic information were included in the analyses.

Organization B. For Organization B, a slightly different procedure was followed. Participants were recruited through an advertisement on the university's internal website directed to employed individuals who have access to the internet. In this initial advertisement (see Appendix B), a very brief description of the study was provided along with information regarding study incentives. The advertisement provided a link so that interested parties could click on it for more information. This link contained a detailed description of the study (see Appendix B) which included the objective of the study, the two phases of the study, action and time commitment required from a study participant for each phase, and the study incentives. After reading this detailed description, if an individual was interested to take part in the study he/she could proceed to begin Phase 1 of the study.

Phase 1 of the study was aimed at collecting demographic information. Participants were asked to self-report the number of hours worked per week, and whether they live with their significant other and/or child in addition to a set of other demographic items. Email addresses were also collected from participants. During this stage, participants were asked to generate (and remember) a unique code that they would be asked to use if they qualified for the study. This phase of recruiting participants and collecting demographic information lasted for 2 weeks. At the end of two weeks those participants that fitted the study criteria (i.e., worked at least 30 hours a week, and lived with significant other and/or child) were notified via email that they qualified for the study, and were provided with a link to begin Phase 2. Instead of

advertising the study criteria and asking participants whether they fulfill them, this was taken as an extra screening step to ensure people indeed worked for 30 hours a week and lived with their significant other and/or child. One hundred and eighty two individuals responded to the study advertisement out of which 113 individuals fulfilled the study criteria and were invited to Phase 2. Those who did not qualify for the study were thanked for their time, and told that they did not fit the criteria for the study.

Phase 2 involved filling out a total of three surveys (Survey1, Survey 2, and Survey 3) over a period of six weeks. In the same email which notified a participant that he/she was eligible to take part in the study and may begin with Phase 2, the link to Survey 1 was provided. Survey 1 contained items asking participants about their boundary management strategies that they have *used* during the past week. A reminder to participants who were invited to Survey 1 but were yet to fill it out was sent during beginning of the second week of Survey 1. There were 84 individuals who filled out Survey 1. The week subsequent to the completion of Survey 1, participants who filled out Survey 1 as well as participants who were eligible but did not fill out Survey 1 were emailed a link inviting them to take part in Survey 2 that contained the same items about boundary management strategies that they have *used* during the past week. As mentioned before, the reason behind capturing this data twice is to get an accurate picture of strategies typically used by employees. Survey 2 also contained a set of items measuring work/family involvement. A reminder was sent during the beginning of the second week of Survey 2. There were 78 individuals who filled out Survey 2. The week subsequent to the completion of Survey 2, participants who filled out either Survey 1 or Survey 2 or both were emailed a link inviting them to take part in Survey 3 that

contained the outcome measures of work-family conflict, work engagement, burnout, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance; along with preference for boundary management strategies. Survey 3 was kept open for two continuous weeks and a reminder was sent to those who were yet to fill it out at the beginning of the very last week. Seventy four individuals filled out Survey 3.

All the three surveys asked participants to provide their unique code, the same code that they were asked to generate (and remember) during Phase 1. These unique codes were used to match the Phase 1 and Phase 2 (Survey 1, 2, and 3) data and were also used to identify the winners of the lottery as described below.

After the completion of Survey 3, unique codes of participants who had completed Phase 1 and all three surveys of Phase 2 were entered into a drawing lot and 28 winners were picked for \$20 prizes. The list of names corresponding to the unique codes was then generated using the phase 1 data (that collected participants' email addresses and unique codes). The winners were then contacted through email and asked for their mailing addresses to which the checks were mailed. After the checks were sent, the names corresponding to the unique codes were deleted and only the codes were used for further data analyses.

Organization C. The third set of data was collected online using the StudyResponse project (for more information visit <http://www.studyresponse.com>). Participants were contacted via email by the StudyResponse team and asked to take part in an online study. In exchange of their participation, the participants were paid \$15 each if they completed every part of the study.

The StudyResponse team contacted a total of 4000 participants for a prescreen survey. The prescreen was carried out in order to identify participants who were employed for at least 30 hours a week, living with significant other and / or child, and above the age of 18. One thousand four hundred and six individuals responded to the prescreen out of which 372 fulfilled the study criteria. Since only 100 individuals were required to meet the overall target sample size, 154 of the 372 individuals who fulfilled the study criteria were randomly picked and invited to Survey 1. Survey 1 consisted of a few demographic items and items asking participants about their boundary management strategies that they have *used* during the past week. For the rest of the data collection, the same procedure that was followed for Organization B was carried out. One hundred and fifty three individuals filled out Survey 1, 132 and 123 individuals filled out Survey 2 and 3 respectively. Each participant in Organization C had a unique identification number that was assigned to them by StudyResponse and that was recorded each time a participant took a survey. This identification number was used to match the data for each individual across the three waves.

The data collected from the three sources described above were combined together to form the final overall sample in the current study. This sample consisted of 94 (30%) males and 164 (53%) females. There were 54 (17%) people who did not report their gender. Five (1.6%) participants were less than 26 years of age, 23 (7.4%) participants were between 26 and 30 years, 127 (40.7%) participants were between 31 and 40 years, 70 (22.4%) participants were between 41 and 50 years, 27 participants (8.7%) were between 51 and 60 years, and 4 (1.3%) participants were 61 years or older. 56 participants (17.9%) did not report their age. Eighty six (27.6%) participants

worked 30-40 hours per week, 155 (49.7%) participants worked 41-50 hours per week, 24 (7.7%) worked 51 to 60 hours per week, and 4 (1.3%) worked more than 60 hours per week. 43 participants (13.8%) did not report number of hours worked per week. Eighty two (26.3%) people reported living with their significant other, 10 (3.2%) reported living with their children, 166 (53.2%) reported living with significant other and children while 3 (1%) participants reported Other. Data could not be gathered for 51 (16.3%) participants. For a more detailed description of the demographics, refer to Table 1. Participants largely held professional or administrative type jobs under various industries like automotive, education, public health and safety. A very small portion of the sample (from the third source of data) belonged to the construction industry.

Measures

Boundary management. The use and preference of boundary management strategies was measured using a 16-item measure of boundary strength (see Appendix C) developed by Hecht and Allen (2009). Out of 16 items, 8 items measure boundary strength at home (BSH) and 8 items boundary strength at work (BSW). In terms of boundary management strategies, the former implies work-to-home integration/segmentation and the latter home-to-work integration/segmentation. An example item from the BSH is “I never do work on my personal time”. An example item from BSW is “I leave my personal life outside of the workplace”. A Likert type response scale anchored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was used. Higher the score on BSH and BSW, greater the work-to-home and home-to-work segmentation respectively. Coefficient alphas reported were above .80 for both BSH and BSW in the scale construction studies (Hecht & Allen, 2009). For the current study, they were .87

and .86 respectively. The two commonly used scales in the boundary management literature are those of Kossek et al. (2006) and Kreiner (2006). The former can be said to measure overall boundary management strategies not taking into account the directionality of the construct. The latter measures work-to-home integration/segmentation only. To date, there are no published boundary management scales that measure home-to-work and work-to-home boundary management strategies separately. The current scale was used to measure boundary management strategies because it takes into account the directionality aspect of boundary management even though the authors call it work-non-work boundary strength scale. Boundary strength, defined as a continuum reflecting the extent to which work and non-work can be kept separate from or intermingled with one another, is the most closely associated with the segmentation-integration model (Hecht & Allen, 2009). Therefore, it was decided that the boundary strength scales will be used to measure boundary management in the current study. The scale as it appears in the original paper was used to measure the *use* of boundary management strategies in this study. In order to measure *preference*, the phrase "I prefer" was added to each sentence in the beginning.

Work role involvement. Work involvement was measured using a 10 item job involvement scale (see Appendix D) developed by Kanungo (1982). Some example items from this scale are "The most important things that happen to me involve my present job" and "I live, eat and breathe my job". A Likert response scale anchored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was used. The higher the score, the greater the level of job involvement. Coefficient alpha for this scale was found to be .87 (Kanungo, 1982). Later studies also reported acceptable coefficient alphas like .88 and

.78 (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Hecht & Allen, 2009). For the current study it was found to be .87.

Family role involvement. Family role involvement was measured using an 8 item version (see Appendix E) of an 11 item scale developed by Yogev and Brett (1985). Some example items from this scale are “I am very much involved personally with my family members' lives” and “A great satisfaction in my life comes from my family/non-work role”. A Likert type response scale anchored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was used. Higher scores on the measure indicate greater level of family involvement experienced. Yogev and Brett reported a coefficient alpha of .80 for this scale. Karambayya (1992) reported a coefficient alpha of .80 for the same scale. For the current study it was .83. The scale as it appears in the original version contains separate items with regard to an individual's role as a parent versus spouse. Keeping in mind the constraints of a limited number of survey items, those items were combined to reflect an individual's non-work role (as a parent or spouse). Therefore, the original 11 items were reduced to 8 in the current study.

Work-family conflict. Work-family conflict was measured using a 10 item scale (see Appendix F) developed by Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996). Subjects were instructed to respond using a 7-point Likert scale with values ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Greater the score, higher the conflict experienced. There are five items each for work-to-family and family-to-work dimensions. An example item from the work-to family conflict scale is “The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill non-work/family responsibilities.” An example item from the family-to-work scale is “I have to put off doing things at work

because of demands on my time at home.” Netemeyer et al. reported coefficient alphas of .80 and above for both the scales. Later researchers like Baltes and Haydens-Gahir reported a coefficient alpha of .94 and .89 for the work-to-family and family-to-work scales respectively. For the current study it was found to be .94 for both.

Work engagement. Work engagement was measured using a 9-item short version (see Appendix G) of the 17-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003) developed by Schaufeli, Baker and Salanova (2006). There are three subscales within the 9-item measure measuring vigor, dedication and absorption. An example item measuring vigor is “When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work”. Participants were asked to read the items and respond how frequently they felt that way. The response scale used for this measure ranged from 0 (never) to 6 (always/everyday). Higher the score, more the work engagement experienced by the participants. Schaufeli and Bakker reported a median coefficient alpha (across 10 countries) of .77, .85, .78, and .92 for vigor, dedication, absorption, and the overall scale respectively. For the current study they were .81, .87, .74.

Burnout. Burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). This is a 16-item scale comprising of three subscales, namely exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy. In the present study, only exhaustion was measured as an outcome of boundary management strategies (Appendix H). This is primarily due to constraints with regard to the number of survey items that could be included. Theoretically, exhaustion and cynicism are thought of as the core dimensions of burnout (Green, Walkey, & Taylor, 1991). Between the two core dimensions cynicism is said to develop as a response to

exhaustion (Leiter, 1993). Also, in a meta-analytic examination of correlates of the three burnout dimensions, exhaustion was found to have the strongest relationships with most of the job demands, followed by cynicism and personal efficacy (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). In the same study, exhaustion was also found to be strongly associated with turnover intentions and organizational commitment. Therefore, theoretically, exhaustion can clearly be said to be an important, if not the most important, component of burnout.

An example item from the exhaustion scale is “I feel used up at the end of a work day.” Participants were asked to read the items and respond how frequently they felt that way. The response scale used for this measure ranged from 0 (never) to 6 (always/everyday). The higher the score, the more the exhaustion experienced by the respondent. Schaufeli et al. (2006) reported internal consistency of the exhaustion scale ranging from .72 to .90 across the 10 countries. For the current study the coefficient alpha was .94.

Job satisfaction, organizational commitment. In order to limit the number of survey items and as per interest expressed by Organization A, these two study variables were measured using one item each that Organization A uses for its annual employee morale survey. Job satisfaction was measured using the item “Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job?” This item was scored using a 5 point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied). Organizational commitment was measured using the item “How likely are you to recommend the Company to a family member, friend or colleague as a place to work?” This item was scored using a 10 point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all likely) to 10 (very likely).

Job performance. For Organization A, job performance was measured by asking employees to self report their previous year's performance review ratings (see Appendix I). The response options for this item pertained to the five performance review categories used by Organization A. The performance review categories cannot be disclosed as per the confidentiality agreement signed between Organization A and the researcher. Therefore they have been referred to as Category A, B, C, D, and E with A being the top most category and E being the bottom most. For Organization B, three questions were developed: 1. "If you had a performance appraisal or review in the past year, please indicate the overall rating you received for the quality of your work." The response options range from 1 (marginal) to 5 (above expectations). 2. "Overall what is your usual performance at work?" Response options for this item range from 1 (Consistently below expectations) to 5 (above expectations). 3. "How do you perform at work relative to others in your organization (that is, your coworkers)?" with participants responding on a scale ranging from 1(well below average) to 5 (well above average).

Demographics. Demographic information that is typically found to be relevant in work-family research (e.g. Bruck & Allen 2003; Carlson, 1999) was collected from participants (see Appendix J). Specifically, these items pertained to marital/relationship status, number of children, number of children living at home, age of youngest child, age, gender, education, number of years in the current position, number of hours worked per week. Some other demographic information were also collected which pertained to participants' elder care responsibilities, special needs children, management level, and their specific work organization (e.g. finance, HR). Due to confidentiality issues, certain exact items that were used to collect demographic

information in Organization A are not reported. They have been substituted with more general terms in Appendix J. For Organization B, an extra item was added in this section that asked participants to indicate if they were currently a faculty/administrative staff/student in the university.

Statistical Analysis

Hypotheses 1 to 3 were analyzed using regression equations. Hypothesis 4 was analyzed using hierarchical regressions to see whether work and family role involvement moderated the proposed relationships between the use of boundary management strategies and outcomes. In the first step, a particular outcome (e.g. work-to-home conflict) was regressed on to use of boundary management strategies (e.g. work-to-home boundary management strategies) and role involvement (e.g. family role involvement). In the second step, the interaction term of boundary management strategies and role involvement was added. The R^2 change was examined to see if the addition of the interaction term in step 2 explained a significant amount of additional variance in the outcome variable. If the change in R^2 was significant, role involvement was said to moderate the relationship between use of boundary management strategies and work-family conflict.

For Hypothesis 5, a series of polynomial regressions were conducted. Edward and his colleagues (Edward 1994, 1996, 2001; Edward & Harrison, 1993; Edwards & Parry 1993; Edwards & Rothbard, 1999, 2000) have typically used this analysis in P-E fit studies where the interaction between the person and the environment is used to predict outcomes. Kreiner (2006) used this technique to assess fit between segmentation preferences and segmentation supplies to predict job satisfaction, work-

home conflict, and stress. Although the current study does not examine fit between person and environment per se, this methodology deemed appropriate. This is because a novel but similar concept of fit, that between actual use and preference for boundary management strategies, is used to predict outcomes. According to Edwards and his colleagues, polynomial regressions overcome the shortcomings of earlier approaches (e.g. difference scores) used to measure fit. In describing the importance of polynomial regressions over earlier methods, Edwards (1994) stated that it is important that the relationship between fit and outcome is explained using three dimensions, with the independent variables constituting the X and Y axes and the dependent variable constituting the horizontal axis. Fit indices (like difference scores) reduce this relationship to two dimensions by collapsing the independent variables and thereby resulting in substantive and methodological problems. Most variables comprising the fit variable constitute distinct constructs or same constructs from different perspectives. Therefore it is important that these distinctions are retained in the data analysis. Second, the relationship between fit and an outcome should not be viewed as a simple two-dimensional function but instead as a three dimensional response surface. These surfaces should be the focus of analyses, not the two dimensional function represented by fit indices. For a more detailed review of the rationale behind this technique refer to works of Edwards (1994, 1996, 2001).

