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USING PRISM TO TEST AMOTIVATION AS A MEDIATOR BETWEEN WORK-HOME AND TURNOVER

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This study aims to provide evidence of the suitability of the pictorial representation of illness and self measure (PRISM) for research on industrial and organizational psychology. The authors tested the mediating role of amotivation in the relationship between work boundaries and turnover intentions. Data provided by 221 Colombian participants from 11 companies were analyzed using the structural equation modeling approach. The results suggest that the PRISM can be used as a measure of different psychosocial aspects at the workplace. As the relationships between work boundaries, amotivation, and turnover have not been simultaneously tested and research on these topics in Latin America is scarce, the findings of the study also contribute to literature on work boundaries and work motivation.

Keywords: PRISM; Job attitudes and engagement; Work and family; Withdrawal/absenteeism/turnover.

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For more than a century, grasping psychological variables has been the interest of psychologists. In past times, Fechner showed that it is possible to measure non-tangible psychological processes (as cited in Sireci, Wainer, & Braun, 1998). Intelligence tests developed in World War I became a landmark of psychological measurement (Craig, 2017). Generally speaking, measurement can be defined as the assignment of numbers to objects following certain criteria (Stevens, 1946). In psychology, such objects are attitudes, for instance, and can be rated using ordered scales (Likert, 1932). Likert scales are widely used in fields such as industrial and organizational psychology (I/O psychology). However, scales and, in general, measurement in the different fields of psychology are not free from controversy. Traditional nomothetic methods like generic questionnaires pose problems when trying to grasp attitudes (Sensky & Büchi, 2016). Similarly, controversy has involved the use of Likert scales. The problem arises when researchers use parametric analyses to unveil the structure of data collected using Likert scales. Likert scales produce ordinal data for which nonparametric tests would be more suitable. Still, many authors use parametric analyses to examine this type of data. Although some authors on the opposite side of the discussion advocate for the use of Likert scales, they recognize that analyses derivate of correlations (e.g., regressions and factor analysis) are too sensitive to ordinal data (Carifio & Perla, 2007).

Given the limitations of verbal items and Likert scales mentioned so far, some scholars have opted for the use of alternative operationalizations of psychological concepts. Visual analogue scales (VASs) are an example of this alternative method of psychological measurement. VASs have been used to measure pain, anxiety, and other subjective phenomena in patients with different conditions (Gift, 1989). The typical VAS

pain scale is a self-completed 100-mm continuous measure. These scales have two verbal anchors describing extreme symptoms. The score is calculated using a ruler to measure the distance from one of the extremes (Hawker, Mian, Kendzerska, & French, 2011). A systematic review concluded that VASs work as well as numeric and verbal rating scales (VRSs) to assess pain in adults (Hjermstad et al., 2011). VASs have become electronic, making accessibility and scoring easier. Recently, Kos et al. (2017) found that electronic VASs were reliable measures of aspects such as anxiety and quality of life in multiple sclerosis patients and a healthy control group.

As an alternative to VRSs and VASs, a group of researchers created a measure similar to VASs named pictorial representation of illness and self measure (PRISM; Büchi, Sensky, Sharpe, & Timberlake, 1998). The PRISM was initially developed to simply and rapidly assess the effect of illness and symptoms on the individual. Nowadays, the applications of the PRISM are wider and some authors claim that the measure can be used to assess "personally salient information" (Sensky & Büchi, 2016). As in the case of VASs, electronic versions of the PRISM are now available.

With regard to VRSs, this type of measure may have issues since respondents may not be able to understand the questions, may be offended or get wearied, or even may not like the appearance (Boynton, 2004). Participants may also be tired of the survey and, as a consequence, tap straight line responses or prefer the "do not know option." This is known as survey fatigue (Lavrakas, 2008). Survey fatigue can be experienced by employees as they respond to too many surveys. The authors of this paper believe that the PRISM is a good alternative to VRSs and VASs. The initial goal of this study was to contribute to the scarce evidence showing that the PRISM can be used to measure different psychological aspects at the workplace. In this way, this paper aims at contributing to the specialty of I/O psychology. As stated by the American Psychological Association (APA; n.d.), I/O psychology studies "human behavior in organizations and the workplace." Easy and rapid forms of measurement help the design, execution, and interpretation of research in I/O psychology (APA, n.d.). Precisely, these are some of the main skills and procedures utilized in the field. With the study reported in this paper, the authors want to contribute to the I/O psychology field by using the PRISM to measure some antecedents of turnover intentions (TOIs) in a sample of Colombian employees. The published applications of the PRISM in Latin America are few and are focused on pain measurement (e.g., Krikorian, Limonero, Román, Vargas, & Palacio, 2014; Krikorian, Limonero, Vargas, & Palacio, 2013).

