

SELF-REGULATION OF BOUNDARIES FOR THRIVING, ENRICHMENT, AND  
BALANCE ACROSS THE WORK-NONWORK INTERFACE

by

SHELIA A. HYDE

DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at  
The University of Texas at Arlington  
August 2021

Arlington, Texas

Supervising Committee:

Wendy J. Casper, Supervising Professor  
Julie H. Wayne, Co-Supervising Professor  
Ariane Froidevaux  
George Benson

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Words cannot express the gratitude I have for my supervising professor, Dr. Wendy Casper. I remain incredibly humbled that you agreed to chair my dissertation committee and mentor me through this journey. I have learned so much from you. I sincerely thank you for sharing your expertise, patience, and guidance, and for your dedication to your profession. You are truly an inspiration. To Dr. Julie Wayne, thank you for your expertise, for serving as my co-chair and always being willing and ready to provide meaningful feedback and guidance. You both have demonstrated to me the power and joy of working with others in creating research. I will always have the pleasure of remembering you both as coauthors on my first publication. To Dr. Ariane Froidevaux, I am grateful for your responsiveness and guidance in qualitative research and always being ready to provide great, practical feedback. To Dr. George Benson, thank you for working with me early on and (quite inadvertently) introducing me to the construct that inspired this project – thriving at work! Thanks to all four of you for comprising my committee and for walking with me through this journey of doctoral candidacy.

I am grateful to Dr. Myrtle Bell for your unwavering background support. I will forever hear your voice saying, “Start strong, finish strong!” You encouraged me to take the leap to get started on this path right away and I have not looked back since. Special thanks to two members of my cohort, Esther and Ifey, and our adoptee, Marla. The constant support from the three of you has been instrumental. To my colleagues at TWU – thank you to those who encouraged me to go for it, to keep at it, and for all the offers of support if I needed.

Finally, I am grateful for the financial support from the University of Texas at Arlington College of Business Dean’s Research Grant, the College of Business Dissertation Grant and the Graduate School Dissertation Grant in support of this project.

## DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my husband, Chris Hyde. You knew I could do this before I knew I could do it. Thank you for believing in me and encouraging me to go for it. Thank you for living with me through those first two years of doctoral classes when I was so busy I did not know which end was up! I love and appreciate you beyond words.

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Relationships of Spillover Types, Resources, Agentic Behaviors and Thriving in Work and Nonwork Roles .....	101
Table 2.1: Sample Description – Essay 2 .....	104
Table 2.2: Factor Loadings Resulting from Exploratory Factor Analysis of Cycling Measurement Items.....	105
Table 2.3: Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Scale Reliabilities.....	106
Table 2.4: OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: W-N Developmental Enrichment.....	107
Table 2.5: OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: W-N Affective Enrichment.....	108
Table 2.6: OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: W-N Capital Enrichment .....	109
Table 2.7: OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: W-N Time-Based Conflict .....	110
Table 2.8: OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: N-W Developmental Enrichment.....	111
Table 2.9: OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: N-W Affective Enrichment.....	112
Table 2.10: OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: N-W Efficiency Enrichment .....	113

Table 2.11: OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: N-W Time-Based Conflict .....	114
Table 2.12: Tests of Hypotheses .....	115
Table 3.1: Participant Descriptions – Essay 3 .....	117
Table 3.2: Detailed Participant Demographics – Sample 2, Essay 3 .....	118
Table 3.3: Consensual Qualitative Research-Modified Detailed Procedure for the Current Study .....	121
Table 3.4: Validation Strategies to Establish Trustworthiness of the Consensual Qualitative Research-Modified.....	123
Table 3.5: Effects of Rapid Change to Remote Work due to COVID-19 .....	125
Table 3.6: Effects of Rapid Change to Remote Work due to COVID-19 – Overall Use of Boundary Management .....	128
Table 3.7: Recommendations for Organizations on Best Practices in Managing Remote Work for Greater Productivity and Well-Being .....	130

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: The Cross-Domain Thriving Model .....	131
Figure 2.1: Hypothesized Relationships from the Cross-Domain Thriving Model (Essay 2).....	132
Figure 2.2: The Moderating Effect of Cycling on Work Vitality for Work-to-Nonwork Capital Enrichment .....	133
Figure 2.3: The Moderating Effect of Ease of Transition on Work Vitality for Work-to-Nonwork Developmental Enrichment .....	134
Figure 2.4: The Moderating Effect of Segmentation on Nonwork Learning for Nonwork-to-Work Affective Enrichment.....	135
Figure 2.5: The Moderating Effect of Segmentation on Nonwork Learning for Nonwork-to-Work Efficiency Enrichment .....	136
Figure 2.6: The Moderating Effect of Role Congruency on Nonwork Learning for Nonwork-to- Work Efficiency Enrichment .....	137
Figure 3.1: Data Structure.....	138

## ABSTRACT

# SELF-REGULATION OF BOUNDARIES FOR THRIVING, ENRICHMENT, AND BALANCE ACROSS THE WORK-NONWORK INTERFACE

Shelia A. Hyde

The University of Texas at Arlington, 2021

Supervising Professor: Wendy J. Casper

Co-Supervising Professor: Julie H. Wayne

This three-essay project explores boundary management and work-nonwork enrichment to explain how thriving in the work domain relates to thriving in the nonwork domain. The Cross-Domain Thriving model proposed in Study 1 theorizes that when employees experience growth and energy at work, they create *and* deplete resources within and across roles and individual boundary management strategies, role congruency, and ease of transition moderate the degree to which thriving translates into enrichment and/or conflict across roles. Study 2 tested aspects of the cross-domain thriving model and found that neither work nor nonwork thriving was related to increased time-based conflict, but both forms of thriving predicted enrichment gains across domains. Moreover, higher levels of work-nonwork role segmentation were associated with a stronger relationship between learning in nonwork roles and affective and efficiency enrichment gains in the nonwork-to-work direction. In the work-to-nonwork direction, role congruency and cycling boundary management behavior were related to greater

developmental and affective enrichment, respectively. Cycling also strengthened the positive relationship between vitality at work and work-to-nonwork capital enrichment. Study 3, a qualitative study investigating work and nonwork thriving in employees working from home during a pandemic, suggested the importance of boundary management skills as demands on learning and energy increase. Findings highlight how key employer actions and employee regulatory behavior can leverage the benefits of growth and energy in work and nonwork domains.



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	ii
DEDICATION .....	iii
LIST OF TABLES .....	iv
LIST OF FIGURES .....	vi
ABSTRACT .....	vii
Chapter 1: Introduction .....	1
Chapter 2: Putting Role Resources to Work: The Cross-Domain Thriving Model .....	6
Thriving at Work (Spreitzer et al., 2005): Work Resources and Agentic Behaviors .....	10
The Cross-Domain Thriving Model .....	13
Thriving at Work Generates Work-to-Nonwork Enrichment and Conflict.....	13
Impact of Individual, Role and Transition Characteristics.....	15
Work-to-Nonwork Enrichment, Conflict and Nonwork Resources .....	19
Nonwork Thriving .....	22
Nonwork Resources Enable Nonwork Agentic Behaviors.....	23
Nonwork Agentic Behaviors Produce Nonwork Thriving .....	24
Nonwork Thriving Contributes to Nonwork-to-Work Enrichment and Conflict.....	24
Impact of Individual, Role and Transition Characteristics.....	26
Nonwork-to-Work Enrichment, Conflict, and Work Resources .....	29
Discussion and Conclusion .....	31
Chapter 3: Thriving and Boundary Management for Work and Nonwork Enrichment Gains.....	36
Defining Self-Regulation within Boundary Theory and the CDT model .....	38
Hypothesis Development .....	40
Method .....	47
Participants and Procedure .....	47
Analysis .....	51
Results .....	51
Work-to-Nonwork Relationships .....	51
Nonwork-to-Work Relationships .....	55
Discussion .....	58

Limitations and Future Research Directions .....	63
Conclusion.....	64
Chapter 4: Surviving and Thriving in a Sudden Move to the Borderland: Self-Regulation in Rapid Adjustment to Remote Work during the COVID-19 Pandemic.....	65
Thriving at Work: Vitality and Learning .....	66
Method .....	66
Participants and Procedure .....	67
Data Analysis and Validation Strategies .....	68
Results .....	68
Work-Related Development .....	68
Boundary Management Behaviors .....	71
Work Demands .....	73
Discussion .....	75
Image Management .....	75
Distractions and Temporal Resources .....	77
Self-Management Behaviors .....	77
Practical Implications .....	79
Limitations and Future Directions .....	81
Conclusion.....	81
References .....	82
Appendix A: Essay 2 Measures .....	141
Appendix B: Open-Ended Questions for Sample 1 (Essay 3) .....	145
Appendix C: Interview Protocol for Sample 2 (Essay 3) .....	146

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

The study of the interface between work and nonwork has evolved over the years. At the outset, research focused on the intersection of work and family (e.g., Kanter, 1977). Over time, researchers began to recognize that workers had important roles outside of work other than family (Casper et al., 2007; Voydanoff, 2001). As such, scholars began using terms that include all roles outside of work including work-life, work-home, and work-nonwork. In the essays that follow, I use several of these terms with the intention of conveying a recognition that most people have valued nonwork roles outside of work, regardless of whether family is the most central one. All critical nonwork roles involve demands, goals, resources, and barriers that may be important to the interface between work with nonwork. My research aims to foster an understanding of beneficial ways for employees to manage work and nonwork roles.

Initially, rooted in role theory (Marks, 1977), research on the work-life interface tended to embrace a scarcity perspective (Kirchmeyer, 1992) and focused on how work and family interfere with one another to create three types of work-family conflict – time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This perspective concentrated on the depletion of resources that occurs when pressures from multiple roles collide. Then, the turn of the century brought the positive psychology movement (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), and organizational behavior researchers began examining phenomenon through a more positive lens (Luthans, 2002a). Scholars theorized about the varying ways multiple roles can benefit one another (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), referred to as nonwork-work enrichment. Enrichment occurs when gains that are earned in one domain (e.g., work) benefit another domain (e.g., family), and can take the form of developmental, affective, efficiency, and capital enrichment (Carlson et al, 2006). More recently, the literature has focused on the construct of work-life

balance (see Rothbard et al., 2021 for a review). Some scholars have theorized that the multiplicative combination of work-to-family (in which work affects nonwork) conflict and enrichment and family-to-work (in which nonwork affects work) conflict and enrichment makes up work-life balance (Frone, 2003). Wayne et al. (2017) found the multiplicative conception accounted for more variance in work-family outcomes than the additive approach. These essays investigate the context for either bidirectional conflict and enrichment, or perceived work-life balance.

More specifically, I examine how experiences that produce resources in one domain become available for use in another domain. The experiences of learning and vitality at work (i.e., thriving at work) produce resources available for work (Spreitzer et al., 2005). However, my focus was to investigate how those resources become available in *nonwork*, and further, how nonwork resources produced from thriving might become available for the *work* domain. Scholars (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wayne, 2007) operationalize enrichment as resource gains that improve functioning across domains, but the antecedents of enrichment are still largely unknown. In considering when and for whom thriving leads to enrichment, I examine the key role of self-regulation behavior in the work-nonwork interface. In the pursuit of goals across the work-nonwork interface, in line with boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000) and action regulation theory (Hirsch et al., 2019), the person desiring those goals is not a passive bystander but rather an active agent in intentional behaviors to achieve those goals.

My first essay examines a construct from positive psychology, thriving, and its relationship to both conflict and enrichment. I develop a theoretical framework, the Cross-Domain Thriving (CDT) model, positing about how individual differences and context influence whether thriving creates and/or depletes resources both within and across work and nonwork

domains. Thriving at work links to individual and organizational benefits. Merging thriving and work-family literatures, I theorize that both work-to-nonwork enrichment and conflict are mechanisms by which thriving at work simultaneously creates and depletes resources. I propose that learning at work (nonwork) positively relates to work-to-nonwork (nonwork-to-work) developmental and capital enrichment and work-to-nonwork (nonwork-to-work) time-based conflict, and that boundary management strategies strengthen these relationships. I also theorize role congruency is a moderator, strengthening the relationship between work (nonwork) learning and work-to-nonwork (nonwork-to-work) developmental enrichment. For vitality at work (nonwork), I posit that it positively relates to work-to-nonwork (nonwork-to-work) affective and capital enrichment and work-to-nonwork (nonwork-to-work) time-based conflict, and that boundary management strategies strengthen these relationships. The relationship between work (nonwork) vitality and work-to-nonwork (nonwork-to-work) affective enrichment is proposed to be strengthened by ease of transition between domains. When resource creation outpaces resource depletion, nonwork thriving occurs and when resource depletion exceeds resource creation, nonwork thriving is thwarted. In turn, nonwork thriving relates to greater nonwork-to-work enrichment and conflict, simultaneously creating and depleting resources at work, reinitiating the cycle.

The boundary management strategies theorized as moderating the thriving and enrichment and/or conflict relationships are integration, segmentation, and cycling. Boundary theory explains that to simplify and order work and nonwork domains, people manage the boundaries around each of these domains (Ashforth et al., 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996). Preference for either keeping one's roles – including related thoughts, concerns, and physical markers (Kreiner, 2006) – separated or allowing them to integrate exists on a continuum (Ashforth et al.,

2000), and research suggests people differ in the degree to which they prefer to combine domains (integration, or low segmentation) or keep them separate (high segmentation) (Kriener, 2006). Another option is for employees to use a mix of both integration and segmentation, choosing the boundary management style based on current role experiences and demands (Rothbard et al., 2020). This boundary management style where people alternate between integration and segmentation is called cycling (Kossek & Lautsch, 2008).

The second essay empirically examines the main tenets of the CDT model. First, I examine whether thriving at work has a positive relationship with work-to-nonwork enrichment, including developmental, affective, and capital gains from work to improve the nonwork role. I then assess if the positive effects of thriving at work are associated with an increase in time-based work-to-nonwork conflict since employees who are thriving at work may spend more time at work at the expense of their nonwork roles. These same relationships are investigated in the nonwork-to-work direction. Recognizing that the degree to which thriving relates to enrichment and conflict may vary based on context and person factors, I explore the moderating effects of boundary management styles, role congruency, and ease of transition between domains on the thriving to enrichment and/or conflict relationships. Results of study 2 shed light on many direct predictors of cross-domain enrichment and set the stage for further investigation of the continuing cycle of cross-domain thriving proposed in the first essay.

The third and final essay examines the context and individual behaviors of people who rapidly transitioned to remote work because of a global pandemic. My interest was in those who were thriving in their new work at home arrangement. This qualitative study sought to identify positive experiences of employees who were working from home because of shelter-in-place orders and safety guidelines. My investigation pursued employee descriptions of their

organizational and home contexts that helped or hindered their individual growth, development and energy restoration. I uncovered information about the actions, or self-management behaviors, of employees striving to restore energy while learning how to do their jobs remotely full-time. Findings suggest that while remote workers were adjusting, they engaged in self-improvement, self-management, wellness and work-related learning behaviors. I present data organized into four domains – work demands, boundary management, work-related development, and well-being. While I did not directly ask about boundary management behavior, participants described engaging in integration and cycling behavior, which appeared link to greater thriving outcomes (growth and energy) in work and nonwork domains.

## **Chapter 2: Putting Role Resources to Work: The Cross-Domain Thriving Model**

Research on human behavior began with the study of poorly adjusted people, but around the turn of the century, scholars began using a positive lens to study why people flourish and become their best selves (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). This positive psychology movement, which aims “to shift the emphasis away from what is wrong with people to what is right with people [is] concerned with enhancing and developing wellness, prosperity and the good life” (Luthans, 2002a, p. 697). Research on positive organizational behaviors (POBs) emerged from the positive psychology movement. POBs are “positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s workplace” (Luthans, 2002b, p. 59). Research on the work-nonwork interface has followed the same trajectory as management and psychology literatures – first studying how multiple roles conflict to yield harmful effects (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), and later examining the benefits of multiple roles (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; McNall et al., 2010). Our aim in this paper is to merge research on the work-nonwork interface with research on thriving at work.

Thriving at work refers to employees’ experience of learning and vitality while working (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Research suggests that thriving at work benefits employee performance (Frazier & Tupper, 2018; Gerbasi et al., 2015; Paterson et al., 2014), affective commitment (Walumbwa et al., 2018), career adaptability (Jiang, 2017), task mastery (Niesson et al., 2017), helping behavior (Frazier & Tupper, 2018), self-development (Paterson, et al., 2014), innovation (Wallace et al., 2016), and proactivity (Niesson et al., 2017). It has also been found to buffer against burnout (Hildenbrand et al., 2018). However, the full implications of thriving at work may extend beyond work to nonwork, although little literature links these topics (for an



exception, see Russo et al. (2018). We address this oversight by merging research on thriving at work (Spreitzer et al., 2005) and the work-nonwork interface to develop the Cross-Domain Thriving (CDT) model. We suggest thriving at work can foster both high work absorption and long work hours, leading to neglect of nonwork (Porath et al., 2012), but also cause positive spillover which benefits nonwork. In this paper, we consider the benefits of thriving at work on work-to-nonwork enrichment (i.e., Wayne et al., 2007) and its detriments on work-to-nonwork conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

In doing this, we make several contributions. First, we contribute to the thriving literature by using Resource Gain Development (RGD; Wayne et al., 2007) and work-family enrichment theories (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) to develop the CDT model to explain how thriving at work can initiate a process resulting in thriving in nonwork over time, with positive downstream effects for nonwork roles. This is important in at least three respects. First, we examine thriving in nonwork roles as a key POB construct - vitality and learning in nonwork roles is important given its potential relevance to growth and development (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Second, we point future scholarship to previously unexplored, yet meaningful, outcomes of work-related thriving such as satisfaction and performance in *nonwork* roles. Third, we describe work-to-nonwork enrichment as an explanatory mechanism by which thriving at work can lead to thriving in nonwork. Examining nonwork thriving, the processes *through* enrichment, and nonwork outcomes fits nicely into positive psychology's intent to nurture what is best for people in "work, education, insight, love, growth, and play" (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, p. 7). Given the goal of positive psychology to understand well-being and flourishing, nonwork thriving and enrichment are critical, albeit understudied, constructs to consider (Matthews et al., 2012).

Second, we contribute to work-nonwork research by leveraging theory on thriving (Spreitzer et al., 2005) to posit unexplored antecedents of enrichment, which is when work experiences improve the quality of life in a nonwork role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). This research has often focused on broad categories of resources as antecedents to enrichment. Though resources are essential in models of thriving (Spreitzer et al., 2005) and enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wayne et al., 2007), Spreitzer et al. (2005) posit that agentic behaviors, namely, task focus, exploration, and heedful relating, are also key elements to enable thriving. Agentic behavior and thriving at work are previously unconsidered, proximal antecedents that may provide enrichment gains that spillover to nonwork and have a more distal impact on thriving in nonwork over time. Given criticisms that work-family research is insufficiently theory-driven (e.g., Matthews et al., 2016) and as called for by Oswick et al., (2011), we draw from theory on thriving to foster understanding of the work-nonwork interface.

Third, in the CDT model we propose that an ongoing, virtuous cycle between thriving and enrichment across work and nonwork roles can occur via “resource gain spirals” (Hobfoll, 1989) in both domains over time. Yet, we recognize that various factors can disrupt this cycle. In addition to benefits, when people experience vitality and learning at work, they may also spend more time working, reducing time for nonwork, fostering time-based work-to-nonwork conflict (Halbesleben et al., 2009), which occurs when time demands of one domain (e.g., work) interfere with meeting requirements of the other domain (e.g., nonwork; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Thus, in the CDT model we posit that thriving simultaneously creates resources through enrichment and depletes resources through conflict, such that net resource gain or loss depends on the relative amount of conflict versus enrichment. When resource-creating enrichment exceeds resource-depleting conflict, thriving continues across domains. Yet, when effects of

conflict outpace those of enrichment, overall resources are depleted, impairing cross-domain thriving. As such, the CDT model considers calls from positive psychology scholars for equal consideration of both positive and negative outcomes of positive psychology constructs (Gruman et al., 2018).

Fourth, we specify between-person differences which speak to *for whom* and contextual factors which speak to *when* a virtuous cycle of resource creation is most likely to occur. To speak to *whom* is most likely to see work-to-nonwork enrichment from thriving at work we consider boundary management style, which refers to how people decide to manage the work-nonwork boundary. In terms of *when* thriving creates positive spillover we also theorize about how work-nonwork role congruency and ease of boundary transition influence whether thriving at work benefits the nonwork domain.

Finally, as work and nonwork environments change over time and thriving itself is a state-like construct, the CDT model depicts a dynamic process. As such, we discuss how proximal changes in work and nonwork conditions may intensify or hinder resource creation over time. This is important given growing recognition that relationships among constructs such as thriving at work and in nonwork are not static and rarely unidirectional (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010).

In the sections that follow, we first define thriving and describe the model put forth by Spreitzer et al. (2005). Then, we elaborate how thriving at work is linked to nonwork and discuss boundary conditions under which CDT model relationships may be stronger or weaker. Finally, we discuss directions for future research on thriving in work and nonwork roles and the processes by which thriving crosses domains.

## **Thriving at Work (Spreitzer et al., 2005): Work Resources and Agentic Behaviors**

*Thriving* is a temporary psychological state where a person experiences a sense of vitality and learning at work (Spreitzer et al., 2005, p. 538). Both vitality – the positive feeling of having energy (Nix et al., 1999) – and learning – the sense of increasing mastery at work (Dweck, 1986) – are present simultaneously. Spreitzer et al. (2005) suggests thriving is socially embedded such that people in certain work contexts experience more thriving. First, *unit contexts*, such as work group, affect thriving at work. Work groups with more decision discretion, information sharing, and climate of trust foster thriving. Also, *resources at work*, including knowledge, meaning, affective and relational resources, contribute to agentic behavior. *Agentic behavior* – task focus, heedful relations, and exploration – are the engines that drive *thriving at work*, and thriving feeds back to agentic behavior to produce more resources at work. In turn, thriving at work is posited to contribute to personal development and health. Given evidence for Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) model (Niessen et al., 2012; Porath et al., 2012), we describe how work context, particularly *resources at work*, contribute to *agentic behaviors*, and in turn, *thriving at work* (see Figure 1.1, shaded region). Next, we extend this model to describe how, through its effects on the work-nonwork interface, thriving at work creates and depletes resources in nonwork and spur or thwart thriving in nonwork, which can spillover to work in an iterative cycle over time.

**Resources.** Job resources are features of a job that enable a person to handle demands, reach work goals, and grow and develop (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Spreitzer et al. (2005) describe four resources at work: knowledge, positive meaning, positive affect, and relational resources. Employees with *knowledge resources* know how things get done (Orlikowski, 2002) such as who is instrumental for specific tasks, where actions take place (Moreland & Argote 2003), and how to manage relationships to complete tasks. *Positive meaning resources* translate to experiencing worth or value in job tasks (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). The notion of meaningful

work is derived from eudaimonic conceptualizations of well-being, which are linked to more job engagement, lower intent to quit, and improved life satisfaction (Rothausen & Henderson, 2019). *Positive affective resources* include emotions like joy, gratitude, peace and hope (Fredrickson, 2003; Roberts et al., 2005), that broaden awareness, encourage exploration in thoughts and actions, and foster development over time (Fredrickson et al., 2008). *Relational resources* refer to high quality connections with people (Dutton, 2003, Roberts et al., 2005) and are key to social support including emotional concern, instrumental aid, information, or affirmation (House, 1981). These resources are primary determinants of agentic behavior.

**Agentic behavior.** Agentic behavior is active and purposeful (Bandura, 2001). Spreitzer et al. (2005) posit resources and agentic behavior reciprocally relate – resources foster agentic behavior and agentic behavior fosters resources. Figure 1.1 depicts work role resources on the top left side of the model, but theoretically, resources are both causes and effects of agentic behavior. A cycle of resource gain-agentic behavior can begin by increasing resources or agentic behavior, resulting in resource gain spirals over time, unless disrupted by resource-draining events. *Task focus* is the degree to which people focus on meeting role responsibilities. When employees focus on task, they gain energy (Brown & Ryan, 2003) and a sense of accomplishment (Lazarus, 1999). Task focus promotes learning (Fisher & Ford, 2006), as employees develop routines for effectiveness and efficiency (Spreitzer et al., 2005), promoting thriving. *Exploration* involves experimentation, risk taking, discovery and innovative behavior. Energy is restored by exploring new ideas, information and strategies (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989). Learning also increases from exploration as knowledge and skills are acquired (Button et al., 1996; Spreitzer et al., 2005). As such, exploration promotes thriving. Finally, people are *heedfully relating* when they attend to those around them. For example, employees who consider

the well-being of others in accomplishing goals are heedfully relating. As quality relationships are energizing (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008) and helping others can increase energy (Brown et al., 2003; Carlson et al., 1988), heedfully relating promotes vitality. High-quality relationships can promote learning when employees observe coworker strategies (Bandura, 1977), and feeling connected to others motivates extra-role behavior, leading to skill acquisition (Parker & Sprigg, 1999; Parker et al., 1997). As such, heedful relating fosters thriving at work over time via resource gain spirals. In contrast, we propose that if conditions impair this process (e.g., heedful relating is impaired by a toxic supervisor) resource gain spirals are thwarted, leading to resource erosion.

Thriving at work is theorized to enhance health and development (Spreitzer et al., 2005). People who thrive at work have energy and are learning, resulting in self-development (Paterson et al., 2014). Porath et al (2012) found that thriving related to better health, and developmental outcomes like learning orientation, proactiveness, and career development initiative. Finally, thriving at work relates to higher job performance (Frazier & Tupper, 2018; Gerbasi et al., 2015; Paterson et al., 2014), team performance (Walumbwa et al., 2018; Xu & Wang, 2019) and innovation (Wallace et al., 2016).

Rather than thriving at work ending with well-being (see Spreitzer et al., 2005) or with job attitudes and behavior as in most research (see Kleine et al., 2019 for a meta-analysis), we argue that thriving at work has implications for the nonwork domain. Thriving at work can benefit nonwork when resources developed via thriving provide resources for nonwork through work-to-nonwork-enrichment. Yet, thriving at work may also lead to long hours at work, resulting in time-based work-to-nonwork conflict. As such, thriving at work can both benefit and harm the nonwork domain.

## **The Cross-Domain Thriving Model**

We draw from Spreitzer et al. (2005) and research on the work-nonwork interface to create the Cross-Domain Thriving (CDT) model (see Figure 1.1). The CDT model depicts how thriving in one domain (i.e., work) can foster (work-to-nonwork) enrichment which spills into the other domain (i.e., nonwork), creating resources to foster thriving in the second domain (i.e., nonwork). Yet, thriving at work can also foster work-to-nonwork conflict, depleting resources and undermining thriving in the second domain. Thriving in the second domain (i.e., nonwork) can then create both (nonwork-to-work) enrichment and conflict by spilling over to the first domain (i.e., work), creating a positive feedback loop if resource gain from enrichment exceeds resource loss from conflict. If resource gain spirals (Hobfoll, 1989) are maintained over time, synergy between work and nonwork resources continue to foster enrichment between domains. Yet, when the resource-depleting effects of conflict overshadow the resource-creating effects of enrichment, this undermines cross-domain thriving.

The Resource-Gain-Development (RGD) view states that as people grow and develop, they obtain resources toward that end when engaged in a role (Wayne et al., 2007). We propose that thriving at work fosters work-to-nonwork enrichment in three forms (Carlson et al., 2006) – developmental, affective, and capital gains. *Developmental gains* include the acquisition of skills, knowledge, values and perspectives. *Affective gains* are positive alterations in moods, attitudes, confidence, and emotions. *Capital gains* translate to economic, social or health assets. Below, we explain how thriving at work generates each form of enrichment.

### **Thriving at Work Generates Work-to-Nonwork Enrichment and Conflict**

Thriving at work has been shown to positively relate to work-to-nonwork enrichment (Russo et al., 2018). Drawing from the RGD view, when people thrive at work, resources and

gains emanate from work, which can spillover to enhance nonwork, or work-to-nonwork enrichment (Voydanoff, 2004). For example, greater *learning* and mastery of knowledge and skills at work, a key aspect of thriving (Spreitzer et al., 2005), may foster developmental gains, or acquisition of knowledge and skills that can benefit nonwork roles (i.e., *developmental work-to-nonwork enrichment*). Likewise, given the connection of feeling strong, active, and energetic (i.e., *vitality*) with positive affect (Kleine, et al., 2019), *vitality* should foster positive emotions at work that can benefit nonwork (i.e., *affective work-to-nonwork enrichment*). Finally, learning at work promotes economic benefits such as income and employability, which can contribute to better physical and mental health (Kleine et al., 2019). *Vitality*, too, perhaps due to its reduction in fatigue and better mood, is linked to better mental and physical health. As such, we expect that *vitality and learning* are associated with *capital work-to-nonwork enrichment*.

*Proposition 1a: Thriving, particularly learning, at work is positively associated with developmental work-to-nonwork enrichment.*

*Proposition 1b: Thriving, particularly vitality, at work is positively associated with affective work-to-nonwork enrichment.*

*Proposition 1c: Thriving, including learning and vitality, at work is positively associated with capital work-to-nonwork enrichment.*

Although thriving can benefit nonwork through work-to-nonwork enrichment, thriving can also harm nonwork through work-to-nonwork conflict. The energy and growth of thriving can foster high work engagement and long hours, interfering with nonwork roles (Halbesleben et al., 2009). Time-based work-to-nonwork conflict occurs when time demands at work interfere with participation in nonwork roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). If thriving at work is such an energizing experience that it fosters workaholic behavior and neglect of nonwork roles, time-



based work-to-nonwork conflict can occur. Learning at work may also cause mental preoccupation while in nonwork roles, distracting people from full engagement and participation in nonwork.

*Proposition 1d: Thriving, including learning and vitality, at work is positively associated with time-based work-to-nonwork conflict.*

### **Impact of Individual, Role and Transition Characteristics**

While thriving at work can create both enrichment and conflict, these relationships may not occur for all people and in all situations. Notably, these relationships are likely affected by attributes of individuals, roles, and transitions between domains including boundary management styles, the congruency of roles in each domain, and the ease of transition between domains.

**Boundary management styles.** People place boundaries around roles to regulate attention to them (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012), which can be psychological, physical or time borders between work and nonwork (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Two features of boundaries are their permeability and flexibility. *Permeable* boundaries allow spillover from one role to another, such as being physically present in one domain but psychologically engaged in another (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000; Hall & Richter, 1988). *Flexibility* refers to whether a role can be enacted at different times and places (Ashforth et al., 2000). People often use technology to foster a flexible boundary such as answering work-related email during family time (Kossek, 2016). People differ in how they manage boundaries (Kreiner, 2006). Boundary management exists on a continuum, with segmenters at one end, who separate roles with clear boundaries, and integrators at the other end, who combine domains so space and time are multipurpose (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Segmenters avoid flexibility and permeability while integrators have flexible and permeable boundaries (Bulger, Matthews & Hoffman, 2007).

