

University of Warsaw

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**Impact of career advancement on work-life balance –
gender differences**

**Wpływ rozwoju kariery zawodowej na równowagę pomiędzy pracą
a życiem prywatnym – różnice płci**

**Doctoral dissertation
in the discipline of management and quality studies**

**Dissertation written under the supervision of
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ABSTRACT

The main objective of the dissertation was to investigate the impact of career advancement on the satisfaction with work-life balance among employees with high professional status (including managerial function). In this exercise a special focus has been put on gender and generational differences. Work on the doctoral dissertation began with conducting several in-depth interviews with "successful" women – but they were interrupted due to the pandemic.

The analysis of the interviews showed it is worth using quantitative methodology in further research. Realisation of the main objective of the dissertation was allocated across five research tasks: (1) Literature review examining factors contributing to the satisfaction with work-life balance among employees with managerial functions, concluded with identification of research gaps; (2) Development of a strategy to construct an index of professional success based on survey data; (3) Development of a new research procedure for estimating WLB using an external view, in which adult children (Generation Z) assess the WLB of parents (Generation X), allowing to eliminate distortions related to attributive egocentrism, which leads to an overestimation of the amount of work performed by the person performing that work; (4) A review of various forms of research on the gender stereotypes – linking professional career with men and household duties with women, accompanied by development of an experimental manipulation of target descriptions of specific situations describing potential for WLB decline as a result of career advancement; (5) Performing analyses on pre-existing data and conducting own research aimed at testing research hypotheses.

The research has been conducted in the form of re-analyses of pre-existing data (study A) and conducting 3 own studies (B, C, D) via the Internet (CAWI):

Study A: WLB in British generation X (N=3475 employees all 46-year-old);

Study B: WLB in Polish generations BB, X, Y (N=616 employees);

Study C: WLB in Polish generation X evaluated by their adult children (N=451);

Study D: Stereotypical gender differences in WLB standards (N=147 + participants of study B and C).

In the course of the research using the four studies, the following hypotheses have been tested:

H1. Higher professional success in women does not translate to lower involvement in household duties, especially in home management (i.e., planning and organization of household activities, leading and controlling their execution).

H2. Women bear higher costs of professional success (career advancement) compared to men. Higher costs of professional success among women are associated with lower: 1a. work-life balance; 1b. emotional wellbeing; 1c. health condition.

H3. WLB gender stereotypes are stronger in men than in women.

Dissertation concludes with findings' discussion regarding the conducted studies, elaboration on research limitations – own and in the work-life balance field in general, and the directions for further research identified by the author.

Keywords

work-life balance, WLB, professional success, home management, gender differences

Abstract in Polish

Głównym celem rozprawy było zbadanie wpływu awansu zawodowego na równowagę między życiem zawodowym a prywatnym wśród pracowników o wysokim statusie zawodowym (w tym pełniących funkcję kierowniczą). W tym zadaniu szczególny nacisk został położony na różnice płciowe i pokoleniowe. Praca nad rozprawą doktorską rozpoczęła się od przeprowadzenia kilku wywiadów pogłębionych z kobietami "sukcesu" – zostały one jednak przerwane z powodu pandemii.

Analiza wywiadów wykazała, że w dalszych badaniach warto zastosować metodologię ilościową. Realizacja celu głównego rozprawy została rozłożona na pięć zadań badawczych: (1) Przegląd literatury badającej czynniki wpływające na satysfakcję z równowagi między życiem zawodowym a prywatnym wśród pracowników pełniących funkcje kierownicze, zakończony identyfikacją luk badawczych; (2) Opracowanie strategii konstruowania wskaźnika sukcesu zawodowego na podstawie danych ankietowych; (3) Opracowanie nowej procedury badawczej szacowania WLB z wykorzystaniem spojrzenia zewnętrznego, w której dorosłe dzieci (pokolenie Z) oceniają WLB rodziców (pokolenie X), co pozwala na wyeliminowanie zniekształceń związanych z egocentryzmem atrybucyjnym, prowadzącym do przeceniania ilości pracy wykonywanej przez osobę wykonującą tę pracę; (4) Przegląd różnych form badań nad stereotypami płci - łączenie kariery zawodowej z mężczyznami i obowiązków domowych z kobietami, połączony z opracowaniem eksperymentalnej manipulacji docelowymi opisami konkretnych sytuacji opisujących potencjał spadku WLB w wyniku awansu zawodowego; (5) Przeprowadzenie analiz na wcześniej istniejących danych oraz przeprowadzenie badań własnych mających na celu testowanie hipotez badawczych.

Badania zostały przeprowadzone w formie re-analizy wcześniej istniejących danych (badanie A) oraz przeprowadzenia 3 badań własnych (B, C, D) za pośrednictwem Internetu (CAWI):

Badanie A: WLB w brytyjskim pokoleniu X (N=3475 pracowników w wieku 46 lat);

Badanie B: WLB w polskich pokoleniach BB, X, Y (N=616 pracowników);

Badanie C: WLB w polskim pokoleniu X, oceniane przez ich dorosłe dzieci (N=451);

Badanie D: Stereotypowe różnice między płciami w standardach WLB (N=147+ uczestnicy badania B i C).

W trakcie badań z wykorzystaniem czterech opracowań przetestowano następujące hipotezy:

H1. Wyższy sukces zawodowy u kobiet nie przekłada się na mniejsze zaangażowanie w obowiązki domowe, zwłaszcza w prowadzenie domu (tj. planowanie i organizowanie czynności domowych, kierowanie i kontrolowanie ich wykonania).

H2. Kobiety ponoszą wyższe koszty sukcesu zawodowego (awansu zawodowego) w porównaniu do mężczyzn. Wyższe koszty sukcesu zawodowego wśród kobiet wiążą się z niższym: 1a. work-life balance; 1b. dobrostanem emocjonalnym; 1c. stanem zdrowia.

H3. Stereotypy płci w WLB są silniejsze u mężczyzn niż u kobiet.

Dysertacja kończy się dyskusją wyników dotyczących przeprowadzonych badań, opracowaniem ograniczeń badawczych - własnych i w obszarze work-life balance w ogóle, oraz wskazanych przez autorkę kierunków dalszych badań.

Słowa kluczowe:

work-life balance, WLB, sukces zawodowy, zarządzanie domem, różnice płci.

To all the hardworking women in my life

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Introduction

“At a time when women can offer almost everything that men can in terms of ability, skills and experience, time becomes an important differential feature which makes men more suitable than women.”

Sarah Rutherford¹

Career advancement is often viewed as a necessary step in achieving success and personal fulfilment. However, this pursuit of success can come at a cost, as it is not uncommon for individuals to experience higher levels of job-related stress and a decreased level of work-life balance (WLB) as they strive to advance their careers.

Boundaries between work and life domains have been significantly blurred through implementation of the new ways of working associated with temporal and spatial flexibility, and common usage of information communication technologies. Their impact on the employee's well-being is contradictory – on one hand they experience increased fatigue and mental workload², on the other teleworking has been proved to allow for higher control over one's daily agenda which may positively influence health factors³.

With multiple approaches to work-life balance research, there still has been no universal, unanimous approach to the work-life balance definition⁴. At the same time there are different approaches to how work-life balance should be defined, researched, and measured⁵. Researchers⁶ have most often conceptualized balance as the absence of role conflict or presence of role enrichment. The Business Dictionary⁷ defines “work-life balance” as: “a comfortable state of equilibrium achieved between an employee's primary priorities of their employment position and their private lifestyle”. Others⁸ refer to the work-life balance from a two-dimensional perspective – first of a “role engagement in multiple roles in work and nonwork life”, and second as “minimal conflict between work and nonwork roles”.

In the daily functioning of employees, and especially of those with advanced careers – holding highly-skilled jobs or managerial positions, implications of the technological and social acceleration are more visible than ever. High level of task discretion and required organisational participation, combined with excessive cognitive demands, and increasing workload make managerial jobs multidimensional. Managers work under constant pressure for high performance, measured mainly in economic terms⁹, and the higher they are in the business hierarchy, the more intense are their experiences. Such a composition of job demands requiring their time and attention shows clearly what kind of burden it entails for employees with high professional status.

At the same time, the share of household-related work has not been measured for the economy purposes, let alone included in the official indicators of growth¹⁰. And yet, most of it is done by women, and it is not only underrated, but also unpaid. Although it has real economic value and brings huge added value to the society it seems to be invisible¹¹. Failure to recognise domestic work, care work, and the general household management

1 (Rutherford, 2001) p.275

2 (Korunka & Kubicek, 2017b)

3 (Andrulli & Gerards, 2023)

4 (Sirgy & Lee, 2018a)

5 (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007)

6 (Beigi et al., 2019)

7 cf. Business Dictionary online

8 (Sirgy & Lee, 2018b)

9 (Lucier et al., 2003)

10 (Coyle, 2021)

11 (Criado-Perez, 2020)

duties as formal economy components devaluates effort put in these activities and those who perform them – women.

Cognitive load associated with decision-making accompany leaders for most time. They are expected to make decisions quickly and rightly, often in uncertainty and with certain level of risk-taking. Managers are confronted with high job demands on a daily basis – including time constraints, competitive pressures, cognitive overload, extreme working hours, and generally high workload leading to backlogs and irreconcilable work-related strains¹².

Insufficient personal resources in a situation of manager's overload) can result in:

- physical and emotional fatigue at work¹³ negatively affecting job performance,
- negative stress-related implications¹⁴, such as reduced well-being, deteriorated level of health¹⁵, and burnout, accompanied by exhaustion, cynicism, as well as reduced motivation and professional efficacy¹⁶,
- limited attention span and inability to effectively process information¹⁷,
- work intensification, especially visible in flexible working forms, involving longer hours, requiring greater work effort, causing social isolation, and limiting networking, harming reputation as less committed, increasing conflict between work and life domains, and significantly reducing career advancement opportunities¹⁸.

Therefore, the main objective of the dissertation is to investigate the impact of career advancement and overload related to managerial function on work-life balance among employees with high professional status (including managerial function). In this exercise a special focus has been put on gender and generational differences.

Dissertation Structure

The empirical dissertation contains of 4 chapters and the Appendix.

Chapter 1

Chapter 1, titled '**Literature review for hypotheses development**' is organized in 4 sections of various length. Their volume has been determined by the amount of research that has been identified in respective areas and presented for the purpose hypotheses development.

In the twenty-first century, when the number of publications on any topic is growing exponentially, a difficult decision was made to focus the literature review on the specificity of career advancement and the WLB context. A full list of the bibliographic items used in the dissertation can be found in the 'References' section.

The most influential works on the theoretical model I tested empirically were (in alphabetical order): (Amstad et al., 2011), (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), (Beigi et al., 2019), (Casper et al., 2018), (Demerouti et al., 2014), (Eurofound, 2021), (Folke & Rickne, 2020b), (Frone, 2003a), (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988), (Green et al., 2022), (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), (Haar et al., 2018), (Heslin,

12 (Stock et al., 2014)

13 (Barnes & Van Dyne, 2009)

14 (Mauno et al., 2022)

15 (Mauno et al., 2022)

16 (Maslach et al., 2001)

17 (Sherf et al., 2019)

18 (Lewis & Beauregard, 2018)

2003), (Judge et al., 1995), (Kelliher et al., 2019), (Kinnunen et al., 2010), (Korunka & Kubicek, 2017b), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), (Lyness & Judiesch, 2008), (Marks & MacDermid, 1996), (Magda & Lipowska, 2022), (Mauno et al., 2022), (Newman & Olivetti, 2018), (Parent-Thirion, 2017), (Powell et al., 2019), (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008), (Sirgy & Lee, 2018), (Straub, 2012), (Sturges, 1999), (Syrda, 2020), (Villamor et al., 2022), (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997).

Section 1, titled “**Types of work**”, addresses the implications of the technological and social acceleration in terms of the work tasks (what people do at work), and the work context (how people do their work). This section discusses various approaches to the career success and specific character of the managerial function, as well as job demands, and psychosocial risks associated with it. The section ends with the justification for the special focus on the specific character of a managerial function and associated overload.

Section 2, titled “**Globalisation and transformation of work**”, discusses the new ways of working and the special and temporal aspects of digitalised work environment. A review of the literature shows that there are multiple implications for employee’s well-being both in the work and outside-of work contexts. Lack of the empirical studies can be considered as an identified research gap. The section provides knowledge on the new ways of working, spatial and temporal challenges, and their implications to employees, including those with a managerial function.

Section 3, titled “**Work-life balance**”, presents various approaches to how work-life balance has been defined, researched and measured. A review of the literature shows that there are differences in WLB depending on the professional status of employees, which significantly impact employee work- and non-work-related experienced well-being. This section ends with identification of a research gap concerning underestimated managerial function in the household and its possible impact on gender differences in experiencing WLB, which was tested in the empirical part.

Section 4, titled “**Gender and social changes**”, presents the literature review concerning changes of social roles of women and men and impact of egalitarianism on the job market. The review showed that women are still more likely to experience career interruptions and reduced work hours due to caregiving responsibilities, which can have long-term effects on their career advancement and earnings. This section ends with justification for testing WLB in the context egalitarian attitudes in three various ways – direct, indirect and experimental.

Chapter 2

Chapter 2, titled “**Research methods and objectives**”, presents the methodological paradigm ‘WiW’, which set the framework for all research and analyses carried out in this presentation.

It includes descriptions of the samples, procedures, and operationalization of the variables in four studies:

- Study A. WLB in British generation X (N=3475 employees all born in 1970);
- Study B. WLB in Polish generation BB, X, Y (N=616 employees);
- Study C. WLB in Polish Generation X evaluated by their adult children (Generation Z; (N=486)
- Study D. Strength of Gender-Career stereotype depending on gender (N=143 + other participants from Study B or C).

Chapter 2 concludes by identifying the dissertation objectives and research tasks.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3, titled '**Research results**', contains analyses of data from 4 studies. In my own studies there were 1030 students (describing own parents) and 616 employees participating in surveys, as well as 497 respondents (mix of students and employees) in an experimental research. On top of that, 3475 employees participated in research where my pre-existing data comes from.

Chapter 4

Chapter 4, titled '**Thesis summary**', contains a discussion of the findings of the 4 studies, research contributions, limitations, and directions for further research.

Appendix

In the appendix there are supplementary materials that are not necessary to track the course of the argumentation but are necessary for those who would like to learn about the distributions of variables, details of the analyses carried out, or to replicate the analyses carried out on other dataset (detailed description of research procedures).

General remarks how doctoral dissertation was edited

In accordance with the supervisor's recommendation, the following standards were used to maintain the transparency of the argumentation and readability of the results.

- (1) Due to the exponential growth of scientific publications on any topic, the literature review is limited to items relevant to the research problem. References to the literature are arranged in the following order: (1) WHAT and how (type of study) was demonstrated? On what sample (year of study, country, sample characteristics)? The lack of information on study type means that these are the most common correlational studies, inherently subject to low internal accuracy, resulting in the possibility of obtaining apparent correlations. Unfortunately, at this level of development of management science, experimental studies are rare. From the point of view of knowledge synthesis, the names of study authors are the least relevant information, so instead of being in parentheses – as the 20th century APA standard dictates - they are placed in footnotes. This way of referencing shortens the entire text by about 20% and makes it easier to focus on the synthesis of results rather than on the history of research, the analysis of which is left to historians of science.
- (2) The volume of the doctoral dissertation should not exceed 150 pages. To facilitate the perception of the content, the most important concepts are distinguished using SMALL CAPS or **bolding**. New threads are separated in the American style by leaving free lines, instead of using uniform line spacing using indentation.
- (3) I do not avoid repeating the same words – scientific concepts – remembering that the doctoral dissertation is a scientific text, and the precision of the language is important. If we use synonyms, e.g., superior, leader, boss, it should be clearly indicated in the text.
- (4) When discussing the results of analyses, where there are many variables presented in the tables, we focus only on the factors relevant to the interpretation. We do not enter statistics and significance levels into the text if they are included in the tables. However, we introduce average values into the text even when they are not presented in drawings. Numbers are important, because the purpose of drawings is to illustrate the relationships found, so they can exaggerate the differences.
- (5) If the results of a series of studies are presented in a dissertation, the discussion of the results obtained can be presented together in Chapter 4.
- (6) Unless otherwise indicated in a specific table or graph, the source of all tables and figures presented in the dissertation is the work and analysis of the author of the dissertation.

Chapter 1. Literature background of the theoretical model used

Section 1. Types of work

Although the thesis focuses on advanced careers, or specifically saying – employees holding highly-skilled jobs or managerial positions, one has to keep in mind the diversity of work and all the contents, methods and tools associated with it. In recent decades the nature of work has significantly evolved, and the current level of digitalisation has had its impact on what type of work is in demand, what skills are required, or how work is performed in general.

The implications of the technological and social acceleration have directed the scientific focus not solely on the work tasks (what people do at work), but also on the work context (how people do their work)¹⁹. And such an approach allows for a clear distinction between low- and high-skilled occupations and identification of what might be the causes of workload for these respective groups. Intellectual tasks and social tasks require a much more sophisticated approach to their fulfilment and thus might visibly differentiate employees by the level of skills they have.

<p>A. In terms of the content:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1) Physical tasks – aimed at the physical manipulation and transformation of material things:<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Strength – lifting people and heavy loads, exercising strength.b. Dexterity – precisely coordinated movements with hands and fingers.c. Navigation – moving objects or oneself in unstructured and changing spaces.2) Intellectual tasks: aimed at the manipulation and transformation and the active resolution of problems:<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Information processing<ol style="list-style-type: none">i. Visual and/ or auditory processing of uncodified/ unstructured information.ii. Processing of codified information:<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Literacy<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Business – read or write letters, memos, invoices, etc.b. Technical – read or write manuals, instructions, reports, forms, etc.c. Humanities – read or write articles or books.2. Numeracy<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Accounting – calculate process, fractions, use calculators, etc.b. Analytics – prepare charts, use formulas or advanced maths.b. Problem solving<ol style="list-style-type: none">i. Information gathering and evaluation.	<p>B. In terms of the methods and tools of work:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1) Methods – forms of work organisation used in the performing the tasks:<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Autonomy<ol style="list-style-type: none">i. Latitude – ability to decide working time, task order, methods, and speed.ii. Control (in reverse) – direct control by boss or clients, monitoring of work.b. Teamwork – extent to which the worker has to collaborate and coordinate their actions with other workers.c. Routine:<ol style="list-style-type: none">i. Repetitiveness – extent to which the worker has to repeat the same procedures.ii. Standardisation – extent to which work procedures and outputs are predefined and encoded in a formalised system.iii. Uncertainty (in reverse) – extent to which the worker needs to respond to unforeseen situations.2) Tools – type of technology used at work:<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Non-digital machinery (analog)b. Digitally enabled machinery<ol style="list-style-type: none">i. Autonomous (robots)ii. Non-autonomous<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Computing devices<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Basic ICT (generic office applications)b. Advanced ICT (programming, admin)
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¹⁹ (Fernández-Macías & Bisello, 2020)

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Information search and retrieval. 2. Conceptualisation, learning and abstraction. ii. Creativity and resolution <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Creativity 2. Planning 3) Social tasks – whose primary aim is the interaction with other people: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Serving/ attending – responding directly to demands from public or customers. b. Teaching/ training/ coaching – impart knowledge or instruct others. c. Selling/ influencing – induce others to do or buy something, negotiate. d. Managing/ coordinating – coordinate or supervise the behaviour of others. e. Caring – provide for the welfare needs of others. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> c. Specialised ICT 2. Others
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Table 1. A taxonomy of tasks according to the content of work, methods and tools, source: (Fernández-Macías & Bisello, 2020).

The classification of task contents is based on the transformative activity of the object of work, the type of transformation, and the required skills. Tasks are divided into three broad categories based on the object they operate on: physical tasks (that operate on things), intellectual tasks (that operate on ideas) and social tasks (that operate on people). This categorization aligns with a previous taxonomy of work activities, which proposed that all work involves things, data, and people to some extent. Within each of the high-level categories, sub-categories of tasks are distinguished based on the type of transformation involved and the respective skills.

The proposed taxonomy encompasses all the task dimensions found in contemporary literature, as well as additional dimensions that originate from other social sciences disciplines or are implied by the taxonomy's structure. Moreover, it offers a unique contribution by explicitly distinguishing work organization characteristics, such as job routine level (which includes repetitiveness, standardization, and managing unforeseen situations as an additional element), from task content dimensions, such as the degree of physical strength or dexterity required.

Our taxonomy can facilitate a realistic assessment by considering how work is organized in each unique case. The authors assume²⁰ that greater levels of autonomy and teamwork, as well as lower levels of repetitiveness and standardization in each work process, make it more challenging to substitute labour with automated machines.

1.1.1 Work demands & psychosocial risks at work

Currently European workforce in one-third (31%) consists of employees who work in ‘high involvement organisations’²¹. These are known to offer their employees high level of task discretion and organisational participation. EU index that monitors skills required in the job, also looks at how employees may realise and influence the way they perform their work, as well as at existing training and other developmental options. It is composed

²⁰ (Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2014)

²¹ (Parent-Thirion, 2017)

of four main dimensions: cognitive demands, decision latitude, organisational participation, and training²².

Index results show that in general, men and women report comparable levels of skills and discretion at work. Between the two editions of the European Working Conditions Survey in 2010 and 2015, the numbers increased for both men and women. Yet, a slightly higher increase for women is visible, most likely since women's occupational status is rising more quickly as they occupy somewhat lower levels (on average) than men.

Level of skills and discretion is shown to be highest among mixed occupations (where no specific gender of employees is dominating) and lowest among male-dominated ones (mainly building, metal, agriculture occupations). In most cases – across 20 researched occupations, skills and discretion indicators are higher for men. Women, though, score slightly better among science professionals (classified as a male-dominated occupation), numerical clerks (a mixed occupation), and in some of female-dominated occupations (i.e. general clerks, cleaners and personal care workers). Worth mentioning is that higher scores for men in such female-dominated occupations as healthcare, teaching and sales might reflect the top positions being traditionally occupied mainly by men²³.

Cognitive dimension

The **cognitive dimension** of the index captures the **creative variation** of work/tasks that can contribute to self-development and to increased motivation at work²⁴. A large proportion of workers across Europe indicated in the 2015 EWCS research that their job requires them to **solve unforeseen problems** by themselves or **coming up with their own ideas** and implementing them in their work. This situation corroborates with a significant number of European employees who report that their job makes them learn new skills and involves performing complex tasks as a part of it.

In general, cognitive demands at work are similar in case of men and women, with slight variances between Nordic countries (where higher demands were reported) and Baltic/Southern states (lower demands reported overall). Lack of differences between men and women in that respect remains regardless of the employee's age or level of education. Creative work and task variation, high levels of which is specific for high-skilled white-collar jobs and less so of low-skilled blue-collar professions, is also comparable for men and women across the 20 largest occupations under research.

Decision latitude

Decision latitude is a scale showing to what extent workers can 'work in the way that best suits them and is safest for them'²⁵. Low results predict decreased employee's health and wellbeing. Decision latitude refers to the following factors from the job quality framework²⁶:

- ability to choose or change the order of tasks,
- ability to choose or change the speed or rate of work,
- ability to choose or change methods of work,
- having a say in the choice of work colleagues.

22 (Parent-Thirion, 2017)

23 (Folke & Rickne, 2020a)
(Adamson et al., 2022) (Jones,
2019)

24 (Parent-Thirion, 2017)
25 (Parent-Thirion, 2017)
26 (Eurofound, 2020)

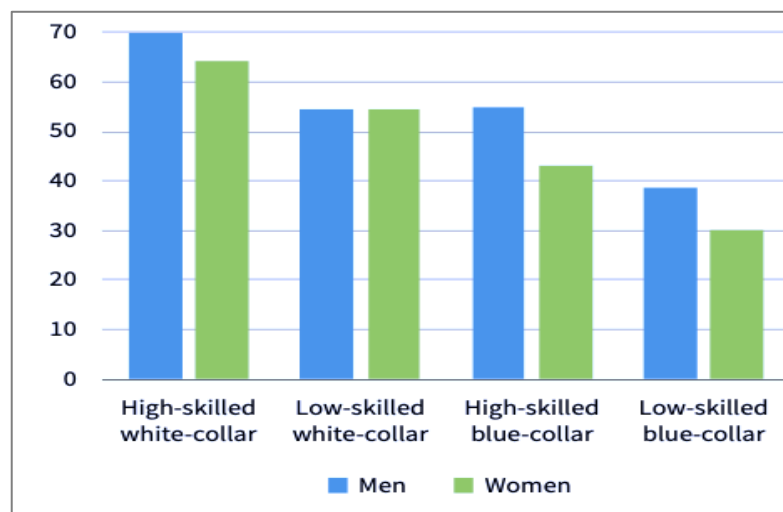


Figure 1. Decision latitude according to occupation type by gender, source: (Eurofound, 2020).

Levels of discretion reported in that dimension are very alike for men and women. What makes difference here is the professional status and dominant gender in the occupation under research. No surprise was associated with low decision latitude for blue-collar employees (mainly male-dominated occupations), but it was women in who experienced the lowest level of discretion in that group. The opposing situation was observed in case of high-skilled employees in white-collar occupations, who enjoyed the highest level of decision latitude, with male employees at the top of the scale.

Organisational participation

Organisational participation refers to employees' involvement in activities that have an impact on their jobs and the general organisation of their work²⁷. In that dimension participation in setting objectives for one's work, involvement in improving the work organisation or work processes, and influencing decisions that are important for their work are taken under deliberation.

Considering the character of that dimension, the observed low results for low-skilled blue-collar employees on that scale are not surprising, as the inferior position of women in male-dominated occupations. High-skilled white-collar employees scored the highest, and the highest level of organisational participation was observed among men, revealing yet again a gender gap among top positions holders.

27 (Parent-Thirion, 2017)

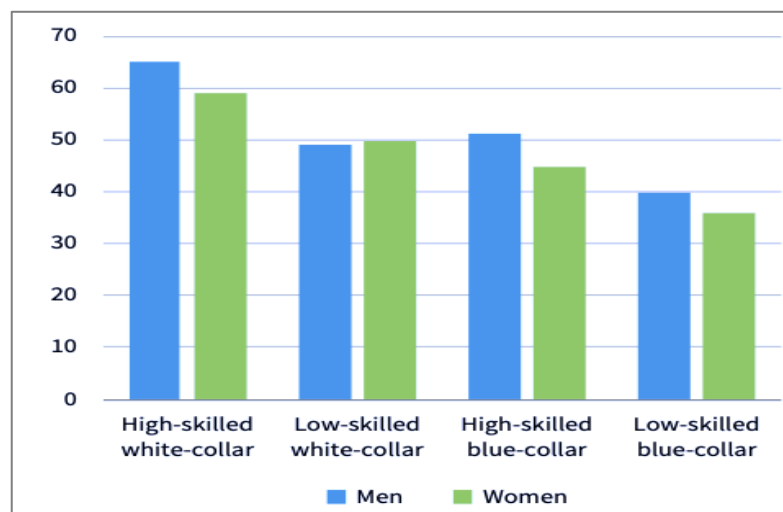


Figure 2. Organisational participation according to occupation type by gender. Source: (Eurofound, 2020).

Access to training is a key factor for employees' professional development. Within that dimension training provided or paid for by the employer and on-the-job training were included in the research. Generally, **white-collar employees display highest training index** scores, with no substantial difference between men and women. For blue-collar employees, however, the scores indicate not only lower level in comparison to white-collar occupations, but it also shows a large gender gap, where women's scores are much lower than men's among both low-skilled and high-skilled blue-collar employees.

Psychosocial risk factors

Psychosocial risk factors involve such issues as the way work is designed, organised, and managed, as well as the economic and social context of work. Significant differences in skills required in the job and their consequences for the way the job is performed, impact employee's psychosocial situation²⁸. For high-skilled workers, who have highly specialized education and knowledge, and work with complex, mainly non-routine tasks, psychosocial risk factors are typically associated with high workload, time pressure, job responsibility²⁹.

The findings emphasise that large number of employees is confronted with a very **high level of work demands**³⁰. Temporal issues are one large domain here – working on tight deadlines, working at high speed, or performing different tasks at different pace. Another issue is interruptions and distractors, conflicting needs and requirements arising from the work environment – colleagues, supervisors, objectives, client demands, or as in case of blue-collar workers – the automatic speed of the production line or manufacturing process in general³¹.

And even though the results show that no work type is free from such demands, the degree of cognitive and physical input that is required varies significantly between white-collar and blue-collar workers. And in respective occupations we will talk about different notions of work speed, quantity of work, or individual capabilities of an employee required to that particular job.

28 (Weigelt et al., 2019)

29 (Parent-Thirion, 2017)
(Eurofound, 2020) (Lek et al., 2020)

30 (Kattenbach et al., 2010)
31 (Parent-Thirion, 2017)

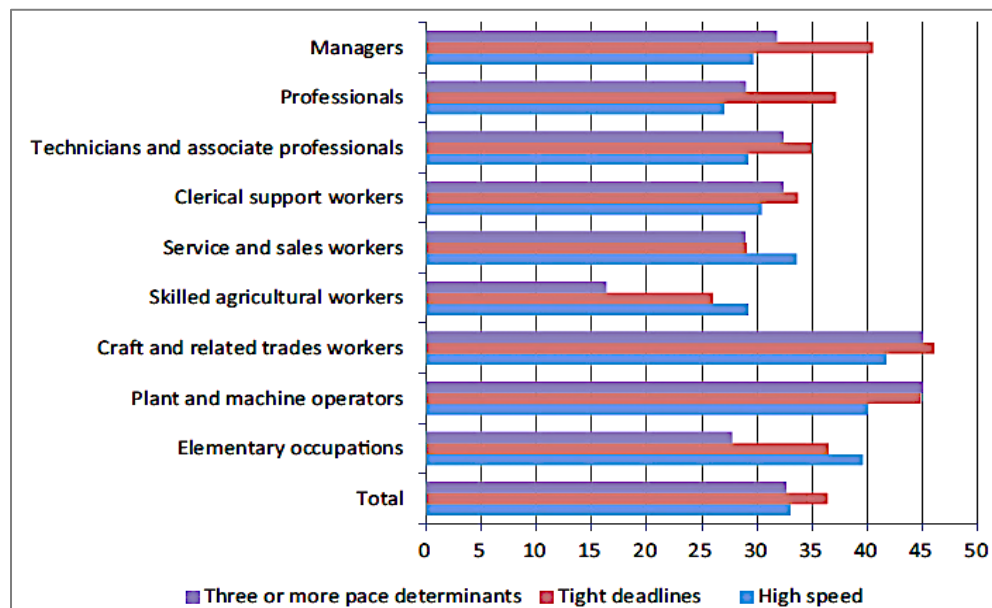


Figure 3. High work demands by occupation, according to the 6th European Working Conditions Survey (Parent-Thirion, 2017).

Emotional demands, often resulting in emotional discrepancy when employees' displayed emotions during work do not match the emotions they feel, which involve hiding or suppressing feelings, are resulting in psychological strain³². That state of hiding true feeling, including anger or irritation, hampers employees' wellbeing and has been associated with various negative outcomes, including decreased job satisfaction, higher likelihood of burnout, and intentions to quit the job³³.

Almost a third of all workers under research³⁴ – **28% of men and 35% of women** – report **hiding their feelings at work** for most of the working time. And although such intensive work is associated with destructive consequences in terms of physical and mental health, or work absenteeism, for many has also bears outcomes in a form of financial reward or general job recognition³⁵.

Positive social relationships at work support increased employees' efficiency and enhance their general wellbeing and sense of belonging³⁶. Poor or abusive relationships, lack of organisational support and bad team environment contribute to lowered efficiency, may result in heightened absenteeism and job quit intentions, as well as negatively impact health and wellbeing of workers³⁷. Support from managers is also high – almost 60% of employees report that their managers help and support them 'all of the time' or 'most of the time'. Pointing at the managers' role in that respect it is crucial to understand what kind of a burden it posits on that group and what consequences it might have for managers' general wellbeing³⁸.

32 (Pugh et al., 2011)

33 (Paluchowski, 2014)

34 (Parent-Thirion, 2017)

35 (Mäkikangas et al., 2013)

36 (Demerouti et al., 2005)

37 (Parent-Thirion, 2017)

38 (Eurofound, 2020)

1.1.2 Specific character of the managerial function

Managing has at least dichotomous character – is thought to involve two main types of activities: task-based and people-based³⁹, which can be inscribed into technical and relational tasks respectively.

Managerial work is perceived as multi-dimensional⁴⁰. Regardless of the occupation and industry, every employee with management functions is expected **to plan, organise, lead, and control**. These several activities are widely considered to be the best way of describing the manager's job, as well as the best means to express what contributes to the success of a manager⁴¹. Although scope and substance of the managers' job transform at the pace of global business changes, and this is as true in relation to the environment and the tools used by them⁴² to perform their roles, every manager still performs these essential functions.

Planning consists of defining objectives (at respective levels of an organisation), preparing a strategy for achieving these objectives, developing detailed activity plans that integrate various domains and ways of coordinating their fulfilment.

Organising function of managers' job is about segregation of duties and activities, determining accountability, and in general establishing the way the strategy will be realised in practice. That involves making decisions about tasks to be done, how and when they will be done, who will do them, and how the progress will be reported.

Leading function involves the “people factor” – managing employees, i.e., directing and coordinating their time and effort in fulfilling the tasks. And as in case of every human-related activity this one requires specific skills to motivate, communicate, and resolve conflicts.

Controlling is outlined as the last of the four key managerial functions and comprises monitoring, comparing, and connecting stakeholders to ensure the tasks outlined in the strategy, carefully organised, and fulfilled with a group of employees, are in fact done according to the scrupulous plan.

Such a composition of tasks requiring their time and attention, shows clearly what kind of burden it entails for managers. Managers work under constant pressure for high performance, measured mainly in economic terms⁴³, and the higher they are in the business hierarchy, the more intense are their experiences.

The pressure is associated with continuous evaluation of work, and any instance of poor management or wrong decisions may lead to reputation damage or losing the job⁴⁴. Cognitive load associated with decision-making accompanies leaders for most time. They are expected to make decisions quickly and rightly, often in uncertainty and with certain level of risk-taking. Managers are confronted with high job demands on a daily basis – including time constraints, competitive pressures, cognitive overload, extreme working hours, and generally high workload leading to backlogs and irreconcilable work-related strains⁴⁵.

39 (Cangemi et al., 2008)

40 (Stock et al., 2014)

41 (Sims, 2021)

42 (Fernández-Macías & Bisello, 2020)

43 (Lucier et al., 2003)

44 (Bauer, 2009)

45 (Stock et al., 2014)

Consequences of managers' workload

Insufficient personal resources in a situation of manager's workload result in:

- **physical and emotional fatigue** at work⁴⁶ negatively affecting job performance,
- **negative stress-related implications**⁴⁷, such as reduced wellbeing, deteriorated level of health⁴⁸, and burnout, accompanied by exhaustion, cynicism, as well as reduced motivation and professional efficacy⁴⁹,
- **limited attention span** and inability to effectively process information⁵⁰,
- **work intensification**, especially visible in flexible working forms, involving longer hours, requiring greater work effort, causing social isolation, and limiting networking, harming reputation as less committed, increasing conflict between work and life domains, and significantly reducing career advancement opportunities⁵¹.

1.1.3 Career success

Career success is seen as real or perceived professional accomplishments an individual might accumulate in their work activity. Its definition has evolved through decades:

- “The positive psychological or work-related outcomes or achievements one has accumulated as a result of one's work experiences”⁵²
- “[T]he real or perceived achievements individuals have accumulated as a result of their work experiences”⁵³
- “Career success may be defined as the accomplishment of desirable work-related outcomes at any point in a person's work experiences over time”⁵⁴

This comes as no surprise that any person undertaking some kind of an activity would like to complete it with success, and work is not an exception here. Scholars have identified five most common precursors of career success: gender (strongest of the demographic factors), personality, education (most important of the human capital factors), mentoring relationships, and career tactics⁵⁵, each of which related to subsequent consequences in one's professional life:

- **gender** – related to salary and managerial level as well as salary increases, management promotions, and hierarchical levels;
- **personality dimensions** – conscientiousness and extraversion associated with increased job satisfaction, income, and occupational status, while emotional instability to decreased income, occupational status, and job and career satisfaction;
- **education** perceived through the lens of level, quality, prestige, and type of degree have to financial success;
- **mentorship** – associated with financial success, career advancement, hierarchical level, and job satisfaction⁵⁶;
- **salary growth and promotions** – related to engagement in networking, and organizational centrality, while absences with significantly fewer subsequent promotions and smaller salary increases.

46 (Barnes & Van Dyne, 2009)

47 (Mauno et al., 2022)

48 (Mauno et al., 2022)

49 (Maslach et al., 2001)

50 (Sherf et al., 2019)

51 (Lewis & Beauregard, 2018)

52 (Judge et al., 1995) p.486

53 (Judge et al., 1999) p. 621

54 (Arthur et al., 2005)p.179

55 (Heslin, 2003; (Judge &

Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007)

56 (Nabi, 1999)

The focal point of the term – regardless of the definition used – reflects the two facets of career success: objective (evaluation of how well people have done in their careers and are perceived by others on that basis) and subjective (how these people feel about themselves – how well they have done in their careers)⁵⁷, or extrinsic and intrinsic respectively⁵⁸. Assessment of the extrinsic and intrinsic factors of career success is confirmed by research to have quite independent outcomes, as they are not strongly correlated⁵⁹.

Objective measures of career success

Real career success, or success measured in objective terms reflects achievements that are prone to comparison and verification, in relatively tangible areas such as:

- work performance (i.e., concrete effects of one’s work effort);
- professional status and rank (hierarchical position), where the latter might be perceived as a reflection of societal perceptions of the power and authority afforded by the job⁶⁰;
- “career mobility”, understood as frequency of job promotions or measured through time spent in the same position⁶¹;
- material success (pay, wealth, property);
- social reputation and regard, prestige, influence;
- knowledge and skills;
- friendships, network connections;
- health and wellbeing⁶².

Objective factors of career success have the advantage of not only being readily available or easy to collect in a non-biased form (if not collected through self-reports) but are also standardised – thus comparable between subjects⁶³.

Performance assessment as objective career success factors is proved to have two significant limitations⁶⁴:

- **contamination** – results might be affected by elements beyond one’s control, such as labour market situations, biases of employees’ appraisers, or technology used;
- **deficiency** – construct might not capture important elements such as individual costs of pay and promotions experienced by employees e.g., in a form of work-life conflict situations, lack of purpose or meaning from their jobs, or lower mental wellbeing among “successful” employees for whom high remuneration or subsequent promotions might not constitute a source of pride or happiness but rather can cause depressive reactions or feeling of alienation, among others⁶⁵.

At the same time there is evidence that relative significance of external criteria for career success seems to decrease with managers’ age (especially true for male managers) – the more mature, the more emphasis for such criteria for success as autonomy and influence⁶⁶. This may suggest that notion of career success is dynamic rather than static, mirroring the developmental phases managers experience⁶⁷, or psychological adjustment to perceptions of individual’s success⁶⁸.

57 (Gunz & Mayrhofer, 2011)
 58 (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986)
 59 (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007)
 60 (Heslin, 2003)
 61 (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988)

62 (Gunz & Mayrhofer, 2011)
 63 (Judge et al., 1995)
 64 (Jr. Bretz Robert D. & Judge, 1994; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007)

65 (Heslin, 2003)
 66 (Sturges, 1999)
 67 (Super, 1980)
 68 (Sturges, 1999)

With such an approach to objective measurement of career success, no research should be based on a single criterion of salary. This has already been confirmed to be relatively limited⁶⁹ and thus additional subjective/ intrinsic factors should be included the success assessment.

Subjective measures of career success

Intrinsic success is defined as individuals' subjective appraisal of their success and is most expressed in terms of job or career satisfaction, as well as more broadly – life satisfaction. It is reflected by own evaluation of an individual's success⁷⁰ and may include such factors as relationships, balance, enjoyment⁷¹.

While objective career effects, such as pay or professional status, are widely valued⁷², various career scholars have emphasised the importance of considering subjective factors of career success as well. For instance, it has been stressed to determine whether people perceived to have financial and hierarchical success are also satisfied with their career. As oftentimes, the objective career outcomes in a form of monetary compensation or promotions might not be a source of pride or success for some people⁷³, and may rather result in depression or work and personal alienation, among others⁷⁴.

Subjective career success can be defined by an individual's perception of, and reactions to his or her career. It has been proposed⁷⁵ that subjective career success criteria reflect individual's material and non-material values, career objectives, and realities that may serve as key factors for evaluating his or her career achievements.

Subjective career success is often operationalized as job satisfaction⁷⁶ or career satisfaction⁷⁷, that is believed to assist in detecting salient career outcomes that cannot be easily concluded based on the personnel records. Since subjective notion of one's career satisfaction is hard to differentiate from one's job satisfaction, many research studies of subjective career success use the two definitions in fact as substitutes⁷⁸.

Job satisfaction is defined as **“pleasant or positive emotional state resulting from appraisal of one's job experience”**⁷⁹ especially in relation to what is personally important for that person⁸⁰. Career success includes the actual and expected career-related accomplishments across a broader period than in case of job satisfaction. It also contains a wider range of outcomes, such as a sense of purpose⁸¹ and work-life balance⁸². Although high job satisfaction may suggest one has a successful career too, it must be emphasised that subjective career success cannot be reduced merely to job satisfaction. Career satisfaction is most often assessed using the widely adopted⁸³ career satisfaction scale⁸⁴. Two theories can be used in explaining the subjective career success: the **Social Comparison Theory**⁸⁵ and the **Equity Theory**⁸⁶.

