In Search of Perfect Boundaries? Entrepreneurs’ Work-Life Balance

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In Search of Perfect Boundaries? Entrepreneurs’ Work-Life Balance

Abstract

Purpose – Does the self-employed nature of entrepreneurs’ business ventures mean that they have perfect boundaries between their work and nonwork lives? Drawing on border theory, this study examines entrepreneurs’ work-life balance (WLB) in terms of how they construct and manage the borders between their work and nonwork lives.

Design/Methodology/Approach – A qualitative research approach is adopted to enhance understanding of entrepreneurs’ WLB using border theory. The study benefits from its empirical focus on Nigerian migrants in London who represent a distinct minority group living in urban areas in the developed world. Data for the study was collected over a three-month period, utilising semi-structured interviews as the primary method of data collection.

Findings – Our findings indicate that entrepreneurs prioritise ‘work’ over ‘life’ and reveal that entrepreneurs have little desire for boundaries as they work everywhere, which makes long working hours prevalent among them. Furthermore, the findings bring to the fore a prevalent social variance of these entrepreneurs preferring to be unmarried, single, and even divorced as a result of or associated with the entrepreneurs’ boundaries creation and management.

Research Limitations/Implications – The extent to which the findings of this research can be generalised is constrained by the limited and selected sample of the research.

Theoretical Implications – The article highlights the fluidity and permeability of the boundaries between entrepreneurs’ work/nonwork domains and the frequency of border crossing, which is almost uncontrollable, especially from the work domain to the nonwork domain. We describe this as work/nonwork border blurring.

Practical Implications – Research on human resource management (HRM) in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) or businesses in which entrepreneurs operate is evolving. The issue of the size and the nature of an organisation (i.e. labour or product market influences, ownership structures, etc.) have profound implications for human resources (HR) structures, policies, and practices and the quality of the WLB of entrepreneurs. As research on HRM and entrepreneurship is still developing, HRM practice in entrepreneurial business ventures is often organisationally fluid and ad-hoc. The main implication is that there may be little structure in HRM policies and processes in place to support self-employed entrepreneurs in comprehensively managing border crossing and achieving WLB.
Originality/Value – This article provides valuable insights into entrepreneurs’ work/nonwork boundaries, which are hugely influenced by the commodification of time and money. It also enriches work-life border theory and its social constructionist perspective.

Keywords: Border theory, Work-life balance, Entrepreneurs, Nigeria, Self-employed

Introduction

In today’s world of extreme jobs (Hewlett and Luce, 2006), extreme parenting (Jong, 2010), and a fervent search for ‘balance’ (Trunk, 2007), understanding how individuals construct and manage the boundaries between their work and nonwork lives is critical (Annik et al., 2016; Gordon et al., 2017; Trefalt, 2013). This is perhaps the reason boundary management, in the context of the interrelationship between a person’s work and personal life continues to receive increased attention within organisational studies (Clark, 2000; Kreiner et al., 2009; Shumate and Fulk, 2004; Munkejord, 2017). Most of these studies, however, exclusively focused on intersects and the relationships between employees and their organisations with respect to the boundaries between work and home/family domains.

An entrepreneur’s jobs can be very stressful, balancing work and nonwork obligations is often difficult for them (Forson, 2013). Entrepreneurs are unique in that they ‘take on the risk’ between buyers and sellers (Barringer and Ireland, 2016). Entrepreneurs are employers of labour; they are not employed (Fayolle and Gailly, 2008). There are more than 582 million entrepreneurs in the world (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2018).

Furthermore, an increasing number of people around the world continue to launch entrepreneurial ventures to establish themselves as entrepreneurs (Nair and Pandey, 2006). The success of entrepreneurs depends largely on their imagination, their vision, their innovativeness, their ability to take risks, and sometimes their ability to challenge traditional cultural and societal etiquettes (Mathew and Panchanatham, 2011). For entrepreneurs, financial success, personal satisfaction, and the ability to balance work and nonwork responsibilities are crucial success factors (Kirkwood, 2016).

Helping employees to achieve a satisfactory balance between their work and personal lives has been one of the dominant issues in human resource management (HRM) in recent years (Adisa et al., 2017; Parris et al., 2008). Indeed, research has investigated employees’ work-life balance (WLB) within the organisational setting (Adisa et al., 2017; Carlson et al., 2009; Eby et al., 2005). Hundreds of academic articles have been published on employees’ work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and work-family interface using diverse samples from diverse countries (Adisa et al., 2016; Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 2002; O’Driscoll et al., 2006).
A dominant percentage of these studies concentrate on the work and family lives of employees who work for traditional organisations. Over four decades ago, Kanter (1977) explained the ‘myth of separate worlds’ and the inexorable nexus between work and home lives. She argued that organisations are structured in such a way that their leaders are inconsiderate of or ignore employees’ lives outside of work. What then are the approaches and attitudes of self-employed entrepreneurs, who constitute the leadership of their various businesses, towards WLB? According to Clark (2000), people shape their environments and they are also shaped by their environments. This dual status of determining and being determined by one’s work and nonwork environments necessitates a study of how self-employed entrepreneurs construct the boundaries between their work and nonwork lives to achieve WLB. This is a gap in the literature that has not been sufficiently explored on an empirical basis. Self-employment through some form of entrepreneurship has become dominant in most societies, sometimes often associated with the high incidence of unemployment. Consequently, research on how entrepreneurs create, maintain, or change boundaries (between their work and personal lives) in order to simplify, classify, and make sense of the world around them is timely and valuable.