Thriving at work should impact nonwork more for people who integrate or combine domains than for those that keep them separate. Because *integrators* readily bridge experiences across domains, they may easily transfer work experiences, such as thriving, to nonwork, enhancing both benefits and costs of thriving at work for nonwork. In contrast, because *segmenters* keep strong boundaries and do not readily transfer experiences across roles, thriving at work should have less impact on nonwork. In short, thriving at work should be more strongly associated with work-to-nonwork enrichment and conflict among integrators and this relationship should be attenuated among segmenters (Kossek, 2016).

*Proposition 2a: Thriving, including learning and vitality, at work is more positively associated with developmental and affective work-to-nonwork enrichment among integrators compared to segmenters.*

*Proposition 2b: Thriving, including learning and vitality, at work is more positively associated with time-based work-to-nonwork conflict among integrators compared to segmenters.*

Many employees are not clear segmenters or integrators but use a mix of boundary management strategies (Kossek, 2016). *Cyclers* use both segmentation and integration iteratively, switching back and forth between the approaches. People may be cyclers because their job requires periods of long hours with lots of work-to-nonwork intrusion (job warriors) or use it as an intentional strategy to ensure quality intrusion-free time in a domain that needs it (quality timers). *Role firsters* prioritize the most salient role and create asymmetrically permeable boundaries that match life priorities. For example, a person whose family role is most salient may ignore work-related email at home to focus on family but have a permeable boundary around work to accept phone calls from a spouse.

When people adjust boundary management behavior to align with priorities, they are self-regulating (Carver & Scheier, 1998). Both cyclers and role firsters use self-regulatory skills to adjust boundary management strategies over time or across situations. For example, cyclers might, when things go well at work, embrace integration to allow vitality derived from thriving to permeate nonwork and foster affective work-to-nonwork enrichment. In contrast, under periods of high work stress, cyclers may create an impermeable boundary around nonwork to prevent work-to-nonwork conflict and allow recovery during nonwork time.

Role firsters also engage in self-regulation, showing preference for one domain over another. For instance, a family firster may create a permeable boundary to allow resources created via thriving at work to spillover in the form of work-to-nonwork enrichment. Yet they can also protect nonwork by creating an impermeable boundary as needed to minimize work-to-nonwork conflict. A work firster who prioritizes work can allow nonwork-to-work enrichment to bring resources into work, but also prevent nonwork-to-work conflict by strengthening the boundary as needed. In this way, role firsters can self-regulate by varying boundary permeability to allow benefits and prevent costs from entering the most salient domain. As such, we propose boundary management style will impact the relationship between thriving at work and work-to-nonwork enrichment and conflict in the following ways:

*Proposition 2c: Thriving, including learning and vitality, at work is positively associated with work-to-nonwork enrichment among cyclers who intentionally choose boundary management styles that best fit the situation.*

*Proposition 2d: The positive effect of thriving at work on work-to-nonwork enrichment is stronger among nonwork firsters and attenuated among work firsters.*

*Proposition 2e: The positive effect of thriving at work on time-based work-to-nonwork conflict is attenuated among cyclers.*

*Proposition 2f: The positive effect of thriving at work on time-based work-to-nonwork conflict is stronger among work firsters and attenuated among nonwork firsters.*

**Role congruency.** Similarity between roles is associated with more boundary flexibility and permeability (Ashforth et al., 2000). Thus, transfer of gains across roles, such as when thriving at work fosters work-to-nonwork enrichment, should be greater when work and nonwork roles are more congruent. When roles are similar, learning and growth in one role is more useful in the other role. For example, a teacher who attends a workshop on classroom management can use these same skills to manage their own children. In contrast, a computer programmer who learns a new programming language may have fewer opportunities to use these skills at home to be a more effective spouse. Thus, role congruence strengthens the relationship between thriving at work and developmental work-to-nonwork enrichment.

*Proposition 3: Thriving, particularly learning, at work is more positively associated with developmental work-to-nonwork enrichment when congruency between roles occupied in each domain is high.*

**Transition between domains.** Thriving is a dynamic state that changes with context (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Transitions, which can be physical or psychological, happen when people exit one domain and enter another. Physical transitions may be easier when people have more flexibility to enact a role at any time or place, easing transitions (Ashforth et al., 2000; Kossek & Lautsch, 2012). In contrast, difficult work-to-nonwork transitions may prevent thriving at work from spilling into nonwork. For example, a person who leaves work in a thriving state but faces a difficult commute may have little vitality left to transfer to home if thriving disappears during the

commute. In contrast, as teleworkers can transition between work and nonwork quickly and easily, they may sustain vitality upon transitioning to home, allowing gains to spill over as affective enrichment. Psychological transitions may be difficult if more cognitive processing is required to “leave” the rules of an inflexible role and respond to a need in another role requiring flexibility. For example, when a work-thriving military officer is interrupted by a request from her 5-year old for a hug and needs to reframe her mindset before responding, gains from thriving in the work domain may not easily transfer to home. Thus, the relationship between thriving and enrichment will be stronger when there is an easy transition between work and nonwork roles.

*Proposition 4: Thriving, particularly vitality, at work is more likely to be positively associated with affective work-to-nonwork enrichment when the transition between domains is easy.*

### **Work-to-Nonwork Enrichment, Conflict and Nonwork Resources**

The implications of thriving at work for nonwork are complex, as it can simultaneously create both benefits and hindrances. While thriving at work creates resources that benefit nonwork through developmental, affective, and capital-based work-to-nonwork enrichment, it simultaneously depletes resources through time-based work-to-nonwork conflict. Overall, thriving at work may be either resource-depleting or resource-creating, depending on the relative amount of enrichment and conflict. When resources generated via enrichment exceed resources depleted via conflict, there is overall resource gain as these additional resources spillover to foster nonwork thriving, initiating a positive feedback cycle of resource gain spirals (Hobfoll, 1989). In contrast, when the resources depleted through conflict exceed resources created through enrichment, a resource loss spiral may occur, impairing cross-domain thriving.

*Proposition 5: In the work-to-nonwork direction, when resource creation via enrichment exceeds resource depletion via conflict, net resource gain results in more nonwork resources and initiates thriving in nonwork, but when resource loss via conflict exceeds resources created via enrichment, net resource loss impairs thriving in nonwork.*

The experience of work-to-nonwork enrichment implies that gains from work enhance functioning in nonwork roles (Carlson et al., 2006). Figure 1.1 illustrates that work-to-nonwork enrichment (developmental, affective, and capital gains) fosters nonwork resources, implying enrichment is the mechanism by which gains from work become nonwork resources. Table 1.1 gives examples of how types of work-to-nonwork enrichment relate to each type of nonwork resource. For example, affective work-to-nonwork enrichment involves creation of psychological resources like self-efficacy, self-esteem, positive self-views and positive emotions such as hope and optimism (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Positive affective states such as affective work-to-nonwork enrichment foster positive thought-action repertoires and beget more positive affect, creating positive feedback loops (Fredrickson, 2001; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2003). As such, positive mood at work (work affective resources) should be carried to nonwork (i.e., affective work-to-nonwork enrichment), creating joy and contentment (nonwork affective resources), and a greater sense of worth and value (nonwork meaning resources) in the nonwork domain through an affective enrichment path (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). A positive mood (work affective resource) carried home through affective work-to-nonwork enrichment can also foster close relationships in nonwork roles (nonwork relational resources).

As noted above, developmental work-to-nonwork enrichment occurs when knowledge, skills, and perspectives gained at work benefit nonwork (Carlson et al., 2006). When people learn at work, they derive knowledge, meaning and affective resources from work, fostering

developmental work-to-nonwork enrichment, resulting in resources for nonwork. Developmental work-to-nonwork enrichment can also create knowledge or relational resources in nonwork through an instrumental enrichment path (Greenahus & Powell, 2006). For example, employees that learn conflict resolution skills in a leadership seminar at work (work knowledge resources) can use this knowledge (developmental work-to-nonwork enrichment) to resolve conflict with a friend in nonwork (nonwork relational resources). Finally, capital work-to-nonwork enrichment implies that economic, social and health gains carry over from work to nonwork. Capital work-to-nonwork enrichment can follow an instrumental path when social connections from work (work relational resources) result in gains outside of work such as when a work colleague is a connection through which a spouse gains employment (capital work-to-nonwork enrichment), resulting in better family relationships (nonwork relational resources). Capital enrichment can also involve transfer of economic gains from work to nonwork, which contributes to positive affective and knowledge resources in nonwork roles. Income and health insurance from work are transferred to home (capital work-to-nonwork enrichment), creating nonwork resources. For instance, when income is used to take a fitness class or insurance benefits are used for psychotherapy during a stressful event, such activities foster a positive mental outlook and learning, enabling greater affective and knowledge resources at home. In sum, each type of work-to-nonwork enrichment relates to greater availability of nonwork resources.

*Proposition 6a: Developmental work-to-nonwork enrichment produces (a) positive meaning (b) positive affective (c) relational and (d) knowledge resources available for nonwork role.*

*Proposition 6b: Affective work-to-nonwork enrichment produces (a) positive meaning and (b) positive affective resources available for nonwork role.*

*Proposition 6c: Capital work-to-nonwork enrichment produces (a) positive affective (b) relational and (c) knowledge resources available for nonwork role.*

Figure 1.1 illustrates how, while thriving fosters work-to-family enrichment to generate resources, it also depletes resources through creating time-based work-to-nonwork conflict. When people thrive at work, this positive state may foster high work engagement. While work engagement is a positive state, such highly engaged workers also have high work-to-family conflict (Halbesleben et al., 2009). Similarly, research has found that people who see work as very meaningful (a “calling”) were willing to sacrifice their personal life for work (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009). These findings suggest that thriving at work can foster long work hours and neglect of nonwork roles, damaging relationships in the nonwork domain.

*Proposition 7: Time-based work-to-nonwork conflict depletes relational resources available for nonwork.*

### **Nonwork Thriving**

Though thriving has been discussed and explored only at work, we contend that thriving can occur in any role in which a person participates. In nonwork, this could include roles like family member, volunteer, community member, and friend. For example, just as learning occurs at work, learning also occurs in a family (managing schedules or budgets, mediating conflict among children), volunteering in the community (learning digital tools to lead a neighborhood event), and as a friend (getting work-related advice from a friend). Vitality, the other key element of thriving, also exists in nonwork roles such as when people are energized by multiple roles (Sieber, 1974). Thus, we view *nonwork thriving* as a temporary psychological state wherein people experience both vitality and learning simultaneously in nonwork roles.



## **Nonwork Resources Enable Nonwork Agentic Behaviors**

According to Spreitzer et al. (2005), each resource (i.e., positive meaning, affective, relational, and knowledge) can be linked to specific agentic behaviors, the source of thriving. The middle of Table 1.1 outlines these relationships and provides examples. For example, when people attach positive meaning to nonwork roles (i.e., positive meaning resource), they exhibit task focus on nonwork activities and are motivated to explore how to improve (i.e., task focus and exploration as agentic behavior). Positive meaning in nonwork roles also fosters feelings of interdependence with others (i.e., family, fellow volunteers, friends) and the desire to support others through heedful relating. As positive emotions are associated with cognitive broadening (Fredrickson, 2001), positive affective resources contribute to one's focus on nonwork tasks to explore new ideas. A volunteer in a good mood to sort clothes for a charity sale will engage with task focus since positive emotion has broadened attention. If a problem arises, the volunteer's good mood should enable a search for solutions (exploration). Positive affective resources also broaden attention and foster heedfully relating. When people connect with others, creating relational resources, they are likely to consider others' needs (heedfully relating). This connection with others will facilitate the ability to take risks and explore ways to improve situations and impact others. Knowledge resources should enable exploration and task focus. For example, knowing where to find information contributes to successful exploration. Having existing knowledge about how a process works can prevent interruptions and enable task focus. For example, when a father knows how to prepare a meal, he can focus on preparing it without consulting a recipe. We propose that nonwork role resources are related to agentic behaviors in the nonwork domain as follows:

*Proposition 8a: Positive meaning in nonwork enables task focus, exploration and heedful relating behaviors in the nonwork role.*

*Proposition 8b: Positive affective resources in nonwork enable task focus, exploration and heedful relating behaviors in the nonwork role.*

*Proposition 8c: Relational resources in nonwork enable exploration and heedful relating behaviors in the nonwork role.*

*Proposition 8d: Knowledge resources in nonwork enable task focus and exploration behaviors in the nonwork role.*

### **Nonwork Agentic Behaviors Produce Nonwork Thriving**

As proposed by Spreitzer et al. (2005), each agentic behavior generates vitality and learning, the affective and cognitive components of thriving at work. We propose that just as task focus, exploration, and heedful relating behaviors lead to thriving at work, they are also the engines that create thriving in nonwork roles.

*Proposition 9: Agentic behaviors in nonwork produce thriving in nonwork.*

### **Nonwork Thriving Contributes to Nonwork-to-Work Enrichment and Conflict**

The thriving model (Spreitzer et al, 2005) together with the RGD perspective (Wayne et al., 2007) and work-family enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), suggest that when people thrive in nonwork, they perceive gains which spill over to and enhance functioning at work, creating nonwork-to-work enrichment (Lapierre, Li, Kwan, Greenhaus, DiRenzo & Shao, 2018). Carlson et al. (2006) found three types of enrichment from work-to-nonwork (developmental, affective, and capital) and developmental and affective enrichment also occur from nonwork-to-work. However, they found capital enrichment (social, economic, and health benefits) did not occur from nonwork to work. Instead, they found efficiency to benefit work, such that involvement in nonwork improved focus, self-regulation, and efficiency at work (i.e., efficiency nonwork-to-work enrichment).

Just as with the work-to-nonwork direction, thriving in nonwork should relate to greater nonwork-to-work enrichment. Learning in nonwork can result in skills that transfer to work (i.e., developmental nonwork-to-work enrichment) and a vitality in nonwork should enable positive moods and confidence to transfer to work (i.e., affective nonwork-to-work enrichment). Positive feelings resulting from learning and vitality in a nonwork role foster motivation to prioritize that role, encouraging efficiency at work so that time can be invested in nonwork where thriving occurs (i.e., efficiency nonwork-to-work enrichment). We therefore propose:

*Proposition 10a: Thriving, particularly learning, in nonwork is positively associated with developmental nonwork-to-work enrichment.*

*Proposition 10b: Thriving, particularly vitality, in nonwork is positively associated with affective nonwork-to-work enrichment.*

*Proposition 10c: Thriving, including learning and vitality, in nonwork is positively associated with efficiency nonwork-to-work enrichment.*

Just like at work, thriving in nonwork can increase engagement in nonwork to fully absorb the energy of thriving. This feeling of vitality in nonwork may result in long hours in and remaining mentally attached to nonwork. For example, an employee may thrive in nonwork when volunteering at a religious institution. Close involvement with the institution promotes learning via spiritual exploration and a sense of vitality is gained in building relationships in the community. Still, this nonwork thriving, although it creates benefits, may also foster time-based nonwork-to-work conflict when volunteer commitments interfere with paid employment.

*Proposition 10d: Thriving, including learning and vitality, in nonwork is positively associated with time-based nonwork-to-work conflict.*

## **Impact of Individual, Role and Transition Characteristics**

We have proposed that the extent to which thriving at work leads to work-to-nonwork enrichment is affected by boundary management styles, role similarity and ease of transitions between domains. Likewise, we expect the relationship of thriving in nonwork with nonwork-to-work enrichment to be impacted by these same variables.

**Boundary management styles.** Following earlier arguments, a boundary management style of integration should foster cross-role enrichment, specifically, developmental, efficiency and/or affective nonwork-to-work enrichment (Carlson et al., 2006). When learning in nonwork occurs, both developmental and efficiency nonwork-to-work enrichment should occur more easily among integrators than segmenters. For example, parents with toddlers may learn patience from the “terrible twos,” fostering developmental nonwork-to-work enrichment, and those who integrate are more likely to blur work-nonwork boundaries, and more readily apply the patience developed at home to relationships at work. Similarly, a working parent with three children with many school activities may develop organizational skills, fostering efficiency-based nonwork-to-work enrichment. Integrators should more easily use these organizational skills to be an effective manager. Finally, when integrators experience vitality in nonwork, they should, more than segmenters, carry this to work through affective nonwork-to-work enrichment.

Self-regulatory skills and boundary management styles should also affect the relationship between nonwork thriving and nonwork-to-work enrichment. Specifically, cyclers who fluctuate between boundary management styles might engage in self-regulation to adjust boundary permeability to maximize the degree to which nonwork thriving fosters enrichment. For instance, an assistant professor with a cycling style may engage in segmentation to prevent nonwork from intruding into work while on a short deadline to revise an article, but use an integration approach after the deadline passes to answer calls from a spouse while working.

We also theorize self-regulation behaviors of role firsters will affect work-to-nonwork enrichment and conflict. Work firsters who create asymmetrically permeable boundaries that prioritize work will allow resources to spillover from nonwork to benefit work (nonwork-to-work enrichment) but protect work from conflict originating in nonwork (nonwork-to-work conflict). For example, they may allow vitality stemming from an energizing workout to spillover to work but ignore a phone call from home during work hours. In contrast, a nonwork firster is likely to allow interruptions from nonwork into work, creating time-based nonwork-to-work conflict. In sum, boundary management style is theorized to impact the relationship of thriving in a nonwork role with nonwork-to-work enrichment and conflict:

*Proposition 11a: Thriving, particularly learning and vitality, in nonwork is more positively associated with developmental, efficiency and affective nonwork-to-work enrichment among integrators compared to segmentors.*

*Proposition 11b: Thriving, including learning and vitality, in nonwork is more positively associated with nonwork-to-work conflict among integrators compared to segmentors.*

*Proposition 11c: Thriving, including learning and vitality, in nonwork is positively associated with nonwork-to-work enrichment among cyclers.*

*Proposition 11d: The positive effect of thriving in nonwork on nonwork-to-work enrichment is stronger among work firsters and attenuated among nonwork firsters.*

*Proposition 11e: The positive effect of thriving in nonwork on time-based nonwork-to-work conflict is attenuated among cyclers.*

*Proposition 11f: The positive effect of thriving in nonwork on time-based nonwork-to-work conflict is stronger among nonwork firsters and attenuated among work firsters.*

**Role congruency.** We propose role similarity will strengthen the positive relationship of thriving in nonwork with developmental nonwork-to-work enrichment. When thriving in nonwork occurs, role similarity should make it easier for development from nonwork to benefit work. A volunteer treasurer for a religious organization learns about accounting; if the volunteer also deals with accounting principles in paid employment, skills and knowledge from nonwork can be used at work (developmental nonwork-to-work enrichment). However, a volunteer softball coach may not as easily transfer coaching skills to an accounting job as the roles are dissimilar but might use these skills in motivating if promoted to management at work. As these examples highlight, the relationship between thriving in nonwork and nonwork-to-work enrichment will be stronger when roles are more congruent.

*Proposition 12: Thriving, particularly learning, in nonwork is more positively associated with developmental nonwork-to-work enrichment when congruency between roles occupied in each domain is high.*

**Transition between domains.** A more difficult transition between domains might diminish the positive effects of nonwork thriving on nonwork-to-work enrichment. If the transition from nonwork to work is easy, nonwork thriving can easily translate into affective nonwork-to-work enrichment. For example, a mother who learns of her son's success at a parent-teacher conference before work gets a mental boost (vitality). If she then goes to work without obstacles, she should carry her positive mood to work (affective nonwork-to-work enrichment). In contrast, if she gets in an accident on her way to work, her vitality may dissipate due to this unexpected hassle. Thus, a difficult between-role transition can dampen or even eliminate the positive relationship of nonwork thriving with nonwork-to-work enrichment.

*Proposition 13: Thriving, particularly vitality, in nonwork is more positively associated with affective nonwork-to-work enrichment when the transition between domains is easy.*

### **Nonwork-to-Work Enrichment, Conflict, and Work Resources**

Nonwork thriving can simultaneously benefit and harm work. While nonwork thriving can create developmental, affective, and efficiency-based gains for work, it can also deplete resources through time-based nonwork-to-work conflict. When resources generated via enrichment exceed resources depleted via conflict, there is overall resource gain, and resources should spillover to work to foster thriving at work, continuing the cycle. Yet when resources depleted through conflict exceed resources created through enrichment, a resource loss spiral can occur, undermining thriving at work.

*Proposition 14: In the nonwork-to-work direction, when resource creation via enrichment exceeds resource depletion via conflict, net resource gain results in more work resources and initiates thriving at work, but when resource loss via conflict exceeds resource creation via enrichment, net resource loss impairs thriving at work.*

Nonwork-to-work enrichment means that gains from nonwork roles improve functioning in work. Developmental, affective, and efficiency enrichment originate in nonwork and are linked to specific work resources. The bottom of Table 1.1 outlines these relationships.

Affective nonwork-to-work enrichment refers to the transfer of positive moods and attitudes from nonwork to work, creating positive affective resources at work. Positive meaning, such as self-worth, is also likely more accessible when a person brings a positive mood from nonwork to work; accordingly, affective nonwork-to-work enrichment may also generate greater meaning resources at work. Further, affective enrichment from nonwork to work likely instills confidence at work that can enable development of relational resources at work.

Acquiring new information, or a new perspective based on experiences in a nonwork role (developmental enrichment) can enable positive affective resources (i.e., pride, sense of accomplishment) and positive meaning (i.e., seeing worth in actions) at work. Developmental enrichment from nonwork to work can also create relational and knowledge resources at work. Interpersonal and communication skills developed in personal relationships can benefit work and foster relational resources at work. A variety of knowledge and skills acquired outside work (i.e., education, volunteering) provide knowledge resources that employees use at work. Finally, efficiency gains resulting from managing multiple roles (i.e., spouse, parent, friend, volunteer) enable improved self-regulation at work. Efficiency at work enables a focus on acquiring job knowledge (knowledge resources) and may enhance reputation at work (relational resources).

*Proposition 15a: Developmental enrichment from nonwork produces (a) positive meaning (b) positive affective (c) relational and (d) knowledge resources for work.*

*Proposition 15b: Affective enrichment from nonwork produces (a) positive meaning (b) positive affective and (c) relational resources for work.*

*Proposition 15c: Efficiency enrichment from nonwork produces (a) relational and (b) knowledge resources for work.*

As noted earlier, when thriving in nonwork fosters high engagement and excessive hours in nonwork, this may lead to time-based nonwork-to-work conflict as people devote less time and attention to work due to preoccupation with nonwork. Over time, this may lead to depletion of relational work resources, which could undermine thriving at work. For example, an Associate Professor who is in awe of his new role as father may decide to skip academic conferences so he does not need to travel away from his son. If he continues to disengage from professional



networks over time, this may lead to depletion of relational work resources as he fails to invest energy into a network of coauthors, leading to reduced research performance over time.

*Proposition 16: Time-based nonwork-to-work conflict depletes relational resources available for work.*

## **Discussion and Conclusion**

Until now, two streams of POB research have mostly been considered separately (for an exception see Russo et al., 2018). Research on thriving theorizes that resources foster agentic behavior, contributing to thriving at work, which in turn, promotes positive job attitudes and behavior as well as growth and health (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Research on the work-nonwork interface suggests resources in one role can foster gains which enhance functioning in another role (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wayne et al., 2007), fostering positive role attitudes, behaviors, and well-being (McNall et al., 2010). Through theory blending (Oswick et al., 2011), we merge these streams of research into the CDT model, theorizing that thriving at work may foster thriving in nonwork through cross-domain enrichment but also harm nonwork through cross-domain conflict. We posit that when work-to-nonwork enrichment exceeds conflict, cross-domain thriving occurs, but if conflict exceeds enrichment, thriving is thwarted. The CDT model provides a foundation for future research in at least four important ways.

First, the CDT model posits thriving in nonwork roles as a POB construct. Nonwork thriving positively relates to thriving at work (Porath et al., 2012). Yet, to our knowledge, no past work has theorized about processes linking thriving at work with thriving in nonwork. Scholars could explore thriving in various nonwork roles, including friend, family, community member, and volunteer. A person may thrive in one nonwork role (e.g., family) but not in another (e.g., friend). As resources vary in nonwork roles, nonwork thriving should also change.

Second, the CDT model contributes to work-nonwork research by positing previously untested antecedents of enrichment. Though resources are considered in the RGD perspective (Wayne et al., 2007), Spreitzer et al. (2005) suggest resources operate on enrichment through the agentic behavior of task focus, exploration, and heedful relating as the engine of thriving. That is, work resources create downstream enrichment because they shape agentic behavior and foster thriving. Agentic behavior also has practical value as it may be developed to foster enrichment. As such, we recommend examinations of agentic behavior and thriving at work as proximal antecedents to work-to-nonwork enrichment and/or mechanisms explaining how resources relate to enrichment. This should shed new light on key behaviors which generate enrichment.

A third contribution of the CDT model is explaining mechanisms through which thriving at work relates to nonwork thriving. Rather than benefitting only an individual and their work (Spreitzer et al., 2005), we proffer work-to-nonwork enrichment as a process by which thriving at work spills over to benefit nonwork. In future research, we suggest testing ideas from the CDT model that work-to-nonwork enrichment generates greater nonwork resources, leading to agentic behavior, and in turn, nonwork thriving. To facilitate this, we provide propositions about how each resource relates to each type of agentic behavior. As resources, thriving, and enrichment are multi-dimensional, we suggest capturing these nuances in empirical tests.

Finally, the CDT model asserts that over time, nonwork thriving can foster nonwork-to-work enrichment, offering resources for work through resource gain spirals (Hobfoll, 1989). Yet, such time-based effects of thriving require that enrichment-related resource creation exceeds conflict-related resource depletion. Research often oversimplifies complex phenomena, failing to consider time in work-nonwork relationships (Allen et al., 2018). Work-nonwork theory rarely theorizes about the nature, type, and extent of change over time (Allen et al., 2018), and research

on both thriving and work-nonwork interface have largely used cross-sectional data, even while making explicit time referents in data collection (e.g., report on the past day, week, month, etc.). Full explication of time is beyond the scope of this paper, but we briefly explain how we expect processes to unfold in the CDT model.

Spreitzer et al. (2005) defined thriving as a dynamic psychological state that varies over time (Porath et al., 2012). Niessen et al. (2012) found a major portion of variance in thriving was caused by day-to-day within-person variation, and two factors relevant to thriving, unit context and resources, operate with distinct temporal frames. Unit contextual features are relatively stable work characteristics, and resources (e.g., positive meaning, relational resources, and knowledge) are more dynamic. These authors found that, resources, agentic behavior and thriving vary within-person in a single day suggesting this aspect of the thriving process is quite dynamic. By extension, CDT contends that thriving at work can also be carried home via work-to-nonwork enrichment and create thriving in nonwork the same day. Similarly, work-nonwork conflict and enrichment have been theorized to be episodic variables (Maertz & Boyar, 2011) that exhibit within-person variance over time (e.g., Goh et al., 2015). In sum, resources, thriving, conflict, and enrichment are expected to exhibit day-to-day variation, suggesting some aspects of the CDT model, such as resources at work to nonwork thriving, may unfold in a relatively short period of time (e.g., within a day to across days).

Still, given the multi-step, cross-domain effects in the CDT model, it may take more time (weeks to months) for the CDT process to unfold to observe reciprocal relations. Yet while there is evidence of within-person variation in resources, thriving, conflict, and enrichment, research has also found moderate to high stability of resources, conflict and enrichment over months and years (Wayne et al., working paper). Thus, once processes unfold, they may be fairly stable until

a work or nonwork event changes the type and nature of resources that contribute to thriving. As these temporal processes are well reasoned but untested, we encourage scholars to test the CDT model with a temporal lens rather than relying on cross-sectional research.

Research should explore how long the process depicted in the CDT model (work thriving to nonwork enrichment, to nonwork thriving to work enrichment) takes. Given resource gain (as well as loss) spirals and positive (negative) feedback loops are theorized over time, scholars should examine non-recursive models of work and nonwork thriving using longitudinal and cross-lagged designs. This enables testing of the dynamic process implied by the CDT model. Studies might use latent growth modeling to examine whether resources, thriving, enrichment, and conflict change in tandem with one another over time. These designs are also critical for testing relationships that are reciprocal rather than unidirectional (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010) such as those between resources and agentic behavior and between agentic behavior and thriving.

Lastly, we discuss when and for whom relationships in the CDT model are most likely to occur, considering moderators such as boundary management style, role congruence and ease of transition. Yet, we would be amiss to overlook the key role of environment in how, when, and whether processes posited in the CDT unfold. Event systems theory (Morgeson et al., 2015) proposes that events in a person's micro and macro environment, especially those that are novel, disruptive, or critical, impair functioning and change behavior. Human resource scholars have noted the importance of environmental events such as recessions (e.g., Kim & Ployhart, 2014). Though it stands to reason that contextual events matter to the work-nonwork interface, there is limited understanding of how micro (e.g., divorce, death of a loved one) or macro (e.g., manmade and natural disasters, pandemics, economic recessions, and terrorism) crisis events impact the work-nonwork interface (Eby et al., 2016). In an exception, Vaziri, Casper, Wayne, and

Matthews (2020) found meaningful shifts in worker profiles of conflict and enrichment during the COVID-19 pandemic relative to before, stressing the importance of context.

Though crisis events may be generally harmful, many life events are largely positive (e.g., birth of a child, promotion, relocation) and may foster thriving. Importantly, for a virtuous cycle of resource gain to occur, resource formation (e.g., due to positive events) must outpace environmental demands (e.g., due to negative events) and be continuously replenished. As such, the CDT model implies that when crises results in conflict and resource depletion which is not offset by gains from enrichment, net resource loss impairs agentic behavior, leading to erosion of thriving. Though beyond the scope of this article to fully unpack environmental events, they are likely to play a key role in how processes in the CDT model unfold.

Finally, our CDT model also has practical implications. The model suggests leaders who improve work unit context, such as by fostering a climate of trust and respect, may promote resource production via thriving at work. To foster resource transfer across domains, employers could offer training to expose employees to the idea of boundary management and encourage them to experiment with varying boundary management styles (cycling), to see if they can intentionally foster cross-domain enrichment while averting cross-domain conflict. To foster easier cross-domain transitions, measures can be taken to reduce difficult commutes, by allowing telework or flextime to avoid high-traffic commuting. Supervisors can encourage agentic behavior by reinforcing it among employees and serving as role models who exhibit it (Bandura, 1977). In sum, our CDT model offers a plethora of possibilities for future research on thriving in work and nonwork. Our hope is to encourage scholars to fully explore how to leverage benefits of thriving and avoid its pitfalls through empirical tests of the CDT model.

