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Managing Work and Life: The Impact of Framing

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Managing Work and Life: The Impact of Framing

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Abstract

The frame of mind with which one approaches work-life challenges can impact the decisions made, the roles a person invests in, and satisfaction with one's decisions. The purpose of this study was threefold: 1) to review and compare the three traditional work-life frames of conflict, enrichment, and balance; 2) to introduce a new frame for work-life management, proactive reflection or "proflection," and; 3) to test whether approaching work-life management with a particular frame differentially affects an individual's work-life satisfaction when presented with a scenario with multiple role demands. It was hypothesized that enrichment, balance, and proflection frames will lead to significantly more positive work-life satisfaction, whereas a conflict frame will lead to significantly lower satisfaction, compared to a control condition. Data were collected from 171 participants via a survey on MechanicalTurk (48.2% male, 51.8% female; age $M = 35.40$ [$SD = 12.46$]). Participants were randomly assigned to the four framing and control conditions and asked to indicate how they would respond to a challenging scenario with multiple role demands. They were then directed to rate their satisfaction with each role based on their choices, satisfaction with the extent to which interacting roles helped or hurt each other, and satisfaction with roles in their own personal lives. Multiple regression analyses indicated that framing approach was significantly related to scenario role satisfaction ($R^2 = .072$, $p = .014$, 95% CI [.0002, .143]), role interaction satisfaction ($R^2 = .056$, $p = .047$, 95% CI [.001, .111]), and was unrelated to personal life role satisfaction ($R^2 = .01$, $p = .824$). The balance frame led to significantly lower satisfaction than the control condition for scenario role satisfaction ($\beta = -.36$, $p = .01$, 95% CI [-.645,

-.082]) and role interaction satisfaction (β = -.41, p = .01, 95% CI [-.706, -.119]). This study draws attention to the importance of being able to choose one's framing approach for intentional and strategic work-life management, as well as the negative effects of balance that are contrary to prior research.

CHAPTER I
Introduction and Chapter Review

Managing work and life is complex. The typical person today has multiple roles to attend to. At any given moment there are reports to write, birthday cards to mail, grocery shopping to do, soccer practices to attend, doctors' appointments to make, vacations to plan, and so on. Individuals are continually engaging in multiple roles during daily life—employee, parent, friend, spouse, student, self—each with their own needs and choices to be made about where to spend time and resources. What's more, these roles do not exist in a vacuum. They run into, interact with, and affect each other. When pulled in so many directions, how does one decide what to do?

How work-life encounters are framed impacts how a person understands and deals with these moments of intersecting roles—the decisions and choices he or she makes about where to invest time and resources, how satisfied they are with the decisions made, and how their roles work with or against each other. When multiple roles intersect, could there be a way of thinking about and approaching these situations that leads to greater satisfaction with choices made and a greater likelihood of roles working together? Perhaps there is a frame of mind one could take on that leads to decisions where roles are making the most of finite time and resources, instead of competing for them.

This study aims to answer two research questions: (1) Does framing have an impact on the work-life choices that people make about where to spend their time and resources, as well as their subsequent satisfaction in managing multiple roles? (2) Do different frames affect the extent to which the roles are perceived as competing with or complementing one another?

The following sections review the role that framing plays in cognitive decision-making processes and then discuss the historical ways that work-life management has been typically framed in research, namely conflict, enrichment, and balance. A fourth framing possibility for work-life management—proflection—will be introduced. Common gaps in the literature will be explored focusing on the limited work on decision-making and coping strategies in the work-life domain, narrow conceptualizations of satisfaction as an outcome, and lack of empirical studies allowing causal statements. Finally, the hypotheses explored in this study are presented.

Impact of Framing

Verbal and written language are the main way people communicate, and how messages are worded can affect their beliefs, attitudes, and actions (Cornelissen & Wener, 2014; Kegan & Lahey, 2001; Piñon & Gambara, 2005). In other words, the terms or words that individuals pick or are presented with effects how people process and use information. A prime example of this is the influence framing can have on decision-making. Framing is concerned with how an individual builds internal models of a problem that requires a decision and how those models determine the subsequent choices they make (Maule & Villejoubert, 2007). In the development of prospect theory, Kahnemen and Tversky (1979) introduced the notion that differently framed information contributes to evaluating that information as more positive or negative, impacting how decisions are made. Through their studies, they found that when given objectively equal options, people tend to be more risk averse when presented with a gain frame that focuses on maximizing positive outcomes, and more risk seeking when presented with a loss frame that focuses on minimizing negative outcomes (Kahneman & Tversky, 1984;

Tversky & Kahneman, 1981). Simply put, people change their preferences and subsequent decisions based on whether information was framed more negatively or positively. Based on this work, Levin, Schneider, and Gaeth (1998) developed a typology that distinguishes between three types of framing: (a) risky choice framing, where the outcomes of a choice are described in different ways and differ in level of risk; (b) goal framing, where the goal of an action or desired behavior is framed positively as something to be achieved or negatively as something to be avoided, both aimed at increasing the evaluation of a choice; and (c) attribute framing, where one aspect is altered to prompt positive or negative associations.

Framing effects have been documented across a wide variety of disciplines and have been found to affect medical and clinical decisions, perceptual judgments, consumer choices, bargaining behaviors, and political decision making (Levin et al., 1998; Maule & Villejoubert, 2007). The power of framing is also likely to affect work-life decision-making. In this context, roles intersect and compete for resources, but an individual's way of viewing the information is likely affected by the frame he or she adopts (e.g., viewing the situation as a gain versus loss opportunity). This study will use attribute framing, where one aspect of the message will be framed differently (i.e., how to approach the work-life situation) and the impact of framing will be assessed by comparing favorability ratings among framing conditions, in this case, the satisfaction that people experience with the choices that they make.

Attribute Framing

In attribute framing, just one characteristic or aspect is the focus of manipulation to prompt either positive or negative associations that lead to favorable or unfavorable

responses to a choice (Levin et al., 1998). The information that is framed differently is not the outcome of a choice as in risky choice or goal framing, but a single attribute or characteristic of something that affects people's perception of attraction to it. The outcome of interest here is not choosing one option over another, but rather the overall effect of framing on the evaluation of satisfaction. As an example, one of the more common areas of research employing attribute framing is consumer judgment. A study investigating the effects of product labeling found that ground beef labeled as 75% lean (a positive frame) was rated as better tasting than ground beef labeled as 25% fat (a negative frame; Levin & Gaeth, 1988). Overall, research has found that attributes are judged more favorably when they are framed in positive rather than negative terms (Piñon & Gambara, 2005).

In the context of work-life management, frames used to handle multiple roles intersecting that have more positive or more negative terms will lead to different evaluations of those framing approaches. For this study, the frame used to approach a work-life situation is expected to influence the level of satisfaction people experience. The common frames that people use when faced with work-life choices are outlined below.

Historical Framing of Work-Life Management

Work-life management research has shifted focus to different aspects throughout its history and development (Moen, 2011). Historically, work-life framing has taken three main forms: conflict, enrichment, and balance. Briefly defined, conflict is the extent to which demands in one role are incompatible with demands in another role due to time, strain, and/or behavior. Enrichment is the extent to which resources in one role (e.g.,

knowledge, emotional state, capital) can be transferred and shared with other roles to improve quality of life. Lastly, balance is the extent to which time, involvement, and satisfaction are distributed and experienced across roles.

In terms of the proportion of research in each area, within the research community work-life conflict is commonly recognized as the most studied (e.g., Allen, 2013; Chang, McDonald, & Burton, 2009; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). A search on PsycINFO yields only 32 results for work-life enrichment, 371 for work-life conflict, and 890 for work-life balance (as searched on July 8th, 2014); granted, there is some overlap in the articles pulled due to the terms "work" and "life." While conflict may be the most studied as a construct, the term "work-life balance" appears to be in more widespread use.

Conflict, enrichment, and balance all have foundations in role theory, but each highlights a different aspect of how multiple roles may interact. Role theory posits that everyday life consists of engaging in and acting out multiple socially defined categories, or roles (Goode, 1960; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964); these roles each have a particular pattern of expectations that persist regardless of who occupies the role (Sieber, 1974). For example in a work role, employees are expected to perform job tasks. One of the main differences between conflict, enrichment, and balance lies in how they view the interaction of resources (e.g., time, energy) between multiple roles—as either limiting where there is not enough to go around, magnifying where roles can share and amplify resources, or holistic where it is an overall appraisal across all roles.

Before reviewing the history of the three most common conceptualizations, some clarification is needed around the terms work-life and work-family. Some researchers

clearly distinguish work-life and work-family as unique constructs (e.g., Chang et al.,

2009) while others use one or the other as an umbrella term to include all research

regarding the comparing and contrasting of multiple life roles (e.g., Allen, 2013). Overall,

"work-family" appears to be the most commonly used and studied term; prior research

has heavily focused on predicting specific relationships between work and family role

variables alone (Eby et al., 2005). However, work-family leaves out certain individuals

(e.g., singles, couples without children) and other influential roles in life. Research has

called for the inclusion of broader life roles beyond that of work and family (Chang et al.,

2009; Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003; Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011; Moen,

2011). The literature reviewed here includes research that addresses both work-life and

work-family domains, but unless otherwise specified this study specifically focuses on

and uses the term work-life to include a broader array of roles, including work, non-work,

and health-related roles, in order to encompass a broader assessment of the roles people

have at work, at home, socially, and as an individual.

Work-Life Conflict

Work-life management is often framed as a struggle with different roles

competing for time, attention, and resources (Allen, 2013). How to manage multiple work

and life roles is a widespread topic in the popular and research literature. Thousands of

scholarly articles and popular press pieces are dedicated to "work-life conflict," "work-

life enrichment," and "work-life balance." These phrases are in widespread use, but

limited information is available on what kinds of thoughts and representations these

words spark for the common person. Included in the review below is some of the work

that has been done on what laypersons think of when they hear one of these phrases.

When people hear "work-life conflict" they largely think of time—namely, not having enough time and missing out in one role because of the time demands of another (Emslie & Hunt, 2009; McMillan, Morris, & Atchley, 2008). Job stressors have been identified as one of the most important antecedents to time-based conflict (Hargis, Kotrba, Zhdanova, & Baltes, 2011), and of the factors that comprise job stressors, job overload—having too much to do at work and not enough time to do it—is one of the strongest predictors of work interfering with family (Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011). It is not surprising then that one of the most common examples that comes to an individual's mind when they hear work-life conflict is work interfering with family (Emslie & Hunt, 2009). For example, people often reference missing out on evening activities with their children because they were working late to make extra income to support the family. People often speak of conflict as a cyclical battle between roles and never having enough time for all of them. Some people accept this as the way things are while others strive to minimize it (Emslie & Hunt, 2009). In general, among laypersons work-life conflict appears to conjure negative thoughts of missing out in one role because of the time demands of another role.

The historical conceptualization of work-life conflict in research, the importance of the direction of role conflict, and common predictors and outcomes associated with conflict are also important and will be reviewed in the following section, followed by a discussion of how conflict will be defined and operationalized in this study.

History. The concept of conflict in the work-life context has been developed over the past several decades. As previously noted, the premise of conflict as a dominant dynamic between work and life roles derives from role theory, highlighting role strain

and the scarcity hypothesis in role interactions. Goode (1960) first introduced the concept

of role strain—the felt challenge of fulfilling role obligations—and the notion that

dissonance and conflict between roles is the norm. This is based on a scarcity perspective

of role interaction: A person has a finite amount of time and energy to distribute among

roles, and engaging in one role reduces the resources available for other roles. Work by

Kahn and colleagues (1964) studied the concept of role strain and coined the term

"interrole conflict" to describe when demands in one role are incompatible with demands

in another role. Lastly, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) extended Kahn et al.'s work to

identify sources of conflict. They identified three sources: (a) time-based conflict, where

time spent in one role makes it difficult to fulfill requirements in another; (b) strain-based

conflict, where pressures in one role make it difficult to participate in another (e.g.,

fatigue from one role makes it difficult to perform activities of another role), and; (c)

behavior-based conflict, where specific behaviors needed in one role are incompatible

with behaviors in another (e.g., showing emotional sensitivity at work versus at home;

McMillan et al., 2008). Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) definition of work-family

conflict is one of the most commonly used definitions in research (Allen, 2013): "a form

of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are

mutually incompatible in some respect" (p. 77).

   Stemming from a similar vein of resource strain and scarcity, the conservation of

resources (COR) model has been a useful theoretical perspective and frequently applied

testable model in work-life conflict research (e.g., Adkins & Premeaux, 2012; Chen,

Powell, & Cui, 2014; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). The COR model posits that people

are motivated to obtain and maintain resources—the objects, characteristics, conditions,

and energies that help solve problems (Hobfoll, 1989). In the context of work-life,

tension between roles may deplete resources leading to negative outcomes including the

possibility of conflict (Adkins & Premeaux, 2012).

Studies focusing on conflict in the context of COR have found that a high fear of

losing or actual loss of resources diminishes the transfer of other gained resources

between roles, and that a high initial acquisition of resources among roles diminishes the

transfer of stress and exhaustion between roles that can result from fear of or actual loss

of resources (Chen et al., 2014); there is a linear relationship between hours worked and

work interfering with family, but a curvilinear relationship between hours worked and

family interfering with work (Adkins & Premeaux, 2012); and that work and family

stressors drain resources over time, which in turn is related to greater dissatisfaction,

tension, and life distress, as well as decreased physical health (Grandey & Cropanzano,

1999). In general, a conflict approach appears to have a negative effect on obtaining and

maintaining resources like time, health, and the transferring of benefits from one role to

another.

Overall the historical development of conflict has focused on scarcity, implying

that people's resources are limited and they must manage the allocation of how roles take

resources from one other, creating a model of work-life management that accepts loss as

unavoidable and seeks to minimize them.

Directionality. A central component of work-life conflict is that it is bi-

directional, in that the direction of role conflict experienced can happen in either direction

between roles (e.g., family interfering with work, work interfering with family) and each

has unique predictors and outcomes (Aryee, Fields, & Luk, 1999; Carlson, 1999; Frone,

Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Previous research found that the directionality of conflict depends on the decision of what roles an individual chooses to engage in (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003); that is, in order for work to interfere with family, an individual much decide to participate in a work activity over a family activity.

The direction of conflict makes a difference in effect. For example, work interfering with family has different physical effects than family interfering with work (e.g., increase in heart rate versus increase in blood pressure; Shockley & Allen, 2013). Recent meta-analyses on the directionality of conflict have found that interrole conflict has stronger relationships within-domain rather than across domains; that is, work interfering with family has stronger effects on work (the source domain) rather than family (the receiving domain; Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011; Shockley & Singla, 2011). Finally, the directionality of work-life conflict appears to differ between cultures. For example, life satisfaction of American employees is more influenced by family-to-work conflict while Hong Kong employee's life satisfaction is more influenced by work-to-family conflict (Aryee et al., 1999). For the purposes of this study, the bidirectionality of work-life conflict is assumed to hold true for work, family and other roles in a person's life.

Predictors and outcomes. Research has linked work-life conflict with important predictors and outcomes. Some of the most commonly studied predictors of conflict include gender (women experience more family interfering with work; men experience more work interfering with family), parental status (people with more children at home experience more conflict), marital type (dual earner couples experience more conflict), and role stressors (more domain specific role stressors [e.g., job ambiguity], more

conflict; Allen, 2013). Other predictors of conflict include increased work hours (Adkins & Premeaux, 2012); decreased perception of person-environment fit at work (Chen, Powell, & Greenhaus, 2009); and higher pressure, stress, and unpredictability in routine at work (Eby et al., 2005). Support is frequently assessed as a moderator of conflict. For example, increased social support buffered the impact of increased turnover intentions such that those with higher social support experienced lower conflict (Nohe & Sonntag, 2014) and supervisor support moderated work hours such that those who worked fewer hours and had a supportive supervisor experienced lower conflict (Adkins & Premeaux, 2012).

Work-life conflict as a predictor itself has been associated with several negative outcomes. Overall, greater conflict is related to higher turnover intentions (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999, Nohe & Sonntag, 2014); increased burnout (Allen, 2013); increased physical and psychological strains (Allen, 2013); lower organizational commitment (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999); and lower job, life, and marital satisfaction (Allen, 2013; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

Overall this research indicates that personal characteristics and work factors have been largely studied as predictors of conflict, and that work-life conflict itself is a predictor of, for the most part, mainly negative, undesirable outcomes.

Current application. The history and conceptualization of conflict presumes that it is difficult to participate in more than one role at a time. Conflict as an approach to work-life management commonly leads to thinking about multiple role interactions that may be limiting, sacrificial, and debilitating. From a conflict approach, the goal is to lessen the impact of roles on each other, almost to keep them separate by

compartmentalizing and sacrificing the needs of one role for another. Previous work on work-life conflict has highlighted little opportunity for roles to work together, only to compete for resources. Indeed, research focused on conflict in the context of work-life has found overall negative associations with advantageous outcomes, for example satisfaction in multiple domains.

