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The Passage of Time in Work-Family Research: Toward a More Dynamic Perspective

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ABSTRACT

We review the design features of work-family/nonwork conflict research that incorporates the passage of time (i.e., lagged, longitudinal, experience sampling). Findings indicate that although the number of studies that incorporate time in their design have increased in recent years, time-based design features such as the length of time between data collections and the number of waves of data collected are often arbitrarily selected. We discuss implications for these findings, provide recommendations for the design of future studies, and provide suggestions for future research.

Keywords: work-family conflict; work-nonwork conflict; time; longitudinal; lagged; experience sampling

The Passage of Time in Work-Family Conflict Research: Toward a More Dynamic Perspective

A large body of research currently exists on work-family issues, including hundreds of studies on work-family conflict. Work-family conflict is commonly defined as a type of interrole conflict in which participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult due to participation in the family (work) role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The study of work-family conflict is important in that it has been associated with a wide variety of work, family, and health-related outcomes (Allen, 2012). For example, meta-analytic research shows that greater work-family conflict is associated with less job and marital satisfaction, greater psychological and physical health problems, and greater intent to leave the organization (e.g., Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011).

As work-family conflict research has accumulated, reviews have highlighted methodological limitations and gaps in the literature. One often recognized limitation is that the literature base is dominated by cross-sectional research designs (see Lapierre & McMullan, 2016 for a recent review). Most research has focused on state models that test the predictors and outcomes associated with work-family conflict concurrently; thus we know little about change in work-family conflict across time. This criticism is not unique to work-family research. Within the organizational sciences there has been an increasing awareness that time has been a relatively neglected element, both conceptually and statistically (Hanges & Wang, 2014; Shipp & Cole, 2015). As stated by Roe (2008), while time is a salient aspect of everyday life, the role of time is rarely acknowledged in psychological research. However, the lack of examination and understanding of temporal issues is particularly problematic for the study of work-family conflict in that our work and our families together fundamentally shape the daily routines and rhythms of

our lives. Moreover, work-family conflict is an inherently dynamic experience that occurs and reoccurs, likely at different rates, within days and across the lifespan.

It is common, necessary, and healthy to pause periodically and take stock of a body of research. Thus, in an effort to move the field toward a more dynamic perspective on work-family conflict, we suggest the time is ripe to assess the current literature that has incorporated temporal research design features. Accordingly, the objective of the current article is twofold. The first is to conduct a systematic review of work-family conflict studies that include the passage of time in design and the second is to provide an agenda for future research intended to shift the perspective of time in work-family research from static to dynamic. Specifically, with regard to the passage of time we examine the characteristics associated with lagged, longitudinal, and experience sampling work-family conflict studies. Study design is inextricably linked to the types of inferences one can make and therefore provides a robust organizing structure for our review. In our discussion we provide recommendations for designing research that incorporates the passage of time as well as suggestions for future research. Although work-family conflict is the predominant focal variable of study, the research base from which we draw also examines work-nonwork conflict. For ease of terminology in the current study we use the term work-family conflict throughout with the acknowledgement that work-nonwork conflict is also represented in our review.

A focus on time in work-family conflict research is important for several reasons. Conflicts between work and family often transpire at specific times and require in the moment behavioral decisions (e.g., whether or not to leave work early despite a pressing deadline to make a make a school meeting called by a child's teacher). By shortchanging the temporal context of work-family conflict we fail to take into account how context can shape experience. For

example, the decision to stay at work or to attend the meeting with the teacher will depend on past experiences (e.g., has this teacher asked to meet in the past, has the individual missed any previous work deadlines) as well as on expected future outcomes (e.g., would missing the deadline put one's job in jeopardy). Moreover, there are a variety of ways by which time can influence work-family conflict processes. For example, work-family conflict may sharply increase following the addition of a child into the family or following a promotion with increased job responsibilities. However, after habituating to the change, work-family conflict may return to its pre-change levels. Without inclusion of time and events considerations, such processes are left undetected. In addition, critical reviews of the literature at key times can play an important role in the evolution of areas of study. As studies that incorporate temporal elements begin to be employed in work-family research with increasing frequency (Allen & Martin, 2017), an understanding and assessment of key study features can be useful for launching the next wave of research from a sound base. Our review of the current state of the literature is used to lay the foundation for the provision of recommendations and the identification of critical needs for future research intended to move the field forward.

Study Designs that Incorporate the Passage of Time

We examine three types of studies that incorporate the passage of time: lagged, longitudinal and experience sampling. We define lagged studies as those in which some of the variables of interest are measured at one time point and others are measured at a later time point. Lagged designs have the benefit of mitigating time-varying confounds such a mood, but otherwise have little benefit for drawing causal or temporal conclusions (Zapf, Dormann, & Frese, 1996).

Lagged research can be contrasted with that of longitudinal research. In line with

Ployhart and Vandenberg (2010), we define longitudinal research as that in which there is repeated measurement of the same units of observation (i.e., variables) in such a manner that the units can be linked over time. Unlike lagged designs, longitudinal designs can assess change over time, and can be used to test temporal precedence assumptions. With regard to the assessment of change, Ployhart and Vandenberg further specify that longitudinal research include a minimum of three repeated measures on at least one of the constructs of interest. This is because two repeated measures limits the capture of change in that it is by default linear, therefore making it is impossible to examine the shape of change across time. However, given that the objective of our review is to evaluate the current state of the literature, we include studies in which two or more repeated measures of work-family conflict are collected for comparative purposes. Although longitudinal data, particularly that in which three or more measurement is included, is useful for establishing temporal relationships, can provide insight into how multiple dynamic changes relate to outcomes, and allows the researcher to examine both within-and between-person processes, neither lagged nor longitudinal studies can be used to determine causality in that both are vulnerable to problems associated with time-invariant confounds (e.g., person characteristics, cohort characteristics) and regression to the mean.

