AN EXAMINATION OF BOUNDARY MANAGEMENT BEHAVIORS AND CAREER SUCCESS

By

ROSE LEFEVRE-LEVY

(Under the Direction of Kristen Shockley and Lillian Eby)

ABSTRACT

This research examines the relationship between boundary management behaviors, employee gender, managers' perceptions of employee commitment, and career outcomes. Using boundary management theory, the work devotion schema and status characteristics theory as my frameworks, I test how boundary management behaviors and gender influence the career outcomes of salary, promotion and year-end bonus. The study was conducted using a 2 (boundary management behaviors from work-to-home) x 2 (boundary management behaviors from home-to-work) x 2 (employee gender) between-subjects experimental design. Findings suggest that boundary management behaviors influence managerial recommendation for salary increase, promotion, and year-end bonus through managerial perceptions of employee commitment. However, no evidence was found to support the idea that employee gender plays a role in this process.

INDEX WORDS: Boundary management; Boundary management theory; Career outcomes; Work devotion schema; Ideal worker; Employee commitment; Status characteristics theory.

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ROSE LEFEVRE-LEVY

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By

ROSE LEFEVRE-LEVY

Major Professors: Kristen M. Shockley

Lillian T. Eby

Committee: Nathan T. Carter

Gary Lautenschlager

Electronic Version Approved:

Ron Walcott

Interim Dean of the Graduate School

The University of Georgia

December 2020

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

A critical question studied by organizational scholars is "What leads to career success?" This question is of interest not only to academics but to the millions of people who are employed across the globe. One doesn't need to look far to find popular press headlines such as "How to manage your career" or "How to be successful at any job" (e.g., Granville, n.d.; Todd, 2017). This interest is not surprising considering that objective career success outcomes such as promotions and raises are directly related to financial security and often status. As such, there is a substantial research literature that explores the antecedents of career success, and scholars have put forth several models of objective career success.

Although past research has looked at a number of antecedents to career success, including supervisor support, organizational resources, and human capital variables (Ng, Eby, Sorenson, & Feldman, 2005), less research has considered how non-performance related behaviors that individuals engage in may impact career outcomes. One such set of behaviors are those related to boundary management, the behaviors individuals engage in to manage their work and non-work lives. While there is a substantial literature on the well-being outcomes of boundary management behaviors (Allen, Cho, & Meir, 2014; Hecht & Allen, 2009; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010), there is virtually no research examining the possible impact of boundary management behaviors on career outcomes. There have been a few pieces of qualitative research that indicate that employees *think* their boundary management behaviors impact career success; however, there has been no known empirical research to examine whether this is actually the case (Crowe &

Middleton, 2012; Middleton, 2007). Empirically linking employees' boundary management behaviors to valuable workplace rewards (e.g., monetary rewards and promotion) can help us better understand why individuals do not always engage in boundary management behaviors that promote their well-being (Kreiner, 2006), and can provide better insight as to what factors influence decisions around boundary management behaviors.

The question of whether boundary management behaviors impact career success is particularly relevant given the changes in work that have occurred in recent years. One far-reaching change has been recent advances in technology (e.g., laptops, cell phones, email, and wireless devices), which have impacted the way employees, particularly professionals, do work. Technology has broken down boundaries between work and non-work domains, making it possible for employees to do work outside of traditional work locations or timeframes, and shifting our perceptions of an 'ideal worker' into someone who is constantly available to attend to work obligations (Diaz, Chiaburu, Zimmerman, & Boswell, 2012).

The current research empirically tests the relationship between individuals' boundary management behaviors and managerial reward recommendations. More specifically, I examine the way that boundary management enactment influences managerial perceptions of employee commitment and, in turn, managerial reward recommendations. I draw upon boundary theory and the work devotion schema to examine the relationship between employee boundary management enactment, managerial perceptions of employee commitment, and managerial reward recommendations.

Additionally, I draw upon status characteristics theory to explore gender as a possible moderator of these outcomes. Given that the work and home domains have traditionally been gendered, with women being more closely linked to home and caretaking roles and men to the

work role (Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris, & Zivnuska, 2011; Eagly, 1987; Heilman, 2012; Clarke & Sulsky, 2017), it is important to consider the impact of gender on the relationship between boundary management behaviors and career outcomes. It is possible that gender-based stereotypes influence the relationship between boundary management behaviors and career outcomes, such that women are judged more negatively for the same behaviors as compared to men. Therefore, a second goal of the proposed research was to examine the interactive effects of boundary management behaviors (from home-to-work and from work-to-home) and gender on perceptions of career commitment and on career outcomes.

This research was conducted with several possible contributions to the field of Industrial and Organizational Psychology in mind. First, it was conducted with the purpose of contributing to the boundary management literature. Boundary management behaviors were originally conceptualized to exist on a continuum between segmentation (i.e., behaviors that separate work and home domains) and integration (behaviors that combine work and home domains) (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Traditionally, researchers studied the outcomes of boundary management without considering boundary management directionality (i.e., managing boundaries from work-to-home vs. from home-to-work). However, subsequent research suggests that boundary management from work-to-home and from home-to-work are distinct constructs such that the boundary management behaviors an individual engages in in each direction are independent (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006).

Given that work-to-home boundary and home-to-work boundary management are essentially the inverse of each other (the extent that work is allowed into the home domain vs. the extent that home is allowed into the work domain), it is logical that outcomes of boundary management behaviors (segmenting vs. integrating) may be different based on directionality.

Despite this, there has been little research to unpack the potentially interactive relationship between work-to-home boundary management behaviors and home-to-work boundary management behaviors. Testing for potential interactions effects between work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management behaviors is important, as evidence of an interaction would indicate that research on outcomes of boundary management that do not consider an interaction between these two constructs may be incomplete.

Second, research examining the relationship between boundary management behaviors, boundary management directionality (work-to-home vs. home-to-work), gender, and objective career outcomes could reveal an important gap in our models of career success. Specifically, the dominant views of career success stem from one of two main perspectives, the contest-mobility perspective or the sponsor-mobility perspective (Ng et al., 2005). The contest mobility perspective suggests that an individual's performance and abilities drive their upward mobility within a company. The sponsor-mobility perspective suggests that an individual's success is driven largely by sponsorship from elite individuals. However, these models fail to address how individual differences in managing the work-home interface may impact career success. The present research aimed to explore this potential gap in the literature.

This research also has important practical implications. If boundary management influences managerial reward recommendations, employees with substantively similar performance profiles, but different boundary management profiles, may progress at different rates through the organization. If it is the goal of the organization to hire and retain talented workers, this could result in dissatisfaction and the turnover of talented workers, which may have the collateral effect of reducing the attractiveness of the organization. Understanding the association between boundary management behaviors and career outcomes may help

organizations understand the importance of creating work environments that better suit and retain individuals with different boundary management profiles.

Finally, this study was conducted with the consideration that findings could have implications for workplace gender discrimination. Results demonstrating that gender moderates the relationship between boundary management behaviors and perceived commitment may shed light on mechanisms that perpetuate the glass ceiling in corporate America. If there is a gender double standard regarding managing boundaries between work and non-work domains, female employees with the same boundary management behaviors as their male counterparts may not experience the same positive outcomes when engaging in behaviors that align with the prescriptions of an "ideal worker."

In the subsequent sections, I lay the foundation for the present study by first providing an overview of boundary management as it is currently conceptualized in the literature. I then turn to a discussion of the work devotion schema as a framework that can help us understand how boundary management behaviors may impact commitment and career outcomes. Finally, I discuss the importance of considering the role of gender in the relationship between home-to-work boundary management behaviors, work-to-home boundary management behaviors, and commitment. I draw on status characteristics theory and role congruity theory to argue that the relationship between the employee's boundary management behaviors and career outcomes is likely to be impacted by the gender of the employee.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Boundary Management Behaviors and Directionality

For years scholars have been interested in studying the ways in which individuals manage the demands of home and work roles. Boundary management theory, a framework used to better understand this process, states that individuals engage in behaviors to manage work and home boundaries, situating themselves along a continuum of segmentation (keeping work and home domains separate) to integration (incorporating work and home domains within each other) (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Kreiner, 2006; Nippert-Eng, 1996). Individuals can engage in a variety of boundary management behaviors when it comes to both segmenting (e.g., waiting to answer text messages from friends or family until they are done with work or turning off work email notifications in the evening) and integrating (e.g., speaking on the phone to a spouse while at work, or writing an email to a coworker while having dinner with family).

Despite growing interest in boundary management, past research in this area has been limited in two ways. First, much of the existing literature on boundary management has focused on the well-being outcomes associated with boundary management behaviors, while ignoring the potential impact of boundary management on career outcomes (Rothbard & Ollier-Malaterre, 2016). For example, research has found that an individual's boundary management behaviors are closely tied to their experience of work-to-family conflict (Chen, Powell, & Greenhaus, 2008; Shockley, Shen, DeNunzio, Arvan, & Kundsen, 2017), family-to-work conflict (Park, Fritz, & Jex 2011; Shockley et al., 2017), and influence the ability of employees to psychologically

detach from work (Park, Fritz, & Jex 2011). However, we also know that employees do not always engage in the boundary management behaviors that maximize their well-being (Kreiner, 2006), suggesting that there may be other forces, such a perceived negative career consequences, that may stop individuals from managing boundaries in ways that will most promote well-being.

Second, much of the research in this area initially focused on the impact of overall boundary management behaviors without differentiating between work-to-home boundary management and home-to-work boundary management. Originally, boundary management was conceptualized as a continuum ranging from segmentation to integration. In other words, individuals were thought to be some degree of *either* "segmentor" or "integrator" (Nippert-Eng, 1996). However, a more recent conceptualization has caused researchers to take a bidirectional approach to studying boundary management. Research by Olson-Buchanan and Boswell (2006) found that segmentation versus integration behaviors are domain specific and directionally dependent, meaning that a given individual may engage in integrating behaviors when managing spillover from the home domain into their work domain, but engage in segmenting behaviors when managing spillover from the work domain to the home domain or vice versa.

Logically, there are multiple combinations of behaviors possible for employees: uniform use of segmentation strategies across work and home domains, uniform use of integration strategies, or use of different strategies depending on the direction of permeability between domains, (e.g., segmenting from work-to-home and integrating from home-to-work or vice versa). This is supported by research that suggests that boundary management behaviors from work-to-home and from home-to-work are distinct constructs (Hecht & Allen, 2009). Further, the research supports the idea that it is not uncommon for individuals engage in different boundary management behaviors from work-to-home and from home-to-work. Several

researchers who have examined the relationship between home-to-work and work-to home boundary management behaviors have found a non-significant association between these behaviors (Kossek, Ruderman, Brady, & Hannum, 2012; Hecht & Allen, 2009), one study found a small albeit significant association of .13 (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006), while an additional study found a moderate relationship of .32 (Bulger, Matthews, & Hoffman, 2007).

It is possible that these differences in correlation are due to the work environment in which individuals work. While some work environments may allow individuals to segment from work-to-home and integrate from home-to-work (or vice versa), there are also likely work environments constrain employees behaviors in such a way that they engage in integration or segmentation behaviors uniformly from both work-to-home and home-to-work. However, collectively the correlations from these studies suggest that work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management behaviors are often independent of each other. The low correlations from the Kossek et al., (2012), Hecht and Allen (2009), and Olson-Buchanan and Boswell (2006) papers suggests that there are certainly individuals for whom their work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management behaviors differ.

Given the evidence that individuals may engage in different combinations of boundary management behaviors from work-to-home and from home-to-work, it is important to account for how these different combinations of behaviors interact with each other. When individuals engage in behaviors to help manage the boundaries from work-to-home and from home-to-work, the effects of these behaviors do not exist in isolation. Rather, outcomes likely result from the combination of boundary behaviors used by the employee across both work-to-home and home-to-work domains. For example, an employee who segments from work-to-home and integrates from home-to-work may experience different outcomes than an employee who integrates from

work-to-home and segments from home- to-work. However, our understanding of the outcomes of these different combinations of boundary management behaviors is incomplete. There has been no research conducted, to my knowledge, to unpack the potentially interactive relationship between boundary management behaviors and boundary management directionality (work-to-home vs. home-to-work) on career outcomes. Evidence of an interaction between boundary management behaviors from work-to-home and from home-to-work could indicate that research on outcomes of boundary management that does not consider directional interactions is incomplete.

The Work Devotion Schema

One theoretical framework that can help us understand the possible effects of different combinations of boundary management behaviors on career outcomes is the work devotion schema. The work devotion schema reflects the deeply entrenched belief in Western culture that the duty of a good employee is to fully dedicate one's self to work (Blair-Loy, 2010; Dumas & Sanchez-Burks, 2015; Kelly, Ammons, Chermack, & Moen, 2010; Williams, Blair-Loy, & Berdahl, 2013). "Ideal workers" are those who put their work above all else. According to the work devotion schema, any indication that work is not the central focus of an employee's life can negatively reflect upon an employee, indicating that he/she is not fully committed to his/her job. Conversely, behaviors that indicate that work is a central focus of the employee's life will reflect positively on workers and reinforce the perception that they are highly committed to their work.

According to the work devotion schema, many behaviors can serve as a sign of an employee's devotion to work. Recent research has focused on employees' work-family management strategies in relation to others' perceptions of their devotion to work. Findings suggest that employees may underutilize formal policies meant to facilitate work-family

management (e.g., flexible schedules or telecommuting) because they think that taking advantage of such policies will negatively impact others' perceptions of their work commitment (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; Williams, Blair-Loy, & Berdhal, 2013).