Social Comparison Theory

Social Comparison Theory states that people have a drive to evaluate their opinions and their abilities, and that they seek to evaluate them by comparison respectively with the opinions and abilities of others⁸⁷. Thus, the evaluation of one's ability would be based not

69 (Heslin, 2003)

70 (Gunz & Mayrhofer, 2011)

71 (Judge et al., 1995)

72 (Heslin, 2003) after (Nicholson, 2000)

73 (Heslin, 2003)

74 (Korman et al., 1981)

75 (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988)

76 (Judge et al., 1999)

77 (Abele et al., 2016)

78 (Heslin, 2003)

79 (De Simone et al., 2014)

80 (Judge et al., 1998)

81 (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988)

82 (Martins, 2002)

83 e.g. (Boudreau et al., 2001)

(Judge et al., 1995)

84 Developed by (Greenhaus et al., 1990)

85 (Festinger, 1954)

86 (Adams, 1965)

87 (Festinger, 1954)

so much on the opinions of other random persons, but rather depends on genuine comparison of one's performance with the performance of others. And due to the need to keep a good image of oneself, that comparison would involve individuals performing slightly worse⁸⁸.

This is also the case of employees expecting feedback on their performance. Their evaluation is then conducted in comparison to other employees, perceived as competitors or collaborators, either to gain rewards or avoid punishment, or both⁸⁹. Within organizational settings, such strategies involving promotions or raises, provide a powerful motivation for employees to engage in social comparisons with their peers.

Equity Theory

Equity theory⁹⁰ states that people make comparisons to others in terms of the ratio of their rewards to costs⁹¹. "Cost" refers to such inputs as investment of time, energy, and money, e.g., in developing competences and qualifications through education and experience⁹². Rewards are the outcomes of people's jobs – including hierarchical status, financial assets, and prestige. Equity theory assumes that people try to maintain their rewards/ costs ratios equal to the ratios of those they compare themselves with. And if they faced inequities in this respect – they are either under-benefitted or over-benefitted in comparison to others, they would experience distress⁹³. People are predicted to restore equity, for instance, through lowering their costs or striving to secure higher rewards.

The evidence that people usually act in the way predicted by equity theory suggests that individuals use the outcomes of other people as reference when evaluating their own work-related outcomes. As an example, a qualitative study⁹⁴ of how 36 managers conceptualize their career success found extensive variance in how individuals may value – on one hand – their own feelings of personal accomplishments, achievement, and enjoyment, and – on the other hand – approval and affirmation of others or receiving personal recognition.

Whereas these conclusions suggest managers use of other-referent evaluation to emphasize the latter criteria, it has been suggested⁹⁵ there is a need to focus on explaining the role of subjective criteria relative to objective criteria, in contrast to the investigation into the use of other-referent criteria. It has been proposed⁹⁶ to assess career success in relation to the other-referent criteria of respondents' "co-workers" or feelings of "significant others", as well as the self-referent measures of "what you feel...?", and "given your age, do you think that your career is on schedule or ahead or behind schedule?"⁹⁷.

Operationalizations of career success within the existing literature have often neglected to consider that people may use **multiple and various referent points to assess their career success**. One taxonomy of career success criteria states⁹⁸, in part, that people evaluate their career success in relation to self-referent and other-referent factors. People do in fact consider their career success relative to the work-related expectations and results attained by other people, as well as relative to the self-referent criteria that have been the focus of most research to date⁹⁹.

88 (Heslin, 2003)

89 (McDowell et al., 2019)

90 (Adams, 1965)

91 (Dick & Henningsen, 2015)

92 (Spurk et al., 2019)

93 (Walster et al., 1973)

94 (Sturges, 1999)

95 (Sturges, 1999)

96 (Lawrence, 1984)

97 e.g. (Kirchmeyer, 1998; Turban & Dougherty, 1994)

98 (Heslin, 2003)

99 (Judge et al., 1999; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Peluchette, 2002; Sturges, 1999)

Career success predictors and consequences

A whole range of predictors and consequences of correlates of career success has been identified in research to date:

- Subjective success criteria may be more important determinants of perceived career success for many people, especially women, than objective (external) success criteria¹⁰⁰.
- Traditional notion of success as hierarchical status (pay and position) does not relate with more diverse groups of managers – especially female managers and older managers¹⁰¹.
- Salary and hierarchy rank have been proved to be correlated with career satisfaction for men¹⁰², but not so for women¹⁰³, similarly to salary increases, management promotions, and hierarchical levels¹⁰⁴.
- Women managers have been found to evaluate their career success through personal development criteria¹⁰⁵, which involve interesting and challenging work, and balance with the rest of their life¹⁰⁶.
- Educational level, as well as quality, prestige, and type of the degree are predictors to subsequent financial success¹⁰⁷.
- Mentoring is predicting financial success, increase of hierarchical rank¹⁰⁸, career advancement¹⁰⁹, and job satisfaction¹¹⁰.
- Work absences have been related with significantly fewer promotions and lower salary increases¹¹¹.
- Salary increases and promotions have been related to engagement in networking, political influence¹¹², and organizational centrality¹¹³.
- Personality dimensions of conscientiousness and extraversion have been generally related to higher subsequent job satisfaction, higher pay, and higher hierarchy rank¹¹⁴, emotional instability has been related to both lower income, occupational status¹¹⁵, as well as lower job and career satisfaction¹¹⁶.

Section 2. Globalisation and transformation of work

It has been over thirty years ago when the first voices preaching the end of the ‘organisational career’ were heard¹¹⁷, predicting the rise of new ways of working of protean and boundaryless careers¹¹⁸. Observing modern careers undergoing deep transformation, it cannot be emphasized enough how organizations have evolved, flattening management hierarchies, redesigning employment contracts, and rethinking their development offers for employees¹¹⁹.

100 (Powell & Mainiero, 1992)
101 (O'Connor & Wolfe, 1987;
Powell & Mainiero, 1992)
102 (Melamed, 1995)
103 (Russo et al., 1991)
104 (Cox & Harquail, 1991)
105 (Nicholson & West, 1988)

106 (Powell & Mainiero, 1992)
107 (Judge et al., 1995)
108 (Kirchmeyer, 1998)
109 (Lyneess & Thompson, 2000)
110 (Markiewicz et al., 2000)
111 (Judiesch & Lyneess, 1999)
112 (Judge et al., 1995)

113 (Orpen, 1998)
114 (Judge et al., 1999)
115 (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001)
116 (Boudreau et al., 2001)
117 (Sturges, 1999)
118 (Mirvis & Hall, 1994)
119 (Sturges, 1999)

1.2.1 New Ways of Working

A **flexible work design**, also called ‘**new ways of working**’¹²⁰ (NWW), has been described as a process leading to more efficient and cost-effective work. Using technological innovations, more and more organizations have started to redesign their approach to work.

Flexibility in organising own work is the main idea of the new approach. Employees are not only expected to decide when (flexibility of work schedule) and where they want work (e.g., from their home-office), but also using which ICT tool/medium (smartphone, email, videoconference) they want work¹²¹.

The increasing level of digitalization – an implication of the NWW – changes the very nature of work, challenging the bureaucratic side of organisation, and the stereotypical ‘9-to-5’ office job¹²². Flexibility, adaptability, and dynamics have become the new underlining features of the new working arrangements¹²³, inevitably leading organisation to replace physical, paper documents with data centres and algorithms¹²⁴. Such a transformation implies that organisations shift toward the quality of outcomes of their employees, in comparison to “facetime”, where the expectation was for employees to just be present¹²⁵. Implementation of ever-present flexibility has been perceived therefore – regardless of its disadvantages – as an opportunity for employees to navigate through their work and non-work spheres with lower conflict level, and to some degree – with enrichment¹²⁶.

NWW characteristics

New Ways of Working (NWW) have three key characteristics¹²⁷:

1. **Flexibility of the work schedules** – employees have more autonomy in deciding WHEN they work, which involves breaking the stereotype of ‘9 to 5’ fixed work time.
2. **Place of work of employee’s choice** – various options available, including employer’s office, employee’s home, as well as during commuting time (depending on the chosen means of transport – car, train, airplane etc.) or in-between of other tasks, also of private nature (e.g., driving children to school, shopping, doctor’s appointments). Such arrangements also imply employees no longer have fixed workspaces¹²⁸, and when in the office, use so-called ‘hot desks’. And while digital work – new ways of working – can be practised anywhere, “labour” and anything that requires physical activity, always ‘takes place’ in particular place¹²⁹.
3. **New media technologies**, such as smartphones or all sorts of other mobile devices, and possibility of videoconferencing – employees use a whole range of options for communication with supervisors, clients, and colleagues¹³⁰, which includes phone calls, email, online messaging, and virtual meetings through online applications (e.g., Zoom, Teams, Meets).

The combination of these three features is meant to allow employees for greater autonomy and actual control over their work in temporal and spatial terms, while taking advantage

120 (Demerouti et al., 2014)

121 (ten Brummelhuis et al., 2012)

122 (Pulignano & Stewart, 2008)

123 (Aroles et al., 2021)

124 (Alaimo & Kallinikos, 2021)

125 (Demerouti et al., 2014)

126 (Ghislieri et al., 2017)

127 (Baane et al., 2010; Demerouti et al., 2014)

128 (Duffy & Powell, 1997)

129 (McDowell et al., 2006)

130 (Baane et al., 2010)

of the high-tech communication progress. All of this to guarantee undisturbed data and information flow, and connection with all the required parties.

High-performance workers and NWW

Skilled workers, often working in high-performance work systems (also called high-involvement or high-commitment workplaces), are allowed much wider flexibility in shaping their work environment and experience higher participation in decisions about their work. New ways of working are only elevating the intensity of the work, which is one of the elements (along with work involvement) affecting employees' wellbeing¹³¹.

Work intensity referred to as intensive work effort, on one hand can be expressed in the number of hours worked, and on the other as amount of physical or cognitive input to tasks performed throughout the workday¹³².

Intensity of work may depend on the following factors:

- content of the tasks performed – physical, intellectual or social cognitive or emotional terms;
- way of performing tasks – simultaneously or in sequence, continuously or with interruptions;
- methods and tools used for performing the tasks.

Changes observed in the work organization, associated with the widespread of digitalization, lead to increased flexibility and freedom in this area, and it is especially true for the highly skilled employees¹³³. Application of ICT facilitating more productive task performance, allows for closing gaps between the tasks also through multi-tasking, and streamlining workflows¹³⁴. However, such acceleration and extension of work performance concerns only one selected group of workers – those who accept to working harder – whether because they are focused on growing their careers or fulfilling their job calling¹³⁵.

Analyses of influence of work intensification on employees' general wellbeing give mixed results. Greater autonomy and decision-making show positive relationship, but only the higher work involvement predicts higher job satisfaction and higher level of work-life balance. While greater work intensity triggers higher level of stress and fatigue and undermines work-life balance of workers¹³⁶.

At the same time research mainly in occupational health psychology and related areas shows that employee's inability to relax and unwind after work – due to occupational stress and work-related rumination – has health-impairing effects¹³⁷. Aside from work rumination, lack of work detachment and problem-solving pondering are pointed as the main sources of stress-related affective and physiological activation contributing to somatic health impairment in employees¹³⁸.

An analysis of a 16-years study on British citizens¹³⁹ focused on the main sources of work intensification, including technical, organizational, and industrial changes showed the following:

- The level of complexity of workers' ICT use is positively associated with workers' work intensity – the higher computer complexity, the greater work intensity.

131 (Boxall & Macky, 2014)

132 (Green et al., 2022)

133 (Korunka & Kubicek, 2017a)

134 (Green et al., 2022)

135 (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997)

136 (Boxall & Macky, 2014)

137 (Meurs & Perrewé, 2011)

138 (Cropley et al., 2012)

139 (Green et al., 2022)

- High level of job skills predicts greater work intensity. Also, a strong link has been revealed with job's requirement to learn (a modification in the learning requirement of as little as 1 point changes the work intensity by 16.2% of SD).
- Work intensification is greater when the frequency of short, repetitive tasks increases, and for those who work more hours per week.
- Employees working in highly competitive environments in comparison to employees in low competitive workplaces experienced 0.33 higher work intensity.
- Self-employed workers experience significantly higher work intensity (by 0.238 of SD) than employees with full-time work contracts.
- Much higher level of required work intensity has been observed among women – the gender gap here is 15.4% of SD.
- Negative associations have been identified between work intensity and health and wellbeing of employees.

Job Demands-Resources framework

Even though every workplace and organisation is different, and with its unique characteristics, each of them can be described through the lens of two broad dimensions – job demands and job resources¹⁴⁰. The framework of Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) is also often used to explain the impact new ways of working may have on the work environment¹⁴¹.

Job demands refer to all those job factors that require certain extent of physical, emotional, and cognitive skills or effort. Such factors may fall into one or a few categories among the following: physical, psychological, social, or organisational¹⁴². Costs associated with job demands-related strains can be experienced as work pressures, lack of flexibility, long and irregular working hours, or physical discomfort. Not always the job demands would turn into strains, however, intensity and frequency of experiencing of these demands may turn them into job stressors, especially when an employee fails to properly recover¹⁴³.

Job resources are referring to the same categories as job demands – physical, psychological, social, or organizational, and describe aspects that are:

- functional in job goals achievement;
- reducing costs associated with physical, physiological, and psychological demands of a job;
- and crucial in stimulating employee's growth through learning and development¹⁴⁴.

Some examples of such job resources are social support, attitude toward work, developmental opportunities, and certain aspects at the task level, including autonomy, feedback, and task significance.

Essentially the two – job demands and job resources – are related. While job demands are energy consuming due to the process of addressing them, the job resources are there to motivate an individual in making that effort, which leads to achieving one's goals. In other words – job resources are there to buffer the costs related to job demands – especially with respect to one's wellbeing and performance¹⁴⁵.

140 (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007)
141 (Demerouti et al., 2014)

142 (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007)
143 (Meijman & Mulder, 1998)

144 (Demerouti & Bakker, 2022)
145 (Bakker et al., 2023)

Constant need to invest high effort in fulfilling job responsibilities (dealing with job demands) depletes individual's energy resources, and in a consequence – undermines everyday functioning, at work and outside of work¹⁴⁶. The Job Demands-Resources model, therefore, predicts that job demands, and especially time pressure is associated with certain job strains (e.g., emotional exhaustion or psychosomatic symptoms)¹⁴⁷, and this may have both direct and mediated effects on the individual's experienced stress level¹⁴⁸.

1.2.2 Space and time in digital workplace

One of the major drivers of the current work organization is informatization and digitalization. This constant introduction of technology is changing the employment landscape, reshapes workplaces and work in general. On the global level – it has opened new possibilities based on Internet businesses and impacted economic systems to the degree we have not seen to date¹⁴⁹.

Such a global transformation has resulted in new forms of work, which have their foundations in digitalization, technological mobility, and informatization. What follows is the changes in the way organisations operate, and the way employees learn, work, and function on a daily basis¹⁵⁰. Thus, on the employee level – electronic devices connected in global networks, allowing for constant accessibility blur the temporal and spatial boundaries between employees' work and life domains. They are actively involved in buffering the job demands with all available resources to mitigate job stress interventions, and other wellbeing related challenges¹⁵¹.

Digitalisation is not only affecting the way employees perform their work, but also their managers. Changes to business models impact the task composition, how work is distributed among employees, how their performance is managed, coordinated, and controlled¹⁵². Because of the affordability of digital technologies and their sophistication, they become crucial tools in work management systems, oftentimes degrading work environment, putting additional pressure on employees.

Spatial aspects of virtual workplaces

Flexible work designs normalised spatial flexibility of employees. Use of ICT allow employees to communicate more effectively due to temporal and spatial elasticity of workplaces. Mobile connections, electronic devices, virtual applications, and services enable employees to perform their work activities across great distances spanning across continents and time zones¹⁵³. ICT contributes to a shrinking world, and work now can be done at home office, in a café, hotel or on a park bench¹⁵⁴.

Expansion of the new ways of working has significantly impacted the concepts of space and time with regards to cooperation. In workplaces which do not require physical presence in the same place or a time slot irrespective of a place – technology fully enabled solutions allowing for effective collaboration.

Such work arrangements can have a double facet. They can be a source of stress related to the imperative to 'always being on', as technologies make employees available and reachable at any time¹⁵⁵. Another downside is associated with lack of spatial and temporal

146 (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017)

147 (Veldhoven et al., 2002)

148 (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007)

149 (Westerman et al., 2014)

150 (Molino et al., 2020)

151 (Korunka & Vartiainen, 2017)

152 (Eurofound, 2021)

153 (Korunka & Hoonakker, 2014)

154 (Halford, 2005)

155 (Mazmanian et al., 2013)

boundaries. Although usually these are seen as an enabler of workplace flexibility and agility, they may lead to workaholism and increased work-life conflict¹⁵⁶. Telework is sometimes also related to decreased work satisfaction, feeling of workplace isolation, and reduced organisational identification and commitment¹⁵⁷.

Employment-related mobility

Discussing the mobility challenges imposed by the new ways of working, among such “third spaces”, there should also be enumerated locations associated with commuting, and travel in general, such as various means of transport – airplanes, trains, cars etc.¹⁵⁸.

Mobile world in terms of work-family studies seems to be one important topic too. **Employment-related mobility (ERM)** refers to a wide range of work-related mobilities and may include:

- mobility to-and-from a job,
- daily circuits of mobility to perform work,
- and mobility of more extended durations and scales¹⁵⁹.

Taking into consideration not only the distance/ scale and duration of mobility, but also its purpose, it can be considered in terms of:

- mobility for work (e.g., to the office, offshore oil platform),
- mobility as work (e.g., drivers, pilots, conductors),
- working while mobile (e.g., lawyers, consultants, knowledge workers)¹⁶⁰.

In case of the latter purpose – working while mobile – the most represented group of employees are white-collar employees, especially those of a knowledge workers’ type. New technologies are perceived here as an enabler of the ‘work anytime & anywhere’ mode. With their constant fear of ‘falling behind’, due to possibility of becoming outdated in knowledge, equipment, capabilities, or contacts¹⁶¹, they are willing to follow the trend of ‘corporate mobility regimes’. It assumes stretching work across time and space within globalized production and networked organisations¹⁶².

1.2.3 Implications

Real-life social experiment of mass teleworking conducted after the outbreak of the Covid-19 pandemic in 2020 confirmed a high level of digitalisation in the public and private sphere. Possibility of a large-scale teleworking in the middle of the global health crisis kept many businesses afloat and allowed to maintain the continuity of operations in many industries.

New ways of working which affected arrangements of many contemporary workplaces are characterised by spatial and temporal flexibility enabling cross-organisational cooperation and high reliance on technological solutions.

With the increasing impact of digitalisation, it has been raised in policy debate¹⁶³, and the main opportunities and risk associated with the phenomenon have been outlined.

156 (Boell et al., 2016)

157 (Aroles et al., 2021)

158 (Hughes & Silver, 2020)

159 (Roseman et al., 2015)

160 (Hughes & Silver, 2020)

161 (Korunka & Hoonakker, 2014)

162 (Kesselring, 2015)

163 (Eurofound, 2021)

Opportunities	Risks
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Flexible and remote working – Improved work–life balance – Enhanced teamwork and improved cooperation within and across organisations – Management culture characterised by workers’ autonomy – Digitally enabled monitoring potentially beneficial for workers’ health and safety, and skills development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Long and antisocial working hours, 24/7 availability – Physical and psychosocial risks – Unfavourable remotely dispersed workflows and coordination challenges – Decreasing job satisfaction due to management and workplace practices that do not fit with workers’ preferences – Violation of workers’ privacy and data protection rights – Intensification of power asymmetries within organisations

Table 2. Quality of work and working conditions – main opportunities and risks, source: (Eurofound, 2021).

The research in the field has shown that many aspects associated with the workplace digitalisation return at least contradictory findings. However, a range of potentially negative outcomes has been reported, particularly in implications for employees.

Information overload

New ways of working, although conceptualised to give employees an opportunity to participate in decision-making processes about their work and to use the discretion and take responsibility offered by their workplaces, can have some disadvantages too. One of them is the likelihood of information overload. As the electronic forms of communication have become more common, it has also become more obvious that unrestrained inflow of messages may impact workers in a negative way.

New technologies and communication conducted through their use can contribute to increase of work interruptions and additional unforeseen tasks¹⁶⁴. This in result¹⁶⁵ can negatively impact one’s wellbeing. Extensive use of communication media, including email, is believed to be connected to fear of loss of control, fear of overload¹⁶⁶, and stress associated with experienced interruptions¹⁶⁷.

Multiple studies¹⁶⁸ pointed out that the overload stemmed not only from the usage of email, but also from such factors of electronic communication as the amount and length of messages, too.

Among other aspects contributing to the subjective information overload can be found:

- anxiety related to expectations for a quick response¹⁶⁹;
- unexpected tasks associated with received messages¹⁷⁰;
- interruptions and necessity of switching tasks related to responding to emails and other messages¹⁷¹;
- lack of control over incoming messages (number, nature, nurture)¹⁷²;
- numerous and diverse role demands¹⁷³.

164 (Thomas et al., 2006)

165 (Butts et al., 2015)

166 (Barley et al., 2011)

167 (Fonner & Roloff, 2012)

168 (Derks et al., 2014)

169 (Thomas et al., 2006)

170 (Thomas et al., 2006)

171 (Derks et al., 2014)

172 (Edmunds & Morris, 2000)

173 (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007)

Technostress

Introduction of telework solutions due to increased globalisation, technological advancement, and digitalisation has radically transformed the way we live and work¹⁷⁴. Usage of the Internet, and mobile technologies and devices has not only increased the efficiency and intensity of work¹⁷⁵, but also has been a cause of a whole range of ICT usage-related stress forms (i.e., technostress) to employees¹⁷⁶.

The internet and other information and communication technologies are recognised as beneficial and indispensable at work and life. In 2011 74% of Europeans admitted using ICT for work purposes, and 93% of the respondents reported to use the internet in their private lives¹⁷⁷. There is no doubt about ICT's impact on competitiveness and economic success of many organisations, mainly through acceleration of production and communication, increase of quality, and reduction of occupational risks¹⁷⁸. There is also valid research on the positive outcomes of the digitalisation and usage of ICT on individuals – such as increased innovation and work engagement¹⁷⁹, or facilitation of work-life balance¹⁸⁰ in some cases.

A large pool of evidence points out its disadvantages to employees' psychological and physical wellbeing – often called a dark side of the technology¹⁸¹, resulting from wide incorporation of ICT in organisational processes and products. Technostress, a definition implemented roughly four decades ago¹⁸², has described a phenomenon of individual's physical, social, and cognitive reactions to work overload, frustration, combined with information fatigue, as well as decreased motivation and work satisfaction¹⁸³.

The technostress construct is formed by the combination of five factors¹⁸⁴:

- **techno-overload**, where ICT forces its users to work more intensely – faster and longer;
- **techno-complexity**, where the sophistication associated with ICT makes its users feel unskilled are concerned and makes them devote time and effort into learning and understanding respective aspects of ICT;
- **techno-insecurity**, feeling of being threatened with losing a job as due to ICT replacing employees, or because of other people more ICT-skilled;
- **techno-invasion**, describes the intrusive effect of ICT, where users can be reached anytime, a constant feeling of being “connected,” with a blurred line between work and personal life;
- **techno-uncertainty**, is caused by continuing changes and upgrades to ICT which creates uncertainty for its users since they must continuously educate themselves about the new technologies and their features.

Dealing with sophisticated ICT regularly and increasingly relying on constantly developing technology, which also requires changes in work environment and culture¹⁸⁵ significantly impacts ICT's users in various ways:

- Increased job demands, coupled with lack of both job and personal resources are related to technostress in a form of anxiety, fatigue, scepticism and inefficacy¹⁸⁶.

174 (Baane et al., 2010)

175 (Green et al., 2022)

176 (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008)

177 (Korunka & Hoonakker, 2014)

178 (González-López et al., 2021)

179 (Giorgi et al., 2022)

180 (Korunka & Kubicek, 2017a)

181 (Bondanini et al., 2020)

182 (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008)

183 (Tarafdar et al., 2010;

Sandoval-Reyes et al., 2019)

184 (Tarafdar et al., 2007)

185 (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008)

186 (Salanova et al., 2013)

- Technostress is negatively related to job satisfaction¹⁸⁷ and organisational commitment¹⁸⁸, and was higher for women^{189 190}, since they have much fewer opportunities to develop technology confidence and are subject to occupational segregation.
- Although ICT's basic intention is to facilitate information sharing, users may feel overloaded by massive amounts of information, distressed by the blurred borders of work time and private life, as well as may experience losing privacy, and frustration by the sophistication of ICT used¹⁹¹.
- There is a direct relationship between technostress and role stress. Overload with usage of ICT enhances stress levels that lead to inefficiency in job performance¹⁹². Lower technostress results in increased role stress and therefore – higher productivity¹⁹³.
- Frequency of electronic communication use in non-work time is positively related to increased work- and non-work conflict¹⁹⁴, but employees who preferred work- and non-work sphere integration were mostly unaffected by the time demands of electronic communications¹⁹⁵.
- Although work-life conflict related to ICT use beyond regular work hours is not a significant predictor of turnover intentions, it may be a significant predictor of lower levels of job satisfaction and increased job burnout¹⁹⁶.

Additionally, a systemic review of studies conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic¹⁹⁷ corroborated with the previous research on work-life balance (WLB) among employees working from home in that period. Negative impact on work-life balance was associated with such stressors as perceived work intensity, workspace limitations, technostress, professional isolation, work interdependence, housework intensity, care work intensity, and emotional demands. Among the factors reported as increasing work-life balance were support received from work supervisors and family members, job autonomy, as well as personal ability to adapt to new circumstances.

Research on the ICT's impact on employee wellbeing, also in the context of the experienced work-life conflict seems to be inconclusive. It is, however, evident that the internet and mobile ICT devices can be identified as factors contributing to blurred boundaries between work and private life.

Further study of differences determining employee boundary management preferences and employee attitude toward usage of ICT after regular working hours might provide valuable insight into the subject. It is likely that employees who prefer to integrate work and home domains may perceive work-related ICT intrusion “after hours” more favourably, while those who vow for clear separation between work and home life would see such situations as harmful to their work-life balance.

Undoubtedly, the new working arrangements such as teleworking or home office blur the line between home and work spheres and may result in changes to ways in which employees engage with the organization and work in general¹⁹⁸. These findings allow for a conclusion that despite the potential of flexibility of various work forms to improve work-life balance, conflict between the demands of work and life outside-of-work remains a challenge for many employees.

187 (Marchiori et al., 2020)

188 (Hwang & Cha, 2018)

189 (Spagnoli et al., 2020)

190 (Marchiori et al., 2020)

191 (Tarafdar et al., 2007)

192 (Rasool et al., 2022)

193 (Tarafdar et al., 2007)

194 (Wright et al., 2014)

195 (Butts et al., 2015)

196 (Wright et al., 2014)

197 (Shirmohammadi et al., 2022)

198 (Kubicek et al., 2022)

Working hours & flexibility demands

Europe is at the point when work has been flexible and agile as ever¹⁹⁹. What the EU has observed during the Covid-19 pandemic year on year, was doubling of the **teleworking indicator**: +11% in 2019; +18% in 2020; +22% in 2021. And the recent Eurofound's recent e-survey results prove that this level remained consistent (18% in 2021 and 2022). What is more, almost 2/3 of respondents would prefer to work from home at least several times per month. However, along with this expansion of workplace general flexibility, there is a pool of evidence suggesting that teleworking employees work longer hours than their office-only colleagues. This is further associated with working atypical or unsocial hours, often unpaid overtime²⁰⁰.

The trend of high-involvement work cultures developing over the past decades has enabled the 'work anytime, anywhere' attitude, resulting in longer working hours and generally staying 'on call' outside of the standard working hours. New ways of working, and common usage of ICT made it extremely difficult to disconnect and set solid boundaries between work and outside-of-work life. In Austria, around 50% of the survey respondents in 2020 reported their availability to communicate with their employer after working hours. A similar situation concerned nearly 25% of employed Italians and Slovenians in 2021²⁰¹.

Societal changes concerning the increasing female participation in the labour market and shifting household structures have impacted the relationship between work and private life, eroding the boundaries between employment time and responsibilities, and the matters outside of work. However, gender disparities are also evident in this sphere. Among those working only from home (regardless – part-time or full-time job), there was a higher proportion of women than men (25% vs. 19%) working in their free time. The difference was even larger among employees with children (under the age of 11) – 35% of women working only from home vs. 23% of men²⁰².

During the pandemic, particularly employees with caring responsibilities, worked more in their free time. This often required them to work longer hours, but also reschedule their daily agendas to include additional activities (such as home-schooling and other care-related tasks). Such a reorganisation had its impact on the work-family interface experiences, and that more women than men were in this situation²⁰³. Although work intensity and amount of working hours may be affected by the type of employment and the way work is performed, research shows that there might be differential effort demands for men and women²⁰⁴. Women having to involve a higher level of work intensity is seen as a reflection of gender inequality and is perceived as rising in correspondence to the female labour force participation.

NWW impact – summary

Research has indeed indicated that mobile tools can lead to increased productivity and enhanced collaboration²⁰⁵. Other benefits related with use mobile ICT devices are availability of real time information, improved responsiveness, hence faster decision-making, and more flexibility in work schedules – both in the temporal and spatial terms²⁰⁶.

This flexibility can give individual workers the opportunity to optimise the time devoted to their work and home domains, as they can distribute their time between work and

199 (Eurostat, 2022)
200 (Eurofound, 2022c)
201 (Eurofound, 2022d)

202 (Eurofound, 2022a)
203 (Eurofound, 2022b)
204 (Green et al., 2022)

205 (Boell et al., 2016)
206 (Korunka & Hoonakker, 2014)

family activities in the most convenient way for them²⁰⁷. However, the important factor here is that employees – within the new work arrangements – are also able to recognise their responsibilities, on an individual, social and economic level and appropriately deal with them²⁰⁸. As in a situation of dissolution of formal frames of work, it may simultaneously permeate all other life spaces of an employee.

Two images of the new ways of work have been proposed²⁰⁹. One is for low-skilled workers, constantly struggling to make ends meet and are beholden to the needs of the organization. And the other one – more favourable – with a spotlight on high-skilled employees who can choose from a wide range of opportunities best suiting their own needs and capabilities and competing successfully in the ‘war of talent’, making sense of their own agency in building and strengthening their professional careers. New ways of working create thriving professional environment for them, where they can freely decide when, where and how to work.

Section 3. Work-life balance

Boundaries between work and life domains have been significantly blurred through implementation of the new ways of working associated with temporal and spatial flexibility, and common usage of ICT. Its impact on the employee’s wellbeing is contradictory – on one hand they experience increased fatigue and mental workload²¹⁰, on the other teleworking has been proved to allow for higher control over one’s daily agenda which may positively influence health factors²¹¹.

At the same time work engagement may serve as one of the mediators of the employee’s wellbeing²¹², a job resource buffering unfavourable conditions related to one’s work. From the perspective of work-life balance, work engagement can be seen both as a threat to one’s outside-of-work domain (through work-to-life spillover), and a blessing – when work is perceived as an integral part of life, giving satisfaction and fulfilment.

For the purpose of this dissertation various approaches to work-life balance have been discussed, in an attempt to reveal the multiple shades of the phenomenon, and possible implications of these variations to professionally active individuals.

1.3.1 WLB research

The Business Dictionary online defines “work-life balance” as: “**A comfortable state of equilibrium** achieved between an employee’s primary priorities of their employment position and their private lifestyle”. Others²¹³ refer to the work-life balance from a two-dimensional perspective – first of a “**role engagement** in multiple roles in work and nonwork life”, and second as “**minimal conflict between work and nonwork roles**”.

With multiple approaches to work-life balance research, there has been still no universal, unanimous approach to the work-life balance definition²¹⁴. At the same time there are different approaches to how work-life balance should be defined, researched, and

207 (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002)
208 (Klein & Watson-Manheim, 2021)

209 (Spreitzer et al., 2017)
210 (Korunka & Kubicek, 2017b)
211 (Andrulli & Gerards, 2023)
212 (Schaufeli et al., 2002)

213 (Sirgy & Lee, 2018a) (p.230)
214 (Sirgy & Lee, 2018a)

measured²¹⁵. Although, there has been a call from the scientific environment for the work-life balance construct refinement²¹⁶.

Work-life balance studies published to date provide a historical perspective on the development of the field and to identify areas for future research, especially when categorized by their maturity level²¹⁷. The proposed categorization provides a framework for work-life balance researchers to understand the current literature and make informed decisions when choosing work-nonwork interface terminologies for their research projects.

The immature stage refers to the early phase of work-life balance research, where studies focused on identifying the prevalence of work-family conflict and its negative consequences. Studies in this stage were primarily descriptive and lacked a solid theoretical framework.

The intermediate stage refers to the phase where researchers started to develop theoretical models to explain work-life balance and began to explore the antecedents and outcomes of work-life balance. Studies in this stage also focused on identifying the role of individual and organizational factors in achieving work-life balance.

The mature stage refers to the current phase of work-life balance research, where studies are more sophisticated and integrate multiple theoretical perspectives. Studies in this stage also focus on the development and validation of measures to assess work-life balance, and the identification of effective interventions to promote work-life balance.

Categories	Immature	Intermediate	Mature
Definition	Not clearly defined	One/more definitions	Clearly defined
Measurement	No formal measures	No/Ad hoc formal measures	Established formal measures
Theory	Atheoretical	Developing theoretical ground	Solid theoretical ground
Work-Nonwork Interface Terminologies	Work-social system adaptation Work-social system fit Work-family articulation Work-family combination Work-family harmony Work-family interaction Work-family interface Work-family intersection Work-family linkage Work-family management Work-leisure compensation Work-leisure segmentation Work-leisure spillover Work-home segmentation Work-life balance Work-life harmony Work-nonwork compensation Work/nonwork segmentation	Work-family accommodation Work-family balance Work-family border Work-family congruence Work-family compensation Work-family enhancement Work-family expansion Work-family integration Work-family fit Work-family resource drain Work-family segmentation Work-family spillover (negative) Work-home conflict Work-nonwork conflict Work/nonwork expansion Work-nonwork enhancement	Work-family boundary Work-family conflict Work-family enrichment Work-family facilitation Work-family spillover (positive) Work-home interaction

215 (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007)

216 E.g. (Beigi et al., 2019), (Frone, 2003b), (Powell et al., 2019)

217 (Beigi et al., 2019)

	Work-nonwork spillover (negative) Work/nonwork interface Work-home interface Work nonwork intersection	Work-nonwork spillover (positive) Work-nonwork integration Work-home enrichment Work-nonwork enhancement	
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Table 3. Theoretical and Construct Maturity of Work-nonwork Interface Terminologies, source: (Beigi et al., 2019) p.455.

Therefore, the emphasis should be put on the importance of studying work-life balance from a holistic and multidimensional perspective, considering individual differences and contextual factors, and using both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Review of the theoretical approaches to the work-life balance has been presented below.

Theoretical approaches to work-life balance	Key characteristics in work-life balance	Conceptualization of work-life balance	Representative authors
Role engagement in work life and non-work life	Attentive engagement in multiple roles	The tendency to become fully engaged in the performance of every role in one's total role system to approach each role and role partner with an attitude of attentiveness and care	Marks (1977); Marks and MacDermid (1996); Sieber (1974)
	Equal time and involvement across multiple roles	Engagement in multiple roles with an approximate equal level of attention, time, involvement, or commitment	Kirchmeyer (2000)
	Balanced satisfaction across life domains	Engagement in work and nonwork roles to produce an outcome of equal amounts of satisfaction in work and nonwork life domains	Clark (2000); Kirchmeyer (2000)
	Balance in time, involvement, and satisfaction across life domains	Allocation of time and psychological energy in a balanced way in work and nonwork life while deriving much satisfaction from both work and non-work life	Greenhaus et al. (2003)
Minimal conflict between work and non-work roles	Minimizing role conflict between work and family roles	Satisfaction and good functioning in work and family roles with minimum role conflict	Allen et al. (2000); Clark (2000); Kahn et al. (1964); Galinsky and Johnson (1998);
	Role enrichment with no role conflict	A high degree of role enrichment with a low degree of role conflict in work and nonwork life domains	Frone (2003); Greenhaus and Powell (2006)
	Management of resources to minimize role conflicts	Work-life balance is achieved through effective management of role conflict – conflict or interference results when resources to meet role demand are threatened or lost.	Fisher et al. (2009); Hobfoll (1989)

Table 4. Various conceptualization of work-life balance, source: (Sirgy & Lee, 2018) p. 231.

1.3.2 WLB conceptualizations

Work-life balance is conceptualized as a multidimensional construct that encompasses several different domains of life, including work, family, personal relationships, leisure, and health. Over the past decades it has been studied and conceptualized in various ways by researchers in different fields:

- Work-life balance refers to an individual's evaluation of how effectively they manage multiple life roles²¹⁸. However, the term "balance" implies that the goal is to have equal engagement in work and non-work activities, which fails to consider the various methods individuals use to juggle multiple roles, some of which do not prioritize balance²¹⁹.
- Work-life balance is defined as low conflict between an individual's work and non-work demands²²⁰. However, much of the literature on the work-life interface treats the “life” domain as synonymous with the “family” domain, at least implicitly²²¹.
- Work-life balance entails obtaining fulfilling experiences across all aspects of one's life, which requires equitable distribution of personal resources such as time, energy, and commitment across different domains²²².
- If work disturbs the non-work time and becomes a health concern that affects employee wellbeing and performance, it may be necessary to challenge practices that encourage such spillover²²³.
- Work-life balance should not be seen as a luxury or a privilege, particularly in professional and managerial work environments with long-hours culture, but rather as a crucial aspect of wellbeing even during challenging economic circumstances²²⁴.
- The concept of work-life balance is a fallacious dichotomy because work, whether paid or unpaid, is an integral part of life rather than a distinct element to be balanced against it²²⁵.

1.3.3 Frameworks impacting WLB studies

There have been at least a few reasons for WLB flourishing as a research subject in social and economic sciences in the past decades²²⁶. Several scientific frameworks have been particularly influential in this field.

Role theory

Role theory is a sociological perspective that emphasizes the importance of social roles in shaping individual behaviour and attitudes. The theory suggests that individuals occupy multiple social roles, such as parent, employee, and friend, and that these roles can influence their perceptions of work-life balance.

According to role theory, individuals experience role conflict when the demands of one role interfere with the demands of another role²²⁷. For example, an employee who is also a parent may experience role conflict when work demands require them to work long

218 (Haar et al., 2014)
219 (Gambles et al., 2006)
220 (Wayne et al., 2017)
221 (Özbilgin et al., 2011)

222 (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007)
223 (Gagnano et al., 2020)
224 (Moen et al., 2013)

225 (Gambles et al., 2006)(Fleetwood, 2007)
226 (Powell et al., 2019)
227 (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000)

hours or travel extensively, which can limit their ability to fulfil their parenting responsibilities²²⁸.

Role theory also suggests that individuals can experience role enrichment when the demands of one role enhance their ability to fulfil the demands of another role²²⁹. For example, an employee who feels valued and supported at work may bring positive feelings and energy home, which can enhance their ability to fulfil their responsibilities as a parent.

Research applying role theory to work-life balance has focused on understanding how different social roles and the demands associated with them can impact individuals' experiences of work-life balance²³⁰. Role theory highlights the importance of role salience, which refers to the relative importance of a particular role to an individual's self-concept, and how it can influence work-life balance²³¹.

Resource allocation theory

Resource allocation theory is a psychological theory that explains how individuals distribute and allocate their limited resources – such as time, attention, and energy, to different activities and tasks²³². The theory suggests that individuals make decisions about how to allocate their resources based on the perceived costs and benefits of each activity, as well as their personal goals and values²³³. This approach could be used to achieve work-life balance by making strategic allocation decisions that prioritize activities and tasks that are most important to them, while minimizing resources allocated to less important activities.

Three main components can be distinguished in the process of the resource allocation²³⁴:

- (1) **Demand** – referring to the total amount of resources required for a particular activity or task, e.g., a project may require a certain amount of time, attention, and energy to complete.
- (2) **Resources supply** – the total amount of resources available to an individual at any given time, and it may include time, attention, energy, and other personal resources.
- (3) **Allocation decisions** – decisions individuals make specifically about how to distribute and allocate their available resources to respective activities and tasks based on their goals and priorities.

Resource allocation theory suggests that individuals allocate their resources strategically, prioritizing activities that are perceived as more important or valuable, while minimizing resources allocated to less important activities. Research applying resource allocation theory to work-life balance has focused on understanding the factors that influence allocation decisions in both work and personal life domains, and how these decisions affect overall wellbeing and satisfaction²³⁵. For example, research has shown²³⁶ that individuals who perceive high levels of work-life conflict may allocate more resources to their work domain at the expense of their personal life, which can lead to negative outcomes such as stress, burnout, and decreased life satisfaction.