In the present study, the procedures and steps outlined by Kreiner (2002; 2006) and Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison, and Heggstad (2010) were followed for conducting the polynomial regressions. An overview of the procedure is presented in this section. Detailed steps and interpretations are included in the next chapter.

As the first step, hierarchical regression equations were computed for each specific outcome (e.g. organizational commitment) by regressing an outcome (Z) on control variables in step 1; on main effects of preference (X) and use (Y) of boundary management strategies in step 2; and on cross-product of preference and use, square of preference, and square of use in step 3. The latter five terms are included in order to account for potential linear and curvilinear fit effects (Kreiner, 2006). The regression equation can be represented as below:

$$Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3Y^2 + b_4XY + b_5X^2$$

If R² increases significantly in the third step or when individual higher order terms are significant, a non-linear relationship between fit and the outcome is indicated and response surface methodology is considered appropriate for analysis (Kreiner, 2006). The regression equation generates two lines. First, the line of best fit (X=Y) that represents outcomes on the response surface when preference equals use. Second, the line of incongruence or the misfit line (X= -Y) that represents outcomes on the response surface when preference is opposite of use or when there is a discrepancy between the two. Next, slope analysis is used to examine linearity or curvilinearity of the two lines. Linearity or curvilinearity of the misfit line depicts the level of outcomes as the degree and direction of discrepancy between the use and preference for boundary management strategies change (relevant to testing first part of Hypothesis 5 in the current study). Linearity or curvilinearity of the best fit line depicts the level of outcomes when both use and preference for boundary management strategies are low or high or neutral (exploratory part of Hypothesis 5). These two tests are used in conjunction with

visual interpretation of the response surfaces to determine whether or not the hypotheses are supported.

Data Screening and Compilation

Since longitudinal data were collected from three different sources at three different time points for each source, preliminary data screening was conducted while the data were being collected.

First, for those data sources where self-generated unique ID was the only information collected to identify an individual, all duplicate IDs had to be excluded within a single time point and eventually across time points. For those data sources where other unique information was collected (e.g. email address) beyond the self-generated unique ID, email IDs were matched to see if the duplicate cases were different individuals with same unique IDs or same individual with same IDs. If the former, the cases were retained. If latter, then those specific cases were screened to see if they differed in terms of completeness of the data. If yes, then the more complete survey was retained. If no, then the first set of responses was retained and the second deleted. Where possible, the IP addresses of the study participants were screened in order to identify any individual who responded to the same survey using different unique IDs. Those cases which had the same IP addresses, along with exact same demographics, and similar responses were identified as fraudulent cases and deleted from the dataset. They were not invited to any subsequent time point/s.

Second, the time taken by each respondent to complete a survey at any given time point was computed. An approximate rule of thumb was used. If the respondent

took less than two seconds per item on an average, he or she was deleted, and was not invited to the subsequent time point/s.

Finally, at any given time point, if a respondent had 50% or more missing data he or she was excluded from the data set and was not invited to the subsequent time point/s.

After the preliminary screening was done the sample consisted of 214, 170, and 100 participants at Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3 respectively from the first data source. In the second data source, there were 80, 77, and 71 participants at Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3 respectively. Finally, for the third data source, the sample consisted of 144, 122, and 122 participants for the three time points respectively. Using the unique identifier in each survey, the data were merged across three time points within each data source resulting in a total of three datasets, one per source. Within each of these three data sets, participants who had *not* filled out Time1 and Time2 (i.e. filled only Time 3), or Time1 and Time 3 (i.e. filled only Time 2), or Time 2 and Time 3 (i.e. filled only Time 1) were further excluded since such cases were deemed useless for any analyses purpose. The three datasets were then merged together to form one master dataset that was used for the actual analyses. The master dataset consisted of 312 cases out of which 113 (36.2%) cases belonged to the first data source, 77 (24.7%) to the second, and 122 (39.1%) to the third. As mentioned before, only those who had filled out Time 1 *and* Time 2, or Time 2 *and* Time 3, or Time 1 *and* Time 3, or all three time points were retained in this final dataset. There were 229 (73.4%) individuals who had filled all three time points, 4 (1.3%) who filled Time 1 and Time 3, 43 (13.8%) who filled Time 2 and Time 3, and 36 (11.5%) who filled Time 1 and Time 2.

After the individual datasets were merged into one master dataset, a second set of data screening was carried out to identify anomalies and outliers in the merged dataset. The data were screened for out of range values, plausible means and standard deviations, coefficients of variation, skewness and kurtosis. The data were also screened for multicollinearity and singularity to examine if the variables of interest are highly correlated or redundant with each other. Any of the above, except for skewness, was not found to be an issue. A few of the study variables were found to have a statistically significant skew. However, their respective histograms did not indicate a heavy skew. Therefore, no transformation was carried out in order to correct for skewness.

The merged dataset was further screened for three other issues – missing data, univariate and multivariate outliers, and repeat responses.

In order to avoid the problem of missing data, the study instructions during all three time points specified that respondents would not be considered for the study incentive if more than 5% of the items were left blank at any time point. This successfully resulted in very few cases with missing data. In spite of the instructions, and after screening out respondents with more than 50% missing data in the preliminary screening described above, those respondents who had more than 10% of the items missing at any given time point were flagged.

The data were then screened for univariate and multivariate outliers. Pair-wise plots of the study variables were also examined to identify outliers visually.

Finally, data were screened for repeat responses in order to identify those participants who selected the same response option throughout a set of items. A

decision rule was made to deal with such cases. If a respondent chose the same option for more than half of the straight-itemed scales, he or she was flagged. If a respondent chose the same option for more than one of the scales containing reverse-coded items, he or she was flagged unless it was the middle score chosen (e.g. 4 in a scale of 1 to 7) in one or both the scales.

Analyses were run with and without the flagged cases in the master dataset. Since no significant differences were observed, it was decided to retain the flagged cases.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

As can be seen in the correlation table (Table 2), use of work-to-home segmentation was positively related to preference for work-to-home segmentation ($r = .38, p < .01$), and negatively related to job involvement ($r = -.19, p < .01$), work engagement ($r = -.14, p < .05$), work-to-family conflict ($r = -.48, p < .01$), and burnout ($r = -.22, p < .01$). Use of home-to-work segmentation was positively related to preference for home-to-work segmentation ($r = .58, p < .01$), job involvement ($r = .18, p < .01$), work engagement ($r = .16, p < .05$), organizational commitment ($r = .18, p < .01$), and negatively related to family-to-work conflict ($r = -.27, p < .01$), and burnout ($r = -.15, p < .05$). Interestingly, work-to-home segmentation use and home-to-work segmentation use did not have a significant correlation ($r = .05, p > .05$).

The correlation between work-to-home segmentation use at time 1 and time 2 was high ($r = .78, p > .05$). Similarly, correlation between home-to-work segmentation use at time 1 and time 2 was ($r = .72, p > .05$).

Hypothesis 1a stated that a boundary management strategy of work-to-home segmentation is likely to be negatively related to work-to-family conflict. In order to test the hypothesis a hierarchical regression was run. Those demographic variables that significantly correlated with the dependent variable were controlled for. In this case, the demographic variables of gender, number of children, and number of children eighteen years or younger, were found to be significantly correlated with work-to-family conflict, the dependent variable. As shown in Table 3a, work-to-home segmentation explained a significant amount of variance in work-to-family conflict above and beyond the

demographic variables ($\Delta R^2 = .20$, $F(4, 223) = 19.53$, $p = <.01$). In other words, 20% of the variance in work-to-family conflict was accounted for by work-to-home segmentation after controlling for significantly related demographic variables. The beta weight associated with work-to-home segmentation ($\beta = -.45$, $p <.01$, see Table 3a) and the correlation coefficient ($r = -.48$, $p <.01$, see Table 2) indicated a strong negative relationship between work-to-home segmentation and work-to-family conflict implying more the work-to-home segmentation, lesser the work-to-family conflict experienced by individuals. In other words, more work-to-home integration meant more work-to-family conflict. Therefore, hypothesis 1a was supported.

Hypothesis 1b stated that a boundary management strategy of home-to-work segmentation is likely to be negatively related to family-to-work conflict. In order to test the hypothesis a hierarchical regression was run. Those demographic variables that significantly correlated with the dependent variable were controlled for. In this case, the demographic variables of age, tenure, number of children eighteen years or younger, and leadership level were found to be significantly correlated with family-to-work conflict, the dependent variable. As shown in Table 3b, home-to-work segmentation explained a significant amount of variance in family-to-work conflict above and beyond the demographic variables ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $F(5, 221) = 6.22$, $p = <.01$). In other words, 4% of the variance in family-to-work conflict was accounted for by home-to-work segmentation after controlling for significantly related demographic variables. The beta weight associated with home-to-work segmentation ($\beta = -.21$, $p <.01$, see Table 3b) and the correlation coefficient ($r = -.27$, $p <.01$, see Table 2) indicated a negative relationship between home-to-work segmentation and family-to-work conflict implying greater the

home-to-work segmentation, lesser the family-to-work conflict experienced by individuals. In other words, more home-to-work integration meant more family-to-work conflict. Therefore, hypothesis 1b was supported.

Hypothesis 1c stated that a boundary management strategy of very high work-to-family integration or segmentation is likely to be positively related to work-to-family conflict. In order to test for this hypothesis a hierarchical regression was run where demographic variables that were significantly correlated with work-to-family conflict mentioned above were entered in the first step, work-to-home segmentation use (X) in the second step and X^2 in the third. The square term in the third step accounted for a significant amount of incremental variance ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(5, 222) = 16.64$, $p < .05$; see Table 3c) indicating a quadratic effect. However, when the regression results were graphed (Figure 1) it was seen that even though the curvilinear effect was in the hypothesized direction, it was hardly a meaningful curvilinear relationship. This was substantiated by the fact that the p value of the incremental variance in the regression equation was almost 0.05. Hypothesis 1c was supported statistically but it did not have much practical meaning.

Hypothesis 1d stated that a boundary strategy of very high family-to-work integration or segmentation is likely to be positively related to family-to-work conflict. A similar hierarchical regression described above was run to test for this hypothesis. The square term in the third step of this equation explained a significant incremental variance ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(6, 220) = 5.96$, $p < .05$; see Table 3d) indicating a quadratic effect. When these results were graphed (Figure 2) it was seen that the curvilinear effect was in the opposite direction than what was hypothesized. However, the

curvilinear relationship as visually represented did not seem to be very meaningful. Apart from the slight upward bulge, high home-to-work segmentation was associated with low levels of conflict and high home-to-work integration with high levels of conflict. Therefore, Hypothesis 1d was not supported.

Hypothesis 2a stated that a boundary management strategy of work-to-home segmentation is likely to be positively related to work engagement (all three components combined). In order to test the hypothesis a hierarchical regression was run. Those demographic variables that significantly correlated with the dependent variable were controlled for. In this case, only age was found to be significantly correlated with work engagement, the dependent variable. Work-to-home segmentation failed to explain a significant amount of variance in work engagement above and beyond the demographic variable ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(2, 229) = 4.97$, $p = .106$; see Table 4a). However, the correlation coefficient ($r = -.14$, $p < .05$, see Table 2), contrary to the hypothesis, indicated a significant negative relationship between work-to-home segmentation and work engagement implying higher levels of work-to-home segmentation are associated with lower levels of work engagement.

Additional analyses were carried out to test the three components of work engagement – vigor, dedication, and absorption separately. As shown in Table 4b, work-to-home segmentation explained a significant amount of variance in absorption, the third component of work engagement ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $F(1, 273) = 12.21$, $p = < .01$). In other words, 4% of the variance in absorption was accounted for by work-to-home segmentation. The beta weight associated with work-to-home segmentation ($\beta = -.21$, $p < .01$, see Table 4b) indicated, a negative relationship between work-to-home

segmentation and absorption implying higher levels of work-to-home segmentation are associated with lower levels of absorption. The other two components of work engagement, vigor and dedication did not share a significant relationship with work-to-home segmentation after controlling for respective significant demographic variables ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(3, 225) = 4.58$, $p = .749$ for vigor; $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(3, 227) = 2.36$, $p = .173$ for dedication). Therefore, hypothesis 2a was not supported although a significant relationship in the opposite direction was found between work-to-home segmentation and a component of work engagement.

Hypothesis 2b stated a boundary management strategy of home-to-work segmentation is positively related to absorption, the third component of work engagement. Since absorption did not significantly correlate with any demographic variable, there were no control variables in this regression equation. As shown in Table 4c, home-to-work segmentation explained a significant amount of variance in absorption ($R^2 = .02$, $F(1, 273) = 5.09$, $p < .05$). In other words, 2% of the variance in absorption was accounted for by home-to-work segmentation. The beta weight associated with home-to-work segmentation ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$, see Table 4c) indicated a positive relationship between home-to-work segmentation and absorption. That is, the greater the home-to-work segmentation, the higher the level of absorption. Therefore, hypothesis 2b was supported.

Additional analyses were carried out to test the other two components of work engagement (vigor and dedication) along with the overall work engagement measure. As shown in Table 4d, dedication was found to share a significant positive relationship with home-to-work segmentation. The latter explained a significant amount of variance

in dedication after controlling for age and leadership level, the significantly related demographic variables ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(3, 227) = 3.66$, $p = <.05$). In other words, 2% of the variance in dedication was accounted for by home-to-work segmentation above and beyond the demographic variables. The beta weight associated with home-to-work segmentation ($\beta = .16$, $p <.05$, see Table 4d) and the correlation coefficient ($r = .19$, $p <.01$, see Table 2) indicated a positive relationship between home-to-work segmentation and dedication implying greater the home-to-work segmentation, more the dedication towards work.

The overall work engagement measure and vigor, the first component of the engagement scale, did not share any significant relationship with home-to-work segmentation.

Hypothesis 3a stated that a boundary management strategy of work-to-family segmentation is likely to be negatively related to burnout. In order to test the hypothesis a hierarchical regression was run. Those demographic variables that significantly correlated with the dependent variable were controlled for. In this case, the demographic variables of gender, and leadership level were found to be significantly correlated with burnout, the dependent variable. As shown in Table 5a, work-to-home segmentation explained a significant amount of variance in burnout above and beyond the demographic variables ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $F(3, 227) = 7.45$, $p = <.01$). In other words, 4% of the variance in burnout was accounted for by work-to-home segmentation after controlling for demographic variables. The beta weight associated with work-to-home segmentation ($\beta = -.22$, $p <.01$, see Table 5a) and the correlation coefficient ($r = -.22$, $p <.01$, see Table 2) indicated a negative relationship between work-to-home

segmentation and burnout implying more the work-to-home segmentation, lesser the burnout experienced by individuals. Therefore, hypothesis 3a was supported.

Hypothesis 3b stated that a boundary management strategy of family-to-work segmentation is likely to be negatively related to burnout. In order to test the hypothesis a hierarchical regression was run. Those demographic variables that significantly correlated with the dependent variable were controlled for. In this case, the demographic variables of gender and leadership level were found to be significantly correlated with burnout, the dependent variable. As shown in Table 5b, home-to-work segmentation explained a significant amount of variance in burnout above and beyond the demographic variables ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(3, 227) = 5.64$, $p = <.05$). In other words, 2% of the variance in burnout was accounted for by home-to-work segmentation after controlling for significantly related demographic variables. The beta weight associated with home-to-work segmentation ($\beta = -.16$, $p <.05$, see Table 5b) and the correlation coefficient ($r = -.15$, $p <.05$, see Table 2) indicated a negative relationship between home-to-work segmentation and burnout implying higher levels of home-to-work segmentation are associated with lower burnout experienced by individuals. Therefore, hypothesis 3b was supported.