The application of conflict as a work-life framing approach in this study centers on the dissonance a focus on conflict can create and the need to reduce pressures between roles. It is hypothesized that approaching work-life management with a conflict frame will likely lead to negative outcomes, as found in previous research. In the context of this study, a conflict frame, operationally defined as the extent to which participants apply strategies to minimize the pressure felt between roles, will lead to a perception that the roles hinder each other and decreased satisfaction across all of the roles.

Work-Life Enrichment

If conflict is the negative side of work-life management, enrichment is the positive (Lyness & Judiesch, 2014; McMillan et al., 2008; Rothbard, 2001). Enrichment emerged in work-life management as an area of research in response to a movement to focus on not just the negative aspects and weaknesses of work-life dynamics, but the positive interdependencies and strengths as well (Chang et al., 2009; Kossek et al., 2011). The enrichment approach to work-life looks for ways that multiple roles can enhance each other, expanding and enriching their effect. For example, the demands of two roles can be combined to meet needs in both roles, or time and energy invested in one role can be transferred to support another role.

In contrast to conflict, "work-life enrichment" tends to evoke more positive thinking with the goal of improving one's quality of life (Hanson, Hammer, & Colton, 2006; Kacmar, Crawford, Carlson, Ferguson, & Whitten, 2014). As work-life enrichment is a newer area of research, this phrase has not yet caught on in the general population as have the ideas of work-life conflict and balance. People commonly represent the idea of enrichment as integration (e.g., Emslie & Hunt, 2009; Friedman, 2014; Hanson et al., 2006; Ilies, Wilson, & Wagner, 2009). People reference combining and overlapping their roles to reap beneficial effects and improve their quality of life by identifying similar aspects among roles, applying resources to multiple roles, transferring positive experiences between roles, or sharing responsibilities of roles (e.g., Emslie & Hunt, 2009; Friedman, 2014; Hanson et al., 2006; Rothbard, 2001). Overall, the general population may view enrichment as integrating multiple roles to achieve improvements and gains that are greater than the sum of individual roles.

The following will highlight the history and conceptualization of enrichment in research, similar but distinct constructs, common predictors and outcomes, and the application and operationalization of enrichment for this study.

History. In contrast to the conflict view of role strain, enrichment focuses on a role accumulation aspect of multiple roles interacting. Sieber (1974) was one of the first skeptics of a conflict-based framework to work-life management. He proposed instead a theory of role accumulation, where the benefits of participating in multiple roles outweigh the potential negatives such as strain and overload through the privileges, resources, and rewards of each role that can be supplemented in other roles. Marks (1977) furthered this line of thinking and introduced expansion theory in contrast to the scarcity

hypothesis assumed in models of conflict. He posited that research tends to focus on the

scarcity and strain aspects of multiple roles based on the notion that energy is limited; he

instead approached using an expansion framework, suggesting that energy is flexible and

interactions among roles may even produce energy.

Thoits (1983) tested this expansion hypothesis and found that individuals engaged

in multiple roles reported significantly less psychological distress, and found no evidence

of a curvilinear relationship between role accumulation and distress that would suggest

too many roles result in increased strain or conflict. Barnett and Baruch (1985) also tested

the expansion hypothesis with a sample of women and found that multiple roles did not

lead to more anxiety. The more roles an individual had, the more they overlapped, and

this overlap did not produce a negative effect. Overall, this early work in enrichment

research suggests that multiple roles may not necessarily lead to strain and conflict as

previously thought, but rather may have a positive, augmenting effect.

Further research has identified several components of enrichment. Greenhaus and

Powell's (2006) model of enrichment identified five resources produced by a role (skills

and perspectives, psychological and physical, social-capital, flexibility, and material) that

increase performance and positive affect, whose effects can be carried over to improve

performance and affect in another role. The basic idea is that the transferring of resources

from one role to another creates a better environment for both roles. Other work has

identified four sub-dimensions of enrichment resources that can be transformed to other

roles to improve quality of life: development (skills, knowledge, behaviors), affect

(emotional states, attitudes), capital (security, confidence [work to family only]), and

efficiency (focus, minimize distraction [family to work only]; Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne,

& Grzywacz, 2006; Masuda, McNall, Allen, & Nicklin, 2012). Lastly, similar to conflict, enrichment is bidirectional and produces stronger effects within domain rather than across (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Shockley & Singla, 2011). In general, the history of enrichment research has focused on the potential of transferring and sharing both tangible and intangible beneficial resources among multiple roles.

     Similar constructs. Enrichment has been prone to construct overlap in research (Maertz & Boyar, 2010). Several similar constructs have been developed to represent the expansion of positive links between roles, including positive spillover, facilitation, and of course, enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Positive spillover has been defined as the transfer of productive moods, skills, behaviors, and values between roles (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Facilitation reflects the extent to which engagement in one role provides gains that add to enhanced functioning in other roles (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007). Lastly, enrichment has been defined as the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life (i.e., performance and positive affect) in another role through the transfer or sharing of resources (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). As discussed earlier, these resources include skills and perspectives, psychological and physical resources, social-capital resources, flexibility, and material resources. Clearly there is much overlap in these concepts, which has thus lead to confusion in the literature as to what researchers mean when they use the word "enrichment."

     To help clarify among these constructs, Masuda and colleagues (2012) examined the construct validity evidence between a positive spillover measure and an enrichment measure. They found that positive spillover and enrichment were distinct but related constructs, such that enrichment mediates the relationship between positive spillover and

both job and life satisfaction. The difference between the two is subtle: positive spillover

is transferring gains from role to another (e.g., bringing a good mood from work home),

while enrichment can be understood as the *successful* application of gains to another role

(e.g., putting other family members in a good mood as result of the mood from work)

thereby improving overall quality of life (Wayne, 2009). Overall, enrichment is inclusive

of and goes beyond the more limited construct of positive spillover.

Predictors and outcomes. Partly due to the construct confusion that exists

around enrichment and other terms, the research on enrichment is newer and more

limited. Minimal research has been done on the predictors of enrichment. As previously

noted, increased positive spillover is a predictor of enrichment, which mediates the

relationship between spillover and satisfaction (Masuda et al., 2012). The outcomes

associated with enrichment are better known. Research has found positive relationships to

psychological well-being, physical, and mental health (Carlson et al., 2006; McNall,

Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010); work and family engagement (Kacmar et al., 2014); and job,

family, and life satisfaction (Carlson et al., 2006; Kacmar et al., 2014; McNall et al.,

2010). While this is still an emerging area of research, the overall direction of the

research to date points to the positive, enhancing effect of enrichment on work-life

management and advantageous outcomes, for example satisfaction in multiple domains.

Current application. Enrichment as an approach to work-life management drives

thinking that is expansive, directing individuals to think of ways that the different roles in

their lives can enhance and share resources, not compete for them. Compared to conflict,

with an enrichment perspective, individuals are less likely to automatically perceive the

need to pick one role over another because this frame allows roles to be de-segmented

and their boundaries to blur and sometimes enhance one another. As an example, a

qualitative case study investigated the effectiveness of telecommuting workers in using

mobile devices to manage work life boundaries. Some tried to entirely separate their

work and life activities, but those that let role boundaries blur felt more effective, greater

control, and increased feelings of satisfaction and accomplishment (Cousins & Varshney,

2009). Enrichment allows people to take the pressure off of multiple roles competing for

resources and looks for ways they can work together.

Within the present study, it is hypothesized that an enrichment frame focuses

individuals on the potential of roles to complement, enrich, and improve each other.

Based on the positive effect previous work has found, approaching work-life

management with an enrichment frame, operationally defined as the extent to which

participants apply strategies that enhance the ability of roles to complement and improve

each other, is likely to lead to roles having a strong positive effect on each other and

greater satisfaction across roles.

Work-Life Balance

Several common conceptions of "work-life balance" exist. For example, some use

work-life balance as "work-life management" is used in this review—that is, an overall

representation of how an individual handles the interaction of multiple roles (e.g.,

Grawitch, Maloney, Barber, & Mooshegian, 2013; Lyness & Judiesch, 2014). Other use

"work-life balance" as an indicator of an organization's flexible working practices (e.g.,

flex-time, employee assistance programs, childcare; Chandra, 2012; Khan & Agha,

2013), or as the overall process, experience, and feeling of fulfilling responsibilities in

multiple roles (e.g., Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). This last conceptualization is of particular interest.

When people reference work-life balance, they are often alluding to ways to achieve or maintain balance, such as sharing responsibilities with spouses and partners, seeking help from others, and having control over their role boundaries (Chandra, 2012; Emslie & Hunt, 2009). People often describe work-life balance as a juggling act, trying to keep all the "balls in the air" (Emslie & Hunt, 2009). However, this juggling act is not done in equilibrium (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007)—some balls (roles) are larger (more demanding), some weigh more than others. That is, some roles play a larger part in one's life than others, and people have different ideas of what fulfillment is (Chandra, 2012). For example, for some fulfillment is working 60 hours a week; for others it is being a stay-at-home parent. Overall, the concept of work-life balance appears to spark thinking that considers roles in the context of all other roles and looking for ways to fulfill multiple demands in order to maintain all the roles in the juggling act.

The following will review the history of balance, discuss the difficulty in defining this concept, highlight common predictors and outcomes, and discuss the application and operationalization of balance for this study.

History. Also rooted in role theory, balance research has tended to take on a more holistic conceptualization in the work-life literature. Marks and MacDermid (1996) introduced and tested the concept of role balance: being fully engaged in, attentive to, and invested in the performance of each role. In their research they found that individuals who maintain balance across all roles (measured as a single item assessing enjoyment of every part of life equally well) tended to experience less role strain and greater role ease.

This approach to balance does not necessarily imply *success* of performance in each role, but equal overall commitment and attention to each role. Further research has identified three factors that need to be balanced across work-life roles: time (devoting equal time to roles), involvement (being equally involved in roles), and satisfaction (being equally satisfied with roles; Greenhaus et al., 2003).

Difficulty defining. Several authors have highlighted that balance is not clearly defined in the research (e.g., Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007; Maertz & Boyar, 2010). Some have defined work-life balance as low levels of conflict and high levels of enrichment (Frone, 2003), or as a perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in line with one's current priorities (Westman, Brough, & Kalliath, 2009). Most however, have followed Marks and MacDermid's (1996) work and defined balance as a more holistic concept.

In work-life management research, conflict and enrichment are generally viewed as the result of a decision that leads to either a negative or positive impact between roles respectively. For example, choosing to work late instead of a family dinner is likely to lead to conflict; choosing to combine a friend activity with exercise is likely to lead to enrichment. Balance, in contrast, reflects the broad, overall appraisal of the work-life management experience across roles (Ferguson, Carlson, Zivnuska, & Whitten, 2012). For example, choosing work over family may lead to conflict, but an individual may be content with this decision based on importance of and commitment to their work role, and thus still experience balance across roles.

As a result much research does not consider balance to be a linking mechanism (e.g., the result of a decision) between roles, but rather an overall appraisal of how well

an individual is positively committed to multiple roles and their experiences (Carlson et al., 2009; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus et al., 2003; Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Simply put, conflict and enrichment reflect the extent to which decisions have a negative or positive effect between roles, while balance encompasses a more global appraisal of an individual's experience of commitment and participation across roles.

Many researchers employ the definition of balance from Greenhaus et al. (2003), which draws on the work by Marks and MacDermid (1996): "the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in – and equally satisfied with – his or her [roles]" (p. 513). However, this definition is inconsistent with common conceptions of work-life balance, which tend to view balance as *proportional* investment in roles based on importance, not necessarily *equal* investment. Additionally, even though researchers have begun to use this definition consistently, there is disagreement on whether "satisfaction" is subjective or objective. Some conceptualizations hold that balance is subjective and varies from person to person based on how engaged and satisfied people are in their roles (e.g., Clark, 2000; Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Greenhaus et al., 2003; Valcour, 2007); others argue that balance is objective and negotiated considering the context of different roles.

Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) argue for the objective view and have criticized this commonly used definition, saying that defining balance in terms of decontextualized satisfaction focuses on self-directed, eye of the beholder aspects of daily work-life management and does not suitably capture the meaning of balance. Instead, Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) define balance as the accomplishment of role-related expectations, negotiated and shared between an individual and their role-related partners in their various role domains—in other words, meeting responsibilities across multiple roles. In

this approach, conflict and enrichment are indicators of rather than consequences of balance. However, this new definition of balance holds the expectation of meeting *both* work and family responsibilities—individuals still have to find a way to do it all, which becomes even more complicated with the inclusion of multiple life roles (i.e., more than just work and family).

Predictors and outcomes. Significant research has been conducted on work-life balance as an approach to work-life management. Several predictors have been associated with work-life balance including job characteristics, mindfulness, and social support; however, studies have operationalized balance in varying ways. In terms of job characteristics, increased work hours are negatively related to satisfaction with work-life balance; job complexity and control over work time are positively related to satisfaction with work-life balance, operationalized as self-reported satisfaction with dividing time, existing fit, balancing needs, and mutual performance of roles on a Likert scale (Valcour, 2007). Second, among working parents, greater mindfulness is related to better sleep quality, greater vitality, and greater work-family balance, operationalized as self-reported perceptions of balancing demands, levels of balance, and satisfaction with balance on a Likert scale; further, the relationship between mindfulness and balance is mediated by sleep quality and vitality (Allen & Kiburz, 2012). Lastly, balance partially mediates the relationship between social support and both job and family satisfaction, balance operationalized as self-reported and partner's perceptions of accomplishing responsibilities on a Likert scale (Ferguson et al., 2012).

Research has found work-life balance associated with several outcomes including increased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, family satisfaction, family

functioning, and life satisfaction (Allen, 2013; Carlson et al., 2009). Further, one study

that operationalized balance as accomplishing expectations and responsibilities across

roles (Gryzwacz & Carlson, 2007), conflict as the extent of work to family and family to

work conflict (Carlson et al., 2000), and enrichment as the extent of work to family and

family to work enrichment (Carlson et al., 2006) found that balance explains variance

beyond measures of conflict and enrichment for job satisfaction, organizational

commitment, family satisfaction, family performance, and family functioning (Carlson et

al., 2009).

Additionally, Carlson et al. (2009) found that conflict, enrichment, and balance

are significantly related but distinct constructs. According to this study, conflict,

significantly correlated with balance ($r = -.24$), reflects more the negative outcomes of

time-, strain-, and behavior-based interference between roles, while enrichment,

significantly correlated with balance ($r = .52$), reflects more the positive aspects of

development, affect, and capital shared between roles (Carlson et al., 2009). As similar

but distinct constructs, the three can be experienced at the same time. Reducing conflict

and enhancing enrichment are conditions that can be cultivated, while balance (viewed as

the ability to meet responsibilities across roles) is a skill that can be developed (Carlson

et al., 2009). Further studies have found that conflict and enrichment are also distinct, but

that enrichment may help buffer the negative effects of conflict (Gareis, Barnett, Ertel, &

Berkman, 2009; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003).

Current application. Prior research has defined and operationalized balance in

multiple ways, but the overarching themes among them appear to view balance as the

overall experience of management across roles with the goal of achieving some level of

accomplishment and/or satisfaction. One of the main disagreements is whether

accomplishment and/or satisfaction are subjectively or objectively defined. Based on the

way individuals talk about balance, it appears that those who approach work-life

management with a balance frame tend to focus on the overall experience of navigating

multiple roles as defined by the individual (Chandra, 2012). Greenhaus and Allen (2011)

reviewed the variety of perspectives on work-life balance (e.g., low conflict, equal

involvement in roles, etc.) and concluded that balance is experienced when individuals

feel effective and satisfied in the roles that are salient to them. This is from the

perspective of balance as an *outcome*, as it has most often been applied in research.

Work-life balance has much less frequently been operationalized as a *predictor*;

that is, the extent to which people apply work-life balance to manage roles. Previous

studies have seldom tested the extent to which people seek "the right balance" in

whatever manner they decide, allowing individuals to consider the investment of time

and resources into whichever roles are deemed most important and salient to them. This

reflects an individualistic approach to balance, in that each individual will individually

define and pursue balance differently as a result of what is deemed most meaningful and

practical to them (Munn, 2013).

A balance approach may spark prioritization of roles that are more important

given their current and future needs, and making compromises with other roles to

accommodate. Consistent with previous research, approaching work-life management

with a balance frame, operationalized as the extent to which participants apply strategies

to find the right balance across roles, however individually defined, is likely to lead to

roles having a positive effect on each other and greater satisfaction within roles based on the choices made in a scenario where multiple roles are intersecting.

Summary of Conflict, Enrichment, and Balance

As studied in the research, work-life conflict has primarily been understood as harmful, work-life enrichment was introduced to address the negativity of conflict with a positive focus but has been minimally studied, and work-life balance has been the most widely used and associated with positive outcomes, but has a weakness in being poorly defined.

