The Work–Home Interface for Saudi Women in Academia: The Role of Motivational Drivers and Evening Recovery

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by

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Declaration

I hereby certify that this material, which I now submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of Doctor of Philosophy is entirely my own work, and that I have exercised reasonable care to ensure that the work is original, and does not to the best of my knowledge breach any law of copyright, and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.

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List of Abbreviations

BC	The Bias-Corrected and Accelerated Bootstrap	**MPlus**	Muthén and Muthén, (version 81998-2017) statistical package
CMB	Common Method Bias	**MSEM**	Meditated Structural Equation Modelling
CMV	Common Method Variance	**MMSEM**	Moderation Mediated Structural Equation Modelling Analysis.
CL	Cross-Lagged Modelling	**OCB**	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
CI	Confidence Intervals	**OCBI**	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Towards the Individual
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis	**OCBO**	Organizational Citizenship Behaviours Towards the Organization
COR	Conservation of Resources Theory	**PNU**	Princess Nourah University
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis	**SDT**	Self Determination Theory
FIML	Full information Maximum Likelihood Estimation	**SEM**	Structural Equation Modelling
HWC	Home-Work Conflict	**SPSS**	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
HWE	Home-Work Enrichment	**SWING**	Survey Work–home Interaction
IRP	In-Role Performance	**WHC**	Work-Home Conflict
ICC1	Intra Class Corrletions	**WHE**	Work-Home Enrichment
LGM	Latent Growth Modelling	**WHCE**	Work-Home Conflict and Enrichment
MWMS	Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale	**WH-R Model**	Work-Home Resources Model
MLM	Multi-Level Modelling.		

Abstract

Maha Alsuwailem

The Work–Home Interface for Saudi Women in Academia: The Role of Motivational Drivers and Evening Recovery

The aim of this study is to examine the role of women's work motivational drivers on work-home conflict (WHC) and work-home enrichment (WHE). It further considers the moderating role of psychological detachment from work during recovery periods between one work day and the next and how it impacts on the mediating role of WHC and WHE on both in-role and extra-role performance. Drawing on self-determination theory and the conservation of resources theory, the study employs a quantitative lagged study to examine these relationships over a period of three days, with data collected from 358 Saudi women working in academia. Moderated mediated structural equation modelling analysis are conducted. As hypothesised, results show that intrinsic motivation is significantly and positively related to work-home and home-work enrichment, whereas extrinsic motivation is only significantly and positively related to home-work conflict. In regards to the moderation effects, the relationship between intrinsic motivation and recovery interaction is supported for homework enrichment only but in the opposite direction to what was predicted. That is, detaching from work, weakens the path between intrinsic motivation and HWE. In line with predictions, work-home enrichment is significantly and positively related to citizenship behaviour towards both individuals and organizations, while home-work enrichment is significantly related to citizenship behaviour towards individuals only. Home-work conflict is significantly and negatively related to citizenship behaviour toward the organization. However, contrary to our hypotheses, no significant relationships are found between enrichment and conflict work-home domains with in-role performance. This research contributes to a deeper understanding of what nurtures WHE and WHC, adds a new motivational perspective for work-life research and addresses a shortcoming of work-life research in considering a culturally distinctive population. Future research avenues are also discussed

Keywords: Work-Home Enrichment (WHE); Home-Work Enrichment (HWE); Work-Home Conflict (WHC); Home-Work Conflict (HWC); in-role performance; Self Determination Theory (SDT); Conservation of Resources Theory; Occupational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs)

Chapter One

Introduction and Overview

1.1 Overview

Employees worldwide struggle with the demands of their modern working lives (Reid, 2015) and the need to balance their work and home demands (Kossek and Lee, 2017; Liao *et al.,* 2019; French *et al.,* 2018). Work-life conflict is related to an array of important outcome variables such as career progression (Liao *et al.*, 2019), and work, family, and life satisfaction (e.g., Aryee, Fields and Luk, 1999). Several meta-analyses of these findings have been reported (Kossek and Ozeki, 1998; Ford, Heinen and Langkamer, 2007; Amstad *et al.,* 2011; Liao *et al.,*2019). Of particular relevance to the present research is the recognition of how work-life matters and women's careers are inextricably intertwined – demands associated with managing work-family conflict may interrupt career progression for women (Hirayama and Fernando, 2018; Singh *et al.,* 2018; Hardy *et al.,* 2018). For women, despite decades of equality legislation in Western contexts, they continue to lag men when it comes to career outcomes and this is quite pronounced for women in academia (Grada *et al.,* 2015). Despite a global interest in the work-life interface and its interlinkage with women's careers, both in academia and in industry, we understand little about its developmental origins from a motivational perspective.

Furthermore, the vast majority of research on work-life interface issues is centred on westernised populations, where women, though yet to achieve parity with men in the world of work, participate in significant numbers in workplaces and this is largely accepted as the norm. Little is known about Arabic women's experiences of the work-life interface. This is important for two reasons. Firstly, we can learn much about the challenges of the development of work-life interface from cultures where the concept of a 'career' is somewhat nascent for women and where women are only beginning to confront such challenges. Secondly, as will be set out in Chapter two, women in Arabic cultures face particular demands in their home lives that differ from those experienced in western cultures. Therefore, this study sets out to provide a more nuanced

understanding on how different motives for work interact to predict Work-Home Conflict (WHC), which represents role conflicts between work and home domains, and Work-Home Enrichment (WHE), which represents a positive effect of one domain on the other. In addressing this matter empirically, this study aims to clarify and to improve our understanding of the process of the work-home interface.

This introductory chapter provides an overview of this study. First, this chapter provides the significance of this study with regard to the literature about the work-home interface. It begins with a short discussion of the definitions of key concepts relevant to this study. Next, this chapter considers the study's aims and objectives and demonstrates how the fulfilment of these objectives contributes to the existing literature on the work and home interface. Then, the chapter presents the overarching research questions driving this study. Finally, this chapter gives an overview of the structure of this study.

1.2 Significance of the Study

Working women find themselves pulled in several directions. There is work at home, work at work and many tasks in between. They juggle through sleepless nights and early mornings, tiptoeing around the house and ensure that the Lego and Barbie houses do not fall over while, at the same time, trying to participate in an important board meeting. Such experiences have typically been explored through a work-life conflict lens (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985) but, in more recent times, the potential for both domains to enrich each other has come into sharper focus (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). This opening scenario nicely sums up the life of a working woman – the challenges, which women face when balancing the demands of both work and home, and how, potentially, this can affect their success at work. Most employees are challenged in combining work and family roles. Although both interfere with each other and make it more difficult to fulfil work and family demands, these roles can provide also, self-esteem, self-fulfilment and happiness (Eikhof *et al.,* 2007; Gayathri and Karthikeyan, 2016).

From a theoretical standpoint, and until now, previous work-home studies have drawn significantly on models based on Role Theory (Montgomery *et al.,* 2003). These models

are underpinned principally by the notion that, in fulfilling certain roles, employees are constrained by their access to limited resources, typically, time and energy. In addition, either the demands or stresses of one domain can intrude upon and degrade the resources available to the other. This results in work-home conflict and strain (Frone, Russell and Cooper, 1992; Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). However, the idea that these two domains are competitively engaged in an ongoing struggle for resources has elicited criticism from several quarters. Some (e.g., Barnett and Hyde, 2001) hold the view that, in fact, the two may be complementary. This idea is echoed in Barnett and Hyde's (2001) and Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) arguments that the connections between both work and family domains are advantageous. The necessary overlap between the two in areas such as social support and self-esteem, can serve to either support or give a fillip to both and provide a consequential degree of mutual enrichment, fostering improvements to the general quality of life (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; Wayne *et al.,* 2007). WHC is defined as the incompatibility induced to life domains due to scarce resources (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Carlson, Kacmar and Williams, 2000). However, WHE is a situation where the spillover of resources between work and life can lead to benefit one or the other domain (Carlson *et al.,* 2006; Greenhaus and Powell, 2006).

Both kinds of work-home interaction may have positive and negative consequences in the areas of a person's work, their family and personal well-being (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Allen *et al.,* 2000; Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; McNall, Nicklin and Masuda, 2010; Amstad *et al.,* 2011; Hauser, Weisweiler and Frey, 2018). The interplay between various spheres of life reflects an essential aspect of everyday life for individuals and their organisations. Previous researchers' studies demonstrate that these positive and negative work-life interactions carry different consequences for the organisation and individual (Kempen *et al.,* 2019). Accordingly, organisations and their employees should strive to promote WHE and should avoid or minimise WHC. Therefore, in formulating organisation work policies and in designing any suitable interventions for employees, it is essential to be cognisant of the antecedents of both WHC and WHE (Hauser *et al.,* 2018).

This study aims to examine the motivational drivers of Work-Home Conflict and Enrichment (WHCE), which surprisingly, have been given little attention in previous research. Drawing on self-determination theory (SDT; Ryan and Deci, 2000), which has been used to identify several distinct types of motivation, the potential for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to shape enrichment and conflict experiences is explored. Researchers working on SDT within the area of organisational behaviour have argued for a clear difference between types of motivations within SDT since they highlight clearly that there is a negative relationship between dimensions of intrinsic motivation and dimensions of extrinsic motivation (Ryan and Deci, 2000; Gagné and Deci, 2005; Vansteenkiste *et al.,* 2007; Deci and Ryan, 2008; Kuvass *et al.,* 2017). When individuals are driven by intrinsic motivation, the consequences and correlations are strongly positive between the quality of their work-lives, well-being and overall behaviour in contrast to individuals who are driven by extrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

Over the span of three decades, the findings of similar previous studies have demonstrated a very strong relationship between motivational regulations and different outcomes and antecedents (Howard, Gagné and Bureau 2017). It is evident that an autonomous style of regulation has always had advantages over a controlled style of regulation and improves work-life well-being and individuals' performance (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Richer *et al.,* 2002). Furthermore, a growing body of research findings indicates that work resources, associated with intrinsic motivation such as autonomy, can be beneficial to employees' happiness, well-being, job satisfaction and home-related outcomes (Chen, Powell and Cui*,* 2014). Surprisingly, researchers have not embraced resources associated with different types of motivations for work as a key strategy in facilitating WHE rather than WHC (Roche and Harr, 2019). Most researchers have emphasised the usefulness of the self-determined motivation concept as an effective tool to understanding human behaviour across different life settings (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci and Ryan, 1991; Vallerand, 1997; Senécal, Vallerand and Guay, 2001). Accordingly, the exploration of the work and home interplay model through the lens of motivation as set out by SDT can bring interesting and valuable insights to the WHCE field.

Additionally, while WHC is equally important for both men and women, there are marked differences between the genders in terms of the intensity and sources of WHC (Boz, Martínez-Corts and Munduate, 2016; Hirayama and Fernando, 2018). The subject of women and work-home balance is certainly neither a new topic nor one that has not been fully investigated in the literature in the Western world (Allen and Martin, 2017). However, WHC literature has been emphasising the need to include different cultures since they can present valuable information on how, in different cultures, individuals cope with work-life issues and how they handle non-work responsibilities (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999; Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 2002; Casper *et al.,* 2007; Sprung and Jex, 2017). The reason for this stress arises from the fact that the work-family interface is affected by wider social, political and economic contexts in the same way that work-family issues are affected by cultural norms and values, public policy and gender-role ideology (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999).

Saudi Arabia has high cultural homogeneity based on tribal and Islamic affiliations and a unique and complex culture (Alkahtani, Dawson and Lock, 2015). Saudi women have been confronted with challenges in their upbringing and education that have affected their participation in the workforce (Yamani, 2000; Hamdan, 2005; Coleman, 2011; Al Alhareth, Al Dighrir and Al Alhareth, 2015; Gelard and Abdi, 2016). Although the empowerment of women in Saudi Arabia is increasing and emphasised within the Saudi Vision 2030 (Saudi Vision 2030, 2016), women are still confronted with cultural and societal demands that drive conflict between their career advancement and private lives (Al-Hosis, Mersal and Keshk, 2014). Within this unique non-western context, it is important to examine Saudi women's work and home spillover experiences. More specifically, the examination of the WHCE experiences in a particularly demanding context for women may give further insights into the barriers experienced by women to achieving WHE.

This study aims to use work-home, work-family and work-life in an interchangeable manner within the WHC and WHE perspectives between work and outside of work. As these constructs are broadly representative of employees' intersection between their work and lives outside of work, those with caring responsibilities and those without. This is appropriate and allows the author, also, to be faithful to the original terms used

in previous reported studies (Michel, Clarck and Jaramilo 2011; Kossek and Lee, 2017; Allen and Martin, 2017).

1.3 Research Aims and Contributions

Through work and organisational studies, it is now well-established that there are both positive and negative work-life experiences and interactions (O'Driscoll, Brough and Kalliath, 2006; ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012). However, with the prevailing literature giving clear evidence of gaps, there are several questions that remain both acute and meaningful which this thesis attempts to address in the coming sections (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999; Lambert, 1999; Grzywacz and Marks, 2000; Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 2002; Spector *et al.,* 2004; Ilies *et al.,* 2007; Greenhaus, 2008; ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012; Akanji *et al.* 2015; Allen and Martin, 2017). The next subsections discuss this study's aim of addressing these gaps and, thereby, contributing to current literature about the work and home interface.

1.3.1 Predominance of a Conflict-Oriented View of the Work-Life Dichotomy

Decades after Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) seminal paper, authors of the literature on conflict between work and family roles suggest that a conflict-oriented viewpoint still predominates (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Barnett, 1998; Edwards and Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; Akanji, Mordi and Ojo, 2015). In this literature, the argument that conflict is rooted in a competition for limited resources tends to hold sway (Barnett, 1998). However, of late, a more positively oriented viewpoint of the interaction between the two domains has gained traction (e.g., Bailyn, 1993), with a focus on the positive results of performing multiple roles (e.g., Marks and MacDermid, 1996; Barnett and Hyde, 2001). This has led to a growing call from work-life scholars for WHE that allows for a more extensive exploration of both sides of the debate (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999; Grzywacz and Marks, 2000).

There is a large body of research where the authors emphasise the negative effects of multiple roles on work and life well-being. However, little work has focused on the benefits for individuals of simultaneous participation in these roles (Daniel and Sonnentag, 2014; Gayathri and Karthikeyan, 2016). Therefore, when compared to

conflict, enrichment is relatively underdeveloped, both from a conceptual and an empirical standpoint (Frone 2003; Akanji *et al.,* 2015; Roche and Haar, 2019). Consequently, it is useful to explore the positive dimensions of value and, more especially, for employees who can attain greater benefits by placing themselves in the best possible position for both roles (Frone *et al.* 1997; Barnett, 1998; Edwards and Rothbard, 2000; Grzywacz and Bass, 2003.) Accordingly, this study contributes to the WHE literature by extending its development from both theoretical and empirical standpoints. It also provides further evidence that, although both roles of work and home can interfere with each other, it emphasises that work can still provide self-esteem, self-fulfilment, and happiness to individuals (Eikhof *et al.,* 2007; Gayathri and Karthikeyan, 2016). Thus, it stresses the need to shift the focus from the conflict to the enrichment perspective of work and home interaction (Lapierre *et al.,* 2018; Akanji *et al.,* 2015).

1.3.2 The Causal Process of Conflict and Enrichment

A growing number of studies have sought to examine potential antecedents of WHC. The primary antecedents and/or predictors of WHC arise within the workplace, where in those with the largest correlations tend to be job demands, work stresses, work social support and work characteristics (as demonstrated, for example, in Geurts *et al.,* 2003; Voydanoff, 2004; Byron, 2005; Butler *et al.,* 2005; Ford *et al.,* 2007; Michel *et al.,* 2011). Furthermore, the primary antecedents for HWC are generated from family role stresses and family social support (Grzywacz and Marks, 2000; Frone, 2003; Byron 2005; Ford *et al.,* 2007; Michel *et al.,* 2011).

In the case of the WHE predictors, several researchers have advanced organisational and job characteristics that support and enhance WHE and home support as predictors for WHE (Wayne *et al.,* 2006; Sabil and Marican ,2011). Accordingly, job characteristics can be regarded as important in that they influence employee health and well-being (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). The big five and other closely related personality traits and perceptions of leader–member exchange were advanced as antecedents to WHE (Litano *et al.,* 2016; Michel, Clark, and Jaramillo, 2011). Moreover, a recent meta- analysis review by Lapierre *et al.,* (2018) found that those implying more positive emotions, within a particular domain (e.g., work–family involvement, work engagement) or across

domains (e.g., positive affectivity; Michel, Clark and Jaramillo, 2011) have the strongest ties to enrichment.

Therefore, the empirical side shows that the findings regarding predictors for both conflicting and enriching processes between work and life domains are, indeed, environmental characteristics such as job stresses, workplace, social support, family-friendly organisational policies and personal factors, including personality (Hauser, Weisweiler and Frey, 2018). Although extensive research has been carried out on individuals experiencing conflict and enrichment, such approaches, however, have not addressed these experiences from a motivation angle. This is surprising given that motives to work, or the nature of motivation, may significantly impact on how work-life processes unfold and certainly on the potential for conflict or enrichment to prevail. The Self-Determination Theory of (SDT) is one of few psychological theories that address the issue of autonomous motivation and its self-regulation (Gagne and Deci, 2005) while discussing also its consequences for general functioning, well-being and individuals' health (Deci, Koestner and Ryan, 1999). To the best of the author's knowledge, previous studies of the work and life interface have not been investigated through the role of different motivational drivers for work.

Accordingly, this study contributes theoretically and empirically to the WHCE literature in the following ways. First, this study's findings offer a novel understanding of how for employees, intrinsic versus extrinsic-dominant motivations represent different drivers of the enriching and conflicting processes. On the one hand, these are evidenced by the intrinsic-dominant motivations being related to WHE and HWE experiences. On the other hand, extrinsic-dominant motivations relate to HWC experience. This means that, when employees engage in work for its own sake and out of enjoyment, the interest and satisfaction felt from performing the activity itself is different to the act of performing the same activity to achieve either a positive experience or to avoid negative outcomes (Gagne and Deci, 2005). Indeed, this research highlights that *why* people do what they do at work matters for positive and negative spillover between work and home domains. In short, it explains such experiences through a motivational lens and adds to our understanding of how these domains compete or complement each other.

This study makes an important theoretical contribution in shifting the emphasis away from characteristics in the respective home and work domains towards a consideration of the individual's relationship with the work itself. In doing so, this study also expands the Work-Home Resources Model (WH-R) by ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) by adding a motivational component that identifies people's relationship with work itself as a key personal resource that underpins the WHCE processes.

Beyond providing key theoretical contributions to the WHCE field, this study's original findings extend the effect of the self-determined motivation concept and emphasise the usefulness of the self-determined motivation concept as an effective tool in understanding human behaviour across different life settings (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci and Ryan, 1991; Vallerand, 1997; Senécal, Vallerand and Guay, 2001). This study extends this idea within this research context as it provides further empirical evidence for the universality and cross-cultural existence of the most central assumptions of SDT in that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are related both separately and negatively (Gagné and Deci, 2005; Vansteenkiste *et al.,* 2007; Deci and Ryan, 2008; Kuvass *et al.,* 2017). Additionally, this study underscores the cross-cultural existence on the outcomes of these two types of motivations, namely, that, when individuals are driven by intrinsic motivations, the consequences and correlations are strongly positive in terms of the quality of their work-life wellbeing and overall behaviours. On the other hand, these consequences are contrary to the consequences of individuals who are driven by extrinsic motivations (Howard *et al.,* 2017). Furthermore, this study's findings are consistent, also, with Vansteenkiste *et al.*'s (2007) and Kuvass *et al.* (2017) findings that intrinsic motivations relate to positive outcomes whereas extrinsic motivations are associated with either negatively related or unrelated outcomes. As evident from this study's findings, intrinsic motivations were found to be related to both WHE and HWE and extrinsic motivations were related to HWC but unrelated to WHC.

Furthermore, by drawing conclusions about causality from this research results, this study goes also beyond these studies. This is because it examined casual links between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and performance outcomes through WHCE playing a mediation effect between these motivations and performance outcomes. This means

that, when compared with Kuvass *et al.*'s (2017) cross-sectional study findings, this study 's causality findings are drawn from a longitudinal design study.

1.3.3 The Role of Recovery in the Work-Home Interface

In relation to the literature on the work-home interface, researchers have tended to consider the issue of periods of respite spent between these two domains. This can impact either on these experiences or can serve as a partial reason for observed fluctuations in the supply of resources (Fritz and Sonnentag, 2005; Sonnentag, Binnewies and Mojza, 2008; Sonnentag, Mojza and Binnewies, 2008; Molino *et al.* 2015; Hamilton Skurak *et al.,* 2018). Accordingly, these periods of respite – or opportunities for recovery after work – can be regarded as causally related to employees' experiences on the following day. The examination of evening recovery is important within work-home interface research since it lies on the intersection of work and home domains. It contributes towards reducing an individual's strain by providing the opportunity to recover lost resources (Sonnentag and Natter, 2004; Sonnentag and Bayer, 2005; Fritz and Sonnentag, 2006; Halbesleben, Wheeler and Paustian-Underdahl, 2013). Within this research context, the manner in which Saudi women spend their time at home after a working day is a complex system driven not only by individual choice but also by strong social and family demands and obligations. Therefore, as largely assumed in the recovery literature, the family and home domains may not offer an environment conducive to recovery. It is obvious that, when family demands are greater, an individual's psychological detachment from work is comparatively easy. However, recovery is uncertain due to significant family responsibilities (Sonnentag, Venz and Casper, 2017).

In addition to this study examining motivations as a predictor of WHCE, it examines the moderating effect of psychological detachment from work in the evening on positive and negative spillover experiences. In doing so, this study's findings emphasise that, when intrinsically motivated for work, the positive spillover from home may carry over to work. This requires employees to refrain from full detachment mentally from their work when returning home. Accordingly, this study's findings contribute to the empirical research on work-home based recovery literature through extending the beneficial effects of reduced psychological detachment from work (Fritz and Sonnentag,

2005; Daniel and Sonnentag, 2014) and demonstrating that this is contrary to the commonplace view that impaired wellbeing results from a lack of psychological detachment from work at home (Sonnentag and Bayer, 2005).

1.3.4 Work-Home Interface and Work Performance Outcomes

Scholars have sought to better understand the relationship between both directions of WHC and WHE and a variety of important outcomes. Among all the consequences of WHCE, performance comes as one that is highly desirable for organisations. Contemporary job performance models go beyond occupation-specific aspects and general performance factors to include more specific factors such as counterproductive behaviours, task performance and Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) (Mercado and Dilchert, 2017). The manner in which employees exert effort in their roles and their extra-role requirements are the chief determinants of any organisation's superior performance (Shaw *et al.,* 2009). Traditionally, job performance is restricted to task performance. This highlights only those behaviours that contribute to an organisation's technical core and to the core requirements of the job (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). However, it has been argued that more attention should be paid to cooperative acts and pro-social behaviours which go beyond the task behaviour rubric (Elamin and Tlaiss, 2015). Organ (1988) describes this kind of behaviour as Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) which he defined as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation" (1988, p. 4). According to Ocampo *et al.* (2018), this concept is relatively developed in the business world and clearly supports the fact that the behaviour and well-being of its employees affect greatly any organisation's performance and effectiveness. However, few research studies have investigated the influence of the work-family interface on OCB (Mercado and Dilchert, 2017).

Consequently, this study's findings extend the literature about the consequences of WHCE in examining OCBs outcomes for the first time through a motivational lens. It contributes to our understanding of how employees who experience WHE and HWE are more likely to participate in OCB practices with their colleagues and their organisation. On the other hand, it contributes to our understanding of how employees, who

experience HWC, are less likely to participate in organisational OCB activities. Therefore, this study contributes to our understanding of the role of both enrichment and conflict process as mechanisms between motivation and performance, where previous research has largely substantiated a direct relationship between motivation and performance. The findings in this study suggest that spillover processes between work and home domains and the experiences that individuals have as a result, rest between motivation and performance and have important implications for performance in the work domain.

1.3.5 Measuring Conflict and Enrichment Concurrently

Researchers have rarely incorporated conflict and enrichment experiences into one model, thus failing to paint a 'fuller picture' of the work and home interaction (Gareis *et al.,* 2009). Although similar previous studies have recognised that conflict and enrichment experiences represent 'orthogonal constructs' or, in other words, uncorrelated constructs that individuals may encounter at the same time (van Steenbergen*,* Kluwer and Karney ,2014), few studies have incorporated them simultaneously (e.g., van Steenbergen *et al.,* 2014; Chen *et al.,* 2014; Hauser, Weisweiler and Frey, 2018; Kempen *et al.,* 2019). Studies tend to investigate them separately, for instance, WHC (Fiksenbaum, 2014; Winefield, Boyd and Winefield, 2014; Barnes 2016); and WHE (Daniel and Sonnentag, 2014; Gayathri and Karthikeyan, 2016; Bhave and Lefter, 2018). However, some scholars have noted that conflict and enrichment between work and family are not inherently 'parallel' concepts; they can include different underlying mechanisms and predict rather different consequences (Frone, 2003; Witt and Carlson, 2006). Moreover, in combining conflict and enrichment aspects within a single model, Edwards and Rothbard (2000) noted that this could only be applicable to certain individuals depending on their current situation and resources. Hence, more recently, researchers have attempted to combine in their models the principles of work-family conflict with the concept of multiple-roles. Furthermore, neither of these positive nor negative work-home interface experiences have been examined together as an outcome of a motivational process.

Thus, within the parameters of the chosen conceptual model, this study set out to examine conflict and enrichment concurrently. It is important to explore, for example, the alternation between conflicting and enriching processes or the dominance of either

process by investigating how much work-home conflicts versus work-home-enrichment occur (ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012). Hence, the study findings raise questions about the emphasis placed on WHC in the existing research literature (Akanji *et al.*, 2015; Gayathri and Karthikeyan, 2016; Lapierre *et al.*, 2018). More precisely, there is a significant need to include WHE measures in work-home interface studies since, as indicated from this study, both WHE and HWE contribute incremental explanatory powers over WHC alone. Firstly, the women participants in this study experienced greater enrichment over conflict. Secondly, both directions of the enrichment process were related to encouraging OCBs behaviours whereas HWC sought to diminish such behaviours.

1.3.6 Work Life Interface Research: Cultural Oversights

Women in different countries have achieved different levels of equality for their roles. This depends on differences in labour market policies, national welfare regimes and each country's different cultural aspects (Lyonette, Crompton and Wall, 2007). From reviewing the literature on the work-life interface, one notable gap is firmly identified. Namely**,** to what extent different cultural and ethnic groups cope with work-life issues and how they handle non-work responsibilities (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999; Spector *et al.*, 2007), echoing calls by many scholars (e.g., Aryee *et al.,* 1999; Hill *et al.,* 2004; Luk and Shaffer, 2005; Spector *et al.*, 2007; Choi, 2008; Coffey *et al.,* 2009; Mortazavi *et al.,* 2009; Chen, Powell and Cui, 2014; O'Brien *et al.,* 2014*;* Au and Ahmed, 2015; Siu *et al.,* 2015*;* Bhowon, 2016*;* Qing and Zhou, 2017*;* Tang, Huang and Wang, 2017*;* Choi *et al.,* 2018) who point to the emerging importance of cultural and cross-national differences in understanding the work-life interface. Role theory has been seen to be of value in analysing various forms of social systems (Biddle, 1986). It says that every role, which a person is expected to fulfil, comprises of a set of duties, norms, expectations, behaviours and rights (Michalos, 2014). These roles are based on the observation that an individual's behaviour is context-specific and that each behave predictably (Michalos, 2014). However, feminist literature has been extremely critical of this theory (Connell, 1983; 1987).

According to the first critic, certain social ideologies have been verified falsely via role theory into concrete realities. This has resulted in them being defined as roles (Jackson, 1998). Further, it is argued that, within each role, there are associated normative behavioural expectations. These indicate the real behaviours of most individuals and give the theory a sense of universality. For example, it says that the mother's role is assumed to be a pre-packaged set of attitudes and behaviours which indicate that most women socialise into these behaviours by taking their own mother/caretaker as models. When scrutinising this role as it applies to Saudi women, the normative package of roles and behaviours for Saudi women are adhered to by society and are indeed context dependent. This means that Saudi women should play roles that are established by past generations of women. This has no relevance to the roles of mothers and wives in the current generation, as they enter the workforce and have responsibilities from work and home domains to juggle with (Almaki *et al.,* 2016). The women in Saudi society are expected to preserve a family's time-valued traditions and are expected to uphold family values. These values lead to social progress for the woman through the adoption of the role of a reputable daughter, sister, wife and mother. In turn, this makes for a stronger society (Bhatnagar and Jain, 2014; Jaleel, Ismail and Christopher, 2016).

Role theory also promotes a segmented and static description of an individual's activity (Jackson, 1998). This is contrary to the conflicting demands of 'traditional' women's work, which requires overlapping and multifaceted occupations since, alongside household duties, women strive to undertake part- or full-time work outside the home. For women generally, this can be applied to family and workplace domains. However, Saudi woman have several and relatively varied roles which involve family and also extended circles of relatives (Evason, 2019). The social and legal positions of women are also different in several ways and, consequently, influences the way in which Saudi women are viewed in comparison to Western women (Omair, 2017). The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia's laws have significantly promoted and accentuated this narrative about the ideal role of women in the context of KSA. This means that, while women in Western societies can resist these expectations and obligations, it is considerably more challenging for Saudi women to do so since family is the central pillar of society. Therefore, in KSA society, women are expected to take the lead on fulfilling societal and

family duties (Alshanbri, Khalfan and Maqsood, 2014; AlHosis *et al.,* 2014; Almaki *et al.,* 2016). Also, Saudi women are expected to put their families' well-being first before their personal interests (Joseph, 2018).

The complexities of Saudi women's multiple roles clearly present challenges. While the present study adopts a different lens, the value of role theory in assessing Saudi women's role in society should not be overlooked (Biddle, 2013). Saudi society is evolving continuously (Reuters, 2017) and consequently, the new roles of Saudi women with respect to their work-life interface are of greater importance within the context of role accumulation and related research. Accordingly, this research critically addresses this gap in the literature and offers fruitful insights regarding Saudi women's working experiences by demonstrating that, despite their multiple and demanding roles, they experience enrichment over conflict. This means that, within this novel context, Saudi women's new multiple roles in the workforce contribute to the existing studies concerning role accumulation related research. Most importantly, the findings are consistent with the proponents of the positive psychology movement (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Cameron *et al.,* 2003) which focuses on the individual functioning optimally and utilizing their strengths rather than focussing on their poor performance and weaknesses (Luthans, 2002).

1.3.7 Conflict and Enrichment Evolvement with Passage of Time

There is an expressed and on-going need for longitudinal work-family studies (Ilies, Nahrgang and Morgeson, 2007; Greenhaus, 2008; ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012; Allen and Martin, 2017). Inherently, work and family phenomena are relatively dynamic. Over recent years, an increasing number of researchers have used more than one point in time to collect data for their studies (Allen and Martin, 2017), with at least three repeated measures as emphasised by Polyhart and Vandenberg (2010). Longitudinal data can be used effectively to establish the temporal relationship. In addition, its advantages have been demonstrated over cross-sectional designs; these can be impacted negatively by spurious mood effects and other similar threats (Allen and Martin, 2017). In addition, by using a longer framework, these kinds of studies can assist in discovering the gains and losses in structural resources (Those, which act as assets,

can be used more than once) which influence work and home outcomes in the long run (ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012). However, there are a number of constraints associated with applying longitudinal work-family research, bearing in mind the importance of integrating instant evening recovery within this research model. Accordingly, and within this study, the experiences of positive and negative spillover in work and home are examined in a three-day, longitudinal study that meets this aim. In so doing, this study contributes methodologically to the work-home interface literature by examining in depth the work-home interplay model for an understudied population in a longitudinal design.

1.4 Summary of Research Questions

In summary, the objective of this study is to provide a novel understanding of the effect and role played by intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for work in influencing the experience of WHCE processes, and how these acts as enablers and barriers to performance-related outcomes at work. Guided by this purpose, this study seeks to tease out empirically the work home interface process in a novel context. This study investigates how different work motives interact to predict WHCE experiences for women in Saudi Arabia's non-western culture, which imposes challenging home and societal demands on women. Therefore, drawing on Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and Conservation of Resources Theory (COR) as a theoretical framework, the study tests motivational roots of enrichment and conflict experiences. In addition, this study employs a quantitative longitudinal study to examine these relationships over a three-day period and investigates the mediating role of WHCE between motivation preferences and both in-role and extra-role performance.

Adopting this research model, this study aims to test the first day's (Day 1) women 's intrinsic versus extrinsic motivations to work and their effects on the subsequent day's (Day 2) work-home domains of enrichment and conflict experiences. Further, it examines the effect of (Day 2) work-home domains of enrichment and conflict experiences on the following day (Day 3) in-role and extra-role performance outcomes. Consequently, both work-home domains of enrichment and conflict mediate the relationship between intrinsic versus extrinsic motivations on (Day 1) on in-role and extra-role performance on (Day 3). The study takes account, also, of the impact of

evening recovery (psychological detachment from work) that women receive at home after work as a moderating effect on the relationship between different types of motivations (intrinsic and extrinsic) for work on (Day 1) and work and life positive and negative spillover experiences (enrichment and conflict) on (Day 2). This study's cohort is Saudi all-female employees (academic faculty and administrative staff) working at Princess Nourah University based in Saudi Arabia.

1.5 Thesis Structure and Outline

This thesis is organised into six chapters. This introduction chapter has provided an overview of the arguments and contributions of this study with a focus on the significance on its theoretical and methodological terms.

Chapter 2 presents the unique context of this study. It provides a macro view of Saudi Arabia in terms of its economic power, the system of government, its cultural values and, in this context, the role of religion. These are presented in this chapter to highlight important factors that shape women's position in Saudi Arabian society. This is followed by a discussion of Saudi women's education, professional participation in work and societal and family responsibilities and examines, more particularly, the significant changes that have occurred in recent years.

Chapter 3 sets out in detail the definitions and theoretical background of the key concepts relevant to this study. Next, this chapter assesses critically the literature review of previous studies about the work and home interface. Then, it identifies the gaps in the current literature and examines the framework used to inform the research design. Finally, this chapter presents the theoretical development of this study's hypotheses.

Chapter 4 presents the philosophical foundations of the methodology selected for this study. Next, it provides the development and design structure of the questionnaire. It then describes the administration and compliance of the questionnaire. Finally, it presents the data analysis strategy.

Chapter 5 sets out the study findings. First, it sets out the review of the descriptive statistics. Second, it explains the preparation via confirmatory factor analysis of a pre-analysis strategy for data analysis. Third, it explains the development of moderated

mediation structural equation modelling that was undertaken for testing the hypotheses.

Chapter 6 discusses this study's findings and contributions and places them in the context of the existing literature. It then explores further the practical implications of this study; discusses this study's limitations; and proposes potential avenues for future research.

Chapter Two

Research Context: Saudi Arabia

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present the unique context of this study. This chapter provides a macro view of Saudi Arabia in terms of its economic power, the system of government, its cultural values and, in this context, the role of religion. These are presented in this chapter to highlight important factors that shape women's position in Saudi Arabian society. Next, the chapter discusses Saudi women's education, professional participation in work and societal and family responsibilities and, more specifically, examines the significant changes in recent years.

2.2 The Economic Context of Saudi Arabia

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) is an Arab state situated in western Asia and ruled by the Saudi Royal family (Al-Rasheed, 2010). KSA has a population of 35.34 million people (World Bank, 2021). Since 1950, Saudi Arabia's population has increased rapidly with an average annual rate of population change of 2.32% between 2010 and 2015 and with a male to female ratio of 130:100 (United Nations, 2015). In addition, more than half of Saudi Arabia's population, or 61% to be exact, is aged 25-years-old and below. This makes Saudi Arabia a country with a young population (United Nations, 2015).

In 1938, the Anglo-Persian Oil Company discovered oil and petroleum in the eastern province of Saudi Arabia (Wezeman and Wezeman, 2015). At that time, oil was in high demand because of World War I and had become one of the vital resources for future stability. Since then, Saudi Arabia has become the world's leading oil and petroleum exporter because it has the second-largest oil reserve in the world (US Energy Information Administration, 2014). Saudi Arabia's oil and petroleum sector accounts for major Saudi export earnings and governmental revenues (Alkhathlan, Gately and Javid, 2014). This makes it a product-focused country which is highly dependent upon oil production (Alshehry and Belloumi, 2015). However, the economy's dependence on

external factors does affect its growth (Cole, 2015) and this has been a major threat to Saudi Arabia.

Saudi Arabia is a country where the Government exerts considerable control over all economic activities (Alsenaidy and Ahmad, 2012). As early as the 1970s, the Saudi Arabian Government had devised a plan to reduce its economic dependence on oil (Al Mallakh and el Mallakh, 2015) to deal with future uncertainty (Alhowaish, 2015). Saudi Arabia has now reduced its dependency on a single product to focus on growth and sustainability. The Saudi economy has grown tremendously and, in 2005, KSA joined the World Trade Organisation to engage in economic diversification and foreign investment. This initiative benefitted Saudi Arabia not only in diversifying the sectors in which it was involved but also it increased the development of human resources (Harvie and Pahlavani, 2007). Several authors (Alanezi, 2012; Qureshi, 2014; Ahmed, 2016) argue that due to changes in market structure and globalisation, Saudi Arabia has realised the importance of a knowledge-based economy. This allows the Government to set new hiring policies that aim to replace foreigners with local Saudis since, currently, expatriates make up most employees working in the Saudi Arabian private sector (Showail, McLean Parks and Smith, 2013).

In 2016, the Saudi Arabian Government published the Saudi Vision 2030 with the aim of driving substantial economic and social changes (Saudi Vision 2030, 2016). The Saudi Vision 2030's core priority is the development of a climate that opens investment prospects; extends the economic base; and provides employment for all Saudis. This can be accomplished by exploiting Saudi Arabia's special position and potential to recruit the best talent and to increase foreign investment. It is particularly important to note that the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is on the verge of a significant economic transition that will unleash its benefits to its maximum extent (Saudi Vision 2030, 2016). While there have been shifts in the country's economic activity, it has been challenging to make changes to cultural and religious issues. These are outlined in the next section.

2.3 Saudi Arabia and Culture

Saudi Arabia is a socially and religiously conservative country (Metz, 1993; Fnais *et al.,* 2013). It has a high cultural homogeneity based on tribal and Islamic affiliations and, therefore, has a unique and complex culture (Alkahtani *et al.,* 2015). Family values are strongly adhered to and tribes and families are the backbones of Saudi Arabia's social structure. Obeidat *et al.* (2012) noted that Saudi Arabians were greatly concerned about their clan, heritage and extended family. Furthermore, from an Arab perspective**,** the family is the centre of everything, and the father makes the decisions for other family members. Consequently, male members are responsible for providing for their family members including women. Honour is the most important aspect of life and must be protected at any cost (Obeidat *et al.,* 2012; Alumaran, Bella and Chen, 2015). Religion is the way of life in the society.

One effective way to assess a country's cultural values is through Hofstede's (1985) cultural dimensions. Prior to Hofstede's work, culture had often been taken to be a single variable and no successful attempts were made to unpackage it into various separate dimensions. After Hofstede's enriched cultural dimensions framework, the findings of studies explained the effect of culture on organisational setting (Minkov and Hofstede, 2012). Therefore, Hofstede's framework is valuable for cross-cultural research since the feasibility of Hofstede's cultural framework has been proven by its extensive use in numerous management studies. It was found also that when Hofstede's framework is utilised in a cross-cultural perspective, there is a higher chance of obtaining more substantial results (Soares, Farhangmehr and Shoham, 2007).

Hofstede's (1985) work is significant to both academic and non-academic studies and the cultural dimensions, which he identified, are: power distance; avoidance of uncertainty; individualism; masculinity; and long-term orientation. In a very general sense, these dimensions are defined as:

- Power distance is the degree to which people accept that the society's power is unequally distributed in public and/ or private institutions (This is called also central authority.).

- Avoidance of uncertainty is the extent to which vagueness and indistinctness lead people to favour views and philosophies that provide certainty and transparency.

- Individualism refers to a social structure where its members are concerned only for their individual and immediate family's welfare. This is contrary to collectivism where the members of the society anticipate that other people, like their relatives, the entire clan or other in-group, will assist in their lives' endeavours, for which the price is one's indisputable loyalty.

- Masculinity is when the society is more inclined to heroism, assertiveness, material success and accomplishments. This is as opposed to femininity which is when the society is more inclined to establish a relationship, be reserved, be compassionate to the needy, and the life's condition.