Additionally, research conducted using the work devotion schema suggests not only that employees' utilization of flex-work policies can impact others' perceptions of their commitment, but that it may also result in negative career outcomes. In other words, employees may experience penalties in their professional lives for taking advantage of various organizational work-life initiatives. For example, research suggests that taking advantage of parental leave policies, flextime policies, and telecommuting policies, can result in a "flexibility stigma" which costs employees professionally in terms of salary, performance ratings, and promotion (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; Glass, 2004; Leslie, Manchester, Park, & Mehng, 2012; Munsch, 2016; Wharton, Chivers, & Blair-Loy, 2008). However, this recent research has limitations because it looks mostly at the use of formal policies and largely does not differentiate between the career outcomes of home-to-work spillover and work-to-home spillover that occur. It is important to both examine informal choices employees make and to differentiate between the impact of their work-family management strategies in each direction, as this distinction could reveal differential impacts on perceived employee commitment.

The work devotion schema can be applied to boundary management behaviors and can serve as a framework for understanding how boundary management behaviors both from home-to-work and from work-to-home are likely to be perceived in the workplace. According to the work devotion schema an "ideal worker" is one who prioritizes work above other life domains. Based on this framework, it is logical that boundary management behaviors that limit an employee's ability to be fully available to work at all times are negatively related to managerial

perceptions of that employee's work commitment. Conversely, boundary management behaviors that facilitate an employee's ability to be fully available to work at all times should be positively related to managerial perceptions of an employee's work commitment.

Therefore, the work devotion schema suggests that integration verses segmentation boundary management behaviors are likely to be interpreted differently depending on directionality of that behavior (work-to-home vs. home-to-work). For example, while taking work-related phone calls on the weekend – integrating work into home– would suggest that work is a priority, taking home-related phones calls during working hours – integrating home into work- could suggest that work is not always prioritized by the employee. By a similar logic, segmenting behaviors from work-to-home and home-to-work may also be interpreted differently. For example, being unavailable to answer work-related emails during the evenings – segmenting work-to-home – would suggest that an individual has other priorities in life outside of work. On the other hand, waiting until after work to deal with family-related matters such as carpool or childcare planning- segmenting home-to-work- would lead to managerial perceptions that an employee puts work responsibilities above outside responsibilities. Thus, while boundary management integration behaviors from work-to-home may be perceived as an indicator that an employee's work devotion and commitment are high, I expect that integration behaviors from home-to-work are likely to be interpreted as a sign of low levels of work devotion and commitment. Given this logic I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: There will be a significant main effect of work-to-home boundary management behaviors such that managers judge employees who engage in work-to-home segmentation behaviors as having lower organizational commitment (OC) as compared to employees who engage in work-to-home integration behaviors.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a significant main effect of home-to-work boundary management behaviors such that managers judge employees who engage in home-to-work segmentation behaviors as having higher levels of OC as compared to employees who engage in home-to-work integration behaviors.

Further, according to the work devotion schema, I expect that employees who tend to put work before their personal lives (those who integrate work-to-home and segment home-to-work) are perceived as the most committed, while those who tend to put personal matters before their work (individuals who segment from work-to-home and integrate from home-to-work) are perceived as being the least committed to work. In other words, managerial perceptions of employee commitment are the result of the specific combination of work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management behaviors. However, I suggest that this is more than just the result of an additive relationship between work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management behaviors.

Although boundary management theory has evolved to include the importance of distinguishing between work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management behaviors, the potential interactive effects of these behaviors have not been examined. Findings from research suggests that work-to-home boundary management behaviors and home-to-work boundary management behaviors may influence manager judgments in an interactive way. Qualitative research by Kossek, Ollier-Malaterre, Lee, Pichler and Hall (2016) suggests that managers may judge an employee's behaviors around home-to-work boundary management differently depending on that employee's work-to-home boundary management. They reported that managers look upon the use of non-traditional work hours (reduced load work arrangements) more favorably when employees are also willing to put up less strict boundaries between work

and home. Managers were more comfortable with employees taking on reduced workloads when employees "were willing to be flexible on when they worked reduced load to support their commitment to delivering the work: professionals who were, "flexible on flexibility."" (Kossek et al., 2016, p.153). Putting this in the context of boundary management behaviors, changing the temporal boundaries that traditionally keep home life separate from work (i.e., integrating the home domain into time traditionally used for work) seemed to have a less negative effect on managers' perceptions of employee's commitment if the employees were also willing to integrate work into the home domain as needed.

Along these lines, it is plausible that the impact of integrating from home-to-work is less detrimental to managerial perceptions of commitment when individuals also readily integrate from work-to-home because they ultimately are available to work at any time. Researchers have suggested that this type of flexibility can actually improve productivity (Kossek & Thompson, 2015). This may be particularly true for professionals due to company demands for a 24/7 client response and pressing deadlines of client work (Mazmanian & Erickson, 2014). For example, if I regularly take the time to answer personal emails during moments when I take a break, but make myself widely available to work anytime I am needed within or outside my regular work hours, I am in effect signaling that work is very important to me, and that I am committed to supporting the company goals. I may have other responsibilities outside of work that I need to attend to, however, in line with the "ideal worker", I handle those responsibilities in ways that allow me to put work as my priority. In this context, managers may recognize this strategy of "fitting in" home obligations when I have a pause in work as clearing the deck of home obligations, which frees up employees' time to work after hours when co-workers or clients need them, making them more productive employees.

This logic is in line with research on work-life balance behaviors that suggests that the level of employee commitment that managers infer from employee's behaviors depend not only on the behaviors themselves but also on what motives the manager attributes those behaviors to. While a behavior may be negatively related to managerial perceptions of employee commitment when attributed to personal life motives, the same behavior increases managerial perceptions of commitment when attributed to work productivity motives (Leslie, et al., 2012). Here I suggest that the same home-to-work boundary management behaviors, specifically home-to-work integration behaviors, are likely to be attributed to different employee motivations depending on the work-to-home boundary management behavior the employee engages in, and thus associated with different levels of perceived commitment. While engaging in home-to-work integration behaviors is likely to be attributed to personal life motivations (and therefore low levels of commitment) when an employee engages in work-to-home segmentation behaviors, these same behaviors may be attributed to work productivity motivations (and higher levels of commitment) when the employee engages in integrating behaviors from work-to-home. Thus, the way in which an employee's home-to-work integrating (vs. segmenting) behaviors impact managerial perceptions of commitment may depend on that employee's work-to-home boundary management behaviors.

Therefore, I suggest managers' judgments of employee commitment are affected by both work-to-home and home-to-work boundary strategies in an interaction, and, specifically, that information regarding an employee's home-to-work boundary management behaviors may differentially impact managerial perceptions of employee commitment depending on the individual's work-to-home boundary management behaviors. I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3: There is an interaction between work-to-home boundary management behaviors and home-to-work boundary management behaviors in predicting managerial ratings of employees' OC. Specifically, engaging in integrating as opposed to segmenting behaviors from home-to-work will more negatively impact perceptions of employee commitment when the employee engages in segmenting behaviors from work-to-home as opposed to integrating behaviors from work-to-home.

In addition, as an extension of the use of the work devotion schema to explain the career consequences of managerial perceptions of organizational commitment, I also hypothesize that there is a relationship between boundary management behaviors and managerial reward recommendations (for promotion, salary increase, and year-end bonus) that is mediated by managerial perceptions of employee commitment. There is no known research specific to boundary management behaviors and managerial reward recommendations. However, past research has indicated that other related behaviors regarding how people manage their work and home domains are associated with managerial reward recommendations. Specifically, the use of formal organizational policies has been found to influence managerial reward recommendations. For example, Allen, Russel, and Rush (1994) found evidence that the use of parental leave policies can indirectly negatively impact recommendations for organizational rewards such as salary increase and promotion. In a longitudinal study Glass (2004) found that women who utilized flexible work arrangements after the birth of a child ended up with significantly lower salaries over time as compared to women who did not.

According to Rau and Hyland (2002), the utilization of organizational policies such as flextime and flexplace policies can be understood in the context of boundary management because such policies "change the permeability and flexibility of the spatial and temporal

boundaries within which roles are enacted" (p.117). Thus, I suggest that there may be a similar relationship between more informal boundary management behaviors employees engage in and their career outcomes.

In addition, researchers turn to perceived commitment as the mechanism explaining the relationship between use of formal work arrangement policies and managerial reward recommendations. According to Powell (2019), interrupted career patterns such as those that are the result of maternity leave or part time work are assumed to demonstrate low "stability and commitment to work" (p. 209). Indeed, research indicates that the utilization of flexible work policies can influence reward recommendations though perceived commitment. According to Leslie et al. (2012), the attributions managers make about an employee's reason for using flexible work policies influence managerial perceptions of employee commitment, and this in turn influences managerial reward recommendations.

Although research connecting commitment to organizational reward outcomes has only been conducted in the context of employee behaviors that are the result of formal organizational policies, given that such policies influence the boundaries that separate work and home, it is logical that this pattern could also apply to boundary management behaviors employees engage in outside of formal policies. In other words, making the choice to engage in certain patterns of boundary management behaviors may result in the same types of outcomes as choices employees make regarding the utilization of formal workplace policies. As discussed above, the work devotion schema suggests that boundary management behaviors should influence perceptions of employee commitment. Drawing from findings from past research suggesting that perceptions of commitment mediate the relationship between individual employee behaviors and managerial reward allocations, I suggest the following:

Hypothesis 4a: Perceived OC mediates the relationship between an employee's work-to-home boundary management behavior and managerial reward recommendations (for salary increase, promotion and year-end bonus).

Hypothesis 4b: Perceived OC mediates the relationship between an employee's home-to-work boundary management behavior and managerial reward recommendations (for salary increase, promotion and year-end bonus).

Gender and Perceptions of Employee Commitment

Theory and empirical evidence suggest that the gender of the employee enacting boundary management strategies may influence perceptions of employee commitment and, in turn, managerial reward recommendations. According to status characteristics theory (Berger & Zelditch, 1985), individuals possess group demographic characteristics (diffuse status characteristics) such as age, race, educational attainment, and gender, which serve as signals of the status of various attributes and abilities. In other words, group membership serves as a salient descriptor of what behaviors, abilities and attributes we expect from a given individual (Berger, Fisek, Norman, & Zelditch, 1977).

In turn, these expectations interact with an individual's actual behaviors to influence our judgments of the individual. As a consequence, status characteristics theory suggests that individuals who are members of a low status group (i.e., those whose status characteristics indicate low levels of a desired attribute or ability) will have to perform at a higher standard than those in a high-status group (i.e., those whose status characteristics indicate high levels of a desired attribute or ability) to be judged equal in the attribute or ability. Members of the low status group will have the "burden of proof," while members of the high status group will be readily perceived as possessing the attribute or ability (Foddy & Smithson, 1989, p.185) As a

result, status characteristics theory suggests that when a member of a high status group and a member of a low status group act or perform in exactly the same way, the high status individual will be judged as being higher in the desired attribute or ability as compared to the low status individual (Biernat & Kobrynowicz, 1997).

It is also conceivable that this process could occur in the opposite direction, such that the low status group (in this case female employees) would receive significantly higher ratings of commitment than the high status group (their male counterparts) for engaging in the same commitment signaling behaviors. In other words, when a member of the low status group acts in ways inconsistent with the group's stereotype, they may appear, by contrast, particularly outstanding in a way that members of the high status group would not. The shifting standards model is a framework that would predict such a pattern. According to the shifting standards model, we judge individuals based on the stereotypes of the social group we place them in (e.g., based on racial identity, gender etc.) (Bernet & Manis, 1994). Our beliefs about the social group we are referencing then impact the standards that we use in our judgments of an individual. For example, if I believe that men are generally more competent at math than women, my subjective assessments of how well a male and female student performed on a math exam might be quite different even if they both received the same score. While a grade of 80% might seem like only a mediocre performance for the male student, I might judge it as quite average or even above average for the female student.

An example of the shifting standards model in the literature is the way in which we differentially judge the height of men and women (Biernat, Manis & Nelson, 1991; Biernat & Manis,1994). Men are on average taller than women and as a result we tend to take this group difference into account in our judgments. Due to this difference, what constitutes "tall" for a

woman is different than what constitutes tall for a man. A woman who is 5'9" may be considered tall by those around her, whereas a man will need to be well over 6'3" feet to earn this same description (Biernat & Manis, 1994; Roberts & Herman, 1986).

It is possible that a similar pattern of judgment could occur when men and women are judged on commitment. The shifting standards model would predict that when engaging in the same behaviors women would be judged as more committed to work than men. However, the shifting standards framework offers less clear predictions when it comes to the impact of managerial perceptions of commitment on reward recommendations. Specifically, research on the shifting standards model suggests that while employee gender impacts judgments of individuals' attributes, such judgments are not likely to in turn impact the allotment of limited resources such as money or promotion to a coveted position (Biernat & Vescio, 2002).

Specifically, Biernat and Vescio (2002) found that while people tend to show a pro-low status group bias when making subjective judgments, when it comes to expendable resources such as promotion or allocating monetary rewards we tend to show a pro-high status group bias. In other words, while our standards shift based on group membership for subjective judgments, we tend to revert back to look across groups when deciding where to allocate those resources. As a result, although the shifting standards framework would predict that female employees would be judged as more committed to work than men when integrating from work-to-home or segmenting from home-to-work, we would not expect those commitment levels to ultimately result in higher levels of managerial reward recommendations.

Given that the shifting standards framework does not offer specific predictions for our model regarding reward recommendations, status characteristics theory seems a more suitable theoretical lens through which to consider how gender might impact the relationship between

boundary management behaviors and managerial reward recommendations. Research has indicated that status characteristics theory applies to gender and judgments of attributes and abilities used to determine rewards (hiring) in a workplace context. Biernat and Kobrynowicz (1987) demonstrated this in a study in which participants were asked to evaluate an applicant for a job position. Participants were asked to either evaluate a female (low status) applicant or a male (high status) applicant. All substantive information was identical across conditions apart from applicant gender. Drawing on stereotyping literature that suggests that women are generally seen as less competent than men, Biernat and Kobrynowicz (1987) hypothesized that the participants would have higher ability standards for the female applicants. Due to their low initial status, the female applicants would need to display a higher level of ability to prove their potential as an applicant. Indeed, results indicated that participants required significantly higher ability standards for the female applicants to be considered suitable for hire as compared to the male applicants. Subsequent research has indicated that gender may continue to serve as an influential status characteristic in the work context when it comes to judgments of competence, regardless of actual behaviors (Rashotte & Webster, 2005; Heilman & Chen, 2005).

