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Boundaries for career success? How work–home integration and perceived supervisor expectation affect careers

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Abstract

The necessity to actively manage the work–home boundaries has drastically increased. We postulate that work–home integration may affect individuals' subjective career success via its positive effects on work goal attainment and exhaustion. Furthermore, we study perceived supervisor expectation for employee work–home integration as a boundary condition. Our three-wave online survey with 371 employees showed support for the two hypothesized moderated mediation effects. Work–home integration preference is indirectly related to subjective career success: (1) positively via home-to-work transitions and work goal attainment and (2) negatively via home-to-work transitions and exhaustion. Perceived supervisor expectation constrained work–home integration preference's direct effect on home-to-work transitions and indirect effects on subjective career success. Exploratory analysis revealed that exhaustion negatively affected all career success dimensions, whereas work goal attainment was only related to some. Our results indicate that supervisor expectation can override the effect of employee's work–home integration preference on home-to-work transitions which have a double-edged sword effect on subjective career success. Our study contributes to integrating the careers and work–life interface literature and incorporating contextual factors. Furthermore, with the exploration of differential effects on subjective career success, we advance our understanding of this outcome's nomological network.

Practitioner points

- This study shows that work–home integration acts as a double-edged sword for employees' subjective career success by enhancing employees' work goal attainment while at the same time impairing well-being.
- Organizations should be aware of the potential negative side effects of work–home integration and establish a culture in which employees who prefer to segment work and other life domains are enabled to establish strong boundaries.
- When employees perceive that their supervisor expects them to integrate work and home, they might put aside their own preferences and deal more frequently with work-related matters in their free time as they would like to.
- To prevent negative effects on employees' well-being, supervisors should thus refrain from communicating high expectations regarding the integration of work and private life.

BACKGROUND

In the past decades, the necessity to actively manage the boundaries between work and home has drastically increased (Allen et al., 2014). The recent COVID-19 pandemic is a culmination of this trend (Allen et al., 2021; Cho, 2020). Accordingly, boundary management (i.e., one's choices regarding the integration or segmentation of different spheres of life) has received much research attention, with its primary focus being on immediate outcomes for individuals' well-being and performance (Allen et al., 2021; Methot & LePine, 2016; Nsair & Piszczek, 2021; Park et al., 2011). However, career-related outcomes of boundary management are understudied. In this study, we investigate work–home integration as a boundary management strategy and its effect on subjective career success. This outcome has increasing relevance against the backdrop of employees' stronger desire for more self-directed and variable career paths (Hall, 2004; Shockley et al., 2016).

We shed light on the relationship between work–home integration and subjective career success and generate the first evidence on the mechanisms underlying this relationship. Thereby, we follow the call to more strongly integrate work–home and career research (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Hirschi et al., 2016) and improve our understanding of the processes resulting in a subjectively successful career. Specifically, we propose that work–home integration acts as a double-edged sword for subjective career success by enhancing the attainment of work goals while also impairing well-being. In so doing, we paint a more nuanced picture of the potential positive and negative consequences of work–home integration for individuals' careers.

In line with boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000), we shed light on two aspects of work–home integration: the *preference* for flexible and permeable boundaries between work and home and the *enactment* of this preference, that is, home-to-work transitions (e.g., answering work-related emails at home during non-work hours). Moreover, we investigate the role of the supervisor in this process. Boundary theory suggests that work–home integration preferences interact with contextual factors such as social norms conveyed by the supervisors when it comes to home-to-work transitions. However, empirical research has largely ignored these interactive effects (for an exception, see Capitano & Greenhaus, 2018). We build on this work and examine how supervisors' expectation regarding employee work–home integration moderates the relationship between work–home integration preference and home-to-work transitions, thereby

shaping the process linking work–home integration with subjective career success. Figure 1 shows our research model.

Our study makes three important contributions to the literature. First, by investigating work–home integration as a determinant of subjective career success, we contribute to integrating career and work–home research (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014) and explore the work–home interface as an understudied antecedent of career success (Spurk et al., 2019). Understanding the career implications of the work–home integration preference will allow us to derive boundary conditions that attenuate impairing effects and boost enhancing effects (see Muller et al., 2005). Second, by looking at perceived supervisor expectation as a moderator in the process that links work–home integration preference with subjective career success, we contribute to investigating interactive effects between individual preferences and contextual factors in the study of boundary management. Importantly, supervisors are amongst the most relevant reference groups of the employee within the organization (Grote & Hall, 2013). By studying their impact, we further advance attempts to bring contextual factors into researching individuals' careers (Forrier et al., 2018; Mayrhofer et al., 2007). Finally, we advance the careers literature by exploring the differential effects of work–home integration on multiple dimensions of subjective career success. Subjective career success has primarily been operationalized as career satisfaction. However, subjective career success entails more than being satisfied with one's career (Dries et al., 2008; Heslin, 2005). We address this issue by using a comprehensive measure of subjective career success which accounts for the multi-faceted nature of the construct and differentiates between eight success dimensions (Shockley et al., 2016): recognition, quality work, meaningful work, influence, authenticity, personal life, growth and development, and satisfaction. Responding to calls to examine the individual dimensions of the measure by Smale et al. (2019), we help to investigate the nomological network of subjective career success and whether the effect of work–home integration on subjective career success is consistent across these eight dimensions of success. With this, we build on previous research (Haenggli & Hirschi, 2020; Lehtonen et al., 2022) that investigated the relevance of career resources for the dimensions of subjective career success and their consequences, respectively.

Our study also provides practical contributions for both employees and leaders. The COVID-19 pandemic has made the need to manage one's boundaries salient for many employees working from home during the COVID-19 pandemic. Importantly, employees can control their work–home boundaries, at least to a certain degree. Our study results provide insights to employees on how to improve positive career outcomes, that is, subjective career success, by actively managing work–home boundaries. Our study will also provide helpful recommendations to leaders who are important role models for their employees and can act as mentors for their career development (Sun et al., 2014). With hybrid work settings being on the rise in many industries and occupations, leaders need to develop and communicate their expectations regarding employees' work–home integration. The results illustrate how these expectations may shape employees' boundary management behaviour and, consequently, their work goal attainment, well-being, and careers. In the following, we provide more detail on the rationale for our research model and the specific hypotheses we tested in our study.
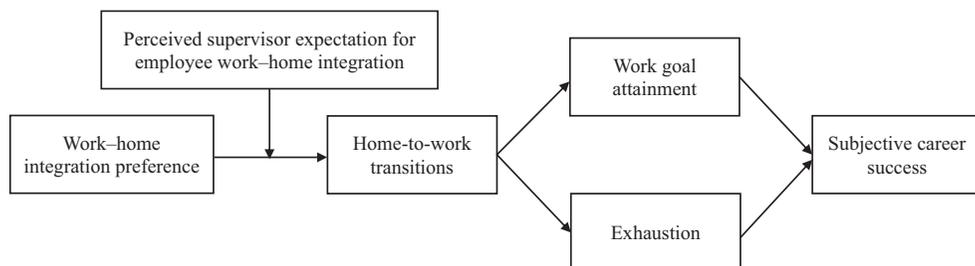

