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Validation of the Work-Life Boundary Enactment Scale (WLBES) among Indonesian Employees: A Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Zamralita[1], Anastasia Putri Leleng Wilis[2]
Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Tarumanagara, Indonesia[1,2]

Zamralita@fpsi.untar.ac.id

Abstract

The Work–Life Boundary Enactment Scale (WLBES), developed by Wepfer et al. (2018), measures the extent to which individuals behaviourally integrate or segment work and personal life through two dimensions: work-to-life integration and life-to-work integration. Although the WLBES has been used in several Indonesian studies, we found no prior study that tested its factor structure with a confirmatory approach in an Indonesian working population. This study examined the factorial validity of the Indonesian-adapted WLBES, one component of construct validity, using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). A total of 629 full-time employees in Indonesia (422 women, 67.09%; 207 men, 32.91%; aged 18–42 years) were recruited through convenience sampling. Data were analyzed in LISREL 8.80. Unidimensionality was tested with a separate one-factor CFA for each dimension; a joint two-factor model was not estimated. For work-to-life integration, $\chi^2(5) = 27.68$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = 0.086, CFI = 0.99, SRMR = 0.028. For life-to-work integration, $\chi^2(5) = 28.75$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = 0.089, CFI = 0.99, SRMR = 0.022. Incremental and residual-based indices indicated good fit, while RMSEA indicated marginal fit. All ten items had significant standardized factor loadings (0.61–0.83; $t > 1.96$). Cronbach's alpha was 0.844 for work-to-life integration and 0.864 for life-to-work integration. These results provide initial support for the unidimensionality of each WLBES dimension and for adequate internal consistency in this convenience sample. Convergent and discriminant validity, the joint two-factor structure, and measurement invariance were not examined and should be tested in future research.

Keywords: boundary enactment, confirmatory factor analysis, factorial validity, Indonesian, work-life boundary enactment style

Abstrak

Work–Life Boundary Enactment Scale (WLBES)*, yang dikembangkan oleh Wepfer dkk. (2018), mengukur sejauh mana individu secara perilaku mengintegrasikan atau memisahkan pekerjaan dan kehidupan pribadi melalui dua dimensi: integrasi pekerjaan ke dalam kehidupan* (work-to-life integration) *dan integrasi kehidupan ke dalam pekerjaan* (life-to-work integration)*. Meskipun WLBES telah digunakan dalam beberapa penelitian di Indonesia, kami tidak menemukan studi sebelumnya yang menguji struktur faktornya dengan pendekatan konfirmatori pada populasi pekerja di Indonesia. Studi ini menguji validitas faktorial dari WLBES yang telah diadaptasi ke dalam bahasa Indonesia—salah satu komponen dari validitas konstruk—dengan menggunakan* Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)*. Sebanyak 629 karyawan purnawaktu di Indonesia (422 perempuan, 67,09%; 207 laki-laki, 32,91%; berusia 18–42 tahun) direkrut melalui teknik pengambilan sampel kemudahan* (convenience sampling)*. Data dianalisis menggunakan perangkat lunak LISREL 8.80.* Unidimensionalitas *diuji dengan melakukan CFA satu faktor secara terpisah untuk setiap dimensi; model dua faktor gabungan tidak diestimasi. Untuk dimensi integrasi pekerjaan ke dalam kehidupan, diperoleh hasil: $\chi^2(5) = 27,68$, $p < 0,001$, RMSEA = .086, CFI = .99, SRMR = .028. Untuk dimensi integrasi kehidupan ke dalam pekerjaan, diperoleh*

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hasil: $\chi^2(5) = 28,75$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .089, CFI = .99, SRMR = .022. Indeks inkremental dan indeks berbasis residu menunjukkan kecocokan model (fit) *yang baik, sementara nilai RMSEA menunjukkan kecocokan marginal. Kesepuluh butir pernyataan memiliki muatan faktor terstandarisasi yang signifikan (0,61–0,83; $t > 1,96$). Nilai* Cronbach's alpha *adalah 0,844 untuk dimensi integrasi pekerjaan ke dalam kehidupan dan 0,864 untuk dimensi integrasi kehidupan ke dalam pekerjaan. Hasil ini memberikan dukungan awal bagi* unidimensionalitas *dari masing-masing dimensi WLBES serta menunjukkan konsistensi internal yang memadai pada sampel yang diperoleh melalui metode* convenience sampling *ini. Validitas konvergen dan diskriminan, struktur dua faktor gabungan, serta invariansi pengukuran belum diteliti dan perlu diuji dalam penelitian mendatang.*

***Kata kunci**: analisis faktor konfirmatory, gaya penerapan batasan kerja-hidup, Indonesia, penerapan batasan, validitas faktorial*

Introduction

The transformation of the working world over the past two decades has reshaped how individuals organize their lives. Digitalization, the accelerated adoption of hybrid work arrangements, and advances in communication technology that enable work access without temporal or spatial constraints have blurred the traditional demarcation between work and personal life (Angela et al., 2025). Choudhury et al. (2021) reported that geographic and temporal flexibility enhanced worker productivity by 4.4%, while simultaneously extending the reach of work into the personal sphere. This emerging reality has shifted the conventional work–life balance framework, grounded in role segmentation, toward a more accommodating work–life integration (WLI) paradigm that aligns with contemporary work dynamics (Allen et al., 2020; Clark, 2000). WLI describes the extent to which individuals dynamically combine or separate their work and personal life roles according to contextual demands and personal needs (Wepfer et al., 2018), rendering it particularly relevant for workers who frequently remain digitally connected beyond formal working hours.