## **Chapter 3: Thriving and Boundary Management for Work and Nonwork Enrichment**

### **Gains**

Involvement in multiple roles (i.e., employee, spouse, family member, community member) in multiple domains (i.e., work, home, community) can cause conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) and create benefits (Carlson et al., 2006). Work-nonwork enrichment occurs when experiences in one role (e.g., work) improve the quality of life in another role (e.g., nonwork; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Enrichment's bidirectional nature signifies that work resources can help functioning in nonwork roles and, conversely, nonwork resources can help functioning in work roles. Increased resources in the work domain are one reason why organizations should be interested in fostering positive outcomes across work and nonwork domains. Notable antecedents of work-to-nonwork enrichment include job salience, developmental experiences, autonomy, and supervisor relationship quality, while antecedents of nonwork-to-work enrichment include family salience, relationship with family, and family mutuality (Carlson et al., 2006). The Cross-Domain Thriving (CDT) model (Hyde et al., 2020) introduces the idea that thriving – the joint experience of learning and vitality (Spreitzer et al., 2005) – at nonwork precedes nonwork-to-work enrichment. Further, the CDT model suggests this enrichment results in thriving at work, which, in turn, leads to work-to-nonwork enrichment, initiating a continuous cycle of resource production and cross-domain sharing of resources. However, this same model suggests thriving might also foster cross-role conflict, depleting resources. As thriving is posited to foster both resource gain and resource depletion across roles, the CDT model suggests it is the balance of resources gained and lost which determine whether thriving is beneficial or detrimental overall.

Role resources – knowledge, relational, positive meaning, and positive affect – contribute to thriving, along with positive contextual characteristics, such as perceptions of trust, decision-

making discretion, and transparency (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Such resources allow people to engage in self-regulatory, purposeful behaviors, producing further resources in pursuit of self-development and improved well-being (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Positive individual outcomes of thriving at work include proactiveness, career development initiative (Porath et al, 2012), higher job performance (Frazier & Tupper, 2018; Gerbasi et al, 2015, Paterson et al., 2014), innovation (Wallace et al, 2016), and positive job attitudes (Kleine et al., 2019). The CDT model extends the thriving at work research by proposing its relationship, via resource creation and depletion, to both work-to-nonwork enrichment and time-based conflict. Thriving at work can benefit nonwork when resources developed via thriving provide resources for nonwork through work-to-nonwork enrichment, but may also lead to long hours at work, resulting in time-based work-to-nonwork conflict (Hyde et al., 2020).

This study contributes to the thriving, enrichment, and boundary management literatures by testing several tenets of the CDT model. First, by examining the direct relationship between thriving at work and work-to-nonwork enrichment (and between thriving at nonwork and nonwork-to-work enrichment), I identify a mechanism by which thriving can cross to another domain (i.e., from work to home or from home to work), via developmental, affective, and capital or efficiency gains. Additionally, support for the thriving to enrichment relationship confirms new antecedents of enrichment for future research. Second, the examination of boundary management behaviors, role congruency, and ease of transition between domains provides a starting point for future investigation of contextual and individual characteristics that may help or hinder the relationship between thriving in a role and the transfer of resources out of that role into another. Specifically, the empirical investigation and scale development of a boundary management style in which one self-regulates between separating and combining roles

– known as cycling (Kossek, 2016) – contributes to research examining the benefits and consequences of different boundary management style for positive work-life outcomes. The new cycling scale will also enable future researchers to expand our understanding of this type of boundary management of behavior.

### **Defining Self-Regulation within Boundary Theory and the CDT model**

Self-regulation, or self-regulatory behavior, aims to reduce a discrepancy between a desired goal and current relationship to that goal (Carver, 2006). A significant element in the thriving model (Spreitzer et al., 2005) is self-regulation, as thriving occurs when people purposefully act via agentic behaviors, rather than passively stand by, using and producing resources in the pursuit of self-development (Bandura, 2001; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Agentic behaviors in the thriving model – task focus, heedful relating, and exploration – reciprocally relate to role resources (Spreitzer et al., 2005). For example, an employee can choose to use knowledge resources to help a coworker learn about a product (i.e., heedful relating), in turn, producing relational resources (a coworker bond based in social exchange). That employee can then choose to draw on the relational resources in future self-regulatory actions aimed at work or nonwork goal attainment.

Extending the thriving at work model, the CDT model identifies boundary management behaviors as key self-regulatory behaviors that shape how thriving can cross work and nonwork boundaries to foster cross-domain enrichment and/or conflict. Work-family conflict occurs when work and nonwork are mutually incompatible in some respect, resulting in time-, strain-, and behavior-based conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The CDT model recognizes that when a person is thriving in a role, they may be inclined to spend more time in that role, fostering time-based conflict when time spent in one role prevents participation in another (Greenhaus &



Beutrell, 1985). In contrast, also recognized by the CDT model, work-nonwork enrichment occurs when there are benefits of multiple roles (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wayne et al., 2007), such as when resources reaped in one role foster developmental, affective, capital and efficiency gains in another role (Carlson et al., 2006).

Boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000) explains how people allow resources and stressors to cross the boundary between work and nonwork. To avoid conflicts and/or to help manage responsibilities from multiple domains, people create, via self-regulation, boundaries around their work and nonwork roles. Boundaries can involve physical, temporal, emotional, cognitive, and/or relational margins (Ashforth et al., 2000). There are different ways in which people use boundaries to manage multiple roles. Boundary management is conceptualized and measured on a continuum from low to high segmentation (Kreiner, 2006). High segmenters prefer to keep strong boundaries between roles while low segmenters (also called integrators) prefer to blend work and personal roles (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Two characteristics of boundaries enable segmentation and integration – permeability and flexibility (Ashforth et al., 2000). Permeable boundaries allow interruptions from other roles. For example, when an employee is involved in a home activity on the weekend and takes a work-related phone call, the home boundary is permeable. Flexible boundaries enable tasks to be done in various settings (office and home) and at distinct times (workday and weekends), whereas inflexible boundaries do not. For example, an elementary school teacher may have an inflexible boundary during certain times of the school day when a physical presence in the classroom is required. Employees may also use a mix of both integration and segmentation, choosing the strategy that best fits their current role experiences and demands (Rothbard et al., 2020). This boundary management style where people alternate between integration and segmentation – or low and high segmentation – has been

termed *cycling* (Kossek & Lautsch, 2008). Enacting self-regulatory skills to align boundary management behavior with current priorities, a cycler may embrace segmentation during a period of a high volume of work. For example, a bookkeeper closing accounting records at the end of a month may tell his older children to not text him during that time. At other times, he may integrate work and nonwork roles by thinking of his children during the day and texting or calling them to check in. The CDT model suggests cyclers, if successful at self-regulating boundary management, should be able to exert control over their boundaries, vacillating between integration and segmentation to foster thriving into more enrichment and less conflict. In this study, I examine the effect of boundary management behaviors – segmentation, integration, and cycling – on the relationship between domain-specific thriving and cross-domain enrichment and conflict.

### **Hypothesis Development**

As a starting point for empirically testing the CDT model, I assess the direct effects of thriving on multiple forms of enrichment and time-based conflict for both work and nonwork. I also examine four moderating effects – segmentation, cycling, role congruency, and ease of transition – on these relationships (See Figure 2.1).

The CDT model proffers that thriving (learning and vitality) at work should foster work-to-nonwork enrichment. People produce resources when they grow and develop at work, which can spillover to enhance nonwork (Wayne et al., 2007), and create *work-to-nonwork enrichment* (Voydanoff, 2004). There are three types of enrichment gains in the work-to-nonwork direction: developmental, affective, and capital (Carlson et al., 2006). The CDT model proposes that learning and vitality each relate to specific types of work-to-nonwork enrichment gains. First, mastery of knowledge and skills at work (i.e., learning) should foster *developmental enrichment*,

or acquisition of knowledge and skills that can benefit nonwork roles. Second, since energy (i.e., vitality) is associated with positive affect (Kleine, et al., 2019), vitality should be associated with positive emotions at work that can benefit nonwork (i.e., *affective enrichment*). Third, *capital enrichment* gains, which include economic, social or health assets, should result from both learning and vitality. For example, learning at work can lead to economic benefits resulting from promotions and/or competing job offers, while vitality at work can lead to better mental and physical health, which is also enjoyed at home. Thus, thriving at work should foster work-to-nonwork developmental, affective and capital enrichment. Yet simultaneously, the positive experience of thriving at work may also contribute to a person becoming highly involved in work, working long hours which interfere with nonwork roles (Halbesleben et al., 2009), resulting in time-based work-to-nonwork conflict. Thus, as proposed in the CDT model, I hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 1a: Work thriving, particularly learning, positively relates to work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment.*

*Hypothesis 1b: Work thriving, particularly vitality, positively relates to work-to-nonwork affective enrichment.*

*Hypothesis 1c: Work thriving, including learning and vitality, positively relates to work-to-nonwork capital enrichment.*

*Hypothesis 2: Work thriving, including learning and vitality, positively relates to work-to-nonwork time-based conflict.*

The CDT model also proposes that individual, role, and transition characteristics are boundary conditions that affect the relationship of thriving with enrichment or conflict, by explaining for whom and when thriving exhibits a stronger or weaker relationship with

enrichment and/or conflict. First, the effects of thriving at work on work-to-nonwork enrichment or conflict should be stronger for people who practice low segmentation (integration) of roles rather than for those who practice high segmentation. High segmenters focus on keeping work and nonwork roles separate while low segmenters (integrators) allow blurring of boundaries to manage various roles concurrently (Ashforth et al., 2000). Since high segmenters keep strong boundaries between work and nonwork domains, they likely prevent both positive and negative spillover from work to nonwork, reducing work-to-nonwork conflict but also opportunities for work-to-nonwork enrichment gains (Michel & Hargis, 2008). On the other hand, low segmenters (integrators) who allow boundaries to blur by managing responsibilities across domains simultaneously may more easily transfer both benefits and costs of engaging in a role to the other role, increasing the opportunity for resource gains via enrichment (Carlson et al., 2006) and resource depletion via conflict (Carlson et al., 2000). Therefore, as proposed in the CDT model, I hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 3: Work thriving, including learning and vitality, is more positively associated with work-to-nonwork (a) developmental and (b) affective enrichment among low segmenters (integrators) compared to high segmenters.*

*Hypothesis 4: Work thriving, including learning and vitality, is more positively associated with work-to-nonwork time-based conflict among low segmenters (integrators) compared to high segmenters.*

Alternately, cyclers do not solely enact segmentation or integration but instead use of mix of strategies, based on the situation (Kossek, 2016). If things are going well at work, low segmentation (integration) may allow energy from work to foster work-to-nonwork affective development. However, if work is in a period of high stress, cyclers may choose high

segmentation behaviors, for example, only tending to work activities during work hours, to protect their home environment from work-to-nonwork time-based conflict. Since cyclers have the propensity to utilize both segmentation and integration, the CDT model suggests they will likely utilize the boundary management approach that best fits the situation, leveraging the effects of thriving to promote enrichment (via integration) and reduce conflict (via high segmentation). As such, I hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 5: Work thriving, including learning and vitality, is more positively associated with work-to-nonwork (a) developmental, (b) affective, and (c) capital enrichment among cyclers.*

*Hypothesis 6: The positive effect of work thriving on work-to-nonwork time-based conflict is attenuated among cyclers.*

Second, the CDT model proposes that congruency between roles is another boundary condition of the relationships between thriving and enrichment and/or conflict. Role congruency, or similarity, exists when the skills, activities, and mental and physical demands required in one role are similar to those required in another role (Kelly et al., 2021). For example, when a childcare worker is skilled at managing the needs of multiple children during the day, she can successfully use those same skills in managing her own children during nonwork hours. When a nonwork role is goal-directed and involves obligation in the way a work role does, absorption in the work role is fostered (Dumas & Perry-Smith, 2018). In other words, because of a similar feeling of obligation in the work and nonwork roles, the employee is able to experience more task focus in their work role. Since task focus fosters production of resources (Spreitzer, et al., 2005), congruency in work and nonwork roles should increase the availability of knowledge resources for developmental enrichment gain. Moreover, when the skills and abilities required

for performing well in work and nonwork roles are similar, these skills and abilities are more pertinent to cross-domain role performance, fostering developmental enrichment. Thus, as proposed in the CDT model, I hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 7: Work thriving, particularly learning, is more positively associated with work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment when congruency between roles occupied in each domain is high.*

Third, the CDT model proposes the ease of transition between domains affects the relationships between work thriving and work-to-nonwork enrichment and/or conflict. Transitions between domains are both physical and psychological as people exit one domain and enter another. Examples of physical transitions include commuting from a work location to home, moving from a workspace within the home to a nonwork space at home, and changing from work attire to nonwork attire. Psychological transitions involve cognitively switching from one role to another. For example, making a phone call while physically at work to check on a sick family member involves thinking about nonwork while on the call, and then transitioning back to the work role when the call ends. When people have more boundary flexibility to enact a role at any time or place, transitions may be easier (Ashforth et al., 2000; Kossek & Lautsch, 2012), facilitating the ability for thriving to spill over between work and nonwork domains. Using the phone call example above, when a work role allows flexibility, vitality experienced from thriving at work can easily transfer to the conversation with the family member, perhaps providing energy needed to assist the family member after work. However, if leaving a work role requires the employee to leave a shared workspace, exit a building in a crowded elevator, and navigate several train and bus changes to enter the home domain, some energy may deplete in the process, reducing opportunity for cross-role energy transfer. Such difficult work-to-nonwork

transitions may prevent thriving at work from spilling into nonwork. Therefore, as proposed in the CDT model, I hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 8: Work thriving, particularly vitality, will have a stronger positive association with work-to-nonwork affective enrichment when the transition between domains is easy.*

The ability to benefit from work-to-nonwork enrichment gains is important for the well-being of individuals (McNall et al., 2010; van Steenbergen et al., 2007; Voydanoff, 2005), as these gains provide resources that employees can use to handle demands outside of work. However, of more interest to employers may be whether employees' thriving in their nonwork roles can bring resources from nonwork domain into the work domain. The process by which learning and vitality in a nonwork role leads to *nonwork-to-work enrichment* and/or time-based conflict should operate in the same manner proposed for work thriving to lead to work-to-nonwork enrichment and/or time-based conflict. The one exception is in the nonwork to work direction, capital enrichment gains (i.e., income) are not produced; instead, people benefit from *efficiency enrichment*, or, "a sense of focus or urgency which helps the individual to be a better worker" (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 140-141). Research by Dumas and Perry-Smith (2018) finds evidence of this efficiency enrichment in finding that employees with after-work obligations (i.e., caregiving and domestic duties) were more focused at work in anticipation of their nonwork responsibilities. I therefore hypothesize the following, as the CDT Model proposes:

*Hypothesis 9a: Nonwork thriving, particularly learning, positively relates to nonwork-to-work developmental enrichment.*

*Hypothesis 9b: Nonwork thriving, particularly vitality, positively relates to nonwork-to-work affective enrichment.*

*Hypothesis 9c: Nonwork thriving, including learning and vitality, positively relates to nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment.*

*Hypothesis 10: Nonwork thriving, including learning and vitality, positively relates to nonwork-to-work time-based conflict.*

In the same way I expect segmentation, cycling, role congruency, and ease of transition between domains to affect the extent to which thriving at work leads to work-to-nonwork enrichment and/or time-based conflict, I expect these variables to moderate the relationship of thriving in nonwork with nonwork-to-work enrichment and/or time-based conflict. Thus:

*Hypothesis 11: Nonwork thriving, including learning and vitality, is more positively associated with nonwork-to-work (a) developmental, (b) efficiency and (c) affective enrichment among low segmenters (integrators) compared to high segmenters.*

*Hypothesis 12: Nonwork thriving, including learning and vitality, is more positively associated with nonwork-to-work time-based conflict among low segmenters (integrators) compared to high segmenters.*

*Hypothesis 13: Nonwork thriving, including learning and vitality, is more positively associated with nonwork-to-work (a) developmental, (b) affective, and (c) efficiency enrichment among cyclers.*

*Hypothesis 14: The positive effect of nonwork thriving on nonwork-to-work time-based conflict is attenuated among cyclers.*

*Hypothesis 15: Nonwork thriving, particularly learning, is more positively associated with nonwork-to-work developmental enrichment when congruency between roles occupied in each domain is high.*



*Hypothesis 16: Nonwork thriving, particularly vitality, is more positively associated with nonwork-to-work affective enrichment when the transition between domains is easy.*

## **Method**

### **Participants and Procedure**

The participants were 222 employed U.S. adults. Using the online sample provider Prolific (prolific.co), 400 employed U.S. adults completed a 20-minute survey, for which they were paid \$2.25. After eliminating participants with missing responses and failed attention checks, I invited 380 participants to complete another 20-minute survey one month later. Of those invited, 278 (73% response rate) completed the survey at time 2. All were again paid \$2.25. Data from time 1 and time 2 were reviewed for completion, qualification (i.e., employed at least five hours per week), logical answers (i.e., activity hours allowed for sleeping), passed attention checks and surpassing minimal response time (i.e., at least half of the median response time). The final sample included 222 participants that responded at both time periods. The sample was 51.8% female, 74.3% White, 54.5% married or living with a partner, 37.8% had children, and 40.1% had Bachelor's degrees. Respondents worked in a variety of industries and positions, with first-line employees making up 52.3% of the sample. The average number of paid employment hours per week was 44.1 (SD = 10.3), average hours spent in caregiving was 10.7 per week (SD = 18.9), and average weekly hours in household responsibilities was 16.9 (SD = 5.5). Refer to Table 2.1 for more details on the sample.

### ***Measures***

Appendix A contains the complete list of items. Participants answered all items using a five-point Likert scale with anchors strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (5).

**Independent Variables.** I measured both dimensions of thriving – learning and vitality – for work and for nonwork at time 1. I adapted the 10-item thriving scale created by Porath et al. (2012) by removing a reverse-scored item, leaving four items per dimension.

**Work (Nonwork) Thriving – Learning.** Four items preceded by the prompt “At work (In nonwork)...” measured the learning component of work (nonwork) thriving. An example of a learning item was “I see myself continually improving.” Cronbach’s alpha was .88.

**Work (Nonwork) Thriving – Vitality.** Four items preceded by the prompt “At work (In nonwork)...” measured the vitality component of work (nonwork) thriving. An example vitality item was “I have energy and spirit.” Cronbach’s alpha was .91.

**Moderating variables** were measured at time 1. They included segmentation behavior, cycling, role congruency, and ease of transition between domains.

**Segmentation Behavior.** I adapted Kreiner’s (2006) 4-item measure of segmentation preference to assess behaviors rather than preferences. For instance, “I don’t like work issues creeping into my home life” was changed to “I do not let work issues creep into my personal life.” Lower scores represent low segmentation, or integration behavior; higher scores represent high segmentation behavior. Cronbach’s alpha was .95.

**Cycling Behavior.** Based on Kossek (2016), I defined cycling conceptually as “regularly fluctuating boundary management behaviors from periods of integrating work and nonwork to periods of segmenting work and nonwork”. Thirteen items were initially written. I provided the conceptual definition to 29 management and organizational behavior doctoral students and faculty and asked them to rate on a Likert scale from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” whether the 13 items reflected the conceptual definition of cycling. I retained the ten top-rated items for this study to measure cycling behavior. Using Time 1 data (N = 328), I subjected the 10

cycling items and 4 segmentation items to exploratory factor analysis (principal components analysis) with Varimax rotation. The scree plot and the Kaiser criterion (Eigenvalues greater than 1) suggested a two-component solution, with cycling items loading on the first component and items measuring segmentation on the second component (See Table 2.2). A sample item for cycling is “Sometimes I keep a firm boundary between work and home, whereas other times I let the boundary blur”. Cronbach’s alpha was .95.

***Role Congruency.*** Participants answered seven items to measure role congruency, starting with four items from Kelly et al. (2020). A sample item was “I require similar skills and abilities to be successful in my job and in my personal life.” I wrote three additional items for this study. These were “The knowledge I use at work is similar to the knowledge I use at home”, “There are a lot of similarities between what is expected of me at work and what is expected of me at home”, and, “Overall, there is a lot of similarity between my work life and home life.” Cronbach’s alpha for the seven items was .88.

***Ease of Transition.*** I measured ease of transition separately for the work domain and the nonwork domain. The four-item work flexibility-ability scale (Matthews & Barnes-Farrell, 2010) measured ease of transition from the work to nonwork role. A sample item is “If the need arose, I could stop working early to attend to personal issues.” Cronbach’s alpha was .88. The four-item nonwork flexibility-ability scale (Matthews & Barnes-Farell, 2010) measured ease of transition from nonwork to work. A sample item was “My personal life responsibilities would not prevent me from working an extra day in order to meet work responsibilities.” Alpha was .86.

***Dependent Variables.*** I measured eight dependent variables at time 2. The first six dependent variables were the three types of enrichment in both the work-to-nonwork and

nonwork-to-work directions. The final two dependent variables were time-based conflict in the work-to-nonwork and in the nonwork-to-work directions.

***Work-to-Nonwork Developmental, Affective and Capital Enrichment.*** I measured enrichment with the Carlson et al. (2006) scale. Items measuring work-to-nonwork enrichment began with the prompt “My involvement in my work”. With an alpha of .87, the work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment scale had three items. A sample item was “helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me to be better at nonwork roles”. A sample from the three items measuring work-to-nonwork affective enrichment ( $\alpha = .95$ ) was “makes me feel happy and this helps me be at nonwork roles”. Three items measured work-to-nonwork capital enrichment ( $\alpha = .91$ ), with a sample being “provides me with a sense of success and this helps me to be better at nonwork roles”.

***Nonwork-to-Work Developmental, Affective and Efficiency Enrichment.*** The Carlson et al. (2006) scale also assessed nonwork-to-work enrichment. Items for nonwork-to-work enrichment began with the prompt “My involvement in my nonwork role(s)”. Three items measured nonwork-to-work developmental enrichment ( $\alpha = .90$ ), with a sample being “helps me acquire skills and be a better worker”. The scale measuring nonwork-to-work affective enrichment ( $\alpha = .94$ ) contained three items. A sample is “makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker”. A sample from the three-item scale measuring nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment ( $\alpha = .88$ ) was “encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker.”

***Work-to-Nonwork and Nonwork-to-Work Time-Based Conflict.*** Participants completed three items measuring work-to-nonwork time-based conflict ( $\alpha = .90$ ) and three items measuring nonwork-to-work time-based conflict ( $\alpha = .83$ ) with modified language (i.e., changing “family”

to “personal”) from Carlson et al.’s (2000) work-family conflict items. A work-to-nonwork sample item is “My work keeps me from my personal activities more than I would like.” A sample nonwork-to-work item is “The time I spend on personal responsibilities often interferes with my work responsibilities.”

## **Analysis**

Before assessing hypotheses, I conducted confirmatory factor analysis on the measurement model with 16 factors. I included all 16 latent constructs that utilized or adapted established scales (all except cycling). Fit statistics indicated a good model fit  $\chi^2$  (1532) = 2781.06,  $p < .001$ , comparative fit index = .92, Tucker-Lewis Index = .91, root mean square error of approximation = .05, standardized root mean square residual = .05. The measurement model was a superior fit compared to an alternative model constraining all items to load on one factor ( $\chi^2$  (1711) = 16776.03,  $p < .001$ , comparative fit index = .33, Tucker-Lewis Index = .30, root mean square error of approximation = .14, standardized root mean square residual = .13). I report means, standard deviations, correlations and reliabilities in Table 2.3.

I used OLS regression in SPSS to test nine models – one for thriving, one for the direct effects of the four moderator variables, and one for the interaction effects of the moderator variables – for each of eight dependent variables (see Tables 4 – 11). All predictors and moderators were measured at time 1 and outcomes at time 2.

## **Results**

### **Work-to-Nonwork Relationships**

I began with examining the effect of the two components of thriving on three components of enrichment in the work-to-nonwork direction (Hypothesis 1). Results are provided in Tables 2.4 (developmental enrichment), 2.5 (affective enrichment), and 2.6 (capital enrichment).

Specifically, the learning component of work thriving was positively related to work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment ( $\beta = .36, p < .001$ ) and to work-to-nonwork capital enrichment ( $\beta = .18, p < .01$ ), and the vitality component of work thriving positively related to work-to-nonwork affective enrichment ( $\beta = .46, p < .001$ ) and to work-to-nonwork capital enrichment ( $\beta = .50, p < .001$ ). Thus, results fully support Hypothesis 1. Although not hypothesized, I found vitality at work ( $\beta = .19, p < .01$ ) was also positively related to work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment (see Table 2.4).

Results for the effects on work-to-nonwork time-based conflict are reported in Table 2.7. Hypothesis 2 stated that both components of work thriving would be positively associated with work-to-nonwork time-based conflict. The effects of learning at work ( $\beta = -.20, p > .05$ ) and vitality at work ( $\beta = -.16, p > .05$ ) on work-to-nonwork time-based conflict were both non-significant, thus results did not support Hypothesis 2. Although work thriving was positively associated with work-to-nonwork enrichment as expected, it was not related to work-to-nonwork time-based conflict, which was contrary to expectations.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that both components of work thriving would be more positively related to each type of work-to-nonwork enrichment among low segmenters compared to high segmenters. Neither learning at work ( $\beta = .30, p > .05$ ) nor vitality at work ( $\beta = -.13, p > .05$ ) interacted with segmentation to predict work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment (Table 2.4). For work-to-nonwork affective enrichment (Table 2.5), there was also no interaction of learning at work ( $\beta = -.25, p > .05$ ) nor vitality at work ( $\beta = .17, p > .05$ ) with segmentation. Finally, for work-to-nonwork capital enrichment (Table 2.6), the effects of learning at work ( $\beta = -.29, p > .05$ ) and vitality at work ( $\beta = -.06, p > .05$ ) were non-significant. Therefore, results did not

support Hypothesis 3, as segmentation behavior did not moderate the effect of thriving at work on any of the three types of work-to-nonwork enrichment.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that low segmentation behavior would strengthen the effect of work thriving (both learning and vitality) on time-based conflict. In contrast to Hypothesis 4 (see Table 2.7), neither learning at work ( $\beta = .95, p > .05$ ) nor vitality at work ( $\beta = -.25, p > .05$ ) interacted with segmentation in predicting work-to-nonwork time-based conflict.

Hypothesis 5 stated that the relationship of both components of work thriving with the three types work-to-nonwork enrichment would be strengthened among people who engage in more cycling. Again, these results are shown in Tables 2.4 (developmental enrichment), 2.5 (affective enrichment), and 2.6 (capital enrichment). The interactions of learning ( $\beta = -.16, p > .05$ ) and vitality ( $\beta = .31, p > .05$ ) with cycling in predicting work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment were nonsignificant. Similarly, the interactions of cycling with learning ( $\beta = .81, p > .05$ ) and vitality ( $\beta = -.59, p > .05$ ) were non-significant in predicting affective enrichment. Finally, the combination of each of the two dimensions of thriving interacted with cycling to predict an increment of 2% ( $\Delta R^2 = .02, p < .05$ ) in the variance in work-to-nonwork capital enrichment (see Table 2.6). Although the interaction of learning at work and cycling on work-to-nonwork capital enrichment was non-significant ( $\beta = .08, p > .05$ ), the interaction of cycling with vitality was significant ( $\beta = -.74, p < .05$ ). All significant interactions were graphed following Aiken and West (1991). The negative beta and the graph demonstrated that the relationship of vitality with work-to-nonwork capital enrichment was attenuated among people who engaged in greater cycling (see Figure 2.2). Thus, results do not support Hypothesis 5, given cycling behaviors did not strengthen the work thriving and work-to-nonwork enrichment relationship. In opposition to hypotheses, increased cycling attenuated, rather than strengthened, the positive

relationship between work vitality and work-to-nonwork capital enrichment. However, although not hypothesized, segmentation was directly and negatively associated with work-to-nonwork capital enrichment ( $\beta = -.11, p < .05$ ) and cycling was directly positively associated with work-to-nonwork affective enrichment (see Table 2.5,  $\beta = .13, p < .05$ ).

Hypothesis 6 posited that greater cycling would attenuate the positive effect of work thriving (both learning and vitality) on work-to-nonwork time-based conflict. As shown in Table 2.7, the interactions of cycling with both learning at work ( $\beta = .13, p > .05$ ) and vitality at work ( $\beta = .10, p > .05$ ) were not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 is not supported. Although not anticipated, role congruency was directly related ( $\beta = .16, p < .05$ ) to greater time-based work-to-nonwork conflict. Ease of transition ( $\beta = -.14, p < .05$ ) and segmentation ( $\beta = -.19, p < .01$ ) were also both direct, negative predictors of work-to-nonwork time-based conflict. In other words, having similar roles increased the likelihood of conflict, but an easier transition from work to nonwork and *less* segmentation (i.e., more integration) was related to reduced work-to-nonwork time-based conflict.

Hypothesis 7 proffered that learning at work would be more positively associated with work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment when role congruency was high. As shown in Table 2.4, the interaction of learning at work and role congruency ( $\beta = -.93, p > .05$ ) was not significant for work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment, failing to support Hypothesis 7. However, although not hypothesized, role congruency was directly related to more work-to-nonwork development ( $\beta = .16, p < .01$ ).

Hypothesis 8 predicted that vitality would more positively relate to work-to-nonwork affective enrichment when the transition between domains was easier. As shown in Table 2.5, the interaction of vitality at work with role congruency ( $\beta = -.13, p > .05$ ) for work-to-nonwork



affective enrichment was not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 8 was not supported. Although not hypothesized, the combination of the interactions of ease of transition with learning and vitality predicted a 4% ( $\Delta R^2 = .04$ ,  $p < .01$ ) increment in the variance of work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment (see Table 2.4). While the interaction of ease of transition with learning was nonsignificant ( $\beta = .11$ ,  $p > .05$ ), ease of transition did interact with vitality at work to predict work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment ( $\beta = -.87$ ,  $p < .05$ ). The interaction of vitality at work and ease of transition is depicted in Figure 2.3, which shows that under conditions of high vitality, ease of transition was not important to work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment. However, under conditions of low vitality people with easier transitions between roles reported higher levels of work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment than those with more difficult transitions.

