

**Understanding work-life balance: Organizational predictors, effect on job
satisfaction, and moderation by age and gender**

by

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Abstract

Work-life balance is closely related to the well-being of both individuals and organizations, thus raising great interest from researchers. Antecedents and outcomes of work-life balance have been widely studied in the past. In this study, relationships between work-life balance and three work-related predictors (i.e., personal income, flexible work schedule, and work stress), and one work-related outcome (i.e., job satisfaction) were examined from a perspective of age and gender, using the theory of resource allocation. In Study 1, using data from the 2016 General Social Survey (GSS), I found that personal income was associated with work-life balance, moderated by gender; work stress was associated with work-life balance, moderated by age. In Study 2, using MTurk sample, I found further support for the effect of personal income on work-life balance, and demonstrated this effect was mediated by job demands. Further support was also found for the effect of work stress on work-life balance, which was mediated by psychological detachment. However, Study 2 did not replicate the moderating effects of gender and age. Theoretical and practical implications of the results are discussed.

Keywords: work-life balance, gender, age

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Understanding work-life balance: Organizational predictors, effect on job satisfaction, and moderation by age and gender

Work-life balance refers to “a high level of engagement in work life as well as nonwork life with minimal conflict between social roles in work and nonwork life” (Sirgy & Lee, 2018, p. 232). It seems hard to overstate the importance of work-life balance. Life and work are the two main fixed points of an individual. The imbalance between these two domains would negatively impact physical and mental health as well as the subjective well-being of an individual (Bohle et al., 2004). Moreover, having an imbalance of work and life is positively correlated with employees’ absenteeism and turnover rates and negatively correlated with their productivity and engagement (Lazar et al., 2010). Smooth organizational and societal operations require that each person is able to successfully coordinate their work and life roles. Reflecting the importance of work-life balance, considerable research has examined its antecedents and outcomes (Jain & K, 2013; Sirgy & Lee, 2018; Hyman & Summers, 2004; Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Kalliath & Brough, 2008; Shockley & Singla, 2011).

Work-life balance, by definition, emphasizes the balance of work and non-work domains (Sirgy & Lee, 2018). Therefore, in the literature, antecedents related to work-life balance fall into two broad groups: non-work (family-related) antecedents, such as child care duties and spousal support; or work-related (organizational) antecedents, such as work stress, flexible work schedule, and income (Lu, Siu, Spector & Shi, 2009; Holly & Mohnen, 2012; Bell, Rajendran & Theile, 2012; Treas & de Ruijter, 2008). Similarly, the outcomes studied are frequently also of two types: satisfaction in the non-work domain (e.g., general life satisfaction) and satisfaction in the work domain (i.e., job satisfaction; Haar, Russo & Ollier-Malaterre, 2014; Carlson, Kacmar & William, 2000).

This study focused on the work side of work-life balance, especially on the three work-related antecedents (i.e., personal income, flexible work schedule, work stress) and one work-related outcome (i.e., job satisfaction). These focuses are based on reasons that the four variables are important and representative for the work side of work-life balance, and there are still unclear understandings about their relationships with work-life balance in the literature.

The representativeness of the three work factors stems from the core components of

work-life balance in measurement. In other words, the measurement of work-life balance in the literature has two main components. One focuses on the time-based conflicts between work and life domains; the other focuses on the stress-based conflicts (Pichler, 2009). Therefore, personal income and flexible work schedules represent time-based interference in work and life domains (Guest, 2002), and work stress represents stress-based as well as time-based work-life interference (Stanton et al., 2001).

The importance of the work-side of work-life balance is in terms of theoretical and practical fields. For an individual, work provides social ties, sense of accomplishment, and self-worth to individuals (Wrzesniewski, 2003; Morse & Weiss, 1955). For organizations, the organization can observe employees' working status more easily than their life situations. Therefore, the focus of the work side can offer more practical support in the workplace to enhance employees' work-life balance. Considering the significant role of work for an individuals' psychological wellbeing and organizations' well-operating, researchers should explore how work-life balance is impacted from the work side.

However, existing literature has an unclear understanding of the work side of work-life balance, especially of the relationships between work-life balance and its three organizational predictors and job satisfaction. For example, regarding income, one line of argument claims that income provides resources for individuals to balance their time and energy in work and family domains, and thus reduces work-life conflict and increases work-life balance (Treas & de Ruijter, 2008; Lu, Siu, Spector & Shi, 2009). At the same time, another view argues that financial resources have no clear and direct relationship with work-life balance (Mcnamara et al., 2013). This work addressed the uncertainties arising from previous findings.

In addition to the direct relationships between work-life balance with work factors and outcome, two key moderators were examined in the present study: age and gender. Although these two demographic factors are widely considered in work-life balance studies, they are seldom examined as moderators in a model of work-life balance with its predictors and outcomes. Considerable research has confirmed that work-life balance is not the same among different age groups and different genders (Huffman et al., 2013; Truxillo et al., 2012; Pleck, 1985; Shockley et al., 2017). For example, age is positively related to work-life balance by some researchers (Truxillo et al., 2012). Females and males have different perceptions of

work-life balance because they have different valued roles or expectations from society (Wang & Cho, 2013; Shockley et al., 2017). However, seldom research looked into the question of whether work-life balance is impacted by work factors differently among different age groups and genders. Whether work-life balance impacted job satisfaction differently among different age groups and genders? And how it happens?

The present thesis with two studies was aimed to answer these questions and address the gaps in understanding of work-life balance. Study 1, using a sample of 6785 participants in Canada's 2016 General social survey (GSS; Statistics Canada, 2016) database, examined the direct relationships between work-life balance and work factors (i.e., personal income, flexible work schedule, work stress, and job satisfaction), and moderating roles of age and gender. Study 2, using a MTurk sample, partially confirmed and extended the previous study. Building on the perspective of resource allocation, a theoretical framework was set up in Study 2 to uncover the mechanisms of how work factors and demographic differences interact to influence work-life balance.

Study 1: Theory

Work-life balance involves an experience of integration, or at least minimal conflict, between one's social role in work and non-work domains (Sirgy & Lee, 2018). It is a broad concept with two dimensions: work-life enrichment and work-life conflict. *Work-life enrichment* refers to participation in one domain that is made easier by experience, skills, and opportunities gained in the other domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). For example, a manager reported that being a mother and watching children grow made her be patient with employees and let them grow in a way that is good for them (Ruderman, et al., 2002:373). In this example, work-life enrichment has shown that the role of a mother in the life domain enhanced the role of a manager in the work domain. *Work-life conflict* refers to an inter-role conflict where the role demands of one domain interfere with satisfying the demands of a role in another domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, some respondents in the study of Reddick et al. (2012, p. 5-6) reported that there was always more work to be done, and the pressure to be productive at work negatively impacted time spent with spouses and children. In addition, some other respondents in the study also reported that being a father of children

leads to less time working at a career. This example showed a bi-directional interference between work and life. Combining these two dimensions, work-life balance is a feeling of satisfaction in both work and non-work domains achieved by low levels of conflict and a high level of enrichment (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011).

In the following sections, I describe the relationship between work-life balance and factors which I tested in this study, focusing first on its relationship with job satisfaction and then with organizational factors. I then close with a discussion of age and gender.

Work-life balance and job satisfaction

Outcomes of work-life balance are found in both life and work domains. For example, work-life balance is found to be related to life satisfaction and mental health (Haar, Russo & Ollier-Malaterre, 2014). However, the emphasis in this thesis is on work-related aspects of work-life balance, and in this domain, research attention has focused on job satisfaction (Bozionelos & Hughes, 2007; Ford et al., 2009).

Job satisfaction is defined as how people like their jobs and how they like the different aspects of the job (Spector, 1997). Based on this definition, researchers further defined job satisfaction from an individual's internal state, from which they argued that satisfaction towards one's job is reflected by internal states like motivation to work and a sense of accomplishment (Mullins, 2005; Hackman & Oldham, 1975). In addition, the sense of belonging to an organization is also a facet of this internal state. A sense of belonging is defined as a feeling of being an integral part of the system (Hagerty et al., 1992). A sense of belonging to the organization, therefore, shows an internal connection with the organization and can be a facet of job satisfaction reflecting employees' satisfaction towards work conditions. From this point of view, job satisfaction can be reflected by a sense of belonging to the organization.

Two dominant streams of research have been active in understanding and measuring job satisfaction. The first stream builds on measuring multiple elements and aspects of a job. These aspects include, for example, pay, work, promotion, supervision, and coworkers (Spector, 1997). Later research further summarized aspects as working conditions and development opportunities (Zhu, 2012). A multiple-item measure considered the fact that individuals weigh elements of job satisfaction differently when they assess job satisfaction

(Spector, 1997). It allows researchers to have a comprehensive exploration of job satisfaction in a specific organizational context. For example, a scale from Tourangeau et al. (2006) measures the job satisfaction of nurses with seven aspects (e.g., work conditions, social opportunities, colleague relationships) and has good validity and reliability. The second stream builds on measuring job satisfaction through a single, summary assessment, typically asking, “All in all, would you say you are satisfied with your job or not?” This summative approach has the advantage that it eliminates specific and particular job conditions when researchers explore job satisfaction among different occupations (Oshagbemi, 1999). Both streams of the measurement of job satisfaction were found to be effective and acceptable (Wanous et al., 1997; Oshagbemi, 1999), but Oshagbemi (1999) suggested choosing a measure depends on the object of the research. Since there are unique benefits to both approaches, both multiple and single measurements were used in this study.

When the balance of work and life is satisfied, employees are more likely to feel satisfied with their jobs (Haar et al., 2014). Balance of work and life is positively related to individuals’ motivation to perform at work and the sense of accomplishment towards the job, which are important factors of job satisfaction. For example, balance in both domains implies a high level of enrichment from family to work domains. As such, support from the family domain enhances an individual’s motivation to perform at work (Sarwar & Khalid, 2015). Additionally, the balance of work and life is defined as the accomplishment of role-related activities, which include both life and work roles (Roberts, 2007). When individuals feel accomplishment at work, they are, to some extent, satisfied with their jobs.

Likewise, an imbalance of work and life is negatively related to job satisfaction. A finding from research on inter-role interference leads to individuals’ concerns about time pressure from work and enhances their intentions to reduce working hours (Laurijssen & Glorieux, 2013). This finding supported that individuals’ dissatisfaction resulted from an imbalance of work and life. The evidence above showed a positive relation between work-life balance and job satisfaction. This positive relationship is also confirmed in other studies (Kanwar et al., 2009; Maeran et al., 2013; Cortese et al., 2010). For example, Maeran et al. (2013) investigated the relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction and found that work-life conflict negatively and work-life enrichment positively related to job

satisfaction.

Antecedents of work-life balance

Concerning the antecedents of work-life balance, predictors in the literature are divided into two categories: family-related factors and organizational factors. Family-related factors, including child care responsibilities, spousal support, and parental experience around responsibilities and duties in family roles, are found to be related to work-life conflict and enrichment (Lu, Siu, Spector & Shi, 2009). Child care has been treated as a core issue in the family domain. On this issue, the number and age of children are associated with a parent's responsibility. Lu, Siu, Spector, and Shi (2009) found that the more children one has and the younger the child is, raised more demands upon a parent and thus caused more interference between parenting demands and job activities. Such family-related antecedents are important influences on work-life balance, but are also beyond the scope of the studies here. They served as control variables, but not as focal antecedents, in this study.

Organizational factors, especially job characteristics, were widely studied in the work-life balance field (Sirg & Lee, 2018). In this study, I focused on three organizational factors, namely, personal income, flexible work schedule, and work stress for two reasons. Despite their being commonly-used and representative factors in existing work-life balance literature, they are also antecedents with uncertain or mixed empirical findings. Their importance to the study of work-life balance is shown by scholars. Pichler (2009) argued that current large-scale social surveys had an overlap in the wording to describe the indicators of work-life balance, and this overlap showed the core components of work-life balance in measurement, which are time-based and stress-based (fatigue) conflicts between work and life. Furthermore, flexible work schedules and income are highly associated with time-based interference between work and non-work domains (Guest, 2002). Work stress represented stress-based work-life conflicts and also represented a perception of being time-pressured at work (Stanton et al., 2001).

Moreover, despite the importance of these three organizational factors, there is still an insufficient understanding of their influences on work-life balance. In the following paragraphs, I stated the current understanding of each one.

One's level of financial resources, particularly *personal income*, is a dominant factor of

job characteristics and is one of the indicators when employees evaluate a “good job” (Loscocco, 1989; Clark, 2005).

Regarding the relationship between personal income and work-life balance, compelling views are held from different scholars. One view argued that financial resource facilitates work-life balance because it makes life easier and more enjoyable by purchasing services and goods (Treas & de Ruijter, 2008). In other words, income could provide resources for individuals to balance their time and energy in work and family domains, thus reducing work-life conflict and increasing work-life balance (Treas & de Ruijter, 2008; Lu, Siu, Spector & Shi, 2009). The opposing view argued that financial resources have no clear and direct relationship with work-life balance (Mcnamara et al., 2013). Davis, Shevchuk & Strebkov (2014) gave a possible explanation for their finding of the non- relationship between income and work-life balance: when individuals have more income, they may care more about maintaining the standard of living rather than enjoying a sense of balance in work and life. Therefore, due to an unclear relationship between income and work-life balance in the existing literature, income is an essential predictor and was examined in this study.

Flexible work schedule refers to a schedule that provides employees with opportunities to have discretion in defining time dimensions at work (Pierce & Newstrom, 1982, p. 9). It is also defined as “discretion in determining the timing, pace, and location at which role requirements are met” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80). Both of these definitions emphasize a sense of controlling time gained by employees, which can be viewed as a resource when employees manage work-life balance (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; McNall et al., 2009).

Previous studies confirmed that flexibility at work is one of the job characteristics positively influencing work-life balance (Hayman, 2009; Hill et al., 2001). These studies explored this positive relationship on the perspective of resources: by utilizing the resources of a flexible work schedule, employees might produce positive effects (e.g., enthusiasm), and in turn, benefit his or her interaction with family (McNall et al., 2009). This might also have a higher sense of control over work and family, and in turn, reduce work-life conflicts (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Based on this perspective of resources, a flexible work schedule provides resources for employees to deal with responsibilities outside work, thus reducing inter-role

conflict and promoting role enrichment (Russell et al., 2009). However, flexibility also presents the potential risk of blurring work and non-work boundaries. If employees think that they can address non-work matters during a typical workday through the use of flexibility, they may likewise find themselves addressing work-matters during non-work time. In the study of Kelliher and Anderson (2008), some interviewees acknowledged this phenomenon of blurring boundaries; they tended to check emails late after work and on the weekends, and at the same time, they felt more time-intensity at work. Breugh and Farabee (2012) also pointed out that the blurring of the work and non-work boundary is one negative outcome of a flexible work schedule that people may not be able to control work contact at work and after work. When an individual has difficulty in delimiting this boundary clearly, conflict with family members may occur (Maruyama & Tietze, 2012). Therefore, due to an uncertain relationship between flexible work schedules and work-life balance, a flexible work schedule was examined in this study.

Work stress is a construct reflecting an individual's perception of job demands (Bowen et al., 2014). Work stress is defined as a psychological and physical state when an individual perceives a deficit between demands and their ability to meet these demands at work, and stressors are elements that may induce stress perceptions (Williams et al., 2001). These stressors include elements of the person (e.g., personality, abilities), the work (e.g., task significance), the organizational environment (e.g., team environment) and non-organizational environment (e.g., family responsibility; DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1998; Williams et al., 2010). When stressors exceed an individual's capability to cope, stress would be perceived.

Literature about stress categorizes it according to whether it is a positive or negative psychological response to stressors (McGowan et al., 2006). While considerable studies focused on the work stress's negative influence on individuals' wellbeing (Dua, 1994), growing interest showed the positive influence of work stress (Hargrove et al., 2013). Work stress is found to be associated with work-life balance (Bell, Rajendran & Theile, 2012) but mostly focused on the negative influence of work stress on work-life balance. Bell, Rajendran, and Theiler (2012) examined this negative relationship. They proposed a spillover model that negative and uncomfortable feelings brought by work stress would flow into the life domain,

and would lead to more work-life conflict and ill-being. Goodman and Crouter (2009) also confirmed that work stress led to a negative spillover from work to family and resulted in a higher level of depressive symptoms. However, whether work stress has a positive aspect enhancing work-life balance did not receive much attention from researchers. Only one paper from Swody (2006) argued a positive work-family spillover model. They confirmed that “good work stress” or eustress at work was a source of positive psychological state in the work domain, and it enriched the family domain.

Moderators of work-life balance relationships: Age

Age is a dominant variable considered by researchers in the work-life balance field (Huffman et al., 2013; Richert-Kaźmierska & Stankiewicz, 2016). The definition of work-life balance concerns role conflicts and enrichment. Therefore, these two research domains regard roles in ones’ work and life, and the roles of individuals are not stable and unchanged over a lifetime (Super, 1980). As described by Super (1980), some roles appear, and others disappear during the lifespan. At the same time, individuals’ preferences for specific roles alter in the life span (Ng & Feldman, 2007). Based on Ng and Feldman (2007), when people get older, they prefer to stay with family rather than spending time at work. Therefore, the change of old roles and the appearance of new roles in both life and work domains requires individuals to give responses and take action, which influences the current perception of one’s satisfaction towards work role, life role, or the balance of work and life roles.

This study examined two questions regarding age. One is to examine whether the impact of personal income, flexible work schedule, and work stress on work-life balance is influenced by an individual’s perception of work and life, changing with age. The other is to examine whether the relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction is influenced by age. In the following paragraphs, I first discuss the moderating effects of age in relation to the three organizational antecedents in this study; and then discuss its effect in relation to job satisfaction.

Age’s moderating effect on the relationship between personal income and work-life balance.

Individuals in different age groups have different attitudes towards personal income. A survey by Foster (2015) illustrated that the proportion of one’s total spending with different types of expenditures (e.g., food, housing, health care) is different in different age groups.

Except for the reasons of role difference among age groups, different money attitudes also resulted in this pattern of expenditures. One view of people's attitudes toward money is that when people get older, they are likely to devote more money to family. There is one study exploring the aged persons' attitudes of financial rewards. Reingold et al. (1971) found that buying presents for children or grandchildren was a dominant way of aged people spending money, and it was viewed as a way of communicating love to the family. However, this study was conducted forty-nine years ago, aged persons' money attitudes may be different because of the changing times. A recent study of Margolis and Myrskylä (2013) explored the importance of income and family on individuals' well-being and found that income showed no importance after age 50, and the family had little importance across age. Although little literature studied how the relationship between income and work-life balance varies by age, age differences seem to exist in how individuals perceive their financial rewards and the importance of work-life balance.

Age's moderating effect on the relationship between flexible work schedule and work-life balance.

The moderating effect of age on the relationship between flexible work schedules and work-life balance might exist due to changing role responsibilities across the lifespan. A study from Martinengo et al. (2010) examined the influence of job flexibility on work-life conflict in different life stages with various life courses. They found that job flexibility predicted lower work-life conflict more strongly in the parenthood stage and predicted greater work-life fit more strongly in later life stages, when their children were teenagers or they had an empty nest.

Age's moderating effect on the relationship between work stress and work-life balance.