Theoretically, WLI is rooted in boundary theory, which conceptualizes individuals as positioned along a continuum between segmentation and integration in relation to inter-role boundaries (Ashforth et al., 2000). Kreiner (2006) extended this framework through the concept of boundary enactment, defined as the active behaviors through which individuals create, maintain, and dissolve boundaries between work and personal life. Wepfer et al. (2018) operationalized boundary enactment into two conceptually distinct yet interrelated dimensions: work-to-life integration, which captures the intrusion of work demands into the personal sphere, and life-to-work integration, which reflects the entry of personal matters into the work domain. The consequences of work-to-life integration appear to be ambivalent. Work-to-life integration has been linked to higher job satisfaction, emotional well-being, and work engagement (Johnson et al., 2020; Kossek et al., 2021; Samtharam & Baskaran, 2023; Zhixin et al., 2025), and also to poorer psychological recovery and a higher risk of burnout when it is extensive (Unger, 2023; Wepfer et al., 2018). Because the outcomes point in both directions, accurate measurement of boundary enactment is a methodological prerequisite for subsequent research and organizational intervention.

A number of instruments have been developed to measure work–life phenomena, including the Work–Family Conflict Scale (Carlson et al., 2000), the Survey Work–Home Interaction Nijmegen (SWING; Geurts et al., 2005), the Work–Life Balance Scale (Brough et al., 2014), the Work–Nonwork Boundary Management Profiles (Kossek et al., 2012), and the Work–Life Boundary Enactment Scale (WLBES; Wepfer et al., 2018). Among these, the WLBES occupies a distinct conceptual position, as it focuses on enactment behaviors rather than on conflict or balance, which earlier instruments tended to emphasize. This focus aligns the WLBES with contemporary flexible work contexts, in which inter-role boundaries are no longer structurally imposed by organizations but are instead dynamically negotiated by individuals. The original WLBES was validated on a sample of European workers and demonstrated a two-dimensional structure with adequate reliability (Wepfer et al., 2018); however, replications of its construct validity across diverse cultural contexts remain scarce.

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In the Indonesian context, research on WLI has developed steadily, yet the psychometric adaptation of relevant instruments still leaves considerable room for further examination. Existing studies have predominantly focused on the constructs of work–life balance and work–family conflict. Wulansari (2023), for instance, examined factors influencing WLI among digital-era workers without reporting evidence of construct validation for the instrument employed. Similarly, Pitre et al. (2017) investigated the antecedents and consequences of WLI using an instrument derived from the work–life balance construct, which did not fully capture the boundary enactment aspect. Nor Sham et al. (2024) employed a WLI instrument as a predictor of turnover intention without first verifying its factor structure within their local sample. Consequently, much of the existing Indonesian WLI research has treated measurement instruments as a given rather than as objects of psychometric examination requiring independent verification.

The studies closest to the present focus used the WLBES itself. Aditya et al. (2023) administered it to 122 full-time employees working under flexible arrangements in Indonesia, but their aim was to describe integration levels across demographic groups rather than to test the scale's factor structure. Untung et al. (2026) used an Indonesian translation of the WLBES in a correlational study of 203 Generation Z employees. The psychometric testing in the latter study, however, was limited to estimating internal consistency reliability through Cronbach's alpha, without examining the factor structure through a confirmatory approach. As emphasized by Brown (2015) and Kline (2016), high internal consistency does not guarantee that items genuinely load onto the latent dimensions specified by the underlying theoretical framework. A scale with a high alpha coefficient may still exhibit a factor structure that diverges from its hypothesized model, thereby complicating the interpretation of dimension-level scores. To our knowledge, no empirical evidence is available regarding whether the two-dimensional structure of the WLBES remains tenable when applied to Indonesian workers.

Given these limitations, a more comprehensive construct validation of the WLBES is warranted within the Indonesian context. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is well suited to this purpose because it deductively tests the fit of a hypothesized measurement model to empirical data through evaluations of factor loadings, inter-dimensional correlations, and goodness-of-fit indices (Brown, 2015; Hair et al., 2019; Kline, 2016). Unlike content validity, which depends on expert judgment, and internal consistency reliability, which evaluates only item homogeneity, CFA enables the simultaneous assessment of internal structural validity, convergent validity through the Average Variance Extracted, discriminant validity through the Fornell–Larcker criterion, and composite reliability. Owing to its analytical strengths, CFA has become a standard procedure in cross-cultural adaptation of psychological instruments (van de Vijver & Leung, 2021), including in collectivist cultures such as Indonesia, where family norms and social expectations may shape how workers interpret items related to role integration.

Building on this rationale, the present study examines the factorial validity and reliability of the Indonesian-adapted WLBES through CFA among full-time employees in Indonesia. Three measurement models are compared: separate one-factor models for each dimension, a one-factor model of all ten items, and a correlated two-factor model of all ten items. Beyond model fit, the study evaluates standardized factor loadings, reliability (Cronbach's alpha and McDonald's omega), convergent validity, and discriminant validity between the dimensions. The guiding research question is which of these models best represents the structure of the WLBES among Indonesian workers, and whether the work-to-life and life-to-work dimensions are related in a theoretically plausible way. The findings are expected to offer theoretical contributions by providing evidence on the transferability of the boundary theory framework to a collectivist context, methodological contributions by providing initial psychometric evidence for an Indonesian version of the WLBES, and practical contributions as a foundation for assessing work–life boundary enactment in human resource practice in Indonesia.

Literature Review

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Work-to-life integration (Work–Life Boundary Enactment)

Work–life integration (WLI) refers to the extent to which individuals dynamically combine or separate their work and personal life roles in everyday activities (Wepfer et al., 2018). In contrast to the work–life balance paradigm, which emphasizes strict separation between the two domains through equitable allocation of time and energy, WLI conceptualizes the interaction between work and personal life as a more fluid process, in which resources from one domain may enrich the other (Allen et al., 2020; Clark, 2000). This paradigmatic shift has emerged as a response to contemporary work realities, in which digitalization, hybrid work systems, and communication technologies have blurred the traditional boundaries between office and home. Today's workers no longer experience a clear structural separation between working and personal hours; rather, they engage in behaviours that integrate or segment their roles (Choudhury et al., 2021; Kossek et al., 2021).

Theoretically, WLI is rooted in boundary theory, developed by Ashforth et al. (2000), which conceptualizes individuals as positioned along a continuum between the poles of segmentation and integration in relation to inter-role boundaries. Individuals with segmentation preferences tend to maintain clear separation between work and non-work activities across temporal, spatial, and psychological dimensions. Conversely, those with integration preferences tend to combine the two domains more flexibly. Kreiner (2006) extended this framework by introducing the concept of boundary enactment—that is, the active behaviours through which individuals create, maintain, or dissolve inter-role boundaries. The notion of enactment shifts the measurement focus from preferences or mental orientations toward observable, measurable behaviours, thereby enabling a more empirically grounded operationalization of WLI.

