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MASTER'S THESIS

WORK-RELATED USE OF ICT AFTER-HOURS: THE IMPACT ON WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Ljubljana, November 2015 TANJA GAZIBARIĆ

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INTRODUCTION

Working after regular office hours and extending the workday to home into the late evenings and through the weekends has become the norm in the modern society. However, the evolution of the technology has transformed the nature of work practices for many employees. The wide range of technological tools that enable employees to be anytime-anywhere connected to their workplace create new challenges, individuals have to face each day. Laptops, tablets and smartphones have changed when, where and how long employees work (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). These devices are a part of information and communication technologies (hereinafter: ICT). In the last decade, ICT enabled a worker to be productive outside an office space and beyond traditional working hours.

Once working from home or in any other location, beside office, was considered a benefit, however we should ask ourselves; does this benefit of working anytime-anywhere come without any side effects? One is for sure, researchers have strong agreement that use of technologies blurs the traditional boundaries between work and family (Currie & Eveline, 2010; Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). The fact that ICT enable employees to easily engage in either being at home or at work creates a work-family conflict (hereinafter: WFC) (Batt & Valcour, 2003). Work-family conflict is defined as a tension, arising from incompatible demands of work intruding on family responsibilities. We know three types of WFC, those resulting from; time-based pressures, strain, and in-role behaviors (Greenhaus & Buetell, 1985).

Organizations and individuals are facing a significant issue, which is an increase in WFC, as high levels of such conflict may result in negative effects for both, the employer and the employee. For companies' outcomes as absenteeism, counter-productive behavior, increased turnover, bad organizational culture and poor morale can occur. On the other hand, personnel can experience poorer mental and psychical health, and reduced productivity (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007).

An employee engaged in using ICT after work or when working at home, may at the same time be in a role of a family member. Furthermore, he or she cannot be fully available to pursue the responsibilities of a paid worker and the family role at once. That is where the conflict between work and non-work domain may arise. According to Fenner and Renn (2004), the gap between the two most important roles; home or family role and work has increased since the use of the technology after working hours emerged and organizations seek for solutions to enable work-family balance. This thesis examines how the use of ICT for work-related purposes after regular working hours impacts each type of WFC.

Advanced digital and informational technologies are still very expensive for the company and enterprises that purchase them expect the employees to use them and to stay connected to their customers or co-workers. But on the other hand, the ICT have changed home into a

workplace for many individuals (Fenner & Renn, 2010). The use of ICT for working after regular office hours brings several challenges. On the one hand, using the technology to work extra hours at home may enhance the employee's career, since he or she is showing the willingness to go an extra mile for a company, but on the other hand, the side effect of using ICT to work extra hour at home may result in a WFC.

The use of ICT to perform supplemental work is being defined as a technology-assisted supplemental work (hereinafter: TASW). By Fenner and Renn (2004, p. 179), TASW is "the performance of role prescribed job tasks by full-time employees with the aid of advanced information and telecommunications technology at home or when away from home, while on holiday". We could say that TASW is the form of the supplemental work, since it also involves working after office hours (Ojala, 2011). Hence supplemental work itself might increase overload and stress, since working more might mean promotion in your career and overtime, the employers may take it for granted that the employee works at home and elsewhere after work hours or during vacation. When the demands on how much time and energy you have to put into a certain role, outgrow your ability to perform multiple roles comfortably, you might suffer from a role overload. And this leads an individual to experience WFC (Fenner & Renn, 2010).

But not all individuals will experience the same level of WFC by engaging in supplemental work. Nippert-Eng (1996) and Kreiner (2006) suggested that we have two groups of individuals, those who integrate the two domains and those who segment them. Work-home segmentation preference will define the strength of an impact supplemental work has on WFC. Since integrators are more likely to bring work to family domain, then we can predict that employees with higher segmentation preferences will engage less in supplemental work. Modern ICT have transformed the most professions work practices at the same time organizations seek solutions to enable work-family balance for their employees.

The main purpose of this thesis is to discover and understand how using the technology to engage in supplemental work effects everyday life. For employers, it is important to understand what 24/7 connectedness to the company means for the employee's behavior at work. Comparing it to fifteen or twenty years ago, firstly there was less ICT devices enabling us anywhere-anytime work, and secondly, families changed. There are more dual-earner couples, where both spouses are full-time employed. By exploring the topic of using the technology after working hours and how it is related to WFC, both companies and employees will benefit. Firstly, because they are not as aware of what effects the technology has on their employees, and secondly by understanding the effects, they will more easily engage in boundary management techniques. **The goal** is to analyze individuals that use different information and communication technology devices to work after hours and to determine the relationship between the technology assisted supplemental work (hereinafter: TASW) with WFC, while taking moderating variables as role identity and home demands into account. To pursue the goal of the thesis, quantitative research

method has been used. Based on the literature overview and pre-existing measuring scales, an online questionnaire with 17 questions was designed. The data obtained was further analyzed with SPSS, where several different methods were used e.g. descriptive, bivariate correlations, linear regression and independent sample T-Test.

The current topic was selected to explore the relationship between using the technology in everyday life and work-family conflict. The importance of this study is hidden in the fact that we do not realize the effect of the technology's use on our everyday life. We might be aware of the health risks ICT bring, but we are not as aware of how it affects our daily routine. Most of the employees carry their business cell phone through the whole day and answers e-mails at evenings and during the weekends. Therefore, the main **research question** is: What is the nature of the relationship between the use of the technology after working hours and specific types of WFC?

To answer the research question, the thesis has been divided into two major parts. The first focuses on the literature review, while the second part presents an empirical research. The first part covers three chapters, the first chapter reviews literature on information and communication technology at the workplace, the second defines work-family domain by looking into role theory and work-family conflict and lastly, the third chapter focuses on boundary management. The second part includes research, empirical results and discussion. In the research chapter, the research model design and methodology have been presented. The results of the survey are presented in the chapter five, together with the hypothesis testing results. Based on the results gathered, discussion, practical implication and limitation of the study are presented in the chapter six. The chapter conclusion summarizes the essence of the study.

1 INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES AT WORK

Evolution in the use of communication technologies – such as e-mail and smart phones, has made it increasingly feasible for employees to stay connected to work during off-job time. Therefore, the first chapter focuses on the detailed overview on information and communication technologies at workplace. It defines the history of information technology at work, telecommuting and technology assisted supplemental work as the concept.

1.1 Evolution of information and communication technology in the workplace

Nowadays, when talking about information and communication technology, our first associations are smart phones, e-mails and social networks. But looking back into history, more specifically during 1960s, when first ICT introduced in the workplace were a photocopy machine and a typewriter (O'Driscoll, Brough, Timms, & Sawang, 2010).

Almost twenty years later in 1980s, computers became popular and were followed by more advanced technologies as cell phones and personal laptops (O'Driscoll et al., 2010). From then on, the number of technology devices in the workplace is steadily increasing, mostly because of the aim to make work more productive and efficient.

Due to the advances in communication technologies in the last decade, 21st century workforce can be defined as being always available or always on reach. The ICT devices, such as Iphone's and other smart phones, laptops, and tablets have become a necessity in most professions (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). Further on, the use of these devices together with the availability of wireless internet access, created higher expectations for faster response times in work-related communications, potentially increasing working hours in the office as well as outside the office (Towers, Duxbury, Higgins, & Thomas, 2006). For example in 1990s, in order to communicate with business partners you arranged a lunch meeting with time and place known in advance. However today, in 21st century, ICT have transformed the ways we do business and communicate. Nowadays it is normal to set up a face to face meeting in last minute by e-mails or instant messages or to have skype-calls with business partner around the globe (Taylor, Fieldman, & Altman, 2008).

The biggest concern connected to the popularity and dependency on these ICT devices in the workplace is how the employees divide the work from home and keep the balance in their life. In today's society, it is evident that individuals no longer have time and space boundary constrains as they had 20 years ago (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). For example, Richardson and Benbunan-Fich (2011) in their research explained that earlier, the employees had to have an access to a desktop computer, which was connected to the internet if they wanted to communicate via e-mail from elsewhere than the office desk. As noted, these devices have allowed work to be conducted outside the traditional working settings, both off working time and outside office space (Towers et al., 2006). However, the use of ICT itself cannot create the WFC. The extension of the work with the use of the technology is one that might create the conflict between work and home domain.

Hence, with the use of ICT in the work place, new work practices as telecommuting and technology-assisted supplemental work (hereinafter: TASW) were introduced. The term is usually used to describe work that is performed outside the office with the use of the technology is teleworking (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). But many terms, such as teleworking, telecommuting, flexi working, e-working and home-based work are used as synonyms. Furthermore, Duxbury et al. (1996) defined teleworking as "work arrangement in which organizational employee's regularly work at home, or at a remote site, one of more complete workdays a week". The one of many challenges organizations and employees are facing is answering e-mails at home or weekends etc. This problem is not a part of teleworking, but a part of work extension. Towers, Duxbury and Thomas (2005) found the two main differences between the concept of teleworking and supplemental or extended work. One is that traditional teleworking is scheduled and predicted and the second difference is that a teleworker carries out his or her work during office hours.

The main point is that the definition of telework does not cover the "take home" work during evenings, holidays and weekends. However, supplemental work does. Venkatesh and Vitalari (1992) focused their research on supplemental work, where individuals are employed full time, do job-related work outside the office, after normal work hours or weekends. Furthermore, they have noticed that workers who use technology and experience some sort of strain of the work/home boundary, may be exposed to negative outcomes (Towers et al., 2005). Both approaches telecommuting and TASW will be presented in the next sections in great detail.

1.2 Telecommuting: a flexible work practice

Several researchers argue that working from home is not a new concept and that individuals, before the industrial revolution, have mainly worked from home (Harpaz, 2002, Tremblay & Genin, 2008). What is different now is that ICT give individuals emerging options to work from home. The increased use of technological devices gave rise to a new form of distributed work – telecommuting (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). Ventash and Vitalari (1992) defined distributed work as an organizational structure where an organization allocates part of its function to a different location. The term telecommuting was originally set up to explain the times when ICT was used to replace the transportation (Nilles, 1994). Furner on, Nilles (1998) defines telecommuting as work being done from home that is often assisted by different technology devices, such as phone or mobile smartphone, internet and computer. Other terms interchangeably used in place of telecommuting are remote work, virtual work, home work, telework or distributed work (Lautsch & Kossek, 2011).

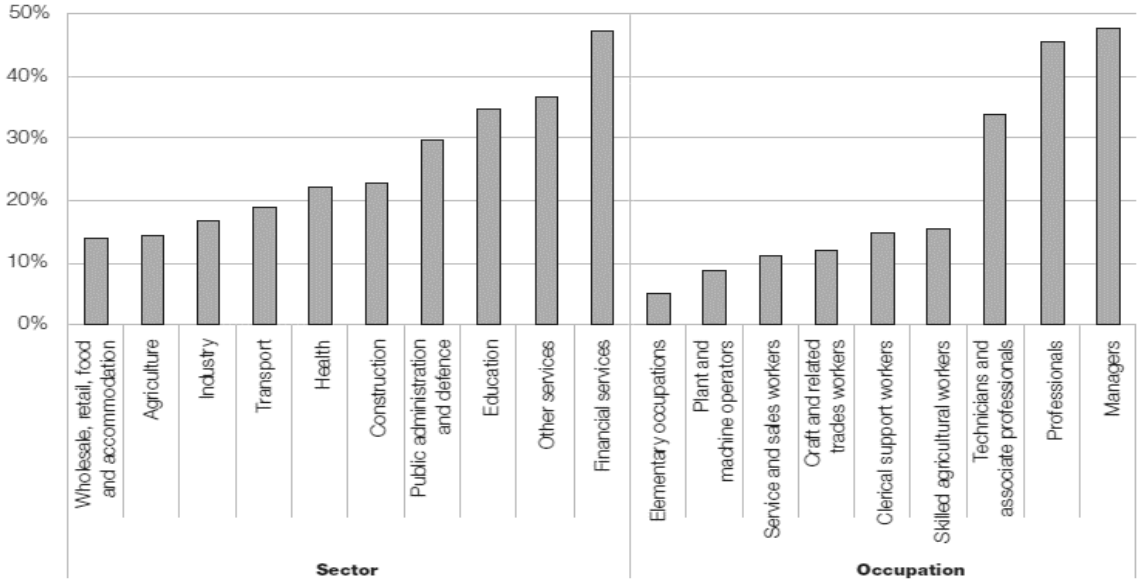
What is the difference between telework and telecommuting? According to Gray, Hodson and Gordon (1993), some researchers use the terms telework and telecommuting interchangeably. The first who distinguished between these two terms was Nilles (1998), as he described telework as any form of work, where ICT substitute travelling to work. While telecommuting is a period of time, when an employee work out of the office several days per week, either at home, at client's site or elsewhere. Based on his definitions we can say that all telecommuters are teleworkers, but not all teleworkers are telecommuters (Nilles, 1998). For the purposes of this study, I will use the term telecommuting.

Telecommuting has significantly reshaped the culture on where and how employees engage in work-relating activities (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). The average proportion of the employees involved in the telecommuting in EU-27 countries increased from about 5% in 2000 to 7% in 2005 and last known data is that there was 16% of telecommuters in EU-27 in 2012 (Eurofound, 2012). Further on, there has been a 20% increase in telecommuting in the US since 2012. And in the UK, the increase is more than 30% in a ten-year period (Hess, 2014). In 2007, Slovenia has statutorily defined telework and the latest data available in teleworking are from 2005. SURS data from 2005 show that around 21,000 telecommuters were in Slovenia, in total this accounts for only 2.2% of all employed

population. Since this number is rather low, the Centre for Methodology and Informatics (hereinafter: CMI) at the University of Ljubljana conducted another research and found out that there are more telecommuters than companies report. According to their findings, 4.7% of the Slovenian labor force was telecommuting in 2002 (Lužar & Kanjuo Mrcela, 2008).

The latest data conducted within the Fifth European Working Conditions Survey (2012) indicate that a quarter of the European EU-27 countries workers are telecommuters. Moreover, the evidence of telecommuters varies from 5% in Albania, Bulgaria, Romania, Turkey to more than 40% in the Netherlands, Denmark and Sweden, and 45% in Finland. Based on the research conducted in 2010, most of the telecommuters in the European Union are men (65%) with tertiary education (55.5%) and are between 35 and 49 years old (45%). Most teleworkers can be found within managers, professionals and technicians working in financial services, education and public administrations sectors (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Telecommuters, by sector and occupation, EU27 (%)



Source: Eurofound, *Fifth European Working Conditions Survey*, 2012, p.96, Figure 56.

Telecommuting includes a wide range of different working arrangements from working full time for a company from a home office, part time working from home for several enterprises or usually working from home but visiting office for meetings (Mann, Varey, & Button, 2000). Hence, we should ask ourselves why individuals and companies choose to implement telecommuting and who actually telecommutes. Over the time, researchers have tested two motivations why employers and employees engage in telecommuting. According to Bailey and Kurland (2002), telework evolved in 1970s, when oil crisis opened the questions about gasoline consumptions, long work travels and rush hour congestion in major city and business areas. Hence, the research has centered on transportation-related factors, such as the time to commute and commute-included stress.

Yet neither of travel related factors have been proved to be in a strong relationship with telecommuting. Few studies indeed have proven that among the telecommuting employees there are more of those that have longer commute times, but travel reduction is not a major factor to answer the question why we engage in telecommuting (Baruch & Nicholson, 1997, Mokhtarian & Salomon, 1997). The second suspected motivation why companies and individuals engage in telecommuting is the possibility to more easily balance work and family obligations (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). For instance, Rau & Hyland (2002) proposed that since telecommuting provides individuals an opportunity to fulfil demands in both spheres, work and family, it can reduce work-family conflict. However, other studies have reported greater conflicts when individuals engage in telework, since the demands from the family domain arise, due to the fact that individuals are engaged in work-related activities while having a family time (Baruch, 2000, Duxbury, Higginsm & Mills, 1992, Jamal, 2007).

Teleworking for sure removes the physical boundary between work and family roles hence it makes it more difficult to maintain the balance between the two domains (Desrochers, Hilton, & Larwood, 2005). But there are some benefits of telecommuting not only from the perspective of an individual, but looking from both an organizational and society view as well. Telecommuting benefits for the society might be because of the decreased number of the vehicles on the road, consequently there is less noise pollution, potentially less accidents and maybe even less strain on public transportation (Harpaz, 2002). Further advantages and disadvantages of telecommuting are summarized in the Table 1.

Table 1. Advantages and disadvantages of telecommuting

	Advantages	**Disadvantages**
Individual	• Greater employee engagement • Fewer stress and strain • Better time management • Less commuting costs • Achieving work-family balance • No work interruptions	• Less commitment to the work culture • Fewer promotion options • Losing out ability to see the whole picture of projects • Harder to be on sick-leave • Work-family conflict
Organization	• Increased efficiency and time use • Lower expenditures, due to the fact that office equipment and space is not needed • Not having all employees at one place • Lower absenteeism level, therefore less turnover • Easier to create virtual enterprise	• Losing the supervision view • Difficulties while handling with sensitive information over the emails, phone calls etc. • No control over safety of the home work place • No teamwork advantages • Special logistics requirements • Hard to assess the productivity

table continues

continued

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Society	• Less traffic • Less pollution	• Foster individualistic mentality • Fewer face to face relationships

Source: W. Crandal & L. Gao, *An Update On Telecommuting: Review And Prospect for Emerging Issues*, 2005, p. 34, Table 2.

1.3 Technology assisted supplemental work (TASW)

Telecommuting presented in the previous chapter has been closely related to the terms as supplemental work and technology-assisted supplemental work (TASW) (Fenner & Renn, 2010, Ojala, 2011). However, these researchers tend to differentiate between these two work practices. Supplemental work was researched by Venkatesh and Vitalari (1992) who focused their research on work, where individuals are employed full time, do job-related work outside office, after normal work hours or weekends. Fenner and Renn (2004) argue that the supplemental work is not a new conception, since employees frequently work at home offices in the late afternoons and evenings. Hence, with the support of the ICT, the individuals have increased possibilities to engage in supplemental work and this provides a base to a new concept.

More than 20 years ago, Venkatesh & Vitalari (1992) studied the use of computer-based supplemental work. Nowadays, within the ICT, we do not include just computers, but also smart phones, tablets etc. This was the reason that the use of ICT to engage in supplemental work has been defined differently in every study. For instance Boswell and Olson-Buchanan (2007) in their study refer to the use of communication technologies (CT) after hours, when Richardson and Benbunan-Fich (2011) coined the term "work connectivity behavior after-hours" (WCBA). The WCBA includes all activities where an employee use portable technology devices to do the work activities or to connect with work-related colleagues out of office hours.

Technology-assisted supplemental work (TASW) is the term that was set up by Fenner and Renn (2004). It will be used further on in my thesis. TASW is being defined as "the performance of role prescribed job tasks by full-time employees with the aid of advanced information and telecommunications technology at home or when away from home while on holiday" (Fenner & Renn, 2004, p. 179). We could say that TASW is the form of the supplemental work, since it also involves working after office hours (Ojala, 2011). According to Fenner and Renn (2010), mostly professional and white collar workers engage in this form of supplemental work. The most common example of engaging in TASW is answering work-related e-mails during family evenings and on evenings.

As mentioned at the beginning of the sections, there are different forms of distributed work practice that are closely linked; especially the term of telecommuting is frequently associated with TASW. But there are major differences that we have to acknowledge.

Telecommuting is defined with four dimensions; first is the work location, second is the importance of ICT to perform the work, third is time frame and fourth covers the relationship between the employer and the employee (Fenner & Renn, 2004, Garrett & Danziger, 2007). The definition of telecommuting that was proposed by Fenner and Renn (2004) encompasses all four dimensions mentioned above. According to them, telecommuting is a form of distributed work where "one spends a portion of one's workweek or every workday working from home or a satellite office where technology is used as a surrogate for one's presence in a central work environment" (Fenner & Renn, 2004, p. 183). Hence the main difference between the TASW and telecommuting is that TASW is a part of supplemental work and is performed outside working hours, while telecommuters work from home or other location within the office hours.

It is important to distinguish between the terms as TASW, remote work, work at home, telecommuting and supplemental work. The definitions of TASW, supplemental work and telecommuting have already been explained in the sections before hence there is no need to explain them again. What should be noted is that each one of these three forms represents a remote work. According to Staples (2001), a remote work is an every type of work where the employee is physically separated from the supervisor.