In a European survey, Hatfield (2015) reported that 45% of citizens expressed preference for self-employment over being in paid employment. The desire to find a balance between one’s work and personal lives has also been reported as a reason for self-employment (Hilbrecht and Lero, 2014). Some researchers have pointed to the attendant high job demands evidenced through long working hours and job insecurity among others (Annink et al., 2015; Ebbers and Piper, 2017). Annink et al. (2015) also argued that job demands and resources operate differently for employed persons compared with those who are self-employed.

This article posits that the WLB of people who are employed by organisations (employees) is not the same as the WLB of self-employed entrepreneurs. This is because self-employed entrepreneurs may enjoy some level of freedom and independence, more than is enjoyed by employees of regular organisations (Sullivan, 2018). This is especially the case now that the physical location of the workplace is blurred and extended by mobile information technology (Adisa et al., 2017). A clear weakness in most of the previous studies on the conflict and/or balance between employees’ work and nonwork lives is that the studies consider the family/home of the employees as their only nonwork duties/obligations (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000; Frone, 2003; Kreiner et al., 2009).

Employees are not automatons whose lives revolve helplessly around work and home/family, as many of these studies assume. Other activities and the location of the work also matter.

Drawing on border theory, this study aims to make two contributions. First, it enriches and advances the understanding of self-employed entrepreneurs’ (a unique segment of the labour market) WLB. Second, it contributes to the literature on work-life border
theory with a specific emphasis on self-employed entrepreneurs. The terms ‘border’ and ‘boundary’ are used interchangeably in this article. They are not separately defined; rather, they are used to refer to the demarcation between work and nonwork domains. The remainder of this article is organised as follows: there will be a brief explanation of the relationship between work and private life. Border theory will then be contextualised. The relevant literature on boundary flexibility and permeability will be reviewed, followed by a description of the research methods, a report of the study’s findings, and a discussion of the findings. Thereafter, the implications for theory and practice will be presented, and recommendations for future research will conclude the article.

**Relationship Between Work and Private Life**

In assessing WLB, it is essential to understand the relationship between an individual’s work and private life. Work is presumed to have negative and debilitating effects on private life, especially those aspects of work into which technology is able and has been permitted to creep (Eikhof et al., 2007). Even though work is a source of satisfaction that gives a person a sense of purpose and accomplishment (Gambles et al., 2006; Guest, 2001), work can also have a debilitating effect on a person’s private life and this must be contained in order to achieve WLB (Eikhof et al., 2007). Life or nonwork means life outside work, which a lot of people misconstrue to mean home/family (Osoian et al., 2011; Warhurst et al., 2008). According to Guest (2001, p. 8), “life” means the rest of life after work’. The aspirations to fulfil one’s obligations in these important spheres give rise to ‘balance’.

Parris et al. (2008, p. 105) argue that the customary use of the word ‘balance’, which gives ‘equal weight to work and non-work activities is a misnomer’. The word ‘balance’ does not mean allotting equal time and energy to activities in both the work and nonwork domains (Clarke et al., 2004). Rather, it means ‘satisfaction and good functioning at work and at nonwork domains, with minimum role conflict’ (Clark, 2000, p. 751). For Kesting and Harris (2009, p. 47), it means ‘allowing employees some degree of flexibility over when, where, and how they do their work’.

Therefore, answering the question of whether entrepreneurial work is conducive to WLB might depend on a host of objective, subjective, and temporal factors (Ezzedeen and Zikic, 2017). In a recent investigation, Ezzedeen and Zikic (2017) sought to explore whether entrepreneurial work is conducive to WLB or whether it exacerbates conflicts. They found several subjective and objective factors explaining how entrepreneurial work is sometimes experienced as conflictive and at other times perceived as conducive to balance. Entrepreneurial work may be both conflictive and conducive to WLB (Ezzedeen and Zikic, 2017; Glavin and Schieman, 2012). The ‘boundarylessness’, high permeability, and flexibility that characterises entrepreneurship have been noted in several studies (Ezzedeen and Zikic, 2017; Gudeta and van Engen, 2018).
There is global evidence of blurring and divide between employee’s work and private life. In Ethiopia, Gudeta and van Engen (2018) showed that female entrepreneurs’ jobs often required them to be everywhere and fulfil all their responsibilities by constantly integrating work and life roles. Similarly, using global data, Jensen, Liu and Schøtt (2017) found that the innovative dispositions of Chinese entrepreneurs are hugely beneficial in terms of satisfaction with the balance between their work and personal lives, more so than elsewhere. This was justified by the recent steep increases in the esteem of entrepreneurs and the value accorded to innovation in China (Jensen et al., 2017). Work and life are separate, yet intertwined domains that provide employees with a meaningful sense of existence (Guest, 2001). Understanding the border between them, if there is any, is therefore key to achieving desirable WLB.

