Establishing Balance:
An Experience Sampling Methodological Study of the Work-Life Interface

by

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Abstract

The present study aimed to examine whether daily perceptions of work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction were related to within-day, between-day, and between-individual levels of stress when mediated by positive and negative mood. Additionally, this research also explored the influence of available family-supportive work environments (FSWEs) in impacting the perception of work-life balance. Based on 879 individual assessments across 68 individuals, I adopted an experience sampling methodology in which participants were asked about their daily perceptions of their work-life balance, mood, and stress over a period of five days three times a day. My findings suggest that family-supportive work environments are related to perceptions of work-life balance effectiveness. Furthermore, work-life balance perceptions are significantly related to stress within days for individuals, and mood does appear to partially mediate the relationship between work-life balance and stress both within-day and between-individual. Contributions to the theoretical field of work-family research and practice are discussed, and future directions are suggested.

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One of the most popular topics that has emerged within the work-life field has been the topic of work-life balance (WLB). An ever-increasing number of working individuals, dual-earner couples, and non-traditional gender roles within the workforce has led to a recent push within the field to conceptualize, understand, and gain the balance between one's work life and one's personal life (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, LeBreton, & Baltes, 2009). Nevertheless, work-life balance has been defined in a multitude of ways, and practitioners have conflated the term of balance with a generic sentiment that we must strive to achieve (Casper, Vaziri, Wayne, DeHauw, & Greenhaus, 2018; Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Therefore, work-life balance has become a buzzword to signify the interdependent responsibilities of work and life roles, and many organizations are urged to provide this "balance" for their employees (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007; Kanwar, Singh, & Kodwani, 2010). Subsequently, there has been a push to understand what it means to experience this balance between domains. One of the most recent definitions of balance argues that WLB should be conceptualized as a combination of effectiveness and satisfaction across work and life roles when it is compared to one's individual values at a certain point in time (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Within this, Greenhaus and Allen (2011) argue that WLB effectiveness should be understood as an individual efficiently meeting the expectations of those around them (e.g., a spouse or boss) in completing the responsibilities of that role. WLB satisfaction, on the other hand, is an affective reaction and perception of how content one is with their perceived balance between work and nonwork roles (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). However, by its very nature, work-life balance has been of particular concern historically, and it is important that we assess

balance through more longitudinal episodes to get a better picture of what employees must go through on a daily basis.

Since the mid-1800s, work tasks and leisure activities have emerged as two different domains with striking distinction in possessing significant consequence for the individual (Burke, 1995). With both the Industrial Revolution and the Victorian period, leisure became associated with culture and refinement, and work became more sharply defined with responsibilities and required hours (Altick, 1973; Burke, 1995). However, it wasn't until 1986 that work-life balance first emerged as a term used in the United States, marking a relatively new birth within the scholastic literature (Brown, 1986; Casper et al., 2018). With this appearance of "balance" in the lexicon, both organizations and individuals have encouraged the attainment and provision of balance for employees, leading to more frequent appearances in the popular press (Casper et al., 2018; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007; Kanwar et al., 2010). Work-life balance is considered to be a strategy to ensure the best employees are recruited by an organization, and numerous self-help books and online articles are published to promote this construct (e.g., Casper et al., 2018; Heathfield, 2018; Mumford & Lockett, 2009; Smith, 2013). Hearkening back to the dichotomy of work and leisure of the 1800s, there has continued to be much interest in how multiple roles can affect one another (Casper et al., 2018). For example, we recognize that individuals are expected to be active family members, friends, employees, or volunteers simultaneously. Marks and MacDermid (1996) argue that individuals organize their lives of multiple selves (e.g., parent, friend, employee, etc.) in a way that corresponds with how these individuals act in their various roles. Therefore, the increasing prevalence of working individuals attempting to balance work and nonwork demands and an emphasis in understanding how work and life weave together has led to a concomitant interest in how researchers

conceptualize the work-life balance construct (Michel et al., 2009). Given the rising numbers of dual-earner couples and non-traditional gender roles in the workforce, the work-family interface is of particular concern (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011).

More specifically, previous researchers have argued that work-life constructs and employee outcomes develop over time (e.g., work-life balance or subjective well-being) and that the very nature of organizational processes (e.g., commitment or turnover) requires longitudinal evaluation (Pitariu & Ployhart, 2010). More specifically, researchers call for longitudinal research within the work-life literature in an attempt to better understand how constructs within the work-life interface relate to one another (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Burnett, 2007; Kelloway & Francis, 2013). The vast majority of longitudinal work-life research has focused on work-life conflict, and the studies that attempt to understand the work-life interface have been predominantly correlational and cross-sectional (Casper et al., 2007). Researchers conceptualize the work-life interface as being made up of work-life conflict (WLC), work-life enrichment (WLE), and work-life balance (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011), and these components serve as the foundational and shaping tool through which longitudinal research in the work-life literature is considered. Given a focus upon WLC and WLE, researchers have often neglected WLB in the work-life interface (Casper et al., 2007; Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Nevertheless, some researchers have attempted to understand the processes of WLB over time with a variety of longitudinal approaches (e.g., Cheng, Mauno, & Lee, 2014; Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014; Liu & Wang, 2011). In a more general sense, the study of organizational and social science constructs has often depended upon cross-sectional and correlational designs while claiming to find support for causal inferences (Mitchell & James, 2001). These designs fail to account for the element of time that plays into a predictor (i.e., X) causing an outcome (i.e., Y), thereby not allowing for

proper hypotheses and excellent research designs (Mitchell & James, 2001). Rather, some studies have used separation by time – in which the predictor variable is measured at one time and the outcome at another time later on – to deal with common method bias, but this methodology fails to capture how constructs are dynamic and interrelated (Chan, 1998). The use of longitudinal research to evaluate psychological phenomena also helps to account for method variance that may be associated with a specific indicator of our scientific observations (Casper et al., 2007; Hassett & Paavilainen-Mäntymäki, 2013; Pitts, West, & Tein, 1996). Ployhart and Vandenberg (2010) argue that the lack of existing longitudinal research may be due to confusion on how best to conduct longitudinal research, which Matthews, Wayne, and Ford (2014) echo in stating there is no one temporal lag that works for all research designs. Instead, longitudinal research is dependent upon a variety of factors and decisions on the part of the researcher (Menard, 2002).

Of specific interest, a researcher could have to contend with short-term changes in the psychological variables of interest by using multiple measurements across time (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). More recent research has argued that the work-family interface may benefit from episodic approaches to longitudinal research as the nuances of work and family roles meeting (i.e., conflict or balance) result from a specific time, place, and episode (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). Given that time may help to explain why certain phenomena occur and how individuals change (Hassett & Paavilainen-Mäntymäki, 2013), it is important that researchers avoid measurement error and capture specific incidents in which an individual employs work-life balance. In an attempt to answer the existing calls within the literature, longitudinal research and the effects of time should be evaluated through the approach that most befits the goal of the study and provides valuable insight into the field. More specifically, researchers need to review the literature on

time and the variables of interest by evaluating episodic approaches to longitudinal research (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). These insights into time and longitudinal research then should be used to better understand the causal processes that underlie the work-life balance field and to answer the calls for better methodology in considering a relatively unexplored approach to evaluate WLB through experience sampling methodology.

The goal of this research is to apply a longitudinal and episodic approach to studying work-life balance and contribute to the field through an empirical examination of how WLB can result in a very tangible employee outcome (i.e., stress) as mediated by one's daily mood. As previously mentioned, episodic research has predominantly focused on work-life conflict (Maertz & Boyar, 2011), and, based on a thorough literature review, only two episodic studies of work-life balance currently exist within the academic literature. However, the conceptualization of balance within these studies differs between the two. More specifically, Sanz-Vergel, Demerouti, Moreno-Jimenez, and Mayo (2010) conceptualize balance as a combination of low work-life conflict and high work-life enrichment, while Ilies, Liu, Liu, and Zheng (2017) consider balance to be made up of work-life balance effectiveness. While the conceptualization used by Sanz-Vergel et al. (2010) reflects one of the most popular definitions of WLB in which conflict and enrichment made up the positive and negative pathways that interacted to produce balance (Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003), more recent research argues that balance should be assessed through global measures of work-life balance (Wayne, Butts, Casper, & Allen, 2017). Ilies et al. (2017) utilize this framework with their consideration of WLB as indicated by effectiveness in meeting role demands. However, a recent conceptualization of balance argues that WLB should be understood to be a combination of effectiveness and satisfaction in work and life roles when compared to one's values at a certain

point in time (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Subsequently, there are three components that underlie the definition of balance as put forth by Greenhaus and Allen (2011) in the form of effectiveness, satisfaction, and fit with one's values. Operating under this definition, there are no experience sampling studies of work-life balance that conceptualize this construct with its most current definition. Given the popularity of the work-life balance construct and a call to expand the work-life paradigm beyond the study of conflict or enrichment (Casper et al., 2018; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Siu et al., 2010), this study may provide valuable insight into discrete episodes of work-life balance for employees and its effect on their daily stress while factoring in the influence of mood. Subsequently, future researchers and practitioners may have a better understanding of the relationship between WLB and employee outcomes, leading to a more complete understanding of the importance of work-life balance.

This study contributes to the existing literature by providing an empirical investigation of how work-life balance can influence daily stress levels through individual's mood. Previous approaches to episodic research have emphasized that employees may view events that occur at work and at home and play out in the form of balance as discrete episodes (Maertz & Boyar, 2011; Siedlecki, 2007), further prompting the need for episodic research. Additionally, these episodic approaches may allow for a stronger attribution of causality by reducing the amount of time between occurrence and assessment (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). Additionally, these episodic approaches may provide better insight into how individuals actually balance their roles and experience WLB, enabling us to generate a more accurate picture of employees' daily lives and perceptions of work-life balance episodes. Thus, by seeking to answer these questions and test these relationships, we may move forward as a field with a fuller understanding of the work-life balance experience and its effects on the employee's daily life.

Theoretical Framework

There are a number of theories that may impact one's daily experience at work and at home. Underlying the current understanding of the work-life interface is the conceptualization of role theory in which individuals are expected to both balance responsibilities and construct boundaries between their various tasks (Allen, Cho, & Meier, 2014). Individuals are expected to have a variety of duties between which they must navigate, minimizing the negative impact that one role may have on another, and workers must transition between both the organizational and social aspects of life (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Rantanen, Kinnunen, Mauno, & Tillemann, 2011). For example, individuals may be both employees and friends in their daily lives. These roles are recurrent activities with expectations, norms, and behaviors that factor prominently into an individual's life (Allen et al., 2014). Individuals must, then, construct boundaries between their roles to limit the space and time of a particular role and navigate between domains (Ashforth et al., 2000). Subsequently, a better understanding of role theory may allow for a fuller comprehension of any studies that involve work-life balance or, more generally, the work-life interface (Frone, 2003). This role theory, in emphasizing how individuals define the domains of their life, demonstrates how roles relate to one another and how the work-life field may proceed and grow with this increased knowledge (Casper et al., 2017; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Marks & MacDermid, 1996). However, for the purposes of understanding daily events and their relation to the experience of employee outcomes that may result from perceptions of work-life balance (e.g., stress, health, or satisfaction; Khosravi, 2014; Nilsson, Blomqvist, & Andersson, 2017; Wayne et al., 2017), it becomes necessary to turn our attention more towards the literature on spillover and affective events as they relate to perceptions of work and life roles.

Previous work has suggested that the work and home domains may be linked by a dynamic and affective reinforcement process in which affect in one role may influence affect in another role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Lambert, 1990; Zedeck, 1992). Specifically, researchers posit that the effects of the work role and family role on one another that lead to similarities in both areas should be referred to as spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). These effects are often classified as affect (i.e., mood), values (i.e., the importance of work and family duties), skills, or behaviors (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). With spillover theory, positive moods and emotions result in cognitions that match up with these moods; these cognitions then transfer to the family domain and trigger subsequent positive affect at home (Culbertson, Mills, & Fullagar, 2012; Judge & Ilies, 2004). Therefore, these positive moods from one role (e.g., work) may be thought to positively impact one's mood in another role (e.g., home). Cunningham (1988) found that there was a dynamic reinforcement effect of positive moods in which positive moods were associated with increased job interest. Based upon this assumption, researchers may be able to assume that an employee will carry their thoughts on one role to another domain to share with the individuals in that role if an employee's mood is positive (Cunningham, 1988; Ilies, Schwind, Wagner, Johnson, & DeRue, 2007b). However, the work-to-home spillover process is inherently dynamic and requires time to operate (Ilies et al., 2007b). Most researchers have evaluated spillover using between-individual analyses that allow researchers to investigate a link between an employee who has generally high levels of positive affect at work and a similar experience of high positive affect at home (e.g., Ilies, Schwind, & Heller, 2007a; Rothbard, 2001). However, some researchers argue that, given the influence of time, we should consider within-individual analyses when discussing spillover to investigate the links between affect and employee outcomes (e.g., Judge & Ilies, 2004; Williams & Alliger, 1994). Therefore,

when considering the establishment of a dynamic link between the experiences of one role on another, it becomes inherently more interesting and accurate to consider the within-individual processes in their natural environment.

Spillover has traditionally been characterized through two approaches within the work-life literature. The first of these versions argues that spillover should be viewed as similarity between the construct of interest in the work domain and a similar construct in the family domain (e.g., job satisfaction and family satisfaction; Judge & Watanabe, 1994; Zedeck, 1992). Under this approach, researchers have found a positive relationship between job and family satisfaction and values, indicating that, while these constructs may be distinct, they are integrally related to one another by an affective reaction (Gutek, Repetti, & Silver, 1988; Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1980; Payton-Miyazaki & Brayfield, 1976; Pitrkowski, 1979; Piotrkowski, Rapoport, & Rapoport, 1987). This approach of spillover recognizes and promotes a linking mechanism between the different domains as there is a recognized relationship between both a work and family construct (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). More specifically, previous research has found links between overall well-being and recovery from work at home (e.g., Sonnentag, 2003), work demands influencing social behaviors outside of work (e.g., Ilies et al., 2007b), and work satisfaction impacting family satisfaction (e.g., Zedeck, 1992) while utilizing the spillover approach. All of these studies can be characterized by this first conceptualization of spillover in which the experience of one domain results in a similar, though distinct, experience in another domain.

By comparison, the second version of spillover that is recognized within the literature argues that individuals transfer experiences wholly between different domains (Near, 1984; Near et al., 1980; Payton-Miyazaki & Brayfield, 1976; Repetti, 1987). This may take the form of fatigue or stress that originates in one role (e.g., work) and carries over to fatigue or stress in

another role (e.g., home; Eckenrode & Gore, 1990). Operating under this concept of a transferred experience, this version of spillover does not necessarily imply a linking mechanism in and of itself (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). To establish such a link, a researcher would have to demonstrate that the experience in one role prevents the experience in another role (e.g., workload preventing an individual from meeting the demands of their family; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Operating under these assumptions, any study that looked at events of the work-life interface would have to indicate that the experience of a construct in one role led to an increased or decreased experience of a construct in another role to indicate a link between the domains. Additionally of note, while the work-family field traditionally associates spillover with more positive emotions (e.g., Culbertson et al., 2012), a number of studies have also implicated that researchers utilize spillover when discussing negative emotions as well (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Ilies et al., 2007a; Ilies et al., 2007b).

When considering the relationship between the work and home environments for an individual throughout the course of the day, it becomes increasingly important to understand the effect of daily moods – or the accumulation of affective events and experiences – on employee attitudes and behaviors (Carlson, Kacmar, Zivnuska, Furguson, & Whitten, 2011; Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 2006). These affective events further contribute to the understanding that resources from one role can spill over to another role, leading to increased performance in this secondary domain as discussed earlier with the literature on spillover (Carlson et al., 2011; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Edwards and Rothbard (2000) also contend that the work-life field must acknowledge the influence of multiple roles upon one another and the demands that these roles place on the individual. Specifically, when an individual meets the demands of their particular environment in a specific role, this may result in increased role performance, which results in

both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000); for the purposes of this study, these rewards will not be measured. Extrinsic rewards may take the form of advanced pay, promotions, or recognition in both the family and work domain, while intrinsic rewards may be an individual's positive self-image or an increased sense of accomplishment that result from achieving one's goals in these situations (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). In turn, these extrinsic and intrinsic rewards may bring about positive moods (e.g., joy or pride; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). However, if an individual experiences negative emotions (e.g., anger or sadness), they may attempt to cope by changing aspects of the work or personal life environment, acquiring the necessary resources to meet the demands of their roles, or by avoiding the role that induced such negative moods (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Casper et al. (2018) argue that work-nonwork balance should be assessed through an individual's affective experiences and perceived involvement and effectiveness as is proportionate to the value that they attach to these roles. In fact, a variety of conceptualizations of WLB (e.g., Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Kalliath & Brough, 2008; Valcour, 2007; Voydanoff, 2005) emphasize that balance should be considered as an attitude that arises from affective and cognitive factors (Casper et al., 2018; Petty, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 1997; Van den Berg, Manstead, van der Pligt, & Wigboldus, 2006). The affective (i.e., the satisfaction component) and the cognitive factors (i.e., involvement and effectiveness in roles) are also reliant upon the values that an employee and individual associates with each role (i.e., fit; Casper et al., 2018). Subsequently, one's daily mood, as influenced by their perceptions of work-life balance, may have a large impact on their displayed behaviors or experienced outcomes (Carlson et al., 2011).

