MANUFACTURING SATISFACTION WITH WORK-FAMILY BALANCE:

THE EFFECTS OF EMPLOYEE TYPE, TECHNOLOGY USE, & LIFE ROLE SALIENCE

by

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B.S., Wayland Baptist University, 2001
M.S., Kansas State University, 2006

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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Abstract

Satisfaction with work-family balance is a relatively new construct that differs from other work-life constructs in several ways: it is not focused on conflict between work/family domains, does not include cross-domain transfer processes, has no directional implications, and is not multidimensional.

The current study has three purposes:

1. Examine work-family balance issues for both blue-collar and white-collar employees, as the literature has focused mainly on white-collar employees.

2. Examine relationship between technology and satisfaction with work-family balance.

3. Assess how role salience influences satisfaction with work-family balance.

Participants were recruited and compensated for completing a 60 item online survey via Qualtrics. Blue-collar participants were recruited from manufacturing industries, while no industry was specified for white-collar employees. The sample consisted of 210 participants (105 blue-collar, 105 white-collar). Several checks were included throughout the survey to ensure data quality.

Two hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. The first regression revealed that boundary control and autonomy predict satisfaction with work-family balance, while employee type and boundary interruptions do not. Boundary control, family identity, and stress significantly predicted satisfaction with work-family balance in the second regression, while boundary interruptions, work identity, hours worked, and technology use did not.

Results indicate white-collar workers have higher satisfaction with work-family balance, lower stress, and lower turnover intentions compared to blue-collar workers. Results also reveal that technology use to complete work outside of work hours is significantly and positively

related to stress. Nearly half of participants report feeling expected to utilize technology to complete work outside of work hours. In addition, while it was hypothesized that those higher on family identity would have lower satisfaction with work-family balance when they used technology outside of work hours, worked longer hours, and had more frequent boundary interruptions than would those lower on family identity, the opposite effect was found for each of these variables.

Implications of the study include:

1. Organizations may improve employee satisfaction with work-family balance by increasing autonomy and boundary control.

2. Employees may improve satisfaction with work-family balance by taking time to de-stress from work and limiting use of technology to complete work outside of work hours.

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Dedication

To every single person who ever nagged me about whether I had worked on my

dissertation lately, and especially to those who nagged me frequently…you know who you are!

Thank you for pushing me along!

Chapter 1 - Introduction

In the movie *Office Space* (Riedel & Judge, 1999), work is depicted as a place where most people are miserable, dealing with issues such as frustrating commutes, office equipment that does not function properly, monotonous tasks (e.g., TPS reports), long hours, annoying co-workers, and demanding bosses. One of the main characters, Peter Gibbons, grew to hate his job so much that he said, "ever since I started working, every single day of my life has been worse than the day before it" and asked an occupational hypnotherapist if it was possible to "zonk" him out so he would not realize he even went to work. Peter seems to feel trapped when he is at work, saying that "human beings were not meant to sit in little cubicles staring at computer screens all day." Additionally, he seems to suffer from a lack of work-family balance, as his supervisor tells him that he needs to come in to work on Saturday and Sunday. Taken together, these issues lead to Peter being less productive at work, to the point where he estimates he does approximately fifteen minutes of work each week. In addition to this productivity issue, disgruntled employees in the movie engage in a variety of behaviors that are detrimental to the organization, such as stealing money and office equipment, and perhaps (although there is no proof of this) even burning the building down.

By the end of the movie, Peter has transitioned from his white-collar position to a job in construction, a blue-collar job. He seems to enjoy this position much more than the white-collar position he previously held and says he is "making bucks, getting exercise, and working outside." He appears to be much happier and more relaxed. Although there is no way to know for sure, perhaps this is at least partially a result of improved satisfaction with work-family balance. Regardless of whether this is the case, Peter shows how much of an effect (either positive or negative) someone's job can have on other areas of their life.

Since the 1960's, a great deal of research has investigated how an employee's job can influence other areas of the employee's life (Perry-Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000). It is an important topic to understand, as most people (like Peter) spend quite a bit of their lives working. This is especially true in America, where employees work more hours each week than those in European countries (American Psychological Association, 2004). For example, one quarter of U.S. salaried workers work 60 hours or more each week, while another quarter indicate they work 50-59 hours per week, and only 37% report working 40 hours a week (Saad, 2014). In addition, research conducted in Malaysia found that quality of work life is more strongly related to overall quality of life than is quality of non-work life (Md-Sidin, Sambasivan, & Ismail, 2010). As work can have such a strong effect on other areas of an individual's life, it is essential to further explore the relationship between work and other domains.

Purpose of the Current Study

Although work-family balance is a heavily researched topic, there are still areas in need of further examination. This study strives to answer three main research questions.

- Question 1: Are there differences in satisfaction with work-family balance for blue-collar and white-collar workers?

- Question 2: What is the role of technology in satisfaction with work-family balance (i.e., does technology help or does it cause problems)?

- Question 3: How is an individual's role salience related to satisfaction with work-family balance?

While these research questions address different aspects of the work-life literature, they are related to one another. Whether an employee is a blue-collar or white-collar worker will likely influence how frequently and in which domain (i.e., home or work) technology is utilized

to complete work-related tasks, both during and outside of work hours. For example, in the movie *Office Space* (Riedel & Judge, 1999), when Peter is a white-collar worker, he appears to experience a great deal of frustration with technology while he is in the office, while in the brief portrayal of his time as a blue-collar worker, this does not seem to be the case. It also seems likely that how strongly one identifies with their work or family roles will also be related to technology use. For example, those who have a stronger work identity may use technology differently than those who have a stronger family identity. The results of this study will provide important insights into each of these research questions.

  An area that has been neglected in the work-life literature is work-family balance issues for blue-collar employees. Most of the work-life research has focused on white-collar employees, but it is important to recognize that blue-collar employees also need to address work-family balance. The current study strives to better understand whether there are differences in how blue-collar and white-collar employees manage work-family balance issues and, if there are, to identify those differences. In addition, the study will examine the relationship between technology and satisfaction with work-family balance. It is not yet clear whether technology assists with work-family balance, or if it creates more challenges for employees, or perhaps a combination of the two. Finally, the study will also address how an individual's life role salience influences satisfaction with work-family balance. For example, do employees who value family over work experience satisfaction with work-family balance differently than those employees who prefer to focus on their work over other parts of their lives? All these are important issues that need to be better addressed by the work-life literature.

Work-Life Literature Overview

Researchers have developed a variety of terms to describe the relationship between an employee's home and work lives. Some researchers label this interaction work-life balance, while others call it work-family facilitation, balance, or conflict. Lewis et al. (2003) believe that the term "work-personal life integration" is preferable to "work-life balance," as work is part of life. Although all of these constructs fall under the "work-life" umbrella, there are important differences. Therefore, when describing the findings of past research, each study will be discussed using the term selected by the researcher(s) who conducted that study. For the purposes of this research, "work-family balance," specifically satisfaction with work-family balance, is the main construct of interest.

Regardless of the term used, most researchers agree that employees differ in terms of how much interaction/integration they allow between work and home. Some employees have established strict boundaries between these two domains, reducing the likelihood of integration; in contrast, other employees do not establish such boundaries and are more likely to let these two areas of their life intermingle (Fenner & Renn, 2004).

Models of Work-Life Relationships

Many models have been developed to explain the relationship between an individual's work and home lives. Frone (2003) discusses six models of work-family interaction. Three of the models are non-causal, while the other three models are causal. According to the non-causal models, while work and family may be related to one another, there is not a cause-and-effect relationship between the two. The non-causal models are the segmentation, congruence, and identity models.

The segmentation model theorizes that work and family life are independent of one another; in other words, an employee's work life should have no effect on his/her family life, and vice versa. In the past, some researchers have dismissed the segmentation model, as it seems unlikely that most employees would be able to completely separate their work and home lives from one another (Kanter, 1977). However, more recent research has been conducted based upon this model, indicating it is still relevant to the work-life literature. For example, findings from a recent study indicate that there are two dimensions to segmentation, one in which individuals engage in segmentation to shield their homelife from work interruptions and another in which individuals attempt to shield their worklife from home interruptions (Methot and LePine, 2015). Research conducted by Park, Fritz, and Jex (2011) found that the ability to segment work from other parts of life can help employees recover from the demands of the workplace. According to Ashforth et al. (2000), another benefit of segmentation is that it allows employees to reduce blurring between their work and personal roles; on the other hand, these researchers also hypothesize that one cost of segmentation is that the employee may have difficulty transitioning between their roles.

The congruence model hypothesizes that although there may be a correlation between work and family variables, this is a spurious relationship because both variables share a common source (e.g., an individual's personality) (Frone, 2003). According to Frone, the identity model theorizes that an individual's work and family life are so closely integrated that they cannot be separated, for example, ministers and someone who owns and operates a family business. This is also known as the integrative model.

In contrast to the non-causal models, the causal models of the work-life relationship hypothesize that when an event occurs in one domain, it has a causal relationship with the other

domain. The causal models discussed by Frone (2003) are the resource drain model, the spillover model, and the compensation model.

The resource drain model simply posits that people have limited resources; therefore, the resources that are used for either work or family life reduce the amount of resources available for use in the other domain. According to this model, an employee who has a high-stress job that requires frequent overtime hours would be unable to devote as much energy to their home life, due to the extensive resources required by their job.

The spillover model consists of the idea that when something changes in one domain, it leads to a corresponding change in the other domain. According to this model, behaviors from work carry over into other areas of life, and vice versa (Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1980). For example, an employee's emotions regarding a situation in their home could affect their performance at work (Kanter, 1977). Job spillover can be either positive or negative. Positive spillover occurs when employees have autonomy and find meaning in their work, and those qualities have a positive effect on other aspects of their lives, or vice versa (Pleck, Staines, & Long, 1978, as cited in Nieva, 1984). For example, workers who experience positive job spillover have good physical and mental health, as well as high levels of well-being (Grzywacz, 2000). In contrast, spillover is negative when fatigue, frustration, or anxiety caused by work experiences carry over into other areas of an employee's life (Pleck, Staines, & Long, 1978, as cited in Nieva, 1984). Negative spillover can also occur when difficult events in an employee's home environment affect his/her work performance.

According to the compensation model, when something negative occurs in one area of life, this leads to less energy being devoted to that area; the energy that was being used in that area is now available for use in the other domain. For example, if the employee has issues at

home, he or she may choose to concentrate more on their job, in an effort to have a positive experience at work to offset the negative experience at home (Morris & Madsen, 2007).

The spillover and compensation models of work/non-work interactions are not proposed to be mutually exclusive (Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1980). Thus, it is possible that a worker could experience both spillover and compensation as a result of events at work or at home. Spillover and compensation can both be either negative or positive and can affect both home and work experiences.

A more recent theory of work-family balance is called work/family border theory (Clark, 2000). Clark developed this theory to provide researchers with a framework for predicting when work-family conflict may occur, as well as to better explain the interactions between family and work. Border theory consists of the idea that individuals cross the border between work and family on a daily basis. Several factors (strength of the border between the domains, characteristics of the border crossers, and characteristics of other domain members) determine how easily individuals are able to move between and balance the worlds of work and family.

Boundary theory is similar to work/family border theory, except it is not limited to the work and family domains (Desrochers, Hilton, & Larwood, 2005). Border theory and boundary theory both propose that boundaries between work and other domains vary in permeability and flexibility (Bulger, Matthews, & Hoffman, 2007). According to these researchers, a boundary is permeable if aspects of one domain are found in the other (e.g., work-to-non-work interruptions) and it is flexible if an individual is easily able to relax the boundary between domains. Matthews and Barnes-Farrell (2010) further break down flexibility into two components: an individual's willingness to be flexible and their ability to be flexible. This makes sense, as an individual may prefer to be flexible in terms of crossing the border between work and other parts of their life,

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but characteristics of either work or another life domain may prevent them from doing so (e.g., a person who has a job that will not allow them to check personal email or phone messages while at work).

Both border and boundary theory claim that keeping work and family separate makes it easier for employees to manage the borders between the two domains, while integrating work and family makes it easier to transition between them. According to these theories, either approach (i.e., managing borders or integrating the domains) is believed to be positively related to the well-being of employees, as there are benefits to both (Baltes, Clark, & Chakrabarti, 2010).

Kossek, Ruderman, Braddy, & Hannum (2012) believe that there are three important components to how individuals manage the boundaries between work and non-work. The first component is cross-role interruption behaviors, defined as "the degree to which individuals allow interruptions from one role to another." According to Kossek et al., individuals develop their own preferred approach for managing the boundaries between work and non-work by segmenting or integrating the two domains. Those who prefer segmentation establish inflexible boundaries and allow few cross-role interruptions, while those who prefer an integrated approach have more flexible boundaries with more frequent cross-role interruptions. Kossek et al. also examine the symmetry of cross-role interruptions, as some individuals allow cross-role interruptions equally in both work and non-work, while others allow work or non-work to interrupt the other domain frequently (but not vice versa). For example, a person may answer work-related emails or phone calls while at home, but ignore personal emails or phone calls while he or she is at work.

The second component is centrality of work and family identities, also known as life role salience. An individual's work identity refers to how strongly they identify themselves with their occupation, while their family identity reflects how strongly they identify with a family role, such as being a spouse or a sibling. If a person values work or their career over their family, they are considered work-centric; if someone values family over work, they are considered family-centric. Some individuals perceive their work and their family to be equally important and are considered dual-centric. Role salience will be discussed in greater detail later in this paper.

The third component of boundary management is perceived boundary control. According to Kossek et al. (2012), this is defined as the "psychological interpretations of perceived control over one's boundary environment." Individuals who have high perceived boundary control feel they are able to determine when, how often, and in what direction boundary crossings occur. This is an important aspect to boundary management because if a person lacks this control (or feels as if they lack it), they will likely be unable to use their preferred approach to manage their boundaries. Findings from a recent qualitative study indicate that men are more likely to employ their preferred boundary management approach than are women (Ammons, 2013), so there may be gender differences for this variable. Kossek et al. found that compared to those with low perceived boundary control, individuals who are high on perceived control tend to have more positive work-family outcomes and fewer negative outcomes.