### **Nonwork-to-Work Relationships**

Turning to the relationship between nonwork thriving and nonwork-to-work enrichment, I report results in Table 2.8 (developmental enrichment), Table 2.9 (affective enrichment) and Table 2.10 (efficiency enrichment). Nonwork learning was positively related to nonwork-to-work developmental enrichment ( $\beta = .36$ ,  $p < .001$ , see Table 2.8) and to nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment ( $\beta = .17$ ,  $p < .05$ , see Table 2.10). Nonwork vitality was related to nonwork-to-work affective enrichment ( $\beta = .44$ ,  $p < .001$ , see Table 2.9) and to nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment ( $\beta = .30$ ,  $p < .001$ , see Table 2.10). These results support Hypothesis 9.

Results for nonwork-to-work time-based conflict are reported in Table 2.11. Neither learning ( $\beta = -.01$ ,  $p > .05$ ) nor vitality ( $\beta = -.08$ ,  $p > .05$ ) in nonwork was significantly related to nonwork-to-work time-based conflict, showing no support for Hypothesis 10. Mirroring the

work-to-nonwork direction, results suggest nonwork thriving relates to increased nonwork-to-work enrichment but is unrelated to nonwork-to-work time-based conflict.

Next, I assessed moderators of the relationship between nonwork thriving and nonwork-to-work enrichment, beginning with segmentation. Hypothesis 11 stated that the relationship between thriving (both learning and vitality) and all three types of nonwork-to-work efficiency would be stronger among people who engage in less segmentation. First, as shown in Table 2.8, the interactions of segmentation with nonwork learning ( $\beta = .67, p > .05$ ) and nonwork vitality ( $\beta = -.65, p > .05$ ) were not significant predictors of nonwork-to-work developmental enrichment, failing to support Hypothesis 11a. However, the combination of each of the two dimensions of thriving interacted with segmentation to predict an increment of 3% of the variance ( $\Delta R^2 = .03, p < .05$ , see Table 2.9) in nonwork-to-work affective enrichment. As shown in Table 2.9, the interaction of segmentation with nonwork vitality ( $\beta = -.36, p > .05$ ) was not significant, but the interaction of segmentation with learning was significant ( $\beta = 1.42, p < .01$ ). The interaction effect, presented in Figure 2.4, shows when people experienced high levels of learning in nonwork, nonwork-to-work affective enrichment was stronger for those who engaged in more segmentation of roles compared to low segmenters, contrary to Hypothesis 11b. Moreover, for nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment (see Table 2.10), the combined interactions of segmentation with nonwork learning and with nonwork vitality predicted a 3% increment in the variance ( $\Delta R^2 = .03, p < .05$ ) of nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment. The interaction of nonwork learning and segmentation ( $\beta = 1.29, p < .01$ ) was significant while the interaction of nonwork vitality and segmentation was not ( $\beta = -.71, p > .05$ ; Hypothesis 11c). The interaction of segmentation with nonwork learning, depicted in Figure 2.5, revealed the relationship between nonwork learning and nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment is positive for high segmenters

but non-significant for low segmenters, contrary to Hypothesis 11c. Thus, Hypothesis 11 is not supported. As reported in Table 2.11, the interactions of segmentation with both learning ( $\beta = -.13, p > .05$ ) and vitality ( $\beta = -.61, p > .05$ ) in nonwork roles in predicting nonwork-to-work time-based conflict were also non-significant, failing to support Hypothesis 12.

Next, I analyzed the interaction of cycling with the two dimensions of nonwork thriving (learning and vitality) in predicting each of the three types of nonwork-to-work enrichment (Hypothesis 13). Neither the interaction of nonwork learning and cycling ( $\beta = .13, p > .05$ ) nor that of nonwork vitality and cycling ( $\beta = -.27, p > .05$ ) significantly predicted nonwork-to-work developmental enrichment (Table 2.8, Hypothesis 13a). For nonwork-to-work affective enrichment (Table 2.9, Hypothesis 13b), the interactions of cycling with the dimensions of thriving were also not significant (nonwork learning,  $\beta = .77, p > .05$ ; nonwork vitality,  $\beta = -.62, p > .05$ ). Table 2.10 displays the results for hypothesis 13c. The interactions of cycling with nonwork learning ( $\beta = .82, p > .05$ ) and nonwork vitality ( $\beta = -.60, p > .05$ ) in predicting nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment were again non-significant, failing to support Hypothesis 13. However, although the hypothesized interactions were not significant, cycling was directly and positively related to developmental enrichment ( $\beta = .17, p < .01$ ; see Table 2.8).

Reported in Table 2.11, the interactions of cycling (with nonwork learning,  $\beta = .59, p > .05$ ; with nonwork vitality,  $\beta = -.51, p > .05$ ) did not predict nonwork-to-work time-based conflict; thus, Hypothesis 14 was not supported. Although not hypothesized, both cycling ( $\beta = .22, p < .01$ ) and role congruency ( $\beta = .21, p < .01$ ) were positively related to time-based conflict in the nonwork-to-work direction. This suggests cycling between boundary management styles and role congruence were associated with greater nonwork-to-work time-based conflict.

The last two hypothesized effects of nonwork thriving on nonwork-to-work enrichment concern the moderating effects of role congruency and ease of transition. First, the interaction of nonwork learning and role congruency (Table 2.8,  $\beta = .25$ ,  $p > .05$ ) did not significantly predict nonwork-to-work developmental enrichment, as hypothesized, failing to support Hypothesis 15. However, the combination of each of the two dimensions of thriving interacted with role congruency to explain an additional 3% ( $\Delta R^2 = .03$ ,  $p < .05$ , see Table 2.10) of the variance in nonwork-to-work efficiency. While the interaction of nonwork vitality and role congruence was not significant ( $\beta = -.21$ ,  $p > .05$ ), the interaction of nonwork learning and role congruence was a significant predictor of nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment ( $\beta = 1.29$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Figure 2.6 illustrates the interaction, showing that, under conditions of greater role congruency, nonwork learning is positively related to nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment. For those experiencing lower levels of nonwork learning, role congruency was not associated with nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment. Second, the interaction of nonwork vitality and ease of transition (Table 2.9,  $\beta = .81$ ,  $p > .05$ ) did not significantly predict nonwork-to-work affective enrichment (Hypothesis 16). Therefore, I found no support for Hypothesis 16.

Table 2.12 summarizes the results for each hypothesis.

## **Discussion**

This study proposed, in line with the CDT model and theories of thriving and boundary management, that employees could enact self-regulatory boundary management behaviors in pursuit of their own growth, increasing the likelihood that experiencing learning and vitality in one domain (i.e., work) would lead to gains (i.e., developmental, affective, capital, and efficiency enrichment) in another domain (i.e., home). As posited in the CDT model, I also examined whether thriving in a role could both enhance cross-domain enrichment and place a burden on

time-based resources otherwise available for another domain, resulting in time-based conflict. I found that both work thriving and nonwork thriving are each positively associated with cross-domain enrichment but do *not* relate to cross-domain time-based conflict. This latter finding contradicts the view that positive affect associated with engagement at work may interfere with nonwork (Halebeslen, et al., 2009).

Regarding boundary management styles, contrary to expectations, integrating roles (low segmentation) did not strengthen the work thriving to work-to-nonwork enrichment relationship as expected. However, there was a direct effect such that high segmentation was associated with less work-to-nonwork time-based conflict, but also decreased work-to-nonwork capital enrichment. Keeping in mind that work-to-nonwork time-based conflict occurs when time spent in work prevents an employee from tending to personal matters, practicing high segmentation, for example, by *not* taking calls from children during work hours or using only nonwork hours to schedule personal appointments, may reduce time pressure to attend to work matters during nonwork hours. At the same time, keeping work and nonwork separate (i.e., high segmentation) is associated with reduced capital enrichment, meaning the employee fails to feel successful or a sense of fulfillment in their work role. In this way, at least in the work-to-nonwork direction, low segmentation (integration) seems to be a double-edge sword. It can be associated with increased pressure felt to do work during nonwork hours, but this can also increase positive spillover of capital enrichment from work-to-nonwork. In addition, low segmentation (integration) was a less favorable strategy to foster nonwork-to-work enrichment, as the relationship of nonwork learning with both nonwork-to-work affective and efficiency enrichment was only exhibited among people who engage in high levels of segmentation. This suggests that for employees who feel they are learning in nonwork, high segmentation is associated with a positive mood (affective

enrichment), and increased focus and motivation to not waste time completing work tasks (efficiency enrichment) in their work roles.

Cycling was also directly related to more work-to-nonwork affective and developmental enrichment, but was associated with nonwork-to-work time-based conflict. Cycling also interacted with vitality, but counter to predictions, the positive relationship of vitality with work-to-nonwork capital enrichment was attenuated under higher cycling. These findings coupled with the negative correlation between cycling and segmentation suggest employees may benefit from cycling due to the use of more segmentation. Clearly, further research is needed to help scholars understand the effects of cycling on the work-nonwork interface. For example, a construct related to self-regulation is action regulation, which Hirshchi and colleagues (2019) theorized as an antecedent of work-family balance. Action regulation goes beyond the more mechanistic self-regulation, recognizing that developing, selecting, and revising goals relate to the work-family interface (AR-WF) involves using specific strategies for managing simultaneous goals in the work and nonwork domains (Hirschi, et al., 2021). Exploring how cycling may fit in with AR-WF framework could help researchers design interventions to aid employees in both setting work and nonwork goals, as well use cycling as a self-regulation tool to achieve goals across the work-nonwork interface.

Yet another avenue to further understand boundary management would be to explore how cycling applies to different aspects of work and nonwork domains and those effects on enrichment and conflict outcomes. To be more specific, elements of each domain may include physical space, time-constraints, and expectations associated with the role, to name a few. For example, Capitano and colleagues (2019) outlined five dimensions of boundary permeability including objects, thoughts and discussions. Similarly, border theory (Clark, 2000) also

delineates physical, temporal and psychological borders. Given these various types of boundaries exist, people may differ in the boundary management strategy chosen for each unique boundary type. For example, people may tend to cycle between high and low segmentation behaviors more often when it comes to thoughts, but use high segmentation for managing physical boundaries. Discovering the extent to which people manage different kinds of boundary types with cycling and how that affects outcomes may explain why we did not see more cross-domain enrichment associated with cycling. As the boundary management literature has begun to use finer-grain categorizations of boundary enactment (moving beyond integration and segmentation), the construct of cycling may need further development to consider how switching between integrating and segmenting roles manifests for distinct boundary types. For example, one way researchers have characterized boundary enactment has been within and among tactics such as physical, behavioral, communicative, and temporal (e.g., Kreiner, et al., 2009). Examining how one may also cycle within and among these tactics may be useful. Other depictions of boundary management involve different types of segmenters and integrators (e.g., Choroszewicz & Kay, 2020) and “role collapsing” (Cruz, et al., 2018, p. 193). In a qualitative study of Finnish and French Canadian lawyers, struggling segmenters were identified as those who worked to keep the work-nonwork boundary as impermeable as possible (Choroszewicz & Kay, 2020). Struggling integrators were those in the study who worked to balance competing expectations from work and nonwork in a hybrid approach similar to the description of cycling (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012). Another study describes “role collapsing” as an integration behavior manifested by merging separate roles into the same time and space (Cruz et al., 2018). Investigating the extent to which the cycling construct is similar to these combination enactments of boundary management may boost an understanding of cycling as a combination strategy fostering positive

outcomes. Exploring the temporal properties of cycling would be informative as well. Cycling tends to be described as taking place across longer seasons of work and nonwork (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012; Kossek, 2016) rather than the shorter-term undertones in the measure developed here. Research aimed at discovering how often people cycle and for how long, as well as to what extent these characteristics affect outcomes, would further the literature on boundary management. The preliminary work in this study toward establishing a validated measure for cycling will contribute to the area for future research.

Role congruency did not strengthen the positive relationship between thriving and developmental enrichment as expected. However, there was a significant direct effect of role congruency on both work-to-nonwork and nonwork-to-work developmental enrichment, as well as on work-to-nonwork affective enrichment. This suggests enrichment gains can occur when work and nonwork roles are similar, irrespective of the level of thriving. Yet, under conditions of high nonwork learning, role similarity positively related to nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment. This suggests employers in industries that likely employ roles similar to nonwork roles (i.e., teachers, day care workers) might consider offering family-friendly policies that are developmental opportunities targeting the nonwork role (i.e., parenting classes). Such policies could also benefit the organization by increasing employee work performance. One caveat is that although role congruency is positively related to enrichment gains, it is also associated with increased time-based conflict in both directions.

My results show that ease of transition was negatively related to work-to-nonwork time-based conflict. The items used to measure ease of transition from work reflect flexibility-ability, or the ability to stop work or arrive to work later in order to handle a nonwork responsibility. So, this finding suggests, as we would expect, that the ability to exert these time-based controls on



work in order to tend to nonwork matters is associated with less time-based pressure from the nonwork domain. Unexpectedly, among workers experiencing high vitality, ease of transition from work had little effect on work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment, but for employees experiencing lower work vitality, difficulty transitioning from work had a negative effect on their work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment. These findings suggest organizational policies that help employees restore energy levels (i.e., encouraging stretch breaks) coupled with allowing for some flexibility for employees to handle nonwork tasks when necessary could be beneficial for employees.

### **Limitations and Future Research Directions**

As with all research, study findings need to be interpreted with consideration of the limitations of this research. One limitation is that the sample was less racial diverse than ideal. Although I sought participants across all races to participate in this study, the final sample was predominantly white, which may limit the generalizability of these results. Adding a sample in future research that includes a greater representation of non-white races would strengthen the generalizability. In addition, although data was collected one month apart, it was all gathered from a single source. As such, common method variance may be a concern and causal inferences cannot be made. Future research might include measurements of effects on outcomes past the one-month mark and use alternative sources of data (supervisor or spouse/partner reports).

Another limitation is in the measurement of one of the moderators. The operationalization of the ease of transition measure does not quite match the conceptualization of it. While flexibility-ability is important, items concerning the length and difficulty of commute should be included. Future research focusing on validating a measure of ease of transition might further an understanding of cross-domain thriving and enrichment.

One finding needing clarification is the positive relationship between role congruency and time-based conflict in both directions. Examining the underlying cause of that relationship – perhaps with testing role identity as a moderator – might help explain this finding.

### **Conclusion**

This work has provided a starting point for empirically testing portions of the CDT model, namely, that thriving and enrichment directly relate across work and nonwork domains, and that thriving and time-based conflict do not. Further, we have more information on the effects of boundary management styles, role congruency, and ease of transition between domains on these important outcomes for the work-nonwork interface. Further research can help clarify for whom and when thriving may result in enrichment. My findings on cycling between boundary management styles contribute to research on how self-regulatory behavior may relate to optimal outcomes. That is, for those who switch between boundary management styles, learning the importance of segmenting work and nonwork roles when necessary may be beneficial.

## **Chapter 4: Surviving and Thriving in a Sudden Move to the Borderland: Self-Regulation in Rapid Adjustment to Remote Work during the COVID-19 Pandemic**

Recent stay-at-home orders due to COVID-19 increased full-time remote work in the U.S. from 17% to 44% (Statista, 2021), allowing many workers to work from home for the first time. Remote work, also known as telecommuting or telework, involves employees performing job duties away from the primary workplace using electronic media to interact with coworkers and clients (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Baruch, 2001; Fedlmean & Gainey, 1997; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). During the pandemic, as remote work typically occurred in the employee's home, we also refer to it as work(ing) from home (WFH). Past research found disadvantages to WFH such as decreased feelings of autonomy (Shamir & Salomon, 1985) and increased work-family conflict (Golden, et al., 2006; Shamir & Salomon, 1985), as well as benefits such as increased job satisfaction, lower turnover intent and role stress, and higher supervisor performance ratings (Gajendra & Harrison, 2007). Yet WFH during the pandemic was sudden and involuntary (Luchetti, et al., 2020, Mongey et al., 2020), and thus, may be associated with more negative outcomes, given involuntary telework is related to more strain-based work-family conflict (Lapierre, et al., 2016). Notably, many workers were forced to WFH and homeschool children simultaneously without adequate resources (i.e., computers and physical space in the home; Kniffin et al., 2020). A recent study of WFH during the pandemic found a quiet workspace at home was a top-five predictor of successful adjustment (Shockley, et al., 2020). Given research is beginning to show that many people have adjusted well during the rapid move to WFH during COVID-19 (Shockley, et al, 2020; Vaziri, et al., 2020), the aim of this study was to develop theory about why some employees thrive during rapid adjustment to WFH.

In this qualitative study, we use a positive psychology lens to study employees who WFH

during a pandemic. We aim to answer three questions. First, what, if any, positive outcomes did workers experience while rapidly adjusting to WFH? Second, what actions did remote workers take to successfully navigate combining home and work? Finally, what work-related factors helped or hindered adjustment to WFH and the experience of positive outcomes?

### **Thriving at Work: Vitality and Learning**

An employee who experiences learning and vitality at work is *thriving* (Spreitzer, et al., 2005). The thriving model posits that employees strive for growth and development by engaging in task focus, exploration, and heedful relating, which leads to work resources, enabling thriving (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Thriving relates to better performance and more helping behavior (Frazier & Tupper, 2018), innovation (Wallace et al., 2016) and proactivity (Niesson et al., 2017), suggesting organizations can benefit from developing environments that foster thriving.

Pre-pandemic research found greater thriving under conditions of decision-making discretion, information sharing, minimal incivility, feedback and diversity (Spreitzer et al., 2012). But thriving relies on a store and reproduction of role resources (positive meaning, positive affect, relational and knowledge resources; Spreitzer et al., 2005), which may be quickly depleted during rapid adjustment to WFH. Notably, social isolation, which is associated with poor adjustment to WFH during the pandemic (Shockley et al., 2020) may impair heedful relating and thwart creation of resources which foster thriving. Yet eliminating commutes, dress codes and onsite disruptions may also preserve resources. As such, we sought to explore what factors fostered learning and vitality (thriving) during WFH throughout the pandemic.

### **Method**

Consensual Qualitative Research (CQR) is a qualitative method emphasizing context and researcher consensus (Hill, 2012). Following phenomenological approaches, CQR enables systematic organization of data with defined steps (Masdonati et al., 2017), using a postpositivist tradition to report employee experiences to approximate “true” reality (Ponterotto, 2005). CQR involves iterative discussions among researchers to reduce bias and reach consensus (Spangler et al., 2012). In this study, the second author, an experienced qualitative scholar, trained the first author, and both coded data per CQR-M (CQR-modified) by using inductive logic to assign qualitative data directly into categories (Spangler et al., 2012). The third author served as auditor.

### **Participants and Procedure**

In March 2020, due to COVID-19 lockdown, many US employees began WFH for the first time. We collected data from new WFH employees in June and July of 2020. Participants were 18 or older, worked at least 31 hours a week from home since March, lived with at least one person, and had not, nor had anyone in their household, been diagnosed with COVID-19.

Sample 1 consisted of 103 workers (see Table 3.1) recruited via Prolific ([www.prolific.co](http://www.prolific.co)). Following research on adjusting to new roles (Song et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2011), we collected data 3 (Sample 1) to 4 months (Sample 2) into WFH during the week of June 8, 2020. Per IRB, participants were paid a prorated \$6.50 per hour to answer open-ended survey questions about positive aspects of WFH during COVID-19 (see Appendix A).

Responses to survey questions (Sample 1) guided the interview protocol (Sample 2), per Hennekam et al. (2020). The first author read survey responses, summarized them into categories, and reviewed them with the third author. The second author served as auditor.

Sample 2 consisted of 27 workers (see Table 3.1 and Table 3.2) recruited via Facebook and LinkedIn to take part in semi-structured interviews (see Appendix B for protocol), which

took place from July 13 and July 23, 2020. The first author conducted and recorded interviews via Zoom which were transcribed using NVivo Transcription (QSR International, 2020) and edited for accuracy. Participants received a \$20 Amazon gift card.

### **Data Analysis and Validation Strategies**

CQR-M involves developing “a list of the meaningful and unique topic areas” (Hill, 2012, p. 103), referred to as domains. For each domain two coders identified common themes across cases to create a hierarchy of categories and subcategories using NVivo 12 Pro (QSR International, 2018). Table 3.3 presents the detailed phases of our data analysis process, resulting in a final data structure (see Figure 3.1). Per Spangler et al. (2012), domains, categories, and subcategories were labelled general for 90% or more, typical for 50-89%, variant for 20-49%, and rare for 19% or less. As shown in Table 3.4, trustworthiness of the findings was established in multiple ways, which provides confidence that the final analysis represents the data well.

## **Results**

We found that rapid transition to WFH due to COVID-19 related to (1) work-related development and well-being, (2) boundary management behavior, and (3) work demands in terms of time, distractions, and image management (see Table 3.5 for codebook and quotes). As survey data informed the more detailed interview protocol, and due to space limitations, we focus our results on interviews. Percentages from survey data are available from the first author.

### **Work-Related Development**

All participants reported greater work-related development due to the transition to WFH, including work skills, career plans, work-related feelings, and output.

**Work Skills.** Most (85.2%) reported improved skills during WFH, with 74.1% noting job-specific skills (e.g., presentation skills). For instance, one teacher (P2-2) explains:

It was like a zero to a complete 360 to online and finding those resources that normally I'd pass out as a piece of paper. I had to make it ... user friendly for kids at home... I'm not super technology, but I figured it out.

Further, 37% reported new technological skills, and 18.5% relational skills (e.g., team communication). As stated by P5-2: “maybe late April. We kind of got things ironed out and my team worked really, really well together and so we were all communicating... we had kind of figured out” Finally, 18.5% noted greater employability.

**Career Plans.** Most (77.8%) new remote workers described career planning, including clarifying work values (44%) and thinking about career plans (51.9%). P17-2 explains: “I enjoy working from home. I think any other job I would apply to would be something that I could do from home.” Further, P26-2 shared: “you have more time to think.... it's somewhat volatile right now. So, I have thought about what else could I do with these skills.”

**Feelings towards Work.** Most (66.7%) reported employer appreciation. As P12-2 shared: “I've been actually really impressed from, you know, the leadership on down... The president has stayed ahead of the game ... business wise and even just compassion wise.” Others (25.9%) evoked a new WFH preference.

**Work Output.** Most (59.3%) reported better work performance in terms of higher quality (40.7%) and/or quantity (48.2%). According to P18-2:

My company is like a very relational, very spend time together company. So you're in meetings pretty much around people all day for eight hours. And for me, that's just exhausting. And so I've noticed like I'm way more productive, way more energy, way more efficient. I'm just getting things done.

## **Well-Being**

Participants in both samples uniformly reported better well-being during WFH, including more general wellness, personal development, work-life balance, and energy.

**Wellness.** All participants reported wellness, with 92.6% noting better mental health (i.e., less stress). As stated by P12-2: “It's like I'm taking more notice of my own mental health. And with that just kind of gaining back that power of saying no.” Further, 77.8% reported exercising more and/or better physical health, such as P18-2: “I've been able to have time to work out because I'm not exhausted by the end of the day.” Greater participation in leisure (66.7%) and improved diet and nutrition (48.2%) were also cited, such as P11-2: “I think my family's all eating healthy since everyone is cooking now. They are cutting back on junk food.” Finally, 25.9% noted better sleep, such as P16-2: “Before the pandemic, I was honestly not getting eight hours of sleep every night. Because I was trying to balance my work life.”

**Personal Development.** Personal development was identified by 88.9%, including new nonwork skills (74.1%; e.g., P19-2: “It's been a positive to look at my health choices...So I've increased the amount of research I've done into what's good for me”); being more mindful or grateful (55.6%; e.g., P18-2: “Positivity is not something I would list on my normal self-list and strengths. But I think during this time, like I really have noticed, have been a lot more grateful and positive”); clarifying priorities (40.7% ; e.g., P4-2: “I think before, there's still a little bit of ambiguity in terms of priorities and that sort of thing. And COVID's come and kind of shifted priorities completely”); greater self-awareness (40.7%; e.g., P38-2: “I've surprised myself with my resiliency. This time has been hard, but I've been digging deep.”) and more social awareness (22.2%). As P27-2 explains:

This situation has helped me be more socially aware, I believe, because before COVID I was so busy. Kind of in my own bubble... so post COVID now I'm more in touch with



what's going on in politics...with Black Lives Matter and in different struggles of people of color in the country.

**Work-Life Balance.** Most (77.8%) people reported better work-life balance during WFH, such as being more effective balancing work and nonwork (48.2%; e.g., P130: “I have also been able to get more household things done WHILE working, like doing laundry and cooking. I don't have to come home after work all day and get those things done, which is nice.”); and greater satisfaction with their balance (48.2%; e.g., P16-2: “I will literally just focus on my like, work stuff and then whenever I'm done with it, I focus on my life. So that's been a big, like positive thing for me. Like, I've been really happy that I have the ability to manage my time like that”).

**Energy.** Most (81.5%) people reported more energy during WFH, either cognitively (51.9%; e.g., P20-2: “Sometimes I do feel energy in a sense that like, I know I have these goals I want to meet”); physically (25.9%; e.g., P18-2: “Pre-pandemic working out was definitely like an energy drain for me. I'm like, oh my God, I have to do this. I don't want to do it. And now it's like, oh, that makes me feel so much better”), and socially (18.5%; e.g., P123-1: “having this much alone time feels really good, and overall has made me feel like I'm recharging my social batteries”).

### **Boundary Management Behaviors**

Our second research question examined personal actions during WFH. Almost all (92.6%) participants reported either creating (segmenting) or eliminating (integrating) work-home boundaries in four distinct ways: physical, temporal, communicative and/or behavioral (Kreiner et al., 2009).

**Physical.** Most (77.8%) noted managing physical boundaries, including using tangible boundaries (74.17%; e.g., closing a home-office door), space (22.2%; e.g., changing distance

between work and home spaces such as P16-2: “My partner also he's going to have his own office and then I'm gonna have like the whole living room area to work in”), and artifacts (14.8%; e.g., sign on door for segmentation, shared work-home smartphone for integration).

**Temporal.** Most (63%) used temporal boundaries to facilitate WFH, including controlling work time (63%; e.g., designating “work hours” and “home hours” or engaging in both work and home duties during the day). P41-1 valued the temporal integration of work and home:

My work hours have been much more flexible. If I need time to rest, or to take my son somewhere, I'm able to do that and get my work done later in the day. I'm also much more effective when I am working because since I don't have to start and end work at a certain time, I can do my job whenever I have the highest amount of energy.

Despite the value of temporal integration for many participants some, like P11-2, found this taxing: “People are texting all hours of the night. A lot of the parents I deal with, they don't have a 9 to 5 job. And so, having to be available, I've had parent meetings at 11:00 at night.”

**Behavioral.** Many (37.4%) used behavioral boundary tactics such as prioritizing when to allow interrupted boundaries (22.2%). As explained by P2-2: “We had to set office hours...But I was answering, because I'd check my phone. I'd try not to answer after 10 o'clock, because I kind of felt like that was inappropriate to be answering kids on Google Classroom.” A few reported differential permeability (3.7%), suggesting cycling behavior in which integration and segmentation are used at different times. In comparing before and after WFH, P18-2 explained:

The aggregate number of hours I work has probably increased because if somebody pings me at six thirty like I'm on my couch, I don't mind responding... If someone were to say like at 3:58 when I leave at 4, like we're having a meeting, that would bother me.

Using technology also aids in meeting responsibilities across domains (7.4%; e.g., email or voice mail); as did support from other people (11.1%; e.g., P7-2: “My husband has been good about, I guess just making sure the space stays quiet. Like when I'm doing counselling work in here to not make a whole lot of noise and to wear headphones”).

***Communicative.*** Some (29.6%) used communicative boundary behaviors, including setting expectations (25.9%; i.e., telling others outside the domain when and where it is appropriate to interrupt). For instance, P121-1:

This was difficult at first. My partner and I, because we both work at home, have had to set boundaries with each other, and to carve out space for ourselves. We really had to talk candidly about what we need and how to divide tasks.

### ***Boundary Management***

In line with boundary management theory (Ashforth et al., 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996) and with recent suggestions that some people use both integration and segmentation boundary management strategies at different times (Kossek, 2016), we explored the use of segmenting, integrating, and cycling strategies (i.e., using both segmenting and integrating) in Sample 2 (See Table 3.6 for illustrative quotes). All but 3 people (11.1%) reported boundary management behavior - 7.4% used segmentation exclusively, 25.9% used integration exclusively, and 55.6% were cyclers, sharing examples of both integration and segmentation. Further, of the 8 well-being and work-related development outcomes, cyclers benefitted from 6-8 positive outcomes, while segmenters had a range from 4-7, and integrators from 3-8. As cyclers more consistently had a broad range of positive outcomes, this may be a particularly beneficial strategy.

### **Work Demands**

Our third research question examined work context. Most participants (92.6%) indicated

that transiting to WFH affected physical and psychological work environments, including changes in temporal characteristics, image management demands, and distractions.

**Temporal Characteristics.** For 77.8% there were temporal changes, including more availability of time (63%; e.g., P12-2: “I'm getting to spend more time with my daughter. It helps because driving to my place of employment took over an hour every day”); and/or flexibility (59.2% i.e., control over when work or home tasks can be done, such as P10-2: “I can work later and work longer... I'm not concerned about it because I'm home and I can on my break time instead of taking lunch I can kind of prepare dinner”).

**Image Management.** For 59.3%, a change in image management demands were noted, including those related to appearance (29.6% i.e., looking a particular way for work), as put by P1-2: “I think everybody's enjoyed not having to get up and get dressed and put nice clothes on. There's a comfort level of being in your home and not having to do that. That's less stressful for me.” Others reported in-person performance expectations (48.2%; i.e., to show productivity, activities are driven by others). For example, P17-2 noted:

I think there's more of a performance to being in the office. There's these things you'd have to perform when you're face to face with people...I always felt like there always just more of an act to be in an office versus being at home and kind of being more of yourself.

**Distractions.** Further, 40.7% noted reduced distractions during WFH, including enhanced productivity from reduced interactions with people at work (40.7%). For example, P23-2 states:

It's actually nice not having to go in for a meeting. We do a lot of meetings, online now and you don't get a lot of the drama. You just get the information which I prefer... either in an email or in a zoom meeting. And then you don't have to be sitting half a day.

Finally, some participants (18.5%) noted fewer distractions in their WFH physical environment (i.e., noise).

## **Discussion**

New remote workers during COVID-19 reported many positive experiences, including work-related development and well-being, despite the sudden blurring of work-home boundaries. Benefits of WFH included better work output, career development, positive feelings about work, and improved work-life balance. Reporting increased levels of both learning and energy, many employees indeed were thriving during new WFH conditions, while merging home and work.