Similarly, the scarcity or depletion hypothesis proposes that an individual's time, energy, and resources are limited. This means that participating in one role can reduce the resources available for other roles, resulting in strain or conflict between roles and

228 (Cunha & Marinho, 2018)
229 (Presti et al., 2020)
230 (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000)

231 (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006)
232 (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007)
233 (Bower, 2018)

234 (Grawitch et al., 2010)
235 (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006)
236 (ten Brummelhuis et al., 2012)

reduced performance in those other roles. Consequently, according to the scarcity theory, individuals who are involved in non-work roles would have less time or resources for work, compared to those who are exclusively focused on work, making the latter more productive²³⁷.

Person-Environment Fit Theory

Person-Environment Fit Theory (P-E Fit Theory) is a framework that focuses on how well individuals fit with their work environments²³⁸. According to the theory, individuals seek environments that align with their personality traits, values, and preferences. When there is a good fit between an individual and their environment, the result is a positive outcome, such as job satisfaction or organizational commitment²³⁹.

P-E Fit Theory suggests that there are two types of fit: person-job fit, and person-organization fit. Person-job fit refers to the degree of compatibility between an individual's skills, abilities, and interests and the requirements of a particular job. Person-organization fit, on the other hand, refers to the degree of compatibility between an individual's values, goals, and personality and the culture and values of an organization²⁴⁰.

Research applying Person-Environment Fit Theory (P-E Fit Theory) to work-life balance has focused on understanding how well individuals fit with their work and non-work environments, and how this fit impacts their ability to balance the demands of work and personal life²⁴¹.

Research applying P-E Fit Theory to work-life balance has examined various factors related to fit²⁴², including the compatibility between an individual's values and their job, the match between an individual's skills and the demands of their job, and the degree to which an individual's work and non-work roles complement each other.

1.3.4 Work-life conflict

The phenomenon of the work-life conflict is elaborated from three perspectives – each illustrating a different kind of interaction between the two domains – work and family/private life:

- **Spillover** – suggesting that an individual's work-related strain, including stress, emotions, or behaviours, can be carried over to their private or family life²⁴³.
- **Compensation** – in situations where work and personal roles are interconnected, the model strives to find alternative ways to accomplish goals in cases of resource scarcity, loss, or overload. For example, this may involve outsourcing certain tasks, such as hiring an assistant at work or enlisting the help of others, such as a nanny, to care for children at home²⁴⁴.
- **Segmentation** – the assumption is that an individual can address conflicting role demands by dividing them, or by treating work and family life as separate domains. This may be because these two areas are truly independent of each other, or because the individual has intentionally separated them²⁴⁵.

237 (Rothbard, 2001)

238 (Edwards et al., 1998)

239 (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005)

240 (Liu et al., 2019)

241 (R. D. Bretz & Judge, 1994)

242 (Liu et al., 2019)

243 (Kinnunen et al., 2006)

244 (Baltes et al., 2011)

245 (Lambert, 1990)

Researchers²⁴⁶ have most often conceptualized **balance** as the **absence of role conflict and presence of role enrichment**. However, this approach has been criticized based on the idea that people may experience very little conflict because they are simply not actively involved in one particular role, which does not seem balanced as such. Likewise, enrichment between roles may not occur owing to the specific nature of those roles, but a person could still feel a sense of balance between them.

Recent reviews ultimately suggest that conflict and enrichment are important work-family concepts, but they are distinct from the concept of balance. Other conceptualizations of balance focus on domain involvement, arguing that a balanced person is highly and equally involved in both work and family domains. This approach is limited in that it does not take into account individuals' values. That is, a person who values work more than family will not likely feel balanced if involvement across the two domains is equal.

The third major approach to balance involves a holistic appraisal of one's efficacy in combining work and family roles. Within this holistic appraisal perspective, some researchers have focused on satisfaction with balance, others have focused on effectiveness in both roles, and yet others have included both in their definition.

Dimensions of WLB conflict

Work-family conflict: "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role. An examination of the literature suggests three major forms of work-family conflict: (a) time-based conflict, (b) strain-based conflict, and (c) behaviour-based conflict"²⁴⁷.

Each type of conflict is believed to be associated with or having its source in work and family spheres:

- (1) **Time-based conflict** – associated with extreme time engagement in work or family activities and tight functioning schedule, resulting in role overload due to impossible physical compliance with both roles' expectations and demands.
- (2) **Strain-based conflict** – associated with psychological exhaustion and tension (such as anxiety, fatigue, depression, and irritability) induced by stressors experienced by an individual, especially in a situation when performance in one role is negatively affected by the other role. The (direct and indirect) stressors may originate in either work or family environment. At work, among the positively related with work-life conflict there have been enumerated role ambiguity, lack of leadership support, changes in the work environment, or cognitive load and negative emotional spillover. The life-related sources of conflict have been associated with partners' disagreement about family roles, or disagreement around the female partner's employment involvement (which collectively can be summarized as dissimilarity in fundamental beliefs). Several decades ago (in 1970's & 1980's) female partner's career orientation diversified from her male partner's expectations of her, entailed intensive role strain contributing to the work-family conflict.
- (3) **Behaviour based conflict** – induced by the conflicting/ incompatible behaviour patterns expected from an individual (e.g., aggressive and competitive behaviour at work vs. warm and caring attitude at home), especially strengthened by stereotypical

246 (Beigi et al., 2019)

247 (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985)

social roles expectation confronted with modern approach based on emotionality and empathy.

Work-home interference

The concept of work-home interference refers to a type of role conflict where the demands of the work role and the home role are incompatible, making it challenging to meet the demands of both domains simultaneously²⁴⁸.

The increased participation of women in the labour force, changes in population demographics, working hours, and advancements in office-related technology have resulted in a higher number of roles for an average person. Therefore, there are now more opportunities for the demands associated with work and home roles to clash and interfere with one another²⁴⁹.

Research has shown that:

- countries with higher levels of gender egalitarianism are more inclined to implement policies that assist working families compared to those with lower levels of gender egalitarianism²⁵⁰.
- women are more prone than men to utilize work-life balance practices and are less likely to feel entitled to career advancement if they do so²⁵¹.

WLB conflict implications

Pressures associated with conflicting roles (work-family conflict) are strengthened when these roles are central to the person's identity, as well as consequences resulting from the conflicting role demands are inevitable.

- Role conflict/ pressure exists when contributing to one role is made more difficult because of participation in another role (e.g., performing work duties vs. fulfilling family obligations)²⁵². Therefore, the conflict can manifest itself in a two directional way, where either work roles affect family-related roles or the other way round.
- Negative outcomes of the inter-role conflicts may cause affective and behavioural reactions (such as counterproductive work behaviours, interpersonal conflicts, anger, or resentment) directed at the source of conflicts – either workplace and its members or family and family members²⁵³.
- Strain experienced because of conflicting roles has been empirically supported, proving that work stress and work-related strain directly affect indicators of general wellbeing²⁵⁴. Thus, the negative relationship of work-life conflict (or interference – both ways) with life satisfaction (in this case a slightly stronger effect) and work satisfaction should not be surprising²⁵⁵.
- On the other hand, it has been indicated²⁵⁶ (USA, 1995, N=1547) that among employed adults in USA positive spillover from work to family was associated with better physical and mental health and more positive psychological wellbeing. It has been also shown (USA, 1998, N=1986) that positive spillover from family to work is associated with a lower risk of depression and problem drinking²⁵⁷.

248 (Demerouti et al., 2004)

249 (Derks & Bakker, 2014)

250 (Brandth & Kvande, 2016)

251 (Herman & Lewis, 2012)

252 (Kahn et al., 1964)

253 (Amstad et al., 2011)

254 (Amstad et al., 2011)

255 (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998)

256 (Grzywacz, 2000)

257 (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000)

- Current research is mostly focused on the professional obligations conflicting with the family role demands (work-to-family conflict)²⁵⁸, indicating that the work sphere constitutes a bigger threat to fulfilling one's familial commitments than the other way round.

1.3.5 Differences in WLB depending on work status (high- vs low-status jobs)

In studies on various occupations, clusters of low-skilled workers have been found to differ from clusters of high-skilled workers. Specifically, the latter have been characterized by higher psychological demands, rather than physical demands, at work²⁵⁹.

WLB may be therefore more than just a case of well-implemented national or corporate policies or one's ability to juggle life and work demands²⁶⁰. This is especially visible in experiences of senior executives who are reported to struggle in achieving "balance" despite their rather comfortable situation – substantial economic resources, autonomy at work and flexibility in performing their duties.

Research²⁶¹ suggests that across different nations or within the same multinational corporation, knowledge workers tend to share similar understandings and experiences regarding work-life balance. Those in managerial and professional roles who utilize flexible work arrangements may encounter work intensification manifested through extended work hours and increased work demands, feelings of professional isolation and a dearth of networking prospects, a reputation among colleagues and higher-ups for exhibiting lesser organizational commitment, heightened conflict between work and family responsibilities, and diminished opportunities for career advancement²⁶².

Studies focusing on employees in high-status jobs assume that work-life balance challenges are mainly caused by excessive work demands or work that interferes with personal time, resulting in a need to balance with other activities. However, it is important to note that in several cases, the issue is not solely a lack of time but actual financial distress arising from insufficient work and/or inadequate compensation²⁶³.

And thus, managers and workers at non-managerial positions may understand WLB differently. In low-status jobs, low level of WLB is usually associated with overtime, which is easy to calculate. In high-status jobs with task-based work mode, overtime is difficult to calculate, because thinking about work (including generating ideas, making decisions) is combined with other activities, often outside of the working hours.

The probability of men and women devoting an hour each day to housework and cooking is influenced by their level of education, but in opposing ways. While the proportion of women spending this amount of time on housework diminishes as their educational attainment increases (81% for those with a low level of education, 78% for those with a medium level, and 74% for those with a high level)²⁶⁴, the opposite is true for men.

These findings align with research²⁶⁵, which suggests that highly skilled employed women frequently outsource household tasks to reduce the time they spend on housework, allowing them to devote more time to paid work. The outsourcing of cooking, cleaning, ironing, gardening, and pet care has become more prevalent as more women

258 (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998)

259 (Bujacz et al., 2018)

260 (Adamson et al., 2022)

261 (Lewis & Beauregard, 2018)

262 (Allen et al., 2013)

263 (Warren, 2021)

264 (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2021)

265 (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2020)

enter the workforce, and little progress has been made in persuading men to take on more unpaid care responsibilities at home²⁶⁶. Migrant women or women from lower socioeconomic backgrounds typically provide housework services, and the resulting income is often undeclared. This trend contributes to the transfer of gender inequalities within households to the global care chain²⁶⁷.

Measuring what constitutes a balanced work and personal life entails various approaches. Many of these methods are highly individual and can significantly depend on the context²⁶⁸. Hence, it is essential for research to recognize and account for the potential for varied interpretations of work-life balance and the contextual factors that shape them. It is possible that these interpretations are influenced by societal expectations, cultural norms, and social comparisons that impact how individuals perceive their entitlement to devote their personal resources of time and energy to work, family, or other pursuits²⁶⁹.

1.3.6 WLB correlates

Many factors can impact an individual's ability to achieve work-life balance. These factors are known as work-life balance correlates and include – among others – job autonomy and flexibility, organizational culture, family support, workload and job demands, technology use, personality traits, and gender and caregiving responsibilities.

Research has identified several correlates of work-life balance²⁷⁰. Work-life balance, also known as work-family balance, is positively associated with quality of life and other indicators of wellbeing. In high gender egalitarian cultures, work-life balance ratings were positively linked to advancement potential ratings for women, whereas in low gender egalitarian cultures, they were positively linked for men. However, these relationships were insignificant for men in high egalitarian cultures and women in low egalitarian cultures²⁷¹.

Understanding these correlates can help individuals, employers, and policymakers develop strategies to promote better work-life balance and support the overall wellbeing of employees.

Work-related outcomes

Specifically, with respect to **work-related outcomes**, much of the research has shown a consistent pattern – as work-life balance INCREASES...

- job performance increases (e.g. (Blazovich et al., 2018), (Frone et al., 1992), (Whiston & Cinamon, 2015));
- job satisfaction increases (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007); (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998));
- organizational commitment increases (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998));
- intentions to leave the organization decrease (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), (McNall et al., 2010));
- career development increases (e.g. (Yang & Konrad, 2011), (Whiston & Cinamon, 2015));

266 (Raz-Yurovich & Marx, 2019)
267 (Carbonnier & Morel, 2015)
268 (Haar et al., 2014)

269 (Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013)
270 (Casper et al., 2018) (Marks & MacDermid, 1996)

271 (Lyness & Judiesch, 2008)

- career success increases (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998));
- job malfunction decreases (e.g. (Whiston & Cinamon, 2015));
- job burnout decreases (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Frone et al., 1992), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998));
- work alienation decreases (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998));
- absenteeism decreases (e.g. (Frone et al., 1992), (Wayne et al., 2004));
- turnover intention decreases (e.g. (Frone et al., 1992), (Wayne et al., 2004)).

Nonwork-Related Outcomes

Studies have demonstrated that when employees achieve a work-life balance, it results in increased employee's life satisfaction, marital satisfaction, family performance, family satisfaction, parental satisfaction, and leisure satisfaction. Research also found that work-life balance of employees reduces poor health condition, cognitive problems, and conflicts with family members.

A considerable amount of research has demonstrated that – as work-life balance INCREASES...:

- life satisfaction increases (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Carlson et al., 2006), (De Simone et al., 2014), (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), (Schaufeli et al., 2002));
- marital adjustment and marital satisfaction increases (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), (Whiston & Cinamon, 2015));
- family performance increases (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Carlson et al., 2010), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998));
- family satisfaction increases (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), (Whiston & Cinamon, 2015));
- parental satisfaction increases (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998));
- satisfaction with leisure activities increases (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998));
- conflict with other family members decreases (e.g. (Westman & Etzion, 2005)).

Stress-Related Outcomes

Research has found that work-life conflict increases psychological distress (emotional exhaustion, emotional ill-being, anxiety, irritability and hostility, hypertension, depression) and family-related stress (affective parental and marital stress), and manifestation of illness symptoms (somatic complaints, high blood pressure and cholesterol, alcohol abuse, and cigarette consumption).

Research has also demonstrated significant links between work-life conflict and stress. Specifically – as work-life balance DECREASES...

- psychological distress increases (e.g. (Whiston & Cinamon, 2015));
- general life stress increases—being upset and frustrated, or tense (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Frone et al., 1992), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998));
- emotional exhaustion increases (e.g. (Lee et al., 2013));
- emotional ill-being increases (e.g. (Whiston & Cinamon, 2015));
- anxiety increases e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Frone et al., 1992), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998));
- irritability/hostility increases (e.g. (Allen et al., 2000), (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998)).

1.3.7 Impact of multiple social roles

The notion that time is a limited resource suggests that dedicating more time to work leaves less time for fulfilling personal responsibilities. The growing trend of longer working hours is frequently cited as a contributing factor to the increase in conflicts between competing role demands.

For instance, when an employee is engaged in one role, such as work, it becomes more challenging for them to participate in another role, such as family, leading to work-family conflict. This conflict is defined as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures of the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect²⁷².”

When employees participate in both work and family roles, they may experience difficulty in fulfilling the demands of each role. This can lead to work-family conflict, which occurs when the demands of work and family roles are incompatible in some way. The role expansion hypothesis, on the other hand, suggests that the benefits of participating in multiple roles may outweigh the negative effects of increased demands. According to this hypothesis, the various resources provided by multiple roles can compensate for any negative effects on wellbeing, resulting in overall positive effects on both psychological wellbeing and physical health²⁷³.

Having multiple social roles can potentially help an employee cope with challenges in one domain by seeking support and satisfaction in another. In addition, participating in multiple roles can increase²⁷⁴ an employee's sense of control over their life by providing opportunities to manage financial, family, and social matters. This viewpoint is supported by certain studies on work-family "facilitation" and work-life "balance", which examine the beneficial outcomes of having multiple roles²⁷⁵.

Gender-based social roles

Another aspect of multiple roles relates to family and spouses. Work–family balance has been defined as the “accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his/her role-related partners in the work and family domains”²⁷⁶ and in terms of household-related WLB, it remains interrelated with the spouse/ partner’s activity in that respect.

When spouses provide support, it enhances the perception of work-life balance, leading to better mental health and higher job satisfaction²⁷⁷. In contrast, a lack of spousal support has been linked to greater work-family conflict, especially for women²⁷⁸.

Studies have found that women's WLB is significantly influenced by the division of household and childcare responsibilities with their spouse. When women have more egalitarian partnerships, they report better WLB, while traditional gender roles have been associated with greater work-family conflict²⁷⁹.

For men, having a supportive partner has been linked to better WLB outcomes as well. However, men may face more social stigma for prioritizing their family responsibilities over work demands, leading to greater work-family conflict²⁸⁰.

According to research:

272 (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985)

273 (Nordenmark, 2004)

274 (Pietromonaco et al., 1986)

275 (Greenhaus et al., 2003)

(Wayne et al., 2004)

276 (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007)
p.458

277 (Ocampo et al., 2018)

278 (Schieman & Glavin, 2008)

279 (Buunk et al., 2000)

280 (Brandth & Kvande, 2016)

- Individuals who hold multiple roles as a spouse, parent, and paid worker tend to have higher levels of psychological wellbeing compared to those who hold only one of these roles²⁸¹. Additionally, parents who work over 40 hours a week or have a highly qualified job tend to experience lower or similar levels of psychological distress compared to those who are less engaged in multiple roles²⁸².
- Being strongly engaged in both work and family life has a positive impact on one's health and wellbeing²⁸³. However, the psychological benefits of holding multiple roles may be most significant when family responsibilities are not excessively burdensome²⁸⁴.
- The fulfilment of role-related expectations is negotiated and shared between employees and their respective partners in both the work and family domains²⁸⁵.

Gender role theory

Gender role theory posits that there are traditional societal expectations for men to fulfil the role of breadwinner and for women to fulfil the role of homemaker. Any deviation from these gender role expectations can result in negative evaluations²⁸⁶.

Involvement in non-work domain may be viewed as more consistent with the female gender role than the male gender role. In terms of the relationship between perceptions of work-life balance and career advancement potential, the gender of the manager may play a moderating role. Cultural values related to traditional gender roles should be considered when conducting research on work and family dynamics. These values may moderate the relationship between work-life balance and career advancement potential and may lead to different perceptions for male and female managers²⁸⁷.

Gendered culture theory proposes that organizations give promotions to employees who prioritize task accomplishment over family or personal matters. This implies that work-life balance may have a negative relationship with career advancement²⁸⁸.

1.3.8 Generational differences in experiencing WLB

WLB conflict/spillover is more difficult to handle for younger generations. A growing interest in the topic suggests that older workers may differ from younger workers in their work-family needs and the engaged strategies they use to integrate these domains²⁸⁹. For example, older workers seem to be more proficient at managing work and family demands because of their accumulated experience and more complex view of issues²⁹⁰.

As individuals get older, they may encounter additional responsibilities related to caring for elderly family members, declining physical health, and personal aspirations, all of which can impact their work and family life²⁹¹. These demands can especially impact women's decisions to remain in the workforce, given that they often take on caregiving roles for their loved ones.

281 (Rushing & Schwabe, 1995)

282 (Nordenmark, 2004)

283 (Walters et al., 1998)

284 (White et al., 1986)

285 (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007)

286 (Eagly, 1997) (Nieva & Gutek, 1980)

287 (Lyness & Thompson, 2000)

288 (Schneidhofer et al., 2010)

289 (Baltes et al., 2011)

290 (Loi & Shultz, 2007)

291 (Hill et al., 2014)

Generational differences in WLB needs

Research suggests that there are generational differences in experiencing work-life balance, and that younger generations are more likely to prioritize and value work-life balance²⁹². Studies indicate that younger generations, such as Millennials, value work-life balance more than older generations. For instance, a study by Gallup found that 65% of Millennial workers seek work-life balance when considering a new job, compared to 58% of older employees²⁹³.

When Gallup²⁹⁴ asked “What employees look for in their employer?” the generational priorities in this respect have been noticed – Millennials seek wellbeing as their key priority in professional environment.

Young Millennials & Gen Z: 1989-2001	Older Millennials: 1980-1988	Gen X: 1965-1979	Baby Boomers: 1946-1964
1. The organization cares about employees' wellbeing.	1. The organization cares about employees' wellbeing.	1. The organization's leadership is ethical.	1. The organization's leadership is ethical.
2. The organization's leadership is ethical.	2. The organization's leadership is ethical.	2. The organization cares about employees' wellbeing.	2. The organization cares about employees' wellbeing.
3. The organization is diverse and inclusive of all people.	3. The organization's leadership is open and transparent.	3. The organization's financial stability.	3. The organization's financial stability.

Table 5. What employees look for in their employer, by generation, source: (O’Boyle, 2021).

In 2020 in general due to the outburst of Covid-19 pandemic, there was an increase in negative emotions among the global workforce, particularly among workers under 40 who reported higher levels of anger and stress²⁹⁵. Daily feelings of worry, stress, anger, and sadness reached unseen levels due to the physical and mental health crisis caused by the pandemic. Younger workers were more severely affected, with 44% of them experiencing stress compared to 42% of older workers during the first year of the pandemic.

Additionally, 26% of younger employees reported feeling angry a lot on the previous day, which was slightly higher than the 22% reported by older employees. It is important to note that negative emotions have been on the rise for all workers in the years leading up to the pandemic, and younger workers have historically been more prone to anger and stress.

Generational experiences of WLB

A selection of studies shows the range of generational differences in experiencing WLB by employees:

- Older workers reported significantly less work-to-family and family-to-work conflict and greater work-family fit, life success, and work success than middle-aged and young workers. They reported significantly greater job flexibility and job satisfaction but were significantly less likely to be aware of and use work-family programs than young workers. Older men reported significantly less

292 (Becton et al., 2014)
293 (Pendell & Vander Helm, 2022)

294 (O’Boyle, 2021)
295 (Pendell, 2021)

awareness and use of work-life programs and less family-to-work conflict than older women²⁹⁶.

- A study investigating some inter-spousal differences and some intergenerational patterns of boundary flexibility, surveyed members of 67 families: mothers, fathers and young daughters. The results support the idea that ability and willingness are two different facets of boundary flexibility. The data indicate that mothers are more influential than fathers in the development of young women's attitudes towards family and work boundaries. These findings support the socialisation theories that argue that the highest level of child-parent similarities exist in same gender dyads²⁹⁷.
- Members of the Baby Boomer generation define work-life balance as "knowing your limits" and making sure to know when you need help or a break. Generation X participants have a relatively similar perspective, which is to take care of oneself "in order to be better at work and life." In reviewing these responses, Generation X appears to be most confident in their ability to manage their time during and outside of work. While understanding that they need to monitor work after hours depending on their roles, taking time for family is seen as manageable and necessary. Most of the Millennial respondents feel that work should only occur during "workhours", and not necessarily in a formal office space and that work outside of business hours needs to be compensated in some way²⁹⁸.
- Analysis of the opinions of students on their expectations connected with their professional future especially shaping the balance between work and personal life confirmed that balance between work and personal life is very important for their generation. For them an image of flexible employment as a good way to reconcile work and other obligations, which gives the ability to have multiple sources of income²⁹⁹.

What is worth noting, Baby Boomers tend to prioritize work over personal life and have a stronger work ethic, while younger generations place more emphasis on flexibility and work-life integration. Gen Xers often feel caught in the middle, juggling work and family responsibilities, while Millennials and Gen Z are more likely to seek work-life balance and prioritize personal fulfilment.

These generational differences are influenced by a variety of factors, including technological advancements, changes in societal norms, and economic conditions. And what is more, understanding and embracing these differences may help organisations to attract and retain a diverse range of talented employees.

Section 4. Gender and social changes

1.4.1 Contemporary gender egalitarianism

Gender egalitarianism can be fostered by various factors, including an increase in the number of women with higher education, well-paying jobs, and a commitment to careers outside of the home. As economies shift from industrial to service and knowledge-based, the demand for female workers rises, resulting in a more gender-integrated workforce³⁰⁰.

296 (Nieva & Gutek, 1980)
297 (Zaharia & Gheorghiu, 2017)

298 (Neville & Brochu, 2019)
299 (Robak, 2017)

300 (Huber, 1990)

With more opportunities for tertiary education, women have greater access to professional and managerial roles that were once dominated by men. Additionally, trends towards delayed marriage, fewer children, and increased divorce rates reinforce these educational and job-related changes³⁰¹. Collectively, these societal changes contribute to a composition of the population that fosters gender egalitarianism.

Over the past 50 years, one of the most significant changes in European labour markets has been the substantial increase in women's participation in the workforce. This trend has been further supported by lengthening working lives and migration, which have helped boost the overall EU workforce, despite unfavourable demographic trends. Therefore, a special focus is on the feminization of the workforce.

Cumulative headcount employment growth has favoured women by a ratio of 2:1, with employment growth among women driving increases in the employment rate. Research shows³⁰² that this growth since 1998 has been particularly strong among mid-aged (30-49 years) and older women (50+ years). As a result of this increasing participation of women in paid employment, household duties have been vastly externalized to the market.

Traditional gender norms, which govern people's behaviour, have resulted in deep-rooted differences between men and women in time use and time spent on unpaid work tasks. These norms portray men as dominant in the realm of paid work, while women are expected to take on the leading role in looking after the home and family. As a result, gender differences in time use exist because progress in reducing gender gaps in employment has been much slower in the area of unpaid work³⁰³.

Change of social roles of women and men

During the 20th century, the prevailing model of paid employment was characterized by a distinct separation between the public and private spheres, based on the male breadwinner model for standard employment and female homemakers and caregivers. However, this model began to dissolve in the 1970s, leading to profound changes in standard employment, the welfare state, and the nuclear family³⁰⁴ (consisting of a pair of adults and their socially recognized, dependent children).

This shift was driven by increased female labour force participation, temporal flexibility, technological advancements, and new management strategies. As a result, the boundaries between paid work and workers' personal lives have become increasingly blurred, and traditional institutions of work and employment have been eroded. This boundaryless work is the result of a social process that involves the “of erosion and partly deliberate dissolution of social structures that regulate and delimit social processes and that have developed under particular historic conditions”³⁰⁵.

These shifting boundaries not only have affected the temporal and spatial aspects of work but also impacted skills and competencies, resulting in a restructuring of work and employment as a whole³⁰⁶.

301 (Brooks & Bolzendahl, 2004)
302 (Eurofound and European Commission Joint Research Centre, 2021)

303 (Eurofound, 2022a)
304 (Aulenbacher et al., 2018)
305 Voß (1998) p.474 after:
(Korunka & Kubicek, 2017b)

306 (Korunka & Kubicek, 2017b)

1.4.2 Gendered job market

To comprehend and examine the distinctions between males and females in the workplace, it is essential to recognize that they do not hold equivalent positions in various domains of life. This phenomenon is commonly known as "gender segregation"³⁰⁷ which pertains to the differing patterns of male and female representation in the labour market, public and political life, unpaid domestic work, and caregiving, as well as in the educational choices of young men and women.

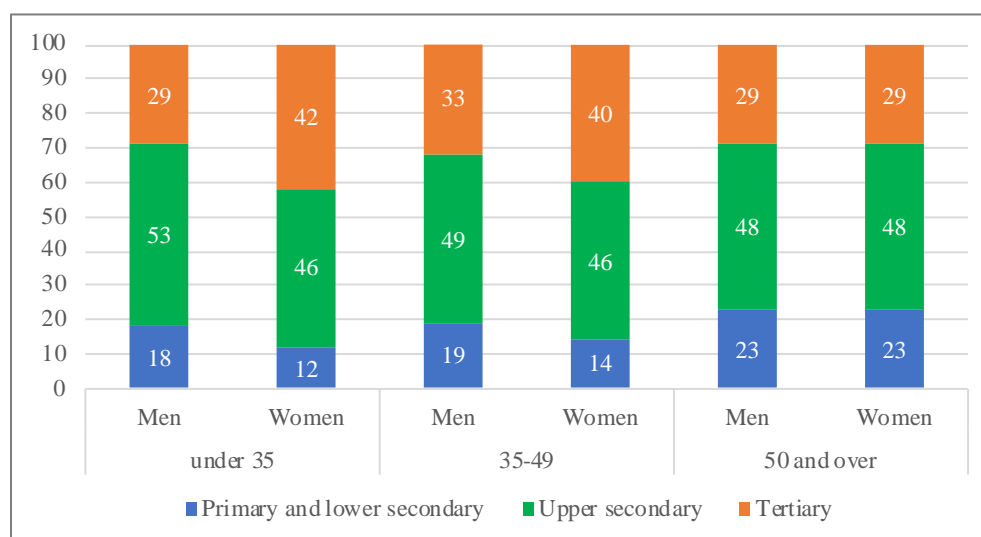


Figure 4. Education level by age and gender in %, EU28 2015, source: (Parent-Thirion, 2017)..

The level of education among the EU workforce has been increasing steadily. In the period of ten years from 2005 to 2015, the percentage of workers with a tertiary level of education in the EU28 increased from 25% to 33%, while the percentage of workers with a primary or lower secondary level of education decreased from 25% to 18%.

It is worth noting the distribution of educational levels by age and gender, especially in the younger age group, as it gives an indication of how the distribution among older groups will evolve in the future. In 2015, 42% of female workers under the age of 35 had a tertiary education, compared to 29% of their male counterparts. However, in the over-50 age group, the percentage of men and women with a tertiary education is the same.

Although there has been recent surge in women's employment growth in high-paying occupations, they remain disproportionately represented in low-paying jobs³⁰⁸. Additionally, women are less likely than men to hold managerial positions or have supervisory responsibilities. Despite the significant increase in women's labour force participation and higher educational attainment, particularly among younger women, the gender pay gap persists and is narrowing at a slower pace than expected. In 2019, women's hourly wages in the European Union were approximately 14% lower than men's wages³⁰⁹.

Jobs that are female-dominated are characterized by a distinct set of tasks compared to those male-dominated or gender-mixed. The primary contrast lies in the prevalence of "caring" responsibilities, which are much more prevalent in female-dominated occupations. Conversely, male-dominated jobs tend to involve greater use of machines and automation.

307 (Burchell et al., 2014)

308 (International Labour Organization, 2019b)

309 (Eurofound, 2022)

Gender-mixed occupations tend to have higher utilization of information and communications technology (ICT), higher levels of literacy and numeracy skills, and greater autonomy compared to gender-segregated occupations³¹⁰. These attributes are typically linked to higher-paying, cognitively demanding work.

Men consistently benefit more from education in terms of increased earnings, with this pattern becoming more pronounced at higher levels of education, particularly those with post-tertiary qualifications. The factors responsible for the gender pay gap remain largely unexplained, with observable characteristics such as part-time work, education, age, and tenure contributing to less than one-third of the gap³¹¹.

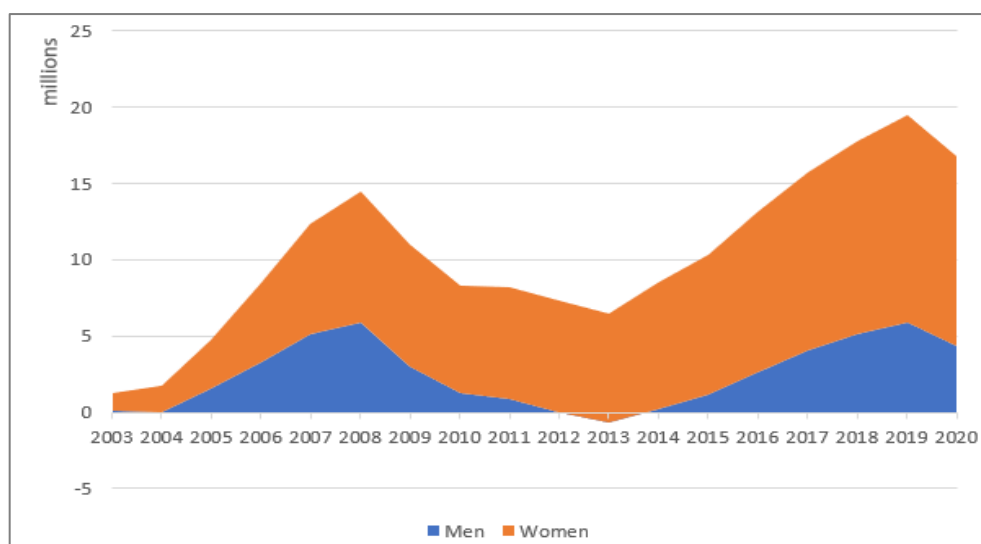


Figure 5. Cumulative net employment growth, EU27, 2002-2020, source: (Hurley, 2022).

Over the past 50 years, one of the most remarkable developments in advanced economies has been the significant increase in women's participation in the labour market. In fact, over the last two decades in the EU, more than two-thirds of net new jobs have been filled by women, who now make up 46% of the workforce in the EU27. By comparison, women made up less than 43% in 2002 and less than 40% in the early 1990s³¹². This trend speaks to both the expanding opportunities available to women and the growing prevalence of dual-earner households.

Sectoral segregation

While sectoral segregation plays a role in the labour market dynamics between men and women, occupational segregation is even more crucial as people's job choices and career decisions are more heavily influenced by occupation rather than sector. Additionally, the same or similar occupations can exist across various sectors, which cannot be captured solely by examining sectors.

310 (Parent-Thirion, 2017)

311 (Eurofound and European Commission Joint Research Centre, 2021)

312 (Eurofound, 2020)

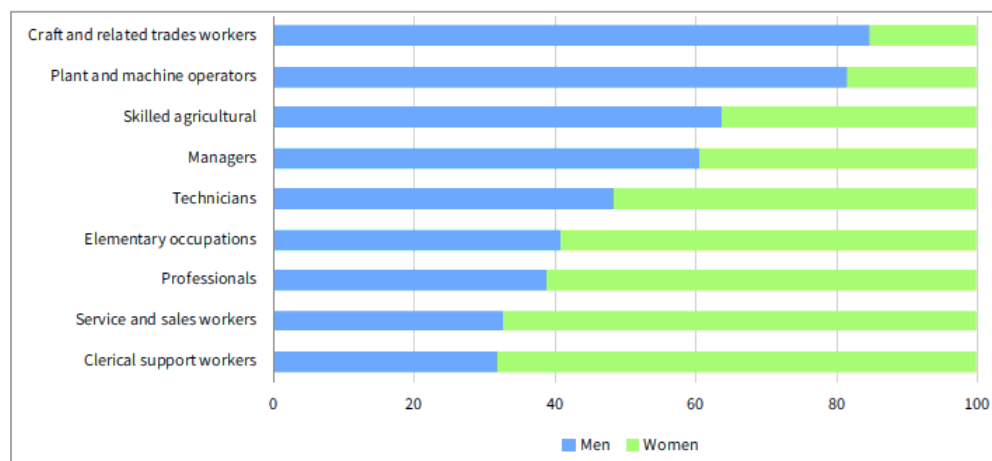


Figure 6. Shares of men and women by occupational group, 2015 (%), source: (Eurofound, 2020).

Based on the EWCS 2015 data³¹³ and the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08) at the one-digit level, the chart displays the distribution of male and female workers across various occupational groups. The chart ranks the occupational groups from the most male-dominated at the top to the most female-dominated at the bottom. Using a threshold of 60%, technicians and elementary occupations can be classified as mixed, while managers and skilled agricultural workers are male-dominated. Plant and machine operators and craft and related trades workers are highly male-dominated, with over 80% of the male workforce. On the other hand, clerical support workers and service and sales workers, as well as professionals and elementary occupations to a lesser extent, are female-dominated occupations.

Although the proportion of workers with female managers has been rising steadily since 2005, gender representation in managerial positions still falls short of gender parity. A vast majority of male employees continue to have a manager of the same gender, while only half of female employees have a female manager as their immediate supervisor³¹⁴.

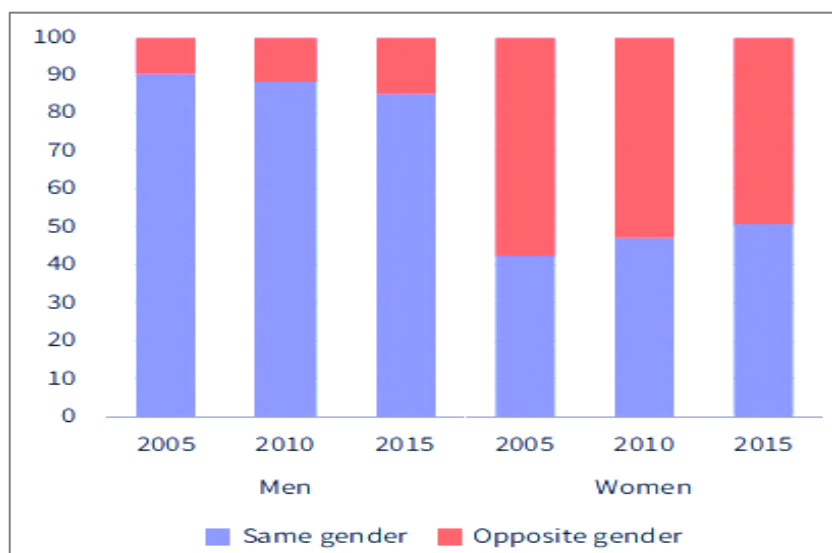


Figure 7. Gender of immediate manager, by employee gender % (2005, 2010, 2015), source: (Eurofound, 2020).

313 (Parent-Thirion, 2017)

314 (Eurofound, 2020)

Employees who have a female manager often report better management quality and receive more social support in the workplace. However, they may also be more likely to be exposed to adverse social behaviours³¹⁵.

Job demands of women and men

Numerous studies have explored the ways individuals balance their time between paid work, unpaid work, family/home time, and personal time, with a particular emphasis on gender differences in the outcomes³¹⁶.

Gendered patterns are evident in indicators of work-life balance, reflecting the traditional gender roles where women tend to be the main providers of unpaid work at home. When interpreting statistics related to work-life balance indicators, it is crucial to keep in mind that selection into the labour market is not random. This implies³¹⁷ that individuals with care responsibilities or significant work-life conflicts and other lacking job resources may choose to opt-out of paid work and hence might not be represented in the work-life balance statistics.

The index for work intensity assessing the level of work demands in a job, includes quantitative demands (such as time pressure and frequent interruptions), pace determinants, and emotional demands³¹⁸. Research has demonstrated that high work intensity has negative effects on workers' health and wellbeing³¹⁹. Even though higher work intensity may raise productivity levels, it also has adverse consequences for organizations. High work demands do not always facilitate effective work or the delivery of quality outputs. Consequently, work intensity is a crucial element in job quality.

Men tend to experience higher levels of quantitative demands, while women are more likely to face emotional demands in their work. Men also report receiving less support from their colleagues and managers, while women are more vulnerable to negative social behaviours at the workplace³²⁰. Access to training is generally limited in low-skilled occupations, particularly for women. Although men have slightly better career prospects overall, female business and science professionals enjoy the most favorable prospects. Mixed occupations tend to offer better job quality and smaller gender gaps, but only a quarter of the workforce occupies such roles³²¹.

Previous studies have generally indicated that gender bias is evident in the varying levels of effort expected from men and women, with women being required to engage in greater work intensity³²². As the number of women participating in the labour force continues to increase, this gender gap in workload could potentially contribute to overall work intensification³²³.

315 (Eurofound, 2020)

316 (Crompton & Lyonette, 2006)

317 (Eurofound, 2020)

318 (Eurofound, 2020)

319 (Suh & Folbre, 2017)

320 (Eurofound, 2020)

321 (Parent-Thirion, 2017)

322 E.g. (Kmec & Gorman, 2010)

(Russell & McGinnity, 2014)

323 (Green et al., 2022)

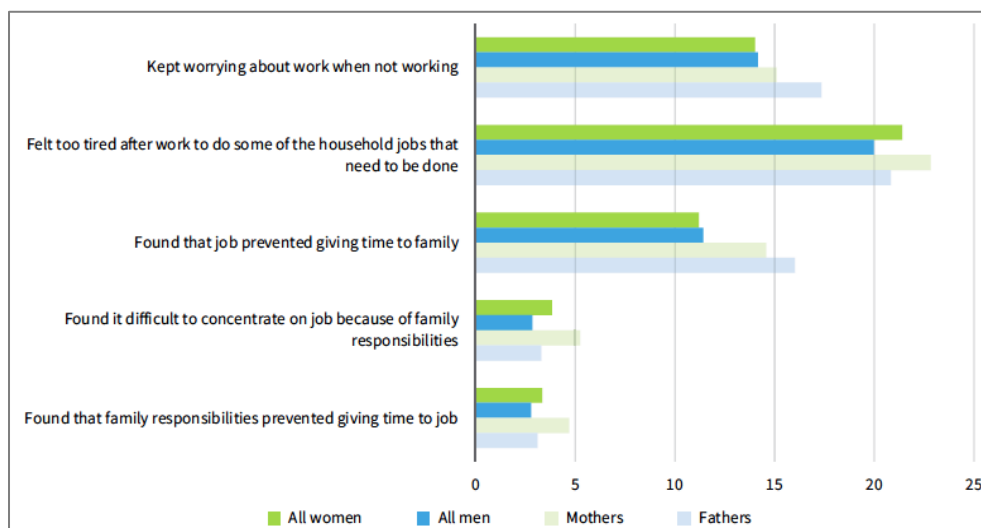


Figure 8. Work-life conflict by gender and parenthood status %, EU27, source: (Eurofound, 2022a).