Affective events theory (AET) seeks to explain the role of emotion and judgment in an individual's experiences and his or her displayed behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The

core message of AET relies upon the idea that one's affective response to an event will determine one's attitudes and subsequent behaviors, further emphasizing that the affective response results in tangible outcomes (Carlson et al., 2011). In this situation, affect refers to employees' moods or emotions while an attitude is an evaluation and judgment that is based upon this affect (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Therefore, AET brings to light how events can unfold in the workplace and how these events can influence attitudes and behaviors (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Key to its nature, AET incorporates this time component within the theory (Ilies et al., 2007a). Traditionally, researchers have employed experience sampling methodology when exploring AET in an attempt to understand the inter-individual level differences in employee outcomes (Ilies et al., 2007b). While Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) specifically identified job satisfaction as an attitude that arises from this affect, a number of other studies have argued that workplace events, and the moods they inspire, may influence a variety of employee outcomes and behaviors (e.g., counterproductive work behaviors or withdrawal; Spector & Fox, 2002; Zhao, Wayne, Glibowski, & Bravo, 2007). When we consider the work-life interface, AET may provide valuable insight into the formation of specific employee attitudes due to events that take place at work and at home (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

These affective experiences are also influenced by time as moods and emotions are considered to be fleeting (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Moods are defined as a pervasive and generalized stream of affective experiences that inform employees about their environment, contextual situation, and how they should process information or display certain behaviors (George & Zhou, 2007; Schwarz & Clore, 1983; Watson, 2000). Nevertheless, these reactions and moods may be fairly predictable and display a true pattern (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). For example, if an individual is successfully able to balance their role demands and feels happy

with how they divide their time and attention between work and home, they are probably more likely to report better mood and higher levels of satisfaction. However, should an individual have a bad day, they will, in all likelihood, report a more negative mood and decreased job attitudes (e.g., satisfaction or commitment). Researchers do contend that emotions may be organized into specific families (e.g., anger, joy, sadness; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). AET also recognizes that events may serve as proximal causes of one's affective reaction and more distal causes of behaviors or outcomes that arise from these emotional responses (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In this theory, events are understood to be something that occurs at a certain place at a certain time (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). This all is theorized to be dependent upon primary and secondary appraisal.

With primary appraisal, or concern relevance (Frijda, 1993), the individual evaluates if the event affects their personal well-being (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Lazarus (1991) also argues that this refers to how relevant the event is to one's goals. Therefore, if an individual perceives an event as preventing their goals, they may engage in primary appraisal when considering the affective reaction. However, this is not to say that an individual may respond equally when encountering both negative and positive events and moods. Taylor (1991) argued that these events are not considered to be symmetrical in that negative moods produce stronger affective reactions than positive moods. Given that individuals have a variety of goals in a bevy of roles, it is important to consider their affective reaction to both positive and negative events that may arise. However, it is also important to make note of the secondary appraisal, or meaning analysis (Smith & Pope, 1992; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). With this appraisal, specific cues from the environment or person are thought to elicit the emotional reactions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Thus, these affective appraisals further highlight the internal process

through which individuals go when interpreting both their situation and the decisions that they must make within their roles.

As mentioned, both of these theories draw from the basic principles of role theory in which individuals are presumed to have multiple roles that place demands on the individual (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). However, both the spillover and affective events theories may help to explain how individuals interact with situations and how these situations can influence one's behavior and affect (Edwards, 1992; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982; Locke, 1976; Rice, McFarlin, Hunt, & Near, 1985). Work-life researchers have argued that more research is needed to evaluate how daily episodes may influence employee outcomes, and experience sampling methodology has been posited to serve as a methodological approach in which researchers may evaluate both the individual's experiences and the contextual situation (Hektner, Schmidt, & Csikszentmihalyi, 2007; Hormuth, 1986). Therefore, in attempting to understand how one's roles, spillover, and affective experiences influence their daily work-life balance, it is necessary for us to evaluate the use of such episodic designs in the work-life literature to this point before we attempt to provide elucidation and clarification on how the balance between these two roles may result in tangible outcomes and by influenced by one's affective experiences (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999).

Episodic Approaches to Studying the Work-Life Interface

Episodic approaches to longitudinal research seek to explore short-term changes over a period of time by measuring and arguing for particular incidents or occurrences to signal that the variable should be captured (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). In comparison to non-episodic approaches, Maertz and Boyar (2011) have argued for episodic approaches to studying the work-life interface, citing inter-role incompatibilities that resolve quickly through specific coping strategies and better attribution of cause and temporality. Traditionally used in the assessment of

stress, mood, and emotions (e.g., Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007; Dimotakis, Scott, & Koopman, 2011; Palmer, 2001), episodic approaches to research seek to capitalize on the short-term changes that can occur between variables (Shockley & Allen, 2013). Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1999) also argue for a more episodic approach to evaluate the work-life interface and measurement of constructs. Specifically, researchers should consider utilizing an ongoing assessment of work and family variables daily through fairly short-term longitudinal approaches (Leiter & Durup, 1996; MacEwen & Barling, 1994; Williams & Alliger, 1994).

The first published mention of studying episodes of work-life conflict came from Williams, Suls, Alliger, Learner, and Wan (1991). Much of the research that has used an episodic approach has focused on the use of daily diaries, surveys, or experience sampling methodology (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). A number of studies laid the foundation for this work by implicating same-day events and moods experienced in one role (e.g., work) as influencing the other domain with significant variance in the constructs (e.g., family; MacEwen & Barling, 1994; Repetti, 1987; Stone, 1987). Van Hooff, Geurts, Kompier, and Taris (2006) even expound upon this concept in arguing that the events that take place on a day-to-day basis for an individual can lead to spillover across domains, resulting in shifting moods, affect, and behaviors. Predominantly, this episodic research has focused on the negative consequences that an individual experiences in the form of episodic WLC (e.g., Cropley & Purvis, 2003; Ilies, Wilson, & Wagner, 2009; Maertz & Boyar, 2011; Shockley & Allen, 2013; Shockley & Allen, 2015; Song, Foo, & Uy, 2008). This has been particularly useful in establishing directionality (e.g., work-to-life or life-to-work) of the work-life interface (Shockley & Allen, 2015). Exogenous events that occur at home or at work can persist over time and influence employee outcomes (Grant & Wall, 2009). By exploring these short-term changes in variables, researchers

can get a better and more immediate picture of within-subject variation and how this relates to an individual's perceived level of WLC, WLE, or WLB (Shockley & Allen, 2013; Shockley & Allen, 2015).

Williams and Alliger (1994) argue that a researcher should look at three levels of analysis when conducting episodic methodology. Researchers can focus on the immediate experience of the individual as the moment occurs (i.e., Level 1), the primary consolidation in which the individual considers their end-of-day experience (i.e., Level 2), and the secondary consolidation which may cover many days (i.e., Level 3; Maertz & Boyar, 2011). These models are nested within one another, and researchers should examine the variance estimates at each of the levels to establish which levels are included in further analyses (Shockley & Allen, 2013). By their very nature, these studies require a longitudinal design in which individuals must fill out a number of surveys about their experiences in various roles over a series of days or weeks. Subsequently, these episodic approaches provide better insight into how individuals divide time between their various roles. The work-life interface has largely depended upon how an individual allocates their time. If an individual does this poorly, there is conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985); if an individual allocates time well such that one role enriches another, there is enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Both of these constructs then contribute to how appropriately one has distributed their hours and attention to balance their various roles (Thompson & Bunderson, 2001). Therefore, the conceptualization of time is, in and of itself, inherent to the work-life interface (Thompson & Bunderson, 2001). Thus, these episodes refer to moments of conflict, enrichment, or balance in which one role influences the other in some way (e.g., Beal & Weiss, 2013).

Given the importance of longitudinal research and the key element of time, it is possible that a variety of multilevel modeling techniques are the key to understanding and conceptualizing processes that relate time to the experience of WLC, WLE, and WLB. Previous researchers have used pooled time series analyses (e.g., Williams & Alliger, 1994), repeated measures ANOVA (e.g., Cropley & Purvis, 2003), or hierarchical multilevel modeling (e.g., Heller & Watson, 2005; Van Hooff et al., 2006) to examine episodic approaches, while non-episodic approaches have predominantly focused on lagged effects (e.g., Babic, Stinglhamber, Bertrand, & Hansez, 2017; Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shafiro, 2005; Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999; Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Greene-Shortridge, 2012) or reverse causation effects (e.g., Matthews et al., 2014). In building off of previous hierarchical multilevel models, Haviland, Nagin, Rosenbaum, and Tremblay (2008) proposed the use of trajectory-group modeling to evaluate how episodes relate to developmental trajectories (e.g., increasing/decreasing slope) that individuals experience. Previous research suggests that WLC, WLE, and WLB develop over time (e.g., Pitariu & Ployhart, 2010); thus, growth modeling via the lens of hierarchical linear modeling offers a strategy by which we can evaluate the work-life interface.

More specifically, growth modeling through hierarchical linear modeling allows for the examination of the function of intra-individual and inter-individual change on the constructs in question (Kelloway & Francis, 2013). Since we categorize our lives into moments and episodes of choice when dividing our time and attention between roles (Beal & Weiss, 2013), growth modeling may allow researchers to analyze the change that occurs over time as individuals experience WLC, WLE, or WLB between their work and nonwork domain. To capture change over time, the latent growth modeling approach considers an individual's initial status on the

construct in question (in this case, WLC, WLE, or WLB) and develops a trajectory of change along the focal constructs (Bentein, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg, & Stinglhamber, 2005; McArdle & Epstein, 1987; Meredith & Tisak, 1990; Muthén,1991; Willett & Sayer, 1994). Latent growth modeling, thus, depends upon the latent slope (i.e., change over time) and intercept (i.e., the initial starting point for the construct in question), their means, and their variances in estimating these values, allowing the residual error variances to vary across time (Howardson, Karim, & Horn, 2017; Liu, Rovine, & Molenaar, 2012). The latent growth approach requires at least three points of measurement to define change (i.e., slope) of the variables of interest (Bentein et al., 2005). Growth modeling has been used to evaluate the workplace and associated employee outcomes (e.g., organizational commitment, turnover intentions, employee work adjustment, psychological capital, employee performance, job satisfaction, and role conflict; Bentein et al., 2005; Lance, Vandenberg, & Self, 2000; Peterson, Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, & Zhang, 2011; Ritter, Matthews, Ford, & Henderson, 2016). Therefore, if we are to concern ourselves with time and its relationship with our psychological constructs, we must look at change in individuals as a function of time (Schonfeld & Rindskopf, 2007). Considering our concern with capturing the phenomena that we wish to study in the framework of time (i.e., philosophical, conceptual, methodological, and substantive) and how previous longitudinal models have often failed to do this, latent growth modeling can provide valuable insight into how individuals develop their experience of WLC, WLE, or WLB with work and nonwork domains over time.

As mentioned earlier, an episodic longitudinal approach to research should require at least four points of data collection; these should be coded with the appropriate times at which data is collected (e.g., Biesanz, Deeb-Sossa, Papadakis, Bollen, & Curran, 2004; Ployhart &

Ward, 2011). Through this process, researchers can isolate change in the predictor but also isolate the concomitant change in the outcomes (e.g., conflict, enrichment, or balance). This could help to clarify the underlying processes of the work-life interface and answer the calls that other researchers (e.g., Casper et al., 2007; Kelloway & Francis, 2013) have made to better understand how work-life variables change over time. While this does indicate an important area of future study, the analysis technique that was utilized for the purposes of this dissertation was multilevel modeling by which individuals were expected to differ within day, between day, and between individual.

Using Episodes to Understand Balance

As mentioned, there are relatively few studies that exist within the work-life literature that evaluate balance through an episodic outlook (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). To the author's knowledge, two studies exist that examine work-life balance through an episodic lens. Sanz-Vergel et al. (2010) evaluated how one's daily recovery could enhance or inhibit one's daily experience of work-life conflict, enrichment, exhaustion, and vigor. Theoretically, this study is significant in that Sanz-Vergel et al. (2010) evaluated the daily negative and positive spirals that an individual may go through that result in the overall experience of balance. While this is the first studyto assess these events of balance, this is conceptualized by looking at one's experience of conflict and enrichment (Sanz-Vergel et al., 2010). This aligns with one of the most traditional conceptualizations of work-life balance in which balance is seen as low conflict and high enrichment (Brough et al., 2014; Casper, DeHauw, Wayne, & Greenhaus, 2014; Frone, 2003). However, there has been a more recent push within the literature to conceptualize balance through its own definition (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Indeed, this article does fail to actually assess a true measure of balance, which both primary and meta-analytic research has

argued should be distinct from measures of conflict and enrichment (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Michel, Clark, & Jaramillo, 2011). Much of the current literature on work-life balance argues that WLB should be considered through effectiveness and satisfaction components (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011), which this article fails to do.

By comparison, Ilies et al. (2017) do assess balance through a pervasive metric of work-life balance effectiveness (e.g., Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivunska, 2009). In this article, Ilies et al. (2017) argue that one's daily engagement at work, as influenced by their intrinsic motivation, plays into one's interpersonal capitalization, which then impacts their daily family satisfaction and work-life balance. This interpersonal capitalization refers to the behavioral response that one exhibits to positive work events by sharing these events with their spouse or partner at home (Culbertson et al., 2012; Ilies et al., 2011; Ilies, Keeney, & Goh, 2015). In many ways, this interpersonal capitalization shares many of the markers that make up spillover in referring to specific behaviors that result from the perception of joy and happiness (Culbertson et al., 2012). Theoretically, Greenhaus and Allen (2011) argue that one's work and family experiences and their dispositional characteristics (i.e., their propensity to feel satisfaction) influence one's perception of how each role enriches or interferes with one another, which then results in an individual's experience of balance. Therefore, this theory and understanding of balance further emphasizes the complex predictors that may contribute to one's perception of balance (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Similarly, Ilies et al. (2017) conceptualize work-life balance as an outcome, rather than a predictor of employee experiences. Therefore, in an attempt to better understand how balance can impact individuals, it remains necessary to evaluate WLB as the predictor of tangible employee outcomes in an attempt to answer the current calls within the

literature that seek to explore how balance can influence one's psychological and physical health (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011).

Within both of these studies, the researchers do not capture balance to the fullest extent and assess balance as an outcome (e.g., conflict and enrichment or just balance effectiveness; Ilies et al., 2017; Sanz-Vergel et al., 2010). That is to say, both of these studies utilize previous conceptualizations of work-life balance (Sanz-Vergel et al., 2010) or merely measureone component of the balance construct in the form of work-life balance effectiveness (Ilies et al., 2017). Additionally, both of these studies assess work-life balance as the outcome variable and do not attempt to understand the within-person variation that can result in tangible employee outcomes.In many ways, the experience that one has in balancing the demands of their work life and their personal life can result in a number of performance, health, and attitudinal outcomes, as has been suggested by a number of researchers (e.g., Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Khosravi, 2014; Wayne et al., 2017). Overall, we would expect a significant relationship between work-life balance and its outcomes as individuals navigate between their different roles. Therefore, this study may provide valuable insight into these relationships as we evaluate daily levels of WLB and employee outcomes. There are a number of components that may be influenced by how employees balance their work and life roles, including stress and their affective reactions to these balance events. In this dissertation, I argue that individuals will experience moments in which they must balance work and life responsibilities over a period of time. As these events occur, these individuals will have an affective reaction, which will in turn influence their attitudes and overall behaviors in both their work and life roles. Additionally, it is also important to consider the impact of family-supportive policies or work environments as they pertain to WLB as these

family-supportive benefits may impact one's overall perception of balance and how an individual experiences their balance at work and at home (Allen, 2001).