Another form of distributed work is the virtual work. It is totally enabled by the technology, since it offers workers to work anytime and anywhere, disregarding whether they are in the hotel on a business trip or at home with their family and friends. (Galinsky, 1992). At last, work at home represents any work related activities that are done at home office, disregarding the type of employment (full-time, part-time or self-employed), (Kraut, 1989).

The first criterion that differentiates TASW from almost every other form of distributed work is in-role behavior. According to Van Dyne, Cummings and Parks (1995), in-role behavior is an expected behavior, that individual perform, since it is described or expected from them at work. It should be noted that only supplemental work and TASW require this form of behavior, while in other forms it is not obligatory. In addition, TASW is a type of a distributed work, when full-time employees of an organization use ICT to work out of office hours to finish or to catch up on work. As Renn and Fenner (2004) emphasized that this type of work enables employees to engage in tasks, which are portable and informally structured. Further on, we can note that the main difference between TASW and supplemental work is that TASW involves the use of ICT to perform additional work, while in supplemental work, the use of ICT is not necessary. For example, an academic professor can engage in supplemental work when reading papers submitted by students. Hence, he or she can perform TASW when answering student e-mails in the evening.

As I have already mentioned before, telecommuting is a form of distributed work, where the employee perform job related activities from home during office hours with the use of ICT (Duxbury et al., 1996, Fenner & Renn, 2004). Therefore the main point is that

telecommuting is performed within working hours and is recognized as the formal work practice, while TASW and supplemental work are considered to be unpaid overtime and therefore, present informal work practice (Ojala, 2011). To sum up, TASW, supplemental work and telecommuting share some similarities, but we still have to acknowledge the differences, since this thesis focuses on technology-assisted supplemental work as informal practice and not telecommuting.

1.3.1 Antecedents of TASW

To understand what motivates organizations and individuals to engage in TASW, it is important to know the process that motivates each one of us to accept and use modern ICT devices. The Technology Acceptance model (hereinafter: TAM) is the model that represents an important contribution towards understanding ICT usage and engagement in behaviors, such as TASW (Galleta & Malhotra, 1999). TAM was developed by Fred Davis in 1989 to explain why individuals behave in a certain way when it comes to computer usage (Davis, 1989). The theoretical basis of the model is Icek Ajzen and Martin's Fishbein's Theory of Reason Action.

This theory investigates what determinants influence the intention to consciously perform the intended behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). The aim to behave in a certain way is altered by individual's mindset towards the use of ICT and subjective norm concerning the behavior in question. In this case the subjective norm is a social pressure towards the individuals to use the ICT, since there is rare individual who does own a modern ICT device (Ajzen, 1991).

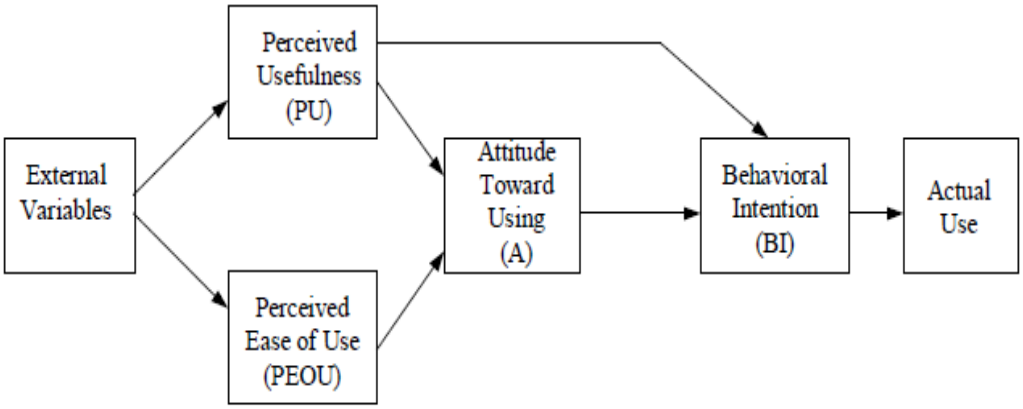
Based on the theory of reason action, Matusik and Mickel (2011) argued that individual's decisions whether to use ICT for work or not, are influenced by his or her work colleagues and superiors and their habits of using ICT. For example, an employee will more easily engage in use of ICT if he or she sees that the device will ease their work, and if other significant individuals in his or her life will support the use of these devices (O'Driscoll et al., 2010).

TAM uses theory of reason action as a theoretical basis and takes a step further by including two important factors to anticipate the individual's motive to use ICT. These two constructs advised by Davis (1989) include a perceived usefulness of the technology (PU) and a perceived ease of the use of the technology (PEOU).

The perceived usefulness is defined as the individual's subjective belief that using an ICT will boost up the job performance which might lead to promotion. Hence, the perceived ease of the use of the technology refers to "the degree to which user expect that using ICT will be free of effort" (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1989, p.985). Looking into Figure 2, we can see that it perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use represents two important

believes in TAM model, which influences an individual's attitude to the use the ICT and further on, it consequently influences their intention to the actual use of the ICT.

Figure 2. Technology Acceptance Model (TAM): Based on Davis et al. 1989



Source: F. D. Davis, R. P. Bagozzi & P. R. Warshaw, *User Acceptance of Computer Technology: A Comparison of Two Theoretical Models*, 1989, p. 984, Figure 1.

TAM provides an understanding why some individuals choose to adapt and use ICT. This theory was also an aid in understanding employee's reasons to engage in the use of the technology to perform work after office hours. Fenner and Renn (2010) found a conclusive relationship between TASW and TAM model. Especially perceived usefulness of ICT and subjective norms about performing TASW were positively linked with the model itself. In addition to the TAM research, there are also other individual and organizational antecedents of TASW (Fenner & Renn, 2004, Richardson & Benbunan-Fich, 2011).

1.3.2 Organizational climate, individual differences, and TASW

To better understand why certain employees use ICT after hours to perform work related tasks and how they use it, we have to have in mind that each individual is a part of a bigger entity; at home we can think of it as a part of a family, at work a part of a company. Researches argue that there are several social forces and control factors within the work environment that influence on the employee's use of the technology (Barclay, Higgins and Thompson, 1995). We should also not forget on individual-level characteristics in a work environment that might influence on the engagement in TASW.

Researchers agree with the fact that organizational expectations play a crucial role whether individual will or will not work beyond office hours (Fenner & Renn, 2004, Richardson & Buchanan-Fich, 2011). For example, it is a common practice nowadays that a company provides a laptop and a mobile phone for work related purposes. Therefore, employees are expected to use these ICT devices to be available to their clients and coworkers for business calls, or to answer the e-mails no matter where they are or what is the time (Fenner & Renn, 2004, Fenner & Renn 2010). Matusik and Mickel (2011) established in their research that expecting to answer at any given time and anywhere you are comes

from different sources, mainly from close co-workers and superiors, but as well as from outside the company (e.g. family and friends). Whether an individual will accept organizational expectations or not depends on his or her subjective norms about ICT (Fenner & Renn, 2004).

Hence, individual's perceptions on work practice of using ICT to perform work-related tasks at home are mainly altered by an organizational culture, their practices as well as the behaviors of the superiors (Ojala, 2011, Towers et al. 2005). According to Fenner & Renn (2004), it is expected that companies that have a longer working hours' culture, will have more employees checking and answering e-mails during evenings, weekends or holidays. In this case, individuals will accept the practice and engage in TASW more often. Another example from Fenner & Renn (2004) discloses that certain organizations have policies regarding company-provided smart phones and laptops. These policies are further backed up by the behaviors and attitudes of the top management, where they encourage employee's behavior to engage in TASW by sending e-mails out late in the evening. Since they give an impression that it is expected and acceptable from everyone to work after office hours and engage in similar practices as their superiors (Fenner & Renn, 2004, Towers et al., 2005, Ojala, 2011).

In general, most of the companies have strong organizational climate to support TASW. However, Middleton (2007) in his research revealed one company that has strictly restricted checking and responding e-mails during evenings and/or weekends or holidays. In addition, several researchers recommended that supervisors and the top management employees should stop sending out e-mails or call their colleagues during non-office hours and by that they would reinforce the organizational culture toward the TASW.

Since there is an increasing trend toward engagement in TASW and organizations promoting it, it is important to understand both positive and negative consequences that might occur to their employees (Kakabadse, Porter, & Vance, 2009). On one hand, engaging in TASW enables individuals to be more flexible when balancing their work and family life; on the other hand, engagement in TASW may intrude on family domain and cause work-family conflict (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007).

2 WORK AND FAMILY DOMAINS

Work and family lives intertwine in so many different ways. Just by thinking about how many times our career responsibilities or a work role affects our family and personal life on an everyday basis and vice versa, we will see that there are many situations where these two important spheres of our life intertwine. In last decade, the interaction between work and family domain has become significantly important for both, the employers and the employees. Each one of the groups is seeking for better ways to handle the relationship between different life roles: work, family, leisure etc. Therefore, the first part of this

chapter will define role domains and role transitions, while work-family conflict will be covered in the second part.

Traditionally, work and family have been analysed as separate domains in life and many researchers examined experiences of individuals in one domain, which was totally separated from the experience in the other (Brotheridge & Lee, 2005). However, there is a significant decline in the traditional pattern of a family structure: the breadwinner-homemaker household in which women take care of children and men who work outside the home for wages (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Today, these traditional two-parent households are outnumbered by other family structure, e.g. dual-earner couples, single parents, combined families, employees with responsibilities for elder care etc. In Slovenia, only 18% of couples represent breadwinner-homemaker households. Further on, in Slovenia in 2011, 77.4% of all couples families with children from 0 – 16 years old had both parents full-time employed (Eurostat, 2015).

Besides a considerable number of dual-earning families, there is an evidence of a greater participation of women in the paid labor. From 1992 to 2012, a female participation in the European labor force increased from 50% to 60%. Recent statistics for Slovenia show that the female labor force participation rate increased from 52% in 1995 to 62% in 2012 (Eurostat, 2015). As a result of the changes in the family structure, nowadays both men and women are likely to face family and work obligations at the same time, which may cause interference between these two domains.

Another change, affecting work-family relationship is a significant technical development. For example, internet and various ICT devices enabled employees to complete their work tasks wherever and anytime they wanted. Looking into some data, in 2007, about 57.6% of household had internet access in Slovenia, last year in 2014, there was 77.8% of them (Eurostat, 2015). Hence, as a result of constant ability to be connected to work, work locations have become more varied. Further on, the technology is advancing and offers us more mobile communication devices, such as smart phones, tablets etc. that are changing the relationship between work and family domain. On one hand, the employees are facing higher work demands, as they are expected to be available anytime and anywhere, while on the other hand, they can stay connected to their families no matter where they are. As a result, there is an increased likelihood that these two domains will influence on each other, since the boundaries between work and family become more permeable.

To sum up, the technology developments strongly affect how individuals manage their work and family domain. Most of the ICT devices, such as laptops and smart phones, make boundaries between the two domains more permeable. Further on, changes in the family structure, such as dual-earning generate increased demands from both domains. Hence, bringing together work and family can be a great challenge, since domains could become incompatible. And given the complexity of outlined trends in everyday life, balancing work and family roles is an important topic not just for individuals, but for organizations

and society as well (Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shafiro, 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). By recognizing these social developments, researchers are trying to understand work-family interface better.

2.1 Role domains and transitions

From 1950's, most of the work-family research hypothesis were derived from the role theory (Gryzwacs & Marks, 2000). Voydanoff (2001) emphasizes that everyone addresses multiple roles; both men and women are can be at a same time in a role of spouse, a parent and an employee. And every role has different demands an individual has to fulfill. Furthermore, the more roles they have to accomplish, the higher the need to prioritize and negotiate with other members, the smaller the chance of fulfilling all demands. (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

2.1.1 Role theory

The role theory is constructed from the social psychological study of the effects of different social conditions on individuals and it is a dominant perspective to explain work-family interface. Within the role theory, there are two perspectives, one is enhancement and the other is scarcity hypothesis (Hansen, Hammer & Colton, 2006).

Scarcity hypothesis considers fixed amount of resources: time and human energy (Goode, 1960). Looking from this perspective, people with multiple roles are more inclined to drain their resources and this will result in role overload or role conflict (Shaffer, Joplin & Yu-Shan, 2011). In other words, when participating in multiple roles, the participation in one role will leave fewer resources for presence in the other. For example, if an individual actively participate in family domain and engage in community and leisure activities this reduces the time available for work. Hence, this can decrease individuals' engagement in job related activities (Goode, 1960). Therefore, each one of us must acknowledge between the demands and expectations of different roles, because meeting the demands in one role, will violate the expectations in the other.

2.1.2 Role identification and role salience

Participating in multiple life roles may result in inter-role conflict, but every individual may experience different interference between the roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The answer as to why roles impact on each other in a different way hides in a constructs of role identity and role salience (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Clark, 2000). When a certain role is being characterized with specific goals, values, beliefs and norms, we can talk about role identity (McCall & Simmons, 1978; Stryker, 1980). According to Ashforth et al. (2000), a role identity is a construction of the self in a particular role, consisting of essential (core) and flexible (non-core) features. Core role features are typical characteristics of the identity. Ashforth et al. (2000, p. 475) elaborate that essential features of the role, as

location where the role is performed, members included and role status may help establishing the role identities. Depending on how much the core values of each role differ from personal core values, individuals may find that they have a stronger identity with one role than the other.

According to Kossek et al. (2012), researchers mainly recognize two role-centric identities. Some individuals can have a strong work-centric identity, while others have family-centric identities. Hence, there are also individuals who are dual-centric, which means they strongly identify with both family and work roles. The level of role identification has an impact on role transitions, which are strongly connected to inter-role conflict. As the individual more strongly identifies with the role, the less conflict will be experienced due to frequent transitions between the roles (Ashforth, et al., 2000). Both role transitions and inter-role conflict will be discussed in details in the following sections. On this point, it is important to consider the fact that a modern day practices, such as the use of ICT devices to work after regular hours, may have made role identities harder to identify and distinguish between them. Desrochers et al. (2005) define this problem as work-family role blurring. Role blurring arises when non-work and work roles are highly integrated and it is difficult to distinguish between them.

2.2 Work-family conflict

As noted several times in the previous sections, managing multiple roles can lead to a negative outcome. This chapter defines most prominent constructs in the work-family literature: work-family conflict. In the first part, several definitions of work-family construct will be presented. The second part will focus on different types of WFC, while the ending section will cover antecedents and outcomes of WFC.

2.2.1 Definition and types of the work-family conflict

Work-family conflict is a particular type of inter-role conflict. As stated in the section above, inter-role conflict occurs when demands in particular role cannot be met due to the incompatibility with another role, therefore producing a strain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Work-family conflict refers to which extent work and family role interfere with one another. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985, p. 77) defined WFC as "form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect". For example, imagine an employee who uses ICT to perform supplemental work. Due to the additional work, they experience pressure from family to spend time with them. Another definition comes from Duxbury, Higgins and Lee (1994) and they state that WFC is a response for not being able to attain the balance between work and family domain. The balance is achieved when an individual is satisfied with the ability to fulfil both family and work role demands (Valcour, 2007).

The conceptualization of work-family conflict is based on a role scarcity theory presented in the previous chapter. As scarcity theory proposes, the demands in one role deplete individual resources, such as time and energy, leaving not enough resources to fulfil demands in another role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Goode, 1960). Looking back into the example of a worker engaging in TASW, since he or she spends an additional amount of time to fulfil demands in a work role, there is no time left within a 24 hour day frame to spend quality time with a spouse and children, therefore WFC occurs. To sum up, the participation in one role is being more challenging, as an individual is participating in another role and vice-versa.

WFC is a bi-directional construct, as it can occur in two directions. Most commonly, the first is when individual's work interferes with individual's family and the second when individual's family life interferes with work role (Duxbury et al., 1994, Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

According to Marchese, Bassham and Ryan (2011) an example of a family interference with work is when an employee who is a parent takes sick leave as they could not find the babysitter to watch over the child, on the contrary, an example of work interfering with family is when a spouse misses out a family event due to the increased amount of work to be done in the office. Today's researchers agree that the relationship between WFC is bi-directional: work interferes with family (WFC) and family interferes with work (FWC). Evidence suggests that these two concepts are reciprocally related but still distinct (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005).

Although work interfering with family (causing work-family conflict) or family interfering with work (family-work conflict) have been distinguished by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) at a conceptual level, the majority of research has assessed only work interfering with family and covered family-work conflict under broad terminology of work-family conflict (Netemeyer, Mcmurrian, & Boles, 1996). For the purpose of this study, when investigating the impact of ICT use after working hours, the focus was on the direction when work interferes with home domain (WFC).
Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) conducted a more comprehensive definition of work-family conflict and suggested that it exists when:

- **time** devoted to the requirements of one role makes it difficult to fulfil demands of another,
- **strain** from participation in one role makes it difficult to fulfil demands of another, and
- **specific behaviors** required by one role make it difficult to fulfil the demands of another.

Derived from this definition, authors described three different types of work-family conflict: time-based conflict, strain-based conflict, and behavior-based conflict. As WFC

has been proved to be bi-directional, we now have six dimensions of WFC: time-based work interference with family, strain-based work interference with family, behavior-based work interference with family, time-based family interference with work, strain-based family interference with work and behavior-based family interference with work. Namely, only the first three are included in this thesis study.

Time is a fixed resource, and we have to divide it between time spent at paid work and time spent at home with family. From the role scarcity theory we know that when resources are finite, such as time, energy and psychological involvement, they might be insufficient to meet all the domain's demands (Voydanoff, 2004). If we simplify it, **time-based conflict** occurs because ″time spent on activities within one role generally cannot be devoted to activities in another role″ (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, long working hours at work might make it difficult for the employee to spend time with a child who is sick at home and misses out school (Tenbrunsel, Brett, Maoz, Stroh, & H., 1995). This is one form of time-based work-family conflict which occurred because time obligations in one role, in this case work, made it physically impossible to fulfil expectations at home (Hennessy, 2007). You simply cannot be at two places at the same time, since work might not allow you flexibility that is needed to meet responsibilities at home.

The second type of work-family conflict, defined by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) is a **strain-based conflict**. Authors explained that when roles are incompatible in the sense that the strain created by one makes it difficult to comply with the demands of another. By Piotrkowski (1979), strain-based work-family conflict happens through a psychological spillover, in which the effect of work demands are transmitted to the family through a mechanism, such as energy depletion, negative emotions, or stress. For example, a stressful day at work may make it more difficult to talk patiently with your spouse or to help your child who is struggling with a school project. Based on the definitions of time-based and strain-based conflict we can see they are theoretically different, however they also share some similarities. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) justified it by explaining that when working long hours, it truly creates time-based conflict, nevertheless, it also indirectly induces strain-based work interference with family. Thus, various sources can simultaneously create both strain-based conflict and time-based conflict.

The last form of work-family conflict defined by authors, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) is **behavior-based work-family conflict**. According to authors, what happens in behavior-based conflict is that a behavior which might be effective in one role is inappropriately applied to the other role, reducing one's effectiveness in the role. Simplifying it, when being at home certain behaviors are expected, but when being in the job other behaviors have to be applied. In real life, a manager might be a bit aggressive and objective at work, but when with a family he is expected to be kind and caring and should never interact aggressively. If a person is unable to alter behavior to meet the expectation of different roles, they are likely to experience conflict between roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

2.2.2 Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict

Both employers and employees are trying to avoid work-family conflict. Thus, it is important to understand what triggers it and what the consequences are. Over the last three decades, researchers have been trying to explain both antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict. And within this section, I provide a short overview of the important empirical findings.

2.2.2.1 Antecedents of work-family conflict

A large amount of research in the WFC has explored the different groups of antecedents explaining WFC. Most of the researchers divide the WFC antecedents into three sub-categories; personal characteristics (e.g. age, gender, race, education, income), family antecedents and job antecedents.

First category covers **personal characteristics**. The research examining age, gender and education as WFC antecedents has been mixed. While Frone, Russel and Cooper (1997) did not find any significant relationship between WFC and age, Gryzwarcz and Marks (2000) reported that younger individuals have reported more WFC than older ones. Further on, researchers are more conclusive about the gender. Women are expected to have more family responsibilities and consequently have to juggle more between work and family. Therefore, women are likely to experience more FWC (Frone, 2000; Voydanoff, 2004).