Experience sampling methodology (ESM) refers to data collection methods that sample participant behavior and experiences repeatedly over a short period of time, such as daily for five or 10 days. ESM studies are similar to longitudinal studies in that they include repeated measures of the same unit, but they are typically different in focus compared to traditional longitudinal studies. Specifically, ESM studies are intended to capture shorter-term episodic change among mechanisms than affect one another quickly (e.g., mood, affect) rather than longer-term trajectories that occur across months and years. Four major strengths have been associated with

experience sampling studies (Scollon, Kim-Prieto, & Diener, 2003; Uy, Foo, Aguinis, 2010). The design (1) provides insights into how multiple dynamic changes influence outcomes, (2) enhances ecological validity, (3) allows researchers to examine both within- and between-person processes, and (4) reduces retrospective recall biases. Study designs may include one measurement each day or multiple measurements within each day.

There are three types of ESM protocols (e.g., Uy, Foo, & Aguinis, 2010), interval-contingent, event-contingent, and signal-contingent. Interval-contingent studies are those in which responses are based on a pre-determined schedule (Butler, Song, & Ilies, 2013). For example, participants may be asked to complete a survey upon waking and again after work. Event-contingent designs involve providing a report when a specific event occurs (Butler et al., 2013). For example, participants could be asked to complete a survey when they experience a work-family conflict. In signal-contingent studies the researcher signals the participant and the participant reports on current experiences (Butler et al., 2013). For example, the researcher may send a text message at a random times during the day to capture in the moment data.

In the sections that follow we describe the method we used to identify studies for our review and the study features for which we coded. We report summary descriptive data regarding study features. In addition, we select one exemplar study from each type of research design (lagged, longitudinal, ESM) and describe study features in more depth.

Method

Literature Search

We conducted keyword searches using the PsychINFO database starting with 1970. Our search was conducted on June 30, 2017. This initiating date was chosen because the 1970s are generally considered the time period during which work-family research began to emerge

(French & Johnson, 2016). To identify relevant work-family conflict studies, search terms included "work-family," "work-nonwork," and "work-life" combined with "conflict," "(positive/negative) spillover," "interference," "enrichment," and "facilitation." These search terms were combined with "longitudinal," "lagged," and "over time" to identify longitudinal/lagged studies. Our search was limited to peer-reviewed journal articles. Although our focus is on work-family conflict, we included other related work-family constructs as work-family terms are sometimes used interchangeably.

Our initial search produced a total of 408 studies for screening. After eligibility screening, a total of 133 work-family conflict studies (132 articles) were identified for coding. A total of 36 of these studies were lagged and 97 were longitudinal. For the purposes of the current research, our classification of studies as lagged or as longitudinal was based on measurement of work-family conflict. That is, for a study to be classified as longitudinal, there had to be a repeated measure of work-family conflict. Some studies classified as lagged could involve other variables that were measured longitudinally. We excluded studies that involved reports on the work-family variable from others (i.e., adolescent report of parent work conflict) and that narrowly defined the work-family variable to a specific aspect of work (i.e., shiftwork).

To identify experience sampling studies, the same work-family conflict terms used to identify lagged and longitudinal studies were combined with the search terms "experience sampling," "ESM," "ecological momentary assessment," "event sampling," "diary study," "daily," "repeated measures," "day-level," and "within-person." Our initial search produced a total of 248 potential studies for screening. After eligibility screening, a total of 39 work-family conflict studies were considered for coding. Three studies were removed because insufficient information was provided with regard to study design, leaving 36 studies eligible for coding.

Coding Process

For lagged and longitudinal studies we coded the number of waves of data collected, the time lag between waves (when 3 or more waves were included, we counted each time lag), if rationale was provided for the selected time lag, if the phenomena examined had discrete starting and/or ending points (e.g., Time 1 coincided with a specific event such as starting a new job), and the type of analytic approach used. For longitudinal studies, we also coded if change in the work-family variable was assessed. We also coded for analytical and theoretical and approach used. With regard to analytical approach we grouped approaches into six non-orthogonal categories, regression, path analysis/SEM, MANOVA/ANOVA, multilevel modeling, profile analysis, and growth modeling. Theories were grouped into six categories. The first were resource-based theories, which included conservation of resources (Hobfoll, 1989), and work-home resources (Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). The second was boundary theory (e.g., Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000). The third category was event-based theories (e.g., affective events theory (AET), Weiss & Cropanzano, 1999; effort-recovery, Meijman & Mulder, 1998). The fourth group included self-regulation theories such as control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1990). The fifth group was stressor-strain theories (e.g., Karasek, 1979) and the sixth group was role and interrole theories (e.g., crossover; Westman, 2001). We also coded if other theories were used (i.e., "other") or if no theory was used ("none"). Finally, to provide further information on context, we coded for publication date and country in which the data were collected.

For ESM studies, we coded the type of design employed (interval, signal, or event), number of daily observations, number of days of observation, primary analytic strategy, whether change in the work-family construct was tested, and theoretical framework. Primary analytic strategy was grouped into four categories: multilevel modeling, multilevel path

analysis/structural equation modeling, qualitative, and other. For interval studies we included the timing of data collection (e.g., morning, evening). For signal contingent studies we coded the basis for the signal and for event-contingent studies we code the event of interest. The same categories for theory as used in lagged and longitudinal studies was also used to code ESM studies. We also coded for publication date and country in which the data were collected.

Results

Lagged

A total of 36 lagged studies were eligible. Their features are reported in Table 1. With regard to the number of waves, the number ranged from two to eight with the most common being two (n = 25). Overall, the mean time lag between data collections (in months) was 25.35 (the mode was 12). A total of seven studies provided rationale for the time lag selected and five began data collection with a discrete start. Regression was the overall most common analytic approach (n = 21) followed by path analyses/structural equation modeling (n = 12). Resource-based theories were the most commonly used (n = 12). However, it is notable that eight studies did not reference any theory.

Within the set of two wave studies, the time between waves ranged from less than one month (i.e., one week) to 180 months. The most common time lag was 12 months. Only five studies included rationale for the selected time lag. Rationale provided was to reduce common method bias or to provide sufficient time for change in the dependent variable (this was applicable to studies in which variables other than WFC were collected twice). Three studies were based on a discrete start. The starting points were (1) prior to graduation from nursing school, (2) three months before college graduation, and (3) the third trimester of first pregnancy.

Regression was the most common analytic approach (n = 18). A variety of theories were used, with most common being resource-based (n = 4).