- Long-term orientation refers to how the society values its historical accounts as it lives in the present and moves into the future. Societies, which score low in this dimension, are tied to their long-established traditions and norms and place doubts on social transformations, On the other hand, societies, which score high on this dimension, deal with social changes in a more practical way and put the emphasis on progressive learning as a move towards the future.

While many studies, conducted in the last three decades, were motivated by Hofstede's research findings, some researchers debate his work's originality and applicability (for example, Yeh, 1988; McSweeney, 2002; Fang, 2003; Jones, 2007). One of the main criticisms, related to Hofstede's work, is that raised by McSweeney (2002) in that the surveys, used in his work, are not the most appropriate way to examine cultural differences. McSweeney (2002) argues also, that the five cultural dimensions, identified by Hofstede's work, are insufficient for adequately evaluating cultural factors. In comparing the strengths and weaknesses of Hofstede's work, Jones (2007) highlighted several of the points that McSweeney (2002) mentioned. Despite these critiques, its relevance is demonstrated by the enormous number of publications over the last 40 years that refer to Hofstede's work of and that use his approach (Eringa *et al.,* 2015). The cultural implications of Hofstede's work remain as the most inclusive and important

analysis of cultural variations (Holden, 2004). Moreover, Kirkman, Lowe and Gibson's (2006) publication of the comprehensive overview of implementations and replications of Hofstede's research align with Smith and Bond's (1999, p. 56) conclusion that large-scale studies, published since Hofstede's (1980) work, have 'sustained and amplified Hofstede's conclusions rather than contradicted them'. Accordingly, this makes Hofstede's cultural values clearly relevant for additional cross-cultural research (Kirkman *et al.,* 2006). Therefore, Hofstede's work remains one of the robust frameworks for cross-cultural research. This is due to its remarkably well-defined structure (Gong *et al.,* 2007) not to mention its inclusion of the Arab world (including Saudi Arabia) which was excluded (Shi and Wang, 2011) from other similar cross-cultural measurements such as the GLOBE Model (House *et al.,* 2004). Table 2.1 below reveals Hofstede's cultural dimensions rankings for Saudi Arabia and is a reflection on the characteristics of the society and impact on organisational structure, the management and women.

Table 2.1: Hofstede's Dimension on the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions	KSA Scores	KSA Characteristics Based on Cultural Dimension Score	Impact on Organisational Structure, Management and Women	References
Power Distance	Saudi Arabia's ranking on power distance is 95; this makes it high in power distance.	Inequality is tolerable. Vertical hierarchies. Rigid/authoritative structure. Centralised decisions. Respect for authority. Male-dominated society. Discrimination in society is based on gender, social status, employment, ties and religion.	Due to the unequal distribution of power, the hierarchical separation between men and women was more acceptable and the organisational structure is itself centralised. The population accepts leaders separating themselves from the group and expects them to do so. That state is not simply subverted to the people but recognised as their cultural heritage by society.	Cassell and Blake, (2012); Alumaran, Bella and Chen, (2015); Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010); Elamin (2012); Elamin and Tlaiss (2015).
Individualism/ Collectivism	Saudi Arabia's individualism ranking of 38; this characterises Saudi society as being highly collectivist.	Focused on traditions. Collaborative. Works for intrinsic rewards. Long-term commitment to the member 'group', be that a family, extended family or extended relationships. Loyalty is central and over-rides most other societal rules and regulations. The society fosters strong relationships where everyone takes responsibility for fellow members of their group.	The high score on collectivism benefits management in term of loyalty and commitment. Employees working in companies are highly loyal to their job and organisation. The relationship between employer and employee is highly appreciated and the organisational structure strongly encourages ethical and moral values. Women cannot put their personal interests and goals ahead of those of the social group. Women should behave according to the group's interest and goals.	Cassell and Blake, (2012); Alumaran *et al.,* (2015); Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010); Elamin and Tlaiss (2015).

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions	KSA Scores	KSA Characteristics Based on Cultural Dimension Score	Impact on Organisational Structure, Management and Women	References
Masculinity / Femininity	Saudi Arabia's ranking on masculinity is 60, making it a highly masculine society	Males are born to work and support the family. Competition and assertiveness.	A reflection of the degree to which organisations place particular emphasis on competition and assertiveness versus interpersonal sensitivity and relationship concerns. Due to the glass ceiling and stereotyping, the organisational structure discourages the hiring of women into leadership positions because it is believed that they will leave their jobs at any time because of domestic/familial responsibilities. This is because women in Saudi Arabia are supposed to care for other family members and fulfil their domestic responsibilities regardless of career development	Cassell and Blake, (2012); Alumaran *et al.,* (2015).
Uncertainty Avoidance	Saudi Arabia's ranking on uncertainty avoidance is 80; this makes it high in the avoidance of uncertainty.	Rigid codes of conduct. Needs and expects structure. Fear of change. Innovation may be resisted. Security is an important element in individual motivation. Low level of tolerance for uncertainty.	This score shows the low tolerance of society for uncertainty. Strict rules, law, policies and regulations are adopted and implemented to reduce or minimise this degree of insecurity. The main goal of this is to monitor everything and avoid the unexpected. Intolerable behaviour is avoided to maintain an ethical environment. Innovation is restricted. Job security is provided, which motivates individuals to work and focus on punctuality and precision.	Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010); Cassell and Blake, (2012); Alumaran *et al.,* (2015).

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions	KSA Scores	KSA Characteristics Based on Cultural Dimension Score	Impact on Organisational Structure, Management and Women	References
Long-term Orientation Tradition	Saudi Arabia's ranking on this dimension is 36	Following and respecting time-honoured traditions	Employees show normative thinking and they respect traditions, consequently gaining results quickly. Moreover, cultural change is discouraged, which hinders an organisation from development and improvement.	Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010); Cassell and Blake, (2012); Alumaran *et al.,* (2015).
		Social changes are distrusted.		
		Normative thinking	It affects organisational structure and the majority of companies follow the hierarchical culture, which includes controlling subordinates because of normative beliefs.	
		Living with in-laws is normal.		
		Concerned with social and status obligations.	Short-term oriented societies foster virtues related to the past and present such as national pride, respect for tradition, preservation of "face" and fulfilling social obligations.	
		Respect for circumstances		

Table 2.1 provides the Saudi Arabia's rankings on Hofstede's cultural dimensions and how these rankings reflect on Saudi organisational structure, the management and women. Given the high scores of the cultural dimensions on power distance, avoidance of uncertainty, masculinity and collectivism, Saudi Arabia can be described as a society that is most likely to follow a system which groups its national citizens into social levels. Viewing this from an organisational perspective, subordinates tend to be highly dependent on their superiors for decision and policy making. This is because they believe that power is concentrated in a centralised decision structure and, hence, they follow what is provided for them (Rice, 2003; Obeidat *et al.,* 2012; Alhirz and Sajeev, 2015). Hofstede (1985) held that a high amount of power distance plus avoidance of uncertainty creates the perception of the organisation as a "pyramid of people", as is the case of Saudi Arabia. Such a "pyramid" exhibits hierarchical bureaucracy and this is showcased in all government sectors and establishments in terms of their governance and structure.

Moreover, Hofstede's work can be used as the basis to improve our understanding of Saudi Arabia's culture. Saudi Arabia is a masculine society and Saudis tend to "work to live" (Hofstede, 2001). Here, masculine refers to the society's tendency to work for outputs and performance (Herbig and Dunphy, 1998). Triandis (1995) stated that a masculine society tends to be assertive, tough and achievement-driven where achievement is measured in terms of wealth and recognition and with a high value placed on materialism. Finally, Saudi Arabia is a collectivist society where considerable meaning is placed on loyalty to family, religion and tradition (Hill *et al.,* 1998). Despite many Saudis being educated in the West, changes do not penetrate easily into society since they are loyal to their tradition and to the strong Islamic beliefs that resist Western influences (Robertson *et al.,* 2001; Rice, 2003). In addition, because of its collectivistic nature, there is a strong likelihood that Saudis will align their opinions with their community or family views on matters (Srite and Karahanna, 2006).

Hofstede's (1980) cultural framework was found to be the most appropriate cultural framework for crossover research (Westman, 2005). All of Hofstede's dimensions are relevant to some degree for work and home crossover research but the most significant are the *masculinity/feminism* dimension and the *individualism/collectivism* dimension. Westman (2005) argued that, to understand work and life crossover, it is important to consider the community and the culture to which the family belongs along with a deeper understanding

of women's position in that culture. According to Triandis (1995), when compared to couples in individualistic cultures, couples in a collectivist culture tend to have a common objective. On the one hand, in collectivist societies, couples choose to identify themselves according to the group's, rather than to the individual's norms, goals and needs. On the other hand, people in individualistic societies are more interrelated and emphasise their own goals and choices (Triandis, 1995). In Saudi Arabia, women leaders struggle in dealing with familial and societal obligations (AlDoubi, 2014; Almutairi, 2016). In this society, Saudi women's primary responsibility is to attend to their home duties (homemaking, parenting, and so forth) (Cousins and Tang, 2004). While both men and women can be actively employed, women bear the responsibility for maintaining the work-life equilibrium and any disruption to family life is immediately blamed on the woman (AlDoubi, 2014). Hence, women are left to handle work-life balance. Saudi women are bounded also by the social responsibilities of tending to both nuclear and extended families. This is because it is the "most important in-group" (Hofstede, 1994) in a collectivist society and, hence, taking care of parents is a must for them (Triandis, 1995). Moreover, working Saudi women are expected to take care of their families before themselves as "personal happiness comes second to collectivist ideals" (Abdullah, 1996). This leads to 'parental overload' and conflict between work and life duties (Lan Li and Roberta, 2001; Aryee, Srinivas and Tan, 2005).

In terms of masculinity and feminism, Saudi Arabia exhibits a "culture [that] stresses stereotypical gender behaviour" (Basabe *et al.,* 2002) and, hence, achieving gender equality is extremely challenging (Bjerke, 1999). The Saudi higher scores on collectivism, combined with masculinity and power distance, in may reinforce the view that women should serve their families and it is more difficult for them to have their own goals. As this power imbalance is seen as a norm, which is aligned with Islam and Arab customs, women are placed in a challenging situation and they struggle in society (Ahmed, 1998; El-Azhary, 2003; Metcalfe, 2007, 2008; Al-Kharouf an, 2008; Omair, 2008; Elamin and Omair, 2010; Syed, 2010; Burke and El-Kot, 2011; Metcalfe, 2011; Karam and Afiouni, 2014).

2.4 Saudi Arabia and the Religion of Islam

Saudi Arabia is a country deeply rooted in Islam. Islam is the world's second-largest religion and it is based on the revelation revised by the last prophet Muhammad (P.B.U.H) in the 7th century (Rajkhan, 2014). Saudi Arabia is a purely Islamic-based state (Al Alhareth *et al.,* 2015) and it is governed by a monarchy that implements Islamic laws strictly (Della Dora, 2016). The country's culture is greatly shaped by Islam's sacred law (Shar'ia) and, hence, its social norms are also in accordance with Islam. This makes it difficult to differentiate between Islamic principles and Arabic customs (Delong-Bas, 2004; Metcalfe, 2011; AlGassim, Barry and McPhail, 2012; Hein, Aljughaiman and Grigorenko, 2015). All activities, which include political, economic, legal and personal activities, follow the Shar'ia laws (Cassell and Blake, 2012; Alumaran *et al.,* 2015; Elamin and Tlaiss, 2015).

Strict policies and social norms have been formulated that are misaligned with Islam and these have had an undesirable impact on Saudi women's well-being and health (Al-Rasheed 2013). One way to illustrate this negative misinterpretation is the concepts of male guardianship (called patriarchy) and the notion of gender segregation. The concept of male guardianship has long been one of the strongly held norms of Saudi Arabia's Islamic women (Hamdan 2005). It dictates that Saudi women's actions should be approved by male members of the family (such as the husband, father or brother) (Al Alhareth *et al.,* 2015), regardless of their age as mandated by the law (Harris, 2014). According to Saudi Arabian traditions, men are the protectors of women and, therefore, a woman's legal guardian or mahram is firstly her father and then later her husband when she marries. However, there are certain cases in which a woman may not have a living father or husband to be her mahram and, in this case, her eldest male relative on her father's side or her next of kin becomes her guardian. It is important to note that this system of patriarchy in Saudi Arabia was used to cultivate women's needs for men to conduct their civil, government, educational, social and other activities in the Kingdom (Metcalfe, 2007, 2008; Al-Kharouf and Weir, 2008; Omair, 2008; Elamin and Omair, 2010; Syed, 2010; Burke and El-Kot, 2011; Metcalfe, 2011; Karam and Afiouni, 2014; Thompson, 2015). Moreover, the notion of gender segregation, which was the projecting feature of Saudi Arabian culture, means that men and women work separately with a minimum of encounters between them. Consequently, this limits women from several aspects of the public sphere.

Before demonstrating the impact of Islamic religious practices on Saudi women, one significant aspect must be highlighted first. This is the rise of Islamic feminism. Feminism is the social notion of balancing the influence of men and women in various aspects of life (such as economic, social and political aspects) so that both genders coexist equally (Hurley *et al.*, 2008). Islamic feminism has the added feature that the advancement of women must be in accordance with rather than in conflict with Islamic beliefs (Ganapathy-Coleman, 2017). In recent years, studies of Islamic feminism have presented replacement interpretations of Islamic teachings in the Holy Qur'an and Hadith that better support gender equality (Mernissi, 2001; Roald, 2001; Gulf Centre for Strategic Studies, 2004, 2005; Badran, 2005; Metcalfe, 2010). While still through an Islamic lens, these studies have clarified the notion of patriarchy and the concept of gender segregation in a positive way. For example, Ahmed (1998) argues that patriarchal relationships are a cultural practice and not one of the Islamic principles. This aligns with other authors (Ahmadi, 2011; Effendi, 2003) who claim that the culture and customs of conservatism were adapted from the tribal community long before Islam was born. Therefore, they demonstrate the overlap between the genuine rights honoured for women in Islamic teachings and the adapted conservative tribal values.

For example, Roald (2001) highlights *qiwama* (protection), or men's duty to protect the dignity and honour of his women and family. He argues that this does not imply men's dominance over women but, rather, it is an acknowledgement of the idea of men's protection. As Metcalfe (2007) states, it is a recognition of the existence of sexual difference to show respect. In addition, Islam's holy book, the Qur'an, has provided various teachings that define the place of women in Muslim society. For example, women's historic roles were mentioned in the Qur'an, such as being religious leaders, health care personnel and military teachers. These do not aim to show men's superiority but rather to explain that each gender has its own physical and emotional capabilities and that both are vital to society (Doumato, 2000). This can be interpreted in a way whereby Muslim women can decide on their own. As argued by Doumato (2000), it is society which has interpreted it otherwise to dictate restrictions on women. Furthermore, some have claimed that gender segregation and the restriction of women from certain public places is not part of Islamic teachings and that, instead, it was an act of extremism or socio-cultural tradition to protect individual honour (Meijer, 2010; Al-Rasheed, 2013; Lopez, 2013). Traditions were not acting against women but

rather were perceived as protective of women. Accordingly, they were mistakenly overprotective of women and, unintentionally, may have affected the applications of some Islamic teachings.

On the other hand, while Saudi Arabia was known as a conservative country based on strict Islamic teachings, Mustafa (2019) states that in recent years, the Kingdom has undergone fundamental changes such as reforming the Council of Islamic Senior Scholars and lessening the segregation restrictions such that Saudi Arabia is now considered to be a moderate country. In 2019, the Saudi Arabian Government removed laws that permit segregation in the workplace and adjusted the law so that Saudi women can travel and apply for education and jobs without the guardianship of their male family members (My.gov.sa, 2020; Ministry of Civil Service, 2019; Ministry of Labour and Social Development, 2019). Furthermore, in 2020, the King announced that Saudi Arabia was embarking on an unprecedented journey of reformation to empower women and support their participation in national development. This is because they are viewed to be the source of development for any society. His Royal Highness stressed that ''Without empowered women, it is difficult to reform societies. As women are half of society and they are the educators of generations'' (Asharq Al-Awsat, 2020).

In conclusion, Islam shapes Saudi Arabian culture and norms where women are protected and given rights which are viewed differently by others. There are arguments as to whether the restrictions on Saudi women are due to Islam or due to some inherited tribal values which are both conservative and reserved. Due to gender segregation and patriarchy influenced by tribal values and practised for decades in the Saudi Arabian community, women have faced challenges to positioning themselves in the workforce. The next sections present Saudi women's progression in early and higher education and their professional participation in work.

2.5 Saudi Arabian Women's Education and Participation in Work

As discussed previously, both religion and culture have shaped Saudi Arabia's basic laws and regulations whereby restrictions have been imposed on women. For long time, the interpretations of these restrictions were lost between inherited traditional tribal values and religion which eventually did not encourage gender equality in the society. Accordingly, there has long been a difference between men and women in terms of education, employment and societal and family responsibilities. To give a clear picture of women's position within this society, the next sub-sections outline Saudi women's early and higher education, Saudi women's professional participation in the workforce and societal and family responsibilities.

2.5.1 Saudi Women's Early and Higher Education

Before the 1960s, there was no formal education available to women in Saudi Arabia and, instead, a woman's role was solely to become a good wife and mother and any education, which a woman received, was almost always religious (Hamdan, 2005). However, in the 1960s, King Faisal introduced formal education for girls based upon Islamic teachings and the first primary school for girls opened (Almunajjed, 1997). Education for women was a controversial topic within the Kingdom due to conflicts between traditions, cultural and societal expectations and religion (Yamani, 2000; Coleman, 2011). According to Al Alhareth *et al.* (2015), after the 1960s, there was heightened concern about Saudi women's education due to the increased social awareness of women's rights. The reform for Saudi women's education was regarded as a great challenge for the Saudi Arabian Government and, hence, the Government has invested a huge amount in public education (Human Development Report, 2015). The last published Human Development report shows that the Saudi Government expenditure on women education increased from 45 billion Saudi riyals in 2002 to 122 billion Saudi riyals in 2009. It is worth noting that the government has steadily increased women's participation in education year after year, resulting in reforms to women's education. According to the Saudi General Authority for Statistics recent report (2019), the index score for closing the gender gap in education sector indicates significant successes and accomplishments for Saudi women, with a score of 0.92, suggesting that the gender gap in education has almost been closed.

Interestingly, the Government's initiative for providing and supporting education for women resulted in there being more educated Saudi women than Saudi men (Islam, 2014). For years, Saudi women were permitted to enrol into academic programmes in fields such as teaching, nursing, the arts and literature (Gelard and Abdi, 2016) but they were not allowed to enrol in engineering, journalism, architecture or law. However, this has changed, and more than 300 women's colleges have been established in Saudi Arabia since then (Islam, 2014, p. 72). Some authors (Hamdan, 2005; Alhareth *et al.,* 2015) have attempted to explore Saudi women's education and their struggles and achievements in this field by understanding Saudi women's social function within the context of the country's economic, social and political situation. Although often linked incorrectly to Islam, Hamdan (2005) posited that women's educational and career preferences were culturally driven. By providing examples of Muslim women's achievements in different fields, Hamdan (2005) contested that there were no Islamic texts that would aid this claim. The Prophet Mohammed's wife, Khadijah, was a known entrepreneur; Fatima, his daughter, was an influential figure in politics; and his granddaughter, Sukienah, was a famous mathematician.

Furthermore, the Government's investment in women's education and, more particularly, in higher education, has brought two dramatic improvements. These are, firstly, the high rate of Saudi women's enrolment in graduate studies and, secondly, the recruitment of women faculty staff into universities to meet this new demand (Jamjoom and Kelly, 2013). Surprisingly, Saudi women's enrolment rate for graduate studies is one of the highest in global terms. It amounts to 48% when compared to 50% in the USA and Western Europe. Statistics show a huge increase in Saudi women's participation in higher education. This grew by 84% between 2004 and 2015 and made it, globally, one of the highest rates of growth. In comparison, men graduate students had a 66.2% rate of growth (Jamjoom and Kelly, 2013).

A turning point in the education of women in the Kingdom was the establishment of the Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University (PNU) for women. In addition to the King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP), this supports Saudi women to continue their higher education abroad. The Ministry of Saudi Education Statistics Centre's latest published report of in shows that Saudi women, who enrol in graduate studies, outperform men. In addition, there continues to be a higher rate of Saudi women than men enrolling as graduate students abroad – 38.03% women to 28.38% men for master's enrolments and 15.64% women to

12.91% men for PhD enrolments for the academic year 2017-2018 (Ministry of Education, 2020).

After presenting Saudi women's early and higher education and how the Government's investment in women's education and, more particularly, in higher education, has brought dramatic improvements, it is important to highlight Saudi women's opportunities to join the workforce. This is the focus of the next section.

2.5.2 Saudi Women's Professional Participation in Work

Before the Government's major investment in Saudi women's early and higher education, Saudi women struggled to participate in the workforce. As recounted by Al-Ahmadi (2011), their common struggles were namely: discrimination at work (more specifically, for appointment and promotion); untoward behaviours of men superiors to working women; and male-dominated organisations. In addition, he highlighted that there were limited professional groups for women or dependable day-care centres as well as a lack of management development programmes for women. Further, he highlighted that the dual functions of women in terms of home and work where there is a need to strike a balance between the roles at work and in the family. Almunajed (2006) argued that, for a Saudi woman to be able to work, the following three things had to be satisfied: the husband's and children's needs are well taken care of; the work is consistent with existing customs; and the work, such as in the education and healthcare sectors, is of a feminine nature. This explains the higher rate of women employees in Government sectors within education and healthcare services (Almunajjed, 2010). In these sectors, this is reinforced further by segregated workplaces for men and women (Almunajjed, 2010; Doumato, 2010).

Moreover, the employment of Saudi women was highly restricted due to cultural norms and traditions (World Bank, 2016). Saudi men used to work anywhere they want and can be hired easily to senior positions. Saudi women were struggling as they were not allowed to gain promotions easily or be hired into the top positions (Gelard and Abdi, 2016). This shows the significant gender discrimination in the organisational structure which influences career development for both men and women. Other factors which contribute to the low labour participation of women in Saudi Arabia, include difficulties in searching for jobs (Karsshenas, Moghadam and Chamlou, 2016); and little encouragement or support from Saudi women's

guardians to let them work and travel (World Bank, 2016); and early marriages (Al Alhareth *et al.,* 2015).

Although Saudi women represent most university graduates (Doumato, 2010; Jamjoom and Kelly, 2013; Ministry of Education, 2020), there are low numbers in terms of their participation in the workforce (United Nations, 2019). According to the United Nations Development Programme's (UNDP) Human Development Report 2019, Saudi women's participation in the labour market is 23.4% as compared to 79.2% for Saudi men. Figure 2.1 below reveals the gender inequalities index value of Saudi Arabia and other relative countries. It is apparent that, when compared to men in the labour market for Saudi Arabia and similar countries, women's participation is low when compared to the rate of Western countries such as the United Kingdom at 57.1% and the USA at 56.1%.

Figure 2.1: Gender Inequalities Index in Saudi Arabia and Relative Countries

Table E: Saudi Arabia's GII for 2018 relative to selected countries and groups

	GII value	GII Rank	Maternal mortality ratio	Adolescent birth rate	Female seats in parliament (%)	Population with at least some secondary education (%)		Labour force participation rate (%)	
						Female	Male	Female	Male
Saudi Arabia	0.224	49	12.0	7.3	19.9	67.8	75.5	23.4	79.2
Iraq	0.540	131	50.0	71.7	25.2	39.5	56.5	12.4	72.6
Syrian Arab Republic	0.547	136	68.0	38.6	13.2	37.1	43.4	12.0	70.3
Arab States	0.531	—	148.0	46.6	18.3	45.9	54.9	20.4	73.8

*Note***:** Human Development Report (2019)

Despite all the above-mentioned challenges encountered by Saudi women in securing education and joining the workforce, there has been a recent trend of their increasing participation in the Saudi workforce. For instance, Al-Kibsi *et al.* (2015) report that the number of Saudi women employed in 2014 was 1.2 million, double the number a decade prior in 2003. This progress is attributed to the Saudi Arabian Government's promotion of a ''Saudization'' and feminisation campaign (Callaghan and Mizzi, 2015) and to their efforts to provide equal labour rights for men and women (Gelard and Abdi, 2016).

Furthermore, it is extremely important to note that since the Saudi Vision 2030 was announced in 2016, key economic and social reforms started to accelerate within Saudi Arabia (Saudi Vision 2030, 2016). The past two years represent some of the most important years in the history of Saudi women. They have witnessed a qualitative leap through a series of decisions that have supported them and accelerated developments across various aspects of their lives. These initiatives have enabled them to progress socially, economically and politically and have allowed them to gain senior leadership appointments in different fields and in the Saudi Arabian Parliament as well as being appointed ambassadors (see Appendix A) (Saudi Vision 2030, 2016; Bureau of Experts at the Council of Ministers, 2020; Um Alqura, 2020). It is expected that the empowerment of Saudi women and, more especially, their increasing number in education and training will lead to Saudi Arabia witnessing more achievements. Women are important contributors to the success of the Saudi Vision 2030 and, therefore, this Vision aims to increase Saudi women's participation in the workforce to 30% by 2030 (Saudi Vision, 2030, 2016).

2.5.3 Societal and Family Responsibilities

As Saudi Arabia is the birthplace of Islam, Saudi Arabian society expects Saudi women to uphold righteous ideals (Le Renard, 2008). Yamani (2000) states that Saudi society dictates women's roles in life through familial structures. Therefore, Saudi Arabia's laws have accentuated and furthered also this narrative of the role of the "ideal Saudi woman". This has impacted significantly on their education and careers (Le Renard, 2008, p. 613). Saudi women have struggled to work due to the various social and family responsibilities that affect their home and work roles (AlDoubi, 2014). They did not work as much because of the family and societal responsibilities and, when they worked, it caused a conflict at home. Traditionally, in their family lives, Saudi women have been solely responsible for familial responsibilities. They are expected to take care of their children and husband (Evason, 2019) and are expected to take care of and attend to the needs of their family whether it is the nucleus or extended or their in-laws. It should be noted that women are born into large families with several siblings and many relatives. When a Saudi woman marries, she is expected to bear several children that she is solely tasked to rear. She is viewed by society as a homemaker and a parent (Edralin, 2004). When their children grow up and become adults, they still live at home with their parents and, even if the adult child moves for their study or job, they return to their

parents' house after completion of their studies or job contract (Joseph, 2018). Moreover, Saudi women take care of their children not only until they reach marriage age but also until the end of their lives. For example, the woman helps their child find a spouse, looking after their married lives and takes care of their grandchildren. This differs significantly to most women in the Western world. The strong family ties and cohesion within Saudi culture is reflected in Saudi women who prioritise their families above all.

In addition, within a Saudi family dynamic, considerable respect is shown to the parents and elders. The decisions of adults (especially women) are highly influenced by their parents. In return, the elders are cared for in their old age by their children and grandchildren (Joseph, 2018). Saudi people practice close family ties in their routine; the men of the family gather in the house of the eldest man every day and the women gather in the house of the eldest women usually on a weekly basis (Joseph, 2008). These gatherings can be quite large, with extended families, friends and relatives being shown generous hospitality (Zaki, Elsayed, and Ibrahim, 2016). Saudi women are supposed to manage all their family logistics while men are mainly responsible for the family's primary income, safety and security (Evason, 2019). Indeed, the findings of recent research studies into women in Islamic cultures show that to be considered a good Muslim, a woman should be proactive in fulfilling her family and social duties and conform to the cultural values set by society (Zaki *et al.,* 2016).

However, Siddiqui (2013), argued that, nowadays, Saudi women are active also in other roles such as managing their own business and maintaining a work-life balance by integrating the work and family domains (Iyabode and Olayinka, 2016). Other researchers (Alshanbri *et al.,* 2014; Almaki *et al.,* 2016) consider that Saudi working women are still struggling to juggle both roles. Unlike westernized women, they prioritise their extended family and social responsibilities over other demands in their home lives. These are the cultural and structural factors that are hampering the rate of women's employment (Al-Hosis *et al.,* 2014).

In conclusion, although the empowerment of Saudi women is increasing and, more especially, with the Saudi Vision 2030 (Saudi Vision, 2030, 2016), they are still confronted with cultural and societal demands that drive conflict between their career advancement and private lives (Al-Hosis *et al.,* 2014). The subject of Saudi women and work-home balance is certainly neither a new topic nor one that has not been fully investigated in the literature about the

Western world (Allen and Martin, 2017). However, within the unique and complex Saudi Arabian context, where home and societal demands on women remain constant, it is important to examine Saudi women's work and home spill-over experiences. More specifically, it is important to examine the work and home domains conflict and enrichment experiences in a demanding context that may possibly make the enrichment spillover experience more difficult to attain. Additionally, this study aims to gain insights to the spillover experiences that take account of Saudi women's motivations to work as predictors to their work-home enrichment and conflict experiences and their consequences within and beyond work.

This comes in response to calls in the work-family literature to include different cultures since they can present valuable insights as to how individuals in these different cultures cope with work-life issues and how they handle non-work responsibilities (Greenhaus and Parasuraman 1999; Parasuraman and Greenhaus 2002; Casper *et al.,* 2007; Sprung and Jex 2017). As Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1999) stressed, the work-family interface is affected by wider social, political and economic contexts in the same way that work-family issues are affected by cultural norms and values, public policy and gender-role ideology.

Chapter Three

Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

The first section of this chapter presents the definitions and theoretical background of the key concepts relevant to this research study. It presents a critical review of the literature relating to the work-home interface and concludes with the identification of the gaps in previous research along with an examination of the framework used to inform the design of this research study. Next, there is an overview of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and Conservation of Resources Theory (COR), used to guide this research, and these are discussed in detail. Lastly, this chapter presents the theoretical development of the research hypotheses.

3.2 Work and Home Interface Perspectives

According to Kempen *et al.* (2019), the interplay of individuals' different life domains represents an essential aspect of their daily lives, both for themselves and for their organisations. For instance, the findings of previous research studies (Kossek and Ozeki, 1998; Allen *et al.,* 2000) have demonstrated that reduced job and life satisfaction can be associated with negative interactions across both work and home domains and result in negative interactions (e.g., work-life conflict and negative spillover). Also, these negative interactions have a detrimental impact on the individual's commitment to both work and family (Van Steenburgen, Ellemers and Mooijaart 2007; Liao *et al.,* 2019) and to reduced performance at both work and at home (Frone, Yardley and Markel, 1997; Kossek, Colquitt and Noe 2001; Van Steenburgen *et al.* 2007; Liao *et al,* 2019). Furthermore, it worsens an individual's health by generating stress (Allen and Armstrong, 2006).

Positive interactions from an individual's work and home life, on the other hand, are associated with many positive attitudinal and effective outcomes in the workplace as well as improving the individual's health and wellbeing outcomes. For example, the enrichment of the interface between work and family is associated with satisfaction in relation to job, turnover intentions and organisational commitment (McNall, Nicklin and Masuda, 2010; Tang, Siu and Cheung, 2014). Moreover, the enrichment between work and home has also

been demonstrated to enhance the employee's health (Carlson *et al.,* 2011a, Carlson *et al.,* 2011b) and their life satisfaction (Karatepe and Bekteshi, 2008; Lu *et al.,* 2009; Lim, Song and Choi 2012). Additionally, it boosts the individual's in-role and extra role performance (Zhang *et al.,* 2018). Owing to its tremendous potential benefits, the promotion of the enrichment between life and work can be highly beneficial for organisations (Carvalho and Chambel, 2014). Accordingly, it is valuable to extend further our understanding of the enablers of enrichment (Lapierre *et al.,* 2018).

For decades, researchers have concentrated on the negative effects of participation in multiple roles across work and family. They have paid less attention to the individual benefits that can arise from simultaneous involvement in these roles (Gayathri and Karthikeyan, 2016). According to Lapierre *et al.* (2018), over the last 30 years, many research studies have been conducted on the interface between work and family domains. However, these studies have focussed disproportionally on conflict over enrichment. Akanji *et al*. (2015) argue that, while there continues to be research studies regarding role conflicts, researchers have failed to develop the concept of role enrichment from both theoretical and practical standpoints. Any such conceptual formulation can serve then as a guide to a life characterised by greater balance and harmony and stands in contrast to the notion that, invariably, any interaction between the two domains gives rise to conflict and hardship. The assumption of work-home conflict contradicts the central tenets of human resource management, organisational behaviour and psychology. These tenets are that work can be satisfying, motivating and self-fulfilling (Eikhof, Warhurst and Haunschild 2007). Therefore, there is considerable merit in furthering our theoretical understanding of the development and support of enrichment. First, however, an important starting point is to review the work-life conflict literature to gain a better understanding of the origins of enrichment.

3.2.1 The Conflict Perspective

According to the literature regarding the interactions between work and family, the work home-conflict construct (WHC) is the one that is studied most frequently (Allen and Martin, 2017). Kahn *et al.*'s (1964) research findings provide the theoretical foundation for research on WHC. The authors used the inter-role term to explain the incompatibility of pressures resulting from the undertaking of two roles that leads to conflict. Greenhaus and Beutell

(1985) have extend this definition to include WHC. This is described as "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (p.77). Most scholars use this definition and, indeed, WHC occurs when the demands of one domain role interfere with the requirements of the other domain (Kahn *et al.,* 1964; Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). The early research studies conceptualise WHC as a unidimensional construct. However, it can be differentiated further into two separate categories. The first is that of work interference with home (WHC) and the second is that of the home interference with work (HWC). In the first case, work responsibilities affect family demands. In the second case, family responsibilities affect work requirements (Fiksenbaum, 2014). This clearly demonstrates that WHC can happen in either direction (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Gutek, Searle and Klepa, 1991; Carlson, Kacmar and Williams, 2000).

The WHC has been classified as behaviour-based, strain-based and time-based (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Olson-Buchanan and Boswell, 2006). The time-based work-life conflict is a situation in which the time requirements to fulfil the work responsibilities prevent the individual from fulfilling non-work-related responsibilities (Pleck, Staines and Lang, 1980; Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Netenmeyer, Boles and McMurrian, 1996). For example, job deadlines, work schedules or business meetings can prevent the individual from attending an important family gathering or a child's school event (Grant-Vallonea and Ensherb, 2001; Carlson and Frone, 2003). The strain-based work-life conflict is a situation whereby employees are psychologically preoccupied with work-related tasks and, consequently, fail to perform efficiently non-work-related tasks (Netermeyer *et al.,* 1996). An important driver for this kind of conflict is work-related stress since it can affect family life (Van Daalen, Willemsen and Sandersc, 2006). This may occur if an individual fails either in their job-related tasks or, perhaps, for some reason, does not receive encouraging feedback (Lambert *et al.,* 2006). The behaviour- based work-life conflict occurs when workers are expected to perform certain roles that may be inappropriate for their personal lives. For example, managerial roles can involve the use of aggression, independence, authority, ambition, power, logic, lack of personality and objectivity. However, family requirements may require a more accommodating, warm, dependent, sensitive, expressive, intuitive, nurturing and communal personality (Sczesny and Stahlberg, 2002; Sczesny, 2003; Dennis and Kunkel, 2004). If work

behaviour is brought home, it may lead to conflict. As an example, this may happen if a service worker starts unconsciously treating their family or friends like clients (Lambert *et al.,* 2006; Fiksenbaum, 2014).

The line between work and home domains can be blurred depending on the individual's personal choices regarding the extent of either integration or segmentation of work and family roles (Olson-Buchanan and Boswell, 2006). Proponents of the positive psychology movement, which involves positive strategies and outcomes for individuals and organisations, argue that those individuals, who achieve positive experiences, are more inclined to use more effectively the system resources that exist in their work settings (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Cameron, Dutton and Quinn, 2003). According to Luthans (2002), positive organisational behaviour plays a very important role in an individual's improved work performance. The focus of positive organisational behaviour is on the individual functioning optimally and utilizing their strengths rather than focussing on their poor performance and weaknesses. This positive psychology movement, alongside the work-family interface, provides the foundation for the work-family enrichment concept (Fiksenbaum, 2014; Carlson *et al*., 2019) since it illustrates the established focus on positive relationships between the individual's family and work roles (Allen and Martin, 2017), This leads to the enrichment perspective.

3.2.2 The Enrichment Perspective

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) use role accumulation theory (Sieber, 1974; Marks, 1977; Barnett and Baruch, 1985) as a base from which to develop the work-family enrichment concept, this highlights the extent to which the quality of life in one role is improved by experiences in another role. The work-home enrichment concept (WHE) is achieved when positive experiences from the role in one domain are conveyed to the role in another domain, Overall, this leads to better outcomes. Therefore, the interface of the work and family domains can bring positive outcomes for different individuals (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006).

The consequences of WHE are suggested to affect performance and resources outcomes (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) argue that these relationships can be explained by both affective and instrumental paths. Affective paths refer to where "a resource generated in Role A can promote positive affect within Role A, which, in turn, produces high performance and positive affect in Role B". On the other hand, in instrumental paths, the resources, generated in role A, can be transferred to role B to enhance performance (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006, p.80). This path suggests that work/family role generated resources enhance the work/family role performance. This provides the theoretical explanation of work family enrichment's cross domain effects on the individual's performance both at work and at home. For example, perspectives and skills, such as active listening to colleague's or subordinate's issues, nurtured at work can improve one's parenting role at home such as listening to partner/children's problems. Also, the ability to multitask and to respect individual differences are qualities commonly fostered in individuals' personal lives and these can improve their managerial performance (Ruderman *et al.,* 2002). Moreover, as mentioned above, the affective path generates positive effects within current role that, in turn, enhance performance in the current role. However, it provides positive effects for other roles and, thereby, also improves performance. This leads to an individual's overall positive attitudes which, also, have a positive effect on the main focal domain. This provides the rationale for effective outcomes and resources for within-domain and cross-domain effects of WHE.

In their WHE model, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) state that there are five different kinds of resources that can be generated in any role. These resources include:

  1) Social capital resources, which includes information and influence;

  2) Physical and psychological resources (e.g., physical health, future optimism and self-efficacy);

  3) Skills and perspectives;

  4) Material resources like money; and

  5) Flexibility in terms of location, pace and timing at which work and/or family requirements of are met.

These all contribute positively towards WHE experiences and most are interdependent in nature. As a result of their interdependencies, the acquisition of one resource can trigger the acquisition of other resource (Greenhaus and Powell ,2006). This means that the positive experiences in the family or work domains may improve the individual's overall performance in another domain through the available pool of resources (Wayne, Randel and Stevens, 2006).

As with the WHC concept, WHE is typically operationalised by domain direction. This means that the enrichment construct is also bi-directional and that experiences can be transferred between both work and home domains (Carlson *et al.,* 2006; Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; Wayne *et al.,* 2007). In this regard, a more positive work experience may assist employees to perform their home/family responsibilities more effectively (WHE). Similarly, due to increased efficiency and work productivity, the coping strategies, which employees gain from their positive home roles, may act, also, to improve their work roles (HWE).

According to Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1999), deficiencies in conflict theory have given fuel to the development of enrichment theory, particularly because conflict theory is unable to account for positive interdependencies between the work and family domains. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggest that enrichment can carry three different kinds of benefits that lead to other positive results. These include: an overall enhancement in well-being and satisfaction (relationship, psychological and physical health etc.), driven by satisfaction in the family and work roles; a potential buffering of negative effects in one role through the compensatory effects achieved by way of involvement in both work and family roles; and positive outcomes in a role through enhanced positive experiences in the other role. Empirical research findings suggest that an individual's participation in multiple roles can lead to better mental and psychological health through the buffering of negative effects (such as stress) and can impact positively on family, life and relationship satisfaction (Wayne *et al.*, 2006; Haar and Bardoel, 2008; Beutell and Wittig-Berman, 2008). Individuals, who benefit from the enrichment experience are in fact better able to cope with any demanding responsibilities from their family or work roles (Boyar and Mosley, 2007).