Family-Supportive Work Environments

The workplace environment is crucial for individuals attempting to balance work and personal life (Friedman & Johnson, 1997), but less is known about employee perceptions of how supportive the work environment is. Family-supportive work environments (FSWEs) have been conceptualized in a number of ways (e.g., culture, policies, supervisors, etc.; Allen, 2001). Previous literature has characterized FSWEs as being composed of two distinct components: family-supportive policies and family-supportive supervisors (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). One's workplace environment is subsequently made of having both the policies in place for employees to use as a sort of benefit and the freedom to use these policies as supported by the supervisors. Family-supportive work environments have also been conceptualized as a key component of work-family culture in which shared beliefs and values about how supportive an organization is allow for employees to integrate their work and family life (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Work-family culture is subsequently part of the larger organizational culture and reflects more of the specific sentiments that an organization has towards work-family matters. Furthermore, further study is needed to understand the global perceptions that employees may have on how supportive their environment is perceived to be. These family-supportive organization perceptions (FSOP) come from the literature on perceived organizational support and may provide one of the key ways in which we can think about and understand how supportive the overall environment of an organization is for family-supportive policies (Allen, 2001). Family-friendly work environments enhance perceptions of facilitation and contribute to a better functioning in both work and personal life domains (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, &

Kacmar, 2007). Given the variety of components that make up these FSWEs, researchers have used the general concept of family-supportive work environments to talk about more specific elements of culture, perceptions, and support in an attempt to understand employee outcomes.

The true definition of a family-supportive work environment has remained relatively muddied throughout its tenure in the literature, despite claims that FSWEs are incredibly important to understand how our employees navigate between roles effectively and feel positively about their workplace (Allen, 2001). One such explanation of family-supportive work environments states that FSWEs are made up of two major components: family-supportive policies and family-supportive supervisors (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Both of these elements reflect how an organization attempts to support employees to balance their responsibilities and navigate between different roles. Family-supportive policies refer to initiatives that have been taken to make the managements of one's role responsibilities easier (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). These policies may take the form of flexible work arrangements or child care (through referral services or services at the organization) and are most closely aligned with a benefit that we can offer to employees. Frone and Yardley (1996) found that the existence of these family-supportive work programs helped individuals in the case of conflict, which was one of the strongest predictors of family-supportive program importance. Family-supportive supervisors refer to individuals who, in overseeing their subordinates, are sympathetic of employee attempts to balance a variety of domains and may allow for short personal calls or accommodations for a flexible work schedule (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). These family-supportive supervisors have been implicated as a promising field of research in the avoidance of work-family conflict and decreased well-being of the workforce (Lapierre & Allen, 2006). Both of these components are necessary to create a positive atmosphere and the family-supportive environment of the

organization. These benefits and supervisors subsequently contribute to the overall environment of an organization and have been linked to employee perceptions of control in work and nonwork domains (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). These perceptions of job control are subsequently linked to a healthier work force (Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner, & Zimmerman, 2011; Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

Another proposed component of these FSWEs is of the more general work-family culture that underlies family-supportive work environments (Starrels, 1992; Thompson et al., 1999). Work-family culture refers to the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values of a workforce that an organization supports their attempts to balance work and nonwork roles (Denison, 1996; Schein, 1985; Thompson et al., 1999). While this component of FSWEs relies more upon the overall culture towards using family-supportive policies, it is still considered to be reflective of the overall environment. Unsupportive work cultures may undermine the overall utility and effectiveness of programs and policies that exist to help individuals navigate between work and personal life roles (Thompson, Thomas, & Maier, 1992); therefore, it is important to understand the impact of culture on these environments. In many ways, this can be reflected by the number of hours employees devote to both roles, career consequences that result from using work-family policies, and the managerial support of supervisors to the needs of their employees and their attempts to balance work and life (Thompson et al., 1999). These dimensions of hours, consequences, and support bear some resemblance to the proposed two components of Thomas and Ganster (1995). Both emphasize the need for support from managers and leadership, and both touch upon an overall positive attitude towards recognition that employees have both a work and personal life that they are attempting to balance. Previous literature has found that a positive work-family culture is related to employees' use of family-supportive benefits and

organizational commitment (Thompson et al., 1999). Additionally, a positive work-family culture is negatively related to turnover intentions or conflict (Hammer et al., 2011; Thompson et al., 1999). As discussed later, the role of the supervisor is very important to creating an FSWE, and these may result in a variety of positive outcomes for employees.

Finally, Allen (2001) argues that FSWEs are comprised of family-supportive organization perceptions (FSOP). These perceptions refer to global employee thoughts on how supportive the organization is of family matters (Allen, 2001). Support for such a component of FSWEs comes from the perceived organizational support literature (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), and these FSOP are considered to be an attitudinal response from the employee. These perceptions are marked as distinct from managerial support and are unique from previous definitions due to accounting for an incremental amount of variance in a variety of employee outcomes (e.g., conflict, satisfaction, commitment, etc.; Allen, 2001). Nevertheless, FSOP is positively related to the components of family-supportive policies and family-supportive supervisors (Allen, 2001). Previous research has found that these family-supportive organization perceptions mediate the relationship between both family-supportive policies/benefits available and a variety of employee outcomes, and these FSOP mediate the relationship between supervisor support and perceptions of employee conflict (Allen, 2001). Therefore, individuals must have access to these policies to balance work and personal life domains, but they also must feel supported by their organization. Family-supportive work environments may thus be a combination of the various components that have been suggested throughout the literature (Allen, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). In many cases, these various components that have been contributed to defining FSWEs may reflect a more all-encompassing and multi-level approach to understanding family-supportive work

environments. The existence of family-supportive policies could reflect a larger third-level variable of organizational differences with family-supportive managers and leadership reflecting a second-level variable, and perceptions of organizational support could reflect an individual-level variable that could be assessed, similar to what individuals may see if they were to apply ecological systems theory to an organizational and leadership context (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). Taken together, all three of these variables could contribute to the overall organizational environment in regards to how supportive it is of employees balancing work and nonwork roles.

Previous literature has found that these family-supportive work environments can play a crucial role in one's perception of the balance between one's work and nonwork roles (Allen, 2001). However, it is important to recognize that all of the earlier components that make up these FSWEs (e.g., policies, supervisors, and organization) are critical here to have an impact on WLB. Family-friendly programs and policies do not affect one's perceptions of how supportive the organization is or how supportive one perceives one's supervisor to be when using these policies (Kofodimos, 1995; Shellenbarger, 1992). Therefore, it is important to consider these components when we consult the literature. Family-friendly policies may be understood as benefits that the organization offers (e.g., flexible work schedules, leaves of absence, referrals to care programs for children and elders; Allen, 2001). Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, and Weitzman (2001) found that such family-supportive policies (e.g., perceived flextime and flexplace) significantly reduced instances of poor work-life balance. That is, individuals who felt they had family-friendly benefits also reported higher perceptions of WLB (Hill et al., 2001). Additionally, when these individuals did have perceived flexibility for both the hours and place they worked, employees were able to prevent workload from negatively impacting their WLB (Hill et al., 2001). A recent push within our organizational expectations is for managers to demonstrate

family support while employees are on the job (Lirio, Lee, Williams, Haugen, & Kossek, 2008). Hammond, Cleveland, O'Neill, Stawski, and Tate (2015) found that, if managers supported work-family balance, individuals experienced less work-family conflict and more work-family enrichment. While not necessarily WLB, this does indicate that managers play a large role in establishing the work-family culture of an organization, creating supportive environments for employees, and serving as rolemodels of how to balance work and nonwork demands (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Hammer et al., 2011; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006).Finally, work-family culture also plays into the utilization of family-friendly benefits and helps to create a family-supportive work environment (Allen, 2001). Allen (2001) found that a great deal of having a family-supportive work culture came down to the model that was established by the supervisor. Given all of this, family-supportive work environments should have a large and positive impact on one's utilization of family-friendly benefits and perception of work-life balance (Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999).

In discussing family-supportive work environments, it is important to note that three general organizational contexts have been identified as existing at three different levels and influencing one another (Jepson, 2009). The first is of the immediate social context (e.g., department, organization, etc.) with the second speaking to the general cultural context (e.g., organizational culture) and the third touching upon the historical context (e.g., society; Jepson, 2009). In much the same way that family-supportive work environments are made up of three concepts, this talk of context bears some similarities to the proposed dimensions of FSWEs. Context may play a very large role in the development of family-supportive work environments. While a leader may be supportive of the idea of an FSWE, if the environmental and contextual situation does not allow for family-supportive policies, then an FSWE cannot exist.

Subsequently, it is important to note that these family-supportive work environments may play a crucial role in the perception of balance that an individual has.

Hypothesis 1a: The utilization of a family-supportive work environment (i.e., family-friendly benefits) is positively related to perceptions of work-life balance effectiveness within days.

Hypothesis 1b: The utilization of a family-supportive work environment (i.e., family-friendly benefits) is positively related to perceptions of work-life balance satisfaction within days.

Work-Life Balance and Stress

While these family-supportive work environments may enhance perceptions of work-life balance, it is imperative that we understand the relationship between the work-life interface and employee outcomes. Of chief importance for researchers is the need to understand the relationship that exists between work-life balance and stress (Frizzell, 2015). Specifically, individuals may struggle to provide care for dependents and may be required to find the balance between their various roles (APA, 2004; Dilworth & Kingsbury, 2005; Frizzell, 2015). Researchers have found that employed mothers reported that juggling multiple roles – or meeting the demands of a variety of tasks from different roles – acted as a daily stressor (Williams et al., 1991). However, Williams and Alliger (1994) then expanded these previous findings and evaluated both men and women, finding that having multiple roles and demands could result in increased perceptions of strain and role interference when distress was experienced regardless of gender.This is not to say that stress, strain, role interference, and distress should be conflated as the same concept. Stress and strain have theoretically been differentiated from one another with stress leading to strain (Spector & Jex, 1998). This stress often presents itself through stressors,

or aspects of one's role to which the body reacts, and leads to strains, or the physical manifestation and affective outcomes that arise from these stressful situations (Chen & Spector, 1991; Spector & Jex, 1998). This stress can result from interference between role demands or a variety of other situations (Williams et al., 1991). Finally, these strains may also be assessed through an individual's psychological distress (Spector & Jex, 1998). For the purposes of this study, we seek to assess one's psychological distress as, given the vast nature of the stress construct, this has been understood to make up a portion of one's perception of stress (Spector & Jex, 1998).

Research has found that a lack of work-life balance can result in negative outcomes in employees with poor WLB linked to increased depression, anxiety, and psychological strain (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Additionally, negative job spillover can cause stress for employees, resulting in decreased health for the individual (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). Stress has also been related to burnout and low job performance for employees (APA, 2004). Therefore, in an attempt to mitigate these negative relationships, it is important to recognize that both the organizational context and importance of work-life balance may impact one's stress experience (Jepson, 2009; Lirio et al., 2008; Hammond et al., 2015). If an organization provides a family-supportive work environment, the employee may be more likely to report higher levels of work-life balance and subsequent lower levels of overall stress (Chiang, Birtch, & Kwan, 2010; Giga, Noblet, Faragher, & Cooper, 2003; Grandey, Cordeiro, & Michael, 2007; Hammond et al., 2015).

A number of studies have investigated the relationship between work-life balance and stress with the majority of studies depending upon Conservation of Resources theory as an explanatory mechanism (e.g., Baer et al., 2014; Barber & Santuzzi, 2016; Fisher, Matthews, &

Gibbons, 2016; Frizzell, 2015; Hobfoll, 1989). Conservation of Resources (COR) theory argues that individuals seek to protect, attain, and retain resources to deal with stressful situations in their various roles (Hobfoll, 1989). These resources may take the form of money, time, or self-esteem (Hobfoll, 1989). As individuals encounter positive or negative events, their resources may be depleted or enhanced (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). These previous studies have found a negative relationship between WLB and stress in that as perceptions of WLB increase, stress decreases (and vice versa; Khosravi, 2014). Additionally, to further highlight the relationship between work-life balance and strain, Carlson et al. (2009) found that individuals can avoid the unpleasant sensation of strain by engaging with their role identities (e.g., spouse, employee, friend, etc.). While these studies have focused on COR theory as the explanatory mechanism of this relationship, I argue that stress that arises from one role (e.g., work) may spill over to the other domain and result in increased life stress in a more general sense (Sonnentag, 2003). Additionally, should individuals encounter these moments in which they must balance their various roles and make decisions between their domains, this could result in an affective reaction to these balance events, similar to AET, eventually culminating in a perceived level of stress and psychological distress (Lazarus, 1991).

I focus on the relationships discussed within these articles to argue that work-life balance and stress are negatively related, as supported by previous literature (e.g., Baer et al., 2014; Fisher et al., 2016). These previous findings have made no discrimination between work-life balance effectiveness or satisfaction in being differentially related to perceptions of stress; both WLB effectiveness and satisfaction have a significant negative relationship with stress (e.g., Khosravi, 2014), though the vast majority of the literature has focused on WLB satisfaction and stress (e.g., Baer et al., 2014; Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Frizzell, 2015; etc.). Nevertheless, I

contend that, should an individual feel that they are unable to handle the demands of their various roles (i.e., poor WLB), this will result in increased perceptions of stress (Williams & Alliger, 1994). Additionally, if an individual is unhappy with the balance between their two roles, this may lead to increased perceptions of stress due to an increased pressure to meet role demands and balance one's duties (Ashforth et al. 2000; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Lambert, 1990). In response, individuals may then attempt to better allocate their resources between their roles (e.g., spending more time at home rather than work or re-evaluating the fit between their demands; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). While I am testing a multilevel model, based upon the nature of the ESM data, I specifically wish to focus on the within-day fluctuations of the constructs in question as I would expect a similar process between individuals as well in which their work-life balance perceptions would impact their stress. However, due to the theoretical background, I argue that:

Hypothesis 2: Daily work-life balance effectiveness is significantly related to stress perceptions within days within individuals.

Hypothesis 3: Daily work-life balance satisfaction is significantly related to stress perceptions within days within individuals.

Mood

Previous work that has utilized the work-life interface and has sought to explain how affective events may relate to employees behaviors and outcomes have found that events in one domain (e.g., work) often result in affective experiences in another domain (e.g., home; Ilies, Schwind, Wagner, Johnson, DeRue, & Ilgen, 2007). Additionally, AET suggests that events at work can directly impact one's affective experience (i.e., mood or emotions; Carlson et al., 2011). Given the very nature of the domains that make up work-life balance, it is of great

importance to understand the causal mechanism that links these roles together and results in tangible outcomes (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). Repetti, Wang, and Saxbe (2009) argued that spillover may include mood or affect, and a number of daily dairy studies have sought to explore how one's affective reactions result in measureable behaviors and actions (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). This research comes from a number of earlier works. Specifically, previous research has found that negative work events were some of the strongest predictors of negative daily mood while positive family events were significantly related to positive mood (Stone, 1987). Researchers subsequently can begin to better understand the links between the work-life interface and stress by identifying an event that leads to an employee outcome after an individual processes their affect that arises from this experience (Maertz & Boyar, 2011).

Much of the research that evaluates the relationship between the work-life interface and employee daily experiences centers on conflict, affect, and other employee outcomes (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). However, of particular importance is the relationship that may be found between positive affect and stress. Cropley and Purvis (2003) found that individuals who experienced high strain reported less positive moods and more rumination about work-related issues compared to those with low strain. Work-family interactions have also been posited to relate to competing demands for psychological resources in differing roles where individuals experienced intrusive thoughts from one domain that impacted their performance in another (Poppleton, Briner, & Kiefer, 2008). This mood carryover, in which an individual has emotions that arise from one domain (e.g., work) and impactemotions in another (e.g., home), resulted in spillover (Maertz & Boyar, 2011), which highlights the importance of this theory when considering the relationship between emotions and strain. Song et al. (2008) found that both work and family had significant spillover effects on one another. Researchers have even argued that this mood

spillover is similar to the strain-based conflict proposed by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985; Maertz & Boyar, 2011). Stress researchers have contended that ruminative thoughts or moments of strain are the result of emotional processing after a stressful event (Cropley & Purvis, 2003; Palmer, 2001). Therefore, if an individual experiences an event in which their work and life domains become unbalanced, this may result in behaviors or cognitions due to their emotional processing of the event. However, while this focuses upon the influence of negative affect on the relationship between an event and an outcome, the literature also suggests that positive affect and mood can spill over between roles and diminish negative outcomes (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hammer et al., 2005). Specifically, if individuals have a positive experience in one role, this may result in increased positive mood, which is then taken to another role (Carlson et al., 2011; Haar & Bardoel, 2008). Based upon these increased positive moods, employees who experience such attitudes are more likely to experience increased well-being (Ilies et al., 2007a; Sonnentag, 2003). While the importance of mood on stress is crucial to note, it is also imperative that we acknowledge how the work-life interface may be related to one's affective state.