With the aim of providing evidence about the suitability of PRISM as a measure of I/O psychology-related factors, the authors tested a model where work-family variables indirectly affect withdrawal intentions. Work-family conflict and enrichment, and their effect on attitudes, have attracted the attention of researchers in the I/O psychology field. Previous research results on the effects of work-family enrichment on turnover have been mixed (Shockley & Singla, 2011). This relative gap in the literature together with the fact that amotivation has not been studied as a mediator of the effect of work-family interactions on turnover were identified as an opportunity to examine the suitability of PRISM to test theoretical I/O psychology models. In sum, this paper has a double contribution to literature in self-determination theory and work-family interactions. First, by using PRISM, the study contributes to showing alternative ways of operationalizing concepts often studied in both literatures. Additionally, the theoretical model included amotivation as a mechanism mediating the effect of work-family interactions on turnover. To the best of the authors' knowledge, no previous research has validated a model with these two concepts.

This article was structured considering that the study envisioned this double contribution. First, the authors present a description of PRISM and some of its uses in I/O psychology and other applied fields. Next, they develop a series of hypotheses composing a theoretical model in which amotivation mediates the effect

of work-family interactions on turnover intentions. The authors are aware that presenting a more extensive review of theory and extant research supporting the hypotheses was desirable. However, that choice would have limited the space to report the antecedents and development of PRISM and its potential as an instrument capable of operationalizing concepts coming from different I/O psychology literatures. In the following sections of the paper, the authors present the results of the study and discuss the findings. The results partially support the hypotheses of the study. Although the hypothesis according to which amotivation mediated the effect of work-family interactions was not validated, the results show that work-family boundaries as measured with PRISM influence both endogenous variables: amotivation and turnover intentions operationalized with a verbal rating/Likert scale measure.

PRISM Definition and Task

The PRISM bases on "the first law of cognitive geography" (Montello, Fabrikant, Ruocco, & Middleton, 2003). According to this principle, characters that are nearer are perceived by people as more similar than distant characters. Specifically, viewers of a display interpret distance between points in it as similarity relationships (Fabrikant & Montello, 2008). As in the original PRISM, in the electronic version of the PRISM, respondents are instructed to locate different points on a display with respect to a reference point. The reference point is the subject, and the other points represent salient features within a defined context. Abstract states can be located as points in the display (Sensky & Büchi, 2016). Instead of eliciting narrative slow responses as verbal scales, PRISM instructions ask for a fast and focused response. Furthermore, when compared with data coming from verbal scales, PRISM responses are less likely to be affected by social desirability (Sensky & Büchi, 2016).

Instructions, applications, and formats have varied since the creation of the PRISM. In the original version, participants were asked to locate a magnetized 5-cm red disk in a white A4-size metal board with a fixed yellow 7-cm disk. The yellow disk was located in the bottom right corner of the board. The instructions were the following: "Please imagine that this white board is your life at the moment, and the yellow disk [point to the disk] is your 'self'. Now imagine this red disk is your illness. Where would you put the illness to reflect its importance in your life at the moment?" The result was a continuous quantitative measure/distance between the self and the illness disks. The yellow disk/self-disk was accommodated in a corner of the board to provide a greater range (see Figure 1).