A similar logic can be used understand how the gender of the employee exhibiting boundary management behaviors might differentially affect perceptions of male versus female employees' organizational commitment. Traditionally, societal norms regarding gender have prescribed different roles for men and women in society. According to social role theory, there are cultural norms that lead us to view women as caring, nurturing and having high family centrality. At the same time, men are viewed as more agentic and having high work centrality (Eagly, 1987). Thus, women are traditionally seen as belonging to and being more devoted to the home domain, while men are viewed as belonging to and being more strongly devoted to the

work domain (Eagly et al., 2000; Clarke & Sulsky, 2017). As a result, I expect that women are, on average, seen as being less committed to work as compared to men. Indeed, there is research that supports this assertion. Gungor and Biernat (2009) found that female job applicants were perceived by study participants as less committed to work than male applicants.

Given the theoretical and empirical evidence that women are perceived as less committed to work than men, status characteristics theory suggests that women may have to show greater signs of work commitment to be judged as being as committed to work as their male counterparts. In addition, an equal level of behavior that signals work commitment may be judged as demonstrating less commitment for women than for men. Thus, when boundary management strategies are interpreted as signs of organizational commitment, those strategies that signal commitment may not be as strongly related to perceived commitment for women as they are for men. Since integration boundary management strategies with regard to work spilling over into the home and segmentation boundary strategies with regard to home spilling over into work are both hypothesized to signal employee commitment (per work devotion schema), I suggest that those strategies may not be as strongly related to perceived organizational commitment for women as for men. Specifically, I propose that gender plays a moderating role in the relationship between boundary management behaviors and perceived employee commitment such that:

Hypothesis 5: There is an interaction between work-to-home boundary management behaviors and gender such that male employees are judged as being significantly more committed to work than their female counterparts when they engage in work-to-home integration behaviors as compared to work-to-home segmentation behaviors.

Hypothesis 6: There is an interaction between home-to-work boundary management and gender such that male employees are judged as being significantly more committed to work than their female counterparts when they engage in home-to-work segmentation behaviors as compared to home-to-work integration behaviors.

Hypothesis 7: There is a three-way interaction between work-to-home boundary management behaviors, home-to-work boundary management behaviors, and employee gender, such that the interaction between work-to-home boundary management behaviors and home-to-work boundary management behaviors is stronger when the employee is male (vs. female), thereby more strongly impacting reward recommendations through perceptions of organizational commitment.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

The study used a 2 (work-to-home boundary management behavior) x 2 (home-to-work boundary management behavior) x 2 (employee gender) between-subjects experimental design. Vignettes were used to experimentally test the relationship between gender, work-to-home boundary management behaviors, home-to-work boundary management behaviors and perceptions of employee commitment and reward recommendations. In each condition, participants received a performance review for a fictitious employee at a large consulting firm. The gender of the employee, as well as the employee's boundary management behaviors from work-to-home and from home-to-work, varied based on experimental condition. All other information, including the amount of work the employee does and the employee performance ratings, was identical across conditions. A preliminary pilot study was conducted previous to data collection for the primary study. The pilot study and primary study are as described in the following sections.

Participants and Procedure

Pilot study. A pilot study was conducted prior to the primary data collection to ensure that the vignettes created to manipulate work-to-home boundary management and home-to-work boundary management behaviors were successful in doing so. Participants for the pilot study were recruited from the University of Georgia's undergraduate Research Participant Pool and were given course credit in exchange for their participation. Eighty-six participants completed

the pilot study. However, due to poor data quality nine (approximately 10%) of the participants from the pilot study were removed from the data.

Participants were flagged for poor data quality and removed from the data if they failed *three or more* of the following 1) failed a basic attention check about salient details of the vignette[1], 2) failed both the manipulation checks of the work-to-home boundary management behavior and home-to-work boundary management behaviors described in the vignette, 3) could not accurately identify the gender of the employee described in the vignette, 4) admitted to not paying attention to the study/ responded to an open response manipulation check with information completely irrelevant to the study, 5) took less than four minutes to complete the study.

After identifying and removing poor quality data, the final pilot sample size was seventy-seven. The average age of the participants was 19.4 years old (SD=1.2). Approximately 79% of participants reported identifying as female, 20% male, with the remainder choosing not to respond to the survey item regarding their gender. Seventy percent of participants identified as white or Caucasian, 8% identified as Black or African American, 14% percent as Asian, and 8% t identified as Hispanic or Latino. None of the respondents reported being married. Ninety-seven percent of respondents reported being single, 1% reported living with a partner, the remaining participants did not respond to questions regarding marital status.

[1] The attention check used in the pilot asked the participants to indicate the performance evaluation given to the employee in the vignette. The attention check was presented as follows: "What were the previous performance ratings of the employee whose file you reviewed?". The response options included "5) Exceptional," "4) Above Standards," "3) Meets Standards," "2) Below Standards," and "1) Unsatisfactory. The employees were uniformly rated as "3) Meets Standards" across conditions. This information was presented in multiple places throughout the vignettes such that participants who paid adequate attention to the study should have been able to correctly identify the employee's performance rating.

As stated previously, the pilot study was conducted for the purpose of determining the effectiveness of the work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management behavior manipulations. Given this purpose, the next step was to determine whether participants had answered the manipulation checks for these two variables correctly. The manipulation check for the work-to-home boundary management behavior manipulation consisted of the following multiple-choice question: "Does the employee respond to interruptions from his/her work while at home?" Participants were given "Yes" and "No" response options. Similarly, the manipulation check for the home-to-work boundary management behavior manipulation consisted of the following multiple-choice question: "Does the employee respond to interruptions from his/her work while at home?" Again, participants were given "Yes" and "No" response options.

Chi-square analyses were used to determine if the work-to-home boundary management behavior and home-to-work boundary management behavior manipulation checks were successful. Chi-square analysis was used because it allows us to test whether the specific manipulation is significantly related to the distribution of manipulation check responses (i.e.,"Yes" or "No"). For example, if the manipulations of work-to-home boundary management behavior were successful, one would expect the participants in the integration condition to respond "Yes" to the manipulation check, "Does the employee respond to interruptions from his/her work while at home?", while the participants in the segmentation condition would respond "No" to the same question at a significantly higher rate. The distribution of responses for these two conditions would be significantly different. This logic would also apply to responses based on the home-to-work boundary management manipulation check.

Therefore, two Chi-square analyses were conducted, one to test the success of the work-to-home boundary management behavior manipulation and one to test the success of the home-to-work boundary management behavior manipulation, respectively. Results of the Chi-square test conducted to evaluate the success of the work-to-home manipulation indicate that the work-to-home manipulation was significantly related to the responses to the manipulation checks, $x^2(1, N=77) = 34.28$, $p<.05$. There were significantly different distributions of responses depending on work-to-home condition. Eighty-nine percent of the participants who received the work-to-home segmentation condition correctly responded "No" to the work-to-home manipulation check. Seventy eight percent of the participants in the work-to-home integration condition correctly responded "Yes" to the work-to-home manipulation check.

The Chi-square test conducted to evaluate the success of the home-to-work manipulation also indicated a successful manipulation, $x^2(1, N=77) = 36.462$, $p<.05$. Again, these results find a significantly different distribution of responses to the manipulation check depending on home-to-work condition. Eighty-eight percent of the participants in the home-to-work segmentation condition correctly responded "No" to the home-to-work manipulation check. Eighty-one percent of participants in the home-to-work integration condition correctly responded "Yes" to the home-to-work manipulation check. These results point to successful manipulation of the work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management behaviors within the vignettes. Therefore, these same materials were used moving forward in primary data collection as described in the subsequent section.

Primary study. Participants for the primary study were recruited via Amazon's Mechanical Turk and paid $1 for their participation. The sample size was determined as follows. First, I consulted the literature for a sample size that would provide adequate power for a simple

moderated mediation analysis. Using Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007), I approximated that a sample size of 295 would yield adequate power for a moderated mediation analysis using a bootstrapping methodology (Moderate effect size of d= .25 and a power of .80).

In order to adjust this sample size to be appropriate for a moderated moderated mediation analysis, I used G-power power analyses to calculate a factor by which to increase the sample size. To find this factor I conducted a power analysis for a three-way analysis of variance (moderate effect size of d = 0.25, an alpha of .05, a power of .95 and eight conditions/groups), and a 2 x 2 analysis of variance (moderate effect size of d = 0.25, an alpha of .05, a power of .95 and four conditions/groups). The sample sizes from these power analyses were 357 and 279 respectively. I used these sample sizes to calculate a factor by which to increase N, dividing 357 by 279 to get a factor of 1.28. I then used this factor to calculate the final sample size for the moderated moderated mediation, multiplying the sample size of two-hundred and ninety-five necessary for moderated mediation by a factor of 1.28. This yielded a total target sample size of three hundred and seventy-eight.

Three-hundred and eighty-one participants were included in the final analyses after data quality screening (process described in subsequent sections). Roughly half of the participants were female (47.2%) and half were male (52.2%) with .5% of respondents identifying as "other". The average age of the study participants was 39.6 years old (*SD* = 11.04) with a range of 21 to 78 years of age. The majority of participants identified as White/Caucasian (76%). The racial breakdown of the sample was as follows: 10.6% percent of participants identified as Black or African American, 7.7% identified as Asian, 4% identified as Hispanic or Latino, 0.3% identified as Native American or American Indian, and 1.6% identified as "other." Roughly half of the participants were married (52.8%). The majority of the remaining participants (28.5 %) reported

their relationship status as single, 9.2% reported being unmarried but living with a partner, 6.6% reported being divorced, 1.6% reported being separated from their partner, and 1.3% reported being widowed. Over half of participants (59.9%) had at least one child (M = 1.27, SD = 2.05). Participants worked an average of 41.1 hours per week outside of Mechanical Turk (SD= 6.75).

To be eligible for the study, participants had to meet all of the following criteria: 1) be 18 years of age or older, 2) have at least one year of experience working in a managerial position and 3) be currently employed full-time (minimum of 35 hours a week) outside of Mechanical Turk. Additionally, participants were limited to within the United States, using Mechanical Turk's Location Qualification settings. As an incentive, participants were paid $1 for participating in the study. It has been well-documented that when using MTurk, it is necessary to oversample (i.e., collect data from a larger number of participants than needed), to ensure that the researcher is left with an appropriate sample size once data quality has been accounted for (Chmielewski & Kucker, 2019). Due to this oversampling four hundred and fifty-six participants completed the current study on MTurk. This allowed for later removal of poor-quality data while maintaining an appropriate sample size for the study.

Participants who passed the eligibility screening were presented with a short paragraph with information regarding the premise of the study. The research was presented as part of an evaluation of the effectiveness of a 360-degree feedback process at AMG Consulting, a large marketing consulting firm. Participants were told that the 360-degree feedback process is an employee evaluation process that consists of gathering feedback about an employee's performance from multiple sources, including the employee's supervisors and coworkers. Further, they were told that it is their job to act as a senior manager at the firm and make recommendations regarding the employee's salary increase, promotion, and year-end bonus

based on the feedback received from the most recent 360-degree performance reviews. Specifically, they were told that they would be reviewing the performance feedback for one of the marketing analysts at the company. The position of marketing analyst was chosen because it is a gender neutral position that would not be likely to introduce confounds into the experimental design (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018).

Participants were randomly assigned to one of eight experimental conditions: 1) work-to-home segmentation behaviors/ home-to-work segmentation behaviors/ male employee, 2) work-to-home integration behaviors/ home-to-work segmentation behaviors/ male employee, 3) work-to-home integration behaviors/ home-to-work integration behaviors/ male employee, 4) work-to-home segmentation behaviors/ home-to-work integration behaviors/ male employee 5) work-to-home segmentation behaviors/ home-to-work segmentation behaviors/ female employee, 6) work-to-home integration behaviors/ home-to-work segmentation behaviors/ female employee, 7) work-to-home integration behaviors/ home-to-work integration behaviors/ female employee, 8) work-to-home segmentation behaviors/ home-to-work integration behaviors/ female employee. Segmentation behaviors were coded as .5 and integration behaviors were coded as -.5 in the analyses. Each participant was presented with a set of two performance reviews, which described the employee's performance over the past fiscal year, as well as his/her performance on a recent client project. The performance reviews for each condition were identical apart from the manipulation of boundary management behaviors from work-to-home, boundary management behaviors from home-to-work, and employee gender.

Measures

Perceived organizational commitment. After reading the vignette, the study participants were asked to rate the employee on perceived organizational commitment using

three items from Shore, Barksdale, and Shores's (1995) Manager-Rated Affective Commitment Scale (α = .81). The scale includes items such as "Mike [Mary] appears to be highly committed to the organization," (see Appendix B for full scale). Participants were asked to rate the employee on these items using a five-point Likert scale ranging from "disagree completely" to "agree completely."

Reward recommendations. Study participants were also asked to rate how strongly they recommend rewarding the employee (Mike/Mary). Specifically, participants rated how strongly they recommend the employee for a) a salary increase, b) a promotion, and c) year-end bonus. This was done using Allen and Rush's (1998) two-item Rewards Recommendation scale (see Appendix B). Participants rated the employee on a five-point scale ranging from "Would definitely NOT recommend" to "Would recommend with confidence and without reservation."

Manipulation checks. Participants were also asked to fill out manipulation checks to ensure they could recall information about the employee's boundary management behaviors from work-to-home, boundary management behaviors from home-to-work and gender. For the boundary management manipulations check, participants were asked to answer a set of questions, including both multiple choice and open response questions. For the work-to-home boundary management manipulation, participants were asked to respond to the open response question, "Please describe what you remember about the way the employee you reviewed handles work situations after work hours." The participant was also asked to answer the following multiple-choice question, "Does the employee respond to interruptions from his/her work while at home?" by selecting "Yes" or "No" response options.