Contextualising Border Theory

The article draws on border theory to frame the investigation of how entrepreneurs create, maintain, or change boundaries (between work and personal lives) to simplify, classify, and make sense of the world around them. This is because border theory provides an excellent framework for understanding the ways individuals construct and navigate these boundaries (Clark, 2000). It is often assumed that actors are motivated to manage their work and nonwork borders such that ‘balance’ is achieved (Schieman and Glavin, 2008).

Border theory focuses on the boundaries between work and nonwork domains, which exist along a continuum of integration of roles to achieve balance (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996). Border theory has been applied in diverse contexts (such as art, architecture, organisation theory, anthropology, etc.) to answer a wide variety of research questions (see Ashforth et al., 2000; Katherine, 1991; Kreiner et al., 2006). Boundaries are ‘physical, temporal, emotional, cognitive, and/or relational limits’ (Ashforth et al., 2000, p. 474) which help people to distinguish one domain from another (Trefalt, 2013). Usually, boundaries delimit the perimeter and scope of a given domain for example, a role, a home, a workplace (Kreiner et al., 2009).

Therefore, the work and nonwork domains exist along a continuum of segmentation to integration of roles (Nippert-Eng, 1996). High segmentation implies that the physical and temporal boundaries between work and nonwork roles create separate and distinct domains; by contrast, high integration is when ‘no distinction exists between work and nonwork domains’ (Nippert-Eng, 1996, p. 567). This social construction of boundaries, in order words, means that ‘Segmentors have two key rings, one for work, the other for the house and integrators affix all keys to one key ring’ (Warhurst et al., 2008, p. 10).

Boundaries can be constructed in a continuum from flexible and permeable (weak) to inflexible and impermeable (strong) (Clark, 2000). Weak boundaries are open to influence and are prone to merging aspects of categories, whereas strong boundaries are closed to influence and prone to dividing aspects of categories (Ashforth et al.,...
2000; Kreiner et al., 2009). Individuals differ in the manners in which they construct their boundaries (Clark, 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996).

A clear weakness of previous works on border/boundary theory is the classification of home/family as forming the entire life domain (see Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996). However, home is just one aspect of life. Life involves more than home (Osoian, 2011). It encompasses ‘a myriad of activities including leisure, socialisation, community, and voluntary activities’ (Warhurst et al., 2008, p. 10).

Many professionals consider losing control of their time and their inability to disconnect from work as simply a matter of personal choice and free will, and as such, these people consider themselves ‘work warriors’ and high achievers (Mazmanian et al., 2013). This is typical of today’s workers given the high fluidity and use of mobile electronic devices (see Adisa et al., 2017). Therefore, this study’s investigation and classification of ‘life’ are extended beyond the home/family divide. Drawing on the key concepts of border theory, the border crossing both ways from the work domain to the nonwork domain will be examined.

**Boundary Flexibility and Permeability**

The work and nonwork domains are two asymmetric spheres with a penetrable or permeable space (border) between them (Clark, 2000). The two main characteristic of borders are flexibility and permeability, and borders may differ in their strengths depending on the degree of their flexibility and permeability (Bulger et al., 2007). Border flexibility is the capacity of the border to shift back and forth (Berg and Piszczek, 2012; Cousins and Robey, 2015). Flexibility can also be defined as the malleability of the border between two or more roles (Desrochers and Sargent, 2004) or the ability of the border to expand or contrast to accommodate the demands of another domain (for example, an employee working from home takes the opportunity to collect the children from school) (Desrochers et al., 2012). Thus, flexibility addresses the question of when and where a role can be enacted (Sundaramurthy and Kreiner, 2008).

Border permeability, however, refers to the extent to which a domain’s border is easily penetrated by the thoughts or behaviour connected with another domain. For Ashforth et al. (2000, p. 474), ‘permeability is the degree to which a role allows an employee to be physically located in the role’s domain but psychologically and/or behaviourally involved in another role’. The permeability of any border determines the extent of integration or segmentation of the content of the bounded domains (Kreiner et al., 2009). For example, an employee who can switch easily from nonwork-related responsibilities to deal with work-related issues and vice-versa is said to have a highly permeable border (Glavin and Schieman, 2011). Permeability, according to Nippert-Eng (1996, p. 280), is part of a boundary’s ‘structural profile’. It is the ability of one pre-defined role to encroach upon the physical and temporal territory of
another (Pleck, 1984). Permeability is, thus, central to employees’ movements across the border.