Looking at work-life conflicts divide it is clear that 22.8% of working mothers and almost 21% of working fathers stated that they were too fatigued after work to perform household tasks. Fathers were more inclined (16%) than mothers (14.6%) to mention that their job restricted them from spending time with their families, and more likely (17.4%) than mothers (15.1%) to report worrying about work during their free time. In addition, 5.3% of mothers and 3.3% of fathers experienced difficulties concentrating at work due to family responsibilities. At the same time 4.7% of mothers and 3.1% of fathers reported that family obligations prevented them from dedicating sufficient time to paid work³²⁴.

In terms of the negative impact of family responsibilities on paid work, the gender patterns are flipped: 3.8% of women and 2.9% of men reported difficulty concentrating at work due to family responsibilities, while 3.4% of women and 2.8% of men reported family responsibilities preventing them from devoting sufficient time to paid work. Additionally, women were slightly more likely (21.4%) than men (20%) to report feeling too tired after work for household tasks. As expected, the occurrence of work-life conflicts is greater among working parents than among the general working population.

The gendered patterns observed in the previous analysis are influenced by traditional gender norms, where men are expected to be more involved in paid work, while women are responsible for unpaid work. Therefore, men are less likely to work part-time than women. Analyses that specifically look at full-time workers, work-life conflicts are more prevalent among women than men³²⁵. This result is attributed to two factors: firstly, conflicts generally increase with working hours, and secondly, women are more likely to work part-time than men.

1.4.3 Time use disparities

Although the statistics indicate that gender equality is important to many Europeans and is something they strive for, the reality of actual behaviours, such as the percentage of

324 (Eurofound, 2022a)

325 (Eurofound, 2022a)

fathers who utilize available parental leave options, paints a less equal picture. This implies that social norms are more likely to shift than behaviours.

As a reflection of traditional gender norms³²⁶, disagreement with the statement that university education is more important for a boy than a girl confirmed:

- more women than men (54% vs 42 strongly disagree agree),
- more not religious respondents than religious (51% vs. 48% strongly disagree),
- and more highly educated than those with lower educational status (59% vs. 44% strongly disagree).

Time as job resource

For a long time, there have been differences between women and men in terms of time spent on unpaid work. However, survey datasets do not capture the hours that people spend on unpaid work tasks as well as they capture labour market statistics. Evidence across the EU³²⁷ indicates that women were disproportionately responsible for care provision and domestic work prior to the pandemic. From 2007 to 2016, men in the EU provided an average of approximately 6 hours of childcare per week, while women provided around 11 hours, resulting in a gender gap of approximately 5 hours per week. While the gender gap in caring for other dependents was smaller in magnitude, women still carried out twice as much of this work on average as men.

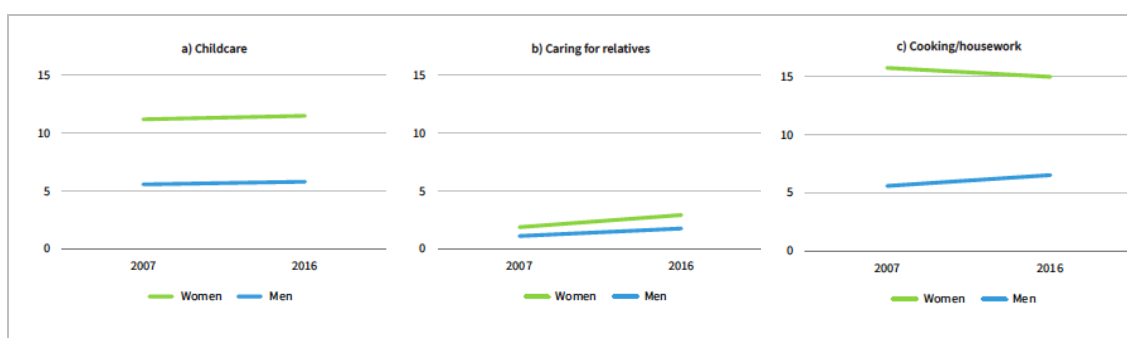


Figure 9. Mean hours spent on unpaid work in 2016 (childcare, caring for relatives, cooking/housework), by gender and country, source: (Eurofound, 2017).

Many individuals claim to share care activities equally in their households, closer examination reveals that clear gender roles are often followed when it comes to the type of household tasks³²⁸. Typically, women are responsible for housework and providing personal care, while men handle gardening, DIY work, and more physically demanding outdoor tasks. Even when couples report a more equal division of labour, women often bear the mental load of organizing care, with their skills and efficiency used as justifications for this allocation of responsibilities.

Studies on the disparities between men and women in their total working hours have revealed subtle gender differences resulting from variations in time usage between fathers and mothers³²⁹. Although there has been progress in promoting gender equality in paid work, advancements in unpaid work have been slower.

Research on two British companies³³⁰ examining the relationship between the long hours culture prevalent in many UK organizations and the exclusion of women from senior

326 (Halman et al., 2022)
327 (Eurofound, 2017)

328 (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2020)

329 (Craig, 2007)
330 (Rutherford, 2001)

management positions, highlights the importance of having equal access to time as a critical resource for success in management roles. Due to the gendered division of domestic labour, women are less likely to have equal access to time, while men's time is often made available to them by their partners at home. Despite women possessing comparable abilities, skills, and experience, time becomes the differentiating factor that increases men's likelihood of being promoted, reinforcing social closure in organisations.

The Weberian theory of social closure emphasizes how social groups can use various mechanisms to restrict access to resources and opportunities, thereby maintaining their privileged position in society³³¹. This theory has been applied in various fields, including sociology, economics, and organizational studies, to understand how social inequality is perpetuated and reproduced in different contexts.

It has been suggested that the combination of increased gender balance in paid work and gender imbalance in unpaid work contributes to a declining fertility rate in developed economies over time³³². This is because the dual roles of women as primary caregivers and labour market participants are incompatible, leading to difficulties that discourage women from having children³³³.

Gendered disparities in pandemic times

The COVID-19 pandemic has caused significant disruptions, leading employers to recognize the childcare needs of their employees and implement more flexible working arrangements. This shift has the potential to accelerate the evolution of social norms and expectations, benefiting women who are more exposed to the challenges of balancing paid and unpaid work³³⁴.

The availability of affordable and high-quality childcare is not consistent across all EU Member States, hindering full and active labour market participation, particularly for working mothers. Despite progress, women continue to bear a disproportionate burden of unpaid work, including domestic tasks and caring for dependents. Care responsibilities are not only unequally distributed among women at home but also in the workplace and labour market.

The gender disparities have become more apparent during the pandemic³³⁵. Women were overrepresented in essential, frontline jobs, which often came with additional stress. Additionally, they were more likely than men to have switched to remote work or to have decreased their paid working hours due to the closure of schools and care facilities. Once again, women were the ones who mainly stepped up to fulfil unforeseen domestic responsibilities when flexibility was needed at the household level³³⁶.

331 (Acker, 1990)
332 (Schober, 2007)

333 (Williams et al., 2016)
334 (Alon et al., n.d.)

335 (Eurofound, 2022a)
336 (Seck et al., 2021)

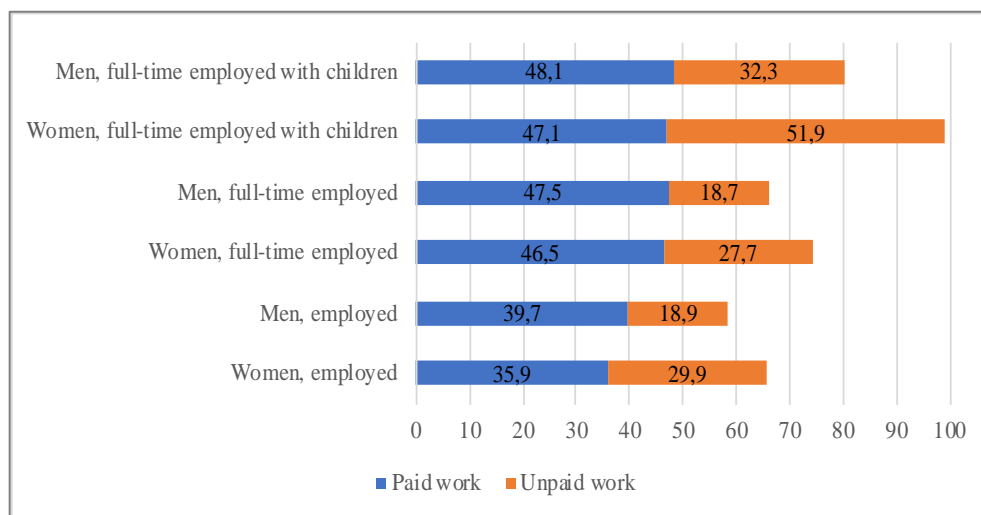


Figure 10. Mean total working time among employed individuals, EU27 (hours per week), based on data from Eurofound's Living, working and Covid-19 e-survey (June to July 2020, and March 2021) (Eurofound, 2022a).

In the EU, women who are employed work more hours per week than men when paid and unpaid work are combined. Specifically, women's total weekly working time exceeds that of men by over 7 hours. When comparing full-time employed individuals with children, this disparity increases to nearly 19 hours.

With the possibility of more remote work becoming the norm after the pandemic, there are important gender equality considerations to consider. For one, women are disproportionately represented in occupations that lend themselves to remote work. Additionally, research³³⁷ indicates that women are more likely than men to prefer splitting their work between home and their employer's premises, which could further embed existing gender disparities.

If used as a means of combining paid work with unpaid work, this could exacerbate gender disparities in unpaid work. Additionally, the risks associated with working from home, such as longer working hours, working during personal time, and isolation, which have been observed³³⁸ before and during the pandemic, may disproportionately affect women. This may result in a workplace where the presence of men is more pronounced, which could negatively impact the visibility, career development, and promotion opportunities for working women. Thus, hybrid working may have both positive and negative implications and serves as a reminder that flexibility often comes at a cost for women in the workforce³³⁹.

Gender disparities in leisure

Leisure time encompasses a variety of activities, both personal and social, which can overlap with work and caregiving in both the private and public spheres. Gender inequality in leisure raises additional concerns beyond the conventional dichotomy between paid and unpaid labour, particularly because women who provide care for children and adults in the household may find it challenging to differentiate between care and leisure time.

337 (Andrulli & Gerards, 2023)

338 (Eurofound, 2017)

339 (Hurley, 2022)

With growing work flexibility that extends into the private sphere, the boundaries of leisure time are becoming increasingly blurred. For certain groups, leisure has transformed from a basic human need into a luxury, with potential health ramifications³⁴⁰.

Multiple studies³⁴¹ indicate that the domain of leisure is decreasing because of the growing prevalence of work flexibility in the private sphere. As a result, some individuals are unable to disconnect from work and engage in leisure activities, which is a cause for concern given the rise in stress-related and mental health issues³⁴². This issue affects both genders, and although job satisfaction is linked to status, the satisfaction experienced by individuals who continuously work to achieve their career objectives is likely distinct from the work-life conflicts experienced by those facing multiple forms of exclusion and precarious situations.

Research has revealed³⁴³ significant gender disparities in total working time, particularly in dual-earner households with young children, where mothers carry out substantially more work than men. Time poverty, which refers to the combination of paid and unpaid working hours and the needs of families and individuals, is highly gendered. Pioneering discussions³⁴⁴ on the issue of time poverty and the 'speeding up' of professional and personal lives appeared some three decades ago, resulting from the increase in women's participation in the labour market.

Leisure time encompasses numerous activities that fulfil a person's basic human needs, such as physical exercise, social or cultural engagements, participation in political or community activities, and volunteering. For many individuals, leisure time is a luxury and a rare commodity. Research³⁴⁵ has emphasized the crucial role of leisure time as a coping mechanism for managing life's stresses and its correlation with physical health and overall wellbeing. Leisure activities can serve as a buffer to alleviate stress caused by the demands of an accelerated workplace and life in general³⁴⁶.

Gender equality in leisure time is a topic that is not studied as frequently as gender inequalities in work due to the unavailability of time use data. Nonetheless, understanding leisure time is crucial, particularly as the line between unpaid working time and leisure time becomes increasingly blurred with more flexible paid work arrangements, such as working from home.

340 (Davaki, 2016)

341 (Davaki, 2016)

342 (Haar et al., 2014)

343 (Bianchi et al., 2012)

344 (Hochschild & Machung, 1989)

345 (Paggi et al., 2016)

346 (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017)

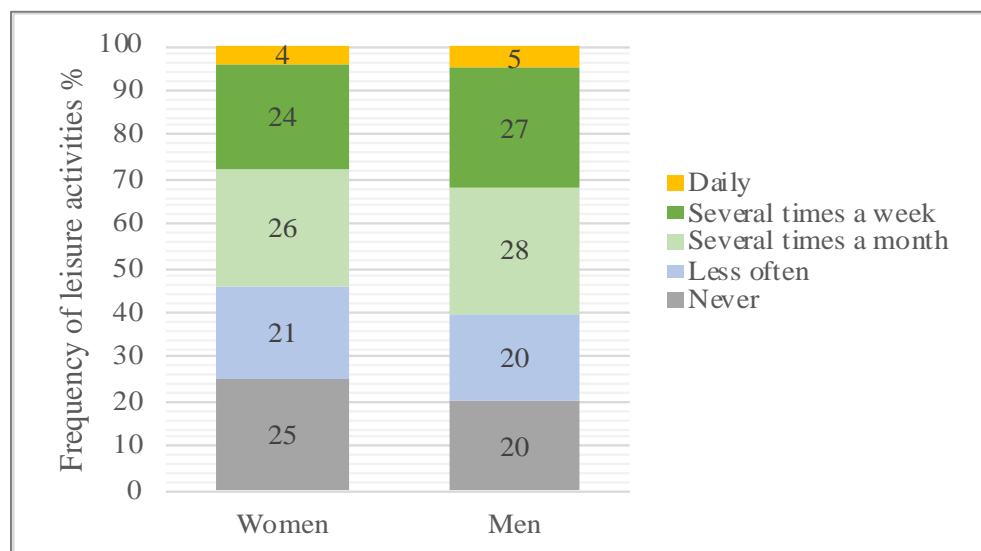


Figure 11. Frequency of sporting, cultural or leisure activity participation by gender in 2015, EU27, source: (Eurofound, 2022a).

According to the most recent wave of data collection prior to the pandemic in 2015³⁴⁷, there were differences in the participation rates of men and women in sporting, cultural, or leisure activities outside the home. Men were more likely (32%) than women (28%) to engage in these activities at least several times a week. At the same time, women were more likely (25%) than men (20%) to report never participating in such activities.

Time can be viewed as a limited resource that contributes to personal wellbeing. The assumption is that some amount of leisure time, or the time that remains in a person's day after subtracting time spent on paid work, unpaid work, and personal care (such as sleeping, eating, and grooming), is necessary for wellbeing. As a result, people who devote excessive amounts of time to total work are more likely to experience time poverty³⁴⁸.

Women's high rates of physical inactivity among EU citizens are influenced by various factors such as the gendered division of labour, lower income, gender stereotypes, and traditional lifestyle choices. These factors can contribute to negative impacts on women's physical and mental health, including a heightened risk of developing chronic conditions such as hypertension, diabetes, osteoporosis, cancer, and psychological disorders. In fact, the lack of regular physical activity is considered one of the most significant public health challenges facing society today.

Generational changes

Generational differences understood as variations in attitudes, beliefs, values, and behaviours between people of different age groups, can arise due to a variety of factors such as technological advancements, cultural changes, economic conditions, and historical events. Generational differences can also play a significant role in attitudes towards gender egalitarianism, which refers to the belief in equal rights and opportunities for people of all genders.

³⁴⁷ (Eurofound, 2022a)

³⁴⁸ (Williams et al., 2016)

Understanding the interplay between generational differences and egalitarianism can provide insights into how society's values and beliefs may evolve over time, and how different generations can work together towards a more just and equitable future.

Even though inequality exists, the norms and values of society are often influenced by economic prosperity and material security. This means that egalitarian values are primarily shaped by the larger social and economic context, rather than by the individual's position³⁴⁹. However, these values tend to change over time, with new values being adopted during adolescence and young adulthood. Once these values are adopted, they tend to remain with the individual throughout later adulthood. This claim is supported by the research³⁵⁰ that generation is a stronger predictor of egalitarian attitudes than sex, class, or education.

A significant proportion of the shift towards gender egalitarianism that is related to a person's structural position is due to cohort replacement³⁵¹. This means that younger generations, who experience new educational, employment, and societal opportunities for women, tend to have more progressive beliefs, values, and attitudes towards gender equality.

On the other hand, older generations often hold onto more traditional views and roles. As younger, more highly educated individuals with more egalitarian predispositions make up an increasing proportion of the population³⁵². That is true especially among newer generations – prevalence of gender egalitarianism will also rise, while older cohorts may still maintain inequalitarian values.

1.4.4 Managerial function at home

Economy has been defined for decades as an input made by governments and business and defined by the GDP (Gross Domestic Product) metrics. However, the share of household-related unpaid work has not been measured for the economy purposes, let alone included in the official indicators of growth³⁵³. And yet, the unpaid work and lack of specific and reliable measurement of this area is believed to be the biggest part of the gender data gap. This negligence affects not only the way global policies are formulated but also significantly deteriorates women's capabilities in welfare, economy, or social terms – to name just a few – in the long-term³⁵⁴. Women's agency might also be impaired due to the total overload that prevents them from accessing other (public and private) spheres³⁵⁵, devoiding them mainly of the leisure part in their lives which is usually later redistributed into the work part³⁵⁶.

Majority of the household-related work is done by women, and it is unpaid. Although it has real economic value and brings huge added value to the society it seems to be invisible³⁵⁷. Failure to recognise domestic work, care work, and the general household management duties as formal economy components devaluates effort put in these activities and those who perform them – women.

Studies have demonstrated that the parental role model is the primary method by which gender roles regarding household chores are instilled and passed down from one

349 (Pampel, 2011)

350 (Inglehart & Norris, 2003)

351 (Brooks & Bolzendahl, 2004)

352 (Goldscheider et al., 2015)

353 (Coyle, 2021)

354 (Subacchi, 2016)

355 (Charmes, 2022)

356 (Ortiz-Ospina, 2020)

357 (Criado-Perez, 2020)

generation to the next, particularly from fathers to sons³⁵⁸. Despite that the smallest gender gaps in housework participation exist among those aged 18-24 years (20 p.p.), only 19% of young men dedicate an hour to cooking and household tasks each day, while 39% of young women do so. Given that most people in this age range still live with their parents, it is evident that adolescent girls and young women are responsible for more unpaid work in the family home than their male counterparts, indicating that gender roles, divisions, and habits are established early on.

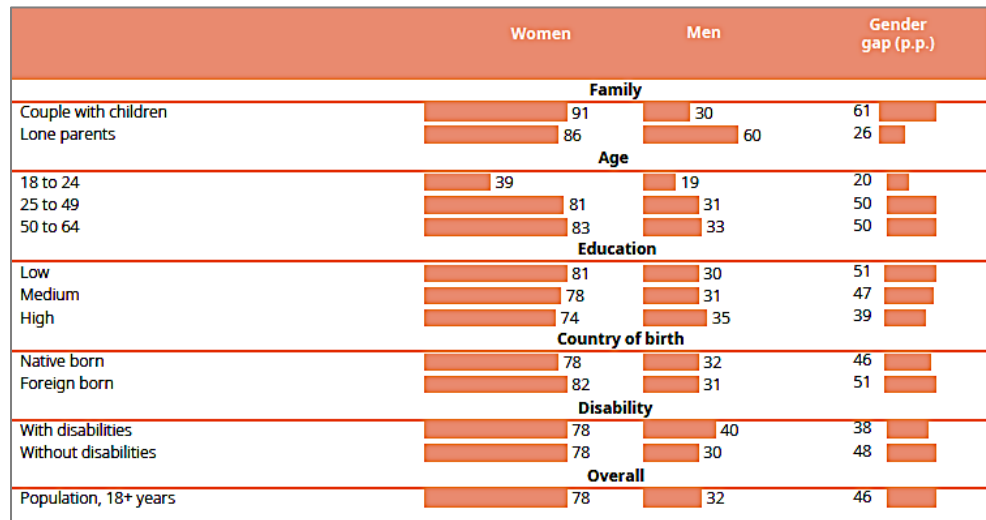


Figure 12. Gender gap with regards to the domestic load, by family composition, age, educational level, country of birth, and disabilities – based on the data from European Quality of Life Survey 2016, source: (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2021).

Lower status attributed to these tasks does not refute the fact that they are extremely time consuming and expose specific relationships between resources and needs of those who carry them out³⁵⁹. Women are observed in almost every country around the world undertaking most of the unpaid work within their households, and in total dedicate more of their time to both paid and unpaid occupations in comparison to men³⁶⁰.

Time budget studies, although seen as source of considerable data regarding daily schedules of surveyed individuals, are not sufficient in assessing one's wellbeing, or generally – quality of living³⁶¹. Thus, additional subjective indicators should be taken into consideration. These should be able to deliver an insight into the daily living context of an individual – variety and enhancement of choices in the undertaken activities, pressure and satisfaction, degree of planning one is involved in³⁶².

With subjective evaluation of the tasks, it may turn out that self-reports of activities may significantly differ between the respondents – not only because of the context but also the meaning assigned to these tasks³⁶³, which makes such data interpretation a daunting mission. For example, activities normally (according to the clear and predictable pattern) perceived as causing additional burden, in some instances may be found as enjoyable. For some “a second job” might be a means to fulfilling their passion, for others – struggling financially and making ends meet. A similar situation might be observed with cooking – preparing daily meals for family members will be categorised differently on the enjoyment scale than cooking fancy meal while spending an evening together with friends.

358 (Giménez-Nadal et al., 2019)
359 (Suh & Folbre, 2017)

360 (Seck et al., 2021)
361 (Charmes, 2022)

362 (Harvey, 1993)
363 (Ortiz-Ospina, 2020)

A similar risk of misinterpretation might be caused not only by “how” tasks are being performed, but also by the temporal and spatial diversity of when and where. Time-use surveys rarely allow for marking and extracting simultaneous activities, e.g., tasks that require supervision (of children, other family members or service providers) while fulfilling some other tasks on their own (as a primary task).

Another kind of such a task concerns “on call” responsibilities, which require an individual to keep alerted to specific signals or situations. This goes beyond daily chores and requires an individual to stay in a stand-by mode, ready to provide physical or emotional support³⁶⁴, in literature sometimes referred to as “passive care” and reported as causing stress even though without individual’s active involvement.

1.4.5 Scope for shifting gender norms and behaviours.

Despite progress in employment rates, gender inequality in the labour market persists substantially due to the unequal distribution of unpaid work between men and women. These changes have the potential to promote a more equitable distribution of unpaid work between men and women, ultimately reducing gender disparity in that respect.

The COVID-19 crisis has caused disruptions that have led employers to become more mindful of workers' childcare requirements, resulting in the adoption of more flexible work arrangements. This development has the potential to accelerate the evolution of social norms and expectations. As women often face the challenge of balancing paid work and unpaid caregiving responsibilities, they may benefit disproportionately from this shift³⁶⁵.

Gender equality can be viewed as a spectrum, where societies closer to achieving gender equality will experience more equal impacts from various shocks. Conversely, persistent gender inequalities will lead to outcomes that are also gendered. Therefore, if crises lead to gender-unequal outcomes, policies aimed at alleviating the negative impacts of such crises must incorporate a gender-sensitive approach.

The COVID-19 pandemic has emphasized the importance of examining different areas of gender equality in tandem rather than isolation. Gender imbalances are pervasive across various facets of life and are intricately interlinked, influencing one another. Positive changes in one area can have a positive domino effect in others and vice versa. For example, reducing gender disparities in unpaid care work can have the potential to reduce gender gaps in the labour market.

At the core of gender inequalities are societal norms and individual-level behaviours that often evolve slowly³⁶⁶. However, crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic offer opportunities for these norms and behaviours to transform, promoting progress towards gender equality and the realization of equal rights, responsibilities, and opportunities for both women and men, as well as girls and boys³⁶⁷.

The social and demographic changes taking place in recent decades have had a significant impact on the traditionally understood and implemented roles of women and men in society. No later than in the mid-90s in Poland, the share of people with higher education was almost identical among women and men. In 2018, 32,6% of women had a university

364 (Folbre, 2021)
365 (Alon et al., n.d.)

366 (Riva et al., 2019)
367 (Eurofound, 2022a)

diploma compared to 21,9% of men. And now almost twice as many women as men graduate from higher education in Poland³⁶⁸.

The higher level of education among women is also reflected in their remuneration. Despite the still existing wage gap, in 2014 already every 5th Polish woman earned more than her partner (N = 1000)³⁶⁹. In the USA, this percentage in 2008-2010 was 26%³⁷⁰. However, this situation visibly affects the wellbeing of partners accustomed to the current, traditional "balance of power". In Poland, over 30% of partners of women earning better than them declared their discomfort caused by such a situation. In American households (N = 6035) between 2001 and 2015, as the share of women's earnings in the household budget increased, men increasingly felt negative emotions. In contrast, among the men surveyed, the highest level of declared happiness was associated with their dominant role as the main breadwinners, while maintaining the ratio of earnings at the level of 60-40³⁷¹ in favour of male representatives.

Women's professional success may therefore have an impact on their relationships with their life partners and with the family environment in general. Research indicates that the declared average number of hours of unpaid work related to, for example, household duties or childcare is twice as high for women as for men (40h/week vs. 19h/week)³⁷², and the more successful women are in their careers, the more such responsibilities they take on themselves (compared to their partners) (N=3439)³⁷³. Sweden had twice the divorce rate among top executive women among newly promoted women, compared to women who applied for a promotion but did not get one. (N=641)³⁷⁴.

All these elements (and many more that are out of scope of this dissertation) taken together, can significantly affect the quality of life, satisfaction with its individual spheres, including the broadly understood phenomenon of work-life balance, which is the subject of this work.

368 GUS data: Human capital in Poland in 2014-2015; Population by level of education - nationwide data 1921-2011.

369 (TNS Polska, 2014)

370 According to the American Community Survey (2008 to 2010).

371 (Syda, 2020)

372 (International Labour Organization, 2019a)

373 (Bertrand et al., 2015)

374 (Straub, 2012)

Chapter 2. Methods and objectives of the empirical part

Chapter 2 will first present the methodological assumptions made, the objectives of the study, descriptions of the samples investigated, operationalisations of the main variables: professional success level and WLB. This introduction will be followed by the formulation of the research tasks and the hypotheses tested in the empirical part.

All research and analyses were carried out within Wieczorkowska-Wierzbinska's (WiW) methodological paradigm, which I outline below³⁷⁵.

2.1 The WiW methodological paradigm for HRM research

The results of HRM research do not lead to the construction of immutable laws, but only remain socially, culturally, and historically limited generalisations³⁷⁶. The formulation of a research program requires not only determining the area of research, but also specifying the problem itself and the purpose of this research³⁷⁷. What research instruments one will use in their case will be determined by the research objective and its feasibility.

We study what is observable, measurable, and susceptible to experimentation. Science is based on empirical evidence.

Terminological arrangements

All data obtained by asking employees questions are called survey data. All participants, regardless of whether they took part in surveys, experiments, or interviews, are called respondents, because the object of analysis is their reactions (answers).

Results of measuring people can have the form of numbers, in which case we speak of quantitative research/analysis, or words, which are most often a component of qualitative research/analysis.

Quantitative data are sets of numbers that are subjected to statistical analysis. Qualitative data are sets of words that are an attempt to describe different visions of the researched phenomenon (reality is in the eye of the beholder), subjected to the researcher's interpretative analysis, which may include objectivising elements such as classification of statements by independent judges, counting the frequency of using different phrases.

Quantitative research differs from qualitative research in the degree of proceduralization of methods of analysis. The aim of quantitative research is most often the objective testing of hypotheses assuming relations between variables. The aim of qualitative research is most often to identify individual ways of perceiving reality.

Methodological pluralism/eclecticism & pragmatism in the choice of problem

The WiW paradigm rejects both **anarchism** (accepting arbitrary methods and techniques drawn even from individual experience) and methodological **fundamentalism**, in which different research methods cannot be mixed. It agrees with the postulate that research methods in HRM should be applied reflexively, as they are heuristic in nature, making

375 This part of the chapter follows:
(Wieczorkowska-Wierzbinska,
2022)

376 (Sułkowski, 2011)
377 (Niemczyk, 2011)

algorithmizing impossible. Therefore, it recommends **pluralism** and even methodological **eclecticism** that accepts the use of methods drawn from different disciplines and theoretical approaches to solve a research problem³⁷⁸.

At the stage of selecting the research problem, it is recommended to apply a **pragmatic** approach, if the analysed research problem does not have important practical consequences, then it is not worth dealing with it, leaving such considerations to basic sciences.

Specificity of the test object

Methodologists forget that the study of inanimate objects is governed by different laws than the study of people. To make matters worse, we are dealing with conducting „people-by-people” research. The specificity of HRM research lies in the fact that the objects of measurement are **people who create meanings**, i.e., their reactions to stimuli are mediated by their expectations, interpretations determined to a large extent by the record of their previous experiences. Therefore, in contrast to the sciences, **in HRM each replication of the study is a success**, because the group of surveyed employees, their experience, the cultural context is always changing...

The objects of analysis in HRM research are **mental facts**, i.e., most often people's answers (verbal or categorized on numerical scales) to the questions asked. It should be remembered that this type of quantitative data is almost always distorted, as has been shown in many studies³⁷⁹. The model of the question-answer process shows why there is such a great variation in the responses of the respondents.

Answering a question about evaluation, e.g., job satisfaction, requires the activation of various information contained in long-term memory in its semantic (e.g., what it means to be satisfied) and episodic parts (e.g., recalling various emotional states). The recalled information, according to a concept of consciousness called a **multiple sketch model**, is subject to continuous editing. At no point in this process can it be said that the editing is complete, and the final outcome is consciously experienced. At a given moment, we recall the worst episodes; in an hour, we may recall information that radically changes our judgment. When we are in a good mood, we look for positive aspects of working in this company; when we are in a bad mood we "look for holes in the whole". Respondents, while filling in the questionnaire, very rarely have ready marks of satisfaction "in their heads". The assumption that we constantly archive different opinions is not very convincing. An alternative assumption is that we construct them on an ongoing basis when they are needed. Specific goals, standards, judgments, and attitudes with a high capacity to generate further information. We have various general opinions, goals, standards, and attitudes encoded in our minds to generate further opinions. These are essential for the formation of emotions, because without them it is impossible to give any meaning to the events we encounter. Most of the cognitive representations (e.g., views about the role of work in life) that we ask about are not represented in the mind before the evaluation is initiated. Such representations can be described as virtual (because they do not exist before the question is asked). Our approach differs significantly from the traditional approach of measurement theory, which assumes that the respondent already has a fixed 'true' answer - one they would give themselves, so the primary concern is to minimize measurement error caused by the form of the question, the social context. Every

378 (Sułkowski, 2011)

379 (Wieczorkowska & Wierziński, 2013)

evaluation requires the ability to focus one's attention to select information, to omit or at least block out those that are of peripheral importance. In the process of transforming a thought into an utterance, a chain of associations emerges in the mind. Each word, especially an ambiguous one, triggers a sequence of associations that run often in different, even very divergent directions. There are many cognitive schemas encoded in long-term memory that are "ready" to interpret such a word. The mind usually sifts through associations and selects only those that are related to the thought we want to express. The more accurate this information sifting, the more effective the next stage of processing associated with conscious attention can be. Only a modest fraction of this process can be made conscious, but this does not mean that we cannot take control and turn our attention to different aspects of the issue. In this way, awareness modifies the operation of the filter. We can call up information from long-term memory, and it will filter the incoming information. To sum up, we must be aware that **respondents very often do not have a ready answer and they form it only when the questions are asked.** Very often, they do not reproduce their opinions but construct them. What opinion they form depends on which of the four strategies of forming an opinion we apply: 1) reproducing ready-made judgements, 2) motivated processing, 3) heuristic (simplified) processing, and 4) analytical (detailed) processing.

The information processing strategy chosen is determined by the respondent's cognitive abilities (e.g., level of reflexivity), state of the organism (overload, mood), and goals determining the degree of involvement. The choice is also influenced by the characteristics of the object of assessment (degree of familiarity and complexity) and the characteristics of the situation (time pressure, social approval, how costly mistakes are). In surveys, respondents, due to time constraints and the lack of costs of making an incorrect judgment, extremely rarely use an analytical strategy. Therefore, we should keep in mind:

- (1) Importance of psychological realism of the research - it is very important to maintain the respondents' engagement e.g., by offering personalized feedback if it is possible. The respondent wants to understand not only WHAT is being asked about, but also WHY?
- (2) Respondents do not have ready answers in their heads and must have the right to say, "I don't know", not applicable, or omit the answer. Forcing them to give an answer can lead to irritation and giving random answers to subsequent questions.
- (3) Respondents, if they can, will avoid the mental effort – they love to use middle options on the rating scale, so even-numbered points with Don't Know (Difficult to Say) option outside the rating scale is recommended. Research³⁸⁰ has shown that the absence of a middle option does not significantly increase the number of Don't Know (Difficult to Say) answers.

Conclusion: Respondents' answers have different validity and reliability. Sophisticated methods of data analysis are of no use if these data are distorted in various ways.

Scientific concepts and operational definitions

In science, we use the language of observation and the language of theory in parallel. In the language of theory, we use **scientific concepts** (theoretical constructs, latent

380 (Wieczorkowska & Wierzbński, 2011)

variables) e.g. leadership style, need for dominance, emotional well-being of an employee etc., which have to be translated into the language of observation.

The WiW paradigm recognizes that the theoretical constructs under study are **natural concepts** that cannot be defined in a classical way by means of necessary and sufficient conditions, so the solution to the problem is operationism³⁸¹, which assumes that scientific concepts do not capture the essence of things, but only give the scientist's actions, his psychophysical operations needed to define the thing under study.

We use various measurement tools to build indicators. An example would be sets of questions built to measure an employee characteristic. Such sets of questions are called scales (e.g., Anxiety Scale) or psychological tests, which can be treated as a variety of calibrated tools³⁸².

The positivist approach³⁸³ to quantitative research analysis assumes that the objects of research are facts, which are presented in the language of variable values. Hundreds of variables and their operationalization have been described in scientific HRM studies. One can get the impression that the introduction of another scientific concept to describe a person is overly accepted. That is why the researcher must choose the variables that are the subject of his inquiries by describing the theoretical model of the phenomenon described and the measurement model of the theoretical constructs.

The task of the researcher is not limited to registering facts and laws governing the facts but consists in such an ordering of them in theoretical models as to be able to predict subsequent facts on their basis.

Theoretical Models

In HRM, cognition is achieved mainly through model testing rather than observation³⁸⁴. Therefore, the first step is to select, based on a literature review, the theoretical variables (scientific concepts) that will be used to model the phenomenon of interest to the researcher.

A theoretical model should be as follows:

- simple - the fact that reality is complex does not imply that the model should be complex³⁸⁵,
- congruent with available scientific facts if it is not intended to question interpretation of them,
- logical, internally consistent³⁸⁶,
- able to generate predictions,
- empirically verifiable.

A theoretical model that has been confirmed by many studies can be called a theory.

Each model in HRM consists of an a priori part, an assumption that the selected variables are valid and relevant, or a set of hypothetical relationships between variables, which are subjected to precise empirical tests. In addition to the theoretical model, a measurement model must be specified, that is, a way of operationalizing all the variables.

381 Bridgman after: (Tatarkiewicz, 1950)
382 (Brzeziński, 2019)

383 (Tatarkiewicz, 1950)
384 (McKelvey & Henrickson, 2002) (Czakoń, 2011)

385 As Professor Robert Zajonc used to say.
386 (Burniewicz, 2021)

Hypotheses are falsifiable statements about the relationships between the variables specified in the theoretical model.

Five types of triangulation

The WiW paradigm recommends 5 types of triangulation: (1) methods, (2) data, (3) operationalization, (4) modes of analysis, and (5) researcher.

Triangulation of methods

Even in online surveys, we can combine correlational, experimental, and qualitative methods. We analyse numerical answers to closed questions with quantitative methods, and verbal answers to open questions with qualitative methods.

Data triangulation

The availability of population representative random samples is very limited in the social sciences, since people can be drawn but cannot be forced to participate in surveys. Therefore, in most cases, surveys are conducted on convenience samples consisting of people who have agreed to participate in the survey. We increase external validity by replicating studies in different convenience samples. **This means that we should test the same hypotheses on different data sets.**

Triangulation of operationalizations

There are no standard operationalizations of variables in HRM. Operationalization of variables should be carefully selected considering the specifics of the sample, e.g., the item "I make decisions under time pressure more easily" is a good indicator of low reactivity in the group of young employees, but not among managers. Even if we use standardized ready-made measurement tools, their psychometric properties should be checked on the sample.

Triangulation of analytical methods

Although in quantitative analyses assumptions are made about the axiological neutrality of science and the non-interference of the researcher, even in the pre-proceduralised, objectified statistical analyses, the researcher has to make decisions about how to "clean" the data set, how to build indicators, how to choose assumptions about the level of measurement, how to choose statistical tests. The decision of whether to treat questionnaire score as a continuous or ordinal variable (e.g., after median splitting) may lead to different conclusions. Therefore, the WiW paradigm recommend using different ways of data analysis like parametric vs nonparametric tests on the same data, with the increased trust to the results that are robust to the change of statistical tests.

Researcher triangulation

When analysing qualitative data, words, **researcher triangulation** is recommended, data should be coded by at least two people independently of each other.

External and internal validity of research

We increase external validity by using different types of triangulation – in particular, by testing the same hypotheses on different data sets.

Where possible, we should take care to ensure the INTERNAL VALIDITY of the study. Even in surveys we can **manipulate the independent variables** - that is, we can conduct experimental research by assigning volunteers randomly to different experimental conditions.

Where possible, in both surveys and interviews, we introduce DESCRIPTIONS of the objects whose evaluation we want to know. For example, when asking employees for their opinions about their boss, we are not able to determine to what extent it results from the employee's perception and to what extent from the objective characteristics of the boss. Asking for the evaluation of the model description of e.g., a dominant, partner-like boss we can investigate individual differences in the evaluation of various features that were the basis for the construction of these descriptions.

Quality of Data

Before analysis, data sets should be carefully cleaned of "false" respondents, who, e.g., gave random answers³⁸⁷. Standard measurement tools used in research should be checked for psychometric properties/adapted to the group of respondents studied.

Quantitative, experimental case studies³⁸⁸

Findings on relationships between 2-3 variables (*ceteris paribus*) are difficult to apply in practice because of multidimensionality of reality). Therefore, WiW methodological paradigm promotes QUANTITATIVE experimental case studies, where the values of variables at selected time points are manipulated and quantitative measurements are made over a long period of time.

2.2 Research objective, tasks, and hypotheses

The main objective of the dissertation is to investigate the impact of career advancement on the satisfaction with work-life balance among employees with high professional status (including managerial function). In this exercise a special focus has been put on gender and generational differences.

Work on the doctoral dissertation began with conducting several in-depth interviews with "successful" women – but they were interrupted due to the pandemic. An interesting observation was that women were more likely to arrange an interview with f2f than with a remote conversation.

The analysis of the interviews showed it is worth using quantitative methodology in further research. This was dictated not only by the restrictions related to the pandemic, but also to make comparisons with people who are not highly successful professionally.

387 (Wieczorkowska & Wierziński, 2011) (Kabut, 2021)

388 (Wieczorkowska-Wierzińska, 2014)

Research tasks

Realisation of the main objective of the dissertation was allocated across five research tasks:

- (1) Literature review of factors contributing to the work-life balance among employees with high professional status, including those with managerial functions, concluded with identification of research gaps.
- (2) Development of a strategy to construct an index of professional success based on survey data.
- (3) Development of a new research procedure for estimating WLB using an external view, in which adult children (Generation Z) assess the WLB of parents (Generation X), allowing to eliminate distortions related to attributive egocentrism, which leads to an overestimation of the amount of work performed by the person performing that work.
- (4) Testing various forms of studying Gender-Career stereotype, linking professional careers with men and family duties with women, accompanied by the development of experimental manipulation of target descriptions of specific situations posing threat to WLB due to career advancement.
- (5) Analyses of pre-existing data and conducting own research, aimed at testing research hypotheses.

Hypotheses

In the course of the research the following hypotheses have been tested in four studies:

H1. Higher professional success in women does not translate to lower involvement in household duties, and especially in home management (i.e., planning and organization of household activities, leading and controlling their execution).

H2. Women bear higher costs of professional success (career advancement) compared to men.

Higher costs of professional success among women are associated with lower:	2a. work-life balance
	2b. emotional wellbeing
	2c. health condition

H3. WLB gender stereotypes are stronger in men than in women.

The research has been conducted in the form of re-analyses of pre-existing data (Study A) and conducting 3 own studies (B, C, D) via the Internet (CAWI):

- Study A. WLB in British generation X (N=3475 employees all born in 1970);
- Study B. WLB in Polish generation BB, X, Y (N=616 employees);
- Study C. WLB in Polish Generation X evaluated by their adult children (Generation Z; (N=486)

- Study D. Strength of Gender-Career stereotype depending on gender (N=143 + other participants from Study B or C).