FIGURE 1 Research model

Work–home integration: preferences and home-to-work transitions

Boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000) posits that people's preference for managing the boundary between work and home domains ranges from integration to segmentation. Individuals with a work–home integration preference wish to keep flexible and permeable boundaries between the work and home. In contrast, individuals with a segmentation preference want these boundaries to be strong and impermeable. One's work–home integration preference is not the same as the integration enactment, representing the extent to which employees integrate work and home domain (Allen et al., 2014, p. 106). An integral part of the integration enactment is the frequency of transitions across cognitive, physical and behavioural boundaries between work and home "where one exits and enters roles by surmounting boundaries" (Ashforth et al., 2000, p. 472). It constitutes a cross-domain transition when an individual is engaged in one role and switches to a different role in another domain. Our study focuses on home-to-work transitions, which capture individuals' transitions to the work domain while at home (Matthews et al., 2010) such as answering work-related emails during one's free time at home. Because flexible and permeable boundaries facilitate cross-domain transitions (Ashforth et al., 2000; Matthews et al., 2010), individuals with a work–home integration preference should engage in home-to-work transitions more frequently.

Hypothesis 1 *Work–home integration preference is positively related to home-to-work transitions.*

Boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000) suggests that the work context can shape individuals' boundaries and cross-domain transitions by creating a *strong situation*. In a strong situation, the effect of individual preferences on behaviour diminishes because there is a social consensus about which behaviour is appropriate and expected (Mischel, 1977). Our study focuses on the supervisor. As important authorities and role models, supervisors can influence employees' behaviours (Derks et al., 2015; Dietz et al., 2020) and provide a norm for adequate boundary management behaviour. In this way, they may create a strong situation and affect employees' work–home integration (Capitano & Greenhaus, 2018; Koch & Binnewies, 2015). Irrespective of their preference, employees who perceive the social norm to engage in home-to-work transitions conveyed by their supervisor will aim to comply with this norm to avoid punishment (Cialdini & Trost, 1998). Eventually, this strong situation overrides the effect of one's work–home integration preference. Hence, the positive effect of work–home integration preference on home-to-work transitions should be weaker when employees perceive a high level of supervisor expectation regarding their work–home integration.

Hypothesis 2 *Perceived supervisor expectation regarding employees' work–home integration moderates the relationship between work–home integration preference and home-to-work transitions; the effect is weaker when perceived supervisor expectation for integration is high (vs. low).*

Linking work–home integration to subjective career success

Drawing from the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), we hypothesize that home-to-work transitions act as a double-edged sword for subjective career success through their effect on work goal attainment and well-being. A central assumption of the conservation of resources theory is that individuals aim to obtain, retain and protect resources because they are instrumental for goal attainment and facilitate the achievement of valued ends. Similarly, Hirschi et al. (2019) assert that allocating and activating resources are key action strategies that help individuals attain their goals in the work and home domains. Resources are "anything perceived by the individual to help attain his or her goals" (Halbesleben et al., 2014, p. 1338). Some of the resources an individual possesses are limited and finite (e.g., time, attention, energy), which means that once they are used, they are no longer available (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). When individuals engage in home-to-work transitions, such as answering work-related emails after work, they re-allocate these limited personal resources from pursuing private goals to

pursuing work goals. Because personal resources facilitate goal attainment, employees who engage in home-to-work transitions more frequently should be more successful in attaining their work goals (Hunter et al., 2019). For instance, imagine an employee working on an important project. When this employee answers work-related emails in their free time at home, they re-allocate personal resources such as time and cognitive energy to a work-related goal. Consequently, the employee should be more successful in attaining their work-related goal of finishing the project within a given deadline.

Hypothesis 3 *Home-to-work transitions are positively related to work goal attainment.*

On the flipside, home-to-work transitions may undermine employees' well-being. The effort-recovery model (Meijman & Mulder, 1998) proposes that the expenditure of resources at work requires restoring one's capacities after work to prevent negative effects on well-being. When employees invest personal resources in pursuing work goals while at home, they will have fewer possibilities to restore their capacities and gain new resources. Additionally, the work demands encountered at home continue to cause strain before the body functions get back to the baseline level (Meijman & Mulder, 1998), which may impair well-being. Previous studies have supported this notion by showing that work–home integration can undermine detachment from work and result in a higher level of exhaustion (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015; Wepfer et al., 2018). Therefore, we expect that frequently engaging in home-to-work transitions results in a higher level of exhaustion. Exhaustion is defined "as a consequence of intensive physical, affective and cognitive strain" (Demerouti et al., 2010, p. 210).

Hypothesis 4 *Home-to-work transitions are positively related to exhaustion.*

How individuals achieve a high level of subjective career success is one of the most frequently addressed questions in career research; subjective career success has even been labelled as *the ultimate* career outcome (Hirschi et al., 2020; Spurk et al., 2019). We propose that both work goal attainment and exhaustion are antecedents of subjective career success, defined as an individual's "evaluation and experience of achieving personally meaningful career outcomes" (Spurk et al., 2019, p. 36), with a career being "the individually perceived sequence of attitudes and behaviors associated with work-related experiences and activities over the span of the person's life" (Hall, 2001, p. 12). On the one hand, we argue that work goal attainment is positively related to subjective goal success. Work goals can be part of goal hierarchies, with career goals operating at the higher level and career anchors operating at the highest level of this hierarchy (see Carver & Scheier, 1990; Schein, 1996). The attainment of smaller work goals (e.g., meeting project deliverables, learning new skills) increases the likelihood of achieving bigger, personally meaningful career goals (e.g., a promotion). This should ultimately relate to higher subjective career success (Heslin, 2005). Importantly, work goals might be assigned by the employer, set in a participative manner, or self-set (Erez, 2015). Achieving goals assigned by the employer or set in a participative manner is essential for job performance (Motowidlo & Kell, 2013). It means meeting the standards defined in the job description and providing high-quality work—central determinants of subjective career success (Shockley et al., 2016). Attaining self-set work goals is part of one's career self-management (Greenhaus et al., 2010). It might already involve achieving career goals, which should be positively related to subjective career success.

Moreover, goals are "valued or desirable outcomes" (Latham & Locke, 1991, p. 231). Thus, individuals should generally be more satisfied when they attain their work goals. This satisfaction should improve subjective career success (Hirschi et al., 2020).