Using cluster analysis, Kossek et al. (2012) identified six different profiles of how individuals handle the boundaries between work and other areas of life. Rather than simply labeling individuals as using a segmented or integrated approach to boundary management, the profiles differ based upon the following factors: non-work-interrupting-work, work-interrupting-non-work, boundary control, work identify, and family identity. Kossek et al. feel this person-

centered approach enables a better understanding of work-life interactions and their underlying patterns.

Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Satisfaction with work-family balance is a relatively new theoretical construct. According to Valcour (2007), this construct is comprised of both a cognitive (an individual's assessment of how well they fulfill both family and work demands) and affective (positive feeling based upon their assessment) component. Satisfaction with work-family balance is the result of an "individuals' assessment that they have adequate resources to effectively respond to the demands of their work and family roles" (p. 1513). This construct differs from other work-life constructs in that it is not focused on conflict between the work and family domains, does not include cross-domain transfer processes such as job spillover, does not have directional implications (i.e., satisfaction with work-family balance is not broken down into "work-to-family balance" or "family-to-work balance"), and is a "holistic construct" (p. 1514), meaning that it is not multidimensional.

Research conducted by Valcour (2007) revealed a significant and negative relationship between hours worked and satisfaction with work-family balance. In addition, a significant and positive relationship was found between satisfaction with work-family balance and job complexity. Valcour believes this relationship occurs because individuals with more complicated jobs generally possess more skills and psychological resources for successfully managing work and family demands compared to those with less complicated jobs.

Valcour (2007) also found that control over work time was positively related to satisfaction with work-family balance. Furthermore, it was discovered that control over work time moderated the relationship between hours worked and satisfaction with work-family

balance, such that satisfaction with work-family balance decreased for workers with low control over work time, but no significant relationship was found for employees with high control over work time.

The Relationship between Work and Other Areas of Life

According to Small and Riley (1990), work can affect an employee's home life in three ways. First is the amount of time that the employee must spend away from home. Second is the amount of psychological absorption required for the job. If the employee is constantly thinking about work when they are at home, then they probably have fewer psychological resources to offer their family members. Third is how much energy the employee has after work to participate in non-work activities. In addition, Small and Riley believe there are specific contexts that can be affected by job spillover. These are marital relationships, parent-child relationships, leisure activities, and household chores.

Interest in studying how workers balance work and family life has increased as the number of dual-income families has grown (Nieva, 1984). According to a 2014 report from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 53% of married couples had both partners participating in the workforce. This is an increase of nine percentage points from 1967. A recent study found that perceived time pressure (e.g., feeling lack of time hinders ability to sleep or recover from illness) is significantly higher for dual-income couples when compared with households with one-and-a-half earners (Wotschack, Glebbeek, & Wittek, 2014). Now that many families have both partners working, it is harder than ever to effectively manage both work and family life.

Issues such as childcare, time for family, and opportunities for career advancement can often cause problems for workers. Being able to find the balance between work and home life can be stressful for families. This can be especially demanding for low-wage employees, as they

are often unable to afford childcare (APA, 2004). For middle-aged employees, taking care of

elderly parents can also make balancing work and family difficult (Dilworth & Kingsbury,

2005).

Employees must figure out how to balance family time and career goals (Hertz, 1999).

Although it might be easy to suggest that employees simply reduce the number of hours they

work, this can be quite challenging, as employees who do not choose to stay late and put in extra

hours are often overlooked by organizations. According to Gephart (2002), leaders often assume

that their organization's success is linked to the number of hours their employees work. Thus,

such leaders believe that the more hours employees work each week, the more successful the

organization will be.

Perhaps this belief is one reason why senior management tends to notice those employees

who are putting in longer hours and either overlook or put down those who choose not to do so.

They may perceive employees who work longer hours as being more valuable to the organization

than those who work fewer hours. This may result in people who put their families ahead of their

careers being passed over for promotions. This has traditionally been viewed as a bigger

problem for women than men, as women have often been expected to fulfill the dual roles of

working and taking care of household responsibilities (Hundley, 2001; Maume & Houston,

2001). There is some evidence that this expectation is changing, as men and women now seem

to be working similar amounts of combined paid and unpaid work (Konigsberg, 2011). However,

according to Konigsberg, this does not mean that men and women are spending equal amounts of

time on domestic responsibilities. Rather, men tend to work longer hours at their jobs than do

women, but are also taking on greater domestic responsibilities than men have in the past.

Findings from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that 64.7% of women with children under the age of six participate in the workforce, while 74.8% of women with children between ages six and seventeen do so. Women are more likely than men to be the main caretakers of children and elderly family members (Dilworth, 2004). Balancing care-giving responsibilities and work can be tricky. This can lead to stress and other physical issues, such as drowsiness, which could be detrimental to work performance (Lee, 1997). These are certainly problems that could negatively affect both the employee and the organization for which he or she works.

Work Schedules & Overtime

An employee's work schedule is related to their ability to balance work and other areas of life. Due to technology and the need to provide around-the-clock customer service, more employees are working non-standard work schedules than ever before (Messenger, 2006). Presser (2004) reported that couples with one member working non-standard hours typically have increased levels of marital satisfaction when compared to couples where both partners worked regular hours. However, employees who work the night shift often experience a variety of problems, including sleep issues, fatigue, digestive problems, and difficulty participating in social activities due to their work schedule (Wilson, Polzer-Debruyne, Chen, & Fernandes, 2007). These issues do not just affect the night shift employee, but can also have a negative effect on the individual's family members.

Importance of Work-Life Balance

Work-life balance should be a topic of interest to organizations for several reasons. First, it is related to employee well-being, as employees who have good work-life balance have higher levels of well-being (Jang, 2009). Work-family conflict also has a strong relationship to quality

of work-life (Md-Sidin, Sambasivan, & Ismail, 2010). According to Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992), when an employee's responsibilities with one role often interfere with another role, the quality of life related to the second role may be reduced. Research by Judge, Ilies, and Scott (2006) found that work-family conflict is related to feelings of guilt and hostility at work, while those who experience family-work conflict are more likely to have feelings of guilt and hostility at home. In turn, work-family conflict was related to lower marital satisfaction, with this relationship being mediated by feelings of guilt and hostility. Previous research has established that employees who are experiencing negative emotions may also "infect" other individuals (e.g., customers or co-workers) with their emotional state (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994, as cited in Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 2006). Thus, it could be beneficial to organizations to reduce the negative emotions experienced by their employees, to the extent possible.

Second, research has shown that a lack of work-life balance can have harmful health effects on employees. There is a significant and positive link between both job and family distress and depression (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Negative job spillover causes stress for employees, which is detrimental to their health (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). Both family-work and work-family conflict are significantly associated with psychological strain (O'Driscoll, Poelmans, Spector, Kalliath, Allen, Cooper, & Sanchez, 2003). While threats to the physical health of employees are an issue of concern, stress is also related to other negative outcomes, such as job burnout, low job performance, and cynicism (APA, 2004). In addition, stress can lead to increases in accidents, fatigue, and addiction (Lautsch & Scully, 2007).

Research by Frone (2008) revealed that work stress is related to employee substance abuse, both at home and at work. This obviously has important implications for factors such as workplace safety and productivity. Frone's study also showed that employees were more likely

to use illegal drugs at work, rather than consume alcohol while on the job. Frone hypothesized that this might occur because alcohol consumption is easier to detect. Although employees may not be likely to drink at work, this does not mean they are not drinking heavily outside of work. Work-to-family conflict significantly predicted employee alcohol use in a study of Chinese workers by Wang, Liu, Zhan, & Shi (2010). According to research conducted in the Netherlands, employees who drink excessively are more likely to have health problems and accidents that will cause them to be absent from work (Vasse, Nijhuis, & Kok, 1998). Research by Lautsch and Scully (2000) found that employees reported using cocaine to stay alert on the job, which in turn caused them to seek even longer hours so they could afford to pay for the cocaine.

A study by Frone (2000) found that work-family conflict is related to negative psychological outcomes, such as mood, anxiety, and substance dependence disorders. According to Frone, the work-family literature shows that conflict between work and family (whether from work to family or family to work) is positively related to poor employee health. This effect occurs for both men and women.

Another reason that organizations should learn more about work-family balance is because it is related to important variables such as innovation, safety, organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction. James (2014) found work-life balance initiatives that reduce work-life conflict are related to improved innovation and learning processes, which are important contributors to organizational success. Research by Cullen and Hammer (2007) found that employees with higher levels of family-to-work conflict were less likely to comply with safety requirements at work. Burnout is another variable that has consistently been related to work-family conflict (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). Employees who are burned out contribute less to

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the organizations they work for, so this should be an area of concern for employers. A relationship has also been found between organizational commitment and work-family conflict. When employees experience work-family conflict, they are more likely to have lower levels of organizational commitment (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). Similarly, Dinger, Thatcher, & Stepina (2010) found that employees with higher levels of work-family conflict were less attached to the organization for which they worked.

Work-life issues also influence employee job satisfaction. For example, Bruck, Allen, & Spector (2002) found that work-family conflict was negatively related to job satisfaction. A recent study found that on days when employees experience high job satisfaction, they also tend to experience higher positive affect at home than they do on days when they have low job satisfaction (Illies, Schwind, Wilson, & Wagner, 2009). The effect is stronger for employees who have more closely integrated their work and family roles. Results also indicate that others (e.g., the employee's family members) can observe the affective results of job satisfaction at home. In addition, research by Parasuraman and Simmers (2001) revealed that work-family conflict was negatively related to job satisfaction, whether the employee was self-employed or organizationally employed. This means that as work-family conflict increases, job satisfaction decreases. Adams, King, and King (1996) also found that when an employee's work interferes with family life, the employee experiences lower job satisfaction, as well as decreased life satisfaction. No relationship was found between family-work interference and job satisfaction.

Other research found that lower negative job-to-home spillover is associated with higher job satisfaction (Hundley, 2001). Higher job satisfaction is in turn significantly related to improvements in overall life satisfaction (Adams, King, and King, 1996; Warr, 1999). Judge and Watanabe (1993) found that job and life satisfaction influence one another, with life satisfaction

having more of an effect on job satisfaction, rather than the other way around. This research makes it clear that job satisfaction and life satisfaction are intertwined.

According to Mennino et al. (2005), organizations are requiring more and more of their employees, while simultaneously providing them with less stability in terms of financial rewards and job security. Not surprisingly, this type of treatment results in more stress for employees, lower organizational commitment, and higher turnover. It seems unlikely that these consequences would be beneficial to either the organization or the employee. In addition, there is evidence to support the conclusion that reducing employees' working hours to a reasonable number (e.g., less than 48 hours a week) is related to increases in hourly productivity (Messenger, 2006). It is hypothesized that this occurs because employees who do not work excessive hours are less fatigued and have higher morale and improved attitudes. The APA (2004) recommends that organizations provide employees with access to family-friendly policies, such as telecommuting and job sharing. In turn, this should provide the organizations with employees who have higher levels of productivity and commitment to the organization. In addition, providing work-life balance options such as flexible work hours may be an important competitive advantage for organizations, as more and more employees are coming to view these options as necessities rather than a job perk (Galea, Houkes, & De Rijk, 2014). Therefore, organizations who do not offer their employees such flexibility may not be attracting or retaining the best applicants.

McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda (2014) indicate that organizations need to go beyond simply reducing work-family conflict and focus on initiatives that would improve work-family enrichment. Their research demonstrates that increased work-family enrichment is related to increased job satisfaction and higher affective commitment to the organization. Other research

findings support that teaching employees to utilize mindfulness techniques to segment work from other parts of life can reduce work-family conflict, increase an employee's ability to psychologically detach from work, and increase satisfaction with work-family balance (Michel, Bosch, and Rexroth, 2014).

Organizational Culture, Policies, and Work-Life Balance

Some organizations are more supportive of family than others. According to Lapierre et al. (2008), such organizations have cultures that do not require employees to put work before their families in order to have successful careers. Employees at organizations that are supportive of family are more likely to successfully balance their work and home lives. Lapierre and Allen (2006) found that family-supportive supervision was related to reduced time-based and strain-based work-family interference. This finding indicates that it may be a good idea for organizations to train supervisors on how to support their employees' family commitments. Another study conducted in New Zealand by O'Driscoll et al. (2003) revealed that, of employees with high levels of work-family interference, those with the most-supportive supervisors experienced less psychological strain than those with less-supportive supervisors. It is also believed that by offering family-friendly policies, organizations send a message to employees that they are concerned about their well-being and that of their families (Cook, 2009).

McCarthy, Darcy, & Grady (2010) suggest that employers could provide work-life balance support in the form of time-management training, stress-management training, and childcare. These types of support could be helpful for all employees, regardless of the type of work they do.

Haddock, Zimmerman, Ziemba, and Lyness (2006) found that research participants reported seven dominant themes of how workplaces supported them in balancing their work and

family lives. The themes were: flexible scheduling, non-traditional schedules, autonomy, working at home, supportive supervisors, strong boundaries between work and home, and organizational policies that reflect the need for such boundaries. Their research findings indicated that flexible scheduling was the most important tool that participants used to balance work and home. It is possible that this is because it is one of the more common tools provided by organizations. Participants also reported seeking jobs that allowed them to have such flexibility. Organizations with flexible schedules are better able to recruit and retain well-qualified employees, reduce absenteeism, and increase productivity (APA, 2004). Thus, allowing employees to have more flexibility in their schedules is potentially an effective way for organizations to improve the work-life balance of their employees, as well as to improve the organization's recruiting efforts.

Frone (2000) also found that employees who work for organizations with family-friendly cultures that allow employees to handle family issues during the day experience significantly reduced negative job-to-home spillover. It is important to note that it is not enough for organizations to have family-friendly policies; rather, employees must also know that it is acceptable to utilize such policies. In other words, the organization's culture must support the use of such policies. If employees believe they will be penalized in some way for taking advantage of family-friendly policies, they will more than likely choose not to use the policies. Lee, Reissing, and Dobson (2009) suggest that in some organizations employees who do choose to take advantage of such policies may be victims of subtle discrimination. In addition, managers may be especially unlikely to use family-friendly policies when they are available (O'Driscoll et al., 2003).