Work stress also might have a differential impact on work-life balance in different age groups. From a perspective of experience, aging brings experience and expertise to individuals and helps them cope with stress or troubles in work as well as life domains. A few studies confirmed the increasing coping strategies for various problems, including family problems, when people get older (Thompson et al., 2001; Etter et al., 2012; Aldhafri et al., n.d.). However, various coping strategies were studied and found to have different influences (Chen et al., 2018). Chen et al. (2018) studied how aged persons perceive stress and use

different types of strategies to cope with the negative and positive effects of stress. They found that older people were less likely to use a problem-focus coping strategy and thus had less possibility to gain the positive effect of stress. Therefore, individuals' responses to stress may vary with age but not in a predictable direction.

Age's moderating effect on the relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction.

In addition, some studies examined the relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction from an age perspective. Hill et al. (2014) examined work-life interference and job satisfaction in three different age groups and found that older workers (age 55+) reported greater work-life fit and job satisfaction than younger workers (age less than 35 and 35 to 54). They explained that even though older workers have the greatest care-giving responsibilities, they may better utilize extra resources (e.g., job flexibility) to help themselves achieve work-life fit. Moreover, they also found that the positive relationship between work-life fit and job satisfaction is weaker for older workers. Although Kaliannan, Perumal, and Dorasamy (2016) did not examine the effect of age, they found that doctors born before 1980 reported greater job satisfaction that led to higher work-life balance than doctors born after because older doctors have been in the field longer. In sum, the aging process might change an individuals' perceptions of organizational factors in the workplace. The aging process might also bring experience and expertise to individuals and help them cope with stress and troubles in work as well as life domains. Therefore, age is important to be considered in the studies about how individuals cope with work-life roles and how their perception about work-life roles changes.

Moderators of work-life balance relationships: Gender

Gender is one of the dominant variables causing the different patterns of individuals' work-life balance. Pleck (1985) stated that the main difference related to gender, resulting from a different perception of the interference of work on the family, leads to a different level of work-life conflict between women and men. Firstly, the literature showed that men are more likely to be psychologically involved in work and devote more time and effort to work (Gerson, 1993). However, later research reported that women spend as much time at work as men, but are involved in more domestic duties than men (Bergman & Gardiner, 2007; Lewis, 2009). This suggests that women are more likely than men to shoulder responsibilities in both work roles and life roles, which could lead to more work-life interference among women.

Secondly, when women are at work, they are attuned to face more barriers and stereotypes from the organization than men (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986). In order to get promoted, women need to put in more effort at work than men due to inequity (Gorman & Kmec, 2007; Johnston & Lee, 2012). The greater involvement in the work role leads to difficulties in fulfilling the requirements in life roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). However, women tend to input more time and care in the family (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). Therefore, this tension between work and family evokes work-life conflicts among women. Men would be less likely to feel this tension. Similarly, due to gender stereotypes and barriers for women, women are not treated as well as men when doing work and find it hard to meet employers' and coworkers' standard of ideal workers (Bardoel et al., 2011; Brumley, 2018). In spite of women's increasing representation in the labor force, the glass ceiling is still intact in women's organizational leadership (Chisholm-Burns, 2017). The above evidence suggested that women have more difficulties in gaining work-life balance than men. However, a meta-analysis from Shockley (2017) challenged this argument and indicated that women and men appear to be more similar than different in experiencing the work-life conflict. Therefore, the current literature did not give a clear direction of whether gender affects work-life balance.

Above, it is showed that there might have a direct relationship between gender and work-life balance in the literature. However, the current study focuses on the moderation effect of gender in the work-life-balance models. In other words, the current study asked whether the interaction of gender and organizational factors affected work-life balance, and whether the interaction of work-life balance and gender affected job satisfaction. Below, I first discuss the interactions concerning the three organizational factors in my study and then discuss the interaction with work-life balance on job satisfaction.

Gender's moderating effect on the relationship between personal income, flexible work schedule and work-life balance.

From the perspective of resources, both personal income and flexible work schedules can be viewed as intangible resources for individuals to manage work-life balance. What role gender plays when individuals utilize these two resources is one of the research questions in this study. For example, personal income was seen differently by men and women in the literature. A finding from Phipps and Burton (1998) supported this view that the extra income

of a wife would be more likely to be spent on children care while the extra income of a husband would be more likely to be spent on transportation flow. This could indicate a different value of work and life among women and men. This finding rejected an “income-pooling” prediction and supported the view that when utilizing financial resources, gender differences may result in different influences from financial resources on the work-life balance events. Further, a flexible work schedule has been found to have different definitions for men and women. Qualitative research from Loscocco (1997) pointed out that women viewed flexibility at work as a key resource to balance their work and life domains while men viewed it as “being one’s boss” and were less likely to utilize for work-life balancing issues. Hill et al., (2008) supported this opinion that women and men view the flexibility at their workplace differently. Specifically, in most of the life stages, women were more likely to use flexible work arrangements than men and women valued flexible work options more than men (Hill et al., 2008).

Gender’s moderating effect on the relationship between work stress and work-life balance.

Similarly, some researchers found that gender differences exist in individuals’ perceptions of stress events (Sowa & Lustman, 1984). Sowa and Lustman (1984) found that women perceive stressors more severely than men, and their evaluation of both positive and negative stress is higher than men. This finding suggested that women have a more severe reaction towards stress than men. Moreover, the gender difference is also found to be associated with the link between stress and work-life balance. Schulz et al. (2004) examined how daily changes in work pace were more likely to cause fluctuation in women’s marital behavior than men’s, and negative feelings in a working day were linked to angrier behaviors among women than men. This study pointed out that gender differences exist in the perception of stress as well as the influence of stress on work-life conflict.

Gender’s moderating effect on the relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction.

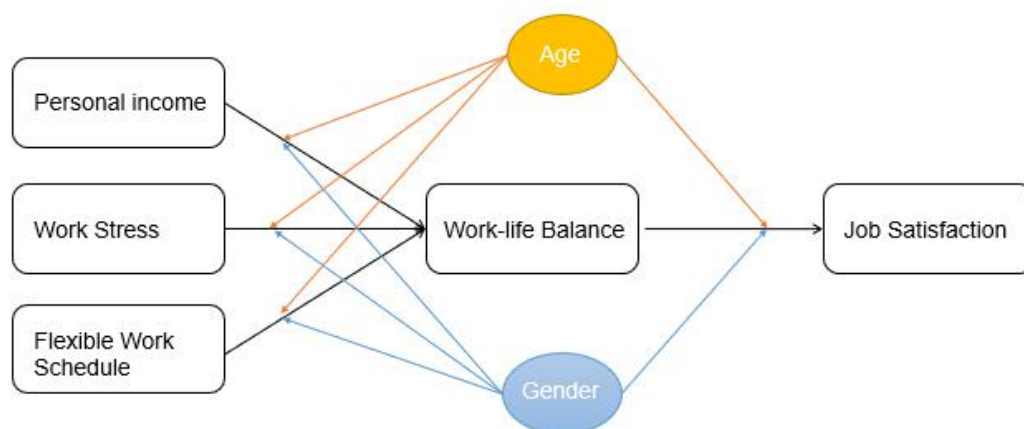
Previous studies also argued that gender differences exist in job satisfaction; more specifically, females reported greater job satisfaction than males. One stream of research exploring the reason behind this relationship focused on the perspective of work orientation or work value. Zou (2015) confirmed that men are likely to place more value on extrinsic and

intrinsic job rewards, while women are likely to place more value on social relations and flexible work, and this difference led to significantly higher job satisfaction among women. The difference in work value is also noted by other researchers, like Parasuraman and Simmers (2001), who argued that women value family more than men. Bagger and Gutek (2008) also examined gender difference of family identity salience in the negative relation between family-interference with work and job satisfaction. As such, the buffering effect of family identity salience on this negative relation was stronger among women than men. The above studies pointed out that gender difference exists in the perception of value on work and family and in the influence of the work-life balance on job satisfaction.

Figure 1 summarised Study 1's research questions in one model. In sum, in this study, I looked at whether the three organizational factors influence work-life balance differently by gender. I also examined whether women and men view the relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction differently. Specifically, I examined if, when faced with different job demands job characteristics or work-life balance, females and males might have different perceptions and responses.

Figure 1

Research questions in the Study 1.



Study 1: Method

Data source

Data from Canada's 2016 General social survey (GSS; Statistics Canada, 2016) was used in this study. The GSS program is aimed to gather data on social trends about

Canadian's living conditions and well-being, and to provide information for social policies. GSS 2016, with a theme of "Canadians at work and home," explored people's views about work, home, and relationships between them. This social survey included a multitude of themes in terms of the work domain and family domain. In the work sphere, topics like work satisfaction, work ethic, bullying at work, and work intensity were explored. In the family and life domain, questions like family activities, work-life balance, and subjective well-being were asked. Therefore, this social survey is consistent with the aim of this study to explore individuals' working activities and perceptions of work-life balance and the relationship between work-related factors and work-life balance as well as the relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction.

The GSS sampling process aimed to represent the nation based on a frame that combined landline and telephone numbers across ten provinces. Information was collected from one randomly selected member of each household who was aged 15 or older. With a response rate of 50.8%, 19609 cases were obtained for the GSS 2016.

For this study, I limited the sample by three criteria. The respondents should be at least 25 years of age, have a job at the time of the survey, and there must be complete data in all of the variables of interest (see below). The cut-off of the age aims to restrict the samples to adults with formal job experience and is based on the age group categorized by GSS, which will be discussed in the measure section. Based on these criteria, a sample of 6785 respondents was included in this study.

Measures

Unless otherwise noted, all items below used five-point scales. The answer to the scale represented the extent of agreement towards the question: 1=strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3=neither disagree nor agree; 4=agree; 5= strongly agree.

Work-life balance was measured with one item: "How satisfied are you with the balance between your job and home life?"

Job satisfaction was measured by four items: 1) "In general, I am satisfied with my job;" 2) "I feel like I belong in the organization I work for;" 3) "The organization I work for motivates me to perform at my best;" and 4) "My job gives me a sense of accomplishment." As mentioned in the literature view, according to Mullins (2005), Hackman and Oldham's

(1975) measure and definition of job satisfaction, these items were selected.

Flexible work schedule and *work stress* were measured with single item, yes/no questions: “Do you have a flexible schedule that allows you to choose the time you begin and end your workday?” and “Is work the main source of your stress?” respectively. *Personal income* was self-reported annual earnings, using six categories ranging from “less than \$25000” to “\$12500 or more” in \$25000 increments.

Gender was measured by two categories, male and female, which is consistent with the GSS database. “Valid skip” was also an option for respondents to answer their gender in GSS, but none of the respondents in the sample used here chose this option. *Age* was measured by seven age groups in the GSS. They were “15 to 24,” “25 to 34,” “35 to 44,” “45 to 54,” “55 to 64” and “more than 65” years old, coded from 1 to 6. This study focused on the formal job experience of individuals. Therefore, the value of 1 (15-24 years) was excluded to restrict the sample to adults with multiple years of work experience.

When exploring antecedents and outcomes of work-life balance by focusing on work factors, marital status and children in the household might be two alternative explanations for why individuals feel imbalance about work and life. Previous studies confirmed the negative relationship between the number of children and work-life imbalance or work-life role conflicts (Roehling et al., 2001; Keeton et al., 2007; Lundberg et al., 1994). Except for the number of children, previous literature about work and life also considered the possible influence of family structure on work-life interaction and controlled marital status in their studies (Sturges & Guest, 2004; Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). Therefore, in line with the literature, marital status and the number of children were controlled in this study. In addition, considering the spillover effect of life satisfaction on job satisfaction (Keon & McDonald, 1982), life satisfaction was also a control variable.

Marital status was measured in this study using three categories, namely, “single,” “had a former partner but is separated or divorced” and “currently have a partner.” In the GSS database, marital status had six categories. In this study, these six categories were coded into three according to whether they have a partner. This coding method is based on the assumption that a current partner in the relationship will be bond to each other and individual and partner will cope with family issues together; a former partner in the past relationship

will have less sense of a “bond” with each other but might still share some family responsibility, and no partner would have no support from partners. Specifically, “single” and “widowed” were coded into “single;” “Married” and “living common-law” were coded into “have a partner now;” and “separated” and “divorced” were coded into “had a former partner but is separated or divorced.” In the data analysis, marital status was handled with two separate dummy variables.

The presence of children in the household was measured with one item: “How many children under 14 years old do you have in the household?” The four categories of this variable are based on the number of children, which are 0-zero, 1-one, 2-two, 3-three, or more. This coding method was in line with the previous study that controlled the number of children to prevent its linear association with work-life balance (Gröpel & Kuhl, 2009).

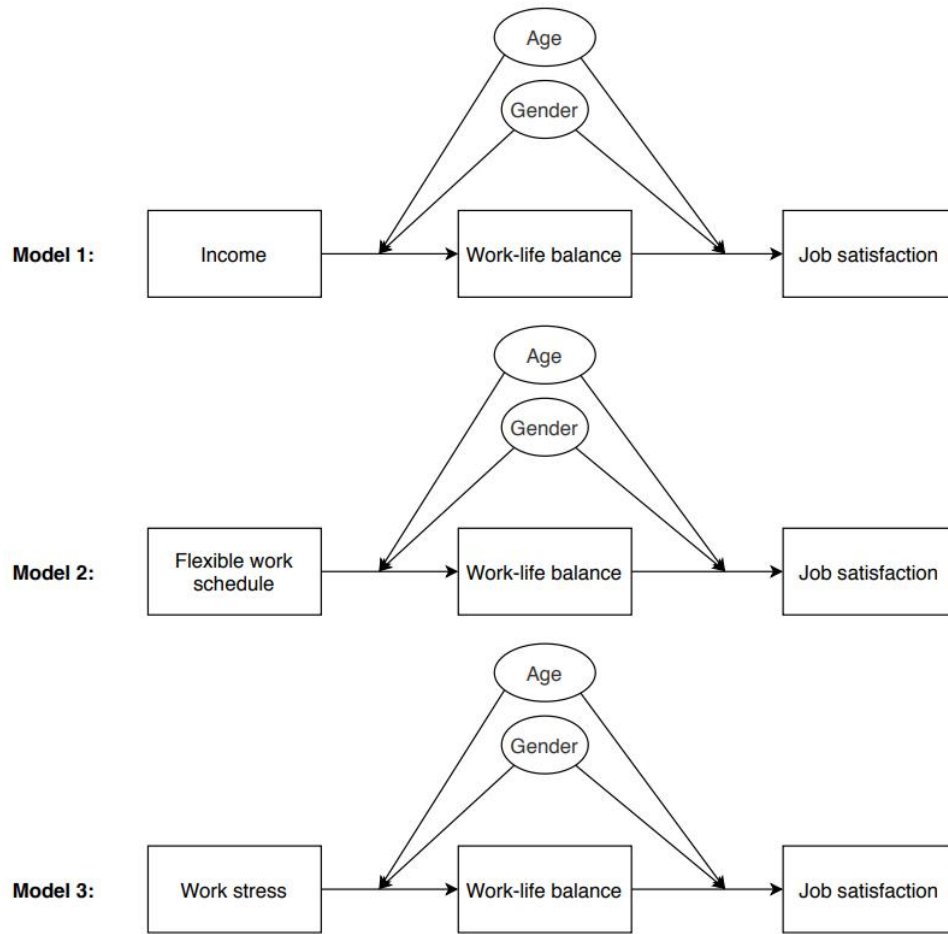
Life satisfaction was measured using a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 means “very dissatisfied” and 10 means “very satisfied” with one item: “how satisfied are you about your life as a whole right now?”

Analytic approach

To explore the mediating effect of work-life balance in the relationship between work-related factors and job satisfaction and the moderating effects of age and gender differences among every relation of variables, multiple moderated mediation models were tested. Figure 2 helped to show the approach visually. The SPSS PROCESS macro was used to test the mediation of one antecedent at a time with moderation by age and gender (Model 75; Hayes, 2017). In all, three models were tested. Models 1-3 each tested the effect of one work factor on job satisfaction through the mediating mechanism of work-life balance in interaction with age and gender, while controlling for the other two work factors. Models 1 to 3 tested the effect of personal income, flexible work schedule, and work stress, respectively. All models controlled for marital status, presence of children in the household, and life satisfaction.

Figure 2

The analytic approach of Study 1 (three moderated mediation models).



Note: Controlled variables were marital status, children in the household, and life satisfaction.

Study 1: Results & Discussion

Results

Preliminary analyses

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for all variables. Post hoc power analysis revealed a power close to 1 in this study, with the sample size = 6513 and the probability level = 0.05. Regarding potential gender differences, it was found that work-life balance was not significantly different between men and women ($M_{\text{male}} = 3.69$ vs $M_{\text{female}} = 3.65$, $t = 1.62$, $p = .11$). However, men reported higher personal income ($M_{\text{male}} = 3.16$ vs $M_{\text{female}} = 2.64$, $t = 16.56$, $p < .001$), more flexible work schedules ($M_{\text{male}} = 1.41$ vs $M_{\text{female}} = 1.38$, $t = 2.47$, $p = .01$) and higher work stress than women ($M_{\text{male}} = 1.43$ vs $M_{\text{female}} = 1.32$, $t = 8.95$, $p < .001$). Compared with women, men were found to be less satisfied with their jobs ($M_{\text{male}} = 3.97$ vs

$M_{\text{female}} = 4.04, t = -3.99, p < .001$). Women and men were not significantly different in age ($M_{\text{male}} = 3.56$ vs $M_{\text{female}} = 3.60, t = -1.30, p = .19$). Each age group included more female respondents than male respondents.

Regarding age differences, work-life balance was found to differ among some age groups. Overall, work life balance increased with age. However, workers aged from 25 to 34 did not report different work-life balance than workers aged from 35 to 44 ($M_{25-43} = 3.58$ vs $M_{35-44} = 3.58, t = -.08, p = .93$). Workers aged from 45 to 54 did report different work-life balance with workers aged from 55 to 64 ($M_{45-54} = 3.69$ vs $M_{55-64} = 3.76, t = -2.29, p = .02$). After combining the age groups that were not different, workers aged from 25 to 44 reported work-life balance differently from workers aged from 45 to 54 ($M_{25-44} = 3.58$ vs $M_{45-54} = 3.69, t = -4.12, p < .001$), and differently from workers aged from 55 to 64 ($M_{55-64} = 3.76, t = -6.54, p < .001$). Income only showed a difference between workers aged from 25 to 34 with workers in all the other age groups ($M_{25-34} = 2.43, M_{35-44} = 2.97, M_{45-54} = 3.09, M_{55-64} = 2.99, F(3) = 84.62, p < .001$). In other words, workers aged from 35 to 64 did not report income differences. Flexible work schedule was reported differently between workers aged from 25 to 34 with workers aged from 35 to 44 ($M_{25-34} = 1.36$ vs $M_{35-44} = 1.42, t = -3.15, p < .005$). Other age groups did not show differences in flexible work schedule ($M_{45-54} = 1.39$ vs $M_{55-64} = 1.46, t = -.02, p = .99$). An increasing trend was showed in the work stress of three age groups, from 25 to 34, 45 to 54 and 55 to 64 ($M_{25-34} = 1.38, M_{45-54} = 1.39, M_{55-64} = 1.42, F(3) = 9.66, p < .001$). Work stress for those aged from 35 to 44 was different from this trend ($M_{35-44} = 1.33, F(2) = 1.78, p = .18$). In addition, workers aged from 25 to 34 did not report different job satisfaction with workers from 35 to 44 ($M_{35-34} = 3.95$ vs $M_{35-44} = 3.99, t = -1.41, p = .16$). Workers aged from 45 to 54 did not report different job satisfaction with workers from 55 to 64 ($M_{45-54} = 4.02$ vs $M_{55-64} = 4.03, t = -.34, p = .73$). After combining the age groups that were not different, workers aged from 25 to 44 had significantly different job satisfaction with workers from 45 to 64 ($M_{25-44} = 3.97$ vs $M_{45-64} = 4.02, t = -2.67, p < .01$).