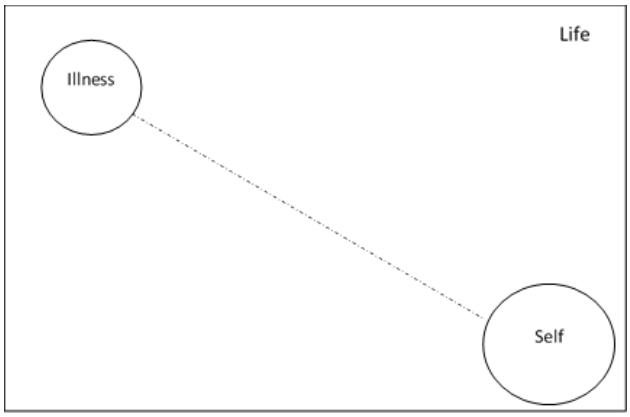

Figure 1
Representation of PRISM.

However, scholars have modified either the location of the yellow disk or the size of the board. A development of the PRISM, the PRISM+, asked respondents after completing the original task to locate other magnetized disks in different colors in the board. These disks represented other aspects of the personhood such as family, work, hobbies, and friends (Büchi et al., 1998; Sensky & Büchi, 2016). Personhood refers to the totality of the person and aspects that are important for the individual (Cassell, 2004). As mentioned before, the PRISM allows measuring aspects of personhood that go beyond illness. Moreover, the suitability of the PRISM to measure nonclinical aspects has been demonstrated in nonclinical samples.

Applications of PRISM in Industrial and Organizational Psychology

The PRISM has been mostly used in medicine, nursery, and health psychology, and particularly to measure suffering of patients with different conditions (Krikorian, et al., 2013; Sensky & Büchi, 2016). Other applications of the PRISM include measuring the distance between the self and alcohol (Reinhardt, Bischof, Grothues, John, & Rumpf, 2006), the gap between the self and suicidality (Ring et al., 2014), and the separation between the self and political events (Duncan, Gidron, Shrestha, & Aryal, 2005). In these studies, small modifications to the original PRISM statement were made. For instance, in the latter study the red magnetized disk that originally represented illness was labelled as political events. This modification was also applied in a study more related to psychosocial aspects of work. Klein et al. (2012) used the PRISM to evaluate mental distance of anesthesiologists with regard to their job. They found that mental distance as measured with the PRISM interacts with implicit job stress to produce higher levels of cortisol. Noteworthy, the authors used verbal and objective measures along with the PRISM. Overall, as a measure of aspects different from suffering, the PRISM has shown significant correlations with other scales (Sensky & Büchi, 2016).

In Latin America the PRISM has been little used. One of the few examples of researches using this tool is the study by Krikorian et al. (2014). They administered the PRISM to a sample of Colombian patients, used it to measure suffering, and found that suffering as measured using the PRISM was predicted by the participants' physical, psychological, and spiritual dimensions. To the authors' knowledge, no study in Latin America has used the PRISM to measure variables related to the I/O psychology field.

Amotivation as Mediator of the Effect of Work-family Interactions on Turnover

The authors of this paper wanted to test a theoretical model in which a dimension of work motivation mediated the effect of positive work-family interactions on turnover intentions (TOIs). As will be explained in Section "Method," the PRISM was used to operationalize two of these variables. Although the work and family relationship has been widely studied, this relationship has been mainly conceived either as a conflict, interference, or balance. Most studies have focused on the conflict or interference between both spheres of life (Chang, Mcdonald, & Burton, 2010). In terms of balance, some scholars argue that these spheres of life can exert an additive mutual effect on well-being (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Studies in Spain and Latin America have found more consistency in the effects of work-family interaction (WFI) on other variables, than in the influences exerted by the family-work interaction on its outcomes (Romeo, Yepes-Baldó, & Berger, 2014). Consequently, in this study the authors selected the WFI perspective. Now, the WFI may be positive or negative. The positive work-family interaction (PWFI) refers to positive experiences in work that lead to positive experiences and outcomes in the role at home. The emphasis on positive interdependencies

between work-family is needed in research in this area (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). According to Greenhaus & Powell (2006), it is possible that resources developed in one role boost performance in the other role *via* motivation. Until recently, no research had inquired into the effect of the PWFI on work motivation in Latin America and specifically, in Colombia (Romeo et al., 2014).