Another factor that will affect how likely an employee is to use a family-friendly policy is how closely the policies offered match the employee's work-life perspective. For example, some employees choose to use a segmented approach to work-life balance and try to keep the work and family domains as separate as possible, while others prefer a more integrated approach. Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas (2005) found that when the policies offered by the organization were incongruent with an employee's desire for segmentation or integration, the employee was less committed to the organization, though when the policies were congruent, the employee was more committed. For example, access to onsite childcare was related to increased job satisfaction for employees who wanted to integrate work and other areas of their life. The opposite effect was found for employees who preferred a segmented approach.

When an employee perceives that their employer is supportive of their family life, they should experience less negative work-to-home job spillover and higher job satisfaction (Grandey, Cordeiro, & Michael, 2007). Grandey et al. found that when employees worked more hours but perceived high levels of family support from their organization, they were less likely to experience work-family conflict than those who worked similar hours but perceived a lower level of support for family life. In other words, the family support provided by the organization appears to act as a buffer against work-family conflict.

Haddock et al. (2006) found that supervisory support was significantly related to employees' success in balancing their work and home lives. Such support could range from covering for an employee when they are absent from work for a family-related reason to providing emotional support, such as helping reduce work-related stress. Jang (2009) studied a dataset from the 2002 National Study of the Changing Workforce, a study of U.S. workers, and found that perceived workplace and supervisory support were both related to work-schedule

flexibility, which was related to work-life balance. In turn, higher levels of work-life balance were related to improved employee well-being. Jang suggests that organizations could potentially enhance the well-being of their employees by offering flexible work schedules and supervisory support.

However, not all researchers agree that this approach reduces work-life conflict. Lewis, Gambles, and Rapoport (2007) argue that work-life balance policies implemented by organizations are merely quick fixes. According to their perspective, such policies do not truly address the employee's issues of work-life balance. This is because there are other cultural (both in the societal and organizational sense) factors that either discourage employees from taking advantage of such policies or result in them working longer hours. These researchers believe that it is important to better understand and address these cultural factors, rather than assuming that having work-life balance policies in place is sufficient.

Another factor that may influence whether employees take advantage of an employer's work-life programs and policies is an employee's cognitive capacity (de Janasz and Behson, 2007). These authors argue that employees with lower cognitive capacity may not be interested in more complex work-life balance solutions, such as job sharing or stress management. In contrast, the authors believe that simpler solutions (e.g., time off) may be appealing to all employees, regardless of cognitive capacity.

Sonnetag and Frese (2003) recommend several approaches for reducing stress at work. One strategy is to simply reduce the number of hours an employee works. However, some employees are reluctant to reduce the hours they work because they believe that working longer hours is a requirement for a successful career (Lautsch & Scully, 2007) or because they are in need of the income. Sonnetag and Frese also suggest that organizations could reduce the amount

of time pressure, task ambiguity, and task difficulty that employees experience. Other suggestions include increasing the amount of control employees have and allowing employees to have greater participation in decision-making. It is important to note that these recommendations may conflict with one another; for example, employees with lower growth need strength may experience more stress if they are given more control or have greater decision-making responsibilities, while employees with higher growth need strength may thrive under such circumstances. Regardless of the approach used, having the support of front-line supervisors is vital to the success of workplace policies. Therefore, McCarthy et al. (2010) suggest involving supervisors in the development of such policies.

General Work-Life Research Trends

Research has revealed that employees tend to experience higher levels of negative job-to-home spillover than negative home-to-job spillover (Mennino et al., 2005; Dilworth & Kingsbury, 2005). Frone (2000) also reports that research has consistently shown that work-to-family conflict is more common than family-to-work conflict. Similarly, a meta-analysis conducted by Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer (2007) found that work stress is more likely to affect the family domain than vice versa. This appears to occur because employees place a greater importance on their job and tend to arrange their family responsibilities around their work responsibilities. Bruck, Allen, & Spector (2002) proposed that this may be a positive finding for organizations that are striving to reduce conflict, as they can focus on reducing the impact an employee's work has on their family, rather than focusing on decreasing the effect an employee's family has on their work.

Blue-Collar & White-Collar Employees

Most of the work-life literature has focused on white-collar employees, with a few exceptions. The term "blue-collar" refers to a variety of positions "that range from entry-level positions that rely heavily on physical exertion to skilled trades jobs that require specialized knowledge, skills, and abilities" (Campbell & Ramos, 2010). According to the U.S. Department of Labor (2004), blue-collar workers are those who "perform work involving repetitive operations with their hands, physical skill, and energy." White-collar jobs generally have higher levels of autonomy, are less physically demanding, and have a smaller risk of accidents compared to blue-collar jobs (Toppinen-Tanner, Kalimo, & Mutanen, 2002). Toppinen-Tanner et al. found that blue-collar employees felt less appreciated than white-collar employees, a factor that could be related to job burnout.

The differences in the type of work performed by blue-collar and white-collar employees may also mean that employees will have different issues with work-life balance depending on the type of work they perform. For example, blue-collar workers tend to have more rigid and inflexible work schedules than white-collar employees. This could reduce the amount of boundary control that Kossek et al. (2012) believe to be so important for managing the boundary between work and other areas of life. According to Matos and Galinsky (2011), professionals are more likely than non-professional employees to be able to work compressed or flexible schedules. Väänänen et al. (2008) believe this may mean that blue-collar employees have more difficulty managing work-family conflict than white-collar employees, leading to higher levels of sickness and absenteeism for blue-collar employees.

In addition, a greater number of formal organizational policies tend to be focused on helping white-collar employees balance work and other areas of life, while fewer programs are targeted to blue-collar employees. A study by Haas and Hwang (2009) found that only 34% of

companies had programs encouraging blue-collar fathers to take parental leave, while 48% of companies had such programs for white-collar fathers.

Väänänen et al. (2008) found there was a significant positive relationship between negative job spillover and sickness absence for blue-collar employees, but no such significant relationship for white-collar employees. The same study found that blue-collar employees reported having more domestic responsibilities than white-collar employees, while white-collar employees indicated higher levels of work-family spillover. Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992) found a positive relationship between job involvement and work-family conflict for white-collar employees, but not for blue-collar employees. They also discovered that work-family conflict was significantly related to family distress for blue-collar employees, but not white-collar employees.

Hypothesis 1: White-collar workers will have higher satisfaction with work-family balance than will blue-collar workers.

Hypothesis 1A: Perceived boundary control will mediate the relationship between employee type (i.e., white-collar or blue-collar) and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that white-collar workers will have higher boundary control, leading to higher satisfaction with work-family balance.

Hypothesis 2: Boundary interruptions (both work-to-non-work and non-work-to-work) will mediate the relationship between perceived boundary control and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that fewer boundary interruptions will lead to higher satisfaction with work-family balance.

Work-Family Balance & Autonomy

Autonomy in the workplace refers to how much freedom and independence the worker has in determining how their job tasks are completed (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). The more independence an employee is given, the more autonomy they have. Employees who experience more autonomy should feel more personally responsible for success or failure (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). It is also believed that autonomy increases employee motivation, because employees with higher levels of autonomy have a greater sense of responsibility for the results of their labor (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). In addition, employees with greater control over work decisions are able to develop coping strategies to reduce the amount of stress they experience at work (APA, 2004).

Although autonomy is generally viewed as a positive job characteristic, Hackman and Oldham (1975) proposed that individuals differ in terms of how much they would like to "obtain growth satisfaction" from their work. This individual difference variable is known as growth need strength, and is believed to moderate the relationship between job characteristics such as autonomy and how motivated employees are to do their work. Employees with lower growth need strength may not be interested in autonomy; therefore, for those who are not interested in having more independence or decision making capabilities, increased autonomy could potentially lead to more negative job spillover, such as stress.

Previous research has shown a relationship between job spillover and autonomy; however, results have been mixed. One study found that employees who telecommuted and had less autonomy experienced less negative spillover than employees with more autonomy (Golden, Veiga, & Simsek, 2006). Although this is opposite of what one might expect, the authors hypothesized that this might occur because employees with less autonomy are likely to have lower job involvement and lower intrinsic motivation. This could lead them to invest the time

and stress saved by telecommuting into reducing work-to-family conflict, while those with more autonomy would invest those resources back into their job instead of their family.

Sitzes (2006) found that employees with more autonomy experienced higher levels of positive job spillover, but did not find a relationship between autonomy and negative job spillover. In contrast, Van Yperen and Hagedoorn (2003) found that employees with higher levels of job autonomy experienced less fatigue (one aspect of negative spillover) than employees with low job autonomy. It would make sense if autonomy and job spillover were related, as workers who have more control over their jobs would probably be able to employ informal work accommodations more easily than employees with less autonomy (Behson, 2002). Further research is needed to better understand this relationship.

If there are differences in satisfaction with work-family balance between white-collar and blue-collar employees, autonomy may be an important factor for understanding these differences, as blue-collar workers will likely have less autonomy than will white-collar workers. *Hypothesis 3:* White-collar workers will have higher levels of autonomy than will blue-collar workers.

Hypothesis 3A: Autonomy will mediate the relationship between employee-type and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that more autonomy will lead to higher satisfaction with work-family balance.

Work-Family Balance & Technology

Work-family balance is influenced by many factors; one such factor is technology. New technologies have changed the way the workplace functions. Many of these changes seem to be beneficial to both organizations and their employees. For example, improved technology has enabled employees to telecommute, which reduces overhead costs for organizations and also

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provides benefits to employees, such as saving time and money commuting to work. New

communication media change the way individuals in organizations communicate with one

another, typically by cutting down on the amount of time between events and their outcomes and

by removing organizational barriers (Gephart, 2002). This means that information flows more

quickly than it did in the past.

In a study conducted in Australia, 41% of employees reported that the Internet had a

positive effect on their ability to balance their work and home lives, while only eight percent

reported the opposite (Wajcman, Rose, Brown, & Bittman, 2010). The employees indicated that

the Internet helped them better participate in family activities. The same study found that the

participants felt the Internet allowed family life to interfere more with work life, rather than

allowing work to interfere with time at home. A different study found that employees who

worked from home responded more positively to scales measuring job motivation, job retention,

career opportunity, and work-life balance than did traditional office workers (Hill, Ferris, &

Martinson, 2003). In addition, these employees were more likely than traditional office workers

to indicate a willingness to put forth extra effort to help the organization succeed. Golden (2006)

found that telework was positively related to organizational commitment and negatively related

to turnover intentions. In a study of Canadian employees, Lapierre and Allen (2006) found that

teleworkers experienced more time-based family interference with work than did non-

teleworkers. This could be a downside for organizations.

Although improved technology is generally viewed positively, it could potentially have

negative consequences for employees. One such example is having access to work email

anywhere, at any time of day. This may sound convenient; however, leaving workplace issues

behind at the office has historically been a challenge for some employees, and the ubiquity of

office email can only make this more difficult. According to Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews (2011), policies such as telework may actually lead to employees becoming workaholics and/or having trouble shutting off their work from their personal lives.

In today's world, technology can make it difficult to avoid bringing work home in other ways. Devices such as cell phones and computers can interrupt an employee outside of work at any time (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). These researchers indicate that employees who have been given a Blackberry or other communication device often feel obligated to check their work email or answer work-related phone calls on their personal time, even when they are on vacation or spending time with family. Fenner and Renn (2004) call this technology-assisted supplemental work (TASW). Although flexibility to conduct work anywhere at any time could potentially be a tool used by employees to balance work and family life, it may also create more pressure for employees to do work outside of work hours (Major, 2006). Based upon the results of a longitudinal study of Blackberry use and work-life balance, Duxbury, Higgins, Smart and Stevenson (2014) hypothesize that employers are likely to discourage their staff from engaging in a segmented approach to work-life balance, as they prefer for employees to be available at all times.

For example, some supervisors may expect employees to use technology to stay connected to work during personal time. This could result in a blurring of the boundaries between work and personal life (Schlosser, 2002). These unclear boundaries can in turn create more stress for employees (Messersmith, 2007). Interestingly, Duxbury et al. (2014) believe that the use of mobile technology more frequently benefits the work domain in comparison to the home domain. This may result in the boundary being more permeable in terms of work-to-home interruptions, rather than home-to-work interruptions. Similarly, Boswell and Olson-Buchanan

(2007) found that the use of communication technologies after work hours was related to increased work-family conflict, from both the employee's perspective, as well as the perspective of the employee's significant other. This relationship was even stronger for managers, when compared to non-supervisory employees.

Boswell and Olson-Buchanan (2007) suggest that managers may have a more difficult time switching between their work and non-work roles because they typically have more ownership and responsibility for getting the work accomplished. In addition, as individuals progress up the career ladder it becomes more likely they will utilize technology outside of work and have difficulty distinguishing between "normal working hours" and extending the workweek (Renn & Fenner, 2004). It is also important to note that managers are generally exempt from wage-and-hour laws, which means that their employers may expect them to work more hours than non-managers. This could also play a role in explaining why managers tend to have more issues with work-life balance.

Working outside regular hours can cause issues in an employee's personal life. An employee's family members may feel neglected or upset if the employee is focused on work when they are at home; on the other hand, the employee may feel concerned about losing their job or missing out on advancement opportunities if they do not do so. Neither outcome is likely to be very positive for the employees or their families. At this time, it is unclear whether employees realize that utilizing communication technologies outside of work hours may be detrimental to their personal lives (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). These researchers hypothesize that employees may be simply trying to address or prevent work-related problems by using communication technologies while at home, without recognizing the link between the use of such technologies and work-family conflict. They also found that

communication technology use outside of work hours was positively related to ambition and job involvement, but not related to affective commitment.