For the home-to-work boundary management manipulation participants were asked to respond to the open response question, "Please describe what you remember about the way the

employee you reviewed handles non-work situations during work hours." The participant was also asked to answer the following multiple-choice question, "Does the employee respond to interruptions from his/her home life while at work?" by selecting "Yes" or "No" response options. To check that the gender manipulation was effective, participants were asked to respond to the simple multiple-choice question, "What was the gender of the employee whose file you reviewed?" and were given the option of selecting male or female.

Attention checks. Although I did not manipulate performance as part of my experiment (the employee was an average performer in all conditions), I included an attention check to further ensure that participants paid attention to the vignettes. In order to do so, I included a question that asks participants, "What were the previous performance ratings of the employee whose file you reviewed?" and they were given the response options "5) Exceptional," " 4) Above Standards," "3) Meets Standards," "2) Below Standards," and "1) Unsatisfactory." Responses to this question were not used as manipulation checks, but were used as screening tools to ensure the quality of the data collected on MTurk. Failure to respond correctly to the attention check and the manipulation checks suggests that the data is of poor quality and was used as criterion for exclusion from the study.

Additional attention checks were included in the study for the purpose of further determining data quality. First, the participants encountered three general attention check items throughout the survey. These consisted of the following items: "I am currently using the internet," "I do not speak a word of English," and "I go on picnics on Jupiter." The response options for these items were "agree" and "disagree." In addition, participants answered the same set of questions about their work history both at the beginning of the study and at the end of the study. This was used as an additional tool to identify lazy or poor responders as answering this

set of questions differently at the two time points serves as an indicator that a participant is not paying adequate attention to the study.

Data Quality Screening

The manipulation and attention checks were used to screen the data from the initial four hundred fifty-six participants who completed the survey. This was done through the following process. First, as part of the initial data cleaning process an R-script was used to flag participants who did not successfully pass the manipulation checks and attention checks. The script flagged participants who did not successfully pass 1) the gender manipulation check, 2) the performance attention check, or 3) got *both* work-to-home and home-to-work manipulation checks wrong. This process flagged 113 participants for further evaluation. Thirty-seven of the flagged participants failed two or more of these checks and had poor quality responses to the open response section of the survey (incoherent or irrelevant responses) and were removed from the data. The remaining seventy-six participants who were flagged were then further examined manually for quality based on the following: 1) answered information about their work history inconsistently (claimed to have experience in certain work sectors at the beginning of the survey, for example, service sector, managerial sector, education sector, but put different information when asked to report work experience at the end of the survey), 2) incorrectly answered two or more general attentions checks such as "I am currently using the internet," 3) incoherent or irrelevant open responses to open-ended manipulation checks. Participants who were found to meet two or more of these additional criteria were removed from the data. This resulted in the removal of an additional thirty-eight participants, resulting in seventy-five total participants (16% of participants) removed from the data due to poor data quality. Removing this number of

participants from the data can be considered conservative as some research has reported upwards of 62% of participants flagged for invalid responses (Chmielewski & Kucker, 2019).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In preparation for data analysis the internal consistency of the three-item commitment scale used was tested using Cronbach's alpha. The results indicated a high level of internal consistency (α= .82). Table 1 contains the correlations between outcome variables (managerial perception of commitment and managerial recommendations for salary increase, promotion, and year-end bonus). The means and standard deviations for each of these outcome variables are listed in Table 2.

Analytical Approach

A moderated moderated mediation analysis was conducted to test Hypotheses 1through 7 using lavaan, a structural equation modeling package for R (Rosseel, 2012). Specifically, a model based on Hayes (2013) Model 13 (See Appendix C) was used to test these hypotheses[2]. This model is a first stage moderated moderated mediation model that combines moderation analyses with mediation analysis at the first leg of the model (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). This approach, which tests moderation and mediation within a single model, has been selected because it sidesteps some of the pitfalls associated with more piecemeal approaches. Integrating moderation and mediation into a single model allows us to test at what stage (or leg of the model) moderation occurs, something that cannot be determined when mediation and moderation are tested separately in a piecemeal fashion (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). Each of the independent variables was coded with a .5 to -.5 schema to allow for output to be interpreted as

[2] The model used is identical to Hayes (2013) model 13 programmed into PROCESS for IBM's SPSS. However, the lavaan package for R was used instead of PROCESS because it allows for greater flexibility. Specifically, it allowed the researcher to call for additional output that is not programmed into the PROCESS macro for model 13.

main effects (Hayes, 2013). Segmentation (for both work-to-home and home-to-work variables) was coded as .5. Integration (for both work-to-home and home-to-work variables) was coded as -.5. Results from the maximum likelihood (ML) regression equations were considered significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Since this research was conducted for the purpose of examining the relationship between boundary management behaviors and three different managerial reward recommendations (i.e., for salary increase, promotion, and year-end bonus), the model was run three times, once with each of these reward recommendation outcomes. These models, represented in Appendix C, are as follows: 1) Model A (Figure 1) examines the relationship between boundary management behaviors and managerial recommendation for salary increase, 2) Model B (Figure 2) examines the relationship between boundary management behaviors and managerial recommendation for promotion, and 3) Model C (Figure 3) examines the relationship between boundary management behaviors and managerial recommendation for year-end bonus.

These models are comprised of two regressions estimated simultaneously through laavan. The first of these equations is one in which the mediating variable (managerial perception of employee commitment) is regressed onto its antecedents. The second equation is one in which the outcome variable of interest (recommendation for salary increase, promotion, or year-end bonus, respectively) are regressed onto its antecedents. These two regressions are as follows:

(1) $M = i_m + a_1 X + a_2 W + a_3 Z + a_4 XW + a_5 XZ + a_6 WZ + a_7 XWZ$

(2) $Y = i_Y + b_1 M + c'_1 X + c'_2 W + c'_3 XW$

where X represents work-to-home boundary management behaviors, W represents home-to-work boundary management behaviors, Z represents employee gender, M represents perceptions of employee commitment, and Y represents the respective reward recommendation (see Figure 4 in

Appendix C for general statistical model and Figures 5, 6, and 7 for statistical models with results). Results for the regression of the mediating variable (managerial perceptions of employee commitment) can be found in Table 3. Results of the regressions for each of the outcome variables (recommendation for salary increase, promotion, or year-end bonus) are reported in Table 4.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1 proposed that there is a direct effect of work-to-home boundary management behaviors such that employees who engage in integration are perceived as having higher levels of organizational commitment as compared to employees who engage in segmentation. Results supported this hypothesis, indicating a significant relationship between work-to-home boundary management behaviors and managerial perceptions of organizational commitment (B = -.39, $p < .001$). Specifically, the results indicate that on average (across home-to-work condition and gender conditions), the employees in the vignettes who engaged in integration behaviors from work-to-home were seen as 'more committed to their organization as compared to those who engaged in segmentation behaviors from work-to-home.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that there is a direct effect of home-to-work boundary management behaviors such that employees who engage in segmentation are perceived as having higher levels of organizational commitment as compared to employees who engage in integration. Results supported this hypothesis, indicating a significant relationship between home-to-work boundary management behaviors and managerial perceptions of organizational commitment (B = .21, p =.001). Specifically, the results indicate that on average (across work-to-home condition and gender conditions), the employees in the vignettes who engaged in

segmentation behaviors from home-to-work were seen as more committed to their organization as compared to those who engaged in integration behaviors from home-to-work.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that there is an interaction between work-to-home boundary management behaviors and home-to-work boundary management behaviors in predicting OC. Specifically, Hypothesis 3 predicted that engaging in integrating as opposed to segmenting behaviors from home-to-work more negatively impacts perceptions of employee organizational commitment when the employee engages in segmenting behaviors from work-to-home as opposed to integrating behaviors from work-to-home. Hypothesis 3 was not supported. The interaction term between home-to-work boundary management behaviors and work-to-home boundary management behaviors was not significant (B = -.04, p = .76).

Hypothesis 4 stated that perceived organizational commitment mediates the relationship between the employee's work-to-home boundary management behavior (Hypothesis 4a), home-to-work boundary management behavior (Hypothesis 4b) and recommendations for salary increase, promotion, and year-end bonus. The total indirect effect (indirect effect across levels of the moderating variables) of work-to-home boundary management behaviors through perceptions of organizational commitment was examined for each of the three outcome variables of interest (recommendation for salary increase, promotion, and year-end bonus). Similarly, the total indirect effect (indirect effect across levels of the moderating variables) of home-to-work boundary management behaviors through perceptions of organizational commitment was examined for each of the three outcome variables of interest (recommendation for salary increase, promotion, and year-end bonus).

The tests of Hypothesis 4a and Hypothesis 4b were conducted using a bootstrap methodology with 10,000 samples, as bootstrapping allows us to circumvent the common issue

of nonnormality of the indirect pathway. This analysis yields a *p*-value and a 95% bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effects being tested. A significant *p*-value and confidence intervals that do not include zero suggest a significant indirect effect, providing support for the mediating relationships predicted in Hypothesis 4a. This approach has been the method of choice for mediation analysis as it allows researchers to forgo the shortcoming associated with the causal steps approach (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Edwards & Lambert, 2007).

Results suggest that managerial perceptions of employee commitment mediate both the relationship between a) work-to-home boundary management behaviors and recommendation for salary increase and b) home-to-work boundary management behaviors and recommendation for salary increase. The indirect effect of work-to-home boundary management behaviors on recommendation for salary increase through managerial perception of organizational commitment was significant, effect =-.25, 95% CI = [-.35, -.16]. The relationship between home-to-work boundary management behaviors and recommendation for salary increase through perceptions of employee commitment was also significant, effect= .14 95% CI = [.05, .24].

Similarly, results suggest that managerial perception of commitment mediates the relationship between boundary management behaviors and managerial recommendation for employee promotion. The indirect path from work-to-home boundary management behaviors to employee promotion recommendation was significant, effect = -.33 95% CI = [-.45, -.20]. The indirect effect of home-to-work boundary management behaviors was also significant, effect = .18, 95% CI = [.07, .29].

Analysis of the third model, with managerial recommendation for year-end bonus as the outcome variable, suggests that managerial perceptions of commitment also mediates the relationship between boundary management behaviors and managerial recommendations for

year-end bonus. The indirect effects for work-to-home boundary management behaviors to year-end bonus through perceptions of commitment was significant, effect = -.16, 95% CI [-.226, -.09]. The indirect effect for home-to-work boundary management behaviors was also significant, effect = .09, 95% CI [.03, .15]. See Table 5 for results regarding the indirect and direct effects for each model.

Hypotheses 5 and 6 predicted two-way interactions between work-to-home boundary management behavior and gender and home-to-work boundary management behavior respectively on managerial perceptions of employee commitment. Specifically, Hypothesis 5 predicted that the impact of work-to-home boundary management behaviors on managerial perceptions of employee's organizational commitment is moderated by employee gender. Hypothesis 6 predicted that the impact of home-to-work boundary management behaviors on managerial perceptions of employees' organizational commitment is also moderated by employee gender. The present study found no evidence for either of these interactions. The interaction between work-to-home boundary management behaviors and gender was not significant (B = -.04, p =.76). Similarly, the interaction between home-to-work boundary management behaviors and gender was not significant (B = .04, p = .78).

Finally, Hypothesis 7 predicted a three-way interactive effect between work-to-home boundary management behaviors, home-to-work boundary management behaviors, and gender on managerial reward recommendations through managerial perceptions of commitment such that the interaction between work-to-home boundary management behaviors and home-to-work boundary management behaviors is stronger when the employee is male (vs. female). Again, there was no evidence of a significant three-way interaction (B = .19, p = .47). In line with this, the index of moderated moderated mediation was not significant for any of the three reward

recommendation outcome variables (for salary increase: *B* =.12, 95% CI [-.21, .45], promotion: *B* =.16, 95% CI [-.27, .58], and year-end bonus: *B* =.08, 95% CI [-.13, .29]), indicating that there was no conditional mediational process occurring.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The goal of the present study was to examine the relationships between boundary management behaviors and managerial reward recommendations. More specifically, this study drew on boundary management theory and the work devotion schema to examine managerial perception of organizational commitment as a possible mediating mechanism between boundary management behaviors and managerial reward recommendations. In addition, the study drew on status characteristics theory to examine the role of employee gender in this process.

The present study is the first to provide empirical evidence linking boundary management behaviors to managerial reward recommendations, suggesting that individuals' boundary management behaviors may in fact have a significant impact on their career outcomes over time. The current research demonstrates that in an experimental setting, boundary management behaviors can have a significant influence on reward recommendations and sets the stage for further research to examine if this finding will replicate in the field. Further, it is the first study to provide a mediating mechanism, perceptions of employee commitment, that explains one process by which this relationship may occur. Results indicate that the boundary management behaviors both from work-to-home and from home-to-work are significantly related to perceptions of employee commitment. Further, these effects were in the direction predicted. There was a negative relationship between segmentation (vs. integration) boundary management behaviors from work-to-home and perceptions of employee commitment. In general, participants of the study judged the employee who integrated from work-to-home as being more committed to work

than the employee who segmented from work-to-home. Additionally, there was a positive relationship between segmentation (vs. integration) boundary management behaviors from home-to-work and managerial perceptions of commitment. Participants evaluated the employee who segmented from home-to-work as more committed to the organization than the employee who engaged in integrating behaviors. Further, employees who were perceived to be more committed (i.e., those who integrated from work-to-home and segmented from home-to-work) received higher endorsement for the organizational rewards of salary increase, promotion, and year-end bonus.