Researchers have used extensively terms such as 'enrichment', 'enhancement', 'facilitation' and 'positive spillover' to demonstrate the positive aspects of the work-family interface (Gayathri and Karthikeyan, 2016). Although it is argued that these terms are distinct, confusion can arise because they are used interchangeably (Carlson *et al.,* 2006). According to Siber (1974), the term 'enhancement' is used to explain gains in experiences or resources. These are used by employees to perform different life roles efficiently, whereas the term 'positive spillover' is the transfer of positive experience from one role to another (Grzywacz and Marks, 2000). Although enrichment theory has its foundation in enhancement and positive spillover, it is more complex (McNall *et al.,* 2010). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) argue that, to accomplish enrichment, employees should be able to transfer effectively and efficiently those resource gains, achieved in one role, to another role in order to improve performance. The key difference between enrichment and facilitation is the unit of functional analysis. The improved performance is emphasised at a system-level in facilitation while, at the individual level, it is emphasised in enrichment (Carlson *et al.,* 2006). For example, if an employee's home experience has a positive effect on their work, this enhanced functioning by the employee may or may not impact on the wider working system such as through either improved supervisory relationships or the enhanced functioning of the workgroup (facilitation) (Carlson *et al.* 2006; Hanson *et al.,* 2006). This means that WHE has a significant impact on the individual's life's because it impacts on their experiences of work and private life individually. Therefore, Greenhaus and Powell's (2006, p. 75) model integrates different types of WHE (e.g., facilitation, enrichment and spill-over). According to McNall *et al.* (2010), the enrichment construct provides at the individual level of analysis the broadest conceptualization of the positive aspect of work–family interface.

3.3 Predictors of Work-Home Conflict and Enrichment

A growing number of studies have sought to examine potential antecedents of Work-Life Conflict and Enrichment (WLCE). Starting with the WHC antecedents, it is recognised that the primary antecedents and/or WHC predictors arise within the workplace. More importantly, those antecedents, which have the largest correlations, tend to be job demands and work stress (as demonstrated, for example, by Geurts *et al.,* 2003; Voydanoff 2004; Butler *et al.,* 2005; Byron 2005; Ford, Heinen and Langkamer, 2007). Furthermore, the primary antecedents for HWC are generated from family stress, lack of spousal support (Grzywacz and

Marks, 2000; Frone, 2003; Byron 2005; Ford *et al.,* 2007). Moreover, according to Michel *et al.*'s (2011) meta-analysis, the WHC antecedents include: work characteristics (job autonomy, task variety and family friendly organisation); work role involvement (work interest, work centrality and job involvement); work role stressors (job stressors, role ambiguity, role conflict, time demands and role overload); and work social support (co-worker support, supervisor support and organisational support). In contrast, HWC antecedents include: family characteristics (climate of the family); family social support (spousal support and internal support) and family role stressors (family stressors role ambiguity, role conflict; time demands and role overload; and number of children/dependents and parental demands).

Although WHC's main antecedents emerge primarily from the workplace, HWC's primary antecedents emerge from the home and family side. However, surprisingly, the meta-analytic results derived from Michel *et al.*'s (2011) model, reveal that both domain antecedents predicted both directions of WHC and HWC. Their results reveal that work social support (co-worker support, supervisor support and organisational support) and work stressors (job stressors, role ambiguity, role conflict, time demands and role overload) are predictors of HWC. However, family characteristics (climate of the family), family social support (spousal support and internal support), family involvement (family interests and centrality), and family role stressors (family stressors, role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload) are predictors of WHC (Michel *et al.,* 2011).

Turning to a review of the history of WHE antecedents, a number of researchers have advanced organisational and job characteristics that support and improve WHE and the home support predictors of HWE (Wayne, Randel and Stevens, 2006). Accordingly, job characteristics can be regarded as important in that they influence employee health and well-being (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). In addition, two meta-analyses of WHE antecedents investigated the big five perosnailty traits as drivers of enrichment (Michel, Clark and Jaramillo, 2011), and leader member exchange quality (Litano *et al*., 2016). Both meta-analyses captured several contextual characteristics, primarily aspects of the social context that predicted both directions of WHE (e.g., Individual's marital status, having an enriched job, family-supportive organisational culture, and social support received at home or work) (Wayne *et al.,* 2007; ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012).

Furthermore, the results of Lapierre *at al*.'s (2018) more recent meta-analysis indicate that an individual's personal psychological characteristics, which include states of mind related to a particular domain, such as work or family involvement or work engagement (Rothbard, 2001; Grzywacz *et al.,* 2007; Wayne *et al.,* 2007; ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012) and domain-free personality traits (e.g., positive affectivity) have the strongest relationships with enrichment. These features assist people in making efficient use of one domain's contextual characteristics, for example, attaining resources readily from a particular domain and using them in the other domain (ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012). This is in line with the suggestion that personal characteristics bring enrichment through positive developmental experiences and/or the individual's positive emotional states (Wayne *et al.,* 2007). Also, Lapierre *at al.*'s (2018) review demonstrates that there is a strong relationship between enrichment and some contextual characteristics related to an individual's reception of support (e.g., socials support from family and/or work).

Generally, according to association patterns, the work-related antecedents are more important for WHE than HWE and, conversely, family related antecedents are more important for HWE (Lapierre *et al.*, 2018). However, some antecedents may allow for enrichment in both directions since it has been suggested that, while examining potential WHE antecedents, the assumption of domain specificity may be too restrictive (Lapierre *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, research studies, which examine WHCE antecedents should not be restricted or investigated through the assumption of domain specificity being able to predict both directions of these constructs.

In summary, the research studies on WHCE antecedents relate mainly to either contextual, personal or organisational characteristics. Empirical research findings show that the predictors of both conflicting and enriching processes between work and life domains are, indeed, environmental characteristics such as job stresses, workplace, social support, family-friendly organisational policies and personal factors including personality (Hauser, Weisweiler and Frey, 2018). However, there is a need for further studies to investigate the possibility of experiencing both conflict and enrichment concurrently. Moreover, to the best of the author's knowledge, the role of different motivational drivers for work has not been

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considered as potentially influential in work-life research. Consequently, there is a gap in the literature about how the interplay between the individual's work and private life is influenced by motivational tendencies. Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is one of the few theories that deals directly with the issue of the individual's self-regulation motivations (Gagne and Deci, 2005) and the effects that this type of regulation has on general functioning, health and well-being (Deci, Koestner and Ryan, 1999). Most researchers in this area have emphasised the usefulness of the self-determined motivation concept as an effective tool in understanding human behaviour across different life settings (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci and Ryan, 1991; Vallerand, 1997; Senécal, Vallerand and Guay, 2001). Therefore, this study illuminates the potential role of motivation, as per SDT, as a determinant of WHCE experiences. The next section presents an overview of the theory and reviews the key empirical evidence relevant to this study.

3.4 Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

3.4.1 Overview of SDT

In their original presentation of self-determination theory, Deci and Ryan (1985) suggest that, while individuals' motivations are conceptually distinct, they experience to varying degrees complementary types of behavioural regulations. This suggests that the theory of motivation is multidimensional and is based on the idea that intrinsic and extrinsic factors influence an individual's behaviour which, ultimately, affect their performance and well-being (Ryan and Deci, 2017). According to Gagné and Deci (2005), SDT was drawn initially from Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) as a means of describing the basis for individuals to either pursue autonomous goals and activities or to describe the ways in which they are controlled and thwarted by external factors. CET is used to highlight tangible and contingent rewards and extrinsic factors (such as evaluations and competition), which impact negatively on an individual's intrinsic activities (such as problem-solving, cognitive flexibility and creativity) (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Accordingly, it emphasises autonomy as a driver of intrinsic motivation while also thwarting the effects of external factors on motivation. However, CET has several limitations. For example, these include many activities that are not inherently interesting in nature but which individuals become involved in for different reasons (for example, working for pay; Gagne and Deci, 2005). In addition, proponents of this theory do not presume that there is any relationship between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation (Gagne and

Deci 2005). Mindful of the limitations of this theory, CET was incorporated into a broader framework of SDT.

SDT has been used to identify several distinct types of motivation; each of which has specifiable consequences for learning, performance, personal experiences and well-being (Ryan and Deci, 2000). SDT researchers have categorised autonomous and controlled motivation types into five motivational regulations (Deci, Connell and Ryan, 1989). 'Amotivation' is referred as the lack of an individual's motivation towards work. However, external regulation indicates controlled motivation, whereby external forces (such as working in response to social and material pressures) control these motivations. 'Introjected regulation' refers to working for ego-protection. On the other hand, intrinsic motivation and identified regulation reflect autonomous motivation whereby the internal forces (for example, viewing work activities as meaningful) are motivational in terms of an employee's attitude towards their work (see Figure 3.1 below) (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Proponents of SDT present a relatively nuanced view regarding the interplay of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, namely, a within person theory (Deci and Ryan, 2000). It is argued that, to achieve success within a modern organisational structure, there is a need for a better understanding of motivation and self-regulation (Lord *et al.,* 2010). In fact, research studies concerning the nature of an individual's motivation towards work and family outcomes have not been emphasised sufficiently and, more particularly, in the emerging area of work-family enrichment (Roche and Haar, 2019).

Figure 3.1: Self-Determination Theory Continuum from Least to Most Self-Determined

Motivation Type	Definition	Locus of Causality	Features
Amotivation/Non - Regulation	State of lacking the intention	Impersonal	Nonintentional, non - valuing incompetence, lack of control
External Regulation	Performed to satisfy external	External	Compliance, external rewards and punishment
Interjected Regulation	Confirming to a regulation but not fully accepting ownership	Somewhat external	Self-control. Ego involvement. Internal rewards and punishment
Identified Regulation	A conscious valuing of a behavioral goal or regulation, fully accepting ownership	Somewhat internal	Personal importance, conscious valuing
Integrated Regulation	Regulation that are fully integrated into personal value system	Internal	Congruence, awareness synthesis with self
Intrinsic Motivation/ Intrinsic Regulation	Preforming an activity for the satisfaction of the activity itself	Internal	Interest, enjoyment, inherent satisfaction

Note: adopted from Ryan and Deci 2000

According to Gagne and Deci (2005), intrinsic motivation refers to engagement in an activity for its own sake and for the purpose of enjoyment and satisfaction felt from performing the activity itself. Employees, who are intrinsically motivated, are fully engaged and interested in the experiences that they achieve from their work activities. The drivers for intrinsic motivation include enjoyment of work, unconditional curiosity and interest in work and these are regardless of outcomes or rewards. By contrast, extrinsic motivation, which is always outcome-oriented, is separated from the activity. Therefore, extrinsically motivated employees exert efforts in their work only if they are driven by an incentive such as higher pay, higher status or enhancement in their self-esteem (Vallerand, 1997; Koestner and Losier, 2002, Baard *et al.,* 2004).

An individual's activities, such as work or any other role, are motivation-driven and these motivations can be in nature intrinsic (from the inside) or extrinsic (from the outside) (Deci

and Ryan, 2000). The experience, driven by intrinsic motivation, is known as internal locus of causality and these internal motivational forces are known as self-determined or autonomous motivations (Roche and Harr, 2019). However, the experience driven by extrinsic motivation is known as the external locus of causality and is a controlled motivation (Gagne and Deci, 2005). In other words, motivational regulatory processes are differentiated clearly within the SDT system. This means that any activity, performed out of pleasure or choice by any individual, is regulated chiefly by their behaviour in a self-determined fashion. However, those activities, performed without internal and/or external pressure, are regulated through a non-self-determined fashion (Senécal *et al.,* 2001). Therefore, in summary, intrinsic motivation is fully autonomous and is driven through an individual's interest in actual work activity itself, while extrinsic motivation is controlled by external factors. Therefore, the level of autonomy can be quite variable (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Hence, in accordance with SDT, motives vary along a continuum, from extrinsic to intrinsic, where the driver is from outside the individual (controlled) or from within the individual (autonomous).

Despite the fact that intrinsic motivation exists within individuals, it also exists in the relationship between individuals and activities. Some tasks are intrinsically motivating for people while others are not, and not everyone is naturally driven for work or given task at hand (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Thus, motivation is not a personal trait, but rather a result of the interaction between individuals and a given situation, or in this research case, the connection between employees and their jobs (Abuhamdeh and Csikszentmihalyi, 2009; Hagger and Chatzisarantis, 2011; Hagger, Koch and Chatzisarantis, 2015). Due to this fluid nature of the motivation construct, some authors have described intrinsic motivation in terms of the task being interesting while others have characterized it in terms of the satisfactions resulting from intrinsically driven task completion (Ryan and Deci, 2000). This research approach focuses primarily on the enjoyment of work and adopts the interactionist perspective and recognizes that enjoyment of work accrues in part through engaging in interesting activities. Understanding motivation necessitates understanding how individuals feel at work as well as how the job gives back in a reciprocal manner. The question of 'why do people work?' requires understanding if they work for the prospect of enjoyment or the financial income which provides a good quality of life or maybe even both in some scenarios. Yet again, it is the work itself that provides these desires. Thus, an individual may be driven to work primarily for the

prospect of fulfilment and enjoyment of work, however, the job itself may not always provide that possibility. At times, individuals will be more extrinisically motivated than they are intrinsically motivated due to circumstances either at work or at home. Overall, motivation is shaped by interactions between the individual and the context.

While intrinsic and extrinsic motivations have been studied for over 40 years, there are still many unanswered questions regarding their respective roles, the relationship between them and their outcomes (Vansteenkiste *et al.,* 2007; Howard *et al.,* 2016; Howard, Gagné and Bureau, 2017; Kuvass *et al*., 2017). According to Kuvass *et al.* (2017), there is an ongoing and somewhat politicised debate on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. It centres on whether they have positive or negative relationship with each other and, consequently, whether they have differential effects. Despite the intense debate between the two opposing arguments of extrinsic and intrinsic motivations being positively or negatively related, few studies have rigorously examined the relationship between them, since extrinsic motivation is rarely examined (Vansteenkiste *et al.,* 2007; Kuvaas *et al,* 2017). However, researchers, working on SDT within the area of organisational behaviour, have argued for clear differences between these motivation types. There are several reasons, highlighted in previous research studies, that depict these differences.

First, according to Deci and Ryan (2008), ''If the effect of the extrinsic reward had decreased intrinsic motivation, it would indicate that the two types of motivation tend to work against each other rather than being additive or synergistically positive" (2008, p. 15). Thus, intrinsic motivation can be undermined by an incentive while on the other hand, an incentive can strengthen extrinsic motivation (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Second, when individuals are driven by intrinsic motivation, the consequences and correlations are strongly positive in terms of the quality of their work-life well-being and overall behaviour (Deci and Ryan, 2000). This is contrary to individuals who are driven by extrinsic motivation; this is discussed further in this section. The third reason is the way in which they have been defined separately. It is difficult to establish how and why there should be positive relationships between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations (Kuvaas *et al.,* 2017) as the act of performing an activity to attain satisfaction and pleasure, which is inherently related to this activity, and the act of performing

the same activity, which aims to achieve a positive experience or avoid negative outcomes, are logically incompatible.

Moreover, one way of demonstrating this negative relationship is through research studies on the outcomes of these two types of motivations within this field and beyond, namely, a person-centred research approach (Moran *et al.,* 2012; Van den Broeck *et al.,* 2013; Graves *et al.,* 2015; Howard *et al.* 2016); this is deliberated further later in section 3.4.3. Furthermore, a final question in the field is whether having an extrinsic, as opposed to an intrinsic work motivation, has a different effect on well-being as a function of income level (Vansteenkiste *et al.,* 2007). This suggests that for those with a high level of income, the negative effects of getting an extrinsic job incentive can be reduced, if not reversed (e.g. Nickerson *et al.,* 2003). However, Kuvaas *et al.,* (2017) argue that it is not enough to conclude that tangible incentives encourage extrinsic motivation, and this account remains speculative without empirical evidence on extrinsic motivation. Additionally, Vansteenkiste *et al.,* (2007) argue that this prediction stands in contrast to Kasser and Ryan's (1996) finding that extrinsic relative to intrinsic value pursuit negatively predicted well-being and self-actualization, regardless of income level. This is also reinforced by Cerasoli, Nicklin, and Ford's (2014) meta-analysis findings, which indicate a stronger positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and performance when rewards were only indirectly linked to performance rather than directly linked to performance.

Over the span of three decades, researchers in this area have demonstrated that there is an extremely strong relationship between motivational regulations and different outcomes and antecedents (Howard *et al.*, 2017). According to SDT, an autonomous regulation style has always had advantages over a controlled regulation style since it improves work-life well-being and individual performance (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Richer, Blanchard and Vallerand, 2002). Intrinsic motivation is considered, without exception, not only superior in today's workplace and for job outcomes but also extends to greater benefits to an individual's overall life well-being and satisfaction (Greguras and Diefendorff, 2009). The results of a meta-analysis in the domain of behavioural health have indicated a good connection between intrinsic, identified and integrated motivations with healthy behaviours and well-being

outcomes in contrast to external regulation that was shown to be unrelated to healthy behaviours and, in fact, relates negatively to well-being outcomes (Ng *et al.,* 2012).

Moreover, in the context of work outcomes, autonomous regulation encourages employees' feelings of professional efficacy, life satisfaction and job satisfaction and having a positive impact on employee commitment, engagement and general mental health. On the other hand, a controlled regulation style is linked to turnover intention, burnout, cynicism and exhaustion (Richer *et al*., 2002; Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe, 2004; Fernet, Guay and Senécal, 2004; Milette and Gagne, 2008). Furthermore, the findings of Deci, Olafsen and Ryan's (2017) more recent review show a positive association between forms of autonomous motivation and several positive work outcomes, work commitment (Fernet, Austin and Vallerand, 2012), reduced emotional burnout and exhaustion (Richer *et al.,* 2002; Fernet *et al.*, 2010; Fernet *et al.,* 2012). Therefore, as per the impact of intrinsic motivations on work outcomes, it can be seen that this is related to a high number of beneficial outcomes that affect individuals at different levels, promoting overall well-being.

As regards work performance, autonomous motivation is associated with enhanced performance (Amabile, Goldfarb and Brackfield, 1990; Baard, Deci and Ryan, 2004). In contrast, due to difficulties in concentration (Vallerand, 1997), controlled motivation is associated with persistence and impaired performance. Moreover, intrinsic motivations improve not only individuals' performance at work, in school and in physical domains (Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford, 2014) but they also increase an individual's work creativity (Gagné and Deci, 2005). Similarly, Gagne *et al.* (2015) argue that extra-role (discretionary) and in-role (required) work performances can be affected by different motivational profiles since motivational profiles are expected to improve both in-role and extra-role performance increase because these are highly autonomous. As with the impact of intrinsic motivation on work performance, this relates to improving work performance and creativity. Furthermore, intrinsic motivation is highly relevant in terms of fostering high performance. It is promoted frequently since it is linked with persistence and high energy levels (Vallerand and Blssonnette, 1992; Meyer *et al.,* 2004; Ryan and Deci 2008). Moreover, Deci *et al.'s* (2017) recent review associated forms of autonomous motivation positively with several self-reported performance indicators (Kuvaas and Dysvik, 2009).

It is noted that autonomous versus controlled regulation acts as a personal resource that can support employees in their work setting. By examining the effects of these regulations on job control, the findings of Fernet *et al.* (2004) study elaborated on this topic. Their findings show that a highly intrinsically motivated employee uses and encompasses their job control to reduce the health-impairing effects produced by job demands. On the other hand, in view of high job demands, a less intrinsically motivated employee's job control seems to have little value in terms of reducing stress (Fernet *et al.,* 2004). Hence, this finding confirms that different motivation types in the workplace affect job control and, consequently, these motivations act as a personal resource to support the employee within their work environment.

The findings of a growing number of research studies indicate that work resources, such as autonomy, associated with intrinsic motivation can be beneficial to employees' happiness, well-being, job satisfaction and home-related outcomes (Chen *et al.,* 2014). Surprisingly, researchers have not embraced resources associated with different types of motivations for work as a key strategy facilitating work-home enrichment rather than to conflict (Roche and Harr, 2019). Therefore, this study intends to add a motivational component to ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) model since it postulates that an employee's self-motivation is a key resource that shapes enrichment and conflict processes from the outset. This autonomous motivation for work should affect how an individual evaluates and perceives their work demands and stress since these either increase or deplete their initial personal resources. Therefore, in turn, this can affect their home outcomes and, consequently, their work outcomes.

In summary, the literature review has clearly highlighted that those behaviours characterised by meaningfulness and high interest (intrinsic motivation and identified regulation) support better well-being and performance outcomes. By contrast, through lacking proactivity and creativity, behaviours, characterised by ego-protection or external incentives (introjection and external regulations) do not yield better well-being or performance outcomes, (Ryan and Deci, 2017; Kuvass *et al*., 2017). Therefore, the exploration of the work and home interplay model through a SDT lens can result in interesting and valuable insights for the WHCE field. It

could be that behaviours characterised by meaningfulness have potential to explain enrichment experiences while it is conceivable that ego-protection behaviours may be more related to conflict experiences, as this will be teased out in Section 3.5.3.

3.4.2 SDT Operationalization

Although the pluralistic and elaborate conceptualisation of motivation is a strength of SDT, this presents complexity in respect of its application (Howard, Gagne and Bureau, 2017). There are different approaches to demonstrating the operationalisation of SDT. One approach is the use the specification of different and individual regulation subscales (for example, external, introjected, identified and intrinsic). Another approach is the value in maintaining the full operationalisation of a regulation. Another commonly used approach is the dichotomisation of regulations into controlled and autonomous factors (Howard *et al.,* 2017).

As demonstrated in previous evidence, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are different and yield different outcomes. In SDT, one of the most important assumptions is that these motivational dimensions are separate and relate negatively with each other (Gagné and Deci, 2005; Deci and Ryan, 2008). Kuvass *et al*. (2017) insist that organisations should deal separately with extrinsic and intrinsic motivations (at least, from the point of view of individual outcomes). They are also proponents of the development of finer-grained and better measures for sub-categories of controlled and autonomous motivations. Consequently, this study seeks to measure extrinsic regulations (social and material) and intrinsic motivations to provide measures of controlled and autonomous motivation. The basis for this categorisation has been established for the following reasons.

First, there is tentative alignment between amotivation and external regulations and self-determination, However, they are expected to result in relatively different behaviours (Howard *et al*., 2017) since amotivation is unlikely to lead to any behaviour while external regulations are more likely to result in behavioural enactment (Gagné *et al.,* 2015). Second, Howard *et al*.'s (2017) meta-analysis does not strongly support the conceptualisation of multidimensional intrinsic motivation as the correlations in autonomous motivation subscales

required to accomplish and to experience stimulations, which range between 0.86 to 0.96, indicate relatively high similarity. Due to the high level of similarity between integrated and identified regulations, they could face multicollinearity issues that can lead to difficulty in interpreting the results. Moreover, in terms of the suggestion of not using intrinsic subscales, the introjected regulation is equally close to identified and external regulation and correlates positively with them (Howard *et al*., 2017). This is empirically evident in studies that have clearly linked positive outcomes such as healthy behaviours, vitality, proactivity, job effort and effective commitment with introjection (Ng *et al.,* 2012; Pelletier *et al.,* 2013; Gagné *et al.,* 2014). By contrast, some have clearly linked negative outcomes such as anxiety and depression with introjection (Ng *et al.,* 2012). This is exactly what can be expected from introjected regulation which, as argued by Gagné *et al*. (2014), is a central factor in a continuum and is characterised by both negative and positive elements. It has been suggested that the introjected motivations be excluded from the continuum due to its overlap with other neighbouring regulations (Howard *et al*., 2017).

3.4.3 Motivation Profiles

One way of examining motivation types within the SDT framework (other than viewing them as discrete aspects of motivation being autonomous or controlled) is the study of motivation profiles. Six different forms of behavioural regulations are used to examine motivation profiles within person motivation (Moran *et al*., 2012; Van den Broeck *et al.,* 2013; Graves *et al.,* 2015; Howard *et al*., 2016). It is interesting to note that researchers, who take this person-centred approach (for example, latent profile analysis) have highlighted that, at any time, individuals can apply different types of motivations towards work (Howard *et al.,* 2016). Therefore, since different motives can work in unison within one person, an individual can be extrinsically and intrinsically motivated simultaneously, This impacts on various outcomes.

Person-centred studies on motivation have extended SDT and have contributed successfully to the relevant literature by providing different profiles of motivation within the work domain. These contributions range from extreme profiles (demonstrating below average levels on most motivation types) and highly motivated profiles (demonstrating above-average levels on all types of motivation). Howard *et al*.'s (2016) findings provide specifically an

incremental contribution to the literature. Since previous studies have suffered from negative impacts due to smaller sample sizes, Howard *et al*.'s (2016) findings provide four different profiles of motivation that are replicated across two heterogeneous and reasonably large populations of employees belonging to two different countries. Howard *et al.'s* (2016) findings contribute to the literature by greatly expanding Moran *et al.*'s (2012) and Van den Broeck *et al*.'s (2013) cluster analytic results of through replicating, to some extent, the profiles demonstrated by Graves *et al.* (2015). Howard *et al.* (2016) demonstrated four profiles. These are:

(1) The highly motivated profile, linked with identified regulation, that identifies regulation and high levels of intrinsic motivation and is characterised by external regulation to be at slightly above-average levels.

(2) The moderately autonomous profile that is linked with above-average levels of intrinsic motivation and identified regulation and low levels of introjected and external regulations.

(3) The balanced profile which is averaged across different regulations.

(4) The amotivated profile which described employees whose work is not motivated by rewards, enjoyment, guilt or meaning but, rather, are chiefly amotivated (Howard *et al.,* 2016).

When examining well-being outcomes and enhanced performance of these motivation profiles, it was the highly motivated profile that seemed to be the most desirable. The well-being and performance outcomes of the moderately autonomous profile were above average and performed as well as the highly motivated one. This means that an individual's well-being and performance outcome will be above average providing the profile is dominated by autonomous regulation rather than controlled regulation. The findings of the balanced profile which is averaged across different regulations were linked to lower levels in indicators of well-being and performance outcomes (Howard *et al.,* 2016). Furthermore, when compared to all other profiles, individuals, who have an amotivation profile, demonstrate the lowest levels of personal well-being. Also, their performance levels are indistinguishable from those with balanced profiles. Therefore, this profile seems to be the least desirable (Howard *et al.,* 2016).

While the profile approach has provided valuable insights into how different motivations combine at the same time within an individual rather than viewing them as mutually exclusive, it is important to acknowledge that it is always the profile with high intrinsic motivation that experiences the most positive outcomes (Howard *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, this study intends to isolate intrinsic and extrinsic motives from each other to determine their respective roles in driving work-home domains enrichment and conflict spillover experiences. According to the empirical evidence on motivational profiles, an individual's quality of motivation is more important than quantity of motivation. This means that the quality of motives for doing something (e.g., autonomous) is more important than the quantity, the total amount of motivation (e.g., the overall motivation which involves both autonomous and controlled motives) (Howard *et al.*, 2017). This confirms that, if autonomous types of motivation are dominant over controlled types of motivations, performance outcomes remain positive (Howard *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, the findings of previous person-centred studies (Moran *et al.,* 2012; Broeck *et al.,* 2013) show similarly and emphasise that it is the autonomously driven profiles that enhance positive outcomes. Therefore, SDT motivational profiles studies and analyses of employees have reached a consensus that, consistently, intrinsic motivation is superior in the workplace and to the well-being and satisfaction of individuals' overall lives (Greguras and Diefendorff, 2010). In line with these interpretations, it can be argued that intrinsic motives for work can act as a driver of employee enrichment spillover experiences and that extrinsic motives for work can lead to conflict spillover experiences.

Consequently, this study assesses the extremes of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and their implications for employees' positive and negative spillover experiences between the work and home domains. This study includes an intrinsic motivation measurement of autonomous motivations and both the external social and material measurements of controlled motivations. While acknowledging the continuum, this study is particularly seeking to determine the power of enjoyment of work to facilitate enrichment between work and home domains. Similarly, it is interested in considering the role of extrinsic motivators in driving more negative interactions across the two spheres. The remaining elements of the continuum bring further complexity through drawing on identity, values, goals and approval of others to name but a few. These elements can also influence experiences of enrichment versus conflict.

Consequently, while acknowledging that both intrinsic and extrinsic motives can coalesce concurrently within individuals, this study aims to isolate the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motives on these experiences. Knowledge gained from the literature on SDT relating to individuals' work motivations leads to a variety of important conclusions – whether exploring the outcomes of distinct aspects of motivations or examining an individual's approach and analysing their different effects and roles. Next, the forthcoming section presents and discusses the literature on WHCE consequences.

3.5 Consequences of Work-Home Conflict and Enrichment

WHC is associated with many critical personal life and employment outcomes (Kossek and Lee, 2017). There is an established negative association between WHC and the individual's commitment to work and family, work and family performance and career satisfaction (Van Steenbergen, Ellemers and Mooijaart 2007; Liao *et al*., 2019). This leads to reduced performance in both domains (Frone *et al.,* 1997; Kossek *et al.,* 2001; Van Steenbergen *et al.,* 2007; Liao *et al.,* 2019). Findings of previous studies indicate that there is a negative association between career satisfaction and WHC (Gordon, Whelan-Berry and Hamilton 2007; Liao *et al.,* 2019), whereby individuals tend to appraise their career development, rewards and satisfaction more unfavourably. In addition, WHC has a negative impact on employee health and generates stress (Allen and Armstrong, 2006). The literature regarding the work-home interface outlines many more non-work-related outcomes related to WHC, since perspectives on conflict between work and home domains long predates research on enrichment (Nohe, 2014).

Although much progress has been made in the WHE literature, there are limited quantitative reviews available on the consequences of WHE. However, the exploratory meta-analyses by McNall *et al.* (2010) and Zhang *et al.* (2018) have attempted to integrate the empirical findings in this area of research. It is suggested that, in addition to positive effects in the work domain, WHE also brings positive benefits to an employee's personal life. In conducting a quantitative review of the relationship between WHE and HWE, McNall *et al.* (2010) categorized their consequences into three groups: namely, work-related (e.g., affective commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions); non-work-related (e.g., life satisfaction and family

satisfaction); and health-related concerned with mental and physical health. The findings of McNall *et al.* (2010) demonstrate that both WHE and HWE have positive relationships with affective commitment, job satisfaction, physical and mental health, and family satisfaction. However, their findings show no relationship with turnover intentions.

Since the first meta-analysis on WHE was published, there has been an increasing interest in outcomes for both work and home domains (affective consequences and general wellbeing). As regards the affective consequences, WHE has been linked to organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions (McNall *et al.,* 2010; Tang *et al.,* 2014). Empirical studies have highlighted clearly that WHE assists in maintaining overall health (Carlson *et al.,* 2011a; Carlson *et al.,* 2011b) and supporting life satisfaction (Karatepe and Bekteshi, 2008; Lu *et al.,* 2009; Lim, Song and Choi, 2012). In fact, WHE assists individuals to benefit from both domains and this leads to enhanced life satisfaction. In addition, it is argued, also, that WHE enhances life satisfaction through increased ego resilience (Cohn *et al.,* 2009).

Beyond the evidence on the impact of WHC and WHE on work and non-work-related outcomes, the concept of employee in-role and extra role performance is particularly important for researchers. This is because the manner in which employees exert efforts in their roles and their extra-role requirements are the key determinants in any organisation's superior performance (Shaw *et al.,* 2009). Therefore, they become an interesting and important part of the employee performance domain (Podskoff, Mackenzie and Podskoff (2018). In fact, contemporary job performance models go beyond occupation-specific aspects and general performance factors to include more specific factors such as counterproductive behaviour, task performance and organisational citizenship behaviours (Mercado and Dilchert 2017). According to Mercado and Dilchert (2017), the impact of family interference on the performance components of work should be explored further and more particularly, because they note that there have been few studies that have investigated the influence of the work-family interface on organisational citizenship behaviours. While Zhang *et al.* (2018)'s meta-analytical results support the relationships between WHE and both in-role and extra-role performance. Yet, these performance outcomes have not been investigated through the lens of motivation. Therefore, this study examines in-role and extra performance a possible

outcome of WHCE experiences. The following section presents an overview of conceptualization of such performance outcomes.

3.5.1 In-Role Performance and Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB)

Traditionally, job performance is restricted to task performance. This highlights only those behaviours, which contribute to the organisation's technical core and to the job's core requirements (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). However, it is argued that more attention should be given to cooperative acts and pro-social behaviours which go beyond task behaviour to include OCBs (Organ, 1988; Elamin and Tlaiss, 2015).

Volunteering for extra work, socialising new employees and helping others, which are usually discretionary in nature and shape the social and psychological environments where tasks are being performed, are such behaviours (Borman and Motowidlo 1993; Organ, 1997). Encouraged by Katz (1964) and based on research into classic industrial and organisational psychology (Katz and Kahn, 1966), Organ (1988) describes this kind of behaviours as organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs). Organ (1988, p. 4) defined OCB as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation".

Organ (1997) redefined the concept of OCBs to describe any work-related discretionary behaviour beyond routine duties and that support employees' psychological or social environments. Organ's work and that of his colleagues provide the foundations on which many other researchers have based their studies (Ocampo *et al.,* 2018; De Geus *et al.,* 2020). While some other researchers have attempted to redefine OCB according to their own concepts and terms, it remains that all new definitions share a similar meaning to that established by Organ and his colleagues (Ocampo *et al.,* 2018; De Geus *et al.,* 2020). For example, Van Dyne *et al.* (1994) describes OCB as a concept that encompasses an individual's positive behaviours related to the organisation. On the other hand, Niehoff and Mooreman (1993) describe OCBs as comprising any behaviours not formally required from employees.

Over recent decades, several developments have been made in terms of researching OCB. Smith *et al.* (1983) note that since its introduction in 1983, many researchers have come

interested in OCB due to its discretionary nature. This makes it difficult to measure or govern OCBs. In fact, these researchers consider OCBs as only one form of prosocial behaviour that improves the functioning of an organisation. According to them, its two subcategories are compliance and altruism and satisfaction has a direct effect on these types of behaviour (Ocampo *et al.* 2018). They describe compliance to normal rules and regulations as 'generalised compliance' while describing those types of behaviours, directed to help individuals, as 'altruism'. Later, they recommend also a third type of employee contribution as relevant to the accomplishment of organisational goals (Graham, 1986). These researchers use the term 'civic virtue' to describe this type of contribution and elaborate that it is responsible also for participation in an organisation's governance. Thereafter, Organ (1988 identified the following five dimensions of sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, conscientiousness and altruism to provide a basis for the creation of new future dimensions. Later, Williams and Anderson (1991) categorised OCBs in terms of targeted party of behaviour. Further, they divided OCB into two dimensions: namely, OCB directed towards the organisation (OCBO); and OCB directed towards an individual (OCBI). According to Van Dyne *et al.* (1995), the five dimensions of OCB, as described by Organ (1988), can be classified into two dimensions whereby sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue can be classified under OCBO and courtesy and altruism can be classified under OCBI.

The details of these dimensions may be interpreted as follows. According to Organ (1988), altruism can be defined as any act of voluntary assistance to other employees. Employees, who possess this trait, demonstrate a selfless concern for the welfare of all individuals (co-workers and supervisors and so on) within an organisation. Next, conscientiousness can be defined as the extent of an employee's dedication to their organisation which exceeds the formal requirements (performing non-routine tasks, 'going the extra mile' and so on) of the job. Then, they describe 'courtesy' as a type of behaviour that emphasises the prevention of any problems and any steps that can reduce the effects of any future issues or problems. 'Civic virtue' is defined as when workers participate in organisational management; for example, keeping up with organisational changes and attending meetings (Organ 1988). They describe, also, 'sportsmanship' as the ability to pleasantly tolerate unavoidable irritations in almost every organisation (Rasheed, Jehanzeb and Rasheed, 2013; Trougakos *et al.,* 2014; Organ 2018). Given the importance of employees' performance outcomes for organisations'

superior success (Shaw *et al.,* 2009), as well as the need to investigate them as outcomes of the work-home interface (Mercado and Dilchert, 2017), this study examines the effect of WHCE processes on in-role and extra-role performance for the first time from a motivational process. The following section presents the theoretical framework for this research model and presents the underlying theoretical arguments for this research hypotheses.

3.6 Theoretical Framework

This study uses COR theory and SDT to explain the relationships between the variables in the research model. To establish the foundations of this model, first, this thesis presents a critical overview of COR theory. Finally, the following sub-sections explain the theoretical articulation of this study's hypotheses.

3.6.1 An Overview of Conservation of Resources Theory (COR)

COR theory is based on the belief that individuals tend to strive to obtain, foster, protect and retain the things that they value centrally (Hobfoll, 1988). Broadly speaking, it is a motivational theory that explains the behaviour of human beings in relation to their evolutionary need to obtain and retain the resources for their survival. Therefore, individuals use their key resources in response to stress and for building a sustainable resources reservoir, more especially for times of future need (Halbesleben *et al.,* 2014; Hobfoll *et al.,* 2018). In addition, the behaviour to obtain and retain material, social and personal resources, creates a sense in organisations, families and individuals that they can respond effectively to stressful challenges. One of COR's critical tenets is that individual appraisal is secondary to what is universal and centrally valued among individuals. These commonly valued resources include the meaning of life, a sense of purpose, self-esteem, family and overall well-being. While these can be expressed differently in different cultures, the reflected core elements are always the same (Halbesleben *et al.,* 2014; Hobfoll *et al.,* 2018).

COR theory assumes that individuals are motivated to protect their current resources (conservation) and to acquire new resources (acquisition) (Hobfoll, 1988). COR's two principles emerge from the basic assumptions of conservation and acquisition. The first principle is the primacy resources loss which, compared to gaining resources, is disproportionately more salient (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Hobfoll, *et al.*, 2018). In fact, from a psychological perspective, it is more harmful for individuals to lose their resources

then it is helpful to gain them. These resources may include energy resources (for example, money, knowledge and credit), personal resources (for example, personal traits like optimism and self-efficiency and key skills), condition resources (for example, seniority, tenure and employment) and object resources (for example, tools for work, cars, bicycles and so on). When compared to gaining resources, the disproportionate impact of losing resources is expressed in a much greater impact of resource depletion, its rapidity and the time it lasts (Halbesleben *et al.,* 2014; Hobfoll *et al.,* 2018). The second principle revolves around the acquisition of resources in terms of investment. This indicates that to protect against loss of resources, to gain resources and to recover from losses, the individual invests resources (Hobfoll, 2001). This indicates, also that an individual's coping behaviour to protect against future loss of resources is the investment of resources (Vinokur and Schul, 2002; and Brotheridge, 2003; Halbesleben *et al*., 2014; Hobfoll *et al.,* 2018).

According to Halbesleben *et al*. (2014), COR theory has become gradually one of the most frequently cited theories in the field of organisational behaviour science. In modern psychology, very few theories have shown such a level or broad spectrum of testable and specific research directions. COR theory has the potential to be falsified as a whole or in part. This is one of this theory's strengths since it can guide research studies in a broad set of contexts and principles in such a way as to facilitate the testing of complex hypotheses (Hobfoll *et al*., 2018). Moreover, COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989;2002) is one of the most influential theories in explaining human stress and well-being and it offers a useful theoretical foundation for understanding the occurrence of WHC and WHE in multiple role participation (Grandey and Cropanzano, 1999; ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012; Steenbergen, Karney and Karney, 2014). Thus, it is a particularly effective theoretical lens for understanding the work-family literature. Furthermore, the findings of Fernet *et al.* (2004) and the argument of ten Brummelhuis *et al.* (2011) to treat intrinsic motivation as a personal resource that fuels resource gains, provides further rationale fordrawing on COR theory to explain the underlying mechanisms of WHCE spillovers as part of a motivational process. As intrinsic motivation is believed to play a fundamental resource that generates resource gain spirals that facilitates the accumulation of employees' supply, thus, underpinning the WHE process.

3.6.2 Resources within the COR Lens

The resources construct provides the foundation of COR theory. According to Hobfoll (1988), resources are defined as objects, conditions, personal characteristics and energies that speak to an individual's values. In relevant literature from the past 25 years, a wide variety of methods have been used to interpret the term "resources". Due to the loose definition presented by COR theory, it has been subjected to significant criticism since almost anything can be defined as 'resources' (Thompson and Cooper, 2001; Gorgievski, Halbesleben and Bakker 2011).