From another perspective, boundary work or boundary management scholars have tried to understand how people subjectively perceive family, work, and individual domains (Ammons, 2013). People subjectively establish boundaries between work and family in a continuum that goes from separation to integration. Within the boundary work or boundary management theoretical framework, work and family are territories of the self (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Even if boundaries depend on the social environment, they seem to be stable in time (Nippert-Eng, 1996). The overlap of work and family territories of the self may be perceived as an intrusion by a given individual, while for another that overlap may not be problematic (Ammons, 2013). Although there is relatively little empirical research on boundary work, some research directions in the field are promising to understand aspects such as TOIs (Ammons, 2013). The authors of this study contend that the PRISM is a useful tool to measure the continuum between the work and family territories of the self, and to increase knowledge about attitudinal responses to subjective perceptions about work-family boundaries. The present research used the PRISM to measure work-family boundaries and consequently test if those boundaries have negative effects on workers' motivation and attitudes. In fact, Hunter, Clark, and Carlson (2017) recently found that violations of work-family boundaries lead to negative affective reactions.

With regard to work motivation, the concept is generally defined as energy that leads the individual to begin work-related behaviors. Originated from within and outside the individual, this energy shapes the individual's behavior at work (Pinder, 1998). Thus, work motivation is highly important when studying behavior at the workplace. As for its antecedents, some authors claim that work motivation is the result of the interaction between the individual and the context (Latham & Pinder, 2005). According to the self-determination theory (SDT; Miller, 1988), there are three main motivational concepts which help to understand human behavior: intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and amotivation. Intrinsic motivation is an inherent drive to look for newness and challenges. This type of motivation is also related to the individual's will to use and develop his/her own capacities. Extrinsic motivation is related to behaviors directed to obtain a "separable outcome" (Ryan & Deci, 2000). On the other hand, amotivation is defined as "the state of lacking the intention to act" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 72), a state where extrinsic and intrinsic motivations are absent.

Although amotivation refers to a lack of motivation and intentions to act, some research results indicate that it is a mediator of the influence of contextual variables on TOIs — that is, motivating potential, autonomy-supportive leadership, and understanding the organization's strategy (Güntert, 2015). Whereas Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier, and Villeneuve (2009) found negative associations between amotivation and positive outcomes, Güntert (2015) reported a negative correlation between amotivation and TOIs. So far, no studies in Latin America have investigated either the effect of amotivation on TOIs, or the mediating role of the former in the relationship between work-life balance on TOIs. In view of this gap in the SDT and work-life balance literature, the authors propose the following hypotheses:

H1: Amotivation mediates the effect of work-family boundaries on TOIs.

H2: Amotivation mediates the effect of positive work-family interactions on TOIs.

The hypotheses of the study are summarized in the hypothesized model shown in Figure 2:

Recent research results indicate that work-life enrichment is associated with lower TOIs (Ghislieri, Gatti, Molino, & Cortese, 2016). Conversely, other researchers found that work-family conflict was related to withdrawal intentions (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Collins, 2001). In consequence, the authors of this study posited that both indirect effects were negative. Since the aim of the study was to provide evidence of

the suitability of the PRISM in I/O psychology research, they added another hypothesis to the model. Specifically, the test of the following hypothesis helps in establishing concurrent validity for the PRISM as a measure of work-family boundaries.

H3: Work-family boundaries are positively related to positive work-family interactions.

This hypothesis is theoretically plausible since both concepts belong to the same research area (i.e., work-family balance). In both cases, literatures on work-life interactions and work-life balance, the authors recognize that the relationship between both domains can be positive or negative. In order to provide newer insights on the consequences of this relationship in a Latin American country, the authors decided to adopt the approach to work and family in this study. Noteworthy, most authors have studied the relationship in terms of conflict and intrusion (Romeo et al., 2014).