Hypothesis 5 *Work goal attainment is positively related to subjective career success.*

On the other hand, we argue that exhaustion is negatively related to subjective career success. Exhaustion indicates poor psychological well-being (Demerouti et al., 2010). Previously, well-being has mostly been looked at as an outcome rather than an antecedent of career success (Spurk et al., 2019). However, employees will likely also evaluate their exhaustion level when gauging subjective career success. Psychological well-being might be

a relevant non-work goal, and well-being is a highly valued resource (Hobfoll et al., 2018; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Its failed attainment would then feed into poorer ratings of subjective career success (Hirschi et al., 2020). All other things being equal, high levels of exhaustion (i.e., poor well-being) should also increase the personal costs attributed to the achievement of career success, thus, reducing its positive evaluation. When looking at the affective dimension of exhaustion specifically, we assume that experiencing exhaustion will likely prompt an employee to be more receptive to negative information regarding their career (see Schwarz & Clore, 1983), tainting the evaluation of subjective career success. Thus, we propose that employees with high levels of exhaustion experience a lower level of subjective career success.

Hypothesis 6 *Exhaustion is negatively related to subjective career success.*

Taken these assumptions together, our hypothesizing describes two competing mechanisms linking work–home integration to subjective career success: a career-enhancing and a career-impairing path. These hypotheses align with a more contemporary conceptualization of careers that reflect the interface of work and home domain as potentially facilitating or hindering career success (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). On the upside, work–home integration preference should be positively related to home-to-work transitions, improving subjective career success through their positive effect on work goal attainment. On the downside, these transitions should reduce subjective career success by increasing employees' exhaustion. Thus, our research model includes two serial mediations linking work–home integration preference with subjective career success, both attenuated by perceived supervisor expectation regarding employees' work–home integration. Both hypothesized conditional effects are derived from the overarching assumption that supervisors can create a strong situation (Mischel, 1977), overriding the effect of an employee's personal work–home integration preference with consequences for home-to-work-transitions, work goal attainment, exhaustion, and subjective career success.

Hypothesis 7 *There is a positive indirect effect of work–home integration preference on subjective career success through home-to-work transitions and work goal attainment, which is moderated by perceived supervisor expectation; the indirect effect is weaker when perceived supervisor expectation for integration is high (vs. low).*

Hypothesis 8 *There is a negative indirect effect of work–home integration preference on subjective career success through home-to-work transitions and exhaustion, which is moderated by perceived supervisor expectation; the indirect effect is weaker when perceived supervisor expectation for integration is high (vs. low).*

Subjective career success as a multi-dimensional construct

So far, researchers have mainly operationalized subjective career success as a unidimensional construct. For example, Greenhaus et al.' (1990) frequently used career-satisfaction scale measures individuals' satisfaction with their career progress (e.g., "I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income"). Against the backdrop of increasingly diverse career patterns, researchers have called for more comprehensive conceptualizations of subjective career success that reflect the multi-dimensional nature of the construct (Dries et al., 2008; Heslin, 2005). In response to these calls, Shockley et al. (2016) developed a multi-dimensional approach to capturing subjective career success "that extends beyond satisfaction and represents meaningful dimensions of success in the modern career landscape" (p. 134). The authors identified eight dimensions of subjective career success (e.g., recognition, authenticity).

We adopt Shockley et al.'s (2016) approach to consider the various aspects that constitute a successful career in today's world of work and account for the multi-dimensional nature of subjective career success, shedding light on the differential effects of work–home integration on the eight dimensions of subjective career success. Because few studies use a multi-dimensional conceptualization of subjective career success, research on determinants of different success dimensions is virtually non-existent (for an exception, see Haenggli & Hirschi, 2020). Therefore, we refrain from formulating hypotheses and take an exploratory approach:

Research Question: Are the effects of work goal attainment and exhaustion on subjective career success and the indirect effects of work–home integration preference on subjective career success consistent across different dimensions of success?

METHOD

Procedure

We conducted a three-wave online survey with a time lag of 4 weeks between each measurement point to test our research model. Collecting our data at multiple measurement points helped reduce common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The data were collected in May and June 2019 (i.e., before the COVID-19 pandemic). We used the online panel *Prolific Academic* for sample recruitment, enabling us to test our research model in a diverse sample and enhance the generalizability of our results. Compared to other crowdsourcing platforms, *Prolific Academic* offers an exceptionally high sample diversity in combination with solid response rates and data quality (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Peer et al., 2017). Walter et al. (2019) found that samples accessed via commercial online providers yield results that have "similar psychometric properties and produce[…] criterion validities that generally fall within the credibility intervals of existing meta-analytic results from conventionally sourced data" (p. 425). To screen the panel, we defined several criteria for participation. Participants had to be between 18 and 65 years old, live in the UK, speak English fluently, and work at least 21 hr/week. We also required them to have a minimum amount of spatial and temporal flexibility in their job. Therefore, we included only participants who indicated that in their current job, they generally could work in their free time.

At T1, we measured work–home integration preference and perceived supervisor expectation regarding employees' work–home integration. Moreover, participants indicated the work goals they currently pursue. At T2, we assessed home-to-work transitions, work goal attainment, and exhaustion. At T3, we measured subjective career success. We included an attention-check item in each survey to ensure high data quality (see Cheung et al., 2017; Peer et al., 2017). If participants did not pass the item, we excluded them from our analyses. Participants received £2 for each questionnaire and a bonus of £3 if they completed all three questionnaires.

Sample

In total, 454 participants met the requirements for study participation and filled in the first survey. Our final analysis sample included 371 participants who filled in all three surveys completely and passed our attention check in each of the three surveys, corresponding to 81.7% of those who had filled in the first survey. The participants in our analysis sample were, on average, 34.94 years old ($SD = 9.62$), and 59.1% of them were female. They worked in various industries (e.g., education, IT, construction) and occupations (e.g., teacher, project manager, marketing manager, engineer, graphic designer). They worked on average 36.44 hr/week ($SD = 5.74$), and 85.4% were employed full-time. The participants spent most of their working hours at the workplace: On average, they worked 67.7% of the time on-site, 23.7% at home, 3.9% on the move, 2.3% at customers, and 2.4% at other locations.

Measures

If not indicated otherwise, all items were answered on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). To ensure the validity of the respective scales, in the instructions, we explained that the statements about dealing with work-related issues at home were related to participants' free time as opposed to regularly scheduled telework from home. The Cronbach's alphas of all (sub-)scales were .79

or higher. *Work–home integration preference* was measured at T1 with the 4-item scale by Kreiner (2006). The scale assesses participants' preference to segment their home domain from their work domain (e.g., "I don't like to have to think about work while I'm at home"). Because segmentation and integration are two sides of a continuum (Ashforth et al., 2000; Kreiner, 2006), we recoded the scale such that higher values indicate a preference for work–home integration (see also Gadeyne et al., 2018; Palm et al., 2020; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2016).