Researchers recognize that WLB is made up of effectiveness and satisfaction components that invite both others and the individual into an evaluation of balance (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007; Voydanoff, 2005). Work-life balance effectiveness depends upon a social component in which an individual must evaluate how successfully they fulfill the expectations of their various roles, which may be informed by others within those roles (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). Indeed, researchers have found that individuals who are more aware of the requirements and responsibilities of their life domains are better able to meet the demands that are associated with each role and may feel more effective in performing the duties in different roles (Annink & den Dulk, 2012). Therefore, if an individual has a clear moment of

balance in which they successfully navigate between roles, this may result in increased perceptions of self-esteem and positive mood due to their increased role performance (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). By comparison, researchers have also found that both work and family roles may share a negative relationship with negative emotions and distress if they perceive their role demands to be too great (Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Schilling, 1989; Ganster & Schaubroeck, 1991). Therefore, if an individual experiences increased demands that exceed their capabilities, or moments in which these demands must be met under much duress (Fox, Dwyer, & Ganster, 1993), this could result in increased negative moods (Williams & Alliger, 1994).

Additionally, work-life balance is made up of the affective component of satisfaction (Casper et al., 2018). Therefore, individuals are required to report on the degree of contentment that results from an assessment of one's success at meeting family and work role demands (Valcour, 2007). Essentially, work-life balance satisfaction concerns itself with how well an individual perceives the job that they do and how content they are with their overall balance. Work-life balance promotes positive attitudes and energy that leads to increased overall harmony that may be experienced by employees (Danes, 1998; Marks & MacDermid, 1996; Russo, Shteigman, & Carmeli, 2016). Additionally, researchers have suggested that individuals who are satisfied in their job will bring these positive emotions home with them and will work to sustain positive feelings throughout the day (Isen, 1984; Piotrkowski, 1979). Based upon these previous findings, it stands to reason that moments in which an individual successfully balances their various domains would show a positive relationship with increased positive mood (Frederickson, 2001).However, researchers have also found that juggling multiple roles when these demands exceed the resources that an individual has is linked with increased negative affect (Williams et al., 1991). Should an individual feel overwhelmed or experience moments in which the balance

between work and life is poor, this could impact their perception of how capable they are, resulting in increased negative emotions (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Therefore, individuals who experience low work-life balance satisfaction should experience more guilt or anger when considering their performance within their roles. Work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction have both been implicated to be negatively related to stress (e.g., Baer, Jenkins, & Barber, 2014; Barber & Santuzzi, 2016; Khosravi, 2014; Nilsson et al., 2017). If individuals experience poor work-life balance, they tend to report higher levels of stress, while individuals who experience high WLB report lower levels of stress (Baer et al., 2014; Barber & Santuzzi, 2016). However, it is important for us to consider the causal mechanism that surrounds this relationship, further suggesting that we should consider potential mediators of this relationship in the shape of mood.

Therefore, we would expect that positive moods may act as an indirect and explanatory mechanism between work-life balance perceptions and daily stress. This positive affect may explain how one evaluates how effectively they balance their roles and how satisfied they are with the balance between their roles while shaping their daily stress perceptions. Put simply, we would expect individuals who have high perceptions of work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction to experience less stress on a daily basis when also affected by one's positive affector mood (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Watson et al., 1988). Specifically, positive affect should act as an underlying mechanism to help explain the relationship between one's daily perception of work-life balance and stress. Additionally, should individuals have a low perception of work-life balance, this positive affect component could reduce the perception of stress and strain (Gareis, Barnett, Ertel, & Berkman, 2009; Sonnentag, 2003). By comparison, one would expect that negative experiences of work-life balance and

negative affect would result in increased stress due to cognitive rumination and unpleasant emotions (Cropley & Purvis, 2003; Watson et al., 1988). Previous studies have also found that negative affectivity may influence the relationship that predictors have in leading to stress (Chen & Spector, 1991). Additionally, even if an individual should experience high perceptions of work-life balance, this could be tainted by the overall experience of negative sentiments (Watson et al., 1988).We conceptualize positive affect as a characteristic by which individuals experience positive emotions, sensations, or sentiments, while negative affect is thought to be when individuals are more prone to negative emotions or sentiments (Ashby, Isen, & Turken, 1999). Positive affect is generally represented through the extent to which a person displays enthusiasm, activity, and alertness while negative affect refers to more aversive mood states (e.g., guilt, fear, or anger; Watson et al., 1988). Specifically, we would expect a relationship between one's perceptions of their work-life balance and their mood due to the understanding that events in differing roles can influence one's mood and affective reaction (Williams & Alliger, 1994); this would, in essence, relate to the path between our predictor and mediator. Previous studies have also found that mood is linked to stress perceptions (Totterdell, Wood, & Wall, 2006; Zohar, 1999). Therefore, the link between our mediator and outcome may exist due to this theoretical understanding. Furthermore, Judge et al. (2006) argues that emotions should serve as the mediator between an environmental change (i.e., event) and an individual's reaction. Subsequently, mood may serve as the mediating process that underlies the relationship between perceptions of work-life balance and stress due to this link between momentary events and a tangible outcome and the understanding that affect may spill over between roles, resulting in mood helping to link together these events of balance and one's individual stress perceptions (Judge et al., 2006; Williams & Alliger, 1994). With this, I may be able to parse apart and better

understand how work-life balance perceptions, mood, and stress may change and fluctuate both as the day progresses (i.e., within-level) and between individuals or days (i.e., between-level). Based upon these proposed links, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4: Daily positive mood mediates the within- and between-relationship between daily work-life balance effectiveness (a), satisfaction (b), and stress.

Hypothesis 5: Daily negative mood mediates the within- and between-relationship between daily work-life balance effectiveness (a), satisfaction (b), and stress.

Theoretically, this model and the proposed hypotheses may be best represented in Figure 1. Therefore, I tested this using an experience sampling methodology in the evaluation of work-life balance events, mood, and stress.

Method

In this study, I used experience sampling methodology (ESM) to capture the dynamic person-by-situation interactions and between- and within-day (and individual) processes. ESM may be defined as a methodological approach in which researchers collect information about the context and content of individuals' daily lives to evaluate the fluctuations and flow of these experiences as they occur (Hektner et al., 2007; Hormuth, 1986). Generally classified as an intensive longitudinal method (Walls & Schafer, 2006), ESM allows researchers to evaluate the processes underlying our psychological constructs through subjective assessments of behavior and experiences *in situ* (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). By their very nature, ESM and episodic approaches to understanding work-family require a within-person design (Hackett, Bycio, & Guion, 1989; Maertz & Boyar, 2011). The goal of ESM is to explore the constructs of interest in their natural environment (Hormuth, 1986).

Researchers argue that there are three types of ESM protocols in the shape of event-contingent designs, interval-contingent designs, and signal-contingent designs (Reis & Gable, 2000; Uy, Foo, & Aguinis, 2010; Wheeler & Reis, 1991); however, the most popular study design using ESM is considered to be signal-contingent (Hektner et al., 2007). The use of these various protocols may depend upon the behaviors that a researcher wishes to evaluate and capture with their ESM design. ESM allows for short-term changes in variables through numerous measurements across time and in the particular environment in which the phenomenon of interest occurs (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). There are a number of research advantages that are afforded by the experience sampling method (Scollon, Kim-Prieto, & Diener, 2003). First, in using ESM, researchers can study the relationships within and between everyday behaviors or perceptions in participants (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). By removing the controlled lab environment, researchers can get a better picture of how the contextual situation influences the constructs in a realistic sense by capturing the interaction of person and situation over time (Reis & Gosling, 2010; Scollon et al., 2003). The interaction effects of person and situation can serve as key informants of individuals' behaviors or experiences (Aguinis, 2004). ESM studies can, thus, answer questions about the physical environment (e.g., time), social context (e.g., description of the interaction), thoughts, feelings, actions, or motivations of individuals to investigate whether situational factors interact with the individual-level variables of interest (e.g., thoughts or feelings of balance) in the moment (Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre, 1989; Fisher, 2000; Hektner et al., 2007; Uy et al., 2010). Additionally, ESM can help to reduce or remove the effects of recall biases (Tversky & Kahneman, 1982). Furthermore, ESM can allow for researchers to directly observe the process of change in a way that is not afforded by cross-sectional designs, enabling researchers to capture behaviors or events that might not be detected

by more traditional research methods (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Finally, ESM and similar longitudinal designs allow researchers to identify relationships within each subject, allowing for a far more specified and better picture of how individuals differ in their various behaviors or display shifts in motivation (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013; Uy et al., 2010).

Beal and Weiss (2003) argue that within-person variability may clarify the process that links the predictor and outcome variables by ruling out spurious extraneous variables or trends. These within-person processes also provide additional insights that are not afforded by a between-person approach given that inter-individual (i.e., between-person) and intra-individual (i.e., within-person) relationships are independent (Uy et al., 2010). Researchers have found different magnitudes and directions of relationships when using within- and between-individual approaches (Tennen & Affleck, 1996). By exploring within-person variation, researchers may be better able to understand how individuals vary and differ in their experiences.

There are three main types of design that may be employed with experience sampling methodology. One type of design that researchers can use when conducting ESM research is an event-contingent design. With an event-contingent design, participants report every time that the event a researcher wishes to study takes place (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). That is to say individuals are offered training about the dependent variable or event that the researcher is interested in and then report after this occurrence takes place throughout the day. These event-contingent designs allow researchers to obtain detailed information on all events in a participant's life that fall within a particular type or class (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Such designs require that the individual detect the event in which the researchers are interested; therefore, researchers must offer a concrete definition to participants to ensure that these individuals are reliable reporters (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Despite offering rich and

detailed information, event-contingent designs may be disruptive or intrusive to participants given the reliance upon an individual detecting and immediately recording the experience in which researchers are interested (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). There is an added concern with event-contingent designs in that it is difficult to evaluate individuals' compliance with the task at hand (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). While researchers may evaluate how their participants comply with interval-contingent designs – by ensuring there is a daily record or completed survey – or with signal-contingent designs – by ensuring these individuals do not miss their signal – it is much more difficult to evaluate compliance with an event-contingent design. Another design that one may use when conducting ESM research is a signal-contingent design. Bolger, Davis, and Rafaeli (2003) classify interval- and signal-contingent designs as time-based designs in an attempt to distinguish these designs from event-based designs. Signal-contingent designs differ from interval-contingent designs in that these protocols require individuals to report their daily experiences when prompted by the researcher (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). This may take the form of a researcher sending e-mails or texts to participants to fill out a particular survey at a certain time. Depending on the schedule that researchers use to signal the participants, these designs can be more intrusive than interval-contingent designs but less burdensome than event-contingent designs (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Nevertheless, signal-contingent designs may offer a random sampling of thoughts, feelings, or behaviors in real-time and real context (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013), potentially allowing researchers important insights into the daily experiences of the subject.

Finally, the following study utilized an interval-contingent design. With interval-contingent designs, individuals record their experiences at regular and predetermined intervals of time that are selected by the researcher (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Also referred to as daily

process designs, interval-contingent designs attempt to repeatedly measure the dependent variables in question that are thought to change meaningfully within a day or on a daily basis using these within-day or day-to-day intervals (Affleck, Zautra, Tennen, & Armeli, 1999). Given that these assessments traditionally rely upon one, two, or three assessments per day, interval-contingent designs are considered to be less intrusive than event-contingent or signal-contingent designs (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Additionally, these designs tend to use longitudinal and time-series modeling and analyses given the regular and fixed intervals at which data are collected (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Of note, while some researchers do argue that the rise of technology within the psychological literature and implementation of ESM necessitates a separate categorization (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013), the use of technology within an event-, interval-, or signal- design does not necessarily preclude the design from being classed within the three designs of ESM that have been discussed so far, nor does it require a separate design category. The use of such devices ameliorates much of the concern around event-based designs in that individuals do not have to use cognitive resources to detect the event of interest (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Additionally, technology may allow researchers and individuals to truly capture experience-in-context information as it takes place (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013), allowing for greater control over the data that is being collected (Conner, Tennen, Fleeson, & Barrett, 2009). Finally, the use of technology in ESM also allows contextual information (e.g., spatial position, time, or temperature) to be collected without requiring the attention of the participant (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Therefore, these technological advances with ESM may help to alleviate some of the burden on both the researchers and the participants by allowing for rich data collection in the moment. Furthermore, both computerized ESM and apps that use ESM can minimize the cost and labor of data transcription as the data may automatically be

recorded into the database that researchers are to use (Bolger et al., 2003; Kimhy, Delespaul, Corcoran, Ahn, Yale, & Malaspina, 2006; Stone & Shiffman, 2002; Thomas & Azmitia, 2015). The use of technology to conduct ESM has also been linked to significantly higher compliance rates of participants (Stone, Shiffman, Schwartz, Broderick, & Hufford, 2003). Nevertheless, the use of technology can come with some challenges to a curious researcher. More specifically, technology in ESM is a costly endeavor, ranging from relatively inexpensive (e.g., e-mail) to very expensive (e.g., palmtop computer; Conner et al., 2009). These technological approaches may also increase the overall complexity of the research design in both the selection of the technological tool that is to be used and the process that a researcher must undergo to set up a technologically-bounded ESM design (Conner et al., 2009). However, given the availability of technology (Smith, 2011), our dependence on smart devices (Smith, 2015), and the relative ease on researchers and participants in collecting the correct data *in situ*, future researchers should incorporate more technology and smart devices into the ESM process.

As with most methodological undertakings, one of the first decisions that a researcher must make is whether ESM is an appropriate method to address the research question (Hektner et al., 2007). Previous literature has used ESM to evaluate the effects of work-family conflict and work-family facilitation (e.g., Culbertson et al., 2012; Shockley & Allen, 2013), yet, to the author's knowledge, there has been no research that has evaluated work-family balance. Given that work-family balance is a key component of how individuals negotiate between work and nonwork demands (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007), researchers have urged the use of episodic approaches to further understand this vaguely-defined construct of balance (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). Additionally, individuals may experience "balance" differently due to dissimilar approaches or behaviors by which these individuals navigate between work and nonwork domains (Hackett et al., 1989; Maertz & Boyar, 2011). As such, the benefits of

experience sampling that involve the avoidance of bias or memory error and the increased understanding about within-subject differences may benefit the literature and the current understanding of work-family balance (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Robinson & Clore, 2002; Tennen, Affleck, Armeli, & Carney, 2000). Therefore, this dissertation discusses the evalutation of work-family balance through ESM.

Procedure

Since work-family balance is non-directional and may result from overall experiences of work-family conflict or work-family enrichment (e.g., Greenhaus & Allen, 2011), I considered it most appropriate to assess balance daily before lunch, at the end of the workday, and in the evening before bed using an interval-contingent design. By capturing these three instances of time, this does not refer to discrete "events" of balance or randomized signals, but one still may capture how balanced individuals may feel between work and nonwork demands as they proceed through their day. Given the benefits that are offered through computerized ESM (e.g., easy data entry, precise time-stamps for the responses; Bolger et al., 2003; Stone & Shiffman, 2002), the daily surveys (morning, afternoon, and evening) were posted on Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk), which allowed for easier recruitment in that the survey was directly accessed by individuals who may be more representative and diverse than traditional student samples, as identified by a screening survey (Michel, O'Neill, Hartman, & Lorys, 2018). A web-based survey is also relatively low in cost and complexity but is much higher in control for the researcher (Conner et al., 2009). Given the use of technological devices, it is important to ensure that trust and open communication exist between both the researcher and the subjects as participant fatigue and attrition (Hektner et al., 2007). Therefore, the key to good recruitment of ESM participants is a good orientation in which the researcher is both professional and personal by assuring participants that the data to be collected is of vital importance to the ESM endeavor (Uy et al., 2010). Deception is ill-advised with experience sampling methodology as this could

break some of the trust that is necessary to complete such research (Hektner et al., 2007). Additionally, researchers who conduct ESM should be available and involved for logistical and technical assistance throughout the course of the study to ensure compliance and support (e.g., Shockley & Allen, 2013). Researchers have argued that roughly two weeks would be necessary for recruitment and orientation with an additional two weeks needed to implement the study and be available for technical assistance and motivational support (Uy et al., 2010); however, for our purposes and the purposes of this dissertation, both the screening survey in which information was given and the daily surveys took approximately two weeks.