Hypothesis 4a stated that the relationship (linear or curvilinear) between work-to-home integration/segmentation and work-to-family conflict will be moderated by family involvement such that greater the family involvement, stronger the relationship between work-to-family integration/segmentation and work-to-family conflict. In order to test the linear hypothesis hierarchical regression was run where the independent variable (work-to-home segmentation) and the moderator (family involvement) were entered in the first

step of the equation and the interaction term (product of the two) was entered in the second. Work-to-family conflict served as the dependent variable. Results indicated that there was no significant interaction found ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(3, 266) = 27.13$, $p = .41$, see Table 6a).

For the non-linear hypothesis, moderation analysis was not conducted since the curvilinear relationship was not found to be meaningful.

Hypothesis 4b stated that the relationship (linear or curvilinear) between home-to-work integration/segmentation and family-to-work conflict will be moderated by work involvement such that greater the work involvement, stronger the relationship between home-to-work integration/segmentation and family-to-work conflict. As described above, a hierarchical regression was run to conduct the moderation analysis. Results indicated that there was no significant interaction found ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(3, 267) = 15.38$, $p = .65$, see Table 6b).

Moderation analyses for the curvilinear relationship was conducted where job involvement and the quadratic term (sum of home-to-work segmentation (X) and X^2) were entered in the first step of the regression equation, and the product of the two in the second. No significant incremental variance was explained by the interaction term ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(3, 267) = 16.03$, $p = .67$). Therefore job involvement failed to moderate the curvilinear relationship between home-to-work segmentation and family-to-work conflict.

Hypothesis 4c stated that the positive relationship between home-to-work segmentation and absorption (a component of work engagement) will be moderated by work involvement such that greater the work involvement, stronger the relationship between family-to-work segmentation and absorption (a component of work

engagement). Hierarchical regression was run to test this moderation. The independent variable (home-to-work segmentation) and the moderator (job involvement) were entered in the first step of the equation and the interaction term (product of the two) was entered in the second. Results indicated that there was a significant interaction found ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $F(3, 267) = 18.84$, $p < .01$, see Table 6c). That is, job involvement significantly moderated the relationship between home-to-work segmentation and absorption. The significant interaction was graphed in order to examine its true nature (Figure 3). The graph depicted an interesting trend. The positive relationship between home-to-work segmentation and absorption held true for those with low job involvement. There was hardly any relationship found for the middle group. However, for those with high job involvement, the relationship was reversed. That is, increase in home-to-work segmentation was associated with decrease in absorption for the high job-involvement group.

Additional moderation analyses were conducted for the other two components of work engagement, namely, vigor and dedication as the dependent variables. Similar hierarchical regressions described above were run to test for moderation. Results indicated that there was a significant interaction found for vigor ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F(3, 267) = 7.53$, $p < .01$, see Table 6d) and dedication ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(3, 267) = 17.20$, $p < .05$, see Table 6e) both. Job involvement significantly moderated the relationship between home-to-work segmentation and vigor, and home-to-work segmentation and dedication. The interactions were graphed in order to understand the true nature of the moderation. Like in the case of absorption, a positive relationship between home-to-work segmentation and vigor was found among the low job involvement group. The

relationship was negative for the high job involvement group (Figure 4). A similar trend was found with dedication although the moderation in this case, as depicted by the figure and the incremental variance explained by the interaction term, was not strong (Figure 5).

Hypothesis 4d stated that the negative relationship between home-to-work segmentation and burnout will be moderated by job involvement such that greater the job involvement, stronger the relationship between home-to-work segmentation and burnout. Hierarchical regression was run to test for the hypothesis. The independent variable (home-to-work segmentation) and the moderator (job involvement) were entered in the first step of the equation and the interaction term (product of the two) was entered in the second with burnout as the dependent variable. Results indicated that there was no significant interaction found ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(3, 267) = 7.73$, $p = .47$; see Table 6f). Thus, Hypothesis 4d was not supported.

Hypothesis 4e stated that the positive relationship between work-to-home segmentation and work engagement (all three components combined) will be moderated by work involvement such that greater the work involvement, weaker the relationship between work-to-home segmentation and work engagement. As indicated by Table 6g, there was no significant interaction found ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(3, 267) = 13.4$, $p = .23$). Thus, Hypothesis 4e was not supported although significant results were found with a component of work engagement described below.

The researcher was further interested to see if job involvement moderated the relationship between work-to-home segmentation and any of the individual components of work engagement – vigor, dedication, and absorption. Three separate moderation

analyses were run. A significant interaction was found for vigor, the first component of work engagement ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(3, 267) = 6.38$, $p = <.05$, see Table 6h). The interaction was graphed in order to examine the true nature of the moderation. The graph (Figure 6) revealed that for the low job involvement group there is a positive relationship between work-to-home segmentation and vigor. For the middle group, the relationship is much weaker as hypothesized. However, for the high job involvement group, the relationship between work-to-home segmentation and vigor was found to be negative. Meaning, greater work-to-home segmentation is associated with lower levels of vigor for those who are high in job involvement.

There was no significant interaction effect found for the other two components of work engagement – dedication and absorption.

Hypothesis 4f stated that the negative relationship between work-to-home segmentation and burnout will be moderated by job involvement such that greater the job involvement, weaker the relationship between work-to-home segmentation and burnout. Results of the moderation analysis indicated that there was no significant interaction effect found ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(3, 267) = 13.94$, $p = .83$, see Table 6i). Therefore Hypothesis 4f was not supported.

For hypothesis 5, a detailed description of the polynomial regressions approach that was followed in the current study will be presented first, followed by the results pertaining to each hypothesized outcome.

Edwards (1994) listed some conditions to test for the appropriateness of polynomial regressions and response surface methodology that included establishing that (1) the proportion of variance explained by the overall equation is significant (2)

appropriate coefficients are significant and in the right direction (3) no higher order terms beyond those indicated by the model are significant. In the current study, the first condition was met for all the hypotheses. The second and the third conditions will be discussed for each outcome separately.

The results of the polynomial regressions were interpreted using slope analysis or four surface test values: a_1 , a_2 , a_3 , a_4 (Shanock et al., 2010). The slope of the line of perfect fit is assessed by $a_1 = (b_1 + b_2)$ where b_1 is the unstandardized beta coefficient of the 'preference for BMS' variable (X) and b_2 is the unstandardized beta coefficient of the 'use of BMS' variable (Y). If a_1 is significant it indicates a linear slope along the line of perfect fit. A positive value of a_1 indicates that higher levels of perfect fit are associated with higher levels of the outcome. In other words, the outcome will be higher when X and Y are both high than when they are both moderate or both low. A negative value of a_1 indicates that higher levels of perfect fit are associated with lower levels of outcome. In other words, the outcome will be higher when X and Y are both low than when they are both moderate or both high. Curvature along the line of perfect fit is assessed by $a_2 = (b_3 + b_4 + b_5)$ where b_3 is the unstandardized beta coefficient of X^2 , b_4 is the unstandardized beta coefficient of XY , and b_5 is the unstandardized beta coefficient of Y^2 . A significant a_2 indicates a non-linear slope along the line of perfect fit meaning perfect fit has different results for mid-range values than extremely high or low values. If a_2 is positive it indicates a positive or a convex surface (upward curving) versus when it is negative it indicates a negative or a concave surface (downward curving) along the line of perfect fit. The slope of the 'misfit' line or the line of incongruence is assessed by $a_3 = (b_1 - b_2)$ which assesses how the direction of discrepancy affects the outcome. If a_3

is significant it indicates a linear slope along the $X = -Y$ line. If a_3 is positive it indicates the outcome is higher when the direction of the discrepancy is such that X is higher than Y than vice versa. If a_3 negative it indicates that the outcome is higher when the direction of the discrepancy is such that Y is higher than X than vice versa. The curvature of the line of misfit is assessed by calculating $a_4 = (b_3 - b_4 + b_5)$ which assesses the degree of discrepancy between X and Y and how it relates to the outcome. A significant a_4 indicates a non-linear slope along the $X = -Y$ line. If a_4 is positive, it indicates that outcome increases as the degree of discrepancy increases whereas if a_4 is negative it indicates outcome decreases if the degree of discrepancy increases. Shanock et al.'s formula was used to calculate the slopes and their significance.

In the current study, a_3 and a_4 (slopes pertaining to the line of incongruence) were interpreted for the first part of Hypothesis 5 whereas a_1 and a_2 (slopes pertaining to the line of congruence) were interpreted for the exploratory part of the hypothesis. For the first part of Hypothesis 5 to be supported, a_4 had to be significant (implying a non-linear relationship) and negative (implying an increase in discrepancy is associated with a decrease in the outcome).

Finally, as recommended by Edwards (1996, 2001) the surfaces were interpreted visually. Figures were created using an Excel spreadsheet program. The unstandardized beta coefficients from each regression equation were used to compute the respective 3-D graphs. Specifically, based on the regression coefficients an outcome value was calculated for each value of use and preference for BMS. The results were then plotted onto the respective linear/quadratic 3-dimensional graphs.

Results for each outcome variable will be presented in the following section. Work-to-home integration/segmentation will be followed by home-to-work integration/segmentation for each outcome.

The first part of Hypothesis 5 stated that positive outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance) will increase as actual use of boundary management strategies matches preferences and decrease as the mismatch increases. The exploratory part of Hypothesis 5 was to examine if outcomes varied as the level of perfect fit differed.

Testing the first outcome variable, job satisfaction was regressed on to leadership level in step 1, preference for work-to-home segmentation (X) and use of work-to-home segmentation (Y) in step 2, and X^2 , XY , and Y^2 in step 3. Results indicated that the third step containing higher order terms did not explain a significant incremental variance beyond step 2 ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(6, 225) = 5.22$, $p = .56$, see Table 7a) implying that there was no significant non-linear relationship found. Since no non-linear relationship was indicated but main effects were found to be significant, only a_1 and a_3 were computed (Kreiner, 2002).

For the first part of the hypothesis, slope along the $X = -Y$ (a_3) was calculated. a_3 was found to be $-.50$ ($p < 0.01$). A significant a_3 indicates a linear slope along the line of incongruence. A negative value indicates that outcome is higher when the direction of the discrepancy is such that Y is higher than X than vice versa. As can be seen in Figure 7, along the line of incongruence, job satisfaction increased as the use of segmentation (Y) increased towards preference for segmentation (X). Job satisfaction further continued to increase as use exceeded preference and finally leveled off after a

point. In other words, job satisfaction was the lowest when the preference - use (X-Y) discrepancy was the highest whereas it was the highest when the use - preference (Y-X) discrepancy was the highest.

For the exploratory part of the hypothesis slope along the $X = Y$ (a_1) was calculated. a_1 was found to be -0.28 ($p < 0.01$). As mentioned earlier, a significant a_1 indicates a linear slope along the line of perfect fit. A negative a_1 indicates that higher levels of perfect fit are associated with lower levels of outcome. In Figure 7, along the line of perfect fit, it can be seen that higher levels of perfect fit between use and preference of segmentation (back corner of the graph) are associated with lower levels of job satisfaction whereas lower levels of perfect fit (front corner of the graph) are associated with higher levels of job satisfaction.

For the home-to work direction job satisfaction was regressed on to leadership level in step 1, preference for home-to-work segmentation (X) and use of home-to-work segmentation (Y) in step 2, and X^2 , XY , and Y^2 in step 3. Results indicated that the third step containing higher order terms explained a significant incremental variance beyond the main effects ($\Delta R^2 = .08$, $F(6, 225) = 4.19$, $p = <.01$; see Table 7b). Therefore, a non-linear relationship was indicated between the outcome and the fit. In order to satisfy Edwards' condition which states no higher order effects should be significant than the ones tested for, a second regression was run to see if any significant cubic effects (beyond quadratic) were found. None were found to be significant.

For the first part of the hypothesis, slopes along the $X = -Y$ line (a_3 and a_4) were calculated. a_3 was found to be non-significant ($-.14$, $p = 0.85$). a_4 was found to be significant ($-.67$, $p < .01$). A significant a_4 indicates a non-linear slope along the line of

incongruence. A negative value indicates that the outcome decreases as the discrepancy between X and Y increases. As can be seen in Figure 8, along the line of incongruence, job satisfaction decreased as the discrepancy between preference and use of home-to-work segmentation increased in either direction. A non-significant a_3 indicated that the direction of discrepancy did not matter, implying an increase in the discrepancy in either direction is associated with a decrease in job satisfaction.

For the exploratory part of the hypothesis slopes along the $X = Y$ line (a_1 and a_2) were calculated. a_1 was found to be 0.52 ($p=0.32$) and a_2 was found to be 0.05 ($p=0.44$). A non significant a_1 and a_2 indicates an absence of any significant linear or non-linear slope or curvature along the line of perfect fit. In other words, as depicted by Figure 8, job satisfaction remained the same at all levels of perfect fit –when both use and preference were high, or both were moderate, or both were low.

Therefore, for the first outcome, Hypothesis 5 was supported only for the home-to-work direction and not for the work-to-home direction.

Testing the second outcome variable, organizational commitment was regressed on to preference for work-to-home segmentation (X) and use of work-to-home segmentation (Y) in step 1, and X^2 , XY , and Y^2 in step 2. There was no control variable in this case since no demographic variable had a significant correlation with organizational commitment. Results indicated that the second step containing higher order terms did not explain a significant incremental variance beyond the main effects ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(5, 270) = 7.09$, $p = .07$, see Table 7c). Since no non-linear relationship was indicated but main effects were found to be significant, only a_1 and a_3 were computed (Kreiner, 2002).

For the first part of the hypothesis, the slope along the $X = -Y$ line (a_3) was calculated. a_3 was found to be -1.18 ($p < 0.01$). A significant a_3 indicates a linear slope along the line of incongruence. A negative value indicates that outcome is higher when the direction of the discrepancy is such that Y is higher than X than vice versa. As can be seen in Figure 9, along the line of incongruence, organizational commitment increased as the use of segmentation (Y) increased towards preference for segmentation (X). Organizational commitment further continued to increase as use exceeded preference and finally leveled off after a point. In other words, organizational commitment was the lowest when the preference – use ($X - Y$) discrepancy was the highest whereas it was the highest when the use – preference ($Y - X$) discrepancy was the highest. However, the figure indicates that organizational commitment leveled off after the use – preference ($Y - X$) discrepancy increased beyond a point.

For the exploratory part of the hypothesis the slope along the $X = Y$ (a_1) was calculated. a_1 was found to be -0.84 ($p < 0.01$). As mentioned earlier, a significant a_1 indicates a linear slope along the line of perfect fit. A negative a_1 indicates that higher levels of perfect fit are associated with lower levels of outcome. In Figure 9, along the line of perfect fit, it can be seen that higher levels of perfect fit between use and preference of work-to-home segmentation (back corner of the graph) are associated with lower levels of organizational commitment whereas lower levels of perfect fit (front corner of the graph) are associated with higher levels of organizational commitment.

For the home-to work direction organizational commitment was regressed on to preference for home-to-work segmentation (X) and use of home-to-work segmentation (Y) in step 1, and X^2 , XY , and Y^2 in step 2. Results indicated that the third step

containing higher order terms explained a significant incremental variance beyond the main effects ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $F(5, 270) = 4.42$, $p = <.01$; see Table 7d). Therefore, a non-linear relationship was indicated between the outcome and the fit. In order to satisfy Edwards' condition which states no higher order effects should be significant than the ones tested for, a second regression was run to see if any significant cubic effects (beyond quadratic) were found. None was found to be significant.