We adapted the scale by Matthews et al. (2010) to measure *perceived supervisor expectation* regarding employees' work–home integration at T1. The original scale uses five items to measure home-to-work transitions with a frequency response choice (e.g., "In the past four weeks, how often have you answered work-related emails while at home?"). To assess how strongly the participants perceived their supervisor to expect these transitions, we adapted the beginning of each item as illustrated by following example: "My supervisor expects me to answer work-related emails while at home" and asked participants for their level of agreement.

We measured *home-to-work transitions* at T2 using the five-item scale by Matthews et al. (2010). A sample item is "In the past four weeks, how often have you answered work-related emails while at home?". Participants indicated the frequency on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *very often*).

To assess *work goal attainment*, we followed the procedure described by Judge et al. (2005). At T1, participants listed up to five work goals they currently pursued. On average, participants indicated 2.85 goals (SD = 1.30). These goals focused on, for instance, concrete work tasks or projects (e.g., "Create presentation and workshop for HR meeting"), building up competencies or skills (e.g., "Continue to develop skills and knowledge of WordPress") or career progression (e.g., "To be promoted in my next review in June"). At T2, we listed the work goals the participants had indicated at T1 in their original wording. The participants then answered two items developed by Judge et al. (2005) to measure goal attainment for every work goal they had indicated separately (e.g., "I have made considerable progress toward attaining this goal"). We averaged participants' responses across goals.

We used the respective eight-item subscale of the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (Demerouti et al., 2003) to measure *exhaustion* at T2 (e.g., "There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work").

We used the 24-item scale by Shockley et al. (2016) to assess *subjective career success*. It measures eight dimensions of career success (i.e., recognition, quality work, meaningful work, influence, authenticity, personal life, growth and development and satisfaction) with three items each. A sample item of the Quality Work subscale is "Considering my career as a whole, I am proud of the quality of the work I have produced." We calculated the mean across all items to obtain an overall score for subjective career success and a mean score for each of the eight success dimensions for the exploratory analyses.

Control variables

We considered the following control variables: gender (0 = *female*, 1 = *male*), age in years, and work and home demands. First, although there is mixed evidence about gender differences in career satisfaction, Ng et al. (2005) have shown that males are more successful in attaining indicators of objective career success. Moreover, previous studies have found that females report a lower permeability of the home boundary (Methot & LePine, 2016) and a higher exhaustion level than males (Purvanova & Muros, 2010). Thus, gender might be related to several variables in our study model. Second, with increasing age, employees usually have established a higher level of career success (Ng & Feldman, 2014). Thus, they might be less motivated to invest their personal resources in work-related matters. Finally, individuals with high work and home demands likely experience a higher level of exhaustion. At the same time, individuals with high work demands might engage more frequently in home-to-work transitions to handle their workload. Individuals with high home demands might refrain from investing their personal resources in work-related matters. We measured work demands with the five-item quantitative workload scale (e.g., "How often does your job require you to work very hard?"; Spector & Jex, 1998). The items were answered on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *very often*). We assessed home demands with Peeters et al. (2005), a

three-item scale. A sample item is "How often do you find that you are busy at home?" The items were answered on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *very often*).

To check whether the control variables affected our results, we ran all analyses once with and once without control variables. A comparison of the analyses yielded identical results for all hypothesis tests. We report the results of the analysis without control variables to maximize statistical power and results' interpretability (Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016).

Construct validity

Using the R package *lavaan* (Rosseel, 2012), we conducted confirmatory factor analyses to ensure discriminant validity of our constructs. At T1, we included work–home integration preference and perceived supervisor expectation. The analysis showed that all items loaded significantly on their respective factor. The 2-factor solution ($\chi^2_{(df=26)} = 67.41$, $p < .001$, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .03) fitted significantly better than the 1-factor solution ($\Delta\chi^2_{(\Delta df=1)} = 896.40$, $p < .001$). At T2, we included home-to-work transitions, work goal attainment and exhaustion. The results revealed that all items loaded significantly on their factor, and that the 3-factor solution ($\chi^2_{(df=87)} = 301.04$, $p < .001$, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .07) had a significantly better fit compared to the 1-factor solution ($\Delta\chi^2_{(\Delta df=3)} = 1327.20$, $p < .001$) and the best-fitting 2-factor solution ($\Delta\chi^2_{(\Delta df=2)} = 484.77$, $p < .001$). At T3, we found that a solution including the eight success dimensions and a higher-order factor for subjective career success ($\chi^2_{(df=244)} = 730.19$, $p < .001$, CFI = .91, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .07) fitted the data significantly better than the 1-factor solution ($\Delta\chi^2_{(\Delta df=8)} = 1756.70$, $p < .001$).

RESULTS

Table 1 displays descriptive statistics and correlations for our study variables. We conducted a path analysis with the R package *lavaan* (Rosseel, 2012) to test our research model (see Figure 1). We further modelled the covariance between exhaustion and work goal attainment. We expected these variables to be inter-related and included the direct effect of perceived supervisor expectation on home-to-work transitions.

Figure 2 gives an overview of our path analysis results, and Table 2 provides the results. Inspection of the fit indices revealed that the fit of the model was appropriate ($\chi^2_{(df=6)} = 22.09$, $p = .001$, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .04).[1] As expected, work–home integration preference was positively related to home-to-work transitions ($b = .23$, $p < .001$). Supporting Hypothesis 1, employees who preferred to integrate work and home were more inclined to engage in home-to-work transitions.

To test our moderation hypothesis, we mean-centred work–home integration preference and perceived supervisor expectation for building the interaction term (Dawson, 2014). In line with Hypothesis 2, the relationship between work–home integration preference and home-to-work transitions was moderated by perceived supervisor expectation ($b = -.10$, $p = .007$). As displayed in Figure 3, the positive effect of work–home integration preference on home-to-work transitions was more pronounced when perceived supervisor expectation was low rather than high. To further investigate the moderation effect, we conducted simple slope analyses with the R package *pequod* (Mirisola & Seta, 2016). The results illustrate that perceived supervisor expectation reduced the effect of work–home integration preference on home-to-work transitions, albeit the simple slope was significant and positive for both low perceived supervisor expectation (i.e., 1 *SD* below the mean; $b = .33$, $SE = .06$, $p < .001$) and high perceived supervisor expectation (i.e., 1 *SD* above the mean; $b = .12$, $SE = .06$, $p = .041$). This pattern of results suggests that perceived supervisor expectation acts as a substitute for work–home integration preference because both the predictor and the moderator have a positive effect on the criterion, and the relationship between

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[1] Simulation studies have shown that in models with few degrees of freedom—which applies to our path model—the RMSEA is often inflated (Chen et al., 2008; Kenny et al., 2015). In this case, the RMSEA can exceed the cutoff values for good fit even though the model is correctly specified.