The actual definition of resources within COR includes categories of resources; however, defining resources is something different than categorising them (Halbesleben *et al.*, 2014). In attempting to organise this broader range of resources, the research has paid much attention to analysing how researchers have categorised certain resources in the literature (Hobfoll, 1988; Hobfoll and Walfisch, 1984; Hobfoll, 1998; ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012; Morelli and Cunningham, 2012 cited in Halbesleben *et al.,* 2014). In their research work, ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) provide an original way by categorising resources on the basis of their source and transience. This categorization is built fundamentally on Hobfoll's work regarding external 'contextual' versus internal 'personal' resources which refer to resources that are either located outside the self within social contexts (e.g. home and marriage) or that are proximate to the self (e.g. knowledge and self-efficacy). Their categorization of transience resources is based on the stability of resources as they could be 'volatile' used once (e.g., time, mood) and 'structural' (e.g., social network) that can be used over time and are considered stable assets. The original WH-R model by ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) provides very valuable insights with regard to the work and home interface process as the initial four parts of Hobfoll's conceptualisation of resources is highly compatible with ideas in their model; for example, the conditions and objects are usually stable, or what they call 'structural', whereas energies and attributes are what they call 'volatile'. This research intends to expand their WH-R model by adding motivations for work as a personal resource. The underlying cause for this expansion is based on the fact that employees' motivations for work are considered to be proximate to the self as they represent the relationship between them and their work itself. Additionally, as mentioned previously (Section 3.6.1), different behavioural regulation with SDT may foster and nurture resources

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within the workplace (Fernet *et al.,* 2004; ten Brummelhuis *et al.*, 2011; Cheng *et al.,* 2014). Consequently, it can be assumed that intrinsic motivation activates the adaption and nurturance of resources within the workplace that facilitate the spillover process between work and home domains. Therefore, this research argues that intrinsic motivation is just like any other personal resource, that when abundant, triggers spiral gains or losses for employees which according to COR theory, facilities the positive and negative spillover experiences due to the resources arsenal which is at an employee's disposal.

3.6.3 Development of Research Hypotheses

This study sets out to determine what happens when work and home domains either enrich or conflict one another and by drawing on COR theory, positions motivation as a personal resource that can trigger spiral gains or losses as part of a spillover process. In this study, an individual's supply of personal resources is understood to be a 'bridge', which links how different motivational drivers for work may have an impact on the processes of WHE and WHC. To put this more simply, both the positive and negative perspectives of integration between work and home can be described as processes of accumulation and depletion of personal resources (Hobfoll, 1989; 2002). Here, WHE is understood to represent the process through which one's supply of personal resources is replenished or supplemented by intrinsic reasons for work. Subsequently, performance in the other domain improves. By contrast, WHC is a process by which an individual's personal resources are drained as they work for extrinsic motivation and thus, face stress and negative pressure within work domain. Consequently, this leaves insufficient personal resources to function optimally in the other domain.

As discussed earlier, the two principles, which emerge from the basic tenets of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988) are, namely; the acquisition and conservation of resources. The first principle (acquisition) is used to explain how intrinsic motivations lead to greater WHE on the following day and, therefore, improve in role and extra role performance on the subsequent day. The second principle (conservation) is used to explain how extrinsic motivations lead to greater WHC on the following day and therefore, these are less likely to lead to enhanced in role and extra-role performance on the subsequent day. These performance outcomes are examined in this research as part of motivational process as this study sets out to examine how intrinsic and extrinsic motivations predict differentially WHE and WHC experiences and how such

experiences mediate the relationship between motivations and performance. Furthermore, it seeks to examine the impact of evening recovery that women obtain at home after work (psychological detachment) as a moderating effect on the relationship between different types of motivations (intrinsic and extrinsic) to work and life positive and negative spillover experiences. These relationships are represented in the model in Figure 3.2 below. Finally, it considers these relationships over the course of a three-day period and allows for recovery to be captured in the evening between two working days.

Figure 3.2: Research Hypotheses Diagram
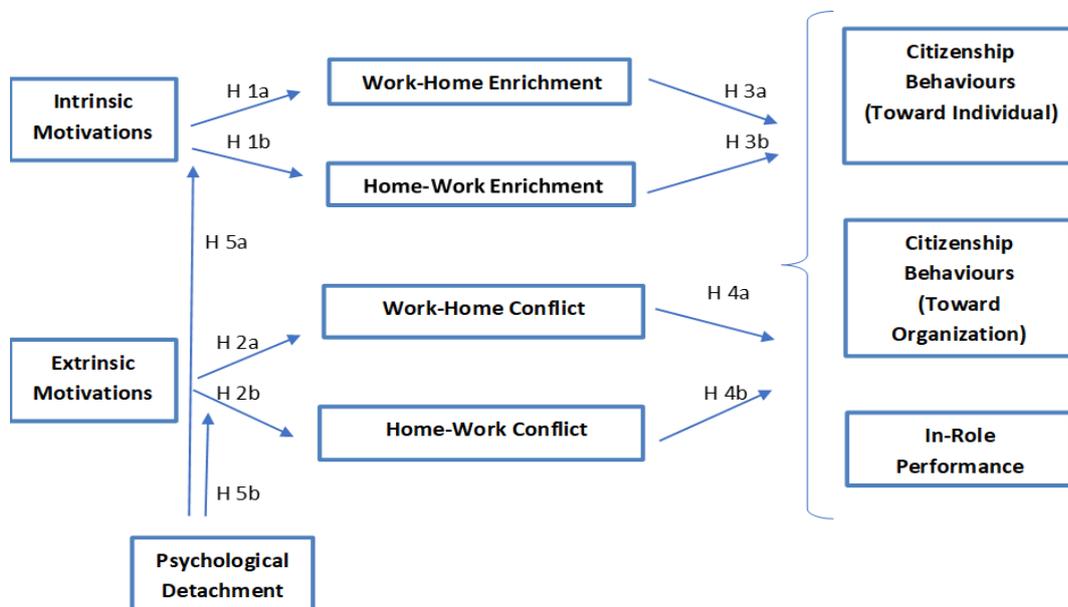
3.6.3.1 Intrinsic Motivations and Work-Home Enrichment

As highlighted by proponents of COR theory, resource gains achieved in work domains, are useful for either investing in resources or covering the loss of resources (Hobfoll, 1988). According to Hobfoll (1989, 2002), a resource gain spiral, which comprises the generation and accumulation of resources, is an important mechanism within COR theory. These accumulated resources are utilized to replenish and expand a resource arsenal which are at the employee's disposal. As mentioned earlier, the boundaries of COR theory are extended in ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) WH-R model; it defines how work-domain resource

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gains can be useful for home domain outcomes. Furthermore, they argue within their model that contextual characteristics of resource provision acts as the enrichment starting point, while contextual characteristics of resource depletion act as the starting point of the conflict (ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012). The findings of Lapierre *et al.'s (*2018) meta-analysis of antecedents of WHE confirms that the factors most strongly related to enrichment tend to be those that provide employees with resources that enhance enrichment rather than those that deplete their resources, and the opposite seems to be accurate for work–family conflict.

Roche and Harr (2019) investigated the SDT motivations continuum with WHE and HWE in a cross-sectional study. In focussing principally on WHE and HWE as mediators for motivations to achieve job satisfaction, this study's findings indicate the importance and positive contribution of autonomous motivation dimensions on WHE and HWE. However, their findings show that autonomous motivation dimensions have no direct effect on job satisfaction and, instead, have an indirect influence through WHE and HWE mechanisms. According to their findings, intrinsic motivation, identified regulation and integrated regulation are all significant and have positive relationships with WHE. However, their study had a number of limitations, which the current study attempts to overcome. First, their study focused only on a sample of professional types of leaders in different New Zealand organisations and essentially, from a Western culture perspective. Second, the design of their study was also limited by a cross-sectional methodology, a common limitation in OB literature. Third, unlike this study, they did not use, as validated by Gagné *et al.* (2014), the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS) which has many benefits when compared to other scales. Its factorial validity has withstood examination in seven languages across nine different country samples. Therefore, this increases the necessity for a scale, such as MWMS, since it is evident that SDT-based organisational research continues to garner increasing interest (Greguras and Diefendorff, 2007; Liu and Fu, 2011; Van den Broeck, *et al.,* 2013). Another weakness of Roche and Harr's (2019) study was their failure to present an appropriate theoretical framework for their research model. This was because, due to the high degree of relatedness between these dimensions, intrinsic motivations were linked to the concept of WHE and HWE. This assumes some degree of conceptual overlap and, in turn, undermines the theoretical causal links between what are two different concepts. Instead, the arguments as to why intrinsic motivation facilitates WHE and HWE are presented below.

This research argues that employees who pursue work for intrinsic reasons, are more likely to experience WHE in the following day. Vansteenkiste *et al.* (2007) contend that intrinsically motivated employees felt adequately energized to fully engage in their families' lives after a day at work. Also, Senécal, Vallerand and Guay (2001) argue that employees who are intrinsically driven for their work have greater influence over their actions and thus are better able to maintain balance between their job and personal lives. This research argues that there are two approaches on how being intrinsically motivated to work increases the likelihood that work has positive spillover effects on the home domain. The first approach is that, in its authentic nature, intrinsic motivations for work engender behaviours that assist with acquiring new resources that can be accumulated for home domain use (Ryan and Connell, 1989; Judge and Bono, 2001; Vallerand, 2007; ten Brummelhuis *et al.,* 2011). Therefore, this enables the WHE and HWE processes. The second approach is through the positive emotions and mood generated from enjoying work for intrinsic motives (Vallerand ,2007; ten Brummelhuis *et al.* 2011). With this approach, positive emotions associated with intrinsic motivation for work allow an individual to become more proactive and more resourceful and less strained. This is because a positive state encourages them to acquire resources (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000; Rothbard, 2001; see also Broaden and Build Theory, Fredrickson, 1998, 2001). Accordingly, this enables the enrichment process between both work and home domains. The acquisition principle of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989; 2002) explains how these generated resources and emotions are transferred through accumulation and utilized to replenish and expand a resource arsenal which are at the employee's disposal. However, it is important to acknowledge that personal resources to link intrinsic motivations to WHE are not measured explicitly in the present study, as the relationship between intrinsic motivation and personal resources is already well established in the literature as established evidence in the literature has already established the relationships between intrinsic motivations and personal resources (e.g., Vallerand, 2007; ten Brummelhuis *et al.,* 2011) as is the relationship with emotions (e.g., Rothbard 2001; Vallerand, 2007; ten Brummelhuis *et al.,* 2011) and the relationship between these and WHE (e.g., Grau, Salanova and Peiro, 2001; Rothbard, 2001; Cohen *et al.*, 2009; ten Brummelhuis and Bakker 2012; Bhave and Lefter, 2018; Carlson *et al.,* 2019). Hence, in developing these theoretical arguments, this research assumes that these relationships exist.

For the first approach, the mechanism of resource accumulation is outlined. The behaviour of intrinsically motivated individuals can be associated with being more active. According to ten Brummelhuis *et al.* (2011), it is the inner satisfaction and pleasure which drives these people to perform an activity. When confronted with job-related stress, intrinsically motivated individuals demonstrate a comparatively active coping style (Ryan and Connell, 1989; Vallerand, 2007; ten Brummelhuis *et al.,* 2011). This active style assists them in gathering further resources to deal with stresses; helps them to optimise the use of contextual resources; and helps them to cope effectively and efficiently with contextual demands. Furthermore, when people are intrinsically motivated to work, they enjoy it, feel better at it and, thus, embrace new challenges (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Gagne and Deci, 2005; Howard *et al.,* 2016; Howard *et al.*, 2017), which enhances their occupational self-efficacy and make them less likely to face WHC and more likely to achieve WHE experiences (ten Brummelhuis and Bakker 2012; Carlson *et al.,* 2019).

Additionally, the findings of previous studies show that behaviours such as effort, absorption, persistence, concentration, self-esteem, positive effects and increased vitality, are associated with intrinsic motivations (Vallerand,2007). Accordingly, as argued by ten Brummelhuis *et al.* (2011), intrinsic motivation acts as a personal resource that fuel further resource gains (e.g., resilience, self-esteem and positive affect). They further contend that employees, who are intrinsically motivated to work, are different from those who are extrinsically motivated in the quantity of their personal resources. Furthermore, Hakanen, Peeters and Perhoniemi (2011) argue that personal resources are the motivational forces for the generation and conservation of resources which is a central asset for WHE process. The study of Chen *et al.* (2014), on the dynamics of the relationships among work and family resources gain and loss, found that resource gains weakened the positive relationship between WHC at time 1 and time 2 whereas resources losses weakened the positive relationship of WHE at time 1 and time 2. Thus, their findings confirm the existence of complementary forces that maintain the status quo of individuals' work–family experiences, such that high gains of resources diminish the transfer of losses and high resources losses diminish the transfer of gains. Based on this, this research argues that intrinsic motivation for work is considered to be a valuable personal resource that generates resource gain spirals that underpins the WHE process while extrinsic motivation, not being a resource itself, yet it thwarts resource gain spirals and inhibits the

cycle of resources generation. Additionally, in line with this research approach in conceptualising motivations from an interactionist perspective (Abuhamdeh and Csikszentmihalyi, 2009; Hagger and Chatzisarantis, 2011; Hagger, Koch and Chatzisarantis, 2015), it is important to note that employees come to their work role with a predisposition for intrinsic motivation but that the role they do in their jobs provides the opportunity for enjoyment and fulfilment and, therefore, the employees, in addition to the role at work itself, facilitate the experience of intrinsic motivation. This interactionist perspective on motivation applies to extrinsic motivation as well, in that employees come to their work with the benefit of salary as a priority, to provide their families with a better quality of life and the work may fulfil that drive. Once again, it is the conjunction of both employee's predisposition towards work and what they gain from their work role (for example, salary) that will result the way they experience motivation for work.

The second approach focuses on emotions and mood as underlying mechanisms for spillover and this is explicated here. Positive emotions resulting from experienced pleasure of work associated with intrinsic motivation, are also likely to foster positive WHE. Positive emotions such as contentment, interest and joy generate positive emotions and enhances outward orientation actions and thoughts (see also Broaden and Build Theory; Fredrickson, 1998, 2001). These lead to the acquisition of more skills and result in stronger social relationships (Carlson, Grzywacz and Kacmar, 2010; Carlson *et al.,* 2014). This assists in building an individual's psychological, social, intellectual and physical capabilities and these enhance both the individual's personal development and WHE process.

Moreover, when an employee is intrinsically motivated to work, they enjoy challenging work and find it interesting. Consequently, this puts them in a positive mood. According to Rothbard (2001), if engagement in work triggers positive emotions, these facilitate the engagement of interpersonal helping, perspective taking and make individuals engage with other-oriented activities rather than self-focused activities in an individual's family life. Moreover, these positive emotions help to limit the need for self-regulation and lead to greater energy; this can be used effectively to perform family roles (Rothbard, 2001; Bhave and Lefter, 2018). Furthermore, Rothbard (2000) proposes that, in one role, a positive mood increases cognitive functioning and persistence in the other role. Thereby, this fosters a positive mood and improves improving success and rewards in the second role. According to

Cohen *et al.* (2009), daily positive emotions act as a strong resource that enhance an individual's ability to handle stress and enhance their ego resilience. Ultimately, these lead to a more contented life. Further, they argue that these resources help individuals to cope effectively with and adapt to stressful situations in their lives. Also, they can benefit more from the opportunities that their lives present (Cohn *et al.,* 2009). Indeed, a positive mood breeds a better attitude, enhanced development and improved capital experiences which, ultimately, foster WHE and HWE. It is no surprise that previous research on WHE antecedents has emphasized individual psychological characteristics, that imply positive emotions, across either domain (e.g., positive affectivity; Michel, Clark, and Jaramillo, 2011) or in relation to a specific domain (e.g., work–involvement; Lapierre at al.'s 2018). These antecedents do, in fact, supplement the argument that joy and positive mood, generated from being intrinsically motivated to work, positively relates to WHE.

To conclude, WHE is particularly important to achieving a positive outcome in an individual's personal life. This is because it enhances the process of generation, replenishment and expansion of resources and results in an individual functioning effectively and efficiently, and in turn, improving the quality of their life. Russo (2015) argues that this relates mainly to individuals becoming resourceful in tackling constructively and effectively the myriads of life situations. Thus, based on the above, this study argues that employees who experience intrinsic motivation at work will experience enhanced enrichment from work to home and from home to work.

Hypothesis 1a: Intrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to work-to-home enrichment (Day 2).

Hypothesis 1b: Intrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to home-to-work enrichment (Day 2).

3.6.3.2 Extrinsic Motivations and Work-Home Conflict

Just as this study uses the principle of acquisition from COR theory to explain how intrinsic motivations lead to greater WHE, it draws on the other principle of conservation to explain how extrinsic motivations lead to greater WHC. According to the conservation principle, individuals are motivated to protect and conserve their current resources to meet future demands (Hobfoll, 1988). This study argues that the underlying extrinsic motivations for work (when an employee works for extrinsic reasons – whether due to social or material pressures) can be associated with a drain of resources. However, as mentioned earlier, it is important to note that this research does not measure personal resources to link extrinsic motivations to WHC, as plenty of evidence in the literature has already established the relationships between extrinsic motivations and personal resources (e.g., Vansteenkiste *et al.,* 2007; Gagne *et al.,* 2010; ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's 2012) and the relationship between these and WHC (e.g., Vansteenkiste *et al.,* 2007; ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's 2012). Hence, in developing these theoretical arguments, this research assumes such relationships exist.

According to a Vansteenkiste *et al.* (2007), the detrimental consequences of adopting an extrinsic work value orientation over an intrinsic work value orientation are not confined to employees' work outcomes but can extend to outcomes in the home domain too. Vansteenkiste *et al.* (2007) argue that while employees who are intrinsically motivated for work feel adequately energized to fully engage in their families' lives after a day at work, extrinsically motivated employees would leave their job feeling depleted and exhausted, obstructing fulfilment of family life. Thus, this creates for those individuals' strain-based conflict (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Gagne and Deci, 2005). Eventually, employees will drain their resources at work. When returning to their homes to face further home demands, their supplies of personal resources will be insufficient to meet the greater home demands.

This study argues that extrinsic motivation has a positive relationship with the following day's WHC. First, when considering WHC, there are many reasons why being extrinsically motivated increases the likelihood that work has negative spillover effects on the home domain. When an employee works for extrinsic reasons due to social pressure, they work to achieve positive reinforcement and recognition once work has been completed or to avoid punishment from their colleagues and managers when work needs are not met (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Ryan and Deci, 2000; Gagne and Deci, 2005; Howard *et al.,* 2016; Howard *et al.,* 2017). In the case of

material pressures, once sufficient efforts are put into their jobs, employees use work for material reasons such as financial rewards or greater job security – (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Gagne and Deci, 2005; Howard *et al.,* 2016; Howard *et al.,* 2017). Consequently, employees drain their own resources to meet these social and material pressures and might leave work thinking about whether they did well enough in the eyes of others working with them. Thomsen *et al.* (2011) found that rumination was related to less internalized self-regulation, whereas reflection was related to more internalized self-regulation. Hence, extrinsically motivated employees tend to ruminate due to this encountered pressure which in turn might interfere with being fully present at home and having enough energy to focus on others. Moreover, employees who are extrinsically motivated avoid resource loss and undesired outcomes leading to reduced satisfaction because, due to their need for autonomy, they will feel coerced by external rewards (Gagné and Deci, 2005). Thus, they are more likely to experience negative psychological states associated with their work, with some research pointing to psychological distress as an outcome of extrinsic motivation, for instance (Gagne *et al.,* 2010). Indeed, as argued by Vansteenkiste *et al.,* (2007), employees who are more externally motivated to work have lower life satisfaction, are less content with their lives, and experience more tension and conflict between their work and personal lives and feel more pressure at work.

When extrinsically motivated employees go home and face additional home and familial responsibilities, the decline in their supplies of resources means that they are unable to meet further demands (Hobfoll, 1989; 2002). As a result of greater pressure associated with extrinsic motivation, this results in either time-based, stress-based or behaviour-based work-home conflicts. Therefore, the employee may go home feeling irritable (a behaviour-based conflict) and be unable to enjoy fully the company of their spouse, family or friends due to worrying about either work-related issues (a stress-based conflict) or, in the case of time-based conflict, they may either cancel family gatherings or have difficulty in fulfilling domestic obligations.

As argued above, employees drain their own resources when being extrinsically motivated to work and eventually this leads to them experiencing WHC. Although it is not expected that the relationship between extrinsic motivations and HWC is as strong as the relationship between extrinsic motivations and WHC, this study takes into consideration the cumulative

effects of the drain of resources and the greater home and family demands. In doing so, this leads to the argument that extrinsic motivations will be positively related to HWC. Consequently, when employees go to work the next day with a drained supply of resources, this results in time, stress and behaviour-based WHC. Therefore, the employee can return to work the following day and experience HWC such as feeling irritable (a behaviour-based conflict); being unable to fully enjoy the company of their colleagues; or having difficulty in concentrating on work due to worrying about either HWC (a stress-based conflict) or, in the case of time-based conflict, may cancel or not attend work meetings and seminars due to having difficulty in fulfilling the remaining familial responsibilities and obligations.

Therefore, this study argues that extrinsicaly motivation to work will contribute to greater conflict in the spillover from work to home domains.

Hypothesis 2a: Extrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to work-to-home conflict (Day 2).

Hypothesis 2b: Extrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to home-to-work conflict (Day 2).

3.6.3.3 Work-Home Enrichment and Performance-Related Outcomes

This study argues that WHE and HWE has a positive impact on in-role performance and OCBs. This is because the positive synergistic effect between work and home lives resulted from the WHE process, has a positive impact on individuals' work-related and nonwork-related outcomes (Russo, 2015). Established evidence suggests that WHE is associated with performance (Wayne, Musisca, and Fleeson, 2004; Graves, Ohlott and Ruderman, 2007; Carlson *et al.,* 2011c; Zhang *et al.,* 2018), and with OCBs (Balmforth and Gardner, 2006; Zhang *et al.,* 2018). These findings support the argument that there are positive relationships between WHE and HWE and in-role performance and OCBs.

In line with COR theory, accumulation of personal resources is central to the enrichment process (Hakanen *et al.,* 2011). Irrespective of direction, WHE and HWE bring about constructive and positive experiences (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; Grzywacz, 2000; Grzywacz and marks, 2000; Carlson *et al.,* 2011a) which results in individuals' positive emotions (Carlson *et al.,* 2011a). Positive emotions arising from WHE and HWE experiences have benefits due to a set of positive thoughts in terms of simultaneous success in both

domains. This assists in the development of an individual's intellectual, psychological, physical and social capacities, all of which contribute to personal growth (Carlson *et al.,* 2011a). Luthans *et al*. (2008) argue that these generated resources equip employees with qualities and abilities to improve their work performance.

The available evidence indicates that both WHE and HWE are likely to generate positive emotions, enhancing in-role and extra-role performance through a positive emotional sequence that elicits thought-action repertoires conducive to satisfying role-related behaviours (Carlson *et al.,* 2010; see also Fredrickson, 1998, 2001). This aligns with the findings of Gareis *et al.* (2009) who found WHE and HWE independently related to enhanced positive affect of individuals' and their satisfaction in different domains of their lives (Gareis *et al.,* 2009). Similarly, Zhang *et al.*'s (2018) findings emphasize also that, due to positive affects generated from the work or family domain, WHE improves an individual's behaviour and attitudes in both domains.

Jenkins *et al.* (2016) stress the importance of the role work-home interplay has on resource drain and/or acquisition to extra-role behaviours. Previous studies show that both WHE and HWE lead to within-role organisational outcomes because employees are more likely to capitalize resources in hand and enhance their job performance (Carlson *et al.,* 2011a). This is in line with Greenhaus and Powell (2006), who argue that resources generated in one role will encourage indirectly greater performance within-role itself. Furthermore, Reza Qasemi (2017) argues that WHE may increase, for example, the perceived control on work-family issues and would impact on OCBs positively. The underlying reason for this argued relationship is that accumulated resources from the enrichment process between work and home increases employee's personal resources supply that allow them to extend their efforts into performing in role and extra roles.

Finally, as stated earlier within the WH-R model provided by ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012), the process of enrichment occurs when personal resources are accumulated in one domain which can be used to improve the other domain. Therefore, ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) support the argument of a positive relationship between WHE and HWE and both in-role performance and OCBs. Despite the established evidence on intrinsic motivation relating positively and directly to work performance (Amabile *et al*., 1990; Vallerand and Blssonnette, 1992; Richer *et al.,* 2002; Baard *et al.,* 2004; Meyer *et al.,* 2004; Ryan and Deci

2008; Kuvaas and Dysvik, 2009; Cerasoli *et al.,* 2014; Gagne *et al.* 2015; Deci *et al.* 2017; Ryan and Deci, 2017), this research argues an indirect path through WHE and HWE experiences. Therefore, this study hypothesises as follows:

Hypothesis 3a: Work-home enrichment is positively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that work- home enrichment mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.

Hypothesis 3b: Home-work enrichment is positively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that home- work enrichment mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.

3.6.3.4 Work-Home Conflict and Performance-Related Outcomes

The conceptual argument regarding the impact of WHC experiences on an individual's in-role and extra role performance is anchored in COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll *et al.,* 2018). According to Grandey and Cropanzano (1999, p. 352), resource loss is likely to occur in WHC due to juggling between home and work roles; this leads to negative outcomes. COR theory suggests that the stress process is associated mainly with the threat either of the loss or the actual loss of resources. This affects people's performance since they are engaged in efforts to avoid further losses (Hobfoll 1989; Hobfoll *et al.,* 2018).

It is argued that employees who experience WHC, do not engage with in-role and extra-role performance at work due to the depleted resources at their disposal (ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012). They attempt to conserve their remaining resources to avoid further loss and, consequently, spend less efforts on performing their required tasks and even go beyond those to demonstrate extra role behaviours. Further, Mercado and Dilchert (2017) and De Clercq (2020) argue that the difficulties experienced as a result of HWC prevent employees from performing their job responsibilities effectively and reduce further their motivations to practice OCBs. This happens because employees, who face adverse resource-depleting

conditions, tend to save their remaining sources of energy for other activities and typically, stay away from any extra-role work behaviours (Mercado and Dilchert 2017; De Clercq, 2020).

The findings of empirical studies suggest clearly that visible energy and time investment are required to be engaged in either individual or organisational OCBs (Montani and Dagenais-Desmarais, 2018). For example, civic virtue, which is an OCB, requires an individual's personal initiative of proposing ideas of improvement. Indeed, it is an energy depleting and time-consuming activity which involves searching out solutions to problems, the preparation of an action plan and the use of cognitive resources to make suggestions to bring about constructive changes (Nielsen *et al.,* 2012). Therefore, an employee seeks to preserve their remaining personal energy rather than allocating it to discretionary behaviours (Beham, 2011; Mercado and Dilchert, 2017). As a result, individuals experiencing such conflict tend to conserve personal resources to utilize under situations of time pressures, behaviour constraints and strains, which ultimately reduces their motivation for maintaining and expanding high levels of efforts at their workplace (Witt and Carlson, 2006). WHC and HWC have a negative impact on in-role performance and OCBs as a part of a wider motivational process, such that both WHC and HWC impair motivation. More essentially, this is because WHC and HWC reduce the enjoyment of work due to strain and reduce also resources which support motivation (Bakker, Demerouti and Sanz-Vergel, 2014). Therefore, WHC and HWC mediate the negative relationship between employee extrinsic motivation to work and in-role performance and OCB.

One way to illustrate how WHC experience would reduce in-role and extra role performance engagement would be as follows: when an employee experiences time-based WHC, he/she may have to cancel family gatherings or may have difficulty in fulfilling domestic obligations (Olson-Buchanan and Boswell, 2006). Or in the case of time-based HWC, an employee might not attend work meetings and seminars due to the difficulty in fulfilling remaining familial demands (Olson-Buchanan and Boswell, 2006). Consequently, as their hours for work may be curtailed, such employees struggle to meet core demands and have little scope to engage in extra roles. This results in the depletion of resources (e.g., less autonomy over task completion; less time; and reduced energy) and more stress. As a result, they withhold their efforts in order to conserve personal resources and accept a reduction in engaging with in-role and extra-role performance (e.g., fulfilling all responsibilities specified in their job

description; not giving time to help others who have work-related problems; making less effort to suggest ideas that may improve the functioning of the organisation).

Furthermore, employees can experience strain-related WHC, such as being unable to enjoy fully the company of their spouse, family or friends. This may be due to worrying about either work-related issues or stress related to work (Olson-Buchanan and Boswell, 2006). Or in the case of HWC, being unable to enjoy fully the company of their colleagues or having difficulty in concentrating on work due to worrying about home-related matters. Such experiences are likely to lead to employees withholding their efforts and energy and reducing both in-role and extra--role performance (Mercado and Dilchert, 2017; De Clercq, 2020). Therefore, individuals, who experience such conflicts, tend to conserve their personal resources to utilize them under situations of time pressures.

Previous studies have illustrated that both WHC and HWC have a negative impact on employee performance. For example, in relation to WHC, there is a negative association between WHC and job performance (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Kelly and Voydanoff, 1985; Pleck 1985; Voydanoff 1987; Small and Riley, 1990; Frone, Russell and Cooper, 1992; Stock, Bauer and Bieling, 2014). Turning to HWC, it has been demonstrated that HWC predicts several negative aspects of job performance such as general job performance (Witt and Carlson, 2006), and task performance (Frone *et al.,* 1997). Furthermore, the findings of De Clercq's (2020) recent study highlight HWC's negative impact on OCBs and demonstrate that work's negative interference on home responsibilities reduce the employees' tendency to engage in any voluntary behaviour. Other studies include that of Bragger *et al.* (2005). Their findings show a negative link between both WHC and HWC with OCB. In supporting this negative relationship, Beham's (2011) findings also emphasize that employees, who suffer from WHC tend to conserve their sources of energy and are less likely to engage in voluntary efforts that may lead to changes in the organisation's status (Beham,2011; Mercado and Dilchert, 2017).

Hypothesis 4a: Work-home conflict is negatively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that work-home conflict mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.

Hypothesis 4b: Home-work conflict is negatively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that home-work conflict mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.

3.6.3.5 The Effect of Recovery on Work and Home Interface

Scholars who have investigated the work-home interface have tended to consider the issue of periods of respite spent between work and home domains. The respite can either impact on these experiences or can serve as a partial reason for observed fluctuations in the supply of resources (Fritz and Sonnentag, 2005; Sonnentag, Binnewies and Mojza, 2008; Molino *et al.,* 2015; Hamilton *et al.,* 2018). Typically, employees spend periods of time at work and return home to spend time on non-work-related matters and issues, what really happens between these two periods is important in determining how these employees' behaviours and feelings originate and then, fluctuate over the course of the next day (Sonnentag, Venz and Casper, 2017). These fluctuations can be explained from the fact that these employees perform effectively only when they have sufficient resources to carry out the tasks at hand (Beal *et al.,* 2005). This is dependent on the availability of resources at each moment in time (Hobfoll, 1998). Therefore, it is important for the employees to replenish their resources (e.g., recovery) on a daily basis to be able to carry out their work requirements and home demands. As such, these periods of respite – or opportunities for recovery after work – can be regarded as causally related to the following day's experiences.

It has been shown that periods of rest, relief or respite can serve as a counterbalance and deliver overall positive outcomes. The findings of previous studies indicate that revitalisation and replenishment of resources result from periods of relief that are generally relatively common and even pedestrian in character. These are such as: during weekends (Fritz and Sonnentag, 2006); business trips (Westman and Etzion, 2002); faculty sabbaticals (Davidson *et al.*, 2010); evenings following days of work (Sonnentag *et al.,* 2008); volunteer work (Mojza, Sonnentag and Bornemann, 2011); and breaks during the workday (Krajewski, Sauerland and Wieland, 2011). Sonnentag and Fritz (2007) use the term 'recovery' to describe the attributes associated with non-work activities that assist in recovery. Other researchers have defined the recovery processes as either restoration (Hartig *et al.,* 2003) or recuperation (Strauss-

Blasche, Ekmekcioglu and Marktl, 2000) or unwinding processes (Frankenhaueser and Johansson, 1986). The recovery experiences can be distinguished into four different forms: namely, relaxation; mastery experiences; control; and psychological detachment from work (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007). These experiences all contribute towards reducing an individual's stress by providing the opportunity to recover lost resources (Etzion, Eden and Lapi- dot, 1998; Sonnentag and Natter, 2004; Sonnentag and Bayer, 2005; Fritz and Sonnentag, 2006; Halbesleben, Wheeler and Paustian-Underdahl, 2013).

This study focuses on psychological detachment from work. This is a specific aspect of recovery and is defined as an "individual's sense of being away from the work situation" (Etzion *et al.,* 1998, p. 579). The term 'psychological detachment' suggests not only being physically absent from work and refraining from work activities but, also, the cessation of thinking about any work-related problems or issues (Sonnentag and Bayer, 2005). Volman, Bakker and Xanthopoulou's (2013) findings show that psychological detachment from work is dependent on the degree to which the individual wishes to engage in the activities that they undertake during their 'down' or 'off' time.

The form that such breaks or periods of respite take is important since they should facilitate either the general recovery of resources or the acquisition of skills (Fritz and Sonnentag, 2005). However, if there is a lack of sufficient resources or if these resources are constrained, an employee may not fully recover. Should that happen before a return to work, additional strength is required to fulfil or meet job demands (Sonnentag *et al.,* 2008). The examination of evening recovery is important within work and home interface studies since it lies on the intersection of work and home domains. As has been noted previously, the manner in which employees spend their time at home after a working day is a complex system within this research context, with strong social and family demands and obligations. Therefore, the family/ home domain may not be a suitable place of recovery for everybody and, more especially, when an individual has demanding family responsibilities. It is obvious that when there are greater family demands an individual's psychological detachment from work is comparatively easy but that due to high family responsibilities, recovery is uncertain (Sonnentag *et al.,* 2017).

3.6.3.5.1 The Effect of Recovery Moderation on Work and Home Interface

Here it is argued that psychological detachment has a moderating effect on the relationship between different motivational drivers for work and WHCE spillover experiences and impact on subsequent day performance outcomes as it may weaken WHC and HWC and strengthen WHE and HWE. There are two reasons why the integration of psychological detachment as a moderator within such studies is vital to the overall understanding. Firstly, there is a need to know under what conditions intrinsically motivated employees are able to transfer resources from work to home through the enrichment process. Secondly, there is a need to understand under what conditions extrinsically motivated employees experience conflict during the transfer process from work to home. As ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) suggested, the identification of the moderators of the work-home interface process makes a valuable contribution to research on this topic.

Recovery research studies, based on COR theory, are continuously increasing in number (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2015; Niks *et al.,* 2016). These researchers have studied the impact of resources in short term settings, for example, within days or weeks (Demerouti, Bakker and Halbesleben 2015, Donald *et al.,* 2016). In this regard, different researchers have focused more closely on how individuals spend their post-work time in terms of gaining or losing resources (Sonnentag *et al.,* 2008; Molino *et al.,* 2015). The form which such breaks or periods of respite take is important since they should facilitate either the general recovery of resources or the acquisition of skills (Fritz and Sonnentag, 2005). However, if there is either a lack of sufficient resources or if these are constrained, an employee may not fully recover. Should that happen before a return to work, additional strength is required to either fulfil or meet job demands (Sonnentag *et al.,* 2008). As discussed in Section 3.6, according to COR theory, individuals tend to seek new resources to reduce the future losses of resources in future (Hobfoll 2001). This suggests that the rate of resource loss is slowed down by a mechanism of resource recovery (Sonnentag, 2001; Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007). Sonnentag (2001) argues that the same mechanism can be employed to discover how, by engaging themselves in recovery experiences, individuals reduce their resource losses during their post-work time. Therefore, as well as building new resources, the replenishment of personal resources can be achieved through recovery processes in the post-work period (ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012; Molino *et al.,* 2015). This means that, if an individual can

engage themselves in recovery activities, they can regenerate new resources to replace those that were lost during the workday (Halbesleben *et al.,* 2013).

Therefore, it is argued here that psychological detachment has a moderating effect on the relationship between different motivational drivers for work and WHCE spillover experiences and their impact on subsequent day performance outcomes as it strengthens WHE and HWE and weakens WHC and HWC. Since positive and negative work-home spillover experiences are associated distinctively with different underlying mechanisms (intrinsic versus extrinsic motivations), this study supports the argument that, WHE mediates the relationships between intrinsic motivations and performance outcomes when individuals detach to a greater extent from work. On the other hand, it is argued that WHC mediates the relationships between extrinsic motivations and performance outcomes when individuals detach psychologically from work to a lesser extent from work. In particular, this study focuses on the role of psychological detachment (Sonnentag and Bayer, 2005) that allows individuals to disengage from any work-related tasks and, thereby, restore sources of energy and generate new ones during evenings. This recovery experience is particularly vital for Saudi women since, as noted previously, the manner in which employees spend their time at home after the working day is a complex system involving significant demands and obligations in the family environment (Abdullah, 1996; Lan Li and Roberta, 2001; Aryee *et al.,* 2005; Zaki *et al.,* 2016; Joseph, 2018; Evason, 2019)

Within the intrinsic motivation to enrichment path in this research model, due to employees experiencing enrichment spillover, employees are already generating new resources and skills as part of their work during work time (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012; Lapierre *et al.*, 2018). Consequently, they need to acquire additional resources for the next day's family and work-related tasks and responsibilities. In essence, employees already have these at their disposal and the resultant gains help individuals to carry out family and work requirements (Demerouti *et al.*, 2009). According to COR theory (Hobfoll, 1998), this explains the recovery process since when no resources are gained after investment, the individual experiences stress. Consequently, effective recovery is vital since psychological detachment from work makes space for the enrichment process to happen. If it does not exist, it makes it difficult to invest the gained resources from work into the home domain and vice

versa. Therefore, with psychological detachment, there is a stronger relationship between intrinsic motivations and WHE and HWE.

In the context of the research model in this study, and specifically in relation to the extrinsic motivation to WHC path, when an employee comes back from work with drained resources and experiences conflict (ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012; Molino *et al.,* 2015; Lapierre *et al.,* 2018), this has a negative effect on both work and home domains over the course of the next day. This is because individuals have insufficient resources with which to approach work or family-related tasks and responsibilities and therefore, there are more negative consequences (Molino *et al.,* 2015). In this way, the role of psychologically distancing oneself from work in the evening is vital since it gives individuals the opportunity to restore used and drained personal resources during work time and to generate new ones during evening time (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007; ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012). Cropley, Dijk and Stanley (2006) argue that when people are unable to turn off, the recovery process is hampered because the functioning system activated during the day remains active during downtime. This activation requires further resources and hinders the repair and replenishment of personal resources (Hobfoll, 1998). Therefore, with psychological detachment, there are weaker relationships between extrinsic motivations and WHC and HWC.

Therefore, this thesis argues the following.

Hypothesis 5a: Psychological detachment moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivations and i) work/home and ii) home/work enrichment, such that with psychological detachment, the positive relationship between intrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work enrichment will be stronger.

Hypothesis 5b: Psychological detachment moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work conflict, such that with psychological detachment, the negative relationship between extrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work conflict will be weaker.

3.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the definitions and theoretical backgrounds of the perspectives of WHC, HWC, WHE and HWE which are the key concepts relevant to this study. Next, from reviewing the literature, this chapter assessed the predictors of the work and home interface and concluded with the identification of the gaps in the current research findings. After this, the chapter discussed thoroughly the SDT and COR theory that the thesis used to guide this study. Finally, this chapter developed, presented and explained this study's hypotheses. This study aims to examine the first day's (Day 1) women 's intrinsic versus extrinsic motivations to work and their effect on the subsequent day's (Day 2) work-home domains of enrichment and conflict experiences. Further, it examines the effect of (Day 2) work-home domains of enrichment and conflict experiences on the subsequent day (Day 3) in-role and extra-role performance outcomes, such that both work-home domains of enrichment and conflict mediates the relationship between intrinsic verses extrinsic motivations on (Day 1) on in-role role and extra-role performance on (Day 3). Taking into account the impact of evening recovery (psychological detachment from work) women get at home after work as a moderating effect on the relationship between different types of motivations (intrinsic and extrinsic) for work on (Day 1) and work and life positive and negative spillover experiences (enrichment and conflict) on (Day 2). The research hypotheses are presented in Table 3.2 below

Table 3.2: Overview of Research Hypotheses

		Research Hypotheses
H1	**H1a**	Intrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) work-home enrichment.
	H1b	Intrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) home-work enrichment.
H2	**H2a**	Extrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) work-home conflict.
	H2b	Extrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) home-work conflict.
H3	**H3a**	Work-home enrichment is positively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that work- home enrichment mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.
	H3b	Home-work enrichment is positively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that home- work enrichment mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.
H4	**H4a**	Work-home conflict is negatively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that work-home conflict mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.
	H4b	Home-work conflict is negatively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that home-work conflict mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.
H5	**H5a**	Psychological detachment moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivations and i) work/home and ii) home/work enrichment, such that with psychological detachment, the positive relationship between intrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work enrichment will be stronger.
	H5b	Psychological detachment moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work conflict, such that with psychological detachment, the negative relationship between extrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work conflict will be weaker.