Wepfer et al. (2018) operationalized boundary enactment into two conceptually distinct yet interrelated dimensions. The first dimension, work-to-life integration, captures the extent to which work-related activities, demands, or thoughts permeate the personal sphere, manifesting in behaviours such as bringing work home, checking work email outside of working hours, or remaining mentally engaged with work while spending time with family. The second dimension, life-to-work integration, captures the reverse direction—the extent to which personal life enters the work domain, including attending to family matters during working hours, taking personal calls during meetings, or experiencing disrupted concentration at work because of personal concerns. Together, these two dimensions underscore that the interaction between work and personal life is bidirectional and dynamic, requiring measurement instruments capable of capturing both directions separately.

WLI carries ambivalent consequences for individuals' well-being and performance. Integration has been reported to correlate positively with job satisfaction, emotional well-being, and work engagement (Johnson et al., 2020; Samtharam & Baskaran, 2023). Zhixin et al. (2025) further reported that WLI is associated with the satisfaction of basic psychological needs—autonomy, competence, and relatedness—and, through them, with intrinsic motivation and work engagement. Conversely, extensive work-to-life integration has been associated with poorer psychological recovery, higher emotional exhaustion, and burnout (Unger, 2023; Wepfer et al., 2018). Because the outcomes point in both directions, accurate measurement of boundary enactment is a methodological prerequisite for both research and organizational intervention. In the Indonesian context, characterized by a collectivist culture with strong family norms and expectations of professional loyalty that differ from those of individualist contexts, the development of a psychometrically evaluated measure of boundary enactment constitutes a pressing need.

Measurement of Work–Life Boundary Enactment

The instrument employed in the present study is the Work–Life Boundary Enactment Scale (WLBES) developed by Wepfer et al. (2018). The WLBES was specifically designed to measure boundary enactment behaviors within the boundary theory framework, which distinguishes it from earlier work–life instruments. The Work–Family Conflict Scale developed by Carlson et al. (2000), for example, emphasizes inter-role conflict as a form of negative experience. The Survey Work–Home

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Interaction Nijmegen (SWING) developed by Geurts et al. (2005) addresses both positive and negative work–home interactions. The Work–Life Balance Scale developed by Brough et al. (2014) frames balance as an ideal state. In contrast, the WLBES focuses on behaviours through which individuals integrate or segment work and personal roles, rendering it more consistent with flexible work contexts in which role boundaries are dynamically negotiated by individuals rather than structurally imposed by organizations.

The original WLBES comprises ten items representing two primary dimensions—work-to-life integration and life-to-work integration—with five items per dimension. Each item is presented in a bipolar format consisting of two opposing statements: a segmentation pole on one side and an integration pole on the other, separated by a seven-point numerical scale. Respondents are asked to position themselves at the point between the two poles that best reflects their behaviour. Higher scores reflect a more integrative degree of boundary enactment—that is, more permeable inter-role boundaries. An example item on the work-to-life integration dimension is "I never work after working hours or on weekends" versus "I often work after working hours or on weekends." Initial testing on a European worker sample indicated that the WLBES displayed a stable two-dimensional structure with adequate reliability coefficients (Wepfer et al., 2018). The bipolar format is theoretically consistent with the conceptualization of boundary enactment as a segmentation–integration continuum, requiring respondents not merely to indicate agreement with a single pole but to position themselves directly along that continuum.

The Indonesian version of the WLBES employed in the present study draws on the translation previously used by Untung et al. (2026) in a study examining the relationship between work-related social media use and work–life integration among Generation Z employees in Indonesia. That study reported adequate internal consistency reliability coefficients for both WLBES dimensions, suggesting that the translated items provide a reasonable starting point for further adaptation. Nonetheless, Untung et al. (2026) employed the WLBES as a substantive variable within a correlational framework and did not evaluate the instrument's factor structure through a confirmatory approach. The present study extends this prior work by conducting a more comprehensive psychometric specifically, factorial validation through Confirmatory Factor Analysis with model comparison—while also evaluating reliability (alpha and omega), convergent validity, and discriminant validity, which to our knowledge have not been reported for the Indonesian version. Prior to administration, an expert review of the Untung et al. (2026) translation was conducted to ensure semantic equivalence with the original Wepfer et al. (2018) version. The review indicated that most items had been accurately translated. Table 1 presents the blueprint of the Indonesian-adapted WLBES employed in this study.

Table 1. Blueprint of Work–Life Boundary Enactment Scale (WLBES) Indonesian Version

Dimension	No. Item	Item								Total
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Work-to-life integration	1	Saya tidak pernah membawa pekerjaan ke rumah	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Saya sering membawa pekerjaan ke rumah
	2	Saya tidak pernah lembur	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Saya sering lembur
	3	Saya tidak pernah bekerja setelah jam kerja atau di akhir pekan	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Saya sering bekerja setelah jam kerja atau di akhir pekan
	4	Saya tidak pernah memikirkan masalah pekerjaan selama waktu istirahat saya	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Saya sering memikirkan masalah pekerjaan selama waktu istirahat saya
	5	Saya tidak pernah berkomunikasi dengan	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Saya sering berkomunikasi

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		orang-orang kantor selama cuti								dengan rekan kerja selama cuti
Life-to-work integration	6	Saya tidak pernah mengurus hal-hal pribadi saat berada di tempat kerja saya	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Saya sering mengurus hal-hal pribadi saat berada di tempat kerja saya
	7	Saya tidak pernah datang terlambat untuk bekerja atau pulang lebih awal, untuk mengurus hal-hal pribadi	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Saya sering datang terlambat untuk bekerja atau pulang lebih awal, untuk hal-hal pribadi
	8	Saya tidak pernah mengurus hal-hal pribadi selama jam kerja yang sudah dijadwalkan	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Saya sering mengurus hal-hal pribadi selama jam kerja yang sudah dijadwalkan
	9	Saya tidak pernah memikirkan hal-hal pribadi ketika sedang bekerja	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Saya sering memikirkan hal-hal pribadi ketika sedang bekerja
	10	Saya tidak pernah berkomunikasi dengan keluarga dan teman saya saat sedang bekerja	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Saya sering berkomunikasi dengan keluarga dan teman saat saya sedang bekerja