Together these results provide initial evidence that the work devotion schema is an effective framework for understanding the way in which boundary management behaviors impact reward recommendations. According to the work devotion schema, an "ideal worker" is one who puts work demands above all other life demands. Behaviors that indicate that work is an employee's central focus (e.g., integration behaviors from work-to-home and segmentation behaviors from home-to-work) will be interpreted as signs of high levels of work commitment, while behaviors that prioritize other domains besides work (e.g., segmentation behaviors from work-to-home and integration behaviors from home-to-work) will be interpreted as signs of relatively low levels of work commitment.

This study suggests that boundary management behaviors may be interpreted by others as signals of an employee's commitment to work, and that this in turn may impact reward recommendations. These results build on and extend the findings from previous studies that examined use of formal policies created to help employees manage work and home domains. Previous research has found that such policies, including workplace flexibility policies, parental leave polices, and telecommuting programs can lead to a "flexibility stigma" that results in fewer

promotions and raises for those who use them (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; Glass, 2004; Leslie et al., 2012; Munsch, 2016; Wharton et al., 2008).

Although the current study findings await replication in the field, the results lend credence to these past findings by providing additional evidence that behaviors employees engage in around managing the work and home domains may impact career outcomes in the form of salary, promotions, and year-end bonus. Further, the present study extends this area of research by suggesting that the effects of employees' choices regarding the boundaries between work and life extend beyond those that take place around formal organizational policy. Informal choices that employees make every day about how to balance work and home may also be important to consider in research on work-life balance and career outcomes.

Despite the aforementioned significant findings linking boundary management behaviors to career outcomes, there was no evidence of interactive effects between work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management. Rather, the findings suggest that the effects of work-to-home and home-to-work boundary management behaviors are likely additive, and that home-to-work integration was viewed in a similar negative manner regardless of whether the employee integrated or segmented from work-to-home.

These findings are counter to preliminary research on the stigma associated with utilizing formal workplace flexibility policies that indicates that negative perceptions associated with using flexible work policies may be ameliorated when employees are "flexible on flexibility" (Kossek et al., 2016). In other words, utilizing a flexibility policy that allowed integrating home into a time or space traditionally dedicated to work was not seen as negatively when employees readily integrated work back into the home domain, making themselves available to work whenever needed. One possible explanation for why the current research did not have analogous

findings is that unlike the use of formal flexibility policies, which officially sanction a change in the boundaries between work and home, informal boundary management behaviors that occur outside of organizational policy are unsanctioned and therefore perceived as a deviant behavior regardless of work-to-home boundary management behaviors.

Informal integration from home-to-work may even be seen as unauthorized behavior and against organizational policy, and as such it may not be viewed as an action that can be "made up for" by subsequent work-to-home integration. Rather than seeing integration of home to work as a way to optimally balance work and home obligations so as to improve work productivity when paired with work-to-home integration, informal home-to-work integration behaviors may uniformly be viewed as a way to shirk work responsibilities regardless of work-to-home behaviors. This perspective is consistent with research examining outside interruptions while at work as a dimension of counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs). This dimension, often referred to as withdrawal or time banditry, is used to describe behaviors in which an employee "pursues nontask-related activities during work time" (Brock Baskin & McKee, 2019). These nontask activities would include behaviors such as answering family calls during work hours or leaving work during the day to attend to personal matters. Indeed, Spector et al. (2006) suggest that individuals may engage in this type of CWB "as a means of coping with conflicting work and nonwork obligations" (p. 450). However, regardless of employees' reasons for engaging in home-to-work activities or the amount of work they do while at home, these activities may still be viewed as prohibited and signs that the employee is not "an ideal worker" and not as committed to the organization.

Additionally, no support was found for an interaction between gender and work-home boundary management behaviors, contrary to what social role theory and status characteristics

theory would suggest. Both of those theories argue that gender stereotypes influence judgments of behavior in the workplace; however, it is possible that as more women have entered the workforce and traditional gender roles have started to become less salient (Eagly & Wood, 2016), society has started viewing women's level of commitment to work as being more on par with that of their male counterparts.

According to Diekman and Eagly (2000) the characteristics we associate with men and women are likely to change as their roles in society change. As more women enter the workforce men and women's social roles "become more equivalent," and the characteristics we associate with men and women "become more similar" (p. 1172). Diekman and Eagly (2000) demonstrate how this may occur over time. In their study they asked participants to imagine a typical man or woman from either the past, the present or the future. The participants were then asked to rate this individual on stereotypically masculine and feminine characteristics. Diekman and Eagly (2000) found that participants viewed the roles of men and women in society during different historical time periods as becoming more similar over time (i.e., more overlap in gender roles in the present than in the past and more overlap in the future than in the present). Specifically, the female was described as having more traditionally masculine characteristics over time, and her role in society was perceived to change more drastically than the man's role over time.

Given Diekman and Eagly's (2000) findings, it is possible that perceptions regarding men and women's typical roles in society (i.e., men as breadwinners and women as homemakers) have weakened over time. In turn this would be likely to impact the gendered characteristics we have traditionally associated with men and women. This could very well impact our perceptions of gender differences in work commitment. Indeed, although the present study offered no a priori hypotheses regarding the main effect of employee gender on managerial perceptions of employee

commitment, the theoretical rationale for these predictions rested on previous empirical evidence that women are generally stereotypically viewed as more devoted to the home domain and less devoted to the work domain than men (Kacmar et al., 2011; Eagly, 1987; Heilman, 2012; Clarke & Sulsky, 2017). According to status characteristics theory, those stereotyped due to group membership to be lower in an attribute will need to do more to prove they possess such an attribute (e.g., commitment) as compared to those who are generally seen as being higher in the attribute. However, if traditional gender roles regarding work have been weakened, women may no longer be stereotyped to the same extent as having low work commitment. It is possible that this was the case in the present study, as there was no evidence that the female employee was generally seen as less committed to work than the male employee. There was no significant main effect of gender on perceptions of employee commitment ($B = .06$, $p = .39$).

It is possible that as social roles have started to change and more women have entered the workforce employee gender (as manipulated by the name of the employee in each condition) is not salient enough to trigger gender-based stereotypes. However, it is conceivable that in certain contexts, employee gender would have been more salient and played a more important role. For example, Gungor and Biernat (2009) conducted an experimental study in which participants read a vignette describing applicants for a manufacturing job, a job judged by participants to be a masculine type of job. Despite identical qualifications, Gungor and Biernat (2009) found that the female applicant was judged as less likely to be committed to the job as compared to the male applicant.

According to Heilman, Manzi, and Braun (2015), both qualities of the job and employee attributes can "make gender salient …fueling the occurrence of gender bias" in the workplace (p. 96). There is some research to suggest that workplace bias against women is more likely to occur

in male-dominated or stereotypically masculine fields (Davison & Burke, 2000; Glick & Fiske, 2007; Glick, Zion, & Nelson, 1988; Heilman and Blader, 2001), which may explain why Gungor and Biernat (2009) found differences in perceived employee commitment based on gender while the present study did not. Other research suggests that information about a women's status as a mother can influence bias against women when it comes to hiring decisions (Heilman and Okimoto, 2008). In both cases the activation of stereotypes may be because gender becomes particularly salient in these contexts. More scrutiny is likely to be placed on the "token" woman in a highly gendered workplace such as an engineering firm than in a job that is more gender neutral. Similarly, women who have entered motherhood are more likely to be associated with homemaking and caretaking responsibilities than childless women are.

Finally, there was no evidence found to support a three-way interaction between work-to-home boundary management behaviors, home-to-work boundary management behaviors and employee gender. Again, the prediction of an interaction was based on the idea that gender would play a salient role in others' perceptions of employee commitment. However, since gender did not play a role in overall perceptions of employee commitment, I would not expect there to be a three-way interaction between work-to-home boundary management behaviors, home-to-work boundary management behaviors and employee gender. These findings suggest that the work devotion schema may no longer be as "traditionally masculine" as previous researchers have suggested (Blair-Loy, 2001), but may now apply to both genders similarly due to changes in roles and gender stereotyping over time.

Theoretical Contributions

This research makes several contributions to the literature. First, it has implications for the career success literature. Specifically, the dominant views of career success stem from one of

two main perspectives, the contest-mobility perspective or the sponsor-mobility perspective (Ng et al., 2005). The contest mobility perspective suggests that an individual's performance and abilities drive their upward mobility within a company. The sponsor-mobility perspective suggests that an individual's success is driven largely by sponsorship from individuals in positions of power. However, results from the current study suggest that there is an additional predictor of career success that these models fail to address.

Although it awaits replication in the field, the current research suggests that individual differences in managing the work-home interface might impact career outcomes irrespective of performance, possibly with perceptions of organizational commitment acting as a mediating mechanism. Thus, the findings of this study support the importance of the work-devotion schema in understanding career success. The results suggest that individual differences such as commitment that signal being an ideal worker may be important factors to consider in our models of career success. In addition, the results suggest that behaviors that occur at the interface of the work and home domains, rather than only within the work domain, need to be considered in predicting career success.

Second, the current research makes a contribution to the boundary management literature. Much of the extant literature on boundary management has focused on the well-being outcomes associated with boundary management behaviors and has not considered the impact of boundary management on career outcomes (Rothbard & Ollier-Malaterre, 2016). The current research not only extends our understanding of boundary management by linking boundary management behaviors to an outcome that has not previously been examined, but it also helps explain why individuals may not always engage in boundary management behaviors that may enhance well-being .

In particular, research suggests that individuals have higher levels of well-being when they are able to engage in boundary management behaviors that are aligned with their boundary management preferences (Kreiner, 2006). For example, individuals who prefer segmenting from work-to-home will have the best outcomes when they are able to engage in work-to-home segmenting behaviors, while those who prefer to integrate from work-to-home will have better outcomes when they are able to engage in those integrating behaviors. In other words, individuals will have the best well-being outcomes when they are able to engage in boundary management behaviors that are congruent with their boundary management preferences.

However, if negative career consequences (e.g., lower chance of salary increases, promotion, or bonus) are associated with certain boundary management behaviors, it may deter employees from behaving in ways that align with their preferences. Understanding that boundary management behaviors have implications not only for an individual's well-being but also may have career-related consequences, paints a more complex picture of the processes that may influence individual decisions regarding boundary management behaviors.

In addition, the current research further supports work that suggests that boundary management from work-to-home and from home-to-work are distinct constructs and that it is important to take into account directionality when considering the outcomes of boundary management (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006). The results of the current study suggest that the impact of segmentation vs. integration behaviors on perceptions of employee commitment is different depending on whether an employee enacts these behaviors from work-to-home or from home-to-work. Thus, the current research supports the notion that the traditional approach of studying the outcomes of boundary management without considering boundary management

directionality (i.e., managing boundaries from work-to-home vs. from home-to-work) is incomplete.

Finally, the findings of this research regarding gender contribute to the workplace gender stereotyping literature. The null findings regarding the effect of employee gender on perceptions of commitment are consistent with research suggesting that traditional social roles have become les salient over time as contemporary gender roles increasingly overlap. While I am not suggesting that traditional gender roles and stereotyping have disappeared in current society, it may be that specific contexts that make gender particularly salient are now needed to elicit traditional gender role-based stereotypes. These findings suggest that further research needs to be done to better understand the boundary conditions of traditional stereotypical gender role activation in the workplace. Future research should be conducted to establish how contemporary gender roles have evolved and what implications the changes have for gender-based workplace discrimination.

Practical Implications

The present study has several practical implications. The first is that organizations need to consider how boundary management behaviors in their own organization may be impacting managerial reward recommendations, irrespective of actual employee performance. Employees performing at the same level, but who engage in different boundary management behaviors, may progress at different rates through the organization. If it is the goal of the organization to hire and retain talented workers, this could result in dissatisfaction and the turnover of talented workers, which may be problematic to the organization over time. Organizations need to consider if certain boundary management behaviors are integral to job performance. If they are not related

to job performance, then they should not be used as criteria from which to make decisions regarding organizational rewards. Policies and norms within the organization should reflect this.

Specifically, leaders should actively think about what policies and organizational norms around informal work and home boundaries best serve the organization. Leaders should then make sure these are clearly communicated to managers as well as employees. Managers should act in accordance with these expectations. For example, if there are no clear expectations that employees be available after regular work hours to engage in work activities, employees should not be penalized for being unavailable during this time.

This research also has practical implications for understanding how the types of formal policies and informal expectations organizations have surrounding the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs) may impact employee career outcomes. There is increasing interest within the work-family literature in understanding how the use of ICTs impact boundary management. Research suggest that ICTs, technologies that aid in the transmission of communication data, such as smart phones, email, tablets and personal computers, play an increasingly important role in how individuals manage the boundaries between work and home. ICTs allow for a level of permeability between work and home boundaries that most workers did not experience to this extent since before the industrial revolution (Chesley, 2005; Ammons, 2013; Schlachter, McDowall, Cropley, & Inceoglu, 2018). As a result, organizational expectations that employees use ICTs as a tool to integrate work-to-home or refrain from using ICTs to integrate home-to-work may only serve to intensify the effects found in this study, as employees report feeling pressured to be "on-call" for their jobs 24/7 through their ICT devices to demonstrate their commitment to the job (Schlachter et al., 2018).

In recent years there has been a push towards formal policies that limit ICT mediated permeability from work-to-home (Ornstein & Glassberg, 2019). For example, the El Khomri Law passed in France (often referred to as the *Right to Disconnect Law*) requires companies to have rules in place to reduce the negative impact of ICTs on home life and prohibits employers from penalizing workers who do not respond to electronic or cellular communications after hours (Martin, 2017). Such policies, ones that reduce the expectations that employees take work home with them after hours, are likely to reduce the negative consequences of not doing so. Results of the current study suggest that policies such as this may in fact be important if we wish to reduce some of the negative career outcomes associated with certain boundary management behaviors, specifically work-to-home segmentation behaviors.