With regard to the nine three wave studies, time lags ranged from less than one month to 60 months, with six months the most common. Two studies included rationale for the time lag selected. Only one of the three wave studies was based on a discrete start (the first time point was 6 months after birth of first child). With regard to analytic approach, the most common was path analysis/SEM (n = 5). With regard to theories used, the most common was resource-based (n = 7).

Additional study features. The number of studies based on a lagged design has increased across time. The first lagged study was published in 1997. A total of two studies appeared in the 1990s, 10 were published between 2001 and 2009, with the remaining 24 published since 2010. The majority of studies were published with U.S. samples (n = 18). Three additional studies came from Canada and one from across North America. A total of six studies were based on samples from Sweden. Other European countries were also represented with one (Belgium, Denmark, Norway, UK) or two (Finland) studies. China and Taiwan were represented with one study each, as was Australia.

Exemplar study. Based on a context of adjustment to parenthood and return to paid employment, Bouchard and Poirier (2011) sampled couples expecting their first child. The objective of the study was to examine the relationship between neuroticism and well-being of employed new parents as explained by their level of work-family conflict. The data collection was timed purposively. Specifically, the first data collection was conducted prenatal (during the third trimester of a first pregnancy) and the second data collection was conducted postnatal (9 months postpartum). Psychological distress as an outcome was measured at both Time 1 and

Time 2, but work-family conflict was collected only at postpartum (Time 2). Results indicated that work-family conflict was a mediator of the relationship between neuroticism and change in psychological distress for men but not for women.

Longitudinal

There were a total of 97 longitudinal studies. Results are found in Table 2. The number of waves of data collection ranged from 2 to 26 with 2 waves (n = 57) being the most common. Overall, the mean time lag between data collections (in months) was 13.71. Only 22 studies provided rationale for the time lag selected and 23 were based on a discrete start. Across all studies the most common analytic method was path analyses/SEM (n = 46) and resource-based theories were the most frequently used theory (n = 41).

Within the set of two wave studies, the time between waves ranged from one month to 114 months with 12 months (n = 26) being the most common. Only 12 studies included rationale for the length of time between waves. There were several themes associated with the rationale cited such as trying to reduce common method bias through separation of measures, permitting enough time to allow for observed relationships to unfold, selecting an interval that was practical for the organization, and trying to guard against attrition. Few studies were based on timing data collecting with a discrete starting event (n = 2). However, most studies did assess change in the work-family variable of interest (n = 53). The most common analytic approach was path/SEM. Resource-based was the most common theoretical approach.

Within the set of three wave studies, the time between waves ranged from one week to 96 months, with six months (n = 16) being most common, followed by 12 months (n = 7). Eight of the studies had waves of varying time lags (e.g., the time between wave 1 and wave 2 was 6 months and the lag between wave 2 and wave 3 was 9 months). Only six studies reported

rationale for the selected lags. Rationale cited previous empirical work or logic that suggested how much change might be expected in variables over time.

Additional study features. The number of longitudinal work-family studies published has greatly escalated in the past decade. The first longitudinal study was published in 1989. Five longitudinal studies appeared in the published literature in the 1990s. From 2000 through 2009, 22 longitudinal studies were published. The remaining 69 studies were all published since 2011, with 17 in 2016 alone. Longitudinal research has also come from across the globe. The majority of studies are from the U.S. (n = 29) and from other Anglo countries (Australia = 7, Canada = 4, New Zealand = 1, UK = 2). Several countries in Europe have contributed a substantial number of studies (Netherlands = 11, Finland = 9, Norway = 7, Germany = 6). Other European countries were also represented with one (Belgium, France, Portugal, Spain) or two (Sweden) or three (Switzerland) studies. A total of six studies were based on samples from Eastern Asian countries (e.g., China) and one additional study cam from Israel. Four studies were based on samples that came from multiple countries.

Exemplar study. As an exemplar of well-crafted longitudinal research, we elaborate upon Matthews, Wayne, and Ford (2014). The objective of Matthews et al. (2014) was to examine competing theoretical predictions (conservation of resources vs adaption theory) concerning the relationship between work-family conflict and subjective well-being. Their paper includes a thoughtful discussion of issues related to selection of time lags and an intentional use of different time lags derived from the theories tested. Data were collected over four measurement occasions. Their findings indicate that the sign of the relationship between work-family conflict and well-being changed across time from negative in the short-term to positive, providing evidence for adaptation theory over that of stress reaction theories.

ESM

Results are found in Table 3. Of the 37 studies coded, 30 were interval-contingent, three were event-contingent, and four were signal-content.

Interval-contingent. Schedules could be based on clock time (e.g., at 10:00 each day) or refer to a period of time (e.g., each morning upon waking). As shown in Table 3, the number of within day responses ranged from one to five, with the majority of studies (n = 16) based on a single daily response. For single daily responses, providing an end of day report was most common. The next most common number of within day responses was three (n = 7). These studies typically ask participants to provide reports on different variables in the morning (e.g., sleep from the night before), after work (e.g., family interference with work), and at the end of the day (e.g., work interference with family). The number of days observed ranged from four to 35, with five (n = 10) and 10 (n = 9) days being the most common, representing one or two weeks respectively. The most common analytic approach was HLM (n = 24). Consistent with longitudinal and lagged findings, most studies relied on resource-based theories (n = 12) or event-based theories (n = 9) for hypothesis rationale.

Event-contingent. Two of the studies were based on when a work-family conflict occurred. Both of these studies took place over a 28-day period. The analytic approach was qualitative. The third study was based on receiving work-related communication after work and took place over a 7-day period. The analytic approach was multilevel path analysis. One study was grounded in boundary theory, one was based on self-regulation and social construction of gender theory, and the third did not reference theory.

Signal contingent. The four signal-based studies in our review were all based on random signaling, and three of the four were among the earliest work-family ESM studies (conducted

between 1994 and 1998). With regard to number of within-day observations, two studies were based on signals sent six times a day and two were based on signals sent out eight times a day. All four studies were conducted across seven days. With regard to analytic approach, two used pooled time series, one reported descriptive statistics only, and one used HLM. Two studies used control theory as their theoretical basis, one used boundary theory, and the fourth did not reference theory.