Second are **family antecedents**, where individual's marriage quality, spousal support, family support, number of children at home, home demands with chores are all noted to be associated with work-family conflict. The quality of individual's relationship with a spouse is related to WFC. For instance, Parasuraman et al. (2002) found out that entrepreneurs benefited from spousal support and have experienced less WFC. Further on, Grzywacz and Marks (2000) found that a low level of spousal disagreement was associated with less experiences of WFC. Additionally, Netemeyer et al. (1996) identified that a number of children is positively related to WFC and that working women with children younger than 12 years old, experience higher level of WFC than women with older children.

Several researchers found that family support is negatively associated with WFC and that family members can be predictors of WFC (Leiter & Durup, 1996, Carlson & Perrewe, 1999). Also, the time spent on family activities has been positively related to WFC (Frone et al. 1997). Some scholars focused on different home demands, as chores, and found out that hours spent doing chores are positively related to WFC (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000, Netemeyer et al. 1996).

Last group are **job antecedents** where various studies tested the relationship of working hours and WFC. Greenhaus & Beutell hypothesized that the more hours spent at work, the more likely for WFC to occur. Thus, several studies confirmed hypothesize and found that

longer work hours are associated with WFC (Frone et al., 1997, Guttek, Searle & Klepa, 1991). Greenhaus & Beutell (1985) have also been studying the job stressors or job demands in relation to WFC.

Job stressors have been defined as pressures that affect the amount of time that an employee devotes to work (Aryee, 1992). Additionally, the employees may have too much work to be done in the available time frame, therefore researchers studied work overload in relation to WFC. Frone et al. (1997) found a positive relationship between work overload and WFC. Researchers found that individuals, who reported to use ICT devices for work, have reported to have more autonomy and flexibility at work, which led to lower reports of WFC (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). However, Fenner & Renn (2004) discovered that the use of ICT devices for engaging in supplemental work has been positively related to WFC.

To sum up, work overload, working hours, and the use of ICT have been found to be positively correlated with WFC, while job autonomy and flexibility have been found to be negatively related with WFC (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999, Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

2.2.2.2 Outcomes of Work-family conflict

In addition to antecedents of WFC, researchers have also studied WFC as the source of stress that might cause different outcomes (Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992). WFC can lead to various psychological, physical, satisfaction and work outcomes.

In general, WFC has been associated with poor self-reported physical health. **Psychical outcomes** as the loss of an appetite, headache, fatigue, backache, insomnia and non-cardiac chest pain are the most common outcomes, due to the stress caused by WFC (Frone et al., 1997, Netemeyer et al., 1996).

WFC has also been studied in relation to various **psychological outcomes**. Frone (2000) showed the positive relationship between WFC and mood, anxiety and substance abuse disorders. In addition, WFC has also been proven to be positively related to depression and global measure of psychological distress (O'Driscoll et al., 2000).

Various **satisfaction outcomes**, such as life satisfaction, marital satisfaction, family satisfaction and leisure satisfaction, have been negatively associated with WFC (Allen et al., 2000, Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Additionally, Allen et al., (2000) found a strong negative relationship between job satisfaction and WFC.

Organizations are the most interested in **work outcomes** of WFC, since they prefer having high performance employees with low level of turnover and absenteeism. Netemeyer et al. (1996) found that intentions to leave the job are positively related to WFC and a year later, Greenhaus et al. (1997) found a positive relationship between actual turnover rates with WFC.

3 WORK-NON WORK BOUNDARY MANAGEMENT

The two theories and corresponding constructs presented in chapters before; technology-assisted supplemental work and work-family conflict make it clear that information and communication technology impacts both, work and non-work domain. In addition, several social shifts contribute to the fact that the borders of work and family domain are reshaping (Kossek & Distelberg, 2009). On one hand, the rise of wireless technology enables many individuals to have 24/7 communication with work. And on the other, a large number of workers are single parents, a part of dual career couple or have elder parents and children to take care of. Further on, some individuals try to separate these two domains, while others prefer having them integrated. And as suggested by the boundary theory, individuals who have the ability to daily transit between work and family domain, are easily able to engage in either one role, which may result in WFC (Clark, 2000). That is why this chapter presents a review of literature on the work-family boundary management.

3.1 Boundary and border theory

The two theories address the existence of boundaries. The first one is the boundary theory by Nippert-Eng (1996) and the second one is Clark's (2000) border theory. Both theories are rooted in the organizational role theory (Biddle, 1986, Kahn et al. 1964).

The boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000, Nippert-Eng, 1996) in its most basic form uses time and space as a separate block and borders them into set of entities. Each entity can then be used as a differentiator for each role in one's life. The most common is that an individual bounds the roles in space and time, which means that a certain role becomes relevant within precise locations and at exactly same time of the day and week. Typically work role of an employee will be more relevant in the office at company's headquarter from Monday to Friday during the office hours, while the family role will come to life during the evenings and weekends (Allen et al., 2014). But each one's boundaries will depend on numerous factors, including occupation type and individual preference (Nippert-Eng, 1996).

Further on, Ashforth et al. (2000) defined the boundary theory as the way how boundaries are established and maintained when an individual is active in multiple life domains. The boundary theory states that cognitive, physical, and/or behavioral boundaries exist between an individual's work and non-work domains (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000). Hence, the main point behind the boundary theory is that individuals consciously create boundaries around their work and family. Therefore, the boundary theory focuses on transitions between roles, researcher differ between macro and micro role transitions (Ashforth et al., 2000) Micro role transitions are frequent transitions that occur on an everyday basis, for example returning home from work, while macro transitions are those who are less frequent and involve long-lasting changes, as an example we can take a job

promotion (Allen et al, 2014). For this thesis, micro role transitions that happen because of the use of the technology are more relevant.

Clark's (2000) conception of the border theory was developed to address how boundaries divide times, places, and people that are associated with each work and family role. The border theory identifies three types of borders that individuals can maintain between their family and work lives: physical, temporal and psychological. An example of creating the physical boundary can be that the actual locations where work and personal activities take place are different. In addition, temporal boundaries are the actual times when personal versus work activities take place (Clark, 2000). For example, an employee may have set a time-based boundary to finish at 3:30 p.m., because they need to leave the office to pick their children up from school. The third type of boundary is psychological, these relate to our perceptions of the activities associated with work and non-work roles (Ashforth et al., 2000, Hall and Richter, 1989, Lewin, 1939). Basile (2014) defined that an example of a psychological boundary might be that the employee interprets an attendance of a work-related evening lecture with friends from work as a social activity.

The border theory suggests that individuals cross borders daily, as they move from home to work. How frequently they will cross it is not only in domain of the individual itself, but in the will of the significant other as well. This significant other can be a spouse or a partner at home or a supervisor, a manager at work (Allen, 2001). We refer to them as border keepers. As Allen et al. (2014) state, border keepers are involved in the negotiations where the borders between work and non-work domain lie and how flexible they are. For example, at work we could have a supervisor that does not allow personal calls within the work time, by this caution he or she is preventing the family to intrude on the work domain. If we continue at home, a border keeper function can be related to a spouse or a partner, for example he or she might not allow answering e-mails or taking business phone calls at home.

What both theories have in common is that they refer to boundaries and borders and they are actually very similar. Both theories intent to increase an understanding in which an individual creates and manages the role transitions between work and non-work domain. The border and boundary theories differ in their origins. As mentioned above, the boundary theory was developed as a cognitive sociological perspective to understand the process of changing the roles in everyday life (Allen et al., 2014). The theory has been mainly applied to understand the work-family transitions and explained that individuals tend to classify the entities by time and space into bounded categories. Further on, the border theory was developed as a response to fill in the existing work-family theories. The main difference is that the border theory is not focused only on work-family domains, but it rather refers to work-non work transitions (Clark, 2000). Most literature (Ashfort et al. 2000, Desrochers & Sargent, 2004, Allen et al., 2014) does not differ between the theories and takes them as extensions of the same base.

3.2 Boundary management

Both the boundary and the border theory assert that the more separately an individual manages work and non-work roles, the less conflict will be experienced. However, the more the individual integrated the roles, the easier transition between them (Basile, 2014). But nowadays, it is not that easy to separate the domains. Looking from an organizational perspective, we have to acknowledge both the employee's preferences and the employer's expectation in order to have a positive outcome. Differently said, the employee's preferences must match the work environment (Clark, 2000, Desrochers and Sargent, 2004). For example, an individual might want to keep work and family as separate domains, but supervisor's expectations are high, and non-written rule might be that an employee should answers the e-mail within an hour. Further on, as Olson-Buchanan and Boswell (2006) state that the use of the technology blurs the boundaries between the roles and makes it difficult to keep work and non-work domain separated.

3.2.1 Permeability, flexibility and boundary strength

Work-family border theory and boundary theory posit that boundaries are composed of two main dimensions: flexibility and permeability (Hall & Richter, 1989). Boundary strength is determined by levels of flexibility and permeability, since different levels can lead to different outcomes (Ashforth et al., 2000, Clark, 2000).

The definition of the **permeability** has been inconsistent through the work-family literature (Matthews et al., 2010). As noted in the first definition from Hall and Richter (1989), they describe permeability as ″the degree to which a person physically located in one domain may be psychologically concerned with the other″. This may include actual interruptions from one domain into the other that is not necessarily in control of the employee. If an employee takes private messages and calls from a spouse or children at work, he or she has a work boundary that is permeable.

Over a decade later, Ashfort et al. (2000) stated a slightly broader definition about permeable boundaries. According to them, permeable boundaries ″allow individual to be physically located in the role's domain but psychologically and / or behaviorally involved in another role″. Further on, the author of the border theory Clark (2000) identifies permeability as ″the degree to which elements from other domain may enter″.

A research on permeability often looks from a specific direction. We can either have permeability from work into the family domain or opposite permeability, originating from the family domain into the work domain (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006, Bulger et al. 2007). Permeability from work to home domain could be described with an example, when an employee receives a work related call while having dinner with the family.

Several researchers have found that home and work boundaries are asymmetrically permeable (Eagle et al., 1997, Hall and Richter, 1989). Eagle et al. (1997) found that boundaries around family domain are more permeable. In other sense, it is more frequent that individuals allow their work to interfere with the family than in the opposite direction (Eagle et al., 1997). Further on Olson-Buchanan & Boswell (2006) report that both directions of permeability were associated with WFC. While Clark (2002) found that only work border was associated with WFC and not family border. Other studies have shown that greater permeability of the work domain was associated with greater FWC, while on the other hand, greater permeability of family border was associated with more WFC (Bulger et al., 2007, Matthews & Barner-Farrell, 2010).

According to Hall and Richter (1989), **flexibility** can be explained as ″the extent to which the physical time and location markers, such as working hours and workplace may be changed″. While Allen et al. (2014) state that the flexibility is the degree, to which spatial and temporal boundaries is adaptable. As an example we can take an employee who is able to adjust to their working hours to suit the family obligations, which can have temporal boundary flexibility, while an employee that can avoid long commute time and works from home might have locational boundary flexibility. When talking about flexibility as a part of the boundary management, it is important to consider whether the boundary's flexibility is driven by the organizations or employee's needs and preferences (Basile, 2014). On one hand, we can have an organization that provides all new information and communication devices with the expectation that an employee will work on Saturday to meet business demands, and on the other hand, an employee might have a sick child at home and wants to work from home office. It opened two important discussions in the role of boundaries; the first is the level of an employee's control over boundaries flexibility and the second, an employee's preference for boundary flexibility (Allen et al. 2014).

Matthews et al. (2010) further divided the flexibility into two dimensions: flexibility-ability and flexibility-willingness. Flexibility-ability is the ability of individual to recognize that domain boundaries could be expanded or contracted. For example work flexibility-ability might be that an employee's workplace offers flexible scheduling, such that they are able to live at 2 p.m. in order to pick children up from school.

Flexibility-willingness refers to the willingness of an individual to engage in moving the boundaries in one domain in order to meet the needs in the other (Matthews et al., 2010). If an employee has the option of a flexible schedule but does not use it, because he or she is afraid that this will lower the possibility of the promotion, this is an example of flexibility-willingness in work domain. As noted from the examples, flexibility differentiates between the directions of the flexibility. We can have either work flexing for family or family flexing for work. In the section above, the example was given for the work flexibility-ability, the example for family flexibility-ability could be that they have a childcare available at all time, and if the need arises to stay at work late, their childcare can easily accept it. Same state for flexibility-willingness that if an employee notices that they need

him or her at work, and cancels the personal plans, this could be an example of a family domain flexibility-willingness (Allen et al. 2010, Basile, 2014, Matthews et al., 2010).

The overall research has found some evidence that flexibility-ability and flexibility-willingness are associated with WFC as well as family to work conflict (Bulger et al. 2007, Matthews & Barnes-Farrell, 2010). Especially flexibility-ability has been mostly related to both directions of conflict, while willingness had been mostly related with WFC. The overall pattern of result shows that more flexibility is associated with less conflict (Bulger et al. 2007, Matthews & Barnes-Farrell, 2010).

The **boundary strength** is closely related to concepts of integration and segmentation. Several researchers have identified that boundary strength is determined by the level of permeability and flexibility. Hence, different levels of flexibility and permeability may lead to differing outcomes. Ashforth et al. (2000) explained that on one hand, the boundary strength might alleviate inter-role conflict by enabling individuals to undertake a role transition when necessary. On the other hand, the very looseness of boundary might worsen the conflict by creating confusion among the individuals and members of one's role, to which individuals should be more salient to.

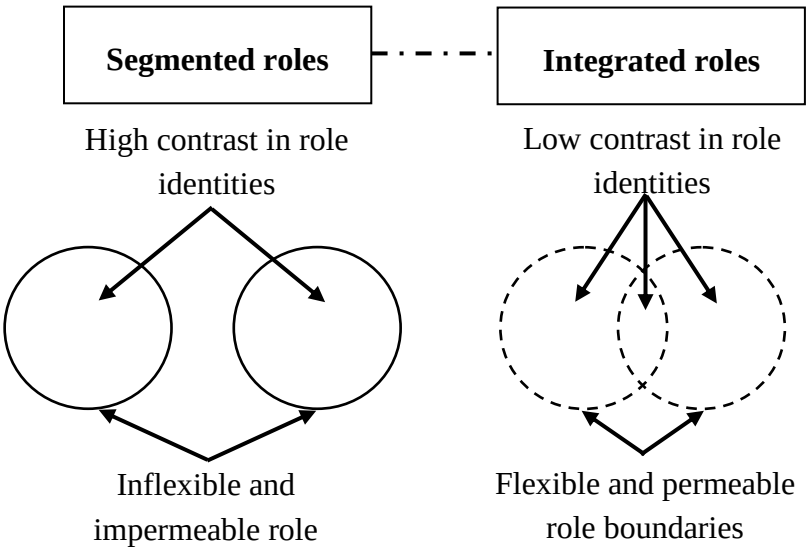
3.2.2 The integration and segmentation continuum

The integration and segmentation are key concepts when it comes to the boundary management. Several researches have showed that individuals have different preferences of how they build and keep their boundaries between work and family domains (Bulger et al., 2007, Rau and Hyland, 2002). Both of the terms refer to the degree to which one domain is kept separated from the other (Kreiner, 2006). Based on Nippert-Eng (1996) research, some individuals maintain a highly separated or segmented work and family lives with little spill over between the domains. Others manage to integrate the two domains and in their lives, it often happens than one domain disrupts or has an impact on the other.

How an employee will manage the boundaries, either through the segmentation or integration of the two domains depends on a variety of personal and environmental factors. Based on that, Nippert-Eng (1996) in her research explained that work and family roles can be arrayed on a continuum that ranges from fully integrated to fully segmented lifestyles. Looking into Figure 3, we can see that a high segmentation is characterized by inflexible and impermeable role boundaries. Hence, the boundaries are distinct and there is no conceptual, physical or temporal overlap between the two domains. On the other hand, we have a full integration which is characterized by flexible and permeable role boundaries. At high integration, there is no difference between what is home and what work. It is common that individuals act in the same way with their spouses at home as well as with co-workers and managers at work (Allen et al., 2014, Nippert-Eng, 1996). There are only few individuals that maintain either fully integrated or segmented lifestyles, most of them reside somewhere between these two extremes. Several researches have supported the idea

that preferences where on the continuum they will be are conscious (Nippert-Eng, 1996, Edwards and Rothbard, 1999, Ashforth, 2000, Kreiner, 2006).

Figure 3. The integration-segmentation continuum



Source: B. E. Ashfort, G. E. Kreiner & M. Fugate, *All in a day's work: Boundaries and micro role transitions*, 2000, p. 476, Figure 1.

Neither full segmented or integrated lifestyle comes without costs and benefits. The Table 2 shows costs and benefits associated with the two extremes. Several researchers have indicated that high segmentation level facilitates creation and maintenance of boundaries between the two domains, but at the same time makes role transitions more challenging (Ashfort et al., 2000, Illies et al., 2009, Bailyn and Harrington, 2004).

Table 2. The segmentation-integration continuum: Costs and benefits

	Benefits	**Costs**
High segmentation	• Facilitates creation and maintenance of boundaries	• Role interruptions and transitions are more challenging
High integration	• Makes transitions between domains easier	• Role blurring

An increase in the use of different information communication devices has increased a level to which certain individuals integrate the boundaries between work and family (Olson-Buchanan and Boswell, 2006). As demonstrated in the Table 2, a high integration comes with both, benefits and costs. Desrochers et al. (2005) in their research pointed out that when levels of integration are high individuals often experience blurring between domains. Further on, they found evidence in the study that increased working hours have increased transitions between home and work domain and have led to higher levels of work-family conflict. Similarly Olson-Buchanan and Boswell (2006) found out that individuals with a high level of integration between work and family set fewer limits on

the use of communications technology in non-work domains, which led to more work-life conflict. While individuals may vary in their preference towards managing the boundaries between work and non-work domain, we have to distinguish between preferences for integration/segmentation and their actual use. Kreiner (2006) defines integration and segmentation preferences as an individual's variable to which degree an individual prefer joining work and family roles (integration), versus preference for keeping roles separate from one another (segmentation). Hence, the actual use or enactment of integration and segmentation represents the degree to which an individual actually keeps work and family separate as part of the active attempt to manage both roles (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Integration and segmentation enactment also represent one of the boundary management strategies (Kossek et al. 2006). As an example, we can have an employee who is an integrator and he or she keeps both family and work obligations written on the same schedule, while on the contrary, a segmentator is more likely to keep separate schedules for family activities and for work activities.

3.3 Boundary work and boundary management strategies

As I have already discussed the boundary management in the previous sections, it captures the integration/segmentation continuum at a global level. In this section, specific boundary management strategies that individuals use to create the ideal level and style of work-family integration or segmentation and tactics will be presented.

According to Kreiner et al. (2009), an individual plays an important role in controlling the boundaries. In addition, Kreiner et al. (2009) have considered boundaries over which individuals have some control, to be socially constructed, whereby an individual is an active agent in the "co-construction of boundaries in negotiation with others" (Kreiner, 2009). The ongoing process of constructing, maintaining and renegotiating boundaries occurs through boundary work. By Nipppert-Eng (1996, p. 564), boundary work is defined as "the never-ending hands-on, largely visible process through which boundaries are negotiated, placed, maintained and transformed by individuals over time". Moreover boundary work includes the ability of a person's boundary to be flexible, their willingness to allow that boundary to be flexible, and we should not forget preferences for integration and segmentation between work and family roles (Matthews and Barnes & Farrell, 2004). Boundary work literature has two lines of research, one focuses on person-centred approach that identifies different boundary management styles used by individuals. Other is based on specific management tactics that individuals pursue in order to achieve the balance between work and family role. Both of the approaches are reviewed in the following sections.

3.3.1 Boundary management profiles

Most of the exploratory research on boundary management profiles based their analysis on responses that measured flexibility and permeability. Bulger et al. (2007) based on a

cluster analysis which was identified by four different clusters. Cluster 1 included individuals with both, high flexibility and permeability which indicated an integration preference. Members of cluster 2 could and would leave work to attend the family demands, but at the same time, family issues sometimes permeated the work domain. The individuals in cluster 2 could integrate rather than segment domains, but they did not have a strong reason or preference to do so. Cluster 3 represented individuals who showed neutral scores on all measures of boundary management. Members of cluster 4 had on one hand low non-work life flexibility and permeability, but on the other hand, they reported high work flexibility and permeability. What individuals in the last cluster have in common is that they tend to flex their work domain, but protect their family life (Bulger et al., 2007).