These historical frames of work-life management are not often studied as predictors. When they are predictors, they are usually measured as a reflective appraisal of how much conflict, enrichment, or balance an individual feels they have, not as a proactive strategy for how to approach work-life management. To that end, research on conflict, enrichment, and balance has primarily investigated people's perspectives on how work and life are or should be related, not the effect of these frames as an application to work-life management. Consistent when conflict, enrichment, and balance are studied as predictors is the assessment of satisfaction in multiple domains as an outcome (namely life, job, marital, and family satisfaction). Across these frames, satisfaction has been an important outcome to assess in work-life management.

When applied as a proactive strategy to work-life management, conflict, enrichment, and balance are forward looking in that they ask individuals to image how to allocate the current available resources to the current role demands. While conflict, enrichment, and balance have been useful theoretical explanations of why and how the relationships between work and life roles are the way they are and important outcomes

each frame is associated with (e.g., satisfaction), as an applied strategy it may be difficult

for some people to come up with an in-the-moment, new solution of how to allocate

resources by reducing conflict, finding the right balance, or looking for ways roles could

complement each other to meet role demands.

There may be another framing approach that opens up even more expansive

thinking around how and what strategies can be applied to manage a challenging work-

life situation.

Proflection

The frameworks of conflict, enrichment, and balance dominate the work-life

discipline. Suggested here is the notion of an alternative way to conceptualize the work-

life relationship beyond these three commonly studied constructs: proactive reflection, or

"proflection."

Proflection—proactively reflecting on strategies of past work-life management

successes that can be applied to the current situation—is rooted in social cognitive theory

and draws heavily on the concepts of mastery experiences and self-efficacy (Bandura,

1977; 1989). The basic principle is that mastery experiences, or past successes, increase

an individual's self-efficacy, or the belief that they can meet the demands of a given

situation (Bandura, 1989). In the context of work-life management, it is proposed that the

recall of mastery experiences from the past will trigger thinking of a previous time when

an individual successfully managed multiple roles, and how those strategies could be

applied to the current role encounter, thereby increasing their self-efficacy for meeting

multiple role demands. In other words, an individual could reflect on a past success and

think about how they could proactively apply those strategies to the current demands of multiple roles intersecting.

The following sections will outline the theoretical basis for proflection, review prior research that highlights its application to a work-life context, and define the application of proflection as a work-life management frame for the current study.

Theoretical basis. As noted above, a proflection approach to work-life management is based on social cognitive theory (SCT, Bandura 1989; 2001), of which a core component is self-efficacy. Understanding the potential of proflection as a work-life management frame entails a review of the nature of human behavior according to SCT and a thorough summary of the factors surrounding self-efficacy.

According to social cognitive theory, human agency or action is a result of the personal influences, behaviors, and environmental elements that interact causally and reciprocally (Bandura, 1989; 2012). These factors are motivated and regulated by overall self-influence, operating through the functions of self-regulation (monitoring behavior), self-reflection (judgment of behavior), and self-reaction (affect; Bandura, 1991). Of importance in this study are the components that influence self-regulation. While there are many mechanisms that effect self-regulation, self-efficacy is key in the exercise of monitoring behavior because of its influence on how people process information, motivate their behavior, and react to experiences (Bandura, 1991).

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is an individual's belief regarding their capabilities to exercise control over one's life (Bandura, 1977; 1982; 1989). Efficacy beliefs are foundational to agency because if an individual does not believe their actions can obtain desired results and avoid negative ones, they have little reason to try or persist in the face

of challenge (Bandura, 2001; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). The following will outline factors

that are influenced by self-efficacy, as well as the factors that shape self-efficacy beliefs.

Factors affected by self-efficacy. Several factors are affected by self-efficacy,

including cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection processes. First, in terms of

cognitive processes self-efficacy beliefs can affect thoughts that may be self-aiding or

self-hindering, optimistic or pessimistic (Bandura, 1989; Bandura, 2001). For example,

individuals with higher perceived self-efficacy set more challenging goals for themselves

and are more committed to those goals (Bandura, 1989). Second, self-efficacy affects the

factors that motivate and guide future action, for example, through the use of forethought.

Representing future events cognitively in the present (i.e., considering actions and

subsequent consequences) converts these hypothetical events into current motivators and

regulators of behavior for a desired future (Bandura, 2001). Self-efficacy beliefs can

affect this motivational process by influencing how much effort individuals will exert on

future events, how long to persist in the face of challenge, and whether a failure is

motivating or discouraging (Bandura, 1989; 2001). Third and in a similar vein, self-

efficacy beliefs influence affective processes that influence how much stress or

motivation an individual experiences in taxing situations (Bandura, 1989). For example,

efficacy beliefs about coping ability can reduce vulnerability to stress and strengthen

resiliency in challenging situations (Bandura, 2001). Lastly, efficacy beliefs influence the

selection processes that determine what activities and environments individuals choose to

engage in (Bandura, 1989; 2001). For example, whether or not an individual believes

they will succeed at an activity can effect their decision to participate.

Overall, self-efficacy beliefs impact an individual's tendency to engage in more optimistic thinking, persistence in the face of challenge, resilience to stress, and what activities and environments they select to participate in. Below are the factors that shape self-efficacy beliefs.

Sources of self-efficacy. Bandura proposes that there are four primary sources of information that develop self-efficacy beliefs: enactive mastery (performance attainment), vicarious experiences of watching the performance of others, verbal persuasion, and physiological states (somatic and emotional states; Aryee & Chu, 2012; Bandura, 2012; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Of these, enactive mastery is argued to be the most influential (Bandura, 1982; Gist, 1987).

Enactive attainments, or past performances, can be an influential source of efficacy information because they include mastery experiences—successes—that can heighten perceived self-efficacy; the higher perceived self-efficacy, the greater performance (Bandura, 1982). In general, the idea is that past performance experiences influence current self-efficacy beliefs by conveying information about potential future ability.

Mastery experiences can influence one's self-efficacy, which in turn effects how individuals think about, process, react to, and select actions. In the context of work-life management, mastery experiences and self-efficacy could play a key role in determining how individuals approach, cope with, and decide which actions to engage in when managing multiple, competing roles. A look at prior research on self-efficacy demonstrates its potential effect on work-life management.

Prior research. Previous research on the effect of self-efficacy highlights the potential application of self-efficacy beliefs in a work-life context. Taken from a role perspective, research has been conducted with student roles, personal health roles, and work roles. In a school setting, self-efficacy has been shown to have a positive effect on student's study engagement and task performance over time (Ouweneel, Schaufeli, & Le Blanc, 2013). In the context of personal health, self-efficacy is predictive of health intentions and behaviors (e.g., flossing, eating fruits and vegetables) beyond perceived control (how much a behavior is under one's control) and perceived difficulty of performing desired behavior (Rodgers, Conner, & Murray, 2008), and was significantly positively related to the adoption of preventive innovations, or activities performed now that prevent future negative consequences (e.g., wearing a seatbelt, energy conservation; Overstreet, Cegielski, & Hall, 2013). Lastly, previous research in the work domain found that self-efficacy was significantly correlated with work-related performance (weighted average correlation $G\ [r_+]$ = .38; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) and job satisfaction (r = .45; Judge & Bono, 2001); job-specific self-efficacy mediated the relationships between challenging job experiences and promotability, as well as performance (Aryee & Chu, 2012); among rescue workers, self-efficacy buffered the effect of perceived stressful encounters on perceived quality of life (Prati, Pietrantoni, & Cicognani, 2010); and role overload (i.e., when resources are perceived as inadequate to meet role demands) moderates perceived organizational resources and self-efficacy beliefs, such that the relationship between resources and self-efficacy was positive when role overload was low (Brown, Jones, & Leigh, 2005).

As highlighted above, research has found several relationships between self-efficacy and individual life roles such as student, personal health, and work. Limited research, however, has investigated self-efficacy in the context of multiple roles. Research that has examined relationships between self-efficacy and work-life management has most often focused on conflict. For example, research has found that exercise was positively related to self-efficacy for managing work-family conflict (Clayton, Thomas, Singh, & Winkel, 2014); work-family conflict was negatively associated with job-related self-efficacy (Wang, Lawler, & Shi, 2010); and in terms of role salience, work-oriented participants anticipated higher work-family conflict and lower efficacy to manage it, while family-oriented participants anticipated lower work-family conflict and higher efficacy to manage it (Cinamon, 2010). Future research could further investigate the effect of self-efficacy on the interaction of multiple roles. This study will examine this as well as the role self-efficacy plays in satisfaction with decisions made in the context of work-life management.

Current application. Proflection differs from conflict, enrichment, and balance as a work-life management frame because it focuses on applying past performance to current demands, rather than imagined futures of how resources could be allocated among roles. It may be easier for some people to figure out how to apply what worked for them in a challenging work-life situation before to the current role demands, rather than think of a whole new solution as in the conflict, enrichment, and balance frames. In addition, a proflection approach opens up broader options of what could applied to the current situation—for example, past performances could include multiple framing approaches. Visualizing a past success scenario provides a positive guide for future

behavior (Bandura, 1989). The aim of proflection is to trigger self-efficacy beliefs to handle the current situation by bringing to consciousness a mastery experience, increasing persistence and resilience to challenging work-life situations in a way other management strategies might not. Applying a proflection approach, operationally defined as the extent to which participants apply the strategies of a previous successfully managed challenging work-life situation, may increase optimistic and self-enhancing thinking that may in turn lead to satisfaction with choices.

Satisfaction in Work-Life Management

As highlighted throughout the above review of the most common conceptualizations of work-life management historically, satisfaction has been a frequent and important outcome assessed (Allen, 2013; Eby et al., 2005). Some have criticized the assessment of satisfaction as too subjective and individualized (e.g., Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). However, that is precisely the focus of this study—the personalized perceived experience of managing a situation where multiple role demands are intersecting: regardless of whether the situation was managed effectively, is the individual satisfied with their roles based on the choices they made? Overall, the goal of this study is to assess the impact of framing in the midst of competing priorities between work and life roles, so that individuals may be better able to take control of the way they approach, act on, and experience work-life management and subsequently increase their satisfaction with multiple roles. Various aspects of satisfaction will be discussed in more detail in the section below.

Contributions to Literature

Overall, this study aims to assess the effect of different work-life framing approaches on an individual's satisfaction with the decisions they make about what to do in a situation where multiple roles have compelling, overlapping demands. The study addresses current gaps in work-life research in four areas: limited research concerning the influences on decision-making in a work-life management context, limited research on coping strategies that can be used to manage the work-life interface, narrow conceptualizations of satisfaction as an outcome, and lack of empirical studies allowing for causal statements. Each of these gaps and the contributions the current study makes to the literature will be discussed below.

Decision-Making in Work-Life Management

Limited research has been done to investigate the processes and mechanisms individuals use to make a decision regarding competing role demands at a given point in time. One example of the work that has been done is Greenhaus and Powell's (2012) proposed model for examining the family-relatedness of work decisions (i.e., the extent to which decisions in the work domain are influenced by a family situation). However, this model is unidirectional (family to work) and examines only two roles. Often, individuals are faced with more than two competing role demands at a time. Decision-making is an especially important area for research in the context of work-life because as mentioned earlier, Greenhaus and Powell (2003) found that the directionality of conflict between roles (e.g., work interfering with family or family interfering with work) materializes only *after* an individual makes a decision about which role to fulfill when there are simultaneous demands from multiple roles, and as other research identified,

different directions have different outcomes. Investigating the influences of decision-making could help individuals direct and control the influence of their choices, and provide them with valuable, proactive coping strategies for managing situations where multiple role demands are intersecting. By compelling participants to actually make decisions about which roles to fulfill in a given work-life scenario, this study is able to contribute to the identification of decision-making tools in a work-life management context. One potential strategy that individuals could proactively engage to aid decision-making is framing.

Framing as a Coping Strategy

A second gap in the literature is limited research on coping strategies individuals can use for managing the work-life interface in the moment. Framing is a potential coping strategy people can use as an aid in the decisions they have to make every day regarding multiple role demands. Research has called for examining the factors that can empower individuals to self-manage the work-life interface (Kossek et al., 2011); however, only a fraction of research has focused on coping strategies (Eby et al., 2005). One example is a study by Baltes and Heydens-Gahir (2003), which examined behaviors to reduce work-family conflict. They found that the extent to which individuals identified goals, acquired means to achieve goals, and maintained desired role function in the face of depleted resources, reduced levels of job and family stressors and subsequently reduced levels of both directions of conflict (i.e., work interfering with family, family interfering with work). While this research on intentional behaviors individuals can engage in to reduce conflict is valuable, it represents a long-term strategy and does not address how individuals can manage the work-life interface in the moment. This study

will investigate the impact of framing on decision-making and subsequent satisfaction with choices, exploring the use of framing as a real-time coping strategy that individuals can use to manage competing work-life roles.

Satisfaction as an Outcome

Third, previous research has assessed satisfaction as a work-life interface outcome using narrow conceptualizations of satisfaction. The competing roles in people's lives do not exist in a vacuum; they overlap and influence each other. Much of the work-life research that has studied satisfaction as an outcome focuses most often on separate measures of job, family, or life satisfaction (Allen, 2013). However, this research has limited the assessment of satisfaction to satisfaction within individual roles. This provides a picture of individual role and aggregate satisfaction, but ignores the impact and interaction of multiple roles on each other (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). This study will assess satisfaction as an overall level of contentment for each role based on perceptions of how successfully one handles the demands from multiple roles, as well as the degree to which roles affect other roles (i.e., more positive to more negative impacts; Valcour, 2007). By assessing the extent to which individuals perceive satisfaction with roles based on their choices as well as the extent to which roles are interacting to complement or compete with each other, this study contributes deeper knowledge of the relationships among multiple roles beyond mere satisfaction within an individual role.

In addition, this study will assess the extent to which participants are satisfied with roles in their own lives. It is predicted that decisions and perceptions of roles in a hypothetical situation are likely to transfer to perceptions of satisfaction with one's roles in their own life through vicarious learning and self-modeling (Bandura, 1971; Rosenthal

& Bandura, 1978). Vicarious learning shapes behavior by allowing an observer to learn

from behaviors and consequences experienced by a model rather than through direct

experience of his or her own performance attempts (Gioia & Manz, 1985). A model is a

stimulus occurring in such a way that an observer can extract and act on the information

conveyed without needing to overtly perform or experience consequences first (Rosenthal

& Bandura, 1978). For example, seeing a rock fall off of a cliff alerts individuals to the

danger of the ledge without having to directly experience it, or seeing a person burn their

hand alerts individuals to the hotness of a stove without having to touch it. While models

are often external stimuli (e.g., the rock or another person), vicarious learning is not

restricted to external models only (Manz & Sims, 1981). In this study the participant will

serve as the model by living out and making choices in a hypothetical challenging work-

life scenario.

Models are more effective at transferring learning and behavior when they are

relevant and credible to the observer (Manz & Sims, 1981; Rosenthal & Bandura, 1978).

In the context of work-life management it is arguable that the person most relevant and

credible for how to handle individual's challenging role demands are the individuals

themselves. Participants will have the opportunity to self-model the vicarious experience

of managing a challenging work-life situation without having to directly experience the

consequences of their decisions on their performance in real-life roles, increasing the

likelihood that the effect of framing on participant's choices in a hypothetical scenario

will carry over to perceptions of satisfaction with their own life roles. If people can

effectively frame a single hypothetical scenario, it may help individuals learn how to

proactively integrate framing and change the way they view managing multiple roles in their lives.

Empirical Study

Finally, limited causal research and experiments in the work-life domain has been conducted. A review of work-family research published between 1980 and 2003 found that 89% of the empirical studies were correlational (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007). Additionally, a majority of predictors in work-life research focus on non-manipulated variables such as family characteristics (e.g., marital status), background characteristics (e.g., demographics, especially gender), and work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction). Overall the goal of a majority of the work-life research has been to establish correlations between predictors and outcomes aimed at linking differences in life stage, family stage, gender, work-family fit, and job attitudes. Limited research has been done on how these differences act as casual mechanisms to influence outcomes. Several researchers have specifically called for the use of experimental designs in order to establish causal relationships between constructs (e.g., Casper et al., 2007; Chang, et al., 2009; Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). Through the use of an experimental method this study has the potential to identify some of the causal mechanisms that are behind decision-making in work-life management.

Overall this study contributes to the literature by using an experimental design to investigate the impact of framing on decision-making in a work-life context, and by assessing satisfaction within individual scenario roles, personal life roles, and the influence multiple roles have on each other as well.

Hypotheses

This study has five main hypotheses regarding whether the frame with which work-life management is approached effects overall satisfaction across scenario roles (scenario role satisfaction), satisfaction with the extent to which roles impact each other (role interaction satisfaction) and the subsequent satisfaction individuals express with their own life roles (personal life role satisfaction). In addition there is one hypothesis regarding the moderating effect of whether participants have children or not, and the effect of age group of participant's youngest child for those who do have children for the satisfaction outcomes.