Sources: Untung et al. (2026)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a multivariate technique that tests how well a theoretically specified measurement model reproduces the observed data. It suits the present purpose because the WLBES already has a theoretically derived structure, developed through boundary theory and examined in a European sample (Wepfer et al., 2018), so the task here is to test whether the items behave as specified among Indonesian workers rather than to discover a new structure (Brown, 2015; Hair et al., 2019). This matters in cross-cultural adaptation, because differences in language, social norms, and work patterns may change how respondents interpret items, and CFA requires the number of factors and the item–factor pattern to be specified in advance (Goretzko et al., 2023; Kline, 2016). The fit criteria, reliability, and validity indices used are described in the Data Analysis section.

Methods

Participants

Participants in this study were full-time employees working across various industry sectors in Indonesia. Inclusion criteria comprised: (1) a minimum age of 18 years; (2) residence in Indonesia; (3) full-time employment status with a minimum of 35 working hours per week, in line with prevailing full-time work standards; and (4) at least one year of work experience in the current position or field. The minimum one-year experience criterion was established on the assumption that participants would have had sufficient exposure to occupational dynamics to accurately reflect on their boundary enactment behaviours.

Sampling Procedure

Data were collected through a questionnaire disseminated via professional networks. Sampling was conducted using a non-probability approach, specifically convenience sampling based on the predetermined inclusion criteria. Prior to completing the questionnaire, participants received information regarding the study's objectives, assurances of data confidentiality, and notification of their right to withdraw at any time. The questionnaire was administered only after participants indicated their agreement through electronic informed consent.

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Sample size adequacy was judged against common rules of thumb for CFA: a minimum of about 200 cases (Kline, 2016) and 10 to 20 cases per free parameter (Jackson, 2003; Kline, 2016). The most complex model, the correlated two-factor model, has 21 free parameters (10 loadings, 10 error variances, and one factor correlation, with factor variances fixed to 1), so the sample of 629 gives about 30 cases per parameter. Each separate one-factor model has 10 free parameters, or about 63 cases per parameter.

Instrument

Work–Life Boundary Enactment Scale (WLBES) developed by Wepfer et al. (2018) and adapted into Indonesian by Untung et al. (2026). The scale consists of ten items measuring two dimensions: work-to-life integration (five items) and life-to-work integration (five items). Each item is presented in a bipolar format with two opposing statements representing the segmentation pole and the integration pole, separated by a seven-point response scale. Higher scores reflect a more integrative degree of boundary enactment. A complete description of the instrument, including its blueprint and items, is provided in the Literature Review section.

Data Analysis

All analyses were run in LISREL 8.80 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006) using maximum likelihood (ML) estimation. The ten items use a seven-point response scale, and items with five or more categories can be treated as continuous indicators when their distributions are not severely non-normal (Rhemtulla et al., 2012). Univariate and multivariate normality were not tested, so the distributional assumption of ML estimation (Kaplan, 2009) could not be verified. This is discussed in the Limitations.

Unidimensionality was tested with a separate one-factor CFA for each dimension, in which the five items of the dimension load on one latent factor, errors are uncorrelated, and the factor variance is fixed to 1. Each model has 15 observed moments and 10 free parameters, so df = 5. A joint model of the ten items, with one or two factors, was not estimated. The analysis therefore speaks to whether the items of each dimension form a single factor, not to whether the two dimensions together form the two-factor structure proposed by Wepfer et al. (2018). A second-order model was not considered because a higher-order factor defined by only two first-order factors is not identified without additional constraints (Brown, 2015).

Model fit was evaluated with the chi-square statistic (reported for completeness, because it is sensitive to sample size), RMSEA with its 90% confidence interval, CFI, TLI, and SRMR. Fit was considered good when CFI and TLI were .95 or higher, SRMR was .08 or lower (Hu & Bentler, 1999), and RMSEA was .08 or lower. When RMSEA alone exceeded .08 and stayed within .10, fit was described as marginal (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; MacCallum et al., 1996) and the conclusions were limited accordingly. RMSEA is inflated in models with few degrees of freedom, and Kenny et al. (2015) advise caution in interpreting it when df is small, as it is here. The 90% confidence intervals of RMSEA were computed from the chi-square value, df, and sample size using the noncentral chi-square distribution. No post hoc modifications, such as correlated errors, were made.

Standardized factor loadings were considered adequate when they were at least .50 (Hair et al., 2019) and significant ($t > 1.96$). Reliability was assessed after the CFA, because reliability coefficients are meaningful only once the items are shown to measure the intended construct (McNeish, 2018). Cronbach's alpha and McDonald's omega were both reported, with .70 as the minimum (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Alpha assumes that all items load equally on the factor (tau-equivalence), whereas omega does not, so omega is preferable when loadings differ (McNeish, 2018). Omega, which equals composite reliability (CR) for a one-factor model with uncorrelated errors, and average variance extracted (AVE) were computed from the standardized loadings as $\omega = (\Sigma\lambda)^2 / [(\Sigma\lambda)^2 + \Sigma(1 - \lambda^2)]$ and $AVE = \Sigma\lambda^2 / k$, where k is the number of items. Convergent validity was supported when AVE was at least .50 and CR at least .70 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2019). Discriminant validity could not be assessed, because it requires the latent correlation between the dimensions, which separate models do not provide.

Factor scores were estimated with the Thurstone regression method from the completely standardized

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solution of each one-factor model, because the items contribute unequally to their dimensions and a raw sum would treat them as equally informative (Brown, 2015; DiStefano et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2019). Factor score determinacy was computed for each dimension, with values of about .90 or higher usually considered adequate (Gorsuch, 1983; Grice, 2001). Factor scores were converted to T-scores (T = 50 + 10 × FS) to remove negative values, and participants were classified as low (T < 40), moderate (40 to 60), or high (T > 60), using ±1 SD as cut-offs.