Chapter Four

Methodology Chapter

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the research paradigm and philosophy and the philosophical foundations of the methodology which the researcher selected for this study. In identifying a suitable research design for this study, the researcher chose with care a design to ensure that the hypotheses, which emerged from the literature review, corresponded to the research methodology. Thereby, the researcher ensured that this study would be able to make an appropriate and significant contribution to current knowledge (Edmondson and McManus, 2007). By using questionnaire surveys to collect data across three separate data collection points, this study employs a longitudinal, quantitative, field study design. Furthermore, this chapter presents the development and structure of the questionnaire design across three days. Next, it details the research sample. Then, it describes the administration and compliance of the daily questionnaire. Finally, it explains the strategy used in the data analysis.

4.2 Research Paradigm

Due to its common use in human resource management and organisational psychology, a research paradigm can be defined as shared beliefs and agreements on how an issue should be dealt with and resolved between scientists (Kuhn, 1970). As understood by this definition, a research paradigm constitutes a set of common beliefs which exist in a particular community of researchers and which direct the choices and actions that researchers in such a community take when approaching a specific object of enquiry. Research paradigms can be categorized by the way researchers answer three key questions in which they are ontological, epistemological and methodological questions (Guba and Lincoln 1994). Those choices can be seen to relate to the following three key aspects:

- Ontology refers assumptions about the nature of reality and the way the world functions, and the researcher's commitment to specific standpoints. It pursues the explanations of object of inquiry. In simple terms, ontology is a system of beliefs that reflects an interpretation by researchers about what constitutes as fact.

- Epistemology centres on what is known, how we come to know it, and what counts as valid knowledge in a particular research field. In simple terms epistemology refers to how we get the knowledge or the theory of reality.

- Methodological questions refer to how the researcher should go about finding out knowledge the topic of enquiry. It is related to the specific procedures or techniques used to identify, select, and analyze information about a topic of enquiry. In simple terms, it is how we gather the data of that reality and critically evaluate its validity and reliability (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012).

The central tenet of constructivism or social constructivism is that the world is 'constructed' by individuals, by social situations and by contextual elements. Reality is constituted subjectively by these social actors' interactions (Sobh and Perry, 2006). Within this constructivist research paradigm, any data, gathered by researchers, must depend on the participants' perspectives and experiences of the situation in which they find themselves and how they interpret their context. Here, the researcher achieves insight through interactions with actors in their social setting so that this framework is normally associated with qualitative research methods such as semi-structured interviews (Creswell, 2014). Meanwhile, the pragmatists' research paradigm is founded on the principle that the meaning of any event is defined by the moment itself. From this standpoint, the meaning depends either on the specific consequences of an experience of an action within its specific social setting (Denzin, 2012). Pragmatism centres on the fundamental 'what and why' of research, namely, the essential questions which determine research decisions (Morgan, 2014). Here, research philosophy is tied more closely to action and researchers, operating within this paradigm, consciously select the specific research methods which suit their aims and needs (Saunders *et al.,* 2012; Creswell, 2014). In this way, the pragmatic paradigm is above all a practical and

applied research philosophy which employs logic and reason to proceed step-by-step from deductive to inductive argumentation.

The researcher positions this study primarily within the positivist research paradigms. The positivist aims to uncover the link between cause and effect with a view to formulating laws. This can serve as a basis for prediction (Creswell, 2009). In such scenarios, where findings can be replicated, it means that other researchers, who possess the same data, can arrive at similar results. This means also that the initial conjecture can be refuted and the evidence verified (Popper, 2002). This deductive approach works to ascertain whether the observations and analyses of specific instances can support either an a priori theory or a hypothesis. Here, data are measurable. With respect to the positivist approach, the researcher strives to obtain knowledge about an objective reality. The researcher and the object of his/her research are held to be entirely separate entities and, consequently, the researcher's views, feelings or consciousness in no way impact upon the research object. This reality is seen as distinct; its essence untainted by either the researcher's stance or views, historical or social settings – nothing is mingled (Zalaghi and Khazaei, 2016).

Typically, a study, positioned within this framework, considers empirical objects in terms of causal relationships between specific and isolated variables. The hypotheses are established and tested usually by means of quantitative data and inferential statistics. These hypotheses are articulated as propositions and tested empirically (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). According to the positivist approach, the researcher's work is limited to what can be observed. However, the observation of inner psychological processes through inference also receives attraction (van der Werff, 2014). In this scenario, for the purpose of studying individual perceptions and attitudes, organisational researchers use questionnaires with different scales. Using statistical techniques, the responses of observed items on each scale are used to create latent variables. This assists the researcher in examining the variables of interest which is aligned to the positivist approach (van der Werff, 2014). Although, a positivist approach can be regarded as effectively neutral, it has been charged that initial judgements can impact on the chosen variables and that, in the interpretation of findings, value judgements can emerge, also (Mertens, 2014). Nonetheless, although some have contended that any such judgements occur within a wider political context, the essential methodological rigour and robustness,

which allow for necessary replicability and reliability, make the positivist approach attractive to researchers and those drafting funding proposals (Mertens, 2014).

4.3 Research Approach

After exploring the broader research paradigm, it is necessary to identify a specific methodological approach. Usually, this is understood to be a choice between quantitative and qualitative methods. A qualitative methodology seeks to gain insight to a particular phenomenon by studying the subjective experiences and perspectives of the actors involved in it and, thereby, achieving a more profound analytical understanding (Creswell, 2014). At the same time, such approaches carry considerable disadvantages. This is because their inherent subjectivity involves necessarily an element of bias and poses difficulties in replicating results which is an essential step to allowing the researcher to validate and generalize those findings (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

By contrast, quantitative studies approach a phenomenon through objective and repeatable measurement and, in the process, identify differences between different people's perspectives and illuminate relationships of interest (Bryman and Bell, 2007). In keeping with a positivist philosophy, quantitative methods are founded on detachment and objective distance from the object of enquiry. This is something which contributes to their reliability and their capacity to be repeated (Blenker *et al.,* 2014). When compared to qualitative methods, quantitative approaches are relatively efficient, inexpensive and an accurate way to gathering data from a potentially large population (Saunders *et al.,* 2012). Furthermore, a quantitative approach identifies specific variables of interest. Then, quantitative data are interrogated for either relevant patterns or relationships from which it is possible to derive the more widely applicable laws that influence those variables (McGuire, 1986). More specifically, quantitative surveys are the most common mechanism for gathering data about unobservable phenomena in the organisational context (Bartlett, 2005). Nevertheless, it is still possible for weaknesses in the research design to have a negative effect on quantitative studies, for example, through errors in sampling, coverage, measurement and non-responses (Dillman and Smyth, 2007).

4.4 Common Method Variance

Common Method Variance (CMV) is a well-known source of systematic measurement error (Podsakoff *et al.,* 2003). CMV refers to the use of a specific method when measuring research variables which can pose a challenge to construct validity and deformed covariances (Brannick *et al.,* 2010). The construct validity of a research variable may be jeopardized if a significant portion of the variation in a concept is due to how it was measured rather than the variations in the level of the concepts itself. According to van Der Werff (2014), the risk of deformed covariances, which is associated with the inflation of observed relationships, is especially important in studies that use a single method to measure several conceptually distinct variables. Quantitative self-report survey is one example of such a method. In a quantitative self-report study, there is a risk that the survey approach itself will affect relationships between antecedents or between antecedents and consequences.

There are several procedural and statistical approaches that limit Common Method Bias (CMB) (Podsakoff *et al.,* 2003). In this study, procedural and statistical remedies were applied in the overall research design and the survey document design. This was done through adoption of procedural precautions and following Podsakoff *et al.'s* (2003) and Podsakoff *et al.'s* (2012) recommendations. First, the quality of survey design should have minimized method bias (e.g., clear instructions at the start of the survey; clear instructions in the seminar given before distributing the survey; random ordering of items from different scales; and temporal separation between independent variables and dependent variables). Second, the longitudinal design and collecting data through three time points restrict some aspects of this bias that controls the impact of participant mood; any affects influences during the day; and reduces the risk of Type I and II errors by observing the interaction of variables over time (Podsakoff 2003).

Furthermore, with regard to the statistical approaches, there are techniques employed to mitigate CMB (Podsakoff *et al.,* 2003; Podsakoff *et al.,* 2012). The results from the Harman one factor test and the common latent factor procedures in Chapter 5 (reported in Section 5.4.1) indicate that in this data set, CMB was not a major concern (Podsakoff *et al.,* 2003; 2012).

4.5 Longitudinal Field Studies

Within the realms of work and organisational psychology, the cross-sectional design, based on self-report questionnaires, has proven to be most prevalent. These designs have been utilized in the study of areas as diverse as attitudes to work, personality and work characteristics (Ohly and Fritz, 2010). In addition, while theories of organisational behaviour make assumptions about the changes in the variables and the interactions between them over time, most empirical studies, which have tested these assumptions, have been cross-sectional, rather than longitudinal, in design (Ployhart and Vandenberg, 2010). Indeed, as Scandura and Williams (2000) point out, the leading journals in management studies published fewer longitudinal studies in the final years of the twentieth century despite the scholars' repeated insistence that more longitudinal studies were needed. According to Ployhart and Vandenberg (2010), this can be explained by a shortage of guidance for researchers about the specific conceptual, methodological and analysis issues associated with longitudinal data.

In keeping with the above, mediation is a phenomenon which is particularly well-suited to a longitudinal study. The use of mediation makes it possible to understand key underlying processes and, accordingly, this has attracted particular interest in a variety of areas of psychology. More specifically, researchers are interested in the mediational process which underpins the relationship between two or more variables. In the last twenty years, studies which have sought to test for mediation, have drawn overwhelmingly on cross-sectional data and have applied the kinds of methods set out by Baron and Kenny (1986) and presented in detail by a wide range of other scholars (e.g., MacKinnon *et al.,* 2002; Shadish, Cook and Campbell, 2002; Shrout and Bolger, 2002). While most reflections on relevant methodologies, used to examine mediation, have neglected the temporal dimension – as has substantive research into the problem – for the first time, a number of recent studies have, taken account of the role of time in analysing mediational processes (Collins, Graham, and Flaherty, 1998; MacCallum and Austin, 2000; Cole and Maxwell, 2003; Tein *et al.,* 2004). In this context, Gollob and Reichardt (1985, 1987, 1991) laid important foundations in their much earlier work on models for structural equations where they placed considerable significance on the question of time. In those cases, in which the process of mediation involves a variable which

changes over time, any cross-sectional estimate of mediation is biased. Nevertheless, cross-sectional approaches remain the norm for studying mediation.

For Edmondson and McManus (2007), organisational field research is the systematic study of original data in organisations. A field study is one which takes place in a real-life situation. It permits the researcher to gather information about relevant attitudes and behaviours in the natural settings in which they occur (Rogelberg and Stanton, 2007). In this way, independent variables are not manipulated in an artificial experimental context. According to Katz (1953), it is possible to distinguish between two types of field studies. On the one hand, there are field studies which set out to validate specific hypotheses. On the other hand, there are studies which investigate a given reality in a more open way. In keeping with this study's positivist philosophy, the research, undertaken in this study, falls into the first category. This study seeks to test a specific series of longitudinal hypotheses (see Table 4.1 below). Ultimately, over the course of a few days, it examines the mediating role of work-home enrichment and work-home conflict between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations with work-performance outcomes and considers the potential effect of psychological detachment from work in the evening in moderating these relations.

Table 4.1: Overview of Research Hypotheses

		Research Hypotheses
H1	H1a	Intrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) work-home enrichment.
	H1b	Intrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) home-work enrichment.
H2	H2a	Extrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) work-home conflict.
	H2b	Extrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) home-work conflict.
H3	H3a	Work-home enrichment is positively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that work- home enrichment mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.
	H3b	Home-work enrichment is positively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that home- work enrichment mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.
H4	H4a	Work-home conflict is negatively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that work-home conflict mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.
	H4b	Home-work conflict is negatively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that home-work conflict mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.
H5	H5a	Psychological detachment moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivations and i) work/home and ii) home/work enrichment, such that with psychological detachment, the positive relationship between intrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work enrichment will be stronger.
	H5b	Psychological detachment moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work conflict, such that with psychological detachment, the negative relationship between extrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work conflict will be weaker.

4.6 Developing the Questionnaire

The following section details the development of measures for this study's variables. The independent variables are three types of motivations drawn from the self-determination motivations continuum. These are namely, intrinsic motivation and two types of extrinsic motivation, following four mediators: WHE; HWE; WHC and HWC. The moderator variable psychological detachment includes also a specific type of recovery. The dependent variables include OCBI and OCBO as well as in-role performance. Following a thorough review of previous studies, which attempted to operationalize these variables, the researcher identified several scales as most appropriate for adoption.

4.6.1 Motivations within Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

The existence of well-validated SDT-based motivation scales in other life domains, such as academia and sports, are well-attested (Grolnick and Ryan, 1987; Ryan and Connell, 1989; Vallerand *et al.,* 1992; Guay, Vallerand and Blanchard, 2000). Blais *et al*. (1993) published the first SDT-based work motivation measure in French. The presence of internal reliability problems in relation to the external regulation subscale and face-validity problems were the primary motivators underpinning Tremblay *et al.'s* (2009) and Gagné *et al.*'s (2010) efforts to improve the scale. However, in the light of subsequent problems, the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS) was developed. This allowed researchers to assess work motivation at the domain level of analysis (Vallerand, 1997) and proved to be an improvement over previous scales because researchers were given the opportunity to measure work motivation for different tasks within a particular role (e.g., Fernet *et al*., 2008).

There are a number of benefits attached to the MWMS when compared to other scales. Its factorial validity has withstood examination in seven languages across nine different country samples. Research has also shown that language family differences do not give rise to variances in factor loadings, and while complete invariance across languages in relation to MWMS would be ideal, no other validated scales with as complex a factor structure give evidence of similar levels of invariance across languages and language families (Gagné *et al.,* 2010; Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova, 2006). In addition, other scales do not capture the same degree of controlled motivation, with the MWMS focusing on the underlying reasons

for work effort, while it also avoids confounding motivational constructs, a known problem in relation to other scales (Assor *et al.*, 2009). Other elements are also considered, which previously had been eschewed: material and social rewards as well as punishments in the external regulation subscale, thus enabling the researcher to study the differential effects of these various types of contingencies.

Although, as SDT-based organisational research continues to garner increasing interest, there is an evident necessity for a scale such as MWMS (Liu and Fu, 2011; Grant and Berry, 2011; Van den Broeck, *et al.,* 2013). There are some concerns that have been raised regarding parsimony and multicollinearity (Asparouhov, Muthèn and Morin, 2015) in terms of how the full SDT regulations are put into operation. Multicollinearity can be present to some degree if variables overlap and, as is the case of autonomous regulatory forms, this is particularly startling as correlations reach unification. It is not always possible to model all regulations individually and, more especially for either small samples or models that have variables other than motivation. With respect to the operation of SDT through the dichotomy of autonomous and controlled factors, Howard *et al.* (2017) argue that autonomous motivations comprise identified regulation and intrinsic motivation, while controlled regulation includes external and introjected regulations. Following their meta-analysis interpretations, this poses a concern and is something that this study takes account of and discusses.

Firstly, Howard *et al.'*s (2017) meta-analysis does not support the conceptualisation of intrinsic motivation as multidimensional. The correlations in intrinsic motivation subscales for the purpose of knowing, accomplishing and experiencing stimulations range between 0.86 and 0.96. This indicates relatively high similarity. Due to the high level of similarity between integrated and identified regulations, they can face multicollinearity issues. However, this can lead to difficulties in interpreting the results. Additionally, the introjected regulation is equally close to identified and external regulation and correlates positively with intrinsic motivation and identified regulation (r = .603 and .313, respectively; Howard *et al.,* 2017).

This study uses both social and material sub-dimensions of external, controlled motivations and intrinsic motivations; these represent autonomous motivation on the MWSS validated by Gagné *et al.*, (2015). The scale contains 9 items divided across three categories (three for

each) of the motivation continuum. These are: intrinsic motivation; external regulation (social); and external regulation (material). In regards to intrinsic motivation, an example is "*I work because what I do in my work is exciting.*". Having regard to external regulations (social), a sample is *"I work because others will respect me more (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients …)"*. While for external regulation (material) is "*I work because others offer me greater job security if I put enough effort in my job (e.g., employer, supervisor …)"*. The response items are based on a 5-point Likert-type scale and range from very 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. Cronbach's alpha for intrinsic motivation scale was .88. Cronbach's alpha for external regulations (social) scale was .81 and for external regulation (material) scale was .76.

4.6.2 Work-Home Enrichment

With respect to the work-family enrichment context, two directions of flow are present: work to family and family to work. The researcher adopted an 18-item scale to gauge it (Carlson *et al.,* 2006). While evidently reliable, one problem, nonetheless, which was presented as a particularly large number of items, proved necessary to reliably capture the necessary data. Carlson *et al*. (2006) and Kacmar *et al.* (2014) developed a multidimensional 18-item scale to address this issue. A strong citation count (e.g., Google Scholar: 1396 citations;) suggests that the scale is a popular choice for work-family scholars.

For this study, the researcher used the multidimensional 18-item scale devised by Carlson *et al.* (2006). This scale has 18 items, with each of the two directions (work to family and vice versa) of the scale consisting of 9 items, with an additional three sub-scales for each direction: namely, development; effect and mood; and capital and efficiency. The researcher employed also a 5-point Likert-type scale, with responses ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" to capture the expressed sentiments. With respect to WHE under Development, a sample is "*Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member"*. Under Effect and Mood, a sample is "*Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member",* While, under Capital and Efficiency, a sample is ''*Provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member".* When considered from the opposite direction, namely that of HWE, under Development, a sample is "*Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker".* Under Effect and Mood, a sample is "*Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker''.* While, under Capital and Efficiency, a sample is ''*Causes*

me to be more focused at work and this helps me be a better worker." Cronbach's alpha for WHE enrichment scale was .91 and for HWE scale was .94.

4.6.3 Work-Home Conflict

Several studies have examined the work-home interface. By using the Dutch questionnaire survey work–home Interaction (SWING) scale (Nijmegen *et al.*, 2005), the studies have measured either the positive and negative aspects of crossover or the interface between both domains (Geurts *et al.,* 2005). The authors of the scale generated an item-pool derived from 21 published scales (e.g., Kopelman, Greenhaus and Connolly, 1983; Netemeyer *et al.*, 1996), and, from multiple raters, selected the nine items that best fitted the working definition of work-home interference (These were employed with other criteria in order to minimize either the overlap or possible confusion with health outcomes, or between work and home characteristics).

The scale, adopted in this study for measuring the conflict interface between work and home domains was the negative aspect only of the SWING scale (Geurts *et al.*, 2005). The scale itself contains four subscales, namely: negative work-home interference, where a negative experience from work is carried over to the home; negative home-work interference, where negative experiences are carried from home to work; positive work-home interference and positive home-work interference. This study adopted only those items related to the negative aspect of the work and home domains and has omitted the positive aspect. The reason for this exclusion is because this study examines the WHE interface and the positive elements that flow between both domains using a different construct and scale as discussed previously.

Therefore, in this study, the researcher used eight items to measure the negative experience from both work to home and home to work. In respect to the items used for different directions, WHC, a sample is ''*I am irritable at home because my work is demanding''.* When we consider the opposite direction, HWC, a sample is "*I do not fully enjoy my work because I worry about my home situation".* The researcher chose all items based on factor loading and on a 5-point Likert-type scale, with responses ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. Cronbach's alpha for WHC scale was .76 and for HWC scale was .89.

4.6.4 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours and In-Role performance

For this study, the researcher used both the Williams and Anderson (1991) task-performance scale and the Lee and Allen (2002) OCB-scale to examine performance related outcomes. Lee and Allen's (2002) scale is commonly used to measure OCBs at both daily and weekly levels. The Lee and Allen (2002) scale was originally a 16-item scale for OCB-I (8 items) and OCB-O (8 items). The researcher has chosen from the scale what suits this study's format (in terms of daily behaviours) and excluded items that were unlikely to occur daily. Williams and Anderson's (1991) task performance scale contain 21 items that measure both in-role and extra role items. For this study, the researcher chose only in-role items form the scale since either the other items could not be adopted for daily measure or they were items that served the same meaning of OCB in Lee and Allen's (2002) OCB scale.

Therefore, the researcher chose nine items to measure performance related outcomes. From the Lee and Allen (2002) OCB scale, the researcher chose three items for both OCB-I and OCB-O that were most likely to occur daily and were seen to be more applicable to the working context of this study's sample. A sample from the former is "*Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems (OCBI)*". With respect to the latter, a sample is "*Attend functions that are not required but that help the organisational image (OCBO).*" The researcher selected three items from Williams and Anderson's (1991) task-performance scale that dealt only with in-role items. A sample item *is "Engage in activities that will directly affect his /her performance evaluation (in-role)".* In total, there were nine items for this study's performance related outcomes. All item responses were based on four Likert-type response rates. These range from 'not all to very little to somewhat to a great extent. Cronbach's alpha for OCB-I, OCB-O and in role-performance scales were .80, .80 and .84 respectively.

4.6.5 Recovery

For the purposes of this study, the researcher chose to use Sonnentag and Fritz's (2007) recovery scale as the measurement of recovery (Derks and Bakker, 2014; Eschleman *et al.,* 2014; Keeton, 2016). This scale contains 14 items that measure different recovery experiences. These are, namely: psychological detachment; relaxation; mastery experience; and control. Each experience contains four items. This study focuses on psychological detachment. A sample item from the psychological detachment subscale is '' I do not think about work at all''. All items were based on a 5-point Likert-type scale, with responses ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. Cronbach's alpha for psychological detachment scale was. 84.

4.6.6 Demographic Details

The researcher included also several demographic details in the questionnaire. These included: age; marital status; number of children; the ages of the eldest and youngest child; and job tenure. The questionnaire sought also other detailed demographics from each participant such as her current living arrangements and condition; and the level of support provided by either husband or family. Additional questions covered the participant's current job category and whether she was an academic or an administrative member of staff. With respect to those, who indicated that they were academic members, the questionnaire sought also to determine their position within the university.

4.7 Structure of the Questionnaire

Due to the nature of this study, a quantitative daily questionnaire was developed with all instruments and scales needed to measure this research model. This research daily questionnaire was developed to take measurements for four working days (in the mornings). All variables were measured and collected for every day. However, the data of the fourth day was not sustained due to high drop outs. Therefore, for this study, the researcher selected only the data from the first, second and third days for further analysis. Table 4.2 below presents a detailed structural layout of the questionnaire. After the questionnaire was developed in English, an academic translator professionally translated it into Arabic. This version was then sent to another academic translator who translated all items back from

English to Arabic. Both versions were compared and reviewed in detail. Both translators were full-time academic members working in Princess Norah University's (PNU) research services centre. For full list of questionnaire items used in daily survey in English language (see Appendix C). For full list of questionnaire items used in Arabic language (see Appendix D).

Table 4.2: Structure of the Questionnaire

Day	Variables Included in Survey (Number of Scale Questions)
Day 1	• Demographic Questions
	• Intrinsic Motivations variable (3 Questions)
	• Extrinsic Motivations variable (6 Questions)
Day 2	Work-Home Enrichment variables (two directions)
	• WHE – enrichment arises from work to home (9 Questions)
	• HWE – enrichment arises from home to work (9 Questions)
	Work-Home Conflict variables (two directions)
	• WHC – conflict arises from work to home (4 Questions)
	• HWC – conflict arises from home to work (4 Questions)
	Previous night Recovery - Psychological Detachment (3 Questions)
Day 3	Related performance variables
	• Citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) (3 Questions)
	• Citizenship behaviours (towards the organisation) (3 Questions
	• In-role performance (3 Questions)

4.8 Research Context and Sample

The next stage of the process involved identifying the sample; this represents a fundamental element of a positivistic study (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Having identified the target population for this study, the researcher contacted PNU since she is formally employed there. The researcher received ethical approval for this study from both DCU and PNU's Research Ethics Committee and Review Board (see Appendix E, Appendix F).

PNU was founded in 1970 as the first College of Education for women in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Over the course of the next 25 years, 102 similar colleges were established in 72 cities around the country, Accommodating around 60,000 students, these include six colleges in the capital of Riyadh that deliver mainly programmes in education, social service, science, arts and home economics. Fifteen years ago, it was decided to bring together all women's colleges in Riyadh and, thereby, establish the first all-female university in Saudi Arabia. In 2008, King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz Al Saud inaugurated the campus, and the university was renamed as the 'Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University' in honour of the sister of the country's first King and leader, King Abdulaziz and integrating the Arabic word for 'light' (Nourah) (Princess Nourah University, Saudi Arabia, 2020).

PNU delivers 89 programs to a total of almost 39,000 students and employs 2,161 members of academic staff in eighteen different colleges and institutions. Housed in what is effectively a self-contained higher education city, it has become the world's largest and most modern institution of higher education for women (Princess Noura University, Saudi Arabia, 2020).

4.9 The Pilot Study

Pre-testing of a longitudinal survey is necessary to ensure the identification of errors which may only be apparent to the population concerned (Reynolds, Weir and Cockerham, 1983). These errors may relate to specific words or meanings contained within the questionnaire statements. The researcher undertook a pilot study for the questionnaire (n=15) in one of PNU's departments to ensure that data were acceptable and that respondents interpreted each section correctly. The researcher administered the questionnaire herself along with the co-supervisor to pre-test respondents and, on completion, these were returned to the

researcher. Respondents were asked to leave comments on phrasing and scale presentation. They were asked also to communicate any difficulties experienced during the completion of the questionnaire. Participants responded that the items were clear, relevant, and that they had no apparent difficulties in completing the questionnaire except that it was lengthy and time-consuming. As a result of this pilot study, the researcher made no amendments to the questionnaire.

4.10 Administration of Questionnaire and Compliance
4.10.1 Administration of Questionnaire

The researcher administered the longitudinal survey between March and September 2018. A covering letter accompanied the questionnaire; this explained the purpose of the longitudinal survey and assured all participants of confidentiality. The letter set out also detailed guidelines explaining how the survey ought to be completed over the course of the required four days. The researcher sent formal emails to each college in PNU and these were accompanied by the relevant ethical approval for collecting data and access to a 20- minute seminar in relation to the study sample (administrative and academic members). The researcher gave formal seminars three to five times on Sundays (the first working day of the week in Saudi Arabia). The reason for doing so was that academics needed to complete the survey in four days. During seminars, the researcher gave a brief overview of this study and explained its main aim of the research and how it would contribute to the fields of human resource management and organisational behaviour. The researcher highlighted also in detail to the participants the utility of accurate daily responses and compliance.

The data collection period lasted 28 weeks. Every four weeks, the researcher reviewed the collected surveys to identify any missing values or instances where participants were no longer completing the survey. The review sessions assisted also, in providing the researcher with updated diary numbers for both academics and administrators and, therefore, this made it possible to transfer resources to those categories that were most in need of further efforts of data collection.

4.10.2 Study Compliance

Study compliance means that all longitudinal surveys are answered within the timeframe required by the study design. As in other types of research methods, non-systematic missing values in single items may occur. The non-completion of a question on a particular day due to forgetfulness or work demands may occur also. The completion of the survey too late or in conjunction with the previous day's survey entry is also, an issue. However, to overcome these potential problems after the distribution of the survey to participants, the researcher undertook daily morning rounds to the participants' and research assistants' offices. Also, the researcher asked the participants to set an alarm on their mobiles as a reminder. Finally, (if available) the secretary of each department was assigned to send a reminder email to participants in the mornings. This ensured compliance with the study protocols and enabled the researcher to track the timing of responses to identify surveys that did not meet the protocol. In addition, the researcher informed the participants of their right and freedom to withdraw at any time. Many participants dropped out on the fourth day and, consequently, this resulted in there being insufficient data for the fourth day.

As mentioned previously, participation in a longitudinal survey requires effort in that the participants need high levels of motivation to ensure their full engagement and compliance. Until now, studies have relied mostly on selective samples and used either monetary incentives or lotteries to motivate participants and to improve compliance and rates of completion (Ohly and Fritz, 2010). In this study, participants, who abided by the study protocols, were given a 20% discount voucher for female home spa services.

4.11 Data Analysis Strategy

Before testing of the study hypotheses can be carried out, data must be prepared first for data analysis. The researcher conducted data preparation in three stages. First, codes for all variables across days were marked in a particular pattern. Second, the researcher evaluated the pattern of missingness in the data set and the raw data and descriptive statistics were screened. Third, the researcher developed the data analysis strategy which consisted of several stages to evaluate this research data and lead to the appropriate approach of data analysis.

First, codes were given to each item in the daily survey, the first letter of codes in Day 1 data were labelled with D1, with subsequent Day 2 data marked as D2, and Day 3 marked as D3. The researcher used Version 24 of the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS) for data entry and screening.

Second, in planning for review, one of the first steps includes evaluating the problems of missing data in a data set. The issue of missing longitudinal data may be due to the participants deciding not to be involved in this study anymore and /or failing to complete the survey at certain points in the study. Therefore, upon completion of the data entry process, the researcher checked for missing values and screened the data. There are several ways to deal with missing data. However, when only a moderate amount of data is missing (15-20%), it is critical that the technique, employed for estimating those data, is effective (Newman, 2003). The importance, attached to such missing data, reduces as the amount of data missing falls and, where the figure is 5% or less, the procedures for dealing with the problem become less demanding (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). In this study, although the percentage of missing data at the survey level for the three waves was only 4% (e.g., no response for one or several items), this missing data was handled by using full-information maximum likelihood estimator (FIML) and robust standard errors against non-normality (Muthén and Muthén, 1998-2017). However, for the fourth wave survey, very few numbers of employees viewed the survey or slightly attempted it, but did not complete fully. As a result, cases missing in excess of 50% missing data of the fourth wave were omitted during the screening process as invalid responses. Furthermore, to provide insight to the characteristics of the sample and the distribution of responses, the researcher analysed with care the descriptive statistics frequencies for all study variables. Means, medians, standard deviations, and minimum and maximum scores were produced for each variable to ensure that all values were plausible and within the expected range (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Third, the data analysis strategy for the quantitative data had two main objectives. The first objective was to build and test the measurement model to confirm the factor structure of each variable and the relationship between each factor and the internal consistency of each measure. The second objective was to build and test the structural model to allow the testing of the study hypotheses. The research hypotheses were analysed by using version 8.3 of the Mplus statistical package (Muthén and Muthén, (1998-2017) to carry out Confirmatory Factor

Analysis (CFA) and Moderated Mediation Structural Equation Modelling (MMSEM) with maximum-likelihood method of estimation (Bollen, 1989). The indirect effects were tested by using 5000 bootstrapped bias-corrected replications to obtain 95% Confidence Intervals (CI) (Preacher and Hayes, 2008; Shrout and Bolger, 2002).

A variety of approaches can be used to model longitudinal data. However, organisational researchers have criticised the appropriateness of traditional methods such as the repeated measure analysis of variance. This method can be used to determine whether statistically meaningful variations are identifiable between the means that are observed for a participant at different time points (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). This method reflects a specific form of growth model that concentrates solely on factor means and fails to account for factor variances (Duncan, Duncan and Hops, 1996). In addition, the repeated measure analysis of variance relies on data assumptions (such as constant variance and time correlations and no measurement error) that are frequently violated by longitudinal data (McArdle, 2009) and which prevent the examination of the changes over time in individual variations (Chan, 2003).

The development of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) has facilitated the use of several new techniques that evaluate longitudinal data by using latent variables such as Cross-Lagged modelling (CL), Latent Growth Modelling (LGM) and Multi-Level Modelling (MLM). SEM is a model of multivariate regression that extends traditional regression by allowing multiple outcomes; these are called 'endogenous' variables and 'latent' variables (Pakpahan, Hoffmann and Kröger, 2017). SEM incorporates the CFA method for the measurement model and the path analysis for structural model. The measurement model examines how well the observed variables act as measurement instruments for the underlying latent variable while the structural model examines the relationships between the latent variables (Pakpahan *et al.,* 2017). The combination of the measurement model and the structural model is a key benefit for SEM since, together and concurrently, they take account of the measurement errors, the model's various dependent and the estimations of direct and indirect and total effects (Bollen, 1989; Wang and Wang, 2012; Acock, 2013). SEM serves as the basis of all three previously mentioned longitudinal analysis techniques. However, when considering the desired analysis for any research study, it is important, to take account of the aim of the research.

The CL model is a kind of analysis in which two or more variables are measured repeatedly at two or more distinct time points. This form of analysis attempts to estimate the directional impact that one variable has on another at various time points (Kuiper *et al.,* 2018). According to Allen (2017), the analytical strategy of CL modelling is to describe over time either the reciprocal relationships or the directional influences between the variables. In essence, it compares the relationship. Kenny (2014) describes this analysis as follows: "Two variables, X and Y, are measured at two times, 1 and 2, resulting in four measures, X1, Y1, X2, and Y2." With these four measures, there are six possible relationships between them. These are: namely, two synchronous or cross-sectional relations (between X1 and Y1 and between X2 and Y2); two stability relationships (between X1 and X2 and between Y1 and Y2); and two cross-lagged relationships (between X1 and Y2 and between Y1 and X2). However, it is important to note that the CL model gives biased results through summing the scores of the observed variables rather than examining them through the approach to latent variables (McNeish and Wolf, 2020). Additionally, given the number of variables and in view of the interactions and mediation, the researcher needed to use a different approach for this study. Therefore, when testing this study's hypotheses. the researcher chose to exclude the CL approach to analysis.

LGM is a type of SEM that is used often in the social sciences to model longitudinal changes in a variable and the variables that affect the change (Preacher and Hancock, 2012). LGM produces two latent variables, namely: initial status; and change for three or more observations of a variable over time (Lance *et al.*, 2000). LGM's primary focus is on the change or development over time. This requires the variable of interest to be followed over time by using repeated measurements. More specifically, LGM's main goal is to draw inferences about the characteristics of growth trajectories. For example, these are the initial levels of outcome measures and their rates of change. In terms of causal analysis, the model estimates also the causal effect of the initial level on the rate of change. (Pakpahan *et al.,* 2017). There are two reasons why the researcher chose not to use LGM for this study. First, LGM models focus on modelling variable growth curves, which is not a focus of this research. Second, since this study model examines the indirect effect of mediation variables on Day 2, and based on the basic assumptions for mediation models, the outcomes of the model should occur after the

mediator effect, and the mediator should occur after the exposure effect of independent variables (Kenny, 2018).

Furthermore, in regard to the evaluation of longitudinal analysis techniques within the SEM framework is the multilevel modelling analysis (MLM). Before approaching this analysis, two steps were carried out. These were, firstly, the calculation of the Intra Class Correlations (ICC1) coefficient and, secondly, the possibility of a measurement model obtaining good fit across all three data points. Mplus is syntax-driven statistical program with which the researcher can interact through specified commands. These represent data information with the specifying estimations and output options (Lei and Wu, 2007). Consequently, the researchers have to supply themselves the model specification in Mplus language (Lei and Wu, 2007; Muthen and Muthen, 1998-2017). Accordingly, the researchers need to conduct CFAs to confirm the program's latent variables. Thereafter, a structural model command can be added. According to the Mplus program, no such analysis can be obtained for a structural model without obtaining first the CFA analysis since both commands should be listed throughout in one syntax (Muthen and Muthen, 1998-2017). Basically, the researcher measured repeatedly the data, collected for this study, to examine the motivations' effect on work-home positive and negative spillover experiences and their impact on work outcomes. The researcher's first step was to test this study's measurement models. Therefore, while the researcher created CFA codes for three data points, it was impossible to converge them through the program due to computational capabilities within the specified model. This reason was that the dimensions of integration were too high. Therefore, since it was impossible for the model to measure the data over the three days. It was also the case that the structural could not undertake the necessary calculations.

Further, the second step was to examine whether multilevel SEM analysis is necessary by calculating ICC1 for all dependent variables of interest. In a longitudinal context, ICC1 values can be interpreted as the total amount of variance in the dependent variable that is attributable over time to between-unit rather than within-unit differences. In other words, it is the ratio of the between-level variance and the total variance (between- level variance and within-level variance (Musca *et al.,* 2011). The scale of magnitude of the ICC1 indicates the variation across contexts (for example, individuals across days according to this study) and it helps to determine if a multilevel model is required (Raudenbush, 2002). According to Field,

Miles and Field (2012), If there is no significant variation across contexts in the first place, a multilevel model is simply an invalid practice in mental flagellation. A high ICC1 close to 1 indicates high similarity between the values from the same group (for example, a cluster). A low ICC1 close to 0 means that values from the same group are dissimilar (Kreft and de Leeuw, 1998). Higher values indicate also, a nontrivial degree of observations nonindependence that, if found, renders traditional regression approaches inappropriate (Hausknecht, Hiller and Vance 2008). When examining ICC1 for this study, the values of ICC1 for variables across days were low (all ICC1 were below 0.26 for all variables that functioned as the dependent variable at some point of the regressions paths) In turn, this displayed that there was no variation across clusters (participants). In other words, this meant that approximately three-quarters of the variance was attributable to within-cluster differences and one-quarter was explained by between-cluster variability over time. These findings indicated that the average levels of these variables did not differ between cluster and suggested that there was no need to estimate more complex models of temporal change (Hausknecht *et al.,* 2008). Therefore, given the small ICC1 (<0.5) and following current guidelines (Musca *et al.,* 2011), this research opted not to perform MLM. Additionally, although multilevel modelling avoids issues related to repeated measure analysis of variance, by allowing variance to differ within and between units, it creates bias for latent variables because they estimate parameters individually (Krull and MacKinnon, 2001; Fried and Nesse, 2015; McNeish and Wolf, 2020). In any event, MLM does not allow the use of item-level (for example, a questionnaire) and needs also to incorporate sum scores rather than namely weighting the different items by the factor loadings (Krull and MacKinnon, 2001). On the other hand, by using the variance-covariance matrix, SEM can apply simultaneous equations to estimate parameters by parsing the measurement errors in both the dependent and independent variables and within and between clusters. (Krull and MacKinnon, 2001).

Therefore, based on the aim of this study and taking account of the inappropriateness of the analysis methods described above, the researcher chose to use Moderated Mediated Structural Equation Modelling as the most appropriate method to test this study's hypotheses. The reasons are as follows:

a) SEM allows the researcher to use item-level data that provides unbiased latent factor scores.

b) SEM flexibility allows the researcher to include in a joint analysis all outcomes of interest.

c) Moderation, mediation, and moderated mediation can be incorporated easily within the SEM framework. In addition, SEM analysises the interaction between these latent variables that, otherwise, are impossible to perform in any other framework (Kline 2011; Lei and Wu 2007).

Therefore, in conducting the analysis of the data, the researcher chose the measurement model that tested the required specified latent variables from the three data points. Once good fit was obtained, the researcher used MMSEM to analysis this study data and, in doing so, analysed effectively all three points by examining the effects of the causal relationships from Day 1 to Day 2 to Day 3.

4.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented an overview of the research paradigm and philosophy. It explained the philosophical foundations of the methodology which the researcher selected for this study. Then, the presented the development and structure of the questionnaire design and described the sample and repeated quantitative survey. Finally, the chapter provided a rationale and justification for the data strategy analytical approach. The next chapter presents in detail the results of this analysis.

Chapter Five

Findings Chapter

5.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the results of the analysis. This process comprised three distinct stages. First, the raw data and descriptive statistics were screened for any minor errors and potential issues with multicollinearity or outliers. Next, by using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), the researcher prepared a pre-strategy for data analysis. Finally, for the purpose of testing the hypotheses, the researcher undertook the development of Moderation Mediation Structural Equation Modelling (MMSEM).

5.2 Descriptive Statistics

The sample consisted of 358 women employees whose ages ranged from 21 years to 66 years and mean± SD, 36.34 ± 7.75 of which 256 (71.5%) were married, 73 (20.4%) single, 24(6.7%) separated or divorced and 4 (1.15%) widowed. More than two-third of the 246 (68.72%) employees have, on average, 3 (minimum= 1, maximum= 8) number of children with mean± SD, 13.88 ± 8.28 years of eldest child age and mean± SD, 6.4 ±5.82 years of youngest child age and there are 112(31.28%) employees working without children. The living setup within the female employees in this sample was as follows: 216 (60.3%) who lived with their spouses and children; 88 (24.6%), who lived with parents and siblings; 38(10.6%) who lived independently and 14(3.9%) who were staying with in-laws, spouses and children. Moreover, domestic assistance at home was available to 219 (61.2%) females and unavailable to 137 (38.3%) women. Furthermore, there are 168 (46.9%) women working with husband/family support and 88 (24.6%) with the happy support of husband/family. However, there are 29 (8.1%) working women whose families did not wish them to work outside the home.