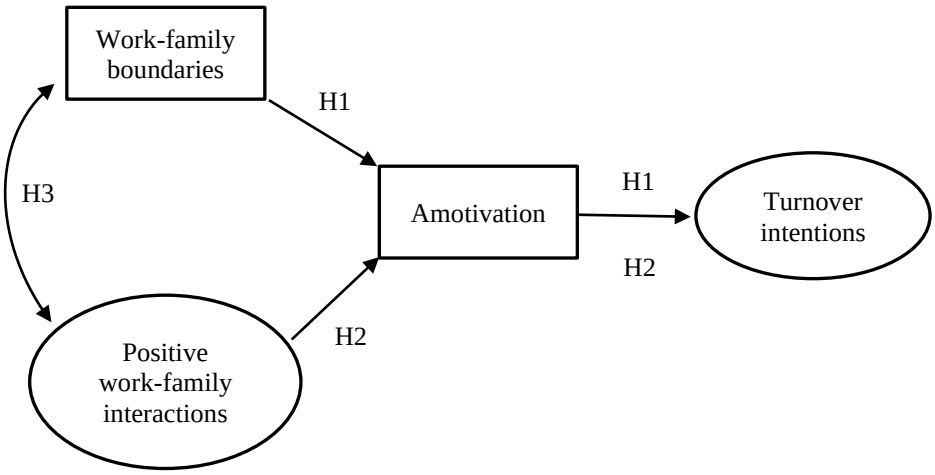

FIGURE 2
Theoretical model.

METHOD

Participants and Procedure

An online survey was used to collect data regarding PWFI on TOIs. The first part of the survey presented an informed consent. Anonymity of the individual data was guaranteed to the participants. The respondents voluntarily participated in the study. As part of a semistructured interview, 221 respondents used the PRISM application to represent the distance between different territories of the self. Fifty-five percent of the participants were women. The mean age was 30.55 years (*SD* = 6.89). The respondents were employees of 11 large/multinational and medium size Colombian enterprises and worked at different levels of the organizations — from low- to high-level employees. Job tenure was on average 4.57 years (*SD* = 4.75). Most participants were engineers (14.7%) and managers (9.8%). The rest of the respondents had other occupations (e.g., psychologists, accountants, publicists, marketing professionals, lawyers, designers). The percentages of the educational levels of the participants were: 18% primary, 39% secondary, 10% technical, 32% undergraduate, and 1% graduate. Permission to participate in the study was granted by the companies. The companies operated in different industrial sectors (e.g., food, construction supplies, electricity distribution, etc.).

The interviews were conducted in five main cities of the country (i.e., Barranquilla 20.5%, Bogotá 23.1%, Bucaramanga 9.4%, Cali 23.1%, Medellín 23.9%).

Measures

Work-home boundaries (WHB) and amotivation (AMO) were measured using the PRISM (PRISM-WHB and PRISM-AMO, respectively). In this case, the length between the fixed and mobile disks refers to the distances between the work and family territories of the self and of work and motivation. As mentioned before, in the original version of the PRISM, the fixed disk refers to the self and the mobile disk to different aspects of the personhood. In this study, the fixed disk represented work as a specific aspect of the self. The screen represented the life of the participants. While one of the mobile disks indicated family, the other represented the motivation of the individual. As an introduction to the PRISM, all these labels were presented to the respondents. Emphasis was placed on the fact that a small distance represented proximity; hence, the smaller the gap between the work and family, the more balance between these aspects of the self; and the bigger the length between work and motivation, the less motivation or the more amotivation at work. The PRISM application for iPad was used given the relatively young age of the participants (see previous Subsection "Participants and Procedure"). This PRISM version seems more appealing to young people (Sensky & Büchi, 2016). It has also shown good test-retest reliability — intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) = .99 — and inter-rater reliability (r = .79). Further, in applications different from suffering measurement, the PRISM has also demonstrated good correlations with other measures (Sensky & Büchi, 2016).

The Spanish version of the subscale of Survey Work-Home Interaction was used to assess positive work-family interactions (SWING; Jiménez, Vergel, Muñoz, & Geurts, 2009). The subscale positive work-home interaction (henceforth SWING-PWH) had satisfactory reliability (Cronbach's α = .77). Furthermore, SWING-PWH had been previously validated in Colombia (Román-Calderon, Gonzales-Miranda, García, & Gallo, 2019). The respondents tapped their answers to the five items using a 5-point Likert scale. The following is an example of item: "After a pleasant working day/working week, you feel more in the mood to engage in activities with your spouse/family/friends."

The authors measured employee's TOIs with the scale of Bentein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, and Stinglhamber, (2005). The authors of that study reported Cronbach's αs from .74 to .92 for all the scales used in their study. In a previous Colombian study (Román-Calderón, Battistelli, & Vargas-Saenz, 2014), the TOIs scale also showed good reliability — composite reliability (CR) = .75. Participants marked their responses in a 5-point Likert scale to tap their degree of agreement with three items. The two indicators of the measure included "I often think about quitting this organization" and "I intend to search for a position with another employer within the next year."