Results

The final sample comprised 629 full-time employees working in Indonesia. The sample comprised 422 women (67.09%) and 207 men (32.91%), aged between 18 and 42 years. With respect to educational background, the majority of participants held a Bachelor's degree (S1) or a four-year Diploma (D4) (66.45%), followed by senior high school graduates (22.42%), Master's degree holders (S2; 7.15%), Diploma (D1–D3) holders (3.50%), and Doctoral degree holders (S3; 0.48%). In terms of work tenure, the majority of participants had between 1 and 5 years of experience (78.70%), followed by 6 to 10 years (17.97%) and 11 to 15 years (3.34%). The industry backgrounds of participants varied, with the largest representations in food and beverage, tourism, and hospitality (17.33%); manufacturing (15.42%); finance and insurance (15.26%); media, advertising, and digital sectors (13.51%); and retail and wholesale (9.38%). Table 2 presents the complete demographic characteristics of the participants.

Table 2. Participants Demographic (N = 629)

Variable	Category	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	422	67.09
	Male	207	32.91
Highest Education	Senior High School or Equivalent	141	22.42
	Diploma (D1/D2/D3)	22	3.50
	Bachelor's Degree (S1/D4)	418	66.45
	Master's Degree (S2)	45	7.15
	Doctoral Degree (S3)	3	0.48
Length of Employment	1–5 years	495	78.70
	6–10 years	113	17.97
	11–15 years	21	3.34
Industry Sector	Food & Beverage, Tourism, and Hospitality	109	17.33
	Manufacturing	97	15.42
	Finance and Insurance	96	15.26
	Media, Advertising, and Digital	85	13.51
	Retail and Wholesale	59	9.38
	Public and Government Services	46	7.31
	Transportation and Logistics	37	5.88
	Construction, Property, and Design	33	5.25
	IT and Technology	26	4.13
	Education	13	2.07
	FMCG	9	1.43
	Healthcare	8	1.27
	Agriculture, Plantation, and Mining	7	1.11
	Consultancy	4	0.64

Descriptive Statistics

Prior to the construct validity examination, descriptive statistics were computed using factor scores rather than raw summed scores. This approach was adopted because the CFA demonstrated that items contributed unequally to their respective latent dimensions, with standardized loadings ranging from 0.61 to 0.83. Raw summation would implicitly assume tau-equivalence across items, an assumption not supported by the present data, whereas factor scores weight each item according to its contribution to the latent

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construct and therefore yield a more precise estimate of the underlying variable (Brown, 2015; DiStefano et al., 2019; Hair et al., 2019).

Factor scores were computed using the Thurstone regression method, with weights derived from the completely standardized solution of each one-factor CFA model. Factor score determinacy was high for both dimensions (ρ = .855 for work-to-life integration and ρ = .878 for life-to-work integration), exceeding the .80 threshold recommended by Grice (2001) and indicating that the computed scores closely approximate the underlying latent variables. To eliminate negative values and facilitate interpretation, factor scores were subsequently transformed into T-scores using the formula T = 50 + 10(FS). Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics for both dimensions, and Table 3a reports item-level statistics together with the factor score weights.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of the WLBES Based on Factor Scores (N = 629)

Dimension	λ range	ρ	FS *M*	FS *SD*	T *M*	T *SD*	T Min	T Max
Work-to-life integration	0.61–0.79	.855	0.00	1.00	50.00	10.00	26.99	74.23
Life-to-work integration	0.64–0.83	.878	0.00	1.00	50.00	10.00	27.62	76.83

Note. λ = standardized factor loading; ρ = factor score determinacy; FS = factor score computed via the Thurstone regression method. T-scores were derived as T = 50 + 10(FS). The possible T-score range is 26.92–74.37 for work-to-life integration and 27.56–76.94 for life-to-work integration.

Table 4. Item-Level Descriptive Statistics and Factor Score Weights (N = 629)

Item	*M*	*SD*	Min	Max	λ	FS weight
WTL_1	3.77	1.672	1	7	0.71	.134
WTL_2	4.01	1.556	1	7	0.78	.196
WTL_3	3.86	1.618	1	7	0.79	.214
WTL_4	4.02	1.554	1	7	0.71	.142
WTL_5	3.92	1.495	1	7	0.61	.104
LTW_1	3.70	1.463	1	7	0.79	.189
LTW_2	3.42	1.507	1	7	0.68	.106
LTW_3	3.57	1.491	1	7	0.83	.232
LTW_4	3.87	1.454	1	7	0.81	.202
LTW_5	4.20	1.434	1	7	0.64	.095

Note. WTL = work-to-life integration; LTW = life-to-work integration; λ = standardized factor loading; FS weight = Thurstone regression weight applied to the raw item score. Constants for factor score computation are −3.099 (work-to-life) and −3.068 (life-to-work).

Reliability

Cronbach's alpha was .844 for work-to-life integration and .864 for life-to-work integration, both above the .70 minimum (Table 6). McDonald's omega, computed from the standardized loadings, was .844 and .867. Omega is the more appropriate coefficient because the loadings are not equal (.61–.79 and .64–.83), although here it is close to alpha. AVE was .52 for work-to-life integration and .57 for life-to-work integration, above the .50 criterion, although the first is only just above it. Discriminant validity was not assessed, because the latent correlation between the dimensions is not available from the separate models. Alpha for all ten items was .875. Because the WLBES is scored by dimension, the subscale coefficients are the ones to interpret.