Kossek et al. (2008) introduced the term flexstyle, by which they refer to the different approaches individuals use to create and maintain boundaries. In their research they did not only include flexibility and permeability of boundaries but identity centrality and perceived boundary control as well. Based on these measures, they have identified three boundary management styles: integrators, separators and volleyers. As noted until now, integrators completely blend the two domains together, while separators keep them distant. Further on, we have volleyers that are able to switch back and forth between the two strategies. In further research, Kossek and colleagues (2012) refer to flexstyles as a person-centred approach. It is important to understand several personal attributes that are valuable when describing boundary management styles.

Hence they included:

- **Cross-role interruption behaviors:** a degree to which individuals allow interruption from one domain to another, whereas direction of the interruption is important.
- **Role identity centrality:** an identity salience, what values given an individual to each domain.
- **Perceived boundary control:** a perceived control over one's boundary environment.

Combining the three individual characteristics described above, Kossek et al. (2012) produced six different styles: work warriors, overwhelmed reactors, family guardians, fusion lovers, dividers and non-work-eclectics. Work warriors are characterized with a low boundary control, work central and have asymmetrical interruption, whereas there is more work to family interruption then the other way around. The other extreme are dividers, since they have a really high boundary control, dual-centric approach and have the lowest score on interruption behaviors in both domains.

3.3.2 Boundary work tactics

Kreiner et al. (2009) have conducted a qualitative research with the idea that it is not important whether segmentation is better than integration or the other way around. What

matters is the fit between the employee's preferences for integration/segmentation and organization's policies that support either one of them. Based on the research they have conducted, four categories (see Table 3), with additional sub-categories of tactics that the employees use to help create the ideal level between work and non-work integration/segmentation.

Table 3. Work-home Boundary Work Tactics

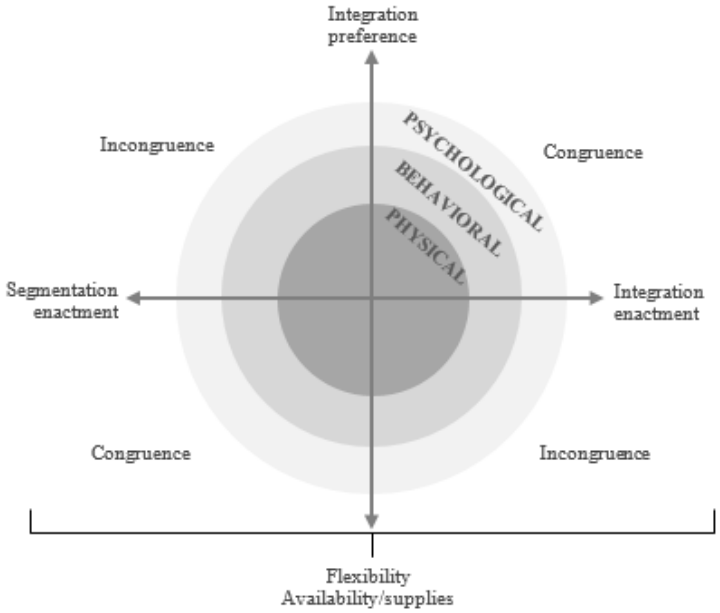
Behavioral tactics	
Using other people	Getting help from other co-workers
Leveraging technology	Creating multiple email accounts
Invoking triage	Prioritizing seemingly urgent and important work
Allowing differential permeability	Choosing the specific aspect of work-home life which will be or will not be permeable
Temporal tactics	
Finding respite	Removing oneself from work-home demands for a significant amount of time (e.g. vacations)
Controlling work time	Manipulations of one's regular plans – blocking off segments of time
Physical tactics	
Adapting physical boundaries	Assembling physical borders or barriers between work and home domain
Managing physical artifacts	Using tangible items such as calendars, keys, photos, and mail to separate or blend aspects of each home
Communicative tactics	
Setting expectations	Informing others about expectations in advance of boundary violations
Confronting violators	Telling violators of boundaries during or after a boundary violation

Source: G. E. Kreiner, E. C. Hollensbe & M. L. Sheep, *Balancing borders and bridges: Negotiating the work-home interface via boundary work tactics*, 2000, p. 716-717, Table 1.

3.3.3 Boundary management map

In previous section we acknowledged that there are several ways in which one's engage in various tactics with intent to create their favorite boundaries between work and non-work domain. Hence, there are several boundary management styles that developed from the use of preferred strategies as well. Allen et al. (2014) recognized the importance of boundaries varying along physical, behavioral and psychological dimensions. For that reason, they have created the map, showing preferred and enacted boundary management together with these three dimensions (refer to Figure 4).

Figure 4. Boundary management map



Source: T. D. Allen, E. Cho & L. L. Meier, *Work-Family Boundary Dynamics*, 2014, pp. 110, Figure 3.

Vertical axis represents the actual use of integration and segmentation – enactment, whereas horizontal axis shows integration/segmentation preferences. Looking into each quadrant of the coordinate system, we can see the congruence and incongruence. Congruence happens when an individual is able to achieve favored mode of boundary management. Furthermore, inner circles represent that both enacted and preferred integration/segmentation varies across all three dimensions.

4 RESEARCH

The current topic was selected to explore the relationship between using the technology in everyday life for work related use and work-family conflict. The importance of this study hides in a fact that we do not realize the effect of the use of the technology on our everyday life. We might be aware of the health risks ICT brings, but we are not as aware of how it affects our daily routine. Most of the employees carry their business cell phone through the whole day and answers e-mails at evenings and during the weekends. As noted from the literature review in sections one, two and three, the use of ICT has negative outcomes on an individual's work and life domains. The use of ICT to engage in TASW has different pros and cons on the employees' work and family domain. According to Venkatesh and Vitalari (1992), a positive outcome of engagement in TASW is that the employees have the ability to outperform their colleagues, since there is fewer work interruption and more independence. As mentioned in sections before, some companies provide ICT to individuals and expect them to work from home. Hence, the employees by engaging in the use of ICT after hours increase their job productivity, which is needed in order to achieve promotion in the career. On the other hand, however, when working from home there are

other interruptions coming from family and friends, which may reduce the employee's performance.

However, engaging in TASW seems to have positive outcomes, but most of the research revealed negative outcomes. Batt and Valcour (2003) in their research found out that the use of ICT is related with individual feeling stresses and dissatisfied, as well as with WFC. This could be explained with general antecedents of WFC, as stated above, longer working hours are positively associated with WFC. Hence, when individuals use ICT to work from home, they consequently work longer. Additionally, Kinman and Jones (2008) studied the academics who worked during the evenings and on weekends and discovered that those who were engaged in supplemental work with ICT, experienced more WFC from those that did not work in evenings and on weekends.

Therefore, there is no surprise that studies have found a significant positive relationship between TASW and WFC. Hence, the individuals who engage in TASW will likely experience WFC. As Boswell and Olson-Buchanan (2007) explained, the main reason for this is that when an employee devotes more time for working at home, it becomes very difficult to fulfil the family role demands and requirements, due to depletion of time as a resource. Another reason hides in the nature of ICT, since there is anywhere and anytime potential to be reached via ICT, individuals may be disturbed by work problems during their family time. More so, the boundary theory, explained in the following sections, provides support that using ICT to work after hours at home creates WFC due to the close integration of both work and family role (Fenner & Renn, 2010).

The first part of this chapter presents the model design used to investigate the topic and hypothesis, and the second methodology. The methodology section presents the existing measuring concepts that were used to construct the survey, further on in the chapter, it is described how the data was collected and finally, which methods were used to analyze the data.

4.1 Model design

So far we have seen that the modern ICT have transformed most professions work practices at the same time organizations were seeking for solutions to enable work-family balance for their employees. The main purpose of this thesis is to discover and understand how using the technology to engage in supplemental work affects everyday life. For the employers, it is important to understand what 24/7 connectedness to the company means for the employee's behavior at work. Hence, the main **research question** is: *What is the nature of the relationship between the use of the technology after working hours and different types of WFC?* By exploring the topic of using the technology after working hours and how it is related to WFC, both companies and employees will benefit. Firstly, because they are not as aware of what effect the technology has on their employees, and secondly,

as an employee will understand the effects of TASW on WFC, they will use more boundary management tactics to minimize the WFC.

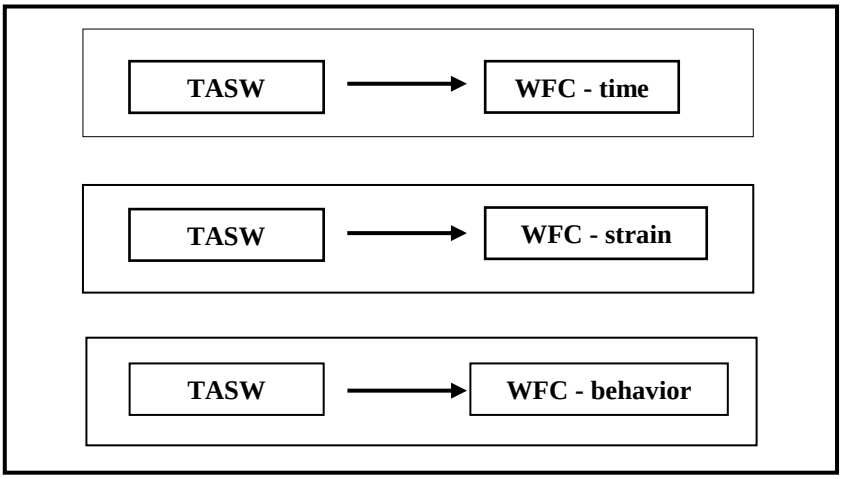
The goal is to analyze individuals that use different information and communication technology devices to work after hours and to determine the relationship of the technology assisted supplemental work (TASW) with WFC, while taking few moderating variables into account (see Table 4).

Table 4. List of variables (dependent, independent and moderators)

Dependent Variables		Independent Variable	Moderators
WFC	Time-based	TASW	Role identity
	Strain-based		Home demands
	Behavior-based		

To pursue the goal of analysis and answer the research question, the model design shown below was set. Most of the studies that researched the relationship between TASW and WFC used total WFC as a dependent variable and did not look into the relationship between different types of WFC with TASW. Therefore, Figure 5 illustrates the relationship between TASW with each of the three types of WFC (time, strain and behavior-based).

Figure 5. Model design



According to the model presented in Figure 5, several hypotheses have been stated to help investigating the use of the technology for doing supplemental work after-hours and its relationship with the three types of WFC. To deepen the knowledge about the relationship between TASW and WFC, the model above was upgraded with the models in Figure 6 and 7. Models show a moderating effect of the two variables; role identity and home demands.

Figure 6. Role identity as moderator

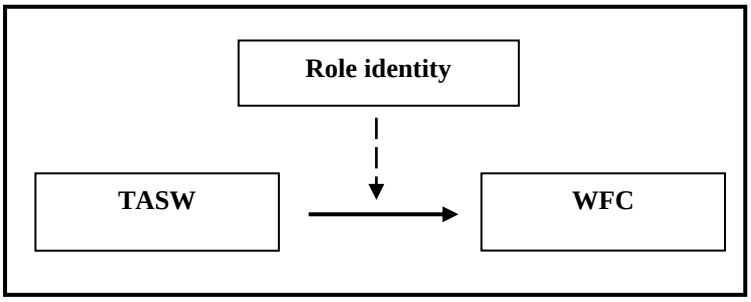
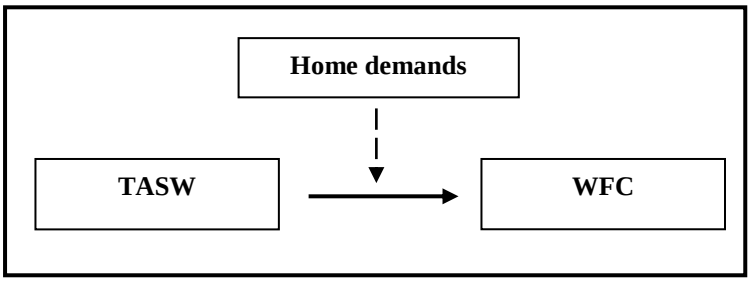


Figure 7. Home demands as moderator



Based on the models, four hypotheses listed were constructed. The results of the hypotheses' testing are presented in the following chapter five – empirical results, while the discussion of results is covered in the chapter six.

Hypothesis 1: Technology assisted supplemental work positively influences work-family conflict

- **1a:** TASW has an influence on time-based WFC
- **1b:** TASW has an influence on strain-based WFC
- **1c:** TASW has an influence on behavior-based WFC

When workers lengthen their working time by performing different tasks for their employer, outside the work by digitized technology, then they are engaging in TASW. And as Carlson and Kacmar (2000) explain that when a worker is engaged in TASW, he or she might be at the same time a family member, who is not available to the family either psychologically or physically. Hence, when this occurs, dissatisfaction in either domain may arise and that creates WFC. Further on, Boswell and Olson-Buchanan (2007) noted that when an employee engages in TASW, he or she depletes time as a resource, which makes it difficult to fulfil family obligations and demands, therefore employees might experience time-based WFC. Additionally, since engaging in TASW, it means mentally being related to the work all the time, therefore employees might experience troubles with sleeping and relaxing. Thus, this further generates strain-based WFC. Furthermore, extended concentration on job related tasks at home may lead individuals to consciously ignore the demands and expectations of a family member while being at home and change

their behaviors towards others. Thus, it may lead to a further developed behavior-based WFC in addition to strain and time-based WFC (Fenner & Renn, 2010).

Hypothesis 2: Employees with higher segmentation preferences will engage less in TASW

Not all employees will engage in TASW, even though they might have the same work or family responsibilities. As noted, individuals differ in their preferences for segmentation versus integration of domains of work and family (Kreiner, 2006). And one way to manifest their preferences is in the use of ICT to stay connected to the workplace, as Golden and Geisler (2007) found in their research, participants used their mobile phones to manage the boundary between work and home very differently. Some fully integrated work and personal life, while others turned off the mobile phone as soon as they had finished the work in the office, thus segmented the work and family domain. Since integrators are more likely to bring work to family domain, then we can predict that employees with higher segmentation preferences will engage less in TASW.

Hypothesis 3: Home demands will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC

Statistics show that the number of dual-earning couples is increasing and there are less traditional families, where wife stays at home and takes care of the household, while husband is at work. Based on these facts, I have derived the hypothesis which states that: **home demands will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC.** It is expected that individuals with higher quantitative and mental home demands will have less time to engage in the use of ICT to perform supplemental work therefore home demands will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC.

Hypothesis 4: Work identity will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC

Several recent theoretical and empirical researches show that there is a reason to believe that the employees who have higher boundary preferences and stronger role identity, may experience less work-to family conflict than those unable to manage time at work and home (Fenner & Renn, 2010). Further on, the employees with a strong role identity are more likely to use communication technologies that allow role integration. As seen, the role identity impacts both WFC and TASW. In addition, Fenner & Renn (2004) suggest that stronger role identity can mediate the relationship between TASW and WFC. For example, individuals with a strong work role identity will engage more in TASW and will experience more WFC, than those with a weak role identity.

4.2 Methodology

In this thesis, I have used a quantitative research to address the research question. But before analyzing the results, the data collection had to be done. Based on the literature overview and previous research, I have prepared a questionnaire. The survey was targeting full-time employed adults which were a part of a dual-earning couple. The online survey

used in the thesis consisted of four sections that include individual factors (boundary preferences, home demands and role identity), demographics, WFC and TASW. To get a credible research reliability and validity of the research is crucial (O'Leary, 2004). According to O'Leary (2004), reliability is the extent to which measure shows the same results, when we repeat it for several times. The reliability of the measurements can be determined with the Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Further on, the validity describes the extent to which an instrument actually measures what we want to be measured (O'Leary, 2004; Kotecha, Ukpere, & Geldenhuys, 2014). For example, a questionnaire designed to measure a boundary preferences should indeed measure boundary preferences and not WFC instead. In order to assure that measurement procedures and instruments in the thesis are both valid and reliable, I have decided to use pre-existing scales. The adapted measurement scales can be found in the Appendix E together with their translation from the English to the Slovene language.

Ensuring validity and reliability of each of the questionnaire scales is important, but in order to assure that the whole survey is valid and reliable, pre-testing is a must. Since the survey was conducted in the Slovene language, the first step was to translate the selected scales from English to Slovene. All the translations were reviewed by the mentor to assure that they remained valid and reliable. Further on, the survey was pilot-tested three times. The first time, the survey was distributed to the chosen colleagues, supervisor and friends. After first pre-testing, I have done some changes relating to the wording and interpretation of the questions. The second time, the survey was piloted by close colleagues and the mentor and in this stage, several questions were added, while some have been eliminated from the survey. For example, the survey initially included 18 statements of WFC scale and at the end, only nine statements were used. After making suggested changes to the questionnaire, a pilot study with another group of friends and colleagues was conducted in order to assure the survey is correctly set. The final version of the survey can be found in the Appendix D.

4.2.1 Measures

As already mentioned, several pre-existing scales were used. The Table 5 summarizes measuring scales used for the purpose of this thesis.

Table 5. Measures from pre-existing scales

Variable	No. of Items	Author	Year
Work-family conflict	9 items	Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams	2000
Technology assisted supplemental work	6 items	Fenner & Renn	2010
Boundary management preferences	8 items	Kreiner	2006
Home demands	7 items	Peeters, Montgomery & Schaufeli	2005
Role identity	4 items	Kossek, Ruderman, Braddy & Hannum	2012

Further on in the chapter, each measure is being explained. The full version of the measures, including statements and their translations to the Slovene language can be found in the Appendix E.

An existing 18 items WFC scale, developed by Carlson et al. (2000), was used to access **work-family and family-work conflict** of working couples. The most commonly used scale is 10-item Netemeyer et al. (1996) scale, which covers both directions of work-family conflict (WFC and FWC). But for the purposes of this study, Carlson et al. (2000) scale was more appropriate, since it is rare scale that includes all six dimensions of WFC; 1) time-based work-family conflict; 2) strain-based work-family conflict; 3) behavior-based work-family conflict; 4) time-based family-work conflict; 5) strain-based family-work conflict and 6) behavior-based family-work conflict.

The items were rated on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Statements like "I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities" measured time-based work-family conflict, "Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work" measured strain-based family-work conflict and "The problem solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home" is an example for behavior-based work-family conflict.

Technology-assisted supplemental work (TASW) was measured with quite a young scale, developed by Fenner and Renn (2010). TASW scale was used to assess whether ICT is being used after working hours and whether it has an effect on WFC or not. The scale consists of six statements and the two of them are reversely coded. The statements were rated on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = never to 5 = always. For example, the original statement included in the scale is: "I perform job-related tasks at home, at night, or on weekends, using my cell phone, pager, BlackBerry or computer." But for the purposes of this study, I have simplified the questions using ICT instead of "cell phone, pager, BlackBerry or computer". The meaning of ICT was explained in the survey's instructions.

I have utilized Kreiner's (2006) four-item measure of preferences for segmenting work and family as a measure of **boundary management preferences**. The items include "I prefer to keep work life at work," "I don't like to have to think about work while I'm at home," "I don't like work issues creeping into my home life," and "I like to be able to leave work behind when I go home." They responded using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha in the research was .94.

Peeters, Montgomery, Bakker and Schaufeli (2005) have constructed the **home demands** scale. The scale consists of three sub-scales; quantitative, emotional and mental home demands scale. Quantitative and emotional home demands scales have three items, while mental home demands scale has four items. For the purpose of my thesis, I have used only items covering quantitative and mental home demands. An example of an item for mental scale is "Do you have to do many things simultaneously at home?" While one of the

statements of the quantitative scale is: "Do you have to carry out a lot of tasks at home (household/caring tasks)?" All items were measured with a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Internal consistencies of the quantitative home demands scale and the mental home demands scale were good (α =.80, α =.76, and α =.80, respectively).