Conflict vs. Control Conditions

Approaching work-life management using a conflict frame is hypothesized to relate negatively to scenario role satisfaction, role interaction satisfaction, and personal life role satisfaction, relative to the control condition. The conflict approach makes a scarcity model most salient; that is, roles cannot share resources or work together and assumes that roles compete for resources. Depending on which roles need attention, at any given moment an individual could switch from investing in one to another. In the cycle of conflict framing, one role is always being "blamed" for inhibiting the other (Allen, 2013). One can either do A or B, but they cannot do both. This mindset is likely to lead to participants making choices where roles are impacting each other negatively, leaving participants less satisfied within individual scenario roles, as well as the roles they occupy in their own lives.

Hypothesis 1a: Scenario role satisfaction will be significantly lower for the conflict frame than the control condition.

Hypothesis 1b: Role interaction satisfaction will be rated significantly more negative for the conflict frame than the control condition.

Hypothesis 1c: Personal life role satisfaction will be significantly lower for the conflict frame than the control condition.

Enrichment vs. Control Conditions

Approaching work-life management using an enrichment frame is hypothesized to relate positively to scenario role satisfaction, role interaction satisfaction, and personal life role satisfaction, relative to the control condition. The framing goal for enrichment is to identify opportunities where the resources and experiences in one role can enhance the resources and experiences in another. This is more likely to spark expansive thinking, where individuals are better able to realize the gains of combining or supplementing multiple role demands. Therefore, this frame is likely to lead to decisions where work-life roles are working together more often than competing, in turn increasing one's satisfaction within individual scenario roles, as well as increasing satisfaction with individual life roles.

Hypothesis 2a: Scenario role satisfaction will be more significantly positive for the enrichment frame than the control condition.

Hypothesis 2b: Role interaction satisfaction will be rated significantly more positive for the enrichment frame compared to the control condition.

Hypothesis 2c: Personal life role satisfaction will be significantly more positive for the enrichment frame than the control condition.

Balance vs. Control Conditions

Approaching work-life management using a balance frame is hypothesized to relate positively to scenario role satisfaction, role interaction satisfaction, and personal life role satisfaction, relative to the control condition. Balance as an approach to work-life management has the potential to be a neutralizer. It derives from the same mindset that individuals have a finite amount of resources that need to be distributed among roles— balance frames the work-life challenge as an attempt to ensure that role investment is proportional to the importance an individual assigns to a role. With this mindset, individuals are able to give what they want to each role, but may not experience as strong of positive effect among roles as other management strategies. From a balance approach there is limited room for roles to work together, only to be equally allocated among as best as possible until deemed adequate and satisfactory according to the individual's preferences. Therefore, participants are likely to make choices where roles have a more positive impact on each other, leaving participants more satisfied within scenario roles and their own roles as well than with no frame at all.

Hypothesis 3a: Scenario role satisfaction will be significantly more positive for the balance frame than the control condition.

Hypothesis 3b: Role interaction satisfaction will be rated as significantly more positive for the balance frame compared to the control condition.

Hypothesis 3c: Personal life role satisfaction will be significantly more positive for the balance frame than the control condition.

Proflection vs. Control Conditions

Approaching work-life management using a proflection frame is hypothesized to relate positively to scenario role satisfaction, role interaction satisfaction, and personal life role satisfaction, relative to the control condition. Compared to the other framing approaches, proflection is the difference between applying past strategies that led to successful performance, and guessing at what might work in the future as with the other framing approaches. As a work-life management strategy, it might be easier for individuals to think of a concrete example where they have already been successful at work-life management, rather than an imagined possible success. Therefore, participants are likely to make choices where roles have a more positive impact on each other, leaving participants more satisfied within scenario roles and their own roles as well.

Hypothesis 4a: Scenario role satisfaction will be significantly more positive for the proflection frame than the control condition.

Hypothesis 4b: Role interaction satisfaction will be rated significantly more positively for the proflection frame compared to the control condition.

Hypothesis 4c: Personal life role satisfaction will be significantly more positive for the proflection frame than the control condition.

Differences Between Frames

Previous research has found that work-life conflict, work-life balance, and work-life enrichment are related but distinct constructs ($r = -.24 - .52$; Carlson et al., 2009). This study has also introduced proflection as an additional alternative framing approach to work-life management. As distinct individual approaches to work-life management, it is expected that each frame will be significantly different from each other on the

satisfaction outcomes in this study. Additionally, prior research supports that some framing approaches are related to higher satisfaction (e.g., balance and enrichment) while others are related to lower satisfaction (e.g., conflict). Therefore, excluding the control condition, it is expected that the order of relationships between frame condition and dependent variables will progress from conflict as the lowest, to balance, enrichment, and proflection as the highest, as this is a strategy intended to transcend the positive effects of balance and enrichment.

Hypothesis 5a: The order of relationships between frame condition and scenario role satisfaction will be conflict, balance, enrichment, and proflection.

Hypothesis 5b: The order of relationships between frame condition and role interaction satisfaction will be conflict, balance, enrichment, and proflection.

Hypothesis 5c: The order of relationships between frame condition and personal life role satisfaction will be conflict, balance, enrichment, and proflection.

See Figure 1 for a summary of the hypothesized relationships between framing conditions and satisfaction outcomes.
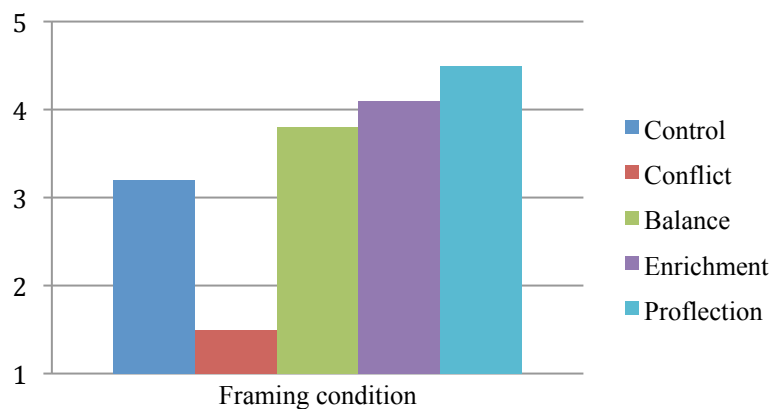
Figure 1. Hypothesized relationships between framing conditions and satisfaction outcomes.

Effect of Having Children and Age Group of Youngest Child

According to work by Levinson (1986) there are different stages in an adult's life, within which different factors are of greater or lesser importance and priority. For example, having children or not can have different effects on how one approaches and manages the work-life interface. Prior research has found that early adulthood (age 17-45), the time when most people have children, is marked by higher conflict and lower facilitation than other stages of life (Demerouti, Peeters, & van der Heijden, 2012; Levinson, 1986). In addition, a meta-analysis found that the number of children a person has was an antecedent to both work interfering with family and family interfering with work (Michel et al., 2011). In other words, having children has been linked to increased work-family conflict, and increased work-family conflict has been related to lower job, family, and life satisfaction (Allen, 2013; Demerouti et al., 2012; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998) Therefore, it is expected that for people who have children, they will have lower overall satisfaction scores compared to people who do not have children.

In addition, people with children are likely to have different expectations and application of framing approaches compared to people without children. For example, people with children may be more satisfied with a proactive conflict approach than an enrichment approach because it is easier to see how to reduce the conflict (e.g., by choosing to forgoing work or personal time for family needs) versus finding ways for roles to complement each other (e.g., it is not realistic for them to combine work and children demands).

Hypothesis 6a: Participants without children will have the pattern of scores for frame conditions of conflict, control, balance, enrichment, and proflection, while

participants will children will have the pattern of scores for conditions of enrichment, control, balance, conflict, and proflection for scenario role satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6b: Participants without children will have the pattern of scores for frame conditions of conflict, control, balance, enrichment, and proflection, while participants will children will have the pattern of scores for conditions of enrichment, control, balance, conflict, and proflection for role interaction satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6c: Participants without children will have the pattern of scores for frame conditions of conflict, control, balance, enrichment, and proflection, while participants will children will have the pattern of scores for conditions of enrichment, control, balance, conflict, and proflection for personal life role satisfaction.

Finally, the age of a person's youngest child has been found to be a solid predictor of the work-life interface, with children under age 12 requiring more temporal and economic resources (Demerouti et al., 2012; Martinengo, Jacob, & Hill, 2010) compared to children aged 12-18 who are more independent and children aged over 18 who are likely living out of the home. Therefore, it is expected that for people who have children, those with children under age 12 will be least satisfied overall, followed by people with children age 12-18, and finally those with children over age 18 will be the most satisfied overall.

In addition, certain frames are likely to lead to higher satisfaction for people with their youngest child in certain age groups. For example, people with children under age 12 are likely to be more satisfied with a conflict approach versus a proflection approach. As mentioned before it may be easier for parents of young children to see how to reduce the conflict between roles compared to drawing on past experiences—with young

children many experiences are new and there may not be as many past successes that come to mind to apply to the current situation for people with children under age 12. For people with children age 12-18, a proflection strategy may lead to more satisfaction because they now have more experiences to draw on, but a conflict approach would still be a close second for satisfaction. People with children over 18, who are likely not living at home, are expected to have the same pattern as people without children.

Hypothesis 6d: Participants with children under age 12 will have the pattern of scores for frame conditions of proflection, control, balance, enrichment, and conflict, participants with children age 12-18 of control, balance, enrichment, conflict, and proflection, and participants with children over age 18 of conflict, control, balance, enrichment, and proflection for scenario role satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6e: Participants with children under age 12 will have the pattern of scores for frame conditions of proflection, control, balance, enrichment, and conflict, participants with children age 12-18 of control, balance, enrichment, conflict, and proflection, and participants with children over age 18 of conflict, control, balance, enrichment, and proflection for role interaction satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6f: Participants with children under age 12 will have the pattern of scores for frame conditions of proflection, control, balance, enrichment, and conflict, participants with children age 12-18 of control, balance, enrichment, conflict, and proflection, and participants with children over age 18 of conflict, control, balance, enrichment, and proflection for personal life role satisfaction.

See Figure 2 for a summary of the expected order of frame conditions on satisfaction outcomes for people with children versus without, as well as for age groups of participants' youngest child.
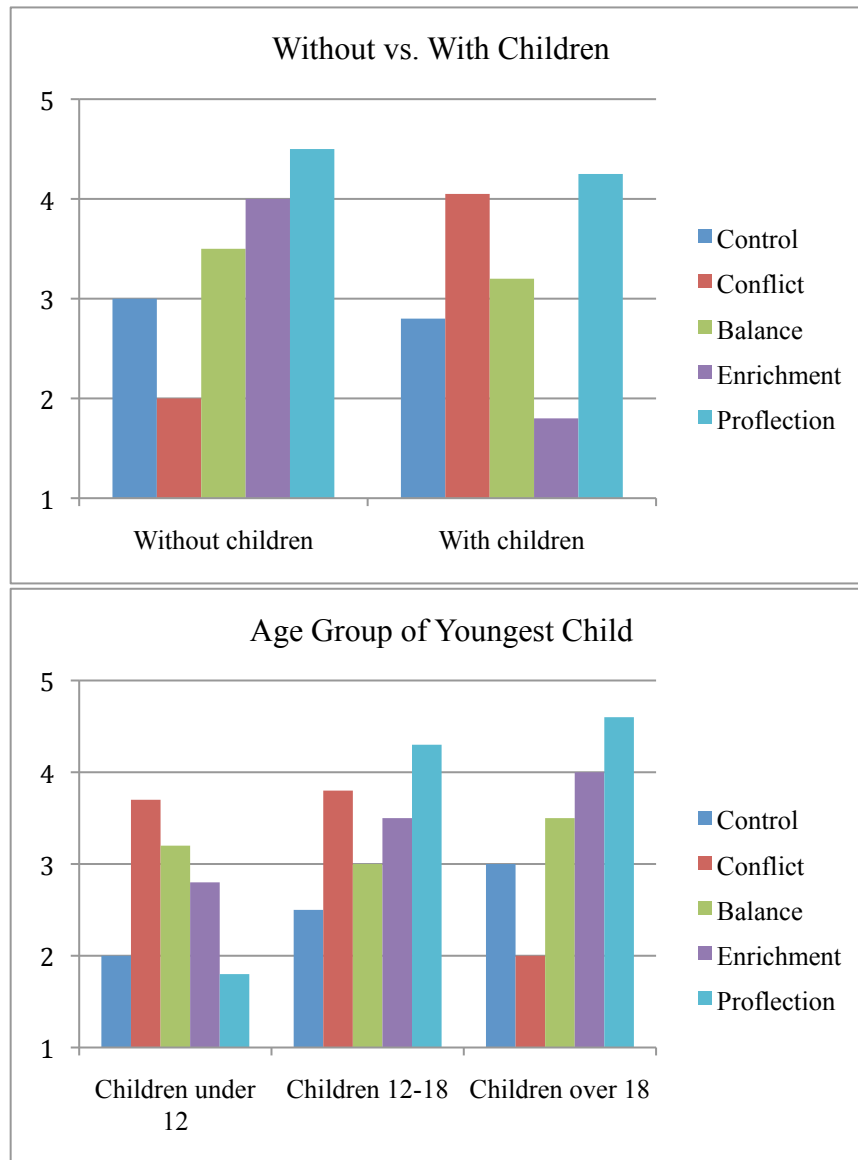
Figure 2. Hypothesized relationships for framing conditions and the factors of having children vs. not and age group of participant's youngest child for satisfaction outcomes.

CHAPTER II
Method

This study explored the effect of framing on role interaction satisfaction, scenario role satisfaction, and personal life role satisfaction in the context of managing a work-life situation with multiple role demands. This study assessed the extent to which participants were satisfied in each role based on the choices they made, the extent to which multiple roles were positively, neutrally, or negatively impacting each other and within role satisfaction based on the framing approach that participants adopt, and how satisfied participants were with the roles they play in their own lives.

Procedure

A survey was made available on Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk), an open online marketplace where tasks (i.e., surveys) are posted that users can choose to voluntarily complete and be compensated a small amount of money (e.g., 5¢, 50¢; $1.00; Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). Participants completed the survey through Qualtrics, an online survey platform. In the survey, participants were given a randomly assigned framing prime statement and framing question that corresponds to a conflict, enrichment, balance, proflection or control condition (see Appendix A). They were then presented with a challenging work-life scenario (see Appendix B). The scenario presented participants with a number of tasks to complete for various roles (e.g., work, family, friends, health) within a 6-hour timeframe. Participants were asked to complete open-ended responses specifying which role tasks they will do, when they will be completed in half-hour increments, and why they chose those tasks. They then completed three satisfaction surveys: how satisfied they are with their roles in the scenario based on

their choices, how those choices effect other roles in the scenario, and how satisfied they are with roles in their own personal life.

The focus of this study was the effect of framing on decision-making; therefore, a vignette was be used to control the competing role demands that participants must face. The intent for this study was to design a vignette where all roles are high pressure, given that previous research has demonstrated that the choice to participate between competing activities depends on external pressure and salience of roles, such that individuals tend to pick the roles that have the highest pressure and are the most salient to the individual (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003).

In addition, most research has focused on a "levels" rather than "episodes" approach to work-life management—measuring general levels of satisfaction, conflict, balance, enrichment, etc., instead of assessing specific episodes, or actual situations of managing the work-life interface (Maertz & Boyar, 2010). An episodic approach is a more specific, conducive method to conduct this research because work-life management is experienced at a discrete level, as it happens (Maertz & Boyar, 2010; Shockley & Allen, 2013); that is, people need to make decisions in the moment the role demand happens. This study explored the extent of satisfaction people experience as a result of their choices based on a frame for a specific episode of work-life management—what will individuals do here and now to manage the work-life interface.

Frame primes. Framing primes for the conditions of conflict, enrichment, and balance were based on common definitions in the work-life literature. The framing prime statement and question for proflection were developed for this study based on social

cognitive theory, with an emphasis on recalling a past enactive mastery experience. See

Appendix A for the descriptions and basis of each framing prime.

     Scenario. Four roles were selected to be intersecting in the challenging scenario:

work, family, health, and friends. The tasks to be completed for each role were developed

through pilot testing such that participants would not be able to choose easily between

role demands or properly time activities to accomplish all of them. See Appendix B for

the work-life scenario.

Participants and Sampling

     Participants were recruited through MTurk. Research suggests that MTurk

produces samples that are representative of the general population, users respond to

experimental stimuli in a way consistent with previous research, and users are motivated

by enjoyment (Berinsky, Huber, & Lenz, 2012; Buhrmester et al., 2011). For this study,

participants were compensated $1.00 for completing a 20-minute survey. Participants

were restricted to those who are 18 years or older and live in the US as identified on

users' MTurk profile. This study posed limited to no risk; participants agreed to an

informed consent form prompting them to skip any questions or withdraw from the study

at any time without penalty.