TABLE 1 Means, standard deviations, and correlations for study variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Gender[a]	.41	—	—																
2. Age	34.94	9.62	.06	—															
3. Work demands (T1)	3.66	.76	-.09	-.02	—														
4. Home demands (T1)	3.68	.88	-.23	.08	.21	—													
5. Work–home integration preference (T1)	1.96	.89	.05	.10	-.09	-.05	—												
6. Perceived supervisor expectation (T1)	2.57	1.07	.06	.03	.28	.12	.07	—											
7. Home-to-work transitions (T2)	2.32	.89	.08	-.00	.27	.14	.26	.53	—										
8. Work goal attainment (T2)	3.76	.90	-.04	.07	.03	-.05	.05	.07	.13	—									
9. Exhaustion (T2)	3.09	.72	-.14	-.07	.32	.18	-.23	.24	.13	-.22	—								
10. Subjective career success (T3)	3.84	.59	-.07	.06	-.03	.01	.17	-.15	.01	.25	-.44	—							
11. Recognition (T3)	4.11	.70	-.13	.03	-.04	.00	.14	-.13	-.03	.17	-.33	.64	—						
12. Quality work (T3)	4.19	.68	-.02	.16	.05	.03	.04	.03	.09	.24	-.25	.66	.55	—					
13. Meaningful work (T3)	3.70	.93	-.12	.05	.03	.08	.06	-.03	.03	.16	-.19	.75	.35	.47	—				
14. Influence (T3)	3.66	.89	.06	.12	-.01	.05	.18	-.00	.18	.16	-.27	.70	.39	.45	.50	—			
15. Authenticity (T3)	3.56	.90	-.01	.01	-.06	-.02	.19	-.16	.01	.16	-.41	.78	.35	.34	.52	.50	—		
16. Personal life (T3)	3.77	.84	-.03	.00	-.25	-.12	.10	-.33	-.26	.12	-.44	.53	.28	.18	.20	.22	.44	—	
17. Growth and development (T3)	4.07	.69	-.06	.01	.11	.03	.06	-.04	.02	.25	-.20	.69	.37	.46	.47	.39	.42	.25	—
18. Satisfaction (T3)	3.66	1.02	-.10	-.01	.03	-.01	.17	-.16	-.02	.16	-.37	.83	.43	.39	.62	.45	.68	.37	.60

Note. $N = 371$. T1, T2, and T3 refer to the three measurement time points. Correlations $r > |.10|$ are significant at $p < .05$, correlations $r > |.13|$ are significant at $p < .01$, and correlations $r > |.17|$ are significant at $p < .001$, using two-tailed tests.
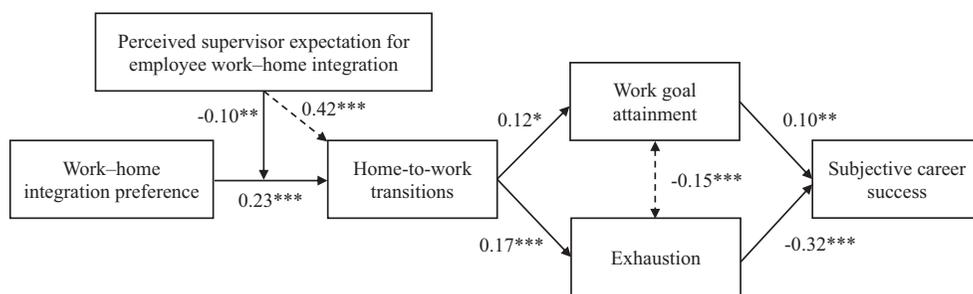
[a]0 = female, 1 = male.

FIGURE 2 Overview of path analysis results. Dashed lines represent paths that were not part of our hypotheses. Values displayed are unstandardized regression coefficients. Integration preference, perceived supervisor expectation, and home-to-work transitions are mean-centred. For variance explanation and a complete list of regression coefficients, see Table 2. ***$p<.001$, **$p<.01$, *$p<.05$

TABLE 2 Path analysis results

	Home-to-work transitions			Work goal attainment			Exhaustion			Subjective career success		
	b	SE	p	b	SE	p	b	SE	p	b	SE	p
Predictors												
Work–home integration preference	.23	.04	<.001	.02	.05	.714	−.23	.04	<.001	.04	.03	.187
Perceived supervisor expectation	.42	.04	<.001									
Integration preference × Perceived supervisor expectation	−.10	.04	.007									
Home-to-work transitions				.12	.05	.022	.17	.04	<.001	.02	.03	.626
Work goal attainment										.10	.03	.001
Exhaustion										−.32	.04	<.001
Variance explained	$R^2 = .34$			$R^2 = .02$			$R^2 = .10$			$R^2 = .23$		

Note: $N = 371$. Integration preference and perceived supervisor expectation are mean-centered. Values displayed are unstandardized coefficients.

the predictor and the criterion is weakened as the moderator increases (Gardner et al., 2017). Notably, the positive effect of perceived supervisor expectation on home-to-work transitions was significant ($b = .42$, $p<.001$).

In line with Hypotheses 3 and 4, home-to-work transitions were positively related to both work goal attainment ($b = .12$, $p = .022$) and exhaustion ($b = .17$, $p<.001$). We further found that work goal attainment was positively ($b = .10$, $p = .001$), whereas exhaustion was negatively related to subjective career success ($b = −.32$, $p<.001$). Thus, employees rated their career success more favourably when they were more successful in attaining their work goals and less exhausted, respectively. These results supported Hypotheses 5 and 6.

To test Hypotheses 7 and 8, we first computed bootstrapped confidence intervals for the indirect effects using 10,000 bootstrap samples (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). We found significant indirect effects of work–home integration preference on subjective career success through home-to-work transitions and work goal attainment ($b = .003$, $SE = .002$, 95% CI [.001, .007]), and through home-to-work transitions and exhaustion ($b = −.012$, $SE = .004$, 95% CI [−.002, −.006]). The indirect effect of work–home integration preference on subjective career success through home-to-work transitions was not significant (effect $= .004$, $SE = .009$, 95% CI [−.013, .021]). This result indicates that the two serial mediation paths through work goal attainment and exhaustion cancel each other out.