Table 1

Means and standard deviations for study variables by gender, and correlation results from gender comparisons^a

	Male	Female									
	M(SD)	M(SD)	WLB	FWS	PI	WS	JS	AGE	MS	CIH	LS
Work-life balance (WLB)	3.67	3.63		-.09**	.09**	-.06**	.383**	.08**	.05**	-.07**	.38**
Personal income (PI) ^b	3.16	2.64	-.01		.13**	.15**	.045**	.13**	.03	.00	.04*
Flexible work schedule (FWS)	1.40	1.38	.10**	.15**		-.01	.108**	.01	.05**	.04*	.07**
Work stress (WS)	1.43	1.33	-.03*	.15**	.04*		-.078**	.06**	-.03	-.15**	.05**
Job satisfaction (JS)	3.96	4.03	.39**	.12**	.15**	-.01		.05**	.10**	.01	.35**
Age group (AGE) ^c	3.45	3.50	.09**	.18**	.00	.05**	.02		.10**	-.338**	.02
Marital status (MS) ^d	2.44	2.38	.05*	.19**	.07**	.00	.093**	.15**		.24**	.19**
Children in household (CIH) ^e	.53	.51	-.02	.11**	.07**	-.10**	.045*	-.24**	.35**		.03
Life satisfaction (LS)	7.66	7.72	.37**	.14**	.08**	.13**	.38**	.00	.22**	.11**	

Note: a. N=6513. Male: n=2980; Female: n= 3533. Correlations for male are reported below the diagonal, and above for female. **p<0.01, *p<0.05

b. Categorical variable: 1=less than\$25,000 (8.8% of male sample;14.2% of female sample); 2=\$25,000~\$49,999(26.8%-male; 37.3%-female); 3=\$50,000~\$74,999(29.8%-male; 27.6%-female); 4=\$75,000~\$99,999 (21.6%-male; 16.4%-female);5=\$125,000 or more(13%-male; 4.5%-female).

c. Categorical variable: 2= 25-34 years (24.6% of male sample; 23% of female sample); 3=35-44 years (27.5%-male; 26.8%-female); 4=45-54 (26.2%-male; 27.4%-female); 5=55-64 (21.7%-male; 22.8%-female); Value of 1 (15-24 years), 6 (65-74 years) and 7 (75 and more) were excluded.

d. Categorical variable: 1= single (23.8% of male sample;24.5% of female sample); 2= had a former partner but is separated or divorced (8.8%-male; 13.9%-female); 3=have a partner now (67.4%-male; 61.5%-female).

e. Categorical variable: 0=none children in household (68.9% of male sample; 69.5% of female sample); 1=one child under 14 years in household (13.3%-male; 14.8%-female); 2=two children under 14 years in household (13.6%-male; 12.9%-female); 3=three or more children under 14 years in household (4.3%-male; 2.8%-female).

Moderated mediation analyses

Model 1-3 report the effects of three predictors on work-life balance, determine the relationships between three predictors and job satisfaction with the mediating role of work-life balance, and examine the potential moderating roles of age and gender. The results of each model are showed in Table 2 to 4, respectively. Neither age nor gender moderated the relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction.

Testing gender and age as moderators of the Income-work-life balance (WLB)-job satisfaction (JS) relationship. In Table 2, model 1 suggests that personal income was negatively related to work-life balance ($B = -.05, p = .04$). Results suggest that age did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between income and work-life balance ($p = .79$). However, gender showed a significant moderating effect on the relationship between income and work-life balance. The conditional effect was analyzed to examine the relationship between personal income and work-life balance at different genders. The results show that in both genders, conditional effects were significant, and confidence intervals did not contain zero. It also suggests that females had a stronger negative relationship between income and work-life balance ($B_{\text{male}} = -.04, p < .001$; $B_{\text{female}} = -.08, p < .001$). The effect of personal income on job satisfaction was positive and partially mediated by work-life balance. The effect size showed that personal income was related to lower work-life balance and work-life balance was related to higher job satisfaction (Total effect of personal income on job satisfaction = .02, 95%CI [.01, .03]; Indirect effect = -.01, 95%CI [-.02, -.01]).

Table 2

Results of model 1 (Personal income – work-life balance – job satisfaction mediation model).

Predictor	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 1a: Predicting the mediator variable - work-life balance					.18	136.03*** (11, 6773)
Constant	1.83***	.10	1.64	2.03		
Income	-.05*	.03	-.11	.00		
Age	.07***	.02	.03	.11		
Age*Income	.00	.01	-.01	.02		
Gender	.02	.05	-.07	.12		
Gender*Income	-.04***	.02	-.07	-.01		
Model 1b: Mediated model of dependent variable - job satisfaction					.22	162.52*** (12, 6772)
Constant	2.13***	.12	1.90	2.36		
Income	.04***	.01	.03	.05		
Work-life Balance	.20***	.03	.14	.26		
Age	-.05	.03	-.10	.01		
Age*Work-life Balance	.01	.01	.00	.03		
Gender	.17*	.07	.04	.30		
Gender*Work-life Balance	-.02	.02	-.06	.01		
Conditional indirect effect of income on work-life balance at different values of gender moderator:						
0 Male	-.04***	.01	-.06	-.02		
1 Female	-.08***	.01	-.10	-.06		

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, life satisfaction, number of children in the household.

Testing gender and age as moderators of the flexible work schedule-WLB-JS relationship. In Table 3, model 2 suggests that flexible work schedule positively predicted work-life balance ($B = .27, p < .001$). Results show that neither age ($p = .09$) or gender ($p = .53$) moderated this relationship between flexible work schedule and work-life balance. Overall, flexible work schedule had a direct effect on job satisfaction and had an indirect effect through work-life balance (Total effect of flexible work schedule on job satisfaction = .15, 95%CI [.11, .18]; Indirect effect = .03, 95%CI [.01, .05]).

Table 3

Results of model 2 (Flexible work schedule – work-life balance – job satisfaction mediation model).

Predictor	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 2a: Predicting the mediator variable - work-life balance					.18	135.55*** (11, 6773)
Constant	1.70***	.12	1.47	1.93		

Flexible work schedule	.27***	.07	.14	.41		
Age	.12***	.03	.07	.17		
Age*Flexible work schedule	-.03	.02	-.06	.00		
Gender	-.06	.06	-.18	.05		
Gender*Flexible work schedule	-.03	.04	-.11	.05		
Model 2b: Mediated model of dependent variable - job satisfaction					.22	162.52*** (12, 6777)
Constant	2.13***	.12	1.90	2.36		
Flexible work schedule	.11***	.02	.08	.15		
Work-life Balance	.20***	.03	.14	.26		
Age	-.05	.03	-.10	.01		
Age*Work-life Balance	.01	.01	.00	.03		
Gender	.17	.07	.04	.30		
Gender*Work-life Balance	-.02	.02	-.06	.01		

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, life satisfaction, number of children in the household.

Testing gender and age as moderators of the work stress -WLB-JS relationship. In

Table 4, model 3 shows that work stress was negatively related to work-life balance ($B = -.30$, $p < .001$). Gender did not show a moderating effect on the relationship between work stress and work-life balance ($p = .99$), but age moderated this relationship ($B = .04$, $p < .05$). The conditional effects of work stress at different age groups are shown in Table 4 ($B_{25-34} = -.21$, $p < .001$; $B_{35-44} = -.17$, $p < .001$; $B_{45-54} = -.12$, $p < .001$; $B_{55-64} = -.08$, $p < .001$). The results show that in younger and older age groups, conditional effects were significant, and confidence intervals did not contain zero. It suggests that younger age groups had a stronger negative relationship between work stress and work-life balance. Overall, work stress was negatively related to job satisfaction. Work-life balance mediated the relationship between work stress and job satisfaction. Work stress predicted lower work-life balance, and work-life balance predicted higher job satisfaction (Total effect of work stress on job satisfaction = $-.13$, 95%CI $[-.17, -.10]$; Indirect effect = $-.03$, 95%CI $[-.04, -.02]$).

Figure 3 summarizes the findings from Study 1.

Table 4

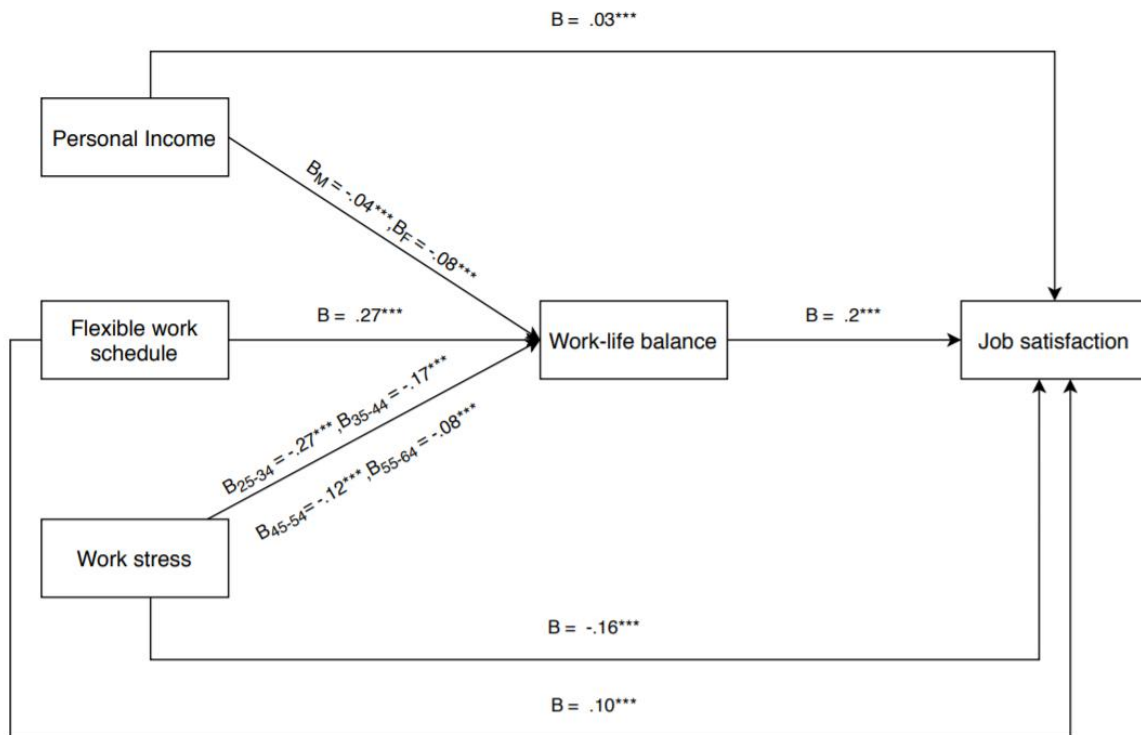
Results of model 3 (Work stress – work-life balance – job satisfaction mediation model).

	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 3a: Predicting the mediator variable - work-life balance					.18	135.84*** (11, 6773)

Constant	2.08***	.12	1.86	2.31		
Work stress	-.30***	.07	-.44	-.17		
Age	.02	.03	-.03	.07		
Age* Work stress	.04*	.02	.01	.08		
Gender	-.10	.06	-.22	.02		
Gender* Work stress	.00	.04	-.08	.08		
Model 3b: Mediated model of dependent variable - job satisfaction					.22	162.52*** (12, 6772)
Constant	2.13***	.12	1.90	2.36		
Work stress	-.09***	.02	-.13	-.06		
Work-life Balance	.20***	.03	.14	.26		
Age	-.05	.03	-.10	.01		
Age*Work-life Balance	.01	.01	.00	.03		
Gender	.17	.07	.04	.30		
Gender*Work-life Balance	-.02	.02	-.06	.01		
Conditional indirect effect of work stress on work-life balance at different values of age moderator:						
25~34	-.21	.04	-.28	-.14		
35~45	-.17***	0.02	-0.2	-0.12		
45~53	-.12***	0.02	-0.2	-0.08		
55~64	-.08***	0.03	-0.2	-0.02		

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, life satisfaction, number of children in the household.

Figure 3*Findings of Study 1.*

Note: Subscript of M represents Male, F represents Female; 25~34, 35~44, 45~54, and 55~64 represent age groups. $***p < .001$, $**p < .01$. Controlled variables were marital status, the children in the household, and life satisfaction.

Discussion

In this study, the findings shed light on the literature concerning the unclear relationships between work-life balance with its three predictors (i.e., personal income, flexible work schedule, and work stress) and the relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction.

Results indicated that personal income reduced work-life balance. This finding was not gained by other scholars. But one possible explanation could be in line with Davis, Shevchuk, and Strebkov (2014). When Davis, Shevchuk, and Strebkov (2014) found a non-significant relationship between income and work-life balance, they gave a possible explanation that when individuals had more income, they might care more about maintaining the standard of living rather than enjoying a sense of balance in work and life. The finding in the current study might further support this idea.

Results also indicated that a flexible work schedule increased work-life balance. This finding was in line with Russell et al., (2009) that a flexible work schedule provided resources for employees to deal with demands or responsibilities outside the work, and thus reduce the conflict between work and life domains.

Results indicating that work stress reduced work-life balance was in line with most of the previous studies (Bell, Rajendran & Theiler, 2012; Goodman & Crouter, 2009). It confirmed the spillover of the negative feelings of work to family. Although the positive stress was confirmed in the literature (Hargrove et al., 2013), the finding in the current study did not confirm the positive side of work stress, especially in the work-life domain.

Furthermore, the results identified the moderation effects of age and gender. Gender was found to moderate the relationship between income and work-life balance. Specifically, although higher personal income was associated with lower work-life balance among all respondents, the relationship was stronger in female workers than male workers. Further, age was found to moderate the relationship between work stress and work-life balance. Specifically, work stress was more strongly linked to lower work-life balance among younger workers.

This study is not without its limitations. First, because of the GSS data, several factors related to work (e.g., job status, work experience, job tenure) could not be controlled. As well,

it was not possible to distinguish full-time and part-time workers. Similarly, there are several factors related to income that should be considered in a follow-up study, for example, household income and individuals' satisfaction towards their income.

In addition, due to the limitations of the GSS questionnaire, measures of the variables like work-life balance, work stress, flexible work schedule, and life satisfaction are not validated measures. Therefore, besides exploring the questions about why the findings of Study 1 exist, Study 2 would also improve the measures.

Moreover, another limitation of this study stem from the GSS dataset. The cross-sectional nature of data limited the study to make causal inferences between any two variables because the predictors and outcomes were simultaneously assessed (Kesmodel, 2018). There was no evidence to achieve a temporal relationship between two variables without longitudinal data (Solem, 2015).

Study 2: Theory & Hypotheses

Study 1 revealed two moderating effects on the impacts of work factors on work-life balance. The moderation concerned the effects of personal income and work stress on work-life balance. In Study 1, gender was found to moderate the relationship between income and work-life balance, and age was found to moderate the relationship between work stress and work-life balance. Study 2 was aimed at further understanding these moderating effects of gender and age. Building on the theory of resource allocation (Grawitch, Barber & Justice, 2010), a mechanism with mediations and moderations was proposed and examined with a Mturk sample. This theory of resource allocation emphasizes that individuals need to appraise the demands from various aspects of life, and make their own choices about how to allocate their resources to respond to the demands (Grawitch, Barber & Justice, 2010). Based on this theory, work-life balance is viewed as the outcome of personal resource allocation. The relationships between personal income and work stress with work-life balance, as well as the interaction with gender and age, can be viewed as the various progress when different individuals cope with demands. In the following paragraphs, I first explained the choice of resource allocation theory. Then I proposed hypotheses and explained them in detail based on the theory.

Considerable research has explored work-life balance from the perspective of the interplay of work and non-work domains. The majority of this research attempts to explore how work and nonwork domains influence each other. Positive interplay (e.g., work-life enrichment, Grzywacz & Marks, 2000) and negative interplay (e.g., work-life conflict; Greenhaus & Powell et al., 2006) are the two focuses. These focuses either integrate work and life domains or draw a boundary between the two domains. This perspective of the interplay between domains is not useful for this study, because this study assumes that work and non-work domains are both of one larger and overarching life domain. Individuals' various pursuits, whether they are related to family, work, or other activities, are managed in this overarching domain. To manage their pursuits, individuals allocate their resources in response to their demands. How individuals deal with the demands and resources in this larger domain and gain achievement in the balance of work and life are the purposes of this study and will be better explained with the resource perspective.

In the perspective of resource allocation, personal pursuit and life demands are managed and regulated by individuals (Grawitch, Barber & Justice, 2010). Personal resources and external resources are the two main kinds of resources owned by individuals. *Personal resources*, defined as inherently intro-psychic, include time, energy, and financial resources (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). *External resources* (e.g., family support) are defined as resources outside of the person (Grawitch, Barber & Justice, 2010).