Hypothesis 1 was tested on both Polish data (own research – Study B of three generations) and British Cohort Survey of 46-year-olds (Study A).

Hypothesis 2 was tested in Study C.

Hypothesis 3 was tested in Study D.

2.3 Data, research procedures and operationalization of key variables

Study A. British Cohort Survey WLB of 46 years old 3475 employees

British Cohort Survey (BCS70) is a longitudinal and multidisciplinary observational study monitoring the development of children born in the UK during the week of 5 to 11 April 1970 – a total of over 17,000 people. The edition of the survey conducted in 2016-2018 counted N=8581 respondents, which was a full sample.

The 2016-2018 edition surveyed people aged 46-48 (which depended on the date of the study), women constituted the majority of participants (K=4427; 51.6%).

The analysis focused on issues that could illustrate the work-life balance among those with the most advanced careers – successful professionals.

Response values marked 'I don't know', 'Refusal', 'N/A' have been replaced with missing values. Response scales have been recoded according to ascending values (the highest value on the scale is also the highest value of the indicator).

Due to the multi-stage nature of the BCS70 study, there was no need to clean the data from the so-called inattentive or otherwise false respondents, i.e., those who incorrectly answer control questions, thus indicating the appearance of their involvement in the implementation of the study.

A total of 3475 respondents were finally selected for further analytical work of this **pre-existing data set** in terms of the completeness of their responses to questions on the following issues:

- education level
- job position and management function ('manager' indicator)
- the amount of time spent working and salary ('work' indicator)

The limitations made have altered the distributions in the sample analysed, in which men predominated (N=2111; 60.7%). A bachelor's degree diploma (or equivalent professional qualification) was held by 36.2% of male respondents (N=764) and 42.4% of female respondents (N=579). In contrast, a master's degree diploma (or equivalent) was held by 8.8% of male respondents (N=185) and 11.5% of female respondents (N=151).

Study B. 616 Polish employees from generation BB, X, Y

The data set comes from an **own study** conducted through one of the **Polish nationwide commercial research panels** based on the Survey of Activity Styles (pol. Sondaż Stylów Aktywności) in June and July 2021. In this panel registered respondents collect points in

exchange for participation in the survey and can later exchange these points for various rewards.

Sample was selected purposefully to consist of employed participants with at least 3 years of professional experience with at least secondary education, coming from Mazovian voivodeship. Since the requested quota for this administrative area was not met, additional respondents were invited from another two cities: Lublin and Łódź.

Participants who were currently unemployed (short-term unemployment) were also allowed to take part in the study, if they had required work experience. There were 57.1% men in the sample. Mean age of participants was 42.8 years, with standard deviation of 11 years. The study was conducted in July of 2021. Dataset was subjected for False Respondents screening procedure.

Study C. Polish Gen X evaluated by 486 their adult children (Gen Z)

Edition VI of Survey of Activity Styles have been filled out by 486 students (70.8 % women, mean age=21.7 years) of the Faculty of Management at the University of Warsaw between April and June 2021.

A part of the questionnaire enquired about the work-life balance of our students' parents and possible phenomenon of work-life conflict, specifically at the time our students finished their high school education.

Mothers' age spanned between 39 and 56 years, with a mean value of 48.24 years and SD=3.71. Fathers' age spanned between 40 and 56 years, M=50.04 SD=3.40. That age range shows that both parents of the 486 students (56.2%) who responded to our questionnaire belonged to the Generation X (i.e., born between 1964 and 1980), and this is the group I am focusing on in my detailed research in the empirical part of this dissertation. On average, mothers had 15.5 years of education, fathers had 14.57 years of education. False respondents were excluded from data set before it was analysed.

Study D. Gender differences in of Gender-Career stereotype strength

In the dissertation I refer to as Study D as the results of a study in which students participated VOLUNTARILY and anonymously. For direct and experimental measurement, participants of Study B described above were also included (same questions were asked to them in the survey).

The SSA questions were answered outside of class time, but they were able to enter their index number, which meant that they were able to obtain points that were added to their online test scores after passing the detection procedure. Only the IAT test was completed during class, as the results were immediately discussed.

The response time to the SSA questions is approximately 20 minutes to 40 minutes, but a lot of attention has been paid in the design to build up engagement - the question blocks are separated e.g., by simple arithmetic questions (see Figure 13), which in addition to testing attention (as an attention check) also allow for a change of focus, serving as a break during a monotonous task of asking similar survey questions. Respondents were also encouraged to take breaks (an example of break screen is shown in Figure 13).



Figure 13. An example of attention check question and break screen used in CAWI surveys.

The part with SSA was excluded and referred to as study C because it was dedicated specifically to study WLB of parents of the students, not the students themselves. Study D was aimed at examining differences and strength of WLB stereotypes.

Implicit Association Test (IAT) (N=143)

The IAT is designed to assess the associations between concepts (e.g., Family and Career) and evaluations (e.g., Female, Male) by measuring the speed of response when items that are more closely related in the individual's mind share the same button. For instance, a person with an implicit preference for Family over Career will tend to be quicker at sorting words when 'Family' and 'Female' share a button than when 'Career' and 'Female' share a button.

Research indicates that the IAT can be used to predict discrimination in areas such as hiring, education, healthcare, and law enforcement by analysing data from many individuals. However, it is important to note that taking the IAT once is unlikely to accurately predict your future behaviour.

In this analysis there were 143 respondents participating in the research based on the Implicit Association Test (IAT) (50.3% men). Two groups of the Faculty of Management students: full-time students (N=97; 45.4% men) participating in the “Psychology of business” course and MBA students (N=46; 60.9% men).

Research participants were asked to fill in the “Gender-Career Task” available on the <https://implicit.harvard.edu> website.



Figure 14. Excerpt #1 from the IAT website – “Gender-Career” Test.

Students were asked to complete an Implicit Association Test (IAT), which measures attitudes and beliefs that people may be unwilling or unable to report.

Implicit Association Test	
Next, you will use the 'E' and 'I' computer keys to categorize items into groups as fast as you can. These are the four groups and the items that belong to each:	
Category	Items
Male	Ben, Paul, Daniel, John, Jeffrey
Female	Rebecca, Michelle, Emily, Julia, Anna
Career	Career, Corporation, Salary, Office, Professional, Management, Business
Family	Wedding, Marriage, Parents, Relatives, Family, Home, Children
There are seven parts. The instructions change for each part. Pay attention!	

Figure 15. Excerpt #2 from the IAT website – description of the “Gender-Career” Test.

The task was to sort words (associated with the chosen “**Gender-Career**” Test into groups as fast as possible, as well as answer some questions about beliefs, attitudes, and opinions, and some standard demographic questions.



Figure 16. Excerpt #3 from the IAT website – collection of exemplary word/ name triggers for implicit associations testing in the “Gender-Career” Test.

The study takes about 10 minutes to complete. At the end, every respondent receives their IAT result along with additional information for interpretation.

<p>During the Implicit Association Test (IAT) you just completed:</p> <p>Your responses suggested a moderate automatic association for Male with Career and Female with Family.</p>

Figure 17. Excerpt #4 from the IAT website – an exemplary result note from the “Gender-Career” IAT.

Authors of the IAT emphasise in the disclaimer that the results are intended for educational purposes only. As the website outlines – the results may vary due to a range of factors, including variables related to the test itself (such as the words or images used to represent categories) and the individual taking the test (such as fatigue or their thoughts prior to taking the IAT). Therefore, it is not advisable to rely on these results to make important decisions.

Opinions about the effectiveness of the IAT are divided, as evidenced by a 2013 meta-analysis³⁸⁹. The study revealed weaker correlations between IAT scores and discriminatory behaviour than the previous meta-analysis, leading to controversy about the test³⁹⁰. Other researchers³⁹¹ point out the multitude of conceptual, psychometric, and validity issues related to the IAT that make it difficult to precisely evaluate either implicit biases or associations.

Let it be due to the ‘implicit bias’s vague definition, or unclear measurement through reaction times³⁹², studies point out that eventually multiple meta-analyses have demonstrated that IAT scores can predict discriminatory behaviour to some degree. With further research in the field, it might be possible to close the existing gaps and fully comprehend what the IAT measures and the insights it provides.

Direct measurement of Gender-Career stereotype

Egalitarian attitudes measured by direct survey question on the matter. Questions were asked to 486 students and 616 employees. Total sample size for this part was N=1102.

Gender-career stereotype with TARGET DESCRIPTION manipulation (Adam vs Eve)

Gender differences in Gender-Career stereotype was first tested on 486 students and replicated on 616 employees.

Research methods and techniques

- Positional measures (median, quartiles), classical measures (mean, standard deviation);
- Correlational measures (Pearson correlation coefficient, Chi squared tests);
- ANCOVA with repeated measurement;
- Multiple regression.

In almost all the analyses described in Chapter 3, there are 2 variables: professional success and WLB.

In line with the WiW Paradigm, their operationalisations in different studies may differ, so they are collected and described in the methodology chapter.

2.4 Operationalisations of Professional success index

One of the Research Tasks was the development of a strategy to construct an index of professional success based on survey data.

Professional success index has been created to distinguish between employees with low and high professional status.

The literature on defining career success has frequently overlooked the fact that individuals may employ diverse referent points to evaluate their success, leading to

389 (Oswald et al., 2013)
390 (Greenwald et al., 2009)

391 (Jussim et al., 2020)
392 (Schimmack, 2021)

incomplete operationalizations. The concept of career success is not fixed, but rather dynamic and changes as managers progress³⁹³ through different developmental stages or adapt to their evolving perceptions of personal success³⁹⁴.

Regardless of the definition used, the core of the matter lies in the two dimensions of career success: objective and subjective. The evaluation of objective career success³⁹⁵ is based on how well individuals have performed in their careers and how they are perceived by others, while subjective career success reflects individuals' own perceptions of how well they have done³⁹⁶. Studies have shown that assessing extrinsic and intrinsic factors of career success can result in distinct outcomes, as these factors are not strongly correlated³⁹⁷.

Survey data in the studies was limited in terms of sophisticated variables. Hence the task was to reflect such achievements that they could be easily verified and compared and fit in relatively tangible areas. Therefore, it was crucial to compose such 'professional success' indicators in respective studies that they could have been measured in objective terms. Objective factors of career success have the advantage of not only being readily available or easy to collect in a non-biased form (if not collected through self-reports) but are also standardised – thus comparable between subjects³⁹⁸.

The indicator was built on all 4 research samples and showed its accuracy i.e. it revealed the differences in other questions too – for example women who were described by children as successful indicated greater commitment to work.

Study A. British Cohort Survey of 46 years old employees

Study A consists of **pre-existing data** from British Cohort Survey – individuals born in 1970 – representatives of Generation X (N = 3475 employees). Professional success index in Study A consisted of the following elements:

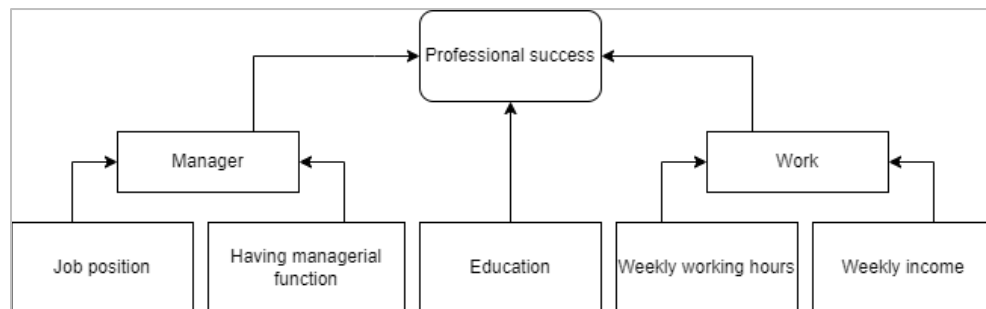


Figure 18. Composition of the Professional success index consisted of elements reflecting such measures as status and rank, material success, and competences (Study A).

- (1) Indicator **MANAGER** described persons holding a **managerial function** (including **self-employed**) or a high job position, such as **highly specialized**, requiring special qualifications or knowledge occupations. Indicator aims at confirming **hierarchical position** and reflecting societal perceptions of the **power and authority** connected with respective careers.

393 (Super, 1980)

394 (Sturges, 1999)

395 (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986)

396 (Gunz & Mayrhofer, 2011)

397 (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007)

398 (Judge et al., 1995)

- (2) Indicator **WORK** was composed of two **quantitative variables** – weekly working hours and weekly income. The former reflects **objective (hourly) involvement** in performing job duties, while the latter allows for estimation of the **material success** – tangible benefits achieved by respondents.
- (3) Variable **EDUCATION** marked those with **high educational level** or vocational qualifications, which are predictors of high **professional competence**. Graduation from tertiary education with at least bachelor's degree or a professional equivalent in the form of a National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) at least at level 4 has been one of the signals of the professional success.

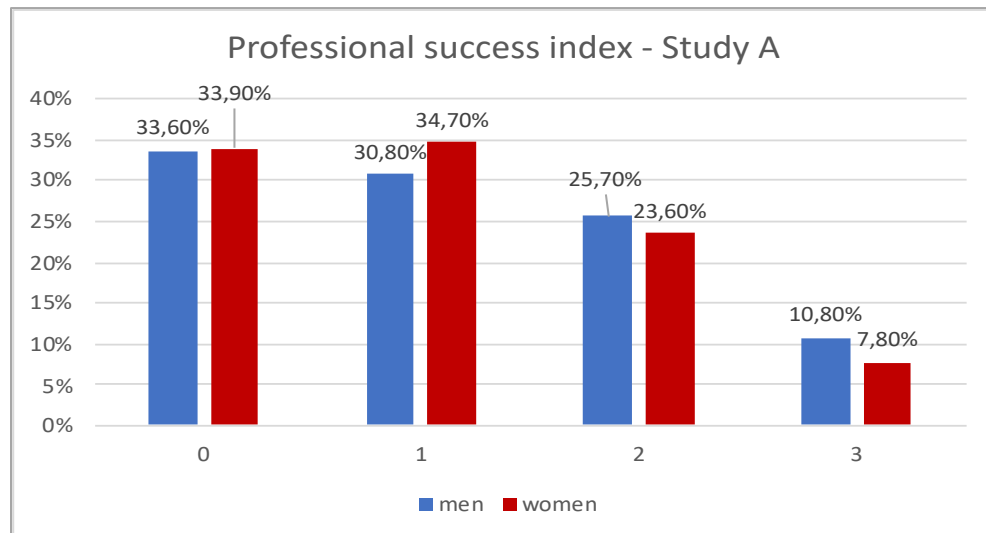


Figure 19. Distribution of signals of the professional success, divided by gender (Study A).

Professional success index has been created to distinguish between employees with low and high professional status. Therefore, this index had initially four grades: from 0 – when none of the conditions have been met by a respondent, to 3 – when all conditions are met.

For the purposes of the analysis the 4-point professional success index got dichotomised, where responses giving 0-1 signals were marked as LOW success, and the remaining 2-3 signals as HIGH success.

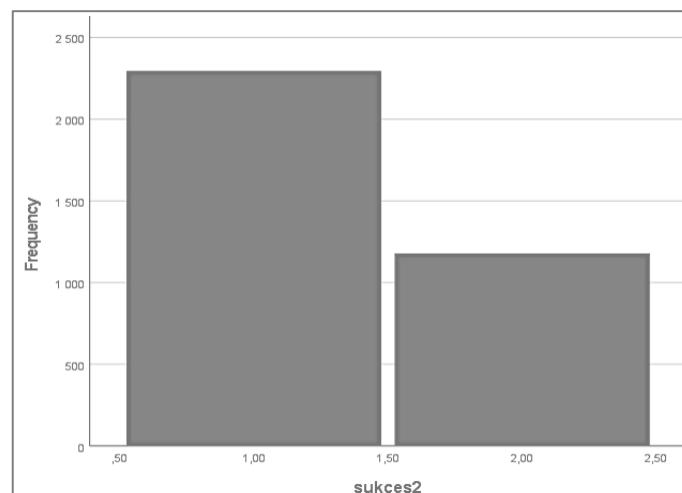


Figure 20. Distribution of HIGH and LOW professional success (Study A).

Study B. 616 Polish employees

Study B has been conducted among employed adults (N=616) in Poland representing three various generations: Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y.

Professional success index was built based on **3 questions**, one of which was **self-evaluation of professional achievements** in comparison to peers (other-referent comparison). The two remaining elements reflected the actual **hierarchical position** (managerial function) and level of **competence** (education level).

Attempting to avoid multiple and various referent points in evaluating career success, respondents were requested **to compare themselves to their peers**. Research shows³⁹⁹ that people usually act in the way predicted by equity theory using the outcomes of other people as reference when evaluating their own work-related outcomes.

- (1) **Self-reported level of PROFESSIONAL ACHIEVEMENTS** was based on the question “*Comparing yourself to your peers, your professional achievements are...*” with five possible answer options (from 1 – lower than..., to 5 – highest) and an open comment response, with mean value $M=2.21$ and $SD=0.821$.

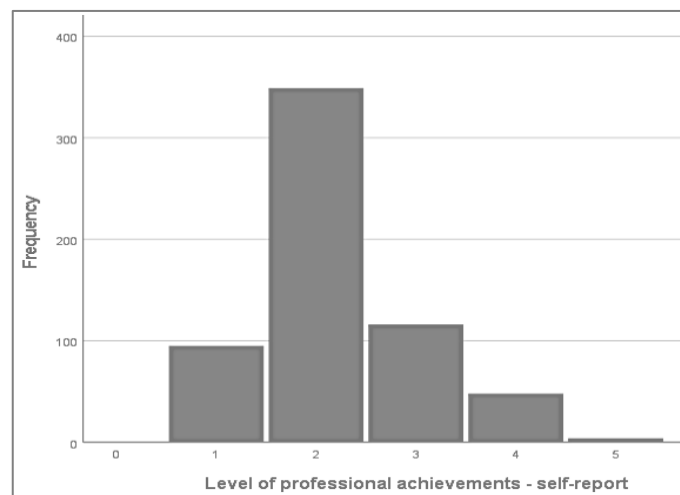


Figure 21. Distribution of self-reported level of professional achievements (Study B).

Distribution (Figure 21) of the self-reported level of professional achievements showed that respondents followed the predictions of equity theory and did not overestimate their status. For the analysis purposes the scale was dichotomised: LOW vs. HIGH, categorized by dividing answers: “Lower than my peers” or “Rather average”, were categorized as **LOW level**; Remaining answers (“Slightly higher than my peers”, “Significantly higher than my peers”, and “Highest among people I know”) were categorized as **HIGH level**.

- (2) **MANAGERIAL FUNCTION** was marked with answers to a simple YES/NO question referring to respondents’ engagement in **managing other people** at work, which served as a reflection of their **hierarchical position**.
- (3) **EDUCATION**: Participants were asked about their education reflected by the number of education years they had completed. Answers of 15 and more years were assigned to “Yes” category.

399 (Sturges, 1999)

To properly reflect professional success in Survey B, each of the elements (i.e., high level of professional achievements, holding a managerial function, and having higher education) was counted as a separate signal contributing to the index.

Therefore, it has four grades: from 0 – when no single condition is met by a respondent (lowest professional success), to 3 – when all conditions are met (highest professional success).

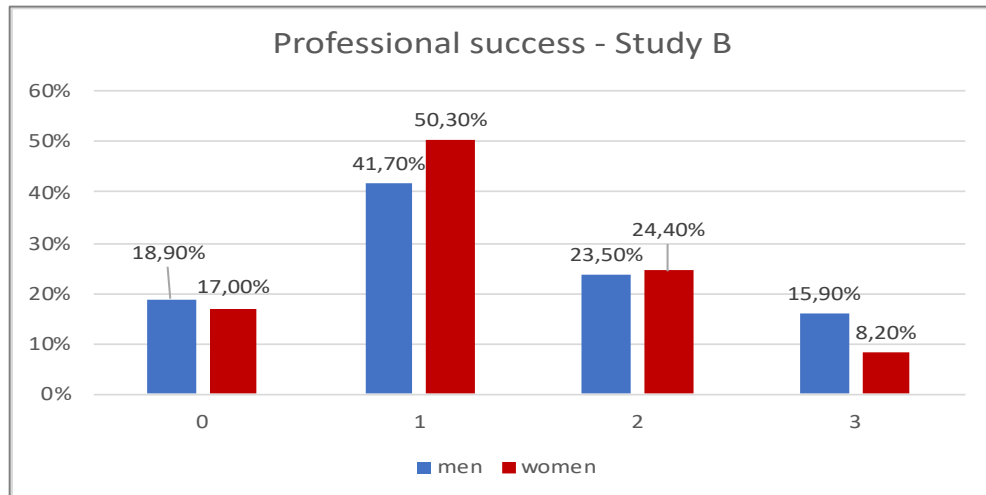


Figure 22. Distribution of the professional success index in Study B, divided by gender, resembles gender differences in top positions where men significantly outnumber women (Study B).

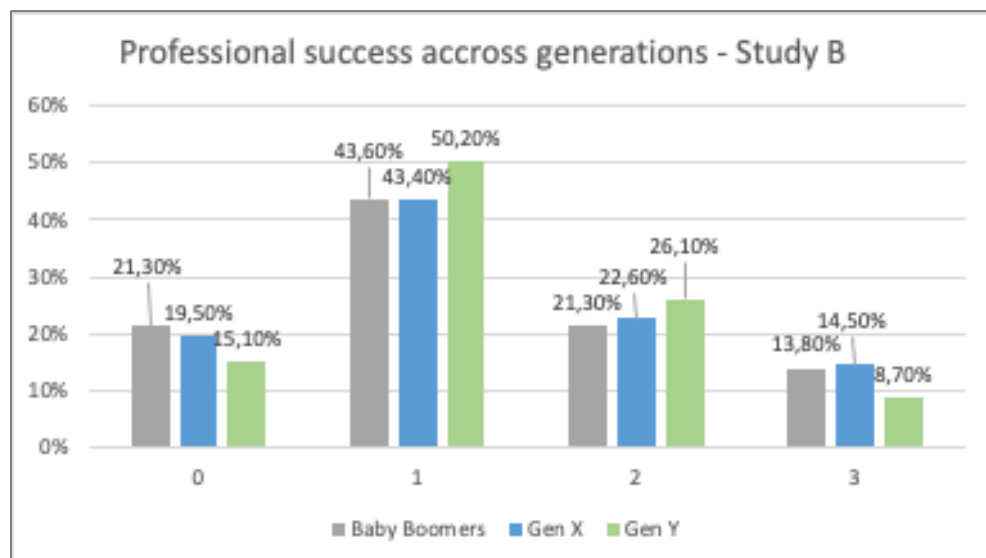


Figure 23. Distribution of the professional success index in Study B, divided by generation, shows no particular deviations in terms of representation of respective generations at any level (Study B).

Study C. WLB and professional success of parents in eyes of their adult children

In Study C professional success in Polish Generation X has been evaluated by their adult children (N=486) representing generation Z, students of the Faculty of Management at University of Warsaw. Using this innovative reporting method allowed to eliminate

distortions related to attributive egocentrism, which often leads to an overestimation as in most of self-referent surveys⁴⁰⁰.

Professional success level – individual

Individual professional success index of mothers and fathers of the students participating in the research was composed with four elements: assessment of parent’s professional achievements, managerial function, job position, and education level.

Indicator of professional success of a parent has been composed with the following elements:

- (1) Child’s assessment of parent’s **PROFESSIONAL ACHIEVEMENTS** was based on the question “Comparing your parent (mother or father respectively) to her/ his peers, her/ his professional achievements are...” with five possible answer options: “Lower than her/his peers”, “Rather average”, “Slightly higher than peers”, “Significantly higher than peers”, and “Highest among people I know”) and open comment response option (later coded as missing values).
- (2) **MANAGERIAL FUNCTION** of a parent was marked with answers to a simple YES/NO question whether parents acted as managers with direct reports.
- (3) **JOB POSITION** allowed to find within the sample those parents who were highly skilled workers: Highly skilled expert (experts with professional qualifications e.g., medical, technical, financial, scientific) and were marked as ‘management staff’. In this group all self-employed parents or those who owned a company were included as well. A large proportion of parents (17.2% of mothers and 30.1% of fathers) ran their own business – either as the only workplace or a secondary occupation. These are striking results when contrasted with the general population rates in that respect (6% of employed women and 12% of men ran their own companies).

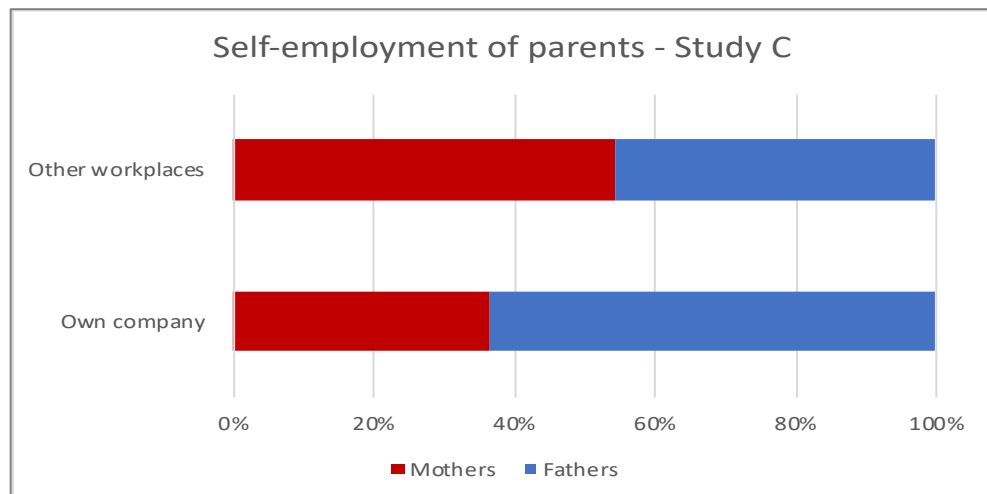


Figure 24. Self-employment level among parents, by gender (Study C).

- (4) **EDUCATION** – respondent was classified as having higher education when they had 15 or more years of education.

400 Judge et al., 1999; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Peluchette, 2002

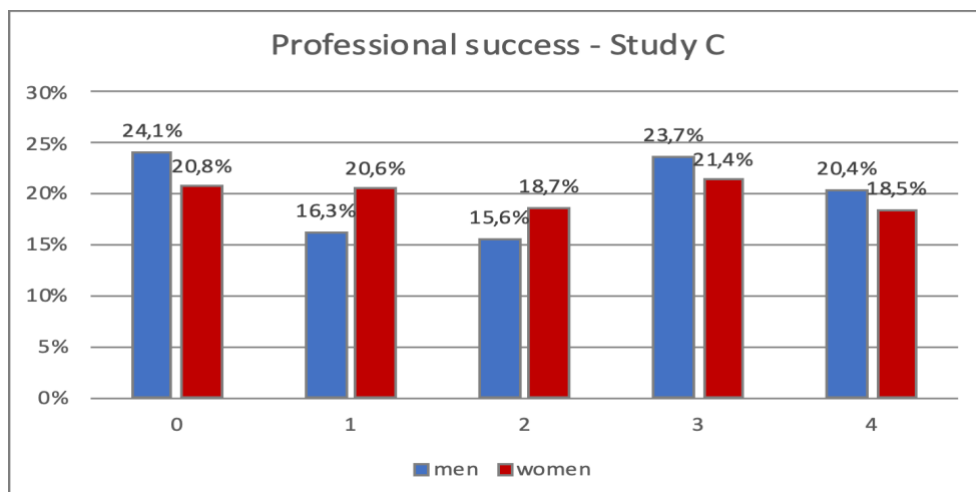


Figure 25. Distribution of professional success signals (Study C).

For the analysis purposes, reported levels of professional success of parents (individual) with values of 3, 4 were combined into a category **HIGH** success, while remaining values (0, 1, 2) built category **LOW** success.

Professional success level – parents’ together

Indicator of joint professional success of parents (**PROFESSIONAL TYPE**) was created by coupling level of mother’s professional success with father’s professional success within each assessed couple, which resulted in having 4 professional types:

- Low-Low [LL] – professional type where both parents were classified as low level of professional success;
- High-High [HH] – both parents were classified as high level of professional success;
- Low-High [LH] – mother had low success; father had high success;
- High-Low [HL] – mother had high success; father had low success.

Distribution of the indicator is shown in Figure 26 below.

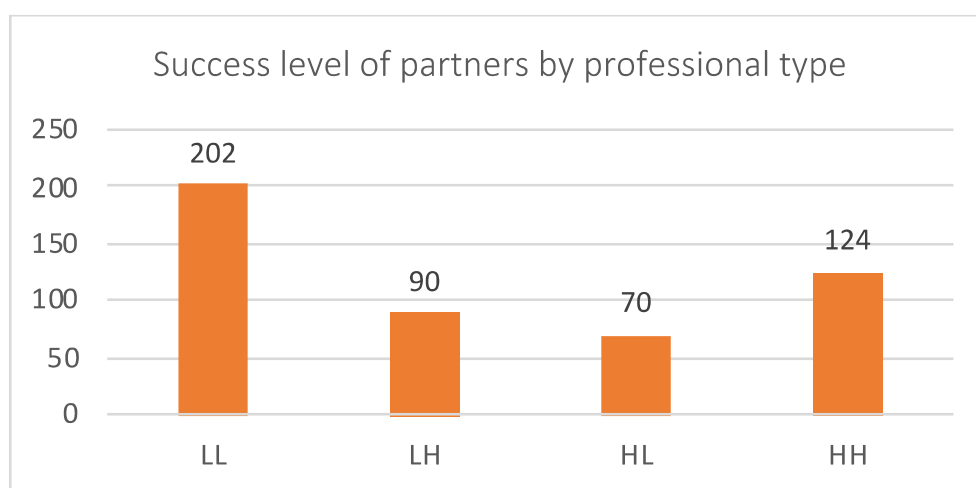


Figure 26. Distribution of joint level of professional success (Study C).

2.5 Operationalisations of WLB index

Study A. Operationalisation of WLB in British Cohort Survey

Respondents answered the following question using 5-point scale (see below): **“How satisfied are you with balance of time at work and doing other things?”**

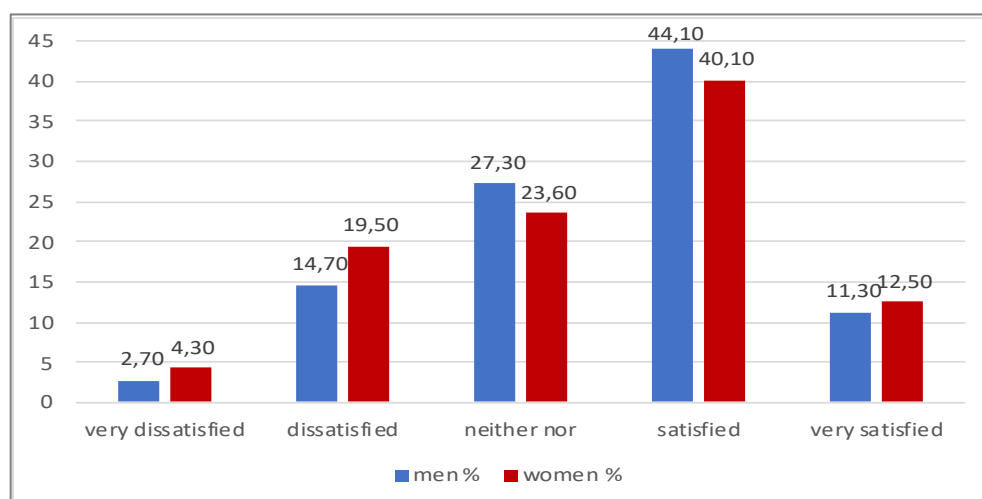


Figure 27. Distribution of self-assessed WLB (Study A).

The original responses were reversed so (1-very dissatisfied, 3-neither/nor, 5-very satisfied) the higher number, the stronger satisfaction with WLB. 11 observations were removed due to missing data, and mean in the whole sample was 3.43, SD=1.01.

Study B. Operationalisation of WLB

To measure respondents' satisfaction with own work-life balance, an indicator consisting of four items has been built. The first three items (sr19, sr29, sr38) are a part of the Survey of Style Activity – SSA. Each item consists of positions consisting of opposing descriptions of the behaviour of two people: A and B and the question:

“Would your behaviour/ feelings in this situation be more like Person A, rather like Person A, rather like Person B, or like Person B?”.

Respondents can also select the ‘Difficult to say’ option, which is always outside of the response scale (later recoded as a middle option for analysis purposes).

Stress at work often makes A irritated and anxious at home as well, B leaves her stress behind. <sr19>

Work limits the time that A would like to devote to her family and pleasures, B does not allow her to work "overtime". <sr29>

Personal and family affairs limit the time that A can devote to work, B easily divides her/his time and energy effectively between professional and private matters. <sr38>

I feel that professional pressure interferes with my family/ personal life. <wsr5>

Table 6. WLB indicator – list of items (Study B).

The 4th item (wsr5) has a rating scale from 1 (very rarely or never) to 4 (very often or always) and a “difficult to say” response (later for the analysis purposes recoded as a middle option).

The Work-Life Balance indicator “satisfaction with own WLB” has been created with the reversed scale for the last item (wsr5). Cronbach’s Alpha for the index was 0.62.

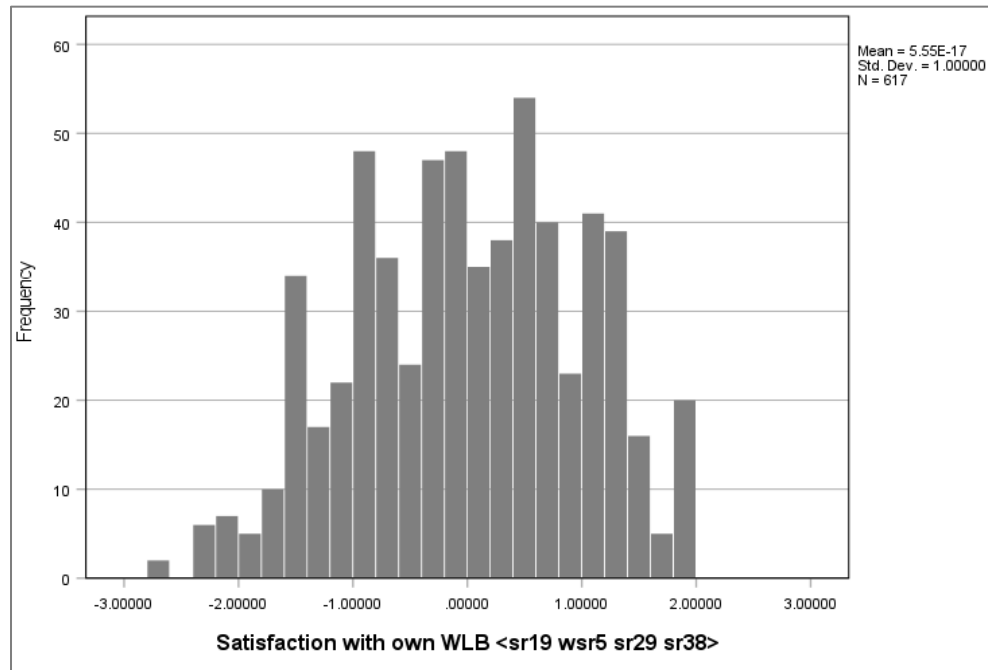


Figure 28. Distribution of satisfaction with own WLB [higher=more satisfied] (Study B).

Research Task #3. Development of a new research procedure for estimating WLB using an external view, in which adult children (Generation Z) assess the WLB of parents (Generation X), allowing to eliminate distortions related to attributive egocentrism, which leads to an overestimation of the amount of work performed by the person performing that work.

Study B. WLB change

Respondents were asked: “**What would you prefer, compared to your current situation?**” and given the list of response options, out of which they could choose at most 2 answers:

- (1) Prefer to **work less**, (2) Prefer to **work more**, (3) Prefer **less home/ family** duties, (4) Prefer **more home/ family** duties, (5) Prefer to **keep the current status**, (6) I do not know/Difficult to say, (7) Other.

The most frequently chosen categories allowed to create 2 subgroups of respondents:

- Group 1 consisting of 196 respondents who preferred to work less;
- Group 2 consisting of 202 respondents who preferred to keep the current status (no change).

In the first step the WLB change index was **validated by testing its predictive value** in other variables.

It has been shown that **WLB doesn't depend on gender, depends on age** ($r=0.16$, $p=0.002$) – younger employees want to work less than older employees.

Four univariate ANOVAS of 4 explained variables with **gender** and **WLB change as factors**, and controlling for age, have shown a **significant difference in 4 of them, and between** <work less> and <no change> groups. There was a gender difference and significant relationship with age. The older the employees, the less negative emotion at work, less stress, higher satisfaction with own WLB, higher level of work as calling, and respondents preferred <no change>.

Controlled variables			WLB change	Praca2 (work as calling)	Spill (satisfaction with own WLB)	Stress (stress/work overload)	EPW (negative emotions at work)
Gender	Age	r	.157	.162	.175	-.176	-.240
		p	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000
		df	391	391	391	391	391

Table 7. Correlation between 4 validating variables and WLB change preference (Study B).

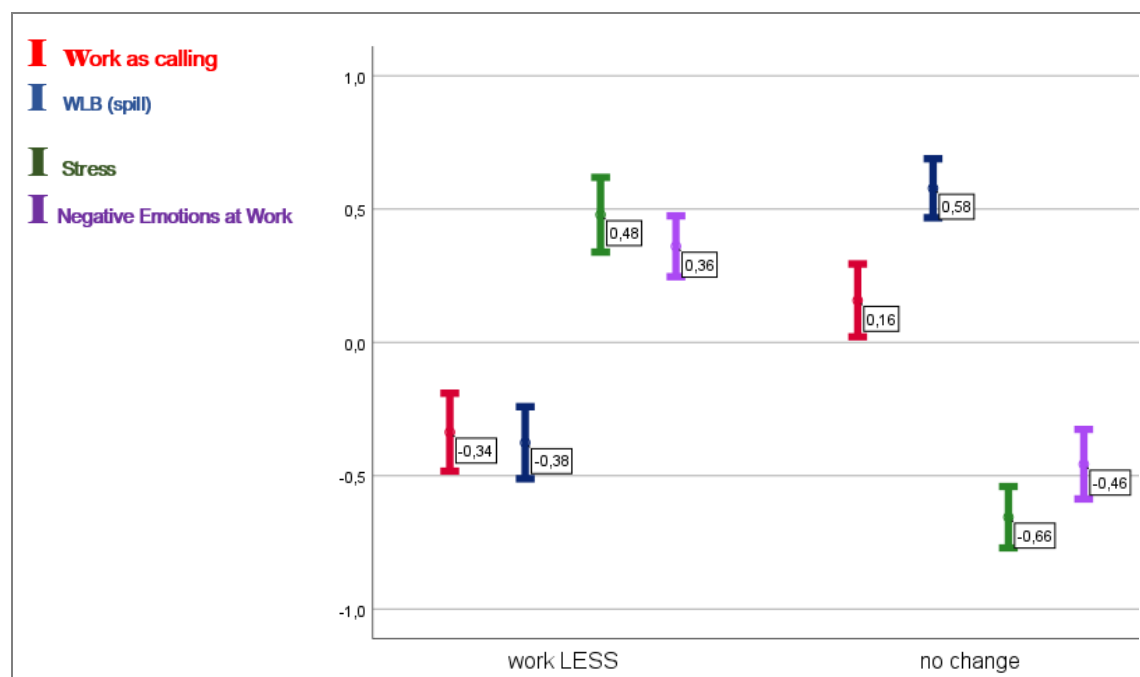


Figure 29. Relationships between WLB change and 4 predictors (Study B).

Study C. WLB and professional success of parents in eyes of their adult children

Study C was conducted according to the objectives described in Research Task #3: Development of a new research procedure for estimating WLB using an external view, in which adult children (Generation Z) assess the WLB of parents (Generation X), allowing to eliminate distortions related to attributive egocentrism, which leads to an overestimation of the amount of work performed by the person performing that work.

WLB in Polish Generation X was evaluated by 486 their adult children (generation Z).

WLB in Study C was operationalized by measuring home and job involvement of both parents, separately, assessed by their adult children.

Home manager

Home management between parents was operationalized by one question: “How family life was organized in your home? In addition to doing household chores, probably SOMEONE had to "embrace" the whole thing – someone must, for example, decide and plan (what, who, where and when): shopping, food, school, trips, family events, medical appointments, etc. Which option below describes best the situation in your home?”

Respondents could choose one of the following options:

(1) The household was mainly managed by my mother, (2) The household was mainly managed by my father, (3) Both parents – although they managed other spheres of the household, it can be considered that it was half, (4) The household was managed by another person (grandparents, domestic help...), (5) Other answer (please describe, in the comments below).

Polish version of the question and the distribution can be found in Attachment 2.

Other responses (father as home manager, other person, and other response) were treated as missing data due to small counts. Resulting categorical variable had 2 levels: mainly MOTHER as home manager, and BOTH PARENTS managing the home.

Home involvement

Home involvement was operationalized by one question asked twice – about mother and father, respectively. The question content is presented below.

“Which of the following terms do you think best describes the way your Mother/ Father lives on a daily basis?”