In order to categorize participants' **role identity**, a part of Work Life Indicator scale was used. Work Life Indicator has been developed by Kossek (2012). It is a 17 item, 5 factors scale which captures people's non-work interrupting behavior, work interrupting non-work behavior, boundary control, work identity and family identity. For the purpose of this thesis, I have used work and family identity factors. Each of the role identity factors has two items. For example, the statement "people see me as highly focused on my work" measures work identity, while statements like "I invest a large part of myself in my family life" measure family identity. All factors were measured using a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree).

The survey included several questions relating to demographics, such as gender, age, number of children, level of education and level of income. The other questions used as **control variables** covered work sphere and asked about regular hours worked, hours worked at home, the frequency of bringing work at home and current job position.

4.2.2 Data collection

Data for the study was collected through the online survey at 1Ka and the responses were gathered with a purposive and convenience sampling, using a snowball effect. Purposive sampling is based entirely on a judgment of a researcher, whether particular group of people have certain attributes or not. In order to get a representative sample to investigate the phenomena of TASW and WLC, individuals had to be full-time employed. Therefore, the easiest solution was to gather the e-mail list of individuals who correspondent to criteria of the study. An e-mail list was gathered with the help of co-workers and business partners, who shared their business contacts and in addition, forwarded the survey to the individuals, they have believed, were suitable for the study.

In total, 443 e-mails were sent out directly from me to various full-time employed individuals, with the invitation to participate in the online study and share the survey. The total number of received surveys was 142, however only 108 fully answered surveys were obtained and used in the further analysis. Other 34 surveys were missing more than 50% of the answers therefore I have decided not to use them. The results were gathered mainly in Slovenia and in the Slovenian language. Mainly in Slovenia due to the fact that four responses came from Croatia, where these individuals work in subsidiary of the Slovenian company. Responses were gathered between February 10th 2015 and March 20th 2015.

The online survey used in the thesis consisted of seventeen questions, divided into four categories. The first one included individual factors and measured boundary preferences, home demands and role identity, the second was measuring WFC, the third TASW, and the fourth category included several demographic questions. Questions from the same category were grouped together on the same page, so the respondent did not need to scroll down to access all the questions. Before each category questions started, there were instructions with the note explaining what work and family activities encounter. In addition, I've added the indicator on the top of the page, showing the percentage of survey that has already been completed. By that, the respondents were informed about the length of the survey and chances of leaving the survey in the middle were lower.

The current survey used for the purposes of this thesis was set online for several reasons. Among most, the most important one is the fact that software programme at 1Ka automatically records the responses and enables export of the data for the further analysis. Further on, by attaching the URL link to the survey, participants are easily reached and there is almost no cost of distributing the survey, compared to printing and copying the survey.

In general, there are both pros and cons of performing the online survey. According to Evans and Mathur (2005), the main advantages of using an online survey are that the response times for the online survey are much shorter compared to the response rate for paper written survey disturbed by post or any other way. Another advantage of online survey is that respondents may complete it whenever they have time. Morreover, online surveys are easily followed up and sending out reminders increases the response rate. For the purposes of this thesis, a study's reminder was sent out last week until the deadline. However, the online survey also have some disadvantages, as they are generally associated with having low response rates, this is mostly because e-mails may be perceived by respondents as junk mail or spam. Other than the fact that individuals should have internet and be competent to use it, there are some privacy and security concerns (Evans & Mathur, 2005).

4.2.3 Data analysis methods

For the analysis of the obtained primary data, I have used software package IBM SPSS Statistics version 22.0. Firstly, I gathered data and exported it in SPSS. Further on, inadequate results were removed from the data set and variables were sorted. By averaging up the results of statements for a specific construct, I have conducted new variables. In order to get moderating variables needed for the analysis, I have firstly centralized the variables and then multiplied the two centralized variables together. When the variables were named and values assigned, I started the analysis. The first part of the analysis included the identification of demographic characteristics of the sample. Secondly, different statistical methods in SPSS were used to explore the relationship between independent and dependent variables. And finally, hypotheses were tested.

For the more detailed data analysis, I have used the following SPSS methods:

- **"Descriptive"** to observe the arithmetic mean, standard deviation, mean and mode of selected variables.
- "**Bivariate correlations"** to observe correlations among selected variables, the direction and strength of it.
- **"Linear regression"** to perform the hierarchical multiple regression, which I will be able to estimate the coefficients of the regression equation with, involving one independent variable and several dependent variables. Linear regression will also be used to test whether equation is significant or not.
- **"Independent Sample T-Test"** to compare means of one variable for two groups.

5 EMPIRICAL RESULTS

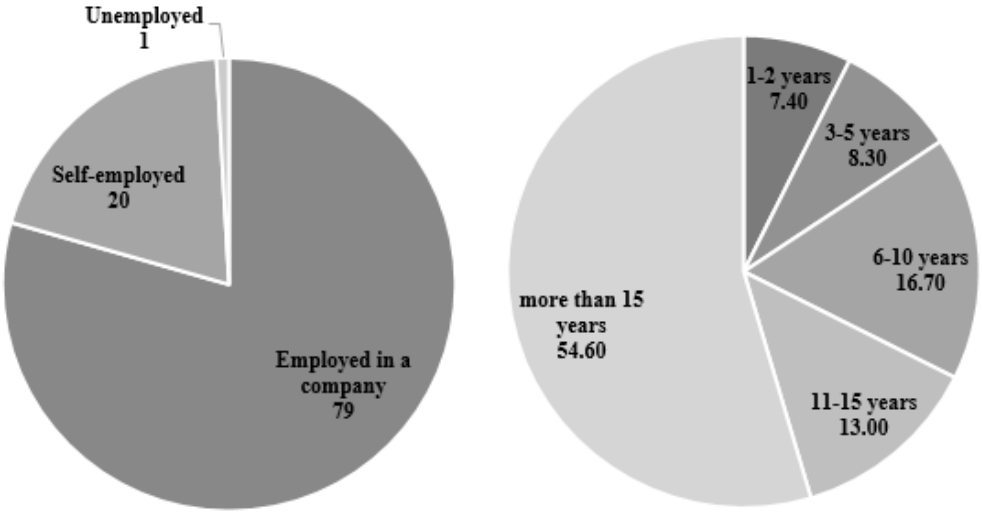
The main point of this chapter is to analyse the data gathered in the online survey and accept or reject each hypothesis, that have been developed to answer the research question of the thesis. The chapter is divided into three sections. In the first section, the demographic profile of the respondents will be presented. In the second section, the relationship among variables will be explained and in the third, hypotheses will be tested.

5.1 Demographic characteristics of the respondents

In the sample of 108 respondents there were 60 female respondents (55.6%) and 48 male respondents (44.4%). The age of respondents' vary from between 21 to 64 years, with the average age of 41 years. Since the sample was screened to include full-time employed dual-earning couples, there is no surprise regarding the marital status, 50.9% are married, followed by 49.1% which are in a relationship and live together. In terms of other family members, 81.5% of respondents in the sample have children, while 18.5% do not have children. Further on, 81.5% of those who have children, 36.1% have two children, followed by 31.5% with one child, 9.3% with three and lastly, 4.6% with four children. Regarding the household income, the majority of respondents (60.2%, n=108) fits in the range of 20.000 EUR up to 60.000 EUR of household income. 16.7% of the respondents did not submit the answer and have selected ″I don't want to answer″.

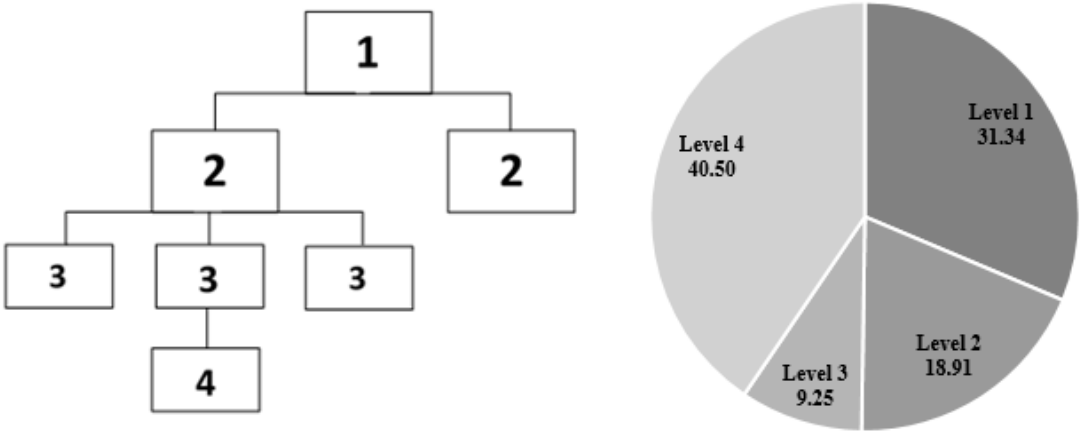
Looking into work related demographics, 79% (n=108) survey participants are employed in a company either full or part-time. 20% (n=108) of them are self-employed and only 1% is currently unemployed, but actively looking for a job. Furthermore, as can be noted in the Figure 8, most of the respondents, 54.6% (n=108) have more than 15 years of work experience, followed by 16.7% of those with 6 to 10 years of working experience.

Figure 8. Distribution of survey respondents by work status and work experiences (in %)



To evaluate the responsibility held at work, I have constructed a simple diagram, shown in Figure 9, to visually capture where in organizational structure each participant is. The assumption is higher at the structure, the more responsibility an employee has. Number one presents an employee on executive positions, for example managers, CFO's, CEO's etc. The level below, marked as number 2, indicates employees that are directly responsible for several groups of employees (head of department), further down, we have employees held responsible for one team (e.g. team leader, project leaders). To sum up, number four represents employees employed within the group, team or department and are held responsible only for their work.

Figure 9. Organizational structure as level of responsibility and distribution of survey respondents according to level in organization (in %)



As we can see in Figure 9, out of all respondents (n=108), the majority 44 (40.5%) were employed within the organization, which is marked as level 4. This is followed by 34 employees (31.34%) on the leading positions at level 1. At organizational "level 2" –

department leaders, managers, there were 20 respondents (18.91%). The remaining 9.25% (10, n=108) represents the group of team and project leaders.

Since the theory suggests that their managers and CEO's engage more in TASW, I have decided to test the difference between the group of the leading employees and the employees without a superior function in engaging in TASW. To test these Independent Samples, the T-test has been used. Based on the F-test shown in the Table 6, we cannot reject the null hypothesis (P-value is above 0.05), which says that the variances are the same for both groups. Additionally, we took a closer look into the first row T-test. Based on the sample, we reject the null hypothesis and accept an alternative one at a very low level of risk (P=0.000).

On average, the employee on a leading position engages more in TASW than the employees without a superior function.

H_0: $\mu_{\text{leading position}} \leq \mu_{\text{employee}}$

H_1: $\mu_{\text{leading position}} \geq \mu_{\text{employee}}$

Table 6. Results of independent T-test

	Responsibility at work	N	M	SD
TASW	Employee	44	2.286	.8509
	Leading position	64	3.237	.9870

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
TASW	Equal variances assumed	1.887	.172	-5.200	106	.000	-.9514	.1829
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.345	100.598	.000	-.9514	.1779

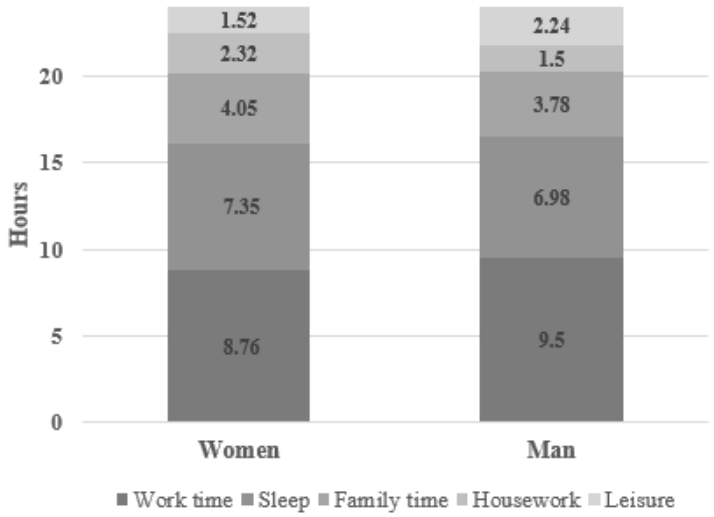
To get knowledge about how a survey respondent's everyday looks like, I have asked them to distribute 24 hours in a day to different activities, such as work, household work, family time, leisure time and sleep. From the Table 7, we can see that on average, the respondents devote 9 hours to paid work, 7 hours to sleep, almost 4 hours to family time, around 2 hours for chores and around 1.6 hours to leisure activities.

Table 7. Descriptive statistics of time spent on everyday tasks (N=108)

(in hours)	Min	Max	M	SD
Work	.00	14.00	9.09	1.87
Household work	.00	6.00	2.10	1.16
Family	1.00	9.00	3.97	1.60
Sleeping	4.00	10.00	7.23	1.05
Leisure	.00	5.00	1.60	1.06

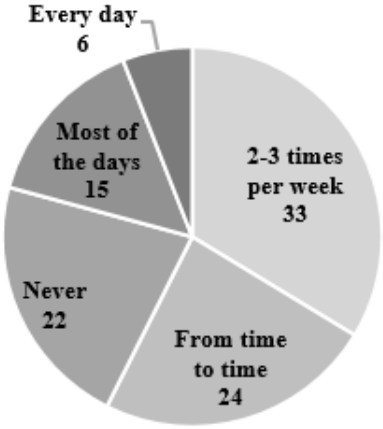
Further on, everyday tasks were analysed according to the gender. The Figure 10 shows the average hours spent per tasks for both genders. If we look at women and men separately, we can see that there are some differences in the time spent per task. On average, women spend more time for chores, family time and sleep, while men spend more hours working and for leisure activities. These results could be explained with a gender role theory, where traditionally women are assigned to take care of home and children, while men work. But as discussed in the sections before, more women are working and as can be seen in the result, the time spent at work does not differ as much from the time spent doing chores.

Figure 10. Gender comparison of task distribution (in hours)



To get the feeling about how often individuals engage in additional work, we have to know how often do they take work obligations home with the intention to work in the afternoon, evenings or during the weekends. The Figure 11 shows that 33% of the respondents bring work home 2-3 times per week, while 24% of them bring it home from time to time, followed by 22% of those who never work at home. On the contrary to those who do not like bringing work home, we have 21% of individuals who take work home most of the time or every day.

Figure 11. Frequency of taking work home (in %)



5.2 Relationships between variables used

In order to understand and correctly interpret the results received in the further analysis, this section presents the descriptive statistics and the relationship of the following variables: WFC, TASW, boundary preferences, home demands, work identity and family identity. The Table 8 shows the Pearson correlation between selected variables. The correlation coefficient values can range from -1 to +1. If a coefficient has value of -1 it means that a perfect negative correlation exists between two variables, on the other hand, a coefficient of value +1 indicates a perfect positive correlation. The strength of the relationship is usually interpreted as:

- **Small effect:** r = 0.10 - 0.29
- **Medium effect:** r = 0.30 - 0.45
- **Strong effect:** r = 0.46 – 1.00

Table 8. Descriptives and correlations among variables predicting WFC (N=108)

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 WFC	2.9331	.7047	1	.457**	-.358**	-.012	.172	-.230**
2 TASW	2.8494	1.0417		1	-.572**	-.236**	.066	-.340**
3 Preferences	3.4130	.8541			1	.141	-.112	.371**
4 Home demands	7.4167	1.3244				1	.033	.446**
5 Work identity	3.9259	.5629					1	-.001
6 Family identity	4.0278	.7024						1

Note. *p <.05 (two-tailed); **p<.01 (two-tailed)

The Pearson correlation revealed a significant positive relationship between TASW and WFC (r= 0.457, n=108, p < 0.01, two-tailed). The strength of the relationship is medium and positive. Further on, there is a significant negative relationship between boundary preferences and WFC with medium effect. This means that individuals with higher boundary preferences will on average experience less WFC. Similarly, it can be said for

the relationship between WFC and family identity. The Pearson correlation coefficient between these two variables is r = -0.230 (n=108, p < 0.01, two-tailed), in reality, this transfers to the fact that an individual who is more salient to their family role will experience less WFC. This table also reveals that a family identity has significant and negative relationship with TASW (r= -0.340, n=108, p < 0.01, two-tailed). Hence, we can explain these results as a person is more oriented towards spending time with his or her family, then he or she will experience less work-family conflict and will further on engage less in TASW. Looking further into Table 8, we can see that there is a significant and strongly negative correlation between TASW and boundary preferences (r= -0.572, n= 108, p < 0.01, two-tailed). This result partially supports Hypothesis 2, where we expected that an individual with higher boundary preferences will engage less in TASW. On this basis, we can actually accept the Hypothesis 2, as the p-value is less than .01.

Furthermore, the Table 9 presents the relations between TASW with each of the WFC sub-scales. There is a positive significant relationship between TASW and time-based WFC (r= 0.433, n= 108, p < 0.01, two-tailed) as well as with strain-based WFC (r= 0.403, n= 108, p < 0.01, two-tailed). However, it should be noted that the relationship between TASW and behavior-based WFC is weak (r= 0.202, n= 108, p < 0.05, two-tailed).

Table 9. Descriptives and correlations among TASW and WFC (N=108)

	M	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1 TASW	2.8494	1.0417	1	.433**	.403**	.202*
2 WFC-time	2.8488	.9574		1	.591**	.246*
3 WFC-strain	2.8457	.9221			1	.282**
4 WFC-behavior	3.1049	.8844				1

Note. *p <.05 (two-tailed); **p<.01 (two-tailed)

5.3 Hypotheses testing

Hypothesis 1: Technology assisted supplemental work positively influences work-family conflict

- **1a:** TASW has an influence on time-based WFC
- **1b:** TASW has an influence on strain-based WFC
- **1c:** TASW has an influence on behavior-based WFC

The linear regression analysis was used to test the Hypothesis 1, 1a, 1b and 1c. The Table 10 shows that TASW is a statistically significant predictor of time based-WFC, accounting for 18.7% of the variance. Further on, based on the F statistics we can claim and accept hypothesis that TASW influences time-based WFC, at the very low level or risk (P=0.000). Detailed results of the analysis are presented in the Appendix F.

Table 10. Results for Hypothesis 1a

Total R^2	.187	
Adjusted R^2	.180	
F statistics of the model	24.428	
Sig. for the model	.000	
	B	**Sig.**
(Constant)	1.715	.000
TASW	.398	.000

Note. Dependent Variable: WFC-time based
Predictors: (Constant), TASW

Further on, I have tested the relationship between TASW and strain-based WFC. Results in the Table 11 show that based on the F statistics we can claim and accept the hypothesis, at the very low level of risk (P=0.000). This means that the technology-assisted supplemental work influences strain-based work-family conflict. Moreover, the adjusted R square suggests that 16.3% of the overall variability of dependent variable, in this case strain-based WFC, is explained by the variability of TASW.

Table 11. Results for Hypothesis 1b

Total R^2	.163	
Adjusted R^2	.155	
F statistics of the model	20.595	
Sig. for the model	.000	
	B	**Sig.**
(Constant)	1.828	.000
TASW	.357	.000

Note. Dependent Variable: WFC-strain based
Predictors: (Constant), TASW

Table 12. Results for Hypothesis 1c

Total R^2	.041	
Adjusted R^2	.032	
F statistics of the model	4.517	
Sig. for the model	.036	
	B	**Sig.**
(Constant)	2.616	.000
TASW	.172	.036

Note. Dependent Variable: WFC-behavior based
Predictors: (Constant), TASW

The Table 12 shows the results of the relationship between behavioral based and TASW. Based on the F statistics we cannot reject the null hypothesis and claim its existence and the influences of TASW on behavior-based WFC. The F statistics of the regression model

and beta coefficient are insignificant. Moreover, the R square of the model suggests that there is very little variability of WFC-behavior based explained by the variability of independent variable TASW.

Table 13. Results for Hypothesis 1

Total R^2	.208	
Adjusted R^2	.201	
F statistics of the model	27.906	
Sig. for the model	.000	
	B	**Sig.**
(Constant)	2.053	.000
TASW	.309	.000

Note. Dependent Variable: Total WFC
Predictors: (Constant), TASW

The Table 13 shows that TASW is a statistically significant predictor of the total WFC accounting for 20.8% of the variance. Based on the F statistics we can accept the null hypothesis and claim that TAWS influences WFC at a very low risk level (P=0.000).