 In the study sample 121 (33.8%) women were working for 6-10 years; 104 (29.1%) for more than 10 years; 95 (26.5%) for between 1 to 5 years and 37 (10.3 %) who have been working less than one year in Princess Norah University. More than half of the sample, namely 208 (58.1%) women consisted of administrative female staff members and 141 (39.4%) faculty members of whom they are as follows: 14 (3.9%) teaching assistants (holding bachelor's

degree); 77 (21.5%) 2 lecturers holding masters' degrees; 44 (12.3%) assistant professors holding PhD degrees; and 22 (6.1%) professors holding PhD degree and who have published papers.

Initial data screening confirmed that none of the demographic information, collected from the participants, had any relationship with the variables of interest (i.e., nonsignificant Pearson correlations). Therefore, they were excluded from subsequent analyses. The researcher examined with care the frequencies and descriptive statistics for all study variables to provide insight in the distribution of responses and the sample's characteristics. To confirm at the outset that all variables were within the expected range, the researcher generated necessary means (means of the factor scores), medians, standard deviations and minimum and maximum scores for each variable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). This made it possible also to check for any errors in data entry and to give requisite descpritve statistics. The researcher used Cronbach's alpha to assess the internal consistency of each of the study variables. The commonly accepted threshold for reliability is .70. All variables demonstrated acceptable levels of reliability. Table 5.1 below displays the descriptive statistics for the research variables and correlations.

Table 5.1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Variables of Study

Factor	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. D1MOT_IN	3.86	0.76	*(.88)*									
2. D1MOT_EX	2.60	0.83	0.04	*(.83)*								
3. D2CON_WH	2.22	0.60	-0.12	0.13	*(.76)*							
4. D2CON_HW	1.89	0.77	-0.09	0.17	0.22	*(.89)*						
5. D2EN_WH	3.74	0.52	0.56	0.10	-0.32	-0.12	*(.91)*					
6. D2EN_HW	3.73	0.62	0.48	0.04	-0.27	-0.20	0.55	*(.94)*				
7. D3_OCBI	3.80	0.64	0.28	-0.09	-0.26	-0.04	0.41	0.37	*(.80)*			
8. D3_OCBO	3.23	0.66	0.48	-0.04	-0.12	-0.12	0.50	0.36	0.54	*(.80)*		
9. D3_IRP	4.06	0.71	0.39	0.08	-0.04	-0.05	0.33	0.29	0.43	0.50	*(.84)*	
10. D2REC_D	3.18	0.95	-0.22	0.01	-0.32	-0.29	0.11	0.18	0.02	-0.14	-0.08	*(.89)*

Note. M = mean; SD = Standard deviation. Numbers in parenthesis= are Cronbach's alpha

5.3 Model Estimation and Goodness of Fit

The researcher utilized a Full Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML) estimation procedure to estimate model parameters for the CFA and the SEM framework for continuous variables. This gives evidence of multivariate normal distribution (Beauducel and Herzberg, 2006), FIML is employed normally to ensure that the estimates are representative of the population (Kline, 2011). As such, given the near universality of FIML usage in SEM programs, the "use of an estimation method other than FIML requires explicit justification" (Kline, 2011, p. 154). The researcher utilized four goodness of fit indices to interpret the model fit in each section. These are: i) the chi-square statistic; ii) the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990); iii) the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990); and iv) the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR; Bentler, 1995).

Where there are higher chi-squared values, it is considered that these are indicative of deviations from those covariances observed in the population and the predicted covariances. In addition, it is statistically indicative of the model's badness of fit. Where the chi-squared value is notably high, the hypothesized model is most likely to be rejected. Nonetheless, the statistic is regarded as being particularly sensitive to residual variances and violations of multivariate non-normality and to differences in the sample and correlation sizes. As such, it is used often with other goodness of fit statistics to offset these problems (Kline, 2011). It serves also to provide a basis for a comparison of models and can be used to determine goodness of fit indices.

Further information can be obtained from the use of RMSEA and SRMR fit indices since they provide additional information about the extent of misfit in the population (and not only the study sample) and the magnitude of the residuals in the model respectively (Preacher *et al.,* 2008). Kline (2005) advises that a good model fit can be inferred when the chi-square/degrees of freedom ratio fall below 3, and the CFI rises above .90. In addition, SRMR indices of less than .08 and RMSEA indices of less than .06 indicate generally good model fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999; Lance and Vandenberg, 2002) (see Figure 5.1 below).

Figure 5.1: Model Fit Indices

Measure	Threshold
Chi-square/df (cmin/df)	< 3 good; < 5 sometimes permissible
p-value for the model	> .05
CFI	> .95 great; > .90 traditional; > .80 sometimes permissible
GFI	> .95
AGFI	> .80
SRMR	< .09
RMSEA	< .05 good; .05 - .10 moderate; > .10 bad
PCLOSE	> .05

5.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory factor analysis is a statistical method utilized to represent the interrelationships between a large number of observed variables (e.g., items in a questionnaire) with a smaller number of unobserved variables that are called latent factors (Bollen, 1989). As a special form of factor analysis, CFA is employed to determine whether the measures of a construct are in keeping with a researcher's understanding of the form and type of that construct. In most cases, the model is compared to other similar models to ascertain whether, in a specific sample, it can be regarded as best representing the factor structure (Lance and Vandenberg, 2002).

In organisational psychology, the phenomena of interest are studied typically by using multi-item scales whereby items are held to represent aspects of an underlying latent construct. Factor analysis involves the testing of various hypotheses concerning the relationships between these observed items and their latent variable constructs (Bollen, 1989). As regards scale development, construct validation and measurement model validation are undertaken typically by using CFA, a SEM method (Brown, 2006).

CFA makes it possible to test not only the relationships between latent variables and their indicators but also enables the relationships between the latent constructs themselves to be specified (Brown, 2006; Jackson, Gillaspy and Purc-Stephenson, 2009). Therefore, CFA makes it possible to test both convergent and discriminant validity through a determination of the extent to which theoretically similar observed variables relate to the same latent variable – theoretically distinct observed variables should give evidence of lower intercorrelations (Brown, 2006). In terms of linking CFA with Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), CFA

demonstrates the concepts that they hold in common such as factor loadings, covariance, and correlation. CFA tests measurement theory based on the covariance between all measured items. Consequently, the CFA model provides the foundation for all further theory testing (Hair *et al.,* 2014).

The CFA model sees each indicator loaded on a single latent variable with the relationship between other latent variables and that indicator in the model constrained to zero. Next, the CFA works to estimate the degree to which a particular item's response is reflective of the underlying latent variable when used in conjunction with a factor loading estimate. Standardized factor loadings, which have a value of 1, indicate that the item is an exact indicator of the latent variable (Williams, Edwards and Vandenberg, 2009). This differs from EFA models, where more than one factor can be loaded with indicators. Therefore, CFA can be regarded as providing a more flexible modelling technique than its EFA counterpart. This is because it makes it possible for the researcher to constrain specific loadings or correlations; make allowances for measurement errors; and enable residual variances to correlate (Bollen, 1989).

Alternative methods are available for specifying CFA indicators. These include total disaggregation and partial disaggregation. This study utilizes a process of total disaggregation whereby the indicators for each latent variable are set out as the individual survey items, and the ones to which the participants respond. The alternative approach of partial disaggregation entails the parcelling of survey items into groups and these groups are specified as latent variable indicators. The researcher chose to use the total disaggregation approach as it employed all the data provided by the respondent and could be regarded as a more conservative way of achieving model fit while also avoiding misspecification (Williams *et al.*, 2009).

With respect to this study, the researcher used CFA to test whether different spectrum of motivations, the experience of enrichment and conflict from work to home and home to work, the recovery opportunity, those in relation to citizenship behaviours and role performance suggested by theory and research to date - existed also in the current sample.

5.4.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Findings

To establish the discriminant validity of the latent factors, the researcher estimated a full measurement model from the nine-factor model. It comprises: two independent factors, namely intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivations; 3 dependent factors, namely OCBI, OCBO, in-role performance (IRP) and four mediation factors, namely WHE and HWE with their three sub-dimensions each in both directions (development, mood, and capital), WHC and HWC. All observed variables had significant ($p < 0.001$) loadings ranging from 0.50 to 0.96 on their latent factor (see Appendix I). The Figure 5.2 presents the measurement model. Therefore, it was a reliable measurement model.

Figure 5.2: Measurement Model (CFA)
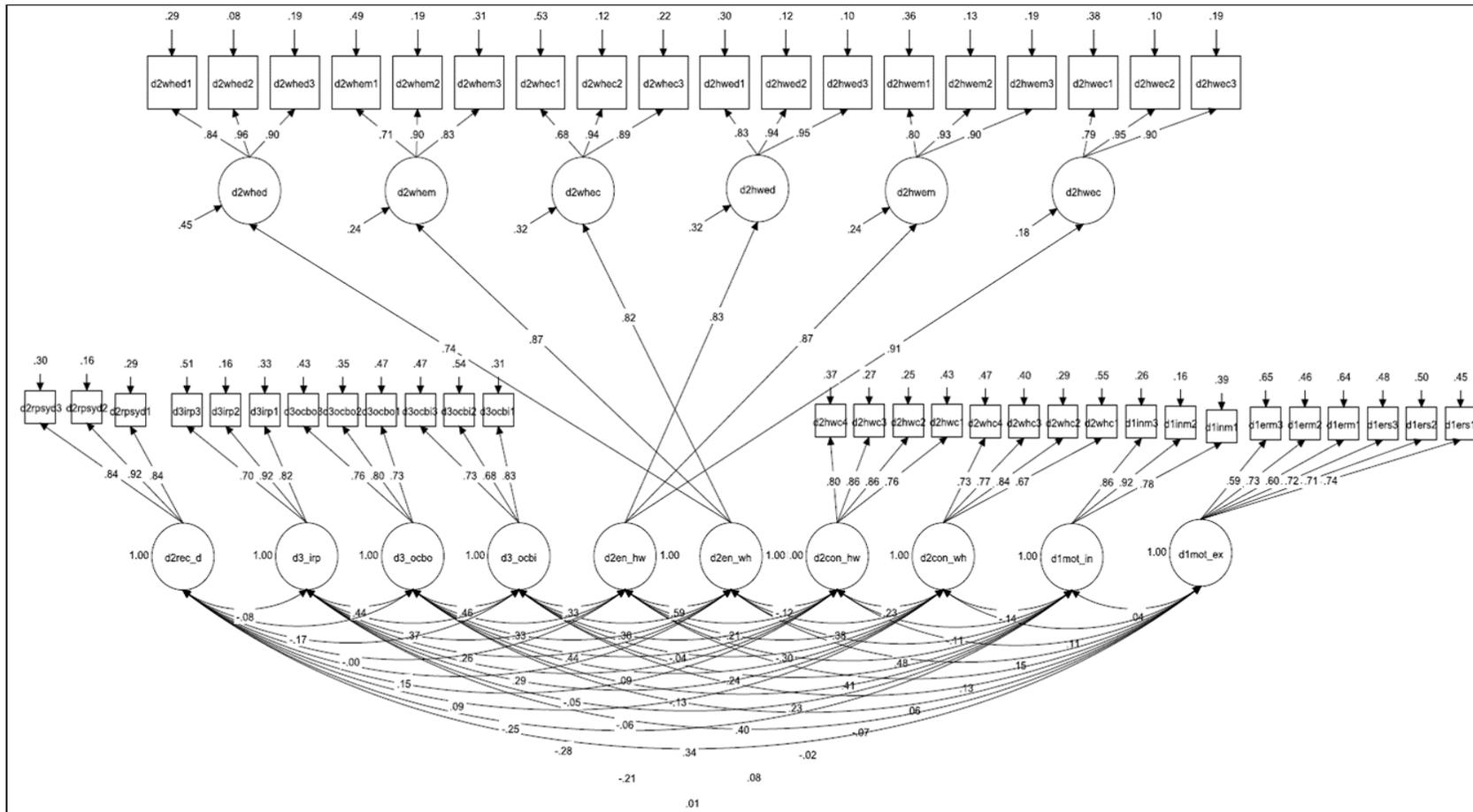
Note. All reported path coefficients are standardized

The researcher compared the nine-factor target model to several alternative nested models in which one or more factors were collapsed. The basis for collapsing the factors was the theory used and the treatment of variables in the previous studies. As shown in Table 5.2 below, the obtained results indicate that the 9-factor target model achieved adequate model fit: χ^2 (860) = 1689.270, RMSEA = 0.05 SRMR = 0.054, CFI = 0.922, TLI = 0.914.

Table 5.2: Tests of Alternative CFA Model Specifications

Model	χ^2	DF	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI
9 Factor Model (target model)	**1689.270**	**860**	**0.05**	**0.054**	**0.922**	**0.914**
1. Intrinsic motivations						
2. Extrinsic motivations						
3. Work-home conflict						
4. Home-work conflict						
5. Work– home Enrichment 2nd order factor:						
➢ development						
➢ mood						
➢ and capital						
6. Home-work Enrichment 2nd order factor:						
➢ development						
➢ mood						
➢ and capital						
7. OCBI						
8. OCBO						
9. In role performance						
9 Factor Model (enrichment dimensions collapsed into one factor for each direction)	**3005.698**	**866**	**0.083**	**0.058**	**0.798**	**0.779**
1. Intrinsic motivations						
2. Extrinsic motivations						
3. Work– home conflict						
4. Home – work conflict						
5. Work– home enrichment						
6. Home – work enrichment						
7. OCBI						
8. OCBO						
9. In role performance						

Model	χ^2	DF	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI
8 Factor Model (motivations collapsed into one factor)	**3739.567**	**877**	**0.095**	**0.103**	**0.729**	**0.708**

1. Motivations
2. Work– home conflict
3. Home – work conflict
4. Work– home enrichment
5. Home – work enrichment
6. OCBI
7. OCBO
8. In role performance

7 Factor Model (conflict and enrichment directions collapsed into one factor)	**4858.951**	**881**	**0.112**	**0.095**	**0.624**	**0.596**

1. Intrinsic motivations
2. Extrinsic motivations
3. Conflict both directions
4. Enrichment both directions
5. OCBI
6. OCBO
7. In role performance

7 Factor Model (citizenship behaviours and performance collapsed into one factor	**3570.518**	**881**	**0.092**	**0.067**	**0.746**	**0.727**

1. Intrinsic motivations
2. Extrinsic motivations
3. Work– home conflict
4. Home – work conflict
5. Work– home enrichment
6. Home – work enrichment
7. Performance-related outcomes

While the initial investigation of CMV, as reported in Chapter 4, indicated that CMB would not be a persistent issue in this study, this research further employed the Harman one factor and the common latent factor tests to this research data set (Podsakoff *et al.,* 2012). When the data in this study were subjected to the single factor test, results indicated that 12 components exist explaining 90% of the total variance. The first factor extracted explained a relatively small amount of this total variance (37%). However, since the Harman one factor test has been criticized as insensitive because it is exceedingly rare for a one factor model to have the best fit (Podsakoff *et al.,* 2003), this research supplemented this analysis with the common latent factor approach. The results from the common latent factor also indicated a non-significant difference (scaled chi-squared difference test; Satorra and Bentler 2010) between the unconstrained model versus the constrained model (i.e., factors loadings for the latent factor constrained at 0 indicating no bias), $\Delta\chi^2$ = 35.81, p = .300, with an 8.7% of shared variance among all items, suggesting further that CMB is not an issue within research data set (see Appendix G, Appendix H).

5.5 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

SEM is a group of statistical models which aim to explain the relationships between multiple variables (Hair *et al*., 2014). SEM achieves this by examining the structure of interrelationships through a series of equations, similar to a series of multiple regression equations (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Anderson and Gerbing, 1992). These equations present all the relationships between the constructs relevant to the analysis (dependent variables, independent variables, mediators and moderators). The constructs are unobservable or latent factors represented by multiple variables (much like variables which represent a factor- in factor analysis). In the first step, the researcher classified all multivariate techniques as either interdependence or dependence techniques. By contrast, it is possible to understand SEM as a unique combination of both types of technique. This is because SEM is founded in two familiar multivariate techniques: namely, factor analysis; and multiple regression analysis (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Anderson and Gerbing, 1992).

According to Hair, Gabriel and Patel (2014), there are several different ways to test SEM models. However, all structural equation models are distinguishable from the following three key features:

a) They estimate multiple and interrelated relationships of dependence;

b) They represent unobserved concepts in these relationships and account for measurement errors in the estimation process; and

c) They define a model to explain the entire set of relationships.

Furthermore, the use of a latent construct brings both theoretical and practical benefits (Fornell and Yi, 1992). First, by using multiple measures for any concept and thereby reducing its measurement error, this makes it possible to represent theoretical concepts more effectively. Second, by taking account of the measurement error in the relevant concepts, it improves the statistical estimation of the relationships between those concepts (Fornell and Yi, 1992).

Following the CFA, the researcher employed SEM to test the theoretical or structural model with the focus moving primarily to the relationships between the latent constructs. As with SEM, the researcher examined the relationships between the latent constructs in much the same way to the extent that multiple regression analysis was used to examine the relationships between the independent and the dependent variables. Although the summated factors representing theoretical constructs can be entered as variables in regression models, these regression models treat variables and constructs identically. That is to say that, in its estimation of these relationships, multiple regression analysis fails to consider the measurement properties that are involved in generating a multiple-item construct (Hair *et al.,* 2014). For this reason, SEM provides a more effective means of subjecting a theoretical model to empirical study. This involves a single analysis of both the measurement model and the structural model (Hair *et al.,* 2014). Or, to put it another way, when testing the structural model, SEM considers information about measurement.

5.6 Structural Equation Modelling Results

Once the researcher had established the measurement model fit, the next step in the data analysis process was to test the research hypotheses. Table 5.3 below presents the research hypotheses and these are modelled in Figure 5.3 below.

Table 5.3: Overview of Research Hypotheses

Research Hypotheses		
H1	**H1a**	Intrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) work-home enrichment.
	H1b	Intrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) home-work enrichment.
H2	**H2a**	Extrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) work-home conflict.
	H2b	Extrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) home-work conflict.
H3	**H3a**	Work-home enrichment is positively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that work- home enrichment mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.
	H3b	Home-work enrichment is positively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that home- work enrichment mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.
H4	**H4a**	Work-home conflict is negatively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that work-home conflict mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.
	H4b	Home-work conflict is negatively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that home-work conflict mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.

H5	**H5a**	Psychological detachment moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivations and i) work/home and ii) home/work enrichment, such that with psychological detachment, the positive relationship between intrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work enrichment will be stronger.
	H5b	Psychological detachment moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work conflict, such that with psychological detachment, the negative relationship between extrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work conflict will be weaker.

Figure 5.3: Research Hypotheses Diagram
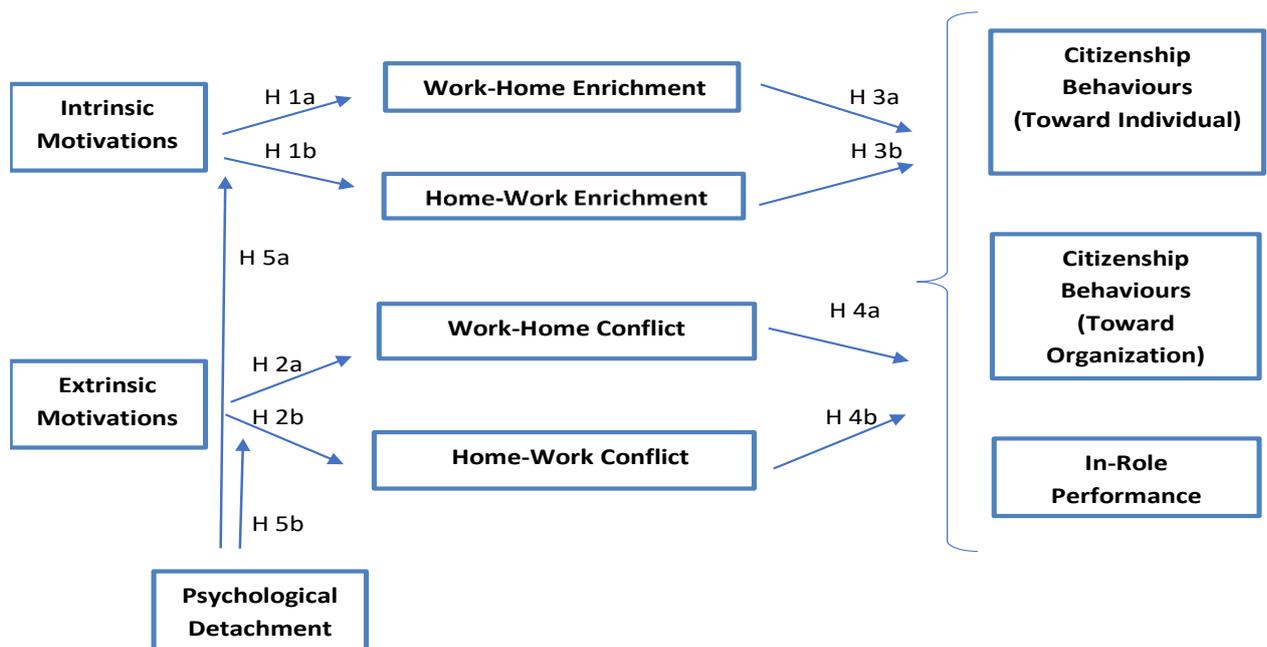
5.6.1 Test of the Direct Relationships in the Model

The results of the Meditated Structural Equation Modelling's (MSEM) demonstrate acceptable fit to the data, χ^2 (870) = 1821.257, RMSEA = 0.05, SRMR = 0.10, CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.90. According to Figure 5.4, first, there was a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation for employees on Day 1 and Day 2 WHE (β = 0.38, $p < .001$) and HWE (β = 0.43, $p < .001$). Second, there was a positive relationship between employee extrinsic motivation for work on Day 1 and Day 2 HWC (β = 0.14, p = .020), but not with WHC (β = 0.08, $p > .05$).

Moreover, in examining the relationship between Day 2 WHE and HWE experiences with Day 3 in-role and extra-role performance outcomes, there was a positive relationship between WHE and OCBI (β = 0.28, p = .020) and OCBO (β = 0.37, $p < .001$), but not with IRP ($p > .05$). HWE was related only to OCBI (β = 0.20, p = .030) and not to OCBO or to IRP ($p > .05$) on the following day. Moreover, on the second day, the results show that neither WHC nor HWC on Day 2 were related to Day 3 OCBI ($p > .05$) nor towards IRP ($p > .05$). Interestingly, in the case of OCBO, the results show that only HWC was significantly associated with OCBO (β = 0.17, p = .001), but not with WHC ($p > .05$).

Furthermore, in examining the direct effects between intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivations for work on Day 1 and performance-related outcomes on Day 3, the results show that intrinsic motivation was related only to OCBO (β = 0.23, p = .001) and to IRP (β = 0.23, p = .001), whereas extrinsic motivation was not related to any of them. These additional analyses assist in reporting the indirect effects results in the next section.

Figure 5.4: Path Diagram with Standardizes Coefficients for the Moderated Mediation Structural Equation Modelling.
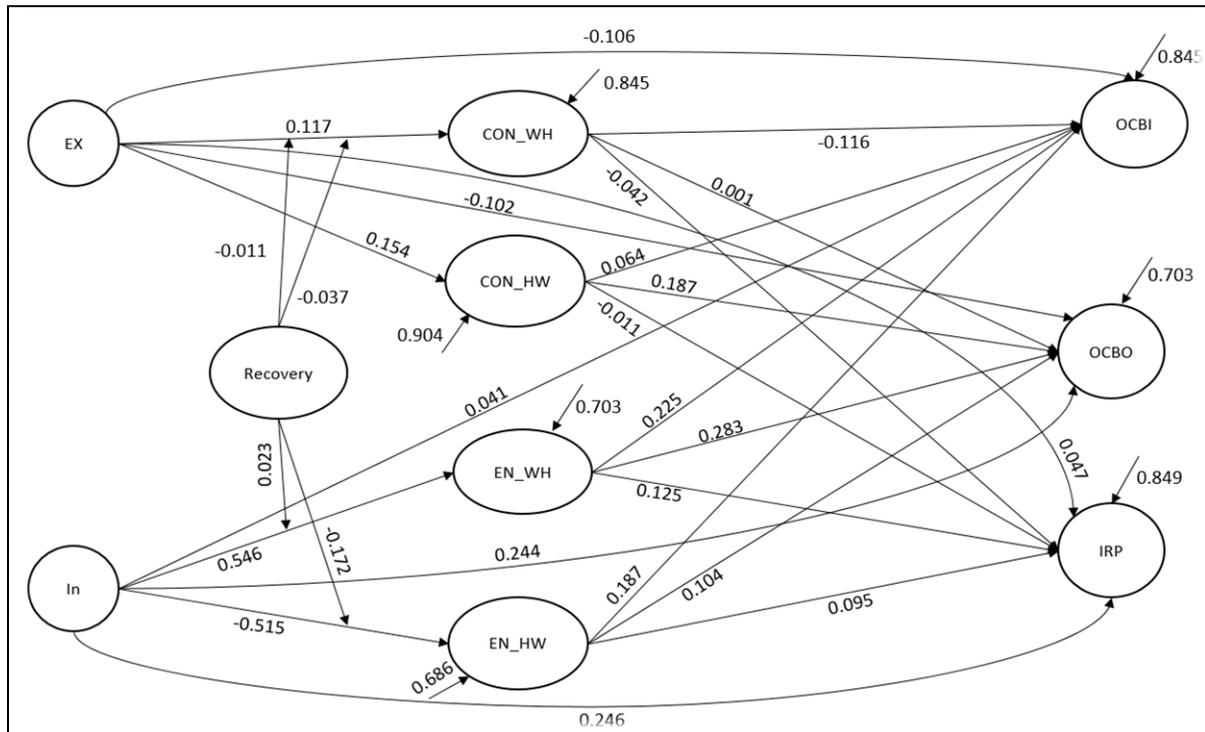
Note. Ext = extrinsic motivation, In = intrinsic motivation, CON_WH =work to home conflict. CON_WH =home to work conflict, EN_WH=work to home enrichment, EN_HW= home to work enrichment, OCBI= organisational citizenship behaviours (toward individual), OCBO= citizenship behaviour (toward organisation), IRP= in role performance, Recovery (psychological detachment). Broken arrows = residual variances for depended variables.

Hypothesis H1 proposed that intrinsic motivations related positively to hypothesis (1a) work-home enrichment and to hypothesis (1b) home-work enrichment. As shown in Figure 5.4, the results support this hypothesis whereby intrinsic motivations related positively to both work-home enrichment and home-work enrichment (β = 0.38, p < .001 for work-home enrichment; β = 0.43, p < .001 for home-work enrichment). Therefore, both hypotheses H1a and H1b are accepted.

Hypothesis H2 proposed that extrinsic motivations related positively to (2a) work-home conflict and to (2b) home-work conflict. As shown in Figure 5.4, the results provide partial support for this hypothesis, whereby extrinsic motivations related positively to only home-work conflict (β = 0.14, p = .020). Therefore, hypothesis H2a is rejected and hypothesis H2b is accepted.

5.6.2 Test of the In-direct Model Relationships

Table 5.4 provides an overview of the breakdown of direct and indirect effects. In terms of indirect effects, intrinsic motivation on Day 1 affected indirectly OCBI ($\beta = 0.11$, *p* = .020) and OCBO on day 3 ($\beta = 0.14$, *p* = .001) through WHE on Day 2; these indicated full and partial mediations respectively. Moreover, intrinsic motivation on Day 1 affected OCBI indirectly on day 3 through HWE on Day 2 ($\beta = 0.08$, *p* = .030); this indicated full mediation. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation on Day 1 influenced positively HWC on Day 2 ($\beta = 0.14$, *p* = .02) and HWC on Day 2 influenced positively OCBO on Day 3 ($\beta = 0.17$, *p* = .00). The impact of extrinsic motivation on OCBO was insignificant ($\beta = .08$, p < .11); this suggested a full mediation of extrinsic motivation on OCBO via HWC. Although HWC on Day 2 mediated indirectly the relationship between extrinsic motivation on Day 1 and OCBO on Day 3, the total indirect effect was significant ($\beta = .02$, p < .05).

However, while the literature commonly reports partial and full mediations, it is important to highlight Hayes' (2018) argument regarding the distinction between partial and full mediation. According to him, this is challenging for several reasons. In terms of full mediation, the concept is that full mediation is always better in reporting any study result since it reduces the likelihood of having other potential mediators. However, this is misleading and illogical since any model can report full mediation results and it remains the case that other potential mediators were not taken into the account within the model. On the other hand, by its nature, partial mediation is a mis-specified model which has not captured all the possible mediators. Moreover, Hayes (2018) argues that there is inconsistency in how full and partial mediations are tested and reported in the literature and that a studies' different sample sizes can affect model degrees of freedom. Therefore, and according to these concerns, the researcher underplays the classification of partial and full mediation when interpreting this study's findings. Instead, the research focuses on the interpretation of the full model's bigger picture.

Table 5.4: Direct, Indirect and Moderation Effects of the Path Analysis Model

Effect	D1MOT_IN						
Effect	D3_OCBI	D3_OCBO	D3_IRP	D2CON_WH	D2CON_HW	D2EN_WH	D2EN_HW
Direct	0.036	**0.226**	**0.232**	-	-	**0.384**	**0.43**
Indirect by D2EN_WH	**0.109**	**0.143**	0.065	-	-	-	-
Indirect by D2EN_HW	**0.085**	0.002	0.002	-	-	-	
Moderation effect of D2REC_D	-	-	-	-	-	0.016	**-0.143**
Conditional effect of D2REC_D							
+1 SD	**0.057**	0.033	0.033	-	-	-	**0.573**
Mean	**0.085**	0.05	0.046	-	-	-	**0.43**
-1 SD	**0.114**	0.066	0.062	-	-	-	**0.287**
Effect	**D1MOT_EX**						
Effect	D3_OCBI	D3_OCBO	D3_IRP	D2CON_WH	D2CON_HW	D2EN_WH	D2EN_HW
Direct	-0.083	-0.083	0.039	0.085	**0.139**	-	-
Indirect by D2CON_WH	-0.011	0	0.004	-	-	-	-
Indirect by D2CON_HW	0.008	**0.024**	-0.001	-	-	-	-
Moderation effect of D2REC_D	-	-	-	-0.008	-0.033	-	-

Note. Coefficients are unstandardized regression weights. *SD* = standard deviation. Bolded estimates display significant coefficients ($p < .05$).

Hypothesis H3 proposed that (3a) work-home enrichment related positively to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviours (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that work-home enrichment mediated the relationship between intrinsic motivation and all three aspects of performance. Overall, the results support the mediating role of WHE on Day 2 on the relationship between Day 1 intrinsic motivation and Day 3 OCBI and OCBO. This suggests full mediation of OCBI and partial mediation of OCBO. For OCBI, the indirect effect was 0.11 and its 95% confidence intervals were 0.02 and 0.21 respectively. and for OCBO, the indirect effect was 0.14 and its 95%

confidence intervals were 0.06 and 0.25 respectively. Therefore, hypothesis H3a is accepted for both types of OCBs.

Furthermore, H3b proposed that home-work enrichment related positively to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that HWE mediated the relationship between intrinsic motivation and all three aspects of performance. The results supported the effect of the mediating role of HWE only on the relationship of Day 1 intrinsic motivation and Day 3 OCBI. This suggested partial mediation for OCBI where the indirect effect was .09 and its 95% confidence intervals were 0.01 and 0.17 respectively. Therefore, hypothesis H3b is accepted only partially for OCBI.

Hypothesis H4a proposed that work-home conflict related negatively to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviours (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that work-home conflict mediated the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviours (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance. As evidenced, the results are that work-home conflict was unrelated to any of these performance related outcomes, Therefore, there was no mediation effect and, accordingly, hypothesis H4a is rejected.

Furthermore, hypothesis H4b proposed that home-work conflict related negatively to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviours (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that home-work conflict mediated the relationship between extrinsic motivation and the three aspects of performance. When applying a bootstrapping test, based on a random sample of 5,000 to calculate the confidence intervals for the indirect effect to check its robustness, the results show that only HWC on Day 2 mediated the relationship between extrinsic motivation on Day 1 and OCBO on Day 3. The impact of extrinsic motivation and OCBO was insignificant ($\beta = .05$, $p < .05$) and suggested a full mediation of extrinsic motivation on OCBO via HWC. Although HWC on Day 2 mediated indirectly the relationship between extrinsic motivation on Day 1 and OCBO on Day 3, the total indirect effect was insignificant ($\beta = .02$, $p < .05$). However, based on the results from the BC bootstrap confidence intervals (MacKinnon, Lockwood and Williams, 2004), HWC on Day 2 mediated the relationship between extrinsic motivation on Day 1 and OCBO on Day 3.

For employee OCBO, the indirect effect was .02 and its 95% confidence intervals fell between 0.01 and 0.06. Therefore, hypothesis H4b is accepted only for OCBO.

5.6.3 Test of the Moderation Effect

To test the hypotheses that recovery moderated the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations on WHCE, the researcher carried out a moderated structural equation modelling analysis (MMSEM). This involved the testing of a model that included two exogenous latent variables, namely intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation, and the interaction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and recovery (psychological detachment). The indicator of the latent interaction variable was the multiplication of the standardized scales scores of the recovery and intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Turning to model fit, given that the model with latent interactions produced log-likelihood based indices of model fit, the value from the model without interactions was compared to the model with interactions. The results of the MMSEM, which tested simultaneously the mediation and moderation model (log-likelihood = -18901.386 AIC = 38168.772) provides a better fit than the model without interactions (log-likelihood = -18906.926, AIC = 38171.852). These can be seen by lower the log-likelihood and AIC (Vrieze, 2012). The MMSEM analysis found the statistically significant moderation effect of recovery on the intrinsic motivation and HWE path (b = -0.143, p = .002). However, the rest of the moderation effects were insignificant (p > .05). To further examine the nature of the significant interaction effect, Figure 5.5 below displays a graphical representation. This shows that, as predicted, recovery moderated the relationship between intrinsic motivation and HWE. However, and unexpectedly, the moderating effect of recovery weakened rather than strengthened the effect that intrinsic motivation had on HWE. This was the reverse to what was hypothesised. As can be seen, psychological detachment weakened the relationship between intrinsic motivations and HWE. Consequently, when individuals detached from work to a lesser extent, HWE played a stronger mediating role between intrinsic motivation and performance outcomes.

Figure 5.5: Moderation Effect of Recovery on Intrinsic Motivations and Home-Work Enrichment Relationship.
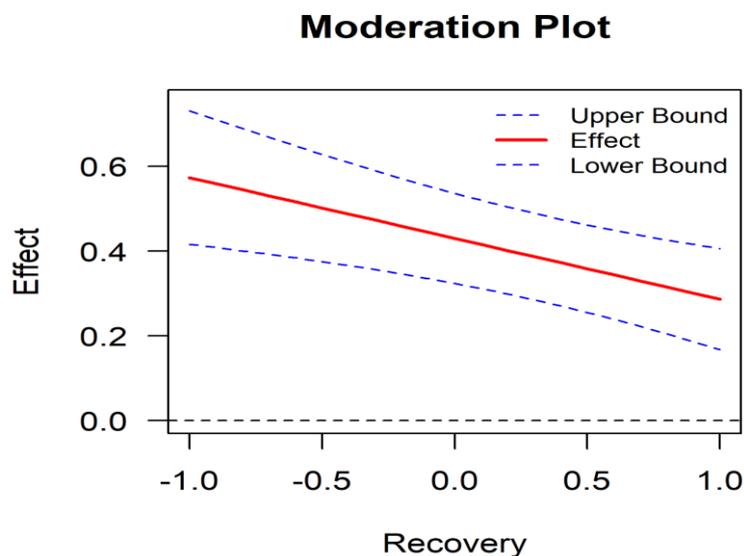
Note. Moderation plot displaying the effect of intrinsic motivation on home-work enrichment at different values of recovery (1 SD above and below the mean). Discontinuous lines represent the 95% CI upper and lower bounds.

Hypothesis H5a proposed that psychological detachment moderated the relationship between extrinsic motivations and both directions of WHC, such that psychological detachment weakened the negative relationship between extrinsic motivations and WHC. The results of the moderation effects were insignificant. Therefore, hypothesis H5a is rejected.

Furthermore, H5 proposed that (5b) psychological detachment moderated the relationship between intrinsic motivations and WHE, such that psychological detachment strengthened the relationship between intrinsic motivation and WHE. No moderation effect between intrinsic motivation and WHE was found. However, as predicted, the recovery time moderated the relationship between intrinsic motivation and HWE (b = -0.143, p = .002). However, unexpectedly, the moderating effect of recovery time weakened rather than strengthened the effect that intrinsic motivation has on HWE. This was the reverse to what was hypothesised in H5b and, therefore hypothesis H5b is accepted.

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5.6.4 Summary of Structural Equation Modelling Results

After MMSEM analysis, Table 5.5 below summarises the results of this research model.

Table 5.5: Overview of Research Hypotheses Results

		Hypotheses	Results
H 1	H 1a	Intrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) work- home enrichment.	Accepted
	H 1b	Intrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) home-work enrichment.	Accepted
H 2	H 2a	Extrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) work-home conflict.	Rejected
	H 2b	Extrinsic motivations (Day 1) are positively related to (Day 2) home- work conflict.	Accepted
H 3	H 3a	Work- home enrichment is positively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that work- home enrichment mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.	Partially accepted for OCBI and OCBO
	H 3b	Home- work enrichment is positively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that home- work enrichment mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.	Partially accepted for OCBI only
H 4	H 4a	Work-home conflict is negatively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that work-home conflict mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.	Rejected

		Hypotheses	Results
	H 4b	Home-work conflict is negatively related to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance, such that home-work conflict mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance.	Partially accepted for OCBO only
H 5	**H 5a**	Psychological detachment moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivations and i) work/home and ii) home/work enrichment, such that with psychological detachment, the positive relationship between intrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work enrichment will be stronger.	Partially accepted for home-work enrichment direction only
	H 5b	Psychological detachment moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work conflict, such that with psychological detachment, the negative relationship between extrinsic motivations and i) work-home and ii) home-work conflict will be weaker.	Rejected

5.7 Chapter Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present the steps undertaken to analyse the data and to test the research hypotheses. The chapter began with presenting the descriptive statistics that were calculated by using SPSS. Then, there were the model estimation and goodness of fit and CFA were introduced and explained. Before moving on to testing this study's hypotheses, the researcher assessed the CFA in the context of this study. The results indicated that the ten-factor target model, which the researcher used in this study, achieved adequate model fit and thereby, a reliable measurement model was obtained. Then, the researcher used Mplus statistical package (version 8; Muthén and Muthén, (1998-2017) and the maximum-likelihood method of estimation to conduct MMSEM. The MMSEM results demonstrated acceptable fit to the data. Thereafter, the MMSEM results were divided into three sub sections. The first section presented all direct relationships in the model; the second

section presented the in-direct model relationships; and the third section presented the results of the interaction effect. The next chapter discusses in detail these findings and their implications.

Chapter Six

Discussion and Conclusion Chapter

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the study results and recapitulates the fate of the hypotheses before discussing this study's contributions to the literature. Thereafter, it presents the limitations of this study and makes recommendations for future avenues of research. Practical implications of the study findings are considered. Finally, in the thesis conclusion, the chapter draws together the key points made in this study.

6.2 Research Findings

The overall objective of this study was to provide an in-depth examination and a novel understanding of the role played by autonomous and controlled motivations for work in WHE and WHC experiences, and how these acted as enablers and barriers to work performance outcomes. Furthermore, it considered the moderating effect of psychological detachment from work during recovery periods between one work day and the next. Guided by this purpose, this research used SDT and COR theory as a theoretical framework and employed a quantitative longitudinal study to examine these relationships over a period of a few days. More specifically, this study examined the women's intrinsic motivations versus extrinsic motivations to work (Day 1) and their effects on the subsequent day's (Day 2) WHCE experiences. Further, this study examined the effect of (Day 2) WHCE experiences on the subsequent day's (Day 3) in-role and extra-role performance outcomes. These were such that both WHE and WHC mediated the relationship between intrinsic versus extrinsic motivations on (Day 1) on in-role and extra-role performance on (Day 3). Also, as a moderating role on these relationships, this study took account of the impact of evening recovery (psychological detachment from work) that women obtained at home after work. As presented in Chapter 5, this study's results provide interesting insights to the process of the work and home interplay model. This section outlines and discusses the results of each hypothesis.