     Data were collected from a total of 180 participants. Of these, 1 response was

detected as a repeat participant with a duplicate IP address and eliminated, and 8 other

responses were eliminated due to poor data quality (e.g., they did not respond to the

scenario and instead answered how they were going to spend the evening in their real

life). A total of 171 participants (48.2% male, 51.8% female; age $M = 35.40$ [$SD =$

12.46]) remained for analyses.

Design

The study used an experimental design to allow the testing of causal relationships. Participants were randomly assigned to complete a survey with one of five priming conditions, including the control condition. Qualtrics randomly assigned participants to the five conditions.

Measures

Scenario role satisfaction. A four-item measure was created to assess the extent to which participants were satisfied with each individual role in the scenario (health, family, work, friends; Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Carlson et al., 2006; 2009; Kacmar et al., 2014), based on the choices they made of what they would do for the evening. The item reads, "Looking back at the schedule you made, how satisfied are you with the way in which you will spend your evening across these four different roles?" Participants rated each role from 1 (*very dissatisfied*) to 5 (*very satisfied*).

Scenario role satisfaction was a formative measure, in that indicators (ratings of individual roles) were combined to form a latent construct (overall life role satisfaction), with causality flowing from the measure to the latent construct (Coltman, Devinney, Midgley, & Venaik, 2008). This is in contrast to traditional reflective measures, where changes in an indicator X reflect changes in a latent construct Y, and causality flows from the latent construct to the indictor or measure (Coltman et al., 2008). Scenario role satisfaction was measured as participants' ratings of satisfaction with roles based on choices they made in the scenario which often required choices between them. As different participants made different choices about which roles to invest in and rated satisfaction based on those different choices, items were not expected to correlate highly

positively as indicated by Cronbach's alpha and were not (α = .09). See Appendix C for full measure.

Role interaction satisfaction. A four-item measure was created based on the striving instrumentality matrix (SIM; Emmons, 1986; Emmons & King, 1988) to assess the extent to which roles were complementing or competing with each other. Participants answered all combinations (i.e., 12 role combinations) of how the choices they made in the scenario about one role impacted the other three roles, rating from -2 (*strong harmful impact*) to +2 (*strong helpful impact*). For example, if individuals choose to fulfill the demands of the work role and not the family role, work was likely having a harmful impact on family. Scores were recoded into a 1 through 5 scale for analyses. The reliability for this scale as measured by Cronbach's alpha was .81. See Appendix C for full measure.

Personal life role satisfaction. A six-item measure was created to assess the extent to which participants were satisfied with 6 of their own personal roles (e.g., friends, work, health, spiritual, family, personal time), as well as the option to add up to two additional roles. The item reads, "Now think about *your own life* outside of the scenario and the major roles that you play. Rate the extent to which you are satisfied in each of these roles." Participants rated each role from 1 (*very dissatisfied*) to 5 (*very satisfied*), or selected N/A if they felt the role did not apply to them. The reliability for this scale as measured by Cronbach's alpha was .74. See Appendix C for full measure.

Analyses

Reliability. In the context of this study, the three satisfaction outcomes were conceptualized as single-item measures with multiple ratings (i.e., satisfaction ratings for

each role of family, friends, work, health). This could be interpreted as having more than

three dependent variables identified for this study—that is, each role could be interpreted

as an individual dependent variable. This is not the case. In this study, satisfaction was

conceptualized as an aggregate model, where the multidimensional construct of overall

life satisfaction was the aggregate of satisfaction ratings in a work role, family role,

friend role, and health role (Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998). For measurement, scenario

role satisfaction ($\alpha = .09$), role interaction satisfaction ($\alpha = .81$), and personal life role

satisfaction ($\alpha = .74$) were organized as a scale. In other words, this study measured the

observed variable of individual role satisfactions to represent the latent variable of overall

life satisfaction. For example, conflict was expected to lead to more negative ratings

across all roles because this approach of minimizing loss drives overall negative

outcomes (e.g., increased turnover and burnout, decreased job, life, and marital

satisfaction; Allen, 2013; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; 1999). Therefore, measuring

satisfactions of each role with single-items and organizing each outcome as a scale was

acceptable for this study.

However, there was the possibility that satisfaction in the roles does not load onto

one factor and that analyses would need to be conducted by role. While in the past there

have been misgivings about the use of single-item measures, research has found that

single-item overall satisfaction questions were sufficiently reliable (Saari & Judge, 2004).

More specifically, single-item measures of job satisfaction (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy,

1997), happiness (Abdel-Khalek, 2006), and brand attitudes (Bergkvist & Rossiter, 2007)

were found to correlate .58-.67 with their multiple-item counterparts (e.g., JDI for job

satisfaction; SWLS for happiness) or show no difference in predictive validity. Overall,

single-item measures that ask about general satisfaction versus satisfaction with specific

facets have been deemed appropriate for assessment.

    Hypothesis testing. To assess the extent to which different conditions affect role

interaction and satisfaction compared to the control condition, Hypotheses 1 through 4

were tested with multiple regression using dummy coding, with the control condition as

the reference group (see Table 1 for dummy codes). The results tested the average

difference on dependent variables for each frame from the reference group; in other

words the difference in mean role interaction and satisfaction from not using a frame

(control/reference group) to using the experimental frames.

    Dummy coding was selected over contrast coding because dummy coding is

better suited for studies with a control group, the different condition groups are of relative

equal size, and of interest is investigating the differences of using a given frame (conflict,

enrichment, balance, proflection) compared to not (control).

Table 1
Dummy Codes for Multiple Regression

	Dummy Variable 1	Dummy Variable 2	Dummy Variable 3	Dummy Variable 4
Control	0	0	0	0
Conflict	1	0	0	0
Balance	0	1	0	0
Enrichment	0	0	1	0
Proflection	0	0	0	1

    Hypothesis 5 was tested using a one-way ANOVA and planned contrasts to

determine differences between frame conditions (see Table 2 for planned contrasts), and

Hypothesis 6 was tested using factorial ANOVA and simple effects analyses to determine

group differences and interactions between frame conditions and the additional factors of

having children versus not and the age group of participants' youngest child, respectively.

These additional factors were coded into two dummy variables with (0 = do not have

children; 1 = have children) and within those who have children (1 = children under 12; 2

= children 12-18; 3 = children over 18).

Table 2
Planned Contrasts for One-way ANOVA

	Conflict	Balance	Enrichment	Proflection
Contrast 1	-¾	¼	¼	¼
Contrast 2	0	$-^2/_3$	$^1/_3$	$^1/_3$
Contrast 3	0	0	-½	½

CHAPTER III
Results

Control Condition Pilot Test

Participants in the control condition may have been using a variety of the framing conditions or a combination of frames. In order to inform interpretation of the control condition, a pilot test was conducted to investigate when unprompted, the extent to which people draw on each of the framing conditions to approach a work-life management situation with multiple role demands, as well as the one framing approach they rely on the most.

Results of pilot. Data were collected from a separate MTurk sample with a total of 147 participants; see Table 3 for a summary of pilot sample characteristics. Consistent with the methods described above, participants were asked to rate on a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*to a very great extent*) how much they drew on each of the framing approaches to handle the challenging work-life scenario, as well as selecting the one approach they most relied on to navigate the scenario. See Table 4 for means and standard deviations of the extent to which each frame was drawn on, the percentage of each frame selected as the one frame a participant relied on the most, and correlations with outcome measures. Note that the results reported here were part of a larger study where four other framing approaches were also provided to respondents (learning orientation, life stages, positive psychology, and healthy relationships).

Table 3
Summary of Pilot Study Sample Characteristics

	M (SD)	Percent
Gender		
Male		41.4%
Female		58.6%
Age	35.59 (*10.68*)	
Hours worked	39.51 (*10.99*)	
Status		
Single, never married		29.9%
Married		44.9%
Divorced		5.4%
Separated		0.7%
Widowed		1.4%
Living with partner		17.7%

Note. N = 147

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations for Pilot Study

Frame	M (SD)	Most relied on frame (%)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Conflict	3.40 (*1.15*)	8.8%	--						
2. Balance	3.76 (*1.02*)	19.7%	.30**	--					
3. Enrichment	2.82 (*1.19*)	0%	.31**	.46**	--				
4. Proflection	3.07 (*1.21*)	1.4%	.15	.24**	.39**	--			
5. Scenario role satisfaction	3.67 (.58)		.16*	.09	.25**	.12	--		
6. Role interaction satisfaction	3.07 (.55)		.07	-.02	.22**	.18*	.45**	--	
7. Personal life role satisfaction	3.77 (.73)		.08	.05	.15	.07	.25**	.37**	--

Note. N = 147. *p < .05. **p < .01. Most relied on frame percentages do not add up to 100% because there were other framing options available for selection that were not part of this study.

When unprompted with a specific framing approach, out of the four frames that were the focus of this study, participants tended to draw on the work-life balance framing most often as measured by their ratings (M = 3.76 [SD = 1.02]) and selected work-life balance as the approach they relied on most often when forced to choose only one frame

(19.7%). The conflict frame was rated as the next most relied on (8.8%; $M = 3.40$ [$SD = 1.15$]), followed by the proflection frame (1.4%; $M = 3.07$ [$SD = 1.21$]), and lastly the enrichment frame which no one selected as their most relied on frame and was drawn on to a lesser extent than the other frames (0%; $M = 2.82$ [$SD = 1.21$]). The four frames were only moderately correlated ($r = .15$ to $.46$) indicating that they are related but still distinct approaches.

In summary, the control condition pilot test results indicated that out of the frames that are the focus of this study, individuals in the control condition are likely to be drawing on a balance approach to a greater extent than the other framing approaches. In addition, the moderate correlations between frames suggest that if an individual is using one approach (e.g., trying to find the right balance) they may be drawing on other framing approaches, potentially in combination. For example, individuals could be finding the right balance by trying to reduce the conflict and look for ways roles can complement each other. This suggests that when unprompted, individuals' "default" approach for work-life management is not likely one single approach, but rather a combination of framing strategies. This indicates how much causal frame studies are needed to deconstruct and assess the unique effects of frames on subsequent work-life satisfaction.

Manipulation Check and Data Screening

Manipulation check. To verify that participants were responding to the manipulation as intended (i.e., people in the conflict condition were thinking about conflict; people in balance were thinking about balance, etc.), an independent coder assessed participants' open-ended responses to each frame's unique priming question and

predicted which frame condition the participant received based on their responses (see

Appendix A for the priming questions). The coder was instructed to determine which

frame condition each participant was in by using indicator words from each prompt (e.g.,

for conflict "reduce," "minimize;" for proflection "in the past," "strategies"). If the coder

felt a participant did not provide enough information to determine which frame condition

participants were in, the coder was instructed not to code the response.

Excluding the control condition that did not have a priming question, out of a total

of 138 participants in the framing conditions, 22 (16% of the sample) provided enough

information in their open-ended response for the coder to assign the response to one of

the framing conditions. Out of these 22 participants, 18 (82%) were coded into their

correct framing condition. This evidence is adequate to conclude that the framing

manipulation operated as intended across participants.

Data screening. Data from 180 participants was collected via MTurk. Several

steps were taken to ensure quality of responses. IP addresses were investigated to check

for repeat respondents, and open-ended responses were scanned to ensure data quality.

After eliminating respondents for repeat, inappropriate, or poor quality responses, a total

of 171 participants remained for analyses. See Table 5 for a summary of sample

characteristics.

Table 5
Summary of Study Sample Characteristics

	M (SD)	Percent
Gender		
Male		48.2%
Female		51.8%
Age	35.40 (*12.46*)	
Hours worked	39.11 (*20.00*)	
Status		
Single, never married		41.2%
Married		44.7%
Divorced		3.5%
Separated		0.6%
Widowed		0.6%
Living with partner		9.4%
Have children		46.2%
Do not have children		53.8%
Age of youngest child	10.34 (*11.47*)	

Note. N = 171.

An item-level missingness analysis revealed that 1.31% of values were missing;

Little's MCAR test indicated that data were missing at random (MAR); therefore,

multiple imputation was deemed appropriate to handle missing data. The multiple

imputation procedure in SPSS was used to generate five imputation data sets with 10

iterations, using item-level imputation for scenario role satisfaction, role interaction

satisfaction, and personal life role satisfaction scales. One imputed data set was randomly

selected on which to run analyses. Lastly, values in this imputed data set representing

"Not Applicable" on the personal life role satisfaction scale were eliminated to represent

theoretically appropriate missing data.

Casewise diagnostics were examined to identify extreme cases with high

discrepancy values on the dependent variables (i.e., outliers; Cohen et al., 2003; Field,

2009). In a normally distributed sample, approximately 95% of cases should have

standardized residuals within about ±2 (or specifically ±1.96), only 1% of cases should

have residuals greater than ±2.5, and cases with residuals greater than ±3 warrant further

investigation as an outlier. Additionally, a critical t-value was calculated to test the

significance of the largest residual using the Bonferroni procedure to adjust alpha based

on the number of cases. In this instance, cases with residuals greater than 2.85 (171 cases

with $\alpha = .05$, one-tailed; $\alpha/n = .05/171 = .0003$, $df = 171\text{-}5\text{-}1 = 165$) represent values

unlikely to happen by chance and potential outliers (Cohen et al., 2003). Diagnostics

revealed three cases with residuals that warranted further investigation: one case with

residuals of 3.19 on role interaction satisfaction, and two cases with residuals of -3.42 on

personal life role satisfaction; no outliers were detected on scenario role satisfaction.

However, these three cases only represent approximately 1% of cases greater than the

limits of ±2.5, as expected, and were not found to have an impact on analyses. As the

sample appears to conform to what is expected for an accurate model, these three cases

remained a part of the data set for analyses.

      Checking assumptions. The assumptions underlying multiple regression with a

single categorical predictor are independent samples, independence of residuals,

homogeneity of variance, and normality of residuals. First, participants in one frame

condition were in no other conditions, so each value on an outcome variable came from a

separate individual and the assumption of independent samples was met. Second, the

Durbin-Watson test indicated that residuals were uncorrelated, meeting the assumption of

independent errors. Third, Levene's test for homogeneity of variance indicated no

violation for scenario role satisfaction (.327, $p = .86$) or role interaction satisfaction (1.73,

$p = .15$), but indicated violation for personal life role satisfaction (5.03, $p < .01$). Lastly,

the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test was used to assess the normality of residuals.

Significant results from the K-S test indicated that the distribution of errors in scenario role satisfaction, role interaction satisfaction, and personal life role satisfaction deviated from normality. However, given the larger sample size of this study and subsequent small standard errors, significant values on the K-S test can occur with even small deviations from normality, and it may be better to also inspect normality visually (Cohen et al., 2003; Field, 2009). Examination of histograms and normal P-P plots for each dependent variable indicated that the responses were relatively normally distributed, and only slightly leptokurtic. Converting kurtosis scores to z-scores revealed that these scores were less than 1.96, indicating that they were within acceptable levels of normality (Field, 2009). In summary, the assumptions for multiple regression in this sample were satisfactorily met.

Primary Analyses: Tests of Hypotheses

Means, standard deviations, and correlations are presented in Table 6. Regression results for the effect of work-life frame condition on the different satisfaction outcomes are presented in Table 7. Overall, R^2 values indicated that the work-life frame condition used to handle the challenging scenario significantly accounts for 7.2% of variance in scenario role satisfaction (F [4, 165] = 3.21, p = .014, 95% CI [-.001, .145]), 5.6% of variance in role interaction satisfaction (F [4, 162] = 2.46, p = .047, 95% CI [-.009, .121]), and was unrelated to personal life role satisfaction (R^2 = .01; F [4, 166] = .378, p = .824). Following are the results for specific hypotheses.

Table 6
Descriptive Statistics, Reliability Estimates, and Intercorrelations among Study Variables

Variable	*n*	*M (SD)*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*
1. Control	34						
2. Conflict	40						
3. Enrichment	33						
4. Balance	29						
5. Proflection	35						
6. Scenario role satisfaction	171	3.76 (.60)	(.09)				
7. Role interaction satisfaction	171	3.13 (.62)	.42**	(.81)			
8. Personal life role satisfaction	171	3.75 (.65)	.26**	.29**	(.74)		
9. Gender	170	1.52 (.50)	-.11	-.05	.01	--	
10. Age	171	35.40 (*12.46*)	-.02	.17*	.13	.07	--

Note. *N* = 171. *p < .05. **p < .01. Gender was coded as 1 = Male, 2 = Female. Correlations between and with categorical frames are inapplicable and not included.