Hypothesis 2: employees with higher segmentation preferences will engage less in TASW

The first step was to check if segmentation preferences actually have an influence on technology-assisted supplemental work. And based on linear regression analysis, the results presented in the Table 14, we can claim and accept the hypothesis that the employee's segmentation preference influences the use of the technology. Furthermore, segmentation preferences explain 32.8% of the engagement in the use of the technology for doing the supplemental work. Secondly, to accept the hypothesis we had to test the relationship between these two variables. And this step has already been covered, as we discovered that the Pearson's correlation coefficient was strong and negative (r=-.572, n=108, p<.001), but to double check it, the results of the bivariate correlation are shown in the Table 15. More detailed results of the analysis are also presented in the Appendix G.

Table 14. Results for hypothesis 2

Total R^2	.328	
Adjusted R^2	.321	
F statistics of the model	51.672	
Sig. for the model	.000	
	B	**Sig.**
(Constant)	5.232	.000
TASW	-.698	.000

Note. Dependent Variable: TASW
Predictors: (Constant), Segmentation preferences

Table 15. Correlation between TASW and segmentation preferences

	M	SD	1	2
1 TASW	2.8494	1.0417	1	-.572 **
2 Preferences	3,4130	.8541		1

Note. ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis 3: Home demands will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to test the statement that home demands will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC. In the first step, the control variables, such as gender, age, education, number of children and work experience were entered. In the second step, TASW as the main effect was entered, in the third step, home demands were entered and in the last step, the two-way interaction was entered. The two-way interaction is a result of multiplication of centralized variables of TASW and home demands.

Table 16. Summary of hierarchical multiple regression analysis for hypothesis 3

	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardised Coefficient	t	Sig.	F	R	R^2
	B	**SE**	**β**					
Step 1: Control variables								
Constant	2.784	.524		5.312	5.312	1.355	.250	.062
Gender	-.233	.140	-.165	-1.664	-1.664			
Age	-.005	.012	-.079	-.471	-.471			
Education	.044	.078	.057	.560	.560			
No. of children	.114	.094	.217	1.216	1.216			
Work experience	.012	.080	.017	.145	.145			
Step 2: Main effect								
Constant	2.186	.495		4.417	.000	4.961	.477	.228**
TASW	.304	.065	.449	4.650	.000			
Step 3: Main effects (moderator)								
Constant	1.838	.622		2.956	.004	4.369	.484	.234**
TASW	.311	.066	.460	4.723	.000			
Home demands	.049	.053	.092	.927	.356			
Step 4: Two-way interaction								
Constant	2.550	1.098		2.323	.022	3.886	.489	.239**
TASW	.062	.322	.092	.194	.847			
Home demands	.051	.053	.097	.967	.336			

Note. *p <.05 (two-tailed); **p<.01 (two-tailed)

The summary of the results in the Table 16 shows that in the first step, control variables account for only 6.2% of the variance in WFC. This accordingly indicates that the control

variables: gender, age, education, number of children and work experience are not significant predictors of WFC ($p>0.05$). Further on, in the third step, the inclusion of home demands variable reveals that home demands variable is either not a significant predictor of WFC. However, I might have expected that the inclusion of the two-way interaction between home demands and TASW will reveal a significant moderation, but this was not the case. Thus, hypothesis 4 is being rejected. The detailed processing data can be found in the Appendix H.

Hypothesis 4: Work identity will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC

- **4a:** Work identity will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC
- **4b:** Family identity will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC

A similar process of hierarchical multiple regression was used to test the Hypothesis 4a and 4b. The first two steps are the same for all three multiple regression analysis, the difference is the moderator variable and the two-way interaction variable.

Hypothesis 4a: Work identity will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC

The results shown in the Table 17 provide support for the hypothesis 4a, which predicts that work identity moderates the relationship between TASW and WFC. The inclusion of a variable work identity in the step three does not explain any additional variance in WFC. This is accordingly indicated that work identity is not a significant predictor of WFC. However, in the fourth step, the two-way interaction variable reveals that work identity moderates the relationship between TASW and WFC. Thus, the hypothesis 4a is accepted.

Table 17. Summary of multiple regression analysis for the moderator: work identity

	Unstandardized Coefficient		**Standardised Coefficient**	**t**	**Sig.**	**F**	**R**	**R^2**
	B	**SE**	**β**					
Step 1: Control variables								
Constant	2.784	.524		5.312	.000	1.355	.250	.062
Gender	-.233	.140	-.165	-1.664	.099			
Age	-.005	.012	-.079	-.471	.639			
Education	.044	.078	.057	.560	.577			
No. of children	.012	.080	.017	.145	.885			
Work experience	.114	.094	.217	1.216	.227			
Step 2: Main effect								
Constant	2.186	.495		4.417	.000	4.961	.477	.228**
TASW	.304	.065	.449	4.650	.000			
Step 3: Main effects (moderator)								
Constant	1.638	.650		2.520	.013	4.520	.490	.240**
TASW	.301	.065	.445	4.618	.000			
Work identity	.150	.115	.119	1.295	.198			

table continues

continued

Step 4: Two-way interaction								
Constant	1.706	.645		2.646	.009	4.419	.513	.263**
TASW	.286	.065	.422	4.387	.000			
Work identity	.092	.119	.073	.770	.443			
TASW x Work identity	.181	.104	.170	1.749	.000			

Note. *p <.05 (two-tailed); **p<.01 (two-tailed)

Hypothesis 4b: Family identity will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC

Next, the same steps were taken to prove the hypothesis 4b. Interestingly, the results shown in the Table 18 do not give us evidence to support the statement that family identity moderates the relationship between TASW and WFC. We can see in both third and fourth step that variable family identity is statistically insignificant ($p<0.05$) and does not add in explaining the variance. Hence, the interaction of TASW and family identity did not account for significant incremental variance beyond the control variables and main effects. Therefore, the hypothesis 4b is rejected (for details see the Appendix I).

Table 18. Summary of multiple regression analysis for the moderator: family identity

	Unstandardized Coefficient		**Standardised Coefficient**	**t**	**Sig.**	**F**	**R**	**R^2**
	B	**SE**	**β**					
Step 1: Control variables								
Constant	2.784	.524		5.312	.000	1.355	.250	.062
Gender	-.233	.140	-.165	-1.664	.099			
Age	-.005	.012	-.079	-.471	.639			
Education	.044	.078	.057	.560	.577			
No. of children				.012	.080	.017	.145	.885
Work experience				.114	.094	.217	1.216	.227
Step 2: Main effect								
Constant	2.186	.495		4.417	.000	4.961	.477	.228**
TASW	.304	.065	.449	4.650	.000			
Step 3: Main effects (moderator)								
Constant	2.785	.651		4.277	.000	4.575	.493	.243**
TASW	.277	.068	.409	4.076	.000			
Family identity	-.127	.090	-.137	-1.405	.163			
Step 4: Two-way interaction								
Constant	2.807	.654		4.292	.000	4.027	.496	.246**
TASW	.274	.068	.405	4.020	.000			
Family identity	-.125	.091	-.136	-1.386	.169			
TASW x Family identity	-.051	.081	-.056	-.623	.535			

Note. *p <.05 (two-tailed); **p<.01 (two-tailed)

6 DISCUSSION

One part of the job is getting the results, but understanding them is another one. Therefore, the results of each hypothesis tested will be discussed in the first part of this chapter. The second part will cover the practical implications of this study, while in the third part, drawbacks and future research propositions will be listed.

6.1 Discussion of results

The primary objective of this thesis was to investigate the use of ICT devices to work after working hours and the effect (TASW) it has on work-family interface, specifically on work-family conflict. Based on the objective, four main hypotheses were developed in order to research the topic. The first hypothesis tested the influence TASW has on each type of WFC. The second hypothesis tested the relationship between TASW and boundary preferences. While the third and the fourth hypothesis tested the moderating effects of home demands and role identity on the relationship between TASW and WFC. The Table 19 provides the summary of the tested hypotheses.

Table 19. Summary of hypothesis testing

	Hypothesis	Status
H1	Technology assisted supplemental work positively influences work-family conflict	**ACCEPTED**
H1a	TASW has an influence on time-based WFC	**ACCEPTED**
H1b	TASW has an influence on strain-based WFC	**ACCEPTED**
H1c	TASW has an influence on behavior-based WFC	**ACCEPTED**
H2	Employees with higher segmentation preferences will engage less in TASW	**ACCEPTED**
H3	Home demands will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC	**REJECTED**
H4	Role identity will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC	**PARTIALY ACCEPTED**
H4a	Work identity will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC	**ACCEPTED**
H4b	Family identity will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC	**REJECTED**

Hypothesis 1 was accepted as the results revealed a significant and positive relationship between TASW and WFC (r=.457). This accordingly indicates that as full-time employees engage in TASW, they also experience higher level of WFC. This result is consisted with the previous studies that have also reported a positive and significant relationship between TASW and WFC (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007).

Researchers have several explanations as to why the relationship between TASW and WFC is positive and significant. Firstly, the use of ICT devices at home, in order to engage

in work related activities, is known to blur the boundaries between these two domains. The basic theoretical explanation lies in the scarcity theory. Every employee has resources (e.g. time, energy, money…) which could be divided between the domains and if devoting more resources to work, it may be more challenging to fulfil all demands in a family domain. This consequently creates WFC (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007, Clark, 2000). Further on, the strength of the relationship between TASW and WFC could be explained with the boundary theory. Individuals may have different levels of permeability and flexibility of boundaries between work and family domain. Therefore, some have more control over their work and family schedules, while others have less. Accordingly, they may experience different levels of WFC (Currie & Eveline, 2010).

Further on, it should be noted that the linear regression revealed that TASW is a significant predictor of WFC and shares 20.8% of the variance in the WFC score. This further means that 79.2% of the variability in the WFC scale is accounted for by other factors. For the size of the sample, this is not a small percentage of variance explained by only one factor. It is possible that since the increase of the use of ICT in individuals' everyday life who are forced to use it, and this may further on cause the WFC.

In addition to total WFC experienced, I was interested in the relationship of TASW to three forms of WFC, time-based, strain-based and behavior-based. Therefore, the hypothesis 1a-c was stated. Results showed the contrary as I expected, on one hand, strain-based and time-based WFC were significantly and positively related to TASW, while on the other hand, regression on TASW and behavior-based WFC was insignificant and showed little variability. It is important to emphasize that the technology devices, such as smart phones, laptops etc. create both time and strain-based WFC as they have the potential to interrupt anywhere and anytime. For example, work related phone call received while at hospital with your relatives or family, can create WFC. This particular example can cause strain-based WFC, while time-based WFC can be experienced while working late and engaging in TASW. This furthermore uses time that would be devoted to family for work and since there are difficulties in fulfilling role requirements, time-based WFC is created.

Interestingly, behavior-based WFC and TASW do not have a significant relationship. The results revealed a positive relationship between both variables, but it was not significant ($p > .01$). A possible explanation would be that the employees should not show certain behaviors at work, and therefore do not report behaviour- based WFC. Since work-family conflict is bi-directional, it would be interesting to test the relationship between TASW and time-based family to work conflict. As engagement in TASW usually happens in a family domain, and may cause behavioral FWC, instead of WFC. This is one of the first recommendations for the further research.

Hypothesis 2 stated that the employees with higher segmentation preferences will engage less in TASW. It was expected that individuals segmenting the two domains with non-flexible and less permeable boundaries between work and family domain, will engage less

in TASW and therefore, experience lower levels of WFC. While on the other hand, integrators may be due to the blurred boundaries engaged more in TASW. Results revealed a strong negative relationship between boundary preferences to separate the two domains and engagement in TASW (r=-.572). Thus, the employees who have high boundary preferences to keep the two domains separate are engaging less in TASW. Further on, the regression analysis discovered that 32.8% of engagement in TASW is explained by the boundary preferences an individuals has. These results are significant for both the employers and the employees, since they emphasize the importance of boundary management in experiencing WFC.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that home demands will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC. The results revealed that the relationship between those with more home demands and those with less home demands was not different to the extent they engage in TASW. Thus, this indicates that home demands do not have a moderating effect on the extent to which the employees experience WFC, as a result of engaging in TASW. This could be explained with the fact that the work-family conflict is bi-directional and that I have only tested the moderating effect between TASW and WFC, but not with FWC. To elaborate, on one hand, we have advanced technology devices that are changing employees work habits, and on the other hand, we have changes in the family structure, with an increasing participation of women in the workforce. Therefore, managing the boundaries between home and work is becoming more challenging. Further on, high home demands make employees devote more of their resources to the family, leaving less time for work, and less time to engage in TASW. This shows that high home demands rather create FWC and not WFC as predicted (Shimazu, Bakker, Demerouti, & Peeters, 2010). In addition, the results have shown a negative relationship between TASW and home demands which means that individuals with higher home demands will engage less in TASW, while those with low home demands will do it more.

Further on I have tested whether engagement of an employee in TASW increased or decreased WFC, when an employee has stronger work or either family identity. The results showed that work identity moderates the relationship between TASW and WFC. This could be explained with the fact that individuals with a strong work identity are more likely to integrate the work role with the family role. In addition, Fenner & Renn (2004) suggested that individuals with stronger work identity are more likely to use communication technologies that allow further role integration. Therefore, it is more obvious for them to engage in TASW and since they have a strong work identity, it will not cause additional WFC.

Lastly, it was tested whether family identity moderates the relationship between TASW and WFC. From the results it is evident that there was not a significant result that the relationship between TASW and WFC is being moderated by the family identity. But when looking into a correlation among TASW and family identity, the results revealed a significant, negative relationship between these two variables (r=-.340). This result might

be explained similarly as the results in hypothesis 3. The reason for the result might be in the fact that the research only accounted for one direction of WFC and not FWC as well. Nonetheless, the results of the current study indicate that the role identity plays an important role within the relationship between TASW and FWC.

This section provided a discussion of the results gathered in the thesis study in relations of the impact that TASW has on the WFC, experienced by the full-time employees. It is important to note that there are various reasons which explain why the employees engage in TASW and how this consequently creates WFC. The role identity and boundary preferences play an important role when explaining the engagement in TASW. Further on, it is important to understand that not only work domain influences the engagement in TASW, but family domain as well. Looking from an organizational perspective, individuals with higher job responsibilities engage more in TASW and experience more WFC, while those with emphasized family domain and high home demands engage less in TASW and further on experience less WFC.

6.2 Practical implications

Findings in this thesis suggest that the engagement in supplemental work with the use of ICT devices has direct relations to WFC. Although individuals and organizations are aware of the positive results ICT bring, as simplifying the work process, anywhere, anytime, availability etc., they are not as aware of the negative effects the use of ICT bring. As a first step to minimize WFC developed by TASW, companies should write and inform the employees on policies that explain and limit the use of ICT after working hours. These policies should be applied to the time when the employees are on sick leave, holidays, as well as during the weekends. It should be clearly stated what are the expectations of the employers. Most of the companies nowadays provide business smart phones and laptops with the expectation to use it, but when? It is essential to set up the rules and examples when the company provided ICT should be used, since some employees might feel guilty or afraid to lose their job if they will not use their phones, laptops etc. to answer work-related e-mails during the weekend or while on holidays.

As mentioned several times during the thesis, the top management and superiors play a significant role, whether other employees use ICT to work after hours or not. Therefore, if they want to decrease WFC experienced in the team, a suggestion would be not to send out e-mails during holidays or at evenings, as this creates the perception that everyone should be engaged in work practices while not being at work.

Another important aspect to address is boundary management. The results have shown the importance of boundary preferences which they have on the level of WFC experienced. Therefore, greater awareness of boundary management tactics would improve the level of WFC experienced when engaging in TASW. The most commonly used boundary tactic by the companies is not allowing the employees to hold only one phone number. Many

employees transfer their private mobile number to their employer, which automatically means more work related calls during private time. Therefore, by having two separate phone numbers, the employees would still engage in TASW, but would experience less WFC, since the work phone could be silent, while being with the family.

WFC experienced because of the use of ICT is a popular topic within the organizations, and each of them is facing challenges as to how to avoid or minimize the negative effect that engagement in TASW brings. For now, the most effective and non-costly practice was to set up the company's server e-mail to stop sending and receiving e-mails one hour after working hours. One of the first publicly known companies who did this was German Volkswagen, who arranged their server to stop routing internal e-mails 30 minutes after the end of the employees' shifts and then started again 30 minutes before they returned to work. This act resulted in a more productive work during the office-hours. Several other companies and institutions have followed this example (Vasager, 2013).

6.3 Limitations and future research

This study has some limitations that should be considered when analysing the results. Firstly, this study is based on self-reported measures gathered with a cross-sectional survey. Therefore, no causal relationship could be established. Secondly, as the data was gathered only by self-reported measures, the results might be bias. The employees who participated in the study might be only managers, who experience a lot of WFC due to the engagement in TASW, while the study may not include many workers that do not engage in TASW. Due to the fact that the e-mail addresses were gathered from the managers in a company, the frequency of the employees on a higher job position may have influenced the results. The further limitation of the study is the lack of variables included, it would be better to focus on both directions of work-family interface and not only work-family conflict, but family to work conflict as well.

Work-family conflict in relation with the use of the technology after hours has a lot of potential to be studied in great detail. Both organizations and employees are engaging in the use of ICT on an everyday basis and with the evolution of the technology, we could soon expect some major changes in the work places. Therefore, it is recommended for the future studies that on one side, it focuses more on individuals and tries to research the behavior and factors that influence on the use of ICT and engagement in TASW.

It would be interesting to see when, where and how individuals engage in TASW while at home, do they have home offices, do they work when the family goes to sleep, whether they answer every work related phone call or they turn off the phone when being with the family. Further on, it would be interesting to see the results of a significant other as well, whether it would be a spouse at home or a co-worker or a superior at work. By investigating how individuals work at home and which boundary tactics they use may benefit the organization to further develop policies to decrease the WFC, caused by the

engagement in TASW. Looking from the company's perspective, future studies could specifically look at the impact that TASW has on WFC, by taking factors, such as stress, health and well-being into account. In addition to a negative effect of TASW in relations to WFC, future studies might focus on positive aspects of work-family interface. For organizations, it would be beneficial to know what the positive effects of the engaging in TASW are. Not only increased productivity, but whether the TASW increases organizational commitment or how it affects co-workers' relationships.

CONCLUSION

In the recent years, working conditions are rapidly changing. For instance, we can see an increased use of the advanced technologies on the streets and in the companies. Further on, within the organizations more and more individuals are able to work outside a regular office and outside traditional working hours, leading to blurred boundaries between work and personal life. Every individual has the same 24 hours in a day to perform various tasks. Some decide to focus more on work, while others give more time to the family. The lack of resources, such as time, may result in WFC.

Nowadays, the use of ICT represents a double edge sword for individuals, since on one hand, they are more productive at work, while one the other hand, they tend to extend their working hours at home. Based on this, the major purpose of this thesis was to discover the relationship between the use of the technology for work related purposes after regular working hours and work-family conflict.

The research has revealed that different factors, such as the level of responsibility at work, boundary preferences and role identity influence the level to which individuals engage in TASW and consequently experience WFC. Managers, superiors and other top level employees experience more WFC, due to the more frequent engagement in TASW. Further on, there is a difference between them too. Some keep their work and family domain separate, while others successfully integrate them together. Those who integrate the two domains together on average experience more WFC, since their boundaries are more blurred. ICT devices enable us anywhere and anytime connectivity either to the family or work. Consequently keeping the balance between personal and work life gets difficult. Hence, companies should consider not only that TASW enhances work flexibility but creates WFC as well. Therefore, it is important to encourage employees to use different boundary management tactics to either avoid or minimize the risk of WFC.

Current findings support the past research, where the relationship between TASW and WFC has been proven to be negative and significant. Whether this study takes a step further and includes various factors that influence and moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC. Most organizations are still looking to see only advantages of the use of ICT, but with this study they should also consider the negative impacts. Further on, ICT are going to improve and become an inevitable part of our private and business lives. This

is also elaborated with the fact that home has turned into a workplace for a significant amount of workforce (Currie & Eveline, 2010). Therefore, I wanted to create awareness of the relationship between TASW and WFC with this study. Since by understanding how the use of ICT to perform the work outside office hours affects work-family interface, both organizations and individuals can benefit.