For the first part of the hypothesis, slopes along the $X = -Y$ line (a_3 and a_4) were calculated. a_3 was found to be non-significant ($a_3=0.75$, $p=0.70$). a_4 was found to be significant ($a_4= -1.18$, $p<.01$). A significant a_4 indicates a non-linear slope along the line of incongruence. A negative value indicates that the outcome decreases as the discrepancy between X and Y increases. As can be seen in Figure 10, along the line of incongruence, organizational commitment decreased as the discrepancy between preference and use of home-to-work segmentation increased either way. A non-significant a_3 indicated that the direction of discrepancy did not matter, implying increase in discrepancy in any direction is associated with a decrease in organizational commitment.

For the exploratory part of the hypothesis slopes along the $X = Y$ line (a_1 and a_2) were calculated. a_1 was found to be 3.39 ($p<0.01$) and a_2 was found to be -0.32 ($p<0.01$). As seen in Figure 10 along the line of congruence, organizational commitment increased as the values of perfect fit increased from low to neutral levels but decreased significantly as perfect fit increased from neutral to high levels, thereby resulting in a non-linear relationship. In other words, organizational commitment was found to be

significantly lower when preference and use of home-to-work segmentation were both high or both low than when both were neutral.

Therefore, for the second outcome as well, Hypothesis 5 was supported only for the home-to-work direction and not for the work-to-home direction.

Testing the third outcome variable, performance was regressed on to three control variables (number of hours worked, number of children 18 years or younger, and leadership level) in step1, on preference for work-to-home segmentation (X) and use of work-to-home segmentation (Y) in step 2, and X^2 , XY, and Y^2 in step 3. Results indicated that there was no significant linear or non-linear relationship found (see Table 7e). Therefore, further response surface analysis was not deemed useful. Similar results were obtained for the home-to-work direction as well (see Table 7f). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was not supported for performance as the outcome variable.

Overall, Hypothesis 5 was supported for two of the three outcomes, and only in the home-to-work direction.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The current study expanded our understanding of work-family boundary management by first, examining those outcomes like work engagement, burnout, job performance, etc. that have not been typically studied in this context before. Second, by introducing role involvement as a moderator and by parsing boundary management into home-to-work and work-to-home strategies, the study further contributed to a better understanding of boundary management strategies and their relationships with the study outcomes. Finally, the study investigated if preference for boundary management strategies differs from their actual use, and if so, what are its implications - a question that has not been addressed in the literature before. The significant study findings will be discussed below.

Findings Related to Outcomes of Boundary Management

The first set of hypotheses pertained to outcomes of work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management strategies (BMS). For the first outcome, it was predicted that work-to-home segmentation will be negatively related to work-to-family conflict, and home-to-work segmentation will be negatively related to family-to-work conflict. Both these hypotheses were supported. Findings suggested that higher use of work-to-home and home-to-work segmentation was associated with lower levels of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict respectively. In other words, integrating the work domain with the family domain or vice versa leads to higher levels of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict. These findings are supported by prior research (Hecht & Allen, 2009; Kossek et al., 2006; Poppleton et al., 2008; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell 2006) which have

reported positive relationships between work-family integration or related concepts and work-family conflict. Some additional interesting aspects of this finding need to be highlighted. First, by examining the work-to-home and home-to-work directions separately, better clarity was achieved with regard to the nature of the relationship between BMS and work-family conflict. The findings indicated that the relationship was much stronger in the work-to-home direction than the home-to-work direction, a trend that is consistently supported by past research in work-family conflict (e.g. Leiter & Durup 1996). Second, the fact that use of work-to-home segmentation and home-to-work segmentation strategies were not found to be significantly related to each other meant that an individual who separates work from home does not necessarily separate home from work. It highlights the importance of studying their relationships with outcome variables separately instead of treating boundary management as a single construct. Finally, results indicated a possible curvilinear relationship pertaining to family-to-work conflict in that high levels of home-to-work segmentation or integration were found to be associated with low levels of conflict. Further research should test this relationship before these findings can be generalized.

For the second outcome it was predicted that work-to-home segmentation will be positively related to work engagement (all three components combined). Findings of the study did not support this hypothesis. However, at the bivariate level it was found that work-to-home segmentation shared a significant negative relationship with work engagement contrary to what was hypothesized. This implied that segmenting work from home was associated with lower levels of work engagement. In other words, use of work-to-home integration strategy was associated with high work-engagement. Some

additional analyses was carried out to examine the three components of work engagement separately and their respective relationships with work-to-home segmentation. At the component level, findings suggested that absorption shared a significant negative relationship with work-to-home segmentation implying greater the use of work-to-home segmentation strategies, lower the work absorption reported by individuals. In other words being more engrossed and absorbed in one's work was found to be positively related to integrating work into the home domain. This relationship could be due to the fact that work absorption is typically characterized by high levels of concentration and being happily engrossed in one's work (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Such individuals are likely to find it difficult to detach themselves from work (Bakker et al., 2008), and will typically carry work back home, and/or continue working even during 'non-work' hours, which in turn explains the positive relationship between use of work-to-home integration strategies and work absorption.

In the home-to-work direction, it was hypothesized that home to-work segmentation will be positively related to absorption, the third component of work engagement. This hypothesis was supported. Findings suggested that use of home-to-work segmentation strategies was associated with higher levels of work absorption. In other words, as hypothesized, integration in the home to work direction was associated with low work absorption. This finding is in line with past research in the field of attention and cognition as well as that of Ashforth et al.(2000) who reported increased process losses and lack of focus in a given role as a cost of an integration strategy. Additional analyses revealed a significant positive relationship between home-to-work segmentation and dedication to work, the first component of work engagement. So it

can be said that a home-to-work segmentation strategy is not only related to higher levels of absorption at work but is also associated with more dedication towards one's work. Since it is difficult to say what leads to what, one can also interpret these findings the other way such that individuals high in work absorption and dedication are likely to use a home-to-work segmentation strategy that helps them to keep the two domains separate from each other in order to solely focus on work.

For the third outcome it was predicted that use of work-to-home and home-to-work segmentation will be negatively related to burnout. Both these hypotheses were supported. Findings of the study suggested that the greater the use of work-to-home and home-to-work segmentation strategies, the lesser the level of burnout experienced. Although burnout specifically has not been examined in the context of boundary management before, past studies have reported similar findings in which perceived stress was found to be positively related to blurred boundaries or role juggling between work and family (Voydanoff, 2005; Hill et al., 2003). Therefore the findings of this study can be said to be in line with prior research. Although the use of both work-to-home and home-to-work segmentation strategies was found to be negatively associated with burnout, the strength of the relationship was stronger in case of work-to-home direction. This implied that regularly integrating work into the home domain leaves people feeling more burnt out than integrating home into the work domain. As mentioned earlier, it is supported by prior research that has consistently found the work-to-family relationships to be stronger than family-to-work ones. However, given that the current study measured work-related burnout only, it is interesting to note that the inter-domain relationship (work-to-home segmentation and burnout) was found to be stronger than

the intra-domain one (home-to-work segmentation and burnout), a finding inconsistent with that of Michel and Hargis (2008). These findings further emphasize the importance of studying the directionality of boundary management in understanding its relationship with outcomes. Finally, it should be noted that only one of the three subscales of burnout (exhaustion), was measured in the current study due to constraints described earlier. Although exhaustion is considered to be a core component of burnout, future research should aim at exploring all three components separately before generalizing the current findings.

Moderation Analyses Findings

Although most of the moderation hypotheses were not supported in the present study, interesting findings emerged with regard to certain relationships. The significant moderations will be discussed in detail in the following paragraphs.

It was predicted that job involvement will moderate the positive relationship between work-to-home segmentation and work engagement such that the greater the job involvement, the weaker the relationship. Although this hypothesis was not supported, additional analyses at the component level revealed a significant interaction effect. It was found that job involvement moderated the relationship between work-to-home segmentation and vigor, the first component of work engagement. For the low job involvement group, there was a positive relationship between work-to-home segmentation and vigor. For the middle group, the relationship was weaker and for the high group the relationship was reversed meaning an increase in work-to-home segmentation was associated with a decrease in vigor. In other words, the findings of the current study suggested that as job involvement increased from low to moderate

levels, the positive relationship between work-to-home segmentation and vigor weakened, as expected. Interestingly, when job involvement increases further from moderate to high levels, there is a negative relationship between the two, implying increase in work-to-home segmentation is associated with decrease in vigor. Past studies by Sonnentag and colleagues (2001, 2003) have reported a positive relationship between psychological detachment from work and work engagement that is similar to what was found for the low job involvement group in the current study. However, the findings of the current study further indicated that the same relationship does not hold true for those with moderate or high levels of job involvement. For those two groups, segmenting work from home either fails to affect or negatively affects individuals' vigor towards work. These findings can have very important implications for work-family policies as organizations need to realize that the one-size-fits-all approach may not be the most effective way when offering family-friendly policies to employees. Integrating policies maybe more beneficial for some employees and segmenting policies maybe more beneficial for others.

In a second set of moderation analyses it was hypothesized that the positive relationship between home-to-work segmentation and work absorption will be moderated by job involvement such that the higher the level of job involvement the stronger the relationship. Findings suggested that the positive relationship held true for those with low job involvement but contrary to the hypothesis the relationship was absent or reversed for those with medium or high job involvement respectively. Meaning, as home-to-work segmentation increased work absorption remained the same or decreased for the medium or high job involvement group respectively. Although the

mean absorption level was higher for the high job involvement group, it decreased considerably as home-to-work segmentation increased. From the home-to-work integration point of view, these findings can be interpreted the following way. Increase in home-to-work integration negatively affected work absorption for the low job involvement group. However, for the middle job involvement group, absorption remained more or less the same as home-to-work integration increased. For the high job involvement group, absorption increased with an increase in home-to-work integration. As past research has indicated, high job involvement is associated with a strong identification with one's work role, spending long hours and more personal resources towards one's work (Kanungo, 1982). Therefore, one could say that for those with moderate levels of job involvement, an increase in home-to-work integration does not affect their work absorption because for such individuals, it is likely that involvement with the work role acts as a buffer. In spite of home increasingly being integrated with work, they are likely to remain unaffected or equally absorbed in their work. The reverse relationship for the high job involvement group however, is difficult to explain. Further research needs to be conducted to replicate these findings. Additional analyses revealed significant moderation effects in similar direction for the other two components of work engagement, vigor and dedication although for dedication, the moderating effect of job involvement was not very strong. Therefore, job involvement significantly moderated the relationship between home-to-work segmentation and all three components of work engagement.

Fit Analyses Findings

Overall, the results pertaining to the fit hypotheses indicated that congruence between how individuals *prefer* to manage their home and work boundaries and how they *actually* manage their boundaries in reality affects important outcomes like job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

It was predicted that as the mismatch between use of segmentation/integration and preference for segmentation/integration increases, there will be a decrease in positive outcomes, namely job satisfaction, organizational commitment and performance. The exploratory hypotheses were aimed at examining the outcomes as the level of perfect fit varied from low to neutral to high.

In the work-to-home direction results indicated that as the use of segmentation strategies increased towards preference, there was an increase in job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The positive outcomes continued to increase as use of segmentation exceeded preference. Levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment were the lowest when preference for segmentation was higher than its use and were the highest when use of segmentation was higher than preference. These findings implied that in the work-to-home direction, being able to use a boundary management strategy that one prefers, even if the use of it exceeds the extent to which it is preferred, leads to increase in job satisfaction and organizational commitment. On the other hand, not being able to use a strategy that one prefers leads to decrease in positive outcomes. Kreiner (2006) reported similar findings where work-home conflict (a negative outcome) was found to decrease as segmentation supplies matched preferences and further exceeded them.

Some interesting findings emerged in the exploratory part of the hypotheses that examined if job satisfaction and organizational commitment varied at different levels of perfect fit. It was found that for both those outcomes, higher levels of perfect fit were associated with lower levels of the outcomes. This implied that job satisfaction and organizational commitment were lower when both use and preference for segmentation were high, than when both were neutral or both were low. The highest levels for the outcomes were reported when both preference and use of segmentation were the lowest. These results were similar to Kreiner's who found that job satisfaction was the highest when segmentation supplies and preferences both equaled 1. The current findings can be more meaningfully interpreted in terms of an integration strategy. The highest levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment were reported when both use and preference for integration were high, than when both were neutral or both were low. This could be due to the fact that when individuals are satisfied with their jobs and committed to their organization they prefer and actually end up integrating the two domains of work and home whereas when they have low levels of job satisfaction or organizational commitment, they prefer and actively segment work from home in order to avoid the negative spillover from work to home.

Overall, in the work-to-home direction, similar trends were observed for both job satisfaction and organizational commitment, in that positive outcomes increased as use of segmentation matched and further exceeded preferences, and they decreased as levels of perfect fit between segmentation use and preferences increased. Even though Rothbard et al. (2005) measured boundary management fit and its impact on job satisfaction, and organizational commitment using a different methodology, their

findings supported the basic notion that job satisfaction and organizational commitment increased as access to integration/segmentation policies matched preference for integration/segmentation.

In the home-to-work direction, results indicated that as hypothesized, both job satisfaction and organizational commitment decreased as discrepancy between segmentation use and preference increased. In other words, as the mismatch between preference and use of segmentation decreased, there was an increase in the positive outcomes. Kreiner (2006) reported similar findings between segmentation use and supplies, and job satisfaction although only work-to-home direction was measured in his study. Based on the current study findings, one can say that when it comes to home-to-work integration or segmentation, discrepancy between use and preference for a strategy in either direction affects the two outcomes negatively. An increase in the discrepancy in any direction is associated with decrease in the outcome. This might be because individuals are likely to be the most satisfied and committed to their organization as long as they can carry out their family or non-work responsibilities at work as and when required. If they fail to do so or have to do so in excess than what is preferred, it has negative consequences. Therefore, unlike work-to-home, in the home-to-work direction, it is important to use a boundary management strategy to the exact extent that it is preferred. Using less of integration/segmentation or allowing for more than what is preferred may affect certain outcomes negatively.

For the exploratory part results were different for the two outcomes. Job satisfaction remained the same at different levels of perfect fit. In other words, there was no change in job satisfaction when both home-to-work segmentation preference and

use were high, or both were neutral or both were low. On the other hand, organizational commitment was found to be the highest at neutral levels of fit than at low or high levels of perfect fit. That is, when both home-to-work segmentation use and preference were neutral organizational commitment was higher than when both were high or both were low. Kreiner (2006) reported similar findings where negative outcomes (work-home conflict and stress) were found to be lower when both segmentation supplies and preferences were neutral than when both were high or low. These findings highlight the fact that neutrality towards issues of boundary management maybe more beneficial for certain outcomes than having strong preferences even if actual use of these strategies match the preferences.

Overall, in the home-to-work direction, similar trends were observed when analyzing the degree of discrepancy between preference and use of BMS and its impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in that positive outcomes decreased as discrepancy increased. However, different levels of perfect fit affected job satisfaction and organizational commitment differently.

Even though the mismatch hypotheses state that positive outcomes increase as discrepancy decreases, a practical interpretation of reducing the discrepancy would imply matching one's use as per the preferences. It does not imply changing preferences to match one's use since preferences are largely thought of as individual differences (Kossek, 2006).

Fit between preference and actual use of BMS in either work-to-home or home-to-work direction did not have any significant impact on performance. This could be due to several reasons. First, it might be a possibility that an individual's performance truly

does not depend upon one's boundary management style. However, lack of past empirical studies examining performance and boundary management makes it difficult to generalize or establish these findings. The only other study measuring performance and BMS (Kossek et al.; 2006) reported no significant relationship between integration/segmentation and performance, thereby supporting the present findings to some extent. It is also possible that the non-significant findings do not accurately describe the actual relationship since data in this study were collected from different sources having different performance management systems, and self-report performance measures were used instead of more accurate hard data. Future research should examine performance using hard data or supervisor ratings for research purposes only.