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Table 5. Reliability and Convergent Validity of the WLBES Dimensions

Dimension	Items	Cronbach's α	McDonald's ω (CR)	AVE
Work-to-life integration	5	.844	.844	.52
Life-to-work integration	5	.864	.867	.57

Categorization of Work–Life Boundary Enactment

To give a descriptive profile of boundary enactment among Indonesian employees, participants were classified into three categories based on their T-scores, using ±1 SD as cut-off points. Employees scoring below 40 were categorized as low, reflecting a segmentation-oriented enactment in which relatively impermeable boundaries are maintained between the work and personal domains. Those scoring between 40 and 60 were categorized as moderate, indicating a mix of integrating and segmenting behaviours. Employees scoring above 60 were categorized as high, reflecting an integration-oriented enactment characterized by frequent spillover across domains. Table 9 presents the category definitions and Table 10 the resulting distribution.

Table 6. Interpretive Categories of the Indonesian WLBES

Category	T-score	Factor score	Interpretation
Low	$T < 40$	$FS < -1.00$	Segmentation-oriented: maintains relatively impermeable boundaries between work and personal life
Moderate	$40 \leq T \leq 60$	$-1.00 \leq FS \leq 1.00$	Mixed: combines integrating and segmenting behaviours
High	$T > 60$	$FS > 1.00$	Integration-oriented: highly permeable boundaries with frequent inter-domain spillover

Note. FS = factor score. Cut-off points were established at ±1 SD of the factor score distribution.

Table 7. Categorization of Work–Life Boundary Enactment Among Indonesian Employees (N = 629)

Dimension	Category	*n*	%
Work-to-life integration	Low (T < 40)	118	18.76
	Moderate (40–60)	402	63.91
	High (T > 60)	109	17.33
Life-to-work integration	Low (T < 40)	105	16.69
	Moderate (40–60)	418	66.45
	High (T > 60)	106	16.85

Note. Categorization was based on factor scores transformed into T-scores, with ±1 SD as cut-off points. These represent sample-based norms derived from a convenience sample and should not be interpreted as national population norms.

As shown in Table 7, the majority of participants fell within the moderate category on both dimensions (63.91% for work-to-life integration and 66.45% for life-to-work integration), with the low and high categories comprising comparable minorities (18.76% and 17.33% for work-to-life integration; 16.69% and 16.85% for life-to-work integration). This pattern is consistent with the item-level means reported in Table 3a, which clustered near the scale midpoint, suggesting that Indonesian employees predominantly occupy an intermediate position along the segmentation–integration continuum rather than committing fully to either pole. This finding may reflect the collectivist cultural context, in which family obligations and professional loyalty exert simultaneous and often competing demands, encouraging a mix of integrating and segmenting behaviours.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Each dimension was tested with a separate one-factor model (Table 8). For both dimensions CFI (0.99) and TLI (0.97) exceeded .95 and SRMR was below .03. RMSEA was 0.086 for work-to-life integration and 0.089 for life-to-work integration, above the .08 criterion, so RMSEA is classified as marginal. The 90%

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confidence interval of RMSEA was [0.057, 0.118] for work-to-life integration and [0.060, 0.121] for life-to-work integration. In both cases the lower limit was below .08 and the upper limit above .10, so acceptable fit cannot be confirmed and poor fit cannot be excluded on this index. The chi-square tests were significant ($p < .001$), which is expected with N = 629 because the statistic is sensitive to sample size (Hair et al., 2019; Kline, 2016). With df = 5, RMSEA is also likely to be inflated and imprecise (Kenny et al., 2015). Taken together, the indices give initial support for the unidimensionality of each dimension, with marginal RMSEA.

Table 8. Fit Indices of the Separate One-Factor Models of the WLBES

Dimension	χ^2 (df)	p	RMSEA [90% CI]	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Work-to-life integration (5 items)	28.18 (5)	< .001	0.086 [0.057, 0.118]	0.99	0.97	0.028
Life-to-work integration (5 items)	30.02 (5)	< .001	0.089 [0.060, 0.121]	0.99	0.97	0.022

Note. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CI = confidence interval; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual. Criteria: CFI and TLI ≥ .95; SRMR ≤ .08; RMSEA ≤ .08 (acceptable) or .08–.10 (marginal). RMSEA confidence intervals were computed from χ^2, df, and N.

Work-to-life Integration

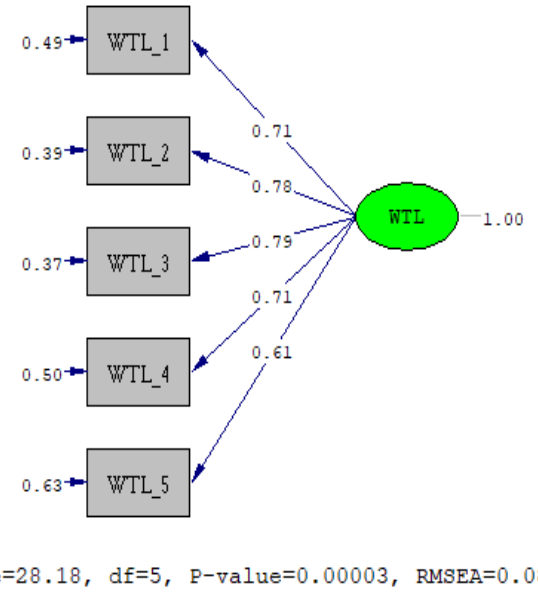


Figure 1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Work-to-life Integration

A Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted to test whether the five items of the work-to-life integration dimension were unidimensional. The results of the one-factor model indicated adequate model fit, with $\chi^2 = 27.68$; df = 5; $p < .001$; RMSEA = 0.086; CFI = 0.99; NFI = 0.98; NNFI/TLI = 0.97; SRMR = 0.028; and GFI = 0.98. Although the chi-square value was statistically significant, this outcome is expected with large samples (N = 629), given the sensitivity of the chi-square statistic to sample size (Hair et al., 2019; Kline, 2016). The remaining indices, including CFI, NFI, TLI, and SRMR, met the criteria for excellent fit, thereby supporting the acceptance of the one-factor (unidimensional) model. This result suggests that all items in the work-to-life integration dimension reflect the same latent factor.