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APPENDIXES

TABLE OF APPENDIXES

Appendix A: Summary in Slovenian

V 21. stoletju je delo izven delovnega časa postalo zelo pogosto in lahko bi rekli, da je že kar nujno in se smatra kot nekakšna norma. Vedno več zaposlenih delo iz pisarne nosi domov in dela zvečer, med vikendi in celo med dopustom. Napredek v tehnologiji, pa nam vedno bolj omogoča ostati povezan kjerkoli in kadarkoli. Zaradi pojave prenosnikov, pametnih telefonov, tablic itd., je tako delovni čas kot delovni prostor postal spremenljiv (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). Vse te novodobne naprave so del informacijsko komunikacijske tehnologije (IKT), ki je v zadnjem desetletju doživela razcvet in tako omogočila podjetjem, da organizirajo delo tako izven pisarne kot tudi izven klasičnega delovnega urnika.

Nekoč smo delo od doma, ali kakšne druge udobne lokacije smatrali kot ugodnost in privilegij, dandanes pa se je potrebno vprašati, ali je delo od doma z uporabo informacijsko komunikacijske tehnologije res brez posledic? Strokovnjaki se strinjajo, da uporaba tehnologije briše meje med službenim in privatnim življenjem (Currie & Eveline, 2010; Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). Dejstvo je da uporaba telefonov, prenosnikov tablic, omogoča zaposlenemu da lahko dela od doma, ali pa opravlja družinske klice v službi, oboje lahko vodi do neravnovesja, kar povzroči konflikt med delom in življenjem, ali bolj natančno konflikt med delom in družino (Batt & Valcour, 2003). Konflikt dela in življenja (ang. *work-family conflict*) je definiran kot oblika konflikta kjer je težko združiti različne življenjske vloge in pride do notranjih pritiskov med njimi. Poznamo tri tipe konflikta dela in družine; časovni konflikt, konflikt zaradi napetosti in vedenjski konflikt (Greenhaus & Buetell, 1985). Veliko število podjetij in zaposlenih se sooča s porastom konflikta dela in družine, ki lahko posledično pripelje do povečane odsotnosti z dela, neproduktivnosti, mobinga, odpuščanj ter splošnega slabega vzdušja v podjetju. (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007).

Uporaba IKT sama po sebi ni škodljiva, a vseeno se je potrebno zavedati, da ko uslužbenec pregleduje e-pošto v popoldanskem času je istočasno v dveh vlogah; v vlogi uslužbenca podjetja XYZ in kot partner, starš ali družinski član. Biti istočasno na dveh različnih krajih seveda ni mogoče oz. je težko dosegljivo, zato uporaba IKT izven delovnega časa pripelje do tega, da je težko izpolniti tako službene kot družinske/življenjske obveznosti. Posledično lahko pričakujemo nastanek konflikta med delom in družino. Fenner in Renn (2004) navajata, da se je od razmaha uporabe IKT izpolnjevanje družinskih in službenih obveznosti postalo oteženo in vedno pogosteje se pojavlja izziv kako uskladiti obe pomembni življenjski vlogi in ohraniti ravnovesje. To magistrsko delo analizira kako uporaba informacijsko komunikacijske tehnologije v službene namene in izven delovnega časa vpliva na vsakega izmed treh tipov konflikta delo-družina.

Napredna digitalna in informacijska oprema za podjetja še vedno predstavlja velik strošek. Zato se od zaposlenih pričakuje, da jih uporabljajo in tako ostanejo povezani s svojimi strankami in sodelavci. Po drugi strani pa je zaradi tega, za veliko posameznikov dom

postal domača pisarna ali popoldansko delovno okolje (Fenner & Renn, 2010). Uporaba IKT izven delovnega časa prinaša zaposlenim številne izzive, saj s tem ko dela eno uro ali dve na dan več, lahko hitreje napreduje, hkrati pa se lahko sooči s konfliktom med delom in družino.

Uporaba informacijsko-komunikacijske tehnologije za službene namene izven delovnega časa je definirana kot tehnološko podprto dopolnilno delo (angl. *Technology-assisted supplemental work - TASW*). Fenner in Renn (2004, str. 179), opredelita TASW kot "izvajanje službenih obveznosti in nalog, ki jih ima uslužbenec izven delovnega časa, doma in med počitnicami, z uporabo informacijsko komunikacijske tehnologije". Lahko bi rekli, da je TASW oblika dopolnilnega dela, saj gre za delo izven uradnega delovnega časa (Ojala, 2011). Dopolnilno delo samo po sebi povzroča preobremenjenost in stres. Hkrati pa lahko za nadrejenega in sodelavce postane samoumevno, da bodo na vašo e-sporočilo dobili odgovor v roku 30 min, kar otežuje napredek v službi in zmanjša pripadnost podjetju. Zaradi tega bo posameznik oteženo opravljal vloge, ki jih ima v zasebnem življenju in to lahko ponovno pripelje do konflikta med delom in družino (Fenner & Renn, 2010).

Potrebno se je zavedati dejstva, da ne občutijo vsi posamezniki enako mero konflikta med delom in družino. Nippert-Egg (1996) in Kreiner (2006) opredeljujeta dve skupini posameznikov, prva združuje ali integrira vlogi uslužbenca in vlogo, ki jo ima v zasebnem življenju, medtem ko ju druga skupina loči. Sposobnost ločevanja oz. združevanja dela in družine opredeljuje možnost nastanka konflikta med tema dvema sferama. To lahko pojasnimo tako, da tisti, ki delo in družino združujejo, bodo pogosteje delali od doma in tako imajo večjo možnost občutiti konflikt dela in družine. Medtem ko posamezniki, ki strogo ločijo službene obveznosti od zasebnih ne bodo uporabljali IKT v službene namene ter bodo s tem manj izpostavljeni konfliktu dela in družine.

Namen magistrskega dela je raziskati in razumeti, kako uporaba tehnologije v službene namene izven delovnega časa vpliva na posameznikovo vsakodnevno življenje. Za delodajalce je pomembno, da se zavedajo kakšne posledice ima lahko 24/7 povezanost delavca s podjetjem, na njegovo počutje in odnos do dela. Če primerjamo današnji delavnik z delom petnajst ali dvajset let nazaj, lahko zaznamo dva trenda. Prvi je, da nam uporaba IKT omogoča medsebojno povezanost tako v zasebnem kot službenem življenju kjerkoli in kadarkoli. Drugi trend, predstavlja socialne in družbene spremembe, vedno več je družin, kjer sta zaposlena oba partnerja, staršev samohranilcev, posameznikov s starejšimi starši itd. Vse to otežuje vzdrževanje ravnovesja med delom in družino, zato raziskava o uporabi tehnologije izven delovnega časa omogoča razumevanje, zakaj je vedno več posameznikov pod stresom in težko skoncentriranih za delo. Rezultati raziskave bodo koristili tako podjetjem, kot zaposlenim posameznikom. Prvi bodo bolj ozaveščeno spremljali uporabo IKT svojih zaposlenih, drugi pa se bodo zavedali tako pozitivnih kot negativnih učinkov.

Cilj raziskave je analizirati posameznike, ki uporabljajo različne IKT naprave za opravljanje službenih dolžnosti izven delovnega časa, ter opredeliti razmerje med uporabo IKT (TASW) in konfliktom dela in družine (WFC). Prav tako želim preveriti, kako postavljanje meja med delovnim in zasebnim življenjem vpliva na uporabo IKT izven delovnega časa za službene namene, ter ali moč identitete vlog in zahtev doma moderirajo razmerje med uporabo IKT in zaznavanjem konflikta delo družina.

Magistrska naloga je razdeljena v dva glavna dela. Prvi se osredotoča na pregled literature, in obsega področje razvoja IKT na delovnem mestu, teorijo vlog, konflikt dela-družine ter taktike za vzdrževanje meja med zasebnim in službenim življenje. Drugi del predstavlja empirično raziskavo in je sestavljen iz treh poglavij, raziskava, rezultati in diskusija. V prvem poglavju empiričnega dela je opredeljen način raziskave, metodologija in hipoteze. Sledi poglavje, kjer so predstavljene demografske značilnosti anketirancev in njihove navade pri uporabi IKT v službene namene izven delovnega časa, preverjanje hipotez ter razmerje med spremenljivkami. Zadnje poglavje obsega diskusijo in predstavlja bistvo študije, tako kot njene pomanjkljivosti in praktične doprinose.

Za izvedbo raziskovalnega dela je bilo uporabljenih pet glavnih spremenljivk; konflikt dela in družine (angl. *Work-family conflict*), tehnološko podprto dopolnilno delo – uporaba IKT za službene namene izven delovnega časa (angl. *Technology-assisted supplemental work - TASW*), postavljanje meja med delom in družino (angl. *Boundary preferences*) , identiteta vlog (angl. *Role identity*) in zahteve doma (angl. *Home demands*). Za merjenje spremenljivk, so bile uporabljene obstoječe lestvice. Raziskava je bila izvedena prek spleta s pomočjo orodja 1Ka, rezultati so bili zbrani z metodo vzorčenja. Povezava do spletnega vprašalnika je bila poslana prek elektronske pošto 443 naslovnikom, ki so nato vprašalnik lahko posredovali naprej. Raziskava je potekala od 10. februarja 2015 do 20. marca 2015, večina pridobljenih rezultatov je prišla iz Slovenije, peščica (N=4) pa tudi s Hrvaške, kjer so ti posamezniki zaposleni v podružnicah slovenskih podjetij. V času raziskave je bilo zbranih 142 anketnih vprašalnikov, od tega jih je bilo 108 uporabnih. Preostalih 34 vprašalnikov je bilo polovično rešenih in ker je manjkalo od 30% do 80% odgovorov sem se odločila, da jih ne vključim v vzorec.

Analiza pridobljenih podatkov je bila opravljena s pomočjo statističnega orodja SPSS (Statistical Program for Social Sciences) za Windows, različica 22.0. Prvi korak je obsegal odstranitev nepopolnih vprašalnikov iz vzorca, ter konstrukcijo spremenljivk. V drugem koraku so bili s centralizacijo posamične spremenljivke in nato množenjem med seboj ustvarjeni moderatorji, ki so bili uporabljeni kasneje, pri testiranju hipotez. Tretji korak je obsegal analizo rezultatov, najprej preverbo demografskih vprašanj ter nato še testiranje hipotez. Za namen raziskave so bile testirane štiri hipoteze.

Rezultati so pokazali, da je uporaba IKT v službene namene izven delovnega časa povezana z vsemi tremi tipi konflikta delo-družino, a značilna le za časovni konflikt in konflikt zaradi napetosti. Pojasnilo najdemo v teoriji omejenosti virov, saj vsak

posameznik razpolaga le z določeno količino časa, denarja ipd. in s tem ko posameznik posveti več časa opravljanju službenih obveznosti doma, mu na drugi strani začne primanjkovati čas za družino in prijatelje, kar pripelje do konflikta delo-družina (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). Uporaba tehnologije za službene namene lahko povzroči tudi konflikt zaradi napetosti, to je pogosto predvsem takrat, ko nas telefon ali e-pošta zmotita za časa stresnega družinskega dogodka. Prav tako je zanimivo dejstvo, da povezava med vedenjskim konfliktom in uporabo IKT ni značilna, razlago lahko poiščemo v tem, da konflikt delo-družina poteka v dveh smereh, tako iz službenega v zasebno življenje kot tudi obratno. Zato bi bilo zanimivo pridobiti rezultate o odvisnosti uporabe tehnologije do konflikta družina-delo. V nadaljevanju so rezultati razkrili, da več posameznikov združuje zasebno in službeno življenje in je tako izpostavljen večji možnosti doživljanja konflikta med delom in družino. Vsak posameznik ne glede na to ali združuje ali ločuje družinsko in službeno življenje ima eno življenjsko vlogo močnejšo od druge. Rezultati so pokazali, da močnejša nagnjenost k službi moderira razmerje med uporabo IKT in konfliktom med delom in družino. Torej posamezniki z močnejšo nagnjenostjo delu, kljub uporabi IKT izven službenega časa za opravljanje dodatnega dela izkusijo manj konflikta kot posamezniki s šibkejšim nagnjenjem k službenim obveznostim.

Starejši in osebe na višjih položaji predstavljajo zgled mlajšim in neizkušenim, zato je v podjetjih pomembno, da predvsem vodilni kader ne pošilja e-pošte v popoldanskih in večernih urah, ter ne kliče zaradi stvari, ki lahko počakajo do ponedeljka. Ravno zaradi tega se marsikatero podjetje in institucija odloča, da po koncu delovnega časa prekine s pošiljanjem notranjih sporočil. Ne glede na politiko podjetja o uporabi IKT izven delovnega časa za službene namene, je pomembno da so o negativnih posledicah ozaveščeni tako delodajalci in zaposleni, saj le poznavanje dejstev lahko vodi do ravnovesja h kateremu težimo vsi.

Kljub izpostavljenosti negativnega vpliva uporabe tehnologije ima ta tudi pozitivne učinke, ki tako podjetjem kot posameznikom omogočajo produktivnejše delo in boljšo izkoriščenost časa. A vseeno se je potrebno zavedati prenasičenosti uporabe IKT za službene namene in poskušati potegniti ločnico med službenim in zasebnim življenjem ter tako zagotoviti ravnovesje in napredek.

Appendix B: List of Abbreviations

A	Attitude Towards Using
BI	Behavioral Intention
CMI	Centre for Methodology and Informatics
CT	Communication technology
FWC	Family-work conflict
HD	Home demands
ICT	Information and communication technologies
PDA	Personal digital assistant
PEOU	Perceived Ease of Use
PU	Perceived Usefulness
SURS	Statistični urad Republike Slovenije
TAM	Technology Acceptance Model
TASW	Technology assisted supplemental work
WCBA	Work connectivity behavior after-hours
WFB	Work-family balance
WFC	Work-family conflict

Appendix C: Glossary

From	**Behavioral-based WFC**
To	Vedenjski konflikt med delom in družino
From	**Boundary preferences**
To	Postavljanje meja
From	**Family – work conflict**
To	Konflikt med družino in delom
From	**Family identity**
To	Družinska vloga
From	**Information and communication technology**
To	Informacijsko komunikacijska tehnologija
From	**Integrators**
To	Združevalci
From	**Segmentors**
To	Razdruževalci
From	**Strain-based WFC**
To	Konflikt med delom in družino zaradi napetosti
From	**Technology assisted supplemental work**
To	Tehnološko podprto dopolnilno delo
From	**Telecommuting/Telework**
To	Delo na daljavo
From	**Time-based WFC**
To	Časovni konflikt med delom in družino
From	**Work – family balance**
To	Ravnovesje med delom in družino
From	**Work – family conflict**
To	Konflikt med delom in družino
From	**Work – family enrichment**
To	Obogatitev dela in družine
From	**Work identity**
To	Poklicna vloga

Appendix D: Survey

Sem študentka mednarodnega magistrskega programa Poslovodenje in organizacija (International Full Time Master Program In Business Administration - IMB) na Ekonomski fakulteti v Ljubljani in v okviru magistrske naloge, pod mentorstvom doc. dr. Katje Mihelič, raziskujem konflikt med delovnimi in družinskimi obveznostmi. Vprašalnik, ki je pred vami, je popolnoma anonimen in vam bo vzel 10 minut časa. Podatki so zaupni in bodo uporabljeni izključno v raziskovalne namene. Za sodelovanje se vam že vnaprej zahvaljujem.

Tanja Gazibarić

Spodaj so navedene nekatere trditve povezane z delom in družino. Opredelite vaše stališče glede vsake trditve, tako da uporabite lestvico od 1 (sploh se ne strinjam) – 5 (povsem se strinjam). Pri odgovorih na vprašanja imejte v mislih, da besedi služba in delo zajemata vse z delom povezane aktivnosti, ki jih opravljate kot del vaše plačane zaposlitve, družina pa zajema vaše življenje doma na splošno, odnose s prijatelji in prostočasne dejavnosti.

1. WFSalience - Uporabite lestvico od 1 (sploh se ne strinjam) do 5 (povsem se strinjam) in označite v kolikšni meri se strinjate z naslednjimi trditvami.

	Sploh se ne strinjam	Se ne strinjam	Niti niti	Se strinjam	Povsem se strinjam
Ljudje me vidijo, kot zelo osredotočenega/-o na delo.					
Veliko časa v svojem življenju posvetim delu.					
Ljudje me vidijo kot zelo osredotočenega/-o na družino.					
Veliko časa v svojem življenju posvetim družini.					

2. HDQuanMent

	Sploh se ne strinjam	Se ne strinjam	Niti niti	Se strinjam	Povsem se strinjam
Doma imam veliko dela.					
Ko sem doma, moram veliko stvari storiti v naglici.					
Doma sem zadolžen/-a za veliko nalog (gospodinjstvo/oskrba otrok).					
Načrtujem in organiziram veliko stvari povezanih z življenjem doma.					
Moram vedeti vse, kar se dogaja doma.					
Doma moram veliko stvari storiti hkrati.					
Doma moram vse natančno usklajevati.					

3. WFc1

	Sploh se ne strinjam	Se ne strinjam	Niti niti	Se strinjam	Povsem se strinjam
Moja služba me preveč odvrača od družinskih aktivnosti.					
Ker v službi preživim veliko časa, ne morem enakovredno sodelovati pri družinskih aktivnostih.					
Zaradi delovnih obveznosti zamujam družinske aktivnosti.					
Pogosto pridem iz službe preveč izčrpan/-a, da bi lahko sodeloval/-a pri družinskih aktivnostih.					
Pogosto pridem iz službe tako čustveno izčrpan/-a, da nisem več zmožen/-na prispevati k družinskemu življenju.					
Zaradi pritiskov v službi sem občasno pod takim stresom, da z družino ne morem početi stvari, v katerih uživam.					
Strategije reševanja problemov, ki jih uporabljam v službi, niso uporabne pri reševanju problemov doma.					
(Moje) obnašanje, ki je učinkovito in potrebno pri delu, je neučinkovito doma.					
Obnašanje, zaradi katerega sem učinkovit/-a v službi, mi ne pomaga, da bi bil/-a boljši/-a član/-ica družine.					

4. Kako pogosto odnesete službene naloge domov, z namenom, da jih boste opravili v popoldanskem času?

- Nikoli
- Vsake toliko
- Od časa do časa
- Večino dni
- Vsak dan

Naslednji sklop trditev se nanaša na vaše izkušnje na delovnem mestu. Te izkušnje so lahko posledica okolja kot tudi vaših osebnih značilnosti in se lahko spreminjajo od časa do časa. Tako kot pri predhodnem sklopu imejte v mislih, da besedi služba in delo zajemata vse z delom povezane aktivnosti, ki jih opravljate kot del vaše plačane zaposlitve.

5. TASW - Na lestvici od 1 (nikoli) do 5 (zelo pogosto) označite, kako pogosto uporabljate informacijsko komunikacijske tehnologije (telefon, računalnik, tablični računalnik, prenosnik) doma, zvečer in med vikendi, za opravljanje službenih obveznosti. IKT je oznaka za informacijsko komunikacijske tehnologije.

	Nikoli	Redko	Včasih	Pogosto	Zelo pogosto
Ko v službenem času ne opravim vsega potrebnega dela, sem pripravljen/-a, zato da bi ga nadoknadil, delati doma zvečer ali ob vikendih z uporabo službene IKT.					
Ko se pozno vrnem iz službe, pustim svoje IKT in jih ne uporabljam v službene namene.					
Zvečer ali ob vikendih opravljam službene obveznosti od doma s pomočjo IKT.					
Imam občutek, da mi IKT omogočajo delo od doma zvečer ali ob vikendih.					
Ko se približuje rok za zaključek projekta, po navadi prinesem službene obveznosti domov in jih opravljam zvečer ali ob vikendih in pri tem uporabljam IKT.					
Ko sem doma, prezrem službene obveznosti in ne uporabljam IKT v službene namene.					

6. Preference - Z uporabo lestvice od 1 (sploh se ne strinjam) do 5 (povsem se strinjam) označite vaše strinjanje z naslednjimi trditvami.