We contribute theoretically to both the thriving and boundary management literatures. We find both elements of thriving – development and vitality – are common during rapid adjustment to WFH, despite transitioning to the borderland, where the work/home boundary is eliminated (Clark, 2000). The loss of physical work-home boundary during WFH introduces contextual elements not previously theorized to relate to thriving at work. As employees rapidly adjust to WFH, merging of work and home, a “climate of trust and respect” may foster thriving (p. 540, Spreitzer, et al., 2005) due to reduced expectations for image management, fewer distractions, and more temporal resources. The thriving model theorizes that employee motivation is due to approach needs aimed at positive states; however, new remote workers were also motivated by needs to avoid negative states (Carver, 2006), suggesting avoidance need satisfaction may also be linked to increased energy and development.

## **Image Management**

Employees expend energy enacting a persona, or *professional image*, to display desirable qualities, gain approval from constituents (i.e., clients, supervisors, subordinates, colleagues) and manage others’ perceptions of their competence and character (Roberts, 2005). As work attire

can affect perceptions of competence and organization fit (Rafaeli, et al., 1997; Rafaeli & Pratt, 1993), this is one avenue by which people shape others' image of them. This is achieved by self-regulation including of both approach- and avoidance-based actions (Carver & Scheier, 1998). Image management strategies involve both approach (*image maintenance*) and avoidance (*deategorization*) strategies (Little, et al., 2015; Roberts, 2005). Decategorization strategies are enacted to avoid projecting a negative image which leads to categorization in a harmful way (i.e., unfit due to chosen attire). Notably, prior to WFH, our participants engaged in decategorization in two ways. First, when working onsite, they followed social norms for work attire to manage appearance but wore more comfortable clothes during WFH. Second, some reported reduced decategorization while WFH since they no longer felt a need to enact their work persona for the entire workday (performance-related image management). As such, energy invested in a work persona during face-to-face work was conserved during WFH, providing resources to expend elsewhere. Remote workers also observed coworker image maintenance by making their presence known electronically and offering help more than usual. While prior research found professional isolation increases as face-to-face interactions decrease (Golden et al., 2008), newer WFH contexts use richer communication tools which may affect prosocial behavior (Kniffin et al., 2020). Also, during COVID-19 employees all share the adverse experience of the pandemic and sudden WFH, which may foster helping, as altruism can be born of suffering (Volhardt, 2009). Drawing on social categorization theory (Turner, 1987), heightened altruism during shared suffering highlights the power of group membership – identification with others new to WFH during a pandemic - to foster prosocial actions toward in-group members. The behavior may also be explained by the reciprocity norm (Blau, 1964), suggesting when ingroup member receives help, they feel an obligation to help others, creating a store of relational resources.

## **Distractions and Temporal Resources**

Participants noted that fewer demands for small talk enhanced work output, and fewer interruptions increased productivity. Yet pre-pandemic telework research found asynchronous coworker communication (Crampton, 2002) and lack of casual interactions reduced sharing of work-related information and fostered isolation during WFH (Allen & Renn, 2003), contributing to turnover intentions (Golden et al., 2008). The pandemic WFH context differs in that (1) technology for synchronous communication may be used more often; and (2) most or all coworkers telework (i.e., part of the ingroup). Such changes likely aid information sharing, since all employees are adjusting to WFH simultaneously. WFH during COVID-19 is unlikely to lead to felt exclusion from coworkers when all WFH simultaneously. Thus, they can focus on and appreciate time gained from reduced face-to-face interactions.

Our participants attributed many positive outcomes to temporal resources. The work-home resources model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) proposes personal resources (energy and time) link work and home (Hobfoll, 1989). With fewer demands on time and more flexibility in when to work, more time became available for home. Similarly, more energy was conserved in resources normally spent commuting. As a scarcity perspective suggests limits to time and energy (Goode, 1974), resources conserved during WFH were now available to be expended in the home domain. For pandemic WFH workers, this translated into well-being outcomes.

## **Self-Management Behaviors**

Our study also contributes to what we know about boundary management. First, we identify common tactics associated with positive outcomes during sudden, involuntary, collapse of work-home boundaries. New teleworkers primarily used physical and temporal tactics (Kreiner et al., 2009) during the sudden elimination of the physical boundary between work and home, and the concurrent changes to temporal demands and resources. For example, WFH

workers used segmentation to create physical workspaces at home and demarcated work and home hours to prevent a 24/7 integration (a temporal tactic of controlling work time). Yet they also integrated by using the extended time in one location to behaviorally manage boundaries by simultaneously performing work and home duties.

A second contribution to boundary theory emerged from closer examination of reported segmentation, integration, and cycling behaviors to explore how boundary management relates to outcomes. Integration relates to both positive and negative spillover from work to family (Ilies, et al., 2009), and different types of integration have been linked to varying degrees of work-family conflict. For example, bringing work home causes more work-family conflict than working regularly from home (Voydanoff, 2005). Kreiner (2006) suggested neither boundary management style is better, but that the match between individual preference and the boundary management style the workplace allowed was critical. The cross-domain thriving model (CDT) proposes boundary management as a tool that can foster work-to-nonwork enrichment (and vice-versa), enabling thriving in both work and home roles (Hyde et al., 2020). It proposes that cyclers, who engage in self-regulation by using both segmentation and integration iteratively, are most likely to reap enrichment gains across domains. While more precise theory-testing is needed, our findings suggest that employees with the freedom to self-regulate by using both integration and segmentation iteratively may experience more positive outcomes during WFH. This is important, given the tendency to assess boundary management by measuring the degree to which employees prefer either integration or segmentation along a continuum (Kreiner, 2006). Instead, participants with the most thriving described using both integration and segmentation, referred to as cycling (Kossek, 2016). When boundary management is measured on a continuum from integration to segmentation (Kreiner, 2006), people who exhibit equal amounts of



integration and segmentation cannot be differentiated from those who engage in no boundary management. As such, future research should develop scales to assess integration and segmentation separately rather than on a continuum. This would enable scholars to identify and study cyclers and test our theorizing that cycling is associated with positive outcomes.

Future studies should also move beyond integration and segmentation to measure not only degree of boundary permeability, but also types of work and home permeations. For example, five forms of boundary permeations have been identified: objects, people, tasks, role-referencing, and psychological (Capitano, et al., 2019). Object and people permeability describe entry of objects and people from one domain into another. Task permeability refers to engaging in tasks related to one role while physically present in another. Role-referencing permeability involves discussing one role while engaged in another. Finally, psychological permeability refers to thinking about one role while engaged in another. Understanding which types of permeability are associated with what specific outcomes may shed light on how people might use boundary management to foster role performance and work-life balance.

### **Practical Implications**

Our study calls attention to the fact that some employees have had greater productivity and well-being during COVID-19 lockdown, in stark contrast headlines like “The stress of working from home is getting to most Americans” (New York Post, 2020). Our study also provides insight into how organizations might facilitate such positive outcomes for their WFH employees. We suggest several actions organizations can take to foster a win-win relationship with their WFH employees both during and following the COVID-19 pandemic (see Table 3.7). Our findings suggest three main types of actions. First, organizations should communicate explicitly about reduced professional image management expectations related to appearance,

foster reduced distractions by limiting the duration and number of meetings, and explicitly promote time flexibility, by suggesting, whenever possible, that employees work at times when they are most productive.

Further, it appears that time saved during the pandemic from commuting and less productive exchanges at work may enable employees to devote time and energy to training and career and personal development. In terms of training, organizations could train their employees on communicative and behavioral boundary management tactics—in addition to physical and temporal tactics, that many employees already used intuitively. Such training might emphasize gains that can result from both integration and segmentation (i.e., cycling) of physical, temporal, communicative and behavioral boundaries. Further, employees noted their interest in learning new technological and other professional skills, and in greater attention to their mental health, exercise routine, diet/nutrition, and sleep. Accordingly, organizational training opportunities on such topics may be especially welcome.

Finally, many remote workers during the pandemic were drawn to work-related development opportunities and thinking about career plans. As such, organizations could offer career development opportunities such as coaching, work priorities reflection, retirement planning classes, and self-assessments. Many remote workers also referenced personal development. As such, mindfulness training may be well-received. Finally, some workers became more community-focused, suggesting they'd appreciate employers' efforts to help vulnerable members of the community. For instance, organizations could allow employees to volunteer for non-profits during work hours.

## **Limitations and Future Directions**

As with all research, results must be interpreted in light of limitations. First, participants from Sample 1 were recruited from an online platform (Prolific), and such platforms have been critiqued for their vulnerability to bots completing survey. However, such vulnerabilities apply to quantitative survey primarily, whereas our survey involved open-ended questions. Though we sought a sample to reflect the US population in Sample 2, females (70.4%) and Blacks (25.9%) were overrepresented, which may raise concerns about generalizability to males and Hispanics. Second, all research team members transitioned to working exclusively from home for the first time due to COVID-19, which may have created additional biases. Yet recent voices have argued in favor of “self-relevant research” due to the potential for personal insight to enhance research richness and validity (Amabile & Hall, 2019). Finally, we focused on the context of COVID-19, which represents an extreme case of rapid transition to remote work. However, our findings will likely translate to situations with common characteristics, such as when an employer’s whole workforce works from home.

## **Conclusion**

In the midst of adjusting to sudden WFH practices during COVID-19, many employees are thriving. In planning best practices for WFH to foster such thriving, organizations should take measures to protect employee temporal and energy resources. Further examination of self-regulation behaviors such as boundary management will further assist scholars in identifying key elements for skill-development interventions to help people effectively manage and reap positive benefits from working at home.

## References

- Aiken, L. S., West, S. G., & Reno, R. R. (1991). *Multiple regression : testing and interpreting interactions*. Sage Publications.
- Allen, T. D., French, K. A., Braun, M. T., & Fletcher, K. (2018). The passage of time in work-family research: Toward a more dynamic perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 110*, 245-257. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.11.013>
- Allen, D. G., Renn, R. W., & Griffeth, R. G. (2003). The impact of telecommuting design on social systems, self-regulation, and role boundaries. *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management, 22*, 125–163. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-7301\(03\)22003-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-7301(03)22003-X)
- Ashforth, B. E., Kreiner, G. E., & Fugate, M. (2000). All in a day's work: Boundaries and micro role transitions. *Academy of Management Review, 25*, 472-491. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2000.3363315>
- Bailey, D. E., & Kurland, N. B. (2002). A review of telework research: Findings, new directions and lessons for the study of modern work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*, 383–400. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.144>
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22*, 309-328. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710733115>
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*, 1-26. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.1>
- Baruch, Y. (2001). The status of research on teleworking and an agenda for future research. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 3*(2), 113–129. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2370.00058>

- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: John Wiley.
- Bluhm, D. J., Harman, W., Lee, T. W., & Mitchell, T. R. (2011). Qualitative research in management: A decade of progress. *Journal of Management Studies*, 48(8), 1866-1891.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2010.00972.x>
- Brown, K. W., & Ryan, R. M. (2003). The benefits of being present: Mindfulness and its role in psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84(4), 822-848.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.84.4.822>
- Brown, S. L., Nesse, R. M., Vinokur, A. D., & Smith, D. M. (2003). Providing social support may be more beneficial than receiving it: Results from a prospective study of mortality. *Psychological Science*, 14(4), 320-327. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9280.14461>
- Bulger, C., Matthews, R. & Hoffman, M. E. (2007). Work and personal life boundary management: Boundary strength, work/personal life balance, and the segmentation-integration continuum. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12, 365-375. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.12.4.365>
- Bunderson, J. S., & Thompson, J. A. (2009). The call of the wild: Zookeepers, callings, and the double-edged sword of deeply meaningful work. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 54, 32–57.  
<https://doi.org/10.2189/asqu.2009.54.1.32>
- Button, S. B., Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1996). Goal orientation in organizational research: A conceptual and empirical foundation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 67, 26-48. <https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1996.0063>
- Capitano, J., McAlpine, K. L., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2019). Organizational Influences on Work–Home Boundary Permeability: A Multidimensional Perspective. In M. R. Buckley, A. R. Wheeler, J. E. Baur, & J. R. B. Halbesleben (Eds.) *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*,

Vol. 37 (pp. 133-172). Emerald Publishing Limited, Bingley. <https://doi.org/10.1108/S0742-730120190000037005>

Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., Wayne, J. H., & Grzywacz, J. G. (2006). Measuring the positive side of the work-family interface: Development and validation of a work-family enrichment scale.

*Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68, 131-164. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2005.02.002>

Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., & Williams, L. J. (2000). Construction and initial validation of a multidimensional measure of work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56(2), 249-276. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1999.1713>

Carlson, M., Ventura, C., & Miller, N. (1988). Positive mood and helping behavior: A test of six hypotheses. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 55, 211-229.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.55.2.211>

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1998). *On the self-regulation of behavior*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Carver, C. S. (2006). Approach, avoidance, and the self-regulation of affect and action. *Motivation and Emotion*, 30(2), 105-110. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11031-006-9044-7>

Casper, W. J., Weltman, D. & Kwesiga, E. (2007). Beyond family-friendly: The construct and measurement of singles-friendly work culture. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 70(3), 478-501.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2007.01.001>

Choroszewicz, M., & Kay, F. (2020). The use of mobile technologies for work-family boundary permeability: The case of Finnish and Canadian male lawyers. *Human Relations* 73(10), 1388-

1414. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0018726719865762>

Clark, S. C. (2000). Work-family border theory. *Human Relations*, 53(6), 747-770.

<https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0018726700536001>

- Crampton, C. D. (2002). Finding common ground in dispersed collaboration. *Organizational Dynamics*, 30, 356–367. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0090-2616\(02\)00063-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0090-2616(02)00063-3)
- Cruz, D. & Meisenbach, R. (2018). Expanding role boundary management theory: How volunteering highlights contextually shifting strategies and collapsing work-life boundaries. *Human Relations* 71(2): 182-205. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0018726717718917>
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4): 227-268.  
[https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1104\\_01](https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01)
- Dumas, T. L. & Perry-Smith, J. E. (2018). The paradox of family structure and plans after work: Why single childless employees may be the least absorbed at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 61(4), 1231-1252. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2016.0086>
- Dutton, J. E. (2003). *Energize your workplace: How to create and sustain high quality connections at work*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.
- Dweck, C. S. (1986). Motivational processes affecting learning. *American Psychologist*, 41, 1040-1048.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.41.10.1040>
- Eby, L. T., Mitchell, M., & Zimmerman, L. (2016). Work and family in times of crisis. In T. D. Allen & L. T. Eby (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Work and Family*. Oxford University Press.  
<https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199337538.013.32>
- Feldman, D. C., & Gainey, T. W. (1997). Patterns of telecommuting and their consequences: Framing the research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 7, 369–388.  
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822\(97\)90025-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(97)90025-5)

- Fisher, S. L., & Ford, J. K. (2006). Differential effects of learner effort and goal orientation on two learning outcomes. *Personnel Psychology*, *51*, 397-420. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1998.tb00731.x>
- Fleiss, J. L., & Cohen, J. (1973). The equivalence of weighted kappa and the intraclass correlation coefficient as measures of reliability. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *33*(3), 613-619. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001316447303300309>
- Frazier, M. L., & Tupper, C. (2018). Supervisor prosocial motivation, employee thriving, and helping behavior: A trickle-down model of psychological safety. *Group & Organization Management*, *43*, 561-593. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601116653911>
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist*, *56*, 218-226. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0003-066x.56.3.218>
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2003). The value of positive emotions. *American Scientist*, *91*, 330-335. <https://doi.org/10.1511/2003.4.330>
- Fredrickson, B. L., Cohn, M. A., Coffey, K. A., Pek, J., & Finkel, S. M. (2008). Open hearts build lives: Positive emotions, induced through loving-kindness meditation, build consequential personal resources. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *95*, 1045–1062. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013262>
- Fredrickson B.L., & Joiner T. (2002) Positive emotions trigger upward spirals toward emotional well-being. *Psychological Science*, *13*,172–175. <https://doi.org/10.1111%2F1467-9280.00431>
- Frone, M. R. (2003). Work-family balance. In J Quick & L Tetrick (Eds.), *Handbook of occupational health psychology* (pp. 143–162). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.



- Gajendran, R. S., & Harrison, D. A. (2007). The good, the bad, and the unknown about telecommuting: Meta-analysis of psychological mediators and individual consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92* (6), 1524-1541. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.6.1524>
- Gerbasi, A., Porath, C. L., Parker, A., Spreitzer, G., & Cross, R. (2015). Destructive de-energizing relationships: How thriving buffers their effect on performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*, 1423-1433. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000015>
- Goh, Z., Ilies, R., Wilson, K. S. (2015). Supportive supervisors improve employees' daily lives: The role supervisors play in the impact of daily workload on life satisfaction via work–family conflict, *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 89*, 65-73. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2015.04.009>
- Golden, T. D., Veiga, J. F., & Simsek, Z. (2006). Telecommuting's differential impact on work–family conflict: Is there no place like home? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 1340–1350. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.6.1340>
- Golden, T. D., Veiga, J. F., & Dino, R. N. (2008). The impact of professional isolation on teleworker job performance and turnover intentions: Does time spent teleworking, interacting face-to-face, or having access to communication-enhancing technology matter? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(6), 1412-1421. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012722>
- Goode, W. J. (1974). A theory of strain. *American Sociological Review, 25*, 483-496. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2092933>
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review, 10*, 76-88. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1985.4277352>
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2006). When work and family are allies: A theory of work-family enrichment. *Academy of Management Review, 31*, 72-92. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2006.19379625>

- Gruman, J. A., Lumley, M. N., & González-Morales, M. G. (2018). Incorporating balance: Challenges and opportunities for positive psychology. *Canadian Psychology, 59*, 54-64.  
<https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/cap0000109>
- Halbesleben, J. R. B., Harvey, J., & Bolino, M. C. (2009). Too engaged? A conservation of resources view of the relationship between work engagement and work interference with family. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*, 1452–1465. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017595>
- Hall, D. T., & Richter, J. (1988). Balancing work life and home life: What can organizations do to help? *Academy of Management Executive, 3*, 213-223. <https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.1988.4277258>
- Heaphy, E. D., & Dutton, J. E. (2008). Positive social interactions and the human body at work: Linking organizations and physiology. *Academy of Management Review, 33*, 137-162.  
<https://doi.org/10.2307/20159380>
- Hennekam, S., Ladge, J., & Shymko, Y. (2020). From zero to hero: An exploratory study examining sudden hero status among nonphysician health care workers during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 105*(10), 1088–1100. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000832>
- Hildenbrand, K., Sacramento, C. A., & Binnewies, C. (2018). Transformational leadership and burnout: The role of thriving and followers' openness to experience. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 23*, 31-43. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/ocp0000051>
- Hill, C. E. (Ed.) (2012). *Consensual qualitative research: A practical resource for investigating social science phenomena*. American Psychological Association.
- Hirschi, A., Shockley, K. M., Zacher, H. (2019). Achieving work-family balance: An action regulation model. *Academy of Management Review, 44*(1), 150–71. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2016.0409>

- Hirschi, A., von Allmen, N., Burmeister, A., Zacher, H. (2021). Action regulation at the work-family interface: Nomological network and work-family consequences. *Journal of Business and Psychology*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-021-09751-6>
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44, 513–524. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.3.513>
- House, J. S. (1981). *Work stress and social support*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Hyde, S. A., Casper, W. J., & Wayne, J. H. (2020). Putting role resources to work: The cross-domain thriving model. *Human Resource Management Review*, Advance Online Publication. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2020.100819>
- Ilies, R., Wilson, K. S., & Wagner, D. T. (2009). The spillover of daily job satisfaction onto employees' family lives: The facilitating role of work-family integration. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(1), 87-102. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2009.36461938>
- Jiang, Z. (2017). Proactive personality and career adaptability: The role of thriving at work. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 98, 85-97. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2016.10.003>
- Kacmar, K. M., Crawford, W. S., Carlson, D. S., Ferguson, M., & Whitten, D. (2014). A short and valid measure of work-family enrichment. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 19(1), 32–45. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035123>
- Kanter, R. M. (1977). *Work and family in the United States: A critical review and agenda for research and policy*. New York: Russel Sage Foundation
- Kaplan, R., & Kaplan, S. (1989). *The experience of nature: A psychological perspective*. Cambridge; New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Kelly, C. M., Strauss, K., Arnold, J. & Stride, C. (2020). The relationship between leisure activities and psychological resources that support a sustainable career: The role of leisure seriousness and

work-leisure similarity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 117.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2019.103340>

Kim, Y., & Ployhart, R. E. (2014). The effects of staffing and training on firm productivity and profit growth before, during, and after the great recession. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99, 361–389. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035408>

Kirchmeyer, C. (1992). Nonwork participation and work attitudes: A test of scarcity vs. expansion models of personal resources. *Human Relations*, 45(8), 775–795.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679204500802>

Klein, A., Rudolph, C. W., & Zacher, H. (2019). Thriving at work: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 40, 973-999. <https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/k5xhg>

Kniffin, K. M., Narayanan, J., Anseel, F., Antonakis, J., Ashford, S. J., et al. (2020). COVID-19 and the workplace: Implications, issues, and insights for future research and action. *American Psychologist*. Advance Online Publication. <https://doi.org/10.1037/amp0000716>

Kossek, E. E. (2016). Managing work-life boundaries in the digital age. *Organizational Dynamics*, 45, 258-270. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2016.07.010>

Kossek, E. & Lautsch, B. (2008). *CEO of me: Creating a life that works in the flexible job age*. Philadelphia: Wharton School Publishing,

Kossek, E. E., & Lautsch, B. A. (2012). Work-family boundary management styles in organizations: A cross-level model. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 2, 152-171.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/2041386611436264>

Kossek, E. E., & Ozeki, C. (1998). Work-family conflict, policies, and the job-life satisfaction relationship: A review and directions for organizational behavior-human resources research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 139-149. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.2.139>

- Kreiner G. (2006). Consequences of work-home segmentation or integration: A person-environment fit perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27, 485-507. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.386>
- Kreiner, G. E., Hollensbe, E. C., & Sheep, M. L. (2009). Balancing borders and bridges: Negotiating the work-home interface via boundary work tactics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(4), 704-730. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2009.43669916>
- Kreiner, G., & Joshi, A. (2019). The liminal researcher: Being not quite the center of attention. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, Advance Online Publication. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2018.0086>
- Lapierre, L. M., Li, Y., Kwan, H. K., Greenhaus, J. H., DiRenzo, M. S., Shao, P. (2018). A meta-analysis of the antecedents of work–family enrichment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 39, 385– 401. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2234>
- Lapierre, L. M., Van Steenbergen, E. F., Peeters, M. C., & Kluwer, E. S. (2016). Juggling work and family responsibilities when involuntarily working more from home: A multiwave study of financial sales professionals. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37, 804-822. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2075>
- Lazarus, R. S. (1999). *Stress and emotion: A new synthesis*. New York: Springer Pub. Co.
- Little, L. M., Major, V. S., Hinojosa, A. S., & Nelson, D. L. (2015). Professional image maintenance: How women navigate pregnancy in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, 58(1), 8-37. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amj.2013.0599>
- Luchetti, M., Lee, J. H., Aschwanden, D., Sesker, A., Strickhouser, J. E., Terracciano, A., & Sutin, A. R. (2020). The trajectory of loneliness in response to COVID-19. *American Psychologist*, 75(7), 897-908. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/amp0000690>

- Luthans, F. (2002a). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23, 695-706. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.165>
- Luthans, F. (2002b). Positive organizational behavior: Developing and managing psychological strengths. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 16, 57-72.  
<https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.2002.6640181>
- Marks, S. R. (1977). Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time and commitment. *American Sociological Review*, 42, 921-936. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2094577>
- Masdonati, J., Froidevaux, A., & Rossier, J. (2017). La recherche qualitative consensuelle en psychologie du conseil et de l'orientation [Consensual qualitative research in career counseling and vocational psychology]. In M. Santiago-Delefosse & M. Del Rio Carral (Eds.), *Les Méthodes Qualitatives en Psychologie et Sciences Humaines de la Santé* (pp. 152-175). Dunod.
- Matthews, R. A., Barnes-Farrell, J. L., & Bulger, C. A. (2010). Advancing measurement of work and family domain boundary characteristics. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 77(3), 447-460.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.05.008>
- Matthews, R.A., Swody, C.A. & Barnes-Farrell, J.L. (2012). Work hours and work–family conflict: The double-edged sword of involvement in work and family. *Stress and Health*, 28, 234-247.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.1431>
- Matthews, R. A., Wayne, J. H., & McKersie, S. J. (2016). Theoretical approaches to the study of work and family: Avoiding stagnation via effective theory borrowing. In T. D. Allen & L. T. Eby (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Work and Family* (p. 23-35). New York: Oxford University Press.  
<https://www.oxfordhandbooks.com/view/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199337538.001.0001/oxfordhb-9780199337538-e-3>

- McNall, L. A., Nicklin, J. M., & Masuda, A. D. (2010). A meta-analytic review of the consequences associated with work-family enrichment. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 25, 381-396.  
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-009-9141-1>
- Michel, J. S., & Hargis, M. B. (2008). Linking mechanisms of work-family conflict and segmentation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73(3), 509–22. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2008.09.005>
- Mongey, S., Pilossoph, L., & Weinberg, A. (2020). Which workers bear the burden of social distancing policies? National Bureau of Economic Research. Article 27085. <https://doi.org/10.3386/w27085>
- Moreland, R. L., & L. Argote. (2003). Transactive memory in dynamic organizations. In R. S. Peterson & E. A. Mannix, (Eds.), *LEA's organization and management series. Leading and Managing People in the Dynamic Organization* (p. 135-162). Erlbaum, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Morgeson, F. P., Mitchell, T., & Liu, D. (2015). Event system theory: An event-oriented approach to the organizational sciences. *Academy of Management Review*, 40, 515–537.  
<https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2012.0099>
- New York Post (2020, September 3). The stress of working from home is getting to most Americans.  
<https://nypost.com/2020/09/03/the-stress-of-working-from-home-is-getting-to-most-americans/>
- New York Times. (2020). Coronavirus Map and Case Count: USA.  
<https://www.nytimes.com/interactive/2020/us/texas-coronavirus-cases.html>
- Niessen, C., Mäder, I., Stride, C., & Jimmieson, N. L. (2017). Thriving when exhausted: The role of perceived transformational leadership. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 103, 41-51.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2017.07.012>
- Niessen, C., Sonnentag, S., & Sach, F. (2012). Thriving at work—A diary study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33, 468-487. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.763>

- Nippert-Eng, C. (1996). *Home and work: Negotiating boundaries through everyday life*. University of Chicago Press.
- Nix, G. A., Ryan, R. M., Manly, J. B., & Deci, E. L. (1999). Revitalization through self-regulation: The effects of autonomous and controlled motivation on happiness and vitality. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 35, 266-284. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jesp.1999.1382>
- Orlikowski, W. (2002.) Knowing in practice: Enacting a collective capability in distributed organizing. *Organization Science*, 13, 249-273. <https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.13.3.249.2776>
- Oswick, C., Fleming, P., & Hanlon, G. (2011). From borrowing to blending: Rethinking the processes of organizational theory building. *Academy of Management Review*, 36, 318-337. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2009.0155>
- Parker, S. K., & Sprigg, C. A. (1999). Minimizing strain and maximizing learning: The role of job demands, job control, and proactive personality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84, 925-939. <https://doi/10.1037/0021-9010.84.6.925>
- Parker, S. K., Wall, T. D., & Jackson, P. R. (1997). “That's not my job”: Developing flexible employee work orientations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40, 899-929. <https://doi.org/10.5465/256952>
- Paterson, T. A., Luthans, F., & Jeung, W. (2014). Thriving at work: Impact of psychological capital and supervisor support. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35, 434-446. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1907>
- Ployhart, R. E., & Vandenberg, R. J. (2010). Longitudinal research: The theory, design, and analysis of change. *Journal of Management*, 36, 94–120. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0149206309352110>



- Ponterotto, J. G. (2005). Qualitative research in counseling psychology: A primer on research paradigms and philosophy of science. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52*(2), 126-136.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.52.2.126>
- Porath, C., Spreitzer, G., Gibson, C., & Garnett, F. G. 2012. Thriving at work: Toward its measurement construct validation, and theoretical refinement. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 33*, 250-275. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.756>
- Pratt, M. G., & Ashforth, B. E. (2003). Fostering meaningfulness in working and at work. In K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton & R. E. Quinn, (Eds). *Positive Organizational Scholarship: Foundations of a New Discipline*, (pp. 309-327). Berrett-Koehler, San Francisco, CA.
- QSR International Pty Ltd. (2018) NVivo (Version 12), <https://www.qsrinternational.com/nvivo-qualitative-data-analysis-software/home>
- QSR International Pty Ltd. (2020) NVivo Transcription. <https://www.qsrinternational.com/nvivo-qualitative-data-analysis-software/about/nvivo/modules/transcription>
- Rafaeli, A., Dutton, J., Harquail, C V., & Mackie-Lewis, S. (1997). Navigating by attire: The use of dress by female administrative employees. *Academy of Management Journal, 40*, 9-45.  
<https://doi.org/10.2307/257019>
- Rafaeli, A., & Pratt, M. G. (1993). Tailored meanings: On the meaning and impact of organizational dress. *Academy of Management Review, 18*, 32-55. <https://doi.org/10.2307/258822>
- Roberts, L. M. (2005). Changing faces: Professional image construction in diverse organizational settings. *Academy of Management Review, 30*, 685–711.  
<https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2005.18378873>

- Roberts, L. M., Dutton, J. E., Spreitzer, G., Heaphy, E., & Quinn, R. E., (2005). Composing the reflected best self: Building pathways for becoming extraordinary in work organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 30, 712-736. <https://doi.org/10.2307/20159164>
- Rothbard, N. P., Beetz, A. M., & Harari, D. (2021). Balancing the scales: A configurational approach to work-life balance. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 8, 10.1-10.31. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-012420-061833>
- Rothhausen, T. J., & Henderson, K. E. (2019). Meaning-based job-related well-being: Exploring a meaningful work conceptualization of job satisfaction. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 34, 357-376. [10.1007/s10869-018-9545-x](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-018-9545-x)
- Russo, M., Buonocore, F., Carmeli, A., & Guo, L. (2018). When family supportive supervisors meet employees' need for caring: Implications for work–family enrichment and thriving. *Journal of Management*, 44, 1678-1702. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315618013>
- Seligman, M. E. P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist*, 55, 5-14 <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.5>
- Sieber, S. (1974). Toward a theory of role accumulation. *American Sociological Review*, 39(4), 567-578. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2094422>
- Shamir, B., & Salomon, I. (1985). Work-at-home and the quality of working life. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 455–464. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1985.4278957>
- Shockley, K. M., Allen, T. D., Dodd, H. & Waiwood, A. M. (2020). *Rapid transition to remote work during COVID-19: A study of predictors of employee well-being and productivity*. Report No. NSF 2027768). National Science Foundation. [https://www.nsf.gov/awardsearch/showAward?AWD\\_ID=2027768&HistoricalAwards=false](https://www.nsf.gov/awardsearch/showAward?AWD_ID=2027768&HistoricalAwards=false)