Table 7
Multiple Regression Analyses Comparing Framing Conditions to Control

Variable	β	t	R^2	F
Scenario role satisfaction				
Conflict vs. Control	-.094	-.692		
Enrichment vs. Control	.123	.832		
Balance vs. Control	-.363	-2.547*		
Proflection vs. Control	.017	.124		
			.072	3.209*
Role interaction satisfaction				
Conflict vs. Control	-.045	-.316		
Enrichment vs. Control	-.230	-1.495		
Balance vs. Control	-.412	-2.775**		
Proflection vs. Control	-.159	-1.083		
			.056	2.463*
Personal life role satisfaction				
Conflict vs. Control	.002	.015		
Enrichment vs. Control	-.102	-.612		
Balance vs. Control	-.155	-.965		
Proflection vs. Control	-.027	-.172		
			.009	.378

Note. N = 171. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Conflict vs. control conditions. Results indicated that the work-life satisfaction scores for the conflict frame were not significantly different than the control condition for scenario role satisfaction (β = -.09, t = -.69, p = .49), role interaction satisfaction (β = -.05, t = -.31, p = .75), and personal life role satisfaction (β = .002, t = .02, p = .99). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Enrichment vs. control conditions. Results indicated that the work-life satisfaction scores for the enrichment frame condition were not significantly different than the control condition for scenario role satisfaction (β = .12, t = .83, p = .41), role

interaction satisfaction (β = -.23, t = -1.50, p = .14), and personal life role satisfaction (β = -.10, t = -.61, p = .54). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Balance vs. control conditions. Results indicated the work-life satisfaction scores for the balance frame condition were significantly lower than the control condition for scenario role satisfaction (β = -.36, t = -2.55, p = .01, 95% CI [-.645, -.082]) and role interaction satisfaction (β = -.41, t = -2.78, p = .01, 95% CI [-.706, -.119]). The balance frame was not significantly different than the control condition for personal life role satisfaction (β = -.16, t = -.97, p = .34). Hypothesis 3 was not supported; results instead suggest that the balance condition led to significantly lower satisfaction than the control condition.

Proflection vs. control conditions. Results indicated that the work-life satisfaction scores for the proflection frame condition were not significantly different than the control condition for scenario role satisfaction (β = .02, t = .12, p = .90), role interaction satisfaction (β = -.16, t = -1.08, p = .28), and personal life role satisfaction (β = -.03, t = -.17, p = .86). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Differences between frame conditions. Results of a one-way ANOVA indicated there was a significant overall effect of frame condition for scenario role satisfaction, $F(3, 133) = 4.45$, $p < .01$, $\omega^2 = .07$, no significant overall effect of frame condition for role interaction satisfaction ($F[3, 133] = 2.46$, $p = .07$), and no significant overall effect of frame condition for personal life role satisfaction ($F[3, 133] = .37$, $p = .77$). In sum, there were significant differences between frame conditions for scenario role satisfaction, but no significant differences for role interaction satisfaction or personal life role satisfaction (see Figure 3).
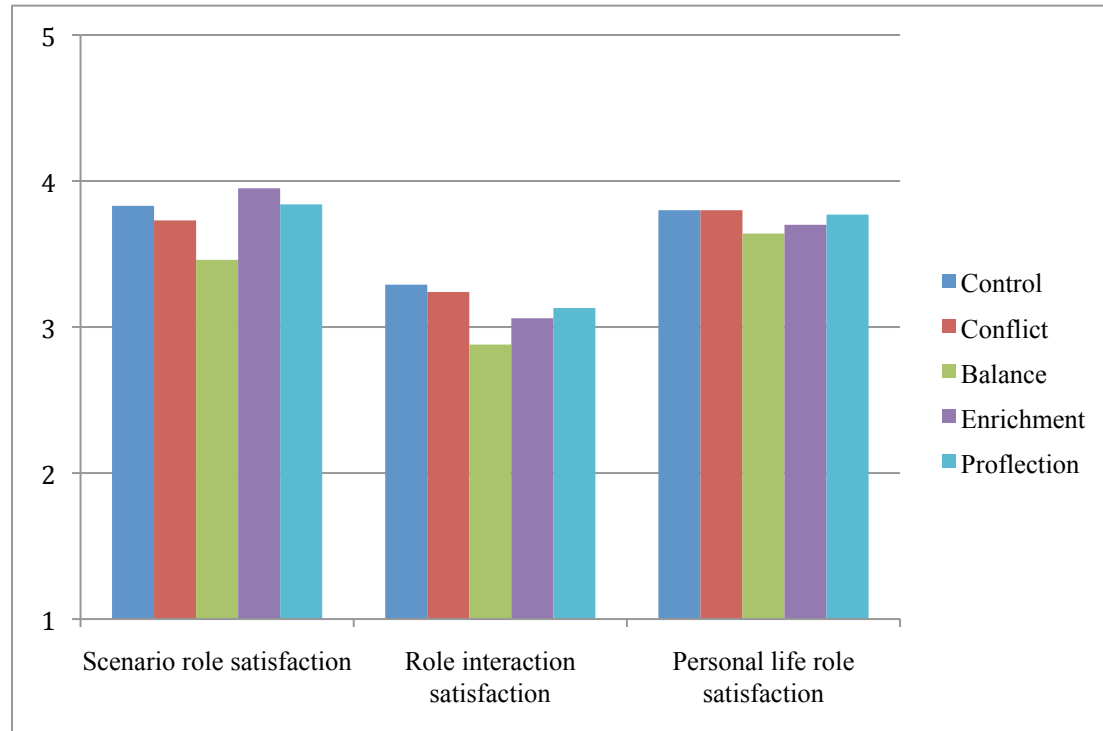
Figure 3. Differences between frame conditions for satisfaction outcomes.

Planned contrasts revealed that the enrichment and proflection frame conditions did have significantly higher ratings for scenario role satisfaction compared to balance, $t(133) = 3.61$, $p < .01$ (1-tailed), $r = .30$. There were no other significant differences between contrasts for scenario role satisfaction. For role interaction satisfaction, contrary to hypotheses the conflict frame condition had significantly higher ratings compared to balance, enrichment, and proflection ($t[133] = -2.02$, $p < .05$ [1-tailed], $r = .17$). Additionally the enrichment and proflection frame conditions had significantly higher ratings of role interaction satisfaction compared to balance, $t(133) = 1.73$, $p < .05$ (1-tailed), $r = .15$. Lastly, there were no significant differences between contrasts for personal life role satisfaction. While there were significant differences between frames for scenario role satisfaction and role interaction satisfaction, they were not in the

hypothesized order of frame conditions. Hypotheses 5 was not supported; results instead suggest that the balance condition led to significantly lower satisfaction and the conflict condition led to significantly higher satisfaction than the enrichment and proflection frames.

Effect of children vs. no children. See Table 8 for means and standard deviations for participants with children versus not and age groups of participants' youngest child within frame conditions.

With children versus without. First comparing participants with children to those without, ANOVA results indicated for scenario role satisfaction a significant main effect of frame condition ($F = 2.92$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .07$), but no significant interaction between frame condition and having children versus not ($F = .20$, $p = .94$) and no significant main effect of having children versus not ($F = .01$, $p = .92$). Simple effects analysis revealed the effect of frame was significantly different for those without children ($F = 2.47$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .06$) and not significantly different for those with children ($F = .86$, $p = .49$). Pairwise comparisons revealed for people without children, the mean of balance was significantly lower than the means of control ($M_{Diff} = -.44$, $p = .03$), conflict ($M_{Diff} = -.37$, $p = .05$), enrichment ($M_{Diff} = -.58$, $p = .004$), and proflection ($M_{Diff} = -.44$, $p = .03$). In sum, there was no interaction of frame and having children or not and no main effect of having children versus not for scenario role satisfaction scores, and though there was a main effect of frame for people without children, it was not in the hypothesized pattern. Hypothesis 6a was not supported; results instead suggest that for people without children the balance condition led to significantly lower satisfaction than the other framing conditions.

Table 8
Descriptive Statistics of Child Groups and Age Groups of Youngest Child within Frames

Variable		*n*	Scenario role satisfaction	Role interaction satisfaction	Personal life role satisfaction
			M (SD)		
Control	Without children	16	3.83 (.66)	3.09 (.79)	3.78 (.48)
	With children	18	3.82 (.71)	3.46 (.55)	3.82 (.49)
Conflict	Without children	22	3.76 (.67)	3.28 (.70)	3.84 (.58)
	With children	18	3.69 (.48)	3.19 (.59)	3.75 (.49)
Balance	Without children	18	3.39 (.71)	2.84 (.59)	3.58 (.94)
	With children	15	3.55 (.33)	2.92 (.58)	3.72 (.97)
Enrichment	Without children	18	3.97 (.48)	3.05 (.35)	3.66 (.50)
	With children	11	3.91 (.58)	3.08 (.51)	3.75 (.58)
Proflection	Without children	18	3.83 (.56)	3.10 (.53)	3.72 (.59)
	With children	17	3.85 (.57)	3.16 (.76)	3.83 (.84)
Control	Children under 12	10	3.72 (.48)	3.23 (.43)	3.71 (.48)
	Children 12-18	1	4.25 (-)	3.91 (-)	4.00 (-)
	Children over 18	7	3.91 (1.00)	3.73 (.61)	3.95 (.54)
Conflict	Children under 12	13	3.73 (.43)	3.28 (.60)	3.74 (.45)
	Children 12-18	1	3.75 (-)	2.75 (-)	3.20 (-)
	Children over 18	3	3.25 (.50)	2.75 (.30)	3.93 (.75)
Balance	Children under 12	9	3.64 (.13)	2.98 (.55)	3.68 (.90)
	Children 12-18	2	3.63 (.53)	2.53 (.19)	4.42 (.82)
	Children over 18	-	-	-	-
Enrichment	Children under 12	6	3.75 (.32)	3.01 (.27)	3.54 (.51)
	Children 12-18	1	4.75 (-)	4.25 (-)	4.17 (-)
	Children over 18	3	4.25 (.66)	3.04 (.47)	4.29 (.34)
Proflection	Children under 12	14	3.93 (.58)	3.14 (.84)	3.73 (.86)
	Children 12-18	-	-	-	-
	Children over 18	3	3.50 (.50)	3.25 (.22)	4.28 (.34)

Note. There were no participants in the balance condition with children aged 18 and over and no participants in the proflection condition with children aged 12-18. For groups with only 1 participant, standard deviations are not available.

Second, results indicated for role interaction satisfaction no significant interaction between frame condition and having children versus not ($F = .67$, $p = .61$), no significant main effect of frame condition (although it was approaching significance; $F = 2.27$, $p = .06$), and no significant main effect of having children versus not ($F = .88$, $p = .35$). Although the main effect of frame was not significant, pairwise comparisons found that for those without children balance was significantly lower than conflict ($M_{Diff} = -.44$, $p = .02$), and for those with children balance was significantly lower than control ($M_{Diff} = -.55$, $p = .01$). In sum, there was no interaction of frame and having children versus not and no main effect of having children versus not on role interaction satisfaction scores, and though there were differences between framing conditions for people with and without children, they main effect was not significant or in the hypothesized pattern. Therefore, Hypothesis 6b was not supported.

Lastly, results indicated for personal life role satisfaction there was no significant interaction between frame condition and having versus not having children ($F = .16$, $p = .96$), no significant main effect for frame condition ($F = .31$, $p = .87$), and no significant main effect for having children versus not ($F = .33$, $p = .57$). In sum, there were no significant differences for personal life role satisfaction within frame condition between those with children versus those without, and no significant difference for frame conditions within people with children and people without. Therefore, Hypothesis 6c was not supported. See Figure 4 for the relationships of frame conditions on satisfaction outcomes for people with children versus without.
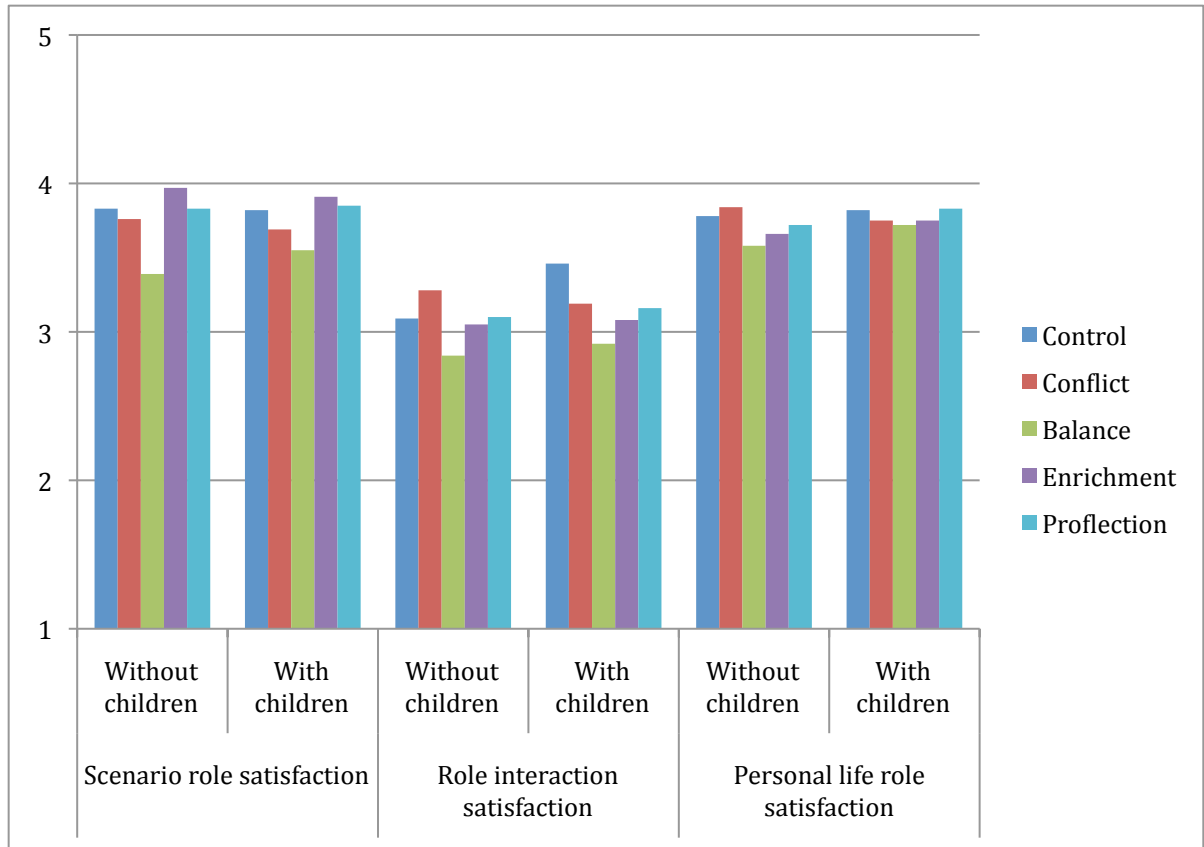
Figure 4. Effect of having children vs. not within frames for satisfaction outcomes.

Age group of youngest child. Within those that have children, results indicated for scenario role satisfaction no significant interaction between frame condition and age group of participants' youngest child ($F = 1.21$, $p = .31$), no significant main effect of frame condition ($F = 1.73$, $p = .15$), no significant main effect of age group participants' of youngest child ($F = 1.02$, $p = .37$). Therefore, Hypothesis 6d was not supported.

Second, results indicated for role interaction satisfaction no significant interaction between frame condition and age group of participants' youngest child ($F = 1.77$, $p = .12$), no significant main effect of frame condition (although it was approaching significance; $F = 2.47$, $p = .054$, $\eta^2 = .14$), and no significant main effect of age group of participants' youngest child ($F = .45$, $p = .64$). Although the main effect of frame was not

significant, pairwise comparisons indicated there were significant differences on frame

conditions within the age groups of participants' youngest child. For those with children

aged 12-18, balance was significantly lower than enrichment (M_{Diff} = -1.72, p = .02), and

for those with children aged 18 and over, conflict was significantly lower than control

(M_{Diff} = -.98, p = .02). In sum, there was no interaction of frame and age group of

participants' youngest child and no main effect of the age of participants' youngest child

for scenario role interaction, and though there were significant differences between frame

conditions within age groups of participants' youngest child, they were not in the

hypothesized patterns. Hypothesis 6e was not supported; results instead suggest that for

people with children ages 12-18 the balance condition led to significantly lower

satisfaction than the enrichment condition and for people with children aged 18 and over

the conflict condition led to significantly lower satisfaction than the control condition.