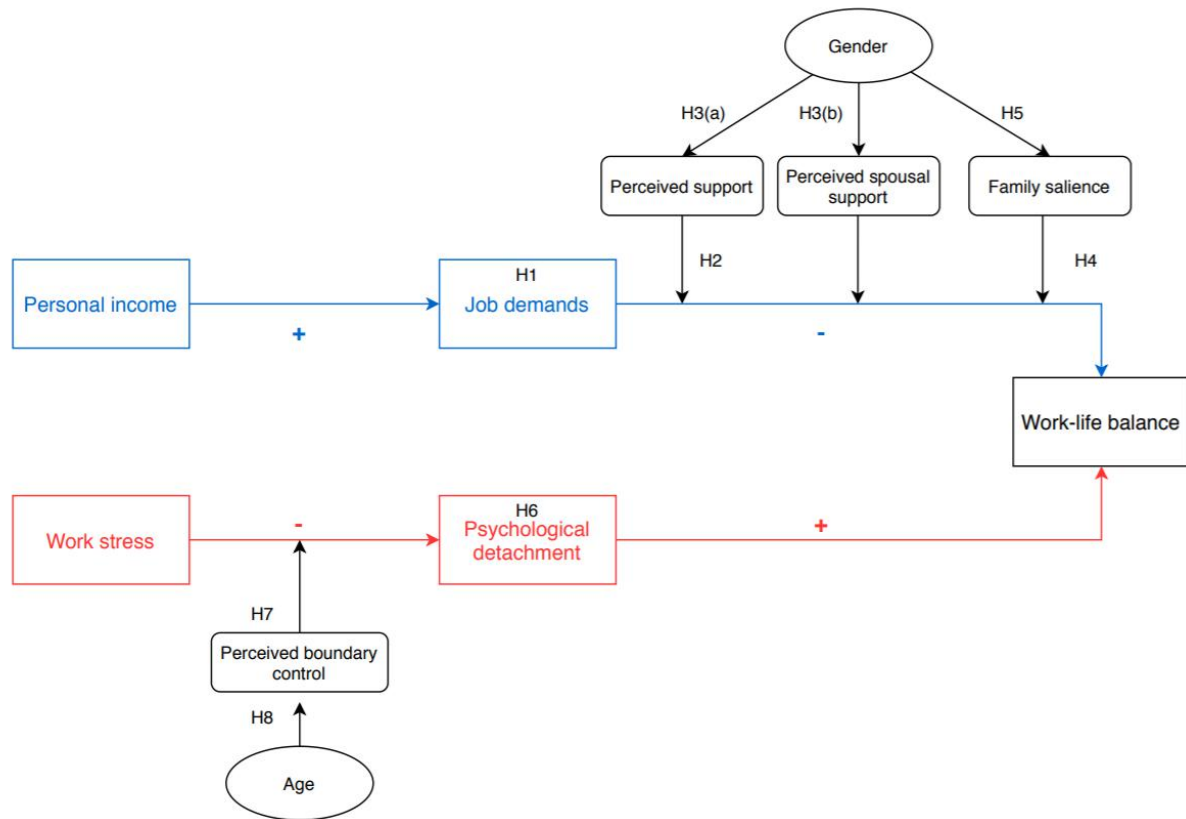
In the resource allocation process, demands from various aspects of life are the starting points. Individuals need to appraise the demands and make a choice about how to allocate their resources to respond the demands. The strategies about when, where, and how individuals expend their resources ultimately determine outcomes related to well-being. Personal resources are the main resources that individuals can allocate effectively, and external resources as a supplement can also benefit the outcomes of resource allocation. Furthermore, in this process of resource allocation, except the resources, the individual difference (e.g., attitude) plays a role. For example, when individuals tie their self-identifications more to their work, they may alter their perception of demands (Grawitch, Barber & Kruger, 2010). Specifically, those who view their work roles as more important will view work demands as pleasant and voluntary rather than required, and be motivated to meet

those demands. This is likely to influence how those individuals allocate resources and thus affect the outcome. The following is an example of the resource allocation process. When an employee faces stressful work issues, he will try to utilize after-work personal resources (e.g., time) to solve day-time problems. If he views family more valuable than work, he will be more willing to spend time and energy with his family. If his spouse chooses to be a stay-at-home parent and supports him with parenting and family demands, he will manage his resource on work issues more effectively and gain a more positive outcome between work and non-work issues.

When work-life balance is viewed as the personal resource allocation process, the two moderated predictors in Study 1 (i.e., personal income and work stress) can be viewed as demands which require people to cope by their resources. Below, I develop hypotheses based on this perspective to explain the results of Study 1. In particular, I explain the processes that mediate the effects of personal income and work stress on work-life balance, and I describe important factors that moderate these mediated relationships. These relationships are summarized in Figure 4 and are explained below.

Figure 4

Hypotheses.



Effect of Personal Income on Work-Life Balance and the Role of Gender

Study 1 revealed a negative effect of personal income on work-life balance; as income increased, work-life balance fell. Here, job demands are proposed to mediate this relationship. *Job demands* refers to “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs” (Bakker et al., 2003, p. 344). In the literature, physical, cognitive, and emotional job demands are the three widely accepted types of job demands (de Jonge et al., 2012). However, studies show that compared with physical demands, demands of a psychological or mental nature exact a greater toll in terms of individuals’ psychological well-being (e.g., experienced stress; Dwyer & Ganster, 1991). Because this study focused on work-life balance and emphasized the aspect of psychological factors, job demands restricted the definition and measurement in psychological demands in this study. In other words, physical job demands were not considered in the current study.

The proposition that job demands mediate the effect of personal income on work-life balance is based on the following reasons. Firstly, higher income may be associated with

greater job demands. The role of income is to motivate people to undergo the necessary costs and sacrifices, for example, time and energy (Weeden, 2002). Therefore, having a higher income may relate to the effort and energy that employees have to pay. In other words, income may predict the level of job demands. Several studies supported this argument. Farkas et al. (1997) found that higher wages are associated with higher cognitive skill demands. Handel (2012) argued that higher income has a higher cognitive job demands. Indeed, Glomb et al. (2004) found that there is a positive relationship between income and cognitive demands.

Secondly, job demands are proposed to be negatively related to work-life balance. Higher job demands require individuals to expend more resources, like time and emotion at work (Frone et al., 1997). The resource allocation problem will show when individuals cannot allocate and structure the resources in their preferred way. Also, the expenditure of resources in the work domain results in fewer resources in the non-work domain (Frone et al., 1997). This depletion of resources that need for non-work activities is the reason why social job demands (e.g., disproportionate expectations from clients) or quantitative demands (e.g., work overload) contribute to work-life interference and work-life imbalance (Viotti & Converso, 2016; Bakker et al., 2008). Evidence for this argument can be found in the literature. Gunavathy and Thenmozhi (2009) examined the work-life imbalance among software professionals and found that there was a positive relationship between psychological job demands and work-life imbalance. Kinman and Jones (2008) tested a sample of academics and reported that when people have more job demands, they will have less control over their work and have worse work-life balance.

H1: Job demands mediate the relationship between personal income and work-life balance, such that personal income increases job demands, and job demands decrease work-life balance.

Perceived private-life support is proposed to moderate the effect of job demands on work-life balance. *Perceived private-life support* refers to the perceived support come from the private level (e.g., the family members, friends, or neighbors; Abendroth & den Dulk, 2011). Instrumental and emotional support are the two types of support in the private domain.

Emotional private-life support includes understanding, listening, and concern from the private domain. Instrumental private-life support refers to the activities from ones' family or friends that ease their burden and enable them to devote more time to home and work, for example, paid domestic help (Aycan & Eskin, 2005; Abendroth & den Dulk, 2011). The moderating effect of perceived private-life support is proposed based on the following reasons. Job demands contribute to lower work-life balance by depleting the resources needed for participation in non-work activities (Viotti & Converso, 2016). Private-life support can be viewed as the supplement of resources in this depleting process, and thus it has a buffering effect. Some studies confirmed the function of private-life support on easing the burden of stressful work. For example, support from a spouse has been found to protect workers from the effect of work overload and parental overload on inter-role conflict (Aryee et al., 1999). Some studies found that support from the private domain functioned as a resource that individuals draw on to achieve work-life balance. Marcinkus et al. (2007) suggested that personal social support facilitated work-life balance and satisfaction in the workplace. Russo et al. (2016) confirmed the importance of support from the private domain for the pursuit of employees to achieve work-life balance. The study from Abendroth and den Dulk (2011) provided further support for the current argument about the role of private support in the relationship between job demands and work-life balance. They found that emotional private-life support (i.e., emotional support from spouse, friends, neighbors, and relatives) has a buffering effect on work demands negative influence upon work-life balance (Abendroth & den Dulk, 2011). Therefore, it is hypothesized that when perceiving higher private-life support, individuals will suffer less negative effects of job demands on work-life balance.

H2: Perceived private-life support has a buffering effect on the negative relationship between job demands and work-life balance.

Gender and perceived private-life support may have an association and need to be examined together. Spouse support, as one type of private support, has been found associated with gender in literature. Schwarzer and Gutiérrez-Doña (2005) examined that men reported receipt of much more spousal support than women. Therefore, gender may influence the level of perceived spousal support and the level of perceived private-life support.

H3: Gender influences feelings of support, such that women perceive (a) less spousal support and (b) less private-life support.

Family-role salience is proposed to be the other moderator in the relationship between job demands and work-life balance. Role salience is a concept that researchers use to explain the choices that people make among various social roles (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). *Work-role salience* refers to the relative importance of work in an individual's life (Greenhaus, 1971). *Family-role salience* refers to the relative importance of family roles (e.g., being a parent or spouse) in an individual's life (Greenhaus, 1971). When the salience of the family role is high, the individual has greater engagement, time, and emotion in the family role (Lobel, 1991). From the perspective of the resource allocation process, role salience is a key individual difference that influences individuals' use of resources and responses to demands. The previous argument in this study is that job demands lower individuals' work-life balance. Here it is proposed that family-role salience has a strengthening effect on the negative influence of job demands on work-life balance for the following reasons. By definition, individuals with high family salience are more likely to spend time in family activities than those with low family salience (Lobel, 1991). When having demanding work, individuals with high family salience may feel more conflicts between family and work activities, because job demands deprive individuals of the time and energy that are originally devoted to family activities. When dealing with job demands, those with high family salience may be more reluctant and feel more work-interference-family. As a result, individuals with higher family salience may experience a stronger negative outcome from job demands on work-life balance. The study from Bagger and Gutek (2008) examined the moderating effect of family salience. They argued that family salience had a buffering effect on the negative relationship between family-interference-with-work and job satisfaction. Though work-related factor was not investigated in their study, light has been shed on the buffering effect of role identity in a specific domain.

H4: Family salience has a strengthening effect on the negative relationship between job demands and work-life balance.

There seems to be a relationship between gender and family-role salience in the literature. Some studies found that women have more salient family roles, while men have more salient work roles (Wiley, 1991). This is because sex-differentiated social expectation powerfully influences role priorities. Traditionally, paid work has been a vital component of the male role, while the family has been a foundational female role (Wiley, 1991; Silberstein, 1992). Over time, these role responsibilities have been encoded into social expectations for different genders. Even though women have more involvement in the job market, the involvement of work does not substitute for family responsibilities (Cook, 1994). Based on this argument, it can be hypothesized that, on average, women will have higher family-role salience than men. Some previous studies confirmed that women had a more salient family role than men. Knežević et al. (2016) found that women, in general, were more salient in family roles, reporting greater commitment and involvement in parent and spouse roles than men. They also found that no gender difference existed in work salience. Thus, based on the argument of women and family salience, women may have a more strengthening effect of family salience. And the moderating effect of gender in the negative relationship between personal income and work-life balance (which is that women have a stronger negative relationship) can be explained with the moderating effect of family-role salience.

H5: Gender influences the level of family-role salience. Specifically, women have a higher level of family salience than men.

Effect of Work Stress on Work-Life Balance and the Role of Age

Study 1 found that work stress reduced work-life balance. Psychological detachment from work may explain this relationship. *Psychological detachment from work* is defined as “the individual’s sense of being away from the work situation” (Etzion, Eden & Lapidot, 1998, p.579). Psychological detachment implies ceasing to think about job-related issues when away from work. Psychological detachment is more than being physically away from work and is experienced as “switching off” and disengaging oneself psychologically from work (Sonnentag & Krueger, 2006). In this study, it is hypothesized that work stress negatively relates to work-life balance through the possible mediating effect of psychological detachment from work. Firstly, work stress may be associated with lower psychological detachment from work. There are several reasons why work stress may decrease

psychological detachment from work. Work stress was found to relate to more mood disturbances (Barling & Kryl, 1990). Anger, as a common reaction to work stress (Narayanan et al., 1999), endures across day-to-night time (DeLongis, Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). In other words, the depletion of individuals' inherent resources caused by work stress, resulting in rumination, is a continuous process. Individuals suffering from high pressure at work will continually think about stressful work issues until they go back to the workplace. Therefore, it is impossible for them to psychologically detach from work when they are physically away from work. One research confirmed the relationship between anger and psychological detachment. Aggression at work, which elicits feelings of anger, is found to lower psychological detachment from work during the non-work time (Demskey et al., 2014). However, no studies examined the direct relationship between work stress and psychological detachment.

Secondly, psychological detachment may increase work-life balance. A lower level of psychological detachment may occupy individuals' psychological energy spending with their family and lead to increasing work-and-family interference. Oppositely, a higher level of psychological detachment halts the depletion of energy caused by work stress, and ensures time and energy for balancing work and non-work issues. For example, when an individual is hard to psychologically switch off from work, he will focus attention on work issues so as to ignore the spouse's needs, resulting in conflicts between them and raising problems in balancing work and non-work issues. Demskey et al. (2014) proved the negative relationship between psychological detachment from work and work-life conflict.

H6: Psychological detachment from work mediates the relationship between work stress and work-life balance, such that work stress decreases psychological detachment from work, and the psychological detachment increases work-life balance.

Perceived boundary control is proposed to be the moderator of the relationship between work stress and psychological detachment from work. *Perceived boundary control* refers to the psychological perceptions of the ability to control one's boundary between work and non-work life (Kossek et al., 2012). Individuals with higher boundary control will believe they can control boundary-crossing to fit their multiple demands in work and life domains. For

example, an employee who perceives a high level of boundary control can confidently control demands from work and non-work life. He can well decide when to clear the boundary, set aside specific time for his family to avoid possible impact from work issues. He can also well decide when to utilize after-work time in order to handle unfinished work and ensure harmony in the family at the same time. From the perspective of resource allocation, perceived boundary control can be viewed as an individual difference in terms of attitude. This difference impacts individuals' strategies to allocate resources. With high perceived boundary control, individuals will have the confidence to deal with boundary issues and face work and non-work demands positively. They take active and immediate resource allocation strategies, such as immediately appraise owned resources, reorganize demands, and set specific resources aside in response to both immediate and long-term demands. Oppositely, individuals not believing themselves with good control on boundaries, take a more passive resource allocation strategy. They let immediate demands dominate resource allocation, which will probably lead to the deficiency of resources to meet with future demands. From this point of view, individuals believing they have a greater ability to control boundaries will seek greater control and autonomy towards resources and achieve a more positive outcome (Kossek & Lautsch, 2008). Kossek et al. (2012) confirmed that individuals with low boundary control generally have more negative work-family outcomes (e.g., work-family conflict).

In this study, boundary control is hypothesized to moderate the relationship between work stress and psychological detachment from work. While higher work stress leads to lower possibilities of detaching from work, individuals with a higher ability to control the boundaries between work and life domains will suffer weaker harm. As previous statements, it may be because people with a higher boundary control ability have a more active strategy and greater control of resources. They guard the boundary and limit the negative feelings crossing over the boundary in advance so that the negative feelings will not impact their preorganized arrangements of demands. No studies in the literature examined this moderating effect of boundary control. Only one study by Kinnunen et al. (2016) investigated the associations between stress, stress recovery, and four boundary management profiles. They found that Separators (who have low cross-role interruption between work and life domains,

in other words, high boundary control) had relatively more beneficial recovery strategies from stress, compared with other profiles. But the effect of boundary control was not examined specifically.

H7: Perceived boundary control has a buffering effect on the negative relationship between work stress and psychological detachment from work.

In addition, perceived boundary control as a coping strategy is proposed to be positively related to age. No literature examined this relationship. However, this argument is built on the view of strategy and age, which is supported by several findings. Literature shows that when people get older, they typically have learned what strategies are the most appropriate for them in stressful situations (Barnes-Farrell et al., 2002). Therefore, with accumulating experience in the lifespan, older workers are more likely to have a high boundary control strategy in order to gain positive outcomes. In sum, the hypothesis is that when facing increasing work stress, workers with a higher boundary control ability will have a weaker negative effect on work-life balance than workers with a lower control ability. Meanwhile, when people get older, they are proposed to have a higher boundary control ability.

H8: Age positively relates to an individual's perceived boundary control.

Study 2: Method

Sample

The data for study 2 was obtained from a two-stage longitudinal online survey. The sample consisted of MTurk workers who met several criteria. Firstly, because of the focus on work, participants were limited to those who were currently full-time workers. Secondly, respondents were limited to those over the age of 25 so that they had sufficient work experience, and this sample was consistent with that in Study 1. Thirdly, to ensure the quality of data, MTurkers who can respond to this study should be nonrepeating with at least a 95% approval rating.

One benefit of utilizing MTurk in this study is that, compared with traditional sample (e.g., college student sample, community sample), MTurk sample has a more diverse and representative participant pool in terms of employment, gender, and age, and also shows the

effect size with no significant difference from other samples (Casler et al., 2013; Minton et al., 2013). Though some researchers have pointed out the limitations of MTurk samples, like data quality and respondent integrity (Smith et al., 2016), attention check questions were set in this study to ensure good data quality.

Procedure

In order to address the common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003), two independent surveys were conducted in this study. The gap between the two surveys was four weeks. Survey 1 focused on proposed mediators with their predictors (i.e., personal income and job demands; work stress and negative work-to-home spillover) and a relevant moderator (i.e., perceived boundary control). Survey 2 focused on proposed mediators again, with the outcome (i.e., job demands, negative work-to-home spillover, and work-life balance), and relevant moderators (i.e., support and family-role salience). Demographics were collected in both surveys to facilitate matching between time points.

Stratified sampling was used in the data collection process. In order to fill variables groups (e.g., age and gender), data was collected step by step. In survey 1, the first batch of the survey aimed at 300 respondents was open without any qualifications. After the collection of the first batch finished, the number of respondents in each group was verified. Then qualifications were set accordingly in the second batch of the survey, and so forth. Six batches of Survey 1 were launched in total. The time to launch Survey 2 was according to the date of each batch of Survey 1. The time interval of the two surveys was four weeks. The qualifications of each batch of Survey 2 were those who finished Survey 1 completely and carefully.

Measures

Table 5 summarized the measures in Study 2, which included measures, the number of items, and an example item of the measure.

Unless otherwise noted, all items below used five-point scales. The answer to the scale represented the extent of agreement towards the question: 1=strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3=neither disagree nor agree; 4=agree; 5= strongly agree. All measures are included in the Appendix.

Work-life balance was measured by the *satisfaction of the work-life balance scale* of

Valcour (2007). Five items were included.

Personal income was measured by 6 income groups. They are “less than \$29,999,” “\$30,000 to \$59,999,” “\$60,000 to \$119,999,” “\$120,000 to \$149,999,” “\$150,000 to \$179,999” and “\$180,000 or more.”

Work stress was measured by the *measure of job stress* (Judge, Boudreau & Bretz, 1994). Sixteen items were included in the scale.

Flexible work schedule was measured by the *measure of new ways of working* (De Leede & Kraijenbrink, 2014). Three items were included.

Job satisfaction was measured by a *measure of overall job satisfaction* (Judge et al., 1998). The scale of Judge et al. (1998) included five items.

Job demands were measured by the *measure of job demands* (Ng et al., 2008). Five items were included.

Psychological detachment was measured by the *state version of recovery experience questionnaire* (Bakker et al., 2015), which was based on Sonnentag and Fritz (2007). Five items were included.

Perceived private-life support was measured by the *Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS)* (Zimet et al., 1988). Twelve items were included asking the perceived support from friends, family, and a special someone.

Perceived spousal support was measured by the *measure of daily satisfaction with spousal support* (Gremore et al., 2011). Three items were included, asking about perceived support from the partner.

Family-role salience and *work-role salience* were measured by the *measure of family salience and the measure of work salience* (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). Three items of family role salience were included. Three items of work role salience were included.

Perceived boundary control was measured by the *measure of boundary control* (Kossek et al., 2012). Three items were included.

Age was measured by one question of “What is your year of birth? (yyyy).” Unless otherwise noted, the value of the birth year was categorized into four age groups. They are “25 to 34,” “35 to 44,” “45 to 54,” and “55 and more”. Though the continuous data of age were gathered, Study 2 chose to follow Study 1 and coded age into groups as in Study 1. This

choice was consistent with the coding method of all the other demographic variables so as to match the data of the two studies.

Gender was measured by three categories, male, female, and other. The responses of “other” had been treated as missing values in the analyses.