Table 9. Factor Loading Dimensions of Work-to-Life Integration

Items	Lambda (λ)	Std. Error	T-Value	Conclusion
WTL_1	0.71	0.062	19.19	Significant
WTL_2	0.78	0.056	21.75	Significant

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WTL_3	0.79	0.058	22.29	Significant
WTL_4	0.71	0.058	19.04	Significant
WTL_5	0.61	0.058	15.64	Significant

Note. Lambda (λ) denotes the standardized factor loading derived from the Completely Standardized Solution in LISREL. Items are considered significant when T-Value > 1.96.

As shown in Table 9, all items of the work-to-life integration dimension exhibited standardized factor loadings (λ) ranging from .61 to 0.79, with all t-values exceeding 1.96, indicating that all items contributed significantly to the measurement of the dimension.

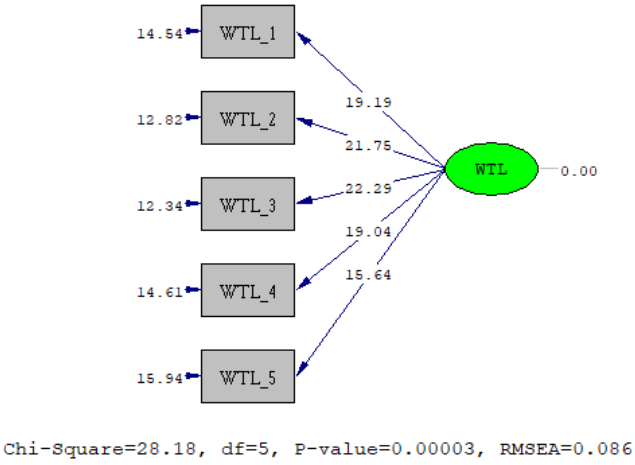


Figure 2. T-value of Work-to-life Integration

Life-to-work Integration

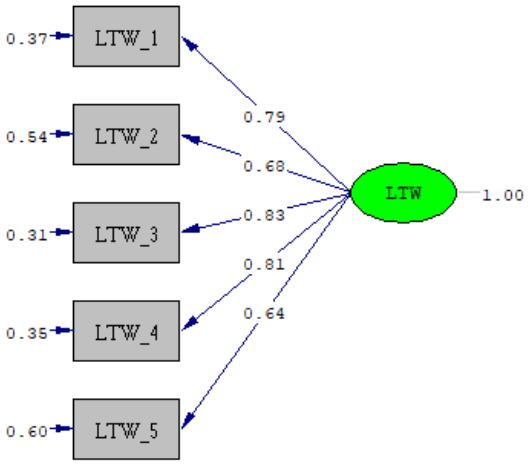


Figure 3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Life-to-work Integration

A parallel CFA was conducted to assess whether the five items of the life-to-work integration dimension were unidimensional. The results of the one-factor model indicated adequate model fit, with $\chi^2 = 28.75$; df = 5; $p < .001$; RMSEA = .089; CFI = .99; NFI = .99; NNFI/TLI = .97; SRMR = .022; and GFI = .98. Consistent with the work-to-life integration dimension, the significant chi-square value was attributable to the large sample size and did not preclude overall model fit. The remaining fit indices reflected excellent model fit, thereby supporting the acceptance of the one-factor (unidimensional) model. This finding suggests that all items in the life-to-work integration dimension reflect the same latent factor.

Table 10. Factor Loading Dimension of Life-to-Work Integration

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Items	Lambda (λ)	Std. Error	T-Value	Conclusion
LTW_1	.79	.051	22.62	Significant
LTW_2	.68	.056	18.35	Significant
LTW_3	.83	.051	24.39	Significant
LTW_4	.81	.050	23.21	Significant
LTW_5	.63	.054	16.83	Significant

Note. Lambda (λ) denotes the standardized factor loading derived from the Completely Standardized Solution in LISREL. Items are considered significant when T-Value > 1.96.

As shown in Table 6, all items of the life-to-work integration dimension exhibited standardized factor loadings (λ) ranging from .63 to .83, with all t-values exceeding 1.96, indicating that all items contributed significantly to the measurement of the dimension

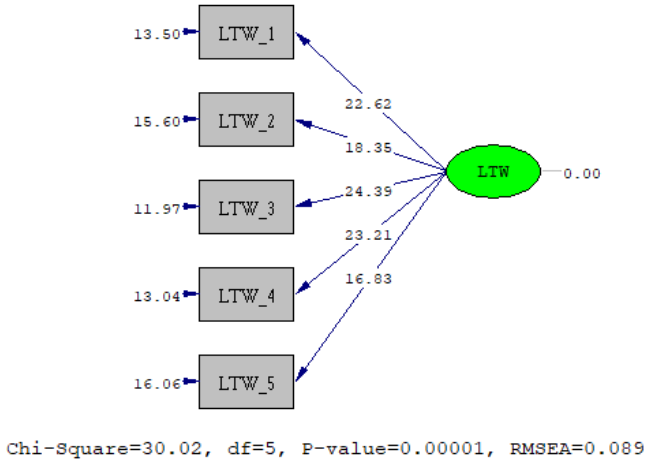


Figure 4. T-value of Life-to-work Integration

Table 7 presents the CFA model fit indices for both WLBES dimensions. Across all indices, both the work-to-life integration and life-to-work integration dimensions demonstrated adequate model fit with the data.

Table 11. Model fit indices CFA WLBES

Index	Criteria	Work-to-Life	Life-to-Work	Conclusion
Chi-Square (df)	p > .05	27.68	28.75	—
RMSEA	≤ .08	.086	.089	Marginal fit
CFI	≥ .90	.99	.99	Good fit
NFI	≥ .90	.98	.99	Good fit
NNFI (TLI)	≥ .90	.97	.97	Good fit
IFI	≥ .90	.99	.99	Good fit
SRMR	≤ .08	.028	.022	Good fit
GFI	≥ .90	.98	.98	Good fit
AGFI	≥ .90	.95	.93	Good fit

As shown in Table 7, all model fit indices for both WLBES dimensions fell within acceptable ranges, with several reflecting excellent fit. The RMSEA values were slightly above the ideal threshold (0.06) but remained within the acceptable range (≤ .10). All incremental fit indices (CFI, NFI, NNFI, and IFI) and the residual-based index (SRMR) indicated excellent model fit. The high GFI and AGFI values further reinforce the conclusion that the two-dimensional WLBES model is consistent with the empirical data obtained from Indonesian workers.