Additional study features. The number of ESM studies has accelerated across time. Our review indicates that the first study was published in 1994. Three studies appeared in the 1990s, six were published between 2005 and 2009, with the remaining 28 published since 2010. The majority of studies were published with U.S. samples (n = 14). A total of seven studies were based on samples from Eastern Asian countries (e.g., China). Five studies were based on samples from the Netherlands and another five were based on samples from Spain. Other European countries were also represented with one (Germany, Ireland, Italy) or two (UK) studies.

Exemplar study. As an exemplar of an ESM study, we elaborate on Wagner, Barnes, and Scott (2014). The objective of Wagner and colleagues was to examine the spillover of emotional labor during work onto employee well-being after work. Data were collected three times a day over a two-week period. The timing of the daily surveys was meaningfully tied to the type of data collected. Specifically, in the morning participants reported on sleep quantity and sleep quality for the night before, after work they reported on the extent they engaged in emotional labor that day at work, and in prior to bed at night they reported if they experienced work-to-family conflict that evening. Moreover, the timing of daily data collection was connected to the process they were examining, specifically that surface acting (i.e., emotional labor) during the day influences outcomes experienced later in the day such as sleep and work-

to-family conflict. Multilevel modeling was used to examine day-to-day fluctuations in variables while accounting for between-person variance. When examining emotional labor as a predictor, the prior day's outcome variable was included as a control in order to demonstrate how surface acting was associated with an increase or a decrease in the outcome from the day prior.

Discussion and Agenda for Future Research

A consideration of the passage of time is important for understanding issues such as how long does a phenomenon such as work-family conflict last in a steady state, when does work-family conflict begin and end, and what are the trajectories or the ebb and flow of work-family conflict experiences over time. However, our review reveals that few studies are theoretically grounded or methodologically designed in a way that permits such questions to be answered. Even when temporal aspects are included in research design, researchers tend to take a static rather than dynamic approach to the study of work-family conflict. We offer recommendations for the design of future studies followed by a general agenda for future research that can help address these limitations.

Recommendations

As documented in our review, the number of studies that take into account the passage of time through lagged, longitudinal, and ESM designs has substantially increased over the past several decades, with most studies occurring since 2010. Given the exponentially growing literature that uses time-sensitive designs, it is somewhat disheartening that we are not much closer to understanding the theoretical role of time and timing in work-family conflict experiences. Further, the decisions made with regard to time-associated issues (e.g., time between lags, number of times of measurement, etc.) are often arbitrary. When designing such studies choices must be made with regard to theory used, time between lags, the number of

waves of data to be collected, and the timing of the data collection. We elaborate on considerations with regard to each of these issues below. Recommendations are italicized.

Choice of theory. The development of studies designed to test temporal issues begins with choice of theory. Our results indicate that a significant number of studies reviewed were not explicitly grounded in theory. *We suggest that more theory driven approaches based on theories that encompass temporal perspectives is needed to move the work-family field forward.* As highlighted by Mitchell and James (2001), without theory concerning when events occur, when they change, or how quickly they change, the researcher is left with a dilemma. Decisions about when to measure and how frequently to measure variables are left to intuition, chance, convenience, or to tradition. Overall our review suggests that too frequently, longitudinal or lagged design choices in and of themselves are presented as a contribution to the literature with limited thoughtful explanation as to why or how such designs contribute to temporal aspects of theory. Indeed, when longitudinal or lagged designs are rationalized, authors typically cite circumventing common method variance as their primary rationale and contribution. To meaningfully advance our understanding of work-family conflict in the context of time, *development and tests of dynamic propositions grounded in theory is needed.*

One factor that hinders the development of a more dynamic understanding of work-family conflict is that work-family conflict research tends to be more topic driven than theory driven. A theory driven approach to work-family research involves viewing work-family phenomena from the perspective of a particular broad theory and then using that theory to derive and test a range of testable hypotheses consistent with the theory. In contrast, the topic driven approach focuses on a key topic and draws from a variety of theories to make predictions. The topic of interest, such as work-family conflict, is the focal point and the theory is secondary.

We suspect that the topic driven approach contributes to use of theories that have dynamic aspects to them, but are not tested as such, resulting in theory-method misfit. More specifically, there are theories that have been incorporated into work-family research that propose dynamic processes, such as feedback loops (Carver & Scheier, 1990; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012), cumulative processes (Barnett & Hyde, 2011), or resource spirals (Hobfoll, 1989), but our review indicates that few work-family conflict papers explicitly incorporate such temporal considerations into their theorizing, and those that do typically do not explicitly test these dynamics. Our review shows that resource theories were the most commonly invoked theoretical framework. Resource theories are referenced as dynamic, with continuous cycles of depletion and replenishment (Hobfoll, 1989), but this type of process is rarely operationalized in that most research stated as grounded in resource theory treats resources as stable characteristics of the environment. More commonly authors routinely use resource-based theory to buttress hypotheses that link an organizational resource measured at Time 1 with work-family conflict measured at Time 2. Such studies do little to reveal how cycles of resource depletion and replenishment correspond with cycles of work-family conflict. *The dynamic aspects of existing theories used in work-family research should be tested.*

In using existing theory and in developing new theory concerning change in substantive variables of interest such as work-family conflict, *we recommend consideration of the cause of change, the form of change, and the level of change anticipated* (Collins, 2006; Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). With regard to the cause of change, as noted by Ployhart and Vandenberg (2010) most constructs do not change because of time, rather they do so over time. Work-family conflict is no exception. For example, work-family conflict does not increase or decrease because of time but because of a fluctuating mix of demands and resources across work and

family roles. This highlights the need to *identify with greater precision which variables are expected to change, and why, when examining work-family conflict relationships*.

With regard to the form of change, researchers need to first determine if the expected form of change is linear or nonlinear. Most work-family conflict research assumes linear negative or positive change (e.g., there is a positive relationship between work demands and work-family conflict). Nonlinear change could take multiple forms, which include a plateau effect (e.g., work demands and work-family conflict have a positive relationship that weakens across time as individuals habituate to the demands), discontinuous (e.g., there is a rapid acceleration in a parent's work-family conflict following a divorce), or a rotating cycle of increases and decreases (e.g., work-family conflict has a weekly rhythm in which it increases throughout the workweek, decreases each weekend, and increases again during the following workweek). One challenge in developing theory and hypotheses that involve nonlinear change is that similar to many constructs in the organizational sciences, work-family conflict does not have a naturally occurring growth pattern (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). However, we again emphasize that theories exist that can be used to derive nonlinear hypotheses concerning work-family conflict.