Analysis

Structural equation modeling (SEM) allows testing complex relationships between latent and observable/single-item measures (Kline, 2011). Noteworthy, the model tested in this study included single-item measures (i.e., PRISM) and verbal-rating multiple item scales (i.e., SWING-PWH and TOI). Mplus v. 8 statistical package (Muthén & Muthén, 2017) was used to analyze the data. Besides yielding estimates for the direct paths, Mplus delivers estimates and probabilities of indirect effects. This is useful when models include mediator variables, as in the case of this study. To assess the fit of the theoretical model, the researchers

used the criteria established by Hu & Bentler (1999) for the following coefficients: chi-squared (χ^2), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). With regard to the factor loadings, this study adopted the rule of thumb (> .40). presented by Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (2008).

Since previous research has also shown that work-family conflict has a direct effect on TOIs (Blomme, Van Rheede, & Tromp, 2010), the theoretical full-mediation model was compared with the partial mediation model. This means that a further parameter was added to the theoretical model. This is known as the model building approach. In model building, if this chi square difference test (χ^{2diff}) is significant, the model with more free parameters and less degrees of freedom (i.e., partial-mediation model) can be retained (Kline, 2011). Since the authors of the study used the maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (MLR) estimator to deal with some deviations from the normal distribution, they conducted the test using the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square (Satorra & Bentler, 2010).

Finally, the authors of this study controlled for age and gender. Demographic variables such as these have been found as predictors of TOIs in different countries and industrial sectors (Emiroğlu, Akova, & Tanrıverdi, 2015; Shukla & Srivastava, 2016).

RESULTS

The full mediation hypothesized model had satisfactory goodness of fit coefficients. Yet, the path from SWING-PWH to PRISM-AMO resulted nonsignificant. Consequently, the researchers fixed that parameter to zero with no negative consequences in terms of goodness of fit. The goodness-of-fit coefficients of this full-mediation modified model are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Goodness of fit and difference test SEM models

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*	CFI	RMSEA
Full-mediation modified	39.80	26	.04	.95	.049
Competing model	34.87	25	.09	.97	.042
Comparison	χ^{2diff}	*df*	*p*		
	3.29	1	< .001		

Note. CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation.

In the partial mediation model the authors did not add a direct path from SWING-PWH to TOIs. The correlation between these variables resulted nonsignificant (see Table 2). After adding a direct path from PRISM-WHB to TOIs (partial-mediation model), the path parameter from amotivation to the outcome became nonsignificant.

The researchers then fixed that path to zero and compared that model with the full-mediation modified model. As the former model held the same variables, the authors used the χ^{2diff} to compare the competing models. Besides the fact that the competing model obtained better goodness-of-fit indexes (see Table1), the χ^{2diff} resulted significant. These results suggest that the model with more free parameters and less degrees of freedom could be retained. The specific results of the retained model are shown in Figure 3.

TABLE 2
Estimated correlation matrix

Variable	1	2	3
1. TOIs			
2. SWING-PWH	–.08*		
3. PRISM-AMO	–.30*	.06	
4. PRISM-WHB	.33**	–.25**	–.24

Note. TOIs = turnover intentions; SWING-PWH = Survey Work-home Interaction-Positive work-home; PRISM-AMO = Pictorial Representation of Illness and Self Measure-Amotivation; PRISM-WHB = Pictorial Representation of Illness and Self Measure-Work-home boundaries.
*p < .05. **p < .01.