Respondent could choose one of the following options:

(1) Family was the most important for him/her – everything was devoted to family, he/she took care of all the household (2) He/she was never available at home – I don't even know when he/she found time to rest (3) He/she was always available when we needed him/her, but he/she had space for hobbies and time for him-/herself (4) Leave a comment if none of the above describes well your Mother/ Father and describe her/his daily functioning.

Polish versions of the question and the distributions can be found in Attachment 2.

Last response option was treated as missing data due to small count. Answers were recoded, so that highest value (3) was the highest home involvement.

Job involvement

Job involvement was operationalized by one question. The content of the question is presented below.

“Which of the following terms do you think best describes the way your Mother/ Father lives on a daily basis?”

Respondent could choose one of the following options:

- (1) work was not the most important – devoted only as much time to it as necessary, (2) Worked standard hours – only sometimes worked over hours, (3) Often overworked – devoted much more time to work than others, (4) Other answer.

Polish versions of the question and the distributions can be found in Attachment 2.

Last response option was treated as missing data due to the small count. The highest value (3) was the highest job involvement.

Conclusion

All 4 indexes predict the choice employees make in terms of their preferred work-life balance, so it can be used for further analyses.

Chapter 3. Results

The empirical part is organized around 3 hypotheses formulated in the previous chapter.

Test of H1 regarding home involvement depending on professional success and gender

H1. Higher professional success in women does not translate to lower involvement in household duties, especially in home management (i.e., planning and organization of household activities, leading and controlling their execution).

Analysis 1. Household duties (British Cohort Survey=Study A)

The method of construction and distribution of the career success indicator is described in Chapter 2. An indicator of involvement in HOUSEHOLD DUTIES in Study A was made up of seven items. Respondents answered using a 7-point scale:

1 – none, **2** – less than 1 hour a week, **3** – 1 to 3 hours a week, **4** – 3 to 6 hours a week, **5** – 6 to 10 hours a week, **6** – 10 to 15 hours a week, **7** – more than 15 hours a week.

Items: Hours spent....	Mean	SD
preparing food, cooking, and washing up	3.97	1.27
shopping for food and groceries	2.72	0.77
shopping and browsing shops for other items	2.11	0.74
cleaning the house	2.91	1.01
doing the laundry and ironing	2.6	1.01
caring for pre-school child/baby (non-work)	1.3	1.12
caring for elderly/disabled people (non-work)	1.21	0.90
Valid N (listwise)=3325 employees		

Table 8. Descriptive statistics of the Household duties index items (Study A).

The answers to 7 questions correlated (Cronbach's Alpha=0.62) so one indicator of HOUSEHOLD DUTIES was constructed with M=2.4; SD=0.55; min.=1 and max=5.86. To test whether involvement in household duties depends on gender and professional success, a two-factor ANOVA was conducted, which showed 2 significant main effects. The interaction was significant at the level of statistical trend (see Table 9 below):

Value Label	N	Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
lower success	2209	Corrected Model	146,2 ^a	3,0	48,7	191,9	,00
higher success	1137	Intercept	16739,3	1,0	16739,3	65909,9	,00
men	2028	success	5,0	1,0	5,0	19,5	,00
women	1318	gender	116,3	1,0	116,3	458,1	,00
		success * gender	,9	1,0	,9	3,4	,07
		Error	848,8	3342,0	,3		
		Total	20313,7	3346,0			
		Corrected Total	995,0	3345,0			

a. R Squared = ,147 (Adjusted R Squared = ,146)

Table 9. ANOVA of Household duties (Study A).

I LOWER success
I HIGHER success

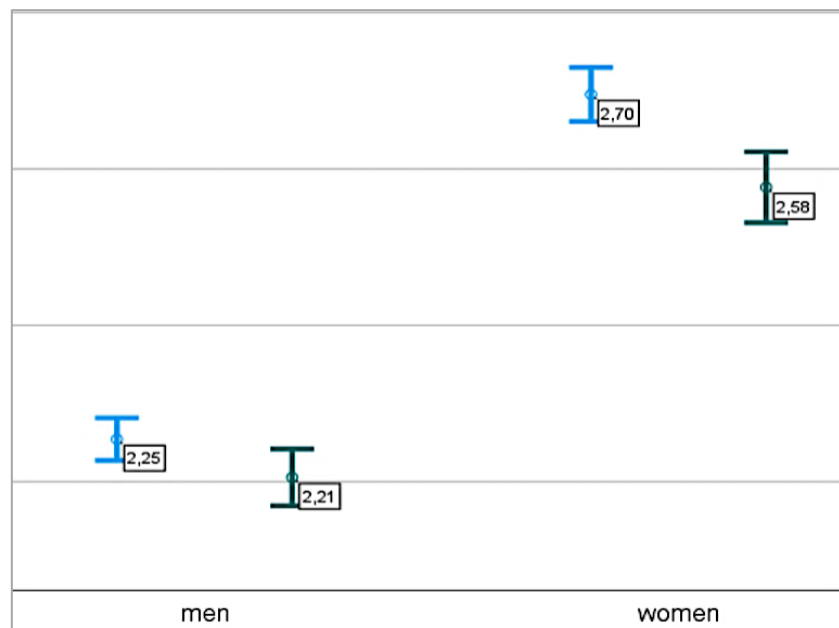


Figure 30. Household duties depending on gender and professional success (Study A).

Women are significantly more overloaded with household duties than men (see

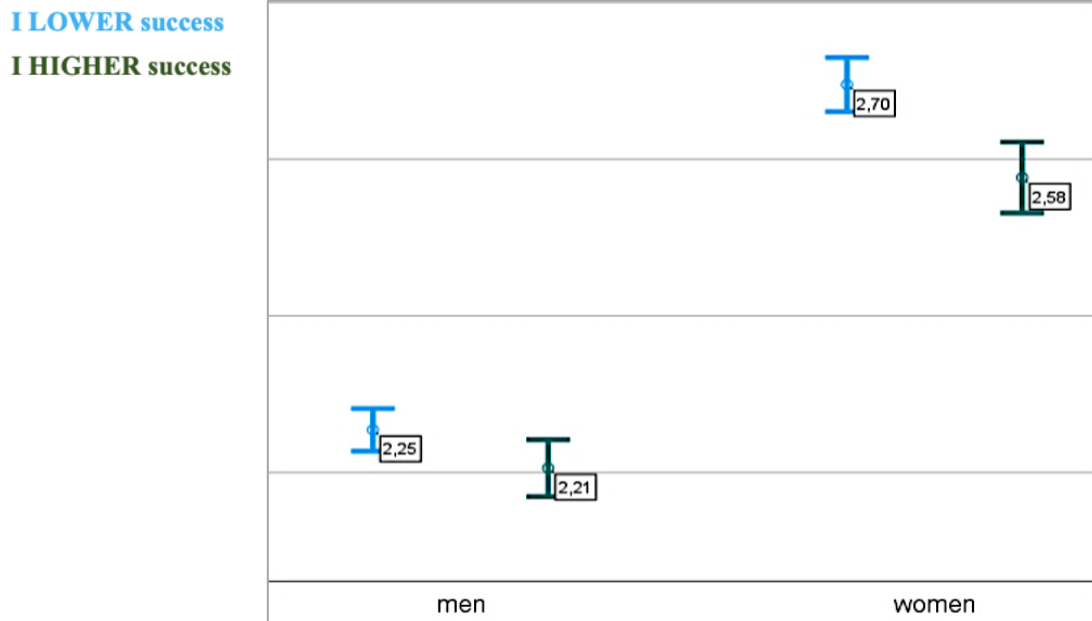


Figure 30), regardless of their respective level of professional success.

Although people of higher professional success are less involved in household duties (main effect of professional success), the interaction was significant on the level of statistical tendency only.

Analysis 2. Home involvement (Study C)

Study C has been described in Chapter 2. To remind: 486 students of Faculty of Management assessed their parents (representatives of Generation X) on multiple dimensions. The professional success indicator was constructed separately for mothers and fathers (the method of construction is described in Chapter 2).

The joint distribution of both parents' professional success included:

- 202 of LL professional type (both parents were classified as LOW professional success),
- 124 of HH professional type (both parents were classified as HIGH professional success),
- 90 of LH professional type (mother belongs to the group of LOW professional success, father belongs to the group of HIGH professional success),
- 70 of HL professional type (mother belongs to the group of HIGH professional success, father belongs to the group of LOW professional success).

In the next step it was checked whether JOB involvement vs. HOME involvement depends on parents' professional type. The ANCOVA with one between-subject factors: (1) professional type (LL, LH, HL, HH) and two within-subject factors: (2) PARENT (mother vs. father), (3) DOMAIN (job involvement vs. home involvement) with adult child's gender as a covariate was conducted (see Figure 31 below).

The analysis (see Attachment 2 for details) has shown:

- (1) two significant main effects: (1) of DOMAIN meaning that "summing up both parents" job ($M=4.39$) was higher than home involvement ($M=4.01$); of PARENT meaning that "summing up both domains" mothers ($M=4.44$) were involved more than fathers ($M=4.01$);

(2) and two significant interaction effects of professional TYPE: (1) with DOMAIN of involvement (job, home); (1) with PARENT (mother, father) by DOMAIN of involvement (job, home).

Interaction of professional TYPE by DOMAIN of involvement (job, home) was shown in Figure 31 below.

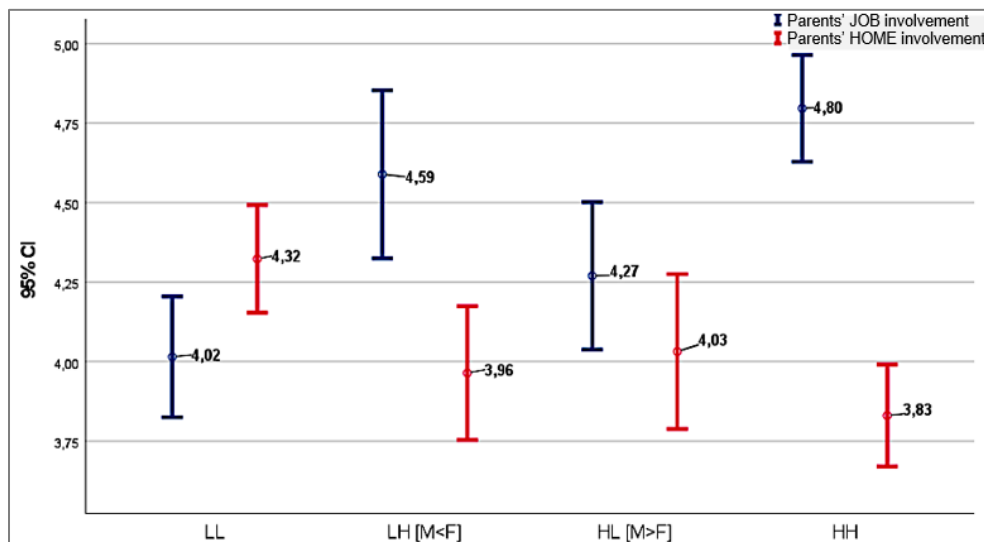


Figure 31. Parents' domain of involvement (job, home) depending on professional type (Study C).

As shown in Figure 31 – the difference between job involvement and home involvement is the highest in HH type, while in LL professional type, parents' home involvement seems higher than job involvement (but the difference is statistically insignificant).

Interaction of professional TYPE by PARENT by DOMAIN of involvement (job, home) was shown in Figure 32 below.

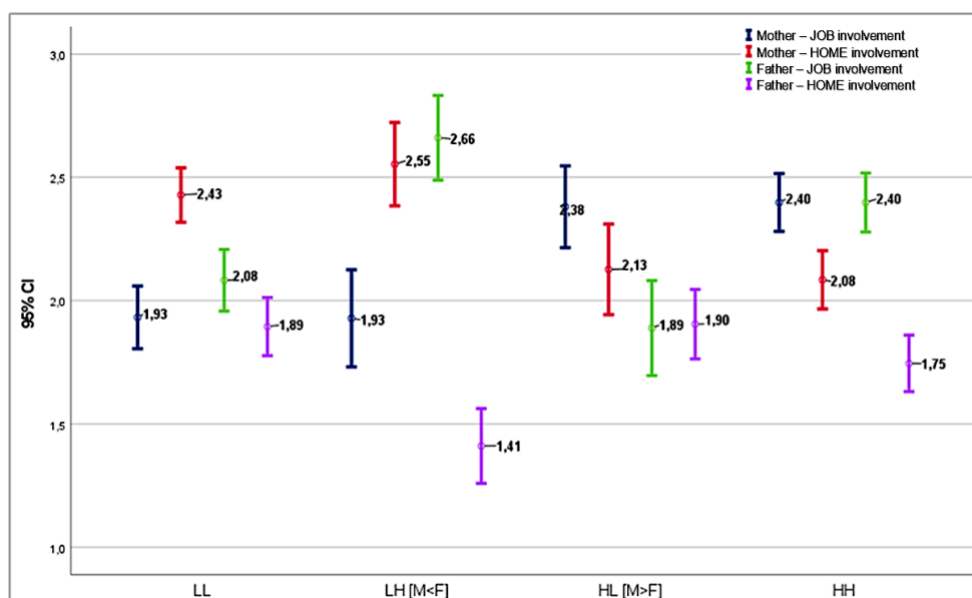


Figure 32. Domain of involvement (job, home) depending on professional TYPE and parents' gender (Study C).

As shown in Figure 32:

- (1) In Fathers: the highest JOB involvement and the lowest HOME involvement is in LH type (with father's professional success higher than mother's). It is significantly higher and lower respectively than in HH marriages (with high professional success of both parents).
- (2) In Mothers: HOME involvement is higher in LL & LH than in HL & HH professional type, which is fully predictable, the opposite can be said on JOB involvement.

It is important to note that predicted negative correlation between home and job involvement was much stronger for fathers ($r = -0.46$) than mothers ($r = -0.15$).

Mothers' involvement in household duties ($M = 2.36$) was significantly higher ($t(451) = 13.52$, $p < 0.001$) than that of fathers' ($M = 1.75$), which remains consistent with the results of Analysis 1 of Study A.

Analysis 3. Home management (Study C)

Analysis 3 tested the second part of H1 by asking who the HOME MANAGER is, by analysing the impact of parents' professional success on who plays the role of the home manager in their shared household.

H1: Lower WLB is associated with workload not only from higher involvement in performing household tasks, but additionally from HOME MANAGEMENT (ie. planning and organization of household activities, leading and controlling their execution).

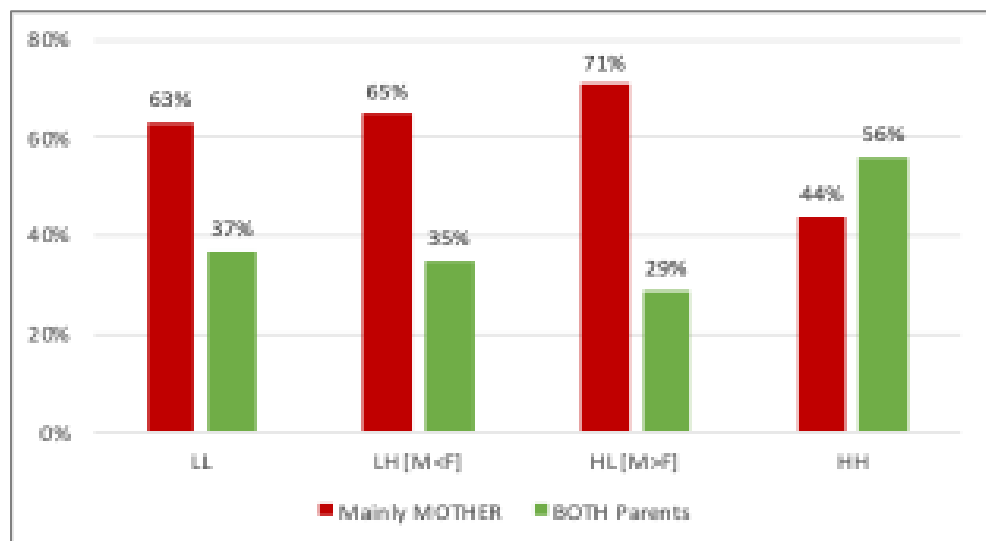


Figure 33. Home manager role, divided by parents' professional type (Study C).

Figure 33 shows who is the home manager divided by four categories of parents' professional type. χ^2 test showed significant relationship between HOME MANAGER (mainly mother vs. both parents) and professional TYPE $\chi^2(3,468) = 16.98$.

- (1) It was MOTHERS who mainly performed the HOME MANAGER role in students' homes. Only in HH professional type (both parents with high level of success) majority of the respondents (56%) pointed that BOTH PARENTS shared the home management function rather equally.
- (2) The highest percentage (71%) of MOTHERS as a SOLE home manager was in HL marriages, which may suggest a DOUBLE managerial role for a mother (both at work and at home) with respective overload associated with double managerial function.

In the next step the differences regarding home management in the daughters' and sons' eyes. In the latter, relationship between professional type and household manager was insignificant [$\chi^2(3,468)=16.98$]. In daughters: relationship between professional type and household manager was significant [$\chi^2(3,333)=17.6$].



Figure 34. Distribution of Home manager role, divided by parents' professional type and gender of respondents (Study C).

Adult children pointed mainly at MOTHERS as a HOME MANAGER. The general difference between sons and daughter's perception (see in Figure 34) was not statistically significant [$\chi^2(1,468)=2.4$], but there was statistical trend ($p=0.074$). It showed there is difference in respondents' views – daughters more often pointed at mothers as SOLE home managers (62%) than sons (54%).

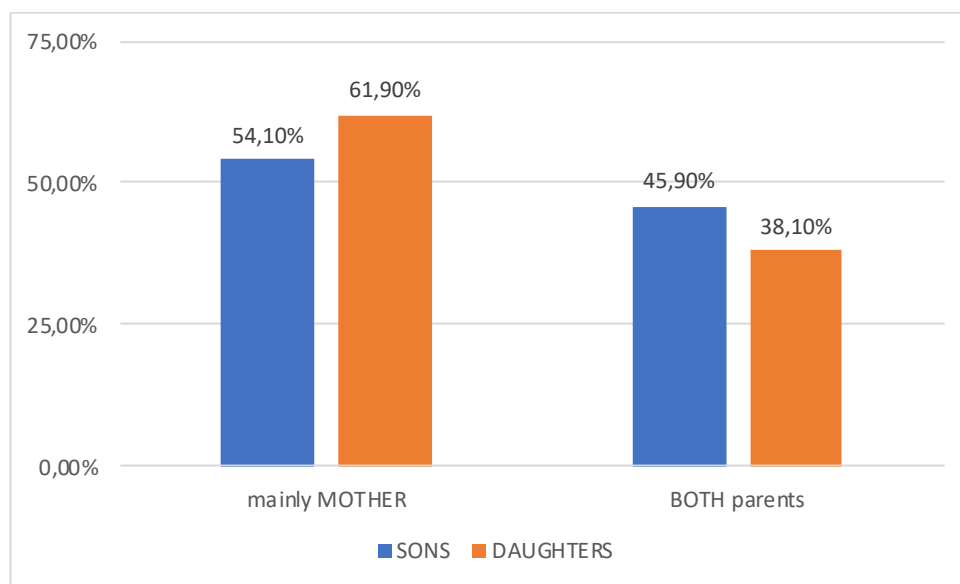


Figure 35. Distribution of Home manager role, divided by the respondents' gender (Study C).

Test of H2 regarding WLB depending on success level and gender

H2. Women bear higher costs of professional success (career advancement) compared to men. Higher costs of professional success among women are associated with lower:

- H2a. work-life balance
- H2b. emotional wellbeing
- H2c. health condition

The test of the H2 was conducted on the data collected in British Cohort Survey (study A) and data collected in study B. The operationalization of **success indicator** and **WLB** is described in Chapter 2.

Analysis 1 (H1a). WLB predicted by success level and gender

2x2 ANCOVA of WLB with Household duties index (see table below) as a covariate has shown 2 significant main effects: of Gender and of Success index.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Corrected Model	54,3 ^a	4	13,6	13,7	0,00
Intercept	32282,3	1	32282,3	32616,9	0,00
Household Duties	1,4	1	1,4	1,5	0,23
gender	10,1	1	10,1	10,2	0,00
success	42,9	1	42,9	43,3	0,00
gender* success	0,7	1	0,7	0,7	0,40
Error	3299,8	3334	1,0		
Total	42721,0	3339			
Corrected Total	3354,1	3338			

Table 10. ANCOVA of WLB (Study A).

Successful employees (M=3.27) report lower level of WLB than less successful (M=3.51). And it is especially true among successful women (3.18 vs. 3.32 – see Figure 36). No interaction effect confirmed for the WLB between the professional success and gender. Impact of covariate was not significant, either.

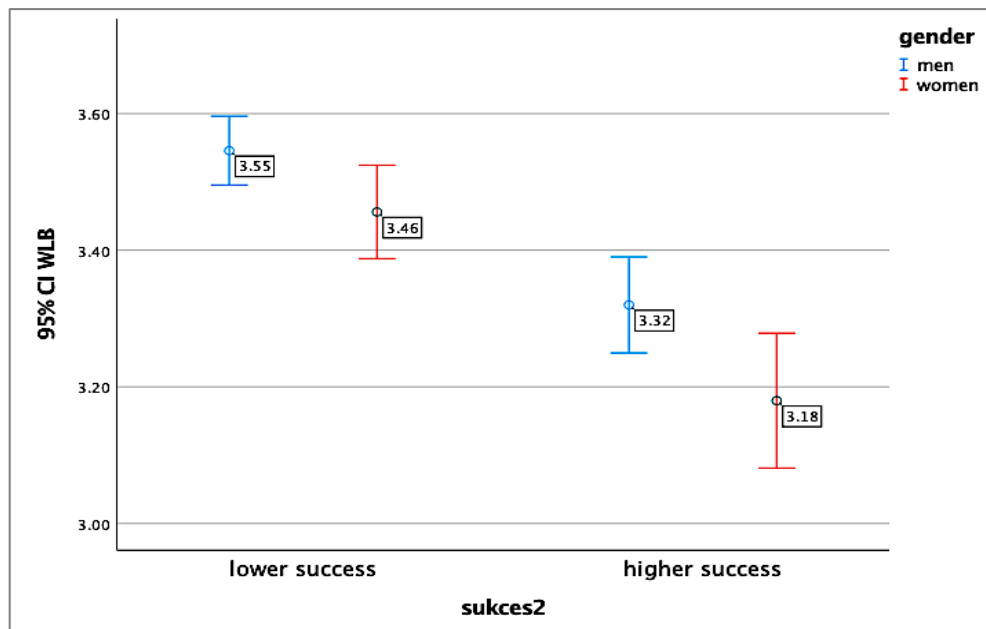


Figure 36. WLB depending on professional success and gender (Study A).

Analysis 2 [H2b]. Emotional wellbeing predicted by success level and gender

The Emotional wellbeing index (Total Malaise Score) used in the analysis was the original derived variable coded from 9 items short version of the **Malaise Inventory** in the British Cohort Survey:

- Do you feel tired most of the time?
- Do you often feel miserable or depressed?
- Do you often get worried about things?
- Do you often get in a violent rage?
- Do you often suddenly become scared for no good reason?
- Are you easily upset or irritated?
- Are you constantly keyed up and jittery?
- Does every little thing get on your nerves and wear you out?
- Does your heart often race like mad?

Items cover negative emotions and physical response and are coded so low emotional wellbeing (high malaise) scores always relate to affirmative responses. The score is the total number of 'yes' responses meaning higher scores correspond to higher malaise. Cases were excluded if the number of items without a response accounted for scores being under 4 (the prerequisite score for high malaise).

For the purpose of analyses **the scale was reversed** from 9-0 (where 0 was the highest emotional wellbeing), to 1-10 (where 1 was the lowest wellbeing).

2x2 ANCOVA of Emotional wellbeing index with WLB and Household duties index (see table below) as covariates has shown 2 significant main effects: of Gender and of Success index and significant impact of both covariates.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Corrected Model	1104,9 ^a	5,0	221,0	65,0	0,0
Intercept	11949,7	1,0	11949,7	3512,6	0,0
Household Duties	26,9	1,0	26,9	7,9	0,0
WLB	865,8	1,0	865,8	254,5	0,0
gender	74,1	1,0	74,1	21,8	0,0
success	139,1	1,0	139,1	40,9	0,0
gender * success	3,7	1,0	3,7	1,1	0,3
Error	11216,4	3297,0	3,4		
Total	252487,0	3303,0			
Corrected Total	12321,3	3302,0			

Table 11. ANCOVA of Emotional wellbeing (Study A).

Successful employees (M=8.75) report higher level of emotional wellbeing than less successful (M=8.41). As it is seen in Figure 36 Women (M=3.36) reported lower level of emotional wellbeing than men (M=8.7). No interaction effect confirmed for the emotional wellbeing between the professional success and gender. Impact of covariates was not significant, either.

The strongest covariate for emotional wellbeing was WLB (the higher WLB, the better emotional wellbeing). Household duties index was significant in this analysis, but simple correlation between these two variables was very low $r=-0.08$ $p<0.001$.

No interaction effect confirmed for the emotional wellbeing between professional success and gender.

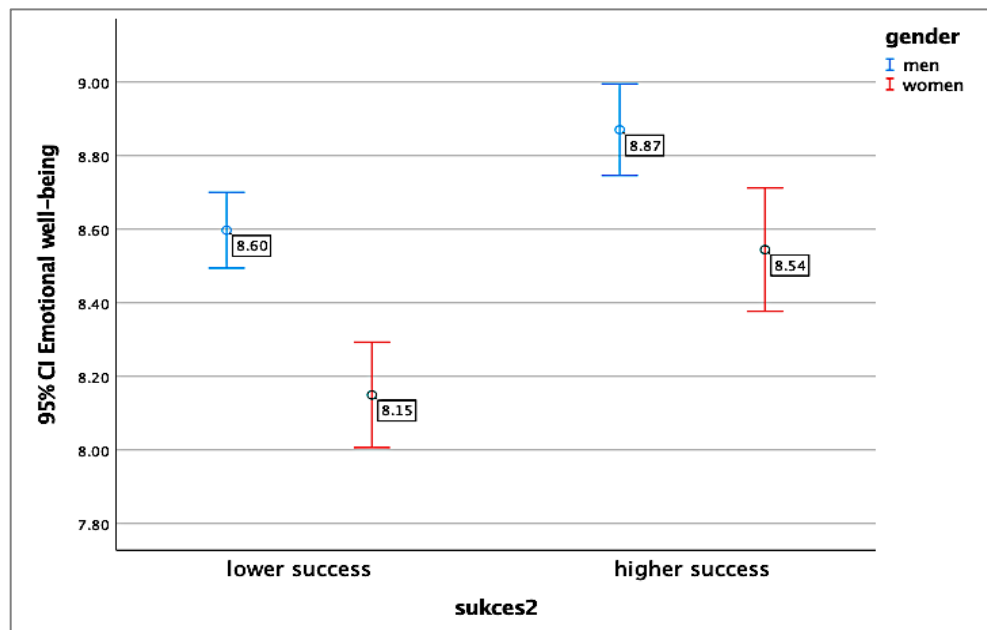


Figure 37. Emotional wellbeing depending on professional success and gender (Study A).

Analysis 3 [H1c]. Health condition predicted by success level and gender

Health condition index used in the analysis is the original derived variable coded from 5 items in the British Cohort Survey:

- General state of health (from interview)
- Whether respondents: seem to get ill a little easier than other people
- Whether respondents: feel they are as healthy as anybody they know
- Whether respondents: feel they expect their health to get worse
- Whether respondents: feel their health is excellent

First three questions were coded so that a more positive self-assessment of health provided a higher score (1=100, 2=75, 3=50, 4=25, 5=0), while the two latter ones were coded in the other direction (1 =0, 2=25, 3=50, 4=75, 5=100). General health scores are the mean of the total number of questions answered. Higher scores indicate better overall health.

To test H1c. 2 x 2 ANCOVA of **Health condition** index with WLB and Household duties index and Emotional wellbeing index (see table below) as covariates has shown 2 significant main effects: of Gender and of Success index and significant impact of 2 covariates.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Corrected Model	259112,9 ^a	6,0	43185,5	140,8	0,00
Intercept	114003,4	1,0	114003,4	371,6	0,00
Household Duties	878,9	1,0	878,9	2,9	0,09
WLB	6216,8	1,0	6216,8	20,3	0,00
Emotional Well-being	202974,0	1,0	202974,0	661,7	0,00
gender	9072,5	1,0	9072,5	29,6	0,00
success	3275,5	1,0	3275,5	10,7	0,00
gender * success	134,0	1,0	134,0	0,4	0,51
Error	1011085,7	3296,0	306,8		
Total	17738934,0	3303,0			
Corrected Total	1270198,6	3302,0			

Table 12. ANCOVA of Health condition index (Study A).

Level of professional success and gender significantly differentiate health condition of employees. Forty-six-year-old women (M=71.6) generally report better health than forty-six-year-old men (M=69.9). Successful employees (M= 72.8) estimate their health as significantly better than less successful (M=69.5).

Both WLB and Emotional wellbeing index are significant covariates. The better WLB, the Emotional wellbeing index, the better Health condition index. No interaction between the gender & success level was confirmed.

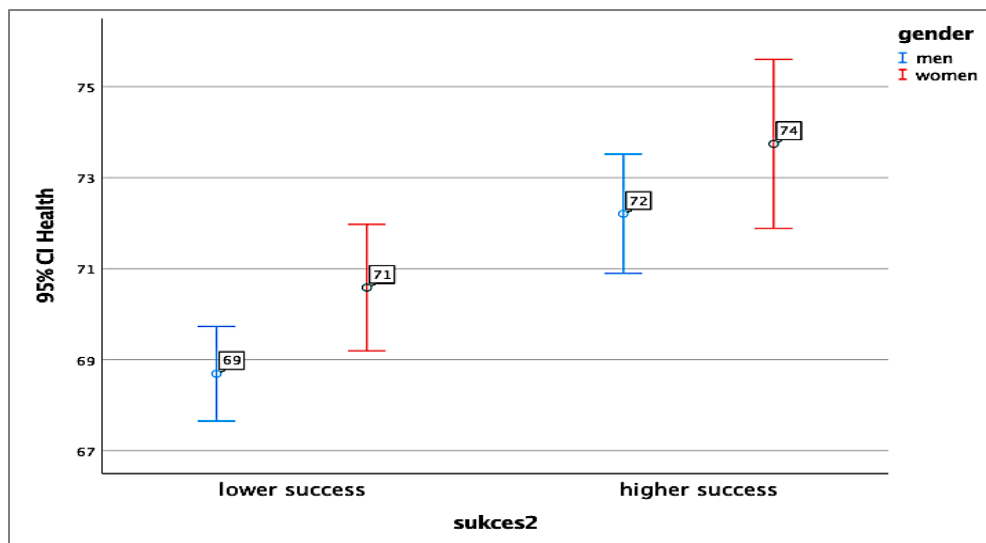


Figure 38. Health condition depending on professional success and gender (Study A).

Analysis 4. [H3] WLB gender stereotypes are stronger in men than in women (Study B, C, D)

Analyses of H2 conducted on data collected in study B do not show any significant impact of professional success and gender (see Attachment 1). The strongest predictor of WLB variables was generation. $\chi^2(2,396)=6.0$; $p=0.05$.

The younger generation, the more employees want to work less (37 % of BB, 47% of X and 55% of Y).

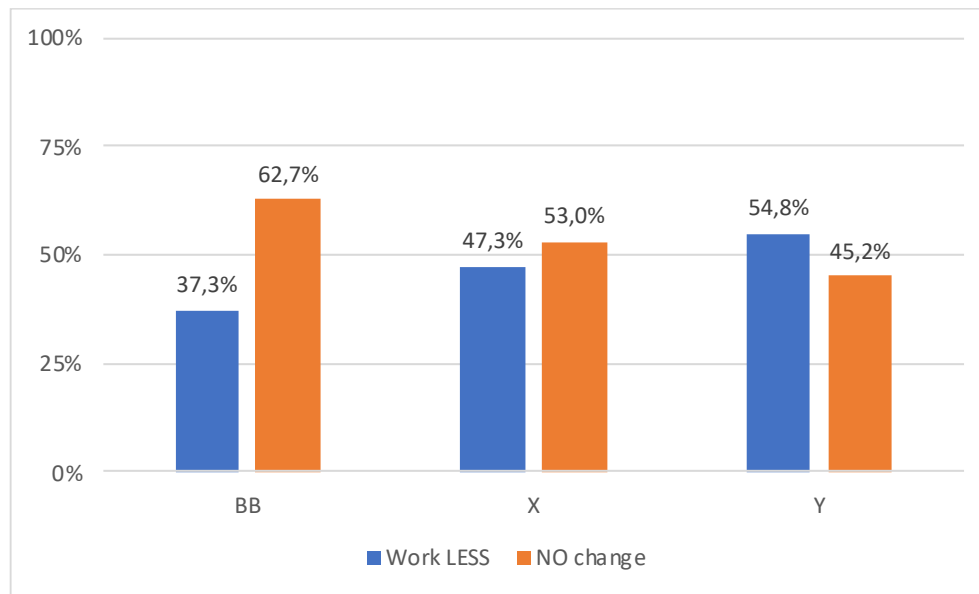


Figure 39. WLB change, divided by generation (Study B).

Test of H3 Gender-career stereotype is stronger in men than in women

Strength of gender-career stereotype has been tested in three different ways, following the WiW Paradigm's triangulation rule, through:

- Test D1. Direct measurement – in survey described in Study B (N=616).
- Test D2. Experimental design with TARGET DESCRIPTION manipulation – testing differences in evaluation of differences in partner's reaction to the situation when a woman (Eve) sacrifices family life for a career, compared to the situation when a man (Adam) does it (N=1102).
- Test D3. Indirect measurement – using Implicit Association Test measuring strength of stereotypical association of women with family and men with career (N=143).

Although the WIW Paradigm would require testing the same hypothesis separately on employees from generations BB, X, Y participating in study B and students (Gen Z) participating in Study C, both sets were combined when the variables were operationalised identically in both studies. The pooled data set allowed cross-generational comparisons. WLB is understood as balancing between work demands and home/family duties.

Test D1. Direct measurement of gender-career stereotype

To measure the level of gender egalitarianism, two following questions were used:

- (1) A believes that there should be more women in top positions in companies and institutions than there are today. B believes that all family members are better off if woman's professional work does not interfere with caring for the home.
- (2) If the child is ill and both parents work professionally, according to A, the mother should take time off work to take care of the child. B believes that the father can take care of the child as well as the mother.

The answers to both questions were correlated ($r = -0.28$), so the aggregate indicator was built by averaging (after reversing first item), so that a high score meant high

egalitarianism of gender roles in the family. Detailed analyses of questions can be found in Attachment 3.

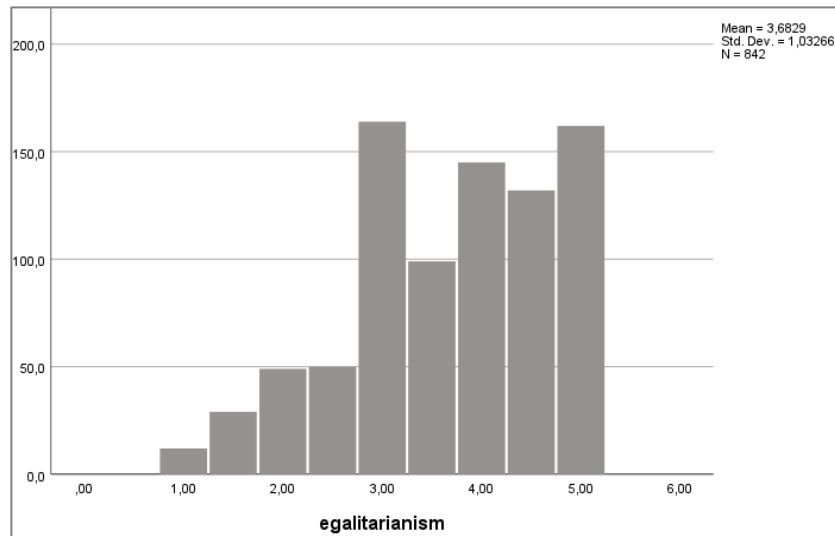


Figure 40. Distribution of Egalitarianism index for 842 respondents (Study B+C).

2x2 ANOVA of egalitarianism (see table below) has shown 2 significant main effects: of Gender and of Generation (BB, X, Y, Z) and their interaction.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Corrected Model	126,5 ^a	7	18,1	19,6	0,000
Intercept	8502,0	1	8502,0	9235,0	0,000
GENERATION	19,5	3	6,5	7,1	0,000
GENDER	59,6	1	59,6	64,8	0,000
generation by gender	17,8	3	5,9	6,5	0,000
Error	762,3	828	0,9		
Total	12243,5	836			
Corrected Total	888,8	835			

Table 13. ANOVA of Egalitarianism (Study B+C).

As it can be observed in the Figure 41 below, in all generations women have shown higher egalitarianism than men. The generational differences in men are insignificant. The group that stood out with high egalitarianism level is women in Gen Z.

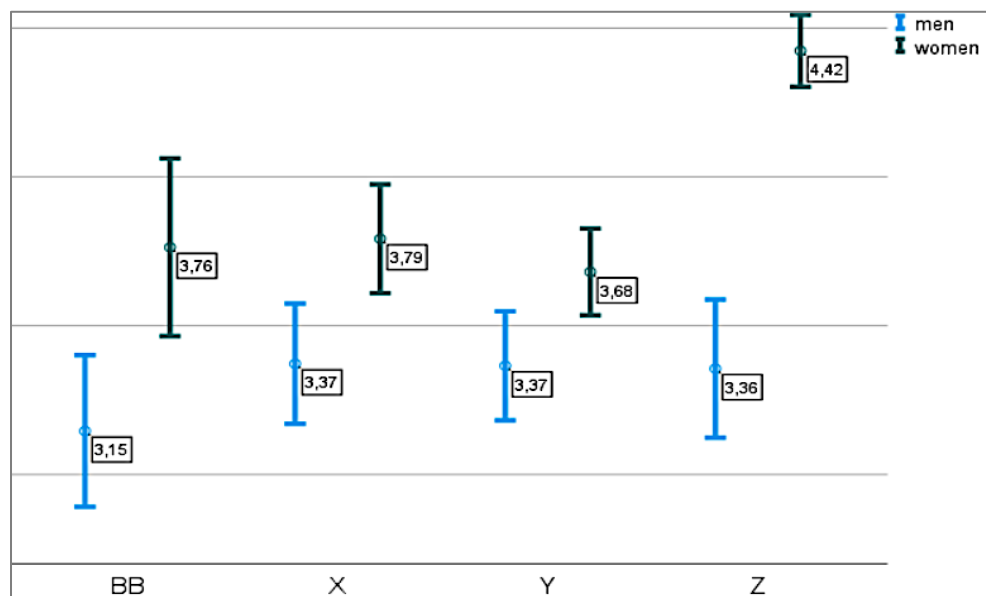


Figure 41. Egalitarianism index depending on generation and gender (Test D1).

Approval for Feminatives

Additional question was asked about approval for feminatives, which correlates highly with egalitarianism index ($r=0.3$ $p<0.001$ $N=841$).

Q4. Person A is pleased with changes in the names of professions/ positions emphasizing the gender of the person, e.g., actress. Person B is ridiculed and even irritated by such names

The answers were recorded into 3 categories: AGAINST (combined answers: “like person B” or “rather like person B”), Don’t know and PRO (combined answers: “like person A” or “rather like person A”). The distribution was shown in Figure 42 below.

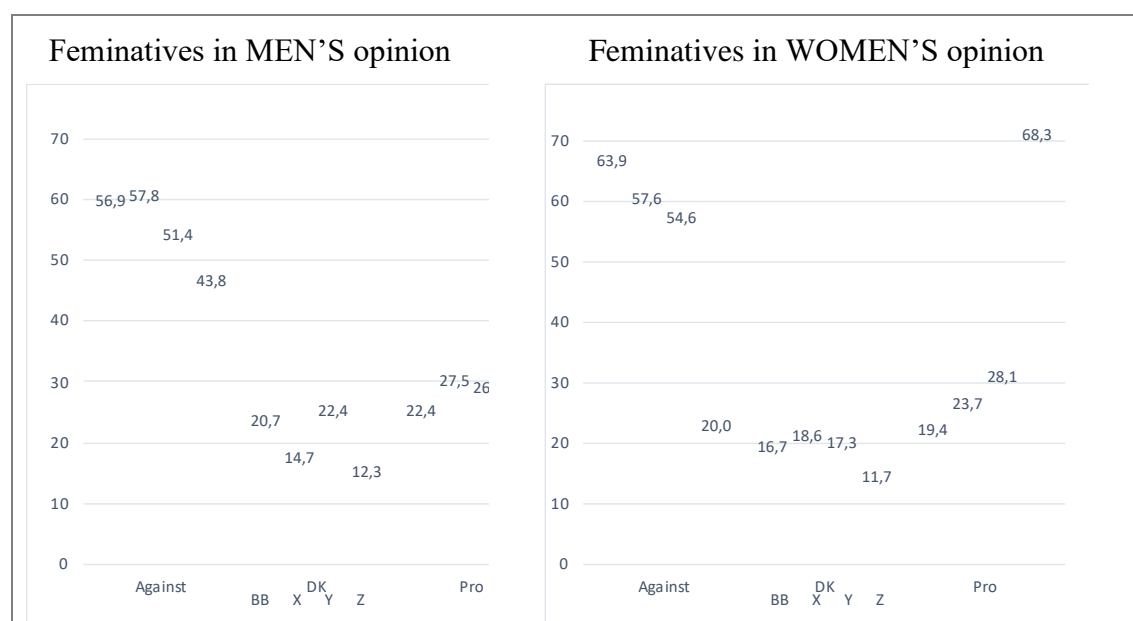


Figure 42. Distributions of attitudes toward using feminatives, divided by generation (Test D1).