Lastly, results indicated for personal life role satisfaction no significant

interaction between frame condition and age group of participants' youngest child (F =

.54, p = .78), no significant main effect of frame condition (F = .60, p = .66), and no

significant main effect of age group of participants' youngest child (although it was

approaching significance; F = 2.96, p = .06, η^2 = .09). Therefore, Hypothesis 6f was not

supported. See Figure 5 for the relationships of frame conditions on satisfaction outcomes

for age groups of participants' youngest child.
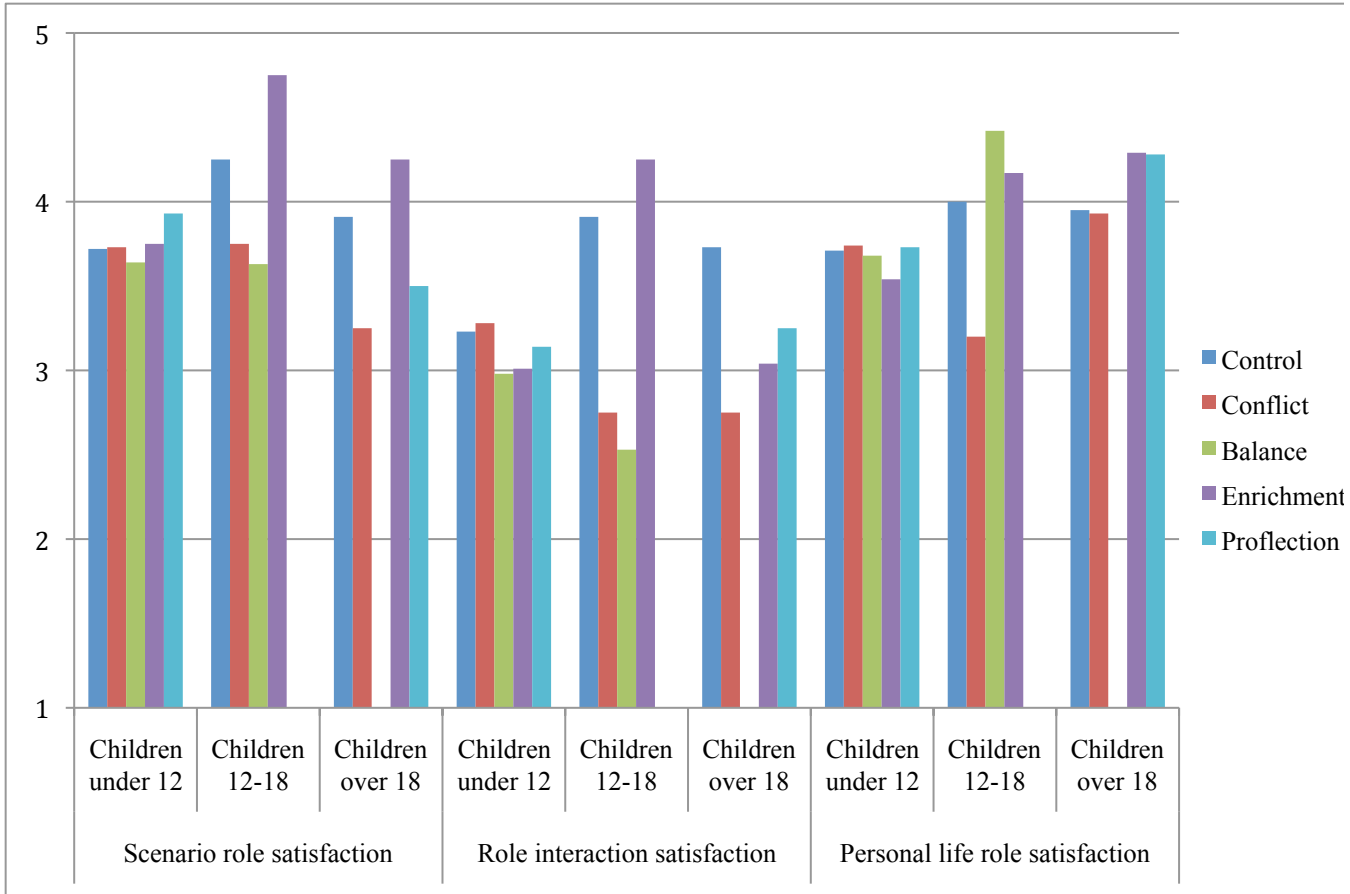
Figure 5. Effect of age group of participant's youngest child within frames for satisfaction outcomes.

Overall, there was no interaction of frame and children and no main effect for people who have children versus people who do not or for the age groups of participants' youngest child on satisfaction scores. While there were main effects of frame and specific differences within groups of people who have children and people who do not, as well as within age groups of participant's youngest child, they were not significant and the differences were not in the hypothesized pattern of frame conditions. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was not supported.

CHAPTER IV
Discussion

The purpose of this study was to test whether approaching work-life management with a particular frame when presented with a scenario with multiple role demands differentially effects an individual's work-life role satisfaction. Three interesting findings emerge: the patterns of work-life framing approaches did affect work-life satisfaction but not in the hypothesized direction, the control condition demonstrated greater importance than expected, and the balance condition displayed significantly negative relationships with satisfaction outcomes. The remaining discussion will review a summary of these results and potential explanations, consider similarities and differences with previous research, discuss the underlying mechanisms at work, practical application and theoretical implications of these findings as well as future research to pursue, and finally address the limitations of this study.

Summary of Results

Each frame versus control. Overall, the framing approach used to manage a scenario with multiple work-life demands had a significant effect on participants' ratings of satisfaction with roles and the extent to which roles helped or hurt each other within the scenario, but did not significantly influence participants' ratings of satisfaction with roles in their own lives. The current results suggest that the way people frame work-life challenges does matter, but not in the way hypothesized. For scenario role satisfaction— participants' ratings of satisfaction in each role in the scenario based on the choices they made—though not significantly different, participants working to minimize conflict had lower satisfaction ratings than participants in the control condition (where individuals

were free to use their own framing) as expected, and participants looking for ways roles could enrich each other and applying past successful strategies had higher satisfaction ratings than participants in the control condition as expected. The only significant difference from the control condition was the balance condition, and contrary to expectations balance was significantly lower for scenario role satisfaction. This suggests that approaching challenges with the goal of achieving "the right balance" can result in lower satisfaction with each role in the situation. This may be because trying to find the right balance, however individually defined, may set up unrealistic expectations for each role leading to lower satisfaction across all roles. This is discussed in more detail below, but overall a balance approach leads to lower satisfaction with roles involved in the situation at hand.

For role interaction satisfaction—the extent to which roles help or hurt each other—though not significantly different, participants working to minimize conflict between roles had lower satisfaction ratings than participants in the control condition, as expected. Contrary to expectations, though not significantly different, participants looking for ways to enhance the ability of roles to complement each other in the enrichment condition and applying past strategies to the current situation in the proflection condition also has lower satisfaction ratings than participants in the control condition. Again the only significant difference from the control condition was the balance condition, and contrary to expectations balance was significantly lower on role interaction satisfaction. Once more, a balance approach leads to less satisfaction and choices where roles are hurting each other more than helping. These results suggest that for individuals to feel their roles are helping each other to a greater extent than hurting

each other, it may be best for people to approach the situation without one specifically prescribed frame and have the freedom to use their own framing strategy. As the pilot test results suggest, this may be because when individuals are using their own unprompted default approach, this approach is potentially a combination of multiple framing approaches. When individuals are free to use whichever strategy they prefer, including combinations, there may be more opportunity to apply the right strategy that results in the biggest return for the most roles, compared to being prescribed one specific approach. For example, research has found that individuals who have an internal locus of control (belief an individual has control over events that affect them) and greater negative affect tend to experience work interfering with family and family interfering with work more often (Michel et al., 2011). For these kinds of people, trying to reduce the conflict between roles by compartmentalizing and controlling overlap may be a better fit for their personality and preferences rather than looking for ways their roles could combine and enrich each other. Overall, for making choices where people feel like their roles are helping each other more than hurting, participants in the control condition whom were free to use the strategy or strategies of their choice were the most satisfied, and those using a balance approach were the least satisfied.

Finally, for personal life role satisfaction—participants' satisfaction with roles in their own lives—no framing conditions were significantly different from the control condition, and all frames had relationships with the control condition in the direction contrary to expectations: participants in the conflict condition had higher ratings than participants in the control condition, while participants in the enrichment, balance, and proflection conditions all had lower ratings than participants in the control condition. The

non-significance of results suggests that the measure may have failed to tap into the extent to which vicarious framing effects of actions in a 15-minute hypothetical scenario carry over into participants' perceptions of satisfaction in their own life roles (discussed further in implications). Though not statistically significant, participants minimizing conflict in a hypothetical situation had higher ratings of satisfaction in their own individual lives, while participants trying to find the balance, looking for ways roles can work together, and drawing on past strategies had lower ratings of satisfaction for roles in their own personal life compared to participants in the control condition. This may be because when people look for ways to reduce conflict in a hypothetical situation—to reduce what roles are taking from each other—it may lead to more satisfaction in individuals' own life roles because they are more able to see that their roles do not operate in that way. Comparatively though, when individuals are asked to look for ways their roles can work together, find balance, and apply past successful strategies, it may be more difficult to see how that occurs in their own real life roles, leading to ratings of lower satisfaction in their own personal life roles.

Figure 6 summarizes visually the difference between hypothesized relationships and results from this study of each frame relative to control on the satisfaction outcomes.

Hypothesized relationships for Scenario role satisfaction, Role Interaction satisfaction, and Personal life role satisfaction		Results of relationships	
Frame standing relative to control		Frame standing relative to control	
		Scenario role satisfaction	
		Sig. higher	
Sig. higher	Enrichment Balance Proflection	Higher, not sig.	**Enrichment Proflection**
	Control		Control
		Lower, not sig.	**Conflict**
Sig. lower	Conflict	Sig. lower	Balance*
		Role interaction satisfaction	
		Sig. higher	
		Higher, not sig.	
			Control
		Lower, not sig.	**Conflict** Enrichment Proflection
		Sig. lower	Balance**
		Personal life role satisfaction	
		Sig. higher	
		Higher, not sig.	Conflict
			Control
		Lower, not sig.	Enrichment Balance Proflection
		Sig. lower	

Note. $*p < .05$ $**p < .01$. **Relationship in expected direction**. Relationship opposite of expected direction.

Figure 6. Summary of discrepancy between hypothesized and resulting relationships for satisfaction outcomes.

Differences between experimental frames. The results indicated that there were

significant differences between frames for scenario role satisfaction and role interaction

satisfaction, but for not personal life role satisfaction. However, contrasts revealed that

the hypothesized order was not observed. For scenario role satisfaction, the balance

condition had significantly lower satisfaction ratings than the other framing conditions,

and the enrichment condition had the highest ratings (see Figure 3). The balance

condition resulted in significantly lower role interaction satisfaction than the other

framing conditions, and the lowest ratings of personal life role satisfaction; the conflict

condition was rated the highest for both role interaction satisfaction and personal life role

satisfaction. This suggests that if an individual is going to use one specific framing

approaching for managing work-life, trying to find the balance will lead to choices where

people feel less satisfied in their roles and choices where roles are hurting more than

helping each other. For feeling satisfied in the roles relevant to the current demands, an

enrichment approach that looks for ways roles can complement each other may be more

adaptive. For feeling like roles are working together and being satisfied in all life roles

overall, reducing the conflict between roles may be the best approach. Compared to the

control condition where individuals are free to use a combination of framing approaches,

one specific framing approach does not appear to lead to greater perceptions of

satisfaction across roles. Overall, if individuals want to apply only one strategy for work-

life management, it should not be a balance approach.

  Effect of children and age group. Within frame groups, whether participants had

children or not and the age of their youngest child for those with children did not have a

significant effect on ratings of satisfaction; that is, having children or not, and the age

group of participants' youngest child did not moderate the relationship between frame

and satisfaction. This suggests that having children or not does not change the influence

of frame on satisfaction. These findings are misaligned with previous research, which

suggests that having children increases interference between work and family, especially

for young children who have greater demands, which in turn relates to decreased

satisfaction (Demerouti et al., 2012; Martinengo et al., 2010; Michel et al., 2011). This may be because the hypothetical scenario involving one child-based role demand does not tap into the true effect of having children or not. Had the study asked those with children about a real world example of a child-based family role demand, perhaps scores between those with and without children would be significantly different. This represents an important area for future research.

There were, however, significant differences between frames within groups of those with children and those without children, and the age of their youngest child; that is, certain frames were better or worse for satisfaction for those with or without children and for age groups of participant's youngest child. This suggests that, consistent with preceding results, it is the frame that matters. For those without children, balance had significantly lower ratings than the other frames for scenario role satisfaction, and for those with children, balance had significantly lower ratings than the control condition for role interaction satisfaction. This suggest that regardless of whether you have children or not, a balance approach leads to lower satisfaction.

Though not statistically significant, the results suggest that contrary to expectations, a conflict approach may be best for those without children for perceptions of roles to working together and feeling satisfied in overall life roles. This may be because for people without children, compartmentalizing roles may be easier than finding ways to complement and combine them because it is still realistic to keep roles separate. When individuals do not have children it may be easier to keep work at work, home at home, and focus on reducing overlap between roles. For individuals with children, an enrichment, proflection, or default (control) approach that may include combinations of

those may be best for feelings satisfied with roles in the current situation, getting them to work together, and feeling satisfied in overall life roles. This may be because for people with children, it is easier to combine roles rather than make accommodations to keep them separate. For example, arranging last minute childcare may be more difficult than bringing the child along to band practice.

Within age groups of participants' youngest child, the only significant differences were found for role interaction satisfaction. For those with children aged 12-18, the balance condition had significantly lower ratings than the enrichment condition and for those with children aged over 18, the conflict condition had significantly lower ratings than the control condition. These results suggest that one specific framing approach may not effect satisfaction for people with children under age 12, but people with children age 12-18 should not use a balance approach, and people with children over 18 should not use a conflict approach.

Consistent with other results of this study, there were no significant differences for personal life role satisfaction for either people with or without children, or for specific age groups among those who do have children, indicating that perceptions of participants' personal life may not have been impacted by the hypothetical 15-minute work-life framing scenario.

Overall, regardless of whether you have children or not and what ages those children are, a balance approach will lead to lower perceptions of satisfaction.

Similarities and differences with previous research. The operationalizations of work-life conflict, balance, and enrichment in this study were consistent with previous work; however, this study contributes to the body of work-life literature through the use

of an experimental design that tested the effect of each of these framing approaches as proactive strategies on broader conceptualizations of satisfaction than previous research, as well as introducing a new framing approach, proflection.

The results indicated that as predictors, balance may not be as advantageous as previous research has demonstrated and conflict may not be as negative. As a predictor balance has been related to several positive outcomes, such as higher job satisfaction, higher family satisfaction, and higher life satisfaction (Allen, 2013; Carlson et al., 2009). One study found that balance predicted job and family satisfaction beyond conflict and enrichment (Carlson et al., 2009). However, these studies measured balance as an overall appraisal of experience across roles; the more an individual felt they experienced balance across roles the more satisfied they were. As a reflective appraisal, higher ratings of experiencing balance may lead to greater perceptions of satisfaction, but this study demonstrated that as a proactive approach to managing a situation with multiple role demands, trying to find the right balance among roles led to significantly lower perceptions of satisfaction.

Additionally, conflict is often associated with more negative outcomes, such as higher turnover, greater physical and psychological strain, and lower job, life, and marital satisfaction (Allen, 2013; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Conflict is also often measured as a reflective appraisal of how much overall conflict an individual feels they experience across roles, generally conceptualized as how often one role takes time away from another role (e.g., working late takes time away from family and leads to work-interfering-with-family conflict; Emslie & Hunt, 2009; Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; McMillan et al., 2008). The results of this study indicate, however, that as a proactive

strategy for managing a work-life situation with multiple demands, trying to reduce the

conflict between roles may lead to greater perceptions of roles working together and

overall satisfaction with all life roles. In sum, as a specific framing approaching for

managing work-life roles, balance may not be as favorable a strategy and conflict not as

harmful a strategy as previous research might suggest.

<div align="center">**Implications and Future Research**</div>

There are several key implications for the findings of this study. Three finding are

particularly important: Participants are consistently more satisfied when they adopt their

own framing approach (i.e., in the control condition), when a frame is specified; a

balance perspective led to lower satisfaction; and, the framing effect did not appear to

carry over to participants' ratings of satisfaction in their own life roles. This section will

discuss these in turn and address the following three areas within each: practical

application, theoretical implications, and future research.

Importance of the Control Condition

First of all, the control condition in which participants were not prescribed any

framing approach but were only asked how they would handle the situation, leaving it

open for each participant to apply what works best for them, was for the most part rated

higher than the other framing conditions. One of the key reasons for this may be the

difference between getting to choose what works best and being prescribed a specific

approach to use. Individuals cannot control the intersection of roles, but they can control

how they handle it. When a specific approach is prescribed, it seems to lead to choices

where people are less satisfied. However, people might be more satisfied when they get

to choose which approach to use that best fits their past experiences, personality, capabilities, preferences, and other factors.

Research on choice, decision-making, and consumer behavior provides support for the notion that choice is important for satisfaction. For example, a meta-analysis on the effects of choice found that providing some type of choice related to a task has a positive overall effect on intrinsic motivation, effort, task performance, perceived competence, and preference for challenge (Patall, Cooper, & Robinson, 2008). In addition, making one choice option unavailable from a set of equally attractive options decreases how satisfied individuals are with the process through which they made their choice (Zhang & Fitzsimons, 1999). Granted, this study gave people an implicit option to choose their own framing approach in the control condition and never explicitly stated for participants to choose whatever approach they wanted or that there were other choices available. But this research lends support that people in the control condition who selected their own framing approach for the challenging scenario may have felt more motivated, competent, and able to accomplish the role demands at hand.