Level of change refers to whether or not change is specified for the entire group or if intragroup differences are expected (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). Group mean change assumes that all individuals within the group share the same form of change across time. In contrast, an examination of intragroup change suggests that groups will display different patterns of change. For example, it could be predicted that work-family conflict among parents will decrease across time as children age or it could be predicted that the nature of change in work-family conflict across time differs for fathers versus for mothers.

In this section we have emphasized the use of a clear theoretical model specified a priori to guide research. However, we believe room also exists for inductive theory-building. Thus, *one final recommendation with regard to theory is to include inductive theory building through qualitative research*. This research could be used to develop novel time sensitive theory or to augment existing theory with specific time-relevant predictions. For example, in-depth couple interviews on decision-making could provide clues as to how quickly work-family decisions are made when conflicts arise and how the process of decision-making unfolds over time.

Choice of time between lags. When multiple waves of data are collected the researcher must decide on the length of time between data collections. Most work-family conflict research involves causal hypotheses concerning the predictors and/or the outcomes associated with work-family conflict. However, we typically fail to examine the time elements involved in the presumed causal process. Indeed, our review indicates that study authors provided rationale for the time lag selected for lagged studies only 19% of the time and for longitudinal studies only 23% of the time. To reiterate from the previous section, *theory-driven rationale for time lag length is a necessary prerequisite* if we are to better understand time as a theoretical context for work-family conflict.

There is no single correct temporal lag that can be applied to work-family conflict studies. *The selection of the time lag(s) should be based on the broader question of when events occur, when they change, and how quickly they change* (Dormann & Griffin, 2015). The magnitude of a relationship between variables measured at different points in time is likely to vary depending on the amount of time that has elapsed between measurement points. Moreover, a phenomenon can appear as variable or as stable depending on the time-window within which it is captured (Navarro, Roe, & Artiles, 2015). Some constructs may change quickly while others

may evolve more slowly across time and the failure to detect a relationship could be because a chosen time lag was too short or was too long. For example, as our results show, longitudinal and lagged work-family conflict study designs have covered the span of several months to over a decade. Little change over long time periods has led researchers to conclude work-family conflict is relatively stable (e.g., Kinnunen et al., 2010). Yet, with few longitudinal studies assessing change over one month or less, this seems like a premature conclusion given that short-term fluctuations may be masked. For example, if a partner is required to travel every other week, the partner at home may experience an increase in work-family conflict each time during the period the partner is away and a subsequent decrease (return to baseline) after the partner returns home. A study that collects two data points over a six-month period would miss this type of ebb and flow. Accordingly, *we recommend longitudinal research on a weekly time basis*. Such designs were rare in our review, but could play a key role in determining processes such as accumulation, which may occur more slowly than over the course of one day, but more quickly than the common time lag of six months. *When selecting the appropriate time lag, the researcher must also consider the process under examination*. For example, research intending to link work-family conflict to physiological reactions such as heart rate requires a different temporal window than research intended to link work-family conflict to depression.

Choice of number of measurement occasions. The number of observations to be collected is another key decision that can impact temporal inferences. The vast majority of lagged and longitudinal studies included in our review were based on only two time points. Although two time points can be useful for reducing the likelihood that one is capitalizing on spurious mood effects, they are not useful for meaningfully modeling theoretically-driven temporal processes.

As we described above, work-family conflict may ebb and flow across time. Moreover, theories often used in work-family conflict research (e.g., conservation of resources) suggest resource loss and gain spirals can influence work-family conflict, but without more frequent measurement, conclusions about this type of nonlinear change are prohibited. In fact, the current dominant approaches to analyzing longitudinal data throughout the organizational sciences, growth curve modeling (Kuljanin, Braun, & DeShon, 2011), requires a minimum of three time points per participant to test many kinds of theoretical relationships (Bollen & Curran, 2006; Singer & Willett, 2003). Perhaps not surprisingly, after two, the most common number of time points from our review was three, allowing for more robust temporal analyses, but still limiting the types of inferences that can be drawn about the longitudinal processes under investigation. With three or fewer time points, only simple linear growth can be observed, ignoring higher-order growth trajectories, potential discontinuities, sequential causal chains (i.e., mediation), dynamic change models, as well as more complex cyclical processes (e.g., feedback loops, circadian cycles) that may exist. Given the inherent temporal flow of work-family conflict as well as short-and long-term implications for these processes, it is critical that researchers increasingly adapt more theory-driven and frequent sampling designs to capture more nuanced dynamics. For example, when change is rapid or characterized by many increases and decreases, more frequent observations are needed (Collins, 2006). As noted by Collins, erring on the side of more frequent observation is the prudent choice in designing longitudinal research. More frequent measurement also provides the researcher with the flexibility of basing analyses on a subset of measurement occasions depending on the specific question of interest. *We encourage researchers to* incorporate at least three or more measurement occasions as well as the use of

intensive *longitudinal designs, which allow for modeling processes and analyzing data to capture complex dynamic structures* (Walls & Schafer, 2006).

The area within the work-family domain as well as within the broader organizational sciences for which more frequent measurement occasions are most commonly used is with ESM studies (Braun, Kuljanin, & DeShon, 2013). However, the way in which ESM is currently used within the work-family literature limits the types of inferences that can be drawn. For example, typical work-family ESM studies still emphasize the number of participants (N) over the number of within-person time points (T). Doing so limits the types of statistical approaches that can be applied to the data. Statistical techniques that are designed to capture complex within-person dynamic processes (e.g., vector autoregressive models) use T as the sample size that is critical for statistical power. As such, it is frequently necessary to have at least 30 time points per relationship estimated (Enders, 2004), parameters that are rarely achieved. Consequently, our understanding of within-person dynamics associated with work-family conflict is limited. *We recommend ESM studies that capture data over 30 or more days*.