Mazmanian, Orlikowski and Yates’ (2013) major contribution to this debate is understanding how and why workers choose to restrict their autonomy at work, particularly using mobile email devices. The increased use of mobile phone devices has contributed to the escalation of engagement (Mazmanian et al., 2013), which has often led professionals to limit their autonomy over their time. Consequently, this phenomenon intensifies collective expectations of availability, intensifies engagement, and reduces a professional’s ability to disconnect from work. Rather than being a negative development, boundarylessness is perhaps a desirable parsimony in the WLB literature.

Annink et al. (2016) have equally shown that the national context matters in the study of WLB, suggesting, for example, that a higher human development index and greater gender equality are negatively related to WLB, which may be due to higher social expectations and personal responsibility in these contexts. Munkejord (2017) reported differences in the WLB of mothers and fathers who are self-employed immigrant parents in Norway. Meanwhile, Ali et al. (2017) reviewed the empirical literature focusing on Muslim migrant women – another disadvantaged and much less investigated group in the West.

The present research contributes to the understanding of work-life boundary management with a focus on disadvantaged self-employed entrepreneurs who are ethnic minorities. In this respect, previous empirical studies on self-employed people or entrepreneurs have focused on female entrepreneurs (Ali et al., 2017; Gudeta and van Engen, 2018) and parent immigrants (Munkejord, 2017).

This study focuses on disadvantaged ethnic minorities as a sample, thus bringing a different and fresh perspective to the field. Ethnic minority groups living in urban areas may experience far less access to paid work employment and, therefore, many often resort to self-employment. The study seeks to advance knowledge of how these self-employed immigrant entrepreneurs create and manage boundaries between their work and nonwork lives. Specifically, the study seeks to answer two interrelated questions. First, how does such a special group of self-made entrepreneurs contribute to the debate on the intersection between work and personal life domains? Similarly, how do these ethnic minority entrepreneurs, who have hardly been investigated empirically, contribute to the debates on and understanding of work-life border theory? These questions are significant because despite that extant studies may have covered aspects of them by considering mainstream entrepreneurs, study of a sample of largely excluded immigrant ethnic minority entrepreneurs is rare.
Research Method

Given the nature of this study, an exploratory qualitative research approach is adopted as it allows for detailed accounts of the processes and nuances under investigation (Kreiner et al., 2009).

The semi-structured interview method is used, enabling human conversations and interviewees to provide responses conveniently through a discourse of complex interpersonal conversation (Qu and Dumay, 2011). Furthermore, scholars have called for increased use of qualitative methods for studying WLB (Eby et al. 2005; Neal et al., 2006).

The research participants are Nigerians domiciled in the UK. This group was chosen because Africans constitute an industrious minority group living in urban areas that may experience unfair treatment and much less access to paid work employment (Adkins and Jae, 2010; Watson, 2009). Although culturally and ethnically diverse, Nigerians share many similarities with the various other ethnic groups (Africans) living in the UK.

The empirical study was conducted in London, where over one million Nigerians live (Olowoopejo, 2013). Two popular African places of worship (a church and a mosque) were selected as sites to recruit the research participants because these sites regularly attract a large numbers of Nigerian migrants to their congregations. While no incentives were offered for participation, 43 people expressed interest in and willingness to participate in the study by completing a short questionnaire detailing their employment status and their availability for interview. Following Patton (2002), purposeful sampling criteria were devised to select the interviewees.

First, the participants were required to be Nigerians and resident in London. Second, the participants were required to be self-employed entrepreneurs whose trading company is legally registered in the UK. Third, the participants were required to have other roles aside from their work roles that would give rise to the need for them to create and manage boundaries between these roles. In all, 23 individuals met the sampling criteria (Table 1). The participants comprised males (10) and females (13) with care responsibilities, aged between 34 and 52 years old. On average, the participants had spent ten years living in the UK and eight years as self-employed entrepreneurs.

The interviews were conducted over 15 weeks in 2018. The research was approached through the reflective lens of ‘microstoria’, a narrative turn in contemporary social theory that uses of authentic contemporaneous storylines to illuminate social life (Boje, 2001; Imas et al., 2012; Maclean et al., 2016). Microstoria is an appropriate tool for theorising social order and studying marginalised individuals (Muir, 1991). This makes it appropriate for studying the under-researched area of enquiry: the WLB of self-employed entrepreneurs.
The participants were interviewed at different places and times that were convenient for them and the interview process. All interviews were digitally recorded, each lasting approximately 90 minutes. The interviews were transcribed verbatim, and the interviewees were given pseudonyms to preserve confidentiality. The interviewees were invited to relate their experiences of their work and nonwork roles and how they manage these roles to achieve WLB. This helped to generate reflexive data from the participants.