Marital status, total work experience, current job tenure, total household income, number of the children at home, age of the children at home, life satisfaction, income satisfaction were controlled to account for their possible influence on the variables of interest. For example, household income was considered to associate with independents’ work-life balance. The income of an employee’s spouse might lower his need for work-life balance programs and compensate for his imbalance of work and life (Ueda, 2012). The situation of COVID-19 was likely changing individuals’ work-life experience. In this situation, the employee’s work status was impacted in terms of workplace and tasks. For some people, this change may be adversity at work, and how efficiently they can face it will influence the situation of both their job and family. Thus, work interruption and resilience were closely correlated to this current work challenge.

Marital status was measured in this study using five categories, namely, “single,” “had a former partner but is separated or divorced,” “currently have a partner,” and “widowed.” The categories of “had a former partner but is separated or divorced” and “widowed” would be coded into “had a former partner but is separated or widowed,” in order to match the categories in study 1.

Total work experience and *current job tenure* were measured by questions that “How many years of full-time work experience do you have in total?” and “How many years have you been working at your current job?”

Total household income was measured by 6 income groups. They are “less than \$29,999,” “\$30,000 to \$59,999,” “\$60,000 to \$119,999,” “\$120,000 to \$149,999,” “\$150,000 to \$179,999” and “\$180,000 or more.”

Number of children in household was measured by one question that “How many children currently live with you?” And *age of the children in the household* was measured by the question that “How old is each child?”

Life satisfaction was measured by the *Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS)* (Pavot &

Diener, 2009). Five items were included.

Income satisfaction was measured by the *measure of income satisfaction* (Crawford-Solberg et al., 2002). Eight items were included.

Work interruption was measured the *Perceived Stress Scale* of Cohen et al. (1983). Fourteen items were included.

Resilience was measured by *The Brief Resilience Scale* of Smith et al. (2008). Six items were included.

Three attention checks were used. Each one asked participants to respond in a particular way to a question (e.g., "please answer 'disagree' to this question").

Table 5

Summary of measure, Time 1 & Time 2 correlations, adoption of related variables in the models and reliability of variables.

Construct	Measure	The number of items	An example item/ Categories	Time 1 & Time 2 correlation	Adoption in the analyses	The reliability achieved in Study 2
Work-life balance	<i>satisfaction of the work-life balance scale</i> (Valcour, 2007)	5	The way you divide your time between work and personal or family life.	.71**	Average of Time 1 & 2	.96
Personal income	self-reported question	1	“less than \$29,999,” “\$30,000 to \$59,999,” “\$60,000 to \$119,999,” “\$120,000 to \$149,999,” “\$150,000 to \$179,999” and “\$180,000 or more.”	.94**	Time 1	
Work stress	<i>measure of job stress</i> (Judge, Boudreau & Bretz, 1994)	16	The number of projects and/or assignments I have.		Time 1	.90
Flexible work schedule	<i>measure of new ways of working</i> (De Leede & Kraijenbrink, 2014)	3	I have the freedom to vary my work schedule.		Time 1	.86
Job satisfaction	<i>measure of overall job satisfaction</i> (Judge et al., 1998)	5	I felt fairly well satisfied with my job.		Time 2	.90
Job demands	<i>measure of job demands</i> (Ng et al., 2008)	5	I had a heavy workload.	.56**	Time 1	.76
Psychological detachment	<i>state version of recovery experience questionnaire</i> (Bakker et al., 2015)	5	When I was not working, I forgot about work.	.62**	Time 1	.88
Perceived private-life support	<i>Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS)</i> (Zimet et al., 1988)	12	There is a special person who is around when I am in need.	.85**	Average of Time 1 & 2	.96
Perceived spousal support	<i>measure of daily satisfaction with spousal support</i> (Gremore et al., 2011)	3	Your partner supported you emotionally.	.70**	Average of Time 1 & 2	.84
Family-role salience	<i>measure of family salience</i> (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003)	3	I am very much personally involved in my family.	.78**	Average of Time 1 & 2	.84
Work-role salience	<i>measure of work salience</i> (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003)	3	The major satisfaction in my life comes from my work.	.70**	Average of Time 1 & 2	.82
Perceived boundary control	<i>measure of boundary control</i> (Kossek et al., 2012)	3	I controlled whether I was able to keep my work and personal life separate.	.56**	Time 1	.90
Age/Age groups	self-reported question	1	“25 to 34,” “35 to 44,” “45 to 54,” and “55 and more”	.97**	Average of Time 1 & 2	

Gender	self-reported question	1	male, female, and other		Time 1 or 2	
Marital status	self-reported question	1	“single,” “had a former partner but is separated or widowed,” and “currently have a partner.”		Time 1 or 2	
Total work experience	self-reported question	1			Time 1 or 2	
Current job tenure	self-reported question	1			Time 1 or 2	
Total household income	self-reported question	1	“less than \$29,999,” “\$30,000 to \$59,999,” “\$60,000 to \$119,999,” “\$120,000 to \$149,999,” “\$150,000 to \$179,999” and “\$180,000 or more.”		Time 1 or 2	
Number of children in the household	self-reported question	1		.95**	Average of Time 1& 2	
The age of the children in the household	self-reported question	1		.97**	Average of Time 1& 2	
Life satisfaction	<i>Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS)</i> (Pavot & Diener, 2009)	5	In most ways, my life was close to my ideal.	.82**	Average of Time 1& 2	.90
Income satisfaction	<i>measure of income satisfaction</i> (Crawford-Solberg et al., 2002)	8	I am satisfied with the travel I can afford.	.81**	Average of Time 1& 2	.89
Work interruption	<i>Perceived Stress Scale</i> (Cohen et al., 1983)	14	In the last three weeks, how often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?	.82**	Average of Time 1& 2	.83
Resilience	<i>The Brief Resilience Scale</i> (Smith et al., 2008)	6	I tended to bounce back quickly after hard times.	.79**	Average of Time 1& 2	.92

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

Analytic approach

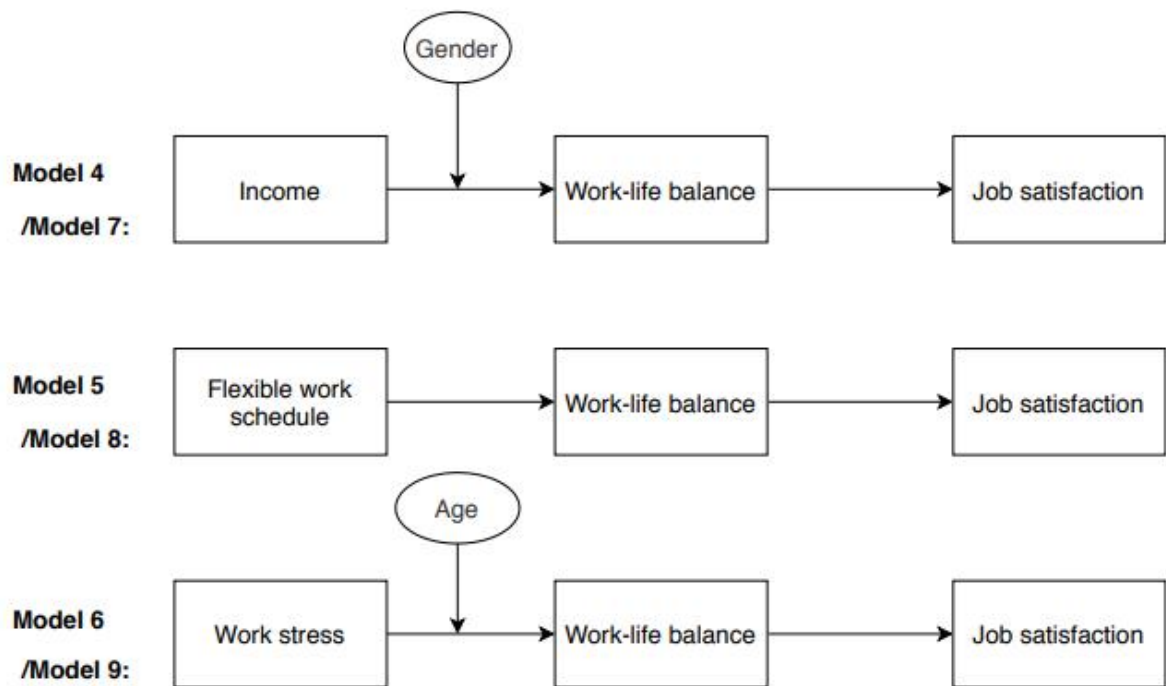
This study had two general goals. The first goal was to find out whether Study 2 replicated the results in Study 1, with different samples and measurements. The second goal was to explain the results in Study 1, with the new mediations and moderation models proposed in hypotheses. Therefore, two phases of tests were conducted. Figure 5 and Figure 6 helped to show the analytic approach visually.

In Phase 1, six models were tested. The first three models (i.e., models 4-6) tested the most similar possible model to the one in study 1, with different participants and measurements. Specifically, model 4 to 6 each tested the effect of one work factor on job satisfaction through the mediating mechanism of work-life balance, while controlling for the other two work factors. The moderating effect of age and gender that appeared in Study 1 was also tested. Specifically, model 4 tested the effect of personal income on work-life balance, with an interaction of personal income and gender. Model 5 tested the effect of flexible work schedule on work-life balance. Model 6 tested the effect of work stress on work-life balance, with an interaction of work stress and age. All models controlled for marital status, presence of children in the household, and life satisfaction. Based on Model 4-6, the next three models (i.e., model 7-9) added controls that proposed in Study 2 to examine how robust the model was.

After tested the replication of Study 1 in Phase 1, Phase 2 tested two mediation models. Model 10 tested the effect of personal income on work-life balance through the mediating mechanism of job demands, in interaction with related moderators (i.e., perceived private-life support, perceived spousal support, and family salience). Model 11 tested the effect of work stress on work-life balance through the mediating mechanism of psychological detachment, in interaction with related moderators (i.e., perceived boundary control).

Figure 5

The analytic approach of Study 2 (Phase 1: to replicate Study 1).

Phase 1.

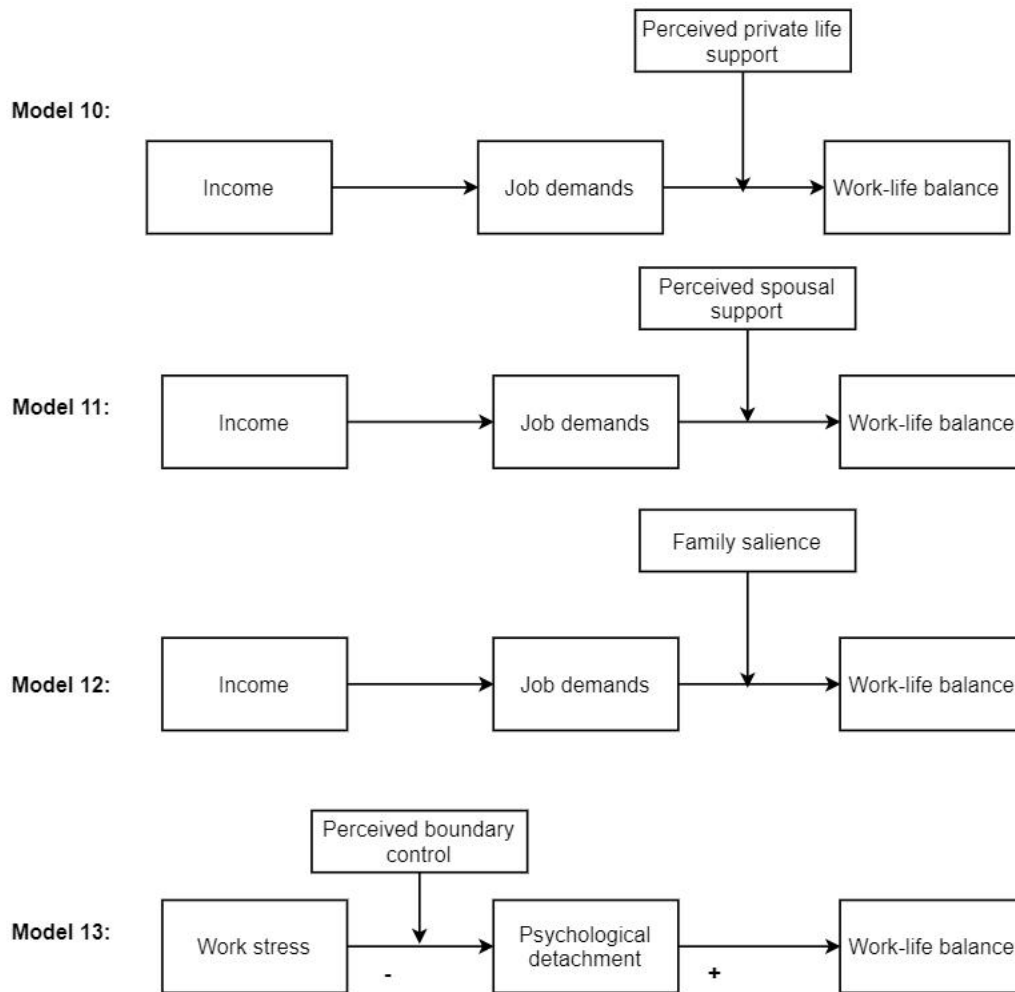
Note: Model 7 to 9 were the same as model 4 to 6, respectively, except for the control variables.

Model 4 to 6 controlled marital status, the number of children in the household, and life satisfaction.

Model 7 to 9 controlled marital status, the number of children in the household, life satisfaction, resilience, work interruption, income satisfaction, the average age of children in the household, total work experience (year), current tenure (year), household income.

Figure 6

The analytic approach of Study 2 (Phase 2: to test hypotheses).

Phase 2.

Note: Controlled variables were marital status, the number of children in the household, life satisfaction, resilience, work interruption, income satisfaction, the average age of children in the household, total work experience (year), current tenure (year), household income.

Study 2: Results

Preliminary analyses

Survey 1 collected 2190 respondents in total, and 234 of them did not pass the attention check. Of the inattentive participants excluded from analysis, 50% failed all the three attention checks, 30% failed two attention checks, 11% failed one attention check, and 9% failed open question check. Thus, 1956 respondents could access the link of Survey 2. Finally, only 1213 respondents continued to attend Survey 2, and 128 of them failed the attention

check. Of the inattentive participants excluded from analysis, 21% failed all the three attention checks, 10% failed two attention checks, and 69% failed one attention check. Thus, 1085 answers were valid in Survey 2.

In order to match the variables in two surveys, the Time 1-Time 2 correlation was tested (presented in Table 5). The standard reliability metric (at least .70) was the criterion. For those who have standard reliability greater than .70, the Time 1 and Time 2 scores were averaged and included in the mediation models. In such a situation, Time 1 independent variables predicted mixed time mediators and predicted Time 2 dependent variables.

Table 5 presents all the related variables' correlations of Time 1 and Time 2. In Table 5, three variables (i.e., boundary control, job demands, and psychological detachment) failed to reach the criterion of .70. This instability might be resulted from the job shift experience during the period between Survey 1 and Survey 2. For example, people might just back to the office from work-from-home and have a fluctuated perception of job demands. Therefore, in order to avoid the possible influence of job shifts, this study used Time 1 scores of these three below-0.70-variables in related models. Table 5 also includes the adoption of all relevant variables in the models.

Table 5 also presents the reliability of the relevant variables in Study 2.

After deciding the adoption of variables, Table 6 presents descriptive statistics for these variables. Post hoc power analysis revealed a power close to 1 in this study, with the sample size of 1085 and the probability level of 0.05. Regarding potential gender differences, it was found that work life balance was not significantly different between men and women ($M_{\text{male}} = 3.76$ vs $M_{\text{female}} = 3.66$, $t = 1.53$, $p = .13$). Men reported higher personal income ($M_{\text{male}} = 2.60$ vs $M_{\text{female}} = 2.17$, $t = 7.76$, $p < .001$). Flexible work schedule and work stress did not show significant differences between men and women (flexible work schedule: $M_{\text{male}} = 3.07$ vs $M_{\text{female}} = 2.913$, $t = 1.83$, $p = .07$; work stress: $M_{\text{male}} = 2.43$ vs $M_{\text{female}} = 2.44$, $t = -.41$, $p = .68$).

Regarding age differences, work-life balance was found to increase as age groups increased ($M_{25-34} = 3.61$, $M_{35-44} = 3.68$, $M_{45-54} = 3.82$, $M_{55 \text{ or more}} = 3.89$, $F(3) = 4.67$, $p < .001$). Income showed differences between workers aged from 25 to 34 and from 45 to 54 ($M_{25-34} = 2.27$ vs $M_{45-54} = 2.50$, $t = -2.58$, $p = .01$). Other age groups did not show differences in personal income ($M_{35-44} = 2.39$, $M_{55 \text{ and more}} = 2.45$). Work stress and flexible work schedule

showed differences among some age groups. After combining the age groups that were not different, workers aged from 25 to 54 reported significant higher work stress and lower flexible work schedule than workers aged from 55 or more (work stress: $M_{25-54} = 2.47$ vs $M_{55 \text{ and more}} = 2.25$, $t = 3.54$, $p < .001$; flexible work schedule: $M_{25-54} = 2.98$ vs $M_{55 \text{ and more}} = 3.21$, $t = -2.24$, $p = .03$).

The following paragraphs show the results of the two phases of analyses. Phase 1, including two tests, aimed to test the replication of Study 1. It firstly tested the most similar possible model to the one in Study 1, with different participants and measurements (Model 4 to 6). It then added controls based on the previous test to examine how robust were the models (Model 7 to 9). After showing the replication results of Study 1, Phase 2 tested the hypotheses proposed in Study 2 (Model 10 to 13).