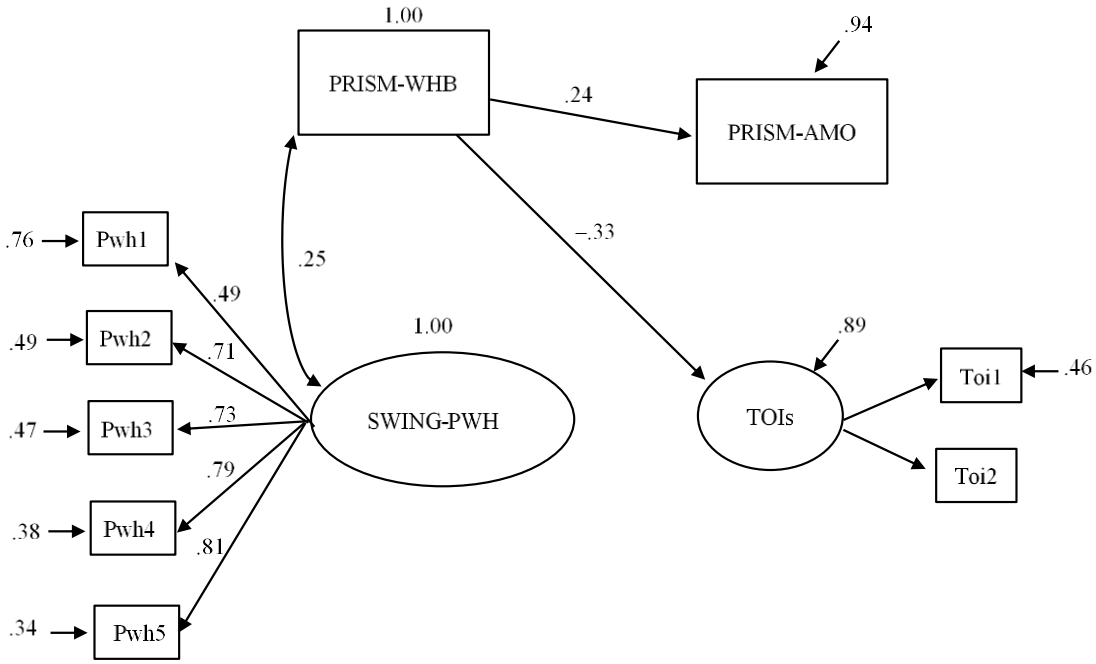

FIGURE 3
Retained model.
SWING-PWH = Survey Work-Home Interaction-Positive work-home; PRISM-AMO = Pictorial Representation of Illness and Self Measure-Amotivation; PRISM-WHB = Pictorial Representation of Illness and Self Measure-Work-home boundaries; TOIs = turnover intentions.

The study's results do not support the hypothesis of mediation. Yet, it is worth emphasizing the findings related to the PRISM's usefulness and how the resulting relationships between variables vary in the Colombian context. With respect to the suitability of the PRISM to measure variables related to the workplace, PRISM-WHB resulted positively related to SWING-PWH. This constitutes evidence of concurrent validity of the PRISM when used to measure balance between work-home dimensions. As opposed to the SWING subscale, PRISM-WHB significantly influenced both PRISM-AMO and TOIs as measured with a multiple-indicator verbal scale.

As shown in Figure 3, the model explained 11% and 6% of the variance of TOIs and PRISM-AMO, respectively. Finally, although the residual variance of the second TOIs indicator was not significant, the item's reliability was satisfactory ($R^2 = .91$, $p < .01$). Thus, the item was retained.