**Insert Table 1 about here**

The data was inductively analysed, adhering closely to the guidelines for naturalistic inquiry (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) and constant comparison techniques (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). These approaches provide the basis for the rigorous collection and analysis of qualitative data. Furthermore, they provide the basis for clear delineating themes and aggregate dimension (Gioia et al., 1994). The researchers identified the initial concepts (conceptual coding) in the data and grouped them into categories (open coding). Axial coding was then undertaken, whereby the researchers searched for the relationships among these categories, which then facilitated assembling them into higher order themes. Furthermore, the data structure was developed with the aggregate dimensions of the triggers of boundary weakness and flexibility in order to explore the viability of boundary crossing and boundary management explanations (Figure 1).
After the coding process was finalised, the findings were crosschecked thoroughly by three of the authors again. An additional reliability check was undertaken by the fourth author and an independent research assistant. This was done to ensure the consistency and reliability of the study. This was then compared with the coding undertaken by the first author based on the same set of transcripts. A satisfactory level of reliability was achieved. Subsequently, reports on the themes were prepared. Finally, similar themes were gathered into different dimensions to form the emergent themes. These techniques form a ‘recursive process-oriented, analytic procedure’ (Locke, 1996, p. 240), which ensures that saturation has been achieved. The final data structure is illustrated in Figure 1. It is important to note that the quotations below represent the views and experiences of the majority of the participants.
Findings

Our study focuses on how self-employed entrepreneurs create and manage boundaries between their work and nonwork lives to achieve balance. Drawing on border theory, this study identifies the following themes: ‘Work’ is prioritised over ‘life’; work takes place everywhere, no desire for boundaries; long working hours; and single and divorced syndrome as factors associated with entrepreneurs’ creation and management of boundaries.

Work is Prioritised Over Life

Employees that work in traditional organisations are naturally expected to experience difficulties in combining their work and nonwork responsibilities due to the required commitments and expectations from their various employers (see Adisa et al., 2017; Adisa et al., 2016; Eikhof et al., 2007). One would expect that entrepreneurs would enjoy the self-employed nature of their business ventures since most of them elected to become entrepreneurs. This study’s findings suggest that entrepreneurs prioritise work over life due to their desire to be successful and their various financial commitments, both in the UK and in Nigeria. A participant commented:

“I don’t earn salaries from nobody, my work pays my salaries, which I use to sort out my family’s financial needs. I also need to support my family in Nigeria. I am physically and psychologically engrossed in my business, I pay more attention and spend more time attending to it than any other thing” (Clara).

Clara values her work and channels most of her time and energy to attending to her work commitments, more so than her nonwork activities in order to be able to fulfil her financial commitments. Another participant explained why he prioritises work over life:

“I migrated to the UK to make money and for that reason my work takes up more than 60% of my time, energy, and attention…I also want to be a successful entrepreneur” (Lookman).

Another participant puts it more succinctly:

“I came to London to make money. My work pays my bills, provides for my immediate family’s financial needs, and cares for my parents’ and siblings’ financial needs in Nigeria. Also, I am determined to make a success of my business…it takes a whole lot of my time” (Ajoke).

Motivated by financial obligations and the desire for success, the participants seem to prioritise work over life. Most of the participants are their family’s breadwinners, and they take on many responsibilities. They give precedence to their work over their nonwork lives. This has a major impact on how they create boundaries between their
work and life domains. The border between work and life would be impregnable because activities in the nonwork life domains are not a priority.

**Work Takes Place Everywhere – No Desire for Boundaries**

For most of the participants, work takes place everywhere, and this considerably negates the ‘segmentors’ notion of keeping work and nonwork domains separate in order to create and maintain boundaries between the two domains (Nippert-Eng, 1996; Zerubavel, 1991). Moreover, most of the participants prioritised work over life, and their desire to create distinct boundaries between work and nonwork domains is almost non-existent. Even though the participants acknowledged that permeable borders make them work more, they consciously desired permeable boundaries for the progress of their businesses.

An overwhelming majority of the entrepreneurs are ‘integrators’, who hardly create clear borders between work and nonwork domains. One participant commented:

“Well, I don’t work 9am to 5pm, and I am not confined to an office. I am a self-employed entrepreneur. I take credit for my success, and I accept the blame for my success. For these reasons, I really do not have boundaries between my work and nonwork activities. I work anytime and everywhere, and I think I am cool with that” (Flora).

Other participants also commented on time and work boundaries and their significance in being successful entrepreneurs:

“Time is money. I don’t have a time or place where I cannot work. I work everywhere, and I think it is absolutely important for the success of my business. Placing boundaries between work time and nonwork time, workplace, and non-workplace will negatively affect my business….so I don’t do it” (Aminu).

“Time is precious, and it is money. I am always with my laptop which facilitates my working at anytime and anywhere. Everywhere is my office” (Laide).