In week one, participants were able to take a screening survey; in this screening survey, participants were informed via an information letter about the purposes of the daily survey. This screening survey ensured that there was open communication between the participants and the researcher. If the participants then indicated their willingness to participate in an ESM study, they were contacted the next week through a personalized e-mail that further provided direction about the task at each of the specified time points (i.e., a morning e-mail, an afternoon e-mail, and an evening e-mail). The data was then collected over a period of five workdays (e.g., Monday to Friday), ensuring that the researcher was readily available to troubleshoot (Conner et al., 2009). By using MTurk, I was able to see when surveys came in and could also individually e-mail participants if they had concerns about their data, failed to click through all the way on the survey, or missed a ping that I had sent. When the data collection was completed, a payment of $45 was distributed; this amount is comparable with recommended payments for ESM (Uy et al., 2010).

The data was also analyzed using three-level multilevel analyses in MPlus with measurements of stress within days (Level 1 variable) nested between days (Level 2 variable) nested between individuals (Level 3 variable; Shockley & Allen, 2013). Statistical depictions of these models may be found in Figures 2 through 5 below. Experience sampling data is, by its

very nature, hierarchical; subsequently, multilevel modeling (MLM) was the key to analyzing ESM data (Bliese, Chan, & Ployhart, 2007; Conner et al., 2009; Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Each daily ESM response occupied one data row with the number of data rows for each participant equivalent to the number of days (i.e., five rows per individual; Uy et al., 2010). From there, the researcher cleaned the data to ensure that all responses did concern the variables of interest and were not random responses (Christensen, Barrett, Bliss-Moreau, Lebo, & Kaschub, 2003; Shockley & Allen, 2013). MLM analyzes all participants' data simultaneously to evaluate within- and between-person patterns while accounting for the correlated structure of the data that comes from multiple reports by the same individual (Conner et al., 2009; Walls & Schafer, 2006). MLM analyses are also able to handle nested data with unequal observations (that may arise from individuals missing e-mail prompts or surveys) across individuals with irregular intervals between observations (Nezlek, 2001). This was done through MPlus. With MLM, the coefficient that is produced describes the direction and magnitude of the relationship between the predictor and the outcome (Conner et al., 2009). Yet, with MLM, this relationship is one that occurs within a person (i.e., how one's thoughts, feelings, or actions lead to changes in other thoughts, feelings, or actions; Conner et al., 2009). Subsequently, MLM allows researchers to calculate the ICC, or the percentage of total variance in the outcome that is due to mean differences between subjects, to tap into within- and between- person differences to see if individuals within the same group share a strong relationship between the predictor and outcome (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013; Scherbaum & Ferreter, 2009).

Therefore, to summarize, a screening survey was administered using Amazon's MTurk in which participants were asked if they were over the age of 18, employed full-time, residing in the United States, and had family-supportive benefits provided to them at their place of employment that they utilized (i.e., the screening criteria). They were then asked basic demographic information (e.g., race/ethnicity, sex, if they were married, if they had children, etc.) and if they

would be willing to participate in a study that will require three surveys per individual each day for five weekdays that began on the Monday following the initial screening survey and concluded on the Friday of that week to reduce the load of subsequent surveys (Tenenbaum, Byrne, & Dahling, 2014). The screening survey was offered for $1.00.

If these individuals indicated that they were interested and able to participate while meeting the study criteria, they were then registered to participate in the study. I sought to collect a sample of approximately 400 individuals to ensure that at least 75 individuals were retained to complete the survey that met our criteria. Additionally, to ensure that I had the best items to proceed with and ask of the participants during the actual survey, participants were asked to complete baseline measures of WLB effectiveness (6 items), WLB satisfaction (5 items), mood (20 items), and stress (12 items). From these items, I identified items that performed the best through the highest factor loadings, highest alpha values, and items that were most easily translatable into a daily instructional format to ensure adequate reliability, variability, and brevity to not burden the participants while still collecting reliable data. The items that were selected for the daily surveys may be found below in Table 1. Additionally, to ensure that individuals were not lying or reporting false information, participants were asked what time it currently was, what time zone they were located in, what day it was, what time slot (i.e., morning, afternoon, or evening) they were taking the survey, and, in the evening survey only, what times they had worked that day to ensure that the morning, afternoon, and evening surveys were taken at the correct time by individuals of all time zones. If an individual reported a questionable time or lied about the time that they completed the surveys, as ascertained by the digitally recorded time of the survey in comparison to the reported time, the individual was flagged for lying. After Tuesday of the daily surveys, dishonest individuals (approximately four individuals) were dropped from the analyses due to poor data due to misinformation.

I originally had 417 Turkers, or workers on MTurk, who responded to my initial screening survey. There were a variety of criteria that helped me choose my 75 participants from the 417 who initially responded. Individuals had to be above the age of 18, reside in the United States, be employed 35 or more hours, missed none of the insufficient effort response items from the screening survey, reported that they would be working Monday through Friday of the following week, reported that they were married or living as married, and reported some utilization of family-friendly benefits. From these original 417 Turkers, I had one individual who dropped from the survey after viewing the consent form; all of these individuals reported that they were over the age of 18 and resided in the United States. From the 416 Turkers, one participant reported that they were not employed and one dropped from the study after reading the residency question, leaving me with 414 individuals who reported that they were employed 35+ hours. After these questions, I had 7 more individuals who dropped from the survey and 4 other individuals who dropped after the demographics questions, leaving me with 403 participants. Twelve individuals indicated they would not wish to participate in the ESM study. With our IERs, I had a total of 358 individuals who did not miss any IERs; therefore, with this, I proceeded to further narrowing down my numbers to my final sample. First and foremost, from these final 358 individuals, I needed to ensure that they had given a valid MTurk ID through which they could be contacted; three individuals did not. I then checked the demographic information reported through the survey as well as the Qualtrics information to ensure that there were no duplicate participants. From this, I identified 8 duplicates and 13 individuals who had given false information about their location (e.g., outside the US). These 21 individuals were not further considered for the ESM portion of the study. In accordance with the screener questions, 8 individuals reported that they were not working Monday through Friday of the following week, 117 reported that they were not married or living as married, and 38 reported that they had no family-friendly benefits of any kind offered to them. Finally, I created a mean score of family-

friendly benefits that they had access to and summed score of family-friendly benefits that they had used that day. I then sought individuals who had both the highest mean and summed scores of family-friendly benefits. From 418, I was thus able to identify the specific and targeted sample of 75 individuals who had passed all of my screening criteria, had missed no IERs, lived in the United States, and had some of the highest reported usages of family-friendly benefits.

On the first day that the study began, these individuals were prompted at 8:00 AM, 12:00 PM, and at 5:00 PM EST through an e-mail via MTurk. For all of these times, individuals were told to complete an online survey in which shortened measures of the variables of interest were asked at the specified times (before lunch for the morning survey, before the end of the work day for afternoon survey, and before bed for the evening survey). The individuals were asked about their work-life balance perceptions, stress, and mood at all three time points throughout the day to assess work-life balance, mood, and stress within individuals, between individuals, and between days. Participants were given $1.00 for each daily survey ($15 for the daily surveys); after study completion, the participants were given a $30 bonus if they completed the study. The data was then analyzed using MPlus by employing multilevel modeling techniques (Muthén & Muthén, 2017).

Participants

To conduct such a study, it was necessary to consider the sample size that would be required to attain adequate power. A power analysis was conducted to compute the number of cases that are necessary to run the multilevel analyses that were desired by ensuring appropriate power to estimate within-subject variance (Hektner et al., 2007; Snijders & Bosker, 1999). With ESM, the size of the sample is relatively modest by most social science research standards; however, this does not account for data richness that allows for reliable statistical analyses (Aguinis & Harden, 2009; Hektner et al., 2007). Given the repeated measurements, the total sample size (i.e., the total number of data points) can result in hundreds (e.g., Shockley & Allen,

2013) to thousands (e.g., Ilies & Judge, 2002) of results to be used in data analysis (Uy et al., 2010). Similar to previous work-family surveys (e.g., Culbertson et al., 2012; Shockley & Allen, 2013), approximately 50 participants being assessed across one week three times a day was needed, which would result in a final total of 750 data points if all individuals made it through the survey and completed all of the surveys. Given that some attrition could be expected, it was useful to screen for 75 subjects, allowing for approximately a 70% retention rate. As we stated in the procedure, the screening survey allowed me to identify 75 individuals who passed my screening criteria and indicated their desire to participate. The screening criteria for the study were that all 75 participants indicated they were employed and working 35 hours or more, resided in the United States, over the age of 18, were married (81.3%) or living as married (18.7%), were working Monday through Friday of the next week, and were willing to participate in our daily survey. Additionally, these individuals indicated that they, at the very least, were offered family-friendly benefits through their organization. Further still, these 75 individuals were spread across 28 states in the United States and were fairly evenly split as far as sex (53.3% male and 46.7% female). These participants reported that they worked, on average, 43.21 hours a week (SD = 5.62 hours) and reported an average age of 38.40 (SD = 8.18) years. An average tenure of 8.85 (SD = 5.61) years was reported as well. Forty-eight percent of participants reported having a Bachelor's degree as the highest educational degree held, and 65.3% of participants reported that they supervised employees in their current job. Participants were primarily Caucasian (81.3%, Hispanic/Latin American at 6.7%, Asian American/Pacific Islander at 6.7%, African-American/Black at 4.0%, Arabic at 1.3%) and spread across a variety of labor sectors (Other: 32.0%, Services: 26.7%, Healthcare and Social Assistance: 10.7%, Manufacturing: 9.3%, Wholesale and Retail Trade: 8.0%, Transportation, Warehousing, and Utilities: 9.3%, Construction: 2.7%, and Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing: 1.3%) and job families (Information Technology: 22.7%, Education and Training: 12.0%, Finance: 12.0%,

Marketing, Sales, and Service: 10.7%, Arts, Audio/Video Technology, and Communications: 5.3%, Transportation, Distribution, and Logistics: 5.3%, Business Management and Administration: 4.0%, Hospitality and Tourism: 4.0%, Human Services: 4.0%, Manufacturing: 4.0%, Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics: 4.0%, Other: 4.0%, Government and Public Administration: 2.7%, Agriculture, Food, and Natural Resources: 1.3%, Architecture and Construction: 1.3%, Health Science: 1.3%, and Law, Public Safety, Corrections and Security: 1.3%).

However, it should be noted that, as I cleaned the data daily, certain individuals were identified as being dishonest about their response times due to incorrect self-reported times and recorded times from Qualtrics. These four individuals were dropped from the study after Tuesday evening due to repeated offenses of misinformation. Therefore, I proceeded with 71 individuals. Further still, I had three individuals who, despite being prompted and indicating their willingness to participate in the ESM study on the screening survey, never participated. This left me with a total of 68 individuals who filled out at least one of the daily surveys. For these individuals, the demographics were very similar to our original 75 identified individuals, despite dropping those seven individuals. Average age was 38.24 (SD = 8.17) years, average tenure was 8.40 (SD = 5.13) years, and average hours worked each week was 43.18 (SD = 5.80) hours. Approximately 81% (80.9%) of the final 68 participants reported they were married with 19.1% reporting that they were living with a partner/significant other, and 54.4% of the final 68 reported that they were male. Comparable to the original 75 identified, 82.4% of the 68 individuals who participated and gave good data were Caucasian with a Bachelor's degree (48.5%) and supervised employees in their job (64.7%). Again, these individuals were spread across both the labor sectors and job families in a fairly similar way to the original 75 identified as participants.

Measures

When designing an ESM survey, researchers have suggested the use of shortened scales to ease the burden of this methodology and state that surveys that can be completed in less than 2 minutes are reasonable (Hektner et al., 2007; Zohar, Tzischinski, & Epstein, 2003). Some researchers have even used single-item scales in experience sampling studies (Ong, Bergeman, Bisconti, & Wallace, 2006; Williams & Alliger, 1994). By asking demographic items at the beginning of an ESM survey, this can help to ensure that the following surveys have approximately 35-40 items and can be completed in less than five minutes (Hektner et al., 2007; Uy et al., 2010). However, I took this one step further and asked all demographics during the screening survey; individuals were then merely linked through their Mturk ID, which they were asked to provide. Additionally, to ensure that I had sufficient variability with our measures, all of the instructions for the measures of work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction, mood, and stress were asked using day-level prompts (e.g., "Please indicate your level of satisfaction with the following items as of today" or "Please indicate how you are feeling at this current time"). All means, standard deviations, and correlations between and of the variables of interest may be found below in Table 2 from the baseline assessment. Additionally, the alpha reliabilities were calculated at the baseline measure, or screening survey, in Table 2 and at level 1 by averaging together each individual alpha for each assessment (i.e., fifteen estimates averaged for the within level).

Work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction. These surveys contained measures of work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction (Carlson et al., 2009; Valcour, 2007). The Carlson et al. (2009) measure contains six items assessing work-life balance effectiveness. The participants were asked to assess their perception of WLB effectiveness on a scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The Valcour (2007) measure contains five items assessing work-life balance satisfaction. The participants were asked to assess their perception of their WLB satisfaction on a scale of 1 (*very dissatisfied*) to 5 (*very satisfied*). These items have been shown

to be reliable in previous studies (Ilies et al., 2017). Additionally, to ensure that I was not overloading the participants, I used the items that have been identified from the screening survey as the three best performing items from each scale with the highest alphas between these items and the best encapsulation of the construct in question. This amounted to six items total to measure work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction. For my reduced WLB effectiveness measure, I had a reliability of 0.77, and my reduced WLB satisfaction measure had an alpha of 0.92.

Moods. Moods were assessed using ten items from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). I used a shorter version of the original 20-item measure by using 10 items with 5 items assessing positive moods (e.g., enthusiastic, interested, determined, excited, and inspired) and 5 items assessing negative moods (e.g., upset, irritable, scared, ashamed, and jittery). These items were chosen from the the items with the highest factor loadings within each category that Song et al. (2008) identified. Participants were asked to assess their momentary mood through a scale of 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*) to describe how the items fit with their current mood experience. Previous studies who have used this technique have reported high correlations between the shortened ten-item PANAS and the original 20-item measure (Song et al., 2008). Additionally, previous studies found that the shortened version of the PANAS displays adequate to high reliability (from .70 to .93; Song et al., 2008). In my survey, my shortened positive affect scale had an alpha of 0.88, and my shortened negative affect scale had an alpha of 0.88 as well.

Stress. Stress was assessed using the six best loading items of the 12-item measure of the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12; Goldberg & Williams, 1988), similar to the methodology employed for one's perception of balance and one's mood. The GHQ-12 includes six positively phrased items and six negatively worded items that attempt to assess psychological distress (Goldberg & Williams, 1988). These items were assessed using a four-point response

scale of 0 to 3. For the negative items, this was on a scale of 3 (*always*) to 0 (*never*), while the positive items were on a scale of 0 (*always*) to 3 (*never*). These items were then summed into a global score that ranges between 0 and 18 with a higher value reflecting more psychological distress. Previous measures have found that the GHQ-12 has displayed adequate to high reliability (from .79 to .91; Gnambs & Staufenbiel, 2018). For the reduced scale of the GHQ with the three highest loading positive and negative items, the alpha was 0.88.

Family-supportive benefits. Finally, in the evening survey, individuals were asked if their organization offered family-supportive benefits and if the employee had utilized those during the course of the day each day. Similar to Allen (2001), participants were provided with a list of 10 family-supportive benefits that are offered by organizations (e.g., flextime; dependent care support) and were asked if they had used such benefits. If the participants indicated that they had used these benefits during the day, they were coded as 1 while individuals who did not use any benefits were coded as 0 (Allen, 2001). Taken together, these steps were used in the implementation and execution of an ESM survey of work-family balance.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Before I could proceed with my hypothesis testing, the data did require some reformatting to ensure that it was ready for analysis. Specifically, within the data file, each individual was given fifteen lines of data to represent each of the days and times in which data was collected (i.e., each individual had fifteen rows of data). Individuals had a day code that had a value of 1 to 5 (1 = Monday, 2 = Tuesday, etc.), and they also had a time code that demarcated the morning, afternoon, and evening survey responses for each day (1 = Morning, 2 = Afternoon, 3 = Evening). Additionally, a new numeric ID variable was created for the purposes of my input files as MTurk IDs are string variables containing letters. Even when individuals failed to complete a day or a survey within a day, these individuals still had fifteen rows each; the missing

responses were just coded as missing (i.e., -99). For the purposes of this dissertation and to answer the hypotheses about episodic work-life balance perceptions being related to mood and stress, there was just one stress variable that was aggregated from each individuals response, and, according to the specifications in the input files, these individuals were then clustered within day and individual ID. Latent change scores in which fluctuations were assessed in day and led to specific increases or decreases of the constructs in question were not assessed. While these analyses do not necessarily establish causality, these do indicate relationships between the variables in question and may help to suggest certain linkages that may later be tested by causal hypotheses in which a morning assessment of an x variable (e.g., WLB) may lead to an evening response of a y variable (e.g., stress) as mediated by an afternoon m variable (e.g., mood).