Discussion

With rare exceptions (Krikorian et al., 2014), studies using PRISM have conducted first generation statistical analysis. This is the way to go when analyzing data collected with single-item measures such as PRISM. Yet, when the hypotheses additionally involve latent variables like in the study of Peter et al. (2016), the results of these analyses (e.g., *t*-tests, ANOVA, linear regressions, etc.) use suboptimal factor scores since they omit measurement errors of latent/nonobservable/multiple-items measures (Marsh, Morin, Parker, & Kaur, 2014). For instance, Stefaniak et al. (2012) found a significant correlation between social support measured with PRISM and data collected with a previous validated multiple-items measure. From an analytical point of view, those research results are limited. In the present study, in addition to PRISM the authors used two multiple-items measures (i.e., SWING-PWH and TOIs). To validate the hypothesis of the study and simultaneously verify if data of PWFI collected with PRISM were correlated with scores obtained with the SWING-PWH subscale, a more suitable analytical approach was adopted. By using SEM, the authors provide evidence about the usability of PRISM as a measure in I/O psychology models where other variables have been operationalized using verbal rating/Likert scales. According to the results of this study, the PRISM can be used conjointly with other types of measures in I/O psychology research. Particularly, in studies related to work-family boundaries, amotivation, and turnover intentions. The authors measured two variables with the PRISM and found that those variables were related to data obtained with previously validated verbal scales. In fact, two similar constructs were included in the specified model (i.e., work-family boundaries/PRISM and positive work-family interactions/SWING). By using SEM, the authors simultaneously tested concurrent validity for the PRISM and validated the mediation hypotheses. The results of the study show that PRISM-WHB and SWING-PWH are significantly related. Furthermore, while PRISM-WHB exerted a significant effect on amotivation, the effect of SWING-PWH on the same outcome was absent. It can be argued that the significance of the former effect is due to the use of common measurement biases. The PRISM is considered a measure resistant to biases such as social desirability (Sensky & Büchi, 2016). Moreover, instead of labelling the fixed disk of the PRISM as the self, the authors labelled the organization. This was done in order to prevent the study results from contamination coming from this bias. However, it may be the case that the effect of WHB measured with the PRISM (PRISM-WHB) was partially due to common method bias. Now, amotivation measured with the PRISM (PRISM-AMO) had an effect on TOIs assessed with a verbal multiple-item scale, and the relationship between PRISM-WHB and with the SWING subscale was not excessively high. Therefore, the hypothesis of common method bias affecting the relationship of variables measured with the PRISM would be harder to validate.

The results of this study partially supported the hypothesized model. Although they do not confirm the mediation hypothesis, the findings indicate that work-family boundaries exert a significant effect on the model's endogenous variables. Yet, it seems that in Colombia the supposed mediating variable — amotivation — does not influence employee's TOIs. Previous research results can shed light on these apparently counterintuitive results. In a study that inquired the moderating effect of cultural clusters on the relationship between work-family, job satisfaction, and turnover, Spector et al. (2007) found lower levels of TOIs in Latin America. In the same vein, the correlation of TOIs with job satisfaction was lower in the cluster where Latin American countries were located. According to these authors, their results may respond to the fact that people

from Anglo-Saxon cultures are more prone to respond to difficult work conditions with dissatisfaction and intentions to leave than people from clusters like Latin America. This can explain the results of this study indicating that amotivation does not exert a significant effect on TOIs. Similar to the response of Latin American employees when they encounter difficult work conditions (Spector et al., 2007), even amotivated Colombian workers seem to stay loyal to their employers. Now, work-family boundaries exerted a negative effect on TOIs, while the effect of that variable on amotivation was positive. A plausible explanation for these contradictory results can be found in the work boundaries literature. As mentioned by Ammons (2013), too much proximity between the work and family territories of the self can be problematic for an individual, while the overlap between these dimensions may not cause any problems to another person. It may be also the case that proximity between work and family is perceived in different ways by the same individual. The proximity between work and family can be perceived as balance between these dimensions, leading the individual to value his/her job at the organization and keeping away withdrawal intentions. Sometimes, the same proximity can be perceived by the same individual as an intrusion. This may result in a lack of intentions to act at work, or amotivation. In fact, as respondents interact with their social environment, they constantly form and shape boundaries (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000). Put differently, individuals can reevaluate work-family boundaries (Ammons, 2013).

Future studies adopting longitudinal designs should inquire about the individual and environmental conditions under which the interpretation of work boundaries changes. Further, multilevel analyses can help untangle if these apparently contradictory interpretations and their consequences vary both at the group and individual levels. Additionally, longitudinal designs would favor gathering other evidence about the validity and reliability of the PRISM as a measure of work-family boundaries and motivation. In this way, test-retest and time invariance tests will help to establish the PRISM as a suitable measure in the corresponding research fields.

Conclusions

The PRISM seems to be a good alternative for I/O psychology practitioners and researchers. Its accessibility and easy completion help to make collecting data at the workplace more efficiently. In the same vein, the interpretation of its results is more straightforward. In times where employees are over measured, this is a good alternative to obtain responses relatively free from biases such as social desirability. It can be combined with short verbal-rating scales to inquire about some antecedents of motivation and attitudes at the workplace. Further studies with bigger samples and longitudinal and multilevel designs are needed to confirm the potential of the PRISM as a measure of I/O psychology variables

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