The commodification of time and money together with the participants’ desire to make success of their businesses do not only depict entrepreneurs as ‘integrators’, who essentially remove boundaries between the work and nonwork domains; but also illustrate the shifts between and the significance of time and place boundaries. DeVoe and Pfeffer (2011) question if time pressure is directly related to the higher economic value of time, suggesting that rising income over the past several decades within many countries can help explain the so-called modern time bind experience. Evans et al. (2004), on the other hand doubt whether organisational life is as problematic for workers’ ability to control their time as the literature suggests. Working for
organisations may, therefore, actually consume less time of a worker than working freely as contractors in markets does (Evans et al., 2004), which is more akin to an entrepreneur’s work habits and style.

Regarding the lack of desire for boundaries between work and personal lives, one participant commented:

“Look, I want to make a lot of money, so I work more because I work at all times and everywhere…that’s what is required to be a successful entrepreneur. I don’t like boundaries, they will hinder my entrepreneurial skills and success” (Ola).

Another participant commented on the impact of mobile information technology on the creation of boundaries. Mobile information technology enhances the entrepreneurs’ work, ensuring that it is not confined to traditional times and space. One participant commented:

“I don’t have boundaries. With my laptop and iPad and of course the wireless Internet service, there are no boundaries…everywhere is my workplace. For example, I was on the train to Paris last week. I worked on my laptop throughout the journey” (Ade).

Another participant commented:

“I don’t do boundaries between work and nonwork, because it will give my business setbacks. Aside that, mobile information technology, such as laptops, iPad, iPhone, Blackberries, etc., actually make working everywhere and anytime easy, and I love it. It makes me work more, though, but it’s fine” (Bambo).

The desire to have boundaries between work and nonwork domains is not popular among the participants. All of the participants do not want a demarcation between their work and nonwork lives. They desire permeable boundaries that will enable them to work at any time and everywhere. Mazmanian et al. (2013) revealed that professionals, for example, were restricting their autonomy by using mobile email devices and yet believing these actions were enhancing their freedom and capacity to perform as professionals. They consequently argued that this autonomy paradox contributes to the ongoing debate both on autonomy in the workplace and the use of mobile communication technologies in contemporary organisations.

**Long Working Hours**

The data indicated that, on average, the participants spend 13 hours per day, including weekends and bank holidays, working on their businesses. There was no substantial
difference between the genders of the participants in terms of the hours that they work. However, the male entrepreneurs worked slightly more hours than the female entrepreneurs (see Table 1). Generally, the participants work very long hours to look after their businesses and to fulfil the 24/7 requirement of the global economy. All of the participants believe that long working hours is an important requirement for entrepreneurial success. One participant commented:

“I told you that I work for 10 hours per day…that is the minimum. There are times that I work a lot more than that. I need to put in longer hours to achieve success” (Flora).

Another participant commented:

“I work as many hours at home as I work at the office, otherwise my business will suffer. The clients want to be able to reach you at any time, and I have to live up to that. The good thing is that I am my own boss…I can schedule and reschedule my time and activities” (James).

Subomi explained the danger of working reduced hours or measuring working time for an entrepreneur:

“As an entrepreneur, I normally work for longer hours to attend to my customers and to put things in order. I can’t start to set starting and finishing work times because it will affect my success. An entrepreneur may choose to work reduced hours but she may lose customers because her customers will go elsewhere when she is not available. So, in this era of a 24/7 economy, long working hours are required for entrepreneurial success.”

Long working hours have a huge impact on the creation and management of boundaries between entrepreneurs’ work and private lives.

Unmarried, Single, and Divorced Syndrome
The participants recounted the impact of their status as entrepreneurs on their marital statuses, which is important. Four participants attributed their single status to the demands of their businesses. The participants described their status as entrepreneurs as very demanding and time-consuming which they dread to combine with marital responsibilities. The four participants cited this as one of the reasons they are yet unmarried. One of the participants commented:

“I have really worked hard to bring my business this far. It takes up a lot of my time…at the least, I work 12 hours every day. Even when I’m at home, I am either attending to a client online or talking to friends who are also entrepreneurs about work. As a Nigerian
woman, I will definitely not be able to do all of these things when I am married. That is why I am sort of delaying marriage...yes, my work is the reason why I am still single” (Joy).

Joy’s comment resonates with other participants’ ordeals, which show how entrepreneurs struggle with combining marital relationships and responsibilities with their entrepreneurial activities. Two participants, male and female, claimed to have lost their marriages due to work pressures. The male participant commented:

“My entrepreneurial activities are time-consuming and very demanding...they affected my marriage. I did not have time for my wife, and she often complained about my attitude of bringing work home and working late. She eventually divorced me when she could not take it any more” (Ike).

The female participant said:

“I lost my marriage because I did not have time for my family. My business takes up a lot of my time. I work at all times even at home, and my husband was really not happy about it. We ended the marriage when he asked me to choose between my work and the marriage. Of course, I opted for the former because I have invested so much of my life in it” (Funmi).