Our review also demonstrates that the current use of ESM within the work-family context primarily captures few (most often one) time points per day. In addition, the choice of time points tends to be atheoretical, despite existing potential theoretical rationale for time point selection. For example, based on boundary theory we might expect that work-family conflict occurs more frequently during boundary crossing periods of the day (Ashforth et al., 2000; French, 2017). Further, there is little attention to intra-day fluctuations or changes in conflict, stressors, strain, or other affective reactions to work-family dynamics. This lack of day-level modeling also limits understanding of day-to-day dynamics such as how sleep and other daily processes regulate health, wellness, affect, and other reactions to and perceptions of work-family

conflict. Capturing many time periods per day over many days would allow for moving average models (e.g., ARIMA; Enders, 2004) or for discontinuous growth models (e.g., Bliese & Lang, 2016) to investigate the short- and longer-run dynamics present in work-family phenomena. *Thus, we recommend ESM studies be designed that capture multiple time points within each day.*

Choice of timing of measurement. Choice of timing refers to decisions with regard to when in chronological time data collection should occur. In lagged and longitudinal studies there may be discrete events tied to choice of data collection timing. For example, the exact timing of an observation or measurement occasion is particularly important in cases in which a phenomenon is expected to occur at a certain period in time or is intended to capture transition from one state to another (Collins, 2006). Examples include birth of a child (i.e., transition from nonparent to parent), the school year, starting a new job, and pre and post intervention. *The researcher needs to carefully consider when change is expected to occur. Thoughtful timing of data collection at discrete start points or in the midst of historically important points is needed to yield insight into the beginning, ending, and duration of work-family conflict processes.*

Choice of timing in ESM studies concerns decisions with regard to when within a day that data collection should occur (e.g., morning, evening), whether workdays as well as nonwork days should be included, and if specific day of the week matters. ESM studies that use three within-day time points are typically theoretically reflective of three major categories into which standard work days are chunked, measuring attitudes and behaviors before, during, and after work. Authors used these time points to *strategically measure variables relevant for home/work contexts in a way that reduces retrospective bias or confounding of work/home states* (e.g. sleep for previous evening measured in the morning, daily negative affect during the work day is measured directly after work) and we recommend this as a best practice.

Choice of timing in ESM studies is also tied to choice of interval-, signal-, or event-contingent reporting. As our review indicates the vast majority of work-family conflict studies have relied on interval-based reports. *We recommend greater use of signal- and event-contingent designs* as such studies could produce new insights as to when work-family conflicts are likely to occur. Signal-contingent designs are particularly useful for capturing "in the moment" experiences while event-contingent studies afford a focus on particular events of interest (i.e., work-family conflict) (Fisher & To, 2012). Both designs further reduce the likelihood of recall bias. However, both come with challenges as well, especially with regard to capturing work-family conflict. For example, individuals who tend to experience a great degree of work-family conflict may be the most challenged to provide event-contingent reports (i.e., the more conflict, the more reporting and therefore the greater time investment required). Similarly, there could be difficulties with the use of a signal-contingent design when participants are too busy dealing with a conflict to respond. Moreover, some occupations do not lend themselves well to such designs. Surgeons cannot stop in the middle of a surgery to respond to a signal, individuals driving as part of their job cannot stop and respond to a signal, etc. To help address these problems, researchers may also consider the Day Reconstruction Method (DRM) (Kahneman, Krueger, Schkade, Schwarz, & Stone, 2004). DRM involves the systematic reconstruction of sequences of episodes and experiences from the preceding day, designed in a way to reduce recall bias. This method imposes fewer burdens on the participant and does not disrupt events or work tasks as they are occurring.

Finally, *we recommend researchers examine within and across day change in work-family conflict in ESM studies*. Our review indicates that only two studies of the 36 ESM studies reviewed assessed changed in work-family conflict. When studies measure phenomena multiple

times per day, the measures themselves are typically lagged (work-family conflict mostly measured before bed and sometimes after work). Thus, the opportunity to examine short-term changes in work-family conflict is squandered.

Future Research

In addition to the theory and research design issues and recommendations discussed above, we provide suggestions for future research in three key areas. Specifically we highlight underused theories that encompass a temporal perspective, the use of episodic assessment of work-family conflict, and research on subjective time perceptions.

Theory considerations. In our recommendations, we mention the importance of better use of existing theories to derive temporally sensitive research questions. Two under-utilized theories that may be helpful in shaping methodological decisions and hypothesis development regarding time and change in work-family research include the allostatic load model and life course theory. The allostatic load model is a theory from the physiological stress literature that has recently gained popularity in the organizational sciences (McEwen & Seeman, 1999). The allostatic load model is an event-based theory, which suggests individuals have acute emotional, behavioral, and physiological reactions to stressors, occurring over the course of seconds to minutes. As stressor events accumulate throughout days, weeks, and months, strain reactions may accumulate and change more stable indicators of strain (e.g., elevated resting blood pressure, depressive symptoms). Without remedy, strain accumulation may facilitate long-term disease and illness (e.g., cardiovascular disease, depression). This model can be applied to understanding both the relationship between acute work-family conflict and work-family conflict accumulation over time. Its propositions suggest several testable time points are important to capture (minutes, hours, days, months, years). Further, the allostatic load model suggests acute

reactions may fade within minutes or hours, unless work-family conflicts are nestled among with a host of additional accumulating stressors. Longitudinal assessment over the course of days, weeks, or months is imperative in order to capture such fluctuations.

The life course perspective (e.g., Moen & Sweet, 2004) is a theoretical lens that can be applied to understand longer-term time considerations in work-family research. The life course perspective considers historical time (the consideration of the significance of time in which someone lives for understanding experience), biographical time (life paths of individuals as they age), and social time (socially constructed temporal rules that define possible transitions). Work and family experiences such as vulnerability to work-family conflict are likely to change throughout the life course. Interestingly, very few longitudinal or lagged studies were timed based on life course events (e.g., birth of first child, job transitions, death of a loved one). As noted earlier, these types of events may produce discontinuous change. Moreover, life role priorities shift across time and family circumstances. For example, variables such as children are commonly examined as moderators of work-family relationships versus as triggers of change in work-family experiences. Life course theory can also be used to examine how planning for the future impacts how work and family are managed today. For example, a young, childless couple may focus primarily on work and leisure in anticipation that their focus will shift toward family after the arrival of children.