Generational changes were significant in women $\chi^2(6,495)=82.3$ $p<0.001$. Generational differences in men are less vivid $\chi^2(6,340)=11.8$ $p=0.068$. Generally, differences in approval level for feminatives are **not significant** in 3 older generations – $\chi^2(4,618)=2.2$ $p=0.69$. It is Generation Z that makes the significant change in approval attitude.

Test D2. Experimental test of gender-career stereotype with TARGET DESCRIPTION manipulation

An experimental study using target descriptions has been conducted as a part of one of the three SSA studies with 486 students, and 616 employees – in total 1102 participants.

First, 616 respondents (participants in Study B) were randomly divided into four groups to read the description of Adam & Eve, one of whom was offered a promotion from work that threatened WLB of not only the promoted person but also their partner's.

Measurement was focused on assessing the level of WLB satisfaction of the two partners in a situation when one of them is either being promoted or one of the rejects the promotion.

Stereotypical gender differences, ie. women have traditionally been responsible for FAMILY and caregiving, while men have been primarily responsible for CAREER and providing for the family financially. In reference to WLB standards it can be assumed that men devoting family life to work have social acceptance while women do not.

Level of egalitarianism was assessed based on reactions to one of the 4 target descriptions (4 experimental conditions) – descriptions were shown randomly in turns to the participants of the experiment:

<p>EX1: Ewa i Adam są parą od 3 lat. Oboje świetnie wykształceni, dobrze zarabiają i wiodą wygodne życie razem. Połączyły ich wspólne pasje – sport i podróże, na które wykorzystują każdą chwilę. Choć praca daje Ewie wiele satysfakcji i propozycja awansu ją ucieszyła, jej zdaniem awans oznaczałby konieczność wielu poświęceń. Trudno byłoby jej zaplanować urlop, bo zawsze może coś wypaść. Adam byłby sfrustrowany i przeciążony, bo musiałby przyjąć na siebie większość domowych obowiązków i podporządkować wszystkie prywatne plany pod jej zawodowe zobowiązania. Jego potrzeby zeszłyby na dalszy plan. Z tego względu Ewa odrzuciła propozycję awansu.</p>	<p>EX2: Ewa i Adam są parą od 3 lat. Oboje świetnie wykształceni, dobrze zarabiają i wiodą wygodne życie razem. Połączyły ich wspólne pasje – sport i podróże, na które wykorzystują każdą chwilę. Choć praca daje Adamowi wiele satysfakcji i propozycja awansu go ucieszyła, jego zdaniem awans oznaczałby konieczność wielu poświęceń. Trudno byłoby mu zaplanować urlop, bo zawsze może coś wypaść. Ewa byłaby sfrustrowana i przeciążona, bo musiałaby przyjąć na siebie większość domowych obowiązków i podporządkować wszystkie prywatne plany pod jego zawodowe zobowiązania. Jej potrzeby zeszłyby na dalszy plan. Z tego względu Adam odrzucił propozycję awansu.</p>
<p>EX3: Ewa i Adam są parą od 3 lat. Oboje dobrze zarabiają i wiodą wygodne życie razem. Połączyły ich wspólne pasje – sport i podróże, na które jeszcze do niedawna wykorzystywali każdą chwilę. Ale od awansu Ewy rok temu, ta jest ciągle pochłonięta pracą. Trudno zaplanować urlop, zawsze może coś wypaść. Ewa nie widzi powodów do narzekań – praca daje jej wiele satysfakcji. Adam natomiast jest sfrustrowany i przeciążony. Przyjął na siebie większość domowych obowiązków. Musi też podporządkować wszystkie prywatne plany pod zawodowe zobowiązania Ewy. Jego potrzeby zeszły na dalszy plan.</p>	<p>EX4: Ewa i Adam są parą od 3 lat. Oboje dobrze zarabiają i wiodą wygodne życie razem. Połączyły ich wspólne pasje – sport i podróże, na które jeszcze do niedawna wykorzystywali każdą chwilę. Ale od awansu Adama rok temu, ten jest ciągle pochłonięty pracą. Trudno zaplanować urlop, zawsze może coś wypaść. Adam nie widzi powodów do narzekań – praca daje mu wiele satysfakcji. Ewa natomiast jest sfrustrowana i przeciążona. Przyjęła na siebie większość domowych obowiązków. Musi też podporządkować wszystkie prywatne plany pod zawodowe zobowiązania Adama. Jej potrzeby zeszły na dalszy plan.</p>

Table 14. Target descriptions of “Adam & Eve” used in the experimental study (Test D2).

As shown in Table 14 the descriptions were almost identical, when only the 2 key variables were manipulated:

- 1) Gender of the promoted person (Adam vs. Eve),
- 2) Reaction of the person promoted (rejection vs. acceptance of the promotion).

These two between-person variables determined 4 groups: EX1, EX2, EX3, EX4:

	EVE is promoted	ADAM is promoted
No threat to WLB	EX1: Eve rejects promotion	EX2: Adam rejects promotion
Threat to WLB	EX3: Eve accepts	EX4: Adam accepts

Table 15. Target descriptions manipulation matrix (Test D2).

Analysis 1. Four WLB-related TARGET descriptions (Study B)

Respondents were asked to assess satisfaction of both Adam and Eve as a result of their WLB-related situations – promotions rejected vs. accepted, by either Adam or Eve. The gender of the person being assessed (Adam or Eve) was a within-person variable.

The figure below shows number of men and women participating in four respective experimental conditions.

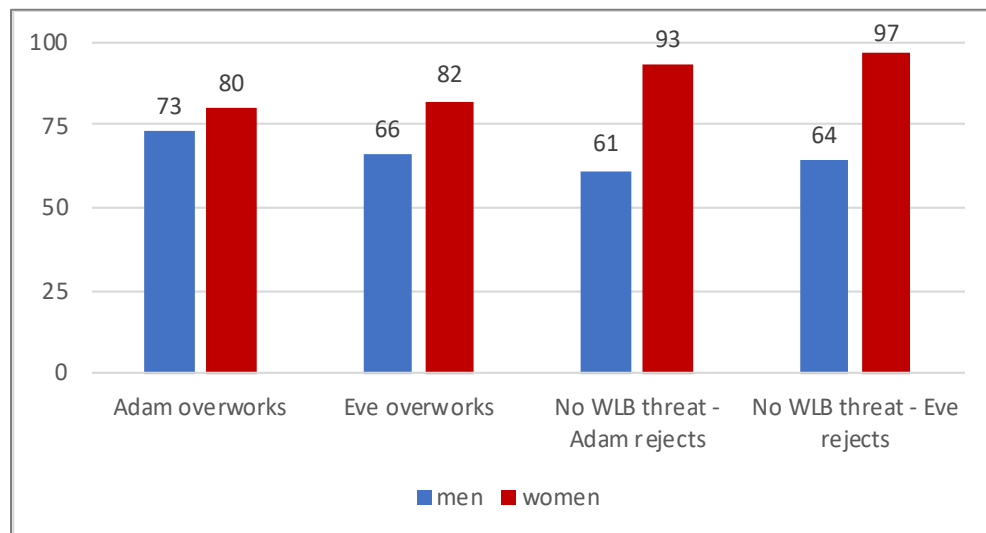


Figure 43. Distribution of respondents, divided by experimental condition and gender (Test D2).

As shown in the Figure 44, the condition “promotion rejection” which poses no WLB threat, does not show any significant impact of who was promoted (Adam vs. Eve) so the analyses were focused on condition of “acceptance of promotion” which caused WLB threat.

I Adam's satisfaction
I Eve's satisfaction

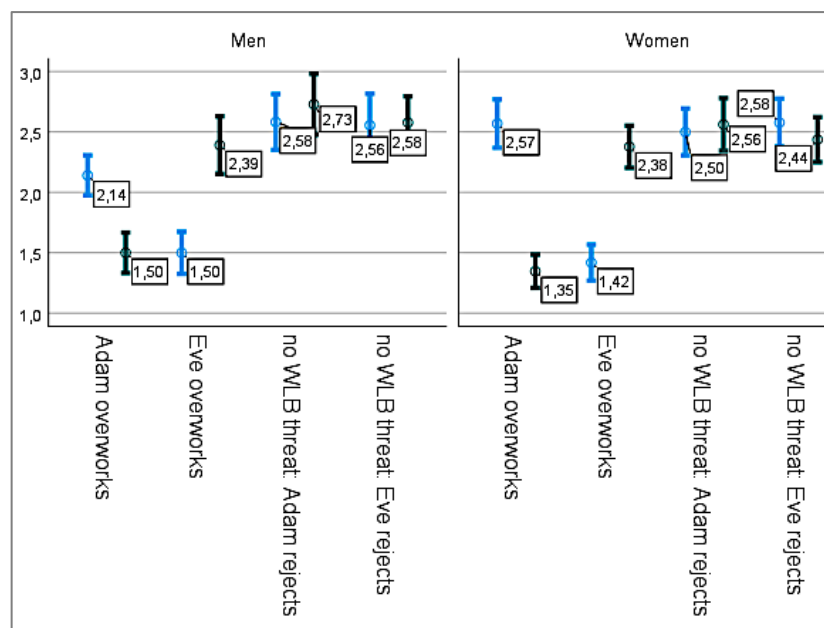


Figure 44. Adam and Eve's satisfaction depending on experimental condition, divided by gender (Study B).

When Adam experiences threat to his WLB (EX3): Women rate Adam's satisfaction significantly higher than men do.

Analysis 2. Impact of WLB threat in 4 generations

In the next step, the analyses focused on EX3 and EX4 posing a threat to WLB. To broaden the scope, results from of a group of 486 students were added.

Respondent's gender	Experimental condition	Respondent's generation				Total
		BB	X	Y	Z	
Men	Adam overworks	20	26	28	66	140
	Eve overworks	13	27	21	61	122
	Total	33	53	49	127	262
Women	Adam overworks	4	28	47	153	232
	Eve overworks	13	34	48	155	250
	Total	17	62	95	308	482
Total	Adam overworks	24	54	75	219	372
	Eve overworks	26	61	69	216	372
	Total	50	115	144	435	744

Figure 45. Number of participants, divided by experimental condition, gender, and generation (Study B+C).

The analysis results did not confirm the hypothesis – women react negatively to WLB threat as an outcome of partner's overworking.

I Adam's satisfaction
I Eve's satisfaction

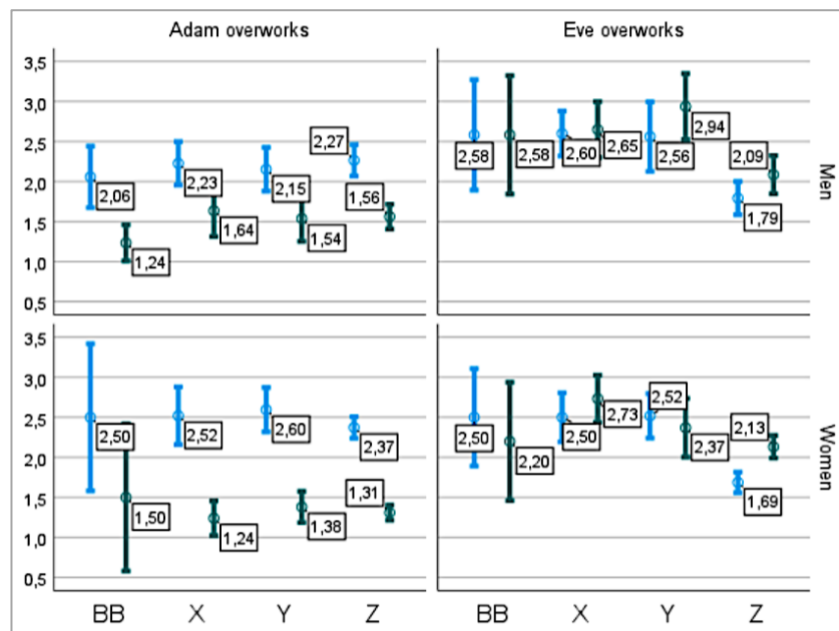


Figure 46. Adam and Eve's satisfaction depending on respondents' generation, divided by experimental condition and respondents' gender (Study B+C).

Test D3. Indirect measurement of gender-career stereotype by Implicit Association Test

Following the procedure described in Chapter 2, “Gender-Career” Implicit Association Test results were obtained from 143 students whose gender and birth generation was known (Generation Z vs. Generation X). The results were compared with data from more than 846,000 people who completed this test on the Harvard University website with open access.

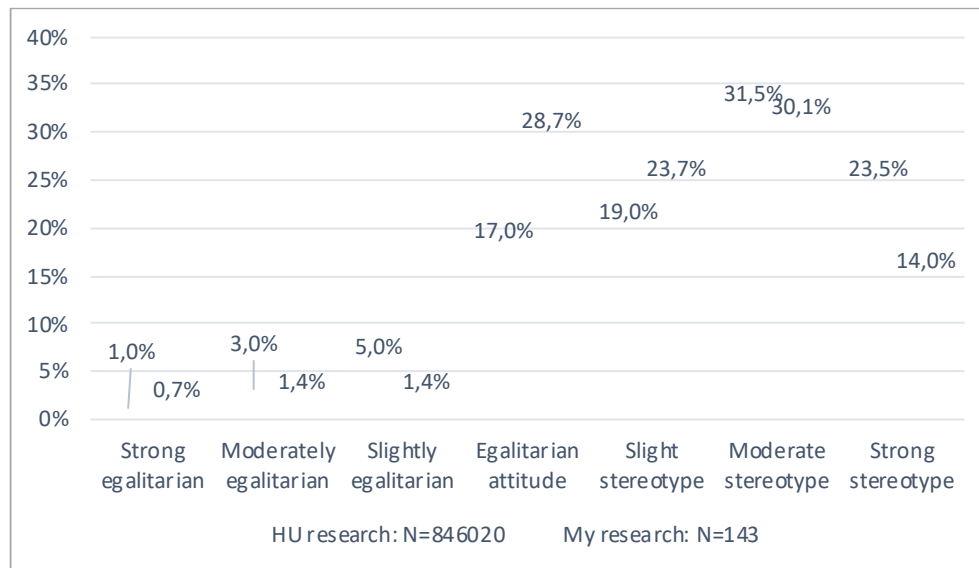


Figure 47. Comparison of IAT "Gender-Career" Implicit Association Test results – “Harvard” data vs. own research (Test D3).

As it can be observed in Figure 47 above, Polish sample seems more egalitarian, which could be likely connected to respondents’ age (no information about age on “Harvard” data, while my sample consists of relatively young people, below the age of 45, with majority of Generation Z) and specific time of research. My data were collected in 2022, while data on Harvard web page collected between January 2005 and December 2015.

For further analyses – due to the very small number of respective responses – all "egalitarian" results (strong+moderately+slight) were pooled together. Therefore, the hypothesis concerning the relationship between strength of the stereotype, gender and generation was tested on 4 values instead of 7.

To analyse the gender differences in gender-career stereotype strength test χ^2 was conducted. Figure 48 illustrates the gender-career stereotype strength in men and women separately.

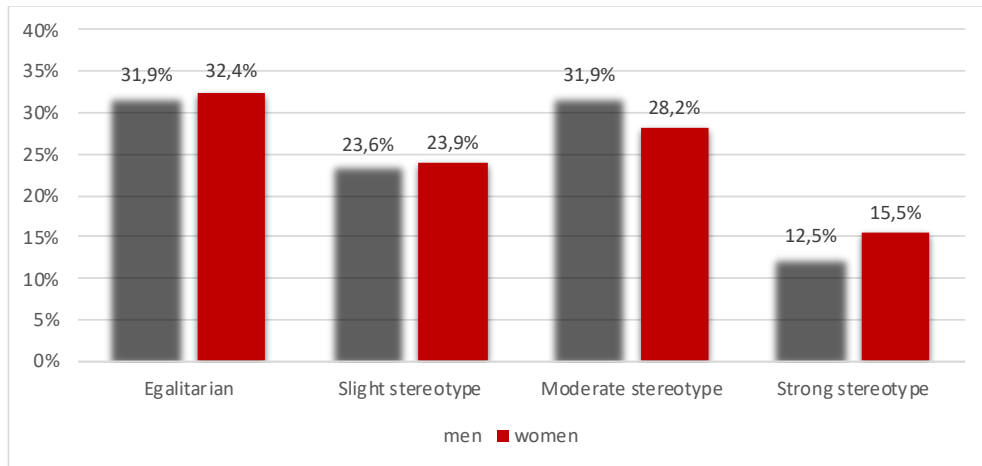


Figure 48. Strength of gender-career stereotype in men and women (Test D3).

χ^2 test showed **no significant gender differences** in implicit associations $\chi^2(3,143)=0.94$.

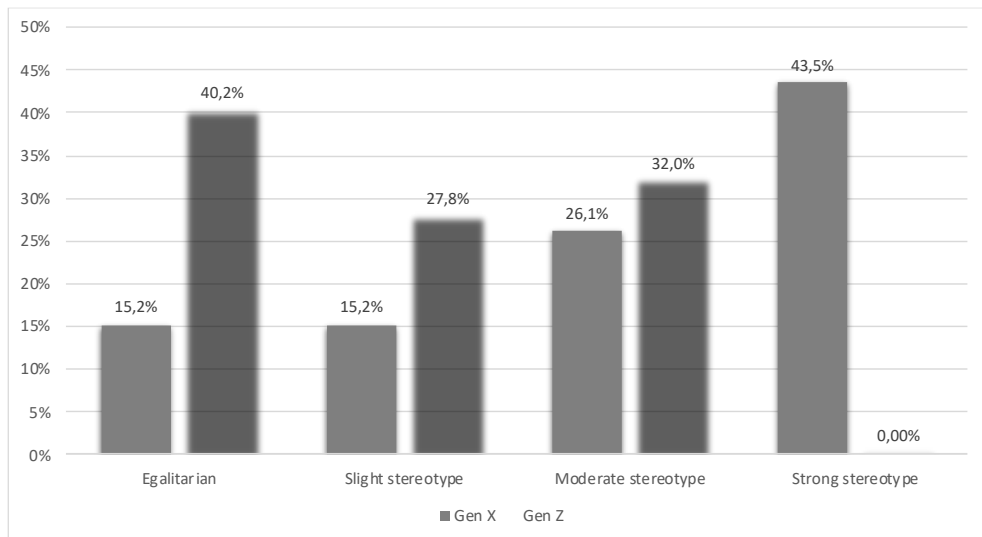


Figure 49. Strength of gender-career stereotype in Gen Z and Gen X (Test D3).

Figure 49 illustrates the gender-career stereotype strength in 2 generations separately. χ^2 test showed **significant generational differences** in implicit associations $\chi^2(3,143)=50.7$.

In the Figure 50 below, the 7-point ordinal scale of egalitarianism has been interpreted as a quantitative one, since it allows to easily spot the differences discovered in the non-parametric tests. A value of “7” was labelled as ‘the strongest stereotype’, “3” as ‘little or no stereotype’, and “1” as ‘egalitarian attitude’.

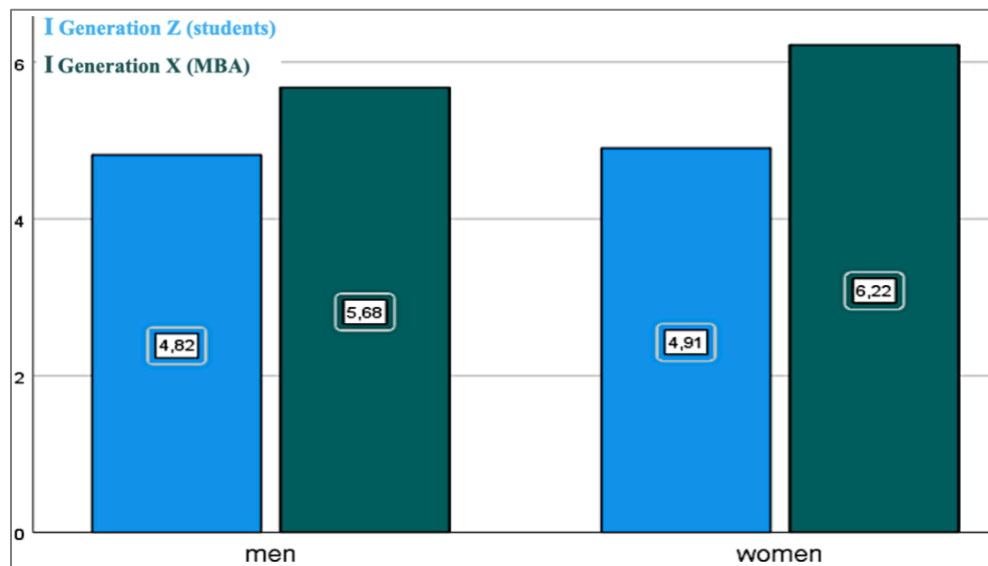


Figure 50. Strength of gender-career stereotype – significant generational and insignificant gender differences (Test D3).

Discussion of the findings has been conducted in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4. Discussion of the findings, research limitations and direction for future research

Chapter 4 consists of the findings' discussion regarding the conducted studies, elaborates on research limitations – own and in the work-life balance field in general, and presents the directions for further research identified by the author.

To put the discussion of the results in a broader context, I will start with the limitations.

Research limitations

First class of limitations relate to **samples**. In the social sciences, we rarely study random samples because people can be randomly selected⁴⁰¹ but cannot be forced to participate in the study. Hence each study is limited by the nature of the sample that participated in it.

To illustrate this in the figure, a comparison of the percentages of respondents answering YES to 4 questions about separating work from non-work time. Group 1 are respondents to the original survey conducted by ARC Rynek i Opinia in April 2018, Group 2 are managers of one of the banks asked by us in January 2023.

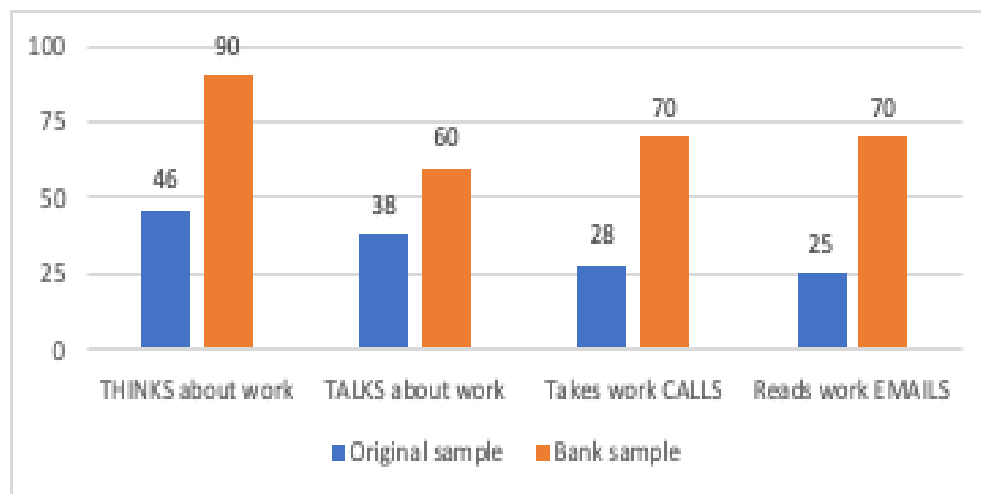


Figure 51. Percentage of employees saying YES when asking if they think, talk, take calls, read emails after work hours (own elaboration).

Therefore, in my empirical dissertation in accordance with the WiW Paradigm, I tested hypotheses on very different data sets, being aware of their limitations.

The participants of **Study B** (616 Polish employees) were drawn from a panel of over 250,000 participants – but even this impressive number does not allow to assume that people with high professional achievements have been a part of the sample. Panel

401 E.g. (Wieczorkowska et al., 2016)

participation is voluntary and pro-active registration of very professional successful respondents might not be achievable.

In Study C we indirectly studied the parents of WZ students, who are certainly not representative of the population. This, however, is probably the only sample with such a high proportion of people with high and very high professional achievements.

The **British Cohort Survey (Study A)** looks like the best source of data, free of auto-selection bias: all respondents born in the first week of April 1970 have been studied throughout their lifetime. But attrition rate and lack of some information important for the construction of professional success are limitations of this study. Information about earnings was partially used to indicate professional success, but there was no accurate information about the specific place of residence of the respondents – and this might have had a big impact on the financial situation – e.g., GBP1000 depending on the residence may translate to completely different purchasing power. There was also no information on how many people were managed by individual respondents, which can change the index of professional success.

Second class of limitations relates to **measurement issues**. Most of the prior WLB research relies on self-reports, and this limitation also applies to Study A and B. In Study D I made attempts to go beyond self-reporting by introducing experimental manipulations of TARGET descriptions in accordance with the WiW methodological paradigm. When we ask for an assessment of, for example, home management, we never know to what extent answers result from the perception biases of the respondent. By asking for an assessment of TARGET descriptions, we can be sure that all respondents evaluate the same situation.

I also used in the research **The Implicit Association Test (IAT)** (available online since 1998), enabling to uncover hidden associations that we may not have been aware of. Opinions about the effectiveness of the IAT are divided, as evidenced by a 2013 meta-analysis⁴⁰². The study revealed weaker correlations between IAT scores and discriminatory behaviour than the previous meta-analysis, leading to controversy about the test⁴⁰³. Other researchers⁴⁰⁴ point out the multitude of conceptual, psychometric, and validity issues related to the IAT that make it difficult to precisely evaluate either implicit biases or associations. Let it be due to the ‘implicit bias’ vague definition, or unclear measurement through reaction times⁴⁰⁵, studies in multiple meta-analyses have demonstrated that IAT scores can predict discriminatory behaviour to some degree.

After these remarks on research limitations, I shall now turn to the discussion of the results obtained.

402 (Oswald et al., 2013)
403 (Greenwald et al., 2009)

404 (Jussim et al., 2020)
405 (Schimmack, 2021)

The results of the **28 of interviews** on impact of career advancement on work-life balance, that were interrupted by the pandemic showed the necessity to extend the research sample outside those described in the title. In order to show the characteristics of people with a high level of professional success (impact of career advancement), it is not enough to study only this group in isolation. When describing the colour red, it is necessary to contrast it with other colours – hence the decision to extend the survey to all employees made it possible to compare successful women with successful men and within gender – those with successful careers with those without successful careers.

The main objective – investigation of the impact of career advancement on the satisfaction with work-life balance among employees with high professional status – has been translated in the form of 5 research tasks, so the discussion of the results will be organised around them.

Research task #1

Literature review of factors contributing to the work-life balance among employees with high professional status, including those with managerial functions, concluded with identification of research gaps.

A literature review presented in chapter #1 indicated that **women are particularly OVERLOADED**, especially when **combining successful careers** with **family-related** responsibilities. It was confirmed in the 28 interviews with successful women. They said they work much more than men and were overloaded with family duties. **Research gap** in the literature pointed at the lack of research in impact of being home MANAGER on WLB. Numerous studies and literature have extensively described the theme of increased proportion of women involved in **HOUSEHOLD DUTIES**⁴⁰⁶, however, no attention (and research accordingly) has been paid to the overload caused to a vast proportion of women by being a **HOME MANAGER**.

The manager's work at paid work is appreciated and well paid – unpaid work at home, and especially as **home manager is invisible**. Undoubtedly, managers' work requires specific skillset⁴⁰⁷, including a certain level of cognitive resources, decision latitude, and relational/ social competences. Irrespective of the occupation and industry, every employee with management function – **so also at HOME** – is expected to **PLAN, ORGANISE, LEAD, and CONTROL**.

These several types of activities are widely considered to be the best way of describing the manager's job, as well as the best means to express what contributes to the success of a manager⁴⁰⁸. Home managers on a daily basis are involved in multi-dimensional work, too⁴⁰⁹. Their work demands impose on them the necessity to constantly **solving unforeseen problems, coming up with new ideas, dealing with various tasks** at

406 E.g. (Buunk et al., 2000)(Coltrane, 2000)(Ganster et al., 2018)(Radcliffe & Cassell,

2015)(Raza et al., 2021)(Waring, 1997)
407 (Cangemi et al., 2008)

408 (Sims, 2021)
409 (Stock et al., 2014)

different pace simultaneously, temporal and spatial **flexibility**, **high decision latitude** and **organisational participation** of some sort.

Research task #2

Development of a strategy to construct an index of professional success based on survey data.

The literature on defining career success has frequently overlooked the fact that individuals may use **diverse referent points** to evaluate their success, leading to incomplete operationalizations. The concept of career success is not fixed, but rather dynamic and changes as managers progress⁴¹⁰ through different developmental stages or adapt to their **evolving perceptions** of personal success⁴¹¹.

Survey data in the studies was limited in terms of sophisticated variables. Hence the task was to reflect such achievements that they could be easily verified and compared and fit in relatively tangible areas. Therefore, it was crucial to compose such ‘professional success’ indicators in respective studies that they could have been **measured in objective terms**. Objective factors of career success have the advantage of not only being readily available or easy to collect in a **non-biased form** (if not collected solely through self-reports) but are also **standardised** – thus comparable between subjects⁴¹².

Professional success index in my research has been created to distinguish between employees with low and high professional status which would enable between-groups comparisons within sample.

With a composition of intrinsic and extrinsic indicators the following elements have been used in respective measurements:

- (1) Indicators describing person as holding **MANAGERIAL FUNCTION** or a **HIGH JOB POSITION**, such as highly specialized, requiring special qualifications or knowledge occupations, including self-employed. These indicators aim at confirming hierarchical position and reflecting societal perceptions of the power and authority connected with respective careers.
- (2) Indicator based on perception of **PROFESSIONAL ACHIEVEMENTS** – other-referent (in case of this research – peers of the assessed were treated as a general point of reference) assessment of professional success based on either self-reporting or other-reporting – lower, average, or higher than that of their peers’ (on a 5-point scale). Such an assessment allows to confirm hierarchical position of the assessee.
- (3) Indication of **EDUCATION** level – high educational level or vocational qualifications are predictors of high professional competence. Graduation from tertiary education with at least bachelor’s degree, number of years of education above

410 (Super, 1980)

411 (Sturges, 1999)

412 (Judge et al., 1995)

15, or a professional equivalent in the form of a National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) at least at level 4 has been one of the signals of the professional success.

- (4) Quantitative indicators referring to high involvement in work – such as number of **WORKING HOURS** or **INCOME**. The former reflects objective (hourly) involvement in performing job duties, while the latter allows for estimation of the material success in a form of tangible benefits achieved by the respondents.

Studies have shown that assessing extrinsic and intrinsic factors of career success can result in distinct outcomes, as these factors are not strongly correlated⁴¹³. Regardless of the definition used, the core of the matter lies in two dimensions of career success: objective and subjective. The evaluation of objective career success⁴¹⁴ is based on how well **individuals have performed** in their careers and how they are **perceived by others**, while subjective career success reflects individuals' own perceptions of how well they have done⁴¹⁵.

It should be underlined that the construction of indicators **differs in samples** to some extent – it is difficult to use the same Professional success index for sample consisting of 46-year-old Britons and sample consisting of three Polish generations. The **conclusion** is that the indicator of PROFESSIONAL SUCCESS is always context-dependent. Professional success within samples is comparable to a much higher degree than between samples.

Research task #3

Development of a new research procedure for estimating WLB using an external view, in which adult children (Generation Z) assess the WLB of parents (Generation X).

Getting information about **parents' professional success** and role of home manager by asking their **grown-up children** was very **successful**. Much more challenging was the assessment of internal states like WLB. In general, the external view method works best with variables that are **easily observable** such as behaviours – e.g., who is the home manager, rather than when we ask about feelings of others' – e.g., whether the mother was happy.

This technique allows to obtain information about BOTH PARTNERS – which is extremely difficult to acquire otherwise. Only with this method could we show that a successful woman's situation would change depending on whether her partner is also successful. The highest percentage (71%) of mothers as sole home managers was in HL relationships, which may suggest a **double managerial role** for a mother (both at work and at home) with respective overload associated with double managerial function.

413 (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007)

414 (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986)
415 (Gunz & Mayrhofer, 2011)

It seems that information about both parents from their adult children has **more value** than the information of the research participants' own commitment and that of their partners. In the latter case, the distortions associated with **attributive egocentrism** and self-serving bias are greater.

Of course, children's assessments can also be distorted, and the analyses showed (at the statistical trend level) there is difference in their views – daughters more often pointed at mothers as SOLE home managers (62%) than sons (54%). This, however, is impossible to rule out this is due to differences in perception or the fact that the respondents are from different families.

Research task #4

Testing various forms of studying Gender-Career stereotype.

Studies on **gender-career stereotype** are extremely important because it influences **management decisions** and can lead to discrimination in the workplace. For a long time, there has been a belief that working long hours demonstrates dedication, hard work, and loyalty to a company. Work culture is often cited as a reason for working long hours. Thinking about time as a resource is helpful, especially since men have more access to it than women due to the **gendered division of labour** at home. Men can only work longer hours if they spend less time on household duties, and as their pay increases, they are freed from household responsibilities⁴¹⁶.

Organizations that need their workers to take on extra workloads can encourage this culture. The ability to work long hours has become a highly valued **management attribute**. This is most evident in the senior positions, which require the **ability** and **willingness to work** very long hours. **Internal competition**, especially in high-paying positions, can **fuel the long hours culture**, as people fear missing out and spend longer hours in the office. Senior managers work long hours to maintain their hold on their positions, and there is an expectation that the **more senior** and higher-paid one is, the **more hours** they work.

As a result, few women with families can hold these positions, and the business rationale for this is not being challenged. Research suggests that in areas of prestige and high status, the long hours culture may act as a way to exclude women, implicitly or explicitly. At a time when women can offer almost everything that men can in terms of ability, skills, and experience, **time availability** becomes an **important differentiating feature** that makes men more suitable than women.

In order for organizations to **effectively reduce** gender-career stereotype's impact on various management decisions, it is important to comprehend the underlying dynamics that drive it. Acknowledging the nature and functions of gender-related stereotypes can contribute to **fair judgments**, particularly in situations where stereotypes are likely to

416 (Rutherford, 2001)

influence important processes. Additionally, when people are aware of their biases, they are more likely to engage in **self-regulation**, which can help **break the cycle** of prejudice.

Research task #5

Analyses of pre-existing data and conducting own research, aimed at testing research hypotheses.

Test of H1

Higher professional success in women does not translate to lower involvement in household duties, and especially in home management (i.e. planning and organization of household activities, leading and controlling their execution).

Based on women's higher involvement in household duties, and their higher overall dedication to both paid and unpaid work compared to men, I hypothesise that women of higher professional success follow the gender segregation rule, related to social gender norms and roles of women and men, in terms of their involvement in household duties.

Study A conducted on a sample of British 46-year-olds confirmed that women are significantly more overloaded with household duties than men, regardless of their respective level of professional success. And although people of higher professional success are slightly less involved in household duties (main effect of professional success level), only a tendency toward interaction of the professional success and gender was observed. The difference in involvement in household duties between women with lower success and women with higher success is larger than between men from these two respective groups. This may suggest that in case a woman achieves professional success, household duties are more often "outsourced" to other people. According to research⁴¹⁷, **outsourcing of household tasks** is more common among highly skilled employed women. This practice has been adopted to decrease the time spent on housework, thereby increasing the time that can be devoted to paid work. However, there has been limited progress⁴¹⁸ in encouraging men to take on more unpaid care responsibilities at home.

The measurement in British Cohort Survey (study A) used estimation of hourly time report of seven various household duties. And even though it did not show the two-fold difference between women and men spent on performing these activities as in the European research⁴¹⁹, the results could have been different if controlled for number of children at home (and especially under the age of 10). It can be assumed that a lot of home management activities stem from children care-related responsibilities. In my analyses controlling for number of children doesn't change the results. It could be explained by

417 (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2020)

418 (Raz-Yurovich & Marx, 2019)
419 (Eurofound, 2017)

the respondents' age. For 46-year-old parents – which took part in study A – their children – if presented in the household – are already rather independent in their daily functioning.

Study C being a research conducted on adult children assessing their both parents, allowed to measure professional success of both a mother and a father individually and as a couple. This gave a unique insight into sharing patterns of household duties and the function of a home manager between the two spouses.

It was **CONFIRMED** that mothers' involvement in household duties was significantly higher than that of fathers'. The finding remains consistent with the results of Study A. It is important to note that predicted negative correlation between home and job engagement was much stronger for fathers than mothers. What is interesting is the situation when a mother is more professionally successful than a father. In such a case, women are **SIGNIFICANTLY** more involved in **HOME MANAGEMENT** than men. This corroborates with American sample⁴²⁰ research, which suggested that the more successful women are in their careers, the more such responsibilities they take on themselves (compared to their partners). Authors connected it with an impact women's professional success might have on their relationships with their life partners. Male spouses felt least happy when they were losing dominant role as breadwinners⁴²¹, and as a woman started earning more than a man, she tended to compensate for it by spending more time on household duties and childcare. Current research is mostly focused on the job-related commitments conflicting with the family role demands⁴²², indicating that the work sphere constitutes a bigger threat to fulfilling family commitments than the other way round.

It was **MOTHERS** who mainly performed the **HOME MANAGER** role in students' homes. Only in HH professional type (both parents with high level of success) majority of the respondents (56%) pointed that **BOTH PARENTS** shared the home management function rather equally. It may suggest that a career change necessitates a change in family life.

Due to the gendered division of household duties, women are less likely to have equal access to time in comparison to male colleagues, while men's time is often made available to them by their female partners at home⁴²³. This might also be the case of the students' homes. Mothers' total engagement has been of similarly high values regardless of their success level, unlike fathers' – whose higher job engagement has always been accompanied by much lower home engagement.

Studies on the disparities between men and women in their overall working hours have exposed subtle gender differences arising from differences in time allocation between mothers and fathers⁴²⁴. While there has been some improvement in promoting gender

420 (Bertrand et al., 2015)
421 (Syrda, 2020)

422 (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998)
423 (Rutherford, 2001)

424 (Craig, 2007)

equality in paid work, progress in addressing the unequal distribution of unpaid work has been much slower.

When both partners are equally happy about their professional status and share of household duties, happiness level in their relationship might be higher – otherwise, well-educated couples might be more likely to split⁴²⁵.

Research⁴²⁶ has shown that the division of household and childcare duties with their partner has a significant impact on women's WLB. Women in more egalitarian partnerships report higher WLB, while adhering to traditional gender roles is linked to increased work-family conflict. Support from spouses can enhance the perception of WLB, whereas a lack of such support is associated with greater work-family conflict, particularly for women⁴²⁷.

The highest percentage (71%) of MOTHERS as a SOLE home manager was in HL marriages, which may suggest a DOUBLE managerial role for a mother (both at work and at home) with respective overload associated with DOUBLE MANAGERIAL FUNCTION.

Similar values of total overload can be observed in case of women in LL, HL, HH professional types (expressed in their total engagement) and it ranges between 4,48-4,51. For comparison – men's total engagement ranges between 3,79 in HL to 4,15 in HH, values much lower than those of women.

Hypothesis 1 has been positively verified in a case highly successful men are the comparison group. Home engagement of highly successful women is lower, though, in comparison to the group of women with lower professional success. However, the total engagement (home engagement & job engagement together) is similar for women in any professional type. This suggests similar level of overload that women experience, regardless of the situation, which may be especially high in case of DOUBLE managerial function in HL & HH professional types.

This allowed us to show that mainly women play the home manager role – the number of indications of a father or other person managing the home was marginal. It is worth noting that –the highest number of indications for a woman as a home manager was when her professional success was higher than that of her husband.

Is this due to the transfer of the managerial role – is being a manager at work translates to being a manager at home when your partner does not have a managerial position in his paid job? Could it be because she is the one managing work, not her partner, that she is more likely to take on the role of the manager at home? We must remember that this is the first – to our best knowledge – study of the role of the home manager, so it needs to be replicated.

425 (Bertrand et al., 2015)

426 (Buunk et al., 2000)

427 (Schieman & Glavin, 2008)

Research suggests that men with high earning potential tend to be in relationships where the focus is on their career, while women with similar earning potential tend to be in dual-earner relationships, where they take on the primary caregiver role⁴²⁸.

To sum up – H1 pointing at a greater burden of household chores in women has been positively verified, if the comparison group is highly successful men. Home engagement of highly successful women is lower, though, only in comparison to the group of women with lower professional success.

Test of H2

Women bear higher costs of professional success (career advancement) compared to men. Higher costs of professional success among women are associated with lower: work-life balance, emotional wellbeing, health condition).