6.2.1 Predictors of Work and Home Conflict and Enrichment Interface Perspectives

Hypothesis 1 proposed that there would be a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and WHE (1a) and HWE (1b). The results support this hypothesis in that there are positive relationships between intrinsic motivations and both WHE and HWE. Accordingly, Hypotheses 1a and 1b are accepted. This means that employees, who pursue work with intrinsic reasons have positive spillovers to their work and home domains the following day and are more likely to experience WHE and HWE afterwards. This is one of the first empirical studies to demonstrate the direct relationships between intrinsic motivation and enrichment, though the findings are consistent also, with those of some other research studies presented in the literature review. For instance, the findings align with Vansteenkiste *et al.*'s (2007) findings that, after a day at work, intrinsically motivated employees felt adequately energized to fully engage in their families' lives. Also, these findings accord with Senécal *et al.'s* (2001) results which show that intrinsically employees are driven by their work. Consequently, they have greater influence over their actions and are better able to maintain the balance between their jobs and their personal lives. Accordingly, these findings are compatible with the assumption of the acquisition principle of COR theory which explains that resource gains, achieved in work domain, are useful in either investing in resources or covering the loss of resources (Hobfoll, 1988). Based on this important mechanism in COR theory, it is argued that, as part of their work, employees generate resources that become accumulated and utilized to replenish and expand the resource arsenals at their disposal (Hobfoll, 1989; 2002).

There are two potential explanations for the positive spillover between being intrinsically motivated to work and WHE and HWE. First, as set out in Chapter 3, being intrinsically motivated to work engenders behaviours that assist in acquiring new resources that can be accumulated for home domain use (Ryan and Connell, 1989; Judge and Bono, 2001; Vallerand, 2007; ten Brummelhuis *et al.,* 2011). Intrinsically motivated employees establish a comparatively active coping style (Ryan and Connell, 1989; Vallerand, 2007; ten Brummelhuis *et al.,* 2011) and enhance their occupational self-efficacy through approaching things (Deci and Ryan, 2000a; Deci and Ryan, 2000b; Gagne and Deci, 2005; Howard *et al.,* 2016; Howard *et al.*, 2017). Previous theoretical discussions, concerning how these behaviours and

resources provoked by intrinsic motives that enable the enrichment process, support these relationships. This is because the active style assists employees in optimising their use of contextual resources and helps them to cope effectively and efficiently with contextual demands. Therefore, this enables the WHE process (ten Brummelhuis *et al.,* 2011). Also, as with high self-efficacy, employees save resources for non-work-related tasks (Judge and Bono, 2001) and, therefore, they are less likely to face WHC and are more likely to achieve WHE experiences (ten Brummelhuis and Bakker 2012; Carlson *et al.,* 2019).

Additionally, previous studies' findings show that various skills – such as effort, absorption, persistence, concentration and increased vitality – are related to intrinsic motivations (Vallerand,2007). All these resources help the employee to function optimally within the work and home domains. This study's findings are broadly consistent with results which view intrinsic motivation as acting as a personal resource that generates resource gain spirals which underpins the WHE process (Fernet *et al.,* 2004; ten Brummelhuis *et al.,* 2011; Chen *et al.,* 2014). This is because personal resources are considered to be the motivational force for the generation and conservation of resources which is the central asset of the WHE process (Hakanen *et al.,* 2011).

The second explanation comes from research on the affective approach set out in Chapter 3. A positive mood, generated from enjoying work (Vallerand, 2007; ten Brummelhuis *et al.* 2011) encourages the acquisition of resources that enables the enrichment process (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000; Rothbard, 2001). The results concur with Carlson *et al*'s. (2010) and Carlson *et al.*'s (2014) findings that positive emotions, such as interest and joy, enhance outward orientation actions and thoughts which lead to the acquisition of skills that, through building the individual's psychological, social, intellectual and physical capabilities, enhance both the individual's personal development and the WHE process. Previous theoretical discussions, concerning how moods and affects, provoked by intrinsic motives enable the enrichment process support also these results. This supports Rothbard's (2000, 2001) arguments that, when employees engage in work, it triggers positive emotions that facilitate the engagement of different skills, such as interpersonal helping, perspective taking and cognitive functioning and persistence that together contribute to the individual's family life. This finding is consistent also, with those previous studies of Rothbard (2001) and Bhave and

Lefter (2018) who contend that positive emotions lead to greater energy that can be used effectively to perform family roles.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that there was a positive relationship between extrinsic motivation and both work-home conflict (2a) and home-work conflict (2b). The results provide partial support for this hypothesis whereby there is only a positive relationship between extrinsic motivation and HWC. Therefore, Hypothesis 2a is rejected and Hypothesis 2b is accepted. This means that, when employees are extrinsically motivated to work, they are more likely to experience HWC afterwards. While this is one of the first empirical studies to demonstrate the direct relationships between extrinsic motivation and conflict experience, this study's findings are consistent also, with those of some other research studies presented in the literature review.

For instance, this study's findings are consistent with Vansteenkiste *et al.*'s (2007) previous findings that, after a day at work, extrinsically motivated employees leave their jobs feeling depleted and exhausted. Such feelings obstruct the growth of fulfilling their family lives and, due to the pressure at work, create more tensions and conflicts between their work and personal lives. Therefore, this finding supports the conceptual argument of the conservation principle within COR theory, which suggests that individuals are motivated to protect and conserve their current resources to meet future demands (Hobfoll, 1988). The finding also aligns with Gagne *et al.*'s (2010) findings which show that negative psychological states are an outcome for employees who are extrinsically motivated for work (Gagne *et al.,* 2010). With the finding is also consistent with Thomsen *et al.*'s (2011) findings which show that less internally self-regulated employees tend to ruminate about work when they leave their workplaces. In return, this may interfere with them being fully present at home and having enough energy to on others.

It was not expected that the relationship between extrinsic motivation and HWC would be as strong as the relationship between extrinsic motivations and WHC. However, there is a possible explanation as to why extrinsic motivation played a stronger role in HWC than in WHC. This could be because for people who are extrinsically motivated to work, family may be a greater priority and therefore more prominent in their lives – that is they work for

material rewards to support family life rather than primarily for the enjoyment of work. Therefore, it is more permissible for home life to interfere with work rather than for work to interfere with family.

Alongside these significant findings, it is important to view Saudi women's motivations for work from the interactionalist perspective (Abuhamdeh and Csikszentmihalyi, 2009; Hagger and Chatzisarantis, 2011; Hagger, Koch and Chatzisarantis ,2015), as discussed earlier in this research. Motivation for work results from the interaction between employees and their jobs rather than viewing it as personal trait that is stable within employees all the time, as different jobs provide different experiences for different individuals. In line with this approach, understanding Saudi women's motivation for work requires us to understand the relationship between them and their work as they have mutual effects on each other. In such a way that they come to work with different predispositions for work and thus, the role at work provides them with their goal or needs (for example, enhancing the enjoyment feeling or gaining material reward once job tasks are completed). Nevertheless, it is important here to point that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation orientations for work might be different for Saudi women due to cultural differences encountering them within this context. It could be argued that Saudi women need to experience some degree of intrinsic motivation in order to work because, firstly, working for extrinsic reasons alone is often not enough where family income means that women do not need to work to support a comfortable lifestyle (Evason, 2019). Secondly, Saudi women often come under pressure to focus on family and societal life and to work brings with it some sacrifice (AlDoubi, 2014). Thus, being intrinsically motivated is an important experience for Saudi women who choose to work as having a positive relationship with work is important to counteract the sometimes-negative attitudes they confront as a result of working.

This reseach findings contribute to a deeper understanding of what nurtures WHCE from a motivational perspective. This is the first study to examine both the work and home enrichment and conflict perspectives concurrently and viewed as part of a motivational process. The findings reveal that WHE and WHC spillover experiences are negatively related. Therefore, WHE and HWE were strongly related to intrinsic motivation whereas HWC was more strongly related to extrinsic motivation. In terms of the associated patterns of WHCE

antecedents resulting from either work-related or home-related factors, the findings are consistent with Michel *et al*.'s (2011) and Lapierre *et al*.'s (2018) results, which support the contention that when examining the WHCE antecedents, there should be no restriction on the assumption of domain specificity. This is because, consistent with their findings, the findings show that motivation can impact on experience beyond the work domain, to play a significant role in both work-to-home *and* home-to-work spillover experiences.

6.2.2 Consequences of Work and Home Conflict and Enrichment Interface Perspectives

Hypothesis 3 proposed that work-home enrichment (3a) related positively to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance. These were such that WHE mediated the relationship between intrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance. This study's findings show that, on Day 2, WHE mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation on Day 1 and OCBI and OCBO on Day 3. This suggests full mediation for OCBI and partial mediation for OCBO. Therefore, Hypothesis 4a is accepted only in relation to OCBI and OCBO. Furthermore, Hypothesis 3b proposed that HWE related positively to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance. These were such that HWC mediated the relationship between intrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance. This study's findings show that, on Day 2, HWE mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation on Day 1 and OCBI only on Day 3. This indicates full mediation for OCBI. Therefore, Hypothesis 3b was accepted only in relation to OCBI.

Thus, the findings show that employees who experience enrichment, either from work to home or from home to work, are more likely to engage in OCBs. However, there are some important differences depending on the direction of the enrichment spillover. Employees who experienced WHE are more likely to engage in OCBI and OCBO while employees who experience HWE are more likely to report OCBI confined to colleagues. This engagement with OCBs, which follows greater enrichment, is explained by the accumulation and capitalization of employees' supplies of resources that, as discussed in Section 3.6.3.3, are provoked by the

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positive emotions associated with the enrichment process between work and home (Hobfoll 1989; 2002).

These findings echo established evidence that WHE leads to OCBs (Balmforth and Gardner, 2006; Jenkins *et al.,* 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2018). This is consistent with Russo's (2015) claim that WHE has a positive impact on people's job-related outcomes due to the positive synergies that occur between work and home lives. Even though the findings align with previous studies, this study also extends on them by examining the effect of WHE on extra-role performance as part of a broader motivational process, where WHE and HWE experiences act as a conduit between intrinsic motivation and extra-role performance. However, in regard to the insignificant relationship between WHE and HWE with IRP, this result unexpectedly contrasts with established evidence suggesting that WHE is associated with performance (Wayne *et al.,* 2004; Graves *et al.,* 2007; Carlson *et al.,* 2011a; Carlson *et al.,* 2011c; Zhang *et al.,* 2018), though, it aligns with the findings of Witt and Carlson (2006), who did not find any relationship between WHE and performance. This insignificant result can be explained possibly by OCBs being discretionary in nature and giving employees the choice to either give more or pull back (Organ, 2017). Therefore, they are more likely to be affected by employees' WHE experiences in contrast to IRP since, from the outset, this is a mandatory requirement placed on employees through their job descriptions. This means that it is influenced less by work and home enriching processes.

Hypothesis 4(a) proposed that work-home conflict related negatively to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance. These were such that work-home conflict mediated the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance. The findings were that WHC was unrelated to any of these performance related outcomes. Consequently, there was no mediation effect and Hypothesis H4a was rejected.

Hypothesis H4(b) proposed that home-work conflict (4b) related negatively to i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role performance. These were such that home-work conflict mediated the relationship between extrinsic motivation and i/citizenship behaviours (towards the individual) and ii/citizenship behaviour (towards the organisation) and iii/ in-role

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performance. The findings were that only HWC on Day 2 mediated the relationship between extrinsic motivation on Day 1 and OCBO on Day 3. The impacts of extrinsic motivation and OCBO were insignificant and suggested that extrinsic motivation had a full mediation impact on OCBO via HWC. Therefore, Hypothesis 4b was accepted only in relation to OCBO.

This finding means that, due to the depleted resources at their disposal, employees who experience HWC do not engage in OCBO during the following day. This finding supports the conceptual argument regarding the impact of HWC experiences on individual extra role performances anchored in COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll *et al.*, 2018). As argued by Grandey and Cropanzano (1999), the resources are lost in HWC due to the employees' juggling their home and work roles leading to negative outcomes.

This study's findings are consistent with established empirical research that examines HWC's negative impact on employees' engagement with OCBs (Bragger *et al.*, 2005; Beham, 2011; Mercado and Dilchert, 2017; De Clercq 2020). And thus, accords with Mercado and Dilchert's (2017) and De Clercq's (2020) views that the difficulties experienced as a result of HWC, reduce employees' motivations to engage with OCBs. This happens because an employee who faces adverse resource-depleting conditions tends to save their remaining energy resources for other activities and, typically, stays away from any extra-role work behaviours. Even though previous studies' findings have emphasized that employees, suffering from HWC, tend to conserve their sources of energy and are less likely to engage in voluntary efforts that may induce changes. This study's findings show that HWC effects extrinsically motivated employees' engagement in OCBO only and not on OCBI. This interesting finding could be because OCBI practices are simple behaviours performed for colleagues to help with minor things at work. These practices consume less time and demands whereas an OCBO practices are typically demanding and require employees' efforts to perform them (Ocampo *et al.,* 2017). Therefore, they are likely to be more impacted by HWC experiences. This is because micro helping behaviors for colleagues at work requires less time and pressure to be performed and, therefore, they are potentially less likely to be influenced by the conflict experienced from home to work.

Furthermore, while previous studies have illustrated that both WHC and HWC have a negative impact on employee performance (for example, Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Kelly and Voydanoff, 1985; Pleck 1985; Voydanoff 1987; Small and Riley, 1990; Frone *et al.,* 1992; Frone

et al., 1997; Witt and Carlson, 2006; Stock et al., 2014), this study's findings revealed that there was no significant relationship. This finding can be explained possibly by being similar to the insignificant relationship between WHE and IRP. Namely, OCBs behaviors are optional in nature whereas IRP are mandatory. Consequently, employees are able always to choose whether to give or control their extra efforts. This is in contrast to IRP where they feel externally regulated to perform in a particular manner. Consequently, IRP is likely to be influenced less by work and home conflicting processes.

In conclusion, the findings in relational to the study model are largely consistent with COR theory (Hobfoll 1989), and show that HWC negatively relates to OCBO. This suggests that a reduced level of citizenship behaviour toward the organisation is a strategy for the conservation of resources. On the other hand, WHE and HWE, are positively related to OCBI and this suggests that a strategy for the acquisition of resources is an increased level of citizenship behaviour toward individuals within the workplace. The evidence regarding that HWC is more related to OCBO and WHE and HWE are related to OCBI propose several explanations. First, as noted in Chapter 3, Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model at the individual level is the broadest conceptualization of the positive aspect of work–family interface. This is because the model integrates different types of WHE (such as facilitation, enrichment and spillover) (McNall *et al.,* 2010). Consequently, as argued by Carlson *et al.* (2006), the functional analysis of enrichment experiences goes indeed beyond the system level to the individual level. This means that, when positive spillover occurs, the enhanced functioning expands its impact on the wider working system to improved relationships with colleagues (Carlson *et al.,* 2006; Hanson *et al.,* 2006). More particularly, this justifies how WHE and HWE increase OCBI. Additionally, another explanation is that the positive affect and mood, provoked by the enrichment process, has an impact on OCBI. This is in accordance with Rothbard's (2001) arguments regarding how this positive impact affects other roles. Here, she argues that the positive affect relates to compassion and helping behaviors (Isen and Baron 1991), and that it relates to an outward focus of attention. This is more likely to lead to positive experiences with others than a more inward focus of attention which often is associated with a negative affect. On the other hand, in the case of conflict spillover, reduced resources, due to working under time and strain constraints, diminish individuals' chances to perform practices that are secondary to the organisation and that, officially, are not part of

the job. This could be because employees with low levels of OCBO due to high levels of HWC may blame their organisation for their poor engagement with OCBO practices due to their conflict experiences (Cloninger *et al.,* 2015).

6.2.3 The Effect of Recovery on the Work and Home Interface

The MMSEM analysis found that recovery moderated the mediated relationship between motivation and performance but only through HWE. The remainder of the moderation effects were insignificant. Contrary to the direction of the moderation predicted in the model, recovery weakened rather than strengthened the impact of intrinsic motivations on HWE. Thus, psychological detachment weakened the relationship between intrinsic motivation and HWE. This means that when intrinsically motivated individuals detach psychologically from work, they are less likely to experience HWE the following day and, in turn, engage in extra role performance towards their colleagues on the next again day. Contrary to evidence on the power of recovery to aid engagement in work (Sonnentag *et al.,* 2017), this research suggests that to reap the benefits of intrinsic motivation for enrichment and performance, individuals should avoid detaching as it makes it more difficult for enriching spillover to occur. A possible reason for this result leads us to consider what happens when intrinsically motivated employees go home and do not detach from their work. This may mean that employees make their family members or partners aware of all their work matters and that, within the home domain, they talk regularly about work issues and events. Consequently, they use their home domains to arrive at different solutions and new perspectives that enrich their workspaces in the next day. This is one potential reason why avoiding full detachment may better facilitate enrichment in the direction of the home to work domain.

This unexpected and contrary result highlights a particularly intriguing phenomenon. Rather than increasing enrichment, recovery seems to weaken it where *less* detachment from work may better facilitate positive spillover from being intrinsically motivated to the home domain. It is commonly accepted that a lack of psychological detachment from work correlates often with impaired well-being (Sonnentag and Bayer, 2005). However, the lack of affective detachment from work can also have beneficial effects for an individual's well-being (Sonnentag *et al*., 2008). The findings of this study show that not switching off mentally after

work can also have beneficial effects. Daniel and Sonnentag's (2014) findings show that the most likely explanation is that highly engaged employees, being similar to the experience of intrinsic motivation, pass their positive work experiences into their home lives by being both psychologically activated and energized through these positive work experiences and by thinking about good aspects of their work during leisure time. This finding is also consistent with Fritz and Sonnentag's (2005) argument that employees who are highly engaged in their work find that a lack of detachment is useful for them. Both studies' findings highlight that it is possible that recovery after work through high psychological detachment may not be as beneficial for intrinsically motivated individuals who want to transfer the positive effects of their work experiences to their non-work lives. Psychological detachment may disconnect employees from the intrinsically motivating aspects of their work and curtail the transfer of resources from one domain to the other.

6.3 Research Contributions

As argued by Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan (2007), empirical research studies contribute to the academic field in different ways. First, they benefit the field through testing theory to support the predicated hypotheses and to reinforce the proposed frameworks. Second, studies also contribute to theory development and produce theoretical propositions and recommendations inductively from the obtained results (Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan, 2007). This study provides a few valuable contributions to the theory and literature in the field. Primarily, the study extends on emerging work-home interface models by incorporating the combined theoretical lenses of SDT and COR theory and, by employing a quantitative longitudinal study over a period of three days, the study demonstrates the role played by SDT autonomous and controlled motivations for work in influencing the experience of WHI processes. The findings describe how autonomous and controlled motivations act as enablers and barriers to performance-related work outcomes. Further, this study considered the role of psychological detachment in the evenings following work to moderate these relationships. This section illustrates this study's key contributions in terms of theory, context, method and practical implications. The next three sections illustrate the significant and critical themes that originate from this study.

6.3.1 Contribution to Theory

The study findings contribute to WHCE theory. First, this research shifts the focus away from job characteristics as key drivers of WHCE experiences to consider the role of individual motivational experiences in sparking enrichment and conflict processes. What is novel here is that *why* people work is significant in driving enrichment and conflict processes. To date, theories on WHE and WHC have paid little attention to motivational processes, instead largely focusing on how demands or resources spillover from one domain to another. The findings from this study show that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, within the SDT continuum, can trigger WHCE experiences. As evidenced, intrinsic-dominant motivations relate to enrichment, both from work to home and from home to work experiences, while extrinsic-dominant motivation is positively related to HWC experiences, where home demands are more likely to encroach on the individual's work domain when they work for external rewards. These novel findings provide the WHCE field with a deeper understanding of how positive and negative work–home processes happen integrally as personal resources link resourceful and demanding aspects of one domain to the other domain's outcomes. Ultimately, extrinsic motivation depletes personal resources and impedes accomplishments in the other domain, resulting in conflict. This is a fresh perspective on work-home conflict processes and highlights the role that an individual's relationship with his/her job plays, where almost all extant research on conflict processes focuses on demands spilling over from one domain to another (e.g. Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Lambert, 1990; Frone *et al.,* 1992; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998; Allen *et al.,* 2000; Byron, 2005; Michel *et al.,* 2011; Mihelic and Tekavcic, 2014; Kengatharan, 2015; Liao *et al.,* 2019).

On the other hand, intrinsic motivation increases personal resources that can be utilized to improve home and work outcomes that, due to the process of resource accumulation, result in the enrichment process. This highlights a previously overlooked source of enrichment. Namely, enjoyment of work either acts as a personal resource or it plays a motivational force in the generation of personal resources that are transferred from work and home domains through either affective or instrumental paths described in the enrichment theory (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Additionally, by acknowledging and confirming the theoretical links between intrinsic versus extrinsic forms of motivations and the WHCE spillover experiences, this study expands ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) WH-R model and adds

a motivational component that identifies people's relationship with work itself as a key personal resource which underpins the spillover processes. In doing so, it offers a novel valuable consideration for scholars in the WHCE field to further investigate the various implications of the work-home interplay models grounded in motivational roots.

Although an increasing number of studies have sought to examine WHCE's potential antecedents, most previous studies have associated such antecedents mainly to either contextual, personal or organisational characteristics. The empirical literature shows that the established predictors of both conflicting and enriching processes are, indeed, environmental characteristics such as job stresses, workplace, social support, family-friendly organisational policies and personal factors including personality (Hauser *et al*., 2018). To the best of the author's knowledge, there is a gap in previous research concerning how an individual's motivational reasoning influences the interplay between an individual's work and home lives. Consequently, this study contributes theoretically to the WHCE field by acknowledging new antecedents from a motivational perspective. More specifically, it is evident that *why* we work underpins enrichment and conflict experiences. Explaining such experiences through a motivational lens adds to our understanding of how these domains compete or complement each other. This is an important theoretical contribution in shifting the emphasis away from characteristics in the respective home and work domains towards a consideration of the worker's relationship with the work itself. This is because the way, in which people perceive their jobs, influences their levels of WHCE.

Second, research studies have sought to better understand the relationship between WHCE and a variety of important outcomes. Among all the consequences of WHCE, OCB is shown to be the one that is highly desirable for organisations and the one which is the least investigated as an outcome of the work-family interface (Mercado and Dilchert, 2017). Therefore, this study extends the WHCE consequences literature by examining OCB outcomes for the first time as part of a wider motivational process. This study contributes to our understanding of the role of both enrichment and conflict process as mechanisms between motivation and performance, where previous research has largely substantiated a direct relationship between motivation and performance. The findings in this study suggest that spillover processes between work and home domains and the experiences that individuals have as a result, rest between motivation and performance. Specifically, it recognizes how employees

who experience WHE and HWE align themselves favorably in practicing OCBs towards their colleagues and their organisation whereas employees who experience HWC are less likely to participate in organisational-focused OCB activities. Therefore, this study's findings stress the importance of the enrichment construct given its significant impact in fostering OCB practices but also align with Ocampo *et al.'s* (2018), who argued that employees' behaviours and well-being greatly affect the effectiveness of any organisation's performance.

Third, this study's findings raise questions about the emphasis on WHC in the existing research literature (Akanji *et al.*, 2015; Gayathri and Karthikeyan 2016; Lapierre *et al.*, 2018). More precisely, there is a need to include WHE measures in work-home interface studies since, as indicated in this study, both WHE and HWE contribute incremental explanatory powers over WHC alone. It is noteworthy also that women participants in this study, in general, experienced greater enrichment over conflict.

Lastly, this study's finding contributes to the work-home based recovery literature research by highlighting the importance of detaching mentally from work in a manner that allows the individual to execute the positive spillover from home to work domains. This study's findings provide evidence that, for intrinsically motivated employees, high psychological detachment from work weakens the HWE spillover experience. Therefore, this study's findings extend the recovery research within work and home interplay and demonstrate the beneficial effects that intrinsically motivated employees gain from low psychological detachment in the evenings after work. Certainly, this is area worthy of further exploration to determine potential cultural differences for this finding but also to determine whether there is an optimal level and approach to psychological detachment from work (see Section 6.4 for further discussion). Consequently, employees pass their positive work experiences into their home lives, both by being psychologically activated, energized through these positive work experiences and by thinking about positive aspects of their work during leisure time (Fritz and Sonnentag's; Daniel and Sonnentag's 2014).

6.3.2 Empirical Contribution: Challenging Contextual Assumptions

Beyond the key theoretical contributions to the WHCE field, the findings extend empirically our learning about SDT in various ways. First, within this research context, this study provides further empirical evidence for the universality and cross-cultural existence of the most central assumptions of SDT in that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are related both separately and negatively (Gagné and Deci, 2005; Vansteenkiste *et al.,* 2007; Deci and Ryan, 2008; Kuvass *et al.,* 2017). This means that, when employees engage in work for its own sake and for the purpose of enjoyment, the interest and satisfaction felt from performing the activity itself is different to the act of performing the same activity to achieve either a positive experience or to avoid negative outcomes. The findings are also consistent with the span of studies on the outcomes of these two types of motivations as the findings show that, when individuals are driven by intrinsic motivations, the consequences and correlations are strongly positive in terms of the quality of their work-life well-being and performance. These outcomes are contrary to the outcomes of individuals who are driven by extrinsic motivations (Howard *et al.,* 2017). This study's findings are also consistent with Greguras and Diefendorff's (2009) findings which confirm that, without exception, intrinsic motivations are superior not only in today's workplaces and for various job outcomes but extend to providing greater benefits to an individual's overall life well-being and satisfaction. Furthermore, these findings concur with those of Fernet *et al.* (2004) who contend that autonomous versus controlled regulation is viewed as a personal resource that can support employees in their workplaces.

Second, these findings are consistent with Vansteenkiste *et al.*'s (2007) and Kuvass *et al.* (2017) findings that intrinsic motivations relate to positive outcomes whereas extrinsic motivations are associated with either negatively related or unrelated outcomes and that these negative experiences carried over into employees' life. As evident from this study's findings, intrinsic motivations were found to be related to both WHE and HWE and extrinsic motivations were related to HWC but unrelated to WHC. Furthermore, by drawing tentative conclusions about causality from the results, this study goes beyond Kuvass *et al.*'s (2017) study in examining casual links between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and performance outcomes through WHCE. This means that, when compared to Kuvass *et al.*'s (2017) cross-sectional study findings, this study's findings are drawn from a longitudinal design study. Furthermore, this study's findings are in line with Vansteenkiste *et al.*'s (2007) findings on the

negative relationship between extrinsic value orientation and lower job and life satisfaction, regardless of income. Although the present study did not examine women's financial income, it is particularly commonplace within the research context that Saudi men are the sole providers for their families and that Saudi women are not necessarily the core providers for their homes and families. This makes Saudi working women prioritise working for the sake of the work itself and not for the financial rewards gained from being employed.

Furthermore, by examining the employees' underlying motivations to work and its impact on WHCE, this study's findings add to those of Roche and Harr (2019). First, in contrast to their study that was limited to a cross-sectional design, the researcher applied a longitudinal design. Second, by examining the relationship between extrinsic motivation and WHC processes, this study extends their research by considering the motivational roots of the WHC process and additionally, acknowledges several relationships that were overlooked in their study from examining only the WHE construct. This study's preliminary results acknowledge that there is a negative relationship between WHE and WHC and that, while extrinsic motivation is positively related to WHE, intrinsic motivation is negatively related to WHC. These interesting results demonstrate the complexities of internal versus external motivations for work and how they impact work and home enriching and conflicting spaces. Consequently, they flag up the importance of further investigation (see section 6.4).

The present study also explored WHCE process in a rather unique sample, albeit with a narrower focus on Saudi women. This is very valuable given, on the one hand, there are significant variations between the genders in terms of the severity and origins of WHC around the world (Boz, Martínez-Corts and Munduate, 2016; Hirayama and Fernando, 2018). The complexities of women's various social roles and new roles within the workforce in this research context, on the other hand, contribute significantly to the current role accumulation research. Most importantly, this study extends Roche and Harr's (2019) study by presenting an appropriate theoretical framework that relates intrinsic motivation to WHE and HWE whereas in their study, intrinsic motivation was linked to WHE and HWE based on the high degree of relatedness between these constructs. As a result, their study assumes some degree of conceptual overlap, undermining theoretical causal links between the different concepts.

Indeed, this study's findings are consistent with the findings of previous studies that have emphasised the usefulness of the self-determined motivation concept as an effective tool in understanding human behaviour across different life settings (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci and Ryan, 1991; Vallerand, 1997; Senécal, Vallerand and Guay, 2001). This is evidenced by the role of motivational orientations in shaping how individuals juggle their most essential and demanding spaces in their lives, namely, work and home. These original findings extend understanding of the effects of auonomous and controlled motivation in facilitating individuals to experience WHE or WHC.

The study provides an empirical contribution in tackling contextual assumptions about women who, in different countries, have achieved different levels of equality in society. This depends on differences in labour market policies, national welfare regimes and each country's different cultural aspects (Lyonette, Crompton and Wall, 2007). As noted in Chapter 1, the complexities of Saudi women's multiple roles present clear challenges and, therefore, the value of Role Theory in respect of assessing Saudi women's role in society should not be ignored. On the other hand, since Saudi society is evolving continuously (Reuters, 2017), the Saudi women's new roles in terms of the work-life interface are of greater importance within the context of role accumulation and related research. Therefore, cultural and cross-national differences can enrich and provide a nuanced understanding of the work-life interface experiences (O'Brien *et al.*, 2014*;* Au and Ahmed 2015; Siu *et al.,* 2015*;* Bhowon, 2016*;* Qing and Zhou, 2017*;* Tang, Huang and Wang 2017*;* Choi *et al.,* 2018). However, there was a notable weakness in extant empirical work-life research because the importance of examining cultural and cross-national differences in understanding the work-life interface were constantly overlooked. (e.g., Aryee *et al.,* 1999; Hill *et al.,* 2004; Luk and Shaffer, 2005; Spector *et al.*, 2007; Choi, 2008; Coffey *et al.,* 2009; Mortazavi *et al.,* 2009; Chen, Powell and Cui, 2014; O'Brien *et al.,* 2014*;* Au and Ahmed, 2015; Siu *et al.,* 2015*;* Bhowon, 2016*;* Qing and Zhou, 2017*;* Tang, Huang and Wang, 2017*;* Choi *et al.,* 2018).

The study findings offer particularly powerful insights into Saudi women's working experiences. Surprisingly, despite their multiple and demanding family and societal roles (Aquirre *et al.,* 2014; Bhatnagar and Jain 2014; Jaleel, Ismail and Christopher 2016), Saudi

women experience greater enrichment than conflict, pointing to the scope for positive spillover. This significantly concurs with proponents of the positive psychology movement (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Cameron *et al.,* 2003) which focuses on the individual functioning optimally and utilizing their strengths rather than focussing on their poor performance and weaknesses (Luthans, 2002). Most importantly, it emphasises that, while work can interfere with home and family, it provides self-esteem, self-fulfilment, and that the simultaneous involvement in multiple roles between work and home has its beneficial effect (Eikhof *et al.,* 2007; Gayathri and Karthikeyan, 2016). Therefore, empirical work and home research studies should shift the focus from the conflict to the enrichment perspective of work and home interaction (Lapierre *et al.,* 2018; Akanji *et al.,* 2015). This is particularly important in countries like Saudi where women's participation in the workforce is only commencing and where cultural shifts required to support women's advancement would benefit by embracing a more positive outlook regarding dual roles for women in society.

6.3.3 Contribution to Practice

This study provides important implications for practice as its novel findings shed more light on the conditions that facilitate WHE and prevent WHC spillovers by highlighting the role of motivation. Employees seem to experience both WHE and HWE by being highly intrinsically motivated in their jobs. In contrast, highly extrinsically motivated employees experience HWC. Consequently, this study's findings have practical implications for organisations and, more specifically, their management and human resource managers.

With this evidence, this study shows that people's motivational orientation matters for positive and negative interactions between their work and private lives. For a work-life research study, the important question is why people do what they do at work (Hauser *et al.,* 2018). This is because individuals' perceptions of their work and how they feel about is reflected in their WHC and WHE levels. From an applied perspective and focusing on the organisational level, the findings suggest that, since intrinsic motivations are an important means to experiencing enrichment, employers and their managers should pay more attention to enjoyment and even to fun in the workplace (Clancy and Linehan, 2019; Mitchell, Schuster and Jin, 2020). Therefore, it is important to design jobs that promote intrinsic motivations, to make space for fun at work and to shape work environments that are independent of external regulation (ten Brummelhuis *et al.*, 2011; Van Den Broeck *et al.,* 2013). Following Gagne and

Deci (2005) suggestions, autonomous work motivation is also supported by work environments that are challenging, interesting and allow for choice. Such work designs can be developed by allowing employees to design and schedule their own tasks (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Alternatively, it is helpful also, to provide autonomy supporting supervision such as options and meaningful justifications in feedbacks and acknowledging employee' viewpoints (Van den Broeck *et al.,* 2008).

Apart from increasing job autonomy, offering challenging work tasks and developing a work atmosphere where employees feel connected to others in the organisation, will also support intrinsic motivation (Ryan and Deci, 2000). In turn, intrinsically motivated employees are more likely to engage in behaviours that meet their needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, thus they are more resourceful (Kasser *et al.,* 2004; Van den Broeck *et al.,* 2008). Interestingly, Van Den Broeck *et al.* (2013) have proposed that employee motivations should be diagnosed to assist employers to tailor interventions to the needs of their individual employees.

Moreover, beyond enhancing intrinsic over extrinsic motivations, management should focus on reducing WHC experience since it results in negative outcomes for both employees and their organisations. Brauchli, Bauer and Hämmig (2014) advise that, whether through focusing on potential WHC protective factors (such as job autonomy) or specific WHC antecedents (such as high time-related job demands and home demands and the many more antecedents mentioned in Chapter 3), organisations can plan intervention strategies to reduce WHC directly. In a major meta-analysis by French *et al.* (2018), organisational support was identified as the most important form of social support in combating work-home conflict and, of particular relevance to the current context, is even more impactful in collectivist cultures where support is very much expected. French *et al.* (2018) point to the need for managers to be trained on work-life conflict specifically, enabling them to engage in simple supportive behaviours like scheduling flexibility, advice or sympathy when family issues arise (see also, Allen 2001; Hammer *et al.,* 2009).

Furthermore, human resource managers should design appropriate interventions for employees to raise their awareness of WHE experiences. For example, this could be a topic for discussion at employee developmental training sessions. In workshops and seminars,

instructors could explain thoroughly the mechanisms and dimensions of WHE experiences and how these lead to the positive spillover between work and home. Thereafter, employees may go on to educate themselves and focus on their personal growth. For example, employees may keep a diary every night or every morning, naming a current issue at work or at home and thinking about how they can perceive it as a challenge that will give them an opportunity for personal growth (Hauser *et al.,* 2018).

Moreover, the findings show how intrinsically motivated employees require little detachment from work to facilitate positive spillover between home and work domains. This means that employees react emotionally not only to positive experiences but, also, that they also reflect actively on them (Lazarus, 1991) and, in turn, this leads to WHE. Therefore, following this argument, an interesting practical recommendation could support employees in this regard. For example, employees might reflect on their achievements and positive workplace experiences by sharing them with important family members (Gable *et al.,* 2004). Also, employees might promote constructive work reflection by incorporating cognitive habits into their leisure time and reflecting on the positive aspects of their employment (Daniel and Sonnentag, 2014). These practical recommendations allow employees to improve their WHE by incorporating good aspects of their work into their personal lives. Furthermore, Benedetti *et al.* (2015) suggest an interesting implication in relation to recovery is that managers may wish to delegate workers tasks early in the day and encourage them to undertake interesting and enjoyable tasks later in the day. This is because setting aside the late afternoon and early evening for activities, which are intrinsically beneficial to one's well-being, could aid the transfer of positive energy and affect the change from work to home.

Lastly, due to the highly prominent acknowledgment of Saudi women being important contributors to the success of Saudi Vision 2030 (Saudi Vision, 2030 2016; Alriaydh, 2020), the findings assist the extraordinary empowerment phase of Saudi women in many ways. First, the findings recommend that Saudi women continue to be supported so that they can play their full role in the development of Saudi society and the country's economy. Also, their role should be supported through the periodic collection and analysis of data. Third, the findings highlight how Saudi women have benefitted by a change in approach, evidenced by higher levels of enrichment reported over conflict. The findings illustrate that training, education and being able to work largely results in enriching experiences for Saudi women (at least in the

studied organisation) and that organisations and wider society will benefit from this shift in cultural norms.

6.4 Limitations and Future Directions

Although this study provides novel insights into the effect of different motivations for work on WHCE spillover experiences and their relationship with organisational performance outcomes, it is not without its limitations. There are a number of limitations that must be taken into consideration when considering this study's findings.

First, all the adopted measures were completed through self-reporting and, therefore, this increased the risk of common method bias in the results. However, there are several procedural and statistical precautions that limit this bias (Podsakoff *et al.,* 2003). First, as regards the procedural precautions, the quality of survey design should have minimized method bias (e.g., clear instructions at the start of the survey, clear instructions in the seminar given before the survey distribution, random ordering of items from different scales, temporal separation between independent variables and the dependent variables) (e.g., Podsakoff *et al.,* 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Podsakoff 2012). Second, the longitudinal design of this study and collecting data through three time points restricted some aspects of this bias (Podsakoff 2003). In addition, and most importantly in respect of the statistical precautions, the results from the Harman one factor test and the common method factor procedure in Chapter 5 (reported in Section 5.4.1) indicated that in this data set, common method bias was not a major concern (Podsakoff *et al.,* 2003; 2012).

It is noteworthy that the use of self-reporting data is commonplace in research studies in this field. More notably, it was appropriate that this study collected the data through self-reports. In the same manner it was appropriate for this study to consider as were the perceptions of the job, personal well-being, and intentions to act in a certain way are within-person factors obtained though self-reporting and assessed accordingly (Chan, 2009). Moreover, while others may challenge the use of self-reporting to measure performance, this study's method is compatible with other similar studies that have considered the effect of the work-family dynamic on performance (e.g., Aryee, 1992; Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian, 1996; Frone *et al.,* 1997). Furthermore, for this study, the researcher used a scale that was developed and validated explicitly for this purpose (Williams and Anderson, 1991). Furthering this stance on

self-reporting performance, this research recommends that future research tests this study's findings to establish if these can be replicated or even improved upon by combining self-reports and other ratings. For example, it would be insightful to rate employee's performance outcomes from their supervisors and colleagues.

Moreover, it would also be fruitful to examine women's partners on how they rate the severity of the conflict and enrichment crossover experiences. This is because these spillover experiences often effect personal relationships since, from their point of view, the conflicts and enrichment spillovers between the realms of work and home can be more intense. This is particularly important where cultural norms have traditionally opposed the participation of women in the workforce. Understanding the role of partner attitudes in shaping conflict and enrichment processes for women should be taken into consideration in future studies. Crossover is an interpersonal process that includes the dyadic transmission of negative and positive experiences between individuals (Westman *et al.,* 2004). For example, Greenhaus *et al.,* (1989) propose that, since one partner's high work salience is associated with greater family pressures on the other, this can result in higher WHC among dual-career partners. Following their proposition, Sanz-Vergel, Rodríguez-Muñoz and Nielsen's (2015) findings demonstrate that daily interpersonal conflicts at work spillover into increased interpersonal conflicts at home and crossover to the partner. On the other hand, within the enrichment perspective, Van Steenbergen, Kluwer and Karney's (2014) findings indicate that positive spillover and crossover effects on marital satisfaction may be greater than negative spillover and crossover effects. This finding emphasises the importance of researching the effects of positive work-spouse spillover and crossover experiences. Therefore, the researcher recommends that future work and home interface studies take account of the family and home system perspective.

Second, this current study was limited by assessing the extremes of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and their implications on WHCE spillover experiences. The remaining behavioural regulations of SDT continuum in which they draw on identity, values, goals and approval of others to name but a few, have specifiable consequences for learning, performance, personal experiences and well-being (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Thus, they may influence WHCE experiences differently. Therefore, this research recommends that future research studies examine how these behavioural regulations could influence also, the experiences of

enrichment versus conflict. For example, would employee feelings that identified motivation for work (viewing work activities as meaningful) lead to an enrichment process over conflict?