	Sploh se ne strinjam	Se ne strinjam	Niti niti	Se strinjam	Povsem se strinjam
Ko sem doma, ne rad razmišljam o službenih obveznostih.					
Službene obveznosti raje opravljam na delovnem mestu.					
S službenimi problemi se doma nočem ukvarjati.					
Ko grem domov, bi rad pustil delo v službi.					
Moje delovno mesto mi omogoča, da pozabim na službene težave, ko sem doma.					
Kjer sem zaposlen, lahko pustimo svoje delo v službi.					
Na mojem delovnem mestu, ljudje lahko preprečijo, da bi službene obveznosti vplivale na življenje doma.					
V moji službi se lahko zaposleni miselno odklopijo od dela, ko gredo domov.					

Odgovorili ste na vsa vsebinska vprašanja. Za konec vas prosim, da odgovorite še na nekaj demografskih vprašanj.

XSPOL - Spol:

- Moški
- Ženski

Starost v letih: ___

Kakšna je vaša najvišja dosežena izobrazba?

- Osnovnošolska ali manj
- Srednja šola
- Višja visokošolska izobrazba
- Univerzitetna izobrazba
- Specializacija, magisterij ali doktorat

Podatki o delu:

- zaposlen v podjetju za poln ali polovičen delovni čas
- samozaposlen
- trenutno nezaposlen

Delovne izkušnje

- Brez izkušenj
- 1-2 leti
- 3-5 let
- 6-10 let
- 11-15 let
- več kot 15 let

V službi sem:

- 1 - na vodilnem položaju (manager, CEO, direktor/-ica)
- 2- neposredno odgovoren/-na za več skupin oseb (vodja skupine, področja)
- 3 - neposredno odgovoren za eno skupino oseb (vodja tima/projekta/skupine)
- 4 - zaposlen znotraj področja/skupine/tima
- Drugo:

V katero izmed kategorij spada vaš letni dohodek gospodinjstva ?

- Manj kot 20.000 €
- Več kot 20.000 € a manj od 40.000€
- Več kot 40.000 € a manj od 60.000€
- Več kot 60.000 € a manj od 80.000€
- Več kot 80.000 € a manj od 100.000€
- Več kot 100.000 €
- Ne želim odgovoriti

Vaš trenutni stan?

- Poročen
- S partnerjem živiva skupaj, a nisva poročena
- Drugo:

Število otrok

- Brez otrok
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- več kot 4

Koliko časa ste v razmerju z trenutnim partnerjem? (v letih) _____

Koliko časa na dan (24ur) v povprečju namenite naslednjim dejavnostim?

Služba	
Hišna opravila	
Družina	
Spanje	
Hobi (športne ...	

Skupaj	0

Odgovorili ste na vsa vprašanja v tej anketi. Vaše sodelovanje v raziskavi je pripomoglo k pridobitvi pomembnih podatkov za moje magistrsko delo. Hvala za vaše odgovore! Če bi želeli izvedeti rezultate ankete, spodaj vpišite svoj e-mail naslov, saj vam jih lahko pošljem.

E-mail
(npr. janez.novak@gmail.com)
_____

Appendix E: Survey questions adopted from other sources

Work-family conflict (Carlson, Kacmar and Williams, 2000)
My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like. Moja služba me preveč odvrača od družinskih aktivnosti.
The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities. Ker v službi preživim veliko časa, ne morem enakovredno sodelovati pri družinskih aktivnostih.
I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities. Zaradi delovnih obveznosti zamujam družinske aktivnosti.
When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/ responsibilities. Pogosto pridem iz službe preveč izčrpan/-a, da bi lahko sodeloval/-a pri družinskih aktivnostih.
I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family. Pogosto pridem iz službe tako čustveno izčrpan/-a, da nisem več zmožen/-na prispevati k družinskemu življenju.
Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy. Zaradi pritiskov v službi sem občasno pod takim stresom, da z družino ne morem početi stvari, v katerih uživam.
The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home. Strategije reševanja problemov, ki jih uporabljam v službi, niso uporabne pri reševanju problemov doma.
Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home. (Moje) obnašanje, ki je učinkovito in potrebno pri delu, je neučinkovito doma.
The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse. Obnašanje, zaradi katerega sem učinkovit/-a v službi, mi ne pomaga, da bi bil/-a boljši/-a član/-ica družine.
Technology assisted supplemental work - Fenner and Renn (2010) – 6 item scale
When I fall behind in my work during the day, I work hard at home at night or on weekends to get caught up by using my cell phone. Ko v službenem času ne opravim vsega potrebnega dela, sem pripravljen/-a, zato da bi ga nadoknadil, trdo delati doma zvečer ali ob vikendih z uporabo službene IKT.
I leave my cell phone, tablet or and do not use my computer for work-related tasks when I return home from work at night. (R) Ko se pozno vrnem iz službe, pustim svoje IKT in jih ne uporabljam v službene namene.
I perform job-related tasks at home at night or on weekends using my cell phone, pager, BlackBerry® or computer. Zvečer ali ob vikendih opravljam službene obveznosti od doma s pomočjo IKT.
I feel my cell phone, pager, BlackBerry® or computer is helpful in enabling me to work at home at nights or on weekends. Imam občutek, da mi IKT omogočajo delo od doma zvečer ali ob vikendih.
When there is an urgent issue or deadline at work, I tend to bring work-related tasks from home at night or on weekends and use my cell phone, pager, BlackBerry® or computer to perform work-related tasks Ko se približuje rok za zaključek projekta, po navadi prinesem službene obveznosti domov in jih opravljam zvečer ali ob vikendih in pri tem uporabljam IKT.
I ignore job-related tasks at home at night or on weekends using my –cell phone, pager, BlackBerry® or computer. (R) Prezrem službene obveznosti, ko sem doma in ne uporabljam IKT v službene namene.
Work salience scale
People see me as highly focused on my work. Ljudje me vidijo, kot zelo osredotočenega/-o na delo.
I invest a large part of myself in my work.

Veliko časa v svojem življenju posvetim delu.
People see me as highly focused on my family. Ljudje me vidijo kot zelo osredotočenega/-o na družino.
I invest a large part of myself in my family life. Veliko časa v svojem življenju posvetim družini.
Home demands (Peeters, Montgomery, Bakker, and Schaufeli, 2005)
Do you find that you are busy at home? Doma imam veliko dela.
Do you have to do many things in a hurry when you are at home? Ko sem doma, moram veliko stvari storiti v naglici.
Do you have to carry out a lot of tasks at home [household/caring tasks]? Doma sem zadolžen/-a za veliko nalog (gospodinjstvo/oskrba otrok).
Do you find that you have to plan and organize a lot of things in relation to your home life? Načrtujem in organiziram veliko stvari povezanih z življenjem doma.
Do you have to remember a lot of things with regard to your home life? Moram vedeti vse, kar se dogaja doma.
Do you have to do many things simultaneously at home? Doma moram veliko stvari storiti hkrati.
Do you have to coordinate everything carefully at home? Doma moram vse natančno usklajevati.
Preferences (Kreiner, 2006)
I don't like to have to think about work while I'm at home. Ko sem doma, ne rad razmišljam o službenih obveznostih.
I prefer to keep work life at work. Službene obveznosti raje opravljam na delovnem mestu.
I don't like work issues creeping into my home life. S službenimi problemi se doma nočem ukvarjati.
I like to be able to leave work behind when I go home. Ko grem domov, bi rad pustil delo v službi.
My workplace lets people forget about work when they're at home. Moje delovno mesto mi omogoča, da pozabim na službene težave, ko sem doma.
Where I work, people can keep work matters at work. Kjer sem zaposlen, lahko pustimo svoje delo v službi.
At my workplace, people are able to prevent work issues from creeping into their home life. Na mojem delovnem mestu, ljudje lahko preprečijo, da bi službene obveznosti vplivale na življenje doma.
Where I work, people can mentally leave work behind when they go home. V moji službi se lahko zaposleni miselno odklopijo od dela, ko gredo domov.

Appendix F: Hypothesis 1 – SPSS Results

Hypothesis 1 - Technology assisted supplemental work positively influences work-family conflict

Regression model: $WFC = \alpha + \beta \times TASW$

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	TASW[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: WFC

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,457[a]	,208	,201	,62992

a. Predictors: (Constant), TASW

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11,073	1	11,073	27,906	,000[b]
	Residual	42,061	106	,397		
	Total	53,134	107			

a. Dependent Variable: WFC

b. Predictors: (Constant), TASW

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,053	,177		11,583	,000
	TASW	,309	,058	,457	5,283	,000

a. Dependent Variable: WFC

Hypothesis 1a: TASW has influence on time-based WFC

Regression model: $WFC\text{-time based} = \alpha + \beta \times TASW$

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	TASW[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: WFC-time

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,433[a]	,187	,180	,86720

a. Predictors: (Constant), TASW

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	18,370	1	18,370	24,428	,000[b]
	Residual	79,715	106	,752		
	Total	98,085	107			

a. Dependent Variable: WFC-time

b. Predictors: (Constant), TASW

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,715	,244		7,030	,000
	TASW	,398	,080	,433	4,942	,000

a. Dependent Variable: WFC-time

Hypothesis 1b: TASW has influence on strain-based WFC

Regression model: WFC-strain based = $\alpha + \beta$ x TASW

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	TASW[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: WFC-strain

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,403[a]	,163	,155	,84776

a. Predictors: (Constant), TASW

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	14,802	1	14,802	20,595	,000[b]
	Residual	76,182	106	,719		
	Total	90,984	107			

a. Dependent Variable: WFC-strain

b. Predictors: (Constant), TASW

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,828	,239		7,664	,000
	TASW	,357	,079	,403	4,538	,000

a. Dependent Variable: WFC-strain

Hypothesis 1c: TASW has influence on behavior-based WFC

Regression model: WFC-behavior based = $\alpha + \beta$ x TASW

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	TASW[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: WFC-behavior

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,202[a]	,041	,032	,87026

a. Predictors: (Constant), TASW

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3,421	1	3,421	4,517	,036[b]
	Residual	80,279	106	,757		
	Total	83,700	107			

a. Dependent Variable: WFC-behavior

b. Predictors: (Constant), TASW

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,616	,245		10,682	,000
	TASW	,172	,081	,202	2,125	,036

a. Dependent Variable: WFC-behavior

Appendix G: Hypothesis 2 – SPSS Results

Correlations

Correlations

		TASW	Preferences
TASW	Pearson Correlation	1	-,572**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	108	108
Preferences	Pearson Correlation	-,572**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	108	108

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Preferences[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: TASW

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,572[a]	,328	,321	,85814

a. Predictors: (Constant), Preferences

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	38,051	1	38,051	51,672	,000[b]
	Residual	78,059	106	,736		
	Total	116,110	107			

a. Dependent Variable: TASW

b. Predictors: (Constant), Preferences

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5,232	,342		15,316	,000
	Preferences	-,698	,097	-,572	-7,188	,000

a. Dependent Variable: TASW

Appendix H: Hypothesis 3 – SPSS Results

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Number of children, Gender, Education, Age, Work experience[b]	.	Enter
2	TASW[b]	.	Enter
3	Home demands[b]	.	Enter
4	TASWxHome demands[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: WFC

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,250[a]	,062	,016	,69891
2	,477[b]	,228	,182	,63745
3	,484[c]	,234	,181	,63789
4	,489[d]	,239	,177	,63910

a. Predictors: (Constant), Number of children, Gender, Education, Age, Work experience

b. Predictors: (Constant), Number of children, Gender, Education, Age, Work experience, TASW

c. Predictors: (Constant), Number of children, Gender, Education, Age, Work experience, TASW, Home demands

d. Predictors: (Constant), Number of children, Gender, Education, Age, Work experience, TASW, Home demands, TASWxHome demands

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3,309	5	,662	1,355	,248[b]
	Residual	49,825	102	,488		
	Total	53,134	107			
2	Regression	12,094	6	2,016	4,961	,000[c]
	Residual	41,040	101	,406		
	Total	53,134	107			
3	Regression	12,444	7	1,778	4,369	,000[d]
	Residual	40,691	100	,407		
	Total	53,134	107			
4	Regression	12,697	8	1,587	3,886	,001[e]
	Residual	40,437	99	,408		
	Total	53,134	107			

a. Dependent Variable: WFC

b. Predictors: (Constant), Number of children, Gender, Education, Age, Work experience

c. Predictors: (Constant), Number of children, Gender, Education, Age, Work experience, TASW

d. Predictors: (Constant), Number of children, Gender, Education, Age, Work experience, TASW, Home demands

e. Predictors: (Constant), Number of children, Gender, Education, Age, Work experience, TASW, Home demands, TASWxHome demands

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,784	,524		5,312	,000
	Gender	-,233	,140	-,165	-1,664	,099
	Age	-,005	,012	-,079	-,471	,639
	Education	,044	,078	,057	,560	,577
	Work experience	,114	,094	,217	1,216	,227
	Number of children	,012	,080	,017	,145	,885
2	(Constant)	2,186	,495		4,417	,000
	Gender	-,087	,132	-,062	-,663	,509
	Age	-,006	,010	-,086	-,563	,575
	Education	-,017	,072	-,022	-,237	,813
	Work experience	,023	,088	,044	,262	,794
	Number of children	,080	,074	,119	1,080	,283
	TASW	,304	,065	,449	4,650	,000
3	(Constant)	1,838	,622		2,956	,004
	Gender	-,122	,137	-,087	-,893	,374
	Age	-,005	,011	-,078	-,508	,613
	Education	-,005	,073	-,007	-,073	,942
	Work experience	,026	,088	,049	,293	,770
	Number of children	,058	,078	,085	,738	,462
	TASW	,311	,066	,460	4,723	,000
	Home demands	,049	,053	,092	,927	,356
4	(Constant)	2,550	1,098		2,323	,022
	Gender	-,127	,137	-,090	-,924	,358
	Age	-,005	,011	-,069	-,445	,657
	Education	-,013	,074	-,017	-,176	,861
	Work experience	,021	,088	,041	,243	,809
	Number of children	,056	,078	,082	,711	,479
	TASW	,062	,322	,092	,194	,847
	Home demands	,051	,053	,097	,967	,336
	TASWxHome demands	-,067	,085	-,375	-,788	,432

a. Dependent Variable: WFC

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	TASW	,449[b]	4,650	,000	,420	,820
	Home demands	,037[b]	,337	,737	,034	,784
	TASWxHome demands	-,453[b]	-4,714	,000	-,425	,822
2	Home demands	,092[c]	,927	,356	,092	,773
	TASWxHome demands	-,350[c]	-,736	,463	-,073	,034
3	TASWxHome demands	-,375[d]	-,788	,432	-,079	,034

Appendix I: Hypothesis 4 – SPSS Results

Hypothesis 4a: Work identity will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age[b]	.	Enter
2	TASW[b]	.	Enter
3	Work identity[b]	.	Enter
4	TASWxWork identity[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: WFC

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,250[a]	,062	,016	,69891
2	,477[b]	,228	,182	,63745
3	,490[c]	,240	,187	,63532
4	,513[d]	,263	,204	,62888

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW

c. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW, Work identity

d. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW, Work identity, TASWxWork identity

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3,309	5	,662	1,355	,248[b]
	Residual	49,825	102	,488		
	Total	53,134	107			
2	Regression	12,094	6	2,016	4,961	,000[c]
	Residual	41,040	101	,406		
	Total	53,134	107			
3	Regression	12,771	7	1,824	4,520	,000[d]
	Residual	40,363	100	,404		
	Total	53,134	107			
4	Regression	13,981	8	1,748	4,419	,000[e]
	Residual	39,154	99	,395		
	Total	53,134	107			

a. Dependent Variable: WFC

b. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age

c. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW

d. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW, Work identity

e. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW, Work identity, TASWxWork identity

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,784	,524		5,312	,000
	Gender	-,233	,140	-,165	-1,664	,099
	Age	-,005	,012	-,079	-,471	,639
	Education	,044	,078	,057	,560	,577
	Number of children	,012	,080	,017	,145	,885
	Work experience	,114	,094	,217	1,216	,227
2	(Constant)	2,186	,495		4,417	,000
	Gender	-,087	,132	-,062	-,663	,509
	Age	-,006	,010	-,086	-,563	,575
	Education	-,017	,072	-,022	-,237	,813
	Number of children	,080	,074	,119	1,080	,283
	Work experience	,023	,088	,044	,262	,794
	TASW	,304	,065	,449	4,650	,000
3	(Constant)	1,638	,650		2,520	,013
	Gender	-,072	,132	-,051	-,544	,588
	Age	-,003	,011	-,048	-,307	,759
	Education	-,028	,072	-,037	-,389	,698
	Number of children	,060	,075	,090	,800	,425
	Work experience	,007	,088	,014	,081	,936
	TASW	,301	,065	,445	4,618	,000
	Work identity	,150	,115	,119	1,295	,198
4	(Constant)	1,706	,645		2,646	,009
	Gender	-,079	,130	-,056	-,602	,548
	Age	,003	,011	,041	,252	,802
	Education	-,004	,073	-,006	-,058	,954
	Number of children	,052	,075	,077	,691	,491
	Work experience	-,012	,088	-,023	-,140	,889
	TASW	,286	,065	,422	4,387	,000
	Work identity	,092	,119	,073	,770	,443
	TASWxWork identity	,181	,104	,170	1,749	,000

a. Dependent Variable: WFC

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	TASW	,449[b]	4,650	,000	,420	,820
	Work identity	,134[b]	1,328	,187	,131	,894
	TASWxWork identity	,248[b]	2,470	,015	,239	,866
2	Work identity	,119[c]	1,295	,198	,128	,893
	TASWxWork identity	,191[c]	2,048	,043	,201	,850
3	TASWxWork identity	,170[d]	1,749	,000	,173	,784

a. Dependent Variable: WFC

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW

d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW, Work identity

Hypothesis 4b: Family identity will moderate the relationship between TASW and WFC

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age[b]	.	Enter
2	TASW[b]	.	Enter
3	Family identity[b]	.	Enter
4	TASWxFamily identity[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: WFC

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,250[a]	,062	,016	,69891
2	,477[b]	,228	,182	,63745
3	,493[c]	,243	,190	,63439
4	,496[d]	,246	,185	,63634

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW

c. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW, Family

d. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW, Family identity, TASWxFamily identity

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3,309	5	,662	1,355	,248[b]
	Residual	49,825	102	,488		
	Total	53,134	107			
2	Regression	12,094	6	2,016	4,961	,000[c]
	Residual	41,040	101	,406		
	Total	53,134	107			
3	Regression	12,889	7	1,841	4,575	,000[d]
	Residual	40,245	100	,402		
	Total	53,134	107			
4	Regression	13,046	8	1,631	4,027	,000[e]
	Residual	40,088	99	,405		
	Total	53,134	107			

a. Dependent Variable: WFC

b. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age

c. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW

d. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW,

e. Predictors: (Constant), Work experience, Gender, Education, Number of children, Age, TASW, Family identity, TASWxFamily identity

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,784	,524		5,312	,000
	Gender	-,233	,140	-,165	-1,664	,099
	Age	-,005	,012	-,079	-,471	,639
	Education	,044	,078	,057	,560	,577
	Number of children	,012	,080	,017	,145	,885
	Work experience	,114	,094	,217	1,216	,227
2	(Constant)	2,186	,495		4,417	,000
	Gender	-,087	,132	-,062	-,663	,509
	Age	-,006	,010	-,086	-,563	,575
	Education	-,017	,072	-,022	-,237	,813
	Number of children	,080	,074	,119	1,080	,283
	Work experience	,023	,088	,044	,262	,794
	TASW	,304	,065	,449	4,650	,000
3	(Constant)	2,785	,651		4,277	,000
	Gender	-,077	,131	-,055	-,588	,558
	Age	-,008	,011	-,118	-,765	,446
	Education	-,029	,072	-,038	-,402	,688
	Number of children	,107	,076	,158	1,401	,164
	Work experience	,030	,087	,057	,343	,732
	TASW	,277	,068	,409	4,076	,000
	Family identity	-,127	,090	-,137	-1,405	,163
4	(Constant)	2,807	,654		4,292	,000
	Gender	-,081	,132	-,058	-,617	,539
	Age	-,007	,011	-,107	-,686	,494
	Education	-,031	,073	-,040	-,422	,674
	Number of children	,101	,077	,150	1,313	,192
	Work experience	,022	,089	,042	,247	,805
	TASW	,274	,068	,405	4,020	,000
	Family identity	-,125	,091	-,136	-1,386	,169
	TASWxFamily identity	-,051	,081	-,056	-,623	,535