H2 was based on the assumption that HOME MANAGEMENT is similarly overloading as any managerial function in paid work circumstances. Some research⁴²⁹ suggest, that individuals who hold multiple roles as a spouse, parent, and paid worker altogether, tend to have higher levels of psychological wellbeing compared to those who hold only one of these roles. Additionally, parents who work over 40 hours a week or have a highly qualified job tend to experience lower or similar levels of psychological distress compared to those who are less engaged in multiple roles⁴³⁰. Being strongly engaged in both work and family life has a positive impact on one's health and wellbeing⁴³¹. However, the psychological benefits of holding multiple roles may be most significant when family responsibilities are not excessively burdensome⁴³².

In my analyses interactional effects predicted by H2 were not confirmed. Comparing to men women have lower WLB (in Study A, but not in Study B), but showed higher level of emotional wellbeing and better health in British Cohort Survey (Study A). The lack of significant results in Study B may be due to the specificity of the sample. Participants of online panel are self-selected – therefore they do not have to be representative of the employee's population. The problem of self-selection of research participants in management sciences is common – which is why the British Cohort Survey sample is probably the most resistant to this error, because the decision to participate in the study was made many years before achieving professional success, when they were in their adolescent age.

428 (Ely et al., 2014)

429 (Rushing & Schwabe, 1995)

430 (Nordenmark, 2004)

431 (Walters et al., 1998)

432 (White et al., 1986)

Test of H3

Gender-Career stereotype is stronger in men than in women.

Even in progressive countries like Sweden, prioritizing the husband's career over the wife's remains prevalent⁴³³, also among highly-skilled women. Unless there is a significant shift towards gender specialization in the opposite direction, with the wife as the primary breadwinner and the husband taking on childcare responsibilities, women aspiring for demanding top jobs are likely to face heightened family stress.

Strength of gender-career stereotype has been tested in three different ways, following the WiW paradigm's triangulation rule, through:

- Test D1. Direct measurement.
- Test D2. **Experimental design** with TARGET DESCRIPTION manipulation—testing differences in evaluation of differences in partner's reaction to the situation when a WOMAN (Eve) sacrifices family life for a career, compared to the situation when a MAN (Adam) does it.
- Test D3. **Indirect measurement** – using Implicit Association Test measuring strength of stereotypical association women with family and men with career.

Gender differences in stereotypical attitudes were shown only in case of direct measurement. Women declare their egalitarianism to be of a higher level than men – regardless of the generation they represent. Noteworthy is the group of women from generation Z, which stands out in the analysis of egalitarianism. However, it is necessary to keep in mind that while Generations BB, X, Y come from a panel sample of employees, Generation Z comes from a sample of WZ students – so there is no reason to assume that it is representative for the entire Generation Z.

Significant generational change which was unpredictable by my hypotheses result of the analyses (but congruent with other results in our research group⁴³⁴) shows, among others, that representatives of an older generation (Generation X) have shown to hold more stereotypical associations of career with a man and family with a woman than younger generation (Generation Z). It is worth to continue this line of research.

The hypothesis that men will be less susceptible to situations threatening WLB is based on the fact that it is a core identity for men (association of career with men). Research (Adam and Eve) has shown that there is no difference in the perception of the respondents – no protests were raised by men when Eve could have chosen a career. Contrary to expectation, participants predicted protest of Eve's if Adam would have chosen a career. Probably the WLB threat descriptions used in study D2 were too “ideal” – referring to situations posing a threat to entertaining/hedonistic lifestyle describing childless couple without financial problems. In the following studies the TARGET descriptions should be more conflicting in their nature – e.g., financial problems, children's diseases, need to take care of parents.

433 (Anxo et al., 2007)

434 (Wilczynska, 2023)

Although our hypotheses were not confirmed – the study, which used target descriptions, is worth continuing by further manipulating the descriptions of different types of WLB THREATS.

Conclusions

A review of literature and interviews with successful women showed that they experience lower WLB than men, although analysis of the data collected from pre-existing studies and own research did not confirm this fully. Tests of 3 hypotheses derived from the literature showed no strong empirical support for two (H2 and H3) of them on various data sets.

It is true that if WLB is treated as balancing between work demands and home/family duties, women are much more burdened with housework (confirmed in Study A and C) and home management (confirmed in Study C).

It can be concluded that in the light of the analysed data, no interactional effect of gender and professional success level was found – successful **women are “no different from successful men”**.

This, however, does not mean that the assumption is wrong, it might well be the matter of the analysed samples. In WLB generational are much stronger than gender differences with the question mark for the youngest generation Z, which should be carefully observed in the future research.

General limitations and future directions

The survey measurement is a subject to a range of universal problems, including social desirability bias, self-report bias, invalid or unreliable measures, lack of consistency, confounding factors, and cultural differences. The technological expansion in the area of research methods will allow to get better measurement tools in the future.

The research presented in the dissertation is limited in its scope – only several features impacting satisfaction with work-life balance were examined, and in future research this might be extended to include temperamental and individual differences of the subjects.

All of the own research was carried out at a time when the world was fighting against the COVID-19 pandemic. Companies were changing work designs, adjusting employees' salaries and the situation on the labour market and in many companies was tense and unpredictable. The economic crisis has contributed to layoffs of workers, reduction of their wages, or minimization of working time per week. For many people, work in a remote or hybrid model has intensified, limiting and changing flexibility and discretion over daily agendas. Therefore, responses could have been influenced by change in the nature of work and an unstable situation in a company. It is not known to what extent this would have affected the results obtained, but such an impact cannot be ruled out.

Further limitations of the tests performed may result from the data samples and the time these were carried out. Only those who agreed to participate, participated in the studies, so they are not representative of the entire employee population, they were not drawn and did not constitute a representative sample.

According to the WiW methodological paradigm, replication of the same conclusions on different data sets (triangulation of data), and with different operationalizations (triangulation of operationalization) and analysed with different statistical methods e.g. use of parametric and non-parametric tests (triangulation of statistical methods) increases the external validity of the conducted research. Naturally, it is impossible to say whether the conclusions would be repeated on – inaccessible units, but this is the limitation of ANY study, because people can be drawn, but they cannot be forced to participate in research.

Research on WLB has made significant progress in understanding the factors that influence individuals' ability to balance their work and personal lives. However, there are still several limitations in the field that need to be addressed to further advance our knowledge. It is a multidimensional concept that entails balancing various aspects of life such as work, family, and personal life. Therefore, a comprehensive and multidimensional approach is necessary for studying work-life balance. This also involves employing both qualitative and quantitative approaches for a comprehensive understanding of work-life balance.

Most studies on WLB described in the literature (1) have focused on middle-class, privileged knowledge workers who work in large organizations and struggle to make time for non-work activities due to demanding workloads; (2) have been constrained⁴³⁵ by their reliance on self-reported data, prompting a need for the incorporation of multisource measures to enhance accuracy and comprehension. Nonetheless, the limited studies⁴³⁶ that have integrated multisource measures have primarily concentrated on the viewpoints of individuals outside of the work setting, such as employees' close friends or spouses.

When conducting research on WLB, it is recommended to consider cultural values related to traditional gender roles, which may moderate the relationship between work and family domains or lead to different perceptions for female and male managers⁴³⁷.

Work-life balance is influenced by individual, organizational, and societal factors. Hence, it is crucial to consider the context in which work-life balance is studied. The managerial function can be overloading to both women and men, but the factors that contribute to this overload may differ. This is because women and men often have different expectations and responsibilities in their personal lives, which can impact how they

435 (Casper et al., 2007)

436 E.g. (Shaffer et al., 2001)

437 (Lyness & Judiesch, 2008)

experience the demands of their managerial roles. Addressing these challenges requires a multi-dimensional approach, including changes in workplace policies and cultural attitudes towards gender roles, as well as support for employees to manage their workload and maintain a healthy work-life balance.

Over the past few decades, significant changes have taken place in gender roles and social norms, which have impacted female job market participation. Traditionally, women have been expected to prioritize family and household responsibilities over their careers. However, with increasing gender equality and social changes, women have gained greater access to education and opportunities for paid employment. Achieving greater gender equality in the job market requires a broader societal shift towards more egalitarian gender roles and attitudes. This shift will require sustained efforts from all stakeholders, including employers, policymakers, and the broader community. By promoting greater gender equality in the job market, a more prosperous and inclusive society can be created.

Work-life balance is a subjective experience and individuals may have varying definitions and expectations. Therefore, individual differences must be considered when studying work-life balance. Although individual differences in temperament are closely related to the amount and intensity of cognitive overload experienced by people, this issue is not often raised in the context of work-life balance⁴³⁸. Individual studies referring to the concept of "work-life conflict" or "work-to-life spillover" suggest that extraversion is one of the factors determining easier coping with problems at work and family life⁴³⁹.

Identification of temperamental and personality factors negatively impacting one's work-life balance satisfaction may allow for a better understanding of the relationship between these issues. The variation in the temperamental characteristics (expressed in the level of extraversion or employee's energy resources) suggests that some employees are more immune to stressful situations than others⁴⁴⁰. The impact of stressful situations (related to, for example, the need to perform a managerial function in both spheres of life – work and home) may also vary between subjects. Thus, temperamental and personality factors can help determine whether the demands of the area of work and family will be reconcilable – expressed by a high work-life balance or will pose a threat to this balance.

The findings could potentially affect the efficacy of training initiatives and organizational policies designed to minimize the clash between work and personal life of workers. Coaches and managers ought to acknowledge the considerable impact of individual differences on an individual's selection of coping mechanisms.

438 (Demerouti et al., 2005)

439 (Frone, 2003a)

440 (Major & Burke, 2013)

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Appendix

Attachment 1: Study B: WLB change correlates

Stress/work overload [stress] (study B)

The stress/work overload index was built based on answers to 5 questions:

- Working conditions are bad and sometimes even dangerous
- It is difficult for me to share my opinions or feelings about working conditions with my supervisor
- I have proper control and/or influence over my duties
- I receive appropriate recognition or awards for good performance at work
- At work, I can use my skills and talents to their full extent

with the response scale “very rarely or never”, “rarely”, “difficult to say”, “often”, and “very often or always.” Factor analysis showed one factorial structure, so factor score was an index of Stress at work.

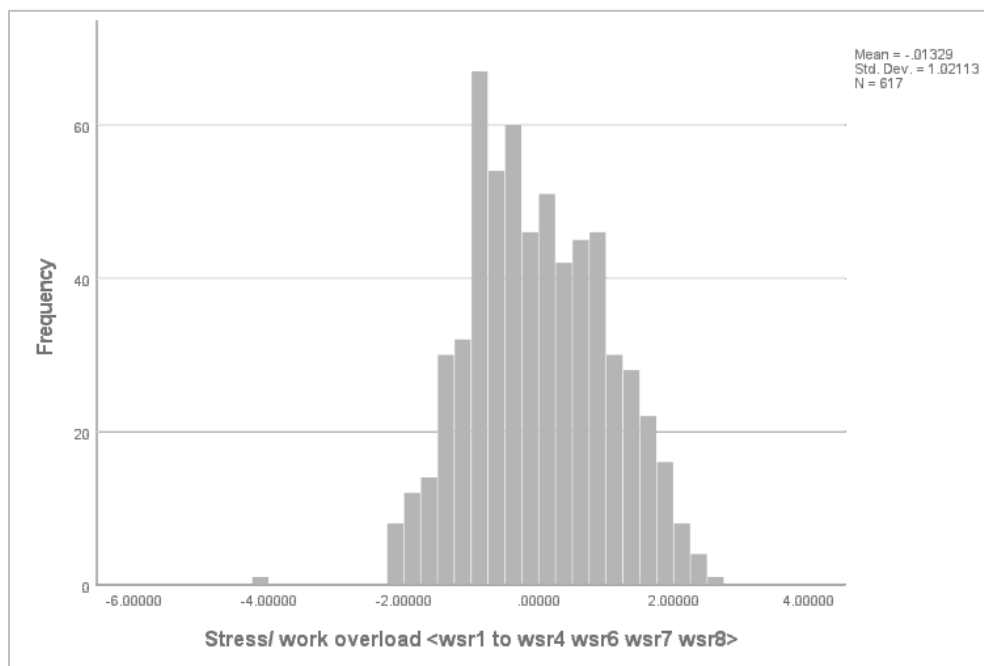


Figure 52. Distribution of stress/work overload index (the higher, the more stressful) (Study B).

Work as Calling (study B [praca2])

Calling index was calculated as factor score of 2 following questions:

- Staying at work after hours is acceptable.
- Professional work is an important part of my identity.

The response scale was described as follows: 1 – Strongly disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Agree, 4 – Strongly agree, 5 – Hard to say (DK). DK answer was recoded to be in the middle of the scale. Distribution of the index is presented in Figure 53.

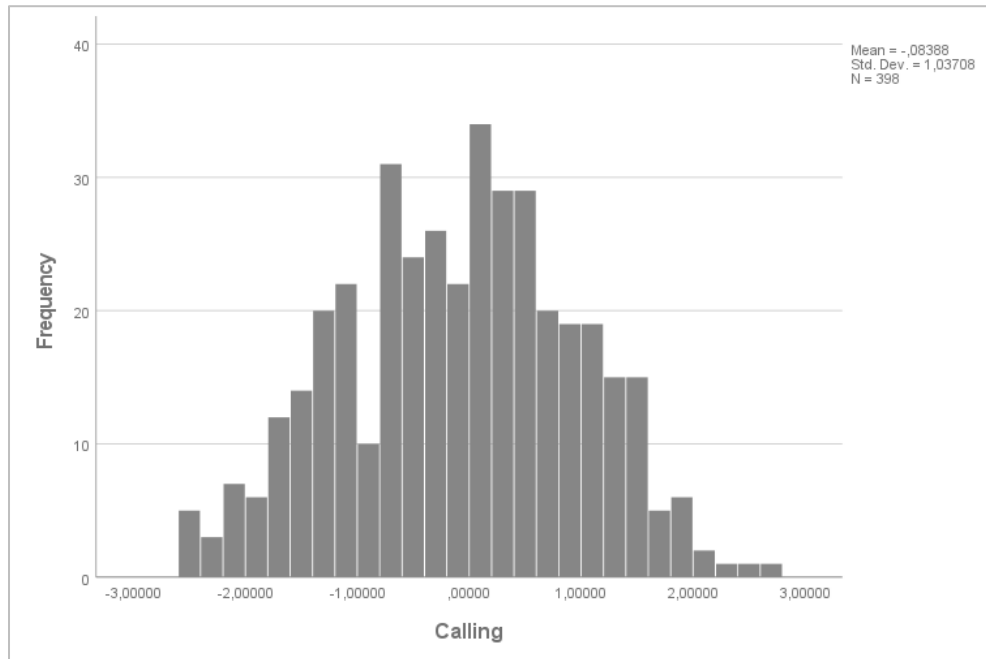


Figure 53. Distribution of calling index (Study B)

Emotions at work (study B)

Respondents answer by using rating frequency scale from <1> described as **never or very rarely** to <6> as **very often or always** six questions.

During a **typical day at work** in your company, how often did you feel:
satisfied? content? relaxed? worried? tense? stressed?

Factor analysis of 6 answers showed a unifactorial structure so a factor score serves as an index of < emotion at work. The higher score, the more often negative emotion is experienced by employee. The distribution of the index is shown in Figure 54.

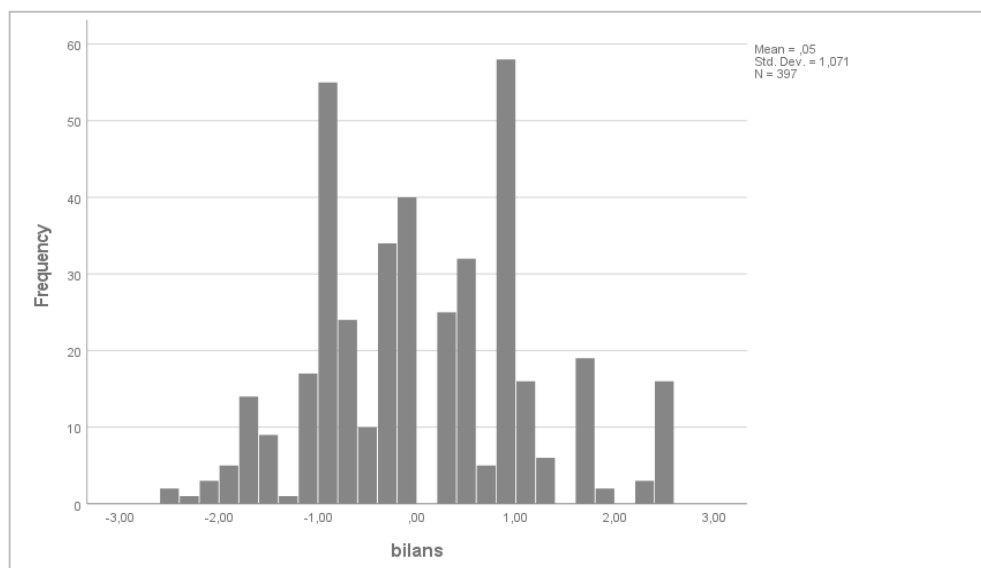


Figure 54. Distribution of emotions at work index (Study B).

Source	Dependent Variable	SS	df	MS	F	p
Corrected Model	praca2 Work as Calling	34,6 ^a	4	8,6	8,6	,000
	spill Satisfaction with own WLB <sr19 wsr5 sr29 sr38>	97,1 ^b	4	24,3	31,9	,000
	stres Stress/ work overload <wsr1 to wsr4 wsr6 wsr7 wsr8>	139,2 ^c	4	34,8	45,2	,000
	epw negative emotions at work	85,3 ^d	4	21,3	29,4	,000
Intercept	praca2 Work as Calling	9,0	1	9,0	9,0	,003
	spill Satisfaction with own WLB <sr19 wsr5 sr29 sr38>	2,2	1	2,2	2,9	,088
	stres Stress/ work overload <wsr1 to wsr4 wsr6 wsr7 wsr8>	2,2	1	2,2	2,8	,093
	epw negative emotions at work	8,3	1	8,3	11,5	,001
age	praca2 Work as Calling	7,0	1	7,0	6,9	,009
	spill Satisfaction with own WLB <sr19 wsr5 sr29 sr38>	3,9	1	3,9	5,1	,025
	stres Stress/ work overload <wsr1 to wsr4 wsr6 wsr7 wsr8>	3,6	1	3,6	4,6	,032
	epw negative emotions at work	11,1	1	11,1	15,3	,000
work2	praca2 Work as Calling	22,8	1	22,8	22,8	,000
	spill Satisfaction with own WLB <sr19 wsr5 sr29 sr38>	81,2	1	81,2	106,7	,000
	stres Stress/ work overload <wsr1 to wsr4 wsr6 wsr7 wsr8>	122,3	1	122,3	158,7	,000
	epw negative emotions at work	54,6	1	54,6	75,1	,000
sex	praca2 Work as Calling	,5	1	,5	,5	,486
	spill Satisfaction with own WLB <sr19 wsr5 sr29 sr38>	,5	1	,5	,6	,423
	stres Stress/ work overload <wsr1 to wsr4 wsr6 wsr7 wsr8>	,1	1	,1	,1	,701
	epw negative emotions at work	3,2	1	3,2	4,4	,037
work2 * sex	praca2 Work as Calling	2,6	1	2,6	2,6	,110
	spill Satisfaction with own WLB <sr19 wsr5 sr29 sr38>	,1	1	,1	,1	,720
	stres Stress/ work overload <wsr1 to wsr4 wsr6 wsr7 wsr8>	,1	1	,1	,2	,692
	epw negative emotions at work	,2	1	,2	,3	,584
Error	praca2 Work as Calling	389,2	389	1,0		
	spill Satisfaction with own WLB <sr19 wsr5 sr29 sr38>	295,9	389	,8		
	stres Stress/ work overload <wsr1 to wsr4 wsr6 wsr7 wsr8>	299,7	389	,8		
	epw negative emotions at work	282,6	389	,7		
Total	praca2 Work as Calling	426,5	394			
	spill Satisfaction with own WLB <sr19 wsr5 sr29 sr38>	397,1	394			
	stres Stress/ work overload <wsr1 to wsr4 wsr6 wsr7 wsr8>	442,0	394			
	epw negative emotions at work	369,4	394			
Corrected Total	praca2 Work as Calling	423,8	393			
	spill Satisfaction with own WLB <sr19 wsr5 sr29 sr38>	393,0	393			
	stres Stress/ work overload <wsr1 to wsr4 wsr6 wsr7 wsr8>	438,9	393			
	epw negative emotions at work	367,9	393			

Attachment 2: Study C: Home and job engagement

Home engagement (study C)

Polish version of the question:

Które z poniższych określeń, Twoim zdaniem, najlepiej opisuje sposób codziennego funkcjonowania Twojej Mamy/Taty?

- najważniejsza dla Niej/Niego była **rodzina** – był_ w stanie **podporządkować jej wszystko** w swoim życiu, to na jej/jego głowie był cały dom i codzienne sprawy
- w domu był raczej niedostępna – nawet nie wiem, kiedy znajdował_ czas na odpoczynek
- zawsze był_ obok, kiedy jej/go potrzebowaliśmy, ale miał_ też przestrzeń na swoje zainteresowania i czas dla siebie
- Jeśli w żadnym z powyższych zdań nie znajdujesz opisu rodziców, opowiedz nam ich sposobie codziennego funkcjonowania w komentarzu

To be able to model the work-life balance of an individual it is crucial to specify not only their work status, but also their engagement in household duties. Engagement in home and family issues showed large disproportion between mothers and fathers' devotion of time and effort. The three-fold discrepancy in that respect. Large engagement was attributed to almost a half of evaluated mothers – 48.6% and merely 11.6% fathers, while reversed values described both partners in terms of their small devotion to home and family issues: 11.0% of mothers and 36.0% of fathers.

Engagement in home and family issues	Mothers	Fathers
Small	N=53 11.0%	N=164 36.0%
Medium	N=194 40.2%	N=238 52.3%
Large	N=236 48.6%	N=53 11.6%
Total	N=483	N=455

Job engagement (study C)

Polish version of the question:

Które z poniższych określeń, Twoim zdaniem, najlepiej opisuje sposób codziennego funkcjonowania Twojej Mamy/Taty?

- praca nie była najważniejsza – poświęcała jej tylko tyle czasu, ile było konieczne,
- pracowała w standardowych godzinach – tylko czasami się przepracowywała,
- często się przepracowywała – poświęcała na pracę znacznie więcej czasu niż inni,

Inna odpowiedź=====.

Job engagement	Mothers	Fathers
Worked rather normally, although sometimes s/he would work over hours	N=182 44.2% %	N=178 38.2 %
Work was not the most important thing in life – s/he did not spend more time in it than necessary	N=82 19.9%	N=84 18.0%
Often overworked, spending much more time working than others	N=148 35.9%	N=204 43.8%
Total	N=412	N=466

The difference between mothers and fathers was not significant.

Home management (study C)

Polish version of the question:

To pytanie dotyczy tego, w jaki sposób było zorganizowane życie w Twoim domu. Oprócz wykonywania prac domowych zapewne KTOS musiał „ogarniać” całość – trzeba np. zdecydować i zaplanować (co, kto, gdzie i kiedy): zakupy, jedzenie, szkołę, wyjazdy, imprezy rodzinne, wizyty lekarskie itp.

Która z odpowiedzi najlepiej opisuje sytuację w Twoim domu?

- domem zarządzała przede wszystkim mama
- domem zarządzał przede wszystkim tata
- obydwój rodziców – choć zarządzali innymi sferami domu, można uznać, że było po połowie
- domem zarządzała inna osoba (dziadkowie, pomoc domowa...)
- inna odpowiedź (opisz, proszę, w komentarzu poniżej)

Distribution of home management variable

	Frequency	Percent
Mother was a main home manager	276	56,8
Father was a main home manager	15	3,1
Both parents equally - although in different areas	187	38,5
Other person was a home manager (grandparent, housekeeper, nanny etc.)	1	,2
Other response	7	1,4
Total	486	100,0

χ^2 results (study C)

The relationship between professional type, home manager and gender of respondents (daughter, son) was tested by a series of χ^2 tests.

Home manager by gender

The answer <mainly mother> was chosen by 54.1% of sons and 61.9% of daughters. The difference was significant on the level of statistical tendency $\chi^2(1,468)$ $p=0.074$.

Professional type by gender of respondent (daughter, son)

The difference between professional type of parents in eyes of daughters and sons was significant on the level of statistical tendency $\chi^2(3,486)=7.2$ $p=0.067$.

		Men	Women	Total
xr	LL	33,8%	44,8%	41,6%
	LH [M<F]	20,4%	17,7%	18,5%
	HL [M>F]	13,4%	14,8%	14,4%
	HH	32,4%	22,7%	25,5%
Total		100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Home manager by professional type

The relationship between <Home manager> and <professional type> was significant - $\chi^2(3,468)=16.98$ $p<0.001$.

	LL	LH [M<F]	HL [M>F]	HH	Total
mainly MOTHER	62,8%	64,8%	70,6%	44,0%	59,6%
BOTH parents	37,2%	35,2%	29,4%	56,0%	40,4%
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Additional analysis of <Home manager by professional type by gender> have shown that relationship between Home manager and professional type was insignificant in men (sons): $\chi^2(3,135)=1.32$ $p=0.72$ and significant in women (daughters): $\chi^2(3,468)=17.59$ $p<0.001$.

sex			xr				Total
			LL	LH [M<F]	HL [M>F]	HH	
Men	mo	mainly MOTHER	54,5%	60,7%	57,9%	47,7%	54,1%
		BOTH parents	45,5%	39,3%	42,1%	52,3%	45,9%
		Total	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Women	mo	mainly MOTHER	65,1%	66,7%	75,5%	41,7%	61,9%
		BOTH parents	34,9%	33,3%	24,5%	58,3%	38,1%
		Total	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Total	mo	mainly MOTHER	62,8%	64,8%	70,6%	44,0%	59,6%
		BOTH parents	37,2%	35,2%	29,4%	56,0%	40,4%
		Total	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Both correlation coefficients for job and home engagement were significant: in mothers $r=-0.15$, in fathers $r=-0.46$

ANCOVAs of home/job engagement (study C)

The ANCOVA with one between-subject factors: (1) professional type (LL, LH, HL, HH) and two within-subject factors: (2) PARENT (mother vs father), (3) DOMAIN (job engagement vs home engagement) with adult child's gender as a covariate.

Tests involving 'PARENT' Within-Subject Effect.					
Tests of Significance for T2 using UNIQUE sums of squares					
Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	111,07	366	,30		
PARENT	17,16	1	17,16	56,54	,000
xr BY PARENT	1,59	3	,53	1,75	,156

Tests involving 'DOMAIN' Within-Subject Effect.					
Tests of Significance for T3 using UNIQUE sums of squares					
Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	205,69	366	,56		
DOMAIN	11,63	1	11,63	20,69	,000
xr BY DOMAIN	26,83	3	8,94	15,91	,000

Tests involving 'PARENT BY DOMAIN' Within-Subject Effect.					
Tests of Significance for T4 using UNIQUE sums of squares					
Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	210,43	366	,57		
PARENT BY DOMAIN	34,73	1	34,73	60,41	,000
xr BY PARENT BY DOMA IN	36,92	3	12,31	21,40	,000

COVARIATE	B	Beta	Std. Err.	t-Value	Sig. of t	Lower -95%	CL- Upper
Tsex	-,0430168753	-,0656519527	,03425	-1,25580	,210	-,11038	,02434

Attachment 3: Study D: Gender-Career stereotype strength

D1: Answers to direct questions

Q1. If the child is ill and both parents work professionally, according to **A**, the **mother should take time off** work to take care of the child. **B** believes that the father can take care of the child as well as the mother.

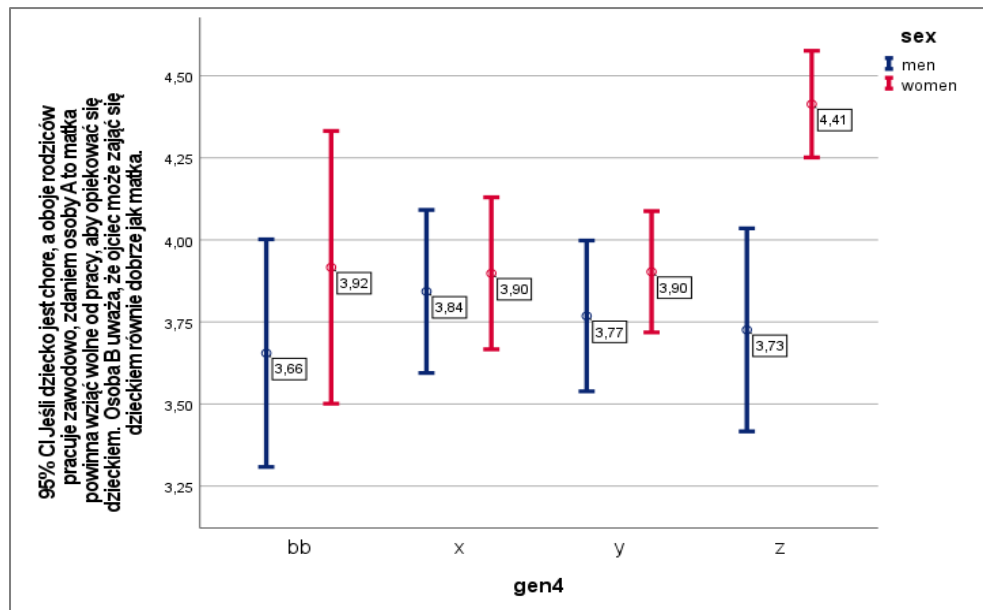


Figure 55. Responses to Q1 [the higher score, the stronger egalitarianism] divided by generation and gender.

Figure 55 shows differences in answers to Question 1 about staying at home in case of child's illness, depended on generation and gender. The higher the value, the more egalitarian the groups' answers. Generational disparity was not statistically significant ($p=0.168$), but gender was statistically significant ($p=0.004$), and interaction of gender with generation ($p=0.039$).

Women's responses suggest more egalitarian attitudes than men, however, in 3 out of 4 generations there is no statistically significant difference between women and men, only for representatives of Generation Z difference between women and men is statistically significant (4.41 vs 3.73). Women in Generation Z seem to be the most egalitarian group in general. The only statistically insignificant difference is between Gen Z women and BB women, probably resulting from smaller group size for BB generation.

Q2. **A** believes that there should be **more women in top positions** in companies and institutions than there are now. **B** thinks that all family members are better off if the women's professional work does not interfere with their care of the home.

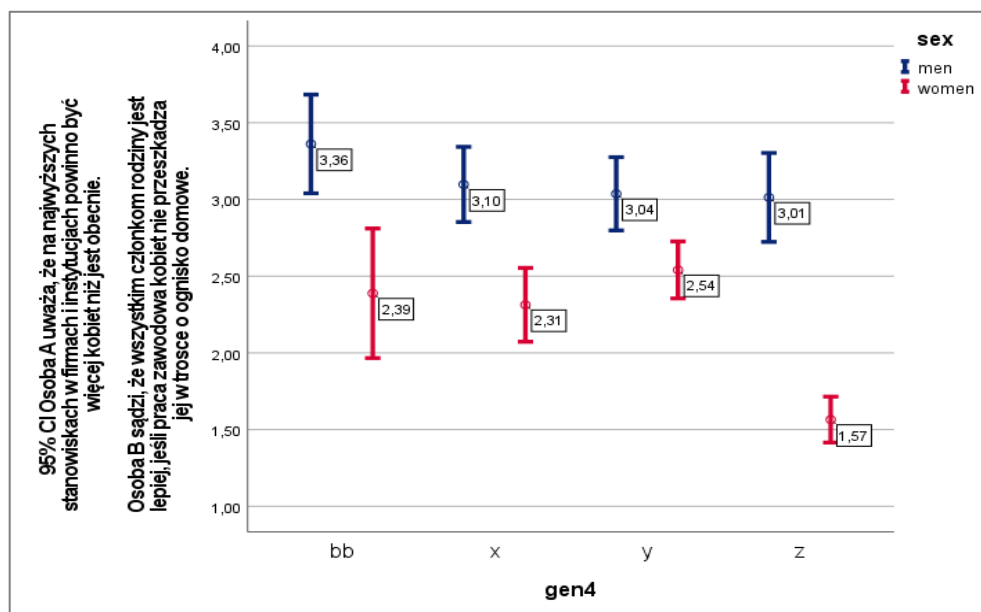


Figure 56. Responses to Q2 [the lower score, the stronger egalitarianism] by generation and gender.

Figure 56 shows differences in answers to Question 2 about women in high positions at work, divided by generation and gender group. The higher the value, the less egalitarian groups' answers. Generation, gender, and interaction of the two were all statistically significant ($p < 0.001$).

Women's responses suggest more egalitarian attitudes than men's, that difference is statistically significant across all generations. However, while in male groups there is no statistically significant difference between generations, among women it is Generation Z that is the most egalitarian – they are more egalitarian than women representatives in Generations BB, X, and Y.

Q3. A is convinced that if in a relationship a woman has a much higher professional position than her partner, it is almost certain that this will cause problems in the relationship with her partner. Person B thinks that who earns more has no effect on the relationship between them.

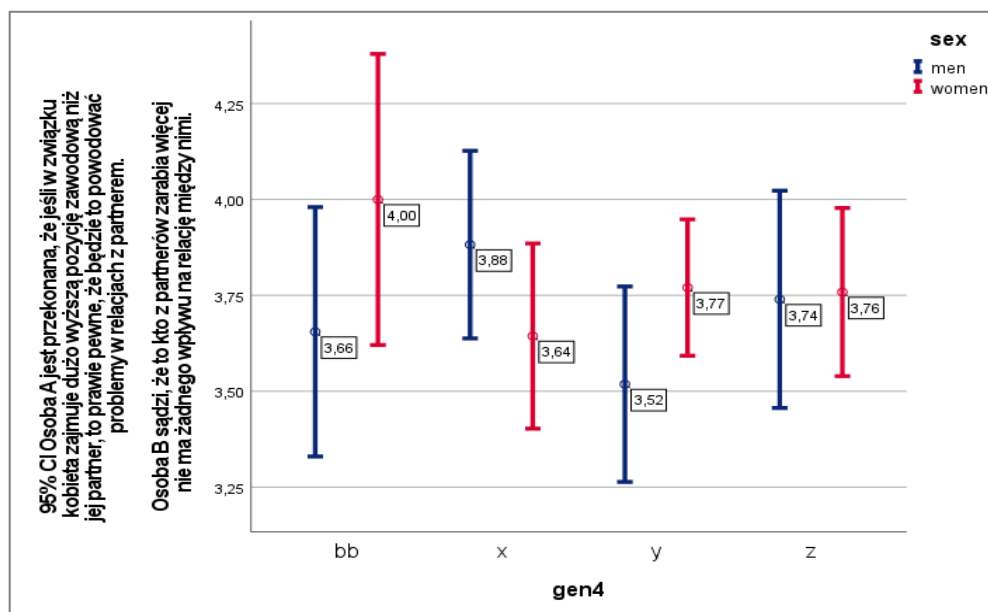


Figure 57. Responses to Q3 [the higher score, the stronger egalitarianism] by generation and gender.

Figure 57 shows differences in answers to Question 3 about difference in job position of a woman compared to her partner, in division by generation and gender group. The higher the value, the more egalitarian groups' responses. Gender, generation, and their interaction were all statistically insignificant.

Q4. Person A is pleased with changes in the names of professions/ positions emphasizing the gender of the person, e.g., actress. Person B is ridiculed and even irritated by such names.

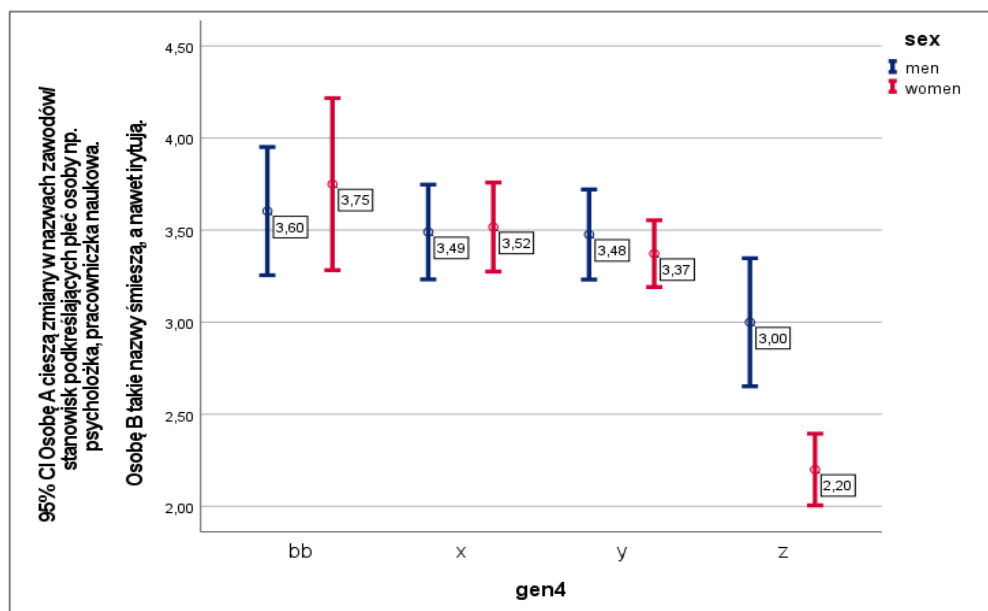


Figure 58. Disapproval of feminines by generation and gender.

Figure 58 shows differences in responses to Question 4 about changes in job names that reflect particular gender of a person (feminatives), divided by generation and gender

group. The higher the value, the less approval feminatives. Generation was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$), gender was statistically insignificant ($p = 0.074$), interaction of generation and gender was statistically significant ($p = 0.003$). Older generations (BB, X, Y) are less approving of using feminatives, women in Gen Z are the most approving of the change (2.2) compared to BB women being the least approving (3.75). In generations BB, X, and Y, differences between women and men are statistically insignificant. In Gen Z, women show much stronger approval than men (2.2 vs 3.0). Difference between Gen Z women and BB, X, and Y women is also statistically significant.

2 X 2 ANOVA of answers to 4 questions with generation (BB, X, Y, Z) and gender [sex] as predictors

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	r1	44,311 ^a	7	6,330	4,180	<,001
	r2	257,000 ^b	7	36,714	24,554	<,001
	r3	12,066 ^c	7	1,724	1,052	,393
	r4	202,477 ^d	7	28,925	17,022	<,001
Intercept	r1	9867,302	1	9867,302	6515,431	,000
	r2	4618,056	1	4618,056	3088,481	<,001
	r3	9124,437	1	9124,437	5569,903	,000
	r4	7092,397	1	7092,397	4173,814	,000
gen4	r1	7,672	3	2,557	1,689	,168
	r2	35,427	3	11,809	7,898	<,001
	r3	3,480	3	1,160	,708	,547
	r4	120,435	3	40,145	23,625	<,001
sex	r1	12,599	1	12,599	8,319	,004
	r2	138,688	1	138,688	92,753	<,001
	r3	1,556	1	1,556	,950	,330
	r4	5,432	1	5,432	3,197	,074
gen4 * sex	r1	12,761	3	4,254	2,809	,039
	r2	27,006	3	9,002	6,020	<,001
	r3	9,655	3	3,218	1,965	,118
	r4	23,566	3	7,855	4,623	,003
Error	r1	1252,451	827	1,514		
	r2	1236,573	827	1,495		
	r3	1354,765	827	1,638		
	r4	1405,288	827	1,699		
Total	r1	14244,000	835			
	r2	6973,000	835			
	r3	12980,000	835			
	r4	10248,000	835			
Corrected Total	r1	1296,762	834			
	r2	1493,574	834			
	r3	1366,831	834			
	r4	1607,765	834			

a. R Squared = ,034 (Adjusted R Squared = ,026)
 b. R Squared = ,172 (Adjusted R Squared = ,165)
 c. R Squared = ,009 (Adjusted R Squared = ,000)
 d. R Squared = ,126 (Adjusted R Squared = ,119)

D3. Gender-career stereotype Implicit Association Test

The original scale of the IAT test included:

1. strong automatic association of female with career and male with family
2. moderate automatic association of female with career and MALE with family
3. slight automatic association of female with career and MALE with family
4. little or no automatic association between female and male with career and family
5. a slight automatic association for male with career and female with family
6. moderate automatic association for male with career and female with family
7. strong automatic association for male with career and female with family

The “Gender-Career” IAT results by gender

	Men		Women		Total	
		%		%		%
Strong egalitarian	1	1,4	0		1	0,7
Moderately egalitarian	1	1,4	1	1,4	2	1,4
Slightly egalitarian	2	2,8	0		2	1,4
Egalitarian attitude	19	26,4	22	31,0	41	28,7
Slight stereotype	17	23,6	17	23,9	34	23,8
Moderate stereotype	23	31,9	20	28,2	43	30,1
Strong stereotype	9	12,5	11	15,5	20	14,0
Total	72		71		143	100

For the purposes of the analysis, the scale has been recoded so that the outlying values (from 1- strong egalitarian to 3- slightly egalitarian) are included in the “egalitarian attitude”. Recoded scale:

Gender stereotype	Frequency	%
Egalitarian	46	32.2
Slight stereotype	34	23.8
Moderate stereotype	43	30.1
Strong stereotype	20	14.0
Total	143	100.0

Strength of gender-career stereotype differs slightly between the genders, although this difference is not statistically significant.