According to Messersmith (2007), when employees utilize technology to accomplish work-related tasks at home, they are at risk of experiencing physical strain and of being emotionally isolated from their non-work relationships, even though they are physically not at work. Thus, although having access to technology can offer workers more flexibility in terms of accomplishing their work, it also has potentially negative physical (e.g., physical strain) and psychological (e.g., feelings of isolation or depression) effects.

Hill, Hawkins, and Miller (1996) found that employees who could work at home believed it had a negative effect on their family relationships because they felt they could never get away from work. Messenger (2006) recommends that employees who are allowed to telecommute be careful to avoid the potential blurring of the borders between work and other areas of their life. Additionally, research by Higgins and Duxbury (2005) found that the majority of the employees surveyed (68%) believed technology had increased the amount of stress they experienced; 70% reported that technology had increased their workload. Both of these factors seem as if they would likely lead to more work-life balance struggles for employees.

Park, Fritz, and Jex (2011) found that employees who believe their co-workers segment their work and home lives are less likely to use technology at home outside of work hours than are those who believe their fellow workers do not have strong boundaries between work and home. Individuals who are less likely to use technology at home are in turn better able to psychologically detach from work when they are at home. Park et al. (2011) suggest it may be beneficial for employees to limit the amount of work-related technology they engage in outside of work hours. Further, the researchers express concern that "bring your own computer"

programs may result in employers expecting their staff to work additional hours when they are at home.

Hypothesis 4: Employees who use technology to complete work outside of work hours will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those who do not use technology to complete work outside of work hours.

Hypothesis 4A: Employees who use technology to complete work outside of work hours will experience higher levels of stress than those who do not use technology to complete work outside of work hours.

Hypothesis 5: Employees with higher perceived boundary control will have higher satisfaction with work-family balance than will those with lower perceived boundary control.

Hypothesis 5A: Perceived boundary control will moderate the relationship between hours worked and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those with lower boundary control who work longer hours will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those with lower boundary control who work fewer hours, with no such relationship being found for those with high boundary control.

Hypothesis 5B: Technology use outside of work hours will mediate the relationship between perceived boundary control and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those who use technology outside of work less frequently will have higher satisfaction with work-family balance.

Life-Role Salience & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

The majority of the work-life literature seems to assume that employees should place a greater value on their homelife than their worklife, and that if given the choice, most employees would choose to spend more time at home with their families than at work. However, is this truly

the case? Reeves (2001) argues that some employees may actually prefer their worklife over their homelife. Thus, according to this perspective, work-life balance may not be something all employees are interested in achieving. Similarly, Kossek et al. (2011) argue that some individuals have stronger work identities and may choose to focus more on their work and less on their family life, while others may have stronger family identities and choose to focus more on their family life. Still others may be equally focused on both work and family. According to this perspective, balance is defined differently based upon each individual's values.

Research by Carlson & Kacmar (2000) further emphasizes the relationship between an employee's values and work-family conflict. Results of their research indicated that employee values do influence work-family conflict, as well as job attitudes. For example, employees who valued family over work tended to have lower job satisfaction when work time demands increased, when compared with those who valued work over family. The research also revealed that employees who valued work over family tended to have higher levels of family to work conflict and lower family satisfaction than those who valued family over work.

Eikhof, Warhurst, & Haunschild (2007) believe that the work-life literature is based on several questionable assumptions—that work is a negative part of life, working many hours is a problem, "life" consists of childcare and other care-giving responsibilities, and finally, that work and life need to be separated. Depending on an employee's values and beliefs, these assumptions may or may not be accurate.

Employees who choose to invest in their work life instead of focusing on other areas of their life are often viewed negatively. Such employees are labeled as being imbalanced or workaholics, rather than being seen as individuals who are satisfied and fulfilled by their careers (Friedman & Lobel, 2003). Bonebright, Clay, & Ankenmann (2000) call these employees

"enthusiastic workaholics." These researchers found that enthusiastic workaholics had significantly more life satisfaction than non-enthusiastic workaholics. Both enthusiastic and non-enthusiastic workaholics had significantly higher levels of work-life conflict than non-workaholics. Eikhof et al. (2007) suggest that many employees work long hours because it provides them with affirmation and other positive benefits, such as increased life satisfaction.

Adams, King, and King (1996) found that employees with higher levels of job involvement reported both higher levels of job satisfaction and higher levels of work-family interference. This supports the idea that when workers place more importance on work (over family), they tend to allow work to interfere with their family lives more than workers who value family over work. Although the increased job involvement is associated with a positive outcome (higher job satisfaction), it is also associated with a negative outcome (work-family interference). Kossek and Ozeiki (1999) also found that employees with higher job involvement tend to experience more work-family conflict.

Hypothesis 6: Life role salience will moderate the relationship between use of technology to complete work outside of work hours and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those with a strong family identity who frequently use technology to complete work outside of work hours will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those with a strong family identity who do not use technology to complete work outside of work hours. No such relationship will be found for work identity.

Hypothesis 7: Life role salience will moderate the relationship between hours worked and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those with a strong family identity who work longer hours will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those with a

strong family identity who work fewer hours. No such relationship will be found for work identity.

Hypothesis 8: Life role salience will moderate the relationship between boundary interruptions and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those with a strong family identity who experience more work to family boundary interruptions will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those with a strong family identity who experience fewer work to family boundary interruptions. No such relationship will be found for work identity.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: White-collar workers will have higher satisfaction with work-family balance than will blue-collar workers.

Hypothesis 1A: Perceived boundary control will mediate the relationship between employee type (i.e., white-collar or blue-collar) and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that white-collar workers will have higher boundary control, leading to higher satisfaction with work-family balance.

Hypothesis 2: Boundary interruptions (both work-to-non-work and non-work-to-work) will mediate the relationship between perceived boundary control and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that fewer boundary interruptions will lead to higher satisfaction with work-family balance.

Hypothesis 3: White-collar workers will have higher levels of autonomy than will blue-collar workers.

Hypothesis 3A: Autonomy will mediate the relationship between employee-type and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that more autonomy will lead to higher satisfaction with work-family balance.

Hypothesis 4: Employees who use technology to complete work outside of work hours will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those who do not use technology to complete work outside of work hours.

Hypothesis 4A: Employees who use technology to complete work outside of work hours will experience higher levels of stress than those who do not use technology to complete work outside of work hours.

Hypothesis 5: Employees with higher perceived boundary control will have higher satisfaction with work-family balance than will those with lower perceived boundary control.

Hypothesis 5A: Perceived boundary control will moderate the relationship between hours worked and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those with lower boundary control who work longer hours will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those with lower boundary control who work fewer hours, with no such relationship being found for those with high boundary control.

Hypothesis 5B: Technology use outside of work hours will mediate the relationship between perceived boundary control and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those who use technology outside of work less frequently will have higher satisfaction with work-family balance.

Hypothesis 6: Life role salience will moderate the relationship between use of technology to complete work outside of work hours and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those with a strong family identity who frequently use technology to complete work outside of work hours will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those with a strong family identity who do not use technology to complete work outside of work hours. No such relationship will be found for work identity.

Hypothesis 7: Life role salience will moderate the relationship between hours worked and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those with a strong family identity who work longer hours will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those with a strong family identity who work fewer hours. No such relationship will be found for work identity.

Hypothesis 8: Life role salience will moderate the relationship between boundary interruptions and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those with a strong family identity who experience more work to family boundary interruptions will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those with a strong family identity who experience fewer work to family boundary interruptions. No such relationship will be found for work identity.

Chapter 2 - Method

Participants

Survey participants were randomly selected and recruited via Qualtrics, an online survey company (http://www.qualtrics.com). Qualtrics provided an incentive to participants for completion of the survey. Participants were told they were invited to complete a survey for research purposes, but in order to avoid self-selection bias, they were not provided with detailed information regarding the survey's content. To ensure that approximately 100 surveys were received from both blue-collar and white-collar employees, response quotas of 105 blue-collar and 105 white-collar participants were set before the survey was distributed.

The survey was sent to 1,259 potential participants. Of those, 225 participants responded before the survey was closed due to the quotas being met; however, only 210 (105 blue-collar and 105 white-collar) responses were considered "good completes" and included in the analyses. Several criteria were used to identify "good completes." First, in order to ensure that participants

were carefully reading the survey items, several quality check items were included (e.g., If you are carefully reading this item, please select "Strongly Agree."). Survey participants who responded incorrectly to these items were sent to the end of the survey and screened out by Qualtrics. Next, survey completion time was considered, with those who completed the survey too quickly (i.e., less than 1/3 of the median completion time) being removed from the sample. Finally, survey response patterns were identified, with those who were "straight lining" through the items being removed from the sample by Qualtrics. After both response quotas had been fulfilled with "good completes," the survey was closed and data collection was stopped.

In terms of demographics, slightly over half of the survey participants were female (55.3%). The sample was not overly diverse in terms of race, as the majority of participants (81.7%) were white, while 8.7% were African American, 4.8% were Hispanic or Latino, and 4.3% were Asian. In terms of age, 1.9% were 70 or older, 39.4% were ages 51-69, 38.9% were 50-35, and 19.7% were 34 or younger. The majority of participants were married or in a domestic partnership (63.0%), 14.9% were divorced, 18.8% were single and had never been married, while a small percentage were widowed (2.4%) or separated (1.0%). Over half of participants (52.9%) indicated they did not have any children living in their home at least three days a week, while 20.2% had one child living in their home, 18.8% had two children in their home, and 8.2% had 3-4 children at home.

Procedure

Participants completed an online survey consisting of 60 items. Blue-collar participants were recruited from manufacturing and related industries, while no industry specification was made for white-collar employees. At the beginning of the survey, participants were asked to self-identify as blue-collar or white-collar, based upon a description of both job types;

participants who believed they did not fit into either category were screened out and removed

from the sample. In addition, participants who generally work less than 30 hours a week were

screened out of the survey.

Primary Measures

The following measures were used to test the hypotheses:

1. The Work-Life Indicator (Kossek et al., 2012) is a 17 item measure that was

   developed to provide more insight into how individuals manage the boundary

   between work and other parts of life. The measure consists of five subscales that

   assess when non-work interrupts work (and vice versa), ability to control boundaries

   between work and non-work, and work/family identity. The Work-Life Indicator uses

   a five-point (strongly disagree-strongly agree) scale. One item was reverse-scored. A

   score was calculated for each sub-scale by averaging the items. Coefficient alpha

   reliabilities for the sub-scales were as follows: work to non-work interruptions (.86),

   non-work to work (.76), work identity (.64), family identity (.90), and boundary

   control (.86).

2. Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance (Valcour, 2007) is a five item measure that

   assesses employees' level of satisfaction with work-family balance. This measure

   uses a five point scale. The score for this scale was calculated by averaging responses

   to all of the items. The coefficient alpha reliability for this scale was .94.

3. The Stress in General Scale (Bowling Green State University, 2009) is an eight item

   measure that asks participants to indicate whether they find their job stressful by

   answering "yes", "no", or "?" to eight different descriptors (e.g., demanding, calm,

   nerve-racking). A response of "yes" received three points, a "?" received one point,

and a "no" received zero points. An overall score was calculated by adding up the responses for each item. The coefficient alpha reliability for this scale in the current study was .86.

4. A measure based upon a "Use of Technology After Hours" scale developed by Boswell & Olson-Buchanan (2007) was used to assess the frequency with which survey participants used various technologies to perform their job during non-work hours. The measure was on a five point scale (1 = never, 5 = very often, i.e., several times a day) and asked participants how frequently they used three specific technologies: cell phones/Blackberry, e-mail, and laptops/tablets. Other devices included on the original measure, such as PDAs and pagers, were excluded from the measure, as these devices are not commonly used anymore. In order to calculate the score, the frequency with which each individual technology was used was averaged to create an overall index of reported technology use after hours. The coefficient alpha reliability for this scale was .89. An additional item from Boswell & Olson-Buchanan was also included, as participants were asked whether they felt they were "expected" to use communication technologies during non-work hours.

5. The Autonomy Scale of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) was used to determine how much independence and freedom employees have to decide how to perform their job. This three item measure uses a seven-point scale, with one item being reverse-scored. A total score was calculated by averaging scores on the three items. The coefficient alpha reliability for this scale was .78.

Ancillary/Demographic Measures

The following measures were used for exploratory purposes or as demographic variables:

1. The Turnover Intention Scale 6 (TI-6) (Bothma & Roodt, 2013) is a shortened version of the Turnover Intention Scale (Roodt, 2004). The shortened measure consists of six items and assesses an individual's likelihood of leaving their current job. One item were reverse-scored, and a total score was calculated by adding up responses to each item. The coefficient alpha reliability for this scale was .81.

2. The Best Places to Work items is a three item measure that measures job satisfaction. A total score was calculated by averaging responses to each item. The coefficient alpha reliability for this scale was .90.

3. Additional items included gender, age, supervisory status, commute time, telework status, number of hours worked, marital status, and number of children in household.

All measures (both primary and ancillary/demographic) can be found in Appendix A.

Chapter 3 - Results

This part of the paper consists of the following subsections: Data Screening, Descriptive Statistics, Research Question 1 Results, Research Question 2 Results, and Research Question 3 Results. Exploratory and other additional analyses are provided in each subsection as needed.

Data Screening

Prior to data analysis, the data was screened for missing data and outliers. Missing data was not an issue, as participants were required to answer the majority of the items on the survey. Mahalanobis Distance was calculated to identify multivariate outliers. Based upon the results of the analysis, two multivariate outliers were identified and removed from further analyses (Mahalanobis D (11) > 31.26, $p < .001$).

In addition, to determine whether the assumptions of the General Linear Model were met, tests for normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were performed. All measures were within

the acceptable ranges (e.g., skewness and kurtosis were between -1 and +1 for all measures; Box's M test was not significant).

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, coefficient alpha reliabilities, and correlations for all measures are presented in Table 3-1. Satisfaction with work-family balance is significantly correlated with employee type, boundary control, autonomy, family identity, stress, turnover intention, and job satisfaction. Additional correlations pertaining to specific hypotheses will be discussed later in the paper.