With this newly formatted data, I then had to ensure that I had sufficient within-day variance for the Level 1 variables to test the within-day hypotheses and a sufficient amount of variance to partition both between-day and between-individual to create a three-level model. To do this, I first tested an unconditional model using MPlus in which the data was partitioned across the three levels of analysis (i.e., within-day, between-day, and between-individual), as represented in Figure 2. The ICCs for the study variables with the three-level model was 0.094 for work-life balance effectiveness, 0.093 for work-life balance satisfaction, 0.092 for positive affect, 0.093 for negative affect, and 0.094 for stress at the day level (Level 2) and 0.503 for WLB effectiveness, 0.504 for WLB satisfaction, 0.505 for positive affect, 0.504 for negative affect, and 0.497 for stress at the individual level (Level 3). While there was a significant amount of variance at both the within-day and between-individuals levels, the variance was not significant at Level 2 (i.e., between-day level). Due to this lack of variability at Level 2, I dropped down to a two-level model in which individuals were both evaluated at both within-day and between-individual levels, as represented in Figure 3. At this level, the ICCs with the two-

level model were 0.516 for WLB effectiveness, 0.517 for WLB satisfaction, 0.518 for positive affect, 0.517 for negative affect, and 0.510 for stress.

As mentioned, Table 2 presents the baseline descriptive statistics and correlations between the focal variables in the current study, as drawn from the screening sample of 75 Turkers and collapsed across all levels of analysis. As depicted in this table, both work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction were significantly related to stress (r_{WLBEff} = -.36, p < .01; r_{WLBSat} = -.50, p < .001). This provided preliminary support for Hypothesis 2 and 3. However, positive affect and negative affect were not significantly related to work-life balance effectiveness (r_{PA} = .15, p = .195; r_{NA} = -.10, p = .397) or satisfaction (r_{PA} = .11, p = .339; r_{NA} = -.17, p = .139). Additionally, while positive and negative affect were significantly related to one another (r = -.31, p < .01), positive affect was not significantly related to stress (r_{PA} = -.18, p = .122). However, negative affect was significantly related to stress (r_{NA} =.31, p < .01).

I also tested both the within-day and between-individual correlations, as done by Ilies et al. (2017). These correlations are reported below in Table 3. Similar to the baseline correlations and descriptives from the screening survey, the between-individual work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction were significantly related to stress (r_{WLBEff} = -.36, p < .01; r_{WLBSat} = -.49, p < .001) between individuals. Additionally, at the between level, positive affect was not significantly related to work-life balance effectiveness (r_{WLBEff} = .16, p = .182) satisfaction (r_{WLBSat} = .14, p = .266), nor was negative affect significantly related to either construct (r_{WLBEff} = -.09, p = .456; r_{WLBSat} = -.19, p = .119). Additionally, at the between level, positive and negative affect, while almost significant, were not significantly related to stress (r_{PA} = -.23, p = .056; r_{NA} = .23, p = .055). Nevertheless, the nonsignificant values at the between level could have been due to the relatively small sample population of 68 individuals as these correlational analyses were carried out on the 68 individuals who completed the daily survey.

However, at the within level, all of my correlations between the constructs were significant. This indicates that individuals seemed to vary considerably within their daily experience when it came to their work-life balance, mood, and stress. Specifically, work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction were significantly related to stress (r_{WLBEff} = -.52, p < .001; r_{WLBSat} = -.52, p < .001), positive affect (r_{WLBEff} = .32, p < .001; r_{WLBSat} = .30, p < .001), and negative affect (r_{WLBEff} = -.44, p < .001; r_{WLBSat} = -.46, p < .001). Additionally, positive and negative affect were significantly related to stress within-days (r_{PA} = -.23, p < .001; r_{NA} = .51, p < .001). Additionally, it is also important to note that the correlations between the Level 1 daily assessments do not take the nested structure of the data into consideration and should be interpreted with some reserve and caution (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Again, these initial correlations do provide support for hypotheses 2 and 3 at the within-day level, and some conditional support for Hypotheses 4 and 5 when accounting for the within-day level. Therefore, I proceeded with testing my two-level models and varied hypotheses with the multilevel statistical models that are depicted below in Figures 4 and 5.

Tests of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a and 1b proposed that the utilization of family-friendly benefits (as indicative of a family-supportive work environment; Allen, 2001) would be positively related to work-life balance effectiveness and work-life balance satisfaction. As discussed in my demographics and selection criteria, all of the individuals in the sample reported that they, at the very least, were offered one of the ten listed family-friendly benefits by their organization. Individuals were coded as a 1 if they had utilized family-friendly benefits of some sort and a 0 if they did not use any. To test this relationship between work-life balance perceptions and family-supportive work environments, I utilized a point-biserial correlation, and I found partial support for Hypothesis 1. Specifically, the utilization of family-friendly benefits was significantly and positively related to work-life balance effectiveness (r_{pb} = .11, p < .01), as reported in Table 3.

However, the utilization of family-friendly benefits/the presence of a family-supportive work environment did not appear to be significantly related to work-life balance satisfaction (r_{pb} = .01, p = .834). Therefore, based upon this, I found support for Hypothesis 1a, but I did not find support for Hypothesis 1b.

For my multilevel hypotheses, I used unstandardized coefficients (b-weights represented by *b*), as previous researchers argue that these provide the best and most accurate representation of the constructed models (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002); however, given our scales, we did find that some of our b-weights did appear as above a value of 1. Hypotheses 2 and 3 posited that there would be direct effects of daily work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction on stress within days within individuals. Given the high correlation between work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction (r_{WLBEff} = .75, p < .001), I tested these hypotheses separately in different path-analytic models in which stress was regressed onto both WLB effectiveness and satisfaction individually to estimate the effect of WLB on stress; I also kept my variables of interest in the model at both the within- and between-levels to ensure that their variability remained accounted for and was considered within the scope of the model. For my first model with daily work-life balance effectiveness affecting stress, I saw that the model fit at the within-level was fairly decent with certain indices (CFI = 0.969; SRMR for within = 0.007), with some model fit indices indicating poor fit (RMSEA = 0.553, TLI = 0.625, SRMR for between = 0.436). Results indicated that the effect of work-life balance effectiveness on stress was significant (b = .987, SE = 0.07, p < .001). This indicates that I found support for Hypothesis 2. I also saw a significant amount of remaining variance at both the within- and between-levels of analysis (ε_{WLBEff}= 620.56, *S. E.* = 112.25, p < 0.001; ε_{PA}= 606.27., *S. E.* = 109.82, p < 0.001; ε_{NA} = 583.93, *S. E.* = 105.72, p < 0.001 for within-level variables and ε_{WLBEff} = 566.44, *S. E.* = 168.97, p = 0.001; ε_{PA}= 484.78, *S. E.* = 149.46, p = 0.001; ε_{NA} = 355.54, *S. E.* = 108.21, p = 0.001; ε_{GHQ} = 546.95, *S. E.* = 163.74, p = 0.001 for between-level variables). For my second

model that I ran to test Hypothesis 3, or stress being regressed on WLB satisfaction, I saw very similar model fit indices, with some indicating good fit (CFI = 0.974; SRMR for within = 0.007) and some indicating poor fit (RMSEA = 0.549, TLI = 0.691, SRMR for between = 0.428). My results for this model indicated that the effect of work-life balance satisfaction on stress was significant (b = .988, SE = 0.07, p < .001). I also saw a significant amount of remaining variance at both the within- and between-levels of analysis (ε_{WLBSat} = 619.45, *S. E.* = 112.03, p < 0.001; ε_{PA} = 606.26., *S. E.* = 109.83, p < 0.001; ε_{NA} = 583.93, *S. E.* = 105.72, p < 0.001 for within-level variables and ε_{WLBSat} = 566.67, *S. E.* = 168.86, p = 0.001; ε_{PA}= 450.24, *S. E.* = 138.38, p = 0.001; ε_{NA} = 337.67, *S. E.* = 102.24, p = 0.001; ε_{GHQ} = 547.08, *S. E.* = 163.71, p = 0.001 for between-level variables). Based on this finding, I also found support for Hypothesis 3. The results for Hypotheses 2 and 3 are presented below in Table 4. While I did not originally hypothesize that work-life balance would be related to stress at the between-level, I would expect a homologous process at the between-level as different individuals may have different coping mechanisms to deal with stress and perceptions of their work-life balance; therefore, I would expect to see a significant impact of one's work-life balance on their stress at the between-level of analysis.

I also tested out my mediation hypotheses as proposed above in looking at the within- and between-levels of my multilevel model. Hypothesis 4 stated that daily positive affect would mediate the within- and between-level relationship between daily work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction and stress. To test this hypothesis, I estimated both indirect effects in separate multilevel models with the respective predictors, mediator, and outcome assessed at the between-level in an attempt to parse apart how mood was affecting both work-life balance perceptions and stress. I also tested my mediation model at both the within- and between-levels to help bridge any gaps between Hypotheses 2 and 3 and Hypotheses 4 and 5. At the within-level, work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction had significant effects on positive affect (a paths; b = 0.67, SE = 0.04, p < .001 and b = 0.32, SE = 0.04, p < .001 for effectiveness and satisfaction

respectively). Additionally, the path between positive affect and stress was significant (b path; b = 0.86, SE = 0.15, $p < .001$). Finally, WLB effectiveness and stress had a significant pathway within days for individuals (c' path; b = 0.44, SE = 0.22, p = .042). This indicates that, within days, positive affect partially mediates the relationship between WLB effectiveness and stress. I discuss below part of the reasoning behind why I believe positive relationships emerged between these variables in the discussion. However, the relationship between WLB satisfaction and stress became nonsignificant with the mediator at the within-day (c' path; b = -0.30, SE = 0.20, p = .123). The nonsignificant c' path indicates that positive affect completely mediate the relationship between WLB satisfaction and stress (Little, Card, Bovaird, Preacher, & Crandall, 2007). Therefore, I found support for my mediation hypothesis at the within-level for positive affect on work-life balance perceptions and stress. At the between level, I found a significant path between work-life balance effectiveness and positive affect between individuals (a path; b = 1.10, SE = 0.22, $p < .001$); however, I did not find a significant pathway between work-life balance satisfaction and positive affect (a path; b = -0.11, SE = 0.22, p = .624). I also did not find a significant path between positive affect and stress, though it was almost significant (b path; b = 0.72, SE = 0.37, p = .051). Finally, the paths between work-life balance perceptions and stress were both significant (c' paths; b = 3.34, SE = 0.78, $p < .001$ and b = -3.07, SE = 0.73, $p < .001$ for effectiveness and satisfaction respectively). However, given the lack of a significant a pathway between WLB satisfaction and positive affect and a significant pathway between positive affect and stress, I did not find support for my mediation hypotheses at the between-individual level. Therefore, I found partial support for Hypothesis 4 at the within-day level but not the between-level.

For Hypothesis 5, I looked at the within- and between-levels of my multilevel model while considering my mediator of negative mood. Hypothesis 5 argued that daily negative affect would mediate the within- and between-level relationship between daily work-life balance

effectiveness, WLB satisfaction, and stress. I did find support for my mediation at the within-day level in that mood did appear to mediate the relationship between work-life balance perceptions and stress. Specifically, work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction had significant effects on negative affect (a paths; $b = 0.81$, $SE = 0.05$, $p < .001$ and $b = 0.16$, $SE = 0.05$, $p < .001$ for effectiveness and satisfaction respectively). Additionally, the path between negative affect and stress was significant (b path; $b = 2.72$, $SE = 0.10$, $p < .001$). Finally, WLB effectiveness, satisfaction, and stress had significant pathways within days for individuals (c' paths; $b = -1.18$, $SE = 0.17$, $p < .001$ and $b = -0.47$, $SE = 0.15$, $p < .001$ for effectiveness and satisfaction respectively). Therefore, I found support for the mediation hypothesis at the within-level for negative affect on work-life balance perceptions and stress. Nevertheless, the change in sign of the c' paths indicates inconsistent mediation at work in which the sign change indicates that mood may be acting as a suppressor variable of the relationship between work-life balance and stress, further highlighting the particularly strong relationship found in Hypothesis 2 and 3 (Little et al., 2007; Mackinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2007). At the between level, I found a significant path between work-life balance perceptions and negative affect between individuals (a paths; $b = 1.42$, $SE = 0.21$, $p < .001$ and $b = -0.45$, $SE = 0.21$, $p = .033$ for effectiveness and satisfaction respectively). I also found a significant path between negative affect and stress (b path; $b = 2.66$, $SE = 0.27$, $p < .001$). Finally, my paths between work-life balance perceptions and stress indicate both complete and inconsistent mediation, depending on the predictor. Specifically, the relationship between work-life balance effectiveness and stress appears to be completely mediated by negative affect (c' path; $b = 0.36$, $SE = 0.47$, $p = .441$), while the relationship between work-life balance satisfaction and stress is inconsistently mediated by negative affect (c' path; $b = -1.96$, $SE = 0.43$, $p < .001$). Given that the sign changed from a positive relationship between work-life balance satisfaction and stress to a negative one in the mediation model, this could indicate inconsistent mediation at work in which mood suppresses

the effects of work-life balance perceptions on stress (Mackinnon et al., 2007). Based on these findings, I found support for Hypothesis 5. The results for Hypotheses 4 and 5 are presented below in Figure 6 and 7.

Additional Analyses

To further supplement my hypothesis testing and multilevel analyses, I also ran a few other iterations of the models to ensure that I had the best picture of what played out within-day and between-individual. Specifically, when I first ran the models without any covariates to test Hypotheses 2 and 3, model fit was very poor. To counter this, I correlated both positive affect and negative affect with the other variables in the model for the models that were specifically used to test Hypotheses 2 and 3. For Hypotheses 4 and 5, these correlations were dropped completely from the model input file as all variables were accounted for and related to one another in the mediation models. With this, model fit improved. I also ran my models at both the within- and between-levels to better understand whether stress and work-life balance constructs varied within days or differed between individuals, despite only hypothesizing about the within-level. Below I discuss some of the reasons behind why I believe that I saw these results and some implications that may be drawn from this work.

Discussion

The purpose of this dissertation sought to explore how daily life and choices between one's roles can result in tangible employee outcomes. While I sought to test the relationship between family-supportive work environments and work-life balance, my primary goal was to add to the current literature by utilizing an episodic conceptualization of work-life balance to evaluate its effects upon daily stress levels in employees. Therefore, I tested my hypotheses that family-supportive work environments (assessed as family-friendly benefits) would be positively related to work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction, that work-life balance perceptions would be significantly related to daily stress levels, and that mood would mediate this

relationship between daily work-life balance and daily stress. The data that was collected for the study supported a positive relationship between family-friendly benefits and work-life balance effectiveness, and I also found evidence that work-life balance perceptions influence daily stress within days. Further still, my results also indicate that there was partial support for indirect effects of positive and negative mood on WLB and stress both at the within-day level and between-individuals. Specifically, I found that positive mood mediated the relationship between both work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction and stress within days for individuals (Hypothesis 4, partially supported). Additionally, I also found that negative mood mediated the relationships between both work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction and stress both within days and between individuals (Hypothesis 5). That is, individuals appeared to differ over the course of their day and amongst themselves in how negative moods influenced their work-life balance perceptions and their daily stress levels.

However, there were some hypotheses that I proposed for which I did not find support. Namely, I did not find a significant relationship between family-supportive work environments (as assessed by family-friendly benefits) and work-life balance satisfaction (Hypothesis 1b). I argue that the reasoning behind this could be due to the idea that these family-friendly benefits facilitate and may ease the pressure experienced by individuals as they navigate their varied roles (e.g., work-family management; Hammer et al., 2011) by providing individuals with increased supportive resources; however, the measure of family-supportive work environments did not have an attitudinal component that assessed how pleased employees were with the benefits that they were afforded by their organization. Given that WLB satisfaction is an attitudinal construct (Casper et al., 2017; Greenhaus & Allen, 2011), I may not have fully been able to capture how family-supportive work environments were related to work-life balance satisfaction perceptions. Finally, I found partial support for Hypothesis 4 in which I originally argued that positive affect would mediate the within-day and between-individual WLB perceptions and stress. My results

suggested that I only had significant indirect effects within days, but that, between individuals, there was no significant mediation due to insignificant paths between the predictor of work-life balance satisfaction and the mediator of positive mood and between positive mood and daily stress. I contend that this could, instead, be used to further my argument that I captured the within-day fluctuations of mood, which is more transitory and unstable than affect, meaning that differences did not emerge between individuals (Watson, 2000). Nevertheless, despite these hypotheses that I failed to support, this work provides a novel contribution and furthers the utilization of episodic designs in the work-family field.