- Song, Y., Liu, Y., Shi, J., & Wang, M. (2017). Use of proactive socialization tactics and socialization outcomes: A latent growth modeling approach to understanding newcomer socialization process. *Academy of Management Discoveries*, 3(1), 42-63. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amd.2014.0142>
- Spangler, P.T., Liu, J., & Hill, C. E. (2012). Consensual qualitative research for simple qualitative data: An introduction to CQR-M. In C. E. Hill (Ed), *Consensual qualitative research: A practical resource for investigating social science phenomena* (pp. 269-284). American Psychological Association.
- Spreitzer, G. (2013). Using a positive organizational scholarship lens to enrich research on work-family relationships. In J. G. Grzywacz and E. Demerouti (Eds.), *New Frontiers in Work and Family Research* (pp. 1-17). Taylor & Francis Group.
- Spreitzer, G., Porath, C. L., & Gibson, C. B. (2012). Toward human sustainability: How to enable thriving at work. *Organization Dynamics*, 41, 155-162.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2012.01.009>
- Spreitzer, G., Sutcliffe, K., Dutton, J., Sonenshein, S., & Grant, A. M. (2005). A socially embedded model of thriving at work. *Organization Science*, 16, 537-549.  
<https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.1050.0153>
- Statista. (2021). Change in remote work trends due to COVID-19 in the United States in 2020.  
<https://www.statista.com/statistics/1122987/change-in-remote-work-trends-after-covid-in-usa/>
- ten Brummelhuis, L. L., & Bakker, A. B. (2012). A resource perspective on the work-home interface: The work-home resources model. *American Psychologist*, 67(7), 545-556.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0027974>

- Turner, J. C. (1987). A self-categorization theory. In J. Turner, M. Hogg, P. Oakes, S. Reicher, & M. Wetherell (Eds.), *Rediscovering the Social Group: A Self-Categorization Theory* (pp. 42–67). Basil Blackwell.
- van Steenbergen, E. F., Ellemers, N., & Mooijaart, A. (2007). How work and family can facilitate each other: Distinct types of work-family facilitation and outcomes for women and men. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12*, 279–300. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/1076-8998.12.3.279>
- Vaziri, H., Casper, W. J., Wayne, J. H., & Matthews, R. (2020). Changes to the work-family interface in times of crisis: Examining predictors and implications using latent transition analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 105*, 1073-1087. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/ap10000819>
- Vollhardt, J.R. (2009). Altruism born of suffering and prosocial behavior following adverse life events: A review and conceptualization. *Social Justice Research, 22*, 53–97. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11211-009-0088-1>
- Voydanoff, P. (2001). Incorporating community into work and family research: A review of basic relationships. *Human Relations, 54*(12), 1609–1637. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00187267015412003>
- Voydanoff, P. (2004). The effects of work demands and resources on work-to-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 66*, 398-412. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2004.00028.x>
- Voydanoff, P. (2005). Consequences of boundary spanning demands and resources for work-to family conflict and perceived stress. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10*(4), 491–503. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.10.4.491>

- Wallace, J. C., Butts, M. M., Johnson, P. D., Stevens, F. G., & Smith, M. B. (2016). A multilevel model of employee innovation: Understanding the effects of regulatory focus, thriving, and employee involvement climate. *Journal of Management*, *42*, 982-1004.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0149206313506462>
- Walumbwa, F. O., Muchiri, M. K., Misati, E., Wu, C., & Meiliani, M. (2018). Inspired to perform: A multilevel investigation of antecedents and consequences of thriving at work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *39*, 249-261. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2216>
- Wang, M., Zhan, Y., Mccune, E., & Truxillo, D. (2011). Understanding newcomers' adaptability and work-related outcomes: Testing the mediating roles of perceived P-E fit variables. *Personnel Psychology*, *64*, 163–189. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01205.x>
- Wayne, J. H., Butts, M. M., Casper, W. J., & Allen, T. D. (2017). In search of balance: A conceptual and empirical integration of multiple meanings of work-family balance. *Personnel Psychology*, *70*(1):167–210. <https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12132>
- Wayne, J. H., Grzywacz, J. G., Carlson, D. S., & Kacmar, K. M. (2007). Work-family facilitation: A theoretical explanation and model of primary antecedents and consequences. *Human Resource Management Review*, *17*, 63-76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2007.01.002>
- Wilhelmy, A., Kleinmann, M., König, C. J., Melchers, K. G., & Truxillo, D. M. (2016). How and why do interviewers try to make impressions on applicants? A qualitative study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*(3), 313-332. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000046>
- Xu, A. J., & Wang, L. (2019). How and when servant leaders enable collective thriving: The role of team–member exchange and political climate. *British Journal of Management*, *31*, 274-288.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8551.12358>

**Table 1.1***Relationships of spillover types, resources, agentic behaviors and thriving in work and nonwork roles*

<b>Corresponding Proposition</b>	<b>Type of work to nonwork enrichment (conflict)</b>	<b>Enrichment (conflict) enables (depletes) nonwork resources</b>	<b>Example</b>
6a	Developmental (DE)	Positive Meaning (PMR) Positive Affective (PAR) Relational (RR) Knowledge (KR)	PMR and PAR via DE: When Tim’s boss tells him he is a valued contributor to the team, he leaves work with a higher sense of self-worth (PMR), happiness and satisfaction (PAR), which he brings into his home role. RR via DE: A good working relationship with a coworker enables Tim to form a friendship with his coworker, with whom he shares relaxing recreational time attending local sports events together. KR via DE: Project management skills learned at work transfer to Tim’s role as spouse, enabling him to effectively divide household responsibilities with spouse.
6b	Affective (AE)	Positive Meaning (PMR) Positive Affective (PAR) Relational (RR)	PMR via AE: When work goes well, Tasha has a positive attitude about her job as a caseworker and feels she is helping others, increasing her self-worth overall. This positive sense of self fosters a good relationship with her children. PAR via AE: Tasha’s recent success at work has given her confidence at work which allows her to feel confident in her role as a volunteer at a women’s shelter. RR via AE: Tasha and John become work friends. Tasha’s new friendship leads to her positive mood and she returns home to begin nonwork responsibilities in a positive mood.
6c	Capital (CE)	Positive Affective (PAR) Relational (RR) Knowledge (KR)	PAR via CE: Pat learns he has been given a performance bonus which puts him in a good mood before he leaves work. RR via CE: Pat can use his performance bonus to take his girlfriend on a trip so they can spend quality time together.

7	Time-based conflict (TBC)	Relational (RR)	<p>KR via CE: Pat receives tuition reimbursement benefits from work. The capital resources transfer to Pat's nonwork domain to facilitate his ability to enroll in and pay for college classes, increasing his general knowledge.</p> <p>RR via TBC: Stephen becomes focused on editing marketing materials, a task that gives him energy and helps him practice software skills. Losing track of time, he works late and forgets to notify his spouse, Sarah. Sarah is upset with Stephen when he arrives home and does not spend quality time with him over dinner as they typically do.</p>
---	---------------------------	-----------------	--

<b>Corresponding Proposition</b>	<b>Nonwork resources enable agentic behaviors</b>	<b>Agentic behaviors promote vitality and learning (thriving)</b>	<b>Example</b>
8a	Positive Meaning (PMR)	Task Focus (TF)  Exploration (E)  Heedful Relating (HR)	<p>TF via PMR: Rohit feels valued assisting his daughter with homework, so he focuses on it for an hour each day. Thriving occurs watching his daughter learn, which gives him energy, his new knowledge of routines that help his daughter.</p> <p>E via PMR: Rohit feels valued assisting his daughter with homework, thus experiments with tutoring styles. Thriving is achieved via energy received from piquing his curiosity and learning new skills.</p> <p>HR via PMR: Rohit's self-valued tutoring role allows him to be attentive to his daughter's needs. Thriving is achieved through the energy he receives from providing support and learning how to identify his daughter's needs.</p>
8b	Positive Affective (PAR)	Task Focus (TF)  Exploration (E)	<p>TF via PAR: Sue's interest (positive emotion) in history allows her to focus on preparing props for a historical production at her son's school. She feels vitality from being absorbed in this and learns more about the relevant historical period.</p> <p>E via PAR: The pride Sue feels from producing an authentic-looking prop motivates her to research more information to improve its authenticity. She thrives as she receives energy from her piqued curiosity and from learning about the historical period.</p>

		Heedful Relating (HR)	HR via PAR: Confidence enables Sue to volunteer for a leadership position on the PTA, enabling attentive behavior toward teachers. Thriving is achieved via energy from providing support and learning more about school operations.
8c	Relational (RR)	Exploration (E)	E via RR: Sasha's connection with a friend motivates her to search for a community health challenge they can join together. Thriving is achieved because she feels vital from learning about community events.
		Heedful Relating (HR)	HR via RR: High quality connection with her friend encourages Sasha to be attentive to the friend's needs and join the health challenge. Thriving is achieved via energy from providing social support and learning new health tips.
<b>Corresponding Proposition</b>	<b>Type of nonwork to work enrichment (conflict)</b>	<b>Enrichment (Conflict) enables (depletes) work resources</b>	<b>Example</b>
8d	Knowledge (KR)	Task focus (TF)	TF via KR: Knowing how to prepare a particular meal for his children allows Stephen to focus on cooking tasks without interruption. Thriving is achieved via energy from a sense of accomplishment and improved cooking skills.
		Exploration (E)	E via KR: Stephen's cooking skills and knowledge about nutrition in children motivate him to search for healthy meals he can prepare for his sons. He achieves thriving through energy from novel ideas and learning about nutrition.
15a	Developmental (DE)	Positive Meaning (PMR)	PMR via DE: Rohit's new tutoring skills help him realize he is good at teaching others and that he can make a difference at work by helping his coworkers learn new skills.
		Positive Affective (PAR)	PAR via DE: When Rohit applies his new skills at work, he feels proud of himself and has a sense of accomplishment.
		Relational (RR)	RR and KR via DE: Rohit transfers his new tutoring skills learned at home (DE) to training skills (KR) to help his coworkers, building connections with them (RR).
		Knowledge (KR)	



15b	Affective (AE)	Positive Meaning (PMR) Positive Affective (PAR) Relational (RR)	PMR and PAR via AE: Sue's confidence gained from volunteering spills over to higher self-worth (PMR) and pride (PAR) in her role at work. RR via AE: Sue's happy mood allows her to positively relate with her coworkers, building quality connections.
15c	Efficiency (EE)	Relational (RR) Knowledge (KR)	RR and KR via EE: Stephen's responsibilities for his children motivate him to be efficient at work so that he can be home in time to cook dinner for them. This fosters his connections with coworkers (RR) when they notice he does not waste time and his (KR) are increased as he has learned time-management strategies.
16	Time-Based (TBC)	Relational (RR)	RR via TBC: When Carlos starts coaching his daughter's soccer team he no longer has time to play on the softball team at his company (TBC), leading him to lose close connections with coworkers (RR).

---

**Table 2.1***Sample Description*

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Sample (N=222)</b>
<b><i>Socio-demographic</i></b>	
Age	Range: 19-76 Mean = 45.5 SD = 15
Gender	51.8% Female
Race	74.3% White; 9.9% Black; 8.6% Asian; 4.5% Hispanic; .5% Native American; 2.3% Multiracial
Education	40.1% Bachelor's; 28.4% Graduate; 23% Some College; 8.6% HS/GED
<b><i>Employment</i></b>	
Level in Organization	52.3% First-line employee; 31.1% Middle management; 16.7% Upper management
Exempt status	58.6% Exempt/Salaried
Work from Home Status	41% WFH full-time; 29.6% WFH part-time; 29.4% Work Outside of Home
<b><i>Household</i></b>	
Spouse or partner	54.5%
Children	37.8%
Number of Children	1 = 16.2%; 2 = 12.2%; 3 = 5.9%; 4 = 1.4%; 5 = .9%
Ages of Children	<5 = 14.4%; 6-12 = 12.6%; 13-18 = 22.8%; 18+ = 15.8%
Caregiving	16.6% provide some care for children during the day
Parents	14.0%
Relatives	7.7%
Non-Relatives	5.4%
Live Alone	19.4%
<b><i>Weekly Activity Hours</i></b>	
Paid Employment	Mean = 44.1 SD = 10.3
Caregiving	Mean = 10.7 SD = 18.9
Household Responsibilities	Mean = 16.9 SD = 11
Community Service	Mean = 2.2 SD = 5.5
Leisure Activity	Mean = 32.2 SD = 18.5
Self-Care (e.g., sleep, exercise)	Mean = 61.9 SD 19

**Table 2.2***Factor Loadings Resulting From Exploratory Factor Analysis of Cycling Measurement Items*

Item	Component	
	1	2
I go back and forth between keeping work and home separate and combining work and home.	0.90	
I vacillate between mixing work and home and isolating them.	0.87	
Sometimes I enforce distinct boundaries between work and home and other times I mix work and home.	0.86	
Sometimes I keep a firm boundary between work and home, whereas other times I let the boundary blur.	0.83	
I tend to vary whether I keep work and nonwork separate or whether I blend them.	0.83	
I switch between keeping my personal life separate from work and combining my work and home.	0.83	
Sometimes I deal with work only at work and home only at home, but at other times, I blend them.	0.80	
As needed, I alternate between separating work and home and combining them.	0.79	
At times I purposefully separate work from my personal life, but other times I purposefully mix them.	0.79	
At times I allow work to interrupt home and home to interrupt work, and other times I am careful to keep them separate.	0.64	
*I leave work behind when it is time to stop working.		0.93
*I do not let work issues creep into my personal life.		0.92
*I keep work life separate from home life.		0.92
*I don't think about work during personal time.		0.90

*Note.* N = 328. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis., Varimax rotation. \*These items measure segmentation (Kreiner, 2006).

**Table 2.3***Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Scale Reliabilities*

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender <sup>a</sup>	.48	.50	(--)									
2. Age	45.52	15.03	-.00	(--)								
3. Race <sup>b</sup>	.74	.44	.03	.25**	(--)							
4. Remote Work <sup>c</sup>	.70	.46	.05	.05	-.07	(--)						
5. Work Learning	4.21	.68	.06	.06	-.11	.12	(.88)					
6. Work Vitality	3.85	.92	.12	.35**	-.01	.02	.59**	(.91)				
7. Nonwork Learning	4.25	.69	.10	.01	-.01	-.01	.48**	.41**	(.89)			
8. Nonwork Vitality	4.03	.94	.16*	.30**	.07	.01	.47**	.82**	.49**	(.93)		
9. Segmentation	3.15	1.25	.10	.02	.05	-.07	.16*	.24**	.14*	.31**	(.95)	
10. Cycling	2.97	1.02	.03	-.06	-.04	.16*	.05	-.03	.03	-.01	-.27**	(.95)
11. Role Congruency	2.54	.94	.14*	-.03	-.06	.01	.13*	.08	.14*	.05	-.13	.23**
12. Transition-Work	3.63	1.06	.06	.03	.08	.20**	.14*	.15*	.04	.14*	.06	.08
13. Transition-Nonwork	3.69	.96	.06	.15*	.12	.07	.04	.10	.08	.11	.01	.05
14. W-N Development	3.83	.86	.05	.04	-.11	.04	.47**	.40**	.38**	.39**	.01	.09
15. W-N Affect	3.27	1.15	.19**	.17*	-.07	.11	.41**	.54**	.26**	.46**	.17*	.12
16. W-N Capital	3.81	1.02	.15*	.21**	-.05	.13*	.47**	.60**	.33**	.51**	.04	.09
17. N-W Development	3.81	.88	-.01	.05	-.12	.11	.41**	.27**	.41**	.29**	.12	.18**
18. N-W Affect	4.03	.89	-.00	.09	-.11	.10	.37**	.40**	.23**	.45**	.15*	.02
19. N-W Efficiency	3.72	.91	.04	.13	-.17*	.12	.36**	.42**	.31**	.39**	.08	.10
20. W-N Time Conflict	2.84	1.21	-.03	-.17*	-.09	.04	-.12	-.17*	.02	-.12	-.22**	.06
21. N-W Time Conflict	1.83	.86	.03	-.14*	-.03	.12	.03	-.17*	-.05	-.09	.03	.22**

Note. N=222. SD=Standard Deviation. Cronbach's alphas are shown along diagonal.

<sup>a</sup>0 = does not work from home 1 = work from home at least 1 day/week <sup>b</sup>0 = Nonwhite 1 = White <sup>c</sup>0 = Female 1 = Male

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01

**Table 2.3 (continued)**

*Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Scale Reliabilities*

11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
(.88)										
.14*	(.88)									
.13	.40**	(.86)								
.22**	.13	.09	(.87)							
.19*	.13*	.16*	.56**	(.95)						
.15*	.16*	.16*	.62**	.72**	(.91)					
.24**	.15*	.07	.48**	.42**	.43**	(.90)				
-.07	.07	.06	.43**	.38**	.50**	.41**	(.94)			
.11	.05	-.01	.54**	.55**	.57**	.50**	.47**	(.88)		
.14*	-.16*	-.22**	-.04	-.24**	-.20**	-.08	-.11	.01	(.90)	
.20**	.09	-.13*	.04	.06	-.09	.04	-.11	.05	.24**	(.83)

*Note.* N=222. SD=Standard Deviation. Cronbach's alphas are shown along diagonal.

<sup>a</sup>0 = does not work from home 1 = work from home at least 1 day/week <sup>b</sup>0 = Nonwhite 1 = White <sup>c</sup>0 = Female 1 = Male

\* p <.05 \*\* p<.01

**Table 2.4***OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: W-N Developmental Enrichment*

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
Work Thriving:									
Work Learn	<b>.36***</b>	.36***	.27	.35***	.43	.34***	.68***	.36***	.38*
Work Vitality	.19**	.21*	.27	.19**	.02	.19**	.26	.18*	.70**
Segmentation		-.10	-.27						
Work Learn x Segmentation			.30						
Work Vitality x Segmentation			-.13						
Cycling				.08	-.04				
Work Learn x Cycling					-.16				
Work Vitality x Cycling					.31				
Role Congruency						.16**	1.09**		
Work Learn x Role Congruency							-.93		
Work Vitality x Role Congruency							-.15		
Work Transition								.06	.76**
Work Learn x Work Transition									-.11
Work Vitality x Nonwork Transition									-.87*
R <sup>2</sup>	.24***	.25	.25	.25	.25	.27	.29	.25	.28
ΔR <sup>2</sup>		.01	.01	.01	.00	.03**	.02*	.00	.04**

*Note.* N=222. Values represent standardized beta coefficients. Bold values represent coefficients corresponding to tests of hypotheses.

\*\*\* p < .001. \*\* p < .01. \* p < .05.

**Table 2.5***OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: W-N Affective Enrichment*

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
Work Thriving:									
Work Learn	.14	.14	.22	.12	-.21	.12	.10	.13	.06
Work Vitality	<b>.46***</b>	.46***	.38*	.47***	.81***	.46***	.53**	.46***	.60**
Segmentation		.03	.13						
Work Learn x Segmentation			-.25						
Work Vitality x Segmentation			.17						
Cycling				.13*	-.09				
Work Learn x Cycling					.81				
Work Vitality x Cycling					-.59				
Role Congruency						.14*	.19		
Work Learn x Role Congruency							.07		
Work Vitality x Role Congruency							-.13		
Work Transition								.05	.08
Work Learn x Work Transition									.17
Work Vitality x Nonwork Transition									-.25
R <sup>2</sup>	.31***	.31	.31	.32	.33	.33	.33	.31	.31
ΔR <sup>2</sup>		.00	.00	.02*	.01	.02*	.00	.00	.00

*Note.* N=222. Values represent standardized beta coefficients. Bold values represent coefficients corresponding to tests of hypotheses.

\*\*\* p < .001. \*\* p < .01. \* p < .05.

**Table 2.6***OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: W-N Capital Enrichment*

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
Work Thriving:									
Work Learn	<b>.18**</b>	.18**	.26	.17*	.12	.17*	.02	.17**	.03
Work Vitality	<b>.50***</b>	.52***	.55***	.51***	.90***	.50***	.81***	.49***	.87***
Segmentation		-.11*	.19						
Work Learn x Segmentation			-.29						
Work Vitality x Segmentation			-.06						
Cycling				.10	.65				
Work Learn x Cycling					.08				
Work Vitality x Cycling					-.74*				
Role Congruency						.09	.25		
Work Learn x Role Congruency							.42		
Work Vitality x Role Congruency							-.65		
Work Transition								.06	.26
Work Learn x Work Transition									.32
Work Vitality x Nonwork Transition									-.65
R <sup>2</sup>	.38***	.39	.39	.39	.41	.39	.40	.38	.40
ΔR <sup>2</sup>		.01*	.00	.01	.02*	.01	.01	.00	.01

Note. N=222. Values represent standardized beta coefficients. Bold values represent coefficients corresponding to tests of hypotheses.

\*\*\* p < .001. \*\* p < .01. \* p < .05.



**Table 2.7***OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: W-N Time-Based Conflict*

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
Work Thriving:									
Work Learn	-.20	-.16	-.32	-.03	-.07	-.04	-.43	-.01	-.03
Work Vitality	-.16	-.11	-.00	-.15	-.20	-.16	-.04	-.14	-.15
Segmentation		-.19**	-.85*						
Work Learn x Segmentation			.95						
Work Vitality x Segmentation			-.25						
Cycling				.06	-.14				
Work Learn x Cycling					.13				
Work Vitality x Cycling					.10				
Role Congruency						.16*	-.58		
Work Learn x Role Congruency							1.07		
Work Vitality x Role Congruency							-.24		
Work Transition								-.14*	-.19
Work Learn x Work Transition									.05
Work Vitality x Nonwork Transition									.01
R <sup>2</sup>	.03*	.06	.08	.03	.03	.05	.07	.05	.05
ΔR <sup>2</sup>		.03**	.01	.00	.00	.03*	.02	.02*	.00

Note. N=222. Values represent standardized beta coefficients. Bold values represent coefficients corresponding to tests of hypotheses.

\*\*\* p < .001. \*\* p < .01. \* p < .05.

**Table 2.8***OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: N-W Developmental Enrichment*

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
Nonwork Thriving:									
Nonwork Learn	<b>.36***</b>	.36***	.15	.35***	.30	.33***	.24	.36***	.42
Nonwork Vitality	.12	.10	.36*	.12	.27	.12	-.04	.11	-.08
Segmentation		.04	-.06						
Nonwork Learn x Segmentation			.67						
Nonwork Vitality x Segmentation			-.65						
Cycling				.17**	.29				
Nonwork Learn x Cycling					.13				
Nonwork Vitality x Cycling					-.27				
Role Congruency						.19**	-.30		
Nonwork Learn x Role Congruency							.25		
Nonwork Vitality x Role Congruency							.33		
Nonwork Transition								.03	-.10
Nonwork Learn x Nonwork Transition									-.11
Nonwork Vitality x Nonwork Transition									.31
R <sup>2</sup>	.18***	.18	.20	.21	.21	.22	.22	.18	.00
ΔR <sup>2</sup>		.00	.01	.03**	.00	.03**	.01	.00	.00

Note. N=222. Values represent standardized beta coefficients. Bold values represent coefficients corresponding to tests of hypotheses.

\*\*\* p < .001. \*\* p < .01. \* p < .05.

**Table 2.9***OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: N-W Affective Enrichment*

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
Nonwork Thriving:									
Nonwork Learn	.01	.01	-.46**	.01	-.31	.03	-.17	.01	.35
Nonwork Vitality	<b>.44***</b>	.44***	.57**	.44***	.78***	.44***	.39*	.44***	-.08
Segmentation		.01	-.97*						
Nonwork Learn x Segmentation			<b>1.42**</b>						
Nonwork Vitality x Segmentation			-.36						
Cycling				.02	-.15				
Nonwork Learn x Cycling					.77				
Nonwork Vitality x Cycling					-.62				
Role Congruency						-.09	-.66		
Nonwork Learn x Role Congruency							.54		
Nonwork Vitality x Role Congruency							.11		
Nonwork Transition								.01	-.02
Nonwork Learn x Nonwork Transition									-.65
Nonwork Vitality x Nonwork Transition									.81
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>.20***</b>	.20	.23	.20	.22	.21	.22	.20	.22
<b>ΔR<sup>2</sup></b>		.00	.03*	.00	.01	.01	.01	.00	.01

*Note.* N=222. Values represent standardized beta coefficients. Bold values represent coefficients corresponding to tests of hypotheses.

\*\*\* p < .001. \*\* p < .01. \* p < .05.

**Table 2.10***OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: N-W Efficiency Enrichment*

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	
Nonwork Thriving:										
Nonwork Learn	<b>.17*</b>	.16*	-.25	.16*	-.17	.15*	-.33	.17*	.13	
Nonwork Vitality	<b>.30***</b>	.32***	.59***	.31***	.63**	.31***	.44*	.31***	-.04	
Segmentation		-.04	-.63							
Nonwork Learn x Segmentation			<b>1.29**</b>							
Nonwork Vitality x Segmentation			-.71							
Cycling				.10	-.13					
Nonwork Learn x Cycling					.82					
Nonwork Vitality x Cycling					-.60					
Role Congruency						.07	-.88*			
Nonwork Learn x Role Congruency							1.29**			
Nonwork Vitality x Role Congruency							-.21			
Nonwork Transition								-.06	-.54	
Nonwork Learn x Nonwork Transition									.11	
Nonwork Vitality x Nonwork Transition									.55	
	R <sup>2</sup>	.17***	.17	.20	.18	.19	.17	.20	.17	.19
	ΔR <sup>2</sup>		.00	.03*	.01	.02	.01	.03*	.00	.01

Note. N=222. Values represent standardized beta coefficients. Bold values represent coefficients corresponding to tests of hypotheses.

\*\*\* p < .001. \*\* p < .01. \* p < .05.

**Table 2.11***OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Dependent Variable: N-W Time-Based Conflict*

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
Nonwork Thriving:									
Nonwork Learn	-.01	-.01	.05	-.02	-.26	-.04	.08	-.00	.04
Nonwork Vitality	-.08	-.10	.14	-.08	.20	-.08	-.02	-.07	-.05
Segmentation		.064	.64						
Nonwork Learn x Segmentation			-.13						
Nonwork Vitality x Segmentation			-.61						
Cycling				.22**	.12				
Nonwork Learn x Cycling					.59				
Nonwork Vitality x Cycling					-.51				
Role Congruency						.21**	.60		
Nonwork Learn x Role Congruency							-.34		
Nonwork Vitality x Role Congruency							-.12		
Nonwork Transition								-.13	-.03
Nonwork Learn x Nonwork Transition									-.09
Nonwork Vitality x Nonwork Transition									-.03
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	.01	.01	.03	.06	.07	.05	.06	.02	.02
<b>ΔR<sup>2</sup></b>		.00	.01	.05**	.01	.04**	.00	.02	.00

*Note.* N=222. Values represent standardized beta coefficients. Bold values represent coefficients corresponding to tests of hypotheses.

\*\*\* p < .001. \*\* p < .01. \* p < .05.

**Table 2.12***Tests of Hypotheses*

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Result<sup>a</sup></b>
1a: Work thriving, particularly learning, positively relates to work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment.	.36***
1b: Work thriving, particularly vitality, positively relates to work-to-nonwork affective enrichment.	.46***
1c: Work thriving, including learning and vitality, positively relates to work-to-nonwork capital enrichment.	Learning = .18** Vitality = .50***
2: Work thriving, including learning and vitality, positively relates to work-to-nonwork time-based conflict.	--
3: Work thriving, including learning and vitality, is more positively associated with work-to-nonwork (a) developmental and (b) affective enrichment among low segmenters (integrators) compared to high segmenters	--
4: Work thriving, including learning and vitality, is more positively associated with work-to-nonwork time-based conflict among low segmenters (integrators) compared to high segmenters.	--
5: Work thriving, including learning and vitality, is more positively associated with work-to-nonwork (a) developmental, (b) affective, and (c) capital enrichment among cyclers.	(a) -- (b) -- (c) Vitality = -.74*
6: The positive effect of work thriving on work-to-nonwork time-based conflict is attenuated among cyclers	--
7: Work thriving, particularly learning, is more positively associated with work-to-nonwork developmental enrichment when congruency between roles occupied in each domain is high.	--
8: Hypothesis 8: Work thriving, particularly vitality, will have a stronger positive association with work-to-nonwork affective enrichment when the transition between domains is easy.	--
9a: Nonwork thriving, particularly learning, positively relates to nonwork-to-work developmental enrichment.	.36***
9b: Nonwork thriving, particularly vitality, positively relates to nonwork-to-work affective enrichment.	.44***
9c: Nonwork thriving, including learning and vitality, positively relates to nonwork-to-work efficiency enrichment.	Learning = .17* Vitality = .30***
10: Nonwork thriving, including learning and vitality, positively relates to nonwork-to-work time-based conflict.	--

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Result<sup>a</sup></b>
11: Nonwork thriving, including learning and vitality, is more positively associated with nonwork-to-work (a) developmental, (b) affective and (c) efficiency enrichment among low segmenters (integrators) compared to high segmenters.	--
12: Nonwork thriving, including learning and vitality, is more positively associated with nonwork-to-work time-based conflict among low segmenters (integrators) compared to high segmenters.	--
13: Nonwork thriving, including learning and vitality, is more positively associated with nonwork-to-work (a) developmental, (b) affective, and (c) efficiency enrichment among cyclers.	--
14: The positive effect of nonwork thriving on nonwork-to-work time-based conflict is attenuated among cyclers.	--
15: Nonwork thriving, particularly learning, is more positively associated with nonwork-to-work developmental enrichment when congruency between roles occupied in each domain is high.	--
16: Nonwork thriving, particularly vitality, is more positively associated with nonwork-to-work affective enrichment when the transition between domains is easy.	--

*Note.* <sup>a</sup>Only significant results shown. Standardized beta coefficients reported.