Table 3-1: Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), Reliabilities (α), and Correlations

Variable	M	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Employee Type	NA	NA	NA	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2. Sat. w/Work-Fam. Bal.	3.76	.84	.94	-.14*	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
3. Work to Non-Work	2.53	1.03	.86	-.04	-.12	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
4. Non-work to Work	3.03	.89	.76	-.12	.13	.37**	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
5. Boundary Control	4.01	.74	.86	.04	.54**	-.22**	.07	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
6. Autonomy	5.12	1.42	.78	-.20**	.34**	-.004	.17*	.36**	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
7. Tech. Use After Hours	2.67	1.41	.89	-.03	-.03	.60**	.36**	.01	.07	--	--	--	--	--	--
8. Work Identity	3.98	.70	.64	.05	-.01	.27**	.01	.08	.24**	.27**	--	--	--	--	--
9. Family Identity	3.87	.92	.90	.07	.33**	-.04	.04	.39**	.24**	.11	.19**	--	--	--	--
10. Stress	12.17	6.50	.86	.26**	-.49**	.21**	-.07	-.29**	-.42**	.15*	.09	-.06	--	--	--
11. Hours Worked	43.01	15.77	NA	.11	-.04	.36**	.18*	.001	.01	.36**	.15*	.07	.22**	--	--
12. Turnover Intention	15.77	5.41	.81	.19**	-.49**	.15*	.04	-.26**	-.53	.10	-.28**	-.12	.53**	.15*	--
13. Job Satisfaction	3.85	.93	.90	-.07	.56**	-.03	.12	.38**	.44**	.06	.37**	.20**	-.43**	-.05	-.75**

*p < .05

**p < .01

Research Question 1 Results

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

Hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to see which of the independent variables related to the first research question (employee type, work-interrupting-non-work, non-work-interrupting-work, boundary control, and autonomy) best predict satisfaction with work-family balance.

Control Variables

Using a similar approach to Valcour (2007), gender, number of children in the household, hours worked, and length of commute were used as control variables and were included in the first step of the hierarchical regression. Valcour proposed that each of these variables would be related to an individual's resources available for successfully managing the demands of work and other life domains. For example, more children in a household will likely result in more demands on a parent's time, making it challenging to fulfill both work and family requirements. In addition to the variables included by Valcour, marital status was also included as a control variable. Controlling for these variables allows for a clearer understanding of how much unique variance each of the independent variables are contributing to satisfaction with work-family balance.

Regression Results

First, tolerance and the variance inflation factor (VIF) were calculated to determine whether multicollinearity is an issue. Results indicate that multicollinearity does not appear to be a problem, as tolerance exceeded .1 and the VIF was less than 10 for all independent variables. Results for the second step of the model indicate that the variables do significantly predict satisfaction with work-family balance, R^2=.36, R^2_{adj}=.33, $F(5, 184)$ =19.8, p < .001. A summary

of regression coefficients is presented in Table 3-2, which shows that only two of the independent variables (boundary control and autonomy) contributed significantly to the model. As boundary control and autonomy increase, satisfaction with work-family balance also increases.

These results are generally consistent with the zero-order correlations presented above; however, employee type is significantly correlated with satisfaction with work-family balance but is not a significant predictor in the regression. This may mean that employee type is not contributing enough unique variance to the model. In other words, another variable (e.g., autonomy) and employee type are redundant to at least some degree in terms of predicting satisfaction with work-family balance. Work-to-non-work and non-work-to-work interruptions were not significantly correlated with satisfaction with work-family balance, so it is not surprising that these variables do not significantly contribute to the prediction of satisfaction with work-family balance in the regression analysis.

Table 3-2: Regression Coefficients for Research Question 1

Variable	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	-.04	-.04
Marital Status	-.03	-.02
Number of Children	.05	.04
Hours Worked	-.11	-.11
Commute Time	.06	.12
Employee Type		-.11
Work to Non-Work		-.05
Non-work to Work		.08
Boundary Control		.48**
Autonomy		.15*
F	.59	10.33**
df	5, 189	5, 184
R^2	.02	.36
R^2_{adj}	-.01	.33
Change in R^2	.02	.34**

*$p<.05$, ** $p<.001$

Employee Type & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Employee type and satisfaction with work-family balance are significantly negatively correlated (-.14, $p< .05$). Based upon the direction of the correlation, it appears that white-collar workers have higher levels of satisfaction with work-family balance than do blue-collar workers, providing some initial support for Hypothesis 1. However, as previously mentioned, the results of the regression indicate that employee type is not a significant predictor of satisfaction with work-family balance within the context of the other predictors.

Employee Type, Boundary Control, & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Perceived boundary control and employee type do not appear to be related, as their correlation is .04. Hypothesis 1A proposed that perceived boundary control would mediate the

relationship between employee type and satisfaction with work-family balance. To assess this, mediation analyses were conducted using the bootstrap approach described by Hayes & Preacher (2014). Specifically, the MEDIATE macro for SPSS developed by Hayes was used to complete the analyses. The default settings for MEDIATE were used for the current study, which means the macro generated 5,000 bias-corrected percentile bootstrap samples with a 95% confidence interval to test the indirect (or mediation) effects.

Results testing the indirect relationship between employee type, perceived boundary control, and satisfaction with work-family balance indicate that perceived boundary control does not function as a mediator. For perceived boundary control, the 95% confidence intervals established with the bootstrapping approach ranged from -.15 to .09; according to Hayes & Preacher (2014), if the confidence interval includes zero, the indirect effect is not statistically different from zero. Thus, perceived boundary control does not appear to mediate the relationship between these two variables, meaning there is a lack of support for Hypothesis 1A.

MEDIATE also performs a test of homogeneity of regression, which tests for an interaction between employee type and perceived boundary control. According to Hayes (2014), if an interaction is present, the direct and indirect effects of the mediators should not be interpreted. There is no evidence of an interaction, so this is not an issue.

Boundary Control, Boundary Interruptions, & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Perceived boundary control is significantly correlated with work-to-non-work interruptions and satisfaction with work-family balance but is not related to non-work-to-work interruptions, providing some initial support for Hypothesis 2.

It was hypothesized that work-to-non-work interruptions would mediate the relationship between perceived boundary control and satisfaction with work-family balance. MEDIATE was

used to test this proposed indirect relationship. The confidence intervals for these variables also included zero (-.03-.04), indicating that no indirect relationship is present between these variables.

Non-work-to-work interruptions were also proposed to mediate the relationship between boundary control and satisfaction with work-family balance. The confidence interval for these variables again included zero, ranging from -.01 to .05, meaning there is no indirect relationship. Taken together, these findings indicate a lack of support for Hypothesis 2.

Employee Type, Autonomy, & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

As hypothesized, white-collar workers seem to have higher levels of autonomy than do blue-collar workers. The correlation between employee type and autonomy is significant and in the expected direction (-.20, $p<.01$), providing support for Hypothesis 3.

Next, MEDIATE was used to test the hypothesis that autonomy mediates the relationship between employee type and satisfaction with work-family balance. The confidence interval for this analysis did not include zero and ranged from .04-.22, indicating there is an indirect relationship between these variables, offering support for Hypothesis 3A. An omnibus test of the direct effect between employee type and satisfaction with work-family balance was not significant, indicating these variables do not have a strong direct relationship. These findings provide evidence that blue-collar and white-collar workers do differ in the amount of autonomy in their job, which in turn is related to differences in satisfaction with work-family balance. Again, homogeneity of regression results indicate there is no interaction between employee type and autonomy, so the MEDIATE results can be interpreted.

A Note about Multiple Mediators

Multiple variables were proposed to mediate the relationship between employee type and satisfaction with work-family balance. Boone (2012) suggests two different approaches to analyzing multiple mediators in a model: testing each mediator independently and using principle component analysis. For the purposes of testing the hypotheses in the current study, each mediator was treated independently. Future research may need to examine the independence of the mediators more closely.

MEDIATE allows multiple mediators to be tested simultaneously, although each mediator is assumed to not be sequentially related. As perceived boundary control and autonomy were both proposed to mediate the relationship between employee type and satisfaction with work-family balance, these variables were included in the same analysis.

Because multiple mediators were hypothesized between the relationship of employee type and satisfaction with work-family balance, semi-partial correlations were calculated to determine how much of the variance each of the independent variables (employee type, perceived boundary control, and autonomy) uniquely contributed to satisfaction with work-family balance. The semi-partial correlations were as follows: autonomy (.14, $p < .05$), perceived boundary control (.46, $p < .01$), and employee type (-.11, n.s.). These results indicate that boundary control is accounting for the most variance in satisfaction with work-family balance, followed by autonomy. The variance that employee type shares with satisfaction with work-family balance is accounted for by the other variables and is therefore not significant.

Qualitative Analyses for Employee Type

In order to go beyond the quantitative measures and gain more insight into work-family balance, participants were asked to describe their work-family balance in just one word.

Responses to this item are presented in word clouds below, broken down by employee type. The more times a word is mentioned, the larger it appears in the word cloud. Please see Tables B-1 and B-2 in Appendix B for the word frequencies presented by employee type.

Work-Family Balance for Blue-Collar Employees

As the word cloud below illustrates, there is quite a bit of variation in blue-collar participants' perceptions of their work-family balance. The most common word used was "balanced," followed by "challenging," "good," "hard," and "stressful."

Figure 3-1: Word Cloud of Blue-Collar Workers Description of Work-Family Balance

Work-Family Balance for White-Collar Employees

Similarly to blue-collar employees, there is quite a bit of variation in white-collar participants' perceptions of their work-family balance. The most common responses for white-collar employees were positive words: "balanced," "equal," "good," and "perfect." Common negative words include "challenging," "unbalanced," and "complicated." Although some of the

responses are negative, in general white-collar workers appear to be more positive regarding their work-family balance than do blue-collar workers.

Figure 3-2: Word Cloud of White-Collar Workers Description of Work-Family Balance

Additional Analyses Related to Employee Type

Due to the fact that blue-collar workers have been rather neglected in the work-life research, some exploratory analyses were conducted on employee type in an effort to provide possible directions for future research. In terms of demographics, the white-collar sample consisted of a higher proportion of females than males (63.5% female, 36.5% male), while the blue-collar sample consisted of a slightly higher proportion of males than females (47.1% female, 52.9% male). Racial demographics were very similar across employee type, with approximately 82% of both blue-collar and white-collar employees being white. There were some differences in marital status, with a higher proportion of white-collar employees (28.8%) than blue-collar employees (8.7%) indicating they were single and had never been married. A slightly higher proportion of blue-collar employees reported being married or in a domestic

partnership (67.3%) compared to white-collar employees (58.7%). Blue-collar employees were also slightly more likely to indicate they were divorced (19.2%) compared to 10.6% of white-collar employees. Over half of white-collar workers (58.7%) in the sample had no children living in their home at least three days a week, compared with 47.1% of blue-collar staff.

Similar proportions of blue-collar and white-collar staff were supervisors (33.7% and 34.6%, respectively). A slightly higher proportion of white-collar staff report they work first shift (71.2%) compared to 64.4% of blue-collar staff, while 10.6% of blue-collar staff indicate they work second shift, compared to 5.8% of white-collar employees. Just 4.8% of blue-collar employees and 2.9% of white-collar employees indicate they work third shift.

Means and standard deviations were calculated for each measure by employee type. While blue-collar and white-collar participants report similar levels of work-non-work interruptions, white-collar workers report higher levels of non-work-to-work-interruptions, with a mean of 2.14, compared to a mean of 2.92 for blue-collar workers. However, this difference is not statistically different. Please see Table 3-3 for means and standard deviations for other variables.

Table 3-3: Means (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) by Employee Type

Variable	Blue-Collar m	Blue-Collar SD	White-Collar M	White-Collar SD
Work to Non-Work	2.49	1.06	2.57	.99
Non-work to Work	2.92	.89	3.14	.89
Boundary Control	4.04	.79	3.98	.69
Work Identity	4.01	.67	3.94	.73
Family Identity	3.94	.88	3.81	.97
Sat. w/Work-Family Bal.	3.64	.82	3.88	.85
Stress	14.50	7.27	10.30	8.41
Turnover Intention	16.78	5.31	14.76	5.35
Job Satisfaction	3.79	.99	3.92	.86
Tech. Use After Hours	2.63	1.48	2.71	1.34
Autonomy	4.84	1.52	5.40	1.27

Correlation analyses indicate that in addition to being related to autonomy and satisfaction with work-family balance, employee type is significantly correlated with stress (.26, $p<.01$) and turnover intention (.19, $p<.01$) (Please see Table 3-1 for more information). Based upon these results, it seems as if blue-collar workers experience higher levels of stress and are also more likely to report they intend to leave their current job.

In order to understand what effect employee type might have on use of alternative work schedules (e.g., flexible schedules, 9 hour work days, etc.), participants were asked whether they participated in such schedules, and if they did not, why they did not. Nearly one-third of both white-collar (29.8%) and blue-collar (28.8%) participants report utilizing alternative work schedules. More white-collar employees than blue-collar employees indicate they choose not to participate in such schedules, 21.2% and 10.6%, respectively. Nearly equal proportions of white-collar and blue-collar participants report they are not allowed to participate in alternative work schedules (9.6% of white-collar and 10.6% of blue-collar), while half of blue-collar respondents

say their organization does not allow such schedules, compared with 39.4% of white-collar respondents.

Research Question 2 Results

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

Hierarchical multiple regression was utilized to determine which independent variables (work identity, family identity, boundary control, work-to-non-work interruptions, non-work-to-work interruptions, hours worked, technology use outside of work hours, and stress) predict satisfaction with work-family balance. Please note that this regression includes variables included in both the second and third research questions, thus the results described are relevant to both. Specific findings will be presented with each hypothesis, when applicable.

Control Variables

As in the regression conducted for the first research question, gender, marital status, number of children in the household, and length of commute were used as control variables and were included in the first step of the hierarchical regression. Hours worked was not included as a control variable, as it was included in the second step of the regression.