Limitations and Future Research

The present study is not without its limitations. One of the limitations of the study is that since all the data are self-reports from participants there could be common method bias. Common method bias can cause study variables to be spuriously correlated with each other. Future research should consider collecting data using diverse measurements or from various sources other than the participant. For example, a participant's spouse's, children's, or co-workers' perception of his or her boundary management strategies maybe different from what is reported by the participant. Other than ratings from the participant's significant other and/or co-workers, future research should also consider collecting hard data. For example, it will be interesting to see if certain boundary management strategies are related to absenteeism, tardiness, or turnover more than others. Studying crossover effects by examining the effect of an

individual's boundary management strategies on his/her significant other could also be another interesting direction for future research. Crossover studies in the area of work-family conflict are becoming increasingly popular (Bass et al., 2009) with the underlying notion that one's work-family issues and how he/she deals with them do not just affect one's own self but people around as well. Given the same logic, it is possible that a husband's work-family boundary management practices affect the wife's boundary management practices or work-family conflict level, or vice-versa.

Second, boundary management practices or preferences were measured three times at three different time points that might have led participants to be bored or sensitized to these measures. Repeatedly responding to the same items might have sensitized the participants and made them consciously respond to them in order to be consistent each time. However, since these measures were administered at least one to two weeks apart from each other, and only once at each time point, chances of sensitization or boredom in the current study are less compared to what can be found in experience sampling studies. Moreover, past research has found that effects of sensitization and boredom are not significant (Eckenrode & Bolger, 1995).

Third, as with any study that collects data over several time points, attrition was a limitation in this study too. In all three sources from where data were collected the number of participants reduced over the three time points. For the first source of data the attrition was significantly more than the other two sources. This was because in the first source no individual follow-up was possible for the subsequent waves beyond the first, and there were no incentives given to participants for completing the study.

However, no significant differences in the major study variables were found between those who completed all parts of the study and those who did not.

The specific sample in the present study was interestingly both a strength and a limitation. The study participants belonged to different organizations and different professions which increases the generalizability of the study findings. However, since the participants came from different professions and different organizations, there could be extraneous factors that could not be controlled for. For example, it could be possible that in certain professions like construction work bringing work home is not possible which calls for a forced segmentation strategy that is different from professions where bringing work home is an individual choice. In order to address this concern, analyses were run after controlling for data source for those outcomes that were found to be significantly different among the three data sources. The results did not differ after controlling for the data source.

Since the surveys had to be kept within a certain time limit, one-item measures were used for three outcome variables, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. Typically, one-item measures are criticized for lacking reliability or not being able to capture the true essence of a construct. However, several past studies have used single-item measures to measure variables like job satisfaction, global self esteem (Nagy, 2010; Robins, Hendin, & Trzesniewski, 2001). Wanous, Reichers, and Hudy (1997) supported the use single item measures in those cases where situational constraints make it difficult to use longer published scales and stated that it should not be considered a flaw in the research. Also, the findings of the current study pertaining to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance were supported to a large

extent by past studies that have examined similar relationships (e.g. Kossek et al., 2006, Rothbard et al., 2005, Kreiner, 2006). Therefore, it is unlikely that the present findings would have changed radically if longer measures were used. Future research should consider using published scales for these outcome variables and examine their relationships with boundary management to replicate the findings.

Although, data were collected at three different time points, this study does not qualify as a longitudinal study since the change in boundary management strategies and their outcomes over time was not the focus of the study. An interesting avenue of future research would be to study these strategies and relationships over a longer period of time and see if they tend to remain stable or are likely to change.

Data on several demographic variables were collected in the present study and they were controlled for in order to focus on the hypothesized relationships. Future studies should focus on examining boundary management specifically in relation to these demographic variables similar to Bulger et al. (2007) who looked at demographic clusters of individuals using these strategies.

In the first two organizations where participants were part of an employee resource group and where participants volunteered to take part in a work-family study respectively, there could be some self-selection. These participants could be said to have interest in this topic to begin with versus participants from the third source where it was more of a random sample.

Finally, this study focused on only individuals who live with significant other and/or child. Future research should focus on these strategies and their outcomes for singles or other populations with non-traditional family arrangements. In the recent past

work-family flexibility has repeatedly emerged as an important issue for the Generation Y employees. Therefore, knowledge about boundary management issues and an effort towards addressing such issues might be a powerful tool for organizations to attract and retain young talent in the present economy.

Practical Implications and Conclusion

Practically, a better understanding of work-life theory, issues and challenges in general can help organizations to strategically change the work culture, redesign work and tailor work-life and employee assistance programs that will potentially enable employees to be more engaged, productive and satisfied with both their family and work roles (Morris and Madsen, 2007). More specific practical contributions of the study include the following. First, organizations have been urged by practitioners and academics alike to promote more integrative work-home policies and create workplace climates that facilitate work home integration (Kreiner, 2006). From the organization's side, fostering a family-friendly organizational culture has almost become synonymous with promoting integration policies. "Integration, not balance", "Integration, the key to balancing home and work" are common titles that come up in popular literature searches on managing work-life demands suggesting that individuals are encouraged to actively practice integration as a boundary management strategy, portraying it as the key to a balanced life. The present study findings along with recent research (e.g. Kossek et al., 2006) indicate that such an emphasis on integration may be overstated. Not only do people vary in their preference and practice of integration and segmentation strategies, an integration strategy is not always associated with positive outcomes and therefore should not be considered a panacea for all work-life issues as popularly

believed. The study findings will potentially help break the notion that equates work life balance with work-life integration, both for individuals and organizations. A first step towards that would be for organizations to realize that a family-friendly culture can be promoted by helping employees segment the two domains of work and home if they want to. A lack of significant relationship between boundary management and performance indicated that integration or segmentation strategies are neither conducive nor harmful for effective performance. Based on these findings, organizations may encourage either strategy without having concerns of any negative impact on job performance.

The findings of this study helped to shed some light on understanding positive and negative implications of these strategies by examining those outcomes that have rarely been studied, and by examining specific strategies (e.g. work-to-home and home-to-work integration/segmentation) and their relationships with the outcomes. This will potentially guide organizations and individuals alike to focus on certain strategies versus others with regard to important outcomes like burnout or work-family conflict. Also, the current study focuses on the *actual use* of boundary management strategies that puts the individual in charge of actively shaping his or her boundaries of work and home. To bring about changes in individuals' preferences that are considered more stable in nature is more difficult than attempting to change what they typically practice. Therefore, studying the actual use of these strategies and their implications, as was done in the present study, will potentially be more conducive to implementing interventions and employee assistance programs rather than studying preferences. To that end, the fit findings in the current study should be interpreted in a way that allows individuals to

practice what they prefer rather than changing preferences. These findings can be specially useful for managers in organizations whereby offering the right kind of flexibility (in way of integration or segmentation) as per the employees' preferences will lead to positive outcomes.

The strengths of the study included a novel and rigorous design that measured the actual use of the strategies at two different time points and differentiated it from preference that was measured at a third time point along with study outcomes. The rigor in the methodology contributed to further clarifying this aspect of boundary management and studying the effect of congruence between the two. Second, the study findings provided additional information about boundary management and its relationship with certain outcomes that had rarely been studied before. Finally, measuring work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management separately revealed some unique interesting trends that have not been focused on in the past because past researchers have typically treated it as a single construct combining both the directions or have studied only the work-to-home direction.

In conclusion, the present study contributed to the work-family literature in general and boundary management literature specifically by better understanding boundary management strategies and how they impact individual and organizational outcomes. More specifically, the findings indicated that boundary management strategies significantly affect work-family conflict, burnout, and certain aspects of work engagement. Some of these relationships are moderated by work involvement which in general implies that the outcomes of using a particular strategy may not be the same for everyone. Outcomes may also vary depending on the direction of boundary

management, work-to-home or home-to-work. Finally, the congruence between what strategy is preferred and what is practiced has a significant impact on one's attitude towards one's organization.

The present study findings combined with the future research ideas described before will potentially open up several other directions that will expand this field of research which in turn will continue to enhance our understanding of the work-home interface, and eventually help employees better manage the two most important domains of life.

Table 1: Demographics of Study Participants

Demographics	Frequency	Percent
gender		
male	94	30
female	164	53
missing	54	17
age		
less than 26 years	5	2
26-30 years	23	7
31-40 years	127	41
41-50 years	70	22
51-60 years	27	9
61 years and older	4	1
missing	56	18
education		
bachelors	124	40
masters	87	28
PhD	19	6
other	30	10
missing	52	17
hours worked per week		
26-30	2	1
31-35	13	4
36-40	71	23
41-50	155	50
51-60	24	8
60 hours or more	4	1
missing	43	14
job tenure		
less than 1 year	17	5
1-5 years	132	42
5-10 years	68	22
10 years and above	40	13
missing	55	18

Continued Table 1: Demographics of Study Participants

Demographics	Frequency	Percent
leadership level		
entry level	73	23
middle management	119	38
higher management	27	9
other	41	13
missing	52	17
marital status		
living w ith spouse/significant other	82	26
living w ith child/children	10	3
living w ith spouse/significant other and child/children	166	53
other	3	1
missing	51	16
number of children		
none	38	12
1 to 3	194	62
more than 3	27	9
missing	53	17
number of children 18 or younger		
none	43	14
1 to 3	173	55
more than 3	38	12
missing	58	19
age of youngest child		
0 to 2 years	44	14
3 to 10 years	116	37
11 to 17 years	39	13
18 and above	28	9
missing	85	27

Table 2 - Means, Standard Deviations and Bivariate Correlations of the Study Variables

Study Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1 work-to-home segmentation use	3.72	1.43	0.87															
2 home-to-work segmentation use	4.69	1.10	0.05	0.86														
3 work-to-home segmentation preference	4.92	0.90	0.38**	-0.05	0.69													
4 home-to-work segmentation preference	5.10	1.05	0.08	0.58**	0.12	0.87												
5 job involvement	3.87	1.15	-0.19**	0.18**	-0.22**	0.04	0.87											
6 family involvement	5.93	0.80	0.02	0.03	0.10	-0.03	-0.39**	0.83										
7 work engagement (overall)	5.08	0.99	-0.14*	0.16*	-0.32**	0.13*	0.35**	-0.01	0.91									
8 work engagement (vigor)	4.89	1.19	-0.06	0.09	-0.28**	0.05	0.21**	-0.02	0.87**	0.81								
9 work engagement (dedication)	5.28	1.12	-0.10	0.19**	-0.25**	0.16**	0.36**	0.02	0.89**	0.64**	0.87							
10 work engagement (absorption)	5.06	1.06	-0.21**	0.14*	-0.33**	0.15*	0.36**	-0.01	0.89**	0.65**	0.73**	0.74						
11 work-to-family conflict	4.08	1.56	-0.48**	-0.11	-0.09	-0.10	0.06	-0.08	-0.16**	-0.07	-0.27**	-0.09	0.94					
12 family-to-work conflict	2.87	1.40	-0.08	-0.27**	-0.16**	-0.38**	0.22**	-0.01	-0.10	-0.02	-0.19**	-0.06	0.33**	0.94				
13 burnout	3.82	1.38	-0.22**	-0.15*	0.12*	-0.10	-0.26**	0.12	-0.41**	-0.35**	-0.45**	-0.26**	0.52**	0.11	0.94			
14 job satisfaction	3.61	0.95	0.01	0.11	-0.28**	0.09	0.18**	-0.01	0.61**	0.45**	0.70**	0.48**	-0.36**	-0.18**	-0.44**	-		
15 organizational commitment	7.57	2.80	-0.03	0.18**	-0.29**	0.14*	0.14*	-0.03	0.45**	0.34**	0.50**	0.36**	-0.30**	-0.10	-0.42**	0.65**	-	
16 performance	3.97	0.75	0.09	-0.04	0.09	0.06	0.12*	0.04	0.14*	0.11	0.19**	0.09	-0.15*	-0.10	-0.26**	0.17**	0.10	-

Note: N=266-312. Bolded values on the diagonals are Cronbach's Alphas. For work-to-home segmentation use and home-to-work segmentation use, the coefficient alphas are averages of two time points. The last three variables were measured using one item each. Therefore, no coefficient alphas were computed. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 3a: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation and Work-to-Family Conflict after Controlling for Demographic Variables.

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				0.06**	
gender	0.48	0.21	0.15*		
number of children	0.09	0.11	0.08		
number of children 18 years or younger	0.10	0.09	0.09		
2				0.26**	0.20**
work-to-home segmentation	-0.46	0.06	-0.45**		

Note: N=228. Dependent Variable = Work-to-Family Conflict . *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 3b: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Family-to-Work Conflict after Controlling for Demographic Variables.

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				0.08**	
age	-0.28	0.11	-0.18**		
years spent in current position	0.10	0.03	0.24**		
number of children 18 years or younger	0.11	0.06	0.12		
leadership level	-0.10	0.10	-0.07		
2				0.12**	0.04**
home-to-work segmentation	-0.25	0.08	-0.21**		

Note: N=227. Dependent Variable = Family-to-Work Conflict . *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 3c: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Quadratic Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation and Work-to-Family Conflict after Controlling for Demographic Variables.

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
1				0.06**	
gender	0.48	0.21	0.15*		
number of children	0.09	0.11	0.08		
number of children 18 years or younger	0.10	0.09	0.09		
2				0.26**	0.20**
work-to-home segmentation	-0.46	0.06	-0.45**		
3				0.27**	0.01*
work-to-home segmentation squared	0.08	0.04	0.60*		

Note: N=228. Dependent Variable = Work-to-Family Conflict . *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 3d: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Quadratic Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Family-to-Work Conflict after Controlling for Demographic Variables.

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
1				0.08**	
age	-0.28	0.11	-0.18**		
years spent in current position	0.10	0.03	0.24**		
number of children 18 years or younger	0.11	0.06	0.12		
leadership level	-0.10	0.10	-0.07		
2				0.12**	0.04**
home-to-work segmentation	-0.25	0.08	-0.21**		
3				0.14**	0.02*
home-to-work segmentation squared	-0.13	0.06	-0.90*		

Note: N=227. Dependent Variable = Family-to-Work Conflict . *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 4a: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation and Work Engagement after Controlling for Demographic Variables.

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				0.03**	
age	0.19	0.07	0.18**		
2				0.04**	0.01
work-to-home segmentation	-0.07	0.04	-0.11		

Note: N=232. Dependent Variable = Work Engagement. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 4b: Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation and Work Engagement (Absorption).

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				0.04**	
work-to-home segmentation	-0.15	0.04	-0.21**		

Note: N=275. Dependent Variable = Work Engagement (Absorption). *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 4c: Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Work Engagement (Absorption).

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				0.02*	
home-to-work segmentation	0.13	0.06	0.14*		

Note: N=275. Dependent Variable = Work Engagement (Absorption). *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 4d: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Work Engagement (Dedication) after Controlling for Demographic Variables.

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				0.02*	
age	0.15	0.08	0.13		
leadership level	0.06	0.08	0.05		
2				0.05*	0.02*
home-to-work segmentation	0.15	0.06	0.16*		

Note: N=231. Dependent Variable = Work Engagement (Dedication). *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 5a: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation and Burnout after Controlling for Demographic Variables.

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				0.04**	
gender	0.49	0.19	0.17*		
leadership level	-0.18	0.09	-0.13		
2				0.09**	0.04**
work-to-home segmentation	-0.21	0.06	-0.22**		

Note: N=231. Dependent Variable = Burnout. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 5b: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Burnout after Controlling for Demographic Variables.