Out of the 23 participants, 8 are divorced and they all attributed the main cause of their marriage breakdowns to a lack of time for their families and their attitude of bringing work home, which eventually ended their marriages.

The porosity of the border is termed ‘work/nonwork border blurring’ and there are profound overlaps between the entrepreneurs’ work and nonwork domains, making a case for ‘boundaryless’ borders. There is basically no distinction between entrepreneurs’ work and nonwork domains as work activities occur in both domains, and so do life activities. A great deal of role integration occurs in order to achieve entrepreneurial success, thus blurring work-life boundaries.

Discussion

Drawing on border theory (Clark, 2000), this study has examined how entrepreneurs create and manage the borders between their work and nonwork lives. For some people, whatever happens at work, stays at work, and whatever happens outside the work domain also remains there. For entrepreneurs, however, the parameters of the work-nonwork interface are not demarcated. Entrepreneurs experience excessive and frequent role blurring due to the thin and very weak borders that exist between their work and nonwork lives. The borders are extremely porous making work-life
interference among entrepreneurs bi-directional and a norm rather than an exception. This phenomenon is described by Kreiner et al. (2009, p. 719) as ‘allowing differential permeability’. The participants’ financial commitments (both in their domicile and native countries) and their keen desire to be successful trigger their prioritisation of work over life. This, consequently, results in very weak boundaries.

Researchers have, therefore, argued that thin or weak boundaries are open to influence and are prone to merging aspects of categories because flexibility and permeability happen the most in the border area (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000; Kreiner et al., 2009; Munkejord, 2017). Entrepreneurs characteristically regard and shift their attention predominantly to the work domain because it is crucial to making money and being successful, and they tend to move with the work domain everywhere they go. This is consistent with the boundary theory tenet that individuals often act proactively to shape the work/nonwork boundary to suit their needs (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000). As described by Nippert-Eng (1996), entrepreneurs are integrators who keep one key ring for both work and nonwork domain. Entrepreneurs make no distinction between the domains. Thus, work activities take place in the nonwork domain and nonwork activities also take place in the work domain. The notion of ‘time is money, and money is precious’ has turned everywhere into a workplace for entrepreneurs, with no start and no finish time for work.

The success of achieving a satisfactory conception of boundary depends on individuals’ preferences for boundaries (Mellner et al., 2014; Rodrigues et al., 2015). This is because individuals differ in the extent to which they fence off their work life from their nonwork life (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Additionally, the establishment of boundaries by individuals is a matter of personal preference (Rothbard et al., 2005). The findings of this study reveal that entrepreneurs, regardless of their marital status, desire permeable boundaries which enable them to attend to their customers/clients at all times. de Man et al. (2008) and Kossek et al. (1999) hypothesised that the higher the preference of an employee for integrating the roles of each domain, the more permeable the work/nonwork boundary is. Some researchers have shown that self-employment can be used as a strategy for coping with the competing demands of work and family lives (Johansson, et al 2015). The study found that preferences for domain role integration is further enhanced by mobile information technology, such as laptops, iPads, smartphones, mobile internet service connections, etc. which allow entrepreneurs to move around and attend to their work activities.

Furthermore, the entrepreneurs’ work characteristics and their tendency to influence boundary permeability have been found to stretch the traditional working times and workspace, leading to increased working hours (Peshev, 2017). This is further compounded by the requirement to meet the needs of the 24/7 economy, which requires entrepreneurs to be reachable at all times. Separation of domain roles may put entrepreneurs at a disadvantage in terms of meeting these requirements. The findings presented in this study add further conceptual thought and empirical
evidence to the work-life boundary debate, which has heavily been concentrated on work and home/family.

Based on empirical evidence from this study, we argue that entrepreneurs’ work-life boundaries are imperfect and extremely porous, such that work indiscriminately intrudes into nonwork life. This, in essence, means that a great deal of overlap occurs through the dismantling of boundaries. This is consistent with previous research that suggests that blurring increases the risk of work invading nonwork (for example, Gambles et al., 2006; Olson-Buchanan and Boswell, 2006; Gudeta et al, 2017). Nonetheless, these findings make an important contribution to the debate on border theory using a unique sample of ethnic minority entrepreneurs. The self-employment drive here brings personal satisfaction, providing an opportunity to spend more time on the non-work sphere, which in turn positively energises and reinforces further work sphere achievements. The reported challenges surrounding work seem largely self-inflicted, yet enjoyed.

An intriguing result of this study is that there are complications associated with balancing work and nonwork roles among entrepreneurs. For example, some participants explain that their status as entrepreneurs is the reason they are not married. This is because being married would negatively affect border crossing, which in turn would be detrimental to their entrepreneurial success. Furthermore, some participants attributed their failed marriages to excessive intrusion (frequent border crossing) of work activities into nonwork lives.