Of note, I did find that some of the models and hypotheses that were tested resulted in positive b-weights where we would traditionally expect there to be a negative relationship (e.g., work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction and stress; Hypothesis 2 and 3). This positive relationship could be potentially related to a matter of resources that employees have to navigate between their various roles or the temporal ordering of the variables, as is discussed below in the future directions. Resources are defined as both contextual and personal, referring to physical and tangible things (e.g., money or job control) or more intangible traits or aspects (e.g., time; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). One potential explanation for why some of the positive relationships were found between work-life balance perceptions and stress for some of my hypotheses could be due to the fact that individuals have a various amount of resources that they accumulate throughout the day that they must allocate to their various roles (Hobfoll, 2002). That is to say, individuals who must navigate between their various roles may have fewer resources to then allocate towards dealing with their stress during the course of the day if they experience conflict between their varied roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Zedeck & Mosier, 1992). While previous research has found that personal or external coping resources and social support are negatively related to perceived stress (Shaw, Fields, Thacker, & Fisher, 1992), it may be that this is more related to a chronic level of resources and stress, which would not be

assessed in an episodic design as these would be long-term effects and relationships that would need to be explored (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Additionally, it may be that stress perceptions are shaped by a variety of factors which may have masked the true relationships found between the variables of interest; given that the correlations were in the expected directions, I merely wished to call this out from the multilevel models. While I did not assess employee's resources with this study, it is nevertheless both important to acknowledge and interesting, though it is not possible to completely ascertain if this is the reasoning and rationale behind these positive relationships.

Strengths

There are a few strengths and contributions that I believe the current research speaks to for applied psychology and the work-family field as a whole. First, and at a more general level, I believe that this research contributes to the understanding of how daily perceptions of work-life variables can result in personal feelings of stress and result in affective and behavioral reactions in employees that may be missed or concealed by more traditional longitudinal approaches in which individuals are assessed over weeks, months, or years (Butler, Grzywacz, Bass, & Linney, 2005; Maertz & Boyar, 2011). Specifically, individuals may actively seek to resolve any issues from poor effectiveness or satisfaction in balancing their work and personal life as these problems arise, requiring a much more immediate insight into the process between the constructs of interest (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). Therefore, this work contributes to the field as a whole as the first real attempt to empirically test the multilevel relationship between work-life balance and stress both within days and between individuals to see if the interaction of one's work role and family role result in stress throughout the course of a day, and the methodological rigor with which this research was undertaken emphasizes the strength of this ESM design.

Further still, this research emphasizes that positive and negative mood may act as a mediator of the relationship between work-life balance and stress, specifically within days.

While past research around mood has been emphasized in previous models of work-family roles (Piotrkowski, 1979; Williams & Alliger, 1994), the use of mediators and moderators in work-family research as linking mechanisms has been fairly unexplored (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). While I did not find significant differences between individuals with positive affect, previous research has implicated that daily mood is more susceptible to employee experiences or stress (Rehm, 1978; DeLongis, Folkman, and Lazarus, 1988). Therefore, this research contributes to the field by testing the relationship between daily events, mood, and stress within days, allowing for strong relationships to emerge to better represent what employees go through on a particular day due to their own daily life events. Both negative mood and positive mood have been implicated to have long-term effects on individuals in explaining stress, conflicts, or satisfaction (Chen & Spector, 1991; Hammer et al., 2005; Heller & Watson, 2005; Rothbard, 2001; Williams & Alliger, 1994). Therefore, a strength of this study lies in explaining how these characteristics and fluctuations of mood may better explain how individuals interact with their work-family roles and their daily experiences and outcomes.

I also found strength in the idea that work-life balance was found to be related to family-supportive work environments assessed through the utilization of family-friendly benefits. FSWEs have had a variety of definitions ascribed to these environments, and many researchers have utilized family-supportive coworkers or supervisors to evaluate how this presence of social support may ameliorate or enhance conflict and enrichment (e.g., Hammer et al., 2011). However, it is always beneficial to test the relationship between two concrete examples of how organizations and employees approach balance. Specifically, by asking employees about their work-life balance and what benefits they use to navigate between roles, I may further contribute to the literature that surrounds this construct while securing a solid idea of what the typical employee's balance experience looks like.

Finally, I consider the use of MTurk as both a recruiting tool for my preferred sample and the survey distribution platform to be a strength of this study. MTurk allows access to a broad range of individuals that better match the United States population in comparison to student populations and provide high quality data generally (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Michel et al., 2018; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010; Sheehan & Pittman, 2016). Of particular note, I utilized MTurk as the method by which I selected my final sample by screening my participants through a large survey at the beginning before my daily surveys began (Tenenbaum et al., 2014). Given the time and cost that must be allotted to ESM surveys, this was a fairly novel approach to ensuring that I had participants who were directly balancing work and personal life, had some sort of family-supportive work environment, were willing to undertake a large, time-intensive survey by their own admission, and could speak to the experiences that I wished to target in my surveys. While there were some errors in attention, as discussed later in the limitations, MTurk also provided me with a tool through which I could directly interact with my participants and ensure that I was continuing to collect data from the same individuals three times a day. By the same token, I could also reach them if there was an issue with their response or if they had a question that needed immediate attention. In many ways, this may have bolstered the response rate that I had as many individuals sought out the surveys each day.

Practical and Theoretical Implications

First and foremost, this research contributes to the theoretical understanding of episodes in work-family constructs and their daily effects on employee outcomes. Previous research has emphasized longitudinal, levels-based approaches to studying the work-life interface, finding that many work-family constructs are fairly stable over time (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). However, this type of approach may miss the actual short-term, dynamic effects of work-life balance that is afforded by an ESM design (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). The results support the idea that work-life

balance and stress vary over the day. Additionally, this is the first study that assesses both work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction and argues that these perceptions of balance can influence daily stress. Therefore, I contribute to the theoretical understanding of the balance construct by establishing its dynamic nature over a period of days and implicating that balance has a significant influence on daily stress (Allen, French, Braun, & Fletcher, 2018). In many ways, this dissertation answers the direct call within the literature for more ESM studies in the work-family field by basing this upon a strong theoretical background in an attempt to contribute back to the understanding of balance over a short period of time (Allen et al., 2018). Additionally, on a more practical note, given that organizations and individuals have placed an increasing emphasis upon the power of work-life balance in creating new alternative work schedules and programs that promote balance (Casper et al., 2018), this dissertation further illustrates how short-term fluctuations and changes in balance can influence employee outcomes, which could relate back to increased performance, commitment, and satisfaction. By illustrating the importance of FSWEs and the utilization of family-friendly benefits, this may further demonstrate their need within the applied world (Allen, 2001).

The mediation of mood brings up both interesting theoretical and practical arguments that may be explored in future studies or research as well. Theoretically, the mediation of mood can increase our understanding of the process by which work-life balance is shaped and influenced and how it may, in turn, influence stress in individuals (Gonzalez-Roma & Gamero, 2012; Sanz-Vergel et al., 2010) both across the span of a day and between individuals. Given our need to identify linking mechanisms between our constructs of interest in the work-family field (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), this study provides a potential explanation for the relationships that occur within individuals. Therefore, in identifying both predictors and mediators of employee stress, we may then create organizational interventions that target and seek to improve

these perceptions and attitudes to bolster employee performance and ameliorate much of the stress and strain that results from having multiple roles (Gonzalez-Roma & Gamero, 2012).

Finally, when I first set out to test this model, I originally hypothesized a three-level model of within-day, between-day, and between-individual variability. However, I did not find significant variance at the between-day level. While this is similar to previous findings from other work-family researchers (e.g., Shockley & Allen, 2013), I believe that this provides a meaningful contribution to the theoretical field around recovery effects from work. The lack of between-day variability that we saw in this survey could indicate that individuals use their nightly rituals and the end of days to recover from the stress experienced over the course of the day and between individuals (Sonnentag, 2001). Recovery from stress and work is often thought of as a process (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Much of the literature on recovery has focused on the recovery experience contributing to increased positive employee outcomes at work the next day; therefore, it is important to further study how one spends their leisure time in recovering from the variability of constructs throughout the day and between individuals (Sonnentag, 2001). Nevertheless, the null findings at the between-day level could indicate that the evening ritual and sleep can minimize much of the perceived stress that an individual experiences from work and family pressures throughout the day in navigating between various roles (Sanz-Vergel et al., 2010). While this does contribute theoretically, organizations can make practical recommendations in the form of limited contact with employees outside of work to allow employees to recover from work stress. Additionally, organizations could reduce the workload that employees experience in an attempt to bolster that recovery to find null effects and variability between days (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005).

Limitations and Future Directions

Despite the methodological rigor and strength of the current study, there are a few limitations and potential areas for future research that must be discussed. First and foremost, it is

important to acknowledge that, although I employed an ESM methodology to answer my particular research questions, it is impossible to ensure that I collected experience data at the exact moment that the event occurred (e.g., exactly when an employee had to balance their roles or felt a particular emotion due to their perceived balance). Therefore, I cannot say that all recall biases were reduced completely. Nevertheless, ESM is touted to be one of the best methodologies to collect data closest to when it occurs in its natural environment (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Therefore, even if there was some lag between the balance episode and the assessment, it was negligible at best given that the three assessments spanned the day. However, should a researcher wish to combat this potential limitation, future studies should employ an event-contingent design in which individuals are given much more training about what construes a work-life balance event and told to immediately report on this using an app (e.g., Expimetrics; www.expimetrics.com). In this way, researchers may be more certain that there is no recall bias at play. Additionally, the constructs of my proposed model were assessed through self-reports. Nevertheless, Berry, Carpenter, and Barratt (2012) argue that individuals may be the most informed source to consult on their behaviors and reports. Given that the purpose of this dissertation focused on work-life balance, mood, and psychological distress (i.e., stress), these constructs all capture employees' personal attitudinal assessments and psychological experiences; therefore, employees may be the best sources of their own attitudes and thoughts (Ilies et al., 2017). However, future research could potential explore utilizing other reports (e.g., boss or spouse), given that other individuals may be useful in defining how we experience balance between roles. These individuals may provide valuable insight into the person's actual performance in these various domains.

On a more practical note, I think it is important to emphasize that due diligence and proper attention be allotted when conducting an ESM study, as emphasized by Hektner et al. (2007). As I experienced, the individuals of my sample were not prone to reading directions,

meaning that there was much confusion about the process initially. Therefore, it is imperative that a researcher is readily available to answer questions while actively tracking the data that is coming in with the ESM studies to help troubleshoot any potential issues. Additionally, with this sample of 75 and my between-individual samples from the screening survey and the daily surveys, both positive and negative mood variables were not significantly related to work-life balance effectiveness or satisfaction, and positive mood was not significantly related to stress in the baseline survey. I attribute this to the sample size of 75 and 68 individuals respectively, and future research could potentially seek to explore this connection between work-life balance and mood further with a larger sample size or all of the items from the PANAS (or other similar measure of mood). Future research could explore the use of coping techniques to evaluate how this may mediate the relationship between work-life balance and stress in comparing problem-focused coping or emotion-focused coping. Research has found that both coping strategies are significantly related to conflict, and these may provide valuable insights into how individuals actually go about reducing or avoiding stressful situations (Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Rotondo, Carlson, & Kincaid, 2002). Of note, when I attempted to run my multilevel analyses, I was able to detect that there were certain individuals who did not have any variation within their clusters of ID. While I did ask insufficient effort response items in the baseline screening survey, similar to Fragoso and McGonagle (2018), I did not continue to do so in the daily surveys in an attempt to preserve space and reduce the number of items that were asked of my participants, per the recommendations of Hektner et al. (2007). This could indicate two potential areas for growth and expansion for future research. Future research should both evaluate the usage of insufficient effort response in ESM given the time, taxation, and overall buy-in required of an ESM undertaking in determining whether there should be a check item included with daily assessments. The second area for future growth may be that, given the lack of variation within days in certain individuals, this could indicate that, as a whole, work-life balance may be a more

stable construct that is better assessed through a levels-based approach over time as is more conventionally done (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). Nevertheless, I posit that both stable, between-level approaches and episodic, within-person approaches are necessary to understand the dynamic nature by which work and life roles fit together. Therefore, future research should continue to expand upon and attempt to understand WLB through continued study.

Finally, on a more general note about both my measurements and mediation, I utilized nonexperimental data with measurements that were made at the same occasion, which could raise some questions about the interpretation of my models (Little et al., 2007). Specifically, while I hypothesized these relationships between work-life balance, mood, and stress based upon my theoretical background, it is entirely possible that work-life balance may directly affect stress, which then shapes mood, or that mood shapes both the perception of work-life balance and stress. Therefore, my data does not speak to causality (Ilies et al., 2017). Additionally, as suggested previously within the preliminary analyses, I did not assess temporal or causal linkages between variables. While it is necessary to base the models off of a strong theoretical background and well-conducted measurement, it is important to note that I cannot rule out other explanatory models. Therefore, future research should explore both other explanatory models, and we should also seek to establish a temporal ordering of the variables of interest. Despite these noted limitations, there are a number of ways that this study contributes to the field and offers future directions for continued study.

Conclusion

Work-life balance is becoming of increasing importance to individuals and organizations as more individuals and dual-earner couples enter the workforce and display connections between employee experiences and their outcomes. As we begin to recognize that individuals have daily tasks in a variety of roles that they must navigate between, it is imperative that we understand how individuals and their experiences can change and influence their daily stress

levels, especially when influenced by their daily mood. In this dissertation, I proposed and tested a multilevel model that evaluated the impact of work-life balance episodes on perceptions of stress through positive and negative affect within and between days. While two studies have previously considered an episodic approach to work-life balance, this is the first study to capture both work-life balance effectiveness and satisfaction while using this construct as the predictor of daily employee experiences. My findings suggest that family-supportive work environments are important for helping individuals feel that they are effectively balancing the responsibilities of their various roles. Additionally, work-life balance perceptions appear to influence stress within days for individuals, and positive and negative mood do appear to partially mediate the relationship between work-life balance and stress within days and between individuals. I believe that these findings may advance the theoretical understanding of work-life balance and its relationship to employee outcomes, and I hope that this study promotes interesting research that may be used to further advance the field. This dissertation highlights the importance of one's daily work and family roles on one's outcomes, further promoting the idea that how one navigates between their various roles can have an important impact on their cognitive and behavioral experiences.