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				0.04**	
gender	0.49	0.19	0.17		
leadership level	-0.18	0.09	-0.13*		
2				0.07*	0.02*
home-to-work segmentation	-0.19	0.08	-0.16*		

Note: N=231. Dependent Variable = Burnout. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 6a: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation and Work-to-Family Conflict with Family Involvement as a Moderator

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
1				0.23**	
family involvement	-0.15	0.11	-0.07		
work-to-home segmentation	-0.50	0.06	-0.48**		
2				0.23**	0.00
family involvement x work-to-home segmentation	-0.06	0.07	-0.35		

Note: N=270. Dependent Variable = Work-to-Family Conflict. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01.

Table 6b: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Family-to-Work Conflict with Job Involvement as a Moderator

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
1				0.15**	
job involvement	0.33	0.07	0.27**		
home-to-work segmentation	-0.40	0.07	-0.32**		
2				0.15**	0.00
job involvement x home-to-work segmentation	0.03	0.07	0.16		

Note: N=271. Dependent Variable = Family-to-Work Conflict. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01.

Table 6c: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Work Engagement (Absorption) with Job Involvement as a Moderator

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
1				0.13**	
job involvement	0.32	0.05	0.35**		
home-to-work segmentation	0.07	0.05	0.07		
2				0.18**	0.04**
job involvement x home-to-work segmentation	-0.18	0.05	-1.24**		

Note: N=271. Dependent Variable = Work Engagement (Absorption). *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 6d: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Work Engagement (Vigor) with Job Involvement as a Moderator

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
1				0.05**	
job involvement	0.21	0.06	0.20**		
home-to-work segmentation	0.06	0.06	0.06		
2				0.08**	0.03**
job involvement x home-to-work segmentation	-0.17	0.06	-1.05**		

Note: N=271. Dependent Variable = Work Engagement (Vigor). *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 6e: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Work Engagement (Dedication) with Job Involvement as a Moderator

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
1				0.15**	
job involvement	0.33	0.06	0.34**		
home-to-work segmentation	0.13	0.06	0.13*		
2				0.16**	0.01*
job involvement x home-to-work segmentation	-0.11	0.05	-0.70*		

Note: N=271. Dependent Variable = Work Engagement (Dedication). *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 6f: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Burnout with Job Involvement as a Moderator

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
1				0.08**	
job involvement	-0.28**	0.07	-0.24**		
home-to-work segmentation	-0.14	0.07	-0.11		
2				0.08**	0.00
job involvement x home-to-work segmentation	-0.05	0.07	-0.26		

Note: N=271. Dependent Variable = Burnout. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 6g: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation and Work Engagement with Job Involvement as a Moderator

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
1				0.13**	
job involvement	0.29	0.05	0.33**		
work-to-home segmentation	-0.05	0.04	-0.08		
2				0.14**	0.01
job involvement x work-to-home segmentation	-0.04	0.03	-0.27		

Note: N=271. Dependent Variable = Work Engagement. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01.

Table 6h: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation and Work Engagement (Vigor) with Job Involvement as a Moderator

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
1				.05**	
job involvement	0.21	0.06	0.21**		
work-to-home segmentation	-0.02	0.05	-0.03		
2				.07**	.02*
job involvement x work-to-home segmentation	-0.10	0.04	-0.57*		

Note: N=271. Dependent Variable = Work Engagement (Vigor). **p* < .05, ***p* < .01.

Table 6i: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation and Burnout with Job Involvement as a Moderator

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				.14**	
job involvement	-0.37	0.07	-0.31**		
w ork-to-home segmentation	-0.25	0.05	-0.27**		
2				0.14	0.00
job involvement x w ork-to-home segmentation	0.01	0.05	0.05		

Note: N=271. Dependent Variable = Burnout. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 7a: Results of Polynomial Regressions Testing the Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation Preference, Work-to-Home Segmentation Use, and Job Satisfaction

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				0.00	
leadership level	0.03	0.06	0.03		
2				0.11**	.11**
w ork-to-home segmentation preference	-0.39	0.07	-0.37**		
w ork-to-home segmentation use	0.11	0.05	0.16*		
3				0.12**	0.01
w ork-to-home segmentation preference squared	-0.06	0.07	-0.53		
w ork-to-home segmentation preference x w ork-to-home segmentation use	0.02	0.06	0.17		
w ork-to-home segmentation use squared	-0.03	0.03	-0.36		

Note: N=231. Dependent Variable = Job Satisfaction. *p < .05, **p < .01.

$a_1 = -.28^{**}$

$a_3 = -.50^{**}$

Table 7b: Results of Polynomial Regressions Testing the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation Preference, Home-to-Work Segmentation Use, and Job Satisfaction

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				0.00	
leadership level	0.03	0.06	0.03		
2				0.02	0.02
home-to-work segmentation preference	0.05	0.08	0.05		
home-to-work segmentation use	0.08	0.07	0.09		
3				0.10**	0.08**
home-to-work segmentation preference squared	-0.16	0.06	-1.62*		
home-to-work segmentation preference x home-to-work segmentation use	0.31	0.07	2.94**		
home-to-work segmentation use squared	-0.20	0.06	-2.1**		

Note: N=232. Dependent Variable = Job Satisfaction. *p < .05, **p < .01.

$$a_1 = .52$$

$$a_2 = -.05$$

$$a_3 = -.14$$

$$a_4 = -.67**$$

Table 7c: Results of Polynomial Regressions Testing the Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation Preference, Work-to-Home Segmentation Use, and Organizational Commitment

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				.09**	
work-to-home segmentation preference	-1.01	0.19	-0.33**		
work-to-home segmentation use	0.17	0.12	0.09		
2				.12**	0.02
work-to-home segmentation preference squared	-0.28	0.20	-0.86		
work-to-home segmentation preference x work-to-home segmentation use	0.01	0.15	0.02		
work-to-home segmentation use squared	-0.13	0.08	-0.54		

Note: N=276. Dependent Variable = Organizational Commitment. *p < .05, **p < .01.

$$a_1 = -.84**$$

$$a_3 = -1.18**$$

Table 7d: Results of Polynomial Regressions Testing the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation Preference, Home-to-Work Segmentation Use, and Organizational Commitment

Step and Variable	B	SE B	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				0.03**	
home-to-work segmentation preference	0.16	0.20	0.06		
home-to-work segmentation use	0.36	0.18	0.14*		
2				0.08**	.04**
home-to-work segmentation preference squared	-0.40	0.15	-1.47**		
home-to-work segmentation preference x home-to-work segmentation use	0.43	0.20	1.45*		
home-to-work segmentation use squared	-0.35	0.15	-1.25*		

Note: N=276. Dependent Variable =Organizational Commitment. *p < .05, **p < .01.

$$a_1 = 3.39^*$$

$$a_2 = -.32^*$$

$$a_3 = .75$$

$$a_4 = -1.18^{**}$$

Table 7e: Results of Polynomial Regressions Testing the Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation Preference, Work-to-Home Segmentation Use, and Performance

Step and Variable	B	SE B	β	R ²	ΔR^2
1				0.10**	
hours worked	-0.17	0.06	-0.18**		
number of children 18 or younger	0.03	0.03	0.05		
leadership level	0.15	0.05	0.21**		
2				0.10**	0.00
work-to-home segmentation preference	0.04	0.06	0.05		
work-to-home segmentation use	-0.03	0.04	-0.05		
3				0.12**	0.01
work-to-home segmentation preference squared	0.00	0.06	0.04		
work-to-home segmentation preference x work-to-home segmentation use	0.02	0.04	0.28		
work-to-home segmentation use squared	0.03	0.02	0.50		

Note: N=225. Dependent Variable = Performance. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 7f: Results of Polynomial Regressions Testing the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation Preference, Home-to-Work Segmentation Use, and Performance

Step and Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1				0.10**	
hours worked	-0.17	0.06	-0.18		
number of children 18 or younger	0.03	0.03	0.05		
leadership level	0.15	0.05	0.21		
2				0.12**	0.02
home-to-work segmentation preference	0.13	0.06	0.18		
home-to-work segmentation use	-0.09	0.05	-0.15		
3				0.14**	0.02
home-to-work segmentation preference squared	0.03	0.05	0.37		
home-to-work segmentation preference x home-to-work segmentation use	0.08	0.06	1.05		
home-to-work segmentation use squared	-0.04	0.04	-0.57		

Note: N=225. Dependent Variable = Performance. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Figure 1. Quadratic Relationship between Work-to-Home Integration/Segmentation and Work-to-Family Conflict.

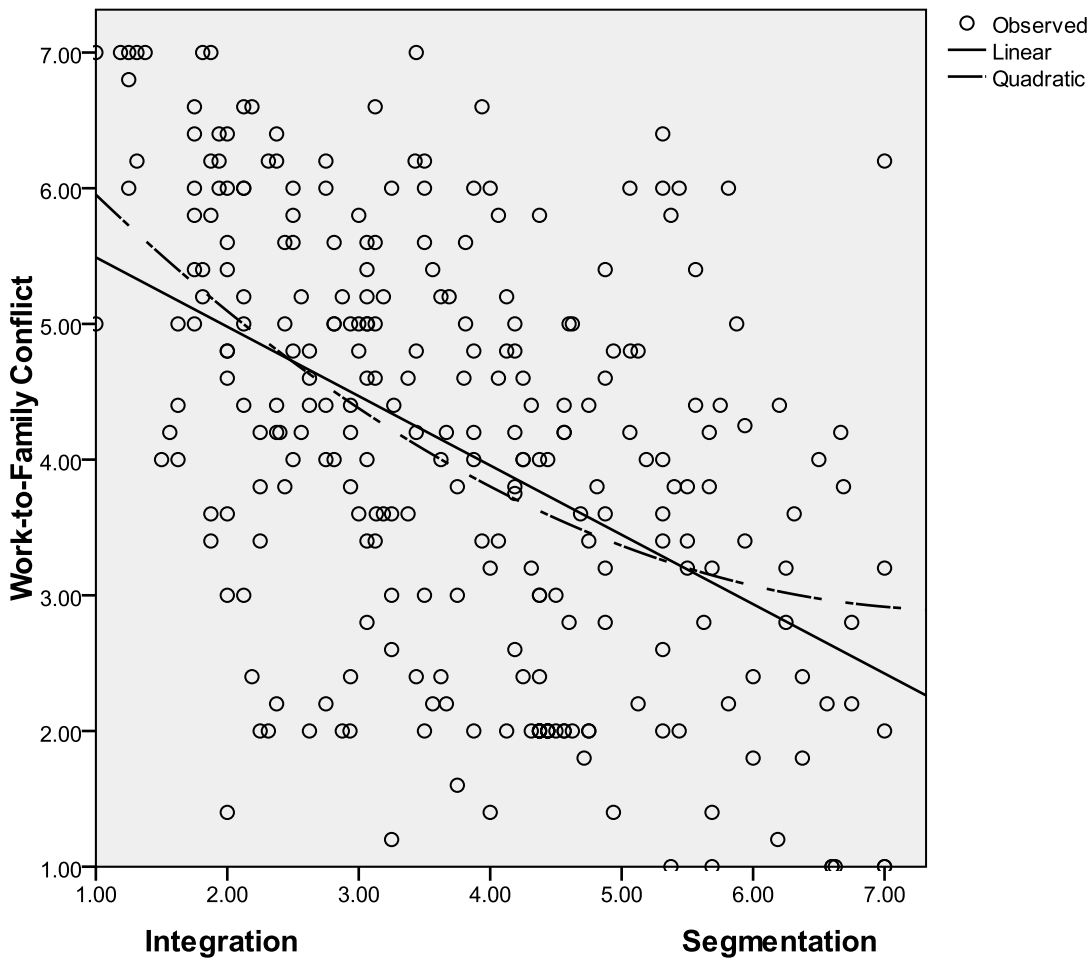


Figure 2. Quadratic Relationship between Home-to-Work Integration/Segmentation and Family-to-Work Conflict.

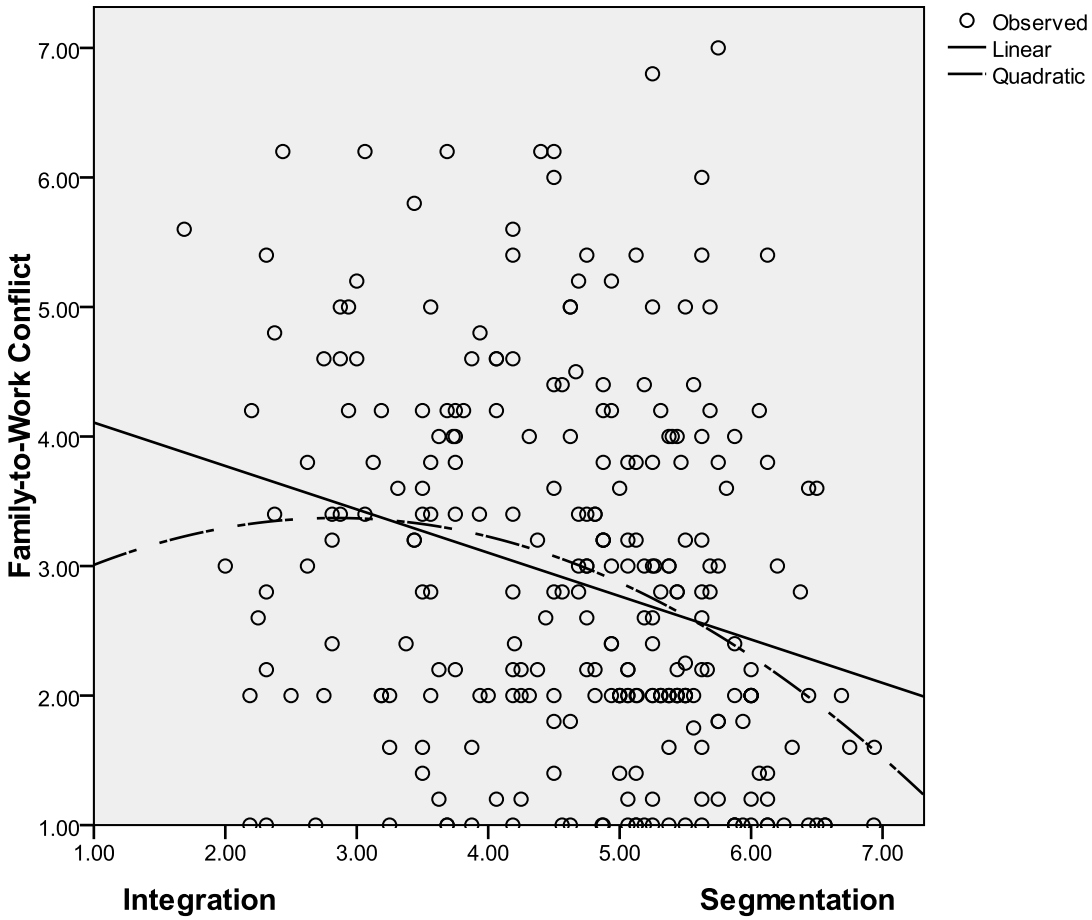


Figure 3. Job Involvement Moderating the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Work Engagement (Absorption).