We calculated the index of moderated mediation and bootstrapped confidence intervals for this index (Hayes, 2015) to test whether perceived supervisor expectation moderate the indirect effects of work–home integration preference on subjective career success through home-to-work transitions and
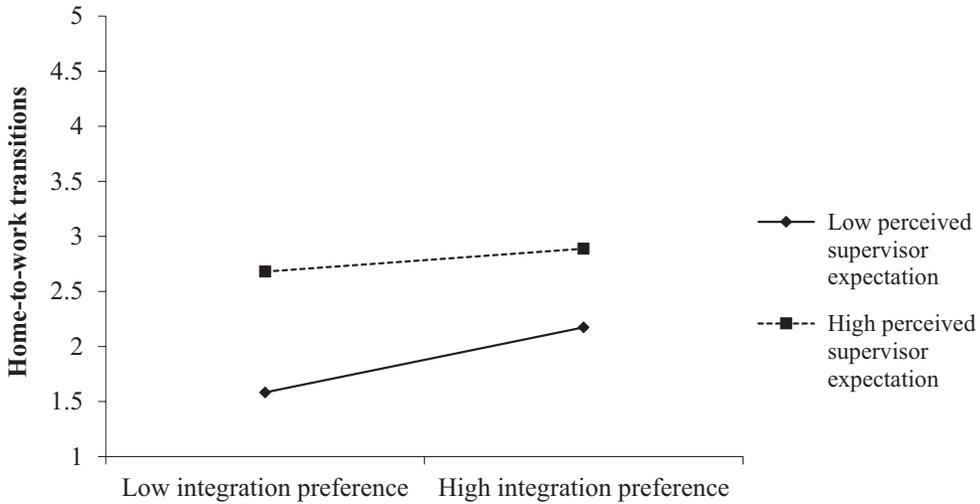
FIGURE 3 Moderating effect of perceived supervisor expectation regarding employees' work–home integration on the relationship between integration preference and home-to-work transitions

work goal attainment and through home-to-work transitions and exhaustion. Regarding the indirect effect through work goal attainment, the index of moderated mediation was significant ($b = -.0012$, 95% CI [$-.0041$, $-.0002$]). An inspection of the conditional indirect effects showed that the indirect effect decreased in size with increasing supervisor expectation (low: $b = .0041$, 95% CI [.0008, .0105], medium: $b = .0028$, 95% CI [.0005, .0072], high: $b = .0014$, 95% CI [.0001, .0053]), providing support for Hypothesis 7. Regarding the indirect effect through exhaustion, the index of moderated mediation was also significant ($b = .0055$, 95% CI [.0017, .0117]). The inspection of the conditional indirect effects indicated that the indirect effect decreased in size with increasing supervisor expectation (low: $b = -.0181$, 95% CI [$-.0314$, $-.0095$], medium: $b = -.0122$, 95% CI [$-.0222$, $-.0061$], high: $b = -.0064$, 95% CI [$-.0162$, $-.0003$]), supporting Hypothesis 8. Thus, perceived supervisor expectation attenuates the indirect effects of work–home integration preference on subjective career success via home-to-work transitions as well as work goal attainment and exhaustion, respectively. Furthermore, the conditional indirect effects of work–home integration preference on subjective career success via home-to-work transitions with perceived supervisor expectation moderating the first path of the mediation were not significant (high perceived supervisor expectation: effect $= .005$, $SE = .012$, 95% CI [$-.018$, .030]; low perceived supervisor expectation: effect $= .002$, $SE = .005$, 95% CI [$-.006$, .015]). However, the contrast coefficient between the career-enhancing and the career-impairing path was significantly different from 0 (effect $= -.009$, $SE = .004$, 95% CI [$-.020$, $-.002$]), indicating that the career-impairing path was stronger than the career-enhancing path (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

Exploratory analyses

We conducted another path analysis to investigate whether the effects were consistent across different dimensions of subjective career success. We included the eight dimensions of subjective career success as separate outcome variables. Table 3 shows the results of this exploratory analysis.

Work goal attainment had differential effects on the dimensions of subjective career success: It was positively related to recognition ($b = .08$, $p = .044$), quality work ($b = .13$, $p = .001$), meaningful work ($b = .12$, $p = .028$), and growth and development ($b = .17$, $p < .001$). However, we did not find a significant effect of work goal attainment on the other four success dimensions (influence: $b = .08$, $p = .125$; authen-

TABLE 3   Path analysis results for different dimensions of subjective career success

Variable	Recognition			Quality work			Meaningful work			Influence		
	b	SE	*p*	*b*	SE	*p*	*b*	SE	*p*	*b*	SE	*p*
Work–home integration preference	.06	.04	.178	−.04	.04	.297	−.00	.06	.978	.07	.05	.205
Home-to-work transitions	−.01	.04	.733	.09	.04	.024	.04	.06	.481	.19	.05	<.001
Work goal attainment	.08	.04	.044	.13	.04	.001	.12	.05	.028	.08	.05	.125
Exhaustion	−.28	.05	<.001	−.23	.05	<.001	−.23	.07	.002	−.33	.06	<.001
Variance explained	$R^2 = .12$			$R^2 = .11$			$R^2 = .05$			$R^2 = .13$		
Indirect effect through work goal attainment	$b = .002$, SE = .002, 95% CI [.0001, .007]			$b = .004$, SE = .002, 95% CI [.001, .010]			$b = .003$, SE = .002, 95% CI [.0004, .010]			$b = .002$, SE = .002, 95% CI [−.0002, .008]		
Indirect effect through exhaustion	$b = −.010$, SE = .004, 95% CI [−.020, −.005]			$b = −.009$, SE = .003, 95% CI [−.018, −.004]			$b = −.009$, SE = .004, 95% CI [−.019, −.003]			$b = −.012$, SE = .004, 95% CI [−.024, −.006]		

Variable	Authenticity			Personal life			Growth and development			Satisfaction		
	b	SE	*p*	*b*	SE	*p*	*b*	SE	*p*	*b*	SE	*p*
Work–home integration preference	.09	.05	.092	.06	.05	.160	.01	.04	.789	.10	.06	.079
Home-to-work transitions	.03	.05	.563	−.22	.05	<.001	.01	.04	.816	−.01	.06	.921
Work goal attainment	.07	.05	.147	.06	.04	.193	.17	.04	<.001	.09	.06	.103
Exhaustion	−.48	.06	<.001	−.44	.06	<.001	−.14	.05	.007	−.47	.07	<.001
Variance explained	$R^2 = .19$			$R^2 = .24$			$R^2 = .09$			$R^2 = .15$		
Indirect effect through work goal attainment	$b = .002$, SE = .002, 95% CI [−.0005, .008]			$b = .002$, SE = .001, 95% CI [−.0002, .006]			$b = .005$, SE = .003, 95% CI [.001, .012]			$b = .003$, SE = .002, 95% CI [−.0001, .009]		
Indirect effect through exhaustion	$b = −.018$, SE = .006, 95% CI [−.032, −.009]			$b = −.017$, SE = .006, 95% CI [−.031, −.008]			$b = −.005$, SE = .003, 95% CI [−.013, −.002]			$b = −.018$, SE = .006, 95% CI [−.033, −.009]		

Note: N = 371. Values displayed are unstandardized coefficients. *p*-values are based on two-sided tests. Confidence intervals for the indirect effects are based on 10,000 bootstrap samples.

ticity: $b = .07, p = .147$; personal life: $b = .06, p = .193$; and satisfaction: $b = .09, p = .103$). Accordingly, the indirect effect of work–home integration preference on subjective career success through home-to-work transitions and work goal attainment was only significant for the first four success dimensions (see Table 3).