Limitations

There are several limitations with this study. First, although the experimental nature of this study allowed for greater control and was necessary given the research questions the study was designed to address, experimental studies can lack external validity. While efforts were made to incorporate real-life materials into the study materials, such as a website modelled after a real website and reviews adapted from those used by a real corporation, an online experiment is inherently different from life in the real world. In addition, while the findings of this research are likely to hold in some situations, they may not hold in others. For example, boundary management behaviors may be less important when an employee's performance level is either very high or very low, as compared to average.

In addition, the vignettes that described the employee's boundary management behaviors were set within the context of a consulting firm within corporate America. Results might be different in other types of contexts or certain boundary management behaviors might not even be

relevant to other types of jobs. For example, it would be highly unlikely that a grocery store clerk would engage in high levels of work-to-home boundary management integration. In such a job work tasks are typically confined to work hours. However, it might be that high levels of integration from home-to-work (e.g., stopping to take personal phone calls or leaving regularly during shifts to attend to personal matters) would be seen as even more egregious than in other types of settings.

Along the same vein, another potential limitation of this research is that in some contexts it may be impossible to truly separate boundary management behaviors and performance. In the current research I treated performance and boundary management behaviors as if they were orthogonal constructs. Indeed, in the context that the vignette was set in it was conceivable that an individual's boundary management behaviors were independent of performance, and so it was reasonable to report the employee's performance as consistently average across conditions. However, this may not be the case in other job contexts. Going back to the example of the grocery store clerk, integrating home-to-work is likely to be negatively related to actual job performance as it would impede on the clerk's ability to wait on customers, an integral part of his job. In addition, many professional jobs require work done after work hours to meet client deadlines.

Suggestions for Future Research

Given the findings of the current research, there are several potentially fruitful areas for further research. First, in response to the limitations of the study, further research could be conducted to examine under what conditions the findings of the current research hold. As previously discussed, this study was an experimental study using vignettes. Future research should be carried out to determine if the same results are found in the field. In addition, there

may be certain types of work where, due to the nature of the work, boundary management is less important or where one direction of boundary management (work-to-home vs. home-to-work) becomes more important. It is also possible that findings would be different at different levels of employee performance. For instance, boundary management behaviors might be less relevant for an employee who is an outstanding performer, as their value to the organization is likely clear regardless of their level of organizational commitment. Future research could shed further light on these potential boundary conditions.

In addition, future research could explore what strategies individuals use to minimize the negative outcomes of engaging in boundary management behaviors that do not align with the "ideal worker" who prioritizes work 24 hours a day. Employees who believe that their boundary management behaviors influence managerial reward recommendations may change or conceal their behaviors in order to minimize negative outcomes. Understanding what steps individuals take to maximize well-being outcomes of boundary management while minimizing negative career consequences would help scholars better understand individuals' decisions to engage in certain boundary management behaviors over others. Individuals whose preferred boundary management behavior does not align with that of the "ideal worker" may a) change their behaviors to align with those expected of the ideal worker, b) continue to engage in their preferred boundary management behavior but use strategies to conceal these behaviors, or c) engage in preferred boundary management behaviors without any efforts to conceal behaviors. Future research could examine these potential strategies and their consequences for employee careers and well-being. Research in this area could also shed further light on how workers evaluate the trade-offs when it comes to choosing to engage in different boundary management behaviors.

It would also be fruitful to consider individual differences on the part of the manager that may moderate the relationship between employee's boundary management behaviors and manager perceptions of employee commitment. Specifically, it is the possible that the manager's own boundary management preferences play a key role in this process. Managers who themselves have boundary management preferences that are less aligned with that of the "ideal worker" (i.e., those who prefer to segment from work-to-home or integrate from home-to-work) may not view employees as negatively for engaging in such behaviors. The boundary management behaviors of employees in such circumstances may be less important. Looking at the possible moderating effects of managers' own boundary management behaviors could help explain additional variance that we see in perceptions of employee commitment and ultimately the recommendation of career outcomes.

Conclusion

This research examined the relationship between boundary management behaviors and career success. Overall, the current research provides evidence that, holding actual performance constant, boundary management behaviors have implications for career success as measured by managerial reward recommendations. Further, the current research suggests that managerial perception of employee commitment acts as the mediating mechanism in this relationship. This research has theoretical implications for boundary management theory and our understanding of factors influencing career success. It also has implications regarding individual employees' boundary management behaviors and organizational policy and expectations surrounding boundary management behaviors.

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Table 1

Correlations Between Dependent Variables

	1	2	3	4
1. Perceived commitment	--			
2. Recommendation for salary increase	0.50*	--		
3. Recommendation for promotion	0.53*	0.54*	--	
4. Recommendation for bonus	0.28*	0.56*	0.36*	--

*p <.001

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of Dependent Variables

	M	SD
1. Perceived commitment	3.56	0.67
2. Recommendation for salary increase	3.82	0.88
3. Recommendation for promotion	3.26	1.10
4. Recommendation for bonus	2.7	0.76

Table 3

Regression Results for Perceptions of Employee Commitment

Predictor	*B*	*SE*	β	*Z*	*p* (95% CI)
Work-to-home behaviors	-0.39	0.06	-0.29	-5.98	<.001 (-. 51, .-.26)
Home-to-work behaviors	0.21	0.06	0.21	3.13	<.01 (.09, .34)
Gender	0.06	0.06	0.04	0.86	0.39 (-.07, .18)
Work-to-home x Home-to-work	-0.04	0.13	-0.02	-0.31	0.76 (-.29, .21)
Work-to-home x Gender	0.04	0.13	0.02	0.31	0.76 (-.21, .29)
Home-to-work x Gender	0.04	0.13	0.01	0.28	0.78 (-.22, .29)
Home-to-work x Work-to-home x Gender	0.19	0.26	0.04	0.72	0.47 (-.32, .69)

Note. B is the unstandardized regression coefficient, β is the standardized regression coeffcient

Table 4

Regression Results for Recommendation for Salary Increase, Promotion, and Year-end Bonus

Predictor	*B*	*SE*	β	*Z*	*p* (95% CI)
	Salary Increase				
Work-to-home behaviors	0.04	0.08	0.02	0.49	0.62 (-.12, .20)
Home-to-Work behaviors	0.12	0.08	0.07	1.52	0.14 (-.04, .26)
Perceived Commitment	0.65	0.06	0.50	9.76	<.001 (.52,.78)
Work-to-home x Home-to-work	-0.02	0.15	-0.004	-0.10	0.92 (-.31, .29)
	Promotion				
Work-to-home behaviors	-0.03	0.10	-0.01	-0.28	0.78 (-.22, .17)
Home-to-Work behaviors	0.`17	0.10	0.08	1.78	0.07 (-.02, .36)
Perceived Commitment	0.84	0.08	0.51	11.15	<.001 (.70, .99)
Work-to-home x Home-to-work	-0.02	0.19	-0.01	-0.11	0.91 (-.39, .35)
	Year-end Bonus				
Work-to-home behaviors	0.31	0.07	0.20	4.19	<.001 (.16, .45)
Home-to-Work behaviors	-0.18	0.07	-0.12	-2.56	0.01 (-.04, -.18)
Perceived Commitment	0.41	0.06	0.37	7.45	<.001 (.30, .52)
Work-to-home x Home-to-work	0.74	0.14	0.25	5.31	<.001 (.47, 1.01)

Note. B is the unstandardized regression coefficient, β is the standardized regression coeffcient

Table 5

Total Indirect and direct effects of Boundary Management behaviors on recommendation for Salary Increase, Promotion, and Year-end Bonus.

	Indirect effects								
	Salary Increase			Promotion			Year-end Bonus		
	Effect (*SE*)	LCL	UCL	Effect (*SE*)	LCL	UCL	Effect (*SE*)	LCL	UCL
Work-to-home behaviors	**-0.25 (.05)**	**-0.35**	**-0.15**	**-0.33 (.06)**	**-0.45**	**-0.20**	**-0.16 (.03)**	**-0.23**	**-0.09**
Home-to-work behaviors	**0.14 (.04)**	**0.05**	**0.24**	**0.18 (.06)**	**0.07**	**0.29**	**0.09 (.03)**	**0.03**	**0.15**
	Direct effects								
	Salary Increase			Promotion			Year-end Bonus		
	Effect (*SE*)	LCL	UCL	Effect (*SE*)	LCL	UCL	Effect (*SE*)	LCL	UCL
Work-to-home behaviors	0.04 (.08)	-0.13	0.19	-0.03 (.10)	-0.22	0.17	**0.31 (.07)**	**0.16**	**0.45**
Home-to-work behaviors	0.12 (.08)	-0.05	0.28	0.17 (.10)	-0.02	0.36	**-0.18 (.07)**	**-0.32**	**-0.04**

Confidence levels represent a 95% confidence interval. Effects in bold represent statistically significant effects.

Appendix A

Consent Letter

I am a researcher in the Department of Psychology at The University of Georgia. I am asking you to participate in a research study entitled Boundary Management and Career Outcomes. The purpose of this study is to better understand the decision process managers use when making decisions regarding the allocation of organizational rewards. Please take a moment to read the following before you decide whether to consent to participate in the study.

In order to participate, you must be 18 years of age or older, work at least 35 hours per week in paid employment outside of Mechanical Turk, and be a current resident of the United States.

The study will take about 15 minutes to complete and will consist of a survey. Your participation in the study is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate or to stop at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you decide to stop or withdraw from the study, the information/data collected from or about you up to the point of your withdrawal will be kept as part of the study and may continue to be analyzed.

The results of the research study may be published, but your name or any identifying information will not be used. In fact, the published results will be presented in summary form only.

The findings from this project may provide information on how people manage work and family. There is no anticipated risk or discomfort associated with this research. You will be compensated $1 for your participation through Mechanical Turk.

This research involves the transmission of data over the Internet. Every reasonable effort has been taken to ensure the effective use of available technology; however, confidentiality during online communication cannot be guaranteed.

While the primary purpose of the current data collection effort is to collect data for the Boundary Management and Career Outcomes study, it is possible that your deidentified data may be shared with other researchers or used to answer additional research questions in the future.

The principal investigator for this research is Dr. Kristen Shockley of the University of Georgia. If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to email co-researcher, Rose LeFevre-Levy, at rl24119@uga.edu. Questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant should be directed to The Chairperson, University of Georgia Institutional Review Board, telephone (706) 542-3199; email address irb@uga.edu.

By clicking “I consent to participate” below, you are agreeing to participate in the above described research project.

Thank you for your interest in our study!
Sincerely,
Rose LeFevre-Levy

Eligibility Screening

Are you 18 years of age or older?

[Answer must be yes to continue]

1. Yes
2. No

Do you work at least 35 hours a week at a job outside of Mturk?

[Answer must be yes to continue]

1. Yes
2. No

Throughout your career, have you had at least one year of customer service experience?

1. Yes
2. No

[If yes,…]

Which industry best describes the customer service position you have been employed in?

1. Retail
2. Food services
3. Professional/Office work
4. Administrative/Clerical work
5. Other

Throughout your career, have you had at least one year working in the field of education?

1. Yes
2. No

[If yes,…]

Which of the following best describe the type of educational position you have been employed in?

1. Teacher/ Teaching assistant
2. Principal/ Assistant principal
3. Superintendent

4. Support staff
5. Education administrator
6. Other

Throughout your career, have you had at least one year of managerial experience (had at least one employee report directly to you)?

[Must answer yes to continue]

1. Yes
2. No

Which industry best describes the management position you have been employed in?

1. Business or Financial sector
2. Computer technologies or Mathematics sector
3. Architecture and Engineering sector
4. Life, Physical, and Social science sector
5. Legal sector
6. Education, Training, and Library sector
7. Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media sector
8. Healthcare sector
9. Protective Services sector
10. Food preparation and serving sector
11. Grounds Cleaning and Maintenance sector
12. Personal care and service sector
13. Sales sector
14. Office and Administrative support
15. Farming, Fishing, or Forestry
16. Construction sector
17. Installation, Maintenance, and Repair sector
18. Production sector
19. Transportation and Material moving sector
20. Other

How long have you been employed at your current organization?

1. Less than one year
2. 1-3 years
3. 4-6 years
4. 7-9 years
5. 10 or more years

Are you a resident of the United States?

[Must answer yes to continue]

1. Yes

2. No

What state or region do you live in?

What is the highest level of education you have received?

1. Some high school
2. A high school degree
3. An associate's degree
4. A bachelor's degree
5. A post-graduate degree

Manipulation

[Page 1]

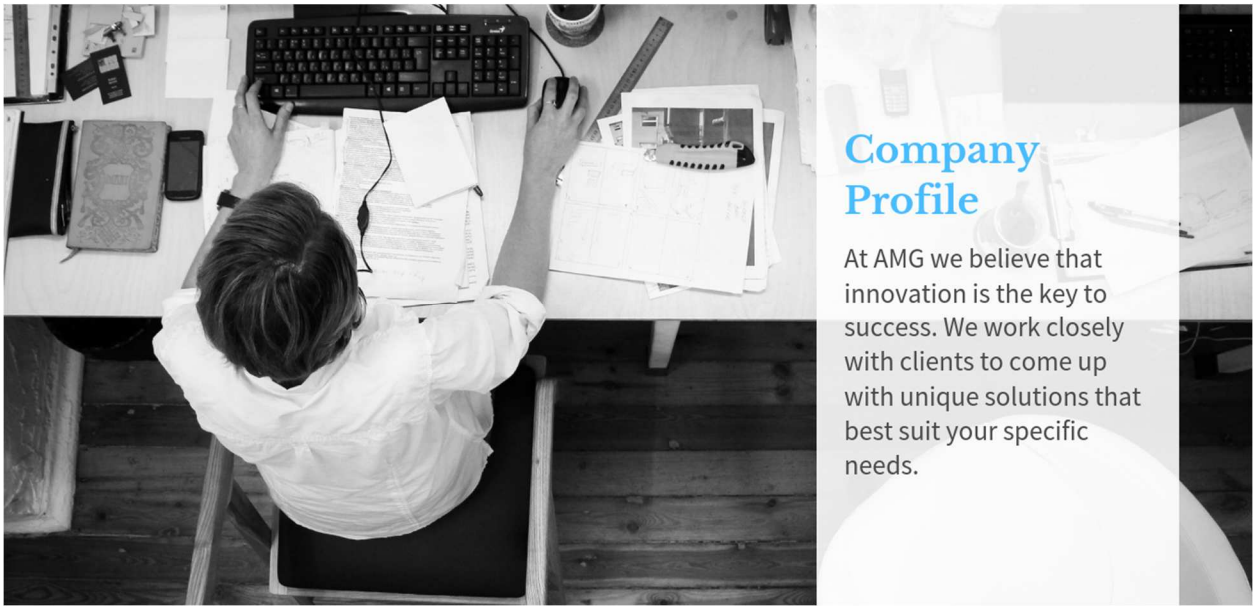
Take a moment to imagine you are a senior manager at AMG, a large marketing consulting firm. The firm specializes in working with businesses to help them understand their customers' needs and behaviors. AMG prides itself on having a hardworking and skilled workforce.