Consequently, the entrepreneurs experience much work-family conflict because their spouses did not appreciate work intruding into family lives. It is noteworthy that marriage is quite important to Africans. African societies frown upon prioritising a career over and above family or the possibility of starting a family, or if a career negatively affects a person’s family (Mordi et al., 2010). Nevertheless, this phenomenon does not seem to be a deterrent to making a success of an entrepreneurial career.

According to Perlow (1998), negotiating the boundaries between work and nonwork lives involves patterns of a relational process, which could either proclaim border crossers’ spouses as ‘acceptors’ or ‘resisters’. ‘Acceptors’ tolerate frequent border crossing, while ‘resisters’ detest it (Perlow, 1998). In this context, the participants’ spouses are ‘resisters’. Boundary flexibility and permeability are often identified as emancipatory means through which individuals balance their work and nonwork responsibilities (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000; Kreiner et al., 2009). Yet, this does not fit with the accounts of the participants of this study. It would, therefore, seem there are significant derivable benefits enjoyed by these self-employed entrepreneurs.

Entrepreneurial success is predicated on the entrepreneurs’ ability to move freely across the borders which includes working at home, in the car, in a place of worship, etc., and at any time. Paradoxically, border flexibility and permeability, which are
Supposed to be a source of achieving perfect WLB, actually drift entrepreneurs towards a perfect imbalance. This, therefore, raises a salient question: Do perfect boundaries exist? It is herein argued that achieving perfect work-life boundaries, for entrepreneurs, is implausible. The self-employed nature of their business ventures, purported to help them achieve good WLB actually exerts pressure to achieve entrepreneurial success.

Conclusions

This study provides a holistic and nuanced picture of work/nonwork boundary management, using unusual self-employed entrepreneurs as the study sample. The study has discussed the asymmetrically permeable boundaries between entrepreneurs’ work/nonwork domains and the frequency of the ruthless, almost uncontrollable, intrusion especially from the work domain to the nonwork domain. As argued earlier, the majority of previous research on border theory has focused on the construction of boundaries between work and home/family (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000; Kreiner et al., 2009; Nippert-Eng, 1996). Furthermore, the samples of these studies were employees who work in traditional organisational settings. In contrast, this study introduces the discussion about self-employed individuals in the context of work/life border theory and argues that perfect boundaries for self-employed entrepreneurs are difficult to achieve if not impossible. It is important that this gap is filled.

Several significant implications for practice emerge from this study. First, the findings of this study highlight an important barrier to the achievement of WLB among entrepreneurs and other self-employed individuals. It demonstrates some practical realities concerning the establishment of boundaries between work and nonwork domains, including potential challenges that may inform planning. It also provides researchers with direct opportunities that can inform future studies, thereby helping entrepreneurs to achieve WLB. The specific findings with respect to the prevalence of marital separation are key in this sample. These findings highlight the importance of cultural expectations and normative values. While this study may require deeper interrogation in future studies, yet it adds richness and depth to the discussion of work-life border theory.

Second, engaging in any occupation requires managing work and nonwork demands to varying degrees, depending on the status of the employees/workers. However, understanding the nature of these demands and the tactics required for managing them has many practical implications (Kreiner et al., 2009). Research on HRM in SMEs or among businesses in which entrepreneurs operate is still evolving (Cassell et al., 2002; Wilkinson, 1999). Based on the data presented in this study, the researchers posit that there seems to be little or no structure of HRM policies, processes, and practices...
to help self-employed entrepreneurs manage boundaries between their work and nonwork lives and thereby achieve WLB.

There are lessons to be learnt from the application of several WLB and employee friendly initiatives applied in large corporations. Wang and Verma (2012) established that industries vary in their adoption of WLB initiatives, thus supporting the institutional theory of organisational responsiveness to WLB issues. It is essential that self-employed entrepreneurs are guided by appropriate HRM policies, processes, and practices as well as HRM best practices. This will help them harmonise their work and nonwork lives.

The potential limitations of the study provide opportunities for future research agenda. First, the extent to which the findings of this research can be generalised is constrained by the limited and selective sample of the research. Therefore, future research may study a diverse sample of entrepreneurs perhaps in different contexts, developed and developing nations, following the suggestion made by Dobbs and Hamilton (2007). This may reveal the dynamics of the boundaries and boundary work tactics among different groups of people potentially in different contexts. Second, future research may use a quantitative approach using cross-sectional or longitudinal data to examine the construction and management of boundaries between work and life among self-employed entrepreneurs.

Third, understanding the different types of entrepreneurs and their entrepreneurial characteristics are essential – from the very micro-level business venture managed for basic survival (worth a few hundreds or thousands) to well-known billionaire entrepreneurs whose businesses are worth several billions. Such an understanding may enhance the management of their WLB. Future studies might carefully categorise entrepreneurs to determine at what size an entrepreneur might, for example, be considered more like a paid employee than the borderless and boundaryless worker that this research has examined.

References


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