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Table 1 EFAs and Identified Items for Daily Surveys

	Item	Mean	SD	Factor Loading
Work-Life Balance Effectiveness				
	1. I have been able to negotiate and accomplish what is expected of me at work and in my family (this morning, this afternoon, this evening).	4.13	0.71	.681
	2. People who are close to me would say that I have done a good job of balancing work and family (this morning, this afternoon, this evening).	4.17	0.72	.708
	3. I have been able to accomplish the expectations that my supervisors and my family have for me (this morning, this afternoon, this evening).	4.21	0.70	.780
				Total Alpha: α = .77
Work-Life Balance Satisfaction				
	1. Please indicate your level of satisfaction with the way you divide your time between work and personal or family life as of (this morning, this afternoon, this evening).	3.91	0.93	.894
	2. Please indicate your level of satisfaction with the way you divide your attention between work and home as of (this morning, this afternoon, this afternoon).	3.95	0.94	.873
	3. Please indicate your level of satisfaction with your ability to balance the needs of your job with those of your personal or family life (this morning, this afternoon, this evening).	4.01	0.90	.871
				Total Alpha: α = .92
Positive Mood				
	1. Please indicate how you are feeling right now at the present moment… Inspired.	2.82	1.27	.804
	2. Please indicate how you are feeling right now at the present moment… Interested.	3.56	1.11	.781
	3. Please indicate how you are feeling right now at the present moment… Excited.	2.49	1.32	.747
	4. Please indicate how you are feeling	2.99	1.33	.855

	right now at the present moment…Enthusiastic.			
	5. Please indicate how you are feeling right now at the present moment… Determined.	3.76	1.13	.716
				Total Alpha: α = .88
Negative Mood				
	1. Please indicate how you are feeling right now at the present moment… Upset.	1.24	0.65	.837
	2. Please indicate how you are feeling right now at the present moment… Scared.	1.19	0.63	.796
	3. Please indicate how you are feeling right now at the present moment… Irritable.	1.40	0.83	.750
	4. Please indicate how you are feeling right now at the present moment… Ashamed.	1.20	0.66	.832
	5. Please indicate how you are feeling right now at the present moment… Jittery.	1.35	0.80	.713
				Total Alpha: α = .88
Stress				
	1. As of (this morning, this afternoon, this evening), I have been able to concentrate on what I am doing (this morning, this afternoon, this evening).	0.51	0.71	.814
	2. As of (this morning, this afternoon, this evening), I have been capable of making decisions about things (this morning, this afternoon, this evening).	0.43	0.71	.796
	3. As of (this morning, this afternoon, this evening), I could not overcome my difficulties (this morning, this afternoon, this evening).	0.37	0.66	.820
	4. As of (this morning, this afternoon, this evening), I have been able to face up to my problems (this morning, this afternoon, this evening).	0.57	0.72	.824
	5. As of (this morning, this afternoon, this evening), I have been feeling unhappy and depressed (this morning, this afternoon, this evening).	0.47	0.81	.883
	6. As of (this morning, this afternoon, this evening), I am losing confidence in myself (this morning, this afternoon, this	0.45	0.76	.832

	evening).			
				Total Alpha: α = .88

Table 2

Screening Survey Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Alphas for Study Variables

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1. WLB Eff	4.24	.52	*.77*				
2. WLB Sat	4.07	.79	.60***	*.92*			
3. Positive Mood	3.40	.90	.15	.11	*.88*		
4. Negative Mood	1.27	.63	-.10	-.17	-.31**	*.88*	
5. Stress	2.42	3.14	-.36**	-.50***	-.18	.31**	*.88*

Note. Alpha coefficients are reported on the diagonal and italicized. WLB Eff = Work-Life Balance Effectiveness; WLB Sat = Work-Life Balance Satisfaction; PA = Positive Affect; NA = Negative Affect; N = 75; M = mean; SD = standard deviation.

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

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Study Variables Within-Day and Between Individuals

Variables	*M*	SD_w	SD_B	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. WLB Eff	4.22	.75	.54	*.90*	.61***	.16	-.09	-.36**	-
2. WLB Sat	4.17	.90	.79	.75***	*.94*	.14	-.19	-.49***	-
3. Positive Mood	3.20	1.02	.93	.32***	.30***	*.89*	-.37**	-.23	-
4. Negative Mood	1.23	.49	.60	-.44***	-.46***	-.13***	*.82*	.23	-
5. Stress	2.58	3.60	3.11	-.52***	-.52***	-.23***	.51***	*.90*	-
6. FSWE Use	.40	.49	.49	.11**	.01	.16***	.03	.05	-

Note. Correlations below the diagonal represent within-day correlations (N = 879). Correlations above the diagonal represent between-individual correlations (N = 68). Alpha coefficients of the within-day reliabilities are reported on the diagonal and italicized. WLB Eff = Work-Life Balance Effectiveness; WLB Sat = Work-Life Balance Satisfaction; FSWE Use = Family-supportive work environments as assessed through family-friendly benefits; M = mean; SD = standard deviation.

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

Table 4

Multilevel Path Analysis Results for Testing Hypothesis 2 and 3

	Stress	
Predictors and Variance	Estimate	*SE*
Within-Day		
Predictors		
Work-life balance effectiveness (H2)	0.99***	0.01
Work-life balance satisfaction (H3)	0.99***	0.01
Residual Variances		
Stress	8.65***	1.53
	8.90***	1.53
Between-Individual		
Variances		
Work-life balance effectiveness	566.44***	168.97
Work-life balance satisfaction	566.67***	168.86
Positive mood	484.78***	149.46
	450.24***	138.34
Negative mood	355.54***	108.21
	337.67***	102.23
Stress	546.95***	163.73
	547.08***	163.71

Note. The above estimates represent unstandardized path coefficients. H2 and H3 were estimated separately in different path-analytical models. The second row in the between-individual variances represents the variances from the second model that was run to test Hypothesis 3.
*** $p \leq .001$.

Figure 1 Theoretical Model

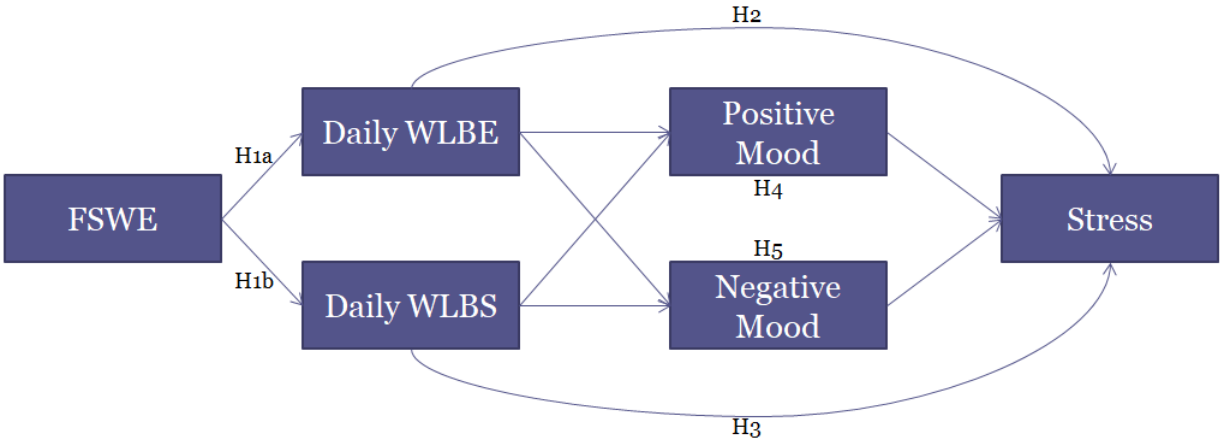

Figure 2 Unconditional Partitioning of Variance of the Three-Level Model

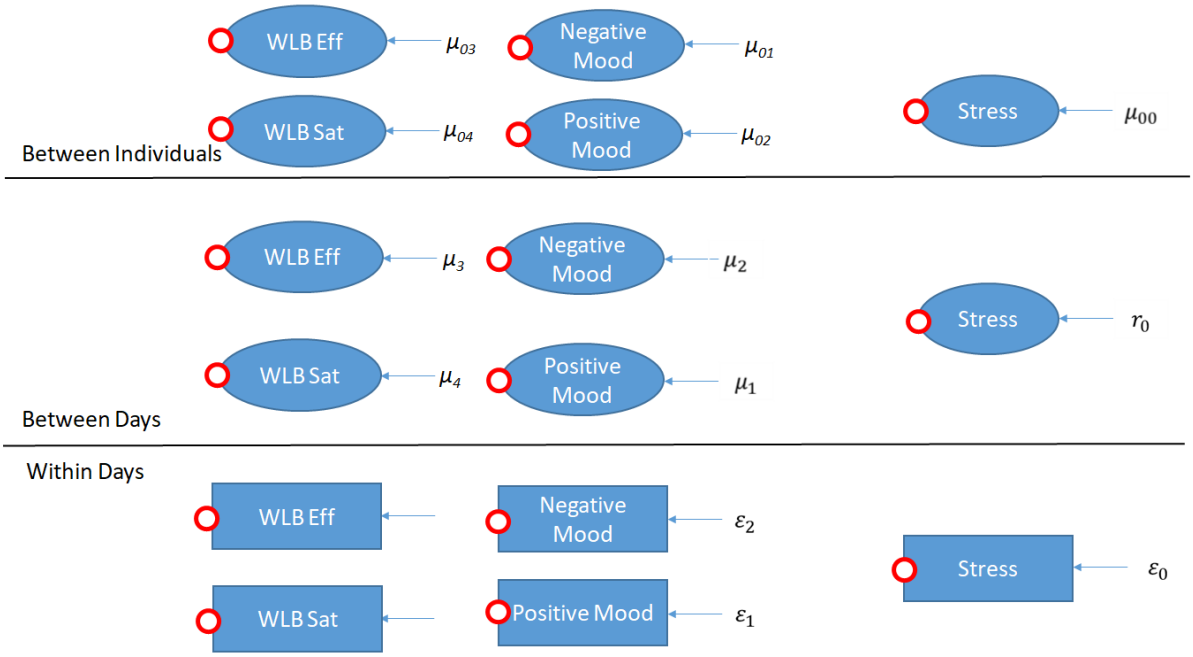

Figure 3 Unconditional Partitioning of Variance of Two-Level Model

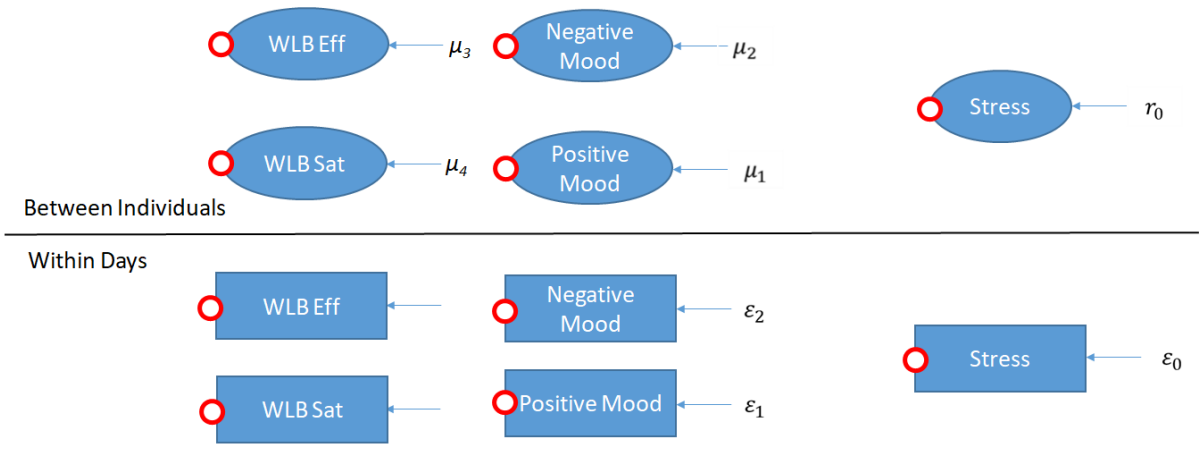

Figure 4 Statistical Model of Hypotheses 2 & 3

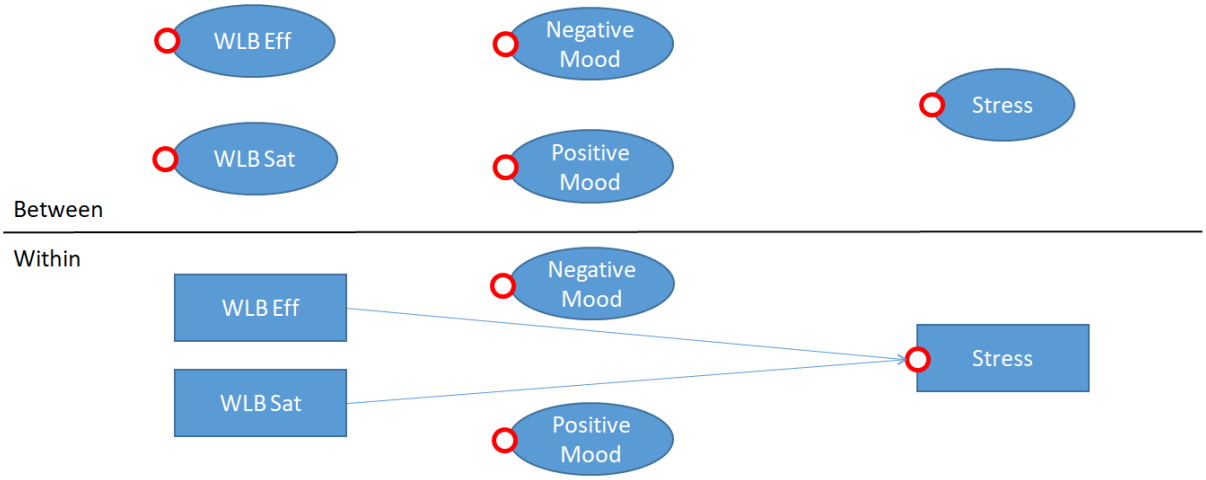

Figure 5 Statistical Mediation Model of Hypotheses 4 & 5

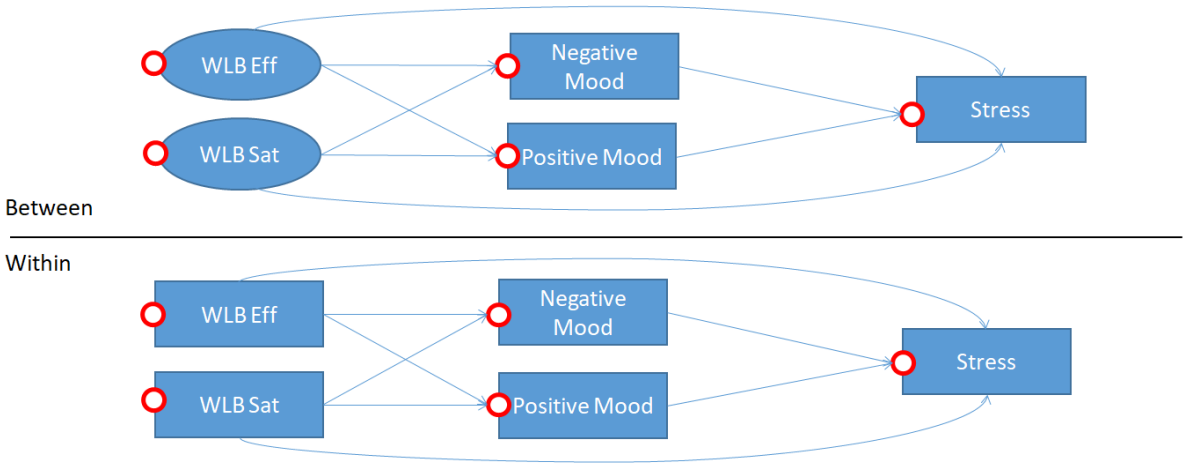

Figure 6 Mediation Model Results for Hypothesis 4

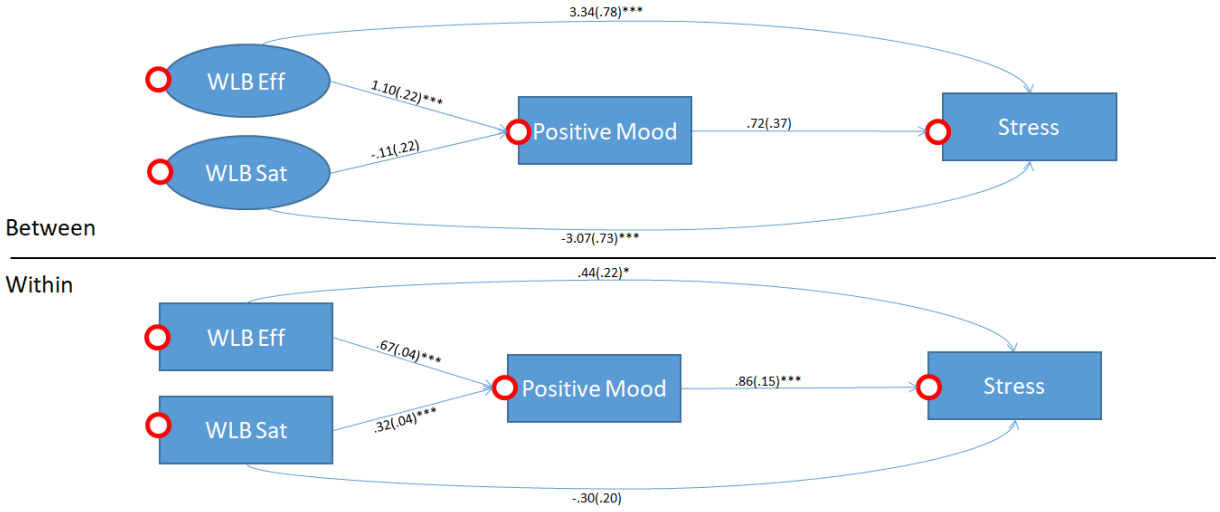

Figure 7 Mediation Model Results for Hypothesis 5