The third limitation relates to the generalisability of this study's findings. The researcher conducted this study solely with Saudi Arabian women working in Princess Norah University who are members of one organisation in a particular industry, namely, a public organisation within higher education sector. Although this sample gave the researcher the perfect opportunity to examine women's WHCE experiences, there remains a need for further research to investigate whether this study's findings can be generalized to different contexts. For example, the examination of women, who are employed in the private sector and who share different HR polices and regulations from the public sector, may result in different findings. Also, it would be valuable to examine women who work with men in non-segregated working environments. Perhaps, these could be less advantaged samples where the levels of conflict might be higher; enrichment might be lower; and outcomes might be different. However, without conducting further research on these samples, it is unclear if there would be differences between the relationships linking predictors to outcomes.

Fourth, the researcher employed a daily survey approach to examine over a three- day period the relationships of interest. In doing so, this approach captured the effect of previous evening recovery which necessitated the examination of the casual relationships over consecutive days. However, this short period of time limited this study since it was extremely difficult to capture daily changes. Future research studies could benefit greatly from applying a diary study (e.g., Ohly *et al.,* 2010) to examine the research model relationships. However, on the other hand, the use of a diary research method would include a daily reflection of women's experiences of the work and home interplay process and would be more specific and time-bound with the daily interactions such as '' (e.g., "today, I did not enjoy the company of my colleagues …") rather than a general perception of everyday WHCE experiences that are not time-bound. In this regard, the results of such a study would complement rather than challenge this study's findings. Therefore, this approach would possibly require to be supplemented by other approaches to longitudinal research due to the ongoing need for long-term longitudinal data sets of work-family studies (Allen and Martin, 2017).

Future research directions discussed to this point have explicitly focussed on the limitations of the current study (e.g., design, methodology and generalisability). However, the study findings also inform a future research agenda from a theoretical standpoint, particularly to further explore the role of motivation in the work and home interface. It is recommended, firstly, that such future studies investigate from a motivational angle the various outcomes resulting from WHCE experiences. The literature regarding the work-home interface outlines many more work and non-work-related outcomes related to both WHC and WHE. For example, WHC is associated with many critical personal life, health and career outcomes (Kossek and Lee, 2017, Allen and Armstrong, 2006); In contrast, McNall *et al.*'s (2010) and Zhang *et al.*'s (2018) meta-analyses highlight the positive relationships between WHE and affective commitment, job satisfaction, physical and mental health and family satisfaction and empirical studies have highlighted that WHE assists in maintaining overall health (Carlson and Ferguson *et al.,* 2011; Carlson and Grzywacz *et al.,* 2011). Therefore, this research suggests future studies should investigate the existence of these various WHCE consequences as part of a motivational process. For instance, Tang, Huang and Wang (2017) found enrichment between home and work could significantly increase creativity in the workplace. Research that explores how employees can more effectively leverage experiences from the home domain in the workplace is an understudied area and yet may have important implications for reaping the benefits of domains that are mutually enhancing rather than being in constant competition. Consequently, it is worthwhile exploring how, from a motivational process, work and home interplay would impact on these various outcomes.

Second, the researcher recommends that future research studies should include both men and women and that they consider whether gender has a moderating influence to ascertain whether it impacts on the pathways between motivation and WHCE spillover experiences. This is because, commonly, there are marked differences between the genders in terms of the intensity of WHC since, compared to men, women experience more problems in securing a work-life balance (Boz, Martínez-Corts and Munduate, 2016; Hirayama and Fernando, 2018). Additionally, Boz *et al.*'s (2016) findings show that, when enrichment and conflict are examined concurrently, women and men differ in their types of combined enrichment and conflict. Women experienced the highest levels of combined conflict and enrichment, while a higher proportion of men fit into the type represented by lower levels of both enrichment

and conflict. Thus, taking gender further into consideration may be important to fully understand how intrinsic and extrinsic motivations play out in enrichment and conflict experiences.

Third, given the findings on the impact of psychological detachment from work on enrichment, this research encourages future studies to include other forms of recovery experiences (for example control, relaxation and mastery experience; Fritz and Sonnentag, 2005) into models of WHCE processes. It is plausible that avoiding psychological detachment is only positive when sharing work experiences at home provides control or some form of relaxation. Understanding the interplay between various dimensions of recovery may be fruitful.

It is also credible that other forms of recovery might influence the work to home direction of the enrichment processes, unlike detachment which only impacted home to work enrichment. For instance, mastery might aid employee recovery and, consequently, enhance the positive impacts that work experiences have on learning outside the workplace and vice versa. In this regard and more particularly within the Saudi context, women immerse themselves in family and social life in the home domain and self-regulate themselves according to these obligations. For women, these after-work social activities are the same as those of mastery experiences which represent a form of recovery. Mastery experiences take place outside of the work domain and distract individuals from their job by providing challenging activities that enhance individuals' competency and proficiency such as learning a new hobby or taking a language course (Fritz and Sonntag; Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007). Naturally, these mastery activities are in essence not effortless and require a certain degree of self-regulation and control (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007). Accordingly, it would be valuable to explore Saudi women's recovery experiences through mastery activities after work. More especially, mastery experiences are expected to aid recovery by assisting in the development of personal resources and enhancing a positive mood (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007). An analysis of women in this study showed that having children only impacted on WHC but made no difference to HWC or either direction of WHE nor to psychological detachment (see Appendix J). Thus, the researcher suggests that a future study investigates how individuals recover from work when they have children versus not having children and family demands since this may have an interesting impact on how it forces them to switch off from work and recover.

Consequently, a qualitative study is highly recommended to explore the different tactics employed by those with and without children.

Turning to a future agenda on the role of motivation on the work and home, the researcher recommends, firstly, that it would be insightful if future research studies extended the SDT literature by examining its impact on different outcomes other than in-role and extra-role performance indirectly through the WHCE experiences. This is because SDT researches have demonstrated over the span of three decades that there is an extremely strong relationship between motivational regulations and various outcomes (Howard *et al.*, 2017). For example, it was found that, without exception, intrinsic motivations are not only superior in today's workplace and job outcomes but, also, that they extend to providing greater benefits to an individual's overall life well-being and satisfaction (Greguras and Diefendorff, 2009; work commitment (Fernet, Austin and Vallerand, 2012); reduced emotional burnout and exhaustion (Richer *et al.,* 2002; Fernet *et al.*, 2010; Fernet *et al.,* 2012); encourage employees' feelings of professional efficiency, life satisfaction and job satisfaction; and having a positive impact on employee commitment, engagement and general mental health. On the contrary, controlled regulation style was linked to negative outcomes such as turnover intention, burnout, cynicism and exhaustion (Richer *et al.*, 2002; Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe, 2004; Fernet, Guay and Senécal, 2004; Milette and Gagne, 2008). Therefore, as per the impact of intrinsic motivations versus extrinsic motivations on various work and non-work-related outcomes, future research studies would bring fruitful results if they examined the indirect effect of SDT motivations on various outcomes through WHCE experiences, thus providing a better understanding of how the work-home interplay acts as an underlying mechanism in translating autonomous motivation into positive outcomes both at work and in life.

In addition, this study acknowledges additional preliminary relationships between intrinsic verses extrinsic motivations when examining them with WHCE experiences as mentioned in Section 6.3.2. Based on this study's preliminary findings, it encourages future work to explore the motivations within the SDT continuum and their impact on WHCE spillover experiences. The researcher recommends, also, that a qualitative study be carried out concurrently to further explore the complexities of internal verses external motivations for work and home enrichment and conflicting processes.

Furthermore, other than viewing motivations as either discrete autonomous or controlled aspects, the examination of motivation profiles within person motivation by using a person-centred approach (latent profile analysis) (Moran *et al*., 2012; Van den Broeck *et al.,* 2013; Graves *et al.,* 2015; Howard *et al*. 2016) would yield also, fruitful results on how the underlying process of employee WHCE spillover experiences are affected by employees who feel both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations simultaneously. It was confirmed that, if autonomous types of motivation are dominant over controlled types of motivations within a profile, performance and wellbeing outcomes remain positive (Howard *et al*., 2016). Furthermore, the findings of previous person-centered studies (Moran *et al.,* 2012; Broeck *et al.,* 2013) are similar and emphasize that it is the autonomously driven profiles that enhance positive outcomes. Therefore, this research recommends that future work on SDT motivational profiles be carried out to see how they would act as drivers for employees' WHCE experiences. For example, would a highly motivated profile (demonstrating above-average levels on all types of motivation) lead to enrichment over conflict spillover experiences?

Turning to related research studies on Saudi women, this study's findings encourage Saudi scholars to invest and investigate Saudi working women's experiences in different sectors and occupations. The researcher recommends that this be supported by periodically analysing data so that they can play their full role in the development of Saudi Arabia's society and economy. Although the study made efforts to maintain quantitative methodological rigor, a qualitative exploration is also useful as it could strengthen or adds depth to this study findings herein.

6.5 Conclusion

This study's findings contribute to our deeper understanding of what nurtures WHCE spillover experiences for Saudi women. More specifically, the findings underline the motivational roots of work-life interface experiences and, ultimately, working for enjoyment sparks an enrichment process between the two domains that better supports performance. The research also suggests that at least some aspects of enrichment are better supported with lesser psychological detachment from work in the home domain. Furthermore, by considering a culturally distinctive population, the research addressed a gap in the existing work-life interface research. This study represented a unique attempt to integrate SDT with COR theory in explaining WHCE experiences and their respective outcomes. While previous research

studies (e.g., Roche and Harr, 2019) have linked SDT with WHE, this is the first study to examine both the conflict and enrichment perspectives concurrently from a motivational process. In doing so, this study confirms that the work and home enriching and conflicting processes are negatively related. Therefore, the enrichment process was more related to intrinsic motivation whereas the conflict process was more strongly related to extrinsic motivation. This study's findings provide new insights that may help organisations and individuals to overcome the negative effects of WHC and, instead, foster WHE. This is because the efforts, aimed at minimizing WHC and improving WHE, are more likely to pay off, at least in terms of improved socioemotional well-being (Allen and Martin, 2017).

Work-family balance remains a serious concern in contemporary society by impacting on most individuals who must juggle both a demanding professional and personal life (Reid, 2015; Leduc, Houlfort and Bourdeau 2016; Kossek and Lee, 2017; French et al., 2018; Liao et al., 2019). Most research studies on work-life interface have focused on westernized societies where in significant numbers, women participate in workplaces and achieve parity with men in the world of work. Little was known about working Arabic women and, more particularly in areas where the idea of a "career" is still being developed and women are only now beginning to face such challenges. Consequently, this study's findings provide positive insights into the work and home interface experience of working Saudi women and show how work provides them with satisfying and fulfilling lives and extends this constructive and positive experience to their homes and society overall. Indeed, work and life studies should continue to yield such informative results that have the potential to enhance the well-being of individuals, their families and communities, their organisations and their countries' economies. As more and more women get to join the workforce in Saudi Arabia, we should continue to learn from their experiences and support enriching work to home experiences for them, ultimately benefitting them but also the wider society.

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Appendix A: Saudi Women Leaders in Different Fields

Field of Leadership Appointment	The Name of the Appointee and the Leading role
Economically, women hold advanced positions in the major financial, industrial and media institutions, including:	Lubna Al-Olayan, who took a number of the roles, most notably the presidency of the Board of Directors of the First Bank, and Sarah Al-Suhaimi, who headed the Board of Directors of the Saudi Stock Exchange Company (Tadawul), the largest Middle East stock exchange. Hoda Al-Ghosn was the first Saudi woman to occupy a leading position in the large oil company Aramco, and Rania Nashar was the first Saudi woman to reach the position of CEO of the Samba Financial Group.
Ambassadors	Reema Al Saud was appointed as the Saudi Arabian ambassador in the United States in 2019. Amal Al-Mouallemywas appointed as the Saudi Arabian ambassador in Norway. Fahdah Al Sheikh was appointed as the chief of the Saudi Cultural Bureau in *Ireland.* Amal Fatani was appointed as the chief of the Saudi Cultural Bureau in the *United Kingdom.*
Deputy Minister	In an unprecedented leadership position for women, the Deputy Minister appointed Tamadir Ramah as Deputy Minister of Labour and Social Development and Noura Al-Fayez as Deputy Minister of Education.
Programming and Information Technology	In the field of programming and information technology, Nouf Al-Rakan was appointed CEO of the Cybersecurity Federation in 2018.

Aviation and Space Sector	Women had a share in the aviation and space sector, where Asma Hamdan assumed the position of Deputy CEO for projects at "Fly Nas", while Mashael Al-Shammari emerged as the first woman to join the American space agency NASA.
Parliament	In the Shura Council Parliament, where there are 30 women members, beginning with Dr Thuraya Obaid as the chair of the committee in the Shura Council, women have a more audible voice than before in presenting and discussing the issues pertaining to them. Hanan Al-Ahmadi is the assistant to the chairman of the Shura Council.
Law Firms	Lawyer Sheehanna Al-Azaz has emerged as the first Saudi female lawyer in the Kingdom and abroad, and won the title of ''deals maker''. She was one of the first female lawyers to obtain her law licenses.
Sports Field	Noura Al Turki was appointed as the first vice president of the Sports Shooting Federation in 2018.

Sources: Council of Experts in the Council of Ministers (2020); Um Alqura (2020).

Research survey

The Work–Home Interface for Saudi Women in Academia: The Role of Motivational Drivers and Evening Recovery.

This is maha alsuwailem, a PhD student from Dublin City University- based In Ireland.I would like to invite you to participate in this following survey as a part of my research for PhD degree. The study aims to examine different motives of Saudi woman to work, as well as their experiences of conflict and the enrichment process between work and family-life domains and the opportunities of daily recovery at home. It is a questionnaire directed to all Saudi female members of Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University (administrative and academic members) from all different colleges and deanships at PNU.

Kindly Note that participation in the survey goes through several simple phases.

- The first phase is to answer the first questionnaire on the first day (which takes about 10 minutes).
- The following stages are as follows: To Answer the second questionnaire on the morning of the second day and answer the third questionnaire on the morning of the third day and answer the fourth questionnaire on the morning of the fourth day (note that the questionnaires are short and take about 5 minutes each day).

Participation on this survey is voluntarily and we also assure you that all information will remain confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

To contact with researchers

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Appendix C: Daily Survey in English Language

Day 1

What is your age?

What is your Marital status?

- o Single
- o Married
- o Widowed
- o Separated or Divorced

Do you have children?

How many children you have?

What is the age of your eldest child?

What is the age of your youngest child?

Are you currently Living:

- o Independently by your self
- o With your family (parents and siblings)
- o With your spouse and children
- o With your in-law family and spouse and children
- o

Do you have domestic assistance living with you at home currently?

- o Yes
- o No

Is your husband or family supportive of you working?

- o My husband/family is supportive of my career
- o My husband/family would prefer if I did not work outside the home
- o My husband/family is happy that I am working

How long have you been working in PNU?

- o < 1 year
- o 1-5 years
- o 6-10 years
- o More than 10 years

what is your current job in PNU?

- o Administrative member
- o Faculty member

if you are Administrative, what is your rank?

if you are a faculty member, what is your current job rank?

- o Teaching assistance (holding bachelor degree)
- o Lecturer (holding master degree)
- o Assistance professor (holding PhD degree)
- o Professor (holding PhD degree and have published papers)

Are you continuing higher studies at this moment?

- o No
- o Yes

If yes

- o For Master degree
- o For PhD degree

In what college or deanship, you work at currently

- College of Education
- College of Art
- College of Social Services
- College of Languages
- College of Science
- College of Computer and Information Sciences
- College of Business Administration
- College of Arts and Design
- College of Nursing
- College of Pharmacy
- College of Health and Rehabilitation Science
- College of Dentistry
- College of Medicine
- College of Community
- Foundation Year
- Deanship of administration and registration
- Deanship of student's affairs
- Deanship of Library Affairs
- Deanship of Faculty Affairs
- Deanship of Postgraduate Studies
- Deanship Scientific Research
- Deanship of E-learning and Distance Education
- Deanship of Development and Skills Advancement
- Deanship of Quality Assurances and Academics Accreditation
- Other

What are your job roles and responsibilities at this moment?

- Teaching students in your department and doing some administrative work for the department level
- Teaching students in your department and doing some administrative work for the college level
- Teaching students in your department and doing some administrative work for the deanship level
- Head of a department
- Dean of a collage

Here are some phrases that represent employee's work motivation. Please read each phrase carefully and choose the number appropriate to your feeling, knowing that it is not permissible to put more than one mark for the same phrase.

Motivations	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I work to get others' approval (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients …).	1	2	3	4	5
I work because others will respect me more (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients …).	1	2	3	4	5
I work to avoid being criticized by others (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients …)	1	2	3	4	5
I work because others will reward me financially only if I put enough effort in my job (e.g., employer, supervisor …).	1	2	3	4	5
I work because others offer me greater job security if I put enough effort in my job (e.g., employer, supervisor …).	1	2	3	4	5
I work Because I risk losing my job if I don't put enough effort in it.	1	2	3	4	5
I work because I have fun doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
I work because what I do in my work is exciting.	1	2	3	4	5
I work because the work I do is interesting.	1	2	3	4	5

Day 2

The following are some of the phrases that represent some of the elements related to the experience of conflict and enrichment between work and home (family) for employee in addition to the recovery that the employee enjoyed after yesterday's working day at home. Please read each phrase carefully and choose the number appropriate to your feeling, knowing that it is not permissible to put more than one mark for the same phrase.

Home-Work Conflict	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
The situation at home makes me so irritable that i take my frustrations out on my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
I do not fully enjoy my work because i worry about my home situation	1	2	3	4	5
I have difficulty concentrating on my work because I am preoccupied with domestic matters	1	2	3	4	5
Problems with my spouse/family/friend affect my job performance	1	2	3	4	5
My involvement in my family . . .	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Natural	Agree	Strongly agree
Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Causes me to be more focused at work and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5

Work-Home Conflict	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I am irritable at home because my work is demanding	1	2	3	4	5
I do not fully enjoy the company of your spouse/family/friends because i worry about my work	1	2	3	4	5
I have to cancel appointments with my spouse/family/friends due to work-related commitments	1	2	3	4	5
My work schedule makes it difficult for me to fulfil my domestic obligations	1	2	3	4	5
My involvement in my work ….	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neurtral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
Helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5

Helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
Provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
Provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5

Yesterday at home and after work time ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I didn't think about work at all.	1	2	3	4	5
I distanced myself from my work.	1	2	3	4	5
I got a break from the demands of work.	1	2	3	4	5

Day 3

The following are some phrases that represent some of the elements related to the employee's performance of her job duties. Please read each phrase carefully and choose the number appropriate to your feeling, knowing that it is not permissible to place more than one mark for the same phrase.

To what extent did you carry out the following today?	Not at all	Very little	Some what	To great extent
Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.	1	2	3	4
Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers , even under the most trying business or personal situations.	1	2	3	4
Give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.	1	2	3	4
Keep up with developments in the organization.	1	2	3	4
Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.	1	2	3	4
Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.	1	2	3	4
Fulfil responsibilities specified in job description.	1	2	3	4
Meet formal performance requirements of the job.	1	2	3	4
Engage in activities that will directly affect his /her performance evaluation.	1	2	3	4

أستبانه للدراسه

(التوازن بين العمل و الحياة الاسريه و فرص النقاهه اليوميه للمرأة العاملة في المملكة العربية السعودية)

انا الأستاذة مها السويلم , طالبة دكتوراه من جامعة مدينة دبلن – ايرلندا . أود ان ادعوكم للمشاركة في الاستبيان التالي و هو جزء من بحث التخرج لنيل درجة الدكتوراه . يهدف البحث الى دراسة دوافع العمل للمراه السعوديه وقياس الرضا عن الحاجات النفسية الأساسية في بيئة العمل اضـافه الى فهم تجارب الصراع و الاثراء الناتجه بين العمل و الحياة الاسريه و فرص النقاهه اليوميه للمرأة العاملة في المملكة العربية السعودية . و هو عبارة عن استبيان موجه لكل منسوبي جامعة الأميرة نوره بنت عبدالرحمن من اعضـاء الهيئة التعليمية والإدارية (السعوديات) في جميع الكليات والعمادات في جامعة الأميرة نوره بنت عبدالرحمن .

علما بان المشاركة في استبانة البحث تمر بعدة مراحل مبسطه .

المرحلة الاولى هي الإجابة على الاستبيان الاول في اليوم الاول (والذي يستغرق قرابة 10 دقائق).

والمراحل التالية تكون كالآتي : الإجابة على استبانة 2 في صباح اليوم الثاني والإجابة على الاستبانة 3. في صباح اليوم الثالث والإجابة على الاستبانة الرابعة في صباح اليوم الرابع (علما بان الاستبانات مختصره و تأخذ قرابة ال5 دقائق في كل يوم) .

كما نحيكم بان جميع المعلومات سوف تبقى سريه ويتم استخدامها لأغراض البحث فقط.

للتواصل مع الباحثات:

الأستاذة مها السويلم

الدكتوره ايزلت فريني

yseult.freeney@dcu.ie

maalsuwailem@pnu.edu.sa

البيانات الشخصيه:

كم عمرك؟ _____

ما هي حالتك الاجتماعية؟:

○ عزباء

○ متزوجه

○ أرمله

○ منفصله أو مطلقه

هل لديك أطفال؟:

○ نعم

○ لا

كم عدد أطفالك ؟ _____

كم عمر أكبر طفل لك؟ _____

كم عمر أصغر طفل لك؟ _____

ما هو نظام سكنك حالياً؟

○ مستقلة بذاتك

○ مع عائلتك (والديك وأخوتك)

○ مع زوجك واطفالك

○ مع عائلة زوجك وأطفالك

○

هل تسكن معك عاملة منزلية حالياً؟:

○ نعم

○ لا

هل يساندك زوجك أو عائلتك كامرأة عامله؟:

○ زوجي داعم لي في مهنتي.

○ يفضل زوجي ألا أعمل خارج المنزل.

○ زوجي سعيد بكوني أعمل

منذ متى وأنت تعملين في جامعة الأميرة نوره؟

○ سنة فأقل

○ سنة — خمس سنوات

○ ست — عشر سنوات

○ أكثر من عشر سنوات

ما هي وظيفتك الحالية في جامعة الأميرة نورة؟

○ عضو إداري

○ عضو هيئة تدريس

في حال كنت عضو إدارية، فما هي رتبتك الوظيفية الحالية؟ _____

في حال كنت عضو هيئة تدريس ، فما هي رتبتك الوظيفية الحالية؟:

○ معيد (حاملة شهادة البكالوريوس)

○ محاضر (حاملة شهادة الماجستير)

○ أستاذ مساعد (حامله شهادة الدكتوراه)

○ أستاذ مشارك (حاملة شهادة الدكتوراه ونشرت أبحاث)

هل تستكملين الدراسات العليا حالياً؟:

○ نعم

○ لا

في حال كنت تستكملين الدراسة حالياً؟:

○ أدرس في مرحلة الماجستير

○ أدرس في مرحلة الدكتوراه

في أي كلية أو عمادة تعملين حالياً ؟

☐ عمادة التعليم الإلكتروني والتعليم عن بعد   ☐ كلية الآداب العلمي   ☐كلية التربية

☐ كلية علوم الحاسب والمعلومات   ☐ كلية العلوم   ☐ كلية اللغات

☐ كلية الإدارة والاعمال   ☐ كلية التصاميم والفنون   ☐ كلية التمريض

☐ كلية الطب البشري   ☐ كلية الصحة وعلوم التأهيل   ☐ كلية الصيدلة

☐ عمادة القبول والتسجيل   ☐ السنة التأسيسية   ☐ كلية المجتمع

☐ عمادة شؤون أعضاء هيئة التدريس   ☐ عمادة شؤون المكتبات   ☐ عمادة شؤون الطالبات

☐ كلية الخدمة الاجتماعية   ☐ عمادة البحث العلمي   ☐ عمادة الدراسات العليا

☐ أخرى   ☐ عمادة ضمان الجودة والاعتماد الأكاديمي   ☐ عمادة التطوير وتنمية المهارات

في حال كنت عضو هيئة تدريس، ما هي مهامك ومسؤولياتك الوظيفية في الوقت الحالي؟:

○ تدريس الطالبات في قسمك والقيام ببعض المهمات الإدارية على مستوى القسم.

○ تدريس طالبات قسمك والقيام ببعض المهمات الإدارية على مستوى الكلية.

○ تدريس طالبات قسمك والقيام ببعض المهمات الإدارية على مستوى العمادة.

○ رئيسة قسم.

○ عميدة كلية.

فيما يلي بعض العبارات التي تمثل دوافع العمل للموظف. يرجى قراءة كل عباره بعنايه و اختيار الرقم الملائم لشعورك مع العلم انه لا يجوز وضع اكثر من علامه لنفس الفقره.

اوافق بشده	اوافق	محايد	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشده	الدوافع للعمل
5	4	3	2	1	أعمل لكي أنال على رضا الآخرين (مثل: مديري, زملاء, عائلة, عملاء..).
5	4	3	2	1	أعمل لأن ذلك سيزيد من احترام الآخرين لي (مثل: مديري, زملاء, عائلة, عملاء..).
5	4	3	2	1	أعمل كي أتجنب انتقاد الآخرين (مثل: مديري, زملاء, عائلة, عملاء..).
5	4	3	2	1	أعمل لأني إن بذلت جهداً كافياً سيكافئني الآخرين مادياً (مثل: رب العمل، مشرف..).
5	4	3	2	1	أعمل لأني إن بذلت جهداً كافياً سيشعرني الآخرين بأمان وظيفي أكبر (مثل: رب العمل، مشرف..).
5	4	3	2	1	أعمل لأني سأخاطر بفقدان وظيفتي إن لم أبذل جهداً كافياً في العمل.
5	4	3	2	1	أعمل لأنني أستمتع بوظيفتي.
5	4	3	2	1	أعمل لأن ما أقوم به في عملي مثير للاهتمام.
5	4	3	2	1	أعمل لأن عملي مشوّق.

اليوم الثاني

فيما يلي بعض العبارات التي تمثل بعض العناصر المتعلقه بتجربة الصراع و الإثراء بين العمل و المنزل (الاسره) للموظفه بالاضافه الى النقاهة التى تمتعت بها الموظفه بعد وقت الدوام بالامس في المنزل يرجى قراءة كل عباره بعنايه و اختيار الرقم الملائم لشعورك مع العلم انه لا يجوز وضع اكثر من علامه لنفس الفقره.

او افق بشده	او افق	محايد	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشده	تأثير المنزل على العمل
5	4	3	2	1	الوضع في المنزل يجعلني حادة الطبع جداً لدرجة أنني أفرغ إحباطي على زملائي في العمل.
5	4	3	2	1	لا أستمتع كثيراً في عملي لكوني أقلق بشدة على وضعي في المنزل.
5	4	3	2	1	لدي صعوبة في التركيز على عملي لكوني مشغولة بواجباتي المنزلية والأسرية.
5	4	3	2	1	تؤثر مشاكلي مع زوجي/عائلتي/أصدقائي على أدائي لوظيفتي.
					دوري في عائلتي...
5	4	3	2	1	يساعدني على اكتساب المعرفة, الأمر الذي يجعل مني موظفة أفضل.
5	4	3	2	1	يساعدني على اكتساب مهارات, الأمر الذي يجعل مني موظفة أفضل.
5	4	3	2	1	يساعدني على توسيع مداركي, الأمر الذي يجعل مني موظفة أفضل.
5	4	3	2	1	يحسن مزاجي, الأمر الذي يجعل مني موظفة أفضل.
5	4	3	2	1	يشعرني بالسعادة, الأمر الذي يجعل مني موظفة أفضل.
5	4	3	2	1	يجعلني مرحة, الأمر الذي يجعل مني موظفة أفضل.
5	4	3	2	1	يتطلب مني ألا أضيع وقتاً في العمل, الأمر الذي يجعل مني موظفة أفضل.
5	4	3	2	1	يشجعني على استغلال وقتي في العمل بطريقة مركزة, الأمر الذي يجعل مني موظفة أفضل.
5	4	3	2	1	يجعلني أركز أكثر في العمل, الأمر الذي يجعل مني موظفة أفضل.

اوافق بشده	اوافق	محايد	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشده	تأثير العمل على المنزل
5	4	3	2	1	أنا حادة الطبع في المنزل لأن عملي متطلب.
5	4	3	2	1	لا أستمتع كثيراً بصحبة زوجي/عائلتي/أصدقائي لأنني أقلق بشأن عملي.
5	4	3	2	1	يتعين علي إلغاء مواعيدي مع زوجي/عائلتي/أصدقائي بسبب التزامات متعلقة بالعمل.
5	4	3	2	1	جدول عملي يصعب علي الالتزام بواجباتي الأسرية.
					مشاركتي في عملي ..
5	4	3	2	1	تساعدني على فهم وجهات النظر المختلفة, الأمر الذي يجعلني عضو فعال في العائلة.
5	4	3	2	1	تساعدني على اكتساب المعرفة, الأمر الذي يجعلني عضو فعال في العائلة.
5	4	3	2	1	تساعدني على اكتساب مهارات, الأمر الذي يجعلني عضو فعال في العائلة.
5	4	3	2	1	تحسن مزاجي, الأمر الذي يجعلني عضو فعال في العائلة.
5	4	3	2	1	تشعرني بالسعادة, الأمر الذي يجعلني عضو فعال في العائلة.
5	4	3	2	1	تجعلني مرحة, الأمر الذي يجعلني عضو فعال في العائلة.
5	4	3	2	1	تجعلني أشعر بالرضا الذاتي, الأمر الذي يجعلني عضو فعال في العائلة.
5	4	3	2	1	تجعلتي أشعر بالإنجاز, الأمر الذي يجعلني عضو فعال في العائلة.
5	4	3	2	1	تجعلني أشعر بالنجاح, الأمر الذي يجعلني عضو فعال في العائلة

أوافق بشده	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشده	بالامس في المنزل و بعد وقت الدوام ...
5	4	3	2	1	بالأمس لم أفكر في العمل بتاتاً.
5	4	3	2	1	بالأمس وفي أوقات الراحة, عزلت نفسي عن كل ما يتعلق بعملي.
5	4	3	2	1	بالأمس حصلت على استراحة من متطلبات عملي.
5	4	3	2	1	بالأمس مارست أمور تدعو للاسترخاء.
5	4	3	2	1	بالأمس أستغليت الوقت بالاسترخاء.
5	4	3	2	1	بالأمس آخذت وقتاً للراحة.
5	4	3	2	1	بالأمس شعرت بأنني أستطيع أن أقرر بنفسي مالذي سأفعله.
5	4	3	2	1	بالأمس قررت جدولي الخاص.
5	4	3	2	1	بالأمس قررت بنفسي كيف سأقضي وقتي.

فيما يلي بعض العبارات التي تمثل بعض العناصر المتعلقه باداء الموظفه لمهامها الوظيفيه. يرجى قراءة كل عباره بعنايه و اختيار الرقم الملائم لشعورك مع العلم انه لا يجوز وضع اكثر من علامه لنفس الفقره.

إلى أي مدى نفذتِ ما يلي اليوم؟	ليس على الإطلاق	القليل جدا	إلى حدٍ ما	إلى حدٍ كبير
إعطاء وقتك طوعاً لمساعدة الآخرين ممن لديهم مشكلات متعلقة بالعمل.	1	2	3	4
إظهار قلق حقيقي واحترام لزملائك, حتى في المواقف الشخصية أو العملية الصعبة.	1	2	3	4
تخصيص جزء من وقتك للآخرين الذين يواجهون مشكلات متعلقة أو غير متعلقة بالعمل.	1	2	3	4
متابعة التطورات في الجامعه	1	2	3	4
حضور (ملتقيات/ورش عمل... وغيرها) غير إجبارية لكنها تحسن صورة المؤسسة.	1	2	3	4
تقديم أفكار لتطوير أداء الجامعه.	1	2	3	4
تأدية مهام منصوص عليها في الوصف الوظيفي	1	2	3	4
تحقيق المتطلبات الرسمية للأداء في الوظيفة	1	2	3	4
الاشتراك في مهام ستاثر بشكل مباشر على التقييم الوظيفي	1	2	3	4

Appendix E: PNU Ethical Approval

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Ministry of Education
Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University
(048)

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم
جامعة الأميرة نورة بنت عبدالرحمن
(٠٤٨)

Institutional Review Board

مجلس المراجعة المؤسسي

IRB Registration Number with KACST, KSA: H-01-R-059

March 25, 2018
IRB Log Number: 18-0113
Project Title: Enablers and Barriers to Citizenship Behaviors Within and Beyond the Workplace: An Examination of Work-Life Balance and Recovery Opportunities for Working Women in Saudi Arabia
Category of Approval: EXEMPT

Dear Maha Alsuwailem,

Thank you for submitting your proposal to the PNU Institutional Review Board. Your proposal was evaluated considering the national regulations that govern the protection of human subjects. The IRB has determined that your proposed project poses no more than minimal risk to the participants. Therefore, your proposal has been deemed _**EXEMPT**_ from IRB review. Please note that this approval is from the research ethics perspective only. You will still need to get permission from the head of the department in PNU or an external institution to commence data collection.

Please note that the research must be conducted according to the proposal submitted to the PNU IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For **any** proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit a Request for Modification form to the PNU IRB. Please be aware that changes to the research protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exempt review and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the PNU IRB. In addition, if an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the PNU IRB as soon as possible. If notified, we will ask for a complete explanation of the event and your response.

Please be advised that regulations require that you submit a progress report on your research every 6 months. Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. You are also required to submit any manuscript resulting from this research for approval by IRB before submission to journals for publication.

We wish you well as you proceed with the study. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact me.

Sincerely Yours,

Ebtisam AlMadi

Dr. Ebtisam AlMadi
Chairman, Institutional Review Board (IRB)
Princess Nourah bin Abdulrahman University, Riyadh, KSA
Tel: + 966 11 824 0861
E-mail: irb@pnu.edu.sa

جامعة الأميرة نورة بنت عبدالرحمن
مجلس المراجعة المؤسسي
Institutional Review
Board (IRB) 2 5 MAR 2018

الرقم:
التاريخ : / / 143هـ

Appendix F: DCU Ethical Approval

Ollscoil Chathair Bhaile Átha Cliath
Dublin City University

Maha Alsuwailem
DCU Business School

6th July 2018

REC Reference: **DCUREC/2018/125**

Proposal Title: **Enablers and Barriers to Citizenship Behaviours within and beyond the workplace: An Examination of Work-Life Balance and Recovery Opportunities for Working Women in Saudi Arabia**

Applicant(s): Maha Alsuwailem & Dr Yseult Freeney

Dear Colleagues,

This research proposal qualifies under our Notification Procedure, as a low risk social research project. Therefore, the DCU Research Ethics Committee approves this project.

Materials used to recruit participants should state that ethical approval for this project has been obtained from the Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee.

Should substantial modifications to the research protocol be required at a later stage, a further amendment submission should be made to the REC.

Yours sincerely,

Donal O'Gorman

Dr Dónal O'Gorman
Chairperson
DCU Research Ethics Committee

Appendix G: Harmen One Factor Results

Commend Method Variance Analysis -Harmen Single Factor Results

Standardized loadings (pattern matrix) based upon correlation matrix		
Item	PC1	h2
D1ERS1	0.10	0.01
D1ERS2	0.00	0.00
D1ERS3	0.09	0.01
D1ERM1	0.12	0.01
D1ERM2	0.15	0.02
D1ERM3	0.13	0.02
D1INM1	0.15	0.02
D1INM2	0.11	0.01
D1INM3	0.10	0.01
D2WHC1	-0.18	0.03
D2WHC2	-0.20	0.04
D2WHC3	-0.06	0.00
D2WHC4	-0.10	0.01
D2HWC1	0.91	0.83
D2HWC2	0.91	0.82
D2HWC3	0.90	0.82
D2HWC4	0.91	0.82
D2WHED1	0.12	0.02
D2WHED2	0.19	0.04
D2WHED3	0.19	0.04
D2WHEM1	0.11	0.01
D2WHEM2	0.11	0.01
D2WHEM3	0.19	0.04
D2WHEC1	0.16	0.03
D2WHEC2	0.23	0.05
D2WHEC3	0.11	0.01
D2HWED1	0.93	0.86
D2HWED2	0.93	0.87
D2HWED3	0.93	0.87
D2HWEM1	0.93	0.87
D2HWEM2	0.93	0.87
D2HWEM3	0.93	0.86
D2HWEC1	0.93	0.86
D2HWEC2	0.93	0.86
D2HWEC3	0.93	0.87
D3OCBI1	0.82	0.67
D3OCBI2	0.82	0.66

Item	PC1	h2
D3OCBI3	0.82	0.67
D3OCBO1	0.82	0.67
D3OCBO2	0.82	0.67
D3OCBO3	0.82	0.67
D3IRP1	0.82	0.67
D3IRP2	0.82	0.67
D3IRP3	0.71	0.51
D2RPSYD1	0.03	0.00
D2RPSYD2	0.01	0.00
D2RPSYD3	-0.01	0.00
Proportion Variance (TOTAL)	**0.37**	**37%**

Appendix H: Common Latent Factor Results

Commend Method Variance Analysis –Common Latent Factor Results

Model	Common latent factor (Robust MLR)				Chi- square Difference Test		
	par	LogLik	df	Scaling Correction (CHISQ)	Satorra-Bentler Chisq	Chi-square difference	P
Unconstrained	237.000	-18757.748	938.000	1.096	1522.028	-	-
constrained	196.000	-18796.216	979.000	1.140	1530.651	35.806	0.300

Amount of shared variance among all items	8.70%

Unconstrained model = Model allowing for BIAS
Constrained model = Model where BIAS = 0

Appendix I: Factor Loadings of Study Variables

Item	Factors															
	D1MOT_IN	D1MOT_EX	D2CON_WH	D2CON_HW	D2WHED	D2WHEM	D2WHEC	D2HWED	D2HWEM	D2HWEC	D3_OCBI	D3_OCBO	D3_IRP	D2RPSYD1	D2EN_WH	D2EN_HW
D1INM1	0.779															
D1INM2	0.911															
D1INM3	0.861															
D1ERS1		0.748														
D1ERS2		0.71														
D1ERS3		0.729														
D1ERM1		0.596														
D1ERM2		0.725														
D1ERM3		0.59														
D2WHC1			0.669													
D2WHC2			0.834													
D2WHC3			0.775													
D2WHC4			0.734													
D2HWC1				0.756												
D2HWC2				0.863												
D2HWC3				0.859												
D2HWC4				0.794												
D2WHED1					0.841											
D2WHED2					0.961											
D2WHED3					0.899											
D2WHEM1						0.7										
D2WHEM2						0.908										
D2WHEM3						0.831										
D2WHEC1							0.687									
D2WHEC2							0.937									
D2WHEC3							0.886									
D2HWED1								0.837								
D2HWED2								0.937								
D2HWED3								0.952								
D2HWEM1									0.804							
D2HWEM2									0.935							
D2HWEM3									0.899							
D2HWEC1										0.795						
D2HWEC2										0.949						
D2HWEC3										0.903						
D3OCBI1											0.825					
D3OCBI2											0.677					
D3OCBI3											0.727					
D3OCBO1												0.733				
D3OCBO2												0.805				
D3OCBO3												0.76				
D3IRP1													0.821			
D3IRP2													0.917			
D3IRP3													0.701			
D2RPSYD1														0.845		
D2RPSYD2														0.908		
D2RPSYD3														0.84		
D2WHED															0.705	
D2WHEM															0.867	
D2WHEC															0.856	
D2HWED																0.824
D2HWEM																0.866
D2HWEC																0.921

Appendix J: Independent t Test Results

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
D2WHC	.694	.405	3.641	352	.000	.35412	.09725	.16285	.54538
			3.827	223.056	.000	.35412	.09254	.17175	.53648
D2HWC	.248	.618	.612	351	.541	.06920	.11306	-.15316	.29156
			.611	195.370	.542	.06920	.11320	-.15405	.29245
D2WHE	.007	.934	-1.374	352	.170	-.11325	.08245	-.27541	.04891
			-1.376	199.472	.170	-.11325	.08228	-.27550	.04900
D2HWE	.458	.499	-.031	351	.975	-.00283	.08991	-.17967	.17401
			-.033	217.610	.974	-.00283	.08593	-.17220	.16654
D2RPSYD	.295	.587	1.213	352	.226	.16601	.13691	-.10325	.43527
			1.234	206.579	.219	.16601	.13455	-.09927	.43128