Table 6

Means and standard deviations for Study 2 variables by gender, and correlation results from gender comparisons ^a

	Male	Female																						
	M(SD)	M(SD)	WLB	PI	WS	FLS	JS	JD	PD	PS	PSS	FRS	WRS	PBC	LS	IS	WI	RE	AGE	MS	NCH	ACH	TW	CJ
Work-life balance (WLB)	3.76 (.85)	3.68 (.93)		.08	-.45**	.19**	.46**	-.43**	.39**	.31**	.26**	.16**	.14**	.52**	.50**	.50**	.63**	.49**	.14**	.00	-.00	.06	.11*	.12**
Personal income (PI) ^b	2.60 (.99)	2.17 (.83)	.07		.10*	.05	.11*	.11*	-.11*	.10*	.19**	.04	.08	-.09*	.18**	.34**	.13**	.14**	.08	.08	-.06	-.04	.06	.14**
Work stress (WS)	2.43 (.73)	2.51 (.73)	-.39**	.08		-.08*	-.36**	.54**	-.30**	-.17**	-.13*	-.05	.04	-.30**	-.32**	-.33**	-.46**	-.34**	-.09**	-.03	-.08*	-.01	-.11**	-.05
Flexible work schedule (FLS)	3.08 (1.13)	2.91 (1.21)	.20**	.16**	-.12**		.24**	-.05	-.00	.11*	.05	.05	.17**	.20**	.13**	.14**	.15**	.04	.03	-.00	-.00	-.01	-.01	.02
Job satisfaction (JS)	3.49 (.93)	3.50 (.97)	.49**	.16**	-.34**	.24**		-.14**	.06	.32**	.19**	.15**	.50**	.26**	.39**	.40**	.45**	.37**	.10*	-.01	-.01	-.01	.02	.14**
Job demands (JD)	2.98 (.85)	3.06 (.88)	-.39**	.16**	.58**	-.01	-.19**		-.35**	-.05	-.06	.03	.11**	-.31**	-.21**	-.19**	-.41**	-.28**	-.08*	-.03	-.02	-.00	-.11**	-.01
Psychological detachment (PD)	3.48 (1.02)	3.35 (1.06)	.33**	-.16**	-.26**	-.06	.01	-.34**		.15**	.09	.08	-.19**	.40**	.21**	.15**	.39**	.26**	.01	-.03	-.02	-.01	.02	-.02
Perceived private-life support (PS)	3.99 (.77.0)	4.01 (.82)	.42**	.11**	-.21**	.09*	.39**	-.18**	.18**		.56**	.62**	.02	.17**	.55**	.42**	.41**	.42**	-.05	.02	.08	.01	-.04	.08
Perceived spousal support (PSS)	4.44 (.70)	4.17 (.95)	.35**	.07	-.26**	-.06	.24**	-.16**	.24**	.57**		.20**	.03	.05	.42**	.38**	.40**	.23**	.02	-.04	-.19**	-.16**	.06	.11*
Family-role salience (FRS)	4.03 (.96)	4.10 (.92)	.29**	.19**	-.06	.03	.28**	-.06	.14**	.64**	.33**		-.14**	.05	.42**	.33**	.23**	.26**	.03	.16**	.32**	.21**	.04	.15**
Work-role salience (WRS)	2.84 (.91)	2.91 (.87)	.12**	.11*	.07	.22**	.50**	.13**	-.27**	.08	.02	.00		.01	.06	.08	.01	-.02	-.06	-.08	-.13**	-.11*	-.09*	.01
Perceived boundary control (PBC)	3.85 (.93)	3.84 (.93)	.62**	.01	-.37**	.21**	.31**	-.35**	.39**	.29**	.30**	.19**	.05		.25**	.23**	.43**	.32**	.11**	-.02	-.03	.04	.11**	.05
Life satisfaction (LS)	3.42 (.93)	3.35 (.96)	.45**	.30**	-.23**	.16**	.48**	-.13**	.13**	.58**	.50**	.50**	.19**	.28**		.70**	.64**	.61**	-.01	.09*	.15**	.10*	.02	.13**
Income satisfaction (IS)	3.75 (.75)	3.62 (.82)	.41**	.36**	-.27**	.13**	.38**	-.13**	.13**	.48**	.42**	.39**	.14**	.27**	.64**		.59**	.50**	.08	.01	.00	.00	.07	.16**
Work interruption (WI)	3.44 (.53)	3.30 (.58)	.57**	.12**	-.53**	.11*	.48**	-.37**	.28**	.44**	.38**	.33**	.08	.48**	.59**	.51**		.79**	.19**	.06	-.00	.07	.20**	.14**
Resilience (RE)	3.77 (.84)	3.64 (.96)	.45**	.16**	-.42**	.04	.39**	-.24**	.20**	.38**	.30**	.28**	.08	.40**	.47**	.43**	.78**		.12**	.09*	.07	.14**	.13**	.15**

Age group (AGE) ^c	2.04(.96)	2.30(1.04)	.08	.12**	-.10**	.05	.10*	-.08**	-.00	.06	.01	.12**	-.01	.12**	.02	.09*	.22**	.18**		.27**	-.08*	.21**	.81**	.44**
Marital status (MS) ^d	1.79(.57)	1.93(.63)	.04	.16**	.01	.07	.10*	-.01	-.01	.20**	.13**	.29**	-.01	.02	.22**	.13**	.14**	.10*	.36**		.23**	.26**	.25**	.18**
Number of children in the household (NCH)	.45(.88)	.47(.92)	.05	.23**	.06	-.03	.11**	.06*	.01	.20**	.04	.40**	-.01	.00	.25**	.13**	.11**	.09*	.08*	.34**		.33**	-.03	.04
Age of children in the household (ACH)	4.41(6.98)	5.46(7.54)	.06	.18**	.01	.04	.11**	.03	.00	.15**	.02	.31**	.05	.07*	.18**	.13**	.15**	.12**	.36**	.31**	.37**		.15**	.17**
Total work experience (TW)	18.61(11.89)	20.60(11.00)	.11**	.10*	-.15**	.03	.13**	-.13**	.03	.07	.03	.13**	-.01	.12**	.03	.10*	.26**	.22**	.75**	.38**	.06	.28**		.39**
Current job tenure (CJ)	7.62(6.17)	8.04(6.68)	.15**	.19**	-.03	.07	.11**	-.03	.01	.12**	.07	.20**	.07	.18**	.13**	.16**	.21**	.19**	.47**	.16**	.13**	.30**	.48**	

Note. a. N=1085. Male: n=556; Female: n= 529. Correlations for male are reported below the diagonal, and above for female. **p<0.01, *p<0.05

b. Categorical variable: 1=less than \$29,999 (5.7% of male sample; 10.9% of female sample), 2= \$30,000 to \$59,999 (21.1.2%-male; 25.3%-female), 3= \$60,000 to \$119,999 (22.7%-male; 16.1%-female), 4=\$120,000 to \$149,999 (4.1%-male; 1.1%-female), 5= \$150,000 to \$179,999 (1.4%-male; .2%-female), 6 =\$180,000 or more (1.1%-male; .3%-female)

c. Categorical variable: 1= 25-34 years old (33.8% of male sample;26.0% of female sample); 2= 35-44 (37.1%-male; 35.2%-female); 3= 45-54 (18.2%-male; 20.3%-female); 4= 55 or more (9.8%-male; 17.6%-female).

d. Categorical variable: 1= single (16.2% of male sample; 12.4% of female sample); 2= have a partner now(35.2%-male; 32.5%-female); 3=had a partner but now divorced or widowed(4.4%-male; 8.9%-female).

Phase 1: Replication of Study 1.

The following paragraphs show how Study 2 replicated the model of Study 1, with different participants and measurements. Model 4 to 6 were tested to show the replication results. Specifically, model 4 to 6 reported the effects of three predictors on work-life balance, determined the relationships between three predictors and job satisfaction with the mediating role of work-life balance, and examined the moderating roles of age and gender. As in Study 1, marital status, life satisfaction, the number of children in the household were controlled. In order to be close to the model of Study 1, the number of children in the household and the age of respondents was coded as in Study 1. The results of each model are showed in Table 7 to 9, respectively.

To replicate the findings from Study 1 that income negatively related to work-life balance, and this relationship was moderated by gender, model 4 was tested. In Table 7, it is showed that model 4 partly replicated the results of personal income in Study 1. The evidence was found that the negative relationship between personal income and work-life balance was shown ($B = -.07, p = .06$). Because of the directional hypothesis, a p -value of .03 provided the evidence for this significant relationship in a one-tailed format. However, gender did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between income and work-life balance ($B = .08, p = .17$). Overall, personal income predicted lower work-life balance, and work-life balance predicted higher job satisfaction (Total effect of personal income on job satisfaction = .04, 95%CI [.12, -.01]; Indirect effect = -.01, 95%CI [-.03, .01]).

Table 7

Results of model 4 (Personal income – work-life balance – job satisfaction mediation model).

Predictor	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 1a: Predicting the mediator variable - work-life balance					.30	47.57*** (9, 1005)
Constant	3.17***	.17	2.83	3.51		
Income	-.07	.04	-.14	.00		
Gender	-.27	.14	-.55	.01		
Gender*Income	.08	.06	-.03	.19		
Model 1b: Mediated model of dependent variable - job satisfaction					.34	66.12*** (8, 1006)
Constant	1.68***	.18	1.32	2.04		
Income	.05	.03	-.00	.01		
Work-life Balance	.31***	.03	.25	.37		
Conditional indirect effect of income on work-life balance at different						

values of gender moderator:				
0 Male	-.02	.01	-.05	-.00
1 Female	.00	.01	-.30	.03

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, life satisfaction, number of children in the household.

To replicate the findings from Study 1 that a flexible work schedule was positively related to work-life balance, model 5 was tested. In Table 8, model 5 replicated the relationship among flexible work schedule, work-life balance, and job satisfaction in Study 1. It is suggested that flexible work schedule positively predicted work-life balance ($B = .05$, $p = .02$). Overall, a flexible work schedule had a direct effect on job satisfaction and had an indirect effect through work-life balance (Total effect of flexible work schedule on job satisfaction = .13, 95%CI [.00, .08]; Indirect effect = .02, 95%CI [.00, .04]).

Table 8

Results of model 5 (Flexible work schedule – work-life balance – job satisfaction mediation model).

Predictor	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 5a: Predicting the mediator variable - work-life balance					.29	60.29*** (7, 1015)
Constant	3.03***	.16	2.71	3.35		
Flexible work schedule	.05*	.02	.01	.09		
Model 5b: Mediated model of dependent variable - job satisfaction					.34	66.63*** (8, 1014)
Constant	1.65***	.18	1.29	2.01		
Flexible work schedule	.11***	.02	.07	.15		
Work-life Balance	.31***	.03	.26	.37		

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, life satisfaction, number of children in the household.

To replicate the findings from Study 1 that work stress negatively related to work-life balance, and this relationship was moderated by age, model 6 was tested. In Table 9, Model 6 partially replicated the results about work stress in Study 1. Model 6 replicated that work stress negatively related to work-life balance ($B = -.25$, $p = .002$). However, age did not show a moderating effect on the relationship between work stress and work-life balance ($p = .76$). Overall, work stress negatively related to job satisfaction. Work-life balance mediated the relationship between work stress and job satisfaction. Work stress predicted lower work-life balance, and work-life balance predicted higher job satisfaction (Total effect of work stress

on job satisfaction= -.31, 95%CI [.00, -.38]; Indirect effect= -.09, 95%CI [-.13, -.06]).

The findings of Model 4 to 6 were summarized in Figure 7.

Table 9

Results of model 6 (Work stress – work-life balance – job satisfaction mediation model).

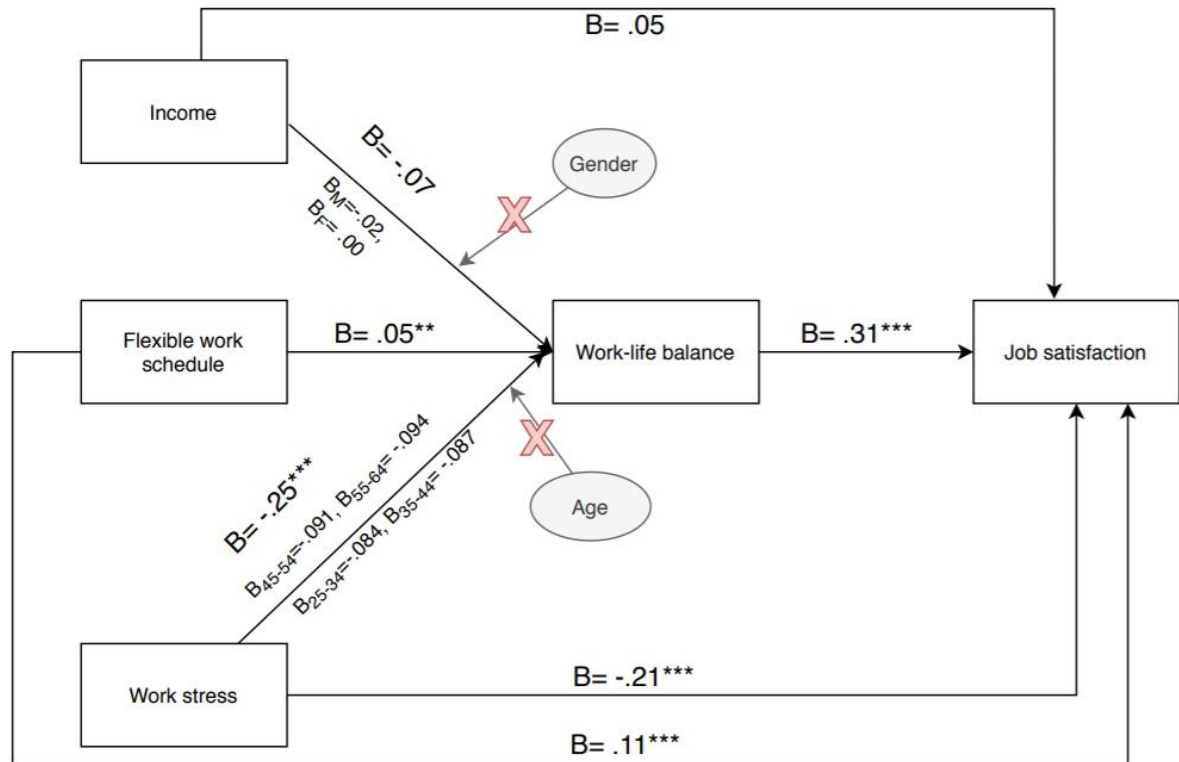
	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 6a: Predicting the mediator variable - work-life balance					.30	47.14*** (9, 1004)
Constant	2.80***	.25	2.31	3.28		
Work stress	-.25**	.08	-.41	-.09		
Age	.10	.24	-.07	.27		
Age* Work stress	-.01	.03	-.08	.06		
Model 6b: Mediated model of dependent variable - job satisfaction					.34	64.69*** (8, 1005)
Constant	1.65***	.18	1.29	2.01		
Work stress	-.21***	.04	-.28	-.14		
Work-life Balance	.31***	.03	.25	.37		
Conditional indirect effect of work stress on work-life balance at different values of age moderator:						
25~34	-.084	.02	-.12	-.06		
35~45	-.087	.02	-.12	-.06		
45~53	-.090	.02	-.14	-.05		
55~64	-.094	.03	-.16	-.04		

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, life satisfaction, number of children in the household.

Figure 7

Findings of model 4-6.



Note: Using MTurk data to test the "same" model used in Study 1. Control variables were marital status, life satisfaction, number of children in the household.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Subscript of M represents Male, F represents Female; 25~34, 35~44, 45~54, and 55~64 represent age groups.

Model 7 to 9 were continually tested to show the replication of Study 1, but they were added new controls based on model 4-6, aimed to examine how robust to various specifications the model was. Specifically, not only marital status, life satisfaction, and the number of children in the household, model 7-9 also controlled work interruption, resilience, total work experience, current tenure, income satisfaction, household income, and the average age of children in the household. The number of children in the household and age of respondents was coded as in Study 1. The results of each model are showed in Table 10 to 12, respectively.

To replicate the findings from Study 1 that income negatively related to work-life balance, and this relationship was moderated by gender, model 7 was tested. In Table 10, model 7 partially replicated the results about personal income of Study 1. Model 7 suggested that personal income was negatively related to work-life balance ($B = -.11$, $p = .01$). However,

gender did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between income and work-life balance ($B = .00, p = 1.00$). The effect of personal income on job satisfaction was positive and partially mediated by work-life balance. The effect size showed that personal income was related to lower work-life balance and work-life balance was related to higher job satisfaction (Total effect of personal income on job satisfaction = $.01, 95\%CI [-.07, .09]$; Indirect effect = $-.03, 95\%CI [-.05, -.01]$).

Table 10

Results of model 7 (Personal income – work-life balance – job satisfaction mediation model).

Predictor	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 7a: Predicting the mediator variable - work-life balance					.39	30.19*** (20, 933)
Constant	.90***	.27	.37	1.43		
Income	-.11**	.04	-.19	.03		
Gender	-.01	.14	-.30	.27		
Gender*Income	.00	.06	-.11	.11		
Model 7b: Mediated model of dependent variable - job satisfaction					.34	25.58*** (19, 934)
Constant	1.51***	.26	.99	2.03		
Income	.04	.04	-.04	.11		
Work-life Balance	.25***	.03	.19	.32		
Conditional indirect effect of income on work-life balance at different values of gender moderator:						
0 Male	-.03	.01	-.05	-.01		
1 Female	-.03	.01	-.06	-.00		

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, the number of children in the household, life satisfaction, resilience, work interruption, income satisfaction, the average age of children in the household, total work experience (year), current tenure (year), household income.

To replicate the findings from Study 1 that a flexible work schedule was positively related to work-life balance, model 8 was tested. In Table 11, model 8 replicated the relationship among flexible work schedule, work-life balance, and job satisfaction in Study 1. It suggested that a flexible work schedule positively predicted work-life balance ($B = .05, p = .02$). Overall, flexible work schedule had a direct effect on job satisfaction and had an indirect effect through work-life balance (Total effect of flexible work schedule on job satisfaction = $.13, 95\%CI [.09, .18]$; Indirect effect = $.01, 95\%CI [.00, .03]$).

Table 11

Results of model 8 (Flexible work schedule – work-life balance – job satisfaction mediation model).

Predictor	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 8a: Predicting the mediator variable - work-life balance					.39	33.97*** (18, 941)
Constant	.83**	.25	.34	1.32		
Flexible work schedule	.05*	.02	.01	.09		
Model 8b: Mediated model of dependent variable - job satisfaction					.34	25.65*** (19, 940)
Constant	1.48***	.26	.96	2.00		
Flexible work schedule	.12***	.02	.07	.16		
Work-life Balance	.26***	.03	.19	.32		

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, the number of children in the household, life satisfaction, resilience, work interruption, income satisfaction, the average age of children in the household, total work experience (year), current tenure (year), household income.

To replicate the findings from Study 1 that work stress was negatively related to work-life balance, and this relationship was moderated by age, model 9 was tested. In Table 12, model 9 partially replicated the results of work stress in Study 1. Model 9 replicated that work stress negatively related to work-life balance ($B = -.20$, $p < .001$). However, age did not show a moderating effect on the relationship between work stress and work-life balance ($p = .85$). Overall, work stress was negatively related to job satisfaction. Work-life balance mediated the relationship between work stress and job satisfaction. Work stress predicted lower work-life balance, and work-life balance predicted higher job satisfaction (Total effect of work stress on job satisfaction = $-.22$, 95%CI $[-.14, -.24]$; Indirect effect = $-.02$, 95%CI $[-.05, -.00]$).

Figure 8 presents the findings of model 7 to 9.

Table 12

Results of model 9 (Work stress – work-life balance – job satisfaction mediation model).