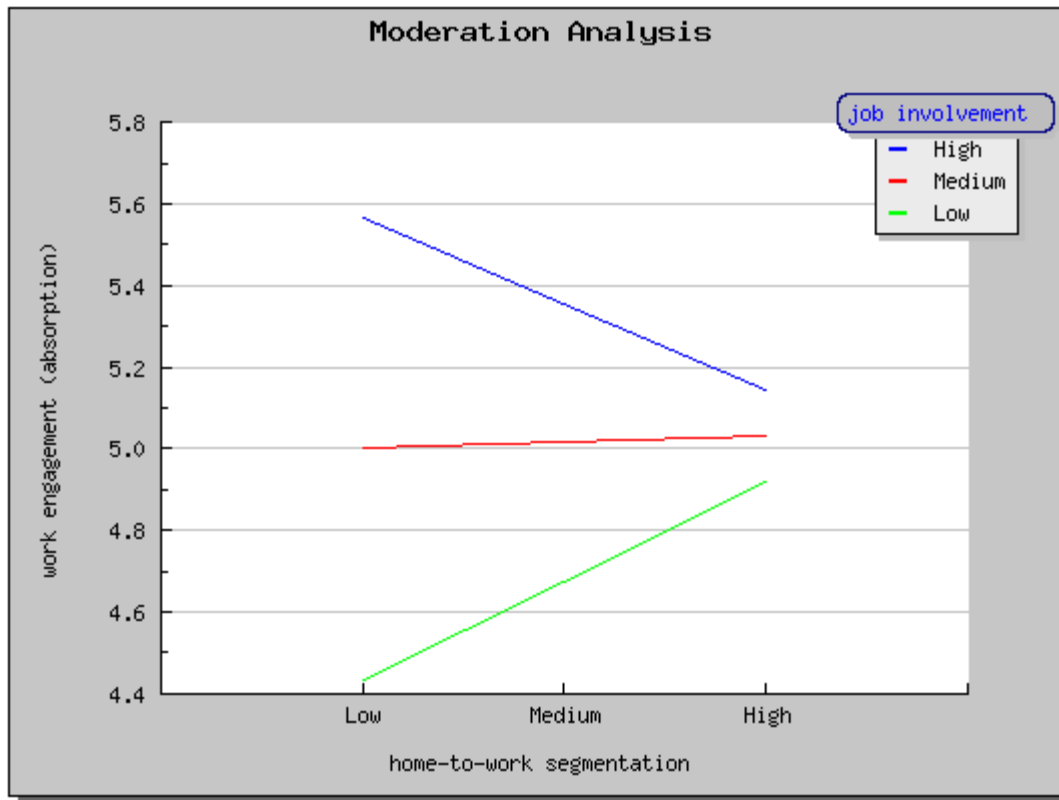


Figure 4. Job Involvement Moderating the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Work Engagement (Vigor).

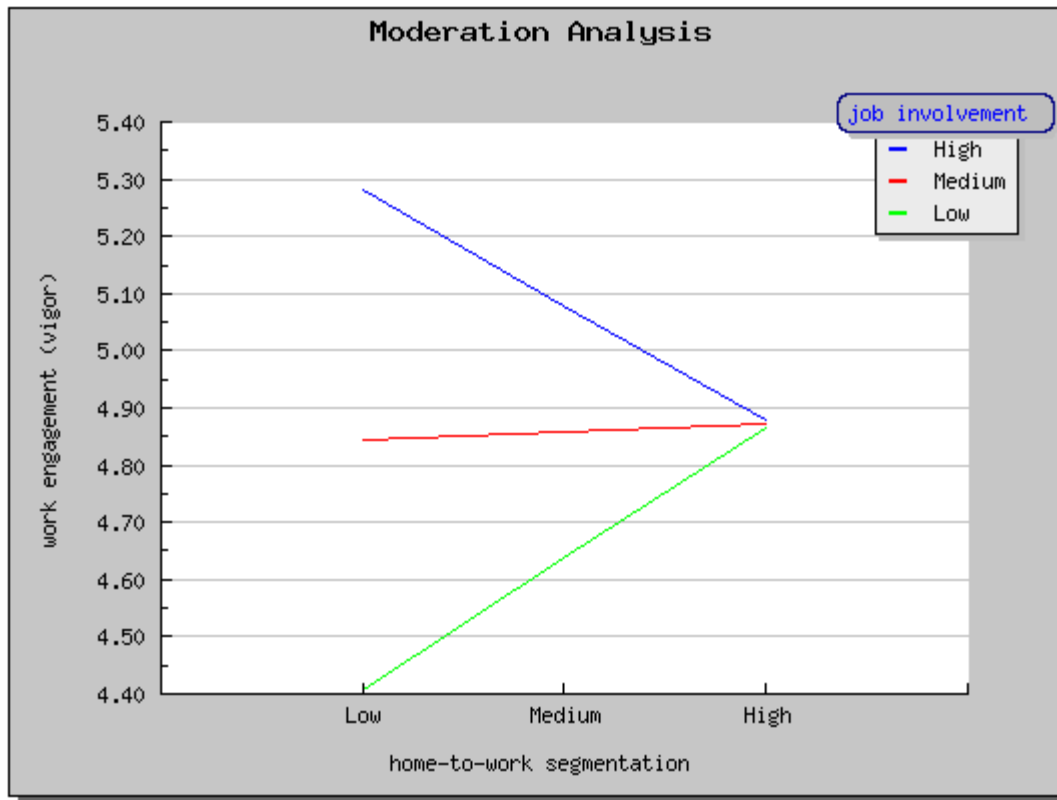


Figure 5. Job Involvement Moderating the Relationship between Home-to-Work Segmentation and Work Engagement (Dedication).

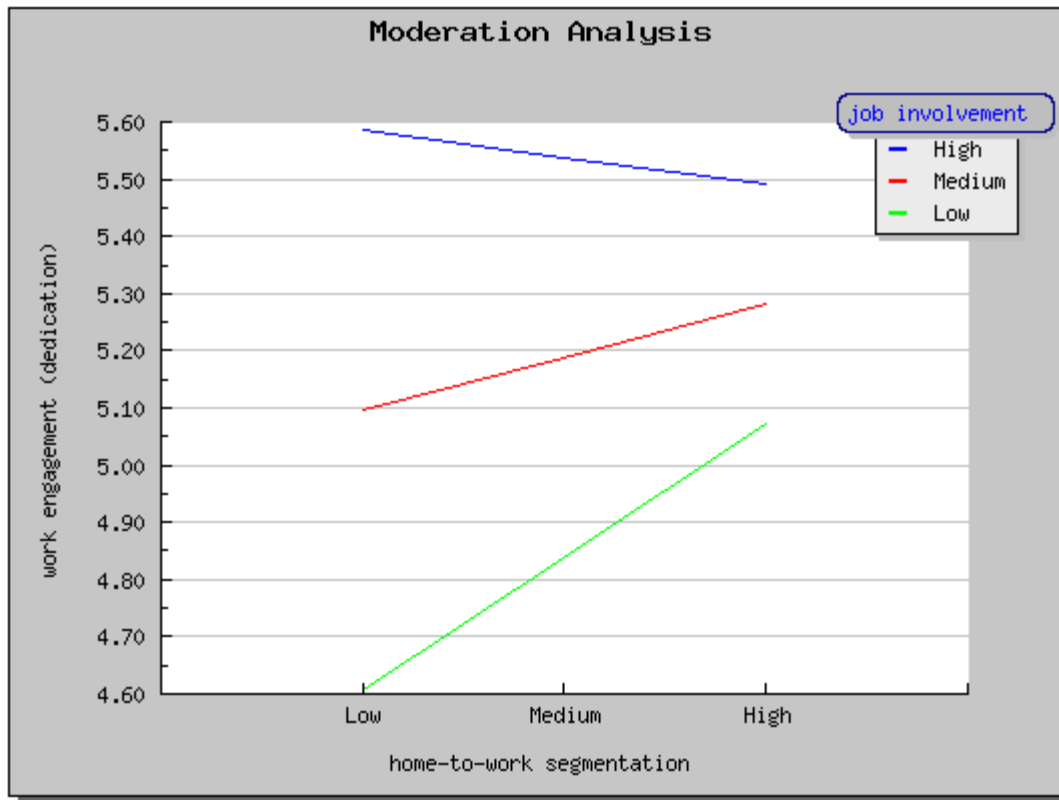


Figure 6. Job Involvement Moderating the Relationship between Work-to-Home Segmentation and Work Engagement (Vigor).

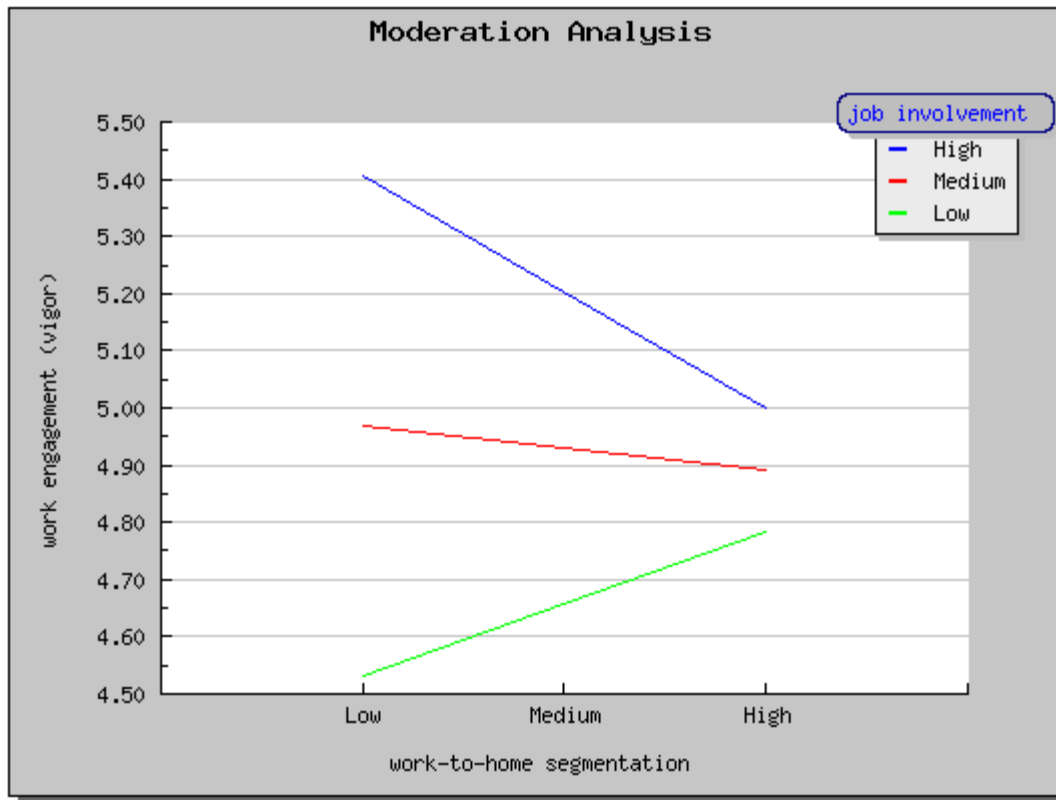


Figure 7. Three-dimensional Response Surface Analysis Examining the Fit Between Work-to-Home Segmentation Use and Preference and its Effect on Job Satisfaction.

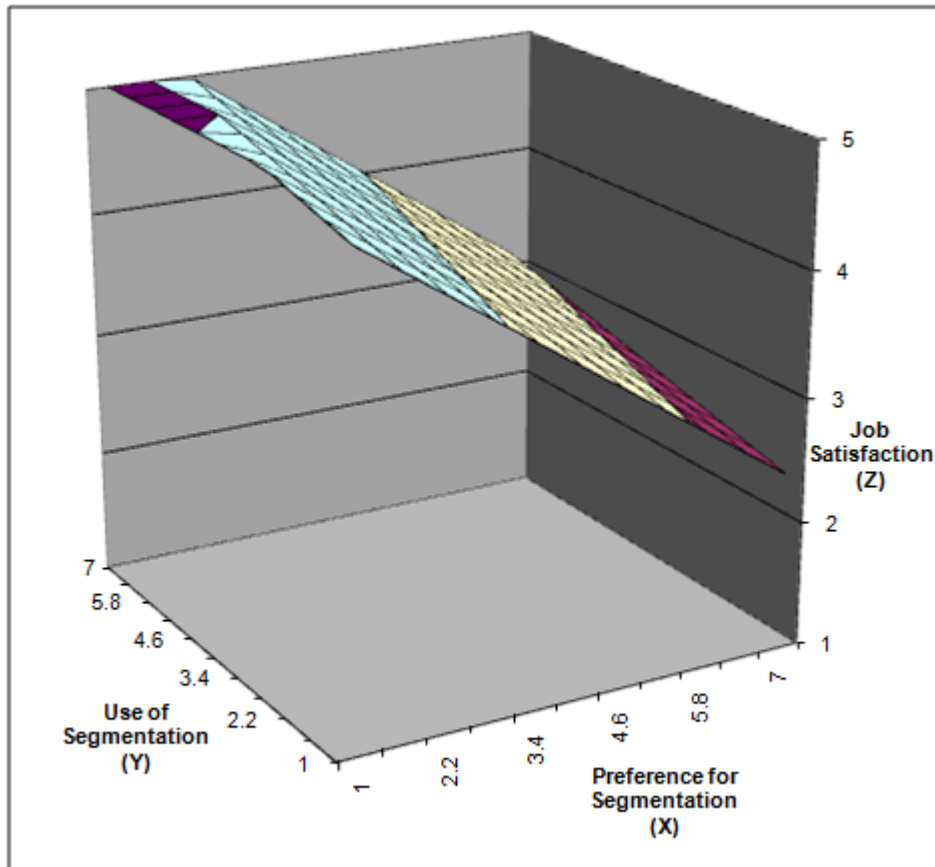


Figure 8. Three-dimensional Response Surface Analysis Examining the Fit Between Home-to-Work Segmentation Use and Preference and its Effect on Job Satisfaction.

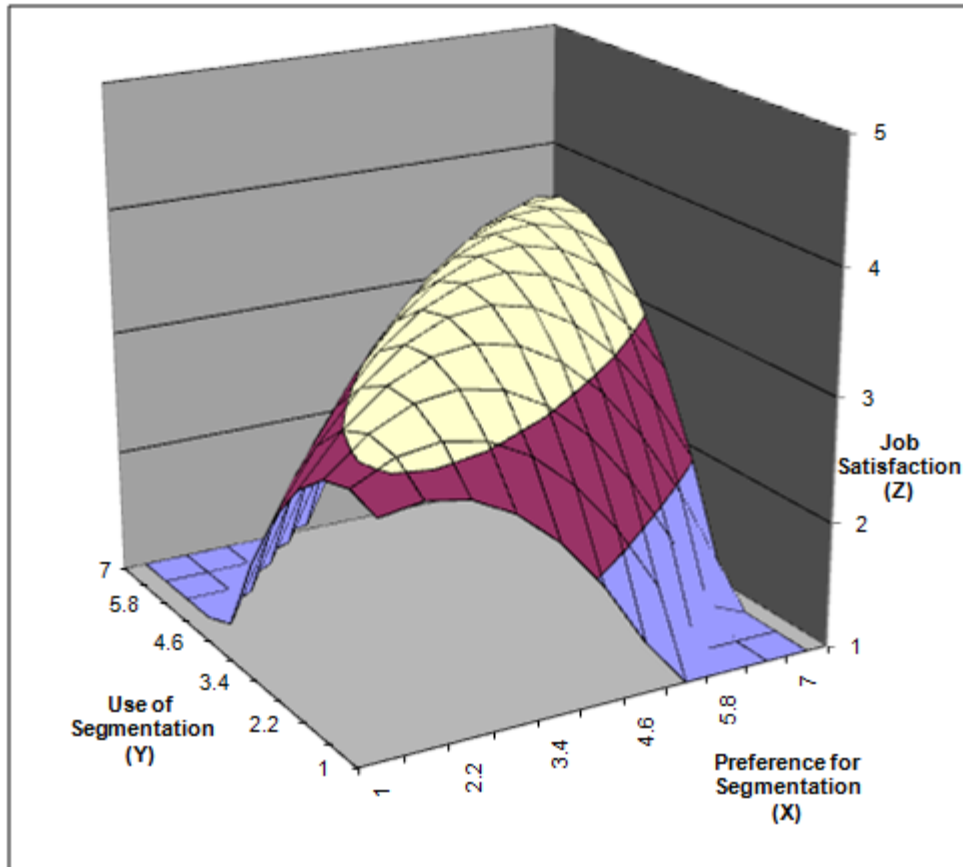


Figure 9. Three-dimensional Response Surface Analysis Examining the Fit Between Work-to-Home Segmentation Use and Preference and its Effect on Organizational Commitment.