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

**Table 3.1***Participant Descriptions*

Characteristic	Sample 1 ( <i>N</i> = 103)	Sample 2 ( <i>N</i> = 27)
<i>Socio-demographic</i>		
Age	18-66 ( <i>M</i> = 32.3, <i>SD</i> = 9.3)	21-60 ( <i>M</i> = 42.1, <i>SD</i> = 12.8)
Gender	49.5% female	70.4% female
Race/ethnicity	77.7% White, 7.8% Black, 5.8% Hispanic, 7.8% Asian, 1% Native	59.3% White, 25.9% Black, 7.4% Hispanic, 3.7% Asian, 3.7% Native
U.S. States	<i>N</i> = 34, top = 12.6% California, 7.8% Texas, 6.8% New York	<i>N</i> = 5, top = 77.8% Texas, 11.1% Florida
Education	60.2% Bachelor, 18.4% Master	37% Bachelor, 48.1% Master
<i>COVID-19</i>		
Pre-COVID weekly remote/total work hours	1.5 hour ( <i>SD</i> = 2.7)/41.4 hours ( <i>SD</i> = 8.9)	2.1 hours ( <i>SD</i> = 3.4)/43.6 hours ( <i>SD</i> = 5.7)
Post-COVID weekly remote/total work hours	34.6 hours ( <i>SD</i> = 11.8)/35.1 hours ( <i>SD</i> = 12.2)	42 hours ( <i>SD</i> = 4.3)/42 hours ( <i>SD</i> = 4.3)
High-risk complications self + household	9.7% + 28.2%	N/A
<i>Work</i>		
Job tenure	5.3 years ( <i>SD</i> = 4.3)	5.9 years ( <i>SD</i> = 6.4)
Industry	20.4% professional, scientific, management, and administrative services, 14.6% health care and social assistance, 13.6% educational services, 11.7% information	44.4% educational services, 14.8% professional, scientific, management, and administrative services
<i>Family</i>		
Living with spouse/partner	65%	85.2%
Living with children	28.2% (34.5% one child, 55.2% two children, 6.9% three, 3.4% five)	48.1% (18.4% one child, 18.5% two children, 14.8% three)
Children's age	1.1% 0-2 years old, 15.5% 3-5 years old, 9.7% 6-9 years old, 4.8% 10-12 years old, 4.8% 13-15 years old, 4.8% 16-18 years old, 1.9% over 18.	11.1% 0-2 years old, 7.4% 3-5 years old, 14.8% 6-9 years old, 11.1% 10-12 years old, 11.1% 13-15 years old, 18.5% 16-18 years old, 7.4% over 18.

*Note.* High-risk complications included age 65 or older or high-risk health conditions including chronic lung disease, cardiovascular disease, diabetes, renal failure, liver disease, immunocompromised including cancer and immune deficiencies, severe obesity. According to the New York Times (2020), as of June 8 as Study 1 started, new positive COVID-19 cases were of 2,290 in California (for comparison, first highest peak was of 10,231 on July 25), 1,378 in Texas (for comparison, first highest peak was of 7,997 on July 19), and 1,083 in New York (for comparison, first highest peak was of 10,794 on April 10). As of July 23, as Study 2 started, new positive COVID-19 cases were 9,543 in Texas (for comparison, first highest peak was of 7,997 on July 19), and 10,249 in Florida (for comparison, first highest peak was of 11,466 on July 17).



**Table 3.2***Detailed Participants Demographics – Sample 2*

ID	Gender	Age	Race/ ethnicity	Education	Job title	Job tenure	Pre- Covid WFH hours	Marital status	Children at home	Children ages
1	Female	60	White	Master's	Licensed professional counselor (k-12)	10	<1	Married, or living with a partner	0	-
2	Female	53	White	Master's	4th grade teacher	3	10	Married, or living with a partner	3	13-18
3	Male	53	White	Bachelor's	Insurance adjuster	12	0	Married, or living with a partner	3	13-18
4	Male	35	White	Master's	Solutions engineer	2	0	Married, or living with a partner	0	-
5	Female	45	White	Bachelor's	High School teacher	2	1.5	Divorced	1	16-18
6	Female	35	Black	Master's	Higher ed program director	2	N/A	Separated	1	0-5
7	Female	26	Hispanic	Master's	Domestic violence counselor	1	N/A	Married, or living with a partner	0	-
8	Female	57	White	Bachelor's	Teacher	6	0	Married, or living with a partner	1	18+
9	Male	42	White	Bachelor's	Higher ed coordinator	1	0	Married, or living with a partner	0	-

ID	Gender	Age	Race/ ethnicity	Education	Job title	Job tenure	Pre- Covid WFH hours	Marital status	Children at home	Children ages
10	Female	34	Black	Some college	HR manager	2	0	Married, or living with a partner	2	6-9
11	Female	57	White	Master's	ESL coordinator & physical trainer	4	3	Married, or living with a partner	0	-
12	Female	48	Black	Master's	Higher ed asst dir	4	8	Single	1	10-12
13	Female	34	White	Bachelor's	HR business partner	<1	8	Married, or living with a partner	3	0-5
14	Female	35	Black	Master's	Social worker	1	0	Married, or living with a partner	2	0-9
15	Female	55	Native American	Bachelor's	Software tester	6	0	Married, or living with a partner	2	10-18
16	Female	23	Hispanic	Bachelor's	Graphic designer	<1	N/A	Single	0	-
17	Male	29	Black	Master's	Freshman advisor	<1	0	Single	0	-
18	Female	26	White	Master's	Technology project manager	1	0	Married, or living with a partner	0	-
19	Male	26	White	Law	Attorney	1	0	Married, or living with a partner	0	-
20	Female	31	Black	Juris Doctor	Education program supervisor	3.5	N/A	Married, or living with a partner	0	-

ID	Gender	Age	Race/ ethnicity	Education	Job title	Job tenure	Pre- Covid WFH hours	Marital status	Children at home	Children ages
21	Male	53	White	Bachelor's	Environmental geologist	3	0	Married, or living with a partner	0	-
22	Male	60	White	Master's	Analytics/IT	1	0	Married, or living with a partner	0	-
23	Female	53	White	Doctorate	Teacher for visually impaired	10	5	Married, or living with a partner	2	6-18
24	Male	59	Asian	Master's	IT leadership/software	3	5	Married, or living with a partner	0	-
25	Female	21	White	Bachelor's	Tax tech staff intern	<1	0	Single	0	-
26	Female	44	White	Some college	Marketing account supervisor	8	8	Married, or living with a partner	3	6-15
27	Female	43	Black	Master's	Academic specialist	5	0	Married, or living with a partner	2	10-18

*Note.* U.S. states were coded TX = Texas, FL = Florida, VA = Virginia, and NV = Nevada. Job titles abbreviations include ed = education, asst = assistant, dir = director, tech = technician, IT = information technology.

**Table 3.3***Consensual Qualitative Research-Modified Detailed Procedure for the Current Study*

Phase	Application in the current study
1. Sample 1's 10 first participants	<p><i>Process:</i> The first author began suggesting domains and categories. The second author did the same with the same 10 surveys, adding new categories, and discussing differences with the first author.</p> <p><i>Outcome:</i> Domains were broadly labeled as types of resources, types of development, and contextual characteristics.</p>
2. Sample 1's 10 more surveys, Sample 2's 10 first interviews	<p><i>Process:</i> In each iteration, an evolving code map and codebook documented changes to domains, categories, and subcategory placements.</p> <p><i>Outcomes:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The contextual characteristics domain was divided into macro- (e.g., COVID19 guidelines) and meso- contexts (e.g., employer and home).</li> <li>• We relabeled resources and development domains as behaviors and outcomes to reflect evolving categories.</li> </ul>
3. Initial cross-case analysis on Sample 1's 20 first surveys and Sample 2's 10 first interviews	<p><i>Process:</i> The first author performed an initial cross-case analysis, examining responses by each nested category rather than by participant, highlighting discrepancies for discussion. The second author reviewed the list, and the third author served as an auditor to disagreement. Upon consensus, the first author recoded the revisions.</p> <p><i>Outcome:</i> Given the macro-context was very general, we did not include it in the final model; thus resulting in three overarching domains (i.e., meso-context, behaviors, and outcomes).</p>
4. Coding and within-person cross-analysis of entire dataset (Sample 1's 103 surveys and Sample 2's 27 interviews)	<p><i>Process:</i> The first two authors coded the remaining 83 surveys (Sample 1) and 17 interviews (Sample 2), using the same process to code approximately 20 surveys and 3 interviews at a time. The first and second authors discussed different opinions of appropriate categories and subcategories under each domain until they reached agreement. The third author served as auditor to provide external feedback and make decisions in the rare cases of disagreement.</p>

**Table 3.3 (continued)***Consensual Qualitative Research-Modified Detailed Procedure for the Current Study*

Phase	Application in the current study
4. Coding and within-person cross-analysis of entire dataset	<i>Outcome:</i> The three overarching domains were refined into five domains: One related to meso-context (i.e., work demands), another to behaviors (i.e., boundary and time management), and two to outcomes (i.e., work-related development and well-being). It also appeared that some categories needed to be further refined into subcategories as their meaning were too broad.
5. Within-category cross-analysis	<p><i>Process:</i> The first author proposed a structure of subcategories with example quotes. The second author reviewed it, indicated agreement or suggested changes, which were discussed with the first author until consensus was reached. The third author served as an auditor to resolve disagreement between coders.</p> <p><i>Outcome:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Under the work demands domain, the image management category was divided into appearance and performance subcategories.</li> <li>• Under work-related development domain, the career plans category was divided into clarifying expectations and future planning subcategories, and work skills into employability, job-specific, relational, and technological subcategories.</li> <li>• Under well-being, energy could be divided into cognitive, physical, social, and unspecified, and work-life balance was divided into effectiveness and satisfaction subcategories.</li> </ul>
6. Spontaneous emergence of boundary management as a domain	<p><i>Process:</i> We adopted Kreiner et al.'s (2009) typology of boundary work tactics (communicative, physical, temporal, and behavioral), adding subcategories based on findings (e.g., "controlling work time" became a subcategory for the "temporal" category). Participants used both "segmenting" (creating work-home boundaries) and "integrating" (eliminating work-home boundaries), in line with boundary management theory (Ashforth et al., 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996), and some people employed both strategies, labeled cyclers (Kossek, 2016). We explored the relationship of boundary management with outcomes in Sample 2.</p> <p><i>Outcome:</i> We finalized the data structure (see Figure 3.1) and frequency of categories and subcategories.</p>

*Note.* Following Spangler et al.'s (2012) steps of data analysis.

**Table 3.4***Validation Strategies to Establish Trustworthiness of the Consensual Qualitative Research-Modified*

Trustworthiness criteria	Validation strategy	Application in the current study
1. Credibility	1.1 Open discussion of biases and experiences with the topic of study	1.1 All three authors personally experienced working at least 31 hours per week exclusively at home for the first time due to COVID-19 (i.e., “liminal researchers”; Kreiner & Joshi, 2019) and openly shared information about their own boundary management strategies, their experiences, identification with participants, etc.
	1.2 Data saturation	1.2 No new domain emerged after analysis of the first 20 surveys (Sample 1) and 10 interviews (Sample 2), and no new category emerged after analysis of 45 surveys (Sample 1) and 13 interviews (Sample 2), providing evidence of data saturation suggesting results were unlikely to change.
	1.3 Member-checking	1.3 In line with prior work (Wilhelmy et al., 2016), we went back to the 27 interview participants (Sample 2) to request feedback on our categories by email. We obtained an 81.5% response and all confirmed that our data structure was consistent with their personal experience.
	1.4 Abundant quotes from a large set of participants, providing examples of themes and sub-themes	1.4 Reported quotes from numerous participants with no more than 3-4 quotes per participant.
2. Transferability (i.e., external validity)	Providing detailed information about the context of study.	We chose a prototypical rather than extreme sample characterized by employees working at least 31 hours per week from home for the first time due to COVID-19, so that our findings should transfer to countries that also applied shelter-in-place ordinances.

Trustworthiness criteria	Validation strategy	Application in the current study
3. Dependability	3.1 Multiple data sources	3.1 Open-ended questions recruitment through the Prolifics platform, and interviews via snowball sampling.
	3.2 Multiple coders	3.2 Two primary coders, one secondary coder/auditor.
4. Confirmability (i.e., replicability)	4.1 Inter-rater agreement between two research assistants who were not familiar with the study*	4.1 Based on the final codebook (domains, categories, and subcategories) and representative 121 interview passages (i.e., 10%; Bluhm et al., 2011), overall agreement between external coders was supported by a Cohen's $\kappa$ of .89, suggesting very good agreement well above minimal threshold of .70 (Fleiss & Cohen, 1973).
	4.2 Describing the procedures and data analysis process in great details.	4.2 We provide descriptions of the samples (Table 3.1), coding process (Table 3.3), data and findings (Figure 3.1). These descriptions follow academic rigor standards for qualitative articles (APA report; Levitt et al., 2018) and for CQR (Hill, 2012).

*Note.* \*In line with prior work (e.g., Kreiner et al., 2009; Wilhelmy et al., 2016), and given the emergent nature of the coding process, we could not provide interrater agreement for coding process between the authors, so we relied on outsiders' inter-rater agreement.

**Table 3.5***Effects of Rapid Change to Remote Work due to COVID-19*

Category/Subcategory	Description	Example Quote
<i>Work-related development</i>		
Work skills	Developing new or improving current skills	I mainly did print design before. Now I'm doing web design, so I don't have a background in that. I don't know how to code, but I learned how to do like minimal coding and like some like major like web design stuff that I did not know before. And I was more like thrown into it and had to figure it out myself, which I had a lot of time to do that since I work from home (P16-2).
Career plans	More frequent thinking and planning about one's career	I want to go into a different part of the mental health field. I love being a social worker, but I think now because of this whole situation, I want to become a therapist and do that route because I feel like right now is the most time that mental health services are at this time high because of the situation (P14-2).
Feelings towards work/ employer	Positive changes in such feelings	You see other airlines, they're like, we're firing half our labor force and then there's us. That's like we're doing everything we can to protect our people. So, I think that's just upped that right. Like that sense of community has really been upped. And for me, I feel a lot more positive... and committed to the company because I know they're committed to me (P18-2).
Work output	Positive changes in performance	I think I'm definitely more productive. Work wise. Stress levels have dropped. You know, I'm much able to focus on my work when I'm working. And then I'm able to spend time and have that quality time with my family, too. (P23-2)

*Note.*  $N = 27$  (Sample 2). P = Participant.



**Table 3.5 (continued)***Effects of Rapid Change to Remote Work due to COVID-19*

Category/Subcategory	Description	Example Quote
<i>Well-being</i>		
Wellness	Experiencing greater wellness via exercise, leisure activities, sleep, etc.	I can work at whatever time I want. What I like to do is I get up. I get up about three hours before I'm supposed to clock in, and I like to do stuff that I never really did before. Like I would go for runs. I would make sure I eat like a decent breakfast... do my skin care routine, which I would always rush to do it with work and then I would get started on my work (P16-2).
Personal development	Experiencing a greater understanding of oneself and one's priorities	I am a homebody, even though I like to travel and do stuff. I love to be with my family and be at home. And it's really I think this time has made me stop and think just how precious my family and my home is, you know, this time and not being part of the rat race (P2-2).
Work-life balance	Experience greater ability to manage demands from both work and nonwork domains	I think it's changed a lot because my days used to be really, really long. And I'd come home tired and had very little energy I think for family and just even to go outside and work in the yard and pursue some of the hobbies that I wanted to pursue...to do some of the things that I truly enjoy...because I'm not driving as far...So I feel like it is more balanced now (P23-2).
Energy	Feeling more energized either cognitively, socially, or physically	Before the answer would have been "I'm just too tired. I'm going to bed. I don't have any anything left in my energy level to try to address things like planting flowers or something." You know, working in the yard or whatever. That's just not even a consideration. Whereas now, I've surprised myself, you know, by taking an interest in whether things are dying or growing outside! (P21-2).

**Table 3.5 (continued)**

*Effects of Rapid Change to Remote Work due to COVID-19*

Category/Subcategory	Description	Example Quote
<i>Work demands</i>		
Temporal characteristics	Context characterized by having more time and greater flexibility.	I have scheduled meetings with the students, but I can get my paperwork done at any time. So, the evenings are better after my son goes to bed. He's 7. So, it might be easier to get that then when he's asleep. (P23-2).
Image management	Efforts to project an image of oneself during remote work.	I cannot tell you the last time I wore like real clothes, you know, and I'm like, it's liberating. It's shows maybe we value things that are not of value because I have a closet full of clothes and I wear my workout pants all the time. So, yeah, I think that puts things in perspective. Do we really need all this? No. (P6-2).
Distractions	Being less interrupted by other people or events and meetings.	I would try to kind of have my schedule and I would have planned meetings, but then people would just pop in my office left and right. It often was to ask very, very simple questions that they could answer on their own if they just kind of thought about it for a minute and utilized the resources that they had available to them. Now they have to make it a point to have a conversation with me (P13-2).

**Table 3.6***Effects of Rapid Change to Remote Work due to Covid-19 – Overall Use of Boundary Management Strategies*

Category/Subcategory	Description	Example Quote/Tactic used
<i>Boundary Management</i>		
Segmentation	Keeping work and nonwork roles separate.	I feel like my partner and I are both very scheduled routine people. This is work time. Oh, it's time for lunch. Let's stop and make something for lunch...So there wasn't a lot of, oh, I'm just gonna walk away and watch a TV program because it's on I mean, we most often never had the TV on because it was work time.  <i>P1-2; Type: Temporal</i>
Integration	Blending work and home roles.	My hours after COVID are a lot more flexible. I was able to answer emails pretty much any time of the day...But both of [my supervisors] were very supportive of mental health. So they said, hey, if you're working at a desk, get up, go take a walk with your kids, go, do you know, do all of the self-care things, care for your family, and then come back to the desk and do your job. So since COVID it allowed me for more flexible of a timeframe...I was able to kind of get up, get my coffee, sit down at 9 o'clock. OK, check a few things. If I needed to help [my son] with online learning, I was able to step away to do that and still take care of my family as well.  <i>P27-2; Type: Physical, Temporal</i>

*Note. N = 27 (Sample 2). P = Participant.*

**Table 3.6 (continued)**

*Effects of Rapid Change to Remote Work due to Covid-19 – Overall use of Boundary Management Strategies*

Category/Subcategory	Description	Example Quote/Tactic used
Cycling	Using self-regulation to alternate between segmentation and integration.	<p>Sometimes noise control when [my wife is] on her meetings and when I'm on my meetings, we have areas in the house where we can separate and do our work and stuff like that and not trip over one another.</p> <p>Away from work I can multitask a little bit more as a result of being home. Being in the office, you can't get to the washing machine, you can't get to the refrigerator, to the Amazon deliveries and stuff like that. So being here at home has enhanced my abilities to get those kinds of things where I would have to either take off work, rearrange my work schedule and stuff like that. So [that makes] telework positive.</p> <p><i>P22-2; Type: Physical</i></p>

**Table 3.7**

*Recommendations for Organizations on Best Practices in Managing Remote Work for Greater Productivity and Well-Being*

---

*Organizational and Interpersonal Communication*

1. Communicate explicitly about image management expectations related to appearance during video-conferences
2. Reduce distraction events by limiting work meetings' duration and number
3. Explicitly promote time flexibility policies

*Employee Training*

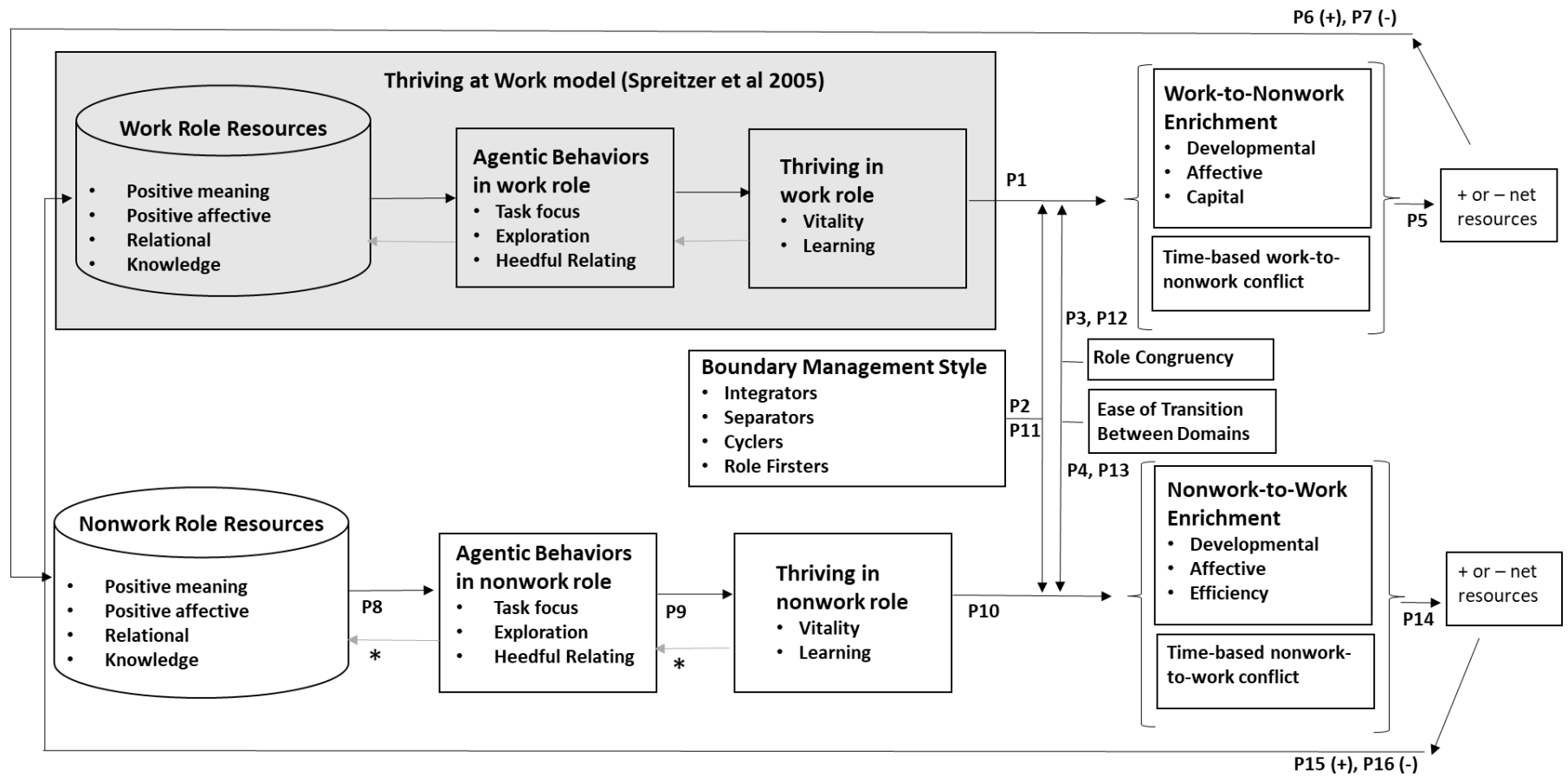
4. Train remote workers on communicative and behavioral boundary management tactics (in addition to more intuitive physical and temporal); discuss using both integration and segmentation (i.e., cycling) for successful work-life balance
5. Offer work-specific and technological skills training
6. Provide wellness-focused training (focusing for instance on mental health, exercise, diet and nutrition, sleep)

*Employee development*

7. Offer career (e.g., coaching, priorities reflection, retirement planning, self- assessments) and self (e.g., mindfulness, gratitude) development opportunities
  8. Provide opportunities to promote social awareness for the community (e.g., employees contributing to non-profits as volunteers on their work hours)
-

**Figure 1.1**

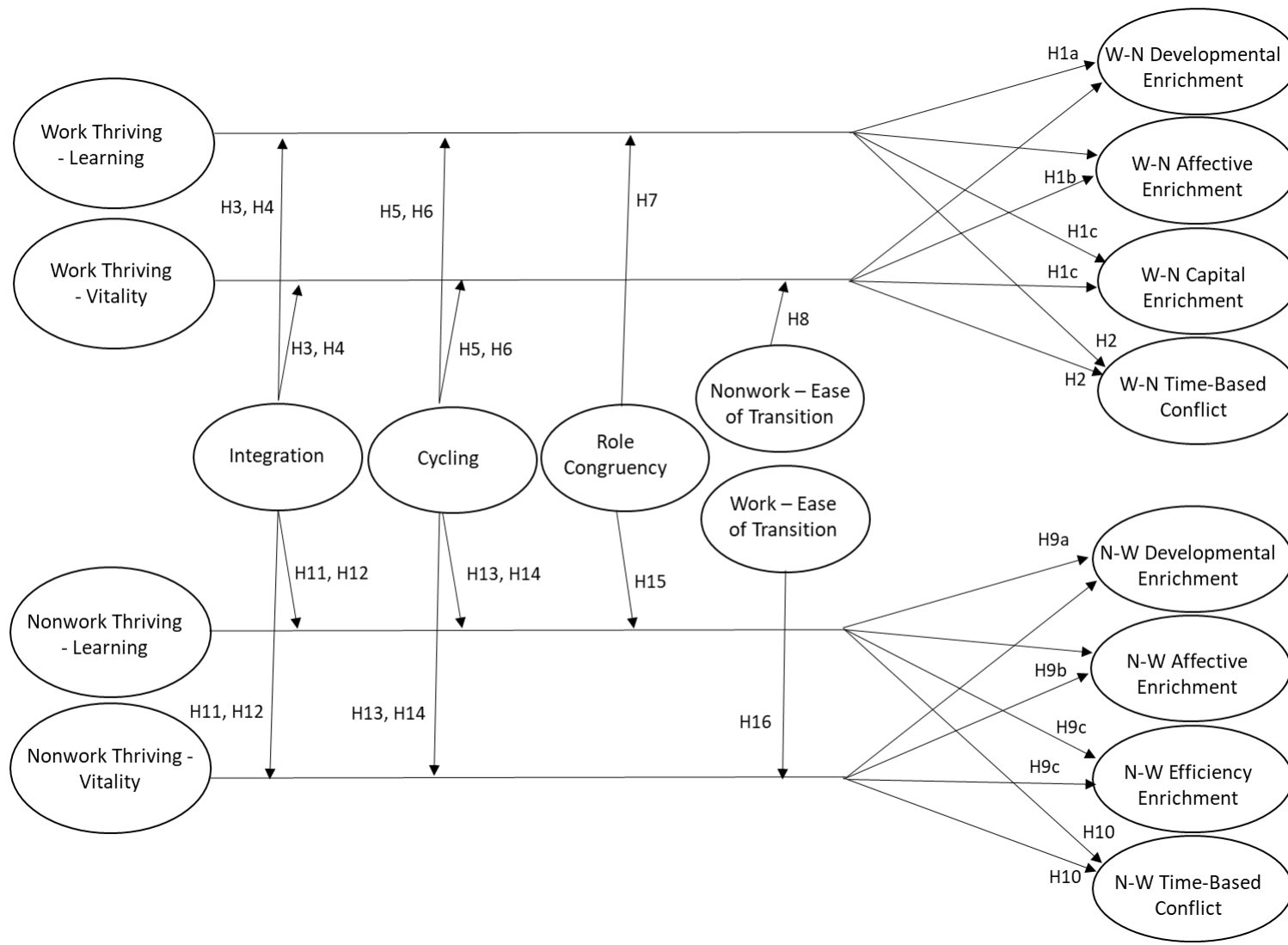
*The Cross-Domain Thriving Model*



*Note.* \*We assume the feedback relationships from agentic behaviors to nonwork role resources and from nonwork thriving to nonwork agentic behaviors function in the same manner as those in the work domain, as proposed by Spreitzer et al (2005).