	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 9a: Predicting the mediator variable - work-life balance					.39	29.92*** (20, 932)
Constant	.70**	.21	.19	1.02		
Work stress	-.08*	.04	-.16	-.00		
Age	.01	.04	-.09	.08		
Age* Work stress	.00	.03	-.06	.07		
Model 9b: Mediated model of dependent variable - job satisfaction					.34	24.93*** (19, 933)
Constant	1.00***	.21	.60	1.41		
Work stress	-.20***	.04	-.28	-.11		
Work-life Balance	.25***	.03	.19	.32		

Conditional indirect effect of work stress on work-life balance at

different values of age moderator:

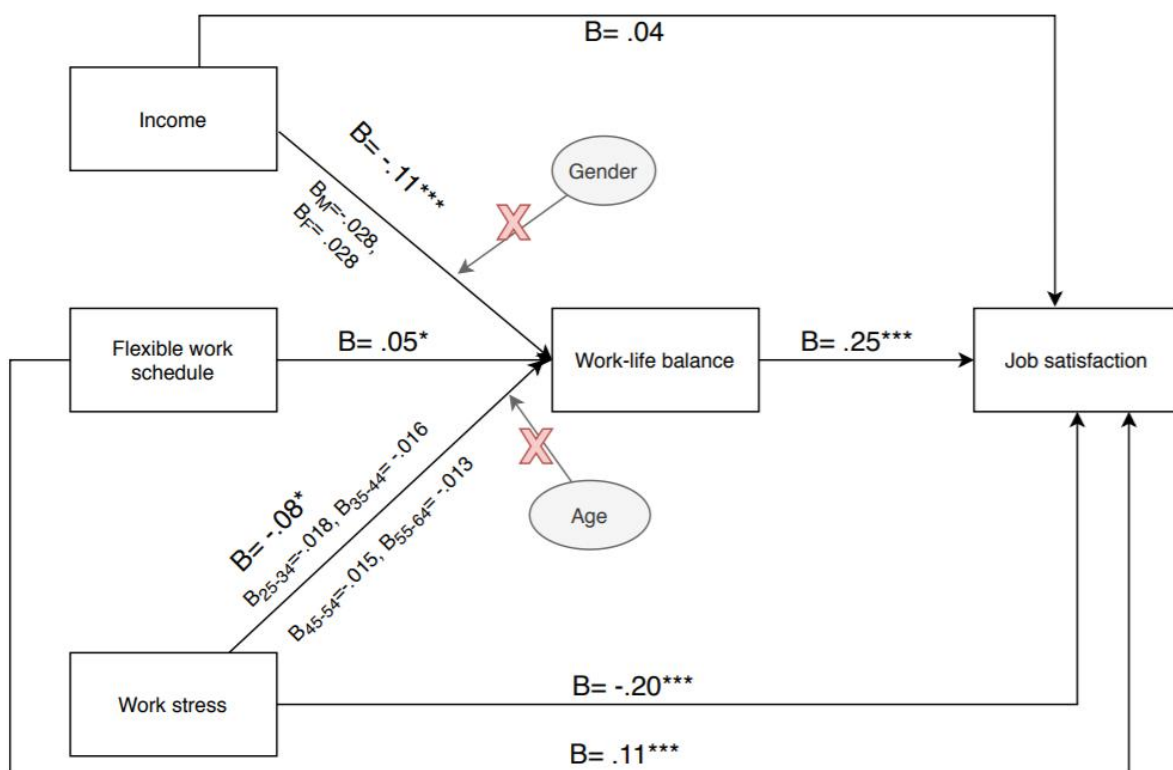
25~34	-.018	.02	-.06	-.02
35~45	-.016	.02	-.08	-.03
45~53	-.015	.03	-.08	-.05
55~64	-.013	.04	-.09	-.06

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, the number of children in the household, life satisfaction, resilience, work interruption, income satisfaction, the average age of children in the household, total work experience (year), current tenure (year), household income.

Figure 8

Findings of model 7-9.



Note: Control variables were marital status, life satisfaction, number of children in the household, resilience, work interruption, income satisfaction, the average age of children in the household, total work experience (year), current tenure (year), household income.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Subscript of M represents Male, F represents Female; 25~34, 35~44, 45~54, and 55~64 represent age groups.

In sum, by using MTurk samples, Study 2 did not completely replicate the results in Study 1. Regarding the mediation models of work-life balance, the mediating effect of work-life balance between three work predictors and job satisfaction was confirmed after various

control variables. Regarding the moderation models related to gender and age, neither gender nor age was confirmed to have a moderating effect.

Phase 2: Testing the hypotheses in Study 2

In this section, three models were tested to examine the hypotheses proposed in Study 2. Firstly, these models tested the possible mediation mechanisms to explain the effect of personal income and work stress on work-life balance. Secondly, related moderations were also examined. Specifically, model 10 to 12 looked at whether personal income affected work-life balance through job demands. Moderating effects of perceived private-life support, perceived spousal support, and family salience were examined in model 10, 11, and 12, respectively. Model 13 looked at the mediating effect of psychological detachment between work stress and work-life balance. The moderation of perceived boundary control was also examined in model 13.

To test hypothesis 1 that job demands mediated the negative relationship between personal income and work-life balance, I tested model 10. Model 10 also tested hypothesis 2 that perceived private-life support buffered the negative effect of job demands on work-life balance. In Table 13, model 10 revealed that personal income positively related to job demands ($B = .11, p = .003$), and job demands were negatively related to work-life balance ($B = -.15, p < .001$). Therefore, the mediating effect of job demands was confirmed. Hypothesis 1 was confirmed. Perceived private-life support was confirmed to have a moderating effect on the relationship between job demands and work-life balance ($B = .07, p = .02$). The conditional effects of job demands at different values of perceived private-life support are shown in the Table 13 (for low level of perceived private-life support: $B = -.21, p < .001$; medium: $B = -.15, p < .001$; high: $B = -.09, p < .001$). It suggested that perceived support buffered the negative effect of job demands on work-life balance. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was confirmed. Overall, job demands mediated the relationship between personal income and work-life balance. Personal income predicted higher job demands, and job demands predicted lower work-life balance (Total effect of personal income on work-life balance = $-.11$, 95%CI $[-.18, -.03]$; Indirect effect = $-.01$, 95%CI $[-.03, -.00]$).

Table 13

Results of model 10 (Personal income – job demands – work-life balance mediation model, moderated by perceived private-life support).

	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 10a: Predicting the mediator variable – job demands					.34	24.07*** (20, 926)
Constant	-.74**	.25	-1.23	-.24		
Personal income	.11**	.04	.03	.18		
Model 10b: Mediated model of dependent variable – work-life balance					.41	31.87*** (21, 926)
Constant	1.24***	.29	.67	1.80		
Personal income	-.08*	.04	-.15	-.00		
Job demands	-.15***	.03	-.22	-.09		
Perceived private-life support	.17***	.04	.08	.25		
Perceived private-life support*Job demands	.07*	.03	.01	.14		
Conditional indirect effect of job demands on work-life balance at different values of perceived private-life support (Mean-1SD, Mean, and Mean+1SD):						
-.79	-.21***	.04	-.29	-.13		
.00	-.15***	.03	-.22	-.09		
.79	-.09***	.04	-.17	-.01		

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, the number of children in the household, life satisfaction, resilience, work interruption, income satisfaction, the average age of children in the household, total work experience (year), current tenure (year), household income, perceived spousal support and family salience.

To test hypothesis 2 that perceived spousal support buffered the negative relationship between job demands and work-life balance, I tested model 11. In Table 14, model 11 confirmed the mediation role of job demands in the relationship between personal income and work-life balance again. However, perceived spousal support was not found to moderate the relationship between job demands and work-life balance ($B = .01$, $p = .91$).

Table 14

Results of model 11 (Personal income – job demands – work-life balance mediation model, moderated by perceived spousal support).

	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 11a: Predicting the mediator variable – job demands					.36	18.48*** (20, 648)
Constant	-.94**	.33	-1.59	-.30		
Personal income	.12*	.04	.04	.20		
Model 11b: Mediated model of dependent variable – work-life balance					.41	31.87*** (21, 926)
Constant	.18	.37	.56	.91		
Personal income	-.04	.04	-.12	.04		

Job demands	-.16***	.04	-.24	-.08
Perceived spousal support	-.01	.04	-.09	.08
Perceived spousal support*Job demands	.00	.04	-.07	.08

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, the number of children in the household, life satisfaction, resilience, work interruption, income satisfaction, the average age of children in the household, total work experience (year), current tenure (year), household income, perceived private-life support and family salience.

To test hypothesis 4 that family salience strengthened the negative relationship between job demands and work-life balance, I tested model 12. In Table 15, model 12 confirmed the mediation role of job demands in the relationship between personal income and work-life balance again. In order to avoid the possible influence of work salience on family salience, work salience was controlled in model 12. As the prediction, family salience was found to moderate the relationship between job demands and work-life balance ($B = .06$, $p = .053$). The conditional effects of personal income at different values of family salience are shown in Table 15 (for low family salience, $B = -.22$, $p < .001$; medium, $B = -.16$, $p < .001$; high, $B = -.11$, $p = .006$). Therefore, the moderating effect of family salience was confirmed, but in the opposite direction to hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 4 argued that family salience would strengthen the negative effect of job demands on work-life balance, but the results showed a buffering effect.

Table 15

Results of model 12 (Personal income – job demands – work-life balance mediation model, moderated by family salience).

	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 12a: Predicting the mediator variable – job demands					.35	23.69*** (21, 922)
Constant	-.94**	.25	-1.45	-.43		
Personal income	.10**	.04	.03	.18		
Model 12b: Mediated model of dependent variable – work-life balance					.51	41.53*** (23, 934)
Constant	.36	.29	-.20	.92		
Personal income	-.08*	.04	-.15	-.01		
Job demands	-.16***	.03	-.23	-.10		
Family salience	-.00*	.06	-.07	.07		
Family salience*Job demands	.06	.03	-.00	.11		
Conditional indirect effect of job demand on work-life balance at different values of family salience (Mean-1SD, Mean, and Mean+1SD):						
-.95	-.22***	.04	-.30	-.12		

0.00	-.16***	.03	-.23	-.10
.95	-.11**	.04	-.19	.03

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, the number of children in the household, life satisfaction, resilience, work interruption, income satisfaction, the average age of children in the household, total work experience (year), current tenure (year), household income, work salience, perceived private-life support and spousal support.

To test hypothesis 3(a) and 3(b) that women had less perceived private-life support or perceived spousal support than men, t-tests were conducted. Also, to test hypothesis 5 that women reported greater family salience, a t-test was conducted. The results showed that gender differences were significant in perceived spousal support ($M_{\text{male}} = 4.43$ vs $M_{\text{female}} = 4.17$, $t = 4.41$, $p < .001$), but not significant in perceived support from overall life domain ($M_{\text{male}} = 3.99$ vs $M_{\text{female}} = 4.01$, $t = -.459$, $p = .65$) and family salience ($M_{\text{male}} = 4.03$ vs $M_{\text{female}} = 4.10$, $t = -.13$, $p = .19$). Therefore, hypothesis 3(b) was confirmed, but hypothesis 3(a) and hypothesis 5 were not confirmed.

To test hypothesis 6 that psychological detachment mediated the negative relationship between work stress and work-life balance, I tested model 13. Model 13 also tested hypothesis 7 that perceived boundary control buffered the negative effect of work stress on perceived boundary control. In Table 16, model 13 confirmed the mediating role of psychological in the relationship between work stress and work-life balance. The results showed that work stress significantly predicted lower psychological detachment ($B = -.12$, $p = .02$), and psychological significantly predicted higher work-life balance ($B = .07$, $p = .004$). Therefore, hypothesis 6 was confirmed. However, the moderating effect of perceived boundary control on the relationship between work stress and psychological detachment was not confirmed ($B = -.01$, $p = .76$). Hypothesis 7 was not confirmed.

To test hypothesis 8 that perceived boundary control increased as age increased, a contrast test was conducted. The relationship between age and perceived boundary control was confirmed. The result of a linear contrast indicated that as the age increased, perceived boundary increased ($M_{25-34} = 3.67$, $M_{35-44} = 3.84$, $M_{45-54} = 3.97$, $M_{\text{more than 55}} = 4.09$, $F(3) = 23.00$, $p < .001$). Therefore, hypothesis 8 was confirmed.

Table 16

Results of model 13 (Work stress – psychological detachment – work-life balance mediation model, moderated by perceived boundary control).

	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	R ²	F
Model 13a: Predicting the mediator variable – psychological detachment					.27	16.68*** (21, 936)
Constant	2.95***	.32	2.32	3.58		
Work stress	-.12*	.05	-.22	-.01		
Perceived boundary control	.34***	.04	.27	.41		
Perceived boundary control*Work stress	-.01	.04	-.10	.07		
Model 13b: Mediated model of dependent variable – work-life balance					.50	46.81*** (20, 937)
Constant	2.64***	.25	2.16	3.13		
Work stress	.11**	.04	.03	.18		
Psychological detachment	.07**	.02	.02	.11		

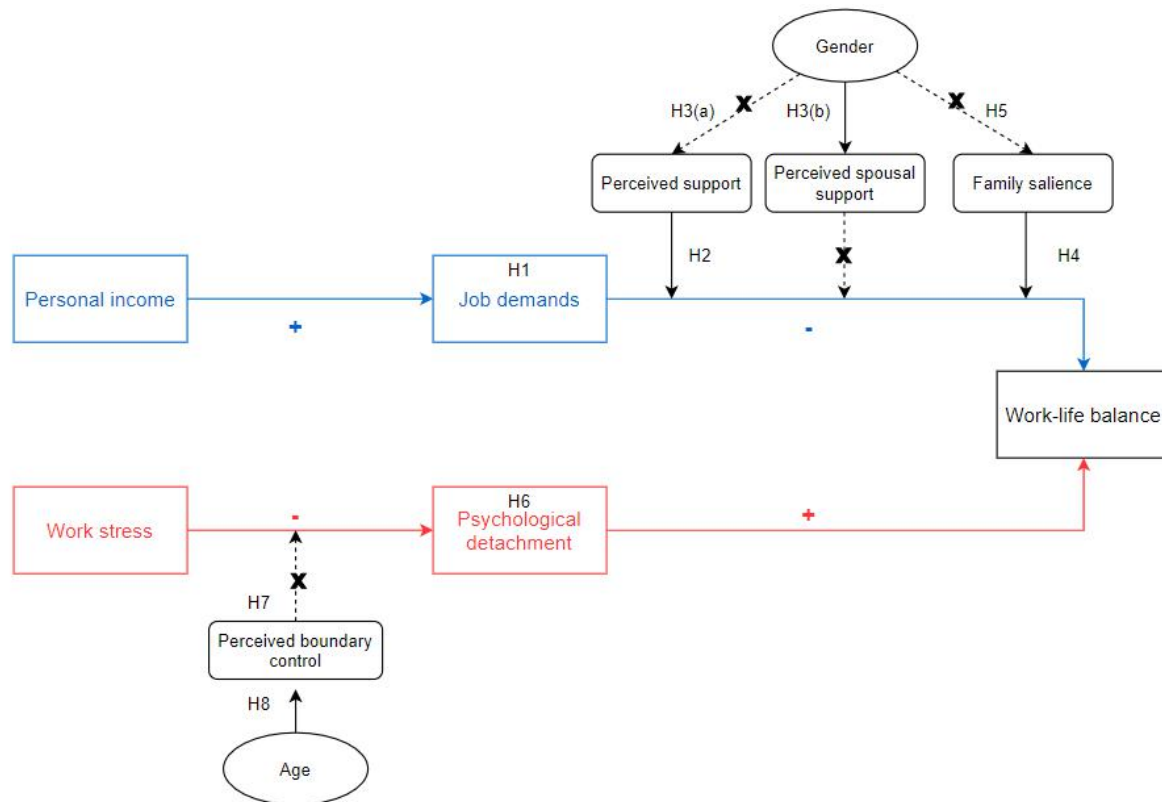
Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Controlled variables were marital status, the number of children in the household, life satisfaction, resilience, work interruption, income satisfaction, the average age of children in the household, total work experience (year), current tenure (year), household income.

Figure 9 summarized the finding of the hypotheses in Study 2. In sum, the mediation models from personal income and work stress to work-life balance were both confirmed. Part of the moderating effects was confirmed. Job demands were confirmed to mediate the effect of personal income on work-life balance. As such, personal income predicted higher job demands, and job demands predicted higher lower work-life balance. As the prediction, perceived support was confirmed to buffer the negative effect of job demands on work-life balance. Opposite to the prediction, family salience buffered the effect of job demands on work-life balance. Psychological detachment was confirmed to mediate the effect of work stress on work-life balance. No moderation in this relationship was found.

Figure 9

Findings of model 10 to 13.



Overall Discussion

Exclusions of respondents

There seems to be a huge difference between the number of respondents who participated in the study (i.e., 2190) and who passed the attention check (i.e., 1085). However, due to the nature of the two-stage survey, this gap resulted from that most respondents of Survey 1 did not continue participating in the after-three-week Survey 2. Excluded this amount, the number of attentive participants was moderate as previous studies using an MTurk sample (Hauser & Schwarz, 2016).

Summary and interpretation of results

The present thesis (or studies since there are 2) offered a theoretical model that posits how work-life balance relates to work factors (i.e., personal income, flexible work schedule, and work stress) and job satisfaction. Study 1 examined the main effects of the model. The results suggested that personal income and work stress predicted lower work-life balance, and flexible work schedule predicted higher work-life balance. Moreover, work-life balance predicted higher job satisfaction. The moderating effects of age and gender were only found in the relationship between work-life balance with personal income and work stress.

Study 2 based on a perspective of resource allocation, built a mechanism that aimed to explain why and how personal income and work stress predicted a lower work-life balance. It also aimed to explore the reason why age and gender showed moderating effects.

The analyses in Study 2 included two phases. Phase 1 aimed to test the replication of Study 1. In this phase, the main effects about work-life balance with its' three predictors (i.e., personal income, flexible work schedule, and work stress) and job satisfaction were confirmed. However, the moderating effects of neither age nor gender were confirmed. Both studies had a power close to 1, and thus both of them gave reliable findings.

One reason might be the different measurements between the two studies. Table 17 summarized the difference in the measurements. First of all, due to the aim of the General Social Survey (Statistic Canada, 2016) to collect general information from the public, most of the items in study 1 were single and summary assessments of the construct. While measurements in study 2 included multiple elements that implied various aspects of the constructs. For example, the measure of work-life balance asked about the general feeling of work-life balance in study 1 while asked about time, attention, and duties between work and life in study 2. Also, measures in study 2 included different aspects of the construct. For example, the measure on flexible work schedule included one item regarding the schedule in study 1, while items regarding the schedule and location in study 2. Due to these differences in the measure, study 2 might collect different responses to the constructs from the public. And thus, it might lead to different results between the two studies.

The other possible explanation is that the difference in the sample causes the inability to replicate the results in Study 2. GSS sample used in Study 1 was collected in 2016, and Mturk sample used in Study 2 was collected in 2020. Work situations may change as time changed. For example, the gig economy has been continuously increasing since 2016, and it might change more individuals into independent workers in 2020 (MBO partners, 2018). As such, individuals may have a different perspective towards work-life balance as gig work is a dominant type of employment. Similarly, the relationship between gender and age with job might also change from 2016 to 2020. Regarding the gender roles, a recent study figured out the changes in gender relations and especially in men's reconciliation about work and family (Goldstein-Gidoni, 2020). Also, the report from LeanIn. Org and McKinsey & Company also

pointed out that from 2015 to 2019, women were increasingly valued in leadership, and companies were making progress on gender diversity (Huang et al., 2019). Thus, it is sensible to assume that gender roles at the workplace were different between 2016 and 2020.

Regarding the age roles, different generations' transitions of career stages might be the dominant reason why individuals responded differently between 2016 to 2019. Factors that impacted work-life balance were found to differ across all these career substages (Darcy et al., 2012). Work-life balance was also found to differ across all the generations in a study using 1997 and 2002 samples (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008). There is some possibility that the winding down of Baby boomers (born between 1946 and 1964) and the joining of Generation Z (born between 1997 to 2012) may alter the results about work-life balance in 2020.

Therefore, the sample difference between Study 1 and Study 2 may contribute to the lack of replication in terms of gender and age.