[Page 2]

Next, you will be provided with several pages from AMG's website. Please take a moment to familiarize yourself with the company by reading through the content on each page.

[Required to stay on page for 5 seconds]

[Required to stay on page for 5 seconds]



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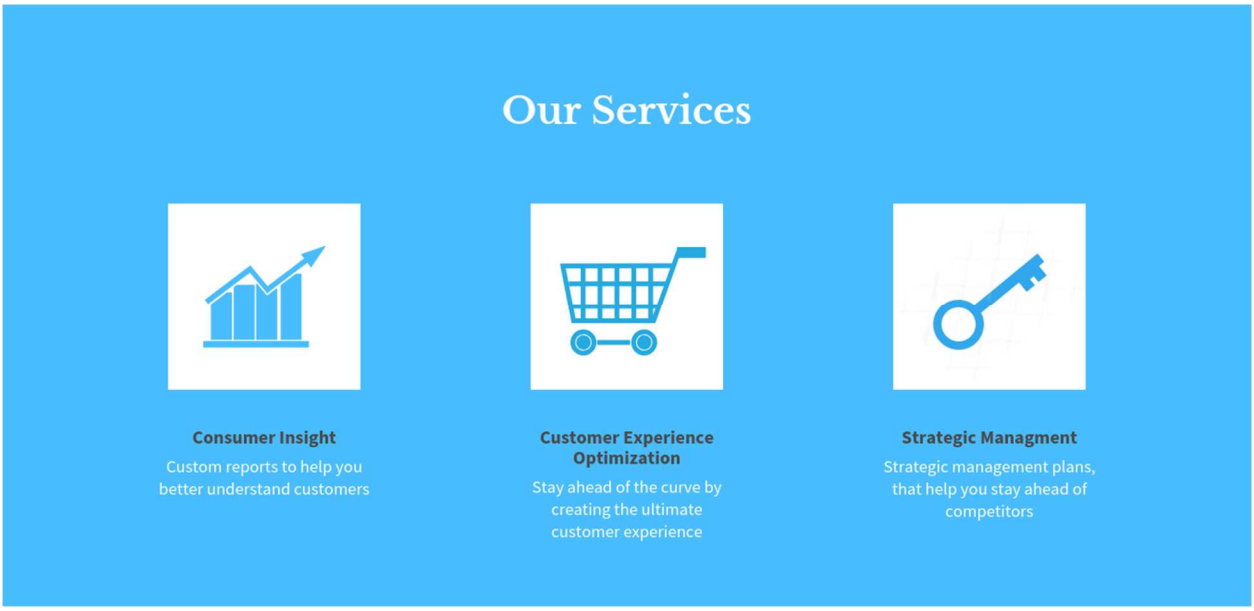

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[Page 3]

At the end of each fiscal year AMG reviews the performance of its employees to determine which employees should receive end of year bonuses and be considered for promotion and salary increase. The company's policy is to award bonuses and promotion on the basis of employee performance.

Please assume the role of a senior manager at AMG. As a senior manager it is your job to review your employees' performance records before meeting with your boss to make recommendations *regarding end of year bonuses and promotions for those that you supervise. AMG uses a 360 degree performance feedback review process, which means that employees receive feedback from all directions - including their managers and colleagues on their same level.*

[Page 4]

As a manager, you have received the following project and year-end performance reviews for Mike [Mary] Anderson, a marketing analyst. Please carefully read over these reviews in preparation for making salary and promotion recommendations for Mike [Mary].

[Page 5]

AMG Engagement/Project Review

Employee Name:	Mike [Mary] Anderson
Employee Title:	Marketing Analyst
Performance Year:	2018
Client Name:	Ashford Natural Foods
Team Project Manager:	Jamie Harris

Summary of Employee's Role and Employee's Contribution to the Project

Mike [Mary] served as one of our main market analysts on this project. His [Her] major role was to gather and analyze data on consumer demographics for our client through the creation of questionnaires and by facilitating focus groups. He [she] played a secondary role in gathering and analyzing data on our client's competitors.

Team Project Manager Feedback

Mike [Mary] made some helpful contributions to the project. He [she] was able to collect relevant data and communicate it to the client. He [she] has developed the level of analytic proficiency that we expect of our marketing analysts at this point in their careers.

Overall, Mike [Mary] met the majority of agreed upon performance expectations for this project. Mike [Mary] receives a rating of 3, meets standards, for this project.

Rating Scale for Engagement/Project Review	
5.	**Exceptional**- Substantially and consistently surpassed goals, performance and contribution expectations
4.	**Above Standards**- Achieved all agreed upon goals/contributions
3.	**Meets Standards**- Achieved the majority of agreed upon goals/contributions
2.	**Below Standards**- Results are mixed but achieved some agreed upon goals/contributions
1.	**Unsatisfactory**- Did not achieve majority of agreed upon goals/contributions

Team Project Manager's Rating for Employee

3. Meets Standards- Achieved the majority of agreed upon performance/contribution expectations

Team Member Feedback

Condition 1 (Segmenting work-to-home/ Segmenting home-to-work):

There were a number of times when I emailed Mike [Mary] outside of regular work hours to get some information that I needed for our client project. He [she] was often not available during evening hours to get me the information. However, he [she] got me the information in time, allowing me to finish up the work and get it in by the deadline.

Mike [Mary] was available during business hours to help with anything that came up. Whenever I needed him [her] to help, I could generally find him at his desk. He [she] seemed to work hard to make sure that he [she] was not distracted by family or anything else outside of work. Mike [Mary] was always able to provide me what I needed in time, so we could keep the project on schedule.

Condition 2 (Integrating work-to-home/ Segmenting home-to-work):

There were a number of times when I emailed Mike [Mary] outside of regular work hours to get some information that I needed for our client project. He [she] was generally available to get me the information in time, allowing me to finish up the account work and get it in by the deadline.

Mike [Mary] was available during business hours to help with anything that came up. Whenever I needed him [her] to help, I could generally find him [her] at his [her] desk. He [she]seemed to work hard to make sure that he [she] was not distracted by family or anything else outside of work. Mike [Mary] was always able to provide me what I needed in time, so we could keep the project on schedule.

Condition 3 (Integrating work-to-home/ Integrating home-to-work):

There were a number of times when I emailed Mike [Mary] outside of regular work hours to get some information that I needed for our client project. He [she] was generally available to

get me the information in time, allowing me to finish up the account work and get it in by the deadline.

Mike [Mary] also was available during business hours to help with anything that came up. Whenever I needed him [her] to help, I could generally find him [her] at his desk. There were a number of occasions when I walked by and noticed that he [she] was answering personal emails or texts. However, Mike [Mary] was always able to provide me what I needed in time, so we could keep the project on schedule.

Condition 4 (Segmenting work-to-home/ Integrating home-to-work):

There were a number of times when I emailed Mike [Mary] outside of regular work hours to get some information that I needed for our client project. He [she] was often not available during evening hours to get me the information. However, he [she] got me the information in time, allowing me to finish up the work and get it in by the deadline.

Mike [Mary] was available during business hours to help with anything that came up. Whenever I needed him [her] to help, I could generally find him [her] at his [his] desk. There were a number of occasions when I walked by and noticed that he [she] was answering personal emails or texts. However, Mike [Mary] was always able to provide me with what I needed in time, so we could keep the project on schedule.

Rating Scale for Engagement/Project Review	
5.	**Exceptional**- Substantially and consistently surpassed performance and contribution expectations
4.	**Above Standards**- Achieved all agreed upon performance/contribution expectations
3.	**Meets Standards**- Achieved the majority of agreed upon performance/contribution expectations
2.	**Below Standards**- Results are mixed but achieved some agreed upon performance/contribution expectations
1.	**Unsatisfactory**- Did not achieve majority of agreed upon performance/contribution expectations

Average Team Member Rating for Employee

3. Meets Standards- Achieved the majority of agreed upon performance/contribution expectations3

Mike Anderson 6/23/18

Employee Signature *Date*

Jamie Harris 6/23/18

Team Project Manager Signature *Date*

[Page 6]

AMG Overall Year-End Assessment

Employee Name:	Mike [Mary] Anderson
Employee Title:	Marketing Analyst
Employee Start Date:	05/10/2016
Counselor Name:	Jamie Harris
Counselor Title:	Manager
Performance Year:	2018

Year-End

Brief Description of Employee's Areas of Strength/Development Opportunities

Mike [Mary] has been a solid contributor to the success of our marketing group. He [she] displays a practical approach to solving problems that come up. The quality and quantity of his [her] work is as we would expect for an employee finishing their second year in a market analyst position.

Comment on Employee's Attainment of Annual Goals

Mike's [Mary's] goal for the 2018 fiscal year was to increase his [her] billable hours by 15%. He [she] met this goal, logging the average number of billable hours a week for a marketing analyst.

Rating Scale for Year-End Review	
5.	**Exceptional**- Substantially and consistently surpassed goals, performance and contribution expectations
4.	**Above Standards**- Achieved all agreed upon goals/contributions
3.	**Meets Standards**- Achieved the majority of agreed upon goals/contributions
2.	**Below Standards**- Results are mixed but achieved some agreed upon goals/contributions
1.	**Unsatisfactory**- Did not achieve majority of agreed upon goals/contributions

AMG Management Rating for Employee

3. Meets standards- Achieved the majority of agreed upon goals/contribution

Mike Anderson — 12/11/18

Employee Signature — *Date*

Jamie Harris — 12/11/18

Team Project Manager Signature — *Date*

Appendix B

Survey

[Section 1]

Perceived Organizational Commitment

Manager-Rated Affective Commitment (Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995)

Mike [Mary] appears to be highly committed to the organization.

1. Disagree completely
2. Disagree
3. Neither agree nor disagree
4. Agree
5. Agree completely

Mike [Mary] appears to be "emotionally attached" to this organization.

1. Disagree completely
2. Disagree
3. Neither agree nor disagree
4. Agree
5. Agree completely

Mike [Mary] really cares about the fate of this organization.

1. Disagree completely
2. Disagree
3. Neither agree nor disagree
4. Agree
5. Agree completely

Reward Recommendations

Reward Recommendations (modified from Allen & Rush, 1998)

Directions: Please indicate the extent that you would recommend this employee for each of the following organizational rewards.

How strongly would you recommend Mike [Mary] for a salary increase?

1. Would definitely NOT recommend
2. Would probably NOT recommend
3. Neutral

4. Would recommend with some minor reservations
5. Would recommend without reservation

How strongly would you recommend Mike [Mary] for promotion?

1. Would definitely NOT recommend
2. Would probably NOT recommend
3. Neutral
4. Would recommend with some minor reservations
5. Would recommend without reservation

Each year AMG considers its employees for a bonus between that ranges between 0-8% of an employee's yearly salary. The average year-end bonus for market analysts is 4%.

What year-end bonus would you recommend for Mike?

1. 0% of yearly salary
2. 2% of yearly salary
3. 4% of yearly salary
4. 6% of yearly salary
5. 8% of yearly salary

[Section 2]

Manipulation checks

What was the gender of the employee whose file you reviewed?

1. Male
2. Female

What were the year-end performance ratings of the employee whose file you reviewed?

1. Exceptional- Substantially and consistently surpassed goals, performance and contribution expectations
2. Above Standards- Achieved all agreed goals/contributions
3. Meets Standards- Achieved the majority of agreed upon goals/contributions
4. Below Standards- Results are mixed but achieved some agreed upon goals/contributions
5. Unsatisfactory- Did not achieve majority of agreed upon goals/contributions

Does the employee respond to interruptions from his [her] home-life while at work?

1. Yes
2. No

Does the employee respond to interruptions from his [her] work-life while at home?

1. Yes
2. No

Please describe what you remember about the way the employee handles work situations after work hours.

Please describe what you remember about the way the employee handles non-work intrusions during work hours.
Do you have any other comments or concerns about the study?

You have reached the end of the main part of the study. Thank you for your participation. **Please continue to the next page to answer some additional questions.**

[Section 3]

You have reached the end of the main part of the study. Thank you for your participation. Please continue to the next page to answer some additional questions.

Demographics Information

Please specify your gender.
1. Male
2. Female
3. Other

What is your age?

Please specify your ethnicity.
1. White
2. Hispanic or Latino
3. Black or African American
4. Native American or American Indian
5. Asian / Pacific Islander
6. Other

How many hours do you work each week, NOT counting work on Mechanical Turk?

How many children do you have?