Regression Results

Similarly to the results of the first regression, multicollinearity does not appear to be an issue, as tolerance exceeded .1 and the VIF was less than 10 for all independent variables. Regression results indicate the variables entered in the second step significantly predict satisfaction with work-family balance, R^2=.47, R^2_{adj}=.43, $F(8, 181) = 19.65$, p< .001. The independent variables in the model account for 47.0% of the variance in satisfaction with work-family balance. A summary of regression coefficients is presented in Table 3-4, which shows that only three of the independent variables (boundary control, family identity, and stress)

contributed significantly to the model. Results indicate that higher boundary control results in improved satisfaction with work-family balance. There is also a positive relationship between satisfaction with work-family balance and family identity, as those with a stronger family identity have higher satisfaction with work-family balance. In addition, there is a negative relationship between stress and satisfaction with work-family balance, as those with higher stress experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance.

The regression results are consistent with the zero-order correlations. Boundary control, family identity, and stress are all significantly correlated with satisfaction with work-family balance and also all significantly predict this variable in the regression. All remaining independent variables are not significantly correlated with satisfaction with work-family balance and do not predict it in the regression.

Table 3-4: Regression Coefficients for Research Questions 2 and 3

Variable	*Step 1*	*Step 2*
Gender	-.05	.02
Marital Status	-.02	-.07
Number of Children	.04	.03
Commute Time	.02	.11
Work to Non-Work		.05
Non-work to Work		.07
Boundary Control		.38**
Work Identity		-.05
Family Identity		.18*
Hours Worked		-.06
Technology Use		-.05
Stress		-.38**
F	.24	19.65**
df	4, 189	8, 181
R^2	.01	.47
R^2_{adj}	-.02	.43
Change in R^2	.01	.46**

*p<.01, ** p<.001

Technology Use & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Technology use outside of work hours does not significantly predict satisfaction with work-family balance in the regression analysis and is also not correlated with satisfaction with work-family balance. This means that Hypothesis 4 is not supported.

Technology Use & Stress

A direct relationship between technology use and stress was hypothesized. A significant and positive correlation was found between these variables, providing support for Hypothesis 4A. It appears that individuals who use technology to complete work outside of work hours experience higher levels of stress than those who do not do so.

Boundary Control, Hours Worked, & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Perceived boundary control is significantly and positively correlated with satisfaction with work-family balance (.54, p<.01). In addition, perceived boundary control significantly predicts satisfaction with work-family balance in the hierarchical regression analysis. These results provide support for Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 5A proposes that perceived boundary control will moderate the relationship between hours worked and satisfaction with work-family balance. According to Hayes (2012), moderation (also known as an interaction) occurs when the size or direction of an effect on an outcome variable is dependent upon a third variable. For example, the relationship between number of hours worked and satisfaction with work-family balance is hypothesized to depend upon an individual's perceived boundary control. Those with low boundary control who work longer hours are hypothesized to have lower satisfaction with work-family balance when compared with those who have low boundary control and work fewer hours. Hayes' SPSS macro PROCESS was used to test this hypothesis.

Similarly to MEDIATE, PROCESS utilizes a bootstrapping approach, consisting of 5,000 bootstrap samples with a 95% confidence interval. However, instead of testing for mediation, in PROCESS, the relationship between the independent variable and the proposed moderator variable is tested.

Results for Hypothesis 5A indicate that boundary control moderates the relationship between hours worked and satisfaction with work-family balance, with the confidence interval ranging from .03-.34. For employees with high boundary control, the number of hours worked has no effect on satisfaction with work-family balance, while for those with low boundary control, satisfaction with work-family balance decreases as hours worked increases, thus supporting Hypothesis 5A. See Figure 3-3.

Figure 3-3: Interaction between Boundary Control & Hours Worked
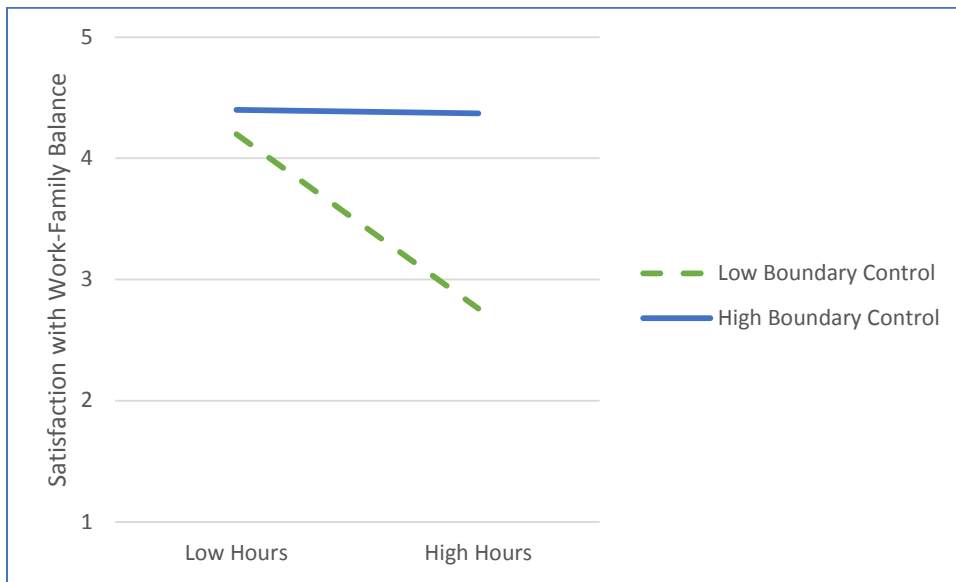
Technology Use, Boundary Control, & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Technology use to complete work outside of work hours was hypothesized to mediate the relationship between perceived boundary control and satisfaction with work-family balance. MEDIATE was used to conduct this analysis, and no significant indirect relationship was found between these variables, as the confidence interval included zero, ranging from -.02-.01. Hypothesis 5B was not supported.

Additional Analyses Related to Technology Use

One of the main questions this study intended to address was whether technology use helps or hinders satisfaction with work-family balance. E-mail was the most common technology used to complete work outside of work hours, with 24.5% of participants indicating they used it very often; a cell phone or Blackberry was the second most common (19.7%), followed closely by a laptop or tablet (17.8%). There was a significant and positive relationship between technology use outside of work hours and both work-to-non-work and non-work-to-work interruptions. In addition, when survey participants were asked if they felt they were expected to

use communication technologies (e.g., e-mail, Blackberry, laptop) to complete work during non-work hours, 45.2% strongly agreed or agreed. This appears to more of an issue for supervisors versus non-supervisors, as 69.0% of supervisors strongly agreed or agreed they were expected to use communication technologies outside of work hours, compared with 32.9% of non-supervisors. This finding was consistent regardless of employee type, as similar proportions of white-collar and blue-collar supervisors strongly agreed or agreed they felt expected to use communication technologies to complete work outside of work hours (68.5% and 69.4%, respectively).

Although there were no specific hypotheses related to telework, it does have a relationship with satisfaction with work-family balance. Individuals who telework infrequently or choose not to telework have the highest satisfaction with work-family balance compared to those who are not allowed to telework or who telework more frequently. A one-way ANOVA indicates these differences are statistically significant ($F(16, 191) = 2.89$, p< .01).

Research Question 3 Results

Life Role Salience, Technology Use, & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Correlation results indicate while there is a significant and positive relationship between family identity and satisfaction with work-family balance, no such relationship exists between work identity and satisfaction with work-family balance. This is further supported by the results of the hierarchical regression analysis, which shows that while family identity significantly predicts satisfaction with work-family balance, work identity does not. Please see Table 3-4.

Family identity was hypothesized to moderate the relationship between technology use to complete work outside of work hours and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those with a strong family identity who frequently use technology to complete work outside of work

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hours will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those with a strong family identity who use technology to complete work outside of work hours.

PROCESS was used to analyze this relationship. Results indicate that family identity does function as a moderator for satisfaction with work-family balance and technology use to complete work outside of work hours, as the confidence intervals established with the bootstrapping approach do not include zero (.09-.35) (see Figure 3-4). Although there is a significant interaction between family identity and technology use, it is in the opposite direction of what Hypothesis 6 stated, as those individuals with a strong family identity actually seem to experience increased satisfaction with work-family balance as their use of technology to complete work outside of work hours increases. For those with a weaker family identity, satisfaction with work-family balance decreases as technology use to complete work outside of work hours increases. Thus, while an interaction is present, Hypothesis 6 is not supported.

Figure 3-4: Interaction between Family ID & Technology Use
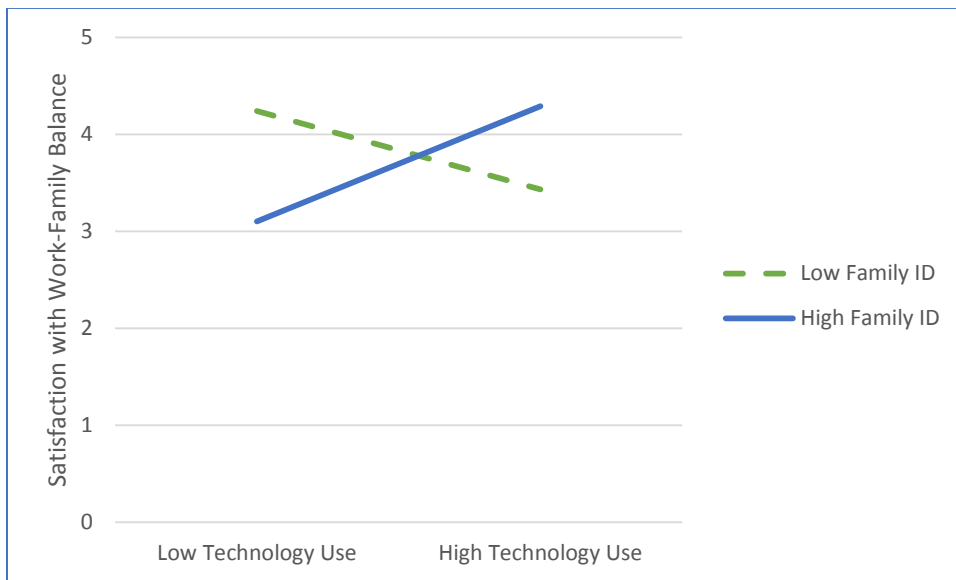
Life Role Salience, Hours Worked, & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Hypothesis 7 proposed that life role salience would moderate the relationship between hours worked and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those with a strong family identity who work longer hours will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those with a strong family identity who work fewer hours.

PROCESS results support this hypothesis, as the confidence interval for this interaction does not include zero (.09-.32) (see Figure 3-5). For those with a stronger family identity, satisfaction with work-family balance only changes slightly based upon hours worked, while for those with a weaker family identity, there is a decline in satisfaction with work-family balance as hours worked increases. Again, this relationship is opposite of what was hypothesized, so while an interaction is present, Hypothesis 7 is not supported.

Figure 3-5: Interaction between Family ID & Hours Worked
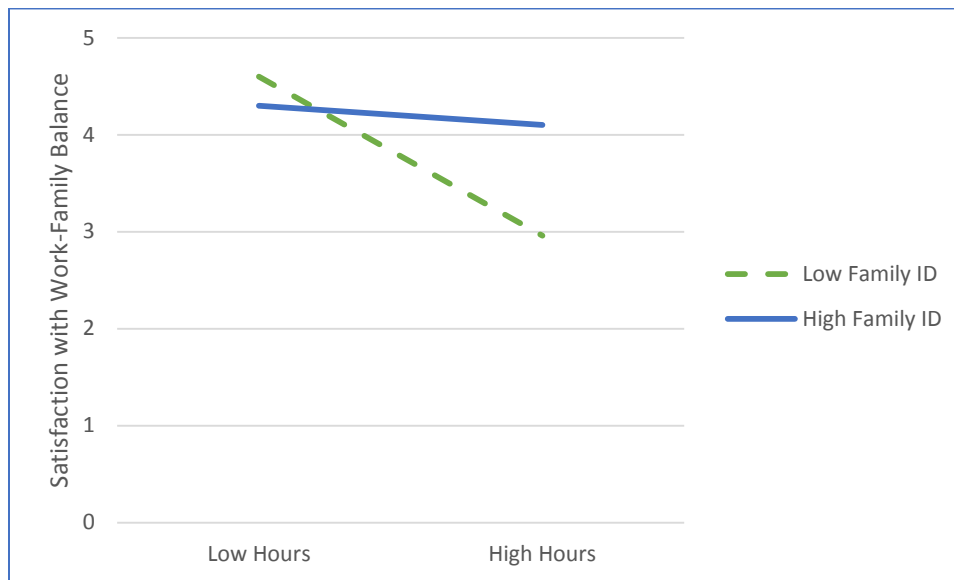
Life Role Salience, Boundary Interruptions, & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Finally, it was hypothesized that life role salience would moderate the relationship between boundary interruptions and satisfaction with work-family balance, such that those with a

strong family identity who experience more work-to-non-work boundary interruptions will experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance than those with a strong family identity who experience fewer work-to-non-work boundary interruptions.

PROCESS results indicate that the relationship between work-to-non-work interruptions and satisfaction with work-family balance is moderated by family identity, with a confidence interval ranging from .09 to .33 (see Figure 3-6). However, contrary to what was hypothesized, satisfaction with work-family balance seems to remain fairly stable for those with a strong family identity, regardless of work-to-non-work interruptions, while satisfaction with work-family balance declines quite a bit for those with a low family identity when they experience more work-to-non-work interruptions. Therefore, although an interaction is present, Hypothesis 8 is not supported.