Table 17*Differences in the measurements of Study 1 and Study 2.*

		Study 1				Study 2			
		Answer choices	Mean	S.D.	included items/ categories	Answer choices	Mean	S.D.	included items/categories
1	Work-life balance	1=strongly disagree; 5= strongly agree	3.67	.90	(1) How satisfied are you with the balance between your job and home life?	1=strongly dissatisfied; 5= strongly satisfied	3.71	.89	(1) The way you divide your time between work and personal or family life. (2) The way you divide your attention between work and home. (3) How well your work life and your personal or family life fit together. (4) Your ability to balance the needs of your job with those of your personal or family life. (5) The opportunity you had to perform your job well and yet be able to perform home-related duties adequately.
2	Job satisfaction	1=strongly disagree; 5= strongly agree	4.01	.73	(1) In general, I am satisfied with my job (2) I feel like I belong in the organization I work for (3) The organization I work for motivates me to perform at my best (4) My job gives me a sense of accomplishment	1=strongly disagree; 5= strongly agree	3.39	.95	(1) I felt fairly well satisfied with my job. (2) Most days, I was enthusiastic about my work. (3) Each day of work seemed like it would never end. (4) I found real enjoyment in my work. (5) I considered my job rather unpleasant.
3	Personal income		2.88	1.31	(1) less than \$25,000 (2) \$25,000 to \$49,999 (3) \$50,000 to \$74,999 (4) \$75,000 to \$99,999 (5) \$100,000 to \$124,999		2.38	.93	(1) less than \$29,999 (2) \$30,000 to \$59,999 (3) \$60,000 to \$119,999 (4) \$120,000 to \$149,999 (5) \$150,000 to \$179,999

				(6)	\$125000 or more			(6)	\$180,000 or more
4	Work stress	1=no; 2=yes	1.37	.48	(1) Is work the main source of your stress?	2.44	.71	(1)	The number of projects and/or assignments I have.
								(2)	The amount of time I spend working.
								(3)	The amount of time I spend in meetings.
								(4)	The number of interruptions I have during the day.
								(5)	The degree to which politics rather than performance affects organizational decisions.
								(6)	The inability to clearly understand what is expected of me on the job.
								(7)	The volume of work that has to be accomplished in the allotted time.
								(8)	The extent to which my position presents me with conflicting demands.
								(9)	The amount of red tape I need to go through to get my job done.
								(10)	The time pressures I experience.
								(11)	The lack of job security I have.
								(12)	The amount of responsibility I have.
								(13)	The scope of responsibilities my position entails.
								(14)	The degree to which my career seems "stalled."
								(15)	The opportunities for career development I have.
								(16)	The amount of traveling I have to do.
5	Flexible work schedule	1=no; 2=yes	1.39	.49	(1) Do you have a flexible schedule that allows you to choose the time you begin and end your workday?	3.01	1.18	(1)	I have the freedom to vary my work schedule.
								(2)	I have the freedom to work wherever is best for me — either at home or at work.
								(3)	In total, as an employee I experience much flexibility.

6	Number of children in the household		.50	.85	(1)	How many children under 14 years old do you have in the household?				(1)	How many children currently live with you?
7	Life satisfaction	0 = very dissatisfied; 10 = very satisfied	7.71	1.50	(1)	How satisfied are you about your life as a whole right now?	1=strongly disagree; 5= strongly agree	3.39	.95	(1)	In most ways, my life was close to my ideal.
8	Marital status, gender, and age										

In Phase 2, tests were conducted to examine the hypotheses. The model, including mediations and moderations, were aimed to posit why and how personal income and work stress predicted work-life balance and why the effects of age and gender existed in Study 1.

Firstly, all the hypotheses about mediation were confirmed. In line with the theoretical model, personal income was found to predict lower work-life balance through the mediation effect of job demands. As such, personal income predicted higher job demands, and job demands predicted lower work-life balance. Work stress was found to negatively relate to work-life balance through the mediating effect of psychological detachment. As such, work stress impeded individuals' being psychologically detached from work, which led to a lower work-life balance.

Secondly, the hypotheses about moderations were partially supported. The results confirmed the moderation roles of perceived support and family salience in the relationship between job demands and work-life balance. It gave insight into how to alleviate the negative effect of personal income on work-life balance. As predicted, perceived private-life support was found to buffer the negative impact of job demands on work-life balance. This finding is in line with previous studies that argued perceived support as a helpful resource to mitigate the threatening situation about work and life (House, 1981; Abendroth & den Dulk, 2011). However, unexpectedly, perceived spousal support was not found to moderate the relationship between job demands and work-life balance. One possible explanation is that support from the overall life domain can ease the negative effect of job demands on work-life balance, but the specific support from spouses is not large enough to impact the situation. Another surprising finding is that family salience alleviated the negative effect of job demands on work-life balance, which is contrary to the prediction. One interpretation can be that those who have a higher family salience, value family more important, and are not willing to let work interfere with their family life. Thus, they will protect the family from job demands and maintain the balance between work and family by any means. As such, it is sensible that for those who have a higher family salience, the negative impact of job demands on work-life balance diminishes.

As gender was not significantly related to perceived support, and boundary control did not have a moderation effect, Study 2 was not able to explain the effects of age and gender

showed in Study 1.

Discussions about constructs

One of the issues that can exacerbate common-method variance problems is item overlap in measurement (Conway & Lance, 2010). I therefore examined the item content of scales that might contain overlapping items of work interruption and work stress. Work interruption, measured by the Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen et al., 1983), was controlled in the testing of models. Work stress, measured by the measure of job stress (Judge, Boudreau & Bretz, 1994), was one of the predictors in the model. The two constructs seem to have an overlapping description. However, the items in either two measures clarified their domains. Work interruption scale emphasized life hassles (e.g., “In the last three weeks, how often have you been able to control irritations in your life?”). With these life-irritation items, the unexpected life incidents were captured and then controlled for its influence on the respondent’s work. Work stress scale emphasized work hassles (e.g., “The number of projects and/or assignments I have has produced stress at work on you”). Thus, the measure of work interruption and work stress were measured from different domains and played different roles in the model.

The other pair of constructs that might contain overlapping items was perceived spousal support and family salience since these two constructs were both related to individuals’ perceptions about family members. Perceived spousal support, measured by the measure of daily satisfaction with spousal support (Gremore et al., 2011), emphasized the perceived support from the partner (e.g., “Your partner supported you emotionally”). Family salience, measured by the measure of family salience (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003), emphasized the perceived value of family in an individual’s general life (e.g., “The major satisfaction in my life comes from my family”). Though the two measures refer to the family, these two measures did not have an overlap in how individuals view their family. There might have a correlation between the two constructs ($r = .64^{**}$). However, it could be explained by a theoretical reason that individuals who view family more important may perceive more support from their partners, but not the overlap between two constructs.

Theoretical and practical implications

The findings of the present study have several theoretical implications. Firstly, the

present study built a model that posited the work-life balance, standing on the work side. That is, work factors (i.e., personal income, flexible work schedule, and work stress) and a work-related outcome (i.e., job satisfaction) were jointed in one model to illustrate how work-life balance impacted and was impacted by work characteristics. The findings of the model also clarified some myths regarding the relationships between the three work factors and work-life balance.

Further, the present model extended work-life literature in terms of age and gender roles. While mixed support for the moderating roles of age and gender were found, the present model provides insights on understanding the work-life balance. Although these two demographic factors are widely considered in work-life balance studies, they are seldom examined as moderators in a model of work-life balance with its predictors and outcomes. The present study pointed out the possibility that gender and age could impact individuals' responses to work factors and influence their perception of work-life balance.

Previous studies confirmed that work-life balance was different among different gender and age groups (Huffman et al., 2013; Truxillo et al., 2012; Pleck, 1985; Shockley et al., 2017). This study extends previous research by identifying the moderating effect of gender and age on the direct relationships between work factors and work-life balance. Though it was not confirmed in my second study, I found that in my larger representative sample that women perceived greater negative impact from personal income on work-life balance, and younger workers perceived greater negative impact from work stress on work-life balance. These two main findings were explained by the resource allocation process in this study (Grawitch, Barber & Justice, 2010). Although the results about the resource allocation process have partially supported, this study has strengthened the argument that individuals in different gender and age groups have different resource allocation strategies when they face the demands in the general life domain. And thus, individual differences were reflected in individuals' perception of work-life balance. The constructs and hypotheses examined in this paper reflect the understanding of work-life balance from a new lens and provide future studies a new direction.

From an applied perspective of implications, the findings of the present study suggested that the organization plays a vital role in enhancing workers' work-life balance. Because

personal income, flexible work schedule, and work stress mostly stemmed from the policies or behaviors of an organization, the organization has great control over these work conditions. It is sensible that implementing policies about flexible working hours or locations and guiding employees to relieve stress at work will improve workers' work-life balance.

It is challenging for organizations to reduce employees' wages so as to improve their work-life balance. However, the finding of family salience suggested that support from private life could alleviate the negative impact of income on work-life balance. It is traditional that family salience is viewed negatively, which is related to a stereotype in the organization (Bagger & Gutek, 2008). For example, a great commitment to family is viewed to reduce an individual's work investment (Kofodimos, 1990). However, the findings in the present study showed a benefit of high family salience. In line with Bagger and Gutek (2008), the present study encourages organizations to recognize this benefit, realize its potential and enact family-friendly policies that aligned with employees' family identity (Feeney & Stritch, 2019).

Limitations and future directions

This thesis is not without limitations. Firstly, COVID-19 exerted an influence on the data used in Study 2. During the data collection period in Study 2, individuals experienced various changes related to work status. Pandemic enforced most of the employees to work-from-home, and the reopening plan encouraged employees back to the offices. These frequent changes in work status might impact individuals' perception of the balance of work and life, though Study 2 controlled various variables related to changes in the work. Especially, several variables, like job demands, psychological detachment, and boundary control, experienced a huge difference between time 1 survey and time 2 survey in Study 2. Further, due to the demographic characteristic of MTurk workers, Study 2 was unable to collect an equal number of samples in each age group. Although a stratified sample collection method was conducted, the number of samples who were aged from 55 was still lower than samples in the other three younger age groups.

Future studies are suggested to conduct studies in a relatively stable work environment. Further, future research should find enough and an equal number of samples in each age group to examine the age-related model. It is also interesting to find out the reason why the

roles of age and gender did not exist in 2020 but did in 2016. And it is also worth considering the model in a specific sample. For example, whether in the married sample group, gender or age differences will affect individuals' perception of work-life balance and result in their different allocation strategies of resources.

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Appendices

IVs: [Work stress, Flexible work schedule]

Work stress

Judge, T. A., Boudreau, J. W., & Bretz, R. D. (1994). Job and life attitudes of male executives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 767-782.

Please indicate the extent to which each of the items below has produced stress at work for you.

- 1 = Produced no stress
- 2 = Produced little stress
- 3 = Produced some stress
- 4 = Produced quite a bit of stress
- 5 = Produced a great deal of stress

1. The number of projects and/or assignments I have.
2. The amount of time I spend working.
3. The amount of time I spend in meetings.
4. The number of interruptions I have during the day.
5. The degree to which politics rather than performance affects organizational decisions.
6. The inability to clearly understand what is expected of me on the job.
7. The volume of work that has to be accomplished in the allotted time.
8. The extent to which my position presents me with conflicting demands.
9. The amount of red tape I need to go through to get my job done.
10. The time pressures I experience.
11. The lack of job security I have.
12. The amount of responsibility I have.
13. The scope of responsibilities my position entails.
14. The degree to which my career seems "stalled."
15. The opportunities for career development I have.
16. The amount of traveling I have to do.

Flexible work schedule:

De Leede, J., & Kraijenbrink, J. (2014). The mediating role of trust and social cohesion in the effects of new ways of working: A dutch case study. *Advanced Series in Management*, 14, 3–20. <https://doi.org/10.1108/S1877-636120140000014006>

Please indicate how much you agree that the following statements are true about your work.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly agree

- 1. I have the freedom to vary my work schedule.
- 2. I have the freedom to work wherever is best for me — either at home or at work.
- 3. In total, as an employee I experience much flexibility.

DV: [Job satisfaction]

Job satisfaction

Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C., & Kluger, A. N. (1998). Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. *Journal of applied psychology*, 83(1), 17.

For each statement below, use the following scale to indicate which was most descriptive of your job during the PAST THREE WEEKS.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly agree

- 1. I felt fairly well satisfied with my job.
- 2. Most days, I was enthusiastic about my work.
- 3. Each day of work seemed like it would never end.
- 4. I found real enjoyment in my work.
- 5. I considered my job rather unpleasant.

Mediators: [Work-life balance, Psychological detachment, Job demands]

Work-life balance

Valcour, M. (2007). Work-based resources as moderators of the relationship between work hours and satisfaction with work-family balance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(6), 1512–1523. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.6.1512>

Please indicate how satisfied you have been with the following items in the PAST THREE WEEKS.

- 1 = Very dissatisfied

- 2 = Dissatisfied
- 3 = Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
- 4 = Satisfied
- 5 = Very satisfied

1. The way you divide your time between work and personal or family life.
2. The way you divide your attention between work and home.
3. How well your work life and your personal or family life fit together.
4. Your ability to balance the needs of your job with those of your personal or family life.
5. The opportunity you had to perform your job well and yet be able to perform home-related duties adequately.

Psychological detachment

Bakker, A. B., Sanz-Vergel, A. I., Rodríguez-Muñoz, A., & Oerlemans, W. G. M. (2015). The state version of the recovery experience questionnaire: A multilevel confirmatory factor analysis. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 24(3), 350–359. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2014.903242>

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements about your work during the PAST THREE WEEKS.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly agree

When I was not working,

1. I forgot about work.
2. I didn't think about work at all.
3. I distanced myself from my work.
4. I got a break from the demands of work.

Job demands

Ng, K. Y., Ang, S., & Chan, K. Y. (2008). Personality and leader effectiveness: A moderated mediation model of leadership self-efficacy, job demands, and job autonomy. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(4), 733.

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements about your work in the PAST THREE WEEKS.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither agree nor disagree

4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

1. I had a heavy workload.
2. Difficult problems arose which had no immediate solutions.
3. I spent a lot of time solving difficult problems.
4. There were frequent exceptions to normal procedure.
5. It was hard to maintain the level of performance that was expected of me.

Moderators: [Perceived support, Family-role salience, Work-role salience,

Perceived boundary control]

Perceived support (2 measures)

Measure one:

Zimet, G. D., Dahlem, N. W., Zimet, S. G., & Farley, G. K. (1988). The multidimensional scale of perceived social support. *Journal of personality assessment*, 52(1), 30-41.

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither agree nor disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

1. There is a special person who is around when I am in need.
2. There is a special person with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.
3. My family really tries to help me.
4. I get the emotional help and support I need from my family.
5. I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me.
6. My friends really try to help me.
7. I can count on my friends when things go wrong.
8. I can talk about my problems with my family.
9. I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.
10. There is a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.
11. My family is willing to help me make decisions.
12. I can talk about my problems with my friends.

Measure two:

Gremore, T. M., Baucom, D. H., Porter, L. S., Kirby, J. S., Atkins, D. C., & Keefe, F. J. (2011). Stress buffering effects of daily spousal support on women's daily emotional and physical experiences in the context of breast cancer concerns. *Health Psychology*, 30(1), 20.

Please indicate how satisfied with the following support from your partner in the PAST THREE WEEKS.

- 1 = dissatisfied with support
- 2 = mildly dissatisfied with support
- 3 = neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with support
- 4 = mildly satisfied with support
- 5 = satisfied a great deal with support

1. Your partner supported you emotionally.
2. Your partner helped you make decisions or gave you useful advice.
3. Your partner helped out with chores or routine tasks.

Family-role salience

Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2003). When work and family collide: Deciding between competing role demands. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 90(2), 291-303.

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly agree

1. I am very much personally involved in my family.
2. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my family.
3. The most important things that happen to me involve my family.

Work-role salience

Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2003). When work and family collide: Deciding between competing role demands. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 90(2), 291-303.

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly agree

1. I am very much personally involved in my work.

2. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my work.
3. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.

Perceived boundary control

Kossek, E. E., Ruderman, M. N., Braddy, P. W., & Hannum, K. M. (2012). Work-nonwork boundary management profiles: A person-centered approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 81(1), 112–128.

Please indicate how much you agree that the following statements describe your situation in the PAST THREE WEEKS.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly agree

1. I controlled whether I was able to keep my work and personal life separate.
2. I controlled whether I had clear boundaries between my work and personal life.
3. I controlled whether I combined my work and personal life activities throughout the day.

Controls: [Life satisfaction, Income satisfaction, work interruption, resilience]

Life satisfaction

Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (2009). Review of the satisfaction with life scale. In *Assessing well-being* (pp. 101-117). Springer, Dordrecht.

Please indicate how much you agree that each statement describes your life during the PAST THREE WEEKS.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly agree

1. In most ways, my life was close to my ideal.
2. The conditions of my life were excellent.
3. I was satisfied with my life.
4. I had the important things I want in life.
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Income satisfaction

Crawford Solberg, E., Diener, E., Wirtz, D., Lucas, R. E., & Oishi, S. (2002). Wanting, having, and satisfaction: Examining the role of desire discrepancies in satisfaction with income. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 83(3), 725.

Please indicate how much you satisfied with the following statements.

- 1 = Strongly dissatisfied
- 2 = Dissatisfied
- 3 = Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
- 4 = Satisfied
- 5 = Strongly satisfied

1. I am satisfied with the travel I can afford.
2. I am satisfied with the entertainment I can afford.
3. I am satisfied with my physical dwelling (house, apartment, etc.).
4. I am satisfied with the transportation I can afford.
5. I am satisfied with the food and drink I can afford.
6. I am satisfied with the clothes I can afford.
7. I am satisfied with the medical care that I can afford.
8. I am satisfied with the money I have to pay expenses.

Work interruption

Cohen, S., Kamarck, T., & Mermelstein, R. (1983). A global measure of perceived stress. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 24,386-396

The questions below ask you about your feelings and thoughts during the THREE WEEKS. In each case, please indicate how often you felt or thought a certain way.

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Almost Never
- 3 = Sometimes
- 4 = Fairly Often
- 5 = Very Often

1. In the last three weeks, how often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?
2. In the last three weeks, how often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?
3. In the last three weeks, how often have you felt nervous and “stressed”?
4. In the last three weeks, how often have you dealt successfully with irritating life hassles?
5. In the last three weeks, how often have you felt that you were effectively coping with important changes that were occurring in your life?
6. In the last three weeks, how often have you felt confident about your

ability to handle your personal problems?

7. In the last three weeks, how often have you felt that things were going your way?
8. In the last three weeks, how often have you found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?
9. In the last three weeks, how often have you been able to control irritations in your life?
10. In the last three weeks, how often have you felt that you were on top of things?
11. In the last three weeks, how often have you been angered because of things that were outside of your control?
12. In the last three weeks, how often have you found yourself thinking about things that you have to accomplish?
13. In the last three weeks, how often have you been able to control the way you spend your time?
14. In the last three weeks, how often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?

Resilience

Smith, B. W., Dalen, J., Wiggins, K., Tooley, E., Christopher, P., & Bernard, J. (2008). The brief resilience scale: assessing the ability to bounce back. *International journal of behavioral medicine*, 15(3), 194-200.

Please indicate how much you agree that the following statements describe you during the PAST THREE WEEKS.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neutral
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly agree

1. I tended to bounce back quickly after hard times.
2. I had a hard time making it through stressful events.
3. It did not take me long to recover from a stressful event.
4. It was hard for me to snap back when something bad happened.
5. I usually came through difficult times with little trouble.
6. I tended to take a long time to get over set-backs.

Attention checks

Attention check items were hidden in three of the scales.

Please enter 3 (e.g., select neither disagree nor agree) for this item.

Answer 4 (e.g., select agree) for this item.

Enter 1 (e.g., select strongly disagree) for this item.