A more nuanced consideration of time across the life course may also enable a better understanding of gender differences in work-family conflict. As noted by Allen and Finkelstein (2014), different family tasks that occur across the life span may be more likely to be assumed by one gender versus the other resulting in gender differences in work–family conflict that would be masked without considering family stage at a given point in time. For example, they found men

reported more work interference with family than did women when the youngest child in the home was a teen. Tracking work-family experiences across time as associated with family development would yield better insight into work-family dynamics, permitting a better understanding of change over time.

Episodic measurement of WFC. Another way to better understand change in work-family conflict is to consider episodic approaches. The vast majority of research investigating individual work-family experiences is based on what has been referred to as the chronic or levels approach (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). Such studies often rely on survey items based on strongly agree to strongly disagree response anchors. Moreover, participant responses are typically provided without a time period specified and are often based on cross-sectional design, which assumes constructs are relatively stable. In ESM studies, existing measures are often adapted for the daily context by referencing the day as the temporal period of interest (e.g., "Today my work has taken up time that I would have liked to spend with family/friends.") with response options based on Likert-type agree-disagree scales (e.g., Ilies et al., 2007).

In recent years, researchers have begun to the supplement chronic or levels approach with examination of work-family conflict episodes. Episodic approaches differ from traditional WFC conflict measurements in that they capture the occurrence of discrete episodes of work-family conflict rather than average daily level or average nonspecific temporal level of work-family conflict. In episodic studies, specific situations in which work and family conflict with one another are captured (Shockley & Allen, 2013; Shockley & Allen, 2015). The episodic approach is conducive to multiple measurements across time and facilitates the examination of the occurrence of work-family conflict with change in other variables of interest (Maertz & Boyar,

2011; Shockley & Allen, 2013). A small number of the ESM studies we reviewed (n = 6) employed an episodic approach to the measurement of work-family conflict.

Episodic measurement is a valuable contribution toward a more dynamic perspective of work-family conflict in that it permits work-family conflicts to be placed in the context of objective time, potentially capturing the timing, duration, or frequency of episodes. Episodic measures typically ask participants to identify and describe episodes when they occur (e.g., Radcliffe & Cassell, 2015; Shockley & Allen, 2013), or identify and describe episodes using a checklist (French, 2017). To date, this small body of research has yielded insights into acute reactions to work-family conflict (French, 2017; Shockley & Allen, 2013), work-family decision-making (Radcliffe & Cassell, 2015; Shockley & Allen, 2015), and the timing of work-family conflicts throughout days and weeks (French, 2017).

The episodic approach can also be useful toward developing a better understanding of how prior work-family experiences predict future work-family experiences (Shockley & Allen, 2015). Moreover, pairing work-family episodes of conflict along with physiological data captured via ambulatory devices may enable us to chart trajectories that indicate overload, recovery, and/or equilibrium. Further research based on such designs has the potential to greatly advance our grasp of how work and family conflicts unfold in real time.

Perceptions of time. Our review focused on research designs that incorporate a temporal element, thereby focusing on the passage of time in work-family conflict research. Time can be considered not only in terms of theory and design, but also as a focal construct that can vary within and between persons. Accordingly, we suggest research is needed that focuses on how people think about and perceive time. Although the perception of time scarcity has long been associated with multiple role engagement (Goode, 1960) and much has been written about the

"time famine" associated with modern life (e.g., Perlow, 1999), research that links time perception constructs to work-family conflict is scarce. This is perhaps surprising, given the colloquial nature of discussing work-family issues in the context of time (e.g., "time flies," reflections on not having "enough" time, focusing on work now for family security in the future). The lack of focus on subjective time may be due to limited theoretical consideration of subjective time in major theories often used for work-family research.

Although objective time is the same for everyone, time perception is a subjective experience. Polls estimate that 48% of Americans say that they do not have enough time. The percentage climbs to 61% among working adults who have children younger than 18 (Newport, 2015). This is important in that the experience of a time shortage can take a toll on health and wellbeing (Carroll, 2008). However, research shows that perceptions of time availability can be altered (Rudd, Vohs, & Aakers, 2012). For example, individuals who experienced awe perceived that they had more time available (Rudd et al., 2012). There is also evidence that present-focused awareness can shift time perceptions. Kramer, Weger, and Sharma (2013) examined changes in state mindfulness and compared reports of time duration across participants who engaged in a 10-minute mindfulness meditation versus participants who listened to a 10-minute audio excerpt of *The Hobbit*. Those in the meditation condition reported the duration of the stimulus activity as longer than did those in the audiobook condition. In additional, several studies indicate a link between trait mindfulness and reports of time affluence (Kasser & Sheldon, 2009; LaJeunesse & Rodriguez, 2012). This is important in that mindfulness-based interventions may be used to help individuals reduce work-family conflict (Kiburz, Allen, & French, 2017).

Time perception plays a pivotal role in the selection and pursuit of social goals, motivation, and behavior (Cartensen, 2006) and thus may guide work and family decision-

making. Perceived time scarcity creates a mindset that prompts individuals to engage in behaviors that help manage scarcity in the short term, but may not be beneficial for the long term. For example, a working parent feeling pressed for time with regard to work demands may sacrifice her regular yoga class to answer more emails, only to find herself having difficulty completing tasks the following day due to resentment and a lack of energy. Chronic perceptions of time scarcity may result in a focus on the work or on the family role with the most immediate demands, resulting in neglect of the other role. These decisions may also be influenced by temporal depth.

Temporal depth refers to the temporal distances individuals use when contemplating past events or plans for the future (Bluedorn & Ferris, 2004). A shallow temporal depth indicates a focus on the more immediate past and/or future while deep temporal depth encompasses a longer time horizon. Greater past temporal depth is associated with a preference for work at a slower pace and less flexibility (Bluedorn & Martin, 2008). There is some evidence to suggest that individuals with a deeper future temporal depth report less general life stress (Bluedorn & Martin, 2008). Given known relationships between work-family conflict and strain, this may provide some evidence that deeper future temporal depth may be associated with less work-family conflict. Having a deeper temporal depth may also enable individuals to place episodes of work-family conflict in a broader context, making any one episode seem less significant.