Taken together, these findings suggest that the Indonesian version of the WLBES exhibits a valid two-dimensional structure encompassing work-to-life integration and life-to-work integration. All ten items contributed significantly to the measurement of their intended dimensions, with factor loadings

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exceeding .60 and t-values exceeding 1.96. Internal consistency reliability for both dimensions and for the overall scale exceeded the minimum threshold of .70. The Indonesian version of the WLBES may therefore be considered work–life boundary enactment (work-to-life and life-to-work integration) among Indonesian workers.

Discussion

The separate one-factor models supported the unidimensionality of both WLBES dimensions, with all loadings between .61 and .83 and CFI, TLI, and SRMR in the good range. Wepfer et al. (2018) proposed the two dimensions in a European sample, and the present results show that the five items of each dimension also form a coherent factor among Indonesian employees. They do not show that the two dimensions together fit a two-factor model, because the ten items were not analyzed jointly. Whether one factor or two represents the scale better, and how strongly the dimensions correlate, remain open.

RMSEA was the one index that did not reach the acceptable range (0.086 and 0.089), and its upper confidence limits were above .10, so fit should be read as marginal, not as good. With df = 5, RMSEA is inflated and imprecise (Kenny et al., 2015), and CFI, TLI, and SRMR were in the good range, which is why the models are retained here. The result is still weaker than a clean fit, and ML estimation without a check of normality may add to the inflation, since ML chi-square and RMSEA can be distorted when data are non-normal.

Reliability was adequate for both dimensions (alpha = .844 and .864; omega = .844 and .867). Alpha and omega are close, so unequal loadings did little harm to alpha here. AVE for work-to-life integration (.52) barely exceeded .50, which reflects its weakest item. The two lowest loadings belonged to communication items: WTL_5 (.61, communicating with colleagues during leave) and LTW_5 (.64, communicating with family and friends while at work). Such communication can be brief and routine, unlike working overtime or on weekends (WTL_2 and WTL_3, the highest loadings of their dimension) or handling personal matters during scheduled work hours (LTW_3, .83). If brief messaging is routine among employees regardless of how they otherwise separate work and home, these items may reflect a common habit more than boundary enactment. LTW_5 also had the highest mean of all items (4.20). This explanation is tentative and needs checking in other samples.

Most participants fell in the moderate category on both dimensions (63.91% and 66.45%; Table 10), and item means clustered near the scale midpoint (Table 8), which means that most respondents reported a mix of integrating and segmenting behaviours rather than one pole. Because the categories are defined as ±1 SD around the sample mean, roughly two thirds of any approximately normal distribution falls in the moderate category by construction. The proportions therefore describe positions within this convenience sample, not the prevalence of segmentation or integration in the Indonesian workforce, and norms from a probability sample are needed before the categories are used for screening.

For practice, the scale can describe how employees combine work and personal roles, not how well they manage them. Several limitations apply. The two dimensions were analyzed in separate models, so the two-factor structure, the latent correlation between the dimensions, and discriminant validity were not tested. Future studies should estimate a correlated two-factor model of all ten items, compare it with a one-factor model, and interpret the correlation. Boundary theory would lead to expect a positive correlation, because people who let work enter home life may also let personal matters enter work, but a weak correlation is plausible if job demands and family demands drive the two directions separately. Normality of the item distributions was not tested, and ML chi-square and RMSEA can be inflated when data are non-normal, so the analyses should be repeated with an estimator corrected for non-normality (e.g., scaled ML) when the data allow. Participants were recruited through convenience

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sampling, which limits generalization to other working populations. The design was cross-sectional, so the stability of the structure over time was not tested, and measurement invariance across gender, age group, and industry sector was not examined. Relations with external measures such as work–family conflict, psychological detachment, or recovery experience were not examined, so the validity evidence here concerns only the internal structure. All data were self-reported at one time point, and common method variance may affect the results.

Conclusion

The present study examined the construct validity of the Indonesian-adapted Work–Life Boundary Enactment Scale (WLBES) through Confirmatory Factor Analysis among full-time employees in Indonesia. The findings confirm that the WLBES retains a valid two-dimensional structure—work-to-life integration and life-to-work integration—as originally proposed by Wepfer et al. (2018). All model fit indices for both dimensions met the required criteria, with CFI, NFI, TLI, IFI, GFI, and AGFI exceeding 0.90, and SRMR below 0.08. All ten items contributed significantly to the measurement of their respective dimensions, with standardized factor loadings ranging from 0.61 to 0.83 and t-values above 1.96. Internal consistency reliability for both dimensions and for the overall scale also exceeded the recommended threshold, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.844 for work-to-life integration, 0.864 for life-to-work integration, and 0.875 for the overall scale.

These findings offer several contributions. Theoretically, the results provide evidence that the boundary theory framework underpinning the WLBES is transferable to the Indonesian cultural context, which is characterized by collectivist values, strong family norms, and social expectations that differ considerably from those of the individualist contexts in which the instrument was originally developed. Methodologically, the study provides a psychometrically validated Indonesian version of the WLBES, addressing the limitations of previous studies that relied solely on internal consistency reliability coefficients. Practically, the instrument may be utilized by human resource practitioners in Indonesia to accurately assess employees' work–life integration as a basis for designing workplace well-being policies and organizational interventions.

Several limitations of this study warrant consideration. First, participants were recruited through convenience sampling, which suggests that the generalizability of the findings to working populations. Second, the cross-sectional design precludes the examination of factor structure stability across time. Third, measurement invariance across demographic groups, such as gender, age groups, or industry sectors, was not assessed. Fourth, the convergent and discriminant validity of the WLBES with related instruments, such as measures of work–family conflict, psychological detachment, or recovery experience, was not examined. Future research is therefore encouraged to test the measurement invariance of the WLBES across demographic groups, to evaluate its convergent and discriminant validity in relation to comparable instruments, and to explore the use of the WLBES as both a predictor and an outcome within broader nomological models in the Indonesian workforce context.

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