The results of the proflection condition also lend some interesting support for the importance of choice. Within these prescribed approaches, proflection was also aimed to tap into the advantage of getting to choose the strategy that works best for individuals based on their past successes. In the comparisons between frames, proflection was always rated second highest on satisfaction outcomes, indicating that this might be a fruitful strategy for practical application. For example, individuals could catalogue successful work-life management experiences and why they were successful to identify their

framing preferences and make it easier to draw from a pool of strategies when different

challenges arise.

The control condition may also have been rated higher because it does not expect

mutual exclusivity of framing approaches; one could use a combination of them. One

theoretical implication of this is that as a predictor, perhaps these work-life frames are not

mutually exclusive and should not be studied as such. The two most consistently highest

rated frames were control and proflection—frames where participants were able to self-

select what strategy they would specifically apply, which potentially included

combinations of the conflict, enrichment, and balance frames. Correlation data from the

pilot test supports that if individuals are relying on one of the framing approaches of

balance, conflict, or enrichment, they are also relying on the other framing approaches to

a greater extent as well. Previous research has also demonstrated these as related but

distinct constructs, but that is when they have been measured as a reflective appraisal

(e.g., how much balance/conflict/enrichment an individual feels they experience overall

across roles). This study and the pilot study have demonstrated that as a proactive

strategy to work-life management, these framing conditions demonstrate different

relationships with satisfaction than previous research, and that these frames are not

necessarily mutually exclusive strategies.

Future research could investigate not how prescribed balance, conflict, and

enrichment are different but when people make an intentional choice of how to approach

a work-life situation, how and when these framing approaches overlap and the different

effect combinations of framing approaches have on different outcomes. For example, one

option for testing the effect of intentional choice as well as investigating how people

combine and apply different framing strategies could be to describe framing approaches and ask participants to pick and use the frame or combinations of frames they will be using to manage a scenario.

Negative Effect of the Balance Condition

The balance frame condition was the only frame that was significantly different from the control condition and other frames, such that participants reported significantly lower satisfaction than in the other framing approaches. When a person was prescribed this approach, it led to significantly lower ratings on satisfaction with each role based on choices made in a challenging scenario and the extent to which roles had a helpful impact on each other. However, when a person chose to use this approach in the pilot study, there was virtually no relationship with satisfaction—for people who self-selected into a balance approach there were no significant relationships with satisfaction outcomes, and a negative relationship with role interaction satisfaction. The pilot results also indicated that when unprompted, many people might be self-selecting into a balance approach. Balance is the most widely studied work-life construct and the most popularly used among laypersons, with both mostly painting balance in a positive light as a goal to be achieved or a precursor of satisfaction. Yet this study revealed that as a practical application for coping with work-life management, a balance approach leads to outcomes that are negative, namely lower satisfaction.

One reason this might be is that as a proactive strategy for managing a challenging work-life situation, a balance approach may set up unrealistic expectations. Many definitions of work-life balance used in research have an expectation of "doing it all"—fulfilling demands across multiple roles, giving proportional investment to each

role, equal time spent on each role, and so on. When roles collide, individuals need to

find a way to fulfill all demands to get back to whatever that individually defined place of

"balance" is. Other research has found that laypersons tend to conceptualize work-life

balance as juggling; more roles mean more balls must be juggled and when role demands

collide the balls get bigger. A balance approach might keep individuals from thinking

they can drop any of the balls, but rather that they have to make accommodations to keep

them all in the air—there is a discrepancy produced that needs to be reduced (Bandura,

1989). However, balance is a strategy that may not have the means for discrepancy

reduction.

In this study, people were able to individually define what balance meant for them

and how they approached the scenario—but no matter what framing of balance or

combinations they might have used (balancing based on reducing conflict, maximizing

enrichment, balancing by time, balancing by prioritization, balancing by expectations of

key others), they are set up to always fail on another one of those conditions. If people

have multiple ways they have defined and applied balance, this could lead to always

being dissatisfied on one dimension or another (e.g., people balanced time well, but did

not prioritize by the importance of different roles). Even though a discrepancy may have

been reduced on one dimension (e.g., time balance), a balance approach may create

another discrepancy in another dimension (e.g., importance balance). When discrepancy

between roles is not reduced and people do not attain the standard they have been

pursuing, it lowers belief that the person can handle the situation and subsequent

challenges (Bandura, 1989), likely reducing satisfaction with roles in the current

situation. In terms of a practical application and proactive strategy for work-life

management, a balance approach appears to leave people less satisfied and should not be advocated.

As previously mentioned, balance is the most studied work-life concept but researchers have noted the multiple ways that it can be operationalized (e.g., balancing time, balancing attention, balancing satisfaction) and balance is similarly likely defined in all of these diverse ways among the public. One important theoretical implication from the results of this study is the need to more clearly define and measure work-life balance in order to gain a better understanding of its use in research and application in the real world. Several researchers have called out the lack of clarity around the construct of work-life balance (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007; Maertz & Boyar, 2010), but little work has been done to bridge the gap between the multiple definitions that exist in research and how laypersons conceptualize and apply balance in everyday work-life management. In researching the history and measurement of balance, little work was done by researchers to assess how people in the general population operationalized "work-life balance" in their lives or how they used it in the context of everyday management; rather, balance was defined and measured based on previous theoretical work of conflict and enrichment to account more overall appraisal of the work-life interface.

Future research needs to investigate the nature of balance in multiple applications, because evidence here suggests that actively trying manage one's roles to find the right balance leads to lower satisfaction. One of the first studies conducted should be re-examining how work-life balance is conceptualized and measured by creating an operationalization and measurement of balance that incorporates the previous research

and multiple definitions of balance, and the perceptions of actual laypersons who are intended to apply this concept to work-life management, whether as a predictor or outcome.

Non-Significance of Personal Life Role Satisfaction

Personal life role satisfaction was included as an outcome in this study to assess the extent to which the framing effect in a hypothetical challenging scenario would carry over through vicarious learning and self-modeling into how individuals interpret and rate satisfaction of their own life roles. The non-significant results for this measure indicate that the experience of a hypothetical challenging scenario and prescribed frame did not transfer to change in participants' own lives; in short, a single practice did not impact perceptions of satisfaction in people's own lives. There are several factors that may have contributed to this.

The intent of this study was that participants self-model how to handle a challenging work-life situation by picturing themselves in and acting out a hypothetical scenario. Learning and behavior are more likely to transfer vicariously to an observer if the model in the situation attracts attention, the model guides appropriate behavior, and the model experiences positive outcomes (Bandura, 1971; Manz & Sims, 1981). First, participants were not explicitly asked to apply the frame they were given for the scenario to how they might handle and subsequently view satisfaction in their own life roles. This was for design reasons because participants knowing which condition they were in could lead to reactivity and threats to construct validity. As a result, the self-model may not have attracted attention—participants were not explicitly told to pay attention to what

he/she does in the scenario and apply it to viewing real life, and thus the framing effect may not have been able to transfer to personal life role ratings.

Second, observing consequences drives modeling and vicarious learning, namely whether the observed behavior of the model is appropriate and leads to positive outcomes (Bandura, 1971; Manz & Sims, 1981). Participants may not have made the connection between their choices in the hypothetical scenario, ratings of satisfaction for roles in the scenario, and how that affects viewing roles in their own personal life. Again, had it been explicitly called out for participants to now apply this framing approach to viewing roles in their own life it may have led to different ratings, but this was not done for the reasons mentioned above. In addition, whether or not the model is successful impacts the probability of behavior being transferred (Manz & Sims, 1981). Evidence from the balance condition suggests that not everyone may have felt successful in managing the hypothetical scenario, decreasing the likelihood that they would transfer framing effects to rating their own personal life.

Overall, the personal life role satisfaction measure may not have created the conditions for the transfer of vicarious learning from self-modeling a hypothetical scenario, but there are often trade-offs in methodology. Measurement limitations aside, these non-findings imply that practically speaking, framing may be more important for satisfaction when it comes to in the moment decisions for the roles relevant to the current situation (i.e., scenario role satisfaction and role interaction satisfaction), but not for overall appraisal of all life roles, including those not involved in the current work-life role intersection (i.e., personal life role satisfaction).

In terms of theoretical implications, these results indicate that in order to tap into individual's personal life, studies need to assess individual's personal life roles. A 20-minute framing scenario was not enough to impact how people assess personal work-life role satisfaction; the rest of life is too big to be impacted by a short online case study intervention. Every individual's configuration of life roles is so unique and impacted by context it is difficult to design a hypothetical scenario that will transfer and speak personally to people's existing roles in real life. In order to thoroughly understand the effect of framing on in-the-moment decision-making and satisfaction when there are multiple role demands, studies need to assess real life situations where multiple roles are intersecting.

One method future research could use to assess this is a diary study. Participants would be randomly assigned a framing approach and prompted at the beginning of the day to use that mindset and practical approach when roles intersect throughout the day. Throughout and/or at the end of the day participants would then be asked what happened that day, which roles intersected, how did they handle it with their given framing approach, and how satisfied they are in each role. This could be one method to assess the effect of framing approaches on managing real work-life challenges.

Limitations

Most previous work-life studies have used correlation designs and measure conflict, balance, and enrichment most often as outcomes. The important contributions of this study to the body of literature include the use of an experimental design to investigate the effect of framing as a coping strategy on decision-making in work-life management with more meaningful measures of satisfaction. This study manipulated

these frames as predictors to determine the effect each had as an intentional approach for

managing a challenging work-life scenario. As a result this study can make more

meaningful conclusions about how these concepts affect work-life management as

proactive strategies. However, the current design comes with additional limitations which

are discussed in more detail here including low power, heterogeneity of respondents,

construct confounding, and generalizability.

Although this study found significant results, a larger sample may have detected

other results that were trending towards significance. For example, closest to a significant

interaction was the impact of age group within frames on role interaction satisfaction; a

larger sample size with more equal n group sizes may have been able to detect significant

differences.

Second, heterogeneity of respondents—that is, increased variability on the

outcome measures within framing conditions—threatens the statistical conclusion

validity of this study. Even within the same frame condition, participants could have been

making different decisions about where to invest their time and resources (i.e., one person

picks daughter and doctor, another picks work and friends). This could have lead to

greater differences within conditions on the outcome variables (i.e., one person is more

satisfied picking daughter and doctor than the other who picked work and friends, even

though they are in the same frame and should experience similar satisfaction due to that

factor), obscuring and making it more difficult to detect the *systematic* covariation

between frame conditions and outcomes. In other words, there could have been other

characteristics within frame conditions not accounted for whose interactions are

interpreted as part of error in this study. As mentioned above, future research might use a

diary study to gain a clearer picture of the variety of roles individuals might have as well as account for which roles they chose to invest in.

Third, construct confounding threatens the construct validity of this study. Although conflict, balance, and enrichment are distinct constructs as evidenced by the manipulation check, participants may have confounded them in their application to the scenario in ways that created overlap. The results of the pilot study suggested some overlap between the constructs in that if people are drawing on one framing approach they are also likely drawing on others. For example, some participants may have tried to create balance by minimizing conflict and others by maximizing enrichment. Thus, limited understanding and description of how and to what extent these overlaps occur may have resulted in incomplete construct inferences. To determine the effect of each frame it is necessary to keep them separate—one criterion for each frame condition (e.g., reduce conflict, find balance, etc.) at least helped limit decision-making and identify the effect of each individual frame in this study. As mentioned above, future research should investigate how and when different framing approaches overlap by allowing people to identify and use one or combinations of framing approaches and the different effects combinations have on various outcomes.

Finally, the results found in this study may not be generalizable across different manipulation variations of framing. The effect found with this treatment variation (exposure to one framing sentence) might change with a different presentation of that treatment, or combinations of treatment. Future research should use a stronger manipulation of the framing conditions to ensure that the framing effect overrides individual default approaches to yield different or significantly stronger results.

Conclusion

Research on work-life management emerged from the notion that everyday individuals engage in and act out multiple roles (Goode, 1960). Over 50 years later, this has never been truer. Individuals are engaged in and connected to so many roles through so many avenues, and technology has made it even easier to expand their reach across the globe. When individuals are pulled in so many directions, it is important to have something to hold onto that helps guide how to manage all the demands and opportunities there are to fulfill in each role of life. This is the value of work-life management research.

This study aimed to investigate ways in which individuals could proactively manage how they handle challenging work-life situations where they are multiple role demands to fulfill. The results have revealed the potential importance of choice in how individuals approach work-life management, the negative effect of a balance approach as a proactive strategy, and a call to tap into real life role demands. While this study has begun to shed light on how individuals can manage multiple role demands, there is still much more work to be done. For example, identifying the most successful framing strategies and combinations for what kinds of people and situations, clarifying the nature and use of balance in work-life management, and applying strategies to real world role intersections.

People's lives are not getting less busy. This research is a step in determining how to proactively manage multiple life roles to maximize individual roles and the extent to which they influence each other. As long as individuals remain social creatures that interact with others, work-life management research will remain relevant and valuable.

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APPENDIX A
Framing Primes

Framing Primes

Framing condition	Prime statement	Prime question	Based on
Control	Managing multiple roles in your life can be difficult. Read the following case study and think about how you would deal with the following challenges.	-	-
Conflict	Managing multiple roles in your life can be difficult. <u>The roles sometimes conflict with each other. The goal is to find strategies that will reduce the conflict</u>. As you read the following case study, think about what you could do to reduce conflict between the roles.	In this situation, how can you minimize conflict between the roles?	Goode (1960); Greenhaus & Beutell (1985)
Enrichment	Managing multiple roles in your life can be difficult. However, <u>the roles can complement and enrich each other. The challenge is to live each role in a way that improves who we are in the other roles.</u> As you read the following case study, think about how the roles could enrich and complement each other.	In this situation, what can you do to enhance the ability of these roles to enrich and complement each other?	Greenhaus & Powell (2006)
Balance	Managing multiple roles in your life can be difficult. <u>The goal is to find the right balance considering all of the different roles in your life</u>. As you read the following case study, think about what you could do to find the right balance between the roles.	In this situation, how can you find the right balance across the different roles?	Greenhaus & Allen (2011); Munn (2013)

Proflection	Managing multiple roles in your life can be difficult. We can draw on the skills that have been helpful in the past. <u>As you read the following scenario, think back to a time when you had to manage multiple roles in your life.</u> <u>What allowed you to navigate through that situation successfully?</u> As you read the following case study, think about the strategies that you have used in the past to successfully navigate through work-life challenges you have faced.	Think about a significant work-life challenge that you have faced in the past. What are some strategies that allowed you to navigate through that challenge that you could apply to the current situation?	Bandura, 1977; 1982

Note. The control condition does not have a prime question. Underlined portions reflect the difference between conditions.

APPENDIX B
Work-Life Scenario

Work-Life Scenario

It's 5 o'clock in the afternoon. An email arrives from a potential client saying they have agreed to view a bid if you can get the bid to them by 8am tomorrow morning. It will take at least three hours to get this together. This is a big opportunity for you and a chance to shine and advance in the company. You pack up some papers and the phone rings. It is your family physician. An appointment slot just opened up so you can get a test on a biopsy on a small mole that has been worrying you for a while. The doctor's office is booked solid for the next 4 weeks, but the doctor can fit you in at 7:00pm tonight. The appointment will take at least 45 minutes and maybe longer depending on the test results.

Your night is already full without these added commitments. You promised your spouse – who has other commitments tonight – that you will pick up your daughter at 6:00 when her soccer practice is done. You will barely have time to get your daughter back home before heading to play with your band that is performing at a local bar tonight from 7:00-10:00. Your friends have been preparing for this all month. You play the drums. You know you need at least 7 hours of sleep so you are rested for a big meeting tomorrow morning so staying up all night is out of the question for you.

APPENDIX C
Outcome Measures

Scenario role satisfaction measure

1. Looking back at the schedule you made, how satisfied are you with the way in which you will spend your evening across these four different roles?

	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither Dissatisfied nor Satisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
HEALTH					
FAMILY					
WORK					
FRIENDS					

Role interaction satisfaction measure

1. Looking back over the schedule you made, how will each of these roles impact the other roles in your life: Negatively (-2, -1), No Impact (0), or Positively (+1, +2)?

Example:
In this scenario, how will the choices you made about HEALTH impact your…

	Strong Harmful Impact (-2)	Slight Harmful Impact (-1)	No Impact (0)	Slight Helpful Impact (+1)	Strong Helpful Impact (+2)
FAMILY					
FRIENDS					
WORK					

Personal life role satisfaction measure

1. Now think about your own life outside of the scenario, and the major roles that you play. Rate the extent to which you are satisfied in each of these roles. If the role doesn't apply to you mark not applicable (N/A). Feel free to add other important roles in your life in the blank spaces below.

	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither Dissatisfied nor Satisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied	N/A
FRIENDS						
WORK						
HEALTH						
SPIRITUAL						
FAMILY						
PERSONAL TIME (e.g., hobbies, "me-time")						
(Other role)						
(Other role)						