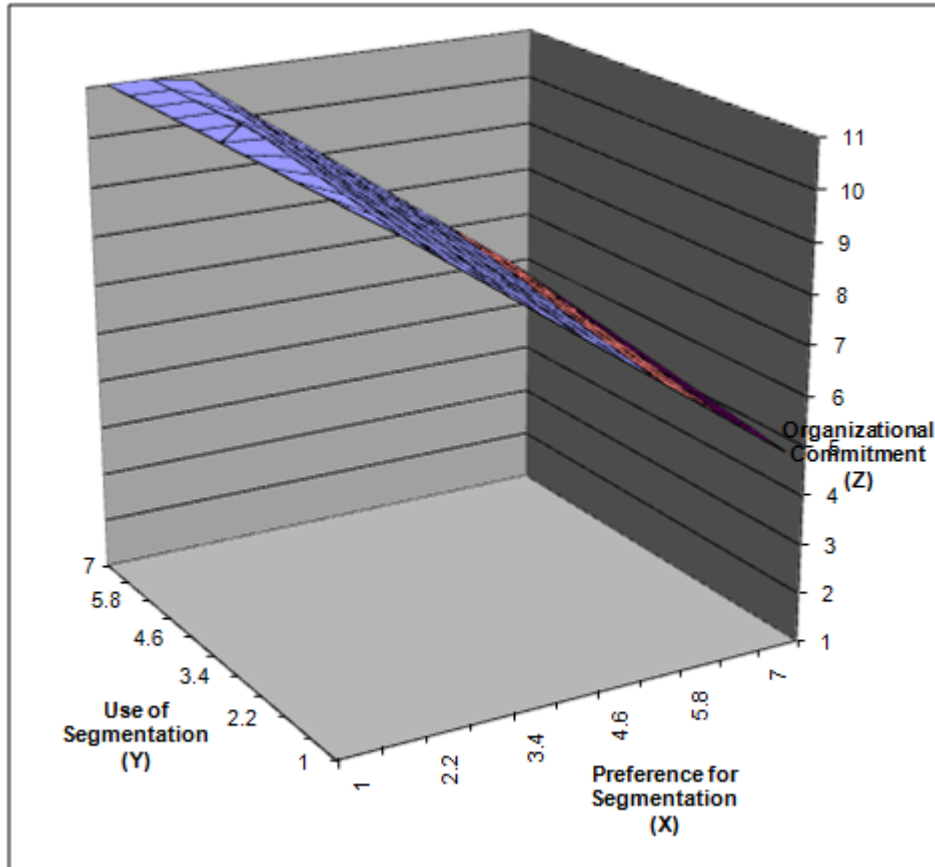
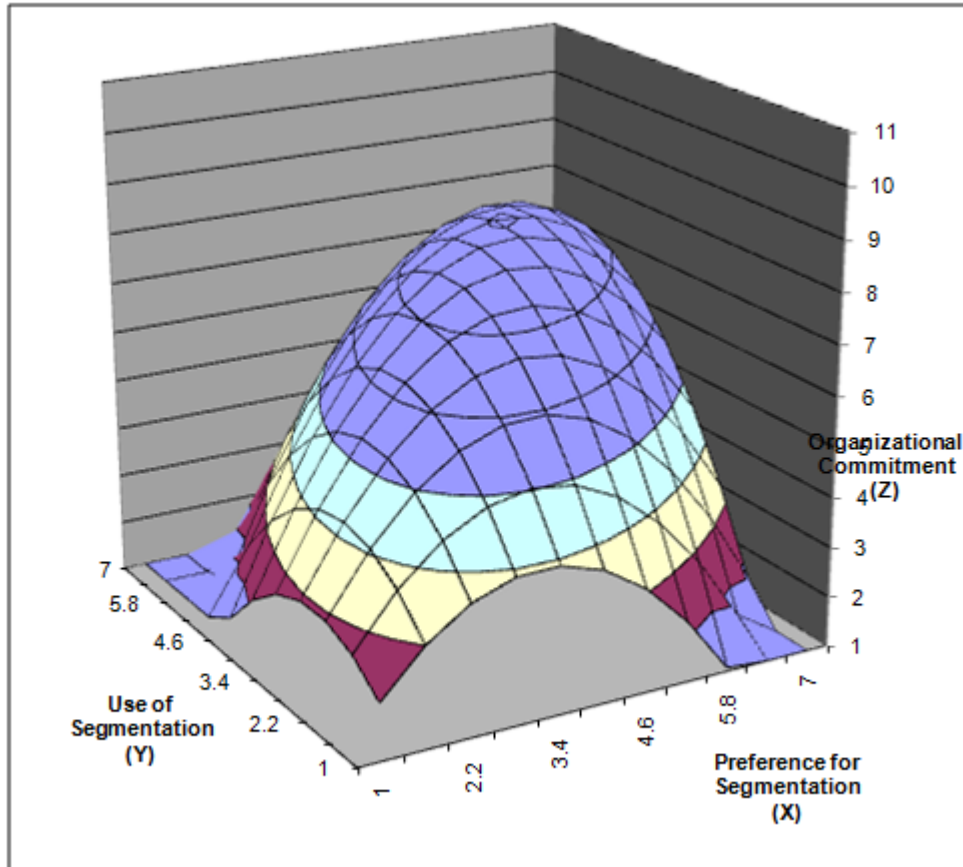


Figure 10. Three-dimensional Response Surface Analysis Examining the Fit Between Home-to-Work Segmentation Use and Preference and its Effect on Organizational Commitment.



APPENDIX A

Recruitment Letter for Organization A

Invitation to Work-life Strategies Pilot Study

XYZ* Employee Resource Group of Organization A is conducting a pilot study on work-life strategies employees use to manage the competing demands of work and non-work.

If you choose to participate in the study, you will be asked to fill out a short survey now and two more consecutive short surveys over the next 3 weeks. Each survey will require less than 5 minutes of your time.

The findings of the study will help in providing recommendations about effective work-life balancing strategies, which can in turn affect job satisfaction, work engagement, etc. You will be eligible to receive a copy of the final study report once you complete the three surveys.

**Name of the employee resource group cannot be disclosed as per confidentiality agreement with Organization A*

APPENDIX B

Recruitment Letter for Organization B

Initial Advertisement:

WORK-FAMILY MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES SURVEY

We are looking for employed individuals who have access to the internet and are willing to take part in a research study on work-family management strategies. If you complete the study you will be eligible to receive a copy of the study findings and you will be entered into a drawing to win one of hundred \$20 prizes.

[Click for More Information](#) (Link to the detailed message below).

We are looking for employed individuals who have access to the internet to participate in an online research study investigating strategies individuals use to manage the simultaneous demands of work and family.

This study contains two phases. In **Phase 1**, you will be asked to complete a set of questions about yourself that will take **approximately 3 minutes** to complete. Phase 1 of the study will determine if you fulfill the eligibility criteria of the study. If you do, then you will be invited to take part in Phase 2 of the study. **Phase 2** involves filling out a total of three surveys over a period of four weeks. The first two surveys will take **less than 5 minutes** each to complete. The third survey will take **5-7 minutes** to complete. If you complete the initial survey and the three surveys you will be eligible to receive a copy of the study findings that will potentially help you to gain a better understanding of how individuals manage the simultaneous demands of work and family, and their outcomes. Also, you will be entered into a drawing to win one of hundred \$20 prizes.

If you are interested, please click on the link below to begin Phase 1. This will take approximately 2-3 minutes to complete.

[Link to Phase 1](#)

If you are not interested to participate in this study, please feel free to exit out of this page. Thank you.

APPENDIX C

Use of Boundary Management Strategies

With the sometimes competing demands of work and home, employees may use different strategies to handle these demands. Think about how you have dealt with such demands during the past week, and indicate your agreement with each of the items below. There are no good or bad strategies. Your open and honest feedback would be appreciated.

Please note that in the following items “work” refers to office-related work.

Work-to-Home:

During the past week...

1. I did work at home.
2. I did not work on my "personal time".
3. I received work-related correspondence at home (e.g., e-mail, faxes, or phone calls).
4. I did not take my work out of the “office.”
5. My "personal time" was my own.
6. It was not unusual for me to work over breakfast or dinner.
7. I worked “after hours.”
8. I dealt with work-related issues away from work.

Home-to-Work

During the past week...

1. When I was working, I focused completely on work-related issues.
2. I left my personal life outside of the workplace.

3. I scheduled personal activities (e.g., exercise or reading) during “business hours.”
4. I spent time communicating with friends and family during “business hours.”
5. I rarely dealt with personal matters when I was working.
6. My office was reserved for doing work—only.
7. I did personal errands on “work time.”
8. I thought about my personal life when I was working.

Preference for Boundary Management Strategies

With the sometimes competing demands of work and home, employees may prefer to use different strategies to handle these demands. Think about how you prefer to deal with such demands, and indicate your agreement with each of the items below. There are no good or bad strategies. Your open and honest feedback would be appreciated. Please note that in the following items “work” refers to office-related work.

Work-to-Home

1. I like doing work at home.
2. I prefer not to do work on my "personal time".
3. I do not prefer receiving work-related correspondence at home (e.g., e-mail, faxes, or phone calls).
4. I do not like taking my work out of the “office.”
5. I prefer to treat my "personal time" as my own.
6. I like to work over breakfast or dinner.

7. I prefer working “after hours.”
8. I like to deal with work-related issues away from work.

Home-to-Work

1. When I am working, I prefer to focus completely on work-related issues.
2. I prefer to leave my personal life outside of the workplace.
3. I like to schedule personal activities (e.g., exercise or reading) during “business hours.”
4. I like to spend time communicating with friends and family during “business hours.”
5. I rarely prefer to deal with personal matters when I am working.
6. I prefer to reserve my office for doing work—only.
7. I prefer to do personal errands on “work time.”
8. I like to think about my personal life when I am working.

APPENDIX D

Work Role Involvement

1. The most important things that happen to me involve my present job.
2. To me, my job is only a small part of who I am.
3. I am very much involved personally in my job.
4. I live, eat and breathe my job.
5. Most of my interests are centered around my job.
6. I have very strong ties with my present job which would be very difficult to break.
7. Usually I feel detached from my job.
8. Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.
9. I consider my job to be very central to my existence.
10. I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.

APPENDIX E

Family Role Involvement

1. A great satisfaction in my life comes from my family/non-work role (e.g. parent / spouse, etc.).
2. Quite often I plan ahead the next day's family/non-work activities.
3. For me, days at home really fly by.
4. I am very much involved personally with my family members' lives.
5. I would be a less fulfilled person without my family/non-work role.
6. The most important things that happen to me are related to my family/non-work roles.
7. Nothing is as important as being a parent/spouse/any other non-work role.
8. I enjoy talking about my family/non-work life with other people.

APPENDIX F

Work-family Conflict

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

APPENDIX G**Work Engagement**

The following statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, indicate "Never". If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by selecting the choice that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

Do you ever feel this way about your job?

1. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
2. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.
3. At my job I feel strong and vigorous.
4. My job inspires me
5. I am enthusiastic about my job.
6. I am proud of the work that I do.
7. I get carried away when I am working.
8. I am immersed in my work.
9. I feel happy when I am working intensely.

APPENDIX H**Burnout**

The following statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, indicate "Never". If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by selecting the choice that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

Do you ever feel this way about your job?

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.
3. I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
4. Working all day is really a strain for me.
5. I feel burned out from my work.

APPENDIX I

Job Performance

Organization A

1. What was your last year's overall performance rating?

Organization B

1. If you had a performance appraisal or review in the past year, please indicate the overall rating you received for the quality of your work.
2. Overall what is your usual performance at work?
3. How do you perform at work relative to others in your organization (that is, your coworkers)?

APPENDIX J

Demographics

1. What is your marital/relationship status?
2. How many children do you have?
3. What is the number of children, who are 18 years old or younger, currently living with you?
4. What is the age of the youngest child?
5. Do you have a child with special needs?
6. Do you have elder care responsibilities?
7. What is your age?
8. What is your gender?
9. What is your education degree?
10. What is the number of years you have spent at your current position?
11. What is your management level?
12. Which work organization are you a part of?*
13. How many hours do you typically work per week?
14. How would you describe your primary association with Organization B – student, faculty, administrative staff or other? **
15. What is your email address? **

*Asked only in Organization A

**Asked only in Organization B

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ABSTRACT**WORK-FAMILY BOUNDARY MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES: EXAMINING OUTCOMES, AND THE ROLE OF FIT**

by

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As more and more people attempt to effectively manage the simultaneous demands of work and family, researchers are now trying to investigate the various ways by which people choose to do so. The present study investigated the concept of boundary management strategies that describes the work-family interface in terms of cognitive, physical, and behavioral boundaries between work and family domains that individuals actively try to manage in order to balance the two worlds. Research in boundary management strategies has been minimal due to the the novelty of the construct. In this study, specific individual and organizational outcomes like work-family conflict, work engagement, and burnout of boundary management strategies were examined. The study also tested the role of work and family salience as moderators of the hypothesized relationships. Finally, a novel concept of fit between preference and actual use of boundary management strategies was proposed and tested. Findings indicated that boundary management strategies significantly affect work-family conflict, burnout, and certain aspects of work engagement. Some of these relationships were moderated by work involvement which in general implied that the outcomes of using a

particular strategy may not be the same for everyone. Outcomes may also vary depending on the direction of boundary management, work-to-home or home-to-work. Finally, the congruence between what strategy is preferred and what is practiced was found to have a significant impact on one's attitude towards one's organization.

The findings of the study are likely to have important practical implications by which individuals and organizations are better informed about work-family management strategies and their implications in day-to-day lives.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Madhura Chakrabarti was born in the United Kingdom and raised in India. She attended Lady Shri Ram College, University of Delhi, for her undergraduate degree in Psychology. In the final year of her undergraduate degree, she was awarded several departmental honors and was also nominated as one of the two best students in the Department of Psychology, 2003-2004. Apart from the required curriculum, she had been actively involved with both academic and applied projects in the field of organizational psychology with business schools and organizations throughout her undergraduate years.

Madhura applied to Wayne State University in 2005 for a masters and PhD in Industrial/Organizational Psychology. She was awarded the Thomas C. Rumble Fellowship in her first year of graduate school. Apart from being actively involved in work-family research Madhura completed four applied internships with Ford Motor Company, Aon Hewitt, and Applied Psychology and Organizational Research Group while pursuing her doctoral degree. She just moved to Austin, Texas after accepting a full-time job offer with Dell as a senior advisor in their Global Talent Management Team.

Madhura's non-work interests include hiking, biking, swimming among outdoor activities, and practicing and listening to Indian classical music when time permits.