In contrast, our analysis showed that exhaustion had a consistent negative effect on all eight dimensions of subjective career success (recognition: $b = −.28, p < .001$, quality work: $b = −.23, p < .001$, meaningful work: $b = −.23, p = .002$, influence: $b = −.33, p < .001$, authenticity: $b = −.48, p < .001$, personal life: $b = −.44, p < .001$, growth and development: $b = −.14, p = .007$, and satisfaction: $b = −.47, p < .001$). Correspondingly, the indirect effect of work–home integration preference on subjective career success through home-to-work transitions and exhaustion was negative and significant for all eight dimensions of subjective career success (see Table 3).

DISCUSSION

This study sheds light on the role of work–home integration for subjective career success with our analysis revealing a career-enhancing path and a career-impairing path. Following the career-enhancing path, high work–home integration preference was positively related to subjective career success via increased

home-to-work transitions and higher levels of work goal attainment. Following the career-impairing path, high work–home integration preference was negatively related to subjective career success via increased home-to-work transitions and higher levels of exhaustion. In this context, home-to-work transitions function as a double-edged sword as they are positively related to both work goal attainment *and* exhaustion with downstream effects on subjective career success. Work–home integration preference's direct effect on home-to-work transitions as well as indirect effects on subjective career success were attenuated if perceived supervisor expectation for work-home integration was high. Finally, we found mixed evidence regarding which edge of the sword is sharper, with our results potentially indicating that the career-impairing path could be stronger than the career-enhancing path.

In line with boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000), individuals with a high work–home integration preference engaged in home-to-work transitions more frequently. Importantly, when employees perceived that their supervisor expected them to integrate work and home, the (direct and indirect) effects of their work–home integration preference on home-to-work transitions and subjective career success were reduced. When reflecting on the role of work–home integration for subjective career success, what one wants (e.g., holding a preference for strong and impermeable boundaries) is less relevant than what one actually does (e.g., frequently transitioning from home to work) because perceived supervisor expectation can create a disconnect between work–home integration preference and home-to-work transitions. Here, supervisor's expectation presumably created a strong situation where the employee perceived a social norm to integrate work and home with the effect of employees' work–home integration preference on home-to-work transitions being overridden and downstream consequences for work goal attainment, exhaustion, and subjective career success. Interestingly, and not hypothesized by us, perceived supervisor expectation also positively affected home-to-work transitions above and beyond work–home integration preference. This result would align with the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The theory posits that besides behavioural control, attitude towards a behaviour (e.g., work–home integration preference), as well as the subjective norm (e.g., perceived supervision expectation), are antecedents of behaviour (e.g., home-to-work transitions). Employees may also (wrongly) attribute or legitimize their home-to-work transitions to the supervisor's expectations. Our findings are consistent with previous research showing that supervisors can considerably affect employees' boundary management (Capitano & Greenhaus, 2018; Koch & Binnewies, 2015). We add to this literature by showing how personal preferences interact with contextual expectations in role transition behaviours.

Finally, we provided evidence for differential effects of work–home integration on the eight dimensions of subjective career success, at least regarding those effects that involved work goal attainment. According to our findings, work goal attainment enables employees to deliver quality work and earn recognition. Further, it goes along with a sense of meaningful work and growth and development. In contrast, other relevant aspects of subjective career success are unrelated to work goal attainment. Work goal attainment might be a necessary but insufficient condition to experience the more social dimensions of influence, authenticity and personal life. To a certain degree, other people have to cooperate so that one can exert influence, experience authenticity in one's career path, and enjoy the personal life.

Concerning the non-significant relationship between work goal attainment and satisfaction, the hedonic treadmill theory (Diener et al., 2006) suggests that an employee will temporarily be more satisfied after attaining work goals. However, the satisfaction level quickly returns to normal as the employee sets new, more challenging work goals. These findings underscore the importance of distinguishing different aspects of subjective career success (Dries et al., 2008; Heslin, 2005; Shockley et al., 2016). We thereby also contribute to career success research by showing how work experiences differentially predict different facets of career success.

Theoretical implications

By generating evidence on the effect of work–home integration on subjective career success, this study contributes to investigating career-related outcomes of employees' boundary management preferences

and enactment. Our analysis revealed that work–home integration is linked to subjective career success through two competing mechanisms, which demonstrates that boundary management has relevant implications for subjective career success. Neither boundary management nor career research has considered this so far. These findings illustrate that integrating research on the work–home interface in the study of careers contributes to gaining a more holistic understanding of individual careers in today's world of work (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). For example, models on career management and career counselling (Hirschi, 2020; Hirschi et al., 2019, 2020) could incorporate work—home transitions as one of the action strategies individuals use to achieve their goals in different life domains. This approach allows us to develop a more detailed understanding of trade-offs individuals face, given their choices and external expectations.

Moreover, our findings regarding the moderating role of perceived supervisor expectation emphasize the importance of addressing interactive effects between individual preferences and contextual factors in the study of boundary management (Ashforth et al., 2000; Capitano & Greenhaus, 2018). In creating a strong situation (Mischel, 1977), the supervisor can have a substantial impact on the enactment of individuals' work–home integration preference and, as a result, on the process of linking work–home integration with subjective career success. In this sense, they might even override the employee's preference with downstream consequences for work goal attainment, exhaustion and subjective career success. This interactive effect demonstrates that supervisors not only affect individuals' careers directly, for example, by providing access to a broader social network or by acting as mentors supporting employees' career development (Ng & Feldman, 2014). Supervisors may also shape the processes resulting in their employees' subjective career success by conveying specific social norms, such as acting on the work—home integration preferences and managing the boundaries between work and home. This insight might also benefit research on the psychological contract between employee and employer, as the direct supervisor acts as a crucial intermediary in this contract (Doden et al., 2018). Suppose supervisors' personal norms run counter to company policy (e.g., family-related human resource management practices). In that case, the psychological contract may be violated with many negative consequences (see Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2019).