Figure 3-6: Interaction between Family ID and Work-to-Non-Work Interruptions
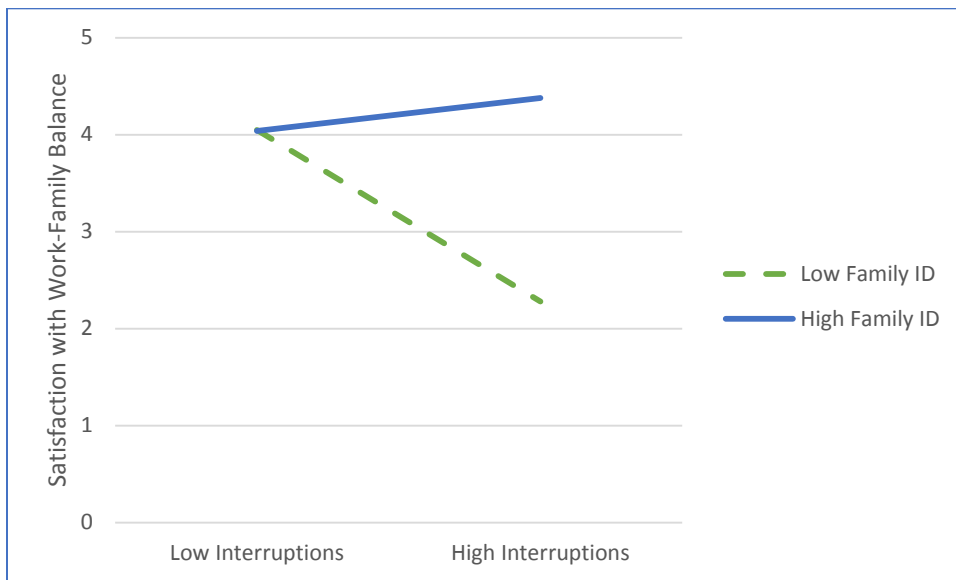
Chapter 4 - Discussion

The current study focused on answering three major research questions related to satisfaction with work-family balance. The first question asked whether there are differences in

satisfaction with work-family balance for blue-collar and white-collar workers, and in general, the answer to this question appears to be "yes." The second question asked whether technology assists or hinders with satisfaction with work-family balance. The answer to this question is not quite as straightforward and may be that it does both. The third question asks how an individual's life role salience is related to satisfaction with work-family balance. In general, results of the study make it clear that while this is an important variable in terms of satisfaction with work-family balance, the results were not in the hypothesized direction. The answers to each research question will be discussed more in-depth in the following sections.

Discussion of Question 1: Employee Type & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

It was hypothesized that white-collar workers would have higher satisfaction with work-family balance; while there was some support for this hypothesis, it was mostly as an indirect relationship. In other words, there seems to be another mechanism (or mechanisms) responsible for the relationship between these two variables. Based upon the current results, autonomy mediates the relationship (while boundary control does not).

Results demonstrate that white-collar staff have higher levels of autonomy; previous research has shown that employees with more control over work decisions are able to more effectively utilize informal work accommodations compared to those with less autonomy (Behson, 2002) and also are able to develop coping strategies to reduce the amount of stress experienced at work (APA, 2004). Both of these factors could at least partially explain the important role autonomy plays in satisfaction with work-family balance. These results also fit well with work/family border theory, which states that central participants in a domain are given

more power to make choices, which in turn allows them to more easily balance work and home demands (Clark, 2000).

Boundary interruptions were hypothesized to mediate the relationship between perceived boundary control and satisfaction with work-family balance. This relationship was not found; however, a strong and positive direct relationship was found between boundary control and satisfaction with work-family balance. According to Kossek et al. (2012), boundary control is very important to effective boundary management and is related to positive work-family outcomes.

Exploratory analyses indicate that employee type is significantly related to stress and turnover intention, in that blue-collar staff appear to experience higher levels of stress and are also more likely to report they intend to leave their current job. As previously mentioned, higher levels of autonomy may lead to reduced stress (APA, 2004). This may explain why blue-collar employees report higher levels of stress.

The use of alternative work schedules (e.g., flexible schedules, 9 hour work days, etc.) was also examined, with somewhat surprising results. Almost a third of both white-collar and blue-collar participants report they are able to participate in alternative work schedules. This contrasts with previous research that has found white-collar staff are more likely to be able to work compressed or flexible schedules than are blue-collar staff (Matos & Galinksy, 2011). It is believed that white-collar employees find it easier to manage work-family conflict because they have access to such schedules (Väänänen et al, 2008). The results of the current study indicate that nearly equal proportions of white-collar and blue-collar staff are able to utilize alternative schedules. Perhaps this is an option that more organizations are extending to their blue-collar workers than was offered in the past, although results of the current study do indicate that a

higher rate of blue-collar staff than white-collar staff report their organizations do not allow such schedules.

Discussion of Question 2: Technology Use & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

It was hypothesized that using technology to complete work outside of work hours would mediate the relationship between perceived boundary control and satisfaction with work-family balance. This hypothesis was not supported; in fact, the only direct relationship between the three variables was between perceived boundary control and satisfaction with work-family balance. Technology use to complete work outside of work hours does not seem to be related to satisfaction with work-family balance nor perceived boundary control.

It is possible that these results are an outcome of the way the constructs of satisfaction with work-family balance and perceived boundary control are defined. For example, satisfaction with work-family balance is simply an individual's assessment of how well they feel they are able to fulfill both work and family roles and does not focus on the amount of conflict between the two domains (Valcour, 2007). Therefore, whether an employee uses technology to complete work outside of work hours or does not use technology in this way may not predict their satisfaction with work-family balance, as technology use to complete work outside of work hours may be more strongly related to a measure of work-family conflict or job spillover. It is more important that an individual is satisfied with how they are able to balance the two domains. Similarly, the boundary control measure assesses how much control an individual has over the boundaries between their work and personal lives, not how much work they perform outside of work hours. Someone who feels they control their boundaries may still choose to use technology

to complete work outside of work hours, while someone else with high boundary control may make the opposite decision.

It was also hypothesized that technology use to complete work outside of work hours would be positively related to stress. This relationship was supported, such that those who reported higher use of technology to complete work outside of work hours also reported higher levels of stress. According to Schlosser (2002), using technology to stay connected to work during personal time may result in a blurring of the boundaries between work and personal life. Results of the current study indicate technology use outside of work hours is significantly related to both work-to-non-work interruptions and non-work-to-work interruptions, perhaps supporting this idea of blurred boundaries. Duxbury et al. (2014) propose that in order to use technology and successfully manage the boundary between work and other life domains, an employee must possess self-control and develop a strategy in advance to determine how and in what situations they will utilize the technology. Blurred boundaries can lead to more stress for employees (Messersmith, 2007). Research by Higgins and Duxbury (2005) found that employees felt technology had increased the amount of stress they experienced and also had increased their workload. In addition, according to Messersmith, employees are in danger of experiencing physical strain and emotional isolation when they use technology to complete work-related tasks at home.

Major (2006) reports that while technology can provide the flexibility to potentially help employees balance work and family life, it may also make employees feel obligated to complete work tasks outside of work hours. Findings from the current study seem to support this notion, as nearly half of survey participants reported they felt they were expected to use communication technologies to complete work during non-work hours. This effect was even stronger for

supervisors, as nearly 70% of supervisors reported feeling this way. Renn & Fenner (2004) found that as individuals progress in their careers, it becomes more likely they will extend the workweek by utilizing technology outside of work hours. Based upon the results of the current study, it seems this may even be the case for blue-collar employees, as survey participants responded similarly to this item regardless of employee type.

In addition to the hypothesized findings, exploratory analyses indicate that telework is significantly related to satisfaction with work-family balance. While it might seem likely that individuals who telework most frequently would have the highest satisfaction with work-family balance, this is not the case. Rather, those who choose not to telework or who telework infrequently have the highest levels of satisfaction with work-family balance. This contradicts research by Hill et al. (2003), which found that staff who worked from home responded more positively to work-life balance items when compared to traditional office workers; however, one explanation for this difference could be that satisfaction with work-family balance is the construct of interest in the current study. While it is related to work-life balance, it is distinct (Valcour, 2007). In addition, other researchers have expressed concern that telework may lead to employees having difficulty separating work from other parts of their lives (Kossek et al., 2011). Additionally, Hill et al. (1996) found that teleworkers believed working from home had a negative effect on their family relationships.

Discussion of Question 3: Life Role Salience & Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Kossek et al. (2011) argue that a person's role salience influences how they define work-family balance; for example, those with stronger family identities may choose to focus more on their family life. It was hypothesized that family identity would moderate the relationship

between several variables (technology use to complete work outside of work hours, hours worked, and boundary interruptions) and satisfaction with work-family balance. In addition, it was hypothesized that work identity would not moderate the relationships between the same variables.

Results for family identity were completely opposite of what was proposed for the relationship between satisfaction with work-family balance and technology use to complete work outside of work hours. For those with a strong family identity, satisfaction with work-family balance actually increased as technology use increased, while the reverse was found for those with a weaker family identity. One possible explanation for this finding is that employees may be attempting to resolve or prevent work-related issues from worsening by using technology at home (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). By taking such action at home instead of waiting to return to the office, perhaps employees are able to (or at least feel they are able to) improve satisfaction with their work-family balance.

When the relationship between family identity, hours worked, and satisfaction with work-family balance was investigated, results were also not as hypothesized. This time, those with a strong family identity slightly declined on satisfaction with work-family balance as hours worked increased, while those with a weaker family identity experienced reduced satisfaction with work-family balance as the number of hours worked increased.

In addition, contrary to what was hypothesized, work identity also moderates this relationship, as those with a low work identity remained stable on satisfaction with work-family balance regardless of hours worked, while those with a stronger work identity experienced a slight increase in satisfaction with work-family balance as hours worked increased. Perhaps the participants with stronger work identities could be what Bonebright et al. (2000) call

"enthusiastic workaholics" who might enjoy work so much that extra hours would increase their satisfaction with work-family balance. It is also possible that some employees choose to work more hours because they experience positive outcomes such as increased life satisfaction by doing so (Eikhof et al., 2007).

The final role salience hypothesis proposed that family identity would moderate the relationship between work-to-non-work interruptions and satisfaction with work-family balance. Again, results were contrary to what was hypothesized, as those with a strong family identity experienced a slight increase in satisfaction with work-family balance as work-to-non-work boundary interruptions increased, while the opposite effect was found for those with a weak family identity. As with the technology use findings, perhaps this is occurring because employees with a strong family identity may be trying to prevent work-related issues from worsening by completing work at home.

Finally, it is also important to note that individuals with a weak family identity do not necessarily have a strong work identity, as according to Kossek et al. (2011), it is possible for the same person to be equally strong or weak in terms of both their work and family identities. Therefore, perhaps the complexity of this relationship is responsible for these findings.

Discussion of Other Findings

Results demonstrate that boundary control is very important for satisfaction with work-family balance. This supports research by Kossek et al. (2012), which indicates boundary control is essential for being able to select an approach for managing work-family balance that fits with an individual's identity. In addition, results also replicate Valcour's (2007) finding that boundary control moderates the relationship between hours worked and satisfaction with work-family balance. For those with high boundary control, working longer hours does not affect

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satisfaction with work-family balance, but for those with low boundary control, satisfaction with work-family balance declines as more hours are worked. Michel, Bosch, and Rexroth (2014) advocate teaching employees mindfulness techniques to help them strengthen the boundary between work and other domains, resulting in higher levels of psychological detachment from work and improved satisfaction with work-family balance.

Key Findings

The present study offers several contributions to the work-life literature. First, by including both blue-collar and white-collar employees in the study, an important research gap is being addressed. Based upon the current study, blue-collar and white-collar workers differ on how much autonomy they have in their job, which in turn leads to differences in satisfaction with work-family balance. In addition, it was also revealed that blue-collar employees report higher levels of stress and intention to leave their current job than do white-collar employees. Generally speaking, it has been assumed that blue-collar workers are less likely to have access to alternative work schedules, which are viewed as an important tool for balancing work with other areas of life. While this may be the case, results of the current study indicate that more blue-collar workers than expected may have access to such schedules, potentially resulting in improved satisfaction with work-family balance for such employees.

Next, the study offers more insight into technology's complex role in satisfaction with work-family balance. Nearly half of survey participants indicated they felt they were expected to use communication technologies to complete work during non-work hours. This is important due to the relationship found between technology use to complete work outside of work hours and stress. It is also interesting that those who telework infrequently or choose not to telework have

higher satisfaction with work-family balance than those who telework more frequently or are not allowed to telework.

In addition, the current study's results provide more information on life role salience and its relationship with satisfaction with work-family balance. For example, family identity was found to be an important moderator of the relationships between several variables and satisfaction with work-family balance, although it was in a different way than originally hypothesized. A gap previously identified in the work-life literature is that work-family research tends to neglect studying the quality of an individual's work or family roles (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). Rather, research has focused on objective characteristics of an individual's roles, such as simply learning whether or not a person has a family. This results in a limited understanding, as researchers do not always understand how or why these characteristics are related to work-family balance. The current study addresses this gap by investigating role salience. Incorporating how strongly an individual identifies with their work or family role provides useful information on how work-family balance is managed differently based upon an individual's values.

Finally, the importance of boundary control for satisfaction with work-family balance is highlighted. While the results of the current study related to boundary control are not ground-breaking, they do indicate this is a very important aspect of satisfaction with work-family balance.

Implications

Results of the current study have important implications for employees and organizations. First of all, boundary control and autonomy are central to satisfaction with work-family balance. Therefore, if one or both of these can be increased, an individual's satisfaction with work-family

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balance will likely improve. Väänänen et al. (2008) suggest that organizations provide their

employees with more decision-making authority and work autonomy in order to assist with

work-life balance. As previously mentioned, employees with low growth need strength may not

benefit from this approach. For employees with low growth need strength, being given a bit

more control over their work schedules or other more basic decisions may be more helpful. The

amount of control an employee has over their work schedule appears to be important for both

family and employee health outcomes for all employees, regardless of whether they are male or

female, in a traditional or single-parent family, or working on a standard shift (Fenwick &

Tausig, 2004).

Second, blue-collar employees experience higher levels of stress compared to white-

collar staff. Stress is related to negative outcomes such as fatigue and addiction (Lautsch &

Scully, 2007). Outcomes such as these could be particularly problematic in a manufacturing

setting, where employees may be operating heavy machinery or engaging in other potentially

dangerous tasks. Binnewies, Sonnentag, & Mojza (2009) suggest that employees take time to

engage in leisure activities so they will have time to unwind and de-stress from work. They call

this process of unwinding "recovery" and indicate that it can reverse the negative effects of job-

related stress. In addition, organizations may be able to help reduce stress by providing family-

friendly policies, such as telecommuting, flexible schedules, compressed work schedules, on-site

child-care, and job sharing opportunities (Md-Sidin, Sambasivan, & Ismail, 2010).