What is your current marital status?
1. Single
2. Married
3. Living with partner but not married
4. Divorced
5. Widowed
6. Separated

Appendix C

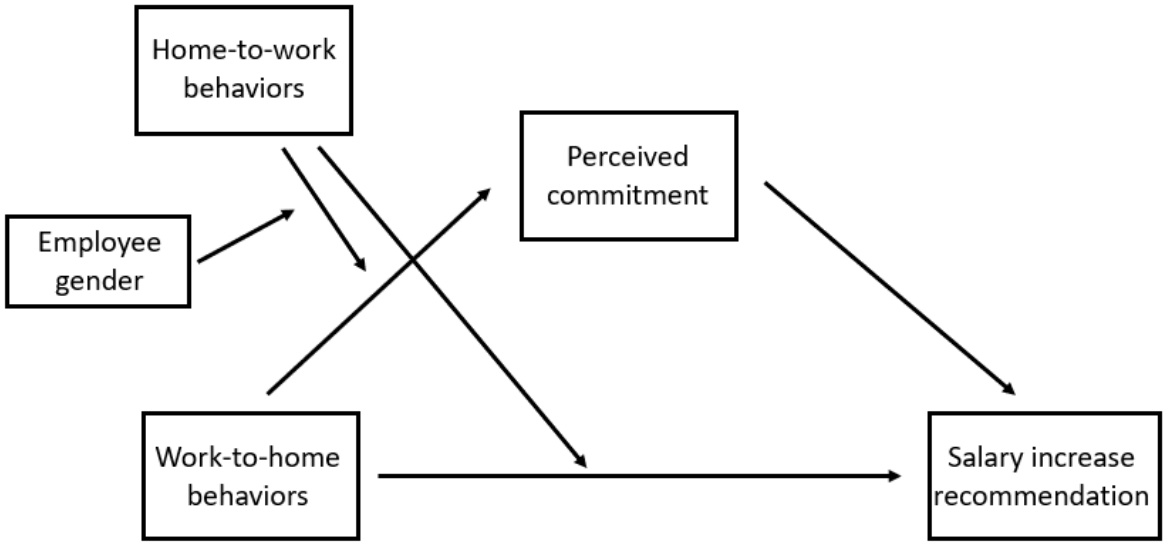

Figure 1. Model A examines the relationship between boundary management behaviors and salary increase recommendation.

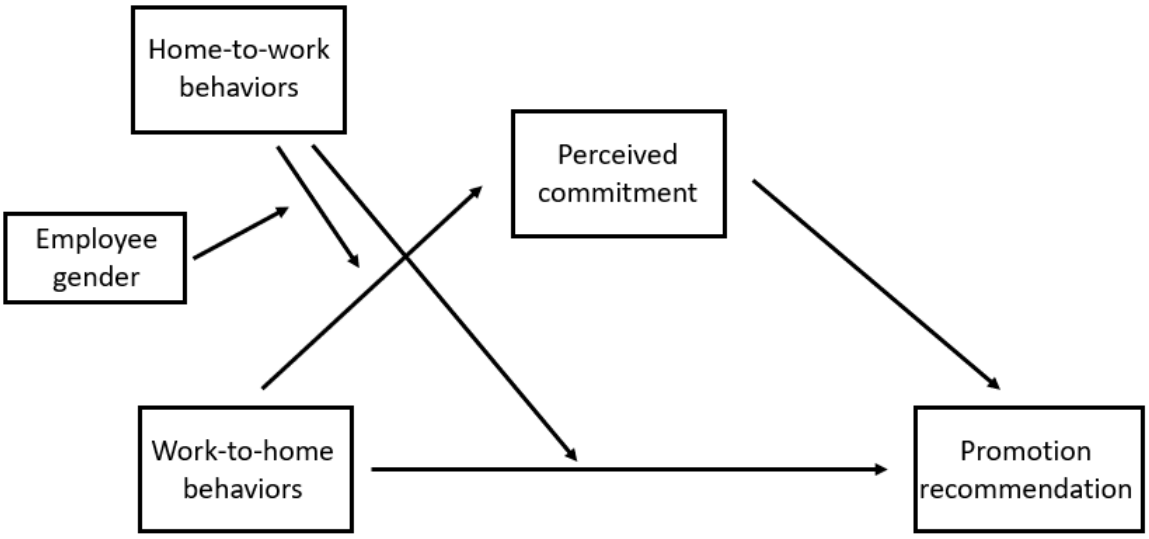

Figure 2. Model B examines the relationship between boundary management behaviors and promotion recommendation.

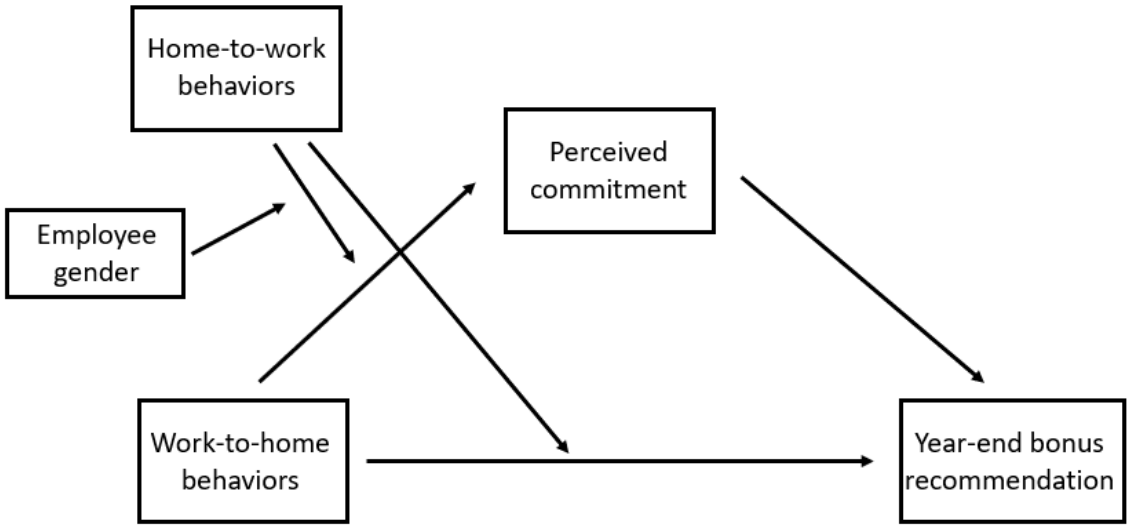

Figure 3. Model C examines the relationship between boundary management behaviors and year-end bonus recommendation.

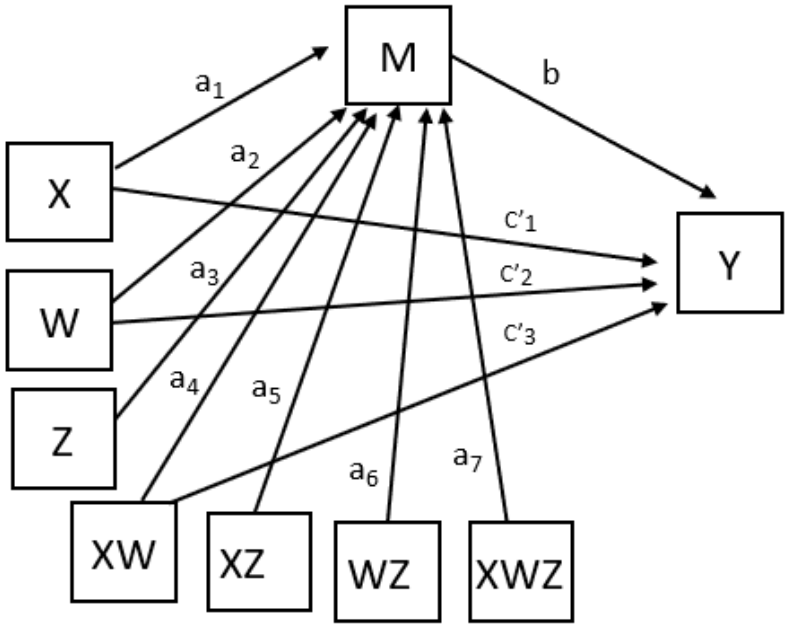

Figure 4. Statistical diagram for models A, B, and C.

Note.
X = Work-to-home boundary management behaviors
W= Home-to-work boundary management behaviors
Z = Employee gender
M= Perceptions of employee commitment
Y= Reward recommendation (Salary increase, Promotion, Year-end bonus)

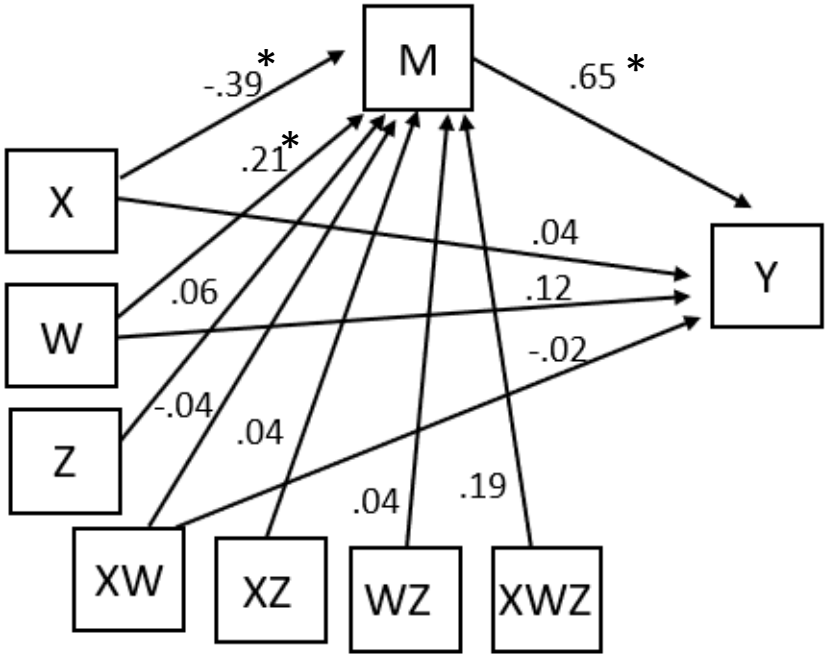

Figure 5. Statistical diagram of Model A with path estimates.

Note.
*p<.05
X = Work-to-home boundary management behaviors
W= Home-to-work boundary management behaviors
Z = Employee gender
M= Perceptions of employee commitment
Y= Recommendation for salary increase

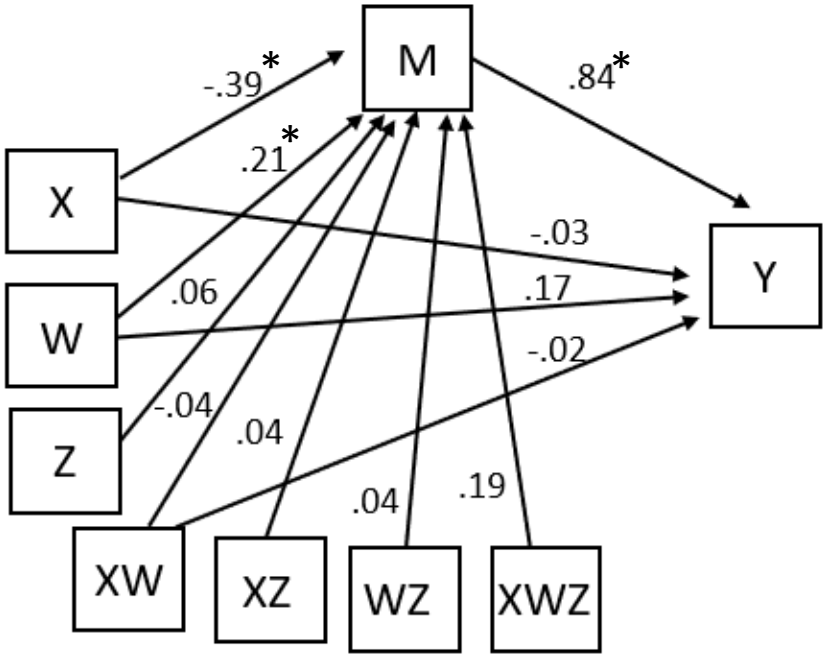

Figure 6. Statistical diagram of Model B with path estimates.

Note.
*p<.05
X = Work-to-home boundary management behaviors
W= Home-to-work boundary management behaviors
Z = Employee gender
M= Perceptions of employee commitment
Y= Recommendation for promotion

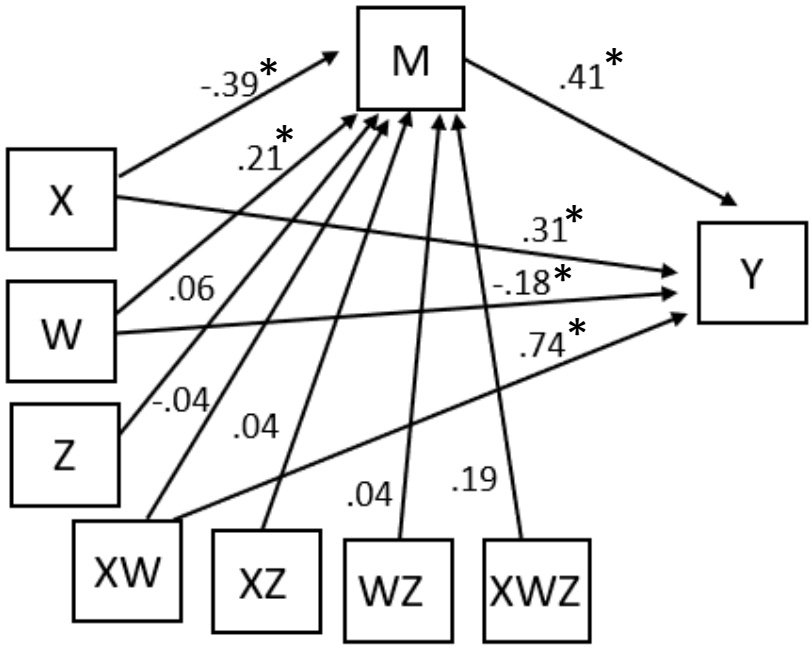

Figure 7. Statistical diagram of Model C with path estimates.

Note.
*p<.05
X = Work-to-home boundary management behaviors
W= Home-to-work boundary management behaviors
Z = Employee gender
M= Perceptions of employee commitment
Y= Recommendation for year-end bonus