Our study further provides evidence for the importance of differentiating between multiple dimensions of subjective career success (Dries et al., 2008; Heslin, 2005; Shockley et al., 2016). According to our findings, the career-impairing effect of work–home integration through increased exhaustion holds consistently true for all relevant aspects of subjective career success. In contrast, the career-enhancing effect of work–home integration seems to be mainly driven by positive effects of work goal attainment on selected subjective career success dimensions (i.e., quality work, recognition, meaningful work, and growth and development). In contrast, influence, authenticity, personal life, and satisfaction do not benefit from work goal attainment. Because work goal attainment is more relevant for some dimensions of subjective career success than others, we argue that the nomological network of subjective career success might have a more complicated structure than currently assumed. It could be that social and personal control over the dimensions is a structuring element here. Our study provides a starting point for a more in-depth investigation of the nomological networks of the various success dimensions.

Practical implications

Our study also yields practical implications. Employees should be aware of the possible positive and negative consequences of engaging in home-to-work transitions. Although they may help them achieve their work-related goals, employees should be aware that these transitions can also impair their well-being, undermining their subjective career success. Engaging less frequently in home-to-work transitions and establishing an impermeable boundary around the home domain might be one possibility for employees to prevent adverse effects on their well-being. Employees who still engage in home-to-work transitions because they prefer to integrate work and home might develop individual strategies to buffer the potential downsides of work–home integration. We propose that these strategies could facilitate detachment from work and thereby improve employees' well-being (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015).

The insights gained in our study are also relevant for organizations and managers. We found that the effect of employees' work–home integration preference on home-to-work transitions diminishes when perceived supervisor expectation are high. In this situation, employees presumably perceive a social norm they aim to comply with and engage in home-to-work transitions. Employees who prefer to keep work and home separate might regularly engage in home-to-work transitions because they feel pressured to do so with negative consequences in terms of higher exhaustion. In this case, the supervisor violates their duty of care because employees' actual work–home integration preference would have been associated with lower exhaustion levels if the supervisor were not interfering. Thus, supervisors should reflect on their expectations regarding their employees' home-to-work transitions. They need to be aware if they express certain expectations regarding the home-to-work transitions of their employees. In the next step, employee and supervisor should communicate openly about the employee's work–home integration preference. If the employee has a strong work–home integration preference, the supervisor should make them aware of home-to-work transitions' negative consequences on well-being and the career-impairing path. Then, they can develop buffering strategies together. Although encouraging the employee to engage in home-to-work transitions likely results in higher work goal attainment, we also demonstrate harmful effects on employees' well-being. Consequently, the supervisor should refrain from doing so, particularly when the employee prefers to keep the work and home domain separate.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

Our study has three main limitations. First, although using measurement points, we cannot rule out that some of our estimates are biased due to common-method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, the found interactive effect is an indication for the reduced risk of common-method variance (Siemsen et al., 2010). We encourage researchers to include additional data sources (e.g., the supervisor) to minimize the risk further. Moreover, future studies should measure all variables involved in the indirect effects at different measurement points.

Second, we cannot draw inferences about causality and rule out reversed causality or reciprocal effects. In line with our theorizing, our results could indicate that less exhausted employees are more satisfied with their career success because they reflect on their well-being in evaluating their careers. However, it is also conceivable that employees satisfied with their careers have more personal resources available and, thus, experience better well-being (Leung et al., 2011). Future studies might test the causal relationships implied in our research model by using longitudinal study designs that span multiple years in employees' careers and thus investigate changes in subjective career success over time (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010; Selig & Preacher, 2009).

Third, our study addressed the effect of *perceived supervisor expectation* regarding employees' work–home integration on home-to-work transitions. Furthermore, we found that perceived supervisor expectation and home-to-work transitions were positively related. We need to determine whether the employee's perception corresponds to the supervisor's actual expectation. Future research could explore how employees' perceptions of supervisor expectations emerge and develop over time and, in so doing, distinguish between injunctive and descriptive norms. Injunctive norms describe "what is typically approved/disapproved" (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004, p. 597), thus shaping an individual's perception of which behaviour is deemed adequate by others. In contrast, descriptive norms describe "what is typically done" (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004, p. 597), thus affecting an individual's perception of what behaviour is usually shown by others. Supervisors shape both injunctive and descriptive norms by signalling their expectations regarding employees' work–home integration and acting as role models for managing the boundary between work and home. Investigating the formation of injunctive and descriptive norms would generate relevant insights into how employees' perception of supervisor expectation is shaped.

Both high and low levels of work–home integration preference are legitimate approaches to managing the interplay of work and home domain. Thus, organizations should not aim to interfere with these personal preferences. However, we need to identify those factors that buffer the career-impairing path via exhaustion for employees with a high work–home integration preference. More specifically, it is neces-

sary to examine those moderators that attenuate the negative effect of home-to-work transitions on exhaustion. On the flip side, research also needs to shed light on those factors that allow employees with a low work–home integration preference to experience higher subjective career success via the work goal attainment route.

Finally, our study provides a starting point for the analysis of subjective career success on a more fine-grained level by considering different success dimensions. A differential approach to analysing subjective career success would allow future research to re-analyse previously established relationships. Our study results show that work–home integration and other vital antecedents of subjective career success have differential effects on the success dimensions. For instance, networking relates positively to subjective career success (Wolff & Moser, 2009). This positive effect may be especially pronounced for the success dimensions of influence and recognition because these dimensions refer to work-related relationships (i.e., having an impact on others within the organization and being recognized by others within the organization). In contrast, the effect of networking on other success dimensions such as personal life or authenticity most likely is relatively weak. Future research might re-investigate the effects of established predictors such as networking on subjective career success by focusing on the differential effects on the various success dimensions.

CONCLUSION

Our study highlights the relevance of employees' boundary management for their careers. If employees choose to integrate different life domains and frequently engage in home-to-work transitions, subjective career success appears to be both impaired as well as enhanced. Moreover, the enactment of individual preferences is affected by perceived supervisor expectation. We hope that our research stimulates a more holistic perspective on the relevance of boundary management for careers aiming to identify the individual and contextual factors blunting the harmful edge of this sword while sharpening the beneficial one.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
Dana Unger: Conceptualization; methodology; supervision; writing – review and editing. **Angelika Kornblum:** Conceptualization; data curation; formal analysis; funding acquisition; investigation; methodology; project administration; writing – original draft. **Gudela Grote:** Conceptualization; supervision; writing – review and editing. **Andreas Hirschi:** Conceptualization; supervision; writing – review and editing.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST
All authors declare no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT
The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

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