Finally, many employees seem to feel they are expected to use technology to complete

work outside of work hours, which is in turn associated with higher levels of stress. As discussed

above, stress has many negative outcomes. Individuals may be able to reduce stress caused by

technology use by limiting completion of work activities while they are at home. Md-Sidin et al.

(2010) advocate using a more segmented approach to reduce work-family conflict and encourage employees to separate their work and non-work roles, rather than trying to fulfill both roles simultaneously.

Limitations

This study has several limitations. First, it is based solely on self-report, correlational data. This means that no causal inferences can be drawn. While a strong link between variables such as boundary control and autonomy and satisfaction with work-family balance was found, one cannot say with certainty that boundary control or autonomy causes satisfaction with work-family balance. It is possible these relationships could be explained by another variable that was not included in this particular study.

The next two limitations are related to the data collection methodology that was used for this study. The first of these concerns the quality of data gathered via paid online survey participants. Researchers have questioned whether paid online survey participants are representative of the general population, answer questions honestly, and provide quality data (Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010). Recent studies have been conducted to address these concerns and have found this to be a valid approach for gathering data. For example, a study of Amazon Mechanical Turk participants found that the online samples were more diverse than the average samples of college students often used for research, the quality of the data is not affected by compensation rates, and the data is at least as reliable as data gathered through more traditional methodologies (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). The second limitation related to the online sample is the potential for a self-selection sampling bias. In other words, it is possible that individuals who decided to participate in the study were different from those who did not participate. However, Qualtrics does address this to some degree by not providing

participants with detailed information regarding the content of the survey before they agree to participate. This is potentially an issue with research in general, so it is certainly not a limitation for just this particular study. On the positive side, the results of this study may be more generalizable than if individuals from a single organization had participated in the study. The sample consists of workers from a variety of organizations in different locations across the United States, which reduces the likelihood that the results are due to factors such as organizational culture or regional differences.

Another limitation is that there are other important variables related to satisfaction with work-family balance that were not included in this study. This is clear from the amount of variance in satisfaction with work-family balance that was not explained by the variables that were used in the regression analyses. A more comprehensive model may be needed.

Future Directions

Future research should address more of the gaps in the work-family literature identified by Eby et al. (2005). One such gap is that researchers have over-emphasized the work domain and neglected other important variables, such as life satisfaction or volunteer activities. Additionally, a better understanding is needed of how individual characteristics such as personality or life experiences are related to work-life variables. The authors also note that specific aspects of affective variables, such as job satisfaction, are not often studied in the literature. While job satisfaction was included in the current research, it was not one of the main variables of interest and was not studied in great detail. More in-depth research is needed to better understand how exactly work and family variables are related to affective variables. The final gap discussed by these researchers is that there is a lack of knowledge regarding how family variables are related to employee behaviors. The work-life research generally focuses on

employee attitudes, as they tend to be easier to measure than outcome variables, such as job performance.

It would also be very interesting to study the effects of satisfaction with work-family balance on other family members, rather than focusing only on the employee. There may be benefits for spouses/partners or children when an employee is satisfied with their work-family balance.

Additionally, in an effort to assess whether the use of an online sample had any sort of effect on the results, it is suggested to replicate the study in different organizations and see if similar results are found. Since the current study consisted only of American workers, it would also be interesting to incorporate other cultures into the study and see if the results are replicated.

Conclusion

In the movie *Office Space* (Riedel & Judge, 1999), Peter Gibbons clearly believes there is a strong link between work and other life domains. In his case, his job has a negative effect on the rest of his life. This has undesirable outcomes for both Peter and his organization. For example, when Peter is asked to walk the "Bobs" through a typical day of work for him, he states that he probably does about "fifteen minutes of real, actual work" most weeks. Peter eventually devises a plan to steal money from his employer so he will no longer have to work. When this plan goes awry, he switches from working in a cubicle to doing construction work. Having employees who are unproductive and/or engaging in behavior that is detrimental to the organization would obviously be a problem for any employer.

It is important for both organizations and employees to understand the effects of work on other parts of life. For organizations, putting forth effort to assist employees with satisfaction with work-family balance will likely have benefits such as higher job satisfaction and reduced

turnover intention. For employees, improved satisfaction with work-family balance is associated with reduced stress. By taking steps to improve satisfaction with work-family balance, organizations and employees both benefit, possibly resulting in fewer employees planning to steal from their employer, burn the building down, and/or simply experiencing "a case of the Mondays" every day they go into work.

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Appendix A - Survey Items

The Work-Life Indicator (Kossek et al., 2012)

This measure uses a 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) scale. Subscale scores are

calculated by averaging the items.

Non-Work Interrupting Work Behaviors

1. I take care of personal or family needs during work.

2. I respond to personal communications (e.g., emails, texts, and phone calls) during work.

3. I do not think about my family, friends, or personal interests while working so I can

   focus. (*reverse scored*)

4. When I work from home, I handle personal or family responsibilities during work.

5. I monitor personal-related communications (e.g., emails, texts, and phone calls) when I

   am working.

Work Interrupting Non-Work Behaviors

6. I regularly bring work home.

7. I respond to work-related communications (e.g., emails, texts, and phone calls) during my

   personal time away from work.

8. I work during my vacations.

9. I allow work to interrupt me when I spend time with my family or friends.

10. I usually bring work materials with me when I attend personal or family activities.

Boundary Control

11. I control whether I am able to keep my work and personal life separate.

12. I control whether I have clear boundaries between my work and personal life.

13. I control whether I combine my work and personal life activities throughout the day.

Work Identity

14. People see me as highly focused on my work.

15. I invest a large part of myself in my work.

Family Identity

16. People see me as highly focused on my family.

17. I invest a large part of myself in my family life.

Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance (Valcour, 2007)

This measure uses a 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied) scale. The score for the scale is calculated by averaging responses to all of the items.

Instructions: The following items are intended to measure how satisfied you are with your work-life balance. Please indicate your level of satisfaction with each item. How satisfied are you with:

1. The way you divide your time between work and personal or family life.

2. The way you divide your attention between work and home.

3. How well your work life and your personal or family life fit together.

4. Your ability to balance the needs of your job with those of your personal or family life.

5. The opportunity you have to perform your job well and yet be able to perform home-related duties adequately.

The Stress in General Scale (Bowling Green State University, 2009)

This measure uses a "yes" (receives 3 points), "no" (receives 1 point), and "?" (receives zero points) scale. An overall score was calculated by adding up the responses for each item.

Instructions: The following items are intended to measure how much stress you encounter in your current job. For each of the following words or phrases below select: "Yes" if it describes your job, "No" if it does not describe your job, and "?" if you cannot decide.

- Demanding

- Pressured

- Calm

- Many things stressful

- Hassled

- Nerve-racking

- More stressful than I'd like

- Overwhelming

Use of Technology after Hours (based upon Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007)

This measure uses a 1 (never) to 5 (very often, i.e. several times a day) scale. The score for the scale is calculated by averaging responses to all of the items.

- Cell Phone/Blackberry

- E-mail

- Laptops/tablets

Additional item that was also included:

I feel I am expected to use communication technologies (e.g., e-mail, Blackberry, laptop) during non-work hours. (scale from 1(strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

Autonomy Scale of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)

The score for the scale is calculated by averaging responses to all of the items.

Please indicate how much autonomy you have at work (1 indicates very little autonomy, while 7 indicates a great deal of autonomy).

1. How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about the work?

Please indicate how accurately each of the following statements describes your current job.
(7 point scale, very inaccurate to very accurate)

2. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out

   the work. (*reverse scored*)

3. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the

   work.

Open-Ended Item

Please describe your work-life balance using just ONE word.

The Turnover Intention Scale 6 (TI-6) (Bothma & Roodt, 2013)

The scale for each item can be after the item. The score for the scale is calculated by adding

responses to all of the items.

The following section asks about the extent to which you intend to stay at your current

organization. Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for

each question: DURING THE PAST 9 MONTHS…..

1. How often have you considered leaving your job? (never (1)-always (5))

2. How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your

   personal work-related goals? (never (1)-always (5))

3. How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal

   needs? (never (1)-always (5))

4. How often do you look forward to another day at work? (always (1)-never (5))

5. To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs? (to no extent (1)-to a

   very large extent (5)) (*reverse scored*)

6. How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be

   offered to you? (highly unlikely (1)-highly likely (5)).

Best Places to Work (Job Satisfaction)

This measure uses a 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) scale. The total score is calculated by averaging the items.

1. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job?
2. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your organization?
3. I recommend my organization as a good place to work.

Demographic/Work History Items

1. Which of the following statements BEST describes the type of work you do at your job. If both statements describe your work, please select the one that applies to your job most frequently.

   - I consider myself to be a blue-collar worker. I do not work in an office setting. I spend most of my time performing physical labor that may be dirty or dangerous.

   - I consider myself to be a white-collar worker. I work in an office setting and spend a lot of my time sitting at a desk. My job is not typically dirty or dangerous and does not generally require physical labor.

   - Neither of these choices describes my job.

2. Please indicate your average total round-trip daily commute time in minutes:

   - Less than 30 minutes round-trip

   - Between 30 minutes-1 hour round-trip

   - Between 1 hour-1.5 hours round-trip

   - Between 1.5 hours-2 hours round-trip

   - Between 2 hours-2.5 hours round-trip

   - Between 2.5 hours-3 hours round-trip

   - Between 3 hours-3.5 hours round-trip

- Between 3.4 hours-4 hours round-trip

- More than 4 hours round-trip

3. What is your supervisory status?

- Supervisor

- Non-Supervisor

4. Please select the response below that BEST describes your teleworking situation.

- I telework 3 or more days per week.

- I telework 1 or 2 days per week.

- I telework, but no more than 1 or 2 days per month.

- I telework infrequently, on an unscheduled or short-term basis (e.g., episodic due to weather or safety conditions).

- I do not telework because I have to be physically present on the job (e.g., Security Personnel).

- I do not telework because I have technical issues (e.g., connectivity, inadequate equipment) that prevent me from teleworking.

- I do not telework because I did not receive approval to do so.

- I do not telework because I choose not to telework.

5. Do you participate in an Alternative Work Schedule (for example, flexible schedule, 9 or 10 hour compressed schedule)?

- Yes

- No, because I choose not to have an Alternative Work Schedule

- No, because I am not allowed to have an Alternative Work Schedule

- No, because my organization does not offer Alternative Work Schedules

6. In general, what shift do you work?

- First Shift (starting work in the morning; for example, working from 9 AM-5 PM)

- Second Shift (starting work in the afternoon; for example, working from 4 PM-midnight)

- Third Shift (working overnight; for example, from midnight to 8 AM)

- I alternate or rotate shifts

- I do not work on a shift schedule

7. Are you:

- Male

- Female

8. Are you:

- African American

- American Indian or Native Alaskan

- Asian

- Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

- Hispanic or Latino

- White

- Other

9. Please select the response that includes the year in which you were born:

- 1945 or before

- 1946-1964

- 1965-1980

- 1981 or later

10. What is your marital status?

- Single, never married

- Married or domestic partnership

- Widowed

- Divorced

- Separated

11. How many children live in your home three or more days a week?

- None

- 1

- 2

- 3

- 4

- 5 or more

Appendix B - One Word Response Frequency Tables

Table B-1: One Word Response Frequencies for Blue Collar Employees

Word	Frequency
Balanced	6
Challenging	5
Good	4
Hard	4
Stressful	4
Hectic	3
Perfect	3
Separate	3
Chaos	2
Control	2
Crazy	2
Difficult	2
Equal	2
Even	2
Okay	2
Satisfactory	2
Satisfied	2
Adjustable	1
Adjusted	1
Alright	1
Annoying	1
Busy	1
Caregiver	1
Cock-eyed	1
Complicated	1
Consistency	1
Consistent	1
Controlling	1
Discipline	1
Easy	1
Expendable	1
Fair	1
Fine	1
Focused	1
Forces	1
Fulfilling	1
Fun	1
Great	1
Half	1

Word	Frequency
Happy	1
Ideal	1
Impossible	1
Lacking	1
Limited	1
Manageable	1
Managed	1
Management	1
Middle	1
Mixed	1
Normal	1
Not	1
Organized	1
Peace	1
Quiet	1
Relaxing	1
Scaled	1
Serene	1
Simple	1
Smooth	1
Split	1
Stressless	1
Tenuous	1
Tiring	1
Understanding	1
Uneven	1
Uneventful	1
Unstable	1
Work	1

Table B-2: One Word Response Frequencies for White-Collar Employees

Word	Frequency
Balanced	6
Equal	4
Good	4
Perfect	4
Challenging	3
Easy	3
Satisfying	3
Simple	3
Unbalanced	3
Adequate	2
Complicated	2
enjoyable	2
Even	2

Word	Frequency
Focused	2
Great	2
Hectic	2
Positive	2
Absolute	1
Acceptable	1
Active	1
Appropriate	1
Balance	1
Busy	1
Calm	1
Chaotic	1
Closure	1
Compromise	1
Compromises	1
Confuse	1
Consuming	1
Coping	1
Difficult	1
Dissatisfactory	1
Effective	1
Efficient	1
Equality	1
Excellent	1
Family	1
Fine	1
Flexible	1
Focus	1
Frustrating	1
Harmony	1
Ideal	1
Integrated	1
Manageable	1
Multitask	1
None	1
Non-focused	1
Okay	1
Ongoing	1
Peaceful	1
Prayerful	1
Precarious	1
Reasonable	1
Reliable	1
Satisfactory	1
Segregated	1

Word	Frequency
Separate	1
Serene	1
Solid	1
Steady	1
Stress	1
Stressful	1
Strict	1
Strong	1
Tight	1
Tightrope	1
Tough	1
Uneven	1
Weekends	1
Wonderful	1
Zen	1