A final suggestion for future research with regard to time perception is to examine time orientation as a cultural variable. Our review demonstrates that work-family studies that incorporate time into their design come from a variety of cultural contexts. This brings to the fore the need for an examination of how cultural differences associated with temporal perspective/focus relates to work-family relationships. As individuals differ in the perception of

time, cultures also vary and time perception variables are part of several frameworks used to capture culture at the country level. For example, the GLOBE study includes time orientation, which is defined as the degree that a society values future-oriented behaviors such as planning and delaying gratification (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Similarly, Hofestede (1991) noted that cultures differ in terms of their long-term versus short-term orientation with long-term cultures more future focused and short-term orientation cultures more focused on the present or past. Research that maps individual and cultural differences in time perspective can be used to help understand the strategies individuals use to help manage work and family over short and long term time horizons.

Conclusion

Our review documents aspects of time in relation to work-family conflict research. We know that time is individually and subjectively interpreted. What we do not have a good understanding of is how these factors influence work-family conflict, how these phenomena unfold over short and long periods of time, how many time points are necessary to best capture their dynamic nature, or what theories, time lags, and time frames are most useful in addressing these questions. We hope the current review helps researchers chart new courses of research that incorporate a consideration of the passage of time.

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Table 1

Work-Family Conflict Lagged Studies (k = 36)

		Number of Waves			
Study Feature	Total	2	3	4	8
Number of Studies	36	25	9	1	1
Time lag length in months					
Mean	25.35	33.99	11.95	12.00	30.86
Mode	12	12	6	12	24
1 or less	5	2	3	0	0
1.25-5	4	2	2	0	0
6-11	12	3	9	0	0
12-23	12	8	0	3	1
24-71	14	6	2	0	6
72-143	3	3	0	0	0
144 or more	1	1	0	0	0
Differed across lags	3	NA	2	0	1
Not Reported	2	0	2	0	0
Rationale for lag	7	5	2	0	0
Number with discrete start	5	3	1	0	1
Analytic Approach[1]					
Regression	21	18	3	0	0
Path analysis/SEM	12	6	5	1	0
MANOVA/ANOVA	3	2	0	0	1
HLM	6	6	0	0	0
Profile analysis	0	0	0	0	0
Growth modeling	1	0	1	0	0
Theoretical Framework[1]					
Resource-based	12	4	7	1	0
Boundary	1	1	0	0	0
Event-based	1	1	0	0	0
Self-regulation	0	0	0	0	0
Stressor-strain	3	2	1	0	0
Role and interrole	3	2	1	0	0
Other	12	11	0	0	1
None	8	7	0	0	1

[1]Responses can sum to greater than the total as a single study could fall into multiple categories.

Table 2

Longitudinal Studies (k = 97)

		Number of Waves							
Study Feature	Total	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	26
Number of Studies	97	57	26	4	4	1	1	2	2
Time lag length in months									
Mean	13.71	18.02	10.63	9.67	11.69	3.60	12.00	10.41	0.25
Mode	0.25	12	6	4, 8, 24	6	6	12	.25	0.25
< 1	59	0	2	0	0	0	0	7	50
1	9	5	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
1.25-5	29	7	13	3	0	3	0	3	0
6-11	45	6	20	4	11	2	0	2	0
12-23	41	26	7	0	1	0	6	1	0
24-71	14	9	2	3	4	0	0	0	0
72-143	8	4	2	0	0	0	0	2	0
144 or more	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Event-based	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Differed across lags	14	0	8	1	3	1	0	1	0
Not Reported	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Rationale for lag	22	12	6	1	1	0	0	0	2
Number with discrete start	23	2	11	3	4	1	0	2	0
Analytic Approach									
Regression/correlation	35	21	9	2	1	1	0	1	0
Path analysis/SEM	46	33	11	1	1	0	0	0	0
MANOVA/ANOVA	6	0	5	0	0	0	0	1	0
Multi-level modeling	5	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
Profile analysis	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Growth modeling	5	0	2	1	2	0	0	0	0
Other	3	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Assessed change	86	53	25	2	2	1	1	1	1
Theoretical Framework									
Resource-based	41	25	12	1	1	0	0	1	1
Boundary	5	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Event-based	8	6	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Self-regulation	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Stressor-strain	16	10	4	1	0	1	0	0	0
Role and interrole	6	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
Other	25	14	7	1	2	0	1	0	0
None	21	12	5	2	1	0	0	1	0

Responses can sum to greater than the total as a single study could fall into multiple categories.

Table 3

Work-Family Conflict ESM Studies (k = 37)

Study Feature	Total	Interval	Event	Signal
Number of Studies	37	30	3	4
Number of within-day observations				
Mean	2.43	1.87	1.00[a]	7.00
1	17	16	1	0
2	5	5	0	0
3	7	7	0	0
4	1	1	0	0
5	1	1	0	0
6	2	0	0	2
8	2	0	0	2
Varied	2	0	2	0
Timing of within-day observations				
Upon waking/morning	12	12	0	0
Lunch/afternoon	5	5	0	0
After work	12	12	0	0
Before bed	23	23	0	0
Other	9	2	3	4
Number of days observed				
Mean	9.54	9.03	21.00	7.00
4	2	2	0	0
5	10	10	0	0
6	1	1	0	0
7	6	1	1	4
8	1	1	0	0
10	9	9	0	0
14	2	2	0	0
15	2	2	0	0
28	2	0	2	0
35	1	1	0	0
Analytic Approach				
HLM	25	24	0	1
ML Path analysis/SEM	3	2	1	0
Qualitative	3	1	2	0
Other	7	4	0	3
Assessed change in WFC	2	2	0	0
Theoretical Framework				
Resource-based	12	12	0	0
Boundary	5	4	0	1
Event-based	8	7	1	0
Self-regulation	6	4	0	2
Stressor-strain	3	3	0	0
Role and interrole	3	3	0	0
Other	9	9	0	0
None	4	1	2	1

Responses can sum to greater than the total as a single study could fall into multiple categories.
[a]based on nonvariable daily responses.

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