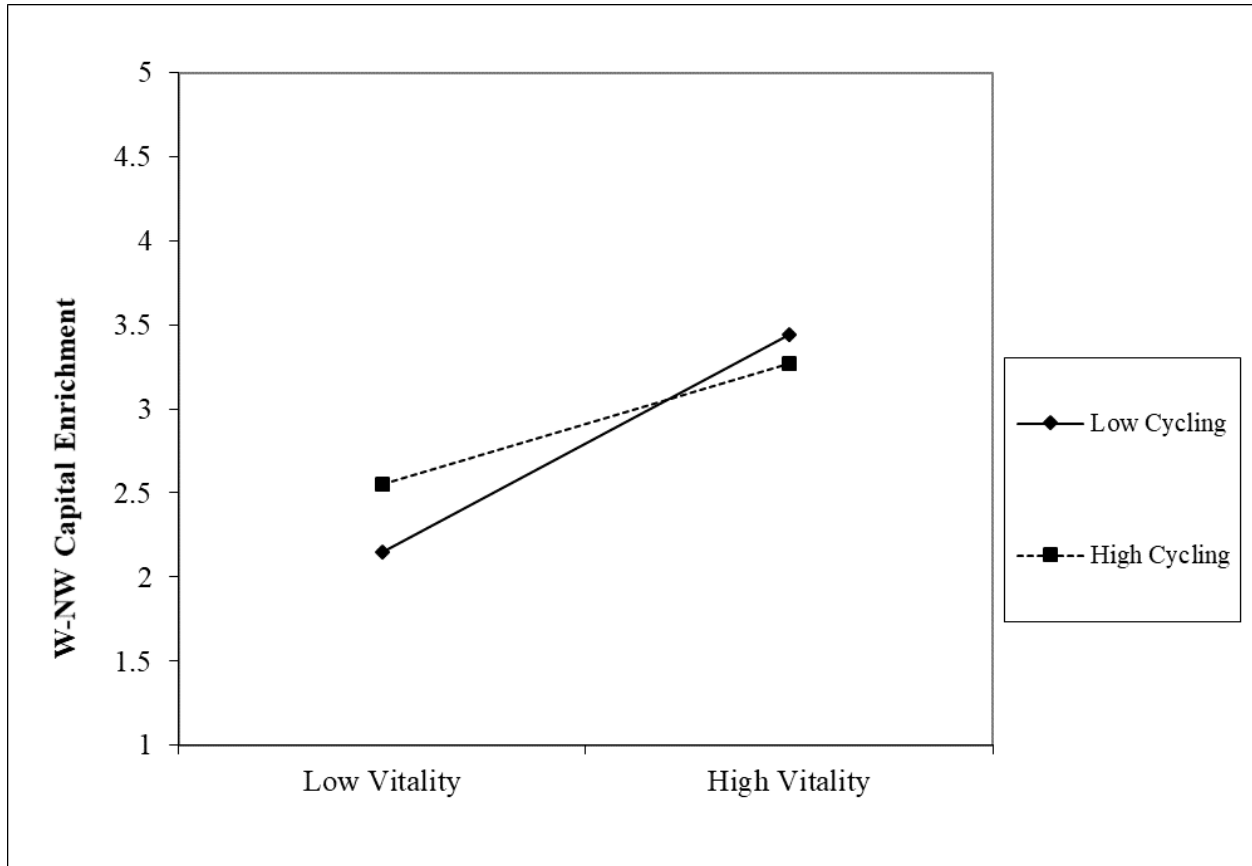
**Figure 2.1**

*Hypothesized Relationships from the Cross-Domain Thriving Model (Essay 2)*



**Figure 2.2**

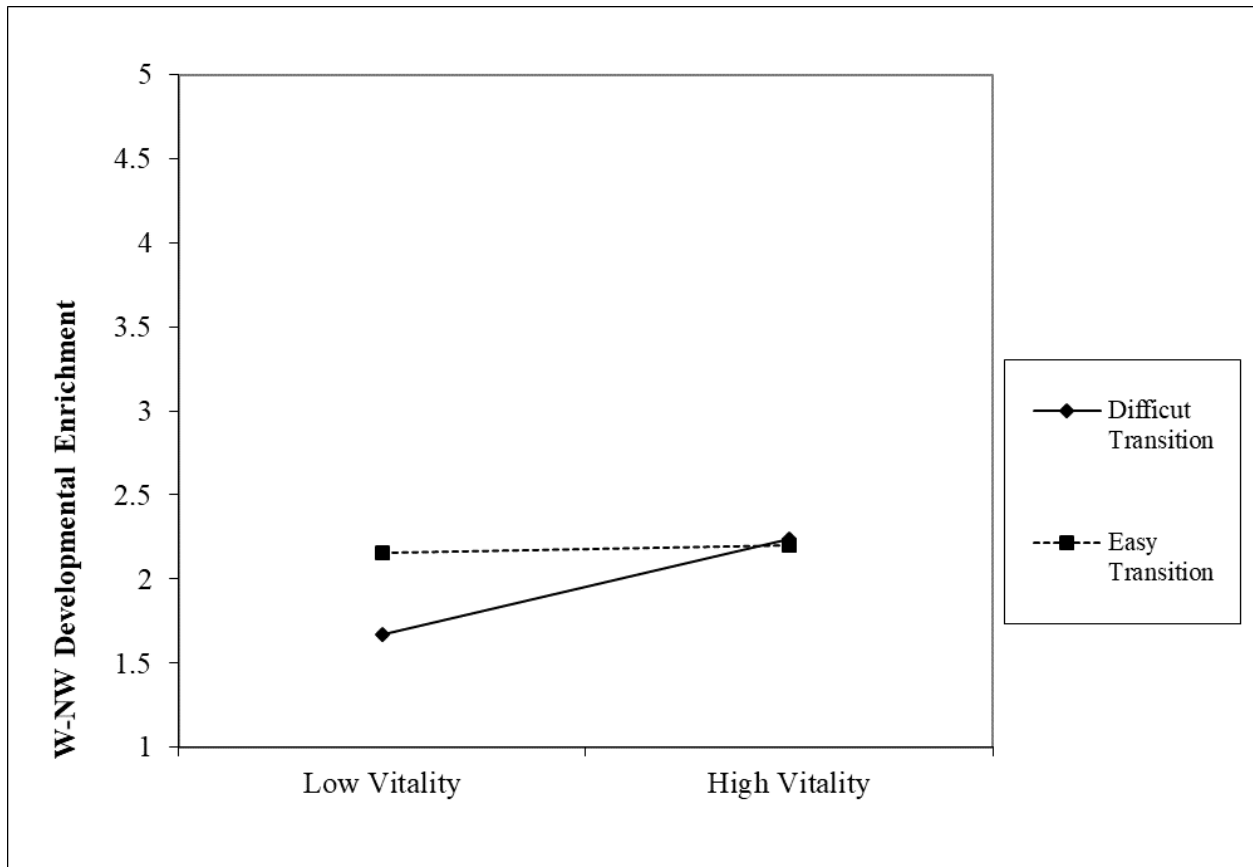
*The Moderating Effect of Cycling on Work Vitality for Work-to-Nonwork Capital Enrichment*





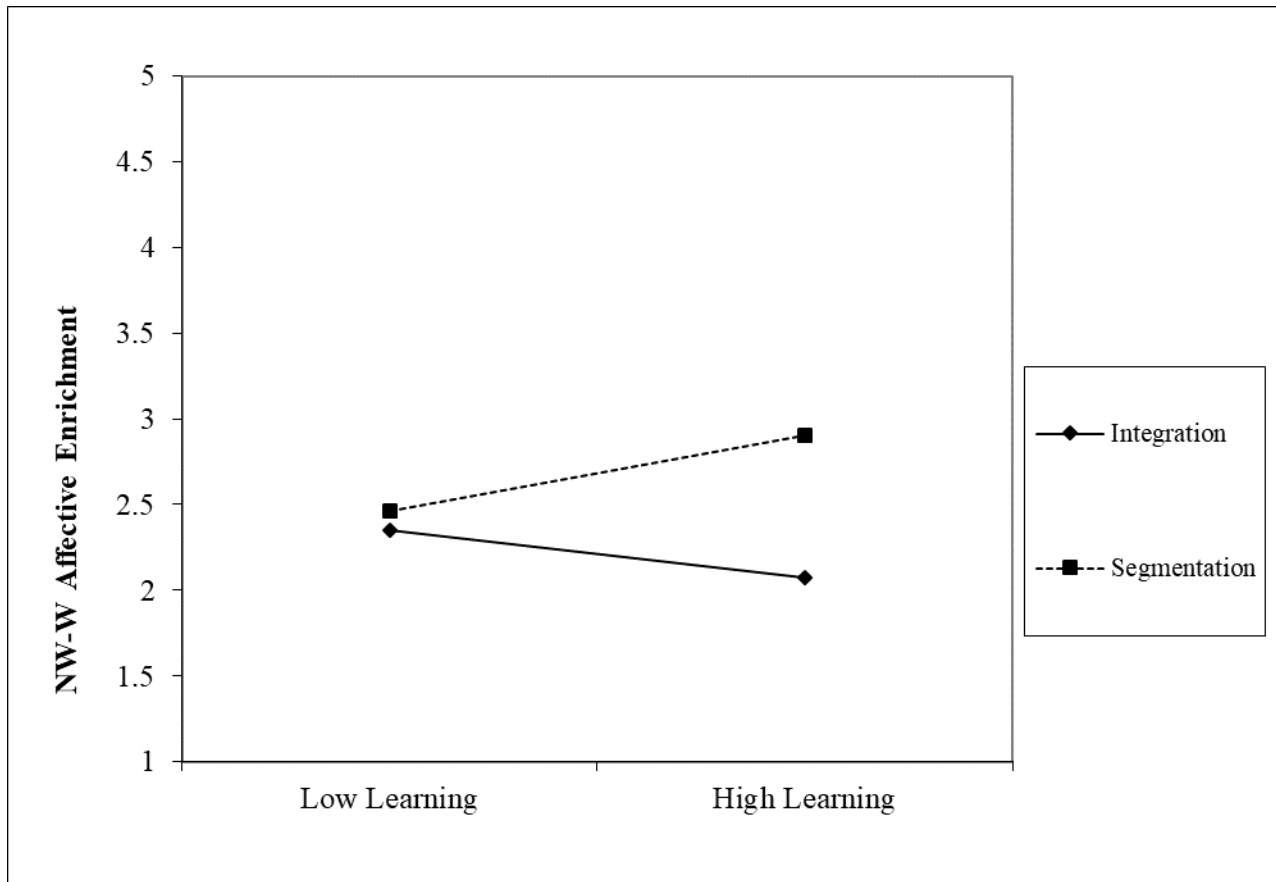
**Figure 2.3**

*The Moderating Effect of Ease of Transition on Work Vitality for Work-to-Nonwork Developmental Enrichment*



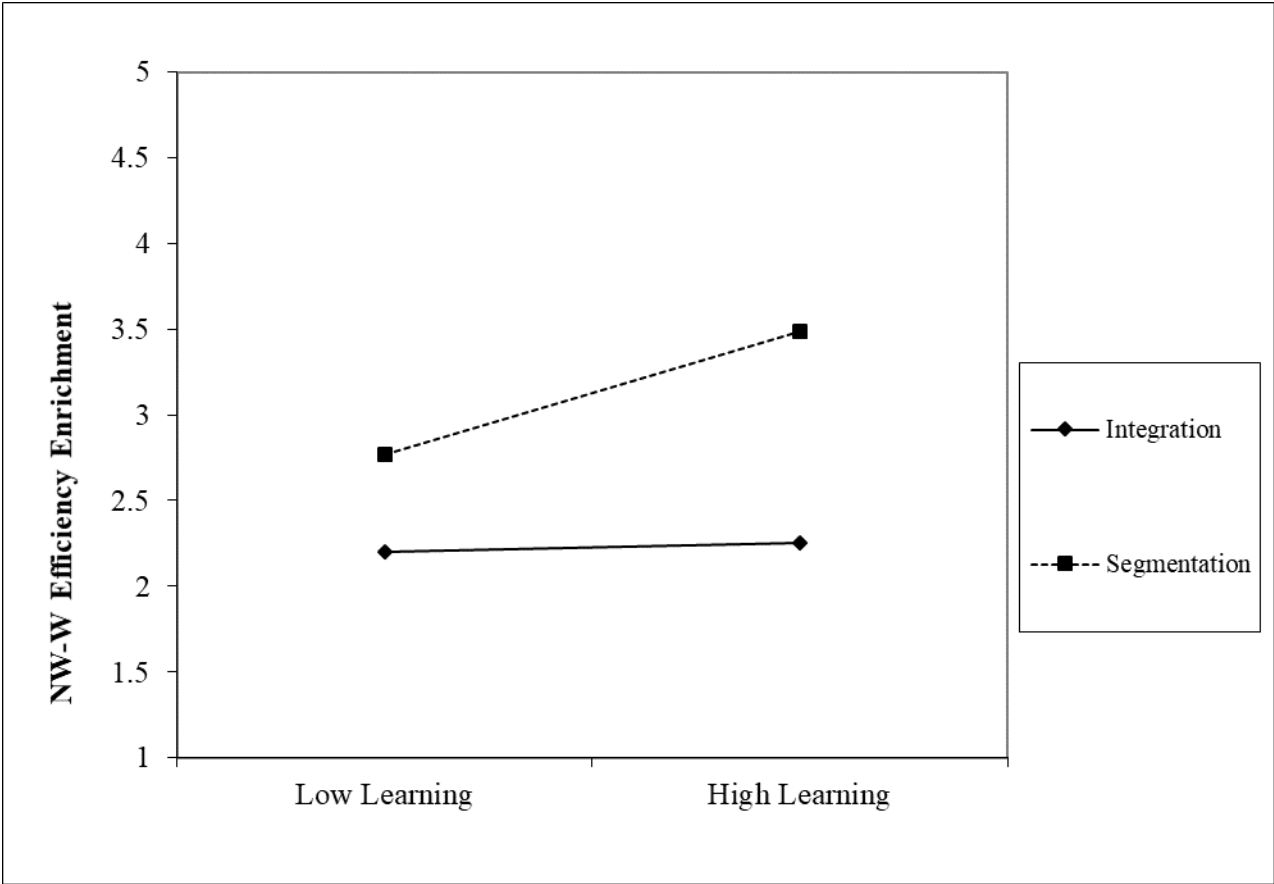
**Figure 2.4**

*The Moderating Effect of Segmentation on Nonwork Learning for Nonwork-to-Work Affective Enrichment*



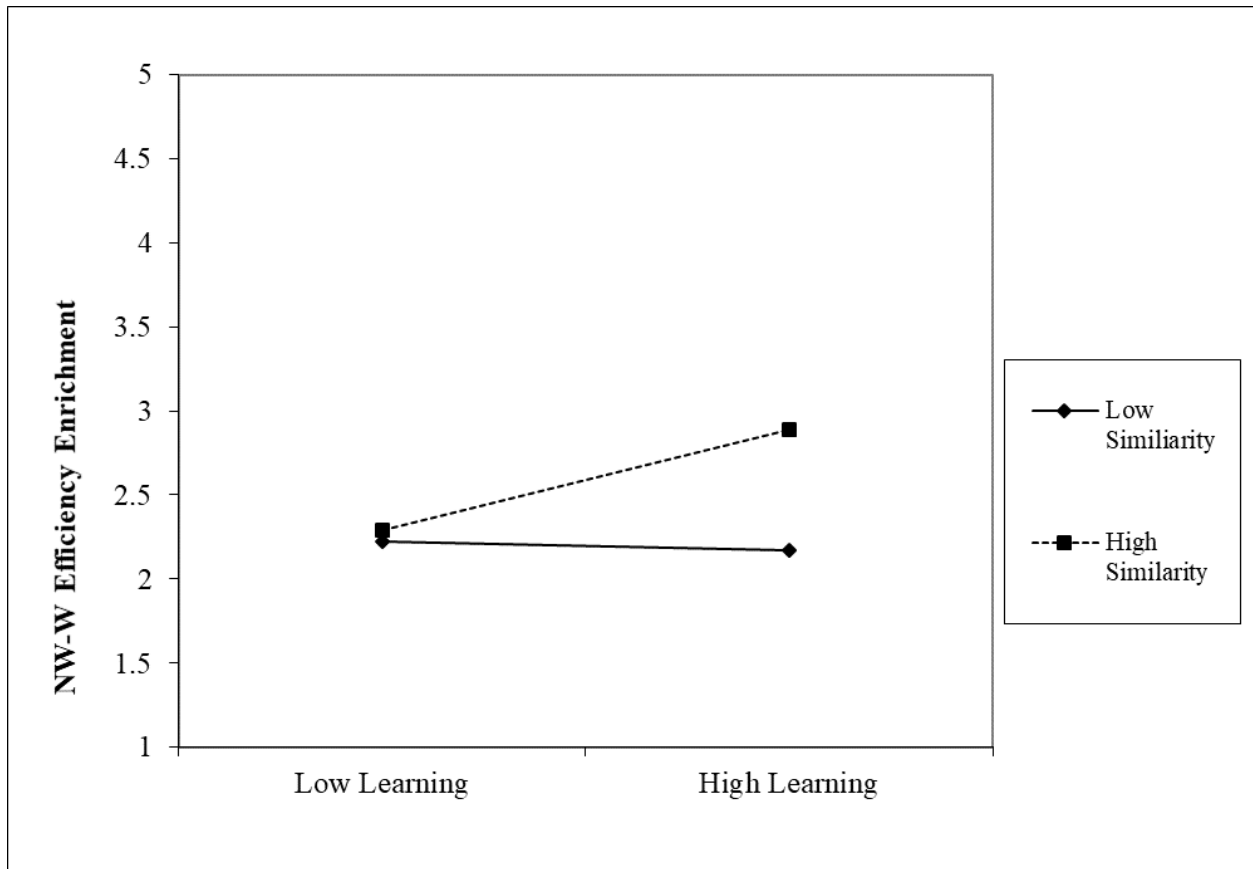
**Figure 2.5**

*The Moderating Effect of Segmentation on Nonwork Learning for Nonwork-to-Work Efficiency Enrichment*



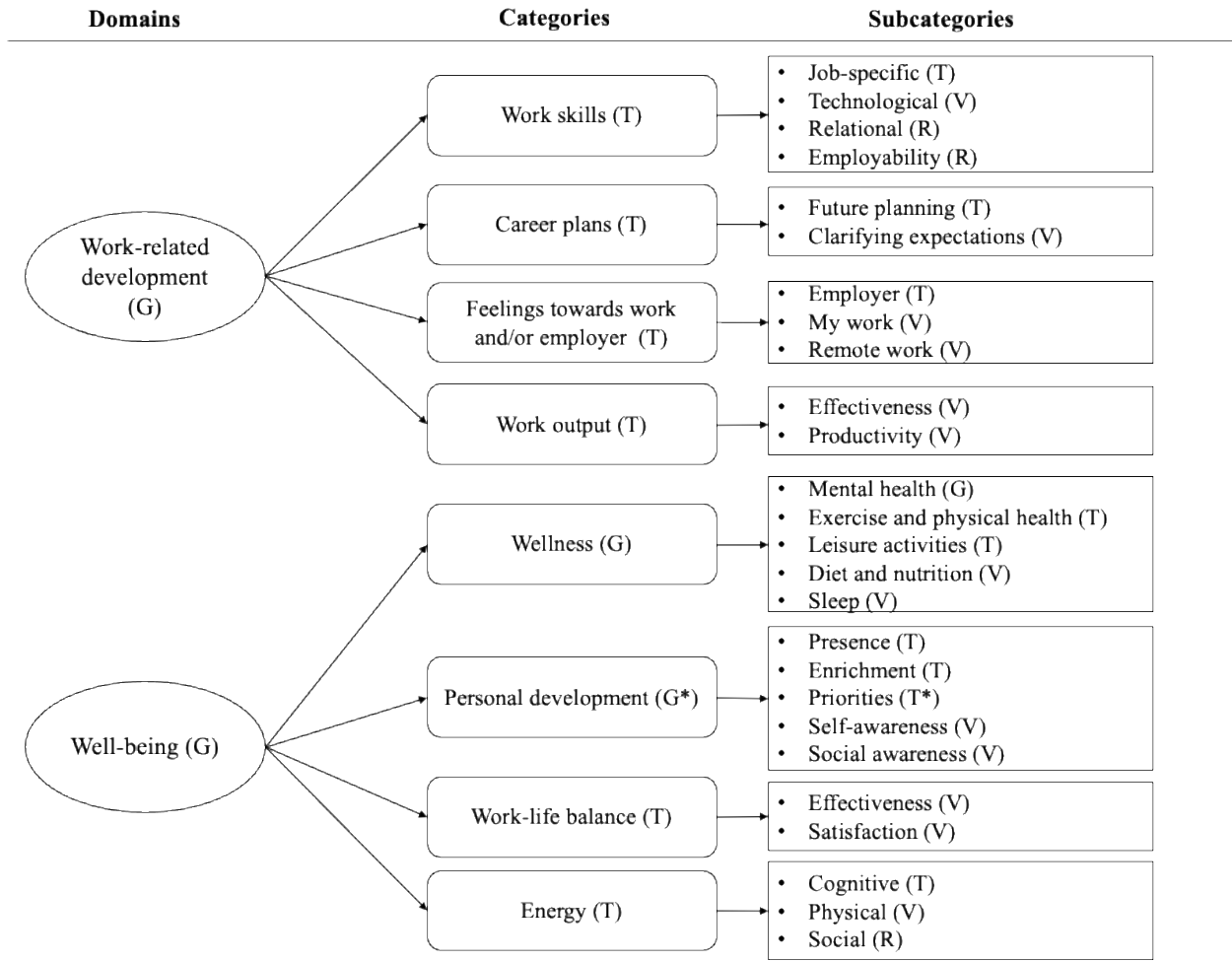
**Figure 2.6**

*The Moderating Effect of Role Congruency on Nonwork Learning for Nonwork-to-Work Efficiency Enrichment*



**Figure 3.1**

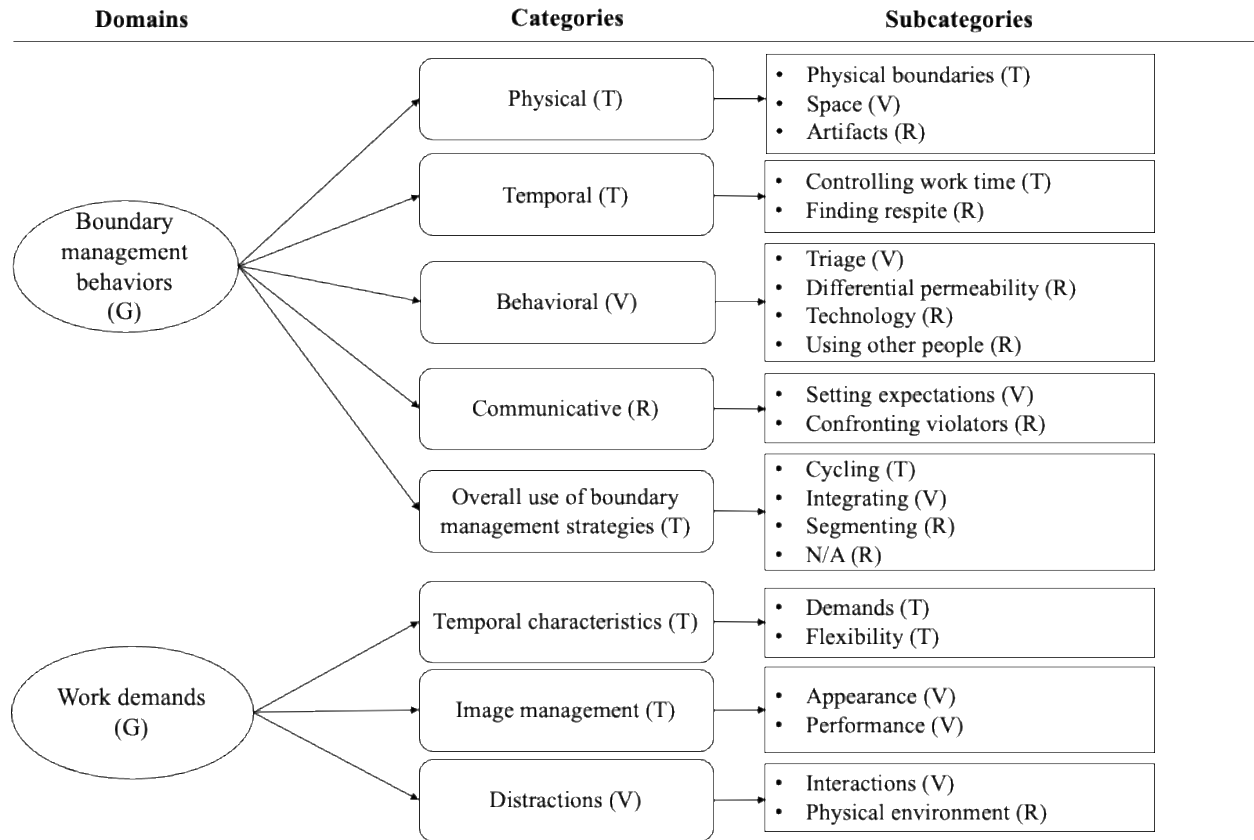
*Data Structure*



*Note.* Frequencies calculated on Sample 2,  $N = 27$ . G = general or 90-100% of participants; T = typical or 50-89% of participants; V = variant or 20-49% of participants; R = rare or 19% or less of participants. \* indicates frequencies calculated on both samples 1 and 2,  $N = 130$ , and represent the only two occurrences when Sample 1 demonstrated greater frequencies than Sample 2.

**Figure 3.1 (continued)**

*Data Structure*



*Note.* N/A subcategory for the overall use of boundary management strategies indicates that the interview did not reveal use of boundary management strategies (i.e., indeterminate).

## Appendix A: Essay 2 Measures

Participants answered scale items on a Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to agree (5).

### Work Thriving Learning

At work...

1. I find myself learning often
2. I continue to learn more as time goes by
3. I see myself continually improving
4. I am developing a lot as a person

### Work Thriving Vitality

At work...

1. I feel alive and vital
2. I have energy and spirit
3. I feel alert and awake
4. I am looking forward to each new day

### Nonwork Thriving Learning

In nonwork...

1. I find myself learning often
2. I continue to learn more as time goes by
3. I see myself continually improving
4. I am developing a lot as a person

### Nonwork Thriving Vitality

In nonwork...

1. I feel alive and vital
2. I have energy and spirit
3. I feel alert and awake
4. I am looking forward to each new day

### Integration/Segmentation

1. I don't think about work during personal time.
2. I keep work life separate from home life.
3. I do not let work issues creep into my personal life.
4. I leave work behind when it is time to stop working.

### Cycling

1. I tend to vary whether I keep work and nonwork separate or whether I blend them.
2. Sometimes I deal with work only at work and home only at home, but at other times, I blend them.
3. I switch between keeping my personal life separate from work and combining work and home.
4. At times I purposefully separate work from my personal life, but other times I purposefully mix them.

5. Sometimes I keep a firm boundary between work and home, whereas other times I let the boundary blur.
6. At times I allow work to interrupt home and home to interrupt work, and other times I am careful to keep them separate.
7. I vacillate between mixing work and home and isolating them.
8. I go back and forth between keeping work and home separate and combining work and home.
9. Sometimes, I enforce distinct boundaries between work and home and other times, I mix work and home.
10. As needed, I alternate between separating work and home and combining them.

### **Role Congruency**

1. My work tasks are similar to the activities I do in my personal life.
2. I require similar skills and abilities to be successful in my job and in my personal life.
3. The mental demands of my personal activities are similar to my work role.
4. The physical demands of my personal activities are like those of my work role.
5. The knowledge I use at work is similar to the knowledge I use at home.
6. There are a lot of similarities between what is expected of me at work and what is expected of me at home.
7. Overall, there is a lot of similarity between my work life and home life.

### **Ease of Transition from Work**

1. I am able to start and end work when I want in order to meet my personal life responsibilities
2. If the need arose, I could stop working early to attend to personal issues
3. If something came up in my personal life, it would be alright if I starting working late
4. While working, I can stop what I am doing to meet responsibilities related to my personal life

### **Ease of Transition from Nonwork**

1. If the need arose, I could work late without affecting my personal responsibilities
2. My personal life responsibilities would not prevent me from starting work early if the need arose
3. My personal life responsibilities would not prevent me from working an extra day in order to meet work responsibilities
4. From a personal life standpoint, there is no reason why I cannot rearrange my schedule to meet the demands of my work

### **Work-to-Nonwork Enrichment**

#### ***Work-to-Nonwork Developmental Enrichment***

My involvement in my work . . .

1. Helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better at nonwork roles.
2. Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me to be better at nonwork roles.
3. Helps me to acquire skills and this helps me to be better at nonwork roles.



### ***Work-to-Nonwork Affective Enrichment***

My involvement in my work . . .

1. Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better at nonwork roles.
2. Makes me feel happy and this helps me to be better at nonwork roles.
3. Makes me cheerful and this helps me to be better at nonwork roles.

### ***Work-to-Nonwork Capital Enrichment***

My involvement in my work . . .

1. Helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better at nonwork roles.
2. Provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me to be better at nonwork roles.
3. Provides me with a sense of success and this helps me to be better at nonwork roles.

## **Nonwork-to-Work Enrichment**

### ***Nonwork-to-Work Developmental Enrichment***

My involvement in my nonwork role(s) . . .

1. Helps me gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker.
2. Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker.
3. Helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker.

### ***Nonwork-to-Work Affective Enrichment***

My involvement in my nonwork role(s) . . .

1. Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker.
2. Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker.
3. Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker.

### ***Nonwork-to-Work Efficiency Enrichment***

My involvement in my nonwork role(s) . . .

1. Requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker.
2. Encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker.
3. Causes me to be more focused at work and this helps me be a better worker.

## **Work-to-Nonwork Time-Based Conflict**

1. My work keeps me from my personal activities more than I would like.
2. The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in personal responsibilities and activities.
3. I have to miss personal activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.

## **Nonwork-to-Work Conflict Time-Based Conflict**

1. The time I spend on personal activities often interferes with my work responsibilities.
2. The time I spend with people I know from outside of work often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.

3. I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on personal responsibilities.

**Sample Description Variables**

1. Gender
2. Race
3. Age
4. Education
5. Household members
6. Marital status
7. Parental status
  - a. Number and ages of children
  - b. Childcare arrangement
8. Employment
  - a. Industry
  - b. Job
  - c. Level in organization
  - d. Exempt/Nonexempt status
  - e. Organizational tenure
9. Household Income
10. Weekly activity hours
  - a. Paid employment
  - b. Providing care for others
  - c. Completing household chores
  - d. Leisure activities
  - e. Self-care)

## Appendix B: Open-Ended Questions for Sample 1 (Essay 3)

There are likely numerous challenges that you and your family might have experienced during the COVID-19 pandemic. But, there also may be positives or benefits you have experienced during this time such as greater sense of purpose, clearer priorities, greater recognition of strengths, improved coping, reduced stress, better relationships, deeper faith/spirituality, more quality family time, and/or more time for self. In this study, we are particularly interested in ANY positives or benefits that you might have experienced or continue to experience because of the adjusted work arrangements.

1. Thinking about the time period since the COVID-19 pandemic began and its associated experiences (e.g., changes related to work, family, social life, school, physical or spiritual activity, etc.), please describe ANY positives you have experienced as a result of the changes during this time that have benefitted your work.
2. Thinking about the time period since the COVID-19 pandemic and its associated experiences (e.g., changes related to work, family, school, social physical or spiritual activity, etc.), please describe ANY positives you have experienced that have benefitted your non-work life or people in your nonwork life (e.g., family, friendships, other personal relationships; well-being, physical or mental health *of family members* etc).
3. Thinking about the time period since the COVID-19 pandemic and its associated experiences (e.g., changes related to work, family, school, social physical or spiritual activity, etc.), please describe ANY positives you have experienced that have benefitted YOU (e.g., *your* well-being, physical or mental health, faith/spirituality, sense of purpose, etc.).
4. What new things have you learned as a result of the changes during this time?
5. In what ways have you been energized during this time?
6. In what ways have you grown or changed as a result of the changes during this time?
7. What people (coworkers, supervisor, spouse/partner, family members, and/or friends) have supported you during your/your household's adjusted work, school, and personal arrangements? What supportive actions did they engage in? In what ways were they helpful to you?
8. How have you successfully overcome work challenges and/or accomplished your work goals during shelter-in-place changes?
9. How have you successfully overcome nonwork challenges and/or accomplished your nonwork goals during shelter-in-place changes?
10. Are there any other benefits you've experienced during the COVID pandemic that were not mentioned above? Please explain.

### **Appendix C: Interview Protocol for Sample 2 (Essay 3)**

1. How old are you? Gender: \_\_\_ Race:
2. On average, how many hours per week do you work?
3. Did you begin working from home because of COVID-19?
4. Are you still working at home exclusively because of the pandemic or have you returned to working in a company location?
5. Do you live with at least one other person? \_\_If so, how many? \_\_ Specify relationships.
6. Have you, a member of your family, or a member of your household been diagnosed with COVID-19?
7. Who else lives in your household?
8. Tell me about your job before the pandemic. What do you do for a living?
9. What changes, because of COVID-19, have you experienced at home that have impacted your work?
10. Besides changing where you work (at home), in what other ways has your work situation changed as a result of COVID-19?
11. Thinking since the pandemic began, has your relationship with others at WORK changed as a result of your working from home during the pandemic?
12. How do you feel about your company/organization as a whole based on how the COVID-19 pandemic has been handled?
13. What did they do to help you or other employees during the pandemic?
14. Has your relationship with others at HOME changed as a result of your working from home during the pandemic?
15. Think about your job stress [may have to summarize what has already been mentioned] before the pandemic and compare it to now. What has been more stressful (then or now)? What has been less stressful? Why?
16. Thinking about your work-life balance before the pandemic and compare it to now. When did you have more work-life balance (then or now)? Why?
17. During this period, can you think about a specific time when you felt like things were going really well - that your work and nonwork life were in balance. What was going on at that time?
18. Think about your work and your initial choice of this job or career. Have your career plans changed as a result of the pandemic?
19. What new things have you learned as a result of the changes during this time?
20. What have you found gives you energy during working from home?
21. Has there been anything else we have not already talked about that helped you during this time of